

From Superstrings to M Theory¹

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Abstract

In the strong coupling limit type IIA superstring theory develops an eleventh dimension that is not apparent in perturbation theory. This suggests the existence of a consistent 11d quantum theory, called M theory, which is approximated by 11d supergravity at low energies. In this review we describe some of the evidence for this picture and some of its implications.

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1 Introduction

Superstring theory is currently undergoing a period of rapid development in which important advances in understanding are being achieved. The purpose of this review is to describe a portion of this story to physicists who are not already experts in this field.² The focus will be on explaining why there can be an eleven-dimensional vacuum, even though there are only ten dimensions in perturbative superstring theory. The nonperturbative extension of superstring theory that allows for an eleventh dimension has been named *M theory*. The letter M is intended to be flexible in its interpretation. It could stand for *magic*, *mystery*, or *meta* to reflect our current state of incomplete understanding. Those who think that two-dimensional supermembranes (the M2-brane) are fundamental may regard M as standing for *membrane*. An approach called *Matrix theory* is another possibility. And, of course, some view M theory as the *mother* of all theories.

Superstring theory first achieved widespread acceptance during the *first superstring revolution* in 1984-85. There were three main developments at this time. The first was the discovery of an anomaly cancellation mechanism [2], which showed that supersymmetric gauge theories can be consistent in ten dimensions provided they are coupled to supergravity (as in type I superstring theory) and the gauge group is either $SO(32)$ or $E_8 \times E_8$.³ Any other group necessarily would give uncancelled gauge anomalies and hence inconsistency at the quantum level. The second development was the discovery of two new superstring theories—called *heterotic* string theories—with precisely these gauge groups [3]. The third development was the realization that the $E_8 \times E_8$ heterotic string theory admits solutions in which six of the space dimensions form a Calabi–Yau space, and that this results in a 4d effective theory at low energies with many qualitatively realistic features [4]. Unfortunately, there are very many Calabi–Yau spaces and a whole range of additional choices that can be made (orbifolds, Wilson loops, etc.). Thus there is an enormous variety of possibilities, none of which stands out as particularly special.

In any case, after the first superstring revolution subsided, we had five distinct superstring theories with consistent weak coupling perturbation expansions, each in ten dimensions. Three of them, the *type I* theory and the two heterotic theories, have $\mathcal{N} = 1$ supersymmetry in the ten-dimensional sense. Since the minimal 10d spinor is simultaneously Majorana and

²For a more detailed review see ref. [1].

³A discussion with Richard Slansky helped to convince us that $E_8 \times E_8$ would work.

Weyl, this corresponds to 16 conserved supercharges. The other two theories, called *type IIA* and *type IIB*, have $\mathcal{N} = 2$ supersymmetry (32 supercharges) [5]. In the IIA case the two spinors have opposite handedness so that the spectrum is left-right symmetric (nonchiral). In the IIB case the two spinors have the same handedness and the spectrum is chiral.

The understanding of these five superstring theories was developed in the ensuing years. In each case it became clear, and was largely proved, that there are consistent perturbation expansions of on-shell scattering amplitudes. In four of the five cases (heterotic and type II) the fundamental strings are oriented and unbreakable. As a result, these theories have particularly simple perturbation expansions. Specifically, there is a unique Feynman diagram at each order of the loop expansion. The Feynman diagrams depict string world sheets, and therefore they are two-dimensional surfaces. For these four theories the unique L -loop diagram is a closed orientable genus- L Riemann surface, which can be visualized as a sphere with L handles. External (incoming or outgoing) particles are represented by N points (or “punctures”) on the Riemann surface. A given diagram represents a well-defined integral of dimension $6L + 2N - 6$. This integral has no ultraviolet divergences, even though the spectrum contains states of arbitrarily high spin (including a massless graviton). From the viewpoint of point-particle contributions, string and supersymmetry properties are responsible for incredible cancellations. Type I superstrings are unoriented and breakable. As a result, the perturbation expansion is more complicated for this theory, and the various world-sheet diagrams at a given order (determined by the Euler number) have to be combined properly to cancel divergences and anomalies [6].

An important discovery that was made between the two superstring revolutions is called *T duality* [7]. This is a property of string theories that can be understood within the context of perturbation theory. (The discoveries associated with the *second superstring revolution* are mostly nonperturbative.) T duality shows that spacetime geometry, as probed by strings, has some surprising properties (sometimes referred to as *quantum geometry*). The basic idea can be illustrated by the simplest example. This entails considering one spatial dimension to form a circle (denoted S^1). Then the ten-dimensional geometry is $R^9 \times S^1$. T duality identifies this string compactification with one of a second string theory also on $R^9 \times S^1$. However, if the radii of the circles in the two cases are denoted R_1 and R_2 , then

$$R_1 R_2 = \alpha'. \tag{1}$$

Here $\alpha' = \ell_s^2$ is the universal Regge slope parameter, and ℓ_s is the fundamental string length

scale (for both string theories). The tension of a fundamental string is given by

