

A Layman's Guide to M-Theory¹.

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ABSTRACT

The best candidate for a fundamental unified theory of all physical phenomena is no longer ten-dimensional superstring theory but rather eleven-dimensional *M-theory*. In the words of Fields medalist Edward Witten, “M stands for ‘Magical’, ‘Mystery’ or ‘Membrane’, according to taste”. New evidence in favor of this theory is appearing daily on the internet and represents the most exciting development in the subject since 1984 when the superstring revolution first burst on the scene.

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1 Abdus Salam

The death of Abdus Salam was a great loss not only to his family and to the physics community; it was a loss to all mankind. For he was not only one of the finest physicists of the twentieth century, having unified two of the four fundamental forces in Nature, but he also dedicated his life to the betterment of science and education in the Third World and to the cause of world peace. Although he won the Nobel Prize for physics, a Nobel Peace Prize would have been entirely appropriate.

At the behest of Patrick Blackett, Salam moved to Imperial College, London, in 1957 where he founded the Theoretical Physics Group. He remained at Imperial as Professor of Physics for the rest of his career. I was fortunate enough to be his PhD student at Imperial College from 1969 to 1972, and then his postdoc at the ICTP from 1972 to 1973.

Among Salam's earlier achievements was the role played by renormalization in quantum field theory when, in particular, he amazed his Cambridge contemporaries with the resolution of the notoriously thorny problem of overlapping divergences. His brilliance then burst on the scene once more when he proposed the famous hypothesis that *All neutrinos are left-handed*, a hypothesis which inevitably called for a violation of parity in the weak interactions. He was always fond of recalling his visit to Switzerland where he submitted (or should I say "humbly" submitted²) his two-component neutrino idea to the formidable Wolfgang Pauli. Pauli responded with a note urging Salam to "think of something better"! So Salam delayed publication until after Lee and Yang had conferred the mantle of respectability on parity violation. That taught Salam a valuable lesson and he would constantly advise his students never to listen to grand old men³. It also taught him to adopt a policy of publish or perish, and his scientific output was prodigious with over 300 publications.

Of course, the work that won him the 1979 Nobel Prize that he shared with Glashow and Weinberg was for the electroweak unification which combined several of his abiding interests: renormalizability, non-abelian gauge theories and chirality. His earlier work in 1960 with Goldstone and Weinberg on spontaneous symmetry breaking and his work with

²"I am a humble man" was something of a catchphrase for Salam and used whenever anyone tried to make physics explanations more complicated than necessary. For more Salam anecdotes, including an earlier encounter with Pauli, the reader is referred to a forthcoming biographical memoir for the American Philosophical Society by Freeman Dyson.

³I hope this student, at least, has lived up to that advice!

John Ward in the mid 1960s on the weak interactions was no doubt also influential. Looking back on my time as a student in the Theory Group at Imperial from 1969 to 1972, a group that included not only Abdus Salam but also Tom Kibble, one might think that I would have been uniquely poised to take advantage of the new ideas in spontaneously broken gauge theories. Alas, it was not to be since no-one suggested that electroweak unification would be an interesting topic of research. In fact I did not learn about spontaneous symmetry breaking until after I got my PhD! The reason, of course, is that neither Weinberg nor Salam (nor anybody else) fully realized the importance of their model until 't Hooft proved its renormalizability in 1972 and until the discovery of neutral currents at CERN. Indeed, the Nobel Committee was uncharacteristically prescient in awarding the Prize to Glashow, Weinberg and Salam in 1979 because the W and Z bosons were not discovered experimentally at CERN until 1982. Together with Pati, Salam went on to propose that the strong nuclear force might also be included in this unification. Among the predictions of this *Grand Unified Theory* are magnetic monopoles and proton decay: phenomena which are still under intense theoretical and experimental investigation. More recently, it was Salam, together with his lifelong collaborator John Strathdee who first proposed the idea of superspace, a space with both commuting and anticommuting coordinates, which underlies all of present day research on supersymmetry.

However, it is to Abdus Salam that I owe a tremendous debt as the man who first kindled my interest in the Quantum Theory of Gravity: a subject which at the time was pursued only by mad dogs and Englishmen. (My thesis title: *Problems in the Classical and Quantum Theories of Gravitation* was greeted with hoots of derision when I announced it at the Cargese Summer School en route to my first postdoc in Trieste. The work originated with a bet between Abdus Salam and Hermann Bondi about whether you could generate the Schwarzschild solution using Feynman diagrams. You can (and I did) but I never found out if Bondi ever paid up.) It was inevitable that Salam would not rest until the fourth and most enigmatic force of gravity was unified with the other three. Such a unification was always Einstein's dream and it remains the most challenging tasks of modern theoretical physics and one which attracts the most able and active researchers, such as those here today.

I should mention that being a student of someone so bursting with new ideas as Salam was something of a mixed blessing: he would assign a research problem and then disappear

on his travels for weeks at a time⁴. On his return he would ask what you were working on. When you began to explain your meagre progress he would usually say “No, no, no. That’s all old hat. What you should be working on is this”, and he would then allocate a completely new problem!

I think it was Hans Bethe who said that there are two kinds of genius. The first group (to which I would say Steven Weinberg, for example, belongs) produce results of such devastating logic and clarity that they leave you feeling that you could have done that too (if only you were smart enough!). The second kind are the “magicians” whose sources of inspiration are completely baffling. Salam, I believe, belonged to this magic circle and there was always an element of eastern mysticism in his ideas that left you wondering how to fathom his genius.

Of course, these scientific achievements reflect only one side of Salam’s character. He also devoted his life to the goal of international peace and cooperation, especially to the gap between the developed and developing nations. He firmly believed that this disparity will never be remedied until the Third World countries become the arbiters of their own scientific and technological destinies. Thus this means going beyond mere financial aid and the exportation of technology; it means the training of a scientific elite who are capable of discrimination in all matters scientific. He would thus vigorously defend the teaching of esoteric subjects such as theoretical elementary particle physics against critics who complained that the time and effort would be better spent on agriculture. His establishment of the ICTP in Trieste was an important first step in this direction.

It is indeed a tragedy that someone so vigorous and full of life as Abdus Salam should have been struck down with such a debilitating disease. He had such a wonderful *joie de vivre* and his laughter, which most resembled a barking sea-lion, would reverberate throughout the corridors of the Imperial College Theory Group. When the deeds of great men are recalled, one often hears the cliché “He did not suffer fools gladly”, but my memories of Salam at Imperial College were quite the reverse. People from all over the world would arrive and knock on his door to expound their latest theories, some of them quite bizarre. Yet Salam would treat them all with the same courtesy and respect. Perhaps it was because his own ideas always bordered on the outlandish that he was so tolerant of eccentricity in others; he could recognize pearls of wisdom where the rest of us saw only irritating grains of sand. A previous example was provided by the military attache from the Israeli embassy in London

⁴Consequently, it was to Chris Isham that I would turn for practical help with my PhD thesis.

who showed up one day with his ideas on particle physics. Salam was impressed enough to take him under his wing. The man was Yuval Ne'eman and the result was flavor $SU(3)$.

