

What Every Physicist Should Know About String Theory

Edward Witten, IAS

GR Centennial Celebration, Strings 2015, Bangalore

I am going to try today to explain the minimum that any physicist might want to know about string theory.

I am going to try today to explain the minimum that any physicist might want to know about string theory. I will try to explain answers to a couple of basic questions.

I am going to try today to explain the minimum that any physicist might want to know about string theory. I will try to explain answers to a couple of basic questions. How does string theory generalize standard quantum field theory?

I am going to try today to explain the minimum that any physicist might want to know about string theory. I will try to explain answers to a couple of basic questions. How does string theory generalize standard quantum field theory? And why does string theory force us to unify General Relativity with the other forces of nature, while standard quantum field theory makes it so difficult to incorporate General Relativity?

I am going to try today to explain the minimum that any physicist might want to know about string theory. I will try to explain answers to a couple of basic questions. How does string theory generalize standard quantum field theory? And why does string theory force us to unify General Relativity with the other forces of nature, while standard quantum field theory makes it so difficult to incorporate General Relativity? Why are there no ultraviolet divergences?

I am going to try today to explain the minimum that any physicist might want to know about string theory. I will try to explain answers to a couple of basic questions. How does string theory generalize standard quantum field theory? And why does string theory force us to unify General Relativity with the other forces of nature, while standard quantum field theory makes it so difficult to incorporate General Relativity? Why are there no ultraviolet divergences? And what happens to Einstein's conception of spacetime?

I am going to try today to explain the minimum that any physicist might want to know about string theory. I will try to explain answers to a couple of basic questions. How does string theory generalize standard quantum field theory? And why does string theory force us to unify General Relativity with the other forces of nature, while standard quantum field theory makes it so difficult to incorporate General Relativity? Why are there no ultraviolet divergences? And what happens to Einstein's conception of spacetime?

I thought that explaining these matters is possibly suitable for a session devoted to the centennial of General Relativity.

Anyone who has studied physics is familiar with the fact that while physics – like history – does not precisely repeat itself, it does rhyme, with similar structures at different scales of lengths and energies.

Anyone who has studied physics is familiar with the fact that while physics – like history – does not precisely repeat itself, it does rhyme, with similar structures at different scales of lengths and energies. We will begin today with one of those rhymes – an analogy between the problem of quantum gravity and the theory of a single particle.

Even though we do not really understand it, quantum gravity is supposed to be some sort of theory in which, at least from a macroscopic point of view, we average, in a quantum mechanical sense, over all possible spacetime geometries.

Even though we do not really understand it, quantum gravity is supposed to be some sort of theory in which, at least from a macroscopic point of view, we average, in a quantum mechanical sense, over all possible spacetime geometries. (We do not know to what extent this description is valid microscopically.)

Even though we do not really understand it, quantum gravity is supposed to be some sort of theory in which, at least from a macroscopic point of view, we average, in a quantum mechanical sense, over all possible spacetime geometries. (We do not know to what extent this description is valid microscopically.) The averaging is done, in the simplest case, with a weight factor $\exp(-I)$ (I will write this in Euclidean signature) where I is the Einstein-Hilbert action

$$I = \frac{1}{16\pi G} \int d^4x \sqrt{g} (R + \Lambda),$$

with R being the curvature scalar and Λ the cosmological constant.

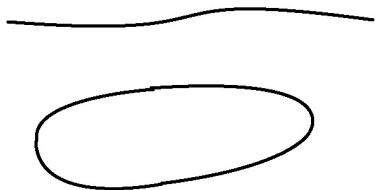
Even though we do not really understand it, quantum gravity is supposed to be some sort of theory in which, at least from a macroscopic point of view, we average, in a quantum mechanical sense, over all possible spacetime geometries. (We do not know to what extent this description is valid microscopically.) The averaging is done, in the simplest case, with a weight factor $\exp(-I)$ (I will write this in Euclidean signature) where I is the Einstein-Hilbert action

$$I = \frac{1}{16\pi G} \int d^4x \sqrt{g} (R + \Lambda),$$

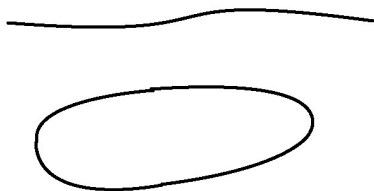
with R being the curvature scalar and Λ the cosmological constant. We *could* add matter fields, but we don't seem to have to.

Let us try to make a theory like this in spacetime dimension 1,
rather than 4.

Let us try to make a theory like this in spacetime dimension 1, rather than 4. There are not many options for a 1-manifold.



Let us try to make a theory like this in spacetime dimension 1, rather than 4. There are not many options for a 1-manifold.



In contrast to the 4d case, there is no Riemann curvature tensor in 1 dimension so there is no close analog of the Einstein-Hilbert action.

Even there is no $\int \sqrt{g}R$ to add to the action, we can still make a nontrivial theory of “quantum gravity,” that is a fluctuating metric tensor, coupled to matter.

Even there is no $\int \sqrt{g}R$ to add to the action, we can still make a nontrivial theory of “quantum gravity,” that is a fluctuating metric tensor, coupled to matter. Let us take the matter to consist of some scalar fields X_i , $i = 1, \dots, D$.

Even there is no $\int \sqrt{g}R$ to add to the action, we can still make a nontrivial theory of “quantum gravity,” that is a fluctuating metric tensor, coupled to matter. Let us take the matter to consist of some scalar fields X_i , $i = 1, \dots, D$. The most obvious action is

$$I = \int dt \sqrt{g} \left(\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^D g^{tt} \left(\frac{dX_i}{dt} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \right)$$

where $g = (g_{tt})$ is a 1×1 metric tensor and I have written $m^2/2$ instead of Λ .

If we introduce the “canonical momentum”

$$P_i = \frac{dX_i}{dt}$$

then the “Einstein field equation” is just

$$\sum_i P_i^2 + m^2 = 0.$$

In other words, the wavefunction $\Psi(X)$ should obey the corresponding differential equation

$$\left(-\sum_i \frac{\partial^2}{\partial X_i^2} + m^2 \right) \Psi(X) = 0.$$

This is a familiar equation – the relativistic Klein-Gordon equation in D dimensions – but in Euclidean signature.

