

Slowly Rotating neutron stars in scalar-tensor theories of gravity

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The principal metric theory of gravity is GR. The action reads,

$$S = \frac{1}{16\pi G} \int d^4x \sqrt{-g} R + S^{(m)}[g_{\mu\nu}, \Psi], \quad (1)$$

and the field equations

$$R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} R g_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu}, \quad (2)$$

where $T_{\mu\nu} \equiv -(2/\sqrt{-g})\delta S^{(m)}/\delta g^{\mu\nu}$ and the matter follows

$$\nabla^\mu T_{\mu\nu} = 0. \quad (3)$$

GR is one of the most beautiful and successful theories of physics and has passed all the experimental tests until today. So, why modified it ?

- Quantum Gravity Effects
- Dark Components of the Universe

A good compass to navigate the alternative theories landscape is the Lovelock Theorem.

Theorem

In a four dimensional space-time, the only second order tensor, symmetric and divergence-free, build from the metric $g_{\mu\nu}$ and its derivatives to second order, is the Einstein tensor plus a cosmological constant.

Alternative theories must introduce new degrees of freedom !!!

Escalar-Tensor Theories is one of the most simple and well motivated alternative to GR. It was inspired by Dirac's idea of a varying gravitational coupling. First, consider the action

$$S = \int d^4x \sqrt{-g} (\phi R + L_m), \quad (4)$$

where $\phi = 1/16\pi G$. Brans Dicke action (Prototype Theory)

$$S = \int d^4x \sqrt{-g} \left(\phi R - \frac{\omega}{\phi} g^{\mu\nu} \nabla_\mu \phi \nabla_\nu \phi + L_m \right). \quad (5)$$

The general form of the action

$$S = \frac{1}{16\pi G} \int d^4x \sqrt{-g} \left(F(\Phi) R - \frac{Z(\Phi)}{2} \nabla_\mu \Phi \nabla^\mu \Phi - V(\Phi) \right) + S^m[e^{2a(\Phi)} g_{\mu\nu}, \Psi_m]. \quad (6)$$

We now use the freedom expressed by conformal transformations and the redefinition of the scalar field:

$$g_{\mu\nu} \rightarrow \Omega^2(\Phi) g_{\mu\nu}, \quad (7)$$

$$\Phi \rightarrow f(\Phi). \quad (8)$$

Jordan Representation:

$$S = \frac{1}{16\pi G} \int d^4x \sqrt{-g} \left(F(\Phi) R - \frac{1}{2} \nabla_\mu \Phi \nabla^\mu \Phi - V(\Phi) \right) + S^m[g_{\mu\nu}, \Psi_m], \quad (9)$$

Einstein Representation:

$$S = \frac{1}{16\pi G} \int d^4x \sqrt{-g} \left(R - \frac{1}{2} \nabla_\mu \Phi \nabla^\mu \Phi - V(\Phi) \right) + S^m[e^{2a(\Phi)} g_{\mu\nu}, \Psi_m]. \quad (10)$$

In the Einstein representation $(\varphi, g_{\mu\nu}^*)$, the field equations are in a more mathematical friendly form

$$R_{\mu\nu}^* - \frac{1}{2}R^*g_{\mu\nu}^* - 2\partial_\mu\varphi\partial_\nu\varphi + g_{\mu\nu}^*g_*^{\alpha\beta}\partial_\beta\varphi\partial_\alpha\varphi = 8\pi GT_{\mu\nu}^* - 2U(\varphi)g_{\mu\nu}^*, \quad (11)$$

$$\square^*\varphi = -4\pi G\alpha(\varphi)T^* + \frac{dU(\varphi)}{d\varphi}, \quad (12)$$

where

$$\alpha(\varphi) \equiv -\frac{1}{2} \frac{d \ln F(\Phi(\varphi))}{d\varphi}. \quad (13)$$

The relation between the two representations

$$g_{\mu\nu}^* \equiv F(\Phi)g_{\mu\nu}, \quad (14)$$

$$\left(\frac{d\varphi}{d\Phi}\right)^2 \equiv \frac{3}{4F(\Phi)^2} \left(\frac{dF(\Phi)}{d\Phi}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4F(\Phi)}. \quad (15)$$