Let me recall just one example of a crazy Salam idea. In that period 1969-72, one of the hottest topics was the Veneziano Model and I distinctly remember Salam remarking on the apparent similarity between the mass and angular momentum relation of a Regge trajectory and that of an extreme black hole. Nowadays, of course, string theorists will juxtapose black holes and Regge slopes without batting an eyelid but to suggest that black holes could behave as elementary particles back in the late 1960's was considered preposterous by minds lesser than Salam's. (A comparison of the gyromagnetic ratios of spinning black holes and elementary string states is the subject of some of my recent research, so in this respect Salam was 25 years ahead of his time!) As an interesting historical footnote let us recall that at the time Salam had to change the gravitational constant to match the hadronic scale, an idea which spawned his *strong gravity*; today the fashion is the reverse and we change the Regge slope to match the Planck scale!

Theoretical physicists are, by and large, an honest bunch: occasions when scientific facts are actually deliberately falsified are almost unheard of. Nevertheless, we are still human and consequently want to present our results in the best possible light when writing them up for publication. I recall a young student approaching Abdus Salam for advice on this ethical dilemma: "Professor Salam, these calculations confirm most of the arguments I have been making so far. Unfortunately, there are also these other calculations which do not quite seem to fit the picture. Should I also draw the reader's attention to these at the risk of spoiling the effect or should I wait? After all, they will probably turn out to be irrelevant." In a response which should be immortalized in *The Oxford Dictionary of Quotations*, Salam replied: "When all else fails, you can always tell the truth".

Amen.

2 Magical Mystery Membranes

Up until 1995, hopes for a final theory [1] that would reconcile gravity and quantum mechanics, and describe all physical phenomena, were pinned on *superstrings*: one-dimensional objects whose vibrational modes represent the elementary particles and which live in a ten-dimensional universe [2]. All that has now changed. In the last two years ten-dimensional su-

perstrings have been subsumed by a deeper, more profound, new theory: eleven-dimensional *M-theory* [3]. The purpose of the present paper is to convey to the layman some of this excitement.

According to the standard model of the strong nuclear, weak nuclear and electromagnetic forces, all matter is made up of certain building block particles called *fermions* which are held together by force-carrying particles called *bosons*. This standard model does not incorporate the gravitational force, however. A vital ingredient in the quest to go beyond this standard model and to find a unified theory embracing all physical phenomena is *supersymmetry*, a symmetry which (a) unites the bosons and fermions, (b) requires the existence of gravity and (c) places an upper limit of *eleven* on the dimension of spacetime. For these reasons, in the early 1980s, many physicists looked to eleven-dimensional *supergravity* in the hope that it might provide that elusive superunified theory [5]. Then in 1984 superunification underwent a major paradigm-shift: eleven-dimensional supergravity was knocked off its pedestal by ten-dimensional superstrings. Unlike eleven-dimensional supergravity, superstrings appeared to provide a quantum consistent theory of gravity which also seemed capable, in principle, of explaining the standard model⁵.

Despite these startling successes, however, nagging doubts persisted about superstrings. First, many of the most important questions in string theory, in particular how to confront it with experiment and how to accommodate quantum black holes, seemed incapable of being answered within the traditional framework called *perturbation theory*, according to which all quantities of interest are approximated by the first few terms in a power series expansion in some small parameter. They seemed to call for some new, *non-perturbative*, physics. Secondly, why did there appear to be *five* different mathematically consistent superstring theories: the $E_8 \times E_8$ heterotic string, the $SO(32)$ heterotic string, the $SO(32)$ Type *I* string, the Type *IIA* and Type *IIB* strings? If one is looking for a unique *Theory of Everything*, this seems like an embarrassment of riches! Thirdly, if supersymmetry permits eleven dimensions, why do superstrings stop at ten? This question became more acute with the discoveries of the *supermembrane* in 1987 the *superfivebrane* in 1992. These are bubble-like supersymmetric extended objects with respectively two and five dimensions moving in an eleven-dimensional spacetime, which are related to one another by a *duality*

⁵For an up-to-date non-technical account of string theory, the reader is referred to the forthcoming popular book by Brian Greene [4].

<i>E₈ × E₈ heterotic string</i>	}	<i>M theory</i>
<i>SO(32) heterotic string</i>		
<i>SO(32) Type I string</i>		
<i>Type IIA string</i>		
<i>Type IIB string</i>		

Table 1: The five apparently different string theories are really just different corners of M-theory.

reminiscent of the electric/magnetic duality that relates an electric monopole (a particle carrying electric charge) to a magnetic monopole (a hypothetical particle carrying magnetic charge). Finally, therefore, if we are going to generalize zero-dimensional point particles to one-dimensional strings, why stop there? Why not two-dimensional membranes or more generally p -dimensional objects (inevitably dubbed *p-branes*)? In the last decade, this latter possibility of spacetime bubbles was actively pursued by a small but dedicated group of theorists [6], largely ignored by the orthodox superstring community.

Although it is still too early to claim that all the problems of string theory have now been resolved, M -theory seems a big step in the right direction. First, it is intrinsically non-perturbative and already suggests new avenues both for particle physics and black hole physics. Secondly, it is an eleven-dimensional theory which, at sufficiently low energies, looks, ironically enough, like eleven-dimensional supergravity. Thirdly, it subsumes all five consistent string theories and shows that the distinction we used to draw between them is just an artifact of perturbation theory. See Table 1. Finally, it incorporates supermembranes and that is why M stands for Membrane. However, it may well be that we are only just beginning to scratch the surface of the ultimate meaning of M -theory, and for the time being therefore, M stands for Magic and Mystery too.

3 Symmetry and supersymmetry

Central to the understanding of modern theories of the fundamental forces is the idea of *symmetry*: under certain changes in the way we describe the basic quantities, the laws of

physics are nevertheless seen to remain unchanged. For example, the result of an experiment should be the same whether we perform it today or tomorrow; this symmetry is called *time translation invariance*. It should also be the same before and after rotating our experimental apparatus; this symmetry is called *rotational invariance*. Both of these are examples of *spacetime symmetries*. Indeed, Einstein’s general theory of relativity is based on the requirement that the laws of physics should be invariant under *any* change in the way we describe the positions of events in spacetime. In the standard model of the strong, weak and electromagnetic forces there are other kinds of *internal* symmetries that allow us to change the roles played by different elementary particles such as electrons and neutrinos, for example. These statements are made precise using the branch of mathematics known as *Group Theory*. The standard model is based on the group $SU(3) \times SU(2) \times U(1)$, where $U(n)$ refers to *unitary* $n \times n$ matrices and S means unit determinant. Grand Unified Theories, which have not yet received the same empirical support as the standard model, are even more ambitious and use bigger groups, such as $SU(5)$, which contain $SU(3) \times SU(2) \times U(1)$ as a subgroup. In this case, the laws remain unchanged even when we exchange the roles of the *quarks* and electrons. Thus it is that the greater the unification, the greater the symmetry required. The standard model symmetry replaces the three fundamental forces: strong, weak and electromagnetic, with just two: the strong and electroweak. Grand unified symmetries replace these two with just one strong-electroweak force. In fact, it is not much of an exaggeration to say that the search for the ultimate unified theory is really a search for the right symmetry.

