Gravitational wave consistency relations for multifield inflation

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We study the tensor spectral index $n_t$ and the tensor-to-scalar ratio $r$ in the simplest multifield extension to single-field, slow-roll inflation models. We show that multifield models with potentials $V \sim \sum_i \lambda_i |\phi_i|^p$ have different predictions for $n_t/r$ than single-field models, even when all the couplings are equal $\lambda_i = \lambda_j$, due to the probabilistic nature of the fields’ initial values. We analyze simple prior probabilities for the $\lambda_i$ and initial conditions to make detailed predictions for the marginalized probability distribution of $n_t/r$. With $\mathcal{O}(100)$ fields and $p > 3/4$, we find that $n_t/r$ differs from the single-field result of $n_t/r = -1/8$ at the 5$\sigma$ level. This gives a novel and testable prediction for the simplest multifield inflation models.

A cosmological gravitational wave background (CGWB) is a compelling signature of inflation, which is already supported by the highly Gaussian primordial perturbations [1, 2], and their broken scale invariance, now detected at 5$\sigma$ significance [3, 4]. A large-amplitude CGWB provides fundamentally new tests of single-field slow-roll (SFSR) inflation via the consistency relation [5] $n_t/r = -1/8$, which relates the tensor spectral index $n_t$ to the ratio of the tensor and scalar perturbation amplitudes, $r$.

While there has been dramatic progress towards the direct detection of a CGWB through the $B$-mode polarization in the cosmic microwave background (CMB) [6], measuring $n_t$ is challenging with current technologies [7–9]. However, if $r \gtrsim 0.1$ this will be feasible with the next generation of space-based [10, 11], ground-based [12–15], and balloon-borne [16, 17] experiments. Future 21 cm projects [18, 19] could also detect lensing by a CGWB, and direct detection experiments [20, 21] would test the consistency condition using the lever arm between CMB and solar system scales.

The simplest inflationary scenarios that yield an easily detectable CGWB with $r \gtrsim 0.1$ are monomial models, with the inflationary potential $V \sim |\phi|^p$. Single field models are simple but not necessarily natural, as many high energy theories yield large numbers of scalars [22–25]. For multifield models the consistency relation is reduced to an inequality, $n_t/r \lesssim -1/8$. While $r$ and $n_t$ are correlated for $N_f = 2$ [26], there is no known relationship between $r$ and $n_t$ when $N_f$ is large.

In this Letter, we derive a robust prediction for $n_t/r$ for $N_f$-monomial models, with potential

$$V = \frac{1}{p} \sum_i \lambda_i |\phi_i|^p,$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

where $\lambda_i$ are real, positive constants and summations run over the number of fields, $N_f$. Eq. (1) arises naturally in many high energy theories [27–34] and is a simple, intuitive generalization of the chaotic SFSR models.

We treat the $\lambda_i$ and the values of $\phi_i$ at a fixed number of e-folds before the end of inflation as independent random variables. When $N_f \rightarrow \infty$, the central limit theorem ensures that $n_t/r$ is a Gaussian random variable. Critically, $\langle n_t/r \rangle$ does not reduce to the single-field limit if the couplings are identical unless the field values $\phi_i, \star$ when the pivot scale $k_*$ leaves the horizon are also fixed, except for the special case $p = 2$. The expected value of $n_t/r$ depends only on two moments of the distributions of the $\lambda_i$ and $\phi_i$, and is independent of $N_f$. Furthermore, for $p > 3/4$ the variance in $n_t/r$ is proportional to $1/N_f$, and these models make sharp, generic predictions for the consistency relation. This provides a direct test for distinguishing between $N_f$-monomial models and their single-field analogues.

Model— We treat the fields’ initial conditions (ICs) as identically distributed, but correlated random variables (RVs) with a prior probability $P(\phi_0)$. The simplest choice for $P(\phi_0)$ is a uniform distribution of $\phi_i, \star$ when the pivot scale $k_*$ leaves the horizon $N_e$ e-folds before the end of inflation. This choice correlates the field values at horizon crossing and ensures that all of the fields are dynamically relevant and contribute to the predictions. In some cases the $\lambda_i$ might be derivable from fundamental theory, but in general we also treat these terms as independent RVs with a prior probability $P(\lambda)$. We then marginalize over the priors $P(\lambda)$ and $P(\phi_0)$ to produce a probability distribution for $n_t/r$. The likely values of $n_s$ and $r$ for a related class of multifield monodromy models was derived in Ref. [35], finding $0.955 \lesssim n_s \lesssim 0.975$. Furthermore, $r = 4p/N_e$, and the amount of non-Gaussianity is small.

