

**Department of Physics and Astronomy
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Bachelor thesis in Physics
submitted by

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from Kappel-Grafenhausen

2019

The Asymptotic Safety Approach to Quantum Gravity

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at the

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at

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Abstract

In this work we discuss the Asymptotic Safety approach as a possible realization of a theory of quantum gravity based on path integral quantization using functional renormalization group methods. First, the exact renormalization group equation is solved in a spin-2 graviton approximation using the background field formalism and the respective fixed point structure is analyzed. In the second part, we investigate minimally coupled scalar, fermion and gauge fields and their impact on the system. Finally, we discuss the validity of our computations in the background field method and present the fluctuation field formalism as a modern, alternative approach.

Zusammenfassung

In dieser Arbeit wird der Asymptotic-Safety Zugang als möglicher Ansatz zur Realisierung einer Theorie der Quantengravitation im Rahmen der Pfadintegral-Quantisierung mit Methoden der funktionalen Renormierungsgruppe untersucht. Die exakte Renormierungsgruppengleichung wird zunächst in einer Spin-2-Graviton Näherung im Hintergrundformalismus gelöst und die resultierende Fixpunkt-Struktur analysiert. Im zweiten Teil der Arbeit wird der Einfluss von minimal gekoppelten Skalar-, Fermion- und Eichfeldern auf das System überprüft. Abschließend wird die Hintergrundfeld-Methode kritisch hinterfragt und mit der Fluktuationsfeld-Methode ein moderner, alternativer Zugang präsentiert.

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Introduction

- Current understanding of Gravity
- Need of NP approach due to failure of perturbative quantization
- Some words on Wilson, Weinberg etc.
- Different approaches to Quantum Gravity (Strings, Loop QG, Causal Sets etc.)
- Throughout this thesis we use natural units such that $\hbar = c \equiv 1$.
- Einsteins sum convention is implicitly understood.
- Difference between roman and greek indices..

The structure of this work is the following. In chapter 2 the field theoretical language and the Functional Renormalization Group (FRG) are introduced. A derivation of Wetterich's exact renormalization group equation, a.k.a. the flow equation, completes our discussion of non-perturbative approaches to quantum field theory. Chapter 3 provides the background knowledge on gravity and curved spacetimes. In chapter 4, as a first step towards quantum gravity, the Asymptotic Safety approach is motivated and the flow equation is solved within the Einstein-Hilbert truncation in a transverse-traceless spin-2 graviton approximation. Our calculation is extended in chapter 5, by taking minimally coupled scalar, fermion and gauge fields into account. The results are summarized and discussed in chapter 6. To conclude this work, an outlook on current progress and open questions in Asymptotic Safety research is presented.

Functional Methods in Quantum Field Theory

This chapter introduces a treatment of quantum field theory using functional methods. The main goal is to get familiar with the physical concepts and the notation used throughout this work and to derive the flow equation for the average effective action, introduced by Christof Wetterich in 1993 [13]. For the derivation of the flow equation we are following [5, 8].

2.1. Generating Functionals and Correlation Functions

We consider a theory setting of N real scalar fields $\varphi_a(x)$, $a \in \{1, \dots, N\}$ in d -dimensional Euclidean space. The corresponding partition sum in presence of sources $J_a(x)$ reads

$$Z[J] = \frac{1}{\mathcal{N}} \int \mathcal{D}\varphi e^{-\mathcal{S}[\varphi] + J \cdot \varphi}. \quad (2.1)$$

The action \mathcal{S} is specified together with an ultraviolet cutoff scale Λ , later being the momentum scale where we initialize the flow equations and some normalization factor \mathcal{N} .

In this notation, the scalar product sums over field components and integrates over all space,

$$J \cdot \varphi = \int_x J_a(x) \varphi_a(x) = \int_p \tilde{J}_a(p) \tilde{\varphi}_a(p), \quad (2.2)$$

with

$$\int_x = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} d^d x \quad \text{and} \quad \int_p = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \frac{d^d p}{(2\pi)^d}. \quad (2.3)$$

The partition sum $Z[J]$ is called a *generating functional*. It directly allows us to compute field expectation values

$$\phi := \langle \varphi \rangle = \frac{1}{Z} \frac{\delta Z}{\delta J} \Big|_{J=0} = \int \mathcal{D}\varphi \varphi e^{-\mathcal{S}[\varphi] + J \cdot \varphi} \quad (2.4)$$

and higher order correlation functions

$$\langle \varphi_1 \cdots \varphi_n \rangle := \langle \varphi^n \rangle = \frac{1}{Z} \frac{\delta^n Z}{\delta^n J} \Big|_{J=0} = \int \mathcal{D}\varphi \overbrace{\varphi_1 \cdots \varphi_n}^{:= \varphi^n} e^{-\mathcal{S}[\varphi] + J \cdot \varphi} \quad (2.5)$$

via functional differentiation.. This means, we are basically able to compute all contributing Feynman diagrams for our theory setting, if we have knowledge of its corresponding (grand) canonical partition sum.

For a more efficient description of the theory in terms of only the *connected* correlation functions, we define the Schwinger functional $W[J]$ as the logarithm of $Z[J]$,

$$W[J] = \ln Z[J]. \quad (2.6)$$

It is the generating functional for the connected correlation functions. The normalization factor \mathcal{N} , introduced in (2.1) enters here as an additive constant, which drops out for all higher order correlation functions, except for the zero-point function. This term is connected to the thermodynamic quantities of our system and becomes important, when external parameters such as temperature, volume or the chemical potential are varied. For the case of quantum gravity, it is linked to the cosmological constant Λ . Nevertheless, in general we are only interested in correlation functions with $n \geq 1$ and therefore we drop this term.

Consider for example the connected two-point function $G_{ab}(x, y) = G_{\alpha\beta}^1$, known as the propagator, correlating the field φ_a at spacetime point x with the field φ_b at y ,

$$\begin{aligned} G_{\alpha\beta} &= \frac{\delta^2 W[J]}{\delta J_\alpha \delta J_\beta} = \frac{\delta}{\delta J_\alpha} \left(\frac{1}{Z} \frac{\delta Z}{\delta J_\beta} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{Z} \left(\frac{\delta^2 Z}{\delta J_\alpha \delta J_\beta} \right) - \frac{1}{Z^2} \left(\frac{\delta Z}{\delta J_\alpha} \right) \left(\frac{\delta Z}{\delta J_\beta} \right) \\ &= \langle \varphi_\alpha \varphi_\beta \rangle - \phi_\alpha \phi_\beta = \langle \varphi_\alpha \varphi_\beta \rangle_c. \end{aligned} \quad (2.7)$$

The propagator is the key object in functional approaches to quantum field theory. It depends on the chosen background via J .

It is still possible to make our computations even more efficient, because $W[J]$ still contains some redundant information. Connected correlation functions can be separated into so-called one-particle irreducible (1PI) and one-particle reducible ones. The 1PI correlation functions are those, whose corresponding Feynman diagrams can *not* be separated into two disconnected ones by cutting a single internal line. As an example, contributing 1PI and reducible diagrams to the connected four-point function for Yukawa theory, are depicted in figure (2.1).

