

dRGT massive gravity and cosmology: the view of an outsider

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- 2 Fluctuations on a fixed background
- 3 Cosmology
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- Or modifications of gravity.
- Massive gravity, which weakens gravity on very large scales seems a most natural and simple idea.

This motivated me to look into massive gravity theories.

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A mass for the graviton

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- A mass term is proportional to the square of excitation w.r.t to some reference metric.
- In 1939 Pauli and Fierz showed that within linearized gravity, there is only one form for quadratic potential for $h_{\mu\nu} = g_{\mu\nu} - \eta_{\mu\nu}$ (mass term) which does not lead to a 'ghost', namely

$$U = \frac{m^2}{4} (h_{\mu\nu} h^{\mu\nu} - h^2) .$$

In general, $h_{\mu\nu}$ has 6 degrees of freedom. 5 of them make up the massive spin-2 graviton and the 6th is a spin-0 ghost (i.e. its kinetic term has the wrong sign). The above form of the mass term ensures that one of these 6 degrees of freedom is not propagating but fixed by a constraint.

- More precisely: consider the quadratic Lagrangian for $h_{\mu\nu}$,

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{M_p^2}{2} \left[h_{\nu\mu} \mathcal{E}^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} h_{\alpha\beta} - U \right],$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{E}^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} = & -\frac{1}{2} \left[\left(\eta^{\mu\alpha} \eta^{\nu\beta} - \eta^{\mu\nu} \eta^{\alpha\beta} \right) \square + \right. \\ & \left. \left(\eta^{\mu\nu} \eta^{\alpha\rho} \eta^{\beta\sigma} + \eta^{\alpha\beta} \bar{\eta}^{\mu\rho} \eta^{\nu\sigma} - \eta^{\mu\beta} \bar{\eta}^{\nu\rho} \eta^{\alpha\sigma} - \eta^{\alpha\nu} \eta^{\beta\rho} \eta^{\mu\sigma} \right) \partial_\rho \partial_\sigma \right] \end{aligned}$$

is the Lichnerowicz operator (on flat spacetime). The 'lapse function' h_{00} enters only linearly, in the form $h_{00}(\cdots)$, like a Lagrange multiplier. Hence its variation yields an additional constraint and removes one of the 6 degrees of freedom in h_{ij} . The remaining constraints determine h_{i0} .

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- This can be generalized to an arbitrary reference metric, $g_{\mu\nu} = f_{\mu\nu} + h_{\mu\nu}$ and remains true in the quadratic action.
- But whatever higher order covariant terms you add to U , h_{00} will no longer appear as a Lagrange multiplier, the additional condition is lost and the 'ghost' will appear. \Rightarrow **Boulware Deser ghost** (1972).

Van Dam-Veltman-Zakharov discontinuity (1970)

- Setting $\mathcal{D}_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{m^2} \partial_\mu \partial_\nu$, the equation of motion for $h_{\alpha\beta}$ is

$$\left(\square - m^2 \right) h_{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{M_P^2} \left[\mathcal{D}_{\mu(\alpha} \mathcal{D}_{\beta)\nu} - \frac{1}{3} \mathcal{D}_{\mu\nu} \mathcal{D}_{\alpha\beta} \right] T^{\alpha\beta}$$

so that the massive graviton propagator is

$$G_{\mu\nu\alpha\beta}^{(\text{mass})} = \frac{F_{\mu\nu\alpha\beta}^{(\text{mass})}}{\square - m^2}, \quad F_{\mu\nu\alpha\beta}^{(\text{mass})} = \mathcal{D}_{\mu(\alpha} \mathcal{D}_{\beta)\nu} - \frac{1}{3} \mathcal{D}_{\mu\nu} \mathcal{D}_{\alpha\beta}.$$

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- The amplitude for graviton exchange between two sources becomes

$$\mathcal{A}_{T,T'}^{(\text{mass})} = \int d^4x T'^{\mu\nu} G_{\mu\nu\alpha\beta}^{(\text{mass})} T^{\alpha\beta}.$$

