

Gravitation: Theories and Experiments

Part I: Clifford M. Will, [WUGRAV](#), Washington U., St. Louis, USA

Phenomenological approach

Part II: Gilles Esposito-Farese, [GR&CO / IAP](#), Paris, France, gef@iap.fr

Field-theoretical approach

- **A: Scalar-tensor gravity** (October 10th & 11th)
- **B: Binary-pulsar tests** (October 11th)
- **C: Modified Newtonian dynamics** (October 12th)

Gravitation: Theories and Experiments

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Gravitation: Theories and Experiment

part II: G. Esposito-Farèse <gef@iap.fr>

A Scalar-tensor gravity October 10th, 2006

A.1: General relativistic action

* GR is based on two independent hypotheses, which are most conveniently described by decomposing its action as

S = Sgravity + Smatter

(imposing that this action is at an extremum, δS=0, implies the field equations, both for gravity and matter.)

* The first assumption is that all matter fields are minimally coupled to a single symmetric tensor gμν, the "metric".

Smatter [ψ ; gμν]

↑ any matter field, including gauge bosons

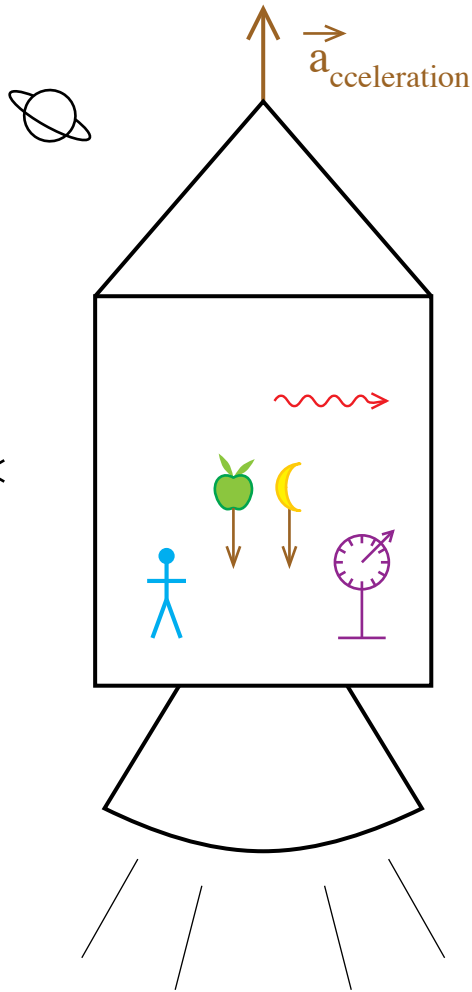
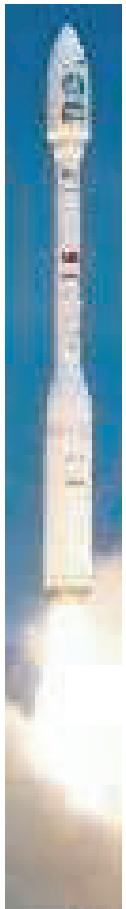
↑ [] = functional dependence, i.e. depends on gμν and its derivatives via the Christoffel symbols Γλμν.

(This metric defines the lengths and times measured by laboratory rods and clocks, since they are made of matter. It is thus often called the "physical metric".)

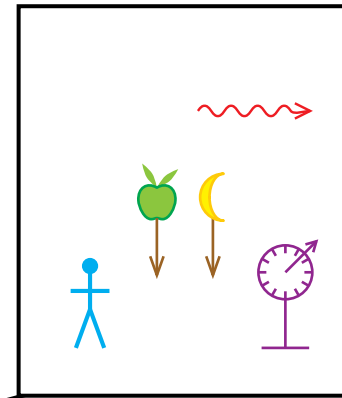
MATTER-GRAVITY COUPLING

$$S_{\text{matter}} [\text{matter} , g_{\mu\nu}]$$

Metric coupling chosen to satisfy the (weak) **equivalence principle**



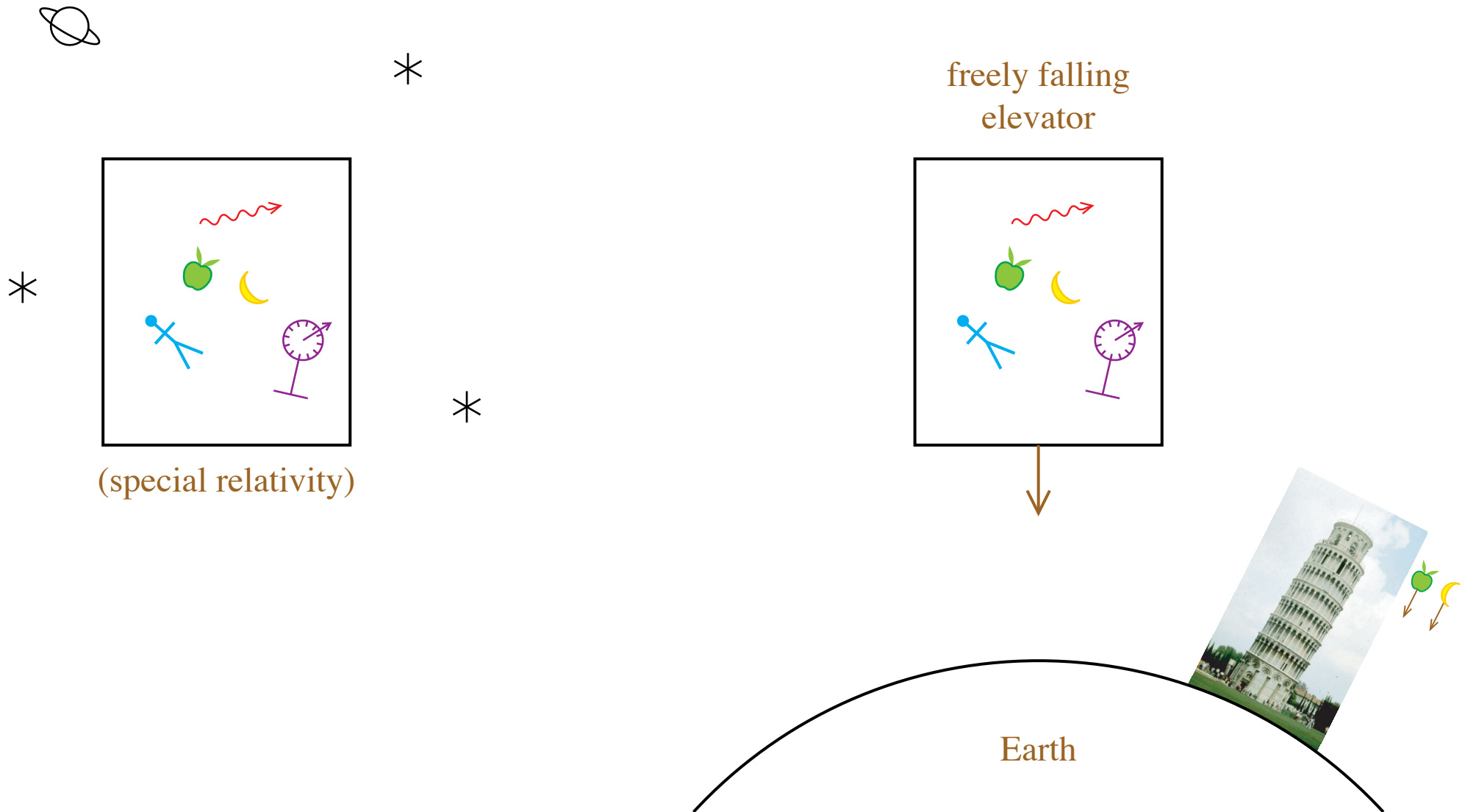
Impossible to determine from a *local* experiment if there is **acceleration** or **gravitation** (Einstein 1907)



MATTER-GRAVITY COUPLING

$$S_{\text{matter}} [\text{matter} , g_{\mu\nu}]$$

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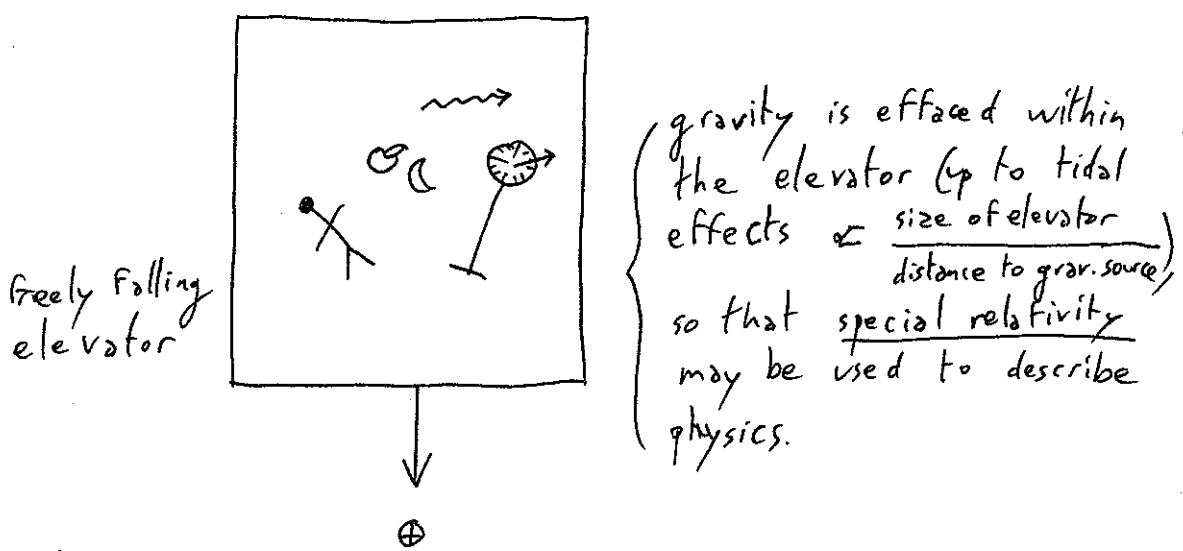
Such a metric coupling implies the Einstein Equivalence principle (cf. C. Will's lectures). Indeed, one may consider a freely falling elevator, in which locally

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \text{diag}(-1, 1, 1, 1) + O(X^2) \quad \text{and} \quad \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\lambda = 0 + O(X)$$

↑
size of
the elevator

[In mathematical language, this is called a Fermi coordinate system: all along a (one-dimensional) worldline, one can always choose the coordinates such that $g_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu}$ and $\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\lambda = 0$. This is the same derivation as C. Will showed at a given spacetime point, and one then proves that the same conditions may be integrated along a line.]

Intuitively



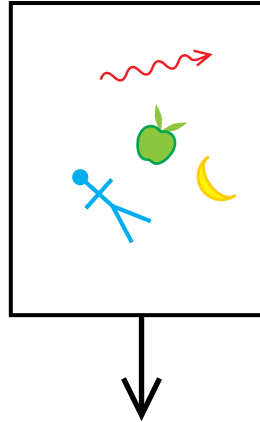
⇒ 4 testable consequences

- ① Constancy of (non-gravitational) constants, cf. $|\frac{\dot{\alpha}}{\alpha}| < 7 \times 10^{-17} \text{ yr}^{-1}$
- ② Local Lorentz invariance, cf. isotropy of space tested at 10^{-27} level.
- ③ Universality of free fall, tested at the 4×10^{-13} level
- ④ Universality of gravitational redshift, tested at the 2×10^{-4} level

MATTER-GRAVITY COUPLING

Metric coupling: $S_{\text{matter}}[\text{matter}, g_{\mu\nu}]$

Freely falling elevator
(= Fermi coordinate system)



$$g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{\lambda} = 0$$



① Constancy of the constants

Space & time independence of coupling constants and mass scales of the Standard Model

Oklo natural fission reactor
 $|\dot{\alpha}/\alpha| < 7 \times 10^{-17} \text{ yr}^{-1} \ll 10^{-10} \text{ yr}^{-1} \text{ (cosmo)}$
 [Shlyakhter 76, Damour & Dyson 96]

② Local Lorentz invariance

Local non-gravitational experiments are Lorentz invariant

Isotropy of space verified at the 10^{-27} level
 [Prestage et al. 85, Lamoreaux et al. 86, Chupp et al. 89]

③ Universality of free fall

Non self-gravitating bodies fall with the same acceleration in an external gravitational field

Laboratory: 4×10^{-13} level [Baessler et al. 99]

 : 2×10^{-13} level [Williams et al. 04]

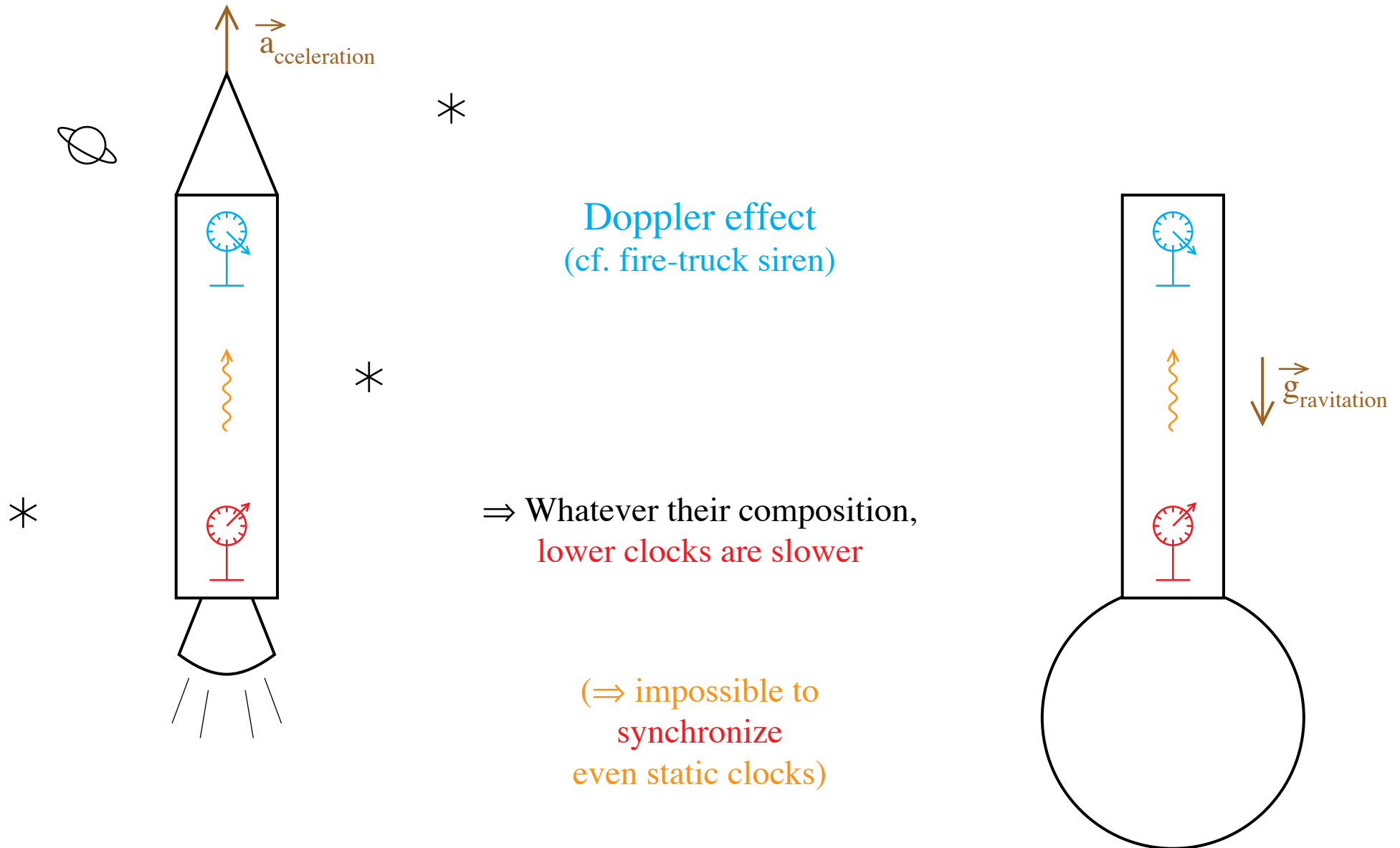
④ Universality of gravitational redshift