We focus in the coupling function and make the potential $U(\varphi) = 0$. A non-minimal coupling in the Jordan Representation

$$F(\Phi) = 1 - 8\pi\xi\Phi^2. \quad (16)$$

The relation between the fields

$$\frac{d\varphi}{d\Phi} = 2\sqrt{\pi} \frac{\sqrt{1 - 8\pi\xi(1 - 6\xi)\Phi^2}}{1 - 8\pi\xi\Phi^2}. \quad (17)$$

We define a coupling function already in the Einstein representation that mimics the latter

$$F(\varphi) = \left[\cosh(2\sqrt{3}\xi\varphi) \right]^{-1/(3\xi)}, \quad (18)$$

$$\alpha(\varphi) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \tanh(2\sqrt{3}\xi\varphi). \quad (19)$$

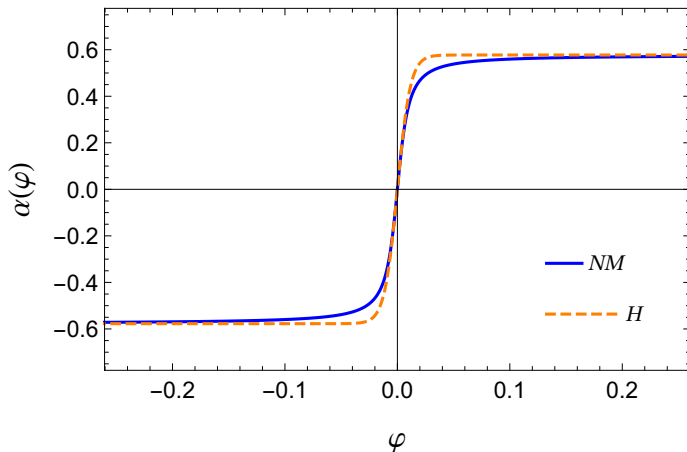


Figure 1: Effective Coupling $\alpha(\varphi)$, considering the Nonminimal coupling (NM) blue and the hyperbolic (H) in orange dashed, both with $\xi = 25$.

Solar system experiments constrains the coupling and the constant ξ .

Parametrized Post Newtonian Formalism:

$$g_{00} = -1 + (2U - 2\beta U^2 + (2\gamma + 2)\Phi_1 + (6\gamma - 4\beta + 2)\Phi_2 + 2\Phi_3 + 6\gamma\Phi_4) + O(\epsilon^3) \quad (20)$$

$$g_{0i} = -(2\gamma + 3/2)V_i - W_i/2 + O(\epsilon^{5/2}) \quad (21)$$

$$g_{ij} = (1 + 2\gamma U)\delta_{ij} + O(\epsilon^2). \quad (22)$$

$$F(\varphi) = F(\varphi_\infty) + (dF/d\varphi)_{\varphi_\infty}(\varphi - \varphi_\infty) + O[(\varphi - \varphi_\infty)^2]. \quad (23)$$

$$1 - \gamma = 2 \frac{\alpha^2}{1 + \alpha^2} = \frac{(dF/d\Phi)^2}{F/2 + 2(dF/d\Phi)^2}, \quad (24)$$

where $1 - \gamma \lesssim 2.3 \times 10^{-5}$ implies $|\xi\varphi_\infty| < 0.0017$. Thus, from now on $\varphi_\infty = 0$.

Neutron Stars

Stellar core made of cold and catalysed matter.

Static and spherical symmetric space-time:

$$ds^2 = -e^{\nu(r)} dt^2 + e^{\lambda(r)} dr^2 + r^2(d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2), \quad (25)$$

Perfect Fluid:

$$T_{\mu\nu} = \epsilon U_\mu U_\nu + P(g_{\mu\nu} + U_\mu U_\nu), \quad (26)$$

Equations of hydrostatic equilibrium (TOV):

$$\frac{d\nu(r)}{dr} = 2 \frac{M(r) + 4\pi r^3 P}{r(r - 2M(r))}, \quad (27)$$

$$\frac{dM(r)}{dr} = 4\pi \epsilon r^2, \quad (28)$$

$$\frac{dP}{dr} = -\frac{\epsilon M(r)}{r^2} \left(1 + \frac{P}{\epsilon}\right) \left(1 + \frac{4\pi P r^3}{M(r)}\right) \left(1 - \frac{2M(r)}{r}\right)^{-1}, \quad (29)$$