At this stage, however, one might protest that some of these internal symmetries fly in the face of experience. After all, the electron is very different from a neutrino: the electron has a non-zero mass whereas the neutrino is massless⁶. Similarly, the electrons which orbit the atomic nucleus are very different from the quarks out of which the protons and neutrons of the nucleus are built. Quarks feel the strong nuclear force which holds the nucleus together, whereas electrons do not. These feelings are, in a certain sense, justified: the world we live in does not exhibit the $SU(2) \times U(1)$ of the standard model nor the $SU(5)$ of the grand unified theory. They are what physicists call “broken symmetries”. The idea is that these theories may exist in several different *phases*, just as water can exist in solid, liquid and gaseous phases. In some of these phases the symmetries are broken but in other phases, they are exact. The world we inhabit today happens to correspond to the broken-symmetric

⁶Or at most has a very tiny mass.

phase, but in conditions of extremely high energies or extremely high temperatures, these symmetries may be restored to their pristine form. The early stages of our universe, shortly after the Big Bang, provide just such an environment. Looking back further into the history of the universe, therefore, is also a search for greater and greater symmetry. The ultimate symmetry we are looking for may well be the symmetry with which the Universe began.

M -theory, like string theory before it, relies crucially on the idea, first put forward in the early 1970s, of a spacetime *supersymmetry* which exchanges bosons and fermions. Just as the earth rotates on its own axis as it orbits the sun, so electrons carry an intrinsic angular momentum called “spin” as they orbit the nucleus in an atom. Indeed all elementary particles carry a spin s which obeys a quantization rule $s = nh/4\pi$ where $n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$ and h is Planck’s constant. Thus particles may be divided into *bosons* or *fermions* according as the spin, measured in units of $h/2\pi$, is integer $0, 1, 2, \dots$ or half-odd-integer $1/2, 3/2, 5/2, \dots$. Fermions obey the *Pauli exclusion principle*, which states that no two fermions can occupy the same quantum state, whereas bosons do not. They are said to obey opposite *statistics*. According to the standard model, the quarks and leptons which are the building blocks of all matter, are spin $1/2$ fermions; the gluons, W and Z particles and photons which are the mediators of the strong, weak and electromagnetic forces, are spin 1 bosons and the Higgs particle which is responsible for the breaking of symmetries and for giving masses to the other particles, is a spin 0 boson. Unbroken supersymmetry would require that every elementary particle we know of would have an unknown super-partner with the same mass but obeying the opposite statistics: for each boson there is a fermion; for each fermion a boson. Spin $1/2$ quarks partner spin 0 *squarks*, spin 1 photons partner spin $1/2$ *photinos*, and so on. In the world we inhabit, of course, there are no such equal mass partners and bosons and fermions seem very different. Supersymmetry, if it exists at all, is clearly a broken symmetry and the new supersymmetric particles are so heavy that they have so far escaped detection. At sufficiently high energies, however, supersymmetry may be restored. Supersymmetry may also solve the so-called *gauge hierarchy problem*: the energy scale at which the grand unified symmetries are broken is vastly higher from those at which the electroweak symmetries are broken. This raises the puzzle of why the electrons, quarks, and W-bosons have their relatively small masses and the extra particles required by grand unification have their enormous masses. Why do they not all slide to some common scale? In the absence of supersymmetry, there is no satisfactory answer to this question, but in a supersymmetric world this is all per-

fectly natural. The greatest challenge currently facing high-energy experimentalists at Fermi National Laboratory (Fermilab) in Chicago and the European Centre for Particle Physics (CERN) in Geneva is the search for these new supersymmetric particles. The discovery of supersymmetry would be one of the greatest experimental achievements of the century and would completely revolutionize the way we view the physical world⁷.

Symmetries are said to be *global* if the changes are the same throughout spacetime, and *local* if they differ from one point to another. The consequences of *local* supersymmetry are even more far-reaching: it predicts gravity. Thus if Einstein had not already discovered General Relativity, local supersymmetry would have forced us to invent it. In fact, we are forced to a *supergravity* in which the graviton, a spin 2 boson that mediates the gravitational interactions, is partnered with a spin 3/2 *gravitino*. This is a theorist's dream because it confronts the problem from which both general relativity and grand unified theories shy away: neither takes the other's symmetries into account. Consequently, neither is able to achieve the ultimate unification and roll all four forces into one. But local supersymmetry offers just such a possibility, and it is this feature above all others which has fuelled the theorist's belief in supersymmetry in spite of twenty-five years without experimental support.

4 Eleven-dimensional supergravity

Supergravity has an even more bizarre feature, however, it places an upper limit on the dimension of spacetime! We are used to the idea that space has three dimensions: height, length and breadth; with time providing the fourth dimension of *spacetime*. Indeed this is the picture that Einstein had in mind in 1916 when he proposed general relativity. But in the early 1920's, in their attempts to unify Einstein's gravity and Maxwell's electromagnetism, Theodore Kaluza and Oskar Klein suggested that spacetime may have a hidden fifth dimension. This idea was quite successful: Einstein's equations in five dimensions not only yield the right equations for gravity in four dimensions but Maxwell's equations come for free. Conservation of electric charge is just conservation of momentum in the fifth direction. In order to explain why this extra dimension is not apparent in our everyday lives, however,

⁷This will present an interesting dilemma for those pundits who are predicting the *End of Science* on the grounds that all the important discoveries have already been made. Presumably, they will say "I told you so" if supersymmetry is not discovered, and "See, there's one thing less left to discover" if it is.

it would have to have a different *topology* from the other four and be very small. Whereas the usual four coordinates stretch from minus infinity to plus infinity, the fifth coordinate would lie between 0 and $2\pi R$. In other words, it describes a circle of radius R . To get the right value for the charge on the electron, moreover, the circle would have to be tiny, $R \sim 10^{-35}$ meters, which satisfactorily explains why we are unaware of its existence. It is difficult to envisage a spacetime with such a topology but a nice analogy is provided by a garden hose: at large distances it looks like a line but closer inspection reveals that at each point of the line, there is a little circle. So it was that Kaluza and Klein suggested there is a little circle at each point of four-dimensional spacetime. Moreover, this explained for the first time the empirical fact that all particles come with an electric charge which is an integer multiple of the charge on the electron, in other words, why electric charge is *quantized*.

The Kaluza-Klein idea was forgotten for many years but was revived in the early 1980s when it was realized by Eugene Cremmer, Bernard Julia and Joel Scherk from the Ecole Normale in Paris that supergravity not only permits up to seven extra dimensions, but in fact takes its simplest and most elegant form when written in its full eleven-dimensional glory. Moreover, the kind of four-dimensional picture we end up with depends on how we *compactify* these extra dimensions: maybe seven of them would allow us to derive, a la Kaluza-Klein, the strong and weak forces as well as the electromagnetic. In the end, however, eleven dimensional supergravity fell out of favor for several reasons.