In a static Newtonian potential
 $g_{00} = -1 + 2 U(\mathbf{x})/c^2 + O(1/c^4)$
 the time measured by two clocks is

$$\tau_1/\tau_2 = 1 + [U(x_1) - U(x_2)]/c^2 + O(1/c^4)$$

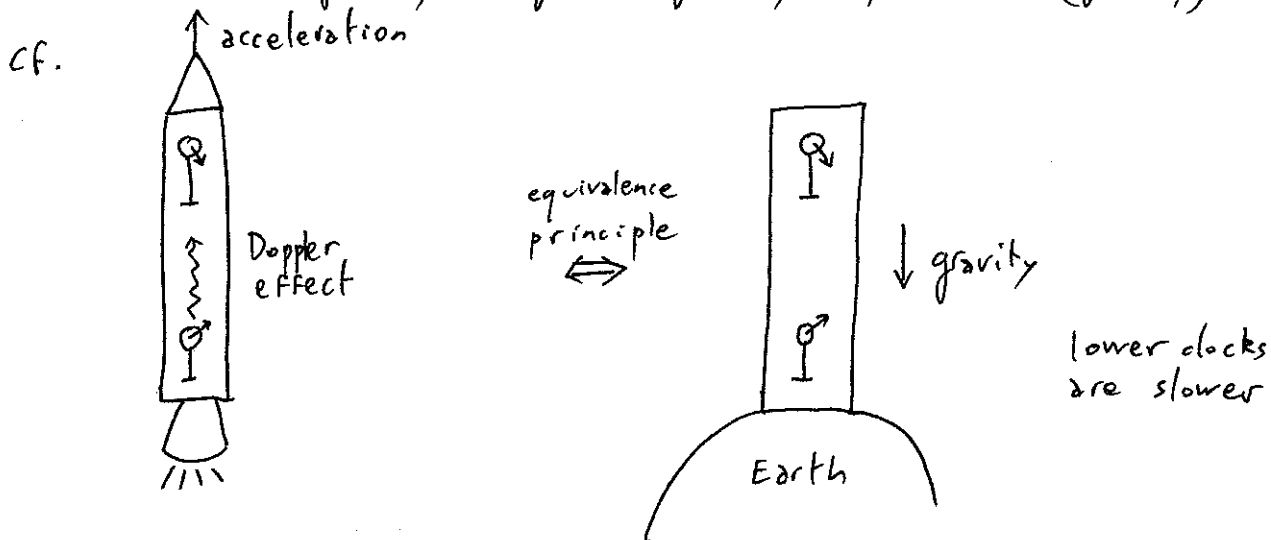
Flying hydrogen maser clock: 2×10^{-4} level
 [Vessot et al. 79–80, Pharo/Aces will give 5×10^{-6}]

④ Universality of gravitational redshift (time dilation)



①, ② and ③ are obvious consequences of the fact that special relativity is assumed to be valid within the freely falling elevator. ④ = the "Einstein effect" has been shown in C. Will's lectures to depend only on this hypothesis of a metric coupling $S_m[\Psi; g_{\mu\nu}]$, without assuming anything on gravity's dynamics ($S_{gravity}$).

③



Although one may consider theories violating this equivalence principle (cf. superstrings, which do predict that \neq kinds of matter couple to \neq tensors $g_{\mu\nu}^{(i)}$!), it is so precisely tested that we will focus in these lectures on metrically-coupled theories, as C. Will did.

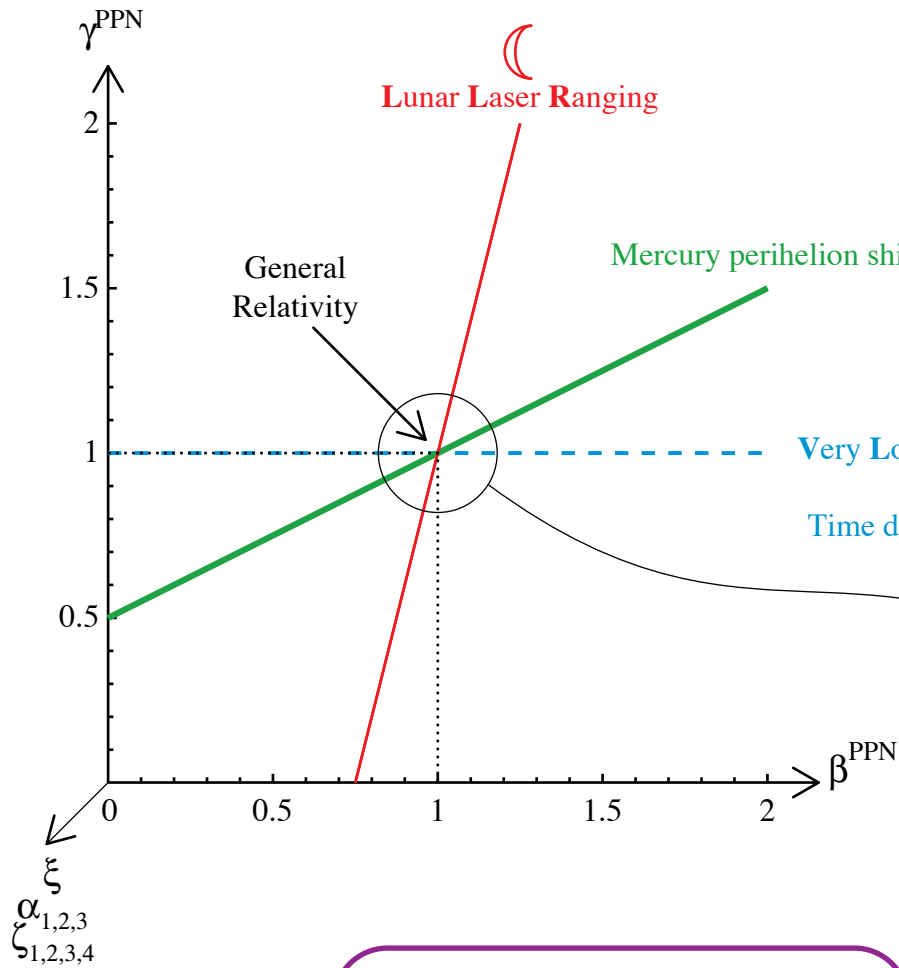
* GR's second assumption is that gravity is mediated by a spin-2 field, described by the Einstein-Hilbert action

$$S_{gravity} = \frac{c^4}{16\pi G} \int \frac{d^4x}{c} \sqrt{-g} R$$

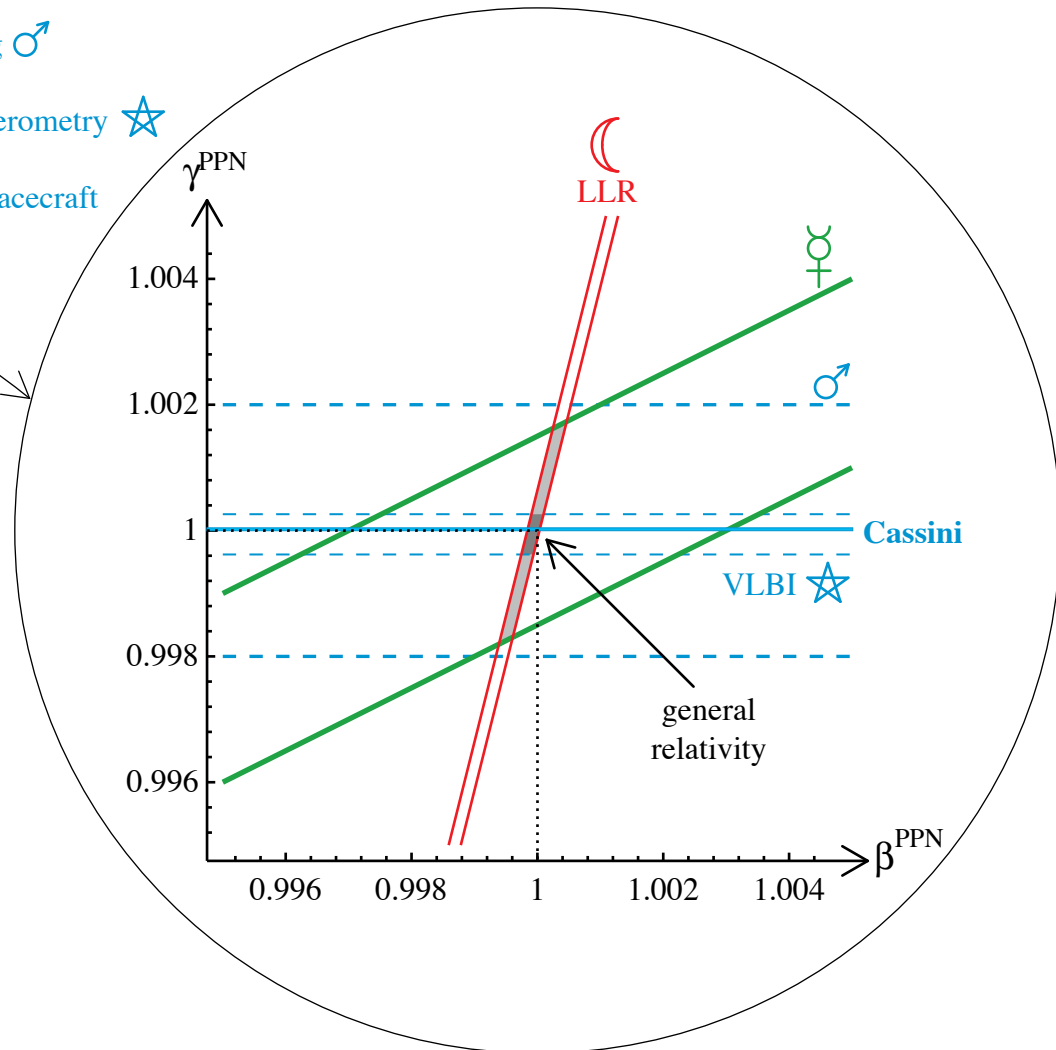
(Same sign conventions as C. Will, notably signature $-+++$, but we keep $G \neq 1$ and $c \neq 1$ to clarify.)

{ N. Dervelle showed in her lectures that the variation of $S_{grav.} + S_{matter}$ with respect to $g_{\mu\nu}$ gives Einstein's field equations

Conclusion of experimental tests in the Parametrized Post-Newtonian formalism




GENERAL RELATIVITY
 is essentially the **only**
 theory consistent with
 weak-field experiments



(4)

- In C. Will's lectures, a phenomenological viewpoint was adopted: nothing precise was assumed about S_{gravity} , but $g_{\mu\nu}$ was supposed to depend on all possible potentials that one may define from the matter distribution, at the 1st post-Newtonian (1PN) order, i.e. $\frac{1}{c^2} \times \text{Newton}$.
- Now, we will adopt a field-theoretical viewpoint: we will assume that $g_{\mu\nu}$ is a combination of various fields, described by a consistent action S_{gravity} . This will allow us to study the predictions even in the strong-field regime (where the PPN framework would need a priori an infinite number of parameters).

A.2: Higher-order gravity

- * A natural way to consider extensions to GR is to take into account the higher-order terms predicted by quantum loops.
- * For instance, 't Hooft & Veltman computed in 1974 that the divergence of  needs a counterterm

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta \mathcal{L} &= \frac{\sqrt{-g}}{8\pi^2(d-4)} \left(\frac{53}{90} R_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma}^2 - \frac{361}{180} R_{\mu\nu}^2 + \frac{43}{72} R^2 \right) \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{-g}}{8\pi^2(d-4)} \left[\frac{149}{360} \text{G.B.} + \frac{7}{40} C_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma}^2 + \frac{1}{8} R^2 \right] \end{aligned}$$

where $\text{G.B.} = R_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma}^2 - 4 R_{\mu\nu}^2 + R^2$ is the Gauss-Bonnet topological invariant (in dim 4), which does not contribute to the local field equations

and $C_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma}^2 = \text{G.B.} + 2 R_{\mu\nu}^2 - \frac{2}{3} R^2$ is the square of the Weyl (fully trace-free) tensor

* In 1977, K. Stelle proved in his thesis that the theory ⑤

$$S_{\text{gravity}} = \frac{c^4}{16\pi G} \int \frac{d^4x}{c} \sqrt{-g} \left(R + \alpha C_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma}^2 + \beta R^2 + \gamma G.B. \right)$$

is renormalizable (to all orders) provided both $\alpha \neq 0$ and $\beta \neq 0$ (γ does not play any role).

* However, he also underlined that such a theory always involve a "ghost", i.e. a negative (kinetic) energy degree of freedom. Intuitively, the propagator reads

$$\frac{1}{p^2 + \alpha p^4} = \frac{1}{p^2} \ominus \frac{1}{p^2 + \frac{1}{\alpha}}$$

↑ comes from R
↑ comes from $\alpha C_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma}^2$
↑ usual massless graviton
↑ extra degree of freedom, with mass $m^2 = \frac{1}{\alpha}$

Therefore, the extra d.o.f maybe a tachyon ($\alpha < 0$) or not ($\alpha > 0$) depending on the sign of α , but it is anyway a ghost.

The theory is thus violently unstable, because the vacuum can disintegrate into an arbitrary amount of (positive-energy) usual gravitons and a compensating amount of (negative-energy) ghosts.

[N.B.: The only way to make this ghost disappear is to impose $\alpha = 0$, in which case the theory is no longer renormalizable!]

[N.B.2: Superstring theory does generically predict terms like $\alpha C_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma}^2$ in the effective 4-dim action, but also an infinite series depending on even higher derivatives of $g_{\mu\nu}$, because it is a nonlocal (although causal) theory. Such higher derivatives start having an observable influence at the same order as $\alpha C_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma}^2 \Rightarrow$ no meaning to truncate the series.]

* Actually, the above reasoning fails for the βR^2 term: it does generate an extra degree of freedom, but its kinetic energy is positive. ⑥

Intuitive reason: it corresponds to a perturbation of the scalar mode of gravity, i.e. to the already negative Newtonian potential, so that the above calculation is correct provided a minus sign multiplies it globally \Rightarrow the extra d.o.f. has positive energy.

Serious reason: the full calculation, involving all contracted indices [cf. K. Stelle's thesis] shows that the extra d.o.f. caused by the βR^2 term is a positive-energy spin-0 mode.