$\delta N$ formalism— The potential in Eq. (1) is sum-separable and, assuming slow-roll, $N_e$ is [36, 37]

$$N_e = -\int_{\phi_0}^{\phi_\star} \frac{V_t}{V} d\phi_t,$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

where $V_t' = \lambda_i |\phi_i|^p-1$ and $\phi_{t, \star}$ and $\phi_{t, c}$ denote field values at horizon crossing and the end of inflation, respectively.
For $N_f$-monomial inflation

$$N_* = \frac{1}{2p} \sum_i \left[ \phi_{i,*}^2 - \phi_{i,c}^2 \right].$$

(3)

The $\delta N$ formalism relates the field perturbations at horizon crossing to the gauge-invariant curvature perturbation $\zeta$ on constant density hypersurfaces via

$$\zeta \approx \sum_i N_{s,i} \delta \phi_{i,*},$$

(4)

where $N_{s,i} = \partial N_*/\partial \phi_{i,*}$. If the field perturbations are well-approximated by a free field theory with power spectrum $P_{\delta \phi} = (H_*^2/2\pi)^2 \delta^{ij}$ at horizon crossing, the tensor-to-scalar ratio is

$$r = \frac{8}{\sum_i N_{s,i} N_{s,i}}.$$  

(5)

To first-order in slow-roll $n_t = -2\epsilon$, where

$$\epsilon = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \left[ \frac{V_i'}{V} \right]^2.$$  

(6)

For $N_f$-monomial models, the field values $\phi_{i,c}$ at the end of inflation can typically be neglected. This horizon crossing approximation (HCA) (e.g., Refs. [36, 38]) is a simplification of the $\delta N$ formalism, where we can ignore quantities contributing to $N_*$ from the end-of-inflation surface. Setting $\phi_{i,c} \to 0$ in Eq. (3), we find

$$n_t = -\frac{1}{4p^2} \sum_i \phi_{i,*}^2,$$

where we restrict our attention to cases that are slowly rolling at horizon crossing. Requiring $\epsilon \lesssim 0.1$ then sets the maximum deviation from the single-field result as

$$-\left( \frac{N_*}{2p} \right) \times O(10^{-1}) \lesssim \frac{n_t}{r} \lesssim -\frac{1}{8}.$$  

(8)

The many-field limit— We build the probability distribution for $n_t/r$ by marginalizing Eq. (7) over $P(\phi_0)$ and $P(\lambda)$, and use the central limit theorem (CLT) to take the large $N_f$ limit, $N_f \to \infty$. By Eq. (3) the HCA implies that $P(\phi_0)$ is a uniform distribution pulled back onto an $N_f$-sphere in field-space with radius $\sqrt{2pN_*}$. Since the multivariate normal distribution $\bar{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ is invariant under rotations of $\bar{x}$, we can sample this $N_f$-sphere uniformly by defining

$$\phi_{i,*} = \sqrt{\frac{2pN_*}{\sum_j x_j^2}} x_i \text{ for } \bar{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1).$$

(9)

Using Eq. (9), the summations in Eqs. (6) and (7) are

$$\sum_i \lambda_i^n |\phi_{i,*}|^m = \sum_i \lambda_i^n \left[ \frac{2pN_*}{\sum_j x_j^2} \right]^m |x_i|^m.$$  

(10)

