The Newtonian constant of gravitation G – a constant too difficult to measure?

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The Newtonian constant of gravitation G

 $F = M_1 M_2 G/r^2$

The 2014 CODATA value for G is

 $G = 6.67408 (31) \times 10^{-11} \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-2}$

The uncertainty represents 47 ppm

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Current situation in the measurement of G from CODATA 2014







The search for Newton's constant (respected on the search of the search

The "G machine," now housed at the University of Birmingham in the UK, was used at the International Bureau of Weights and Measures in France to measure Newton's gravitational constant.

Three decades of careful experimentation have painted a surprisingly hazy picture of the constant governing the most familiar force on Earth.

ravity has a special place in physics. For starters, it is the only fundamental interaction that cannot be described by a quantum theory. Whereas the prevailing theories of gravity—Newton's law and Einstein's general relativity—consider space and time to be continuous classical quantities, the theories that describe electromagnetism and the nuclear forces are based on conserved quanta.

Gravity is also by far the weakest of the fundamental forces; its strength becomes comparable to that of the others only at energies near the Planck scale, 1.22×10^{19} GeV, some 15 orders of magnitude higher than the energies currently being explored by the Large Hadron Collider. The mismatch calls into question the validity of the standard model of particle physics, which is thought to be incompatible with such an immense fundamental energy scale.

It is fitting, then, that gravity, more than any other force, stubbornly eludes precise measurement. Newton's law, which approximates general relativity in the limit of small gravitational fields and nonrelativistic speeds, states that the magnitude *F* of the force attracting two spherical bodies of mass M_1 and M_2 , separated by a distance *r*, is given by $F = GM_1M_2/r^2$. The constant *G* is known, unsurprisingly, as Newton's constant of gravitation. It is considered to be a fundamental constant of nature. But more than three centuries after Newton's law was proposed, experiments have yet to yield a consensu on the constant's value.

According to the Committee on Data for Science and Technology (CODATA), which issues recommended values of fundamental constants once every four years, $G = 6.67384(80) \times 10^{-11} \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-2}$. That value, from 2010, reflects the results of nearly a dozen experimental measurements made during the past three decades (see figure 1).¹ Although many of the individual measurements have an uncertainty of less than 50 parts per million (ppm),





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bers, not the wooden boxes used in the Cavendish experiment, the basic principle of separating the minute gravitational force between laboratory-scale masses from Earth's large, downward pull remains the same.

Cavendish would have been surprised, however, to find that after so many years, measurement accuracy has improved only modestly—not nearly as much as it has for almost every other physical quantity. We now estimate the accuracy of Cavendish's measurements to be something like 1%, which is not much worse than the spread of measurements that figure into the current CODATA value. To understand how we've arrived at this situation, let's first

Figure 2. A torsion-balance experiment has, as its central element, two test masses balanced on a beam suspended by a thin metal wire. (a) In the original setup conceived by John Michell and later used by Henry Cavendish, two large source masses are positioned to exert a gravitational force that causes the torsion balance to turn through a small angle. The arrangements indicated by the dark and light source masses would yield clockwise and counterclockwise displacements, respectively. (b) In so-called time-ofswing experiments, G is calculated from the change in oscillation period when source masses are repositioned between arrangements lying along (dark spheres) and orthogonal to (light spheres) the resting test-mass axis. (c) In a third approach, the electrostatic servo-control technique, the gravitational force is calculated from the voltage that must be applied to nearby electrodes to hold the test assembly in place. In all three configurations, the gravitational coupling between the source masses and the whole of the torsion-balance assembly has to be calculated.