* More generally, let us prove that

$$S = \frac{c^4}{16\pi G} \int \frac{d^4x}{c} \sqrt{-g} F(R) + S_{\text{matter}}[\Psi; g_{\mu\nu}]$$

is a positive-energy scalar-tensor theory.

[cf. Teyssandier & Tourrenc 1983 for the $R + \beta R^2$ case, and many people for the $F(R)$ case, for instance D. Wands, *Class. Quantum Grav.* 11, 269 (1994).]

Forgetting for a while the global constant factor, one may introduce a Lagrange parameter ϕ and write

$$S_{\text{gravity}} = \int d^4x \sqrt{-g} [F(\phi) + (R - \phi) F'(\phi)]$$

- Varying this action with respect to ϕ gives $(R - \phi) F''(\phi) = 0$, so that $\phi = R$ within each spacetime domain where $F''(\phi) \neq 0$.
- The variation with respect to $g_{\mu\nu}$ gives a field equation which reduces to the original one [deriving from $\int \sqrt{-g} F(R)$] when $\phi = R$. (as can be seen without rigor by replacing ϕ by R in the above action).

Therefore, the $F(R)$ theory is equivalent to

(7)

$$S_{\text{gravity}} = \int d^4x \sqrt{-g} \left\{ F'(\phi) R - \frac{1}{2} (\partial_\mu \phi)^2 - [\phi F'(\phi) - F(\phi)] \right\}$$

nonstandard factor

no explicit kinetic term

potential for ϕ

* We will see in § A.5 that Brans-Dicke theory's action reads

$$S_{\text{gravity}} = \frac{c^4}{16\pi G} \int d^4x \sqrt{-g} \left\{ \Phi R - \frac{\omega}{\Phi} (\partial_\mu \Phi)^2 - 2U(\Phi) \right\}$$

$\Phi = F'(\phi)$
here

$\omega = 0$
here

potential = 0
in Brans-Dicke theory

$$\left[\text{N.B.: Cassini bound on } |\gamma^{\text{PPN}} - 1| \Rightarrow \omega > 4000 \text{ if } U(\Phi) = 0, \text{ but here } U(\Phi) \neq 0. \right]$$

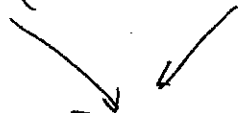
The $F(R)$ theory is thus of the "Brans-Dicke" type, but with no explicit kinetic term for Φ .

Does this degree of freedom propagate?

A.3: Einstein and Jordan Frames

* Let us assume (for a short while) that $g_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu} + h_{\mu\nu}$ is nearly flat. The kinetic term of the above model reads schematically

$$\Phi (\partial^2 h + \partial h \partial h) + O(\partial \Phi \partial \Phi)$$



$\Phi_{\text{background}} \partial h \partial h$ gives the usual spin-2 graviton

but there remains $\int \Phi \partial^2 h = - \int \partial \Phi \partial h$ by partial integr.

We have thus a schematic kinetic term of the form

$$(\partial_\mu h \quad \partial_\mu \Phi) \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \beta & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \partial^\mu h \\ \partial^\mu \Phi \end{pmatrix}$$

One can diagonalize this 2×2 matrix by defining

$$h^*_{\mu\nu} = h_{\mu\nu} + \frac{\beta}{\alpha} \Phi \eta_{\mu\nu}$$

so that the kinetic term reads now

$$(\partial_\mu h^* \quad \partial_\mu \Phi) \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & -\beta/\alpha \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \partial^\mu h^* \\ \partial^\mu \Phi \end{pmatrix}$$

and the degrees of freedom are well separated.

* Let us show how such a field redefinition works without assuming an almost flat metric, and without writing $h_{\mu\nu}$ as if it were a scalar.

(9)

* Exercise:

Define $g_{\mu\nu}^* = \Phi g_{\mu\nu}$, and show that

$$R^* = \frac{1}{\Phi} \left[R - 3 \square \ln \Phi - \frac{3}{2} (\partial_\mu \ln \Phi)^2 \right]$$

Since $\sqrt{-g^*} = \Phi^2 \sqrt{-g}$, one thus gets

$$\int \sqrt{-g} \Phi R = \int \sqrt{-g^*} \left[R^* + 3 \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{d'Alembertian with} \\ \text{respect to metric} \\ g_{\mu\nu}^*}}{\square} \ln \Phi - \frac{3}{2} \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{inverse of} \\ g_{\mu\nu}^*}}{g_{\mu\nu}^*} (\partial_\mu \ln \Phi) (\partial_\nu \ln \Phi) \right]$$

* Therefore, if one sets

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} g_{\mu\nu}^* \equiv F'(\phi) g_{\mu\nu} \\ \varphi \equiv \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \ln F'(\phi) \\ V(\varphi) \equiv \frac{\phi F'(\phi) - F(\phi)}{4 F'^2(\phi)} \\ A(\varphi) = e^{\varphi/\sqrt{3}} \end{array} \right. \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{"conformal (or Weyl) transformation"} \\ \\ \\ \leftarrow \text{imposed by our } f(R) \text{ form.} \end{array}$$

The $f(R)$ theory above can be written as

$$S = \frac{c^4}{4\pi G} \int \frac{d^4x}{c} \sqrt{-g^*} \left\{ \frac{R^*}{4} - \frac{1}{2} g_{\mu\nu}^* \partial_\mu \varphi \partial_\nu \varphi - V(\varphi) \right\} + S_{\text{matter}}[\Psi; g_{\mu\nu} = A^2(\varphi) g_{\mu\nu}^*]$$

(10)

* This form, where the kinetic terms of the
 spin-2 $\left[\int \sqrt{-g^*} R^* = \text{Einstein-Hilbert} \right]$ gravitons and the
 spin-0 $\left[-\frac{1}{2} \int \sqrt{-g^*} g^{*\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \varphi \partial_\nu \varphi \right]$ scalar degrees of
 freedom are separated is called the "Einstein Frame".

Note that matter is directly coupled to φ via
 the coupling function $A(\varphi)$.

This frame is useful to analyze the mathematical
consistency of the theory and the solutions.

* On the other hand, the choice of variables
 where matter is minimally coupled to the "metric" $g_{\mu\nu}$
 $(S_{\text{mat}}[\psi; g_{\mu\nu}])$ is called the "Jordan Frame"

This Jordan metric $g_{\mu\nu}$ is the one defining
 lengths and times as measured by rods and clocks
 (made of matter) \Rightarrow this frame is usually more
 intuitive for the interpretation of observations

* \triangle But the theory is strictly the same: this
 is a mere change of variables. Even in the
 Einstein frame, the full action defines what is
 observed. [Beware that the literature sometimes
 spends long discussions on "what is the physical metric?"
 By definition, this is the one coupled to matter, i.e. $g_{\mu\nu}$,
 but all calculations may anyway be performed in the
 Einstein frame if one wishes!]

A.4: Scalar-tensor theories

(11)

They are defined by the above action

$$S = \frac{c^4}{4\pi G_*} \int \frac{d^4x}{c} \sqrt{-g^*} \left\{ \frac{R^*}{4} - \frac{1}{2} g^{*\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \varphi \partial_\nu \varphi - V(\varphi) \right\} + S_{\text{matter}}[\Psi; g_{\mu\nu} \equiv A^2(\varphi) g_{\mu\nu}^*]$$

[Bergmann 1958, Nordtvedt 1970, Wagoner 1970]

where $A(\varphi)$ is any (nonvanishing) function of φ (instead of $e^{\frac{\varphi}{\sqrt{3}}}$ above) and $V(\varphi)$ is any scalar-field potential (bounded by below to ensure the stability of the theory).

- Note that we write G_* instead of G in the action, to underline that this constant is actually not the observed Newton's constant (see below).
- It is often useful to use heavy notation to distinguish even further the physical metric $\tilde{g}_{\mu\nu}$ (Jordan Frame) || and the Einstein one $g_{\mu\nu}^*$ (Einstein Frame).

Many justifications for considering this class of theories:

- * Natural generalizations of the above $f(R)$ models, themselves suggested by quantum loops. [* scalar field nonminimally coupled $-\partial_\mu \varphi^2 + \xi R \varphi^2$ equivalent to a scalar-tensor theory.]
- * Scalar partners to graviton arise in all extra-dimensional (unified) theories.

For instance, supersymmetry imposes that a dilaton enters the graviton's supermultiplet in 10 dimensions, in string theory. Moreover, many other scalar degrees of freedom arise when performing a dimensional reduction to 4 dim. (called "moduli")

For instance, Kaluza proposed (immediately after GR's publication, ⁽¹²⁾ but published in 1921) a 5-dimensional generalization of GR, where

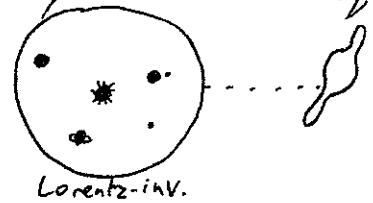
$$\underbrace{g_{mn}}_{5\text{-dim}} \approx \left(\begin{array}{c|c} g_{\mu\nu} & A_\mu \\ \hline A_\nu & \underbrace{\varphi}_{\uparrow} \end{array} \right)$$

$\underbrace{\varphi}_{g_{55}}$ behaves as a scalar field when interpreted in 4 dim.

Actually, a better definition is $g_{mn}^{(5)} = \left(\begin{array}{c|c} g_{\mu\nu} + e^{2\varphi} A_\mu A_\nu & A_\mu e^{2\varphi} \\ \hline A_\nu e^{2\varphi} & e^{2\varphi} \end{array} \right)$ and one finds $\int d^5x \sqrt{-g^{(5)}} R \propto \int d^4x \sqrt{-g^{(4)}} e^\varphi \left(R - \frac{e^{2\varphi}}{4} F_{\mu\nu}^2 \right)$, and in the Einstein Frame $g_{\mu\nu}^* = e^\varphi g_{\mu\nu}$, one finds $\int d^4x \sqrt{-g^*} \left(R^* - \frac{3}{2} [\partial_\mu \varphi]^2 - \frac{e^{3\varphi}}{4} F_{\mu\nu}^2 \right)$
indices contracted with $g^{*\mu\nu}$ Δ

More generally $g_{MN}^{(D\text{-dimensional})} = \left(\begin{array}{c|c} g_{\mu\nu} & A_\mu^a \\ \hline A_\nu^b & \phi^{ab} \end{array} \right)$, where A_μ^a are Yang-Mills type vector fields, and ϕ^{ab} is a $(D-4) \times (D-4)$ symmetric matrix of scalar fields.

* Scalar-tensor respect most of GR's symmetries: conservation laws, constancy of (non-gravitational) constants, local Lorentz invariance [not true for vector partner] of all physics (even if a subsystem is influenced by external masses), and satisfy exactly Einstein Equiv. Principle even if the scalar field is massless ($V(\varphi)=0$) [whereas this is impossible for vector or tensor partners to the usual graviton]



* They anyway describe many possible deviations from GR, and are simple enough for their predictions to be computed in many \neq domains (solar-system, binary-pulsars, grav. waves, cosmology inflation Sawintest@co)

Field equations: $\delta S = 0 \Rightarrow$

$$R^*_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} g^*_{\mu\nu} R^* = \frac{8\pi G_*}{c^4} \left(T^*_{\mu\nu}{}^{\text{matter}} + \tau^*_{\mu\nu}(\varphi) \right),$$

$$\square^* \varphi = -\frac{4\pi G_*}{c^4} \alpha(\varphi) T^*_{\text{matter}} + \frac{dV(\varphi)}{d\varphi},$$

$$\frac{\delta S_{\text{matter}}[\Psi; A^2(\varphi)g^*_{\mu\nu}]}{\delta \varphi} = 0.$$

where $T^*_{\mu\nu}{}^{\text{matter}} \equiv \frac{2c}{\sqrt{-g^*}} \frac{\delta S_{\text{matter}}[\Psi; A^2(\varphi)g^*_{\mu\nu}]}{\delta g^*_{\mu\nu}},$

$$\frac{4\pi G_*}{c^4} \tau^*_{\mu\nu}(\varphi) \equiv \partial_\mu \varphi \partial_\nu \varphi - \frac{1}{2} g^*_{\mu\nu} \underbrace{(\partial_\lambda \varphi)^2}_{\text{contracted with } g^{*\lambda\sigma} \Delta} - V(\varphi) g^*_{\mu\nu},$$

and $\alpha(\varphi) \equiv \frac{d \ln A(\varphi)}{d\varphi} = \text{matter-scalar coupling strength.}$

N.B.1: The observed matter stress-energy tensor is

$$\tilde{T}^{\mu\nu} = \frac{2c}{\sqrt{-\tilde{g}}} \frac{\delta S_{\text{matter}}[\Psi; \tilde{g}^{\mu\nu}]}{\delta \tilde{g}^{\mu\nu}} \stackrel{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{simple} \\ \text{calculation [compare defs. of } \tilde{T}^{\mu\nu} \text{ and } T^*_{\mu\nu} \text{]}}}{=} A^{-6}(\varphi) T^*_{\mu\nu} \Delta$$

- Einstein's Eq. $\Rightarrow \nabla^*_{\mu} (T^*_{\mu\nu}{}^{\text{matter}} + \tau^*_{\mu\nu}) = 0$:
conservation in Einstein frame of the sum of matter and φ 's energy-momentum, but not independently (since coupled!):

$$\nabla^*_{\mu} T^*_{\mu\nu}{}^{\text{matter}} = \alpha(\varphi) T^*_{\text{matter}} \nabla^{*\nu} \varphi \quad (1)$$

- But since $S_{\text{matter}}[\Psi; \tilde{g}^{\mu\nu}]$ is diffeomorphism-invariant, we also know that

$$\tilde{\nabla}_{\mu} (\tilde{T}^{\mu\nu}) = 0 \text{ alone}$$

Actually, this is equivalent to (1) above.

N.B.2: • $\alpha(\varphi)$, the logarithmic derivative of $A(\varphi)$, enters the scalar field's equation because

$$\frac{\delta S_{\text{mat}}}{\delta \varphi} = \frac{d[A^2(\varphi) g_{\mu\nu}^*]}{d\varphi} \frac{\delta S_{\text{mat}}[\Psi; \tilde{g}_{\mu\nu}]}{\delta \tilde{g}_{\mu\nu}}$$

$$= 2\alpha(\varphi) A^2(\varphi) g_{\mu\nu}^* \frac{\sqrt{-\tilde{g}}}{2c} \tilde{T}_{\text{matter}}^{\mu\nu} = \frac{\sqrt{-g^*}}{c} \alpha(\varphi) T_{\text{matter}}^*$$

~~A^2~~ ~~A^4~~ ~~A^6~~

• Other simple way to see it:

Consider a (constant-observed-mass) point particle:

$$S_{\text{pp}} = - \int \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{const.}}}{\tilde{m}} c \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{because matter} \\ \text{universally coupled} \\ \text{to } \tilde{g}_{\mu\nu} = A^2(\varphi) g_{\mu\nu}^*}}{d\tilde{s}} = - \int \tilde{m} c \sqrt{-\tilde{g}_{\mu\nu}} dz^\mu dz^\nu$$

$$= - \int \underbrace{[\tilde{m} A(\varphi)]}_{\equiv m^*(\varphi)} c ds^*$$

In the Einstein frame, "masses" are functions of φ (even for laboratory-size, non self-gravitating, bodies) ⚠

Now the source term for $\square^* \varphi$ involves

$$\frac{\delta S_{\text{pp}}}{\delta \varphi} \propto \tilde{m} \frac{dA(\varphi)}{d\varphi} = \alpha(\varphi) m^*(\varphi)$$

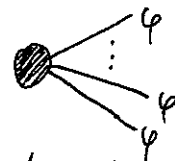
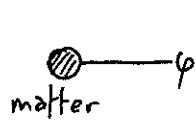
\uparrow Coupling strength \uparrow Einstein-frame mass

Diagrammatic interpretation of $A(\varphi)$:

Expand $\ln A(\varphi)$ around a background value φ_0 (imposed by boundary conditions at ∞ , say because of the cosmological evolution of the universe).

$$\ln A(\varphi) = \ln A(\varphi_0) + \alpha_0 \varphi + \frac{1}{2} \beta_0 \varphi^2 + \dots$$

(const.)