The generating functional for the 1PI correlation functions, the *effective action* Γ , is obtained from the Schwinger functional via a Legendre transform,

$$\Gamma[\phi] = \sup_J \left\{ \int_x J(x) \phi(x) - W[J] \right\} = \int_x J_{\text{sup}}(x) \phi(x) - W[J_{\text{sup}}], \quad (2.8)$$

1. To save on notation, we introduce collective indices $\alpha = (x, a)$ respectively (q, a) in momentum space.

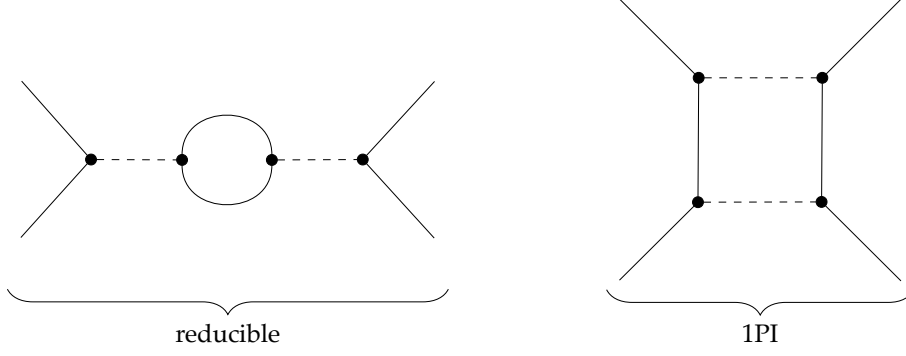


Figure 2.1.: Contributing one-particle reducible and 1PI diagrams to the four-point-function in Yukawa theory.

where J_{sup} has to be understood as a field-dependent current $J_{\text{sup}}[\phi]$. In the following, we will drop the subscript, its meaning is implicitly understood. From a physical point of view, the effective action Γ is the quantum analogue of the classical action \mathcal{S} . The performed Legendre transform leads us to a mean field description of our theory with $\phi = \langle \varphi \rangle$ on a given background, as introduced before. The symmetries of the classical action are in general still present in the effective action.

In terms of the effective action, correlation functions are again obtained by performing functional derivatives, but now w. r. t. the mean field ϕ ,

$$\Gamma^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{\delta^n \Gamma}{\delta \phi(x_1) \cdots \delta \phi(x_n)}. \quad (2.9)$$

For the transition from connected to 1PI correlation functions we have to convert J -derivatives into ϕ -derivatives, i. e.

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta J(x)} = \int_y \frac{\delta \phi(y)}{\delta J(x)} \frac{\delta}{\delta \phi(y)} = \int_y G(x, y) \frac{\delta}{\delta \phi(y)}, \quad (2.10)$$

where we used, that $\delta \phi / \delta J = \delta W^{(1)} / \delta J = G$. Evaluating the product of the two two-point functions obtained from W and Γ respectively, gives us another important result:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_y \frac{\delta^2 W}{\delta J(x_1) \delta J(y)} \frac{\delta^2 \Gamma}{\delta \phi(y) \delta \phi(x_2)} &= \int_y \frac{\delta}{\delta J(x_1)} \left[\frac{\delta W}{\delta J(y)} \right] \frac{\delta}{\delta \phi(y)} \left[\frac{\delta \Gamma}{\delta \phi(x_2)} \right] \\ &= \int_y \frac{\delta \phi(y)}{\delta J(x_1)} \frac{\delta}{\delta \phi(y)} J(x_2) \\ &= \delta_D(x_1 - x_2). \end{aligned} \quad (2.11)$$

The full propagator G is the inverse of the 1PI two-point function:

$$W^{(2)}(x_1, x_2) = G(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{\Gamma^{(2)}}(x_1, x_2). \quad (2.12)$$

In the next section, we want to use these concepts to introduce the functional renormalization group (FRG)...

2.2. Functional Renormalization Group

The functional renormalization group is a mathematical tool, allowing us to investigate the dynamics of physical systems on different scales, i.e. energy or momentum scales. This idea is based on a continuous version of Kadanoffs block spin model on the lattice and was developed by Kenneth G. Wilson in 1971. It aims at solving the theory by integrating successively momentum shell by momentum shell, being the reason why the path integral approach to quantum field theory, as introduced before, provides a suitable framework. The main advantage of the FRG approach is, that no regularization or renormalization procedure has to be applied. The latter one is already implemented systematically, which secures the self-consistency of the approach.

As a first step towards a FRG equation we need to introduce an infrared cutoff scale k in our theory, below which the modes are not integrated out. A common way to introduce such a scale is by adding a scale-dependent cutoff term $\Delta\mathcal{S}_k$ in the definition of the partition sum (2.1) and therefore automatically also in the definition of the Schwinger functional (2.6)

$$W_k[J] = \ln Z_k[J] = \ln \int \mathcal{D}\varphi e^{-\mathcal{S}[\varphi] + J \cdot \varphi - \Delta\mathcal{S}_k[\varphi]}. \quad (2.13)$$

The physical scale k we introduced here is known as *renormalization scale* and has units of inverse length, meaning large k correspond to small distances and vice versa. The cutoff term $\Delta\mathcal{S}_k$ is a quadratic functional depending on the field φ ,

$$\Delta\mathcal{S}_k[\varphi] = \frac{1}{2} \varphi \cdot R_k \cdot \varphi = \frac{1}{2} \int_{x,y} \varphi_\alpha R_{k,\alpha\beta} \varphi_\beta. \quad (2.14)$$

The function R_k is called regulator. It plays an important role for this formulation of quantum field theory. The regulator is chosen such that only the propagation for momentum modes with $p^2 \lesssim k^2$ is suppressed. The most important physical limits are summarized in the following:

$$R_k(p^2) \rightarrow \begin{cases} k^2 & \text{for } p \rightarrow 0 \\ 0 & \text{for } p \rightarrow \infty \\ 0 & \text{for } k \rightarrow 0 \\ \infty & \text{for } k \rightarrow \Lambda \end{cases} \quad (2.15)$$

We will come back to these limits after deriving the FRG equation, to get a deeper insight into the physical interpretation of the regulator. A convenient choice of the regulator is

given by

$$R_k(p^2) = p^2 \cdot r_k(y), \quad (2.16)$$

with $y := \frac{p^2}{k^2}$, and a dimensionless regulator shape function r_k , only depending on the dimensionless momentum ratio p^2/k^2 . There is a plethora of different types of shape functions. For the computations performed in this work, we restrict ourselves to a class of rather simple, so-called Litim-type regulators with shape functions

$$r_k(y) = \left(\frac{1}{y} - 1 \right) \theta(1 - y), \quad (2.17)$$

where θ is the Heaviside step function. This class of (sharp) regulators is a good choice for finding analytic FRG equations in simple approximations. For numerical approaches, exponential regulators, which are in general more complicated, are well suited. In this setting, (2.13) provides a good starting point for solving the theory by successively lowering the cutoff scale k infinitesimally and integrating out all momentum modes $\varphi_{p \approx k}$. This procedure can be formalized by taking a scale derivative of our scale-dependent functional (2.13)

$$k \partial_k W_k[J] = -\langle k \partial_k \Delta \mathcal{S}_k[\varphi] \rangle. \quad (2.18)$$

At this point it is quite convenient to introduce derivatives w. r. t. the *RG time* t as

$$\partial_t = \frac{\partial}{\partial \ln(k/\Lambda)} = \frac{k}{\Lambda} \frac{\partial}{\partial (k/\Lambda)} = k \partial_k, \quad (2.19)$$

where Λ is a fixed reference scale. Usually one chooses the ultraviolet cutoff scale, where the flow is initialized.

With the definition of the propagator, we finally arrive at the FRG equation, also called Wetterich equation or flow equation for the effective action:

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_t \Gamma_k[\phi] &= \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \left[\left(\Gamma_k^{(2)}[\phi] + R_k \right)^{-1} \partial_t R_k \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_p \left(\Gamma_k^{(2)}[\phi] + R_k \right)^{-1} (p, -p) \partial_t R_k(p^2). \end{aligned} \quad (2.20a)$$

It has a rather simple diagrammatic representation as one-loop equation:

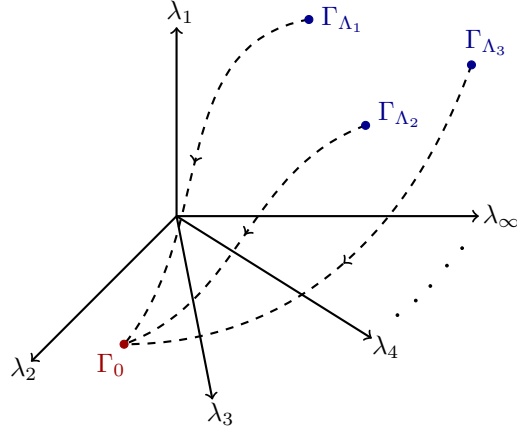


Figure 2.2.: Flow of Γ_k through infinite-dimensional theory space for different regulators.

$$\partial_t \Gamma_k[\phi] = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^N \int_{p,q} \partial_t R_{k,ij}(p, q) \otimes \text{loop}(p, q) \left[\Gamma_k^{(2)}[\phi] + R_k \right]_{ji}^{-1}(q, p), \quad (2.20b)$$

where $\partial_t R_{k,ij}(p, q) = \partial_t R_k(p^2)(2\pi)^d \delta_{ij} \delta_D(p - q)$ and therefore the trace on the r.h.s. effectively sums over just one index i and integrates over one loop momentum p .

