Can We Quantize Gravity? Yes We Can!

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Why Can't Quantum Mechanics Explain Gravity? (Op-Ed)

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Relativity versus quantum mechanics: the battle for the universe

Summary

- QFT and GR in a nutshell
- 2 Renormalization and Problems with Gravity
- 3 Effective Field Theories
- 4 Effective Field Theory of Gravity
- 5 Limitations to Effective Field Theory of GR

QFT and GR in a nutshell

- Particles are associated with a field, e.g. electron field $\psi(\vec{x},t)$ for electron, electromagnetic field $A(\vec{x},t)$ for photon and so on
- We can calculate expectation values using Path Integral

$$\langle F \rangle = \frac{\int \mathcal{D}\varphi F[\varphi] e^{i \int d^4 x \mathcal{L}[\varphi]}}{\int \mathcal{D}\varphi e^{i \int d^4 x \mathcal{L}[\varphi]}}$$

Lagrangian specifies a quantum field theory. Eg. QED Lagrangian

$$\mathcal{L} = \bar{\psi}(i\gamma^{\mu}D_{\mu} - m)\psi - \frac{1}{4}(\partial_{\mu}A_{\nu} - \partial_{\nu}A_{\mu})(\partial^{\mu}A^{\nu} - \partial^{\nu}A^{\mu})$$

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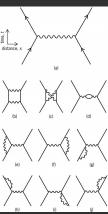
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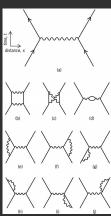
- For any scattering process, amplitude can be calculated by summing all relevant Feynman diagrams
- Feynman Diagrams can be computed by using rules derived from path integral
- Loop diagrams include integrating over loop momenta, and the result turns out to be infinite!



All one loop corrections to force between two electrons

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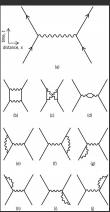
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■ GR is given by Einstein-Hilbert action ($\kappa^2 = 32\pi G$)

$$S = \int \left[\Lambda + \frac{2}{\kappa^2} R[g] + \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{M}} \right] \sqrt{-g} d^4 x$$

- $flack \Lambda$ is the Cosmological Constant, G is the same constant as in Newton's Law of Gravitation, \mathcal{L}_M is the contribution from matter
- \blacksquare R[g] is the 4 dimensional curvature of space-time. Spherical geometry has a positive curvature, hyperbolic geometry negative curvature and plane geometry zero curvature.
- The field associated with G.R. is the metric $g_{\mu\nu}$. Quantum Gravity starts with $g_{\mu\nu}$ as the relevant degree of freedom.
- Equation of motion: $R_{\mu\nu} rac{1}{2} R g_{\mu\nu} + \Lambda g_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G \; T_{\mu
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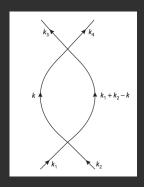
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Renormalization and Problems with Gravity

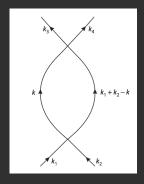
Renormalization and Problems with Gravity

- This integral diverges! In fact if we put a cutoff Λ , the integral diverges as $\log(\Lambda)$.
- $\mathcal{M}(s,t,u;\Lambda) = -i\lambda + i\lambda^2 \left[\log\left(\frac{\Lambda^2}{s}\right) + \log\left(\frac{\Lambda^2}{t}\right) + \log\left(\frac{\Lambda^2}{u}\right) \right]$ (We call the expression in square brackets $I(s,t,u;\Lambda)$)
- Scattering amplitude is a physical quantity, we can measure the above quantity in Lab for a given value of s.t.u.



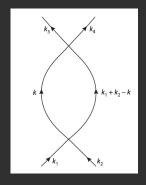
$$\int \frac{d^4k}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{i}{k^2 - m^2} \frac{i}{(k_1 + k_2 - k)^2 - m^2}$$

- $\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \partial^{\mu} \phi \partial_{\mu} \phi \frac{1}{2} m^2 \phi^2 \frac{1}{4} \lambda \phi^4$
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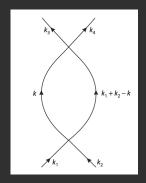
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- We know from experiments a value of $\mathcal{M}(s_0,t_0,u_0)$. More precisely $\mathcal{M}(s_0,t_0,u_0)\equiv -i\lambda_R=-i\lambda+i\lambda^2\;I(s_0,t_0,u_0;\Lambda)$
- Renormalization: We say $\lambda(\Lambda)$ in such a way that the above equation is true for all Λ .
- lacksquare This allows us to write $-i\lambda(\Lambda)=-i\lambda_R-i\lambda_R^2\;I(s_0,t_0,u_0;\Lambda)$
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Note that this final expression has some quantities we have to determine from experiment, just like for classical electrodynamics.