This is a familiar equation – the relativistic Klein-Gordon equation in D dimensions – but in Euclidean signature. If we want to give this fact a sensible physical interpretation, we should reverse the sign of the action for one of the scalar fields X_i so that the action becomes

$$I = \int dt \sqrt{g} \left(\frac{1}{2} g^{tt} \left(- \left(\frac{dX_0}{dt} \right)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{D-1} \left(\frac{dX_i}{dt} \right)^2 \right) - m^2 \right).$$

This is a familiar equation – the relativistic Klein-Gordon equation in D dimensions – but in Euclidean signature. If we want to give this fact a sensible physical interpretation, we should reverse the sign of the action for one of the scalar fields X_i so that the action becomes

$$I = \int dt \sqrt{g} \left(\frac{1}{2} g^{tt} \left(- \left(\frac{dX_0}{dt} \right)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{D-1} \left(\frac{dX_i}{dt} \right)^2 \right) - m^2 \right).$$

Now the equation obeyed by the wavefunction is a Klein-Gordon equation in *Lorentz* signature:

$$\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial X_0^2} - \sum_{i=1}^{D-1} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial X_i^2} + m^2 \right) \Psi(X) = 0.$$

So we have found an exactly soluble theory of quantum gravity in one dimension that describes a spin 0 particle of mass m propagating in D -dimensional Minkowski spacetime.

So we have found an exactly soluble theory of quantum gravity in one dimension that describes a spin 0 particle of mass m propagating in D -dimensional Minkowski spacetime. Actually, we can replace Minkowski spacetime by any D -dimensional spacetime M with a Lorentz (or Euclidean) signature metric G_{IJ} , the action being then

$$I = \int dt \sqrt{g} \left(\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^D g^{tt} G_{IJ} \frac{dX^I}{dt} \frac{dX^J}{dt} - m^2 \right).$$

So we have found an exactly soluble theory of quantum gravity in one dimension that describes a spin 0 particle of mass m propagating in D -dimensional Minkowski spacetime. Actually, we can replace Minkowski spacetime by any D -dimensional spacetime M with a Lorentz (or Euclidean) signature metric G_{IJ} , the action being then

$$I = \int dt \sqrt{g} \left(\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^D g^{tt} G_{IJ} \frac{dX^I}{dt} \frac{dX^J}{dt} - m^2 \right).$$

The equation obeyed by the wavefunction is now a Klein-Gordon equation on M :

$$\left(-G^{IJ} \frac{D}{DX^I} \frac{D}{DX^J} + m^2 \right) \Psi(X) = 0.$$

So we have found an exactly soluble theory of quantum gravity in one dimension that describes a spin 0 particle of mass m propagating in D -dimensional Minkowski spacetime. Actually, we can replace Minkowski spacetime by any D -dimensional spacetime M with a Lorentz (or Euclidean) signature metric G_{IJ} , the action being then

$$I = \int dt \sqrt{g} \left(\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^D g^{tt} G_{IJ} \frac{dX^I}{dt} \frac{dX^J}{dt} - m^2 \right).$$

The equation obeyed by the wavefunction is now a Klein-Gordon equation on M :

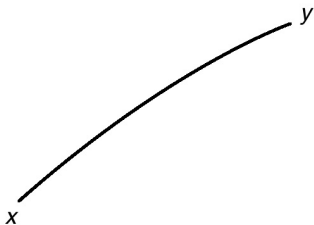
$$\left(-G^{IJ} \frac{D}{DX^I} \frac{D}{DX^J} + m^2 \right) \Psi(X) = 0.$$

This is the massive Klein-Gordon equation in curved spacetime.

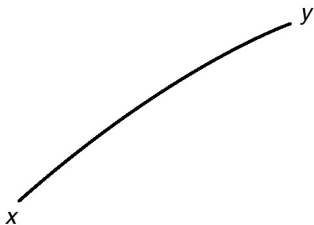
Just to make things more familiar, let us go back to the case of flat spacetime, and I will abbreviate $G^{IJ}P_I P_J$ as P^2 . (To avoid keeping track of some factors of i , I will also write formulas in Euclidean signature.)

Just to make things more familiar, let us go back to the case of flat spacetime, and I will abbreviate $G^{IJ}P_I P_J$ as P^2 . (To avoid keeping track of some factors of i , I will also write formulas in Euclidean signature.) Let us calculate the amplitude for a particle to start at a point x in spacetime and end at another point y .

Just to make things more familiar, let us go back to the case of flat spacetime, and I will abbreviate $G^{IJ}P_I P_J$ as P^2 . (To avoid keeping track of some factors of i , I will also write formulas in Euclidean signature.) Let us calculate the amplitude for a particle to start at a point x in spacetime and end at another point y .



Just to make things more familiar, let us go back to the case of flat spacetime, and I will abbreviate $G^{IJ}P_I P_J$ as P^2 . (To avoid keeping track of some factors of i , I will also write formulas in Euclidean signature.) Let us calculate the amplitude for a particle to start at a point x in spacetime and end at another point y .



Part of the process of evaluating the path integral in a quantum gravity theory is to integrate over the metric on the one-manifold, modulo diffeomorphisms. But up to diffeomorphism, this one-manifold has only one invariant, the total length τ , which we will interpret as the elapsed proper time.

For a given τ , we can take the 1-metric to be just $g_{tt} = 1$ where $0 \leq t \leq \tau$. (As a minor shortcut, I will take Euclidean signature on the 1-manifold.)

For a given τ , we can take the 1-metric to be just $g_{tt} = 1$ where $0 \leq t \leq \tau$. (As a minor shortcut, I will take Euclidean signature on the 1-manifold.) Now on this 1-manifold, we have to integrate over all paths $X(t)$ that start at x at $t = 0$ and end at y at $t = \tau$.

For a given τ , we can take the 1-metric to be just $g_{tt} = 1$ where $0 \leq t \leq \tau$. (As a minor shortcut, I will take Euclidean signature on the 1-manifold.) Now on this 1-manifold, we have to integrate over all paths $X(t)$ that start at x at $t = 0$ and end at y at $t = \tau$. This is the basic Feynman integral of quantum mechanics with the Hamiltonian being $H = P^2 + m^2$, and according to Feynman, the result is the matrix element of $\exp(-\tau H)$:

$$G(x, y; \tau) = \int \frac{d^D p}{(2\pi)^D} e^{iP \cdot (y-x)} \exp(-\tau(P^2 + m^2)).$$

For a given τ , we can take the 1-metric to be just $g_{tt} = 1$ where $0 \leq t \leq \tau$. (As a minor shortcut, I will take Euclidean signature on the 1-manifold.) Now on this 1-manifold, we have to integrate over all paths $X(t)$ that start at x at $t = 0$ and end at y at $t = \tau$. This is the basic Feynman integral of quantum mechanics with the Hamiltonian being $H = P^2 + m^2$, and according to Feynman, the result is the matrix element of $\exp(-\tau H)$:

$$G(x, y; \tau) = \int \frac{d^D p}{(2\pi)^D} e^{iP \cdot (y-x)} \exp(-\tau(P^2 + m^2)).$$

But we have to remember to do the “gravitational” part of the path integral, which in the present context means to integrate over τ .