As $N_f \to \infty$ the CLT shows that the numerator is normally distributed with mean

$$\mu_{num} = N_f \langle (2pN_*)^{m/2} \lambda^n \rangle$$

(11)

and standard deviation

$$s_{num} = \sqrt{N_f \langle (2pN_*)^{m/2} \sigma_{n,m} \rangle},$$

(12)

which assumes that the $\lambda_i$ and $x_j$ are independent. Finally, the denominator in Eq. (9) is drawn from the $\chi$-distribution, which is closely approximated by $\mathcal{N}(\sqrt{N_f}/1/\sqrt{2})$ for $x_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$. The numerator and denominator in Eq. (10) are correlated by the constraint in Eq. (3). For a given variance in $P(\lambda)$, the correlation $\gamma$ is maximized when $m = 2$ and $|\gamma| \to 1$ as the variance vanishes. Since each $\sum_i \lambda_i^n |\phi_{i,*}|^m$ is uniquely determined given $\bar{x}$ and $\bar{\phi}$, we expect a strong correlation between the numerator and denominator in Eq. (6) for typical choices of $P(\lambda)$. This significantly reduces the variance of $n_t/r$, and ensures a sharp prediction for its value. We numerically calculate $\gamma$ after defining the priors on $\lambda$.

For any normally distributed variable $y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$

$$\langle |y|^m \rangle = \frac{2\mu^m \sigma^m}{\sqrt{\pi}} \Gamma \left( \frac{1 + m}{2} \right) F_{1,1} \left( -m, \frac{1}{2}; \frac{1}{2}; \frac{-\mu^2}{2\sigma^2} \right),$$

(14)

for $m > -1$, and $F_{1,1}$ is the confluent hypergeometric function of the first kind. If $\mu = 0$, as for $x_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$, then $F_{1,1} = 1$ and only the $\Gamma$ function contributes to the moments.

If $m < -1$, $\langle |y|^m \rangle$ may diverge if $P(y = 0)$ does not vanish fast enough. This is indeed the case for $x_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$, and we cannot predict the distribution of the sums in Eq. (10) with $m \leq -1$. Sums like Eq. (10) are effectively finite numerical approximations to the integral

$$\frac{1}{N_f} \sum_i \lambda_i^n |x_i|^m \approx \int |x|^m \mathcal{N}(0,1) dx \int \lambda^n P(\lambda) d\lambda,$$

(15)

which diverges for $m < -1$. While ratios of these sums might be well-defined [39], our approach shows that a finite prediction for both the mean and the standard deviation of $n_t/r$ requires $p > 3/4$, while only requiring a finite mean needs $p > 1/2$, using the CLT.

The method— Since $n_t/r$ is given by Eq. (7) and the sums in Eq. (10) are ratios of correlated, normally distributed RVs, the key tool for this analysis is the ratio distribution $f_{ratio}(\alpha/\beta)$ for normally distributed RVs $\alpha$ and $\beta$. If $w = \alpha/\beta$, then as $P(\beta > 0) \to 1$ the CDF for the ratio distribution $f_{ratio}(w)$ is approximately [40]

$$F_{ratio}(w) = \Phi \left[ \frac{\mu_{\beta w} - \mu_\alpha}{\sigma_\alpha \sigma_\beta \sigma_\alpha(w)} \right],$$

(16)
where $\mu_i$ and $\sigma_i^2$ are the respective means and variances,

$$a(w) \equiv \left[ \frac{w^2}{\sigma_\alpha^2} - \frac{2\gamma w}{\sigma_\alpha \sigma_\beta} + \frac{1}{\sigma_\beta^2} \right]^{1/2}, \quad (17)$$

and

$$\Phi(z) \equiv \frac{1}{2} \left[ 1 + \text{Erf} \left( \frac{z}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \right] \quad (18)$$

for real $z$. When $N_f$ is large, $f_{\text{ratio}}$ approaches a normal distribution with mean $\mu_\alpha/\mu_\beta$ and standard deviation

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_\alpha^2 \sigma_\beta^2 - 2\gamma \mu_\alpha \mu_\beta \sigma_\alpha \sigma_\beta + \mu_\alpha^2 \sigma_\beta^2}{\mu_\beta^2}}. \quad (19)$$

The mean of $f_{\text{ratio}}$ is independent of the correlations $\gamma$, and the standard deviation for $n_t/r$ is a straightforward — but messy — algebraic function of $\langle \lambda \rangle$, $\langle \lambda^2 \rangle$, and $\langle \lambda^4 \rangle$, as well as $\langle |x|^m \rangle$ for $m = 2, 4, 6, 2p, 2p - 2, 4p - 4$.