Figure 4. A simple pendulum gravity gradiometer consists of a microwave or optical cavity formed by two hanging mirrors. When source masses are moved toward the cavity mirrors, the varying gravitational pull leads to a change in the cavity's optical length and, hence, a change in its resonant frequency. In a Fabry– Perot experiment performed at JILA, the change in the optical length was on the order of tens of nanometers.

result by Winfried Michaelis and coworkers at Physikalisch-Technische Bundesanstalt (PTB) in Braunschweig, Germany.¹⁰ Michaelis and his colleagues used a novel torsion balance in which the





Figure 5. In a beam-balance experiment, a Zürich team compared the weights of two 1.1-kg test masses suspended just above and just below 6.5-ton source masses. In switching between the left and right configurations, the test masses' differential weight changes by an amount equivalent to the weight of a millimeter-sized drop of water. (Adapted from ref. 18.)

for biases through a number of experimental configurations housed in the same laboratory and publishing a final result only when the measurements agree should lead to more reliable values of *G*.

Beyond the torsion balance

Since the 1990s a few groups have developed successful alternatives to the torsion balance. Among the firsts, researchers at the University of Wuppertal in Germany devised a simple pendulum gravity gradiometer, which consisted of two metal mirrors suspended by thin wires to form a hanging microwave cavity, as illustrated in figure 4. When 125-kg source masses were positioned behind each mirror, they induced a slight displacement of the mirrors, detectable as a change in the cavity resonance frequency.

By 2002 the Wuppertal group had refined the technique sufficiently to measure *G* with a reported uncertainty of 100 ppm.¹⁶ Soon after, Harold Parks and James Faller of JILA adopted a similar ap-



The effect is evident at periods ranging from less than a second to more than 10 minutes. We were able to relate the anelastic aftereffect to the presence of so-called 1/f noise arising from the movement of dislocations in the metal wire.

Kazuaki Kuroda then deduced that anelastic behavior would subject time-of-swing measurements to an error inversely proportional to the quality factor Q, a quantity indicating how closely the balance approximates a lossless elastic spring.⁹ He calculated corrections for many of the classic torsion-balance measurements; he revised all of them downward, in most cases by a few tenths of a percent. The NBS measurements on which the 1986 CODATA value was based were revised downward by about 50 ppm following confirmatory experiments by Bagley and Luther, who used two wires of widely different Q.

In 1996 a second development shook confidence in the CODATA value: the publication of a

Figure 3. Two twists on the torsion balance. **(a)** A group at the University of Washington used the flat plate visible at center, rather than the traditional dumbbell arrangement, as the test mass in a torsion-balance measurement of the gravitational constant *G*. (A penny at the bottom left conveys the scale.) In such a geometry, the derived value of *G* is almost completely independent of the mass distribution of the test masses. (Image courtesy of Jens Gundlach.) **(b)** Researchers at Huazhong University of Science and Technology in Wuhan, China, used a quartz slab as the test mass, which offers similar metrology advantages. The source masses are arranged in the so-called time-of-swing configuration, detailed in figure 2b. (Image courtesy of Jun Luo.)



The cryogenic torsion balance of University of California



Figure 1. Schematic drawing of our apparatus. The clouds of cold atoms are represented at their apogees inside the long vertical vacuum tube. In (*a*), the source masses are pulling the clouds together while in (*b*) they are tearing them apart. Each source mass is a group of 12 cylinders arranged in hexagonal symmetry. The structures supporting the cylinders are not shown. (Online version in colour.)

Atom interferometer determination of G, university of Bologna





The BIPM G experiment has passed through three phases:

Τ

- A preliminary small-scale version(1996) to explore the behaviour of torsion strips (Metrologia, 1997, 34, 245-249).
 We obtained a value of *G* with a relative uncertainty of 1.7 10⁻³
- 2 The first full scale version produced a value for *G* with an uncertainty of 41 ppm in 2001 (PRL, 2001, 87, 11101). In this version we used two methods of measurement.
- 3 A second full scale version, using the same two methods of measurement but completely rebuilt, produced a value of *G* in 2013 with an uncertainty of 27 ppm, statistically consister with the first, (PRL, 2013, 111, 101102)

In every experiment to measure *G* except ours, each experimenter has used only one method of measurement.

Different experimenters have used different methods, but this is not the same because the errors in one experiment are not directly constrained by the results of different methods in other experiments.