$$T = 2\pi m_s^2 = \frac{1}{2\pi\alpha'}, \quad (2)$$

where we have introduced a fundamental string mass scale

$$m_s = (2\pi\ell_s)^{-1}. \quad (3)$$

Note that T duality implies that shrinking the circle to zero in one theory corresponds to decompactification of the dual theory. Compactification on a circle of radius R implies that momenta in that direction are quantized, $p = n/R$. (These are called *Kaluza–Klein excitations*.) These momenta appear as masses for states that are massless from the higher-dimensional viewpoint. String theories also have a second class of excitations, called *winding modes*. Namely, a string wound m times around the circle has energy $E = 2\pi R \cdot m \cdot T = mR/\alpha'$. Equation (1) shows that the winding modes and Kaluza–Klein excitations are interchanged under T duality.

What does T duality imply for our five superstring theories? The IIA and IIB theories are T dual [8]. So compactifying the nonchiral IIA theory on a circle of radius R and letting $R \rightarrow 0$ gives the chiral IIB theory in ten dimensions! This means, in particular, that they should not be regarded as distinct theories. The radius R is actually a *vev* of a scalar field, which arises as an internal component of the 10d metric tensor. Thus the type IIA and type IIB theories in 10d are two limiting points in a continuous moduli space of quantum vacua. The two heterotic theories are also T dual, though there are technical details involving Wilson loops, which we will not explain here. T duality applied to the type I theory gives a dual description, which is sometimes called I'. The names IA and IB have also been introduced by some authors.

For the remainder of this paper, we will restrict attention to theories with maximal supersymmetry (32 conserved supercharges). This is sufficient to describe the basic ideas of M theory. Of course, it suppresses many fascinating and important issues and discoveries. In this way we will keep the presentation from becoming too long or too technical. The main focus will be to ask what happens when we go beyond perturbation theory and allow the coupling strength to become large in the type II theories. The answer in the IIA case, as we will see, is that another spatial dimension appears.

2 M Theory

In the 1970s and 1980s various supersymmetry and supergravity theories were constructed. (See [9], for example.) In particular, supersymmetry representation theory showed that ten is the largest spacetime dimension in which there can be a matter theory (with spins ≤ 1) in which supersymmetry is realized linearly. A realization of this is 10d super Yang–Mills theory, which has 16 supercharges [10]. This is a pretty (*i.e.*, very symmetrical) classical field theory, but at the quantum level it is both nonrenormalizable and anomalous for any nonabelian gauge group. However, as we indicated earlier, both problems can be overcome for suitable gauge groups ($SO(32)$ or $E_8 \times E_8$) when the Yang–Mills theory is embedded in a type I or heterotic string theory.

The largest possible spacetime dimension for a supergravity theory (with spins ≤ 2), on the other hand, is eleven. Eleven-dimensional supergravity, which has 32 conserved supercharges, was constructed 20 years ago [11]. It has three kinds of fields—the graviton field (with 44 polarizations), the gravitino field (with 128 polarizations), and a three-index gauge field $C_{\mu\nu\rho}$ (with 84 polarizations). These massless particles are referred to collectively as the *supergraviton*. 11d supergravity is also a pretty classical field theory, which has attracted a lot of attention over the years. It is not chiral, and therefore not subject to anomaly problems.⁴ It is also nonrenormalizable, and thus it cannot be a fundamental theory. Though it is difficult to demonstrate explicitly that it is not finite as a result of “miraculous” cancellations, we now know that this is not the case. However, we now believe that it is a low-energy effective description of M theory, which is a well-defined quantum theory [13]. This means, in particular, that higher dimension terms in the effective action for the supergravity fields have uniquely determined coefficients within the M theory setting, even though they are formally infinite (and hence undetermined) within the supergravity context.

Intriguing connections between type IIA string theory and 11d supergravity have been known for a long time. If one carries out *dimensional reduction* of 11d supergravity to 10d, one gets type IIA supergravity [14]. Dimensional reduction can be viewed as a compactification on circle in which one drops all the Kaluza–Klein excitations. It is easy to show that this does not break any of the supersymmetries.

⁴Unless the spacetime has boundaries. The anomaly associated to a 10d boundary can be cancelled by introducing E_8 supersymmetric gauge theory on the boundary [12].

The field equations of 11d supergravity admit a solution that describes a supermembrane. In other words, this solution has the property that the energy density is concentrated on a two-dimensional surface. A 3d world-volume description of the dynamics of this supermembrane, quite analogous to the 2d world volume actions of superstrings, has been constructed [15]. The authors suggested that a consistent 11d quantum theory might be defined in terms of this membrane, in analogy to string theories in ten dimensions.⁵ Another striking result was the discovery of double dimensional reduction [16]. This is a dimensional reduction in which one compactifies on a circle, wraps one dimension of the membrane around the circle and drops all Kaluza–Klein excitations for both the spacetime theory and the world-volume theory. The remarkable fact is that this gives the (previously known) type IIA superstring world-volume action [17].