- In the limit $m \rightarrow 0$ this tends to

$$\mathcal{A}_{T,T'}^{(m \rightarrow 0)} = \int d^4x T'^{\mu\nu} \frac{1}{\square} \left(T_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{3} T \eta_{\mu\nu} \right) \neq \mathcal{A}_{T,T'}^{(m=0)} = \int d^4x T'^{\mu\nu} \frac{1}{\square} \left(T_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} T \eta_{\mu\nu} \right).$$

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- This problem is solved by the **Vainshtein mechanism** (1972): In the presence of massive sources, the kinetic term of the scalar graviton mode gets strongly enhanced so that it cannot be excited for $r < r_* = M/(4\pi M_P^2 m^2)^{1/3} = (\lambda_m^2 r_s)^{1/3} \simeq 100\text{pc}$ for $M = M_\odot$.

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For these potentials, which are uniquely fixed by two constant coefficients in addition to the mass m , there still exists a highly non-trivial combination of the lapse function and the shift vector (in a 3+1 split of gravity) which enters linearly in the Lagrangian and therefore generates a constraint for the 6 propagating degrees of freedom of the gravitational field. This projects out the 'ghost' so that a massive spin-2 graviton with its usual 5 degrees of freedom remains.

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- The proof of this statement has in the meantime been given in several different ways. Note that even if there are only 5 degrees of freedom left, it is not clear that these are 'healthy' in all physically relevant situations. In the following I shall show that especially in cosmology they are usually not.

The general potential is given by

$$\begin{aligned}U_0(\mathcal{K}) &= \epsilon^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} \epsilon_{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} = 4! \\U_1(\mathcal{K}) &= \epsilon^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} \epsilon_{\mu'\nu\alpha\beta} \mathcal{K}^{\mu'}{}_{\mu} = 3! [\mathcal{K}], \\U_2(\mathcal{K}) &= \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} \epsilon_{\mu'\nu'\alpha\beta} \mathcal{K}^{\mu'}{}_{\mu} \mathcal{K}^{\nu'}{}_{\nu} = \frac{1}{2} ([\mathcal{K}]^2 - [\mathcal{K}^2]), \\U_3(\mathcal{K}) &= \frac{1}{6} \epsilon^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} \epsilon_{\mu'\nu'\alpha'\beta} \mathcal{K}^{\mu'}{}_{\mu} \mathcal{K}^{\nu'}{}_{\nu} \mathcal{K}^{\alpha'}{}_{\alpha} = \frac{1}{6} ([\mathcal{K}]^3 - 3[\mathcal{K}][\mathcal{K}^2] + 2[\mathcal{K}^3]), \\U_4(\mathcal{K}) &= \frac{1}{24} \epsilon^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} \epsilon_{\mu'\nu'\alpha'\beta'} \mathcal{K}^{\mu'}{}_{\mu} \mathcal{K}^{\nu'}{}_{\nu} \mathcal{K}^{\alpha'}{}_{\alpha} \mathcal{K}^{\beta'}{}_{\beta} \\&= \frac{1}{24} ([\mathcal{K}]^4 - 6[\mathcal{K}]^2[\mathcal{K}^2] + 3[\mathcal{K}^2]^2 + 8[\mathcal{K}][\mathcal{K}^3] - 6[\mathcal{K}^4]) = \det(\mathcal{K}).\end{aligned}$$

where $\mathcal{K} = \mathbb{I} - \sqrt{g^{-1}f}$ and $[\mathcal{M}] = \text{Tr}\mathcal{M}$.

De Rham-Gabadaze-Tolley (dRGT) ghost free massive gravity

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This somewhat unwieldy non-analytic potential for $g_{\mu\nu}$ becomes much simpler if given in terms of vier-beins for g and f .