$$P = P(\epsilon, T) \quad (30)$$

Neutron Stars

Simple polytropic form

$$P = K\rho^\Gamma. \quad (31)$$

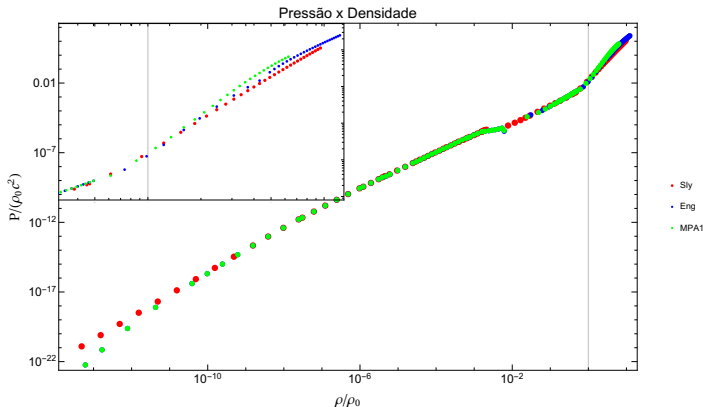


Figure 2: The different equations of state $\rho_0 = 2.7 \times 10^{14} \text{ g/cm}^3$

Neutron Stars

Piecewise polytropic

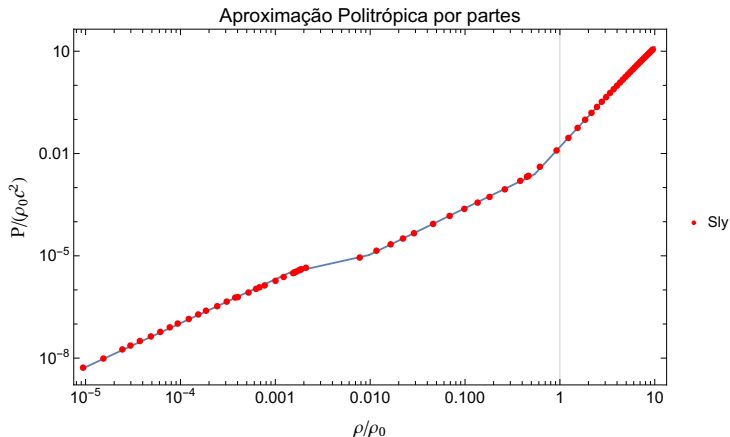


Figure 3: Piecewise approximation for the Sly equation of state (blue), in the vicinity of the density ρ_0 , compared with the tabulated values (red).

Numerical results for the stellar structure

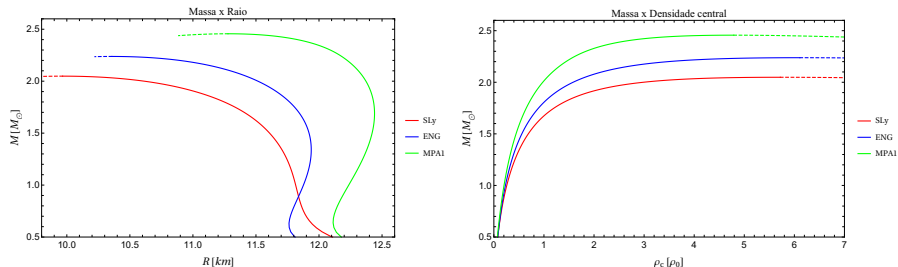


Figure 4: Neutron Star Structure. The unstable configurations are dashed.

In the context of Scalar-Tensor theory, the field equations (Modified TOV)

$$M' = 4\pi r^2 F^{-2} \epsilon + \frac{1}{2} r(r - 2M)(\varphi')^2, \quad (32)$$

$$\nu' = \frac{8\pi r^2 F^{-2} P}{r - 2M} + r(\varphi')^2 + \frac{2M}{r(r - 2M)}, \quad (33)$$

$$P' = -(\epsilon + P) \left[\frac{4\pi r^2 F^{-2} P}{r - 2M} + \frac{r(\varphi')^2}{2} + \frac{M}{r(r - 2M)} + \alpha \varphi' \right], \quad (34)$$

$$\varphi'' = \frac{4\pi r F^{-2}}{r - 2M} [\alpha(\epsilon - 3P) + r\varphi'(\epsilon - P)] - \frac{2(r - M)}{r(r - 2M)} \varphi'. \quad (35)$$

