

# Trajectories of bright stars and shadows around supermassive black holes as tests of gravity theories

*A. F. Zakharov*<sup>a,b1</sup>,

<sup>a</sup> National Research Center "Kurchatov Institute Moscow, Russia

<sup>b</sup> Bogoliubov Laboratory for Theoretical Physics, JINR, 141980 Dubna, Russia

Общая теория относительности (ОТО), созданная более века назад, прошла проверку в различных экспериментальных и наблюдательных тестах. На ранней стадии своего развития предсказания ОТО проверялись в задачах, где гравитационное поле слабое, и релятивистские поправки можно рассматривать как малые возмущения ньютоновской теории гравитации. Однако в последние годы, в связи с развитием новых технологий, оказалось возможным проверить предсказания ОТО в пределе сильного гравитационного поля, как это было сделано для проверки предсказаний о профиле рентгеновской линии железа  $K\alpha$ , оценок гравитационного волнового сигнала при слиянии двойных черных дыр и/или нейтронных звезд и при восстановлении теней черных дыр в Sgr A\* и M87\*. Группы астрономов при помощи телескопов Keck и VLT (GRAVITY), подтвердили предсказания ОТО в первом пост-ньютоновском приближении для красного смещения спектральных линий звезды S2 вблизи прохождения ее перигентра. Ожидается, что в ближайшем будущем наблюдения ярких звезд с помощью больших телескопов VLT (GRAVITY), Keck, E-ELT и TMT позволят нам проверить предсказания ОТО в сильном гравитационном поле сверхмассивных черных дыр. Наблюдения ярких звезд в окрестностях Галактического Центра и реконструкции теней черных дыр позволяют не только проверить предсказания ОТО, но и получить ограничения на альтернативные теории гравитации.

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General relativity (GR), created more than a century ago, has been tested in various experimental and observational tests. At an early stage of its development, GR predictions were tested in problems where the gravitational field is weak and relativistic corrections can be considered as small perturbations of the Newtonian theory of gravity. However, in recent years due to the progress of new technologies It turned out to be possible to verify the predictions of GR in the limit of a strong gravitational field, as it was done to verify predictions about the profile of the X-ray line of iron  $K\alpha$ , estimates of the gravitational wave signal during the merger of binary black holes and/or neutron stars and during the restoration of the shadows of black holes in Sgr A\* and M87\*. Groups of astronomers using the Keck and VLT (GRAVITY) telescopes confirmed the GR predictions for the redshift of the spectral lines of the S2 star near the passage of its pericenter (these predictions were done in the first post-Newtonian approximation). It is expected that in the near future, observations of bright stars using large telescopes VLT (GRAVITY), Keck, E-ELT and TMT will allow us to verify the predictions of GRT in the strong gravitational field of supermassive black holes. Observations of bright stars in the vicinity of the Galactic Center and reconstructions of the shadows of black holes allow not only to verify the predictions of the GR, but also to obtain restrictions on alternative theories of gravity.

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<sup>1</sup>E-mail: alex.fed.zakharov@gmail.com

## 1. Introduction

4 After WWII an importance of development of theoretical and experimental  
 5 aspects of general relativity (GR) started to be evident and the conference  
 6 dedicated to the Jubilee of Relativity Theory was organized by W. Pauli  
 7 in Bern in 1955.<sup>2</sup> In 1957 the next conference (GR1) was organized by B.  
 8 De Witt in Chapel Hill [2] where he was the director of Institute of Field  
 9 Theory at University of North Carolina. The goal of this conference was  
 10 to provide a good platform where experimentalists could meet theorists to  
 11 boost research in gravitational physics. Intensive discussions of opportunity  
 12 to detect gravitational waves were started by R. Feynman, H. Bondi, J.  
 13 Weber at this conference and now we could see that this brain storm was  
 14 very efficient.