For many years these facts remained unexplained curiosities until they were reconsidered by Townsend [18] and by Witten [13]. The conclusion is that type IIA superstring theory really does have a circular 11th dimension in addition to the previously known ten spacetime dimensions. This fact was not recognized earlier because the appearance of the 11th dimension is a nonperturbative phenomenon, not visible in perturbation theory.

To explain the relation between M theory and type IIA string theory, a good approach is to identify the parameters that characterize each of them and to explain how they are related. Eleven-dimensional supergravity (and hence M theory, too) has no dimensionless parameters. As we have seen, there are no massless scalar fields, whose vevs could give parameters. The only parameter is the 11d Newton constant, which raised to a suitable power ($-1/9$), gives the 11d Planck mass m_p . When M theory is compactified on a circle (so that the spacetime geometry is $R^{10} \times S^1$) another parameter is the radius R of the circle.

Now consider the parameters of type IIA superstring theory. They are the string mass scale m_s , introduced earlier, and the dimensionless string coupling constant g_s . An important fact about all five superstring theories is that the coupling constant is not an arbitrary parameter. Rather, it is a dynamically determined vev of a scalar field, the *dilaton*, which is a supersymmetry partner of the graviton. With the usual conventions, one has $g_s = \langle e^\phi \rangle$.

We can identify compactified M theory with type IIA superstring theory by making the following correspondences:

$$m_s^2 = 2\pi R m_p^3 \tag{4}$$

⁵Most experts now believe that M theory cannot be defined as a supermembrane theory.

$$g_s = 2\pi R m_s. \quad (5)$$

Using these one can derive other equivalent relations, such as

$$g_s = (2\pi R m_p)^{3/2} \quad (6)$$

$$m_s = g_s^{1/3} m_p. \quad (7)$$

The latter implies that the 11d Planck length is shorter than the string length scale at weak coupling by a factor of $(g_s)^{1/3}$.

Conventional string perturbation theory is an expansion in powers of g_s at fixed m_s . Equation (5) shows that this is equivalent to an expansion about $R = 0$. In particular, the strong coupling limit of type IIA superstring theory corresponds to decompactification of the eleventh dimension, so in a sense M theory is type IIA string theory at infinite coupling.⁶ This explains why the eleventh dimension was not discovered in studies of string perturbation theory.

These relations encode some interesting facts. The fact relevant to eq. (4) concerns the interpretation of the fundamental type IIA string. Earlier we discussed the old notion of double dimensional reduction, which allowed one to derive the IIA superstring world-sheet action from the 11d supermembrane (or M2-brane) world-volume action. Now we can make a stronger statement: The fundamental IIA string actually *is* an M2-brane of M theory with one of its dimensions wrapped around the circular spatial dimension. No truncation to zero modes is required. Denoting the string and membrane tensions (energy per unit volume) by T_{F1} and T_{M2} , one deduces that

$$T_{F1} = 2\pi R T_{M2}. \quad (8)$$

However, $T_{F1} = 2\pi m_s^2$ and $T_{M2} = 2\pi m_p^3$. Combining these relations gives eq. (4).

Type II superstring theories contain a variety of p -brane solutions that preserve half of the 32 supersymmetries. These are solutions in which the energy is concentrated on a p -dimensional spatial hypersurface. (The world volume has $p+1$ dimensions.) The corresponding solutions of supergravity theories were constructed by Horowitz and Strominger [19]. A large class of these p -brane excitations are called *D-branes* (or *Dp-branes* when we want to specify the dimension), whose tensions are given by [20]

$$T_{Dp} = 2\pi m_s^{p+1} / g_s. \quad (9)$$

⁶The $E_8 \times E_8$ heterotic string theory is also eleven-dimensional at strong coupling [12].

This dependence on the coupling constant is one of the characteristic features of a D-brane. It is to be contrasted with the more familiar g^{-2} dependence of soliton masses (e.g., the 't Hooft–Polyakov monopole). Another characteristic feature of D-branes is that they carry a charge that couples to a gauge field in the RR sector of the theory. (Such fields can be described as bispinors.) The particular RR gauge fields that occur imply that even values of p occur in the IIA theory and odd values in the IIB theory.

In particular, the D2-brane of the type IIA theory corresponds to our friend the supermembrane of M theory, but now in a background geometry in which one of the transverse dimensions is a circle. The tensions check, because (using eqs. (4) and (5))

$$T_{D2} = 2\pi m_s^3/g_s = 2\pi m_p^3 = T_{M2}. \quad (10)$$

The mass of the first Kaluza–Klein excitation of the 11d supergraviton is $1/R$. Using eq. (5), we see that this can be identified with the D0-brane. More identifications of this type arise when we consider the magnetic dual of the M theory supermembrane. This turns out to be a five-brane, called the M5-brane.⁷ Its tension is $T_{M5} = 2\pi m_p^6$. Wrapping one of its dimensions around the circle gives the D4-brane, with tension

$$T_{D4} = 2\pi R T_{M5} = 2\pi m_s^5/g_s. \quad (11)$$

If, on the other hand, the M5-brane is not wrapped around the circle, one obtains the NS5-brane of the IIA theory with tension

$$T_{NS5} = T_{M5} = 2\pi m_s^6/g_s^2. \quad (12)$$

This 5-brane, which is the magnetic dual of the fundamental IIA string, exhibits the conventional g^{-2} solitonic dependence.