First, despite its extra dimensions and despite its supersymmetry, eleven-dimensional supergravity is still a *quantum field theory* and runs into the problem from which all such theories suffer: the quantum mechanical probability for certain processes yields the answer *infinity*. By itself, this is not necessarily a disaster. This problem was resolved in the late 1940s in the context of Quantum Electrodynamics (QED), the study of the electromagnetic interactions of photons and electrons, by showing that these infinities could be absorbed into a redefinition or *renormalization* of the parameters in the theory such as the mass and charge of the electron. This *renormalization* resulted in predictions for physical observables which were not only finite but in spectacular agreement with experiment. Spurred on by the success of QED, physicists looked for renormalizable quantum field theories of the weak and strong nuclear interactions which in the 1970s culminated in the enormously successful standard model that we know today. One might be tempted, therefore, to conclude that *renormalizability*, namely the ability to absorb all infinities into a redefinition of the parame-

ters in the theory, is a prerequisite for any sensible quantum field theory. However, the central quandary of all attempts to marry quantum theory and gravity, such as eleven-dimensional supergravity, is that Einstein's general theory of relativity turns out *non-renormalizable*! Does this mean that Einstein's theory should be thrown on the scrapheap? Actually, the modern view of renormalizability is a little more forgiving. Suppose we have a renormalizable quantum field theory describing both light particles and heavy particles of mass m . Even such a renormalizable theory can be made to look non-renormalizable if we eliminate the heavy particles by using their equations of motion. The resulting equations for the light particles are then non-renormalizable but perfectly adequate for describing processes at energies less than mc^2 , where c is the velocity of light. We run into trouble only if we try to extrapolate them beyond this range of validity, at which point we should instead resort to the original version of the theory with the massive particles put back in. In this light, therefore, the modern view of Einstein's theory is that it is perfectly adequate to explain gravitational phenomena at low energies but that at high energies it must be replaced by some more fundamental theory containing massive particles. But what is this energy, what are these massive particles and what is this more fundamental theory?

There is a natural energy scale associated with any quantum theory of gravity. Such a theory combines three ingredients each with their own fundamental constants: Planck's constant h (quantum mechanics), the velocity of light c (special relativity) and Newton's gravitational constant G (gravity). From these we can form the so-called Planck mass $m_P = \sqrt{\hbar c/G}$, equal to about 10^{-8} kilograms, and the Planck energy $m_P c^2$, equal to about 10^{19} GeV. (GeV is short for giga-electron-volts= 10^9 electron-volts, and an electron-volt is the energy required to accelerate an electron through a potential difference of one volt.) From this we conclude that the energy at which Einstein's theory, and hence eleven-dimensional supergravity, breaks down is the Planck energy. On the scale of elementary particle physics, this energy is enormous⁸: the world's most powerful particle accelerators can currently reach energies of only 10^4 GeV. So it seemed in the early 1980s that we were looking for a fundamental theory which reduces to Einstein's gravity at low energies, which describes Planck mass particles and which is supersymmetric. Whatever it is, it cannot be

⁸For this reason, incidentally, the *End of Science* brigade like to claim that, even if we find the right theory of quantum gravity, we will never be able to test it experimentally! As I will argue shortly, however, this view is erroneous.

a quantum field theory because we already know all the supersymmetric ones and they do not fit the bill.

Equally puzzling was that an important feature of the real world which is incorporated into both the standard model and grand unified theories is that Nature is *chiral*: the weak nuclear force distinguishes between right and left. (As Salam had noted with his left-handed neutrino hypothesis). However, as emphasized by Witten among others, it is impossible via conventional Kaluza-Klein techniques to generate a chiral theory from a non-chiral one and unfortunately, eleven-dimensional supergravity, in common with any *odd*-dimensional theory, is itself non-chiral.

5 Ten-dimensional superstrings

For both these reasons, attention turned to ten-dimensional superstring theory. The idea that the fundamental stuff of the universe might not be pointlike elementary particles, but rather one-dimensional strings had been around from the early 1970s. Just like violin strings, these relativistic strings can vibrate and each elementary particle: graviton, gluon, quark and so on, is identified with a different mode of vibration. However, this means that there are *infinitely many* elementary particles. Fortunately, this does not contradict experiment because most of them, corresponding to the higher modes of vibration, will have masses of the order of the Planck mass and above and will be unobservable in the direct sense that we observe the lighter ones. Indeed, an infinite tower of Planck mass states is just what the doctor ordered for curing the non-renormalizability disease. In fact, because strings are *extended*, rather than pointlike, objects, the quantum mechanical probabilities involved in string processes are actually *finite*. Moreover, when we take the *low-energy limit* by eliminating these massive particles through their equations of motion, we recover a ten-dimensional version of supergravity which incorporates Einstein's gravity. Now ten-dimensional quantum field theories, as opposed to eleven-dimensional ones, also admit the possibility of *chirality*. The reason that everyone had still not abandoned eleven-dimensional supergravity in favor of string theory, however, was that the realistic-looking Type *I* string, which incorporated internal symmetry groups containing the $SU(3) \times SU(2) \times U(1)$ of the standard model, seemed to suffer from inconsistencies or *anomalies*, whereas the consistent non-chiral Type *IIA* and chiral Type *IIB* strings did not seem realistic.

Then came the September 1984 superstring revolution. First, Michael Green from Queen-Mary and Westfield College, London, and John Schwarz from the California Institute of Technology showed that the Type *I* string was free of anomalies provide the group was uniquely $SO(32)$ where $O(n)$ stands for *orthogonal* $n \times n$ matrices. They suggested that a string theory based on the exceptional group $E_8 \times E_8$ would also have this property. Next, David Gross, Jeffrey Harvey, Emil Martinec and Ryan Rohm from Princeton University discovered a new kind of heterotic (hybrid) string theory based on just these two groups: the $E_8 \times E_8$ heterotic string and the $SO(32)$ heterotic string, thus bringing to *five* the number of consistent string theories. Thirdly, Philip Candelas from the University of Texas, Austin, Gary Horowitz and Andrew Strominger from the University of California, Santa Barbara and Witten showed that these heterotic string theories admitted a Kaluza-Klein compactification from ten dimensions down to four. The six-dimensional compact spaces belonged to a class of spaces known to the pure mathematicians as *Calabi-Yau manifolds*. The resulting four-dimensional theories resembled quasi-realistic grand unified theories with chiral representations for the quarks and leptons! Everyone dropped eleven-dimensional supergravity like a hot brick. The mood of the times was encapsulated by Nobel Laureate Murray Gell-Mann in his closing address at the 1984 Santa Fe Meeting, when he said: “Eleven Dimensional Supergravity (Ugh!)”.

6 Ten to eleven: it is not too late

After the initial euphoria, however, nagging doubts about string theory began to creep in.

Theorists love *uniqueness*; they like to think that the ultimate *Theory of Everything* [1] will one day be singled out, not merely because all rival theories are in disagreement with experiment, but because they are mathematically inconsistent. In other words, that the universe is the way it is because it is the only possible universe. But string theories are far from unique. Already in ten dimensions there are five mathematically consistent theories: the Type *I* $SO(32)$, the heterotic $SO(32)$, the heterotic $E_8 \times E_8$, the Type *IIA* and the Type *IIB*. (Type *I* is an *open* string in that its ends are allowed to move freely in spacetime; the remaining four are *closed strings* which form a closed loop.) Thus the first problem is the *uniqueness problem*.