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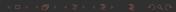
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- We saw that the dependence on cutoff disappeared in the final result. Was this a coincidence? In particular will the result hold to higher order loop corrections?
- If we can adjust a finite number of parameters such that all observable results are cutoff independent to all orders of loop corrections, then the theory is said to be renormalizable, otherwise it is said to be non-renormalizable.
- For renormalizable theories, we can made physical predictions to all orders of magnitude just by knowing the results of a finite number o experiments.
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Criteria for Renormalizability

- We are using units in which $c = \hbar = 1$. In these units length and time have the same units and mass has units of inverse length. Let us count every dimension in units of mass.
- S is dimensionless (because of e^{iS}). Since $S = \int d^4x \mathcal{L}$, $[\mathcal{L}] = 4$. Thus all the terms in Lagrangian must have mass dimension of 4
- Consider kinetic term like $\frac{1}{2}\partial_{\mu}\phi\partial^{\mu}\phi$. This tells us that $[\phi]=1$. Similarly we can deduce that $[\psi]=3/2$ and [A]=1. Coupling for scalar theory $[\lambda]=0$
- It turns out that if the coupling has zero or positive mass dimensions then the theory is renormalizable.
- For Gravitation [G] = -2, so the theory is non-renormalizable!

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Effective Field Theories

- We do not need to know entire theory before making predictions. For example Engineers do not need to know General Relativity before designing bridges
- Why is that the case? It turns out that the world works in such a way that physics at different scales can be separated from each other
- We can think of scales in terms of a parameter like energy or distance. At low energies, Newtonian Potential is a good enough. However at very high energies, say near a black hole event horizon, General Relativity is a better theory.
- We can think of Newtonian gravity as an effective field theory of General Relativity valid only in certain regime.
- However we know that General Relativity is not complete. It is also an effective theory of some higher theory, that we don't know yet. In this sense all physical theories are effective field theories.

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- Effective Field theory is a way of recognizing the above paradigm in the context of Quantum Field Theories
- Effective field theories allow us to calculate experimental quantities with errors parametrized by some relevant parameter δ .
- For example if we are working below the electroweak scale, we can consider the mass of W and Z Bosons as an expansion parameter
- Calculations are done to some order of δ , known as power counting parameter. By choosing n in δ^n as large as we want, we can make our errors smaller. However large n involves higher order diagrams, which are harder to compute
- Effects of higher energy terms occur as local operators, whose coefficients are constrained by experiments

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Effective Field Theory of Gravity

Recall that Einstein Hilbert action is given by

$$S = \int \left[\Lambda + \frac{2}{\kappa^2} R[g] + \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{M}} \right] \sqrt{-g} \mathrm{d}^4 x$$

We quantize GR by background field method in which

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \bar{g}_{\mu\nu} + \kappa \eta_{\mu\nu}$$

lacksquare Expanding the Lagrangian in $\eta_{\mu
u}$, we get

$$\frac{2}{\kappa^2}\sqrt{g}R = \sqrt{\bar{g}}\left\{\frac{2}{\kappa^2}\bar{R} + \mathcal{L}_g^{(1)} + \mathcal{L}_g^{(2)} + \dots\right\}$$

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Feynman Rules for Gravity

$$\frac{2\sqrt{\nu}}{1\sqrt{\mu}} \frac{3}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}}(k_1 - k_2)^{\rho}\eta^{\mu\nu} + \text{cyclic}$$

$$\frac{\nu}{\mu} \frac{\sqrt{\nu}}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{\rho}{\sigma} = i\eta^{\mu\rho}\eta^{\nu\sigma} - \frac{i}{2}(\eta^{\mu\nu}\eta^{\rho\sigma} + \eta^{\mu\sigma}\eta^{\nu\rho})$$

$$\frac{b}{a} \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{b}{\delta^{ab}} \frac{2}{1} \frac{b}{a} \frac{b}{\delta^{ab}} \frac{-i}{\sqrt{2}} \delta^{ab}(k_1 - k_2)^{\mu}$$

$$\frac{b}{a} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{i}{\delta^{ab}} \frac{\delta^{ab}}{\gamma^{\mu}} \frac{b}{a} \frac{-i}{\sqrt{2}} \delta^{ab} \eta^{\mu\nu}$$

$$\frac{b}{a} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{\delta^{ab}}{\delta^{ab}} \frac{\rho}{\gamma^{\mu}} \frac{b}{a} \frac{-i}{\sqrt{2}} \delta^{ab} \gamma^{\mu}$$