To obtain the distribution $f_{\text{ratio}}(n_t/r)$ we express the consistency relation in terms of the sums in Eq. (10) as

$$\frac{n_t}{r} = -\frac{pN_\ast}{4} \left[ \sum_i \lambda_i^2 |\phi_i|^{2p-2} \right]. \quad (20)$$

For each sum above, we calculate the covariance in Eq. (10) between the numerator and denominator given $P(\lambda)$, and use Eq. (19) to find the variance of the sum. Although the denominator $\langle \sum_i \lambda_i |\phi_i| ^p \rangle^2$ is then $\chi^2$-distributed, this is approximately normal in the many-field limit. We then substitute these two normally-distributed RVs back into Eq. (16). Similarly, we evaluate the correlation between the numerator and denominator in Eq. (20), finally obtaining the probability distribution for $n_t/r$.

**Novel multifield predictions**— From the ratio distribution (16), as $N_f \to \infty$ the value of $n_t/r$ in Eq. (20) is normally distributed with a mean

$$\langle \frac{n_t}{r} \rangle_{N_f\uparrow} = \left[ -1 \right]^{1/8} \left[ \begin{array}{c} \langle \lambda^2 \rangle \\ \langle \lambda \rangle^2 \\ \sqrt{\pi} \Gamma \left( p - \frac{1}{2} \right) \end{array} \right] \quad (21)$$

and a standard deviation proportional to $s_{n_t/r} \propto 1/\sqrt{N_f}$ that can be found by substituting the means, variances, and correlations of Eq. (10) into Eq. (19).

The first bracketed term in Eq. (21) is the single-field prediction, the second is due to the couplings $\lambda_i$, and the third arises from the uniform prior for $\phi_i$, on the horizon-crossing surface. This last term is due only to the spread in the field values at horizon crossing and is independent of everything except $p$. The functional form of this term is fixed by the uniform prior distribution on the horizon crossing surface, but other prior probabilities that give a variable value for the fields as the $k_i$ leaves the horizon will result in qualitatively similar behavior.

Consequently, even if $\langle \lambda^2 \rangle = \langle \lambda \rangle^2$, $N_f$-monomial models do not predict $n_t/r = -1/8$, unless the $\phi_i$, are also identical. Fig. 1 compares the predicted value for $(n_t/r)$ in Eq. (21), with all $\lambda_i$ equal, to numerical results obtained by directly evaluating $n_t/r$ with Eq. (7), showing excellent agreement for many fields. The divergence at $p = 1/2$ reflects the fact that $\langle \lambda^2 \rangle \to \infty$. Thus, when $p \leq 1/2$, $(n_t/r)$ may be arbitrarily large, which violates the slow-roll assumption. Consequently, these models are most easily distinguished from their single field analogues, but the hardest to make accurate predictions for.

**Specific examples**— To understand how the mean $(n_t/r)$ in Eq. (21) is affected by $P(\lambda)$ we compare two explicit priors that are widely used in Bayesian analyses of inflation [4, 41-44]. We focus on the $p = 2$ case, since the dependence on the prior on $\phi_i$ in Eq. (21) cancels for this scenario.

We look at two cases: uniform prior probabilities over $\lambda_i$ or $\alpha_i$ for $\lambda_i \equiv 10^{10}$, which we denote the Uniform Model and Log Model, respectively. The Uniform Model would be applicable when the relevant scale of $\lambda_i$ is.
known to within an order of magnitude, while the Log Model effectively scans over a range of physical scales.

For the Uniform Model, the \( \nu_i \) are drawn from \( U(a, b) \), and Eq. (21) becomes

\[
\left( \frac{n_t}{r} \right)_{p=2}^{\text{unif}} = -\frac{1}{6} \left[ \frac{b^2 + ab + a^2}{(b + a)^2} \right].
\]  

For \( \nu_i \in [10^{-14}, 10^{-13}] \), as \( N_f \to \infty \) the predicted correlation coefficient for \( f_{\text{ratio}}(n_t/r) \) is \( \gamma \approx -0.98 \) and \( \langle n_t/r \rangle = -0.153 \). We plot \( f_{\text{ratio}} \) and the results of 10000 numerical realizations using the HCA in Fig. 2. We find excellent agreement with Eq. (22), with \( f_{\text{ratio}} \) accurately capturing the higher order moments of the \( n_t/r \) distribution for \( N_f \gtrsim 20 \). For \( p = \{3/2, 2, 3\} \) the single-field result \( n_t/r = -1/8 \) is a 5\( \sigma \) deviation from the mean in Eq. (22) for \( N_f \gtrsim \{120, 120, 200\} \), respectively.