2.3. Systematic expansion schemes

Curved Spacetimes and Gravity

Our current understanding of gravity is manifested in Einsteins theory of General Relativity. Different to the treatment of the other fundamental forces, all described by gauge theories and summarized in the Standard Model of Particle Physics, gravity is based on the concept of curved spacetime. This chapter summarizes some of the general concepts and notions of General Relativity, needed for a basic understanding of the subject. For most of the concepts we present here, we are following Carrolls notes [1]. At the end of this chapter, we show why gravity can not be quantized in a perturbative manner, opposite to the other three fundamental forces. This will lead us to our discussion of Asymptotic Safety as a non-perturbative approach based on the functional renormalization group methods we presented in the last chapter.

3.1. An Introduction to Spacetime Geometry

When talking about the concept of curved spacetimes, one first needs a mathematical framework to quantify curvature and to understand how mathematical concepts such as differentiation and integration are generalized to curved spaces. The central objects in our discussion of curved spaces are *differentiable manifolds*, i.e. topological spaces, that are locally diffeomorphic to \mathbb{R}^n , equipped with a differentiable structure. Locally in this sense means, that we can find coordinate maps $\phi_i : M \supset_{\text{open}} U_i \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, such that the image $\phi_i(U_i)$ is open in \mathbb{R}^n , for every point on M , whereas globally the manifold may have a very complicated topology. A set of such coordinate maps $\{(U_\alpha, \phi_\alpha)\}$ that covers the entire manifold and where the charts are smoothly sewed together is called an *atlas*. For overlapping charts $U_\alpha \cap U_\beta \neq \emptyset$, the maps $(\phi_\alpha \circ \phi_\beta^{-1})$, a.k.a. coordinate transformations, must be smooth and differentiable. They are directly connected to the coordinates x^μ we'll work with later on.

Further, we need to introduce additional structures, such as vectors and tensors on manifolds, since they are the objects we are interested in when it comes to the discussion of physical models. To be able to talk about vectors, one needs to associate a *tangent space* T_p to every point p of the manifold. The tangent space is the set of all vectors at p and has the structure of a vector space with the same dimension as M . The disjoint union of all tangent spaces on M is called the *tangent bundle*. To specify the concept of the tangent space we claim, that it can be identified with the space of directional derivative operators along curves $\gamma : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow M$ through p . In this case, we find a basis of T_p as the set $\{\hat{\partial}_\mu\}$ of

directional derivatives at p . It can be shown, that the directional derivatives can be decomposed into a sum of real numbers times partial derivatives, i. e. $\frac{d}{d\lambda} = \frac{dx^\mu}{d\lambda} \partial_\mu$, where λ is the parameter of the curve γ . This allows us to represent a vector $V = V^\mu \partial_\mu$ independent of the chosen coordinates. The basis vectors in some different coordinate system $x^{\mu'}$ are then simply related to the initial basis via $\partial_{\mu'} = \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial x^{\mu'}} \partial_\mu$ which yields the transformation law for vector components under general coordinate transformations,

$$V^{\mu'} = \frac{\partial x^{\mu'}}{\partial x^\mu} V^\mu. \quad (3.1)$$

Components obeying this transformation law are called *contravariant*. At this point it follows quite naturally to define the *cotangent space* T_p^* as the set of linear maps $\omega : T_p \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Elements of the cotangent space are called one-forms or dual vectors and similarly to the discussion of the tangent space, we find a suitable basis for T_p^* as the gradients $\{d\hat{x}^\mu\}$, allowing us to represent arbitrary one-forms as $\omega = \omega_\mu dx^\mu$. As before, we are interested in the transformation behavior of our basis one-forms, i. e. $dx^{\mu'} = \frac{\partial x^{\mu'}}{\partial x^\mu} dx^\mu$ and the dual vector components

$$\omega_{\mu'} = \frac{\partial x_\mu}{\partial x^{\mu'}} \omega_\mu. \quad (3.2)$$

This transformation behavior differs from the one found for vectors. We call components transforming as in equation (3.2) *covariant*.

Now we are able to generalize these concepts by introducing tensors T of type (k, l) as

$$T = T^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_k}_{\nu_1 \dots \nu_l} \partial_{\mu_1} \otimes \dots \otimes \partial_{\mu_k} \otimes dx^{\nu_1} \otimes \dots \otimes dx^{\nu_l}. \quad (3.3)$$

The general transformation law for tensors follows naturally as expected from equations (3.1) and (3.2),

$$T^{\mu'_1 \dots \mu'_k}_{\nu'_1 \dots \nu'_l} = \frac{\partial x^{\mu'_1}}{\partial x^{\mu_1}} \dots \frac{\partial x^{\mu'_k}}{\partial x^{\mu_k}} \frac{\partial x^{\nu_1}}{\partial x^{\nu'_1}} \dots \frac{\partial x^{\nu_l}}{\partial x^{\nu'_l}} T^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_k}_{\nu_1 \dots \nu_l}. \quad (3.4)$$

Having understood the basic structures and their respective behavior under coordinate transformations, we are now able to introduce some of the most important tensors in general relativity.

Maybe the most important object to quantify curved space is the *metric tensor* $g_{\mu\nu}$ ¹ and its inverse $g^{\mu\nu}$, related via $g^{\mu\nu} g_{\nu\sigma} = \delta^\mu_\sigma$. The metric and its inverse can be used to raise and lower indices, e. g. $x^\mu = g^{\mu\nu} x_\nu$. Additionally we can compute path lengths and proper time via the definition of the line element

$$ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu. \quad (3.5)$$

1. It is convenient to write the components $T^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_k}_{\nu_1 \dots \nu_l}$ when speaking about tensors T .

For arbitrary vector fields X and Y the scalar product induced by the metric tensor reads

$$g(X, Y) = g_{\mu\nu} X^\mu Y^\nu = X^\mu Y_\mu = g^{\mu\nu} X_\mu Y_\nu = X_\mu Y^\mu. \quad (3.6)$$

We will see, that the metric tensor already contains all the information on the geometrical structure of the respective manifold we need to quantify curvature. Nevertheless, we first have to think about differentiation of general tensors again.

$$\Gamma^\alpha_{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\lambda} \left(\partial_\mu g_{\nu\lambda} + \partial_\nu g_{\mu\lambda} - \partial_\lambda g_{\mu\nu} \right) \quad (3.7)$$

Geodesic equation:

$$\int ds = \int d\tau \sqrt{g_{\mu\nu} \frac{dx^\mu}{d\tau} \frac{dx^\nu}{d\tau}} \quad (3.8)$$

$$\ddot{x}^\mu + \Gamma^\mu_{\sigma\rho} \dot{x}^\sigma \dot{x}^\rho = 0 \quad (3.9)$$

Riemann/Curvature tensor:

$$R^\alpha_{\beta\gamma\delta} = \partial_\gamma \Gamma^\alpha_{\beta\delta} - \partial_\delta \Gamma^\alpha_{\beta\gamma} + \Gamma^\epsilon_{\beta\delta} \Gamma^\alpha_{\epsilon\gamma} - \Gamma^\epsilon_{\beta\gamma} \Gamma^\alpha_{\epsilon\delta} \quad (3.10)$$

Definition using the commutator of covariant derivatives

$$[\nabla_\mu, \nabla_\nu] A^\sigma = R^\sigma_{\rho\mu\nu} A^\rho \quad (3.11)$$

Contractions of the Curvature tensor:

$$R_{\mu\nu} = R^\alpha_{\mu\alpha\nu} = g_{\alpha\beta} R^\beta_{\mu\alpha\nu} \quad (3.12)$$

Curvature Scalar:

$$\mathcal{R} = g_{\mu\nu} R^{\mu\nu} = R^\mu_{\mu} \quad (3.13)$$

3.2. From Geometry to the Einstein Equations

The Einstein-Hilbert action:

$$\mathcal{S}_{\text{EH}}[g_{\mu\nu}] = \frac{1}{16\pi G} \int_x \sqrt{-\det g_{\mu\nu}} (\mathcal{R} - 2\Lambda) \quad (3.14)$$

Varying this action as usual yields the Einstein equations in absence of matter:

$$G_{\mu\nu} + \Lambda g_{\mu\nu} = 0 \quad (3.15)$$

where we used $G_{\mu\nu} = \mathcal{R}_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}g_{\mu\nu}\mathcal{R}$.