The situation becomes even worse when we consider compactifying the extra six dimen-

sions. There seem to be billions of different ways of compactifying the string from ten dimensions to four (billions of different Calabi-Yau manifolds) and hence billions of competing predictions of the real world (which is like having no predictions at all). This aspect of the uniqueness problem is called the *vacuum-degeneracy problem*. One can associate with each different phase of a physical system a *vacuum state*, so called because it is the quantum state corresponding to no real elementary particles at all. However, according to quantum field theory, this vacuum is actually buzzing with virtual particle-antiparticle pairs that are continually being created and destroyed and consequently such vacuum states carry energy. The more energetic vacua, however, should be unstable and eventually decay into a (possibly unique) stable vacuum with the least energy, and this should describe the world in which we live. Unfortunately, all these Calabi-Yau vacua have the same energy and the string seems to have no way of preferring one to the other. By focussing on the fact that strings are formulated in ten spacetime dimensions and that they unify the forces at the Planck scale, many critics of string theory fail to grasp this essential point. The problem is not so much that strings are unable to produce four-dimensional models like the standard model with quarks and leptons held together by gluons, W -bosons, Z bosons and photons and of the kind that can be tested experimentally in current or foreseeable accelerators. On the contrary, string theorists can dream up literally billions of them! The problem is that they have no way of discriminating between them. What is lacking is some dynamical mechanism that would explain why the theory singles out one particular Calabi-Yau manifold and hence why we live in one particular vacuum; in other words, why the world is the way it is. Either this problem will not be solved, in which case string theory will fall by the wayside like a hundred other failed theories, or else it will be solved and string theory will be put to the test experimentally. Neither string theory nor M -theory is relying for its credibility on building thousand-light-year accelerators capable of reaching the Planck energy, as some *End-of-Science* Jeremiahs have suggested.

Part and parcel of the vacuum degeneracy problem is the *supersymmetry-breaking problem*. If superstrings are to describe our world then supersymmetry must be broken, but the way in which strings achieve this, and at what energy scales, is still a great mystery.

A third aspect of vacuum degeneracy is the *cosmological constant* problem. Shortly after writing down the equations of general relativity, Einstein realized that nothing prevented him from adding an extra term, called the *cosmological term* because it affects the rate at which

the universe as a whole is expanding. Current astrophysical data indicates that the coefficient of this term, called the *cosmological constant*, is zero or at least very small. Whenever an *a priori* allowed term in an equation seems to be absent, however, theorists always want to know the reason why. At first sight supersymmetry seems to provide the answer. The cosmological constant measures the energy of the vacuum, and in supersymmetric vacua the energy coming from virtual bosons is exactly cancelled by the energy coming from virtual fermions! Unfortunately, as we have already seen, the vacuum in which our universe currently finds itself can at best have broken supersymmetry and so all bets are off. As with cake, we can't have our cosmological constant and eat it too! In common with all other theories one can think of, superstrings as yet provide no resolution of this paradox.

On the subject of gravity, let us not forget *black holes*. According to Cambridge University's Stephen Hawking, they are not as black as they are painted: quantum black holes radiate energy and hence grow smaller. Moreover, they radiate energy in the same way irrespective of what kind of matter went to make up the black hole in the first place. The rate of radiation increases with diminishing size and the black hole eventually explodes leaving nothing behind, not even the grin on the Cheshire Cat. All the information about the original constituents of the black hole has been lost and this leads to the *information loss paradox* because such a scenario flies in the face of traditional quantum mechanics. On a more pragmatic level, another unsolved problem was that the thermodynamic entropy formula of the black hole radiation, first written down by Jacob Bekenstein (Hebrew University), had never received a *microscopic* explanation. The entropy of a system is a measure of its disorder, and is related to the number of quantum states that the system is allowed to occupy. For a black hole, this number seems incredibly high but what microscopic forces are at work to explain this? Not even strings, with their infinite number of vibrational modes seemed to have this capability.

Given all the good news about string theory, though, string enthusiasts were reluctant to abandon the theory notwithstanding all these problems. Might the faults lie not with the theory itself but rather with the way the calculations are carried out? In common with the standard model and grand unified theories, the equations of string theory are just too complicated to solve exactly. We have to resort to an approximation scheme and the time-honored way of doing this in physics is *perturbation theory*. Let us recall quantum electrodynamics, for example, and denote by e the electric charge on an electron. The ratio

$\alpha = 2\pi e^2/hc$ is a dimensionless number called, for historical reasons, the fine structure constant. Fortunately for physicists, α is about $1/137$: much less than 1. Consequently, if we can express processes (such as the probability of one electron scattering off another) in a power series in this coupling constant α , then we can be confident that keeping just the first few terms in the series will be a good approximation to the exact result. As a simple example of approximating a mathematical function $f(x)$ by a power series, consider

$$f(x) = (1 - x)^{-1} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 \dots \quad (6.1)$$

Provided x is very much less than unity, the first few terms provide a good approximation. This is precisely what Richard Feynman was doing when he devised his *Feynman diagram* technique. The same perturbative techniques work well in the weak interactions where the corresponding dimensionless coupling constant is about 10^{-5} . Indeed, this is how the weak interactions justify their name. When we come to the strong interactions, however, we are not so lucky. Now the strong fine structure constant which governs the strength of low-energy nuclear processes, for example, is of order unity and perturbation theory can no longer be trusted: each term in the power series expansion is just as big as the others. The whole industry of *lattice gauge theory* is devoted to an attempt to avoid perturbation theory in the strong interactions by doing numerical simulations on supercomputers. It has proved enormously difficult.

The point to bear in mind, however, (and one that even string theorists sometimes forget) is that “God does not do perturbation theory”; it is merely a technique dreamed up by poor physicists because it is the best they can do. Furthermore, although theories such as quantum electrodynamics manage to avoid it, there is a possible fatal flaw with perturbation theory. What happens if the process we are interested in depends on the coupling constant in an intrinsically non-perturbative way which does not even admit a power series expansion? Such mathematical functions are not difficult to come by: the function

$$f(x) = e^{-1/x^2}, \quad (6.2)$$

for example, cannot be approximated by a power series in x no matter how small x happens to be. The equations of string theory are sufficiently complicated that such non-perturbative behaviour cannot be ruled out. If so, might our failure to answer the really difficult problems be more the fault of string *theorists* than string *theory*?

An apparently different reason for having mixed feelings about superstrings, of course, especially for those who had been pursuing Kaluza-Klein supergravity prior to the 1984 superstring revolution, was the dimensionality of spacetime. If supersymmetry permits eleven spacetime dimensions, why should the theory of everything stop at ten?

