Superstring Perturbation Theory Revisited

Edward Witten, IAS

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The role of modular invariance in string perturbation theory was discovered initially by J. Shapiro about forty years ago, after C. Lovelace had shown the special role of 26 dimensions. Although it took time for this to be fully appreciated, modular invariance eliminates the ultraviolet region from string and superstring perturbation theory, and consequently there is no issue of ultraviolet divergences. I will have nothing new to say about this today.

However, the literature from the 1980's has left some small unclarity about the infrared behavior of superstring perturbation theory, and this is what I want to revisit.

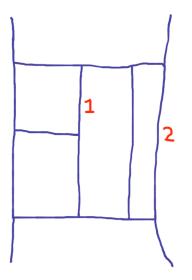
However, the literature from the 1980's has left some small unclarity about the infrared behavior of superstring perturbation theory, and this is what I want to revisit. First of all, the general statement one wants to establish is simply that the infrared behavior of superstring perturbation theory is the same as that of a field theory with the same massless particles and low energy interactions.

However, the literature from the 1980's has left some small unclarity about the infrared behavior of superstring perturbation theory, and this is what I want to revisit. First of all, the general statement one wants to establish is simply that the infrared behavior of superstring perturbation theory is the same as that of a field theory with the same massless particles and low energy interactions. However, there are some details of this that could be clarified.

I want to give a couple of examples of what I mean in saying that the infrared behavior of string theory is the same as that of a corresponding field theory. Let us consider a Feynman diagram. A very simple question of infrared behavior is to consider what happens when a single propagator goes on shell.

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Let us assume our particles are massless so the propagator is $1/k^2$. In *D* noncompact dimensions, the infrared behavior when the momentum in a single generic propagator goes to zero is

$$\int \mathrm{d}^D k \, \frac{1}{k^2}$$

and this converges if D > 2.

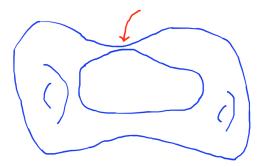
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and this converges if D > 2. (For an exceptional internal line, such as the one labeled 2 in the diagram, the infrared behavior when a single momentum goes to zero is worse, because this forces other propagators to go on shell. In the case shown in the sketch, the condition to avoid a divergence is actually D > 4.)

All this has a close analog in string theory. First of all, a nonseparating line that goes to zero momentum is analogous to a nonseparating degeneration of a Riemann surface.



A degeneration of a Riemann surface – separating or not – can be described by an equation

$$xy = q$$
,

where x is a local parameter on one side, y is one on the other, and q measures the narrowness of the neck – or, by a conformal transformation, the length of the tube separating the two sides. The contribution of a massless string state propagating through the neck is

$$\int d^D k \int |d^2 q| q^{L_0 - 1} \overline{q}^{\overline{L}_0 - 1} = \int d^D k \int |d^2 q| |q \overline{q}|^{k^2/2 - 1}$$

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where I use $L_0 = \overline{L}_0 = k^2/2$. Instead of doing the integral, let us introduce the analog of the Schwinger parameter by $q = \exp(-(t + is))$ where s is an angle and t plays the same role as the Schwinger parameter of field theory. The integral over s just gives a factor of 2π , giving

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(Note that I indicated the upper limit of the t integral but not the lower limit, which is affected by modular invariance.)

This agrees perfectly with field theory even before doing the k or t integral, bearing in mind that the Schwinger representation of the Feynman propagator is

$$\frac{1}{k^2} = \int_0^\infty \mathrm{d}t \exp(-tk^2).$$

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Just as in field theory, we could also consider a situation in which one momentum going to zero puts other lines on-shell. This gives an infrared divergence if $D \le 4$, whether in field theory or string theory.

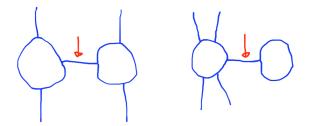
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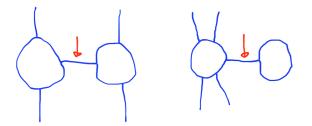
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The difference is that in the second case the external lines are all on one side.

We don't integrate over the momentum that passes through the separating line; it is determined by momentum conservation.