Diffeomorphism invariance, Lie derivatives:

$$\mathcal{L}_\omega \phi = \omega^\mu \partial^\mu \phi = \omega^\mu \nabla^\mu \phi \quad (3.16)$$

3.3. Gravity with Matter

Energy-Momentum Tensor:

$$T_{\mu\nu} = \frac{-2}{\sqrt{-\det g_{\mu\nu}}} \frac{\delta \mathcal{S}_{\text{matter}}}{\delta g^{\mu\nu}} \quad (3.17)$$

Matter part of the action for a minimally coupled scalar field ϕ :

$$\mathcal{S}_{\text{matter}}[g_{\mu\nu}, \phi] = -\frac{1}{2} \int_x \sqrt{-\det g_{\mu\nu}} (g^{\mu\nu} \nabla_\mu \phi \nabla_\nu \phi - g_{\mu\nu} V(\phi)) \quad (3.18)$$

From this, we get the Einstein equations including matter by demanding the variation $\sqrt{-\det g_{\mu\nu}} \frac{\delta \mathcal{S}}{\delta g^{\mu\nu}}$ to vanish. This yields:

$$\frac{1}{8\pi G} \left[\mathcal{R}_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}(\mathcal{R} - 2\Lambda)g_{\mu\nu} \right] = T_{\mu\nu} \quad (3.19)$$

3.4. Perturbative Non-Renormalizability of Gravity

Functional Renormalization and Quantum Gravity

4.1. RG approach to Quantum Gravity

Flow equation for QG:

$$\partial_t \Gamma_k[\bar{g}, \Phi] = \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr } G_{\text{hh}}[\Phi] \partial_t R_k - \text{Tr } G_{\text{cc}}[\Phi] \partial_t R_k \quad (4.1)$$

4.2. Einstein-Hilbert Truncation

We want to solve the Flow equation (4.2) approximately. All terms that are invariant under the imposed symmetry, i. e. invariant under diffeomorphism transformations need to be taken into account.

Easiest truncation takes only the scalar curvature \mathcal{R} and the cosmological constant Λ into account (No higher order terms ...) and was performed by Martin Reuter in 1993 [11].

This truncation reads

$$\Gamma_k = 2\kappa^2 Z_k \int_x \sqrt{\det g} [-\mathcal{R} + 2\Lambda_k] + \mathcal{S}_{\text{gf}} + \mathcal{S}_{\text{gh}} \quad (4.2)$$

with

$$\kappa^2 = \frac{1}{32\pi G}, \quad G_k = G Z_k^{-1} \quad (4.3)$$

Linear gauge fixing F_μ and corresponding ghost term induced by the Faddeev-Popov procedure:

$$\mathcal{S}_{\text{gf}} = \frac{1}{2\alpha} \int_x \sqrt{\det \bar{g}} \bar{g}^{\mu\nu} F_\mu F_\nu \quad (4.4)$$

$$\mathcal{S}_{\text{gh}} = \int_x \sqrt{\det \bar{g}} \bar{g}^{\mu\mu'} \bar{g}^{\nu\nu'} \bar{c}_{\mu'} \mathcal{M}_{\mu\nu} c_{\nu'}$$

with the Faddeev-Popov operator $\mathcal{M}_{\mu\nu}(\bar{g}, h)$ for the gauge fixing $F_\mu(\bar{g}, h)$.
 A linear, de-Donder type gauge fixing with

$$F_\mu = \bar{\nabla}^\nu h_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1+\beta}{4} \bar{\nabla}_\mu h^\nu{}_\nu \quad (4.5)$$

$$\mathcal{M}_{\mu\nu} = \bar{\nabla}^\rho (g_{\mu\nu} \nabla_\rho + g_{\rho\nu} \nabla_\mu) - \bar{\nabla}_\mu \nabla_\nu,$$

is employed, where $\beta = 1$ and $\alpha \rightarrow 0$ represents a fixed point of the RG flow. Note, that the limit $\alpha \rightarrow 0$ is performed after the gauge fixing process.

anomalous dimension:

$$\eta_g = -\frac{\partial_t Z_k}{Z_k} = -\partial_t \ln Z_k$$

dimensionless renormalized cosmological constant:

$$\lambda_k = \Lambda_k k^{-2}$$

dimensionless renormalized cosmological constant:

$$g_k = G_k k^{d-2} = \frac{G k^{d-2}}{Z_k}$$

corresponding beta function:

$$\beta_g = \partial_t g_k = (d - 2 + \eta_g) g_k \quad (4.6)$$

maximally symmetric space:

$$\bar{\mathcal{R}}_{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{d} \bar{g}_{\mu\nu} \bar{\mathcal{R}} \quad (4.7)$$

$$\bar{\mathcal{R}}_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma} = \frac{1}{d(d-1)} (\bar{g}_{\mu\rho} \bar{g}_{\nu\sigma} - \bar{g}_{\mu\sigma} \bar{g}_{\nu\rho}) \bar{\mathcal{R}} \quad (4.8)$$

suitable tensor basis:

$$h_{\mu\nu} = h_{\mu\nu}^{\text{TT}} + \bar{\nabla}_\mu \xi_\nu + \left(\bar{\nabla}_\mu \bar{\nabla}_\nu - \frac{1}{d} \bar{g}_{\mu\nu} \bar{\Delta} \right) \sigma + \frac{1}{d} \bar{g}_{\mu\nu} h \quad (4.9)$$

As a first approximation, we only take the contribution from the spin-two graviton mode $h_{\mu\nu}^{\text{TT}}$ into account. This is motivated by the fact, that this mode carries the the most degrees

of freedom.

In this setting, we want to solve the Wetterich equation (2.20b) by computing the left hand side and the right hand side separately and extract the β -functions for the Newton coupling g_k and the cosmological constant λ_k by a comparison of all terms of order $\sim \sqrt{\det g}$ and $\sim \sqrt{\det g} \mathcal{R}$. Here, only the most important steps of the calculation are presented. For the complete calculation have a look at Appendix A.