This problem rose to the surface again in 1987 when Eric Bergshoeff of the University of Groningen, Ergin Sezgin, now at Texas A&M University, and Paul Townsend from the University of Cambridge discovered *The eleven-dimensional supermembrane*. This membrane is a bubble-like extended object with two spatial dimensions which moves in a spacetime dictated by our old friend: eleven-dimensional supergravity! Moreover, Paul Howe (King's College, London University), Takeo Inami (Kyoto University), Kellogg Stelle (Imperial College) and I were then able to show that if one of the eleven dimensions is a circle, then we can wrap one of the membrane dimensions around it so that, if the radius of the circle is sufficiently small, it looks like a string in ten dimensions. In fact, it yields precisely the Type *IIA* superstring. This suggested to us that maybe the eleven-dimensional theory was the more fundamental after all.

7 Supermembranes

Membrane theory has a strange history which goes back even further than strings. The idea that the elementary particles might correspond to modes of a vibrating membrane was put forward originally in 1960 by the British Nobel Prize winning physicist Paul Dirac, a giant of twentieth century science who was also responsible for two other daring postulates: the existence of *anti-matter* and the existence of *magnetic monopoles*. Anti-particles carry the same mass but opposite charge from particles and were discovered experimentally in the 1930s. Magnetic monopoles carry a single magnetic charge and to this day have not yet been observed. As we shall see, however, they do feature prominently in *M*-theory. When string theory came along in the 1970s, there were some attempts to revive Dirac's membrane idea but without much success. The breakthrough did not come until 1986 when James Hughes, James Liu and Joseph Polchinski of the University of Texas showed that, contrary to the expectations of certain string theorists, it was possible to combine the membrane idea with supersymmetry: the *supermembrane* was born.

Consequently, while all the progress in superstring theory was being made a small but en-

thusiastic group of theorists were posing a seemingly very different question: Once you have given up 0-dimensional particles in favor of 1-dimensional strings, why not 2-dimensional membranes or in general p -dimensional objects (inevitably dubbed p -branes)? Just as a 0-dimensional particle sweeps out a 1-dimensional *worldline* as it evolves in time, so a 1-dimensional string sweeps out a 2-dimensional *worldsheet* and a p -brane sweeps out a d -dimensional *worldvolume*, where $d = p + 1$. Of course, there must be enough room for the p -brane to move about in spacetime, so d must be less than the number of spacetime dimensions D . In fact supersymmetry places further severe restrictions both on the dimension of the extended object and the dimension of spacetime in which it lives. One can represent these as points on a graph where we plot spacetime dimension D vertically and the p -brane dimension $d = p + 1$ horizontally. This graph is called the *brane-scan*. See Table 2. Curiously enough, the maximum spacetime dimension permitted is eleven, where Bergshoeff, Sezgin and Townsend found their 2-brane. In the early 80s Green and Schwarz had showed that spacetime supersymmetry allows classical superstrings moving in spacetime dimensions 3, 4, 6 and 10. (Quantum considerations rule out all but the ten-dimensional case as being truly fundamental. Of course some of these ten dimensions could be curled up to a very tiny size in the way suggested by Kaluza and Klein. Ideally six would be compactified in this way so as to yield the four spacetime dimensions with which we are familiar.) It was now realized, however, that there were twelve points on the scan which fall into four sequences ending with the superstrings or 1-branes in $D = 3, 4, 6$ and 10, which were now viewed as but special cases of this more general class of supersymmetric extended object. These twelve points are the ones with $d \geq 2$ and denoted by S in Table 2. For completeness, we have also included the superparticles with $d = 1$ in $D = 2, 3, 5$ and 9.

The letters S , V and T refer to *scalar*, *vector* and *tensor* respectively and describe the different kinds of particles that live on the worldvolume of the p -brane. Spin 0 bosons and their spin 1/2 fermionic partners are said to form a scalar supermultiplet. An example is provided by the eleven-dimensional supermembrane that occupies the ($D = 11, d = 3$) slot on the branescan. It has 8 spin 0 and 8 spin 1/2 particles living on the three-dimensional (one time, two space) worldvolume of the membrane. But as we shall see, it was subsequently realized that there also exist branes which have higher spin bosons on their worldvolume and belong to vector and tensor supermultiplets.

A particularly interesting solution of eleven-dimensional supergravity, found by Bergshoeff,

$D \uparrow$														
11	.			S			T							
10	.	V	S/V	V	V	V	S/V	V	V	V	V			
9	.	S					S							
8	.					S								
7	.			S			T							
6	.	V	S/V	V	S/V	V	V							
5	.	S		S										
4	.	V	S/V	S/V	V									
3	.	S/V	S/V	V										
2	.	S												
1	.													
0		
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	$d \rightarrow$

Table 2: The brane scan, where S , V and T denote scalar, vector and tensor multiplets.

Sezgin and myself in collaboration with Chris Pope of Texas A&M University, was called “The membrane at the end of the universe.” It described a four-dimensional spacetime with the extra seven dimensions curled up into a seven-dimensional sphere and in which the supermembrane occupied the three-dimensional boundary of the four-dimensional spacetime (rather as the two-dimensional surface of a soap bubble encloses a three-dimensional volume). This spacetime is of the kind first discussed earlier this century by the Dutch physicist Willem de Sitter and has a non-zero cosmological constant. In fact it is called anti-de Sitter space because the cosmological constant is negative. Now shortly after he first wrote down the equations of the membrane, Dirac pointed out in a (at the time unrelated) paper that anti-de Sitter space admits some strange kinds of fields that he called *singletons* which have no analogue in ordinary flat spacetime. These were much studied by Christian Fronsdal and collaborators at the University of California, Los Angeles, who pointed out that they reside not in the bulk of the anti-de Sitter space but on the three dimensional boundary. In 1988, the present author noted that, in the case of the seven-sphere compactification of eleven-dimensional supergravity, the singletons correspond to the same 8 spin 0 plus 8 spin 1/2 scalar supermultiplet that lives on the worldvolume of the supermembrane, and it was nat-

ural to suggest that the membrane and the singletons should be identified. In this way, via the *the membrane at the end of the universe*, the physics in the bulk of the four-dimensional spacetime was really being determined by the physics on the three-dimensional boundary.

Notwithstanding these and subsequent results, the supermembrane enterprise (Type II A&M Theory?) was ignored by most adherents of conventional superstring theory. Those who had worked on eleven-dimensional supergravity and then on supermembranes spent the early eighties arguing for *spacetime* dimensions greater than four, and the late eighties and early nineties arguing for *worldvolume* dimensions greater than two. The latter struggle was by far the more bitter⁹.

8 Solitons, topology and duality

Another curious twist in the history of supermembranes concerns their interpretation as *solitons*. In their broadest definition, solitons are classical solutions of a field theory corresponding to lumps of field energy which are prevented from dissipating by a *topological* conservation law, and hence display particle-like properties. The classic example of a such soliton is provided by magnetic monopole solutions of four-dimensional grand unified theories found by Gerard 't Hooft of the the University of Utrecht in the Netherlands and Alexander Polyakov, now at Princeton. Solitons play a ubiquitous role in theoretical physics appearing in such diverse phenomena as condensed matter physics and cosmology, where they are frequently known as *topological defects*.

