

Cosmological Lithium Solution from Discrete Gauged *B*-*L*

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The cosmological lithium problem—that theory predicts a primordial abundance far higher than the observed value—has resisted decades of attempts by cosmologists, nuclear physicists, and astronomers alike to root out systematics. We reconsider this problem in the setting of the standard model extended by gauged baryon minus lepton number, which we spontaneously break by a scalar with charge six. Cosmic strings from this breaking can support interactions converting three protons into three positrons, and we argue that an “electric”–“magnetic” interplay can give this process an amplified, strong-scale cross section in an analog of the Callan-Rubakov effect. We suggest such cosmic strings have disintegrated $\mathcal{O}(1)$ of the primordial lithium nuclei, and lay out what is necessary for this scheme to succeed. To our knowledge this is the first new physics mechanism with microphysical justification for the abundance of lithium uniquely to be modified after big bang nucleosynthesis.

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The lithium problem.—Big bang nucleosynthesis (BBN) is the theory of the formation of light nuclei a few minutes after the hot big bang, and is the earliest epoch of the Universe for which we have direct evidence. In the framework of the standard models (SM) of particle physics and cosmology, BBN is essentially a parameter-free cross-check on our understanding of the universe. The status is given by the comparison of theoretical predictions and empirical observations of just three quantities [1–4]: The primordial abundances of deuterium with one proton, of helium-4 with two protons, and of lithium-7 with three protons.

While theory and observation agree well for hydrogen and helium, there has been a consistent mystery regarding the abundance of lithium [5,6] beginning with observations in 1982 by Spite and Spite [7,8], and the current best values are shown in Table I. Physicists have spent decades looking for systematics, and the uncertainties initially present in the relevant SM, nuclear, and Λ CDM parameters have long since been ironed out by fantastic precision experimental and observational programs.

The remaining worry arises since the empirical data on “primordial” lithium comes primarily from measurements of its abundance in the atmospheres of metal-poor, population II stars in the Milky Way. While we must necessarily use nearby sources due to the scarcity of lithium,

elementary stellar dynamics suggests we can access the primordial abundance by observing the “Spite plateau” of lithium as a function of stellar temperature flattening out above the point where convection becomes confined to the upper, cooler layers of the star. There are now observations of the Spite plateau in many diverse environments (e.g., [9–22]).

The situation is still under active investigation by many scientists. On the theoretical side, there is no well-accepted new stellar dynamics mechanism that could be responsible, though there have been proposals [23–30]. On the observational side, astronomers continue to further probe the Spite plateau in a variety of innovative directions [31–40].

After so long with the prospects for an astrophysical resolution still unclear, some new physics mechanisms have been explored—mainly fundamental constants varying to modify early-Universe nuclear rates [41–51] or decaying dark matter disrupting reactions [52–77]. See also [78–92] for further ideas. In our diagnosis, these approaches have been stymied by not uniquely picking out lithium to be affected, and they generally encounter severe difficulties with putting other observables into tension.

TABLE I. For reference, the status of the number density of lithium-7 relative to that of hydrogen, taken from the recent review and status update [1].

	(${}^7\text{Li}/\text{H}$)
Observation	$(1.6 \pm 0.3) \times 10^{-10}$
Theory	$(4.7 \pm 0.7) \times 10^{-10}$

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TABLE II. Representations of the left-handed SM Weyl fermions (and the sterile neutrino) under the classical symmetries of the SM.

	Q	\bar{u}	\bar{d}	L	\bar{e}	$\bar{\nu}$
$SU(3)_C$	3	$\bar{3}$	$\bar{3}$
$SU(2)_L$	2	2
$U(1)_Y$	+1	-4	+2	-3	+6	...
$U(1)_B$	+1/3	-1/3	-1/3
$U(1)_L$	+1	-1	-1

We are motivated by the surprisingly long lifetime of the proton and its exact stability in the SM to take advantage of the exact SM selection rule

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta(\# \text{ of baryons}) &= \Delta(\# \text{ of leptons}) \\ &= 0 \pmod{\text{number of generations}}.\end{aligned}$$

Since the SM has $N_g = 3$ generations of particles and the BBN predictions first fail for lithium with three protons, this symmetry could explain why elements with one or two protons are unaffected. This allows us to construct—to our knowledge—the first new physics mechanism for the lithium abundance to be discrepant, which does not require tuning to avoid modifying the abundances of other elements.