In our spin-two graviton mode approximation, we don't have to deal with the gauge-fixing and ghost parts ocuring in the effective action. The simplified version of equation (4.2) reads

$$\Gamma_{k,h^{\text{TT}}} = 2\kappa^2 Z_k \int_x \sqrt{\det g} [-\mathcal{R} + 2\Lambda_k]. \quad (4.10)$$

We start by computing the transverse-traceless graviton two-point function

$$\Gamma_{h^{\text{TT}}h^{\text{TT}}}^{(2)} = \frac{Z_k}{32\pi} \left(\bar{\Delta} - 2\Lambda_k + \frac{2}{3}\bar{\mathcal{R}} \right). \quad (4.11)$$

Using a regulator of the form

$$R_k = \Gamma_{h^{\text{TT}}h^{\text{TT}}}^{(2)} \Big|_{\Lambda_k=\bar{\mathcal{R}}=0} \cdot r_k \left(\frac{\bar{\Delta}}{k^2} \right) = \frac{Z_k}{32\pi} \bar{\Delta} \left(\frac{k^2}{\bar{\Delta}} - 1 \right) \Theta \left(1 - \frac{\bar{\Delta}}{k^2} \right),$$

with a Litim-type cutoff

$$r_k(y) = \left(\frac{1}{y} - 1 \right) \Theta(1 - y), \quad (4.12)$$

as discussed in chapter (??), we are directly able to compute the l.h.s. of the Wetterich equation, i.e. the scale derivative of the effective average action:

$$\partial_t \Gamma_{k,h^{\text{TT}}} = 2\kappa^2 Z_k \int_x \sqrt{\det g} \left\{ \eta_g \mathcal{R} + 2 \left(k^2 (\partial_t \lambda_k) + \Lambda_k (2 - \eta_g) \right) \right\} \quad (4.13)$$

One can extract the β -function for the Newton coupling without performing the analysis of the Wetterich equation, i.e.

$$\beta_g = \partial_t g_k = \partial_t \left(\frac{G \cdot k^2}{Z_k} \right) = g_k (2 + \eta_g). \quad (4.14)$$

The computation of the r.h.s. of the flow equation is more complicated because it involves the computation of a trace of a function depending on the Laplacian on a curved background. We can use heat-kernel techniques to solve such equations. Heat-kernel computations are based on a curvature expansion in powers of the curvature scalar \mathcal{R} . For more details, have a look at the appendix (A.2). As a first step, we simplify the trace expression as much as possible.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Tr} \left[\frac{1}{\Gamma_k^{(2)} + R_k} \partial_t R_k \right] &= \text{Tr} \left[\frac{\partial_t \left(\frac{Z_k}{32\pi} \bar{\Delta} \right) r_k}{\left(\frac{Z_k}{32\pi} \right) \left(\bar{\Delta} - 2\Lambda_k + \frac{2}{3} \bar{\mathcal{R}} \right) + \left(\frac{Z_k}{32\pi} \bar{\Delta} \right) r_k} \right] \\
 &= \text{Tr} \left[\frac{\bar{\Delta} (\partial_t r_k - \eta_g r_k)}{\bar{\Delta} (1 + r_k) - 2\Lambda_k + \frac{2}{3} \bar{\mathcal{R}}} \right]
 \end{aligned} \tag{4.15}$$

We expand this expression around vanishing curvature and get

$$\text{Tr} \left[\frac{1}{\Gamma_k^{(2)} + R_k} \partial_t R_k \right] = \text{Tr} \left[\frac{\bar{\Delta} (\partial_t r_k - \eta_g r_k)}{\bar{\Delta} (1 + r_k) - 2\Lambda_k} \right] - \frac{2}{3} \bar{\mathcal{R}} \text{Tr} \left[\frac{\bar{\Delta} (\partial_t r_k - \eta_g r_k)}{(\bar{\Delta} (1 + r_k) - 2\Lambda_k)^2} \right] + \mathcal{O}(\mathcal{R}^2) \tag{4.16}$$

Now we are able to evaluate these two terms separately using heat-kernel techniques. One finds for the first term

$$\text{Tr} \left[\frac{\bar{\Delta} (\partial_t r_k - \eta_g r_k)}{\bar{\Delta} (1 + r_k) - 2\Lambda_k} \right] = \frac{1}{(4\pi)^2} \int_x \sqrt{\det \bar{g}} \left[5\Phi_2^1(-2\Lambda_k) - \frac{5}{6} \bar{\mathcal{R}} \Phi_1^1(-2\Lambda_k) \right], \tag{4.17}$$

with the threshold functions

$$\Phi_n^p(\omega) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(n)} \int_0^\infty dz z^{n-1} \frac{z(-2zr_k(z) - \eta_g r_k(z))}{(z(1 + r_k(z)) + \omega)^p}. \tag{4.18}$$

Analogously, the second term in our expansion reads

$$-\frac{2}{3} \bar{\mathcal{R}} \text{Tr} \left[\frac{\bar{\Delta} (\partial_t r_k - \eta_g r_k)}{(\bar{\Delta} (1 + r_k) - 2\Lambda_k)^2} \right] = -\frac{10}{3} \frac{\bar{\mathcal{R}}}{(4\pi)^2} \int_x \sqrt{\det \bar{g}} \frac{1 - \frac{\eta_g}{6}}{(1 - 2\lambda_k)^2}. \tag{4.19}$$

For the cosmological constant, comparing the $\int \sqrt{\det g}$ terms yields

$$\beta_\lambda = \partial_t \lambda_k = -4\lambda_k + \frac{\lambda_k}{g_k} \partial_t g_k + \frac{5}{4\pi} g_k \frac{1 - \frac{\eta_g}{6}}{1 - 2\lambda_k}, \tag{4.20}$$

where the anomalous dimension η_g is determined by comparing the $\int \sqrt{\det g} \mathcal{R}$ terms:

$$\eta_g = -\frac{5}{3\pi} \left(\frac{1 - \frac{\eta_g}{6}}{1 - 2\lambda_k} + 2 \frac{1 - \frac{\eta_g}{6}}{(1 - 2\lambda_k)^2} \right). \tag{4.21}$$

The solution of this system of coupled differential equations is evaluated using Python3 and Wolfram Mathematica. We arrive at the following fixed point values for the Newton

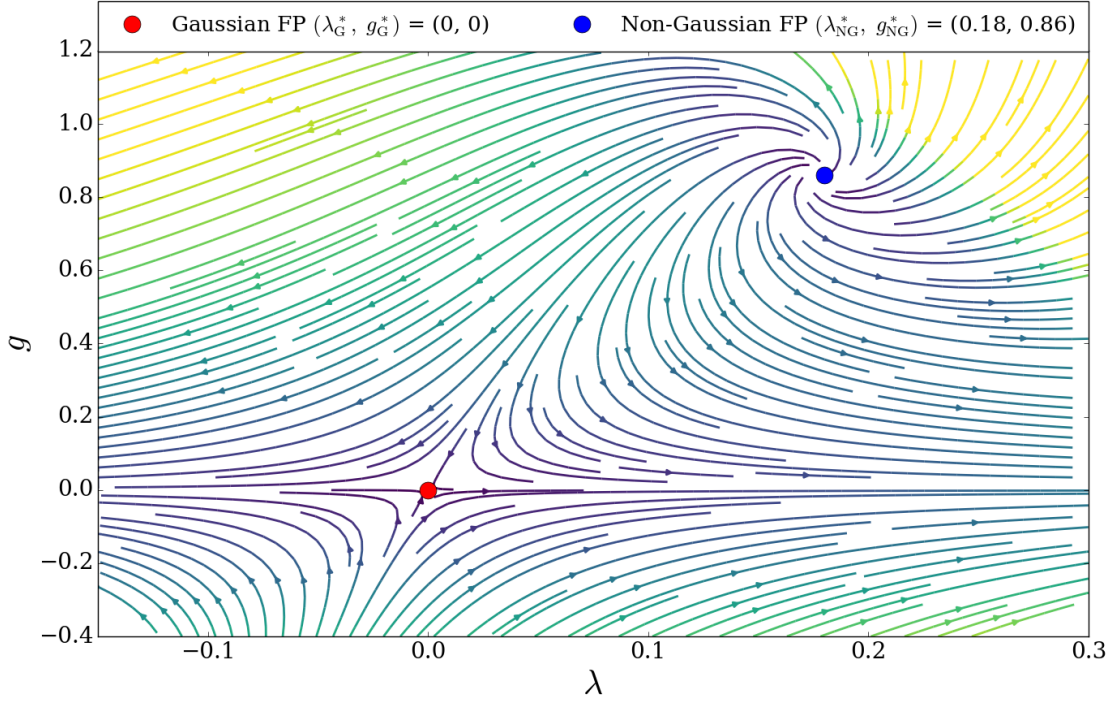


Figure 4.1.: RG flow diagram for the Einstein-Hilbert truncation in TT approximation as computed in this work. The flow points towards the infrared.

coupling and the cosmological constant:

$$(g_k^*, \lambda_k^*) = (0.86, 0.18). \quad (4.22)$$

The corresponding critical exponents, i. e. minus the eigenvalues of the stability matrix evaluated at the fixed point, are given by the complex conjugated pair

$$\theta_{1,2} = 2.9 \pm 2.6i. \quad (4.23)$$

Asymptotic Safety of Gravity-Matter Systems

For computing the contributions of the different matter fields on the running of the cosmological constant and the Newton coupling we follow [4].