(The coupling strength $\alpha(\varphi) = \alpha_0 + \beta_0 \varphi + \dots$ takes thus into account nonlinearities.)

A.5: Nordström, Brans-Dicke and generalizations

* Nordström 1913 [before G.R.!]: particular case where \exists scalar but no spin-2 usual graviton

$$S = - \frac{c^4}{8\pi G} \int \frac{d^4x}{c} \eta^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \varphi \partial_\nu \varphi + S_{\text{matter}}[\psi; \tilde{g}_{\mu\nu} \equiv A^2(\varphi) \eta_{\mu\nu}]$$

[1912: $A(\varphi) = e^\varphi$; 1913: $A(\varphi) = \varphi$]

$$\frac{\delta S}{\delta \varphi} = 0 \Rightarrow \square_{\text{flat}} \varphi = - \frac{4\pi G}{c^4} \alpha(\varphi) A^4(\varphi) \tilde{T}_{\text{matter}}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \tilde{R} = \frac{24\pi G}{c^4} A'^2(\varphi) \tilde{T}_{\text{matter}} - 6 \frac{A''}{A} \tilde{g}^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \varphi \partial_\nu \varphi$$

explicit dependence on φ

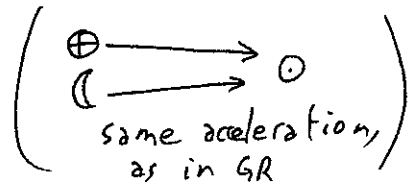
Therefore, if $A(\varphi) = \varphi$, the field equation may be written as

$$\tilde{R} = \frac{24\pi G}{c^4} \tilde{T}$$

and $\tilde{C}_{\mu\nu\rho} = 0 \Rightarrow \tilde{g}_{\mu\nu}$ conformally flat

This rewriting [Einstein-Fokker 1914] without any explicit dependence on φ proves that the strong equivalence principle also holds (same reasoning as in C. Will's lectures: always possible to choose $\tilde{g}_{\mu\nu} \rightarrow \eta_{\mu\nu}$ on a sphere around system, up to tidal effects).

Therefore, gravitational binding energy falls in the same way as any other form of energy \Rightarrow no Nordtvedt effect (16)



\Rightarrow \exists ② theories satisfying the strong equivalence principle:
 Nordström's and GR. And Nordström's is technically much simpler.

What's the problem with it?

$$S_{EM} = \frac{-1}{4} \int d^4x \sqrt{-\tilde{g}} \tilde{g}^{\mu\rho} \tilde{g}^{\nu\sigma} F_{\rho\nu} F_{\sigma\mu}$$

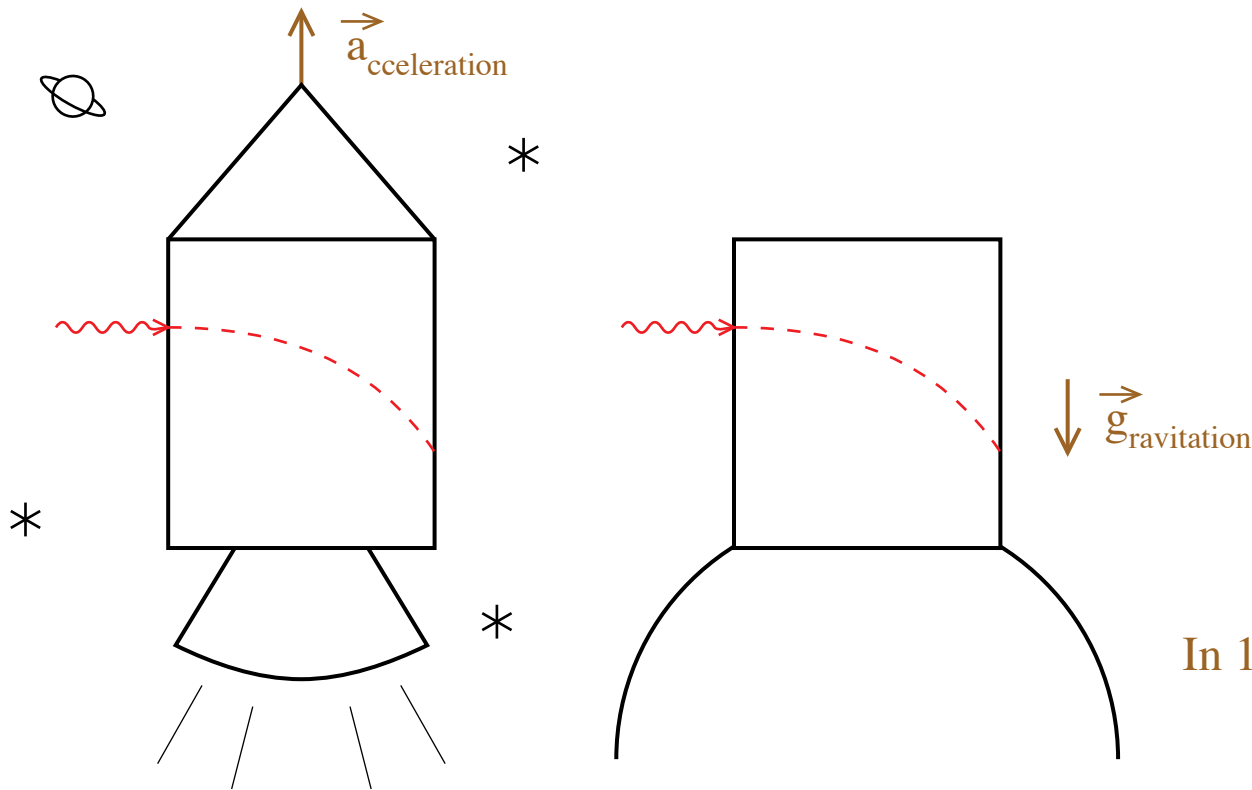
$$= \frac{-1}{4} \int d^4x \cancel{A^{\mu}} \cancel{A^{\nu}} \eta^{\mu\rho} \eta^{\nu\sigma} F_{\rho\nu} F_{\sigma\mu} \quad \text{"conformal invariance of } S_{EM} \text{"}$$

\Rightarrow photons do not feel at all the scalar field!

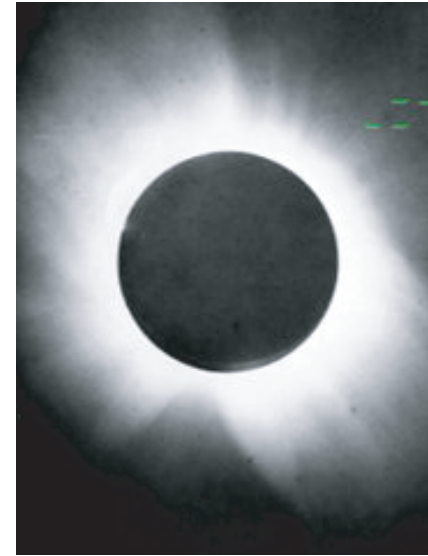
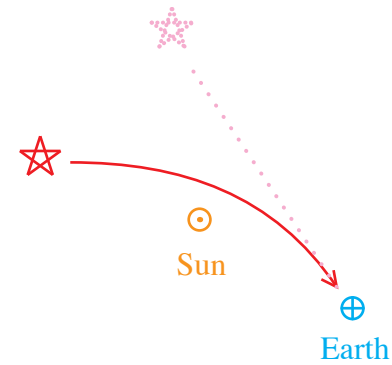
\Rightarrow they propagate like in flat space, and there cannot exist any light deflection; ruled-out experimentally.
 [cf. also $\delta s^2 = 0 \Leftrightarrow \eta_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu = 0 \Rightarrow$ flat-space geodesics if null]

- N.B.:
- No light deflection $\Rightarrow 1 + \gamma^{PPN} = 0 \Rightarrow \gamma^{PPN} = -1$
 - No Nordtvedt effect $\Rightarrow 4\beta^{PPN} - \gamma^{PPN} - 3 = 0 \Rightarrow \beta^{PPN} = \frac{1}{2}$
- [Easy to prove directly by solving the static & spherically symmetric solution $\Rightarrow \tilde{g}_{\mu\nu} = \left(1 - \frac{GM}{rc^2}\right)^2 \eta_{\mu\nu}$.]
- Therefore γ 's perihelion $\propto \frac{2\gamma^{PPN} - \beta^{PPN} + 2}{3} = \frac{-1}{6}$ x RG's result
- Also ruled out experimentally.

■ Light deflection and the equivalence principle

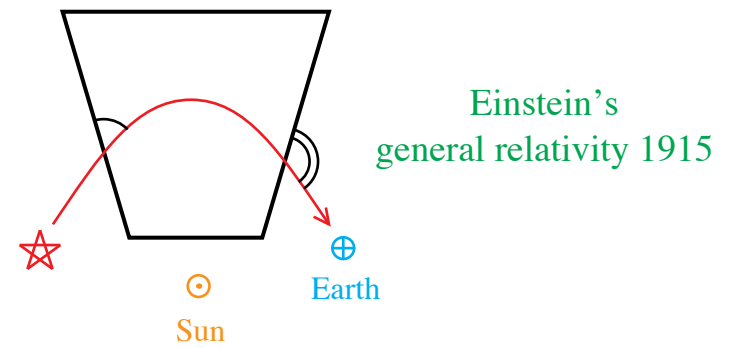
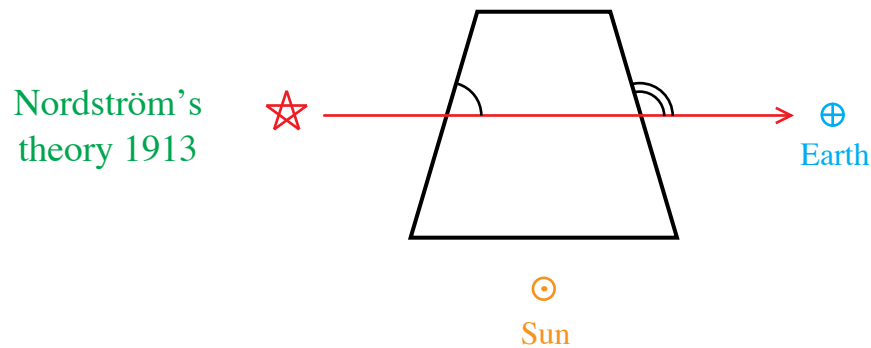


□ Modification of the stars' apparent position

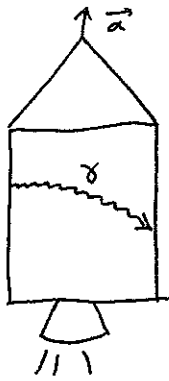


In 1911–14, Einstein predicts **half** the correct value [Eddington 1919]

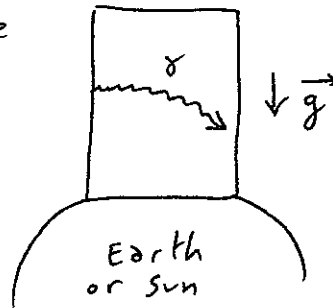
This is because □ also a deformation of *space*:



Equivalence principle without light deflection??

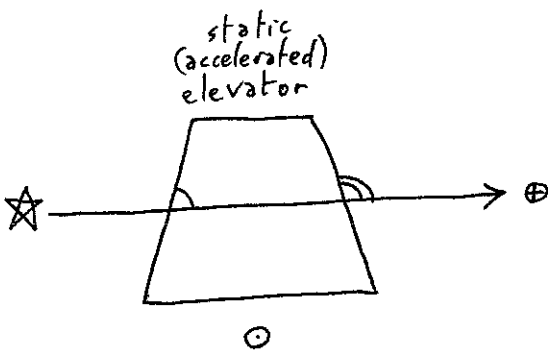


equivalence principle
⇔



Light must be locally attracted by a massive body!

But as shown in C. Will's lectures, \exists also a global effect due to the spatial curvature:



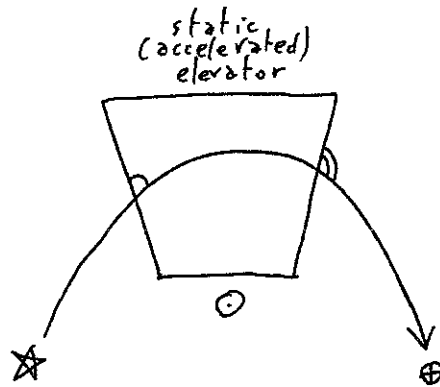
Nordström 1913

$$\Delta\theta = \frac{2 GM_{\odot}}{bc^2} (1 + \gamma^{PPN})$$

= 0

Equivalence principle
(From Newton's potential in g_{00})

contribution of g_{ij} at order $1/c^2$



Einstein 1915

$$\Delta\theta = \frac{2 GM_{\odot}}{bc^2} (1 + \gamma^{PPN})$$

= 2

From g_{00}

From g_{ij}

= twice the naive Newtonian result

[cf. Soldner 1803 & Einstein 1911]

* P. Jordan $\begin{cases} 1949 \\ 1955 \end{cases}$

$$S = \frac{c^4}{16\pi G_*} \int \frac{\sqrt{-g}}{c} d^4x e^{2\varphi} \left[R - w (\partial_\mu \varphi)^2 + e^\varphi \mathcal{L}_{\text{matter}} \right]$$

where γ and w are constants.