In an experiment in which there are two or more independent methods, one has first to look for errors in each until they all agree. When this is the case, the only errors that can remain are those in the much more limited set common to all.

This is the principal feature of our G experiment. We have used two methods with potential for a third and we have done the whole experiment twice



The principal characteristics of the BIPM torsion balance experiment used to measure *G* are the following:

- •a large mass of the torsion balance (some 6 kg) leading to a G signal of 3×10^{-8} Nm
- •a hexadecupole test-mass distribution leading to insensitivity to local external gravity fields
- the whole placed on the platform of a coordinate measuring machine to give the best chance of accurate metrology
 a heavily loaded (some 6 kg) torsion strip as balance suspension
- having a $Q \ge 10^5$
- •two complete experiments with the apparatus almost wholly rebuilt so that we have two statistically independent and statistically consistent results.
- •two modes of operation, Cavendish and servo, giving two largely independent results for each experiment







The Cu-Be torsion strip, 160 mm long, 2.5 mm wide and 30 μm thick







The restoring torque of a strip of thickness *t*, width *b*, length *L* under a load *Mg* is given by:

$c = bt^3 F/3L + Mgb^2/12L$

In this expression only the term in red contains the shear modulus of elasticity, i.e., only the red term is elastic and subject to anelasticity. The second term is purely gravitational and represents the gravitational potential energy as the end of the strip rises and falls as it twists. This term is thus lossless and in our strip accounts for 97% of the restoring torque.

Provided that there are no losses at the ends of the strip where it is held, the whole thing should have a very high Q This is indeed the case, the Q was 3×10^5 in the 2001 experiment and 1.2×10^5 in the 2013 experiment. The torsion balance was very stable as one would expect of a system having a Q $\ge 10^5$.

For example during ten days of the Cavendish runs the zero angle, measured at the beginning and end of each run, drifted by a total of 0.08 μ rad (with a std dev of 0.07 μ rad) equivalent to 10 nm at the periphery of the disk and 1 nm at the edge of the strip.

The only significant perturbing factor is the temperature.







The design of the electrodes was modelled using a 2d finite element method. The radii of the electrodes and their distance from the test masses were designed such that the capacitance versus angle was linear with $dC/d\theta$ a maximum.

This means that $d^2C/d\theta^2$ is nominally zero. This enables large voltages to be applied to the electrodes (100s of volts) without instabilities.









The principle of the servo method:

• The electrostatic restoring torque that balances the gravitational torque $G\Gamma$ is given by:

$$G\Gamma = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{dC_{\rm A}}{d\theta} V_{\rm A}^{2} + \frac{dC_{\rm B}}{d\theta} V_{\rm B}^{2} + \frac{dC_{\rm AB}}{d\theta} \left(V_{\rm A} - V_{\rm B} \right)^{2} \right]$$

 where Γ is the gravitational coupling constant between the source masses and torsion balance; A and B signify the electrostatic servo electrodes










Principle of the Cavendish (free-deflection) method:

• The angular deflection, θ , is related to the gravitational torque $G\Gamma$ by the relation $G\Gamma = c \ \theta$, where *c* is the torque constant of the balance given by $c = I\omega^2$ so that:

$$G\Gamma = I\omega^2 \theta$$

- *c* is determined from measurements of period and calculation and measurement of *I*, the moment of inertia of the torsion balance.
- since the angle is observed by the autocollimator in air but actually the rotation is in vacuum we have to multiply the observed angle by the refractive index of air 1.000271



Sequer	nce of oper	ations for the Cavendish method
30 mins 3	30 mins	40 cycles
- '' + 18.89° '' - Total ru	18.89°	data point ≈ 22 hours



Comparing the expressions for servo and Cavendish:

$$G\Gamma = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{dC_{A}}{d\theta} V_{A}^{2} + \frac{dC_{B}}{d\theta} V_{B}^{2} + \frac{dC_{B}}{d\theta} V_{B}^{2} + \frac{dC_{AB}}{d\theta} (V_{A} - V_{B})^{2} \right]$$

$$G\Gamma = I\omega^2 \theta$$

Note:

(a) $I \approx 4 M$ (test) R^2 and so M(test) appears in both Γ and I and is thus eliminated in the Cavendish method and

(b) θ appears in the denominator in the servo and numerator in the Cavendish method. Thus the average of the servo and Cavendish methods eliminates a <u>common</u> angle error.