The vier-beins are normalized 1-forms such that

$$g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu = \eta_{\alpha\beta} \theta^\alpha \theta^\beta \text{ and } f_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu = \eta_{\alpha\beta} \vartheta^\alpha \vartheta^\beta$$

With these

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{-g} U(\mathcal{K}) d^4 x &= -\frac{m^2}{4} \epsilon_{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} \left[c_0 \theta^\mu \wedge \theta^\nu \wedge \theta^\alpha \wedge \theta^\beta + c_1 \theta^\mu \wedge \theta^\nu \wedge \theta^\alpha \wedge \vartheta^\beta \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \frac{c_2}{2} \theta^\mu \wedge \theta^\nu \wedge \vartheta^\alpha \wedge \vartheta^\beta + \frac{c_3}{6} \theta^\mu \wedge \vartheta^\nu \wedge \vartheta^\alpha \wedge \vartheta^\beta + \frac{c_4}{24} \vartheta^\mu \wedge \vartheta^\nu \wedge \vartheta^\alpha \wedge \vartheta^\beta \right] \end{aligned}$$

The term $\propto c_0$ is simply a cosmological constant and the term $\propto c_1$ is a tadpole which we shall neglect. The constant c_2 can be absorbed in the definition of m where as c_3 and c_4 are genuinely new, giving rise to new physical phenomena.

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We shall also use that

$$\begin{aligned} U &= -\frac{m^2}{2} (U_2(\mathcal{K}) + c_3 U_3(\mathcal{K}) + c_4 U_4(\mathcal{K})) \\ &= -m^2 \left[a_0 + a_1 U_1(\sqrt{g^{-1}f}) + a_2 U_2(\sqrt{g^{-1}f}) + a_3 U_3(\sqrt{g^{-1}f}) \right] \end{aligned}$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} a_0 &= 6 + 4c_3 + c_4, & a_1 &= -(3 + 3c_3 + c_4) \\ a_2 &= 1 + 2c_3 + c_4, & a_3 &= -c_3 - c_4. \end{aligned}$$

- To study solutions of a given theory, we need not only to find them, but we also have to analyse their stability. Even if a theory of modified gravity has no ghosts a priori, we need to check whether physically interesting solutions of GR are still viable, i.e. stable. To this aim we have studied the perturbations of massive gravity around a fixed background metric \bar{g} . We set $g_{\mu\nu} = \bar{g}_{\mu\nu} + h_{\mu\nu}$ and write the Lagrangian to 2nd order in $h_{\mu\nu}$.

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- The kinetic term $\sqrt{-g}R$ is expanded as usual,

$$\sqrt{-g}R = \sqrt{-\bar{g}}\bar{R} + h_{\mu\nu}\mathcal{E}^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta}(\bar{g})h_{\alpha\beta} - 2h_{\mu\nu}\bar{G}^{\mu\nu} + \partial_\mu V^\mu$$

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- The mass term is more tricky. Since for non-commuting matrices $\sqrt{AB} \neq \sqrt{A}\sqrt{B}$, we cannot simply expand $\sqrt{g^{-1}f} = \sqrt{(\mathbb{I} + h)^{-1}\bar{g}^{-1}f}$ in $h \equiv (h^\mu{}_\nu) \equiv (\bar{g}^{\mu\alpha}h_{\alpha\nu})$. We use the following trick: Setting $t_i = U_i(\sqrt{g^{-1}f})$ and $s_i = U_i(g^{-1}f)$ one easily verifies the relations

$$t_1^2 = s_1 + 2t_2, \quad t_2^2 = s_2 - 2\sqrt{s_4} + 2t_1t_3, \quad t_3^2 = s_3 + 2t_2\sqrt{s_4}.$$

- Now we can expand the s_i and with them the t_i to second order in $h_{\mu\nu}$.