For the Log Model with \( a \sim U(a, b) \),

\[
\left( \frac{n_t}{r} \right)_{p=2}^{\text{log}} = -\frac{\log(10)(b-a)}{16} \left[ \frac{10^b + 10^a}{10^b - 10^a} \right].
\]  

If \( a \to b \), we recover the single-field result in both Eqs. (22) and (23). However, Eq. (23) diverges as \( a \to -\infty \), reflecting the failure of slow-roll in the limit of widely separated scales. For \( a \in [-14, -12] \) the Log Model predicts \( \mathcal{P}_\zeta \sim \mathcal{O}(10^{-5}) \), \( \epsilon \lesssim 0.03 \), \( \gamma \approx -0.95 \) and \( n_t/r = -0.294 \). For \( p = \{3/2, 2, 3\} \) the single-field result is a 5\( \sigma \) deviation from the mean in Eq. (23) for \( N_f \gtrsim \{145, 135, 255\} \), respectively.

**Relaxing the approximations**—Fig. 3 compares the HCA prediction to numerical results that include the contribution from the end-of-inflation surface in Eq. (3), with \( \phi_{\text{eff}} \neq 0 \). We numerically solve the background Klein-Gordon equations for 1000 realizations, finding the field values at the end of inflation (defined by \( \epsilon = 1 \)) and obtaining the full \( \delta N \) prediction without using the HCA. Fig. 3 also incorporates both the sub-horizon evolution of the modes and any non–slow-roll behavior by solving the mode equations numerically using MODECODE, as in Refs. [45, 46]. Results are plotted for the Uniform Model, with the ranges \( \lambda_i \in [10^{-14}, 10^{-13}] \) and \( p = 2 \).

In all cases the numerical results are well-approximated by the HCA. The HCA results are marginally larger than the numerical results, which we attribute to second-order corrections to the slow-roll equations; \( n_t = -2\epsilon/(1 - \epsilon) \), which suppresses \( n_t \) relative to the first-order approximation. The variances in the numerical results scale as \( \sigma^2 \propto 1/\sqrt{N_f} \), as predicted by the HCA results, confirming that many-field models make sharp predictions for \( n_t/r \).

**Conclusion**—We have computed the probability distribution for the consistency relation \( n_t/r \) for inflation driven by multiple scalar fields with monomial potential terms, as a function of the distribution of couplings and initial field values. The single-field result is clearly distinguishable from the many-field limit, providing a clean and compelling signature that distinguishes these models from their single-field analogues. Other than for the quadratic case, this result holds even when the couplings are identical.

We focused on computing the slow roll parameter \( \epsilon \), but the nature of the slow-roll hierarchy [47] indicates that this approach will generalize to a variety of observables, so quantities such as \( f_{\text{NL}} \) that rely on the second and higher slow-roll parameters should also have precise predictions that deviate from the single-field expectation even when the couplings are degenerate. This provides a further compelling example of a multifield scenario in which the observables have a sharp and generic prediction in the many-field limit [31, 33, 34, 38, 39, 46, 48–55].

The expected value \( \langle n_t/r \rangle \) depends on only two moments of the prior probability distributions \( P(\lambda) \) and \( P(\phi_0) \), and the corresponding variance is \( s_{n_t/r}^2 \propto 1/N_f \). The single-field expectation of \( n_t/r = -1/8 \) differs from the multifield result at the 5\( \sigma \) level when \( N_f \gtrsim \mathcal{O}(10^2) \). Consequently, given specific priors for the field values and couplings, we obtain generic and testable predictions for the consistency relations in this large and interesting class of multifield inflation models.

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