We must go only slightly beyond the SM to find our effect of interest. In brief, we will break gauged baryon minus lepton number to a discrete subgroup which will produce a large abundance of cosmic string loops. These topological defects amplify the $B + L$ violation, and we introduce a model in which leptoquarks communicate this violation in a way which picks out solely processes in which three protons are turned into three positrons. We propose that such cosmic strings have disintegrated lithium nuclei in the early Universe, reducing the primordial abundance to the level inferred from astronomical observations. In this Letter we will put together the various pieces of field theory and cosmology behind this mechanism, and estimate the rate to demonstrate its plausibility. Precise predictions will require much further work.

New physics setting.—We extend the standard model by gauging $U(1)_{B-L}$, and address the ‘t Hooft anomaly [93] and neutrino oscillations by adding right-handed neutrinos. The fermion charges are given in Table II. To Higgs this gauge symmetry we introduce a scalar Φ with

$$[\Phi]_{B-L} = 2N_g, \quad [\Phi]_{B+L} = 0, \quad \langle \Phi \rangle = v, \quad (1)$$

which condenses in the early Universe at a temperature $T_c \sim v$. The global symmetry-breaking pattern providing selection rules is

$$U(1)_{B-L} \times \mathbb{Z}_{N_g}^L \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{2N_g}^{B-L} \times \mathbb{Z}_{N_g}^L \supset \mathbb{Z}_{2N_g}^{B+L}, \quad (2)$$

where the anomaly-free subgroup of baryon plus lepton number is generated by $(1, 1) \in \mathbb{Z}_{2N_g}^{B-L} \times \mathbb{Z}_{N_g}^L$. While this Higgsing is “nonminimal” in the sense that $[\Phi] > 1$, this choice of $[\Phi]$ preserves the SM selection rule that stabilizes the proton [94–98].

Discrete gauge theory.—The nontrivial Higgs charge $[\Phi]_{B-L}$ means its condensation preserves an unbroken discrete $\mathbb{Z}_{2N_g}^{B-L}$ gauge symmetry [99–103] and stable cosmic string solutions exist with tension $\mu \sim v^2$. The transverse slices of a static, z -independent string are Abrikosov-Nielsen-Olesen vortices [104,105] and have asymptotics

$$\Phi(\rho, \theta) \rightarrow ve^{ik\theta}, \quad \vec{A}(\rho, \theta) \rightarrow \frac{k}{g} \frac{1}{2N_g} \hat{\theta}, \quad (3)$$

with \vec{A} the $B - L$ gauge boson, g the $U(1)_{B-L}$ “electric” charge, and $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ the winding number of Φ . With nonzero winding, continuity in the interior demands a zero in the Higgs field and indeed the $B-L$ symmetry is unbroken in a string “core” of radius $R \sim v^{-1}$. These solutions have discrete $U(1)_{B-L}$ “magnetic” fluxes

$$\Phi_B = \frac{2\pi}{g} \frac{k}{2N_g} \quad (4)$$

confined to their cores. This magnetic flux is in “fractional” units of $1/(2N_g)$ that of the Dirac magnetic charge quantum $\Phi_0 = 2\pi/g$ [106], so the string is stable and interacts via the Aharonov-Bohm (AB) effect [107,108] for the unbroken discrete symmetry. The cosmic strings undergo elastic AB scattering with all the SM fermions of differential cross section per unit length (for a plane wave of $B - L$ charge q and momentum p incident on a string) [109]

$$\frac{1}{\ell} \frac{d\sigma}{d\theta} = \frac{\sin^2(\pi q \Phi_B / \Phi_0)}{2\pi p \sin^2(\theta/2)}, \quad (5)$$

which is independent of any high scales or small couplings.