To summarize, type IIA superstring theory is M theory compactified on a circle of radius $R = g_s \ell_s$. M theory is believed to be a well-defined quantum theory in 11d, which is approximated at low energy by 11d supergravity. Its excitations are the massless supergraviton, the M2-brane, and the M5-brane. These account both for the (perturbative) fundamental string of the IIA theory and for many of its nonperturbative excitations. The identities that we have presented here are exact, because they are protected by supersymmetry.

⁷In general, the magnetic dual of a p -brane in d dimensions is a $(d - p - 4)$ -brane.

3 Type IIB Superstring Theory

In the previous section we discussed type IIA superstring theory and its relationship to eleven-dimensional M theory. In this section we consider type IIB superstring theory, which is the other maximally supersymmetric string theory with 32 conserved supercharges. It is also 10-dimensional, but unlike the IIA theory its two supercharges have the same handedness. Since the spectrum contains massless chiral fields, one should check whether there are anomalies that break the gauge invariances—general coordinate invariance, local Lorentz invariance, and local supersymmetry. In fact, the UV finiteness of the string theory Feynman diagrams (and associated *modular invariance*) ensures that all anomalies must cancel. This was verified also from a field theory viewpoint [21].

The low-energy effective theory that approximates type IIB superstring theory is type IIB supergravity [5, 22], just as 11d supergravity approximates M theory. In each case the supergravity theory is only well-defined as a classical field theory, but still it can teach us a lot. For example, it can be used to construct p -brane solutions and compute their tensions. Even though such solutions themselves are only approximate, supersymmetry considerations ensure that their tensions, which are related to the kinds of charges they carry, are exact.

Another significant fact about type IIB supergravity is that it possesses a global $SL(2, R)$ symmetry. It is instructive to consider the bosonic spectrum and its $SL(2, R)$ transformation properties. There are two scalar fields—the dilation ϕ and an *axion* χ , which are conveniently combined in a complex field

$$\rho = \chi + ie^{-\phi}. \quad (13)$$

The $SL(2, R)$ symmetry transforms this field nonlinearly:

$$\rho \rightarrow \frac{a\rho + b}{c\rho + d}, \quad (14)$$

where a, b, c, d are real numbers satisfying $ad - bc = 1$. However, in the quantum string theory this symmetry is broken to the discrete subgroup $SL(2, Z)$ [23], which means that a, b, c, d are restricted to be integers. Defining the vev of the ρ field to be

$$\langle \rho \rangle = \frac{\theta}{2\pi} + \frac{i}{g_s}, \quad (15)$$

the $SL(2, Z)$ symmetry transformation $\rho \rightarrow \rho + 1$ implies that θ is an angular coordinate. More significantly, in the special case $\theta = 0$, the symmetry transformation $\rho \rightarrow -1/\rho$ takes $g_s \rightarrow 1/g_s$. This symmetry, called *S duality*, implies that the theory with coupling constant

g_s is equivalent to coupling constant $1/g_s$, so that the weak coupling expansion and the strong coupling expansion are identical!

The bosonic spectrum also contains a pair of two-form potentials $B_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}$ and $B_{\mu\nu}^{(2)}$, which transform as a doublet under $SL(2, R)$ or $SL(2, Z)$. In particular, the S duality transformation $\rho \rightarrow -1/\rho$ interchanges them. The remaining bosonic fields are the graviton and a four-form potential $C_{\mu\nu\rho\lambda}$, with a self-dual field strength. They are invariant under $SL(2)$.

In the introductory section we indicated that the type IIA and type IIB superstring theories are T dual, meaning that if they are compactified on circles of radii R_A and R_B one obtains equivalent theories for the identification $R_A R_B = \ell_s^2$. Moreover, in sect. 2 we saw that the type IIA theory is actually M theory compactified on a circle. The latter fact encodes nonperturbative information. It turns out to be very useful to combine these two facts and to consider the duality between M theory compactified on a torus ($R^9 \times T^2$) and type IIB superstring theory compactified on a circle ($R^9 \times S^1$).