Asymptotic behaviour of the scalar field:

$$\varphi(r) \xrightarrow{r \rightarrow \infty} \varphi_\infty + \omega/r + O(1/r^2), \quad \alpha = -\frac{\omega}{M} = \frac{\partial \log M}{\partial \varphi_\infty}. \quad (36)$$

Results:

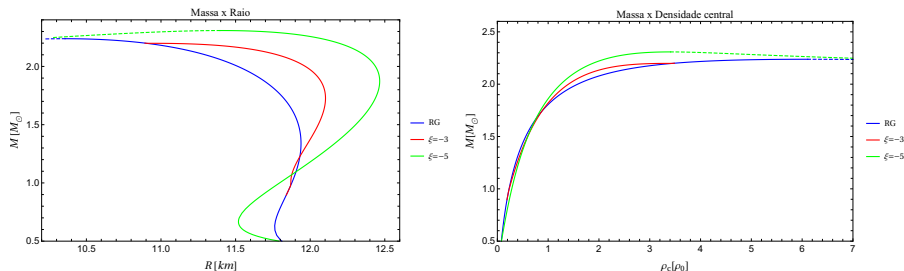


Figure 5: Mass radius diagram and Mass Central density for $\xi < 0$

A trivial solution $\varphi = 0$ always satisfied the field equations.

$$M' = 4\pi r^2 F^{-2} \epsilon + \frac{1}{2} r(r - 2M)(\varphi')^2, \quad (37)$$

$$\nu' = \frac{8\pi r^2 F^{-2} P}{r - 2M} + r(\varphi')^2 + \frac{2M}{r(r - 2M)}, \quad (38)$$

$$P' = -(\epsilon + P) \left[\frac{4\pi r^2 F^{-2} P}{r - 2M} + \frac{r(\varphi')^2}{2} + \frac{M}{r(r - 2M)} + \alpha \varphi' \right], \quad (39)$$

$$\varphi'' = \frac{4\pi r F^{-2}}{r - 2M} [\alpha(\epsilon - 3P) + r\varphi'(\epsilon - P)] - \frac{2(r - M)}{r(r - 2M)} \varphi'. \quad (40)$$

The Spontaneous Scalarization depends upon

$$\square^* \varphi = -4\pi G \alpha(\varphi) T^* \implies \square^{(0)} \delta \varphi = -8\pi \xi T^{(0)} \delta \varphi. \quad (41)$$

Results:

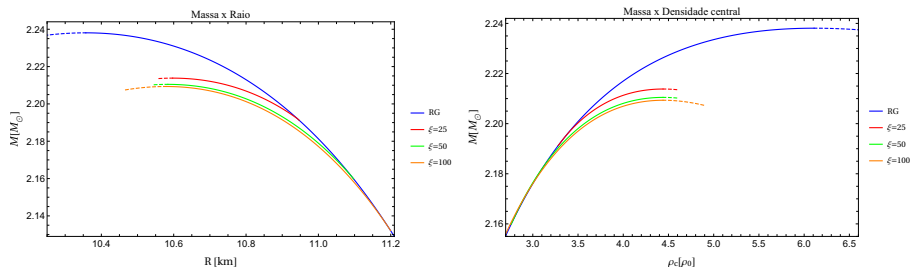


Figure 6: Mass radius relation for $\xi > 0$.

Consistent with the interpretation

$$G_{\text{eff}} = \frac{G}{F(\Phi(\varphi))} = \frac{G}{1 - 8\pi\xi\Phi^2}. \quad (42)$$

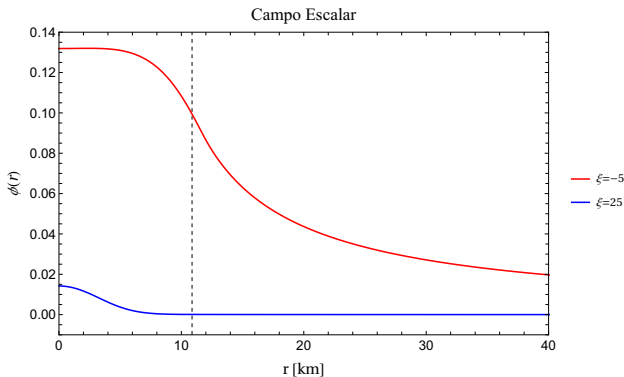


Figure 7: Two escalar field profiles for a star with $M = 2.2M_{\odot}$. The approximate radius of the star is also shown.