15 In 1962 GR3 conference was organized in Warsaw and Jablonna (it was  
 16 the first conference where a large group of Western scientists met with  
 17 scientists from Eastern Europe (the conference was organized in times of  
 18 Cold War and the Iron Curtain was very high). Among 114 participants  
 19 33 participants were from Eastern countries. The chairman was L. Infeld.  
 20 Many outstanding scientists attended the conference including P.A. M. Dirac  
 21 (who got his Nobel prize many years before the conference), and many  
 22 others (including R. Feynman, S. Chandrasekhar, V. L. Ginzburg, P. Higgs,  
 23 R. Penrose) who got the Nobel prizes later. This fact illustrates a high  
 24 level of the conference organization and it is also the evidence that in 1962  
 25 GR studies are among the hottest topics in physics in spite of Feynman's  
 26 criticism of GR conferences [3, 4]. A representative group of Soviet scientists  
 27 (11 people) attended the activity and two of them (V. Ginzburg and V.  
 28 A. Fock) presented plenary talks at the meeting. The title of Ginzburg's  
 29 talk was "Experimental Verification of General Relativity Theory" [5] (it  
 30 was the only talk devoted to observational tests of GR [6]). Later, Ginzburg  
 31 wrote a review about the most important and interesting problems in physics  
 32 and astrophysics and many versions of the review were published as journal  
 33 articles, chapters of Ginzburg's books and separate booklets (see, versions of  
 34 the review published in Physics Uspekhi [7, 8]. Ginzburg called the articles  
 35 as realizations of the Project on Physical Minimum and he claimed that a  
 36 basic knowledge of is necessary to increase a qualification of young physicists  
 37 and astrophysicists. <sup>1</sup> These Ginzburg's articles provided a high impact on  
 38 scientific community in Russia and abroad. Astrophysical black holes are  
 39 directly connected with the following problems from the Ginzburg's list: 21.  
 40 Experimental verification of general theory of relativity; 22. Gravitational  
 41 waves and their detection; 25. Black holes. Cosmic strings (?);<sup>2</sup> 26. Quasars

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<sup>2</sup>Now this conference is called usually GR0, see for instance [isgrg.org/pastconf.php](http://isgrg.org/pastconf.php). Outstanding Soviet scientists V. A. Fock and A. D. Alexandrov attended the activity where A. D. Alexandrov (who was the Leningrad State University rector at this time) delivered a plenary talk there [1]. It was a visible recognition of a high reputation and a significant contribution of Soviet scientists in GR development at this time.

<sup>1</sup><https://ufn.ru/tribune/trib230107.pdf>

<sup>2</sup>In cited reviews Ginzburg marked *Cosmic strings* by the question mark perhaps due

42 and galactic nuclei. Formation of galaxies; 27. The problem of dark matter  
43 (hidden mass) and its detection.

44 Therefore, international conferences on GR played the extremely important  
45 role to settle and solve many theoretical and experimental aspects of gravity  
46 and to start intensive studies of theoretical and experimental aspects of  
47 gravitational wave detection<sup>1</sup> because even the question about an existence  
48 of gravitational waves was a subject of doubts among many researchers  
49 including A. Einstein and many others and an existence of gravitational  
50 waves started to much more clear in a result of efforts of many scientists.  
51 For example, in 1936 Einstein and Rosen submitted under the title "Do  
52 gravitational waves exist?" in Physical Review (it was his joint paper with N.  
53 Rosen) and the Einstein's answer for the title question was "No" as it was  
54 noted [9, 10]. Before the submission, Einstein wrote a letter to M. Born in  
55 letter "Together with a young collaborator, I arrived at the interesting result  
56 that gravitational waves do not exist through they had assumed certainly  
57 to the first approximation" [11]. Einstein received a negative referee's report  
58 from the Chief Editor of Physical Review (it was John Tate at this time).  
59 Einstein was very angry and he wrote to Tate: "Dear Sir, We (Mr Rosen and  
60 I) had sent you our manuscript for publication and had not authorized you  
61 to show it to specialists before it is printed... On the basis of this incident I  
62 prefer to publish the paper elsewhere..." [10]. After conversations with H. P.  
63 Robertson and L. Infeld (who were in Princeton in 1936) Einstein revised his  
64 conclusion and submitted the joint paper with Rosen in Journal of Franklin  
65 Institute [12] and at the end the paper Einstein wrote "The second part  
66 of this paper altered by me after departure of Mr. Rosen for Russia since  
67 we had interpreted our formula erroneously. I wish to thank my colleague  
68 Professor Robertson for his friendly assistance in the clarification of the  
69 original error." As it was noted in [10] Robertson was the referee of the paper  
70 by Einstein and Rosen submitted in Physical Review.