Thus the complete path integral for our problem – integrating over all metrics $g_{tt}(t)$ and all paths $X(t)$ with the given endpoints, modulo diffeomorphisms – gives

$$G(x, y) = \int_0^\infty d\tau G(x, y; \tau) = \int \frac{d^D p}{(2\pi)^D} e^{ip \cdot (y-x)} \frac{1}{p^2 + m^2}.$$

This is the standard Feynman propagator in Euclidean signature, and an analogous derivation in Lorentz signature (for both the spacetime M and the particle worldline) gives the correct Lorentz signature Feynman propagator, with the $i\epsilon$.

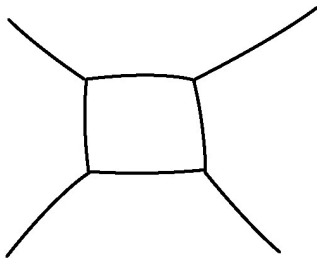
So we have interpreted a free particle in D -dimensional spacetime in terms of 1-dimensional quantum gravity.

So we have interpreted a free particle in D -dimensional spacetime in terms of 1-dimensional quantum gravity. How can we include interactions?

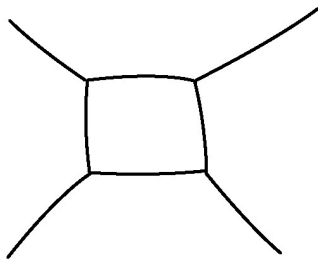
So we have interpreted a free particle in D -dimensional spacetime in terms of 1-dimensional quantum gravity. How can we include interactions? There is actually a perfectly natural way to do this.

So we have interpreted a free particle in D -dimensional spacetime in terms of 1-dimensional quantum gravity. How can we include interactions? There is actually a perfectly natural way to do this. There are not a lot of smooth 1-manifolds, but there is a large supply of singular 1-manifolds in the form of graphs.

So we have interpreted a free particle in D -dimensional spacetime in terms of 1-dimensional quantum gravity. How can we include interactions? There is actually a perfectly natural way to do this. There are not a lot of smooth 1-manifolds, but there is a large supply of singular 1-manifolds in the form of graphs.

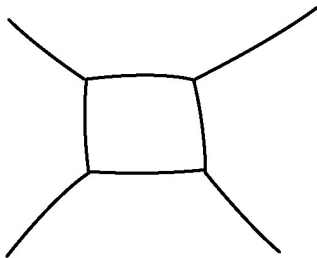


So we have interpreted a free particle in D -dimensional spacetime in terms of 1-dimensional quantum gravity. How can we include interactions? There is actually a perfectly natural way to do this. There are not a lot of smooth 1-manifolds, but there is a large supply of singular 1-manifolds in the form of graphs.



Our “quantum gravity” action makes sense on such a graph.

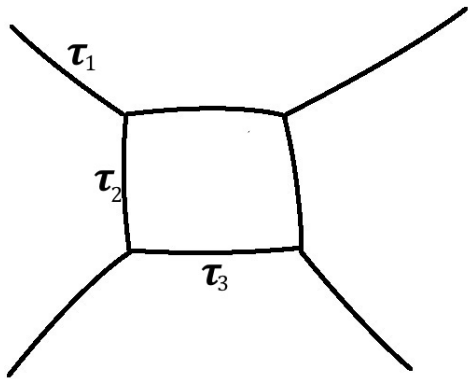
So we have interpreted a free particle in D -dimensional spacetime in terms of 1-dimensional quantum gravity. How can we include interactions? There is actually a perfectly natural way to do this. There are not a lot of smooth 1-manifolds, but there is a large supply of singular 1-manifolds in the form of graphs.



Our “quantum gravity” action makes sense on such a graph. We just take the same action that we used before, summed over all of the line segments that make up the graph.

Now to do the quantum gravity path integral, we have to integrate over all metrics on the graph, up to diffeomorphism.

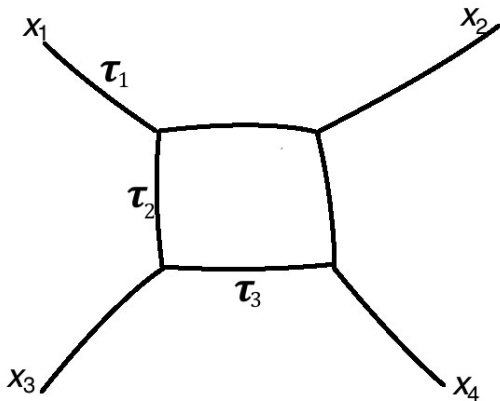
Now to do the quantum gravity path integral, we have to integrate over all metrics on the graph, up to diffeomorphism. The only invariants are the total lengths or “proper times” of each of the segments:



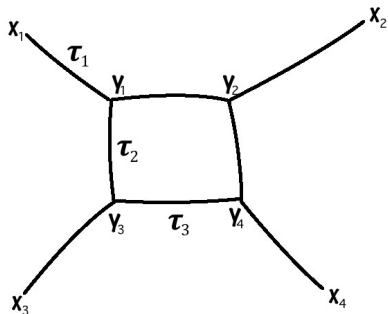
not label all of them.)

(I did

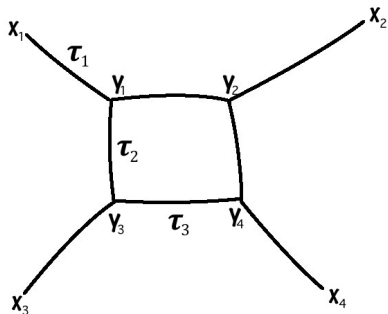
The natural amplitude to compute is one in which we hold fixed the positions x_1, \dots, x_4 of the external particles and integrate over all the τ 's and over the paths the particle follow on the line segments.



To integrate over the paths, we just observe that if we specify the positions y_1, \dots, y_4 at all the vertices (and therefore on each end of each line segment)

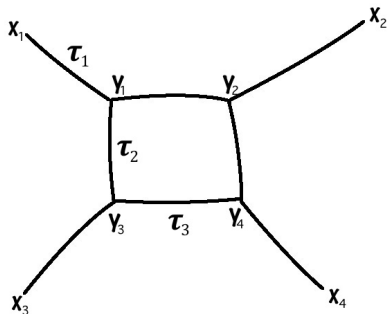


To integrate over the paths, we just observe that if we specify the positions y_1, \dots, y_4 at all the vertices (and therefore on each end of each line segment)



then the computation we have to do on each line segment is the same as before and gives the Feynman propagator.

To integrate over the paths, we just observe that if we specify the positions y_1, \dots, y_4 at all the vertices (and therefore on each end of each line segment)



then the

computation we have to do on each line segment is the same as before and gives the Feynman propagator. Integrating over the y_i will just impose momentum conservation at vertices, and we arrive at Feynman's recipe to compute the amplitude attached to a graph: a Feynman propagator for each line, and an integration over all momenta subject to momentum conservation.