Example of matter (to simplify): $\mathcal{L}_{\text{matter}} = -k_1 (\partial_\mu \pi^0)^2 - k_2 F_{\mu\nu}^2$

$$\Rightarrow S_{\text{matter}} \propto \int \sqrt{-g} d^4x \left[-k_1 e^{(b+1)\varphi} g^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \pi^0 \partial_\nu \pi^0 - k_2 e^{(b+1)\varphi} g^{\mu\rho} g^{\nu\sigma} F_{\mu\nu} F_{\rho\sigma} \right]$$

Let $\tilde{g}_{\mu\nu} \equiv e^{(b+1)\varphi} g_{\mu\nu}$

$$\Rightarrow \sqrt{-\tilde{g}} = e^{2(b+1)\varphi} \sqrt{-g} \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{g}^{\mu\nu} = e^{-(b+1)\varphi} g^{\mu\nu}$$

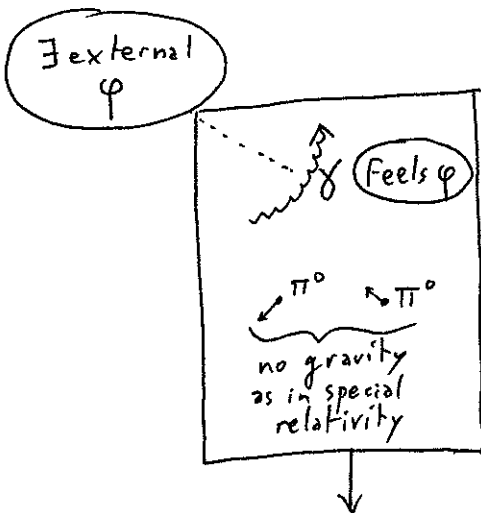
$$\Rightarrow \sqrt{-g} g^{\mu\nu} = e^{-(b+1)\varphi} \sqrt{-\tilde{g}} \tilde{g}^{\mu\nu}$$

Therefore

$$S_{\text{matter}} \propto \int \underbrace{\sqrt{-\tilde{g}} d^4x}_{\text{metric coupling}} \left[-k_1 \tilde{g}^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \pi^0 \partial_\nu \pi^0 - k_2 e^{(b+1)\varphi} \tilde{g}^{\mu\rho} \tilde{g}^{\nu\sigma} F_{\mu\nu} F_{\rho\sigma} \right]$$

⚠ not changed because of conformal invariance of S_{EM} in 4 dimensions (shown above)

non-metric coupling ("dilaton")

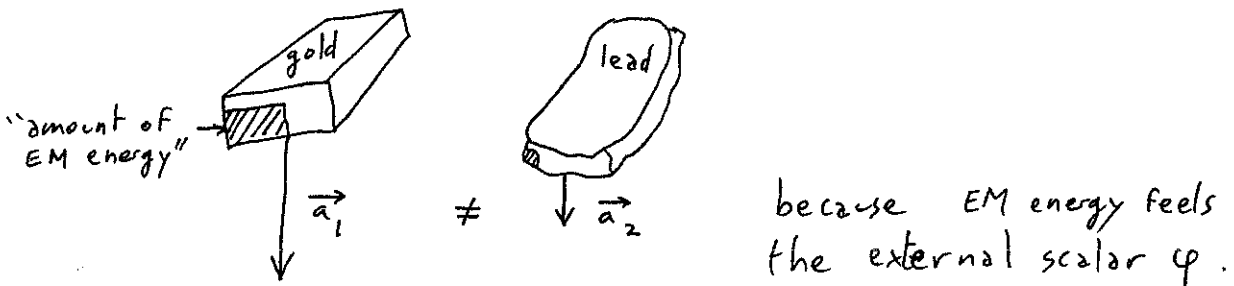


freely falling elevator with respect to $\tilde{g}_{\mu\nu}$ (i.e. elevator made of π^0 's, for instance!)

Photons Feel the scalar field, whatever the definition of $\tilde{g}_{\mu\nu}$!

N.B.: • Actually, an electromagnetic action $-\int \sqrt{-g} d^4x B^2(\varphi) F_{\mu\nu}^2$, although "non-metric", does not change the light trajectory in the eikonal approximation (cf. C. Will's lectures). It can also be shown that: the polarization is not affected either by $B^2(\varphi)$ in this approximation [private communication with B. Bertotti]. This explicit coupling $B^2(\varphi)$ to a scalar field actually only changes the amplitude of electromagnetic waves — difficult to measure accurately anyway.

- **(BUT)** this $B^2(\varphi)$ factor, i.e. $e^{(\eta+1)\varphi}$ in the Jordan framework, does change the amount of electromagnetic energy contained in any material body:



Since universality of free-fall is presently tested at the $\sim 3 \times 10^{-13}$ level, this imposes $|\eta+1| \lesssim 10^{-5}$

⇒

- * Fierz 1956 & Jordan 1959: Same class of models with $\eta = -1$:

$$S = \frac{c^4}{16\pi G_*} \int \frac{\sqrt{-g} d^4x}{c} \left[e^{-\varphi} R - \omega e^{-\varphi} (\partial_\mu \varphi)^2 + \mathcal{L}_{\text{matter}} \right]$$

- * Brans & Dicke 1961: Let $\Phi \equiv e^{-\varphi} \Rightarrow$

$$S = \frac{c^4}{16\pi G_*} \int \frac{\sqrt{-g} d^4x}{c} \left[\Phi R - \frac{\omega}{\Phi} (\partial_\mu \Phi)^2 \right] + S_{\text{matter}}[\Psi; g_{\mu\nu}]$$

- * Bergmann - Nordtvedt - Wagoner ~1970: generalization to any $\omega(\Phi)$ and with a possible potential $-2V(\Phi)$.

* Translation in Einstein frame:

• Use the exercise p. 9: define $g_{\mu\nu}^* \equiv \Phi g_{\mu\nu}$

$$\Rightarrow \int \sqrt{-g} \Phi R = \int \sqrt{-g^*} \left[R^* - \frac{3}{2} g^{*\mu\nu} \frac{\partial_\mu \Phi \partial_\nu \Phi}{\Phi^2} + \text{tot. div.} \right]$$

$$\text{and } -\int \sqrt{-g} \frac{\omega}{\Phi} g^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \Phi \partial_\nu \Phi = -\int \sqrt{-g^*} \omega g^{*\mu\nu} \frac{\partial_\mu \Phi \partial_\nu \Phi}{\Phi^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left\{ S = \frac{c^4}{16\pi G_*} \int \frac{\sqrt{-g^*} d^4x}{c} \left[R^* - \frac{2\omega+3}{2} g^{*\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \ln \Phi \partial_\nu \ln \Phi - 2 \frac{V(\Phi)}{\Phi^2} \right] \right. \\ \left. + S_{\text{matter}} [\Psi; g_{\mu\nu} = \frac{g_{\mu\nu}^*}{\Phi}] \right.$$

• Let $2 d\varphi = \pm \sqrt{2\omega+3} d \ln \Phi \Leftrightarrow \varphi - \varphi_0 = \pm \frac{\sqrt{2\omega(\Phi)+3} d\Phi}{2\Phi}$
 $= \pm \frac{\sqrt{2\omega+3}}{2} \ln \Phi$
 if $\omega = \text{const.}$ [Brans-Dicke]

\Rightarrow S takes now the general scalar-tensor form of p. 11:

$$S = \frac{c^4}{4\pi G_*} \int \frac{d^4x}{c} \sqrt{-g^*} \left\{ \frac{R^*}{4} - \frac{1}{2} g^{*\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \varphi \partial_\nu \varphi - V(\varphi) \right\} + S_{\text{matter}} [\Psi; A^2(\varphi) g_{\mu\nu}^*]$$

with $A^2(\varphi) \equiv \frac{1}{\Phi}$ and $2V(\varphi) \equiv \frac{V(\Phi)}{\Phi^2}$.

• Matter-scalar coupling strength:

$$\alpha(\varphi) \equiv \frac{d \ln A(\varphi)}{d\varphi} = \frac{\Phi d\Phi^{-1}}{\pm \sqrt{2\omega+3} d \ln \Phi} = \mp \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\omega+3}}$$

$$\Rightarrow 2\omega+3 = \frac{1}{\alpha^2(\varphi)}$$

Proves that $2\omega+3 > 0$ is necessary, otherwise the kinetic term for φ would have the wrong sign in Einstein frame \Rightarrow ghost scalar degree of freedom $\triangle!$

* Further generalizations

(21)

$$S = \int \sqrt{-g} d^4x f(R, \square R, \square^2 R, \dots, \square^m R)$$

Same kind of reasoning as for $f(R)$ in p. 6

⇒ generically equivalent to a tensor + (m+1) scalar fields

theory. [Gottlöber, Schmidt & Starobinsky, Class. Quantum Grav. 7, 893 (1990);
D. Wands, Class. Quantum Grav. 11, 269 (1994)].

$$S = \frac{c^4}{4\pi G_N} \int \frac{d^4x}{c} \sqrt{-g^*} \left\{ \frac{R^*}{4} - \frac{1}{2} g^{*\mu\nu} \gamma_{ab}(\varphi^c) \partial_\mu \varphi^a \partial_\nu \varphi^b - V(\varphi^a) \right\} \\ + S_{\text{matter}}[\Psi; A^2(\varphi^a) g^{*\mu\nu}]$$

where $\gamma_{ab}(\varphi^c)$ is a $n \times n$ symmetric matrix possibly dependent on the n scalar fields φ^a [i.e. a " σ -model metric"].

[general study in T. Damour & G.E.F., Class. Quantum Grav. 9 (1992) 2093]

* \exists even more general scalar-tensor models, involving functions of the kinetic term $f[(\partial_\mu \varphi)^2]$, called "k-inflation", "k-essence" or "RAQUAL" models. We will examine them in part ① of these lectures.

* At the 1st post-Newtonian (1PN) level, i.e. $\frac{1}{c^2}$ smaller than Newton's force, scalar-tensor theories (with $V(\varphi)=0$) can be described in terms of the PPN parameters.

- Simplest way to obtain the only ones which differ from GR's values (but does not prove that they are the only ones):

We already know that $\varphi = \varphi_0 - \frac{\gamma_0 G_* M_*}{rc^2} + O\left(\frac{1}{c^4}\right)$ if $V(\varphi)=0$

Einstein's equations \Rightarrow

$$R^*_{\mu\nu} = 2 \partial_\mu \varphi \partial_\nu \varphi + \frac{8\pi G_*}{c^4} \left(T^*_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} T^* g^*_{\mu\nu} \right)$$

in vacuum

Therefore, only $R^*_{rr} = 2(\partial_r \varphi)^2$ is modified with respect to G.R. in a static & spherically symmetric situation.

Let us choose isotropic coordinates

$$ds^{*2} = -e^\nu c^2 dt^2 + e^\lambda (dr^2 + r^2 d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)$$

Then $R^*_{00} = 0 \Rightarrow \Delta \nu + \frac{1}{2} \nu' (\nu' + \lambda') = 0$ (cf. exponential parametrization of g_{00} underlined in Damour's lectures)

we wish to know g^*_{00} at order $\frac{1}{c^4}$ included $\Rightarrow \lambda'$ at first order $\left(\frac{1}{c^2}\right)$ suffices here.

and $\left. \begin{matrix} R^*_{rr} = 0 \\ R^*_{\theta\theta} = 0 \end{matrix} \right\} \Rightarrow \Delta \lambda + O(\lambda', \nu') = -2 \varphi'^2$
 [or $R^*_{\theta\theta} = R^*_{\phi\phi} = 0$]
 \Rightarrow negligible!
 needed at order $\frac{1}{c^2}$ only for computing 1PN effects

Therefore, at 1PN order, $g^*_{\mu\nu}$ takes strictly the same form as G.R. :

$$ds_x^2 = - \left(1 - \frac{2G_* M_*}{rc^2} + 2 \left(\frac{G_* M_*}{rc^2} \right)^2 + O\left(\frac{1}{c^6}\right) \right) c^2 dt^2 + \left(1 + 2 \frac{G_* M_*}{rc^2} + O\left(\frac{1}{c^4}\right) \right) d\vec{x}^2$$

Conclusion: no deviation from G.R. at $\frac{1}{c^2}$ order??

- No Δ because matter is coupled to $\tilde{g}_{\mu\nu} = A^2(\varphi) g^*_{\mu\nu}$ and not to $g^*_{\mu\nu}$ alone!
 \Rightarrow Let us compute the expansion of the conformal Factor $A^2(\varphi)$ up to $O(\frac{1}{c^4})$ included :

$$A^2(\varphi) = A^2(\varphi_0) \exp \left[2\alpha_0(\varphi - \varphi_0) + \beta_0(\varphi - \varphi_0)^2 + O\left(\frac{1}{c^6}\right) \right]$$

Now we need φ up to $O(\frac{1}{c^4})$ included. Its field equation reads, in a static situation and in vacuum :

$$\square^* \varphi = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{1}{\sqrt{-g^*}} \partial_r \left(\sqrt{-g^*} g^{rr} \partial_r \varphi \right) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \partial_r \left\{ r^2 \left[1 + \frac{2G_* M_*}{rc^2} + O\left(\frac{1}{c^4}\right) \right] \left[1 - \frac{2G_* M_*}{rc^2} + O\left(\frac{1}{c^4}\right) \right] \partial_r \varphi \right\} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \partial_r \varphi = \frac{\text{const.}}{c^2 r^2} + O\left(\frac{1}{c^6}\right)$$

↑
no term in $\frac{1}{c^4}$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\varphi - \varphi_0 = - \frac{\alpha_A G_* M_A^*}{rc^2} + O\left(\frac{1}{c^6}\right)} \quad \left(\text{just a name for the constant!} \right)$$

where $\alpha_A = \alpha_0 + O\left(\frac{1}{c^2}\right)$ because the source is $\alpha(\varphi) T_*^{\text{matter}} = (\alpha_0 + \beta_0 \varphi + \dots) T_*^{\text{matter}}$
 ↑
 depends on local value of φ where body A is located

We have thus

$$\frac{A^2(\varphi)}{A^2(\varphi_0)} = 1 + 2\alpha_0 (\varphi - \varphi_0) + [2\alpha_0^2 + \beta_0] (\varphi - \varphi_0)^2 + O\left(\frac{1}{c^6}\right)$$

$$= 1 - 2\alpha_A \alpha_0 \frac{G_* M_A^*}{rc^2} + 2 \left[(\alpha_A \alpha_0)^2 + \frac{\alpha_A^2 \beta_0}{2} \right] \left(\frac{G_* M_A^*}{rc^2} \right)^2 + O\left(\frac{1}{c^6}\right)$$

and the physical (Jordan-frame) line element then reads

$$\left\{ \begin{aligned} d\tilde{s}^2 &= A^2(\varphi) ds_*^2 \\ &= - \left[1 - 2 \frac{\tilde{G}_{\text{eff}} \tilde{M}_A}{\tilde{r} c^2} + 2 \beta^{\text{PPN}} \left(\frac{\tilde{G}_{\text{eff}} \tilde{M}_A}{\tilde{r} c^2} \right)^2 + O\left(\frac{1}{c^6}\right) \right] c^2 d\tilde{T}^2 \\ &\quad + \left[1 + 2 \gamma^{\text{PPN}} \frac{\tilde{G}_{\text{eff}} \tilde{M}_A}{\tilde{r} c^2} + O\left(\frac{1}{c^4}\right) \right] d\tilde{x}^{\rightarrow 2} \end{aligned} \right.$$

(standard post-Newtonian form, proposed by Eddington in 1922 and generalized by Will & Nordtvedt in 1968-1972)

where $\tilde{T} = A(\varphi_0) t$ and $\tilde{r} = A(\varphi_0) r$ to get $\eta_{\mu\nu}$ at infinity
 $\tilde{M} = A^{-1}(\varphi_0) M_*$ consistent rescaling (compare with p. (14))

One may choose $A(\varphi_0) = 1$ from the beginning to simplify

$\tilde{G}_{\text{eff}} = G_* A^2(\varphi_0) [1 + \alpha_A \alpha_0]$	effective Newton's constant
$\gamma^{\text{PPN}} = 1 - 2 \frac{\alpha_A \alpha_0}{1 + \alpha_A \alpha_0}$	$\neq 1$ in G.R.
$\beta^{\text{PPN}} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\alpha_A^2 \beta_0}{(1 + \alpha_A \alpha_0)^2}$	$\neq 1$ in G.R.