Some important formulas:

$$\eta_\Psi = -\partial_t \ln Z_\Psi \quad (5.1)$$

$$R_{k,\Psi}(z) = Z_\Psi \mathbb{1} \, z \, r\left(\frac{z}{k^2}\right) \quad (5.2)$$

where r is the same Litim-type shape function as defined in (4.12).

5.1. Matter Contributions from Background Field Computation

$$\Gamma_k = \Gamma_{\text{EH}} + \mathcal{S}_{\text{gf}} + \mathcal{S}_{\text{gh}} + \Gamma_{\text{matter}} \quad (5.3)$$

where the different matter contributions come from

$$\Gamma_{\text{matter}} = \mathcal{S}_{\text{S}} + \mathcal{S}_{\text{D}} + \mathcal{S}_{\text{V}} \quad (5.4)$$

with

$$\mathcal{S}_S = \frac{Z_S}{2} \int_x \sqrt{\det g} g^{\mu\nu} \sum_{i=1}^{N_S} \partial_\mu \phi^i \partial_\nu \phi^i \quad (5.5)$$

$$\mathcal{S}_D = i Z_D \int_x \sqrt{\det g} \sum_{i=1}^{N_D} \bar{\psi}^i \not{\nabla} \psi^i \quad (5.6)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{S}_V &= \frac{Z_V}{4} \int_x \sqrt{\det g} \sum_{i=1}^{N_V} g^{\mu\nu} g^{\kappa\lambda} F_{\mu\kappa}^i F_{\nu\lambda}^i \\ &+ \frac{Z_V}{2\xi} \int_x \sqrt{\det \bar{g}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_V} (\bar{g}^{\mu\nu} \bar{D}_\mu A_\nu^i)^2 \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} \int_x \sqrt{\det \bar{g}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_V} \bar{c}_i (-\bar{D}^2) c_i \end{aligned} \quad (5.7)$$

$$\partial_t \Gamma_k[\bar{g}, 0] = \frac{1}{2} \text{ (double line with cross) } + \frac{1}{2} \text{ (dashed line with cross) } - \text{ (solid line with cross) } + \frac{1}{2} \text{ (wiggly line with cross) }$$

Figure 5.1.: Flow equation for the average effective action Γ_k including different matter contributions in diagrammatic representation. The double, dashed, solid and wiggly lines correspond to the graviton, scalar, fermion and gauge field propagators, respectively. The crossed circles denote the insertion of the respective regulator.

- two essential couplings, G and Λ and five inessential¹ wave function renormalizations Z_Ψ with $\Psi = (h, c, S, D, V)$.

5.1.1. Scalar fields

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{S}_S &= \frac{Z_S}{2} \int_x \sqrt{\det g} g^{\mu\nu} \sum_{i=1}^{N_S} \partial_\mu \phi^i \partial_\nu \phi^i \\ &= \frac{Z_S}{2} \int_x \sqrt{\det \bar{g}} \bar{g}^{\mu\nu} \sum_{i=1}^{N_S} \partial_\mu \phi^i \partial_\nu \phi^i + \mathcal{O}(h) \\ &\stackrel{(*)}{=} \frac{Z_S}{2} \int_x \sqrt{\det \bar{g}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_S} \phi^i (-\bar{\nabla}^2) \phi^i + \mathcal{O}(h) \end{aligned} \quad (5.8)$$

1. Inessential in this sense means, that they can be eliminated by field rescalings.

Two-point function:

$$\Gamma_{\phi\phi}^{(2)} = \frac{\delta^2 \mathcal{S}_S}{\delta\phi^i \delta\phi^j} = Z_S \cdot \bar{\Delta} \cdot \mathbb{1}_S + \mathcal{O}(h) \quad (5.9)$$

Regularized Two-Point-Function:

$$\Gamma_{k,\phi\phi}^{(2)} = \left[\Gamma_{\phi\phi}^{(2)} + R_{k,S} \right] = Z_S \cdot \bar{\Delta} \cdot \mathbb{1}_S \left(1 + r_k \left(\frac{\bar{\Delta}}{k^2} \right) \right) \quad (5.10)$$

RHS of the flow equation:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \left[\left(\Gamma_{k,\phi\phi}^{(2)} \right)^{-1} \partial_t R_{k,S} \right] &= \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \left[\frac{Z_S \bar{\Delta} (\partial_t r_k - \eta_s r_k)}{Z_S \bar{\Delta} (1 + r_k)} \mathbb{1}_S \right] \\ &= \frac{N_S}{2} \text{Tr} \left[\frac{\bar{\Delta} (\partial_t r_k - \eta_s r_k)}{\bar{\Delta} (1 + r_k)} \right] \end{aligned} \quad (5.11)$$

5.1.2. Fermionic fields

5.1.3. Gauge fields

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{S}_{V,\text{tot}} &= \frac{Z_V}{4} \int_x \sqrt{\det g} \sum_{i=1}^{N_V} g^{\mu\nu} g^{\kappa\lambda} F_{\mu\kappa}^i F_{\nu\lambda}^i + \frac{Z_V}{2\xi} \int_x \sqrt{\det \bar{g}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_V} (\bar{g}^{\mu\nu} \bar{D}_\mu A_\nu^i)^2 \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} \int_x \sqrt{\det \bar{g}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_V} \bar{c}_i (-\bar{D}^2) c_i \end{aligned} \quad (5.12)$$

standard gauge field term:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{S}_V &= \frac{Z_V}{4} \int_x \sqrt{\det g} \sum_{i=1}^{N_V} g^{\mu\nu} g^{\kappa\lambda} F_{\mu\kappa}^i F_{\nu\lambda}^i \\ &= \frac{Z_V}{4} \int_x \sqrt{\det \bar{g}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_V} \bar{g}^{\mu\nu} \bar{g}^{\kappa\lambda} \bar{F}_{\mu\kappa}^i \bar{F}_{\nu\lambda}^i + \mathcal{O}(h) \\ &\stackrel{(B.1)}{=} \frac{Z_V}{2} \int_x \sqrt{\det \bar{g}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_V} A_\lambda^i \left[\bar{\nabla}^\mu \bar{\nabla}^\lambda + \bar{g}^{\mu\lambda} \bar{\Delta} \right] A_\mu^i + \mathcal{O}(h) \end{aligned} \quad (5.13)$$

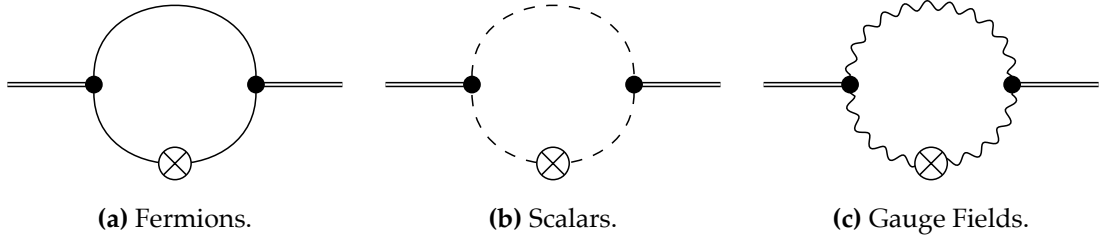


Figure 5.2.: Different matter contributions to the graviton anomalous dimension η_h .

gauge fixing term:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathcal{S}_{V,\text{gf}} &= \frac{Z_V}{2\xi} \int_x \sqrt{\det \bar{g}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_V} \left(\bar{g}^{\mu\nu} \bar{\nabla}_\mu A_\nu^i \right)^2 \\
 &= \frac{Z_V}{2\xi} \int_x \sqrt{\det \bar{g}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_V} \bar{g}^{\mu\nu} \bar{\nabla}_\mu A_\nu^i g^{\kappa\lambda} \bar{\nabla}_\kappa A_\lambda^i \\
 &\stackrel{(*)}{=} \frac{Z_V}{2\xi} \int_x \sqrt{\det \bar{g}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_V} A_\lambda^i \left[-\bar{\nabla}^\lambda \bar{\nabla}^\mu \right] A_\mu^i
 \end{aligned} \tag{5.14}$$

Both together Ghosts have to be considered separately ...