We have arrived at one of nature's rhymes: if we imitate in one dimension what we would expect to do in $D = 4$ dimensions to describe quantum gravity, we arrive at something that is certainly important in physics, namely ordinary quantum field theory in a possibly curved spacetime.

We have arrived at one of nature's rhymes: if we imitate in one dimension what we would expect to do in $D = 4$ dimensions to describe quantum gravity, we arrive at something that is certainly important in physics, namely ordinary quantum field theory in a possibly curved spacetime. In the example that I gave, the "ordinary quantum field theory" is scalar ϕ^3 theory, because of the particular matter system we started with and assuming we take the graphs to have cubic vertices.

We have arrived at one of nature's rhymes: if we imitate in one dimension what we would expect to do in $D = 4$ dimensions to describe quantum gravity, we arrive at something that is certainly important in physics, namely ordinary quantum field theory in a possibly curved spacetime. In the example that I gave, the "ordinary quantum field theory" is scalar ϕ^3 theory, because of the particular matter system we started with and assuming we take the graphs to have cubic vertices. Quartic vertices (for instance) would give ϕ^4 theory, and a different matter system would give fields of different spins.

We have arrived at one of nature's rhymes: if we imitate in one dimension what we would expect to do in $D = 4$ dimensions to describe quantum gravity, we arrive at something that is certainly important in physics, namely ordinary quantum field theory in a possibly curved spacetime. In the example that I gave, the "ordinary quantum field theory" is scalar ϕ^3 theory, because of the particular matter system we started with and assuming we take the graphs to have cubic vertices. Quartic vertices (for instance) would give ϕ^4 theory, and a different matter system would give fields of different spins. So many or maybe all QFT's in D dimensions can be derived in this sense from quantum gravity in 1 dimension.

There is actually a much more perfect rhyme if we repeat this in two dimensions, that is for a string instead of a particle.

There is actually a much more perfect rhyme if we repeat this in two dimensions, that is for a string instead of a particle. One thing we immediately run into is that a two-manifold Σ can be curved



There is actually a much more perfect rhyme if we repeat this in two dimensions, that is for a string instead of a particle. One thing we immediately run into is that a two-manifold Σ can be curved



So
the integral over 2d metrics promises to not be trivial at all.

This is related to the fact that a 2d metric in general is a 2×2 symmetric matrix constructed from 3 functions

$$g_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} g_{11} & g_{12} \\ g_{21} & g_{22} \end{pmatrix}, \quad g_{21} = g_{12}$$

This is related to the fact that a 2d metric in general is a 2×2 symmetric matrix constructed from 3 functions

$$g_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} g_{11} & g_{12} \\ g_{21} & g_{22} \end{pmatrix}, \quad g_{21} = g_{12}$$

but a diffeomorphism

$$\sigma^i \rightarrow \sigma^i + h^i(\sigma), \quad i = 1, 2$$

(where σ^i are coordinates on the “worldsheet”) can only remove two functions.

But now we notice that the obvious analog of the action function that we used for the particle, namely

But now we notice that the obvious analog of the action function that we used for the particle, namely

$$I = \int_{\Sigma} d^2\sigma \sqrt{g} g^{ij} G_{IJ} \frac{\partial X^I}{\partial \sigma^i} \frac{\partial X^J}{\partial \sigma^j},$$

But now we notice that the obvious analog of the action function that we used for the particle, namely

$$I = \int_{\Sigma} d^2\sigma \sqrt{g} g^{ij} G_{IJ} \frac{\partial X^I}{\partial \sigma^i} \frac{\partial X^J}{\partial \sigma^j},$$

is *conformally-invariant*,

But now we notice that the obvious analog of the action function that we used for the particle, namely

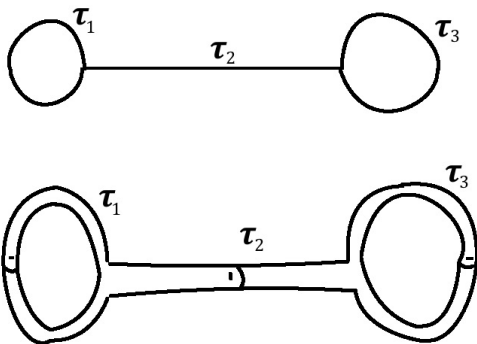
$$I = \int_{\Sigma} d^2\sigma \sqrt{g} g^{ij} G_{IJ} \frac{\partial X^I}{\partial \sigma^i} \frac{\partial X^J}{\partial \sigma^j},$$

is *conformally-invariant*, that is, it is invariant under

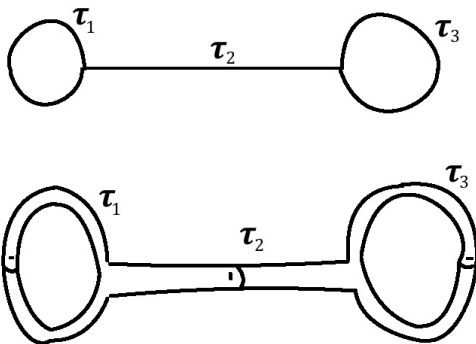
$$g_{ij} \rightarrow e^{\phi} g_{ij}$$

for any real function ϕ on Σ . If we require conformal invariance as well as diffeomorphism invariance, then this is enough to make any metric g_{ij} on Σ locally trivial (locally equivalent to δ_{ij}), as we had in the quantum-mechanical case.

Some very pretty 19th century mathematics now comes into play

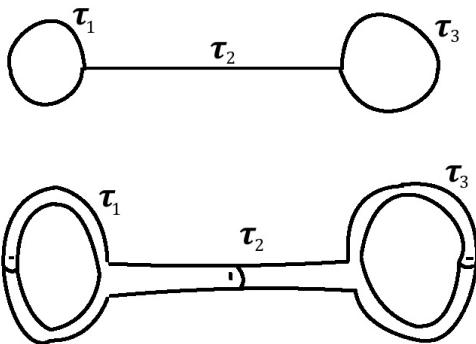


Some very pretty 19th century mathematics now comes into play



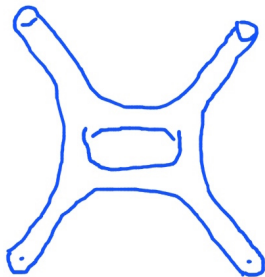
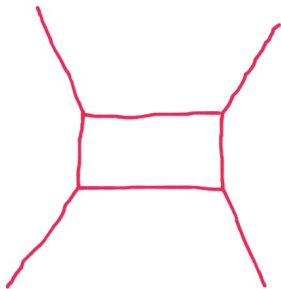
It turns out that, just as in the 1d case, the metric g_{ij} can be parametrized by finitely many parameters.

Some very pretty 19th century mathematics now comes into play



It turns out that, just as in the 1d case, the metric g_{ij} can be parametrized by finitely many parameters. Two big differences: The parameters are now complex rather than real, and their range is restricted in a way that allows no possibility for an ultraviolet divergence.