## 71 2. Direct ways to evaluate gravitational potential near supermassive black 72 holes

73 The most natural way to evaluate a gravitational potential is a consideration  
74 of test body trajectories in the potential and comparison of theoretical orbits  
75 calculated in the framework of a selected model with observational results.  
76 For solar system potential this way was passed due to efforts of scientific  
77 giants like Tycho Brahe, J. Kepler, R. Hooke and I. Newton. Really, Tycho  
78 Brahe collected observational data about trajectories of planets, Kepler formulated  
79 laws for planet motions, Hooke wrote a letter to Newton [13, 14] and later

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to his doubts in existence of these objects in nature.

<sup>1</sup>Active studies of opportunities to detect gravitational waves in Soviet Union started after the GR3 Conference because Soviet participants of GR3 learned during the activity about works by J. Weber who was creating the first gravitational wave bar-detector. No we know that great efforts of international collaborations LIGO and Virgo lead to the discoveries of gravitational waves and binary black holes.

80 Newton proved that really this gravity law could explain Kepler's laws for  
 81 solar system and established his gravity law for all celestial objects in the  
 82 Universe. Similarly, Rutherford used trajectories of  $\alpha$ -particles to investigate  
 83 a structure of atoms. Similarly, we could use trajectories of bright stars, gas  
 84 clouds to test gravitational field in centers of galaxies including our Galactic  
 85 Center.

### 86 3. Bright stars as test bodies in centers of galaxies

87 Two groups of astronomers monitor bright stars near the Galactic Center  
 88 (GC) for decades (see early publications on the subject in [15,16]). Currently  
 89 the group led by A. Ghez uses the Keck twin telescope in Hawaii while the  
 90 European group led by R. Genzel uses VLT facilities in Chile (currently,  
 91 four VLT telescopes with 8 m diameter mirrors can form the interferometer  
 92 which is called GRAVITY). Recently, relativistic predictions evaluated in the  
 93 framework of the first post-Newtonian approximation about gravitational  
 94 redshifts for S2 star near its pericenter passage in May 2018 have been  
 95 confirmed in observations (these conclusions were done by both Keck and  
 96 GRAVITY collaborations) [17–19]. The GRAVITY collaboration reported  
 97 about a discovery of hot spot motions near the innermost stable circular orbit  
 98 of supermassive black hole at the GC [20] and these achievements give an  
 99 opportunity to investigate GR predictions in a strong gravitational field limit.  
 100 In 2020 the GRAVITY collaboration found that the Schwarzschild precession  
 101 corresponds to its relativistic estimates done in the first post-Newtonian  
 102 approximation [21]. These observational results support the Newton's declaration  
 103 that the gravity law is universal elsewhere including the Solar system and  
 104 the Galactic Center. This conclusion is important since in last years theorists  
 105 proposed a number of alternative theories of gravity and gravity laws may  
 106 be different in different astronomical systems.

### 107 4. Schwarzschild precession as a distance measure for GC model

108 Observations of bright stars at GC give an opportunity to choose the  
 109 most suitable model for gravitational potential. If in the first approximation  
 110 we can use a Newtonian approximation for gravity and we can assume that a  
 111 gravitational potential is spherically symmetrical, so we can test any theoretical  
 112 model in a spherical shell where the orbits of observed stars are located if  
 113 observation accurate enough even in the case if observers monitor a small  
 114 piece of an entire trajectory of a star. However, if we wish to rule out a set  
 115 of models which do not correspond to observations we could theoretically  
 116 evaluate the Schwarzschild precession for monitored stars for more than one  
 117 period and after that we could reject models (or gravity theories) which are  
 118 nor consistent with observations. Using such an approach we constrain GC  
 119 models with dark matter based on properties of the S2 star trajectory [22].