For laboratory-size objects, negligible self-gravity $\Rightarrow \alpha_A$ may be replaced by α_0

$$\tilde{G}_{\text{eff}} = G_* A_0^2 (1 + \alpha_0^2)$$

$$\gamma^{\text{PPN}} = 1 - 2 \frac{\alpha_0^2}{1 + \alpha_0^2}$$

$$\beta^{\text{PPN}} = 1 + \frac{\alpha_0^2 \beta_0}{2(1 + \alpha_0^2)^2}$$

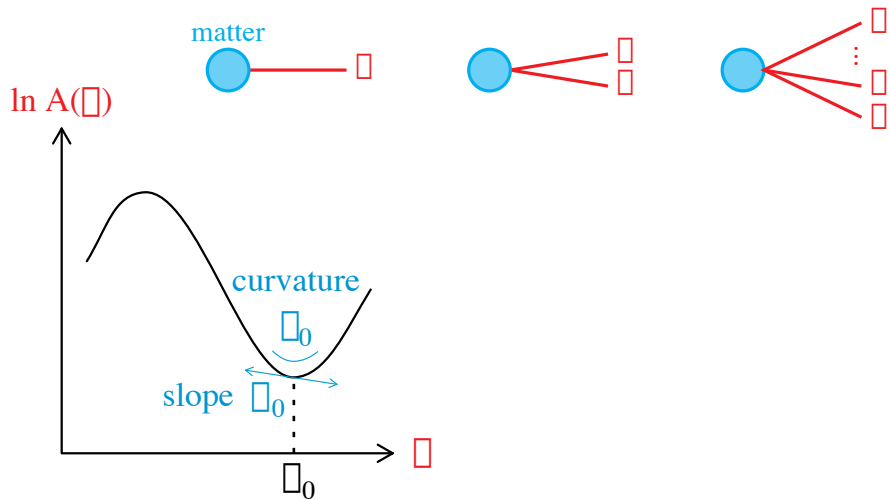
$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \tilde{G}_{\text{eff}} = \frac{G_*}{\Phi_0} \frac{2\omega + 4}{2\omega + 3} \text{ in Brans-Dicke} \\ \gamma^{\text{PPN}} = \frac{1 + \omega}{2 + \omega} \\ \beta^{\text{PPN}} = \frac{\Phi_0}{(2\omega + 3)(2\omega + 4)^2} \frac{d\omega}{d\Phi} \end{cases}$$

Tensor-scalar theories

$$S = \frac{1}{16G} \int \sqrt{|g^*|} \left\{ R^* + 2 (\partial_\mu \phi)^2 \right\} + S_{\text{matter}} \left[\text{matter}, g_{\mu\nu} = A^2(\phi) g_{\mu\nu}^* \right]$$

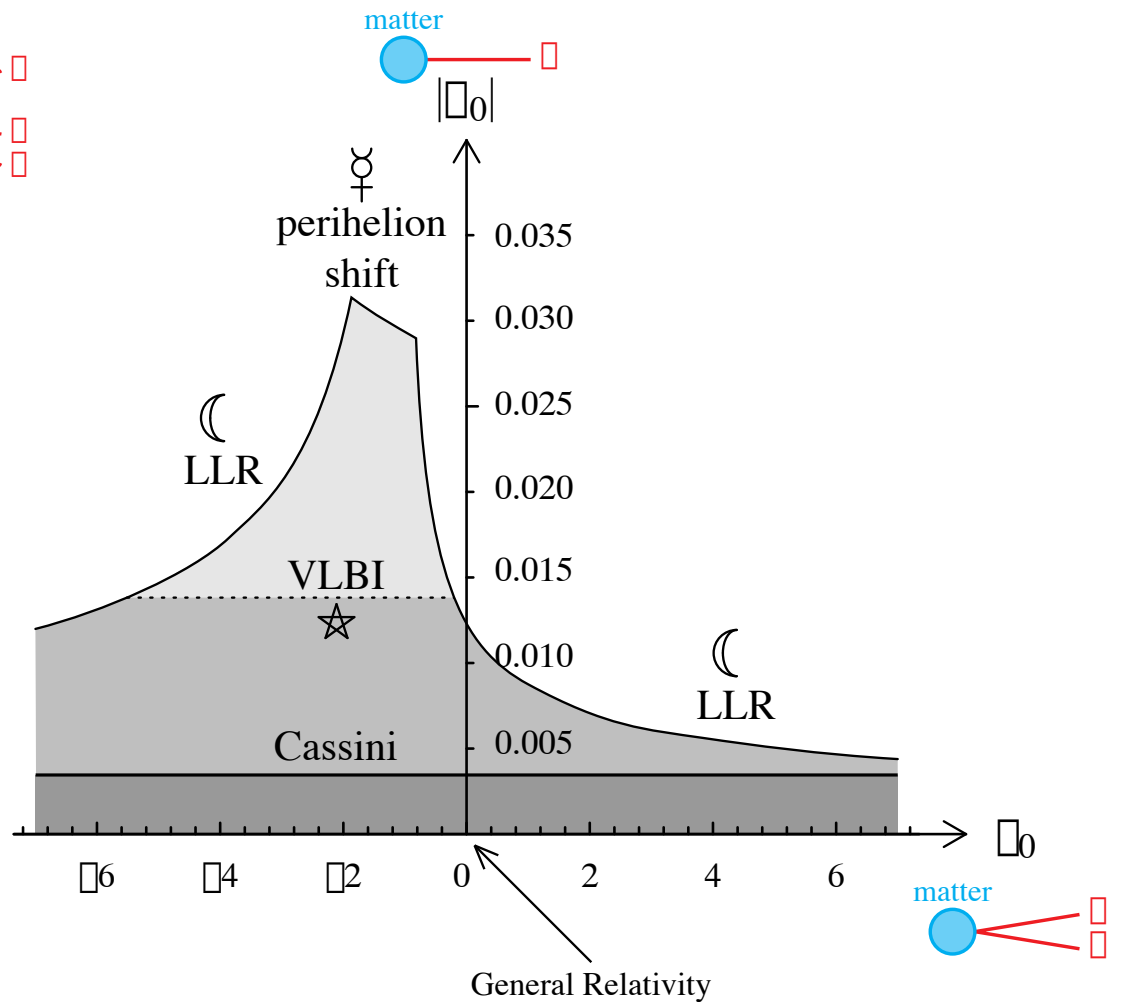
↑ spin 2
↑ spin 0
↑ physical metric

$$\ln A(\phi) = \alpha_0 (\phi - \phi_0) + \frac{1}{2} \alpha_0 (\phi - \phi_0)^2 + \dots$$



$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} G_{\text{eff}} = G (1 + \alpha_0^2) \\ \alpha_{\text{PPN}}^{-1} \propto \alpha_0^2 \\ \alpha_{\text{PPN}}^{-1} \propto \alpha_0^2 \alpha_0 \end{array} \right.$$

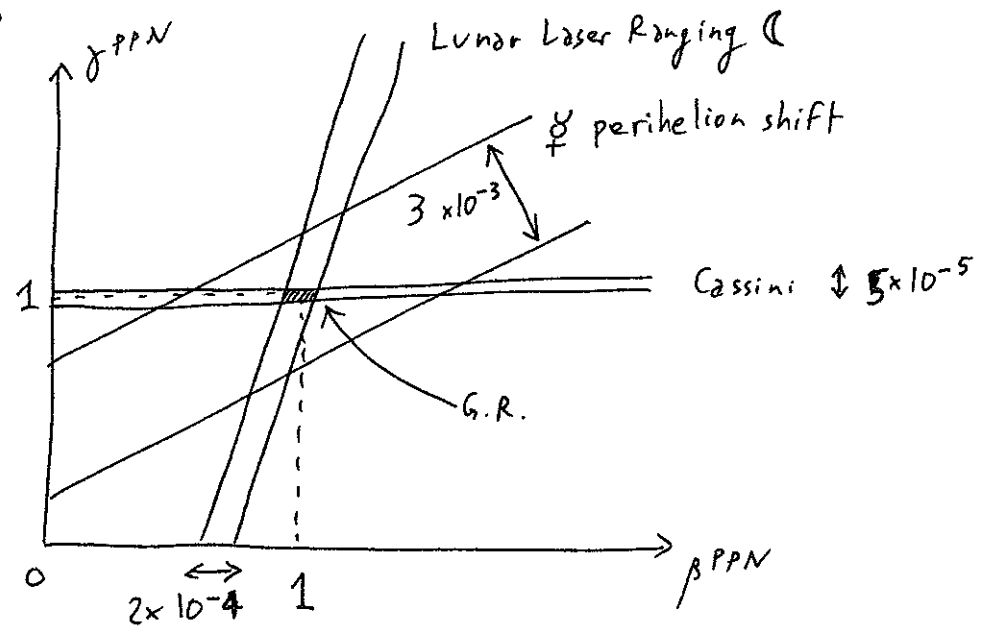
graviton
scalar



Vertical axis ($\alpha_0 = 0$): Jordan-Fierz-Brans-Dicke theory $\alpha_0^2 = \frac{1}{2\alpha_{\text{BD}} + 3}$
 Horizontal axis ($\alpha_0 = 0$): perturbatively equivalent to G.R.

N.B.: Beware that G_{eff} is set to 1 in Will's book, so that Φ_0 is replaced by $\frac{2w+4}{2w+3}$ and β^{PPN} becomes $\beta^{PPN} = \frac{dw/d\phi}{(2w+3)^2(2w+4)}$!

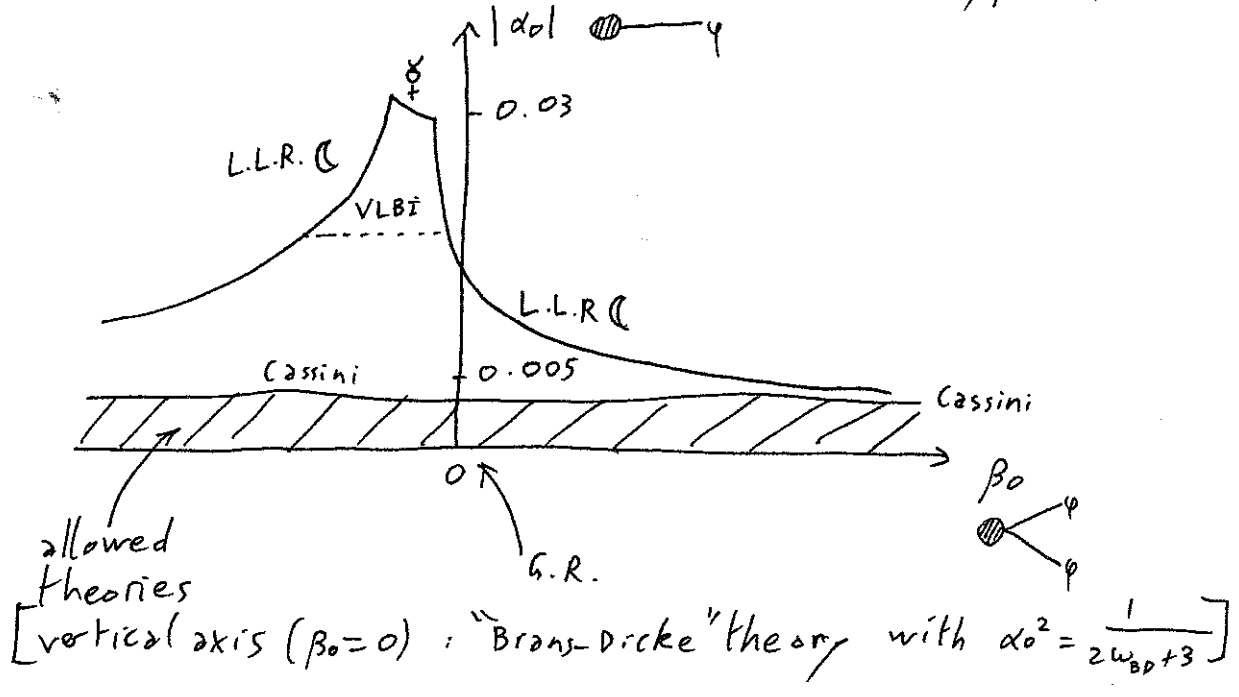
Solar-system constraints



Best constraint (Cassini) : $|\gamma - 1| < 2 \times 10^{-5} \Rightarrow |\alpha_0| < 3 \times 10^{-3}$

The scalar field must be weakly linearly coupled to matter

On the other hand, other constraints on $|\alpha_0^2 \beta_0|$ do not tell us much. Plot of the constraints in the (α_0, β_0) plane:




- 3 many other ways to derive the 1PN limit of scalar-tensor theories. For instance, one may follow Will's lectures in this framework and compute which potentials enter the metric when only a tensor (spin-2 graviton) and a scalar (spin-0) field mediate gravity.
- A powerful method has been illustrated in Damour's lectures, the use of classical Feynman-like diagrams, computed in x space (instead of momentum space as in QFT).

[T. Damour & G.E.F, Phys. Rev. D 53 (1996) 5541]


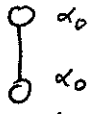
By replacing in the action the fields ($g_{\mu\nu}^*$ and φ) by their expressions in terms of the matter sources, one gets a so-called "Fokker" action describing the dynamics of the bodies in terms of their positions, velocities, accelerations (... at higher PN orders).

$$\left\{ \begin{aligned}
 S_{\text{nbodies}} &= -\sum_A m_A c^2 \sqrt{1 - \vec{v}_A^2/c^2} && \text{(free point particles)} \\
 &+ \frac{1}{2} \text{diagram} && \text{(Newtonian interaction)} \\
 &+ \frac{1}{2} \text{diagram} + \frac{1}{3} \text{diagram} && \text{(1PN corrections)} \\
 &+ \frac{1}{3} \text{diagram} + \frac{1}{2} \text{diagram} + \text{diagram} + \frac{1}{2} \text{diagram} + \frac{1}{4} \text{diagram} && \text{(2PN corrections)} \\
 &+ \dots
 \end{aligned} \right.$$

where the numerical factors are related to the symmetries of the various diagrams, and \equiv stands for either
 graviton
 or --- scalar field

* For instance, the Newtonian interaction reads

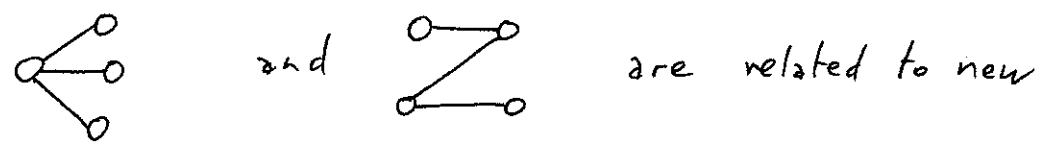
cf. $G_{\text{eff}} = G_* (1 + \alpha_0^2)$


+


* γ^{PPN} is related to a $\frac{\vec{v}^2}{c^2}$ correction to the Newton $\frac{1}{r^2}$ Force and thus to relativistic effects in $\left[\text{loop} + \text{loop} \right]$, cf. $\gamma^{PPN}-1 \propto \alpha_0^2$

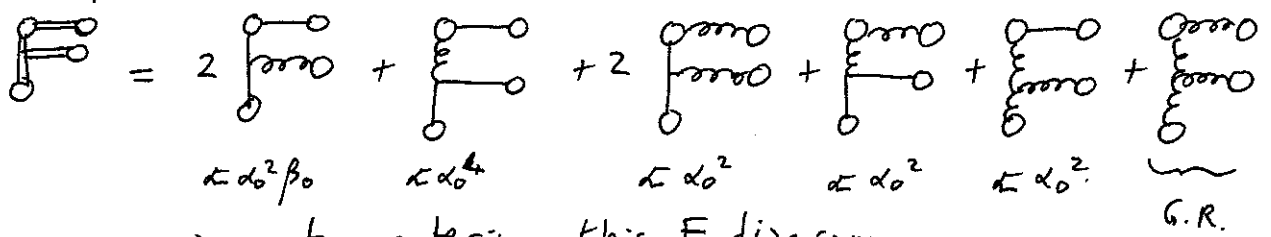
* $\beta^{PPN}-1$ is related to  , cf. $\beta^{PPN}-1 \propto \alpha_0^2/\beta_0$

* Even without any calculation, such diagrams can be useful to identify new possible deviations from G.R. at higher orders. For instance, the 2PN diagrams



parameters ϵ and γ which take 0 value in G.R. On the other hand, the other 2PN diagrams yield 2PN effects $\propto (\gamma^{PPN}-1)$ or $(\beta^{PPN}-1)$ already tightly constrained by solar-system tests.