Strings in cosmology.—During an early Universe phase transition, topological defects are produced proportional to the correlation length ξ of the order parameter fluctuations. Causality ensures this is no larger than the Hubble distance $\xi \lesssim d_h$, so that at a critical temperature $T_c \sim v$, $\mathcal{O}(1)$ horizon-crossing strings of length $d_h = 2H^{-1}(T_c) \sim M_{pl}/v^2 = (G\mu)^{-1}\ell_{pl}$ per Hubble volume are formed [110,111], d_h being the Hubble size, H the Hubble parameter, and $G\mu \sim v^2/M_{pl}^2$ a dimensionless measure of the gravitational effects of the strings. At formation, these long strings contain energy density

$$\rho_{\text{string}} \sim \frac{\mu d_h}{d_h^3} \sim (G\mu)^{+1} \rho_{\text{tot}}, \quad (6)$$

a small fraction of the total. The elastic AB scattering with the SM plasma provides a total transverse cross section per unit length of $\sigma_{\perp}/\ell \sim 1/T$, which leads to a long epoch of friction-dominated evolution until the temperature drops below $T_f \lesssim v^2/M_{\text{pl}}$ [112].

When cosmic strings encounter each other, they “intercommute” with probability approaching unity [113–126]. This results in the production of small-scale structure on the strings [127–131] and many closed loops from strings crossing themselves. String loops oscillate and shrink via gravitational radiation [132–134], which dissipates energy and prevents the strings from dominating the density budget [135].

After decades, we now understand the behavior of the cosmic string network at late times and on large scales: There is an attractor “scaling” solution where the length spectrum of loops depends only on the ratio with the horizon distance ℓ/d_h [114,115,136–140]. The small scale behavior of this scaling population is assumed to continue down to the “gravitational cutoff” scale $\ell \sim (G\mu)d_h$, at which length a loop evaporates within a Hubble time, which leads to a large number of “small” such loops, $n \sim (G\mu)^{-0.7}$ [141].

However, the regime relevant for their effects on lithium requires understanding cosmic strings far before the infrared fixed point is reached. In addition to being very difficult to study, this is sensitive to details such as the strength of the phase transition, since the correlation length of Higgs fluctuations may, in fact, be quite small compared to the horizon length $\xi \ll d_h$, resulting in a far greater initial number density of defects [142–144]. The small-scale behavior is also sensitive to the details of intercommutation dynamics, and furthermore the presence of currents on the strings may stabilize them against decay and result in a large portion of energy density in cosmic string “vortons” [145–151]. For these reasons, rather than attempting to model the evolution of the phase space of cosmic strings, below we will simply parametrize their effects on lithium disintegration in terms of the fraction of the energy density which is in cosmic strings.

Topological defect catalysis.—We wish to consider interactions which destroy lithium nuclei by turning three protons into three positrons, thereby violating $B + L$ by $2N_g$ units. We utilize a stringy analog of the Callan-Rubakov effect where grand unified monopoles “catalyze” proton decay at strong scale rates $\sigma(p^+ + \text{monopole} \rightarrow e^+ + \text{monopole}) \sim \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^{-2}$. For monopoles, the inevitability of such inelastic interactions can be seen purely from the infrared [106,152–166]. An ultraviolet description for the monopole [167–175] allows one to resolve the microphysical interactions and see $p^+ \rightarrow e^+$ arising from interactions with leptoquarks in the core and the anomalous violation of $B + L$ [176–194].

The cosmic string case has seen far less study, and no infrared argument for this catalysis effect is yet known. To

provide an explicit benchmark—and to give a microphysical model targeting this mechanism toward the cosmological lithium problem—we introduce ultraviolet physics which lets us map our case on to a model studied by Alford, March-Russell, and Wilczek in 1989 [195] in which a leptoquark condenses inside cosmic strings of some broken gauged $\widetilde{U(1)} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_N$. In that model the leptoquark allows $p^+ \rightarrow e^+$ violation of $B + L$, but here we instead introduce a gauge-singlet scalar χ with

$$[\chi]_{B-L} = 0, \quad [\chi]_{B+L} = 2N_g, \quad \langle \chi \rangle = 0, \quad (7)$$

but which condenses on the string core so long as

$$\partial_\chi^2 V(\Phi, \chi)|_{\Phi=0} < 0 \rightarrow \langle \chi \rangle_{\Phi=0} = v_\chi. \quad (8)$$

This breaks solely the global approximate $U(1)_{B+L}$ on the string core down to the subgroup preserved by the SM, and the condensate allows the string core to exchange $2N_g$ units of $B + L$ charge with the outside world [196].