Recall that a torus can be described as the complex plane modded out by the equivalence relations $z \sim z + w_1$ and $z \sim z + w_2$. Up to conformal equivalence, the periods can be taken to be 1 and τ , with $\text{Im } \tau > 0$. However, in this characterization τ and $\tau' = (a\tau + b)/(c\tau + d)$, where a, b, c, d are integers satisfying $ad - bc = 1$, describe equivalent tori. Thus a torus is characterized by a modular parameter τ and an $SL(2, Z)$ modular group. The natural, and correct, conjecture at this point is that one should identify the modular parameter τ of the M theory torus with the parameter ρ that characterizes the type IIB vacuum [24, 25]! Then the duality gives a geometrical explanation of the nonperturbative S duality symmetry of the IIB theory: the transformation $\rho \rightarrow -1/\rho$, which sends $g_s \rightarrow 1/g_s$ in the IIB theory, corresponds to interchanging the two cycles of the torus in the M theory description. To complete the story, we should relate the area of the M theory torus (A_M) to the radius of the IIB theory circle (R_B). This is a simple consequence of formulas given above

$$m_p^3 A_M = (2\pi R_B)^{-1}. \quad (16)$$

Thus the limit $R_B \rightarrow 0$, at fixed ρ , corresponds to decompactification of the M theory torus, while preserving its shape. Conversely, the limit $A_M \rightarrow 0$ corresponds to decompactification of the IIB theory circle.

The duality can be explored further by matching the various p -branes in 9 dimensions that can be obtained from either the M theory or the IIB theory viewpoints [26]. When this is done, one finds that everything matches nicely and that one deduces various relations

among tensions, such as

$$T_{M5} = \frac{1}{2\pi}(T_{M2})^2. \quad (17)$$

This relation was used earlier when we asserted that $T_{M2} = 2\pi m_p^3$ and $T_{M5} = 2\pi m_p^6$.

Even more interesting is the fact that the IIB theory contains an infinite family of strings labelled by a pair of relatively prime integers (p, q) [24]. These integers correspond to string charges that are sources of the gauge fields $B_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}$ and $B_{\mu\nu}^{(2)}$. The $(1, 0)$ string can be identified as the fundamental IIB string, while the $(0, 1)$ string is the D-string. From this viewpoint, a (p, q) string can be regarded as a bound state of p fundamental strings and q D-strings [27]. These strings have a very simple interpretation in the dual M theory description. They correspond to an M2-brane with one of its cycles wrapped around a (p, q) cycle of the torus. The minimal length of such a cycle is proportional to $|p + q\tau|$, and thus (using $\tau = \rho$) one finds that the tension of a (p, q) string is given by

$$T_{p,q} = 2\pi|p + q\rho|m_s^2. \quad (18)$$

The normalization has been chosen to give $T_{1,0} = 2\pi m_s^2$. Then (for $\theta = 0$) $T_{0,1} = 2\pi m_s^2/g_s$, as expected. Note that decay is kinematically forbidden by charge conservation when p and q are relatively prime. When they have a common division n , the tension is the same as that of an n -string system. Whether or not there are threshold bound states is a nontrivial dynamical question, which has different answers in different settings. In this case there are no such bound states, which is why p and q should be relatively prime.

Imagine that you lived in the 9-dimensional world that is described equivalently as M theory compactified on a torus or as the type IIB superstring theory compactified on a circle. Suppose, moreover, you had very high energy accelerators with which you were going to determine the “true” dimension of spacetime. Would you conclude that 10 or 11 is the correct answer? If either A_M or R_B was very large in Planck units there would be a natural choice, of course. But how could you decide otherwise? The answer is that either viewpoint is equally valid. What determines which choice you make is which of the massless fields you regard as “internal” components of the metric tensor and which ones you regards as matter fields. Fields that are metric components in one description correspond to matter fields in the dual one.

4 U Dualities

Maximal supergravity theories (ones with 32 conserved supercharges) typically have a noncompact global symmetry group G . For example, in the case of type IIB supergravity in ten dimensions the group is $SL(2, R)$. When one does dimensional reduction one finds larger groups in lower dimensions. For example, $\mathcal{N} = 8$ supergravity in four dimensions has a noncompact E_7 symmetry [28]. More generally, for $D = 11 - d$, $3 \leq d \leq 8$, one finds a maximally noncompact form of E_d , denoted $E_{d,d}$. These are statements about classical field theory. The corresponding statement about superstring theory/M theory is that if we toroidally compactify M theory on $R^D \times T^d$ or type IIB superstring theory on $R^D \times T^{d-1}$, the resulting moduli space of theories is invariant under an infinite discrete *U duality* group. The group, denoted $E_d(Z)$, is a maximal discrete subgroup of the noncompact $E_{d,d}$ symmetry group of the corresponding supergravity theory [23]. An example that we will focus on below is

$$E_3(Z) = SL(3, Z) \times SL(2, Z). \quad (19)$$

The U duality groups are generated by the Weyl subgroup of $E_{d,d}$ plus discrete shifts of axion-like fields. The subgroup $SL(d, Z) \subset E_d(Z)$ can be understood as the geometric duality (modular group) of T^d in the M theory picture. This generalizes the $SL(2, Z)$ discussed in the preceding section. The subgroup $SO(d-1, d-1; Z) \subset E_d(Z)$ is the T duality group of type IIB superstring theory compactified on T^{d-1} . These two subgroups intertwine nontrivially to generate the entire $E_d(Z)$ U duality group.