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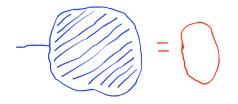
We don't integrate over the momentum that passes through the separating line; it is determined by momentum conservation. On the left, this momentum is generically nonzero so for typical external momenta, we don't sit on the $1/k^2$ singularity; when we vary the external momenta, the $1/k^2$ gives a pole in the *S*-matrix (at least in this approximation). This is physically sensible and we do not try to get rid of it.

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So a field theory with a massless scalar has a sensible perturbation expansion only if the "tadpole" or one point function of the scalar vanishes:

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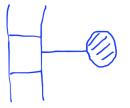


We have to impose this condition for all massless scalars. However, it is non-trivial only for the ones that are invariant under all (local or global) symmetries.

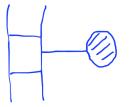
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and evaluate the S-matrix by summing the others.

All this is relevant to perturbative string theory, since whenever we do have a perturbative string theory, there is always at least one massless neutral scalar field that might have a tadpole, namely the dilaton. So perturbative string theory will only make sense if the dilaton tadpole vanishes (along with other tadpoles, if there are more massless scalars).

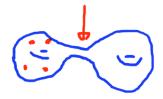
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As one should anticipate from what I have said, it is the one on the right that causes trouble.

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2) In field theory, the tadpoles are the contributions of certain diagrams and if they vanish, one just throws those diagrams away. String theory is more subtle because it is more unified; the tadpole is part of a diagram that also has nonzero contributions. Vanishing tadpoles makes the diagrams of string perturbation theory infrared convergent but only conditionally so and so there is still some work to do to define them properly. (This is a point where I believe I've improved what was said in the 80's, but I won't explain it today.)

Since we can only hope for the tadpoles to vanish in the supersymmetric case, we have to do supersymmetric string theory.

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All I will say is that a super Riemann surface (with N = 1 SUSY) is a supermanifold Σ of dimension (1|1), with some special structure – a superconformal structure.

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Friedan, Martinec, and Shenker in 1985 explained what kind of vertex operators are inserted at such superconformal singularities – they are often called spin fields – and how to compute their operator product expansions.

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It turns out that this problem requires greater sophistication in understanding supermanifolds and how to integrate over them than is needed in any other problem that I know of in supersymmetry and supergravity.

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It turns out that this problem requires greater sophistication in understanding supermanifolds and how to integrate over them than is needed in any other problem that I know of in supersymmetry and supergravity. That is probably the main reason for any unclarity that surrounds it.

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Instead of talking more about what doesn't work in general, let us discuss what does work.

Instead of talking more about what doesn't work in general, let us discuss what does work. First of all, there is a natural measure on supermoduli space, which I will call $\widetilde{\mathcal{M}}_{g,n}$. This was constructed in the 1980's via conformal field theory (in varied approaches by G. Moore, P. C. Nelson, and J. Polchinski; E. & H. Verlinde; L. Alvarez-Gaumé, C. Gomez, P. C. Nelson, G. Sierra, and C. Vafa; and D'Hoker and Phong) by adapting the analogous formulas for the bosonic string.

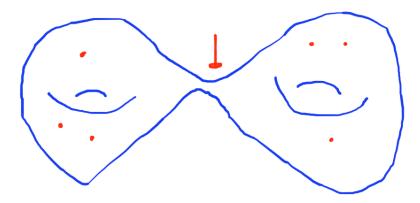
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Another key point is that integration of a bounded measure on a compact supermanifold is a well-defined operation just as on an ordinary manifold.

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Another key point is that integration of a bounded measure on a compact supermanifold is a well-defined operation just as on an ordinary manifold. We will say a little about integration later.

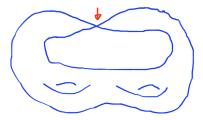
Supermoduli space is not compact – or if we take its Deligne-Mumford compactification, then the function we want to integrate has singularities – precisely because of the infrared effects that we have been talking about.



Although supermoduli space is very subtle, if one asks precisely the questions whose answers one needs, those particular questions tend to have simple answers.

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Although supermoduli space is very subtle, if one asks precisely the questions whose answers one needs, those particular questions tend to have simple answers. For instance, although a sum over spin structures (independent of the integration over supermoduli) does not make sense in general, a very small piece of it makes sense when a node develops



and this leads to the GSO projection on the physical states that propagate through the node.

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For the super case, the gluing of local parameters x, θ to y, ψ is by an almost equally simple formula

$$xy = \varepsilon^2, \ y\theta = \varepsilon\psi, \ x\psi = \varepsilon\theta.$$

Importantly, the gluing depends in both cases on only one bosonic parameter ε or q. In the super case, there are no odd moduli for the gluing.