The mass term

After a lengthy calculation we end up with

$$\sqrt{-\det g} U(f, g) = \sqrt{-\det \bar{g}} \left[U(f, \bar{g}) - 2\mathcal{M}^{\mu\nu} h_{\mu\nu} + \mathcal{M}^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta}(f, \bar{g}) h_{\mu\nu} h_{\alpha\beta} \right] + \mathcal{O}(h^3)$$

$$\mathcal{M}^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} = -m^2 \left[a_0 \mathcal{M}_0^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} + a_1 \mathcal{M}_1^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} + a_2 \mathcal{M}_2^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} + a_3 \mathcal{M}_3^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} \right],$$

$$\mathcal{M}_0^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} = \frac{1}{4} \bar{g}^{\mu\nu} \bar{g}^{\alpha\beta} - \frac{1}{4} \left(\bar{g}^{\mu\alpha} \bar{g}^{\nu\beta} + \bar{g}^{\mu\beta} \bar{g}^{\nu\alpha} \right)$$

$$\mathcal{M}_j^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} = \bar{t}_j \mathcal{M}_0^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} + \frac{1}{2} \left(\bar{g}^{\mu\nu} t_j^{\alpha\beta} + \bar{g}^{\alpha\beta} t_j^{\mu\nu} \right) + 2t_j^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta}, \quad 1 \leq j \leq 3,$$

$$\mathcal{M}^{\mu\nu} = -2m^2 (a_1 t_1^{\mu\nu} + a_2 t_2^{\mu\nu} + a_3 t_3^{\mu\nu})$$

$$t_j^{\mu\nu} = \left. \frac{\partial t_j}{\partial g_{\mu\nu}} \right|_{g=\bar{g}}, \quad t_j^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} = \left. \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 t_j}{\partial g_{\mu\nu} \partial g_{\alpha\beta}} \right|_{g=\bar{g}}.$$

with very cumbersome expressions for the $t_j^{\mu\nu}$ and even more so for $t_j^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta}$ (see [P. Guarato and RD arXiv:1309.2245](#)).

Application to cosmology: same conformal time

Let us assume that f is a Friedmann-Lemaître geometry and we have found a cosmological solution \bar{g} with the same conformal time,

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{g}_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu &= a^2(t)(-dt^2 + \delta_{ij} dx^i dx^j), \\ f_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu &= b^2(t)(-dt^2 + \delta_{ij} dx^i dx^j).\end{aligned}$$

In this case the mass term becomes

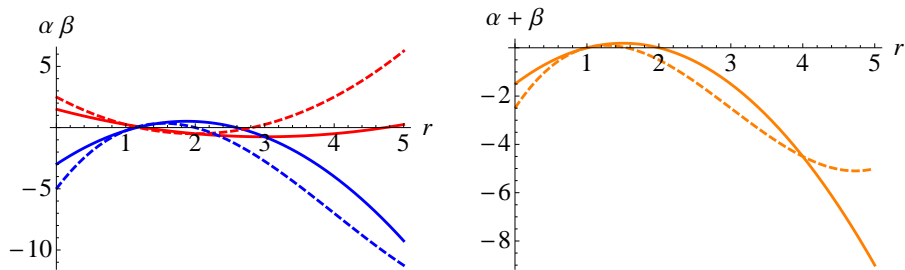
$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{M}^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta}(f, \bar{g}) &= -m^2 \left[\alpha \bar{g}^{\mu\nu} \bar{g}^{\alpha\beta} + \frac{\beta}{2} \left(\bar{g}^{\mu\alpha} \bar{g}^{\nu\beta} + \bar{g}^{\mu\beta} \bar{g}^{\nu\alpha} \right) \right]. \\ \alpha(t) &= \frac{1}{4} \left[1 + (1-r) \left\{ (5-r) + c_3(4-2r) + c_4(1-r) \right\} \right], \quad r = \frac{b}{a} \\ -\beta(t) &= \frac{1}{4} \left[1 + (1-r) \left\{ (11-4r) + c_3(8-7r+r^2) + c_4(1-r)(2-r) \right\} \right]\end{aligned}$$

In the cosmological situation α and β depend only on time, but the expressions below in terms of $r(t) = b(t)/a(t)$ are always correct when the two metrics \bar{g} and f are conformally related by $f = r^2 \bar{g}$.