The infrared symmetries forbid interactions of χ with fewer than twelve SM fermions, but we can explicitly generate one such interaction by introducing the scalar leptoquark ω_ℓ with hypercharge 8 and its analog diquark ω_q , as well as the gauge singlet scalar ω_s with $B = L = 1$. This choice of scalars (see Table III) allows the nontrivial interactions

$$\mathcal{L} \supset \lambda_\ell \omega_\ell \bar{d} \bar{e} + \lambda_q \omega_q^\dagger \bar{u} \bar{u} + \kappa \omega_\ell^\dagger \omega_q \omega_s + \lambda_\chi \omega_s^3 \chi^\dagger. \quad (9)$$

Around the vacuum the Feynman diagram portrayed in Fig. 1 generates the operator

$$\mathcal{L} \sim \frac{1}{v^{15}} \chi (\bar{u} \bar{u} \bar{d} \bar{e})^3, \quad (10)$$

and $B + L$ violation on the string core is communicated only to electrons and protons in our model. We further take the mediators ω to be light in the string core, so this suppression by v disappears when the SM fermions are

TABLE III. Representations of the scalars added in our benchmark model. Cosmic strings appear from the winding of Φ in the vacuum, the condensation of χ on the string allows it to freely exchange $B + L$, and the scalars ω communicate $B + L$ -breaking by χ to the right-handed SM fields.

	Φ	χ	ω_ℓ	ω_q	ω_s
$SU(3)_C$	3	3	...
$SU(2)_L$
$U(1)_Y$	-8	-8	...
$U(1)_B$	+3	+3	+1/3	-2/3	+1
$U(1)_L$	-3	+3	+1	0	+1

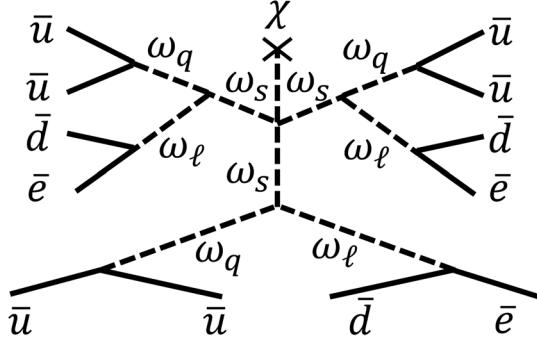


FIG. 1. A Feynman diagram portraying our benchmark for how the $B + L$ -breaking effects of the χ vev get communicated to the SM fermions at low energies.

interacting with the χ vev in the core, and we have set all couplings to unity and scales equal for simplicity.

In the model of Alford, March-Russell, and Wilczek [195], the Yukawa interaction allows an incoming quark to inelastically scatter into a lepton by exciting the leptoquark condensate, and the \mathbb{Z}_N discrete gauge field background enhances the cross section. When the discrete gauge charge of the incoming quark is maximal, the cross section is unsuppressed by ultraviolet scales, as in the Callan-Rubakov effect. In our case, we instead have an interaction of many SM partons with the string condensate.

However, in the cosmological case of interest, a ${}^7\text{Li}$ nucleus delivers a state of three protons $\psi_{3p} \sim (\bar{u}\bar{u}\bar{d})^3$ incident upon the string. To map our model to [195], we rewrite Eq. (10) as a Yukawa interaction between ψ_{3p} , the nine quarks in three protons, and ψ_{3e} , the three positrons. Adapting their results while ignoring many subtleties about this matching, we infer that an incoming plane wave of $B-L$ charge q and momentum p undergoes enhanced inelastic scattering with a long cosmic string as

$$\frac{\sigma}{\ell} \sim \frac{1}{p} \sin^2(\pi\alpha) \left(\frac{p}{v} \right)^{4|\alpha-\frac{1}{2}|}, \quad \alpha \equiv \frac{kq}{2N_g}, \quad (11)$$

where we are generalizing Eqs. [18–21] of [195]. The inelastic scattering is unsuppressed by ultraviolet scales for an incoming state with $B-L$ charge $q = N_g$ in the case of a single-winding string. We note also that topological defect interactions can violate crossing symmetry, as may be understood simply for monopoles [165], so, for example, crossing one proton to an outgoing antiproton results in a drastically suppressed cross section because the incoming state no longer has maximal \mathbb{Z}_{2N_g} charge nor half-integer spin, which is also crucial for catalysis [195]. This suppression is useful for ensuring consistency with observations of primordial helium, and it would be interesting to understand precisely the subleading rate at which helium might be affected.