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What I have just explained is the fundamental reason that there is no integration ambiguity in superstring theory. There is a good parameter at infinity. If one replaces x and y by other local parameters, one transforms ε by $\varepsilon \rightarrow e^{\phi}\varepsilon$ but not by $\varepsilon \rightarrow \varepsilon + \alpha\beta$, which could have led to an integration ambiguity, as was explained in the literature of the 1980's.

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Now let us discuss integration by parts on supermoduli space. We need this to prove the decoupling of pure gauge degrees of freedom and also to prove spacetime supersymmetry and vanishing of tadpoles. This is actually one place where what was done in the 1980's can be improved (but again, see Belopolsky). Traditonally, arguments involving integration by parts have been made by first integrating over odd moduli and then using the bosonic version of Stokes's theorem to integrate by parts on a purely bosonic manifold. However, this introduces many technicalities and complications. There is a perfectly good super-analog of Stokes's theorem and it is best to use this.

You probably all know the basic idea of fermionic integration by parts, which is that for an odd variable α and any function $f(\alpha)$, one has

$$\int \mathrm{d}\alpha \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}\alpha} f = \mathbf{0}.$$

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Indeed the Berezin integral

$$\int \mathrm{d} \alpha \cdot \mathbf{1} = \mathbf{0}, \ \int \mathrm{d} \alpha \cdot \alpha = \mathbf{1}$$

is defined to make this true.

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$$\int_X \mathrm{d}\Lambda = \int_{\partial X} \Lambda.$$

Here $\mathrm{d}\Lambda$ is the analog of a "volume form" and Λ is the analog of a "form of codimension 1."

Now a scattering amplitude $\langle V_1 V_2 \dots V_n \rangle$ is associated with a "volume form" Υ that must be integrated over, roughly speaking, supermoduli space.

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$$\langle \{Q, W\} V_2 \dots V_n \rangle = \int_{\Gamma} \Upsilon = \int_{\partial \Gamma} \Lambda$$

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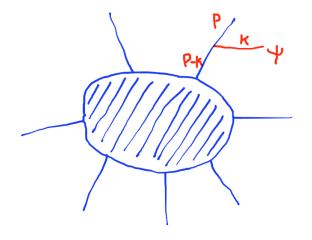
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This argument is much simpler than any argument using the bosonic version of Stokes's theorem. It has an important corollary. If one knows that the massless tadpoles vanish, then spacetime supersymmetry is a special case of the decoupling of pure gauge modes.

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We consider a scattering amplitude involving a soft gravitino. We take its wavefunction to be $\Psi_{I\alpha} = \exp(ik \cdot x)\eta_{I\alpha}$ where I is a vector index and α is a spinor index. A matrix element for emission of a soft gravitino has singular terms where the gravitino is attached to an external leg:



I've drawn this as a field theory picture, but I hope you all understand that there is an analogous string theory picture.

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I've drawn this as a field theory picture, but I hope you all understand that there is an analogous string theory picture. The line that emits the gravitino is just slightly off shell, with momentum P - k. If $P^2 = M^2$ and $k^2 = 0$, then $(P - k)^2 = M^2 - 2P \cdot k$, so the propagator of this line is $1/((P - k)^2 - M^2) = -1/2P \cdot k$ (or something similar if the line represents a particle with spin).

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Now if we set the gravitino polarization vector-spinor $\eta_{I\alpha}$ to be $k_I\zeta_{\alpha}$ (for some spinor ζ_{α}), then the whole amplitude must vanish. This is a special case of the decoupling of states $\{Q, W\}$ for any W.

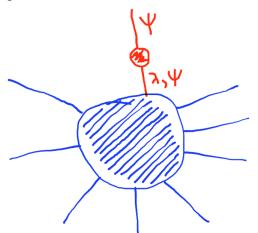
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This type of argument may be familiar from field theory. It works the same way in string theory, except that we have to know that the massless tadpoles vanish (or none of the amplitudes are defined).

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This type of argument may be familiar from field theory. It works the same way in string theory, except that we have to know that the massless tadpoles vanish (or none of the amplitudes are defined). However, in either field theory or string theory, I have left something out so far. Potentially, the supersymmetric Ward identity can contain another term if the coupling of a soft gravitino has a singular contribution like this:



This happens if loops generate a term in the effective action that is of the form $\overline{\Psi}_I \Gamma^I \lambda$, with some previously massless fermion λ , or a term $\overline{\Psi}_I \Gamma^{IJ} \Psi_J$.