5.2. Perturbative Approximation

5.3. Some Words on Fermionic fields

This section is mainly based on [6] where the spin-base invariant formalism for treating fermions in curved spacetimes has been developed. The goal of this part of the thesis is to get a rough idea on how to perform calculations involving Dirac fermions, especially in the context of Asymptotic Safety of gravity-matter systems.

Covariant derivative:

$$\nabla_\mu = \partial_\mu + \frac{1}{8} [\gamma^a, \gamma^b] \omega_\mu^{ab} \tag{5.15}$$

5.4. Background Field versus Fluctuation Field Calculation

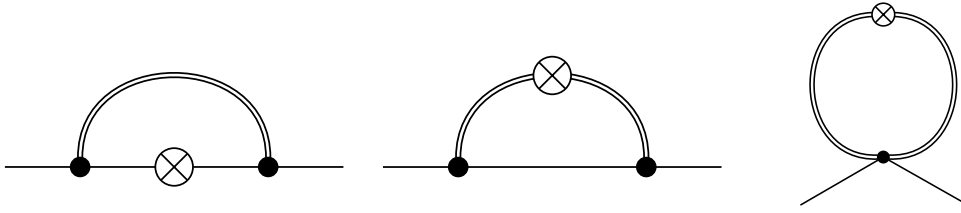


Figure 5.3.: Contributing diagrams to the fermion anomalous dimension η_D . Analogous contributions arise for external scalars and gauge fields to η_S and η_V .

Summary and Outlook

Mathematical Background

In this part of the appendix we want to discuss some of the mathematical tools we used during the calculations presented in the scope of this thesis in a more formal manner. The part on the York decomposition is mainly inspired by [9], whereas the conventions for the heat-kernel computations are taken from [8] and extended for the matter part, using the conventions from [3].

A.1. York Decomposition

In the discussion of gauge theories, it is often very useful to decompose the gauge field A_μ into transversal and longitudinal parts:

$$A_\mu = A_\mu^T + \nabla_\mu \phi. \quad (\text{A.1})$$

The transversal part is characterized by the fact, that $\nabla^\mu A_\mu^T = 0$. Using this decomposition, we are able to separate the pure gauge spin-0 degrees of freedom from the physical ones, contained in the spin-1 part A_μ^T .

Assuming vanishing boundary terms, integration by parts allows us to change the integration variables in the functional integral, i. e.

$$\int_x \sqrt{g} A_\mu A^\mu = \int_x \sqrt{g} A_\mu^T A^{T,\mu} + \int_x \sqrt{g} \phi (-\nabla^2) \phi. \quad (\text{A.2})$$

Note, that we have to take care of the Jacobian J of this variable transformation:

$$(dA_\mu) \longrightarrow J (dA_\mu^T) (d\phi). \quad (\text{A.3})$$

To be able to determine the Jacobian for our transformation, the integration measure needs to be normalized. A quite convenient choice is to evaluate the Gaussian integral over the different fields ψ and set the result to one:

$$\int (d\psi) \exp \left\{ - \int dx \sqrt{g} \psi^2 \right\} = 1, \quad (\text{A.4})$$

where we are assuming an Euclidean signature and a curved background metric. With this condition we find:

$$1 = J \int (dA_\mu^T) e^{-\int dx \sqrt{g} A_\mu^T A^{T,\mu}} \int (d\phi) e^{-\int dx \sqrt{g} \phi (-\nabla^2) \phi} = J \left(\det'_\phi (-\nabla^2) \right)^{-1/2}. \quad (\text{A.5})$$

This allows us to determine the Jacobian J as follows:

$$J = \left(\det'_\phi \left(-\nabla^2 \right) \right)^{1/2}. \quad (\text{A.6})$$

The prime denotes the fact, that the zero mode has to be removed, when computing the determinant to obtain a consistent result. Physically this is in accordance with the fact, that a constant ϕ does not contribute to A_μ .

For our computation in chapters 4 and 5, we were using the background field method, where we assume a linear split of the *full* metric $g_{\mu\nu}$ into a background metric $\bar{g}_{\mu\nu}$ and a fluctuation field $h_{\mu\nu}$. There is an analogous way of decomposing the fluctuation field in the background field formalism. First, we split $h_{\mu\nu}$ into

$$h_{\mu\nu} = h_{\mu\nu}^{\text{T}} + \frac{1}{d} \bar{g}_{\mu\nu} h, \quad (\text{A.7})$$

where $h_{\mu\nu}^{\text{T}}$ is traceless, i. e. $\bar{g}^{\mu\nu} h_{\mu\nu}^{\text{T}} = 0$ and $h = \bar{g}^{\mu\nu} h_{\mu\nu}$. The traceless part can be further decomposed in flat space using the irreducible representations of the Lorentz group with spins 0, 1 and 2 respectively, but in our case a more sophisticated approach, the so-called *York decomposition* is chosen:

$$h_{\mu\nu} = h_{\mu\nu}^{\text{TT}} + 2\bar{\nabla}_{(\mu} \xi_{\nu)} + \left(\bar{\nabla}_\mu \bar{\nabla}_\nu - \frac{1}{d} \bar{g}_{\mu\nu} \bar{\nabla}^2 \right) \sigma + \frac{1}{d} \bar{g}_{\mu\nu} h. \quad (\text{A.8})$$

Here, $h_{\mu\nu}^{\text{TT}}$ is a transverse-traceless, spin-2 degree of freedom, ξ_μ is transverse and carries a spin-1 d.o.f. and σ and h have spin-0. The brackets around the indices denote symmetrization, i. e. $\bar{\nabla}_{(\mu} \xi_{\nu)} = \frac{1}{2} (\bar{\nabla}_\mu \xi_\nu + \bar{\nabla}_\nu \xi_\mu)$. As before, we want to find the Jacobian J for this variable transformation:

$$(dh_{\mu\nu}) \longrightarrow J (dh_{\mu\nu}^{\text{TT}}) (d\xi_\mu) (d\sigma) (dh). \quad (\text{A.9})$$

This is again possible after specifying a suitable normalization of the functional measure as

$$\int (dh_{\mu\nu}) \exp \{ -\mathcal{G}(h, h) \} = 1, \quad (\text{A.10})$$

where \mathcal{G} is an inner product in the space of symmetric two-tensors, defined as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{G}(h, h) &= \int_x \sqrt{\bar{g}} \left(h_{\mu\nu} h^{\mu\nu} + \frac{a}{2} h^2 \right) \\ &= \int_x \sqrt{\bar{g}} \left[h_{\mu\nu}^{\text{TT}} h^{\text{TT}, \mu\nu} + 2\xi_\mu \left(-\bar{\nabla}^2 - \frac{\bar{R}}{d} \right) \xi^\mu \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \frac{d-1}{d} \sigma \left(-\bar{\nabla}^2 \right) \left(-\bar{\nabla}^2 - \frac{\bar{R}}{d-1} \right) \sigma + \left(\frac{1}{d} + \frac{a}{2} \right) h^2 \right] \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.11})$$

in the case of an Einstein type background metric¹. This yields

$$J = \left(\det_{\xi} \left(-\bar{\nabla}^2 - \frac{R}{d} \right) \right)^{1/2} \left(\det'_{\sigma} \left(-\bar{\nabla}^2 \right) \right)^{1/2} \left(\det_{\sigma} \left(-\bar{\nabla}^2 - \frac{R}{d-1} \right) \right)^{1/2}. \quad (\text{A.12})$$

Note, that the prime has the same meaning and physical definition as in the previous case: If σ is constant, it does not contribute to $h_{\mu\nu}$.