120

## 5. Alternative theories of gravity

121 As the first case to constrain alternative theories of gravity we choose a  
 122 version of  $f(R)$  theory of gravity [23–25] where  $f(R) = R^n$  (it is clear that for  
 123  $n = 1$  the theory coincides with GR) and this approach was proposed in [26].  
 124 Later it was found that  $R^n$  theory can explain an accelerated expansion of  
 125 the Universe [27] and flat rotation curves for spiral galaxies [28] or in other  
 126 words for some cases the considered gravity change could fit dark energy  
 127 (or  $\Lambda$ -term) and dark matter phenomena (naturally to explain DM and DE  
 128 phenomena  $n$  must be significantly different from unity, since really, to fit  
 129 supernovae type Ia data which was used to discover the accelerated expansion  
 130 of the Universe  $n$  parameter must be around 3 [27], while to fit rotation  
 131 curves for spiral galaxies we have to choose  $n \approx 3.5$  [28]). However, Solar  
 132 system data are not consistent with so big  $n$  numbers since we found that  $n$   
 133 must be very close to 1 [29]. From a comparison of theoretical estimates and  
 134 observational data for the S2 star trajectory we concluded that  $n$  parameter  
 135 must be very close to 1 otherwise the precession is much greater than its  
 136 observed quantity [30]. Later we assumed a presence of  $R^n$  gravity and a bulk  
 137 concentration of matter in GC we also obtained even more strict constraints  
 138 on  $n$  parameter [31] since both  $R^n$  (for  $n > 1$ ) and extended mass distribution  
 139 cause retrograde orbital precession. Evaluating the Schwarzschild precession  
 140 in the framework of Yukawa gravity and taking into account an absence of  
 141 the precession for S2 star orbit we constrained Yukawa gravity parameters  
 142 in [32] (it was useful result since there is a class of extended theories of  
 143 gravity which have an Yukawa gravity as a weak gravitational field limit [33]).  
 144 Constraints on parameters of extended gravity theory from observations of  
 145 the S2 trajectory are presented in [34].

146

## 6. Theories of massive gravity

147 The first version of gravity theory where graviton is massive was proposed  
 148 by Fierz and Pauli [35], however, later pathologies have been discovered in  
 149 this theory, in particular, a presence of ghosts have found [36]. A version  
 150 of massive theory of gravity have been developed by A. A. Logunov and  
 151 his group in the framework of relativistic theory of gravity and using this  
 152 approach astrophysical consequences were discussed, in particular, graviton  
 153 mass have been constrained [37, 38] (see references therein as well) and the  
 154 graviton mass constraint  $m_g < 9 \times 10^{-34}$  eV obtained in [37] is still the  
 155 strictest according to the last PDG review [39] (however, we have to note  
 156 that it very hard to control systematic errors in different estimates of graviton  
 157 mass bounds).

158 Several years ago C. de Rham and her co-authors found a way to construct  
 159 a massive theory of gravity without ghosts [40] (see also a more extended  
 160 review on the subject [41]). In the first publication on gravitational wave  
 161 discovery [42] the LIGO and Virgo collaborations reported about detections  
 162 of gravitational waves from binary black hole system and the authors considered

163 a massive theory of gravity and found a constraint on graviton mass  $m_g <$   
 164  $1.2 \times 10^{-22}$  eV. Assuming that massive gravity is valid at GC and considering  
 165 the S2 star trajectory observed by Keck and VLT telescopes we obtained a  
 166 graviton mass constraint  $m_g < 2.9 \times 10^{-21}$  eV [43]. If we suppose that GR  
 167 estimates concerning the orbital precessions of bright stars will be confirmed  
 168 by future observations we showed that the current graviton mass estimate  
 169 could be significantly improved at a level around  $5 \times 10^{-23}$  eV [44] which is  
 170 comparable with constraints found by LIGO–Virgo collaborations.

171 7. Is it possible to substitute supermassive black hole with dark matter  
 172 cloud in GC?

173 It was generally adopted that there supermassive black holes (SMBHs) in  
 174 galactic nuclei (including our GC). However, other models are also proposed.  
 175 For instance, it was suggested to substitute supermassive black hole in GC  
 176 by dense core and diluted halo produced by dark matter [45] (it is now called  
 177 RAR-model, since Ruffini, Argüelles and Rueda were the authors in [45]) it  
 178 was also declared [46] that this model provided a better fit of trajectories  
 179 of bright stars in comparison with the conventional model where SMBH  
 180 is a key component. However, if we adopt RAR-model for GC we have a  
 181 harmonic potential for the central core of dark matter and trajectories of  
 182 bright stars are elliptical where GC coincides with centers of ellipses while in  
 183 reality GC coincides with foci of observed trajectories of bright stars [47, 48].  
 184 We should also mention that the RAR model for GC is not consistent the  
 185 shadow reconstruction in Sgr A\* [55] which was reproduced by the Event  
 186 Horizon Telescope Collaboration.