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This happens if loops generate a term in the effective action that is of the form $\overline{\Psi}_I \Gamma^I \lambda$, with some previously massless fermion λ , or a term $\overline{\Psi}_I \Gamma^{IJ} \Psi_J$. In the first case, supersymmetry is spontaneously broken, with λ as a Goldstone fermion; in the second case, we land in AdS space with unbroken supersymmetry. (An example of the first type was described by Dine, Ichinose, Seiberg and by Atick, Dixon, Sen in the 1980's. No example of the second type seems to be known in any dimension, and I wonder if there is a general no go theorem.) In many classes of string vacua, it is straightforward to prove that $\overline{\Psi}_I \Gamma^I \lambda$ and $\overline{\Psi}_I \Gamma^{IJ} \Psi_J$ terms are not generated by loops.

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In many classes of string vacua, it is straightforward to prove that $\overline{\Psi}_I \Gamma^I \lambda$ and $\overline{\Psi}_I \Gamma^{IJ} \Psi_J$ terms are not generated by loops. For example in all of the ten-dimensional superstring theories except Type IIA, this follows from considerations of spacetime chirality which make it impossible to write the interactions in question.

In many classes of string vacua, it is straightforward to prove that $\overline{\Psi}_I \Gamma^I \lambda$ and $\overline{\Psi}_I \Gamma^{IJ} \Psi_J$ terms are not generated by loops. For example in all of the ten-dimensional superstring theories except Type IIA, this follows from considerations of spacetime chirality which make it impossible to write the interactions in question. For Type IIA, the result follows if one also uses the fact that perturbation theory has $(-1)^{F_L}$ as a symmetry. (This excludes the Romans mass term.)

So all we need in order to land in a happy place is an extension of this type of reasoning to show that the massless tadpoles vanish.

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So all we need in order to land in a happy place is an extension of this type of reasoning to show that the massless tadpoles vanish. Though this is expected to follow from spacetime supersymmetry, I believe that the type of argument I have given is not quite powerful enough to prove it.

Given the experience from the old literature (see for example E. Martinec (1986), Atick, Moore and Sen (1988)), one expects that what one should do is to make a similar argument but with k set to 0 at the beginning.

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$$0 = \int_{\Gamma} \langle \{Q, S\} V_1 \dots V_n \rangle = \int_{\partial \Gamma} \langle SV_1 \dots V_n \rangle.$$

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This vanishing relation can be written as a sum of contributions from the many components of $\partial\Gamma$. Many of them don't contribute because the momentum flowing through the node is off-shell.

The following contributions do have on-shell momentum flowing through the node and definitely can contribute:

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The following contributions do have on-shell momentum flowing through the node and definitely can contribute:



If these are the only nonzero boundary contributions, then again we get the supersymmetric Ward identity, much as before.

The other contributions that might appear (because they involve on-shell momentum flowing through the node) correspond to supersymmetry breaking (or a cosmological constant) or a massless tadpole. We'll draw them in a moment, in a slightly simpler situation.

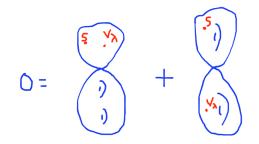
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To finally address the question of whether there is a massless tadpole, let us replace the product $V_1 \cdots V_n$ with a single vertex operator V_{λ} of a massless fermion that is a superpartner of a scalar ϕ whose tadpole we want to understand. The relation

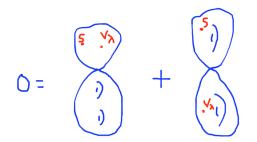
$$0=\int_{\partial \mathsf{\Gamma}} \langle S \mathcal{V}_\lambda
angle$$

is now simple because $\partial \Gamma$ has only two types of components.

The relation is explicitly then



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The first term is the dilaton tadpole, and the second may appear precisely when

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supersymmetry is spontaneously broken (or a cosmological constant is being generated).

When one can show that the gravitino cannot gain a mass in perturbation theory – for instance in \mathbb{R}^{10} – this relation should (when combined with what was discovered in the 80's and a few details that we haven't had time for today) – remove the very slight unclarity that has surrounded superstring perturbation theory.