Suppose we wish to focus on M theory and disregard type IIB superstring theory. Then we have a geometric understanding of the $SL(d, Z)$ subgroup of $E_d(Z)$ from considering M theory on $R^{11-d} \times T^d$. But what does the rest of $E_d(Z)$ imply? To address this question it will suffice to consider the first nontrivial case to which it applies, which is $d = 3$. In this case the U duality group is $SL(3, Z) \times SL(2, Z)$. The first factor is geometric from the M theory viewpoint and nongeometric from the IIB viewpoint, whereas the second factor is geometric from the IIB viewpoint and nongeometric from the M theory viewpoint. So the question boils down to understanding the implication of the $SL(2, Z)$ duality in the M theory construction. Specifically, we want to understand the nontrivial $\tau \rightarrow -1/\tau$ transformation.

To keep the story as simple as possible, we will take the T^3 to be rectilinear with radii R_1, R_2, R_3 (i.e., $g_{ij} \sim R_i^2 \delta_{ij}$) and assume that $C_{123} = 0$. Let us suppose that R_3 corresponds to the “eleventh” dimension that takes us to the IIA theory. Then we have IIA theory on

a torus with radii R_1 and R_2 . The nongeometric duality of M theory is T duality of IIA theory. T duality gives a mapping to an equivalent point in the moduli space for which

$$R_i \rightarrow R'_i = \frac{\ell_s^2}{R_i} = \frac{\ell_p^3}{R_3 R_i} \quad i = 1, 2, \quad (20)$$

with ℓ_s unchanged. Note that we have used eq. (4), reexpressed as $\ell_p^3 = R_3 \ell_s^2$. Under a T duality the string coupling constant also transforms. The rule is that the coupling of the effective theory (8d in this case) is invariant:

$$\frac{1}{g_8^2} = 4\pi^2 \frac{R_1 R_2}{g_s^2} = 4\pi^2 \frac{R'_1 R'_2}{(g'_s)^2}. \quad (21)$$

Thus

$$g'_s = \frac{g_s \ell_s^2}{R_1 R_2}. \quad (22)$$

What does this imply for the radius of the eleventh dimension R_3 ? Using eq. (5),

$$R_3 = g_s \ell_s \rightarrow R'_3 = g'_s \ell_s. \quad (23)$$

Thus

$$R'_3 = \frac{g_s \ell_s^3}{R_1 R_2} = \frac{\ell_p^3}{R_1 R_2}. \quad (24)$$

However, the 11d Planck length also transforms, because

$$\ell_p^3 = g_s \ell_s^3 \rightarrow (\ell'_p)^3 = g'_s \ell_s^3 \quad (25)$$

implies that

$$(\ell'_p)^3 = \frac{g_s \ell_s^5}{R_1 R_2} = \frac{\ell_p^6}{R_1 R_2 R_3}. \quad (26)$$

The perturbative IIA description is only applicable for $R_3 \ll R_1, R_2$. However, even though T duality was originally discovered in perturbation theory, it is supposed to be an exact nonperturbative property. Therefore this duality mapping should be valid as an exact symmetry of M theory without any restriction on the radii. Another duality is an interchange of circles, such as $R_3 \leftrightarrow R_1$. This corresponds to the nonperturbative S duality of the IIB theory, as we discussed earlier. Combining these dualities we obtain the desired nongeometric duality of M theory on T^3 [29]. It is given by

$$R_1 \rightarrow \frac{\ell_p^3}{R_2 R_3}, \quad (27)$$

and cyclic permutations, accompanied by

$$\ell_p^3 \rightarrow \frac{\ell_p^6}{R_1 R_2 R_3}. \quad (28)$$

Equations (27) and (28) have a nice interpretation. Equation (27) implies that

$$\frac{1}{R_1} \rightarrow (2\pi R_2)(2\pi R_3)T_{M2}. \quad (29)$$

Thus it interchanges Kaluza–Klein excitations with wrapped supermembrane excitations. It follows that these six 0-branes belong to the $(\mathbf{3}, \mathbf{2})$ representation of the U-duality group. Equation (28) implies that

$$T_{M2} \rightarrow (2\pi R_1)(2\pi R_2)(2\pi R_3)T_{M5}. \quad (30)$$

Therefore it interchanges an unwrapped M2-brane with an M5-brane wrapped on the T^3 . Thus these two 2-branes belong to the $(\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{2})$ representation of the U-duality group. This basic nongeometric duality of M theory, combined with the geometric ones, generates the entire U duality group in every dimension. It is a property of quantum M theory that goes beyond what can be understood from the effective 11d supergravity, which is geometrical.

This analysis has been extended to allow $C_{123} \neq 0$ [30]. In this case there are indications that the torus should be considered to be *noncommutative* [31].