Parameter space.—In the early Universe after BBN, just such a $q = N_g$ state of three protons may be delivered to the

string within the nuclear potential well of ${}^7\text{Li}$. (In fact BBN initially produces ${}^7\text{Be}$ which then captures an electron to produce ${}^7\text{Li}$ [197]. While in much of the parameter space it is ${}^7\text{Be}$ which is being destroyed, in any case these are the only elements with more than 2 protons, so our selection rule still serves to distinguish them.) We assume string loops have a cross section per unit length

$$\frac{\sigma}{\ell} (3p^+ + \text{string} \rightarrow 3e^+ + \text{string}) \sim \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^{-1}, \quad (12)$$

but note again that there are necessarily large theoretical uncertainties here.

However a first question is just whether such interactions can plausibly destroy an order-one fraction of lithium nuclei after BBN. Because of the complications discussed above, we will not attempt to model the evolution of the phase space of string loops, but instead content ourselves to parametrize their effects as a function of the fraction of energy density in cosmic strings. We simply ask that the rate for a lithium nucleus to encounter a cosmic string be greater than Hubble,

$$\Gamma \simeq \int d\ell \frac{dn}{d\ell} \sigma \simeq \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^{-1} \int d\ell \frac{dn}{d\ell} \ell = \frac{\rho_{\text{string}}}{\Lambda_{\text{QCD}} \mu} \gtrsim H, \quad (13)$$

where we have begun with a general differential number density of cosmic strings ($dn/d\ell$), assumed the interaction is characterized as $\sigma/\ell = \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^{-1}$, which makes the rate proportional to the energy density. Then introducing $f \equiv \rho_{\text{string}}/\rho_{\text{tot}}$ we require

$$f \gtrsim \frac{\Lambda_{\text{QCD}}}{M_{\text{pl}}} \frac{\mu}{T_\star^2}, \quad (14)$$

where $\Lambda_{\text{QCD}}/M_{\text{pl}} \sim 10^{-20}$, and T_\star is the temperature at which disintegration occurs. We note that this is a greater fraction than that eventually expected in long strings $f \sim G\mu$, underscoring the necessity of understanding the nonequilibrium behavior of strings after the phase transition. Along similar lines, we emphasize also that the precise requirement to destroy the correct fraction of lithium will depend on the duration over which these interactions are efficient. We plot this relation in Fig. 2, where we assume that $\mu \gtrsim T_{\text{BBN}}^2$ such that the $B-L$ phase transition takes place before BBN, and $T_{\text{CMB}} \lesssim T_\star \lesssim T_{\text{BBN}}$ to avoid severe constraints on exotic energy injection which are sensitive even down to the level of $\mathcal{O}(10^{-10})$ at the time of recombination [198–202]. If the $B-L$ -breaking scale is low then one requires relatively small gauge coupling [203–205], but the electric-magnetic interplay of the Callan-Rubakov effect means that this does not suppress the cross section, as above. Nevertheless if the scale is so low that the string width is larger than nuclear scales, the benchmark cross section, which does not account for the