Main Scalar Charge

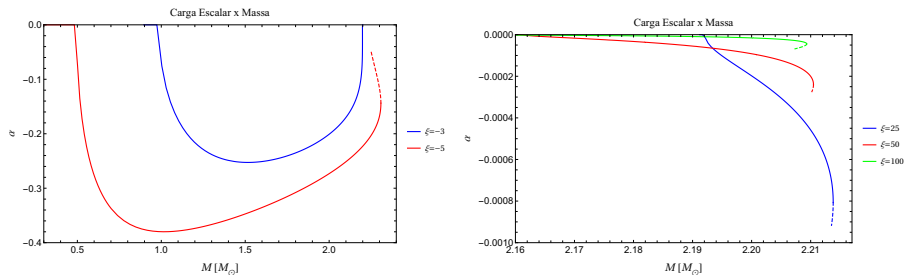


Figure 8: Left: $\xi < 0$ Right: $\xi > 0$.

Rotating Neutron Stars

We treat the rotation as a perturbation of the static solution

$$\Omega^2 \ll \left(\frac{c}{R}\right)^2 \frac{GM}{Rc^2} \longrightarrow \Omega R \ll c. \quad (43)$$

Space-Time with axial symmetry, stationary and asymptotic flat

$$ds^2 = -H^2 dt^2 + Q^2 dr^2 + r^2 K^2 [d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta (d\phi - Ldt)^2]. \quad (44)$$

$$L(r, \theta) = \omega(r, \theta) + O(\Omega^3). \quad (45)$$

Einstein's equations

$$R_\phi^t = 8\pi T_\phi^t. \quad (46)$$

$$T_\phi^t = (\varepsilon + P)e^{-\nu}(\Omega - \omega)r^2 \sin^2 \theta, \quad \bar{\omega} \equiv \Omega - \omega. \quad (47)$$

Rotating Neutron Stars

$$\frac{1}{r^4} \frac{d}{dr} \left(r^4 j \frac{d\bar{\omega}}{dr} \right) + \frac{4}{r} \frac{dj}{dr} = 0, \quad j(r) = e^{-(\nu+\lambda)/2}. \quad (48)$$

in the vacuum ($j = 1$):

$$\bar{\omega}(r) = \Omega - \frac{2J}{r^3}, \quad J = I \Omega. \quad (49)$$

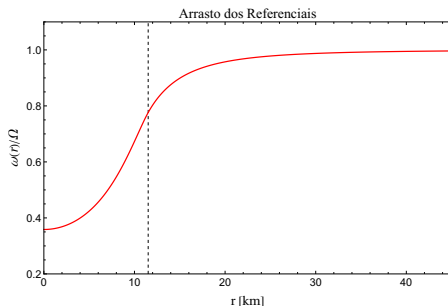


Figure 9: Function $\bar{\omega}/\Omega = 1 - 2J/\Omega r^3$

Rotating Neutron Stars

Moment of Inertia

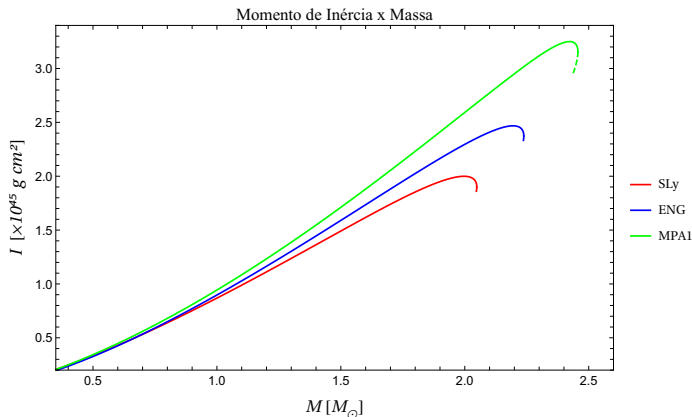


Figure 10: Moment of Inertia for the equations of state discussed. The function have a maximum before the maximal mass. Also, the unstable configurations are shown.