Indeed ∇ vertex with 3 scalar fields \Rightarrow



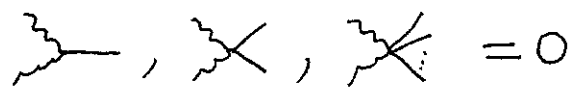
\Rightarrow no new parameter entering this F diagram.

* Simple proof that any effect on light is $\propto (\gamma^{PPN}+1)$ at the 1PN order:

$$S_{EM} = -\frac{1}{4} \int d^4x \sqrt{-g} g^{\mu\rho} g^{\nu\sigma} F_{\mu\nu} F_{\rho\sigma}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{4} \int d^4x \sqrt{-g^*} g^{*\mu\rho} g^{*\nu\sigma} F_{\mu\nu} F_{\rho\sigma} \quad (\text{conformal invariance})$$

\Rightarrow there is no vertex connecting photons \rightsquigarrow to a scalar line



Therefore, any effect involving light will be proportional 29
 to $\frac{G_* M}{rc^2}$ as in G.R.

However, we do not measure $G_* M$ with Cavendish-type experiments or by analyzing the planets' orbits, but

$$G_{\text{eff}} M = G_* (1 + \alpha_0^2) M \Rightarrow \text{effects on light} \propto \frac{G_{\text{eff}} M}{(1 + \alpha_0^2) rc^2}$$

$$= \frac{G_{\text{eff}} M}{rc^2} \left(\frac{1 + \gamma^{\text{PPN}}}{2} \right)$$

From the expression of γ^{PPN} derived p. 25

* For instance, light deflection $\Delta\theta = \frac{4 G_* M}{bc^2}$ like in G.R., but in terms of the measured $G_{\text{eff}} M$, one gets

$$\left\{ \begin{aligned} \Delta\theta &= \frac{2(1 + \gamma^{\text{PPN}}) G_{\text{eff}} M}{bc^2} \\ &= \frac{4 G_{\text{eff}} M}{(1 + \alpha_0^2) bc^2} \quad \text{smaller than G.R.'s prediction} \end{aligned} \right.$$

Scalar-tensor theories predict thus a light deflection whose value lies between the extremal cases of

Nordström's theory $\Delta\theta = 0$
 and General Relativity $\Delta\theta = \frac{4 G_{\text{eff}} M}{bc^2}$

• Example of a diagrammatic calculation:

Action of a point particle $S_{pp} = - \int m(\varphi) c ds^*$

\downarrow \downarrow
 $A(\varphi) \tilde{m}_{const}$ $\sqrt{-g_{\mu\nu}^* dz^\mu dz^\nu}$

* Expanding to first order in $(\varphi - \varphi_0)$ and $(g_{\mu\nu}^* - \eta_{\mu\nu})$, one finds the source terms

- for the scalar field: $\sigma(x) = - \sum_{part. A} \int d\tau_A m_A^0 c^2 \alpha_A \delta^{(4)}(x - z_A(\tau))$

$\alpha_A \uparrow$ ○

- for the graviton: $\sigma^{\alpha\beta}(x) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_A \int d\tau_A m_A^0 c^2 u_A^\alpha u_A^\beta \delta^{(4)}(x - z_A(\tau))$

$u_A^\alpha \uparrow$ ○○○○
unit 4-velocity of particle A.

* At quadratic order, $S_{grav.}$ defines the propagators ○○○○ and —:

$$S_\varphi = - \frac{c^3}{4\pi G_*} \int d^4x \frac{1}{2} \eta^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \varphi \partial_\nu \varphi + O(\hbar \varphi^2, \varphi^4)$$

$$= \int d^4x \left(-\frac{1}{2} \varphi \mathcal{P}_\varphi^{-1} \varphi \right)$$

—

where $\mathcal{P}_\varphi(x,y) = \frac{G_*}{c^3} \mathcal{G}_\varphi(x-y)$ such that $\square_{flat} \mathcal{G}_\varphi(x) = -4\pi \delta^{(4)}(x)$
Green's function

and $S_{spin2} = \frac{c^3}{16\pi G_*} \int d^4x \left[-\frac{1}{2} (\partial_\mu h_{\alpha\beta}) \alpha^{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta} (\partial^\mu h_{\gamma\delta}) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\partial_\nu h_\mu^\nu - \frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu h^\nu_\nu \right)^2 \right] + O(\hbar^3)$

gauge-fixing term
(otherwise the propagator is non-invertible)

where $\alpha^{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta} = \frac{1}{4} (\eta^{\alpha\gamma} \eta^{\beta\delta} + \eta^{\alpha\delta} \eta^{\beta\gamma} - \eta^{\alpha\beta} \eta^{\gamma\delta}) \left[= \frac{1}{4} \rho^{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta} \right]$

Therefore $S_{spin2} = \int d^4x \left(-\frac{1}{2} h_{\alpha\beta} \mathcal{P}_h^{-1 \alpha\beta\gamma\delta} h_{\gamma\delta} \right)$

with $\mathcal{P}_{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta}^h(x,y) = \frac{4G_*}{c^3} \rho_{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta} \mathcal{G}_\varphi(x-y)$ ○○○○

* One can thus compute the \mathcal{O} diagram:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{O} &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\mathcal{O} + \mathcal{O} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \iint dx dy \left[\sigma(x) \mathcal{P}_\varphi(x,y) \sigma(y) + \sigma^{\alpha\beta}(x) \mathcal{P}_{\alpha\beta\gamma}^h(x,y) \sigma^{\gamma\delta}(y) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{A \neq B} \int d\tau_A d\tau_B (m_A^0 c^2) (m_B^0 c^2) \frac{G_*}{c^3} \mathcal{G}(\vec{z}_A - \vec{z}_B) \left[\underbrace{\alpha_{AB}}_{\mathcal{O}} + \underbrace{2(u_A u_B)^2 - 1}_{\mathcal{O}} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{A \neq B} \int d\tau_A \int d\tau_B \underbrace{G_* (1 + \alpha_{AB})}_{\equiv G_{AB}} m_A^0 m_B^0 \left[1 + (1 + \gamma_{AB}^{PPN}) (u_A u_B)^2 - 1 \right] c \mathcal{G}(\vec{z}_A - \vec{z}_B) \end{aligned}$$

This calculation gives the $\mathcal{O}(G)$ interaction to all orders in $(\frac{v}{c})$!
 ← "1st post-Minkowskian"

* Now one can perform a post-Newtonian expansion:

$$(u_A u_B)^2 - 1 = \frac{(\vec{v}_A - \vec{v}_B)^2}{c^2} + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{c^4}\right)$$

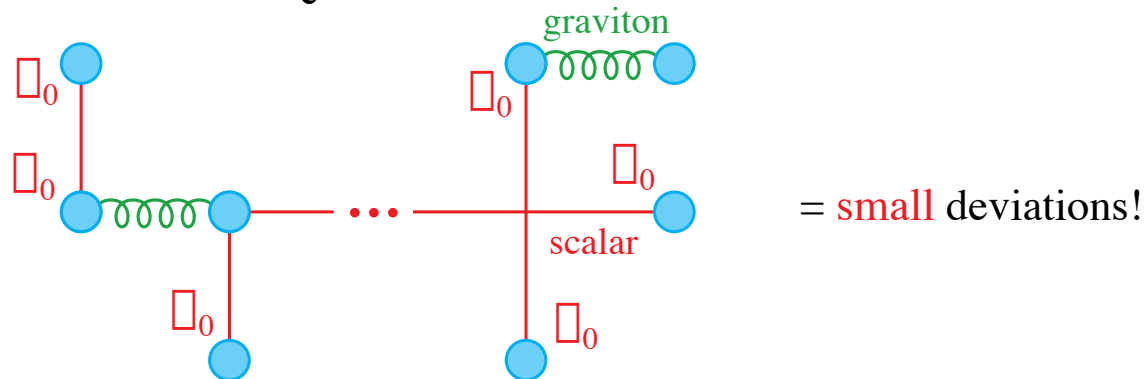
$$\begin{aligned} c \mathcal{G}_{sym}(\vec{z}_A - \vec{z}_B) &= \\ \uparrow & \\ \text{for conservative} &= \frac{\delta(t_A - t_B - \frac{r_{AB}}{c}) + \delta(t_A - t_B + \frac{r_{AB}}{c})}{2 r_{AB}} \\ \text{part of the} & \\ \text{N-body action} & \\ &= \frac{\delta(t_A - t_B)}{r_{AB}} + \frac{|\vec{z}_A - \vec{z}_B(t_B)|}{2 c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \delta(t_A - t_B)}{\partial t_B^2} + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{c^4}\right) \\ & \quad \uparrow \\ & \quad \text{not even necessary for} \\ & \quad \text{computing the scalar-field} \\ & \quad \text{effect, since multiplied} \\ & \quad \text{by } (u_A u_B)^2 - 1 = \mathcal{O}(1/c^2) \end{aligned}$$

⇒ 2-body interaction

$$\boxed{\frac{1}{2} \sum_{A \neq B} \frac{G_{AB} m_A m_B}{r_{AB}} \left[1 + \text{all G.R. terms in } \frac{v^2}{c^2} + (\gamma_{AB}^{PPN} - 1) \frac{(\vec{v}_A - \vec{v}_B)^2}{c^2} + \mathcal{O}(1/c^4) \right]}$$

Deviations from general relativity due to the scalar field

- At any order in $\frac{1}{c^n}$, the deviations involve at least two κ_0 factors:



- But **nonperturbative** strong-field effects may occur:

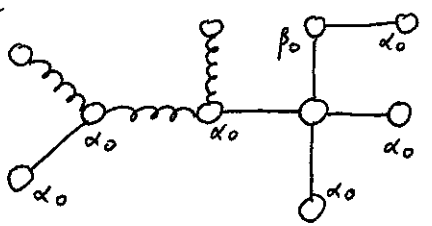
$$\text{deviations} = \kappa_0^2 \underbrace{\left[a_0 + a_1 \frac{Gm}{Rc^2} + a_2 \left(\frac{Gm}{Rc^2} \right)^2 + \dots \right]}_{\text{LARGE for } \frac{Gm}{Rc^2} \approx 0.2 ?}$$

$< 10^{-5}$

A.7: Strong-Field predictions

(32)

* If one works perturbatively, say at the n th post-Newtonian order $\frac{1}{c^{2n}}$, deviations from G.R. come from tree diagrams

like  in which \exists at least one scalar line.

Each end of such a scalar line involves the linear matter-scalar coupling constant α_0 . Since \exists at least 2 ends:

$$\text{deviations from G.R.} = \alpha_0^2 \times \left[\lambda_0 + \lambda_1 \frac{GM}{Rc^2} + \lambda_2 \left(\frac{GM}{Rc^2} \right)^2 + \dots \right]$$

↑ ↑
combinations of parameters
entering $\ln A(\varphi) = \ln A_0 + \alpha_0 \varphi + \frac{1}{2} \beta_0 \varphi^2 + \dots$

where solar-system tests impose $\alpha_0^2 < 10^{-5}$.

\Rightarrow All post-Newtonian deviations are already known to be small!
{ In particular, if $\alpha_0 = 0$, then the scalar-tensor model is perturbatively equivalent to G.R.

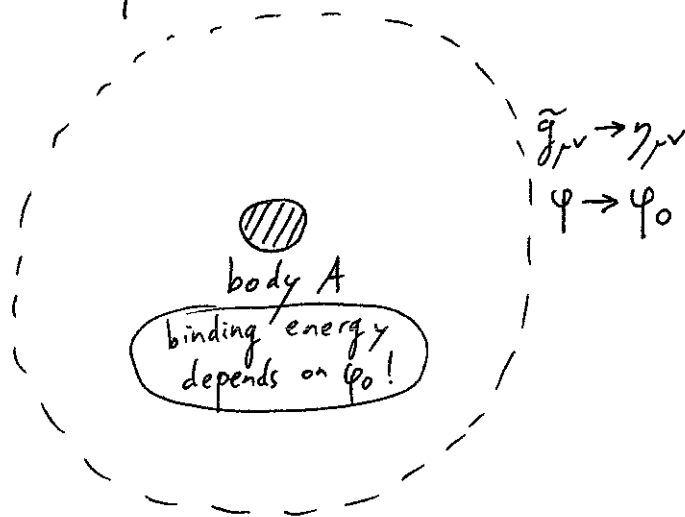
* However, the series $\left[\lambda_0 + \lambda_1 \frac{GM}{Rc^2} + \lambda_2 \left(\frac{GM}{Rc^2} \right)^2 + \dots \right]$ may become large (or even diverge) if the compactness $\frac{GM}{Rc^2}$ of a body is large enough. Actually, we will see that it can compensate a vanishingly small factor α_0^2 :

nonperturbative strong-field effects $\triangle!$

* In scalar-tensor theories, one can (like in G.R.) impose $\tilde{g}_{\mu\nu} \rightarrow \eta_{\mu\nu}$ on a sphere surrounding a body (up to tidal effects), but the gravitational physics anyway depends on the boundary value (φ_0) of the scalar field, notably via

$$\tilde{G}_{\text{eff}} = G_* A^2(\varphi_0) [1 + \alpha^2(\varphi_0)]$$

⇒ The equilibrium configuration of a massive body depends on φ_0 !



* A simple way to take this effect into account is to allow for any function $m_A(\varphi)$, not necessarily $A(\varphi) \tilde{m}_A$ that we found for laboratory-size objects. [const.]

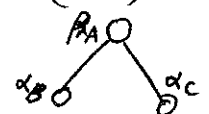
* More generally, finite-size effects (i.e. body \neq point particle) can be taken into account by writing $m_A[\varphi]$ as a functional of $\varphi, g^*_{\mu\nu}$ and their (multi-)derivatives. This is an expansion in $\epsilon = \frac{\text{size of body}}{\text{intobody distance}}$. If ϵ is small enough,

a function $m_A(\varphi)$ suffices [this is the case in practice].