To underscore how a two-manifold is understood as a generalization of a Feynman graph, I've drawn alongside each other the one-loop diagrams for $2 \rightarrow 2$ scattering in the 1d or 2d case:



Now I come to a deeper rhyme: We used 1d quantum gravity to describe quantum field theory in a possibly curved spacetime, *but not to describe quantum gravity in spacetime.*

Now I come to a deeper rhyme: We used 1d quantum gravity to describe quantum field theory in a possibly curved spacetime, *but not to describe quantum gravity in spacetime*. The reason that we did not get quantum gravity in spacetime is that there is no correspondence between operators and states in quantum mechanics.

Now I come to a deeper rhyme: We used 1d quantum gravity to describe quantum field theory in a possibly curved spacetime, *but not to describe quantum gravity in spacetime*. The reason that we did not get quantum gravity in spacetime is that there is no correspondence between operators and states in quantum mechanics. We considered the 1d quantum mechanics

$$I = \int dt \sqrt{g} \left(\frac{1}{2} g^{tt} G_{IJ} \frac{dX^I}{dt} \frac{dX^J}{dt} - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \right).$$

Now I come to a deeper rhyme: We used 1d quantum gravity to describe quantum field theory in a possibly curved spacetime, *but not to describe quantum gravity in spacetime*. The reason that we did not get quantum gravity in spacetime is that there is no correspondence between operators and states in quantum mechanics. We considered the 1d quantum mechanics

$$I = \int dt \sqrt{g} \left(\frac{1}{2} g^{tt} G_{IJ} \frac{dX^I}{dt} \frac{dX^J}{dt} - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \right).$$

The external states in a Feynman diagram were just the states in this quantum mechanics.

Now I come to a deeper rhyme: We used 1d quantum gravity to describe quantum field theory in a possibly curved spacetime, *but not to describe quantum gravity in spacetime*. The reason that we did not get quantum gravity in spacetime is that there is no correspondence between operators and states in quantum mechanics. We considered the 1d quantum mechanics

$$I = \int dt \sqrt{g} \left(\frac{1}{2} g^{tt} G_{IJ} \frac{dX^I}{dt} \frac{dX^J}{dt} - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \right).$$

The external states in a Feynman diagram were just the states in this quantum mechanics. A deformation of the spacetime metric is represented by an operator in this quantum mechanics, namely $\mathcal{O} = \frac{1}{2} g^{tt} \delta G_{IJ} \partial_t X^I \partial_t X^J$.

Now I come to a deeper rhyme: We used 1d quantum gravity to describe quantum field theory in a possibly curved spacetime, *but not to describe quantum gravity in spacetime*. The reason that we did not get quantum gravity in spacetime is that there is no correspondence between operators and states in quantum mechanics. We considered the 1d quantum mechanics

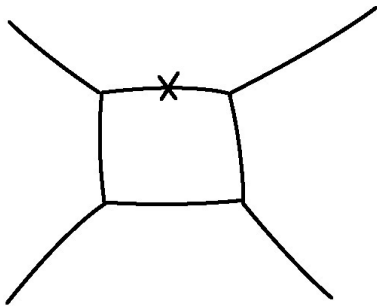
$$I = \int dt \sqrt{g} \left(\frac{1}{2} g^{tt} G_{IJ} \frac{dX^I}{dt} \frac{dX^J}{dt} - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \right).$$

The external states in a Feynman diagram were just the states in this quantum mechanics. A deformation of the spacetime metric is represented by an operator in this quantum mechanics, namely $\mathcal{O} = \frac{1}{2} g^{tt} \delta G_{IJ} \partial_t X^I \partial_t X^J$. It does not correspond to a state in the quantum mechanics.

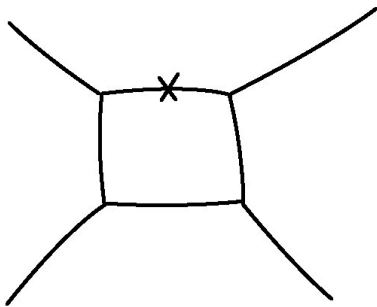
Operators in quantum mechanics do not correspond to states, and that is why the 1d theory did not describe quantum gravity in spacetime.

Operators in quantum mechanics do not correspond to states, and that is why the 1d theory did not describe quantum gravity in spacetime. In fact, the 1d theory as I presented it led to ϕ^3 theory in spacetime rather than quantum gravity.

Operators in quantum mechanics do not correspond to states, and that is why the 1d theory did not describe quantum gravity in spacetime. In fact, the 1d theory as I presented it led to ϕ^3 theory in spacetime rather than quantum gravity. An operator \mathcal{O} such as the one describing a fluctuation δG in the spacetime metric appears on an internal line in the Feynman diagram, not an external line:



Operators in quantum mechanics do not correspond to states, and that is why the 1d theory did not describe quantum gravity in spacetime. In fact, the 1d theory as I presented it led to ϕ^3 theory in spacetime rather than quantum gravity. An operator \mathcal{O} such as the one describing a fluctuation δG in the spacetime metric appears on an internal line in the Feynman diagram, not an external line:



(To calculate the effects of a perturbation, we insert $\int dt \sqrt{g} \mathcal{O}$, integrating over the position on the graph where the operator \mathcal{O} is inserted. I just drew one possible insertion point.)

But in conformal field theory, there *is* an operator-state correspondence, which actually is important in statistical mechanics.

But in conformal field theory, there *is* an operator-state correspondence, which actually is important in statistical mechanics. And hence the operator

$$\mathcal{O} = g^{ij} \delta G_{IJ} \partial_i X^I \partial_j X^J$$

that represents a fluctuation in the spacetime metric automatically represents a state in the quantum mechanics.

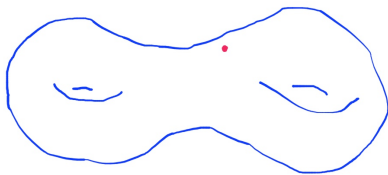
But in conformal field theory, there *is* an operator-state correspondence, which actually is important in statistical mechanics. And hence the operator

$$\mathcal{O} = g^{ij} \delta G_{IJ} \partial_i X^I \partial_j X^J$$

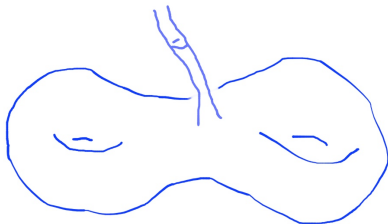
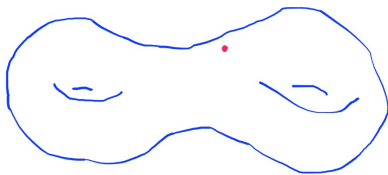
that represents a fluctuation in the spacetime metric automatically represents a state in the quantum mechanics. Therefore the theory describes quantum gravity in spacetime.