For $\alpha \neq -\beta$ this metric has a ghost with mass ([Jaccard, Maggiore & Mitsou](#))

$$m_{\text{ghost}}^2 = \frac{(\alpha + 4\beta)}{2(\alpha + \beta)} m^2.$$

Application to cosmology:same conformal time



The functions $\alpha(r)$ (red) and $\beta(r)$ (blue) for two cases:
 $c_3 = c_4 = 0$ (solid) and $c_3 = 1, c_4 = 0$ (dashed)
(from [P. Guarato & RD arXiv:1309.2245](#)).

Application to cosmology: general

In general the physical metric will not have the same conformal time as the reference metric f and we expect

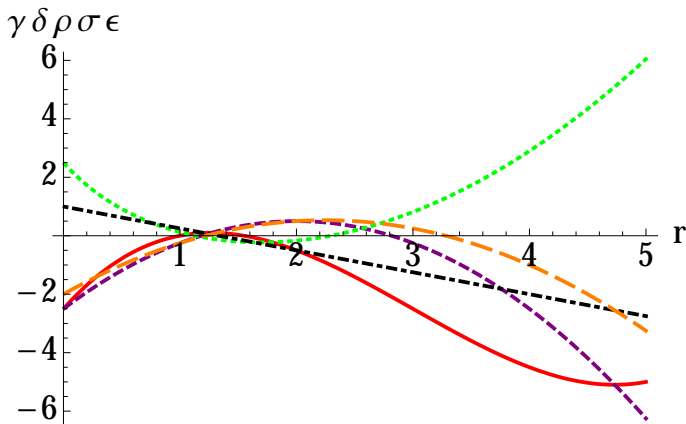
$$\begin{aligned}f_{\mu\nu}dx^\mu dx^\nu &= -d\tau^2 + b^2(\tau)\gamma_{ij}dx^i dx^j, \\ \bar{g}_{\mu\nu}dx^\mu dx^\nu &= -N^2(\tau)d\tau^2 + a^2(\tau)\gamma_{ij}dx^i dx^j.\end{aligned}$$

with some unknown lapse function N . In this case the mass term is of the more complicated form

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{M}^{0000} &= -m^2\gamma(\tau), \quad \mathcal{M}^{ij00} = -m^2\delta(\tau)\bar{g}^{ij}, \quad \mathcal{M}^{i0j0} = -m^2\epsilon(\tau)\bar{g}^{ij}, \\ \mathcal{M}^{ijkl} &= -m^2\left\{\rho(\tau)\bar{g}^{ij}\bar{g}^{kl} + \frac{\sigma(\tau)}{2}\left[\bar{g}^{ik}\bar{g}^{jl} + \bar{g}^{il}\bar{g}^{jk}\right]\right\}.\end{aligned}$$

where δ , γ , ϵ , ρ , and σ are polynomials of r and N^{-1} .

The Fierz-Pauli tuning corresponds to $N = 1$ and $\gamma = 0$, $\rho = -\delta = -\sigma = 1/4$, $\epsilon = 1/8$. It is reached when $N = 1$ and $a = b$.



The functions $\gamma(r)$ (red), $\delta(r)$ (purple), $\epsilon(r)$ (green), $\rho(r)$ (black), and $\sigma(r)$ (orange) for the case $c_3 = 1$, $c_4 = 0$ and $N = 1$.

In the presence of a mass term Einstein's equation take the form

$$G_{\mu\nu} + \mathcal{M}_{\mu\nu} = M_P^{-2} T_{\mu\nu}.$$

The covariant conservation of $G_{\mu\nu}$ is a geometrical identity and the conservation of $T_{\mu\nu}$ is a consequence of the matter equation (we assume that these are not modified). Hence **we also have** $\mathcal{M}^{\mu\nu}{}_{;\nu} = 0$. These 4 additional equations are necessary since we have lost diffeomorphism invariance when $f_{\mu\nu}$ is fixed (One could re-install it with the Stückelberg trick which we are not doing here).