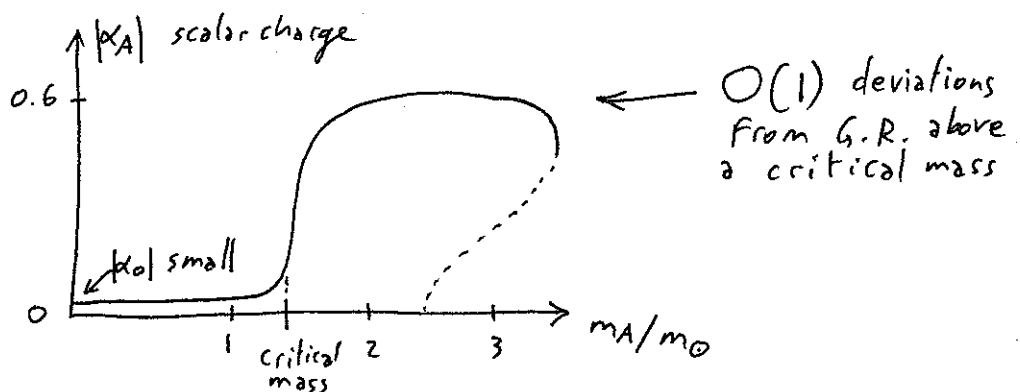
* As already shown in Sec. A.6, all the predictions remain the same as in weak-field conditions, with the only replacement of the bare coupling constants

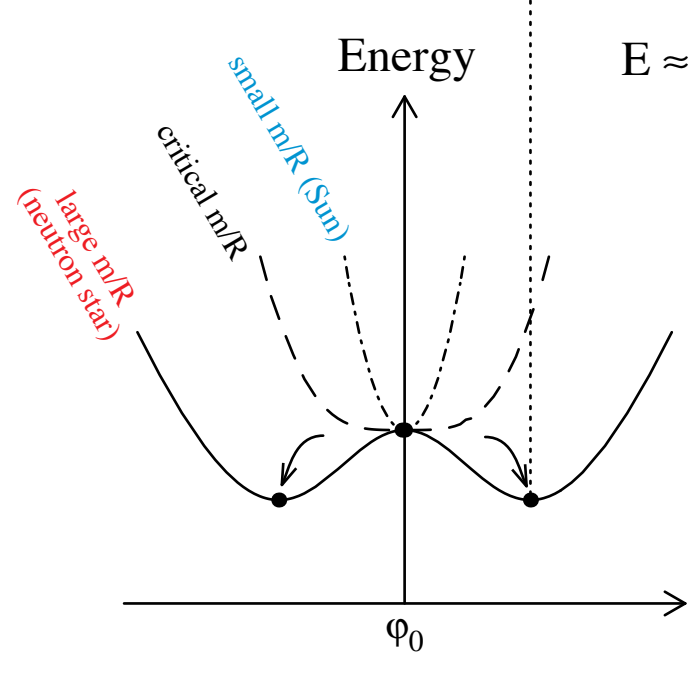
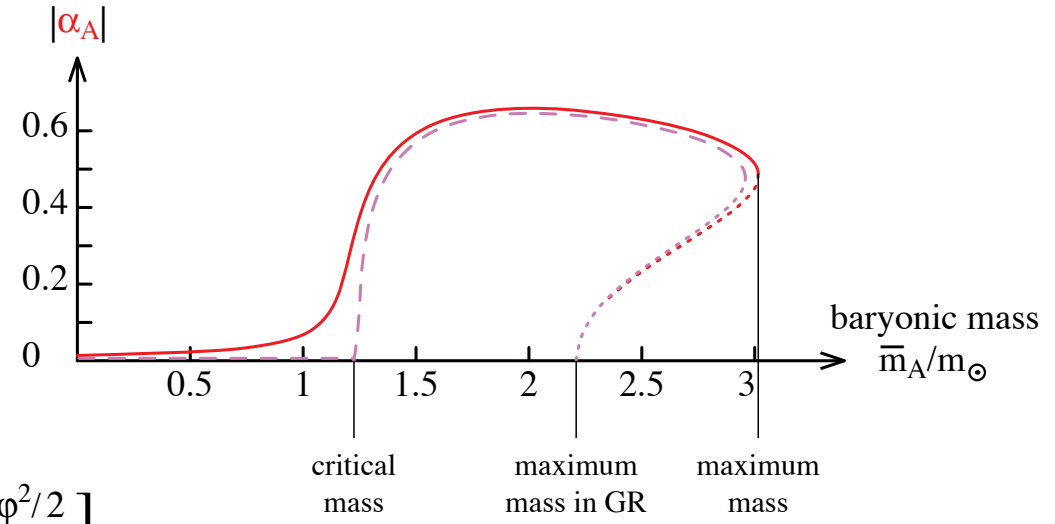
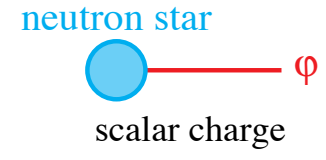
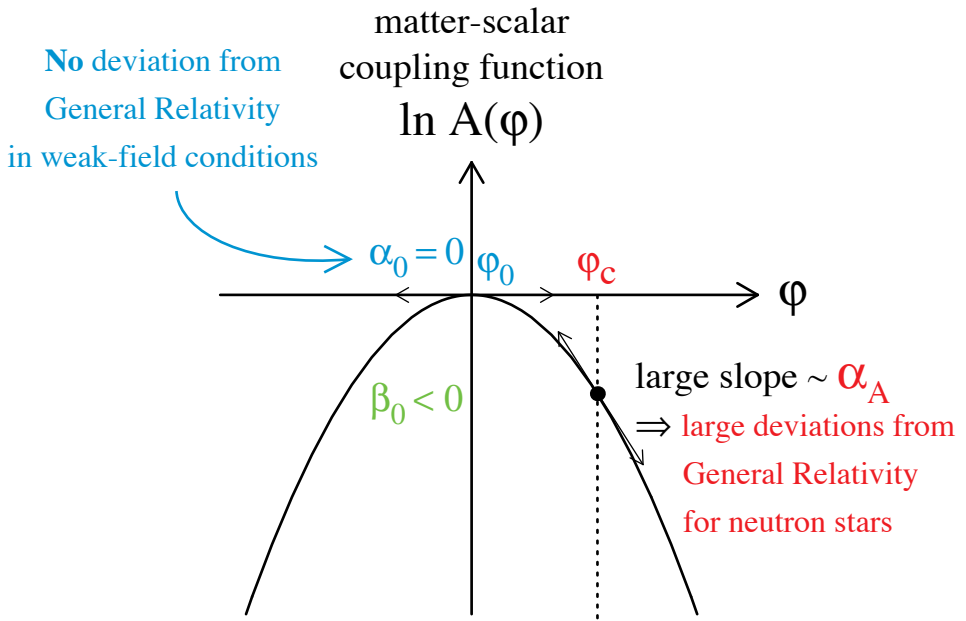
$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \alpha_0 \\ \beta_0 \\ \vdots \end{array} \right. \text{ by body-dependent ones } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \alpha_A = \frac{d \ln m_A(\varphi)}{d\varphi} \\ \beta_A = \frac{d\alpha_A}{d\varphi} \\ \vdots \end{array} \right.$$

For instance

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} G_{\text{eff}} = G_* \left(1 + \frac{\alpha_0^2}{1 + \alpha_0^2} \right) \text{ becomes } G_{AB} = G_* \left(1 + \frac{\alpha_A \alpha_B}{1 + \alpha_A \alpha_B} \right) \\ \gamma^{\text{PPN}} = 1 - 2 \frac{\alpha_0^2}{1 + \alpha_0^2} \text{ becomes } \gamma_{AB}^{\text{PPN}} = 1 - 2 \frac{\alpha_A \alpha_B}{1 + \alpha_A \alpha_B} \\ \beta^{\text{PPN}} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\alpha_0^2 \beta_0}{(1 + \alpha_0^2)^2} \text{ becomes } \beta_{BC}^A = 1 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\beta_A \alpha_B \alpha_C}{(1 + \alpha_A \alpha_B)(1 + \alpha_A \alpha_C)} \end{array} \right.$$


* The only difficulty is that one must now compute the body-dependent quantities α_A, β_A, \dots by numerically solving the field equations for compact bodies, taking into account the couplings between $g_{\mu\nu}^*, \varphi$, and a realistic equation of state describing matter.





$$E \approx \int \left[\frac{1}{2} (\vec{\nabla}\varphi)^2 + \rho e^{\beta_0\varphi^2/2} \right]$$

\downarrow \downarrow
 $\frac{1}{2} R \varphi_c^2$ + $m e^{\beta_0\varphi_c^2/2}$
 parabola Gaussian
 if $\beta_0 < 0$

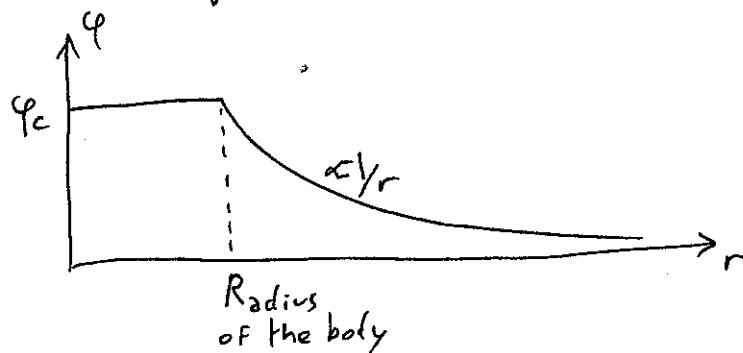
“spontaneous scalarization” [T. Damour & G.E-F 1993]

* Intuitive reason for this nonperturbative phenomenon (35)

Let us assume $\alpha_0 = 0$ strictly, say $A(\varphi) = e^{\frac{1}{2}\beta_0\varphi^2}$,
 and show that $\alpha_A \neq 0$ is possible, i.e. that
 a massive enough body may generate $\varphi - \varphi_0 = \frac{-\alpha_A G_* M_A}{rc^2}$
 outside it.

$$+ O\left(\frac{1}{c^4}\right)$$

Consider a trial configuration of φ

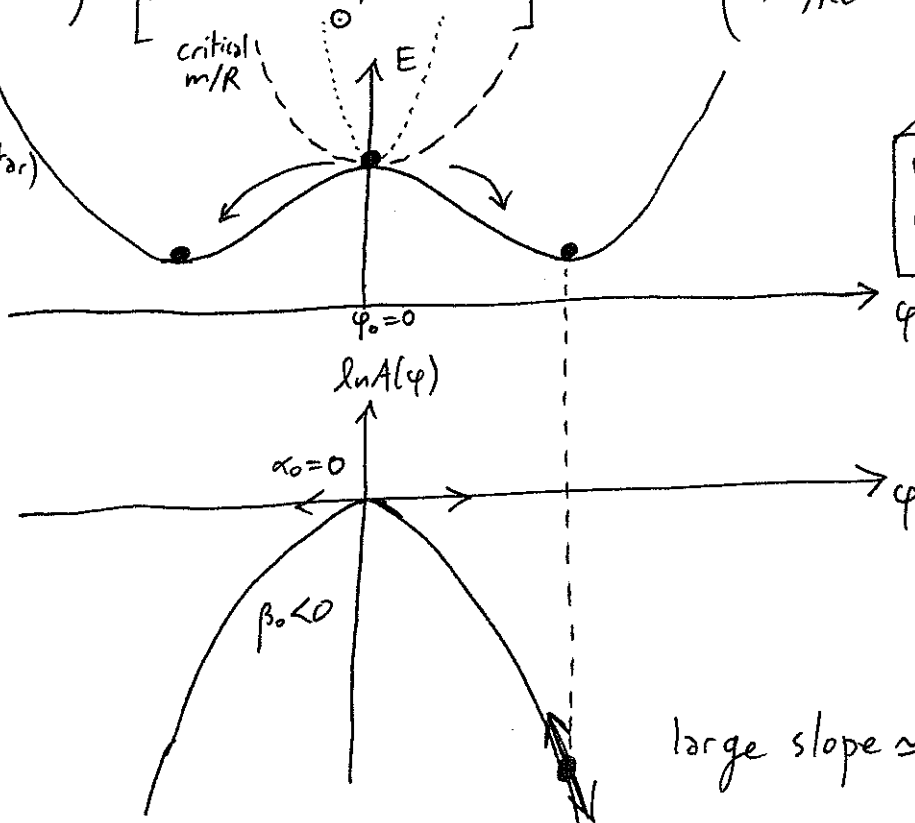


and compute its energy:

$$E \approx \int \left[\frac{1}{2} (\partial_i \varphi)^2 + \rho e^{\frac{1}{2}\beta_0\varphi^2} \right] \approx mc^2 \left(\frac{\varphi_c^2/2}{Gm/Rc^2} + e^{\beta_0\varphi_c^2/2} \right)$$

↑
Gaussian if $\beta_0 < 0$

Large m/R
(neutron star)



energetically favorable to create $\varphi_c \neq \varphi_0$

large slope $\approx \alpha_A$

A.8. Gravitational waves

Similar calculations as in G.R. show that in a binary system (A,B):

$$\text{Energy Flux} = \left\{ \frac{\text{Quadrupole}}{c^5} + O\left(\frac{1}{c^7}\right) \right\}_{\text{spin } 2} \text{ (cf. G.R.'s result)}$$

$$+ \left\{ \underbrace{\frac{\text{Monopole}}{c} \left(\underbrace{\frac{d(m_A \alpha_A)}{dt}}_{=0 \text{ at equilibrium}} + \frac{1}{c^2} \right)^2}_{O(1/c^5)} + \frac{\text{Dipole}}{c^3} (\alpha_A - \alpha_B)^2 + \frac{\text{Quadrupole}}{c^5} + O\left(\frac{1}{c^7}\right) \right\}_{\text{spin } 0}$$

Largest contribution if $\alpha_A \neq \alpha_B$,
 i.e. dissymmetrical binary system

This energy loss causes the orbit to shrink and go faster.

$$\langle \dot{P} \rangle_{g^*}^{\text{quadrupole}} = \frac{-192\pi}{5(1+\alpha_A\alpha_B)} \nu \left(\frac{G_{AB} M n}{c^3} \right)^{5/3} \frac{1 + \frac{73}{24} e^2 + \frac{37}{96} e^4}{(1-e^2)^{7/2}} + O\left(\frac{1}{c^7}\right)$$

where

$$\begin{cases} M = m_A + m_B \\ \nu = \frac{m_A m_B}{M^2} \\ n = \frac{2\pi}{P} \end{cases}$$

This is the G.R. result up to corrections entering G_{AB} and the factor $\frac{1}{1+\alpha_A\alpha_B}$.

New terms caused by emission of scalar waves:

$$\begin{cases} \langle \dot{P} \rangle_{\varphi}^{\text{monopole}} \approx - \frac{e^2}{c^5} O(\alpha_A, \alpha_B)^2 \\ \langle \dot{P} \rangle_{\varphi}^{\text{dipole}} = \frac{-2\pi}{1+\alpha_A\alpha_B} \nu \left(\frac{G_{AB} M n}{c^3} \right) \frac{1 + \frac{e^2}{2}}{(1-e^2)^{5/2}} (\alpha_A - \alpha_B)^2 + O\left(\frac{1}{c^5}\right) \\ \langle \dot{P} \rangle_{\varphi}^{\text{quadrupole}} \approx - \frac{O(\alpha_A, \alpha_B)^2}{c^5} \frac{1 + \frac{73}{24} e^2 + \frac{37}{96} e^4}{(1-e^2)^{7/2}} \end{cases}$$

↑
known