The operator-state correspondence arises from a 19th century relation between two pictures that are conformally equivalent:

The operator-state correspondence arises from a 19th century relation between two pictures that are conformally equivalent:



The operator-state correspondence arises from a 19th century relation between two pictures that are conformally equivalent:



The basic idea can be seen if we write the metric of a plane in polar coordinates:

$$ds^2 = dr^2 + r^2 d\phi^2.$$

We think of inserting an operator at the point $r = 0$.

The basic idea can be seen if we write the metric of a plane in polar coordinates:

$$ds^2 = dr^2 + r^2 d\phi^2.$$

We think of inserting an operator at the point $r = 0$. Now remove this point, and make a conformal transformation, multiplying ds^2 by $1/r^2$. This gives

$$(ds')^2 = \frac{1}{r^2} dr^2 + d\phi^2$$

The basic idea can be seen if we write the metric of a plane in polar coordinates:

$$ds^2 = dr^2 + r^2 d\phi^2.$$

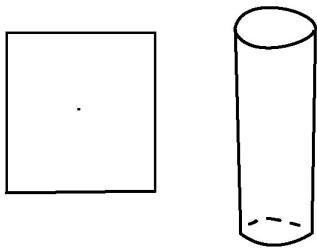
We think of inserting an operator at the point $r = 0$. Now remove this point, and make a conformal transformation, multiplying ds^2 by $1/r^2$. This gives

$$(ds')^2 = \frac{1}{r^2} dr^2 + d\phi^2$$

In terms of $u = \log r$, $-\infty < u < \infty$, this is now

$$(ds')^2 = du^2 + d\phi^2,$$

which describes a cylinder.

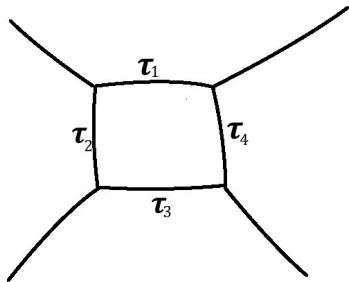


The next step is to explain why this type of theory does not have ultraviolet divergences.

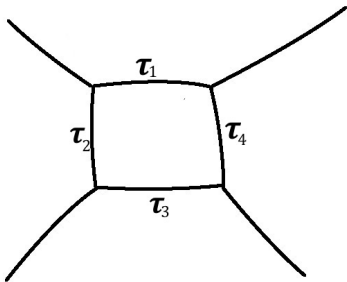
The next step is to explain why this type of theory does not have ultraviolet divergences. First of all, where do ultraviolet divergences come from in field theory?

The next step is to explain why this type of theory does not have ultraviolet divergences. First of all, where do ultraviolet divergences come from in field theory? They come from the case that all the proper time variables in a loop go to zero:

The next step is to explain why this type of theory does not have ultraviolet divergences. First of all, where do ultraviolet divergences come from in field theory? They come from the case that all the proper time variables in a loop go to zero:



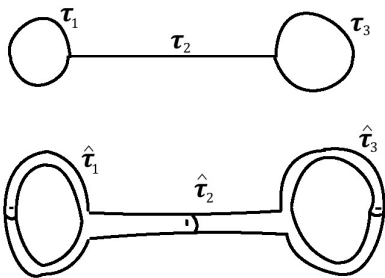
The next step is to explain why this type of theory does not have ultraviolet divergences. First of all, where do ultraviolet divergences come from in field theory? They come from the case that all the proper time variables in a loop go to zero:



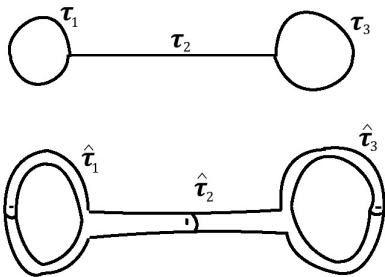
So in the example shown, ultraviolet divergences can occur for $\tau_1, \tau_2, \tau_3, \tau_4$ going simultaneously to 0.

It is true that, as I said, a Riemann surface can be described by parameters that roughly mirror the proper time parameters in a Feynman graph:

It is true that, as I said, a Riemann surface can be described by parameters that roughly mirror the proper time parameters in a Feynman graph:

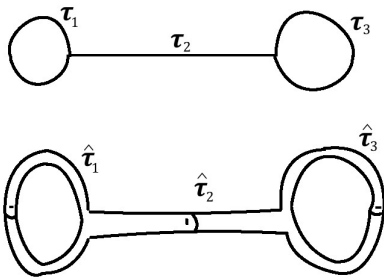


It is true that, as I said, a Riemann surface can be described by parameters that roughly mirror the proper time parameters in a Feynman graph:



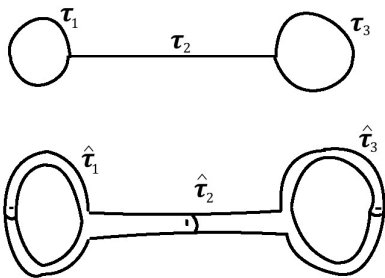
But there is one very important difference, which is the reason there are no ultraviolet divergences in string theory.

It is true that, as I said, a Riemann surface can be described by parameters that roughly mirror the proper time parameters in a Feynman graph:



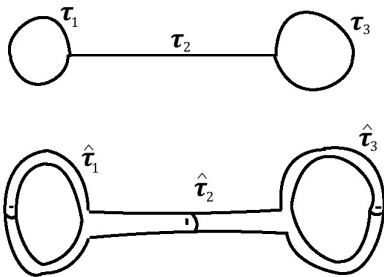
But there is one very important difference, which is the reason there are no ultraviolet divergences in string theory. The proper time variables τ_i of a Feynman graph cover the whole range $0 \leq \tau_i \leq \infty$.

It is true that, as I said, a Riemann surface can be described by parameters that roughly mirror the proper time parameters in a Feynman graph:



But there is one very important difference, which is the reason there are no ultraviolet divergences in string theory. The proper time variables τ_i of a Feynman graph cover the whole range $0 \leq \tau_i \leq \infty$. By contrast, the corresponding Riemann surface parameters $\hat{\tau}_i$ are bounded away from 0.

It is true that, as I said, a Riemann surface can be described by parameters that roughly mirror the proper time parameters in a Feynman graph:

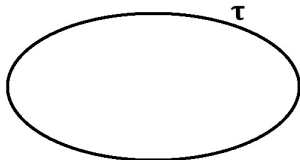


But there is one very important difference, which is the reason there are no ultraviolet divergences in string theory. The proper time variables τ_i of a Feynman graph cover the whole range $0 \leq \tau_i \leq \infty$. By contrast, the corresponding Riemann surface parameters $\hat{\tau}_i$ are bounded away from 0. Given a Feynman diagram, one can make a corresponding Riemann surface, but only if the proper time variables τ_i are not too small.