5 The D3-Brane and $\mathcal{N} = 4$ Gauge Theory

D-branes have a number of special properties, which make them especially interesting. By definition, they are branes on which strings can end—D stands for *Dirichlet* boundary conditions. The end of a string carries a charge, and the D-brane world-volume theory contains a $U(1)$ gauge field that carries the associated flux. When n Dp -branes are coincident, or parallel and nearly coincident, the associated $(p + 1)$ -dimensional world-volume theory is a $U(n)$ gauge theory. The n^2 gauge bosons A_μ^{ij} and their supersymmetry partners arise as the ground states of oriented strings running from the i th Dp -brane to the j th Dp -brane. The diagonal elements, belonging to the Cartan subalgebra, are massless. The field A_μ^{ij} with $i \neq j$ has a mass proportional to the separation of the i th and j th branes. This separation is described by the vev of a corresponding scalar field in the world-volume theory.

The $U(n)$ gauge theory associated with a stack of n Dp -branes has maximal supersymmetry (16 supercharges). The low-energy effective theory, when the brane separations are

small compared to the string scale, is supersymmetric Yang–Mills theory. These theories can be constructed by dimensional reduction of 10d supersymmetric $U(n)$ gauge theory to $p + 1$ dimensions. In fact, that is how they originally were constructed [10]. For $p \leq 3$, the low-energy effective theory is renormalizable and defines a consistent quantum theory. For $p = 4, 5$ there is good evidence for the existence nongravitational quantum theories that reduce to the gauge theory in the infrared. For $p \geq 6$, it appears that there is no decoupled nongravitational quantum theory [32].

A case of particular interest, which we shall now focus on, is $p = 3$. A stack of n D3-branes in type IIB superstring theory has a decoupled $\mathcal{N} = 4$, $d = 4$ $U(n)$ gauge theory associated to it. This gauge theory has a number of special features. For one thing, due to boson–fermion cancellations, there are no UV divergences at any order of perturbation theory. The beta function $\beta(g)$ is identically zero, which implies that the theory is scale invariant (aside from scales introduced by vevs of the scalar fields). In fact, $\mathcal{N} = 4$, $d = 4$ gauge theories are conformally invariant. The conformal invariance combines with the supersymmetry to give a superconformal symmetry, which contains 32 fermionic generators. Half are the ordinary linearly realized supersymmetries, and half are nonlinearly realized ones associated to the conformal symmetry. The name of the superconformal group in this case is $SU(4|4)$. Another important property of $\mathcal{N} = 4$, $d = 4$ gauge theories is electric-magnetic duality [33]. This extends to an $SL(2, Z)$ group of dualities. To understand these it is necessary to include a vacuum angle θ_{YM} and define a complex coupling

$$\tau = \frac{\theta_{YM}}{2\pi} + i \frac{4\pi}{g_{YM}^2}. \quad (31)$$

Under $SL(2, Z)$ transformations this coupling transforms in the usual nonlinear fashion ($\tau \rightarrow \frac{a\tau+b}{c\tau+d}$) and the electric and magnetic fields transform as a doublet. Note that the conformal invariance ensures that τ is a meaningful scale-independent constant.

Now consider the $\mathcal{N} = 4$ $U(n)$ gauge theory associated to a stack of n D3-branes in type IIB superstring theory. There is an obvious identification, that turns out to be correct. Namely, the $SL(2, Z)$ duality of the gauge theory is induced from that of the ambient type IIB superstring theory. In particular, the τ parameter of the gauge theory is the value of the complex scalar field ρ of the string theory. This makes sense because ρ is constant in the field configuration associated to a stack of D3-branes. The D3-branes themselves are invariant under $SL(2, Z)$ transformations. Only the parameter $\tau = \rho$ changes, but it is transformed to an equivalent value. All other fields, such as $B_{\mu\nu}^{(i)}$, which are not invariant, vanish in this

case.

As we have said, a fundamental $(1, 0)$ string can end on a D3-brane. But by applying a suitable $SL(2, Z)$ transformation, this configuration is transformed to one in which a (p, q) string—with p and q relatively prime—ends on the D3-brane. The charge on the end of this string describes a dyon with electric charge p and magnetic q , with respect to the appropriate gauge field. More generally, for a stack of n D3-branes, any pair can be connected by a (p, q) string. The mass is proportional to the length of the string times its tension, which we saw is proportional to $|p + q\rho|$. In this way one sees that the electrically charged particles, described by fundamental fields, belong to infinite $SL(2, Z)$ multiplets. The other states are nonperturbative excitations of the gauge theory. The field configurations that describe them preserve half of the supersymmetry. As a result their masses saturate a BPS bound and are given exactly by the considerations described above.

An interesting question, whose answer was unknown until recently, is whether $\mathcal{N} = 4$ gauge theories in four dimensions also admit nonperturbative excitations that preserve $1/4$ of the supersymmetry. To explain the answer, it is necessary to first make a digression to consider three-string junctions.

As we have seen, type IIB superstring theory contains an infinite multiplet of strings labelled by a pair of relatively prime integers (p, q) . Three strings, with charges (p_i, q_i) , $i = 1, 2, 3$, can meet at a point provided that charge is conserved [34, 35]. This means that

$$\sum p_i = \sum q_i = 0, \tag{32}$$

if the three strings are all oriented inwards. (This is like momentum conservation in an ordinary Feynman diagram.) Such a configuration is stable, and preserves $1/4$ of the ambient supersymmetry provided that the tensions balance. It is easy to see how this can be achieved. If one regards the plane of the junction as a complex plane and orients the direction of a (p, q) string by the phase of $p + q\tau$, then eqs. (18) and (32) ensure a force balance.