To understand the meaning of a *topological conservation law*, we begin by recalling that in 1917 the German mathematician Emmy Noether had shown that to every global symmetry, there corresponds a quantity that is conserved in time. For example, invariance under time translations, space translations and rotations give rise to the laws of conservation of energy, momentum and angular momentum, respectively. Similarly, conservation of electric charge corresponds to a change in the phase of the quantum mechanical wave functions that describe the elementary particles. One might naively expect that conservation of magnetic charge

⁹One string theorist I know would literally cover up his ears whenever the word “membrane” was mentioned within his earshot! Indeed, I used to chide my more conservative string theory colleagues by accusing them of being unable to utter the M-word. That the current theory ended up being called M-theory rather than Membrane theory was thus something of a Pyrrhic victory.

would admit a similar explanation but, in fact, it has a completely different *topological* origin, and is but one example of what are now termed topological conservation laws. Topology is that branch of mathematics which concerns itself just with the shape of things. Topologically speaking, therefore, a teacup is equivalent to a doughnut because each two-dimensional surface has just one hole: one can continuously deform one into the other. The surface of an orange, on the other hand, is topologically distinct having no holes: you cannot turn an orange into a doughnut. So it is with the intricate field configurations describing magnetic monopoles: you cannot turn a particle carrying n units of magnetic charge into one with n' units of magnetic charge, if $n \neq n'$. Hence the charge is conserved but for topological reasons; not for any reasons of symmetry.

In 1977, however, Claus Montonen of the University of Helsinki and David Olive, now at the University of Wales at Swansea, made a bold conjecture. Might there exist a *dual* formulation of fundamental physics in which the roles of Noether charges and topological charges are reversed? In such a dual picture, the magnetic monopoles would be the fundamental objects and the quarks, W-bosons and Higgs particles would be the solitons! They were inspired by the observation that in certain *supersymmetric* grand unified theories, the masses M of all the particles whether elementary (carrying purely electric charge Q), solitonic (carrying purely magnetic charge P) or *dyonic* (carrying both) are described by a universal formula

$$M^2 = v^2(Q^2 + P^2) \tag{8.1}$$

where v is a constant. Note that the mass formula remains unchanged if we exchange the roles of P and Q ! The Montonen-Olive conjecture was that this electric/magnetic symmetry is a symmetry not merely of the mass formula but is an exact symmetry of the entire quantum theory! The reason why this idea remained merely a conjecture rather than a proof has to do with the whole question of perturbative versus non-perturbative effects. According to Dirac, the electric charge Q is quantized in units of e , the charge on the electron, whereas the magnetic charge is quantized in units of $1/e$. In other words, $Q = me$ and $P = n/e$, where m and n are integers. The symmetry suggested by Olive and Montonen thus demanded that in the dual world, we not only exchange the integers m and n but we also replace e by $1/e$ and go from a regime of weak coupling to a regime of strong coupling! This was very exciting because it promised a whole new window on non-perturbative effects. On the other hand, it also made a proof very difficult and the idea was largely forgotten for the next few years.

Although the original paper by Hughes, Liu and Polchinski made use of the soliton idea, the subsequent impetus in supermembrane theory was to mimic superstrings and treat the p -branes as fundamental objects in their own right (analagous to particles carrying an electric Noether charge). Even within this framework, however, it was possible to postulate a certain kind of duality between one p -brane and another by relating them to the geometrical concept of p -forms. (Indeed, this is how p -branes originally got their name.) In their classic text on general relativity, *Gravitation*, Misner, Thorne and Wheeler [7] provide a way to visualize p -forms as describing the way in which surfaces are stacked. Open a cardboard carton containing a dozen bottles, and observe the honeycomb structure of intersecting north-south and east-west cardboard separators between the bottles. That honeycomb structure of tubes is an example of a 2-form in the context of ordinary 3-dimensional space. It yields a number (number of tubes cut) for each choice of 2-dimensional surface slicing through the 3-dimensional space. Thus a 2-form is a device to produce a number out of a surface. All of electromagnetism can be summarized in the language of 2-forms, honeycomb-like structures filling all of 4-dimensional spacetime. There are two such structures, Faraday= F and Maxwell= $*F$ each *dual*, or perpendicular, to the other. The amount of electric charge or magnetic charge in an elementary volume is equal respectively to the number of tubes of the Maxwell 2-form $*F$ or Faraday 2-form F that end in that volume. (In a world with no magnetic monopoles, no tubes of F would ever end.) To summarize, in 4-dimensional spacetime, an electric 0-brane is dual to a magnetic 0-brane.

An equivalent way to understand why 0-dimensional point particles produce electric fields which are described by 2-forms is to note that in 4-dimensional spacetime a pointlike electric charge can be surrounded by a two-dimensional sphere. Similarly, a string (1-brane) in 4-dimensional spacetime can be “surrounded” by a 1-dimensional circle, and so the electric charge per unit length of a string is described by a 1-form Maxwell field but its magnetic dual perpendicular to it is described by a 3-form Faraday field. By contrast, in 5 spacetime dimensions, although the Faraday field of a 0-brane is still a 2-form, the dual Maxwell field is now a 3-form, consistent with the fact that you now need a 3-dimensional sphere to surround the pointlike electric charge. But a 3-form is just the Faraday field produced by a string. Consequently, in 5 spacetime dimensions, the magnetic dual of an electric 0-brane is a string. Though in practice it is harder to visualize, it is straightforward in principle to generalize this duality idea to any p -brane in any spacetime dimension D . The rule is

that the Faraday field is a $(p + 2)$ form and the dual Maxwell field perpendicular to it is $(D - p - 2)$ -form. Consequently, the magnetic dual of an electric p -brane is a \tilde{p} -brane where $\tilde{p} = D - p - 4$. In particular, in the critical $D = 10$ spacetime dimensions of superstring theory, a string ($p = 1$) is dual to a fivebrane ($\tilde{p} = 5$). (If you have trouble imagining that in 10 dimensions you need a 3-dimensional sphere to surround a 5-brane, don't worry, you are not alone!)

Now the low energy limit of 10-dimensional string theory is a 10-dimensional supergravity theory with a 3-form Faraday field and dual 7-form Maxwell field, just as one would expect if the fundamental object is a string. However, 10-dimensional supergravity had one puzzling feature that had long been an enigma from the point of view of string theory. In addition to the above version there existed a *dual* version in which the roles of the Faraday and Maxwell fields were interchanged: the Faraday field was a 7-form and the Maxwell field was a 3-form! This suggested to the present author in 1987, in analogy with the Olive-Montonen conjecture, that perhaps this was indicative of a dual version of string theory in which the fundamental objects are fivebranes! This became known as the *string/fivebrane duality conjecture*. The analogy was still a bit incomplete, however, because at that time the fivebrane was not regarded as a soliton.