Rotating Neutron Stars

In Scalar-Tensor theory, the differential equation

$$\bar{\omega}'' = \bar{\omega}' \left[-\frac{4}{r} + r(\varphi')^2 + \frac{4\pi r^2(\epsilon + P)}{F^2(r - 2M)} \right] + \frac{16\pi r(\epsilon + P)}{F^2(r - 2M)}(\Omega - \bar{\omega}). \quad (50)$$

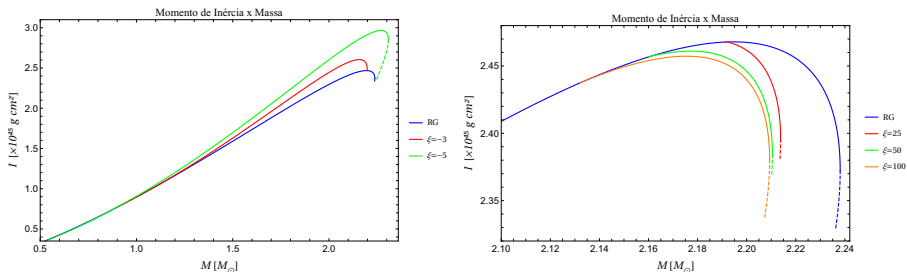


Figure 11: Moment of Inertia in Scalar Tensor Theories. Left: $\xi < 0$ Right: $\xi > 0$.

Timing idea:

$$t^{BSS} = \tau - \frac{\Delta D}{f^2} + \Delta_{R_\odot} + \Delta_{S_\odot} + \Delta_{E_\odot} + \Delta_R + \Delta_S + \Delta_E, \quad (51)$$

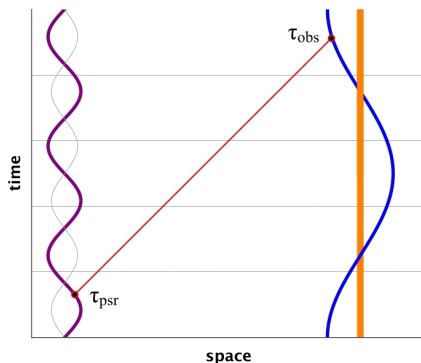


Figure 12: We have to relate the two time intervals. From Wex, 2014.

The orbit can be described by the pos-keplerian parameters

$$\dot{\omega}^{RG} = \frac{3n_b V_b^2}{1 - e^2}, \quad (52)$$

$$\gamma^{RG} = \frac{e}{n_b} \left(1 + \frac{m_c}{M} \right) \frac{m_c V_b^2}{M}, \quad (53)$$

$$r^{RG} = Gm_c, \quad (54)$$

$$s^{RG} = x n_b \frac{M}{m_c V_b}, \quad (55)$$

$$\dot{P}_b^{RG} = -\frac{192\pi}{5} \frac{m_p m_c}{M^2} \frac{1 + 73e^2/24 + 37e^4/96}{(1 - e^2)^{7/2}} V_b^5, \quad (56)$$

where $n_b = 2\pi/P_b$, $V_b = (GMn_b)^{1/3}$ and $x = a \sin i$ is the projected of the major semi axis.

Pulsars

The PK parameters allows one of the most successful consistent tests of GR. For the double pulsar

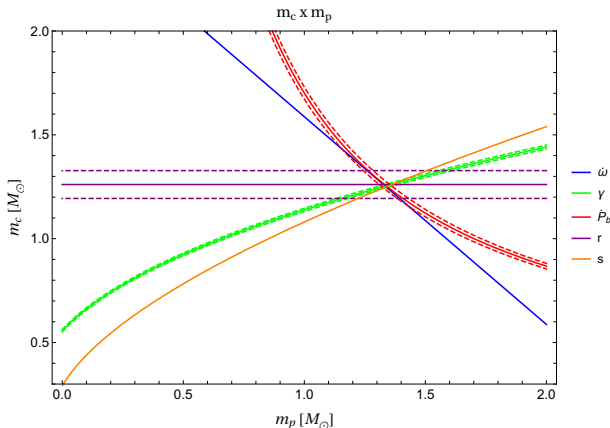


Figure 13: Best consistence test of General Relativity until now

In the context of Scalar-Tensor Theory, the PK parameters have a sensitivity in the scalar charges:

$$\dot{\omega}^{TE} = \frac{n_b}{1 - e^2} \left(\frac{3 - \alpha_p \alpha_c}{1 + \alpha_p \alpha_c} - \frac{m_p \alpha_p^2 \beta_c + m_c \alpha_c^2 \beta_p}{2M(1 + \alpha_p \alpha_c)^2} \right) \mathcal{V}_b^2, \quad (57)$$

$$\gamma^{TE} = \frac{e}{n_b} \left(\frac{1 + \kappa_p \alpha_c}{1 + \alpha_p \alpha_c} + \frac{m_c}{M} \right) \frac{m_c \mathcal{V}_b^2}{M}, \quad (58)$$

$$r^{TE} = \mathcal{G} m_c, \quad (59)$$

$$s^{TE} = x n_b \frac{M}{m_c \mathcal{V}_b}, \quad (60)$$

$$\dot{P}_b^{TE} = -2\pi \frac{m_p m_c}{M^2} \frac{1 + e^2/2}{(1 - e^2)^{5/2}} \frac{(\alpha_p - \alpha_c)^2 \mathcal{V}_b^3}{1 + \alpha_p \alpha_c}. \quad (61)$$

where $\mathcal{V}_b = [\mathcal{G}(1 + \alpha_p \alpha_c) M n_b]^{1/3}$.

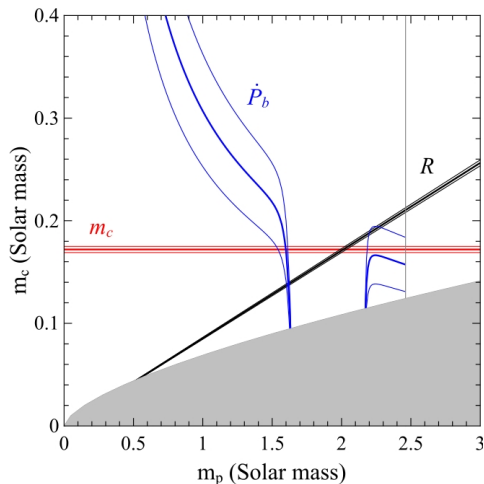


Figure 14: Consistence test of a theory with $\xi = -2.25$. The theory clearly fails the test. From Wex, 2014.

To better understand the scalar charge, consider the action

$$S_m = - \sum_{A=1}^N \int m_A(\varphi_A) d\tau_A^*, \quad (62)$$

where we define

$$\alpha_A \equiv \left. \frac{d \log m_A}{d\varphi_A} \right|_{\varphi_\infty}, \quad (63)$$

$$\beta_A \equiv \left. \frac{d\alpha_A}{d\varphi_A} \right|_{\varphi_\infty}, \quad (64)$$

$$k_A \equiv - \left. \frac{\partial \log I_A}{\partial \varphi_A} \right|_{\varphi_\infty}. \quad (65)$$

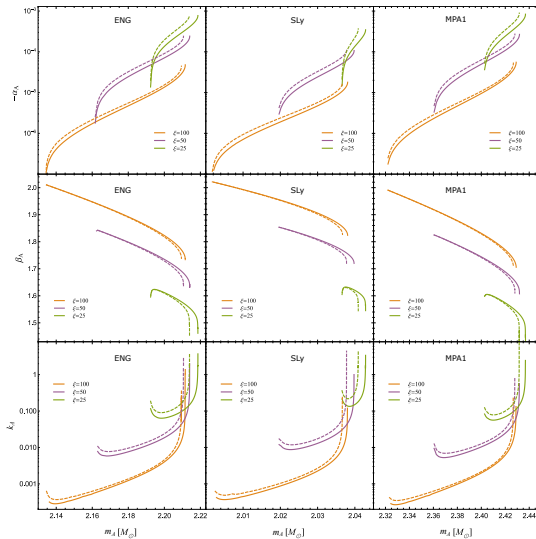


Figure 15: Scalar Charges for $\xi > 0$.

- Scalar-Tensor theories are the most famous and well motivated alternative to GR.
- The theory presented here, with a nonminimal coupling and constant $\xi > 0$, are capable to pass the pulsar timing tests.
- Another test of the theory can be made with the study of quasinormal modes of oscillation.