Figure: Feynman Rules

■ What happened to Renormalization? Isn't gravity non-renormalizable

- Infinities arise in a theory because we include energies all the way to infinity. However in the effective field theory point of view GR is valid only up to certain energy.
- The fact that GR is non-renormalizable does not matter as long as we are restricting ourselves to low energy.
- Corrections to GR can be included by higher order operators. Thus we modify our GR Lagrangian by

$$S = \int \left[\Lambda + \frac{2}{\kappa^2} R[g] + c_1 R^2[g] + c_2 R_{\mu\nu} R^{\mu\nu}[g] + \dots + \mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{M}} \right] \sqrt{-g} d^4 x$$

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$$\begin{split} \mathscr{A}(++;++) &= \frac{i}{4}\frac{\kappa^2 s^3}{tu} \left(1 + \frac{\kappa^2 s t u}{4(4\pi)^2 - \varepsilon} \frac{\Gamma^2(1-\varepsilon)\Gamma(1+\varepsilon)}{\Gamma(1-2\varepsilon)} \times \right. \\ &\times \left[\frac{2}{\varepsilon} \left(\frac{\ln(-u)}{st} + \frac{\ln(-t)}{su} + \frac{\ln(-s)}{tu} \right) + \frac{1}{s^2} f\left(\frac{-t}{s}, \frac{-u}{s} \right) \right. \\ &\quad + 2 \left(\frac{\ln(-u)\ln(-s)}{su} + \frac{\ln(-t)\ln(-s)}{tu} + \frac{\ln(-t)\ln(-s)}{ts} \right) \right] \right) \\ \mathscr{A}(++;--) &= -i \frac{\kappa^4}{30720\pi^2} (s^2 + t^2 + u^2) \\ \mathscr{A}(++;+-) &= -\frac{1}{3} \mathscr{A}(++;--) \end{aligned} \tag{29}$$
 where
$$f\left(\frac{-t}{s}, \frac{-u}{s} \right) = \frac{(t+2u)(2t+u)\left(2t^4 + 2t^3u - t^2u^2 + 2tu^3 + 2u^4\right)}{s^6} \left(\ln^2 \frac{t}{u} + \pi^2 \right) \\ &\quad + \frac{(t-u)\left(341t^4 + 1609t^3u + 2566t^2u^2 + 1609tu^3 + 341u^4\right)}{30s^5} \ln \frac{t}{u} \\ &\quad + \frac{1922t^4 + 9143t^3u + 14622t^2u^2 + 9143tu^3 + 1922u^4}{180s^4}, \tag{30} \end{split}$$

- In that equation + and are graviton helicities. Only the first term is non-zero at tree level, other terms are suppressed by κ^2 .
- The divergence is infrared in origin and can be cancelled by including gravitational bremsstrahlung.
- Except for infrared sector, there is no divergence and no unknown parameters are involved
- No matter what the ultimate ultraviolet completion of the gravitational theory, the scattering process must have this form and only this form, with no free parameters, as long as the full theory limits to general relativity at low energy.

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Correction to Newton's Laws

$$V(r) = \frac{-GMm}{r} \left[1 + 3 \frac{G(M+m)}{rc^2} + \frac{41}{10\pi} \frac{G\hbar}{r^2c^3} + \dots \right]$$

Limitations to Effective Field Theory of GR

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The End

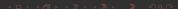
Extra Slides

Classically we can calculate self energy of a sphere of radius r_e and charge ${f q}$

$$E = m_{\rm em} = \int \frac{1}{2} E^2 \, dV = \int_{r_e}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{q}{4\pi r^2} \right)^2 4\pi r^2 \, dr = \frac{q^2}{8\pi r_e}$$

which becomes infinite as $r_e \to 0$

- The idea of Regularization: Let's not take the limit of $r_e \to 0$. Then we have $m_{\rm em}(r_e)$, and a new parameter in theory r_e , called classical electron radius.
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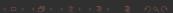
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