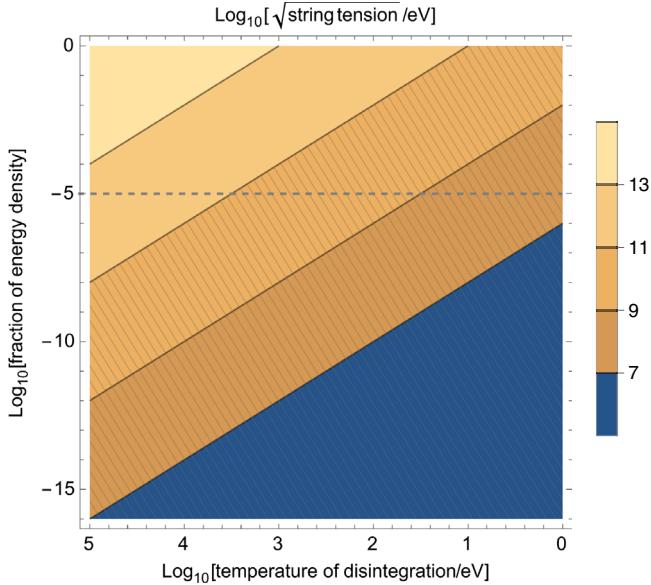


FIG. 2. A contour plot of the string tension scale required for $\mathcal{O}(1)$ lithium to be disintegrated as a function of the temperature and the fraction of energy density in cosmic strings from Eq. (14). The hatched region is constrained in simple models of gauged $B-L$ with a massive Z' , taking $\sqrt{\mu} \sim v \sim m_{Z'}/g > 100$ GeV as a benchmark [203]. The dashed line is an approximate upper bound on the energy density in strings near the Hubble length from CMB and gravitational wave constraints [210,211].

string's internal structure, seems less applicable. In Fig. 2 we also show a benchmark constraint on gauged $B-L$ with massive Z' from [203], assuming the tension goes as $\sqrt{\mu} \sim m_{Z'}/g$, though we note that this constraint does assume a particular right-handed neutrino sector and it is possible these constraints are modified either with non-standard neutrino interactions (see, e.g., [206]) or exotic neutrino sectors (see, e.g., [207–209]).

Complementary signatures.—Cosmic strings may generally be searched for through their gravitational effects either in affecting the CMB anisotropies or in contributing to the stochastic gravitational wave background. However, the details of the spectra and the ensuing constraints depend strongly on the size distribution of strings. To guide the eye, we offer in Fig. 2 the rough constraint applicable to the scaling population of strings. For discussions on how the constraints depend on some characteristics of the spectrum we refer to [141,210,212–215] and [211,216–220].

The nontrivial dynamics of cosmic strings means there may be a non-negligible number density at any time, so one may hope to constrain their existence with direct detection experiments. General $B-L$ cosmic strings may be probed through their unitarity-limited elastic Aharonov-Bohm scattering, but this requires a detailed understanding of the kinematics of such interactions in direct detection experiments. The inelastic effect is more striking, but one must also understand the cross section for general

nuclei, such as the many oxygen in Super-Kamiokande. Experimentally, dedicated analysis or new searches may be required for the “hard” signature of three outgoing positrons, their ensuing showers, and possible delayed decays of the leftover nucleus.

While such effects are too rare with solely the scaling population of large cosmic strings, in scenarios with increased number density such as with vorton end states this would be an interesting signature to understand. Alternatively it would be interesting to integrate over cosmic volumes and look for indirect effects of $B-L$ strings in astrophysical settings.

Conclusion.—In this work we have stirred together a mélange of ingredients from particle theory and cosmology to write down a mechanism through which the lithium problem is an entrée to fundamental physics beyond the SM. This scenario motivates various important directions of inquiry, which are interesting more generally than in their application here: (i) It is clearly important to better conceptually understand the cosmic string analog of the Callan-Rubakov effect, which likely requires understanding BF theory with light fermions. (ii) Any precise rate predictions will require understanding the evolution and interactions of small cosmic string loops, which is a difficult problem. (iii) It would be useful to think about other interesting applications for unitarity-limited interactions of fermions with cosmic strings—perhaps in effecting baryogenesis or dark matter production. (iv) For any such applications it will be necessary to understand better how to translate from many-parton interactions with cosmic strings to nuclear effects.

Theoretical physicists have been captivated by the interplay of electric and magnetic effects for centuries now, from Maxwell [221] up to its grandest form in Montonen-Olive duality [222–224] with maximal supersymmetry. The case of *less* symmetry, as with our discrete \mathbb{Z}_N , has received far less attention. In addition to their fascinating topological character, these interactions may have interesting, heretofore-underappreciated phenomenological applications in the early Universe.

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