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The **Friedmann equations** now become

$$H^2 + \frac{1}{a^2 K_g} = \frac{1}{3} (\rho_{\mathcal{M}} + \rho), \quad 2\dot{H} + 3H^2 + \frac{1}{a^2 K_g} = (P_{\mathcal{M}} + P).$$

where $H = \dot{a}/(Na)$, $r = b/a$ and

$$\begin{aligned} -\rho_{\mathcal{M}} &= N^{-2} \left[r^3 (c_3 + c_4) - r^2 (6c_3 + 3c_4 + 3) + r (9c_3 + 3c_4 + 9) - 4c_3 - c_4 - 6 \right], \\ P_{\mathcal{M}} &= 6 + 4c_3 + c_4 + (2c_3 + c_4 + 1) r^2 - 2(3c_3 + c_4 + 3) r - \\ &\quad N^{-1} \left[(c_3 + c_4) r^2 + 3c_3 + c_4 + 3 - 2(2c_3 + c_4 + 1) r \right]. \end{aligned}$$

We interpret $\mathcal{M}_{\mu\nu}$ as a gravity mass fluid. Its covariant conservation implies

$$\left[3c_4(r-1)^2 + 3c_3(r-3)(r-1) + 9 - 6r \right] \left(N^{-1}\dot{a} - \dot{b} \right) = 0$$

Hence either $[\dots] = 0$ which implies $r = b/a = \text{constant}$ or $N = \dot{b}/\dot{a}$, so that $Ha = \dot{b} = H_f b$, $H_f \equiv \dot{b}/b$. In the first case the evolution of the physical scale factor is fixed by the reference metric b and only N depends on the matter content.

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Hence the Friedmann equations become algebraic relations which relate a and N to b and the matter content of the Universe.

We have studied the scalar sector of fluctuations in detail for the special solution $\rho = P = 0$, $N = 1$ and

$$r = \frac{3 + c_3}{1 + c_3} = r_c.$$

It is easy to verify that this is the only solution with $r = \text{constant}$ and $N = 1$ which solves all background equations (apart from the trivial case $r = 1$).

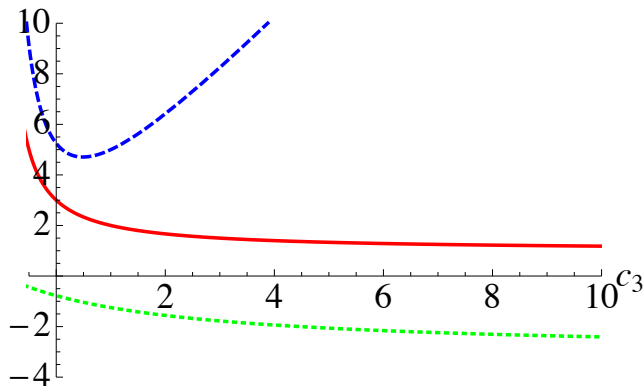
We define the most general scalar perturbation Fourier mode by

$$h_{\mu\nu}(\mathbf{k}) \equiv \delta g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} -2\phi & iak_j B \\ iak_i B & 2a^2(\psi\delta_{ij} - k_i k_j E) \end{pmatrix}.$$

We can eliminate ϕ and B from the perturbation equations using the constraints. For ψ and $\mathcal{E} = m^2 E$ we then obtain coupled linear equations of motion,

$$\frac{d^2}{d\tau^2} \begin{pmatrix} \psi \\ \mathcal{E} \end{pmatrix} = \left(m^2 A_0 + k^2 A_2 \right) \begin{pmatrix} \psi \\ \mathcal{E} \end{pmatrix},$$

where $A_0(c_3, c_4)$ and $A_2(c_3, c_4)$ are 2×2 matrices given by rational functions of c_3 and c_4 . A_2 has one vanishing eigenvalue, one of the two scalar modes does not propagate.



The eigenvectors λ_{01} (red), λ_{02} (blue) of A_0 and λ_{22} (green) of A_2 as functions of $-0.5 < c_3 < 10$ for the case $c_4 = 0$.

A positive eigenvalue indicates an instability.

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 - One possibility to evade these conclusions is to consider bi-gravity i.e. add a kinetic term also for the f metric. This re-installs diffeomorphism invariance and removes the Higuchi ghost.
 - Whether it also cures the kind of instabilities discussed here is still unclear.
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