For both cases, the decomposition of the general gauge field and the York decomposition of the fluctuation field, appropriate rescalings of the fields ϕ , ξ_{μ} and σ respectively, help us to cancel the non-trivial Jacobians and to achieve, that all modes have the same mass dimension. For the sake of completeness, we present the rescaled versions of the fields:

$$\hat{\phi} = \sqrt{-\bar{\nabla}^2} \phi \quad (\text{A.13})$$

$$\hat{\xi}_{\mu} = \sqrt{-\bar{\nabla}^2 - \frac{\bar{R}}{d}} \xi_{\mu} \quad (\text{A.14})$$

$$\hat{\sigma} = \sqrt{-\bar{\nabla}^2} \sqrt{-\bar{\nabla}^2 - \frac{\bar{R}}{d-1}} \sigma. \quad (\text{A.15})$$

The resulting graviton two-point function, after decomposition of the fluctuation field has the following structure:

$$\Gamma_{hh}^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} \Gamma_{h^{\text{TT}}h^{\text{TT}}}^{(2)} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \Gamma_{\xi\xi}^{(2)} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \Gamma_{h^{\text{Tr}}h^{\text{Tr}}}^{(2)} & \Gamma_{h^{\text{Tr}}\sigma}^{(2)} \\ 0 & 0 & \Gamma_{\sigma h^{\text{Tr}}}^{(2)} & \Gamma_{\sigma\sigma}^{(2)} \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{A.16})$$

This concludes our discussion of the York decomposition, as a useful tool to simplify calculations in the background field method.

A.2. Heat-Kernel Techniques

We use heat-kernel techniques to evaluate the r.h.s. of the flow equation (2.20b), where we need to compute traces over functions depending on the Laplacian on a curved background. In general, the method can be understood as a curvature expansion about a flat background.

1. A metric is of Einstein type, if $R_{\mu\nu}$ is a constant multiple of $g_{\mu\nu}$, i. e. $R_{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{d} \mathcal{R} g_{\mu\nu}$.

The formula to compute such traces is given by

$$\mathrm{Tr} f(\Delta) = N \sum_{\ell} \rho(\ell) f(\lambda(\ell)), \quad (\text{A.17})$$

with some normalization N , the spectral values $\lambda(\ell)$ and their corresponding multiplicities $\rho(\ell)$.

On flat backgrounds, the computation of (A.17) is simply a standard momentum integral, whereas on curved backgrounds, consider for example a four-sphere \mathbb{S}^4 with constant background curvature $r = \frac{\bar{\mathcal{R}}}{k^2} > 0$, the spectrum of the Laplacian is discrete and we need to sum over all spectral values in (A.17).

For our example of the four-sphere, we have

$$\lambda(\ell) = \frac{\ell(3+\ell)}{12} r \quad \text{and} \quad \rho(\ell) = \frac{(2\ell+3)(\ell+2)!}{6\ell!}. \quad (\text{A.18})$$

The normalization is then given by the inverse of the four-sphere-volume $(V_{\mathbb{S}^4})^{-1} = \frac{k^4 r^2}{384\pi^2}$. This leads us to the formula for our computation of the r.h.s. of the flow equation on a background with constant positive curvature

$$\mathrm{Tr} f(\Delta) = \frac{k^4 r^2}{384\pi^2} \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} \frac{(2\ell+3)(\ell+2)!}{6\ell!} f\left(\frac{\ell(3+\ell)}{12} r\right). \quad (\text{A.19})$$

This is called the spectral sum. For large curvatures r the convergence of the series is rather fast, whereas in the limit $r \rightarrow 0$ one finds exponentially slow convergence.

The master equation for heat kernel computations reads

$$\mathrm{Tr} f(\Delta) = \frac{1}{(4\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}} [B_0(\Delta)Q_2[f(\Delta)] + B_2(\Delta)Q_1[f(\Delta)]] + \mathcal{O}(\mathcal{R}^2), \quad (\text{A.20})$$

with the heat-kernel coefficients

$$B_n(\bar{\Delta}) = \int d^d x \sqrt{\det \bar{g}} \, \mathrm{Tr} b_n(\bar{\Delta}) \quad (\text{A.21})$$

and

$$Q_n[f(x)] = \frac{1}{\Gamma(n)} \int dx x^{n-1} f(x). \quad (\text{A.22})$$

For our computation on \mathbb{S}^4 , the values for the traces over the coefficients $b_n(\bar{\Delta})$ are presented in the following.

	TT	TV	S
$\text{Tr } b_0$	5	3	1
$\text{Tr } b_2$	$-\frac{5}{6}\mathcal{R}$	$\frac{1}{4}\mathcal{R}$	$\frac{1}{6}\mathcal{R}$

Table A.1.: Heat-kernel coefficients for transverse-traceless tensors (TT), transverse vectors (TV) and scalars (S) for computations on the four-sphere \mathbb{S}^4 .

The basic idea of the proof of equation (A.17) is based on the Laplace transform

$$f(\Delta) = \int_0^\infty ds e^{-s\Delta} \tilde{f}(s). \quad (\text{A.23})$$

Additional calculations

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B.1. Matter contributions

auxiliary calculation:

$$\begin{aligned}
 g^{\mu\nu} g^{\kappa\lambda} F_{\mu\kappa} F_{\nu\lambda} &= F_{\mu}{}^{\lambda} F^{\mu}{}_{\lambda} = F_{\mu\lambda} F^{\mu\lambda} \\
 &= (\partial_{\mu} A_{\lambda} - \partial_{\lambda} A_{\mu}) F^{\mu\lambda} + \mathcal{O}(A^3) \\
 &\stackrel{(*)}{=} 2\partial_{\mu} A_{\lambda} F^{\mu\lambda} \\
 &= 2\partial_{\mu} A_{\lambda} (\partial^{\mu} A^{\lambda} - \partial^{\lambda} A^{\mu}) \\
 &= 2(\partial_{\mu} A_{\lambda} \partial^{\mu} A^{\lambda} - \partial_{\mu} A_{\lambda} \partial^{\lambda} A^{\mu}) \\
 &\stackrel{(\dagger)}{=} -2(A_{\lambda} \partial^2 A^{\lambda} - A_{\lambda} \partial_{\mu} \partial^{\lambda} A^{\mu}) \\
 &= 2A_{\lambda} [\partial^{\mu} \partial^{\lambda} - g^{\mu\lambda} \partial^2] A_{\mu}
 \end{aligned} \tag{B.1}$$

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Acknowledgements

First and foremost i would like to thank my supervisor Prof. Jan M. Pawłowski for giving me the opportunity to work on my desired topic and for always finding the time to discuss about open questions and the physical concepts this work is based on. I learned a lot about theoretical physics and had the chance to get in contact with a very interesting, modern research topic.

I want to thank Prof. Jörg Jäckel for his interest in this project and for agreeing to become the second referee for this thesis.

Maybe the most important new experience for me was to be part of a research group and i have to say that i had a really great time at Philosophenweg 12! I have to thank the whole Quantum Gravity group for the nice atmosphere and many interesting and helpful discussions. It is great to know, that everybody in the groups takes the time to answer your questions and is willing to help you!

Especially i would like to thank Gustavo Brito for all the interesting blackboard sessions, which improved my understanding of the subject a lot. ...

Not to forget, i have to thank all my friends for the amazing time we spent together during the last years.

Lastly, i thank my parents Marie-Paule and Bernd Kaltschmidt and my sister Céline for their constant support and for always helping me to pursue my dreams.

Declaration of Authorship

I hereby certify that this thesis has been composed by me and is based on my own work, unless stated otherwise.

Heidelberg, 8th of July 2019

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