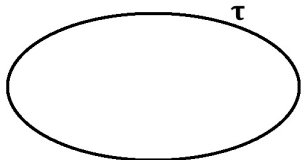
Instead of giving a general explanation of this, I will just explain how it works in the case of the 1-loop cosmological constant.

Instead of giving a general explanation of this, I will just explain how it works in the case of the 1-loop cosmological constant. The Feynman diagram is this one, with a single proper time parameter τ :

Instead of giving a general explanation of this, I will just explain how it works in the case of the 1-loop cosmological constant. The Feynman diagram is this one, with a single proper time parameter τ :



Instead of giving a general explanation of this, I will just explain how it works in the case of the 1-loop cosmological constant. The Feynman diagram is this one, with a single proper time parameter τ :

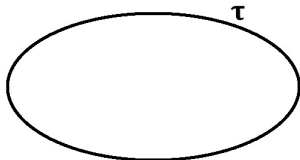


The resulting expression for the 1-loop cosmological constant is

$$\Gamma_1 = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty \frac{d\tau}{\tau} \text{Tr} \exp(-\tau H)$$

where H is the particle Hamiltonian.

Instead of giving a general explanation of this, I will just explain how it works in the case of the 1-loop cosmological constant. The Feynman diagram is this one, with a single proper time parameter τ :

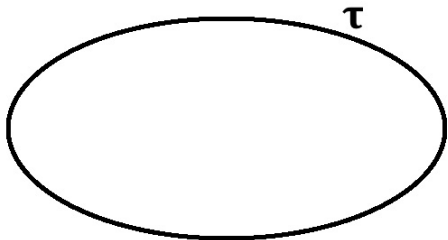


The resulting expression for the 1-loop cosmological constant is

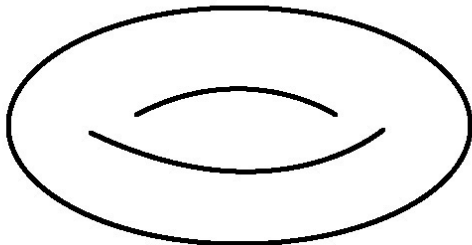
$$\Gamma_1 = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty \frac{d\tau}{\tau} \text{Tr} \exp(-\tau H)$$

where H is the particle Hamiltonian. This diverges at $\tau = 0$, because of the momentum integration that is part of the trace.

Going to string theory means replacing the classical one-loop diagram

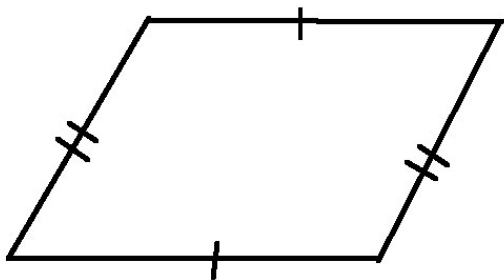


Going to string theory means replacing the classical one-loop diagram with its stringy counterpart, which is a torus



19th century mathematicians showed that every torus is conformally equivalent to a parallelogram in the plane with opposite sides identified

19th century mathematicians showed that every torus is conformally equivalent to a parallelogram in the plane with opposite sides identified

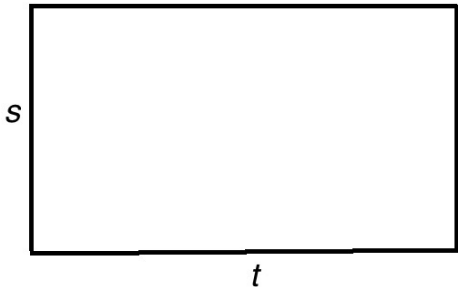


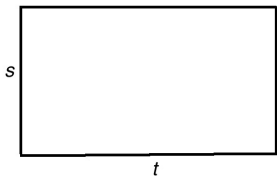
But to explain the idea without extraneous details, I will consider only rectangles instead of parallelograms:



Let us label the height and base of the rectangle as s and t :

Let us label the height and base of the rectangle as s and t :

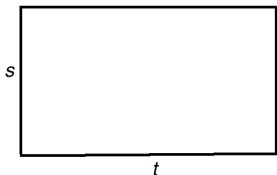




Now only the ratio

$$u = \frac{t}{s}$$

is conformally-invariant.

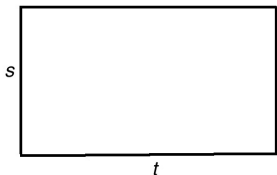


Now only the ratio

$$u = \frac{t}{s}$$

is conformally-invariant. Also, since it is arbitrary what is the “height” and what is the “base” of the rectangle, we are free to exchange

$$s \leftrightarrow t$$



Now only the ratio

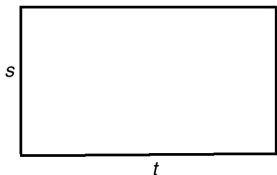
$$u = \frac{t}{s}$$

is conformally-invariant. Also, since it is arbitrary what is the “height” and what is the “base” of the rectangle, we are free to exchange

$$s \leftrightarrow t$$

which means

$$u \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{u}.$$



Now only the ratio

$$u = \frac{t}{s}$$

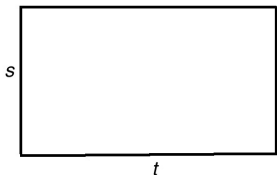
is conformally-invariant. Also, since it is arbitrary what is the “height” and what is the “base” of the rectangle, we are free to exchange

$$s \leftrightarrow t$$

which means

$$u \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{u}.$$

So we can restrict to $t \geq s$,



Now only the ratio

$$u = \frac{t}{s}$$

is conformally-invariant. Also, since it is arbitrary what is the “height” and what is the “base” of the rectangle, we are free to exchange

$$s \leftrightarrow t$$

which means

$$u \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{u}.$$

So we can restrict to $t \geq s$, so that the range of u is

$$1 \leq u < \infty.$$

The proper time parameter τ of the particle corresponds to u in string theory,

The proper time parameter τ of the particle corresponds to u in string theory, and the key difference is just that $0 \leq \tau < \infty$ but $1 \leq u < \infty$.