Measured quantities specific to the servo method are: Capacitance, angle $(dC/d\theta)$ and AC volts at 1 kHz

For the Cavendish method: Angle θ , period *T* and moment of inertia *I*

Common to both are:

(a) values of the (test) and source masses and their density inhomogeneities

(b) Relative positions of source masses and test masses and torsion balance with respect to source masses (dimensional metrology)

(c) the gravitational coupling between source and test masses and all the other components of the torsion balance.



Density inhomogeneities

(a) hydrostatic weighing of samples cut from the original ingots(b) centre of gravity of source masses by air bearing

• During the measurements of *G*, we turned the source masses through successive angles of 120° and took the average of the results.





















Fractional error in torque as a function of offset of axis of rotation of source masses with respect to that of test masses

Uncertainty of position of suspended torsion balance with respect to source masses



Offset of source-mass axis of rotation in mm for a 60 mm arm length of torsion beam

Source mass positions (millimetres) October 2007





Source mass coordinates March 2008, position B





Radii of source masses, 1, 2, 3 and 4 (millimetres) at all three orientations											
23 Jan	29 Jan	13 Feb	20 Feb	21 Feb	28 Feb	12 Mar	average	σμ			
1 58.9766	.9780	.9765	.9762	.9773	.9774	.9764	58.9769	0.6			
2 58.9866	.9863	.9871	.9872	.9879	.9871	.9873	58.9871	0.5			
3 58.9853	.9852	.9839	.9840	.9855	.9848	.9855	58.9849	0.6			
4 59.0015	.0015	.0015	.0016	.0018	.0012	.0015	59.0015	0.2			
58.9876 58.9876)	58.9876		58.9876						
0°			120°		240°						
The measured radii of source mass is independent of their orientation											

A third method of measurement, in addition to the servo and Cavendish, is the timing method.

While we explored this method, the temperature of the laboratory could not be maintained sufficiently stable to give useful results.

The method requires the measurement of the small change in period, ≈ 40 ms, in the natural period of the torsion balance of 120 s. 1





The relation between measured quantities and *G* for the timing method is:

$$I(\omega_0^2 - \omega_{45}^2) = (\Gamma_{45} - \Gamma_0) G$$

Where ω_0 and ω_{45} are the angular frequencies of free oscillation of the torsion balance for source mass positions of 0 and 45 degrees and Γ_{45} and Γ_0 are the corresponding gravitational coupling coefficients and *I* is the moment of inertia of the torsion balance. This can be written in terms of the measured periods:

 $(\Gamma_{45} - \Gamma_0) G = 8\pi^2 I \Delta T / (T_{av}^3)$

 $T_{\rm av} \approx 120 \text{ s and } \Delta T \approx 40 \text{ ms}$

In order to reach an uncertainty in G of 30 ppm we need an uncertainty in ΔT of 1 microsecond or 1 part in 120 million in T which would need a temperature stability of the strip of about 1 mK.













FIG. 3. The present result (BIPM-13) compared with recent measurements of G [6].



What of the future? I would like to see the following:

The BIPM apparatus with all three methods: Servo, which needs electrical and angle measurements Cavendish, which needs angle, timing and moment of inertia measurements Timing, which needs timing measurements

With all three needing: Dimensional metrology Well characterized source and test masses Gravitational coupling calculations

General improvements would include an angle interferometer in the vacuum chamber, low thermal expansion disk material.

The aim: sub 10 ppm in all three methods





HENRY CAVENDISH









Т


Zero drift of the torsion balance during the Cavendish runs