187 8. Shadows as black hole fingerprints

188 Thought experiments were popular at the dawn of general relativity  
 189 and quantum mechanics development. Around 50 years ago when people  
 190 started to analyze consequences of an existence of astrophysical black holes  
 191 James Maxwell Bardeen proposed to consider a bright screen behind an  
 192 astrophysical rotating black hole assuming that photons propagated along  
 193 geodesics (without scattering) and in this case he concluded that a virtual  
 194 observer could detect a small spot in the sky [50] (and later this spot was  
 195 called *shadow*). However, in these times people did not discuss the Bardeen’s  
 196 consideration as a GR test or a test for BH existence in an observed astronomical  
 197 object, since first there is no a bright screen behind a selected black hole,  
 198 second, for known black hole candidates sizes of these shadows are extremely  
 199 small to be detected. Later, it was understood that secondary images should  
 200 be concentrated near shadows [51] and shapes and sizes of shadows could  
 201 be reconstructed from bright structure distributions around shadows and  
 202 we declared that the shadow for Sgr A\* could be reconstructed from global  
 203 (or and ground – space) VLBI observations in mm or/and sub-mm bands

204 (or X-ray band) [52] (simplifying our proposal we said that for theorists  
 205 black holes are vacuum solutions of Einstein equations while for observers  
 206 black holes are small spots (shadows) in the sky). These spectral bands were  
 207 chosen since H. Falcke et al. showed in numerical simulations [53] that for  
 208 1 cm or longer wave lengths scatter of photons on electrons could spoil bright  
 209 images around shadows while for 1.3 mm wave lengths or shorter shadows  
 210 could be detectable. Consequent studies confirmed our predictions in [52]  
 211 since the Event Horizon Telescope (EHT) Collaboration reconstructed the  
 212 shadow around Sgr A\* observed in April 2017 at 1.3 mm wavelength [55]  
 213 (earlier, the EHT reported about shadow reconstruction for M87\* [54]). In  
 214 spite of great differences in masses and distances for Sgr A\* and M87\* their  
 215 shadow diameters are comparable since as it was found we have 52  $\mu\text{as}$  for  
 216 Sgr A\* and 42  $\mu\text{as}$  for M87\*. We showed that a black hole spin could be  
 217 evaluated from an analysis of shadow shape [52].

218 A cosmic plasma is quasi-neutral it is natural to expect that astrophysical  
 219 black hole has a very small electric charge. In spite of these expectations we  
 220 derived an analytical expression for a shadow size as a function of charge [56]  
 221 (we followed an approach used earlier in [57, 58]). It means that photons could  
 222 measure a black hole charge since a charge changes the Schwarzschild metric  
 223 with the Reissner – Nordström one. We also should to note that Reissner –  
 224 Nordström metric is a solution in Randall – Sundrum gravity theory with an  
 225 extra dimension [59]. Really, this solution looks like Reissner – Nordström  
 226 metric but it is a generalization of this solution since parameter  $q^2$  may be  
 227 negative ( $q$  is a black hole charge) and Dadhich et al. called it a Reissner  
 228 – Nordström metric with a tidal charge since this additional parameter was  
 229 caused by an existence of an extra dimension [59]. Later, it was proposed to  
 230 adopt a Reissner – Nordström metric with a tidal charge for the GC [60],  
 231 however, it was shown that a significant negative tidal charge is inconsistent  
 232 with current estimates of a shadow size in Sgr A\* [61].

233 Earlier we found allowed intervals for tidal charges based on EHT estimates  
 234 of shadow sizes in M87\* [54] and Sgr A\* [55]. We will remind expression  
 235 for a Reissner – Nordström black hole with a tidal charge in natural units  
 236 ( $G = c = 1$ ) in a form

$$ds^2 = - \left( 1 - \frac{2M}{r} + \frac{Q^2}{r^2} \right) dt^2 + \left( 1 - \frac{2M}{r} + \frac{Q^2}{r^2} \right)^{-1} dr^2 + r^2(d\theta^2 + \sin^2\theta d\phi^2), \quad (1)$$

237 where  $M$  is a black hole mass,  $Q$  is its charge. Constants  $E$  and  $L$  are  
 238 connected with photon and they are describe photon geodesics, namely  $E$   
 239 is photon's energy,  $L$  is its angular momentum. If we introduce normalized  
 240 radial coordinate, impact parameter and charge  $\hat{r} = r/M, \xi = L/(ME),$   
 241  $\hat{Q} = Q/M$ . We introduce also variables  $l = \xi^2, q = \hat{Q}^2$ , then critical impact  
 242 parameter corresponding to shadow radius [62]

$$l_{\text{cr}} = \frac{(8q^2 - 36q + 27) + \sqrt{D}}{2(1 - q)}, \quad (2)$$

243 where  $D = -512 \left( q - \frac{9}{8} \right)^3$ . As we noted earlier parameter  $q$  may be negative  
 244 for a Reissner – Nordström black hole with a tidal charge (or for Horndeski  
 245 scalar-tensor theory of gravity [63, 64]).