The proper time parameter τ of the particle corresponds to u in string theory, and the key difference is just that $0 \leq \tau < \infty$ but $1 \leq u < \infty$. So the 1-loop cosmological constant in field theory is

$$\Gamma_1 = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty \frac{d\tau}{\tau} \text{Tr} \exp(-\tau H)$$

The proper time parameter τ of the particle corresponds to u in string theory, and the key difference is just that $0 \leq \tau < \infty$ but $1 \leq u < \infty$. So the 1-loop cosmological constant in field theory is

$$\Gamma_1 = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty \frac{d\tau}{\tau} \text{Tr} \exp(-\tau H)$$

but (in the approximation of considering only rectangles and not parallelograms)

The proper time parameter τ of the particle corresponds to u in string theory, and the key difference is just that $0 \leq \tau < \infty$ but $1 \leq u < \infty$. So the 1-loop cosmological constant in field theory is

$$\Gamma_1 = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty \frac{d\tau}{\tau} \text{Tr} \exp(-\tau H)$$

but (in the approximation of considering only rectangles and not parallelograms) the 1-loop cosmological constant in string theory is

$$\Gamma_1 = \frac{1}{2} \int_1^\infty \frac{du}{u} \text{Tr} \exp(-\tau H).$$

The proper time parameter τ of the particle corresponds to u in string theory, and the key difference is just that $0 \leq \tau < \infty$ but $1 \leq u < \infty$. So the 1-loop cosmological constant in field theory is

$$\Gamma_1 = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty \frac{d\tau}{\tau} \text{Tr} \exp(-\tau H)$$

but (in the approximation of considering only rectangles and not parallelograms) the 1-loop cosmological constant in string theory is

$$\Gamma_1 = \frac{1}{2} \int_1^\infty \frac{du}{u} \text{Tr} \exp(-\tau H).$$

There is no ultraviolet divergence, because the lower limit on the integral is 1 instead of 0.

I have explained a special case, but this is a general story.

I have explained a special case, but this is a general story. The stringy formulas generalize the field theory formulas, but without the region that can give ultraviolet divergences in field theory.

I have explained a special case, but this is a general story. The stringy formulas generalize the field theory formulas, but without the region that can give ultraviolet divergences in field theory. The infrared region ($\tau \rightarrow \infty$ or $u \rightarrow \infty$) lines up properly between field theory and string theory and this is why a string theory can imitate field theory in its predictions for the behavior at low energies or long times and distances.

I want to use the remaining time to explain, at least partly, in what sense spacetime “emerges” from something deeper if string theory is correct.

I want to use the remaining time to explain, at least partly, in what sense spacetime “emerges” from something deeper if string theory is correct.

Let us focus on the following fact: The spacetime M with its metric tensor $G_{IJ}(X)$ was encoded as the data that enabled us to define a 2d conformal field theory that we used in this construction.

I want to use the remaining time to explain, at least partly, in what sense spacetime “emerges” from something deeper if string theory is correct.

Let us focus on the following fact: The spacetime M with its metric tensor $G_{IJ}(X)$ was encoded as the data that enabled us to define a 2d conformal field theory that we used in this construction. Moreover, that is the only way that spacetime entered the story.

We could have used in this construction a different 2d conformal field theory (subject to a few general rules that we'll omit).

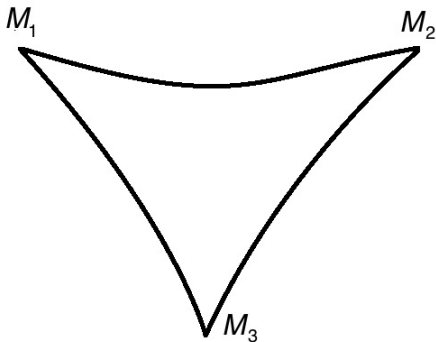
We could have used in this construction a different 2d conformal field theory (subject to a few general rules that we'll omit). Now if $G_{IJ}(X)$ is slowly varying (the radius of curvature is everywhere large) the Lagrangian that we used to describe the 2d conformal field theory is weakly coupled and illuminating.

We could have used in this construction a different 2d conformal field theory (subject to a few general rules that we'll omit). Now if $G_{IJ}(X)$ is slowly varying (the radius of curvature is everywhere large) the Lagrangian that we used to describe the 2d conformal field theory is weakly coupled and illuminating. This is the situation in which string theory matches to ordinary physics that we are familiar with.

We could have used in this construction a different 2d conformal field theory (subject to a few general rules that we'll omit). Now if $G_{IJ}(X)$ is slowly varying (the radius of curvature is everywhere large) the Lagrangian that we used to describe the 2d conformal field theory is weakly coupled and illuminating. This is the situation in which string theory matches to ordinary physics that we are familiar with. We may say that in this situation, the theory has a semiclassical interpretation in terms of strings in spacetime (and this will reduce at low energies to an interpretation in terms of particles and fields in spacetime).

When we get away from a semiclassical limit, the Lagrangian is not so useful and the theory does not have any particular interpretation in terms of strings in spacetime.

When we get away from a semiclassical limit, the Lagrangian is not so useful and the theory does not have any particular interpretation in terms of strings in spacetime. In fact, the following type of situation very frequently occurs:



Many other nonclassical things can happen.

Many other nonclassical things can happen. It can happen that from a classical point of view, the spacetime develops a singularity, but actually the 2d conformal field theory remains perfectly good, meaning that the physical situation in string theory is perfectly sensible.

We can say that from this point of view, spacetime “emerges” from a seemingly more fundamental concept of 2d conformal field theory.

We can say that from this point of view, spacetime “emerges” from a seemingly more fundamental concept of 2d conformal field theory. In general a string theory comes with no particular spacetime interpretation, but such an interpretation can emerge in a suitable limit,

We can say that from this point of view, spacetime “emerges” from a seemingly more fundamental concept of 2d conformal field theory. In general a string theory comes with no particular spacetime interpretation, but such an interpretation can emerge in a suitable limit, somewhat as classical mechanics sometimes arises as a limit of quantum mechanics.

This is not a complete explanation of the sense in which, in the context of string theory, spacetime emerges from something deeper.

This is not a complete explanation of the sense in which, in the context of string theory, spacetime emerges from something deeper. A completely different side of the story involves quantum mechanics and the duality between gauge theory and gravity.

This is not a complete explanation of the sense in which, in the context of string theory, spacetime emerges from something deeper. A completely different side of the story involves quantum mechanics and the duality between gauge theory and gravity. However, what I have described is certainly one important piece of the puzzle, and one piece that is relatively well understood.

This is not a complete explanation of the sense in which, in the context of string theory, spacetime emerges from something deeper. A completely different side of the story involves quantum mechanics and the duality between gauge theory and gravity. However, what I have described is certainly one important piece of the puzzle, and one piece that is relatively well understood. It is at least a partial insight about how spacetime as conceived by Einstein can emerge from something deeper,

This is not a complete explanation of the sense in which, in the context of string theory, spacetime emerges from something deeper. A completely different side of the story involves quantum mechanics and the duality between gauge theory and gravity. However, what I have described is certainly one important piece of the puzzle, and one piece that is relatively well understood. It is at least a partial insight about how spacetime as conceived by Einstein can emerge from something deeper, and thus I hope this topic has been suitable as part of a session devoted to the centennial of General Relativity.