The three-string junction has an interesting dual M theory interpretation. If one of the directions perpendicular to the plane of the junction is taken to be a circle, then we have a string junction in nine dimensions. This must have a dual interpretation in terms of M theory compactified on a torus. We have already seen that a (p, q) string corresponds to an M2-brane with one of its cycles wrapped on a (p, q) cycle of the torus. So now we join three such cylindrical membranes together. Altogether we have a single smooth M2-brane forming a Y , like a junction of pipes. The three arms are wrapped on (p_i, q_i) cycles of the

torus. This is only possible topologically when eq. (32) is satisfied.

We can now describe a pretty construction of 1/4 BPS states in $\mathcal{N} = 4$ gauge theory, due to Bergman [36]. Such a state is described by a 3-string junction, with the three prongs terminating on three different D3-branes. This is only possible for $n \geq 3$, which is a necessary condition for 1/4 BPS states. The mass of such a state is given by summing the lengths of each string segment weighted by its tension. This gives a result in agreement with the BPS formula. Clearly this is just the beginning of a long story, since the simple picture we have described can be generalized to arbitrarily complicated string webs. So long as the web is in a plane, charges are conserved at the junctions, and all string segments are oriented in the way we have described, the configuration will be 1/4 BPS. Remarkably, arbitrarily high spins can occur. There are simple rules for determining them [37]. When the web is nonplanar, supersymmetry is completely broken, and reliable mass calculations become difficult. However, one should still be able to achieve a reliable qualitative understanding of such excitations. In general, there are regions of moduli space in which such nonsupersymmetric states are stable.

6 Conclusion

In this brief review we have described some of the interesting advances in understanding superstring theory that have taken place in the past few years. Many others, such as studies of black hole entropy, have not even been mentioned. The emphasis has been on the non-perturbative appearance of an eleventh dimension in type IIA superstring theory, as well as its implications when combined with superstring T dualities. In particular, we argued that there should be a consistent quantum vacuum, whose low-energy effective description is given by 11d supergravity. The relevant quantum theory – called M theory – has important features, such as the nongeometric U duality described in section 4, that go beyond what can be understood within ordinary (nonrenormalizable) 11d supergravity.

What we have described makes a convincing self-consistent picture, but it does not constitute a complete formulation of M theory. In the past two years there have been some major advances in that direction, which we will briefly mention here. The first, which goes by the name of *Matrix Theory* [38], bases a formulation of M theory in flat 11d spacetime in terms of the supersymmetric quantum mechanics of N D0-branes in the large N limit. This proposal has been generalized to include an interpretation for finite N . In that case Susskind

has proposed an identification with *discrete light-cone quantization* of M theory, in which there are N units of momentum along a null compact direction [39]. Both versions of Matrix Theory have passed all tests that have been carried out, some of which are very nontrivial. At times there appeared to be discrepancies, but these were all the result of subtle errors that have now been tracked down. The construction has a nice generalization to describe compactification of M theory on a torus T^n [40]. However, it does not seem to be useful for $n > 5$ [32], and other compactification manifolds are (at best) awkward to handle. Another shortcoming of this approach is that it treats the eleventh dimension differently from the other ones.

Another proposal relating superstring and M theory backgrounds to large N limits of certain field theories has been put forward recently by Maldacena [41] and made more precise by others [42]. In this approach, there is a conjectured duality (*i.e.*, equivalence) between a conformally invariant field theory (CFT) in n dimensions and type IIB superstring theory or M theory on an Anti-de-Sitter space (AdS) in $n + 1$ dimensions. The remaining $9 - n$ or $10 - n$ dimensions form a compact space, the simplest cases being spheres. The three examples with unbroken supersymmetry are $AdS_5 \times S^5$, $AdS_4 \times S^7$, and $AdS_7 \times S^4$. This approach is sometimes referred to as *AdS/CFT duality*. This is an extremely active and very promising subject. It has already taught us a great deal about the large N behavior of various gauge theories. As usual, the easiest theories to study are ones with a lot of supersymmetry, but it appears that in this approach supersymmetry breaking is more accessible than in previous ones. For example, it might someday be possible to construct the QCD string in terms of a dual AdS gravity theory, and use it to carry out numerical calculations of the hadron spectrum. Indeed, there have already been some preliminary steps in this direction [43].

Despite all of the successes that have been achieved in advancing our understanding of superstring theory and M theory, there clearly is still a long way to go. In particular, despite much effort and several imaginative proposals, we still do not have a convincing mechanism for ensuring the vanishing (or extreme smallness) of the cosmological constant for nonsupersymmetric vacua. Superstring theory is a field with very ambitious goals. The remarkable fact is that they still seem to be realistic. However, it may take a few more revolutions before they are attained.

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