246 The EHT Collaboration evaluated the shadow radius in M87\* and estimated  
 247 parameters of several spherically symmetric metrics which may be considered  
 248 as alternatives for Schwarzschild metric in M87\* [65]. In [66] we generalizes  
 249 results [65] for a Reissner – Nordström black hole with a tidal charge assuming  
 250 similarly to [65], that angular diameter of a shadow in M87\*  $\theta_{\text{sh M87}^*} \approx$   
 251  $3\sqrt{3}(1 \pm 0.17) \theta_{\text{g M87}^*}$ , at confidence level around 68% or  $\theta_{\text{sh M87}^*} \in [4.31, 6.08] \theta_{\text{g M87}^*}$ ,  
 252 where  $\theta_{\text{g M87}^*} \approx 8.1 \mu\text{as}$ , since  $\theta_{\text{g M87}^*} = 2M_{\text{M87}^*}/D_{\text{M87}^*}$  ( $M_{\text{M87}^*} = 6.5 \times$   
 253  $10^9 M_{\odot}$  and  $D_{\text{M87}^*} = 17 \text{ Mpc}$ , we found  $q \in [-1.22, 0.814]$  from Eq. (2).  
 254 In this case an upper limit for  $q$  parameter ( $q_{\text{upp}} = 0.814$ ) corresponds to  
 255 an upper parameter  $\mathcal{Q}_{\text{upp}} = \sqrt{q_{\text{upp}}} \approx 0.902$ , which corresponds to quantity  
 256 calculated numerically and shown in Fig. 2 in [65].

257 Similarly to our previous estimates for tidal charge in M87\* in paper [67]  
 258 we estimated a tidal charge for the black hole in GC. We used estimates of  
 259 shadow radius in GC from [55]. Following these studies, we assume that the  
 260 shadow diameter in GC is  $\theta_{\text{sh M87}^*} \approx (51.8 \pm 2.3) \mu\text{as}$  at C. L. 68% and in  
 261 this case we obtain constraints for a tidal charge  $-0.27 < q < 0.25$  at the  
 262 same confidence level.

263 These results may be used for analytical estimates of charge for Kazakov  
 264 – Solodukhin (KS) black hole. Really Kazakov and Solodukhin considered a  
 265 Schwarzschild black hole perturbed by quantum fluctuations [68]. We should  
 266 note that black hole with a negative tidal charge (or scalar-tensor charge in  
 267 Horndeski gravity) could treated as a good approximation for KS black hole  
 268 for a small KS charge, really according to Eq. (3.21) in [68] we have

$$g(r) = -\frac{2M}{r} + \frac{1}{r} (r^2 - q_{KS}^2)^{1/2} \approx 1 - \frac{2M}{r} - \frac{q_{KS}^2}{r^2}, \quad (3)$$

269 where  $q_{KS}$  is a KS charge. For small parameter  $q_{KS}$  approximation we could  
 270 use previous estimates for a KS charge in Sgr A\* ( $(q_{KS})^2 < 0.27$  ( $(q_{KS}) <$   
 271  $0.52$ ). As we see in Fig. 2 in [65] the shadow radius is growing as  $q_{KS}$  is  
 272 growing and it corresponds to the shadow diameter dependence of a tidal  
 273 charge given in Eq. (2).

274

## 9. Conclusion

275 Observations of bright stars near the GC confirmed predictions of GR in  
 276 the first post-Newtonian approximation for gravitational redshift for S2 star  
 277 trajectory near its pericenter passage in May 2018. GRAVITY collaboration  
 278 found that the Schwarzschild precession for S2 star corresponds to GR predictions.  
 279 Several alternative theories of gravity were constrained with observations  
 280 of bright stars. Reconstructions of shadows in M87\* and Sgr A\* give an  
 281 opportunity to check GR predictions in these objects and to constrain parameters  
 282 of alternative models for these objects [69, 70].



283

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