The next development came in 1988 when Paul Townsend of Cambridge University revived the Hughes-Liu-Polchinski idea and showed that many of the super p -branes also admit an interpretation as topological defects (analogous to particles carrying a magnetic topological charge). Of course, this involved generalizing the usual notion of a soliton: it need not be restricted just to a 0-brane in four dimensions but might be an extended object such as a p -brane in D -dimensions. Just like the monopoles studied by Montonen and Olive, these solitons preserve half of the spacetime supersymmetry and hence obey a relation which states that their mass per unit p -volume is given by their topological charge. Then in 1990, a major breakthrough for the string/fivebrane duality conjecture came along when Strominger found that the equations of the 10-dimensional heterotic string admit a fivebrane as a soliton solution which also preserves half the spacetime supersymmetry and whose mass per unit 5-volume is given by the topological charge associated with the Faraday 3-form of the string. Moreover, this mass became larger, the smaller the strength of the string coupling, exactly as one would expect for a soliton. He went on to suggest a complete strong/weak coupling duality with the strongly coupled string corresponding to the weakly coupled fivebrane. By

generalizing some earlier work of Rafael Nepomechie (University of Florida, Gainesville) and Claudio Teitelboim (University of Santiago), moreover, it was possible to show that the electric charge of the fundamental string and the magnetic charge of the solitonic fivebrane obeyed a Dirac quantization rule. In this form, string/fivebrane duality was now much more closely mimicking the electric/magnetic duality of Montonen and Olive. Then Curtis Callan (Princeton University), Harvey and Strominger showed that similar results also appear in both Type *IIA* and Type *IIB* string theories; they also admit fivebrane solitons. However, since most physicists were already sceptical of electric/magnetic duality in four dimensions, they did not immediately embrace string/fivebrane duality in ten dimensions!

Furthermore, there was one major problem with treating the fivebrane as a fundamental object in its own right; a problem that has bedevilled supermembrane theory right from the beginning: no-one knows how to quantize fundamental p -branes with $p > 2$. All the techniques that worked so well for fundamental strings and which allow us, for example, to calculate how one string scatters off another, simply do not go through. Problems arise both at the level of the worldvolume equations where our old *bete noir* of non-renormalizability comes back to haunt us and also at the level of the spacetime equations. Each term in string perturbation theory corresponds to a two-dimensional worldsheet with more and more holes: we must sum over all topologies of the worldsheet. But for surfaces with more than two dimensions we do not know how to do this. Indeed, there are powerful theorems in pure mathematics which tell you that it is not merely hard but impossible. Of course, one could always invoke the dictum that *God does not do perturbation theory*, but that does not cut much ice unless you can say what He does do! So there were two major impediments to string/fivebrane duality in 10 dimensions. First, the electric/magnetic duality analogy was ineffective so long as most physicists were sceptical of this duality. Secondly, treating fivebranes as fundamental raised all the unresolved issues of non-perturbative quantization.

The first of these impediments was removed, however, when Ashoke Sen (Tata Institute) revitalized the Olive-Montonen conjecture by establishing that certain dyonic states, which their conjecture demanded, were indeed present in the theory. Many duality sceptics were thus converted. Indeed this inspired Nathan Seiberg (Rutger's University) and Witten to look for duality in more realistic (though still supersymmetric) approximations to the standard model. The subsequent industry, known as Seiberg-Witten theory, provided a wealth of new information on non-perturbative effects in four-dimensional quantum field theories, such as

quark-confinement and symmetry-breaking, which would have been unthinkable just a few years ago.

The Olive-Montonen conjecture was originally intended to apply to four-dimensional grand unified field theories. In 1990, however, Anamarie Font, Luis Ibanez, Dieter Lust and Fernando Quevedo at CERN and, independently, Soo Yong Rey (University of Seoul) generalized the idea to four-dimensional superstrings, where in fact the idea becomes even more natural and goes by the name of S -duality.

In fact, superstring theorists had already become used to a totally different kind of duality called T -duality. Unlike, S -duality which was a non-perturbative symmetry and hence still speculative, T -duality was a perturbative symmetry and rigorously established. If we compactify a string theory on a circle then, in addition to the Kaluza-Klein particles we would expect in an ordinary field theory, there are also extra *winding* particles that arise because a string can wind around the circle. T -duality states that nothing changes if we exchange the roles of the Kaluza-Klein and winding particles provided we also exchange the radius of the circle R by its inverse $1/R$. In short, a string cannot tell the difference between a big circle and a small one!

9 String/string duality in six dimensions

Recall that when wrapped around a circle, an 11-dimensional membrane behaves as if it were a 10-dimensional string. In a series of papers between 1991 and 1995, a team at Texas A&M University involving Ramzi Khuri, James T. Liu, Jianxin Lu, Ruben Minasian, Joachim Rahmfeld, and myself argued that this may also be the way out of the problems of 10-dimensional string/fivebrane duality. If we allow four of the ten dimensions to be curled up and allow the solitonic fivebrane to wrap around them, it will behave as if it were a 6-dimensional solitonic string! The fundamental string will remain a fundamental string but now also in 6-dimensions. So the 10-dimensional string/fivebrane duality conjecture gets replaced by a 6-dimensional string/string duality conjecture. The obvious advantage is that, in contrast to the fivebrane, we do know how to quantize the string and hence we can put the predictions of string/string duality to the test. For example, one can show that the coupling constant of the solitonic string is indeed given by the inverse of the fundamental string's coupling constant, in complete agreement with the conjecture.

	Fundamental string	Dual string
T – duality :	$Radius \leftrightarrow 1/(Radius)$	$charge \leftrightarrow 1/(charge)$
	$Kaluza - Klein \leftrightarrow Winding$	$Electric \leftrightarrow Magnetic$
S – duality :	$charge \leftrightarrow 1/(charge)$	$Radius \leftrightarrow 1/(Radius)$
	$Electric \leftrightarrow Magnetic$	$Kaluza - Klein \leftrightarrow Winding$

Table 3: Duality of dualities

When we spoke of string/string duality, we originally had in mind a duality between one heterotic string and another, but the next major development in the subject came in 1994 when Christopher Hull (Queen Mary and Westfield College, London University) and Townsend suggested that, if the four-dimensional compact space is chosen suitably, a six-dimensional heterotic string can also be dual to a six-dimensional Type *IIA* string! These authors also added further support to the idea that the Type *IIA* string originates in eleven dimensions.

It occurred to the present author that string/string duality has another unexpected payoff. If we compactify the six-dimensional spacetime on two circles down to four dimensions, the fundamental string and the solitonic string will each acquire a *T*-duality. But here is the miracle: the *T*-duality of the solitonic string is just the *S*-duality of the fundamental string, and vice-versa! This phenomenon, in which the non-perturbative replacement of e by $1/e$ in one picture is just the perturbative replacement of R by $1/R$ in the dual picture, goes by the name of *Duality of Dualities*. See Table 3. Thus four-dimensional electric/magnetic duality, which was previously only a conjecture, now emerges automatically if we make the more primitive conjecture of six-dimensional string/string duality.

10 M-theory

All this previous work on *T*-duality, *S*-duality, and string/string duality was suddenly pulled together under the umbrella of *M*-theory by Witten in his, by now famous, talk at the University of Southern California in February 1995. Curiously enough, however, Witten still played down the importance of supermembranes. But it was only a matter of time before he too succumbed to the conclusion that we weren't doing just string theory any more! In

the coming months, literally hundreds of papers appeared in the internet confirming that, whatever M -theory may be, it certainly involves supermembranes in an important way. For example, in 1992 R. Güven (Bosporus University) had shown that eleven-dimensional supergravity admits a solitonic fivebrane solution dual to the fundamental membrane solution found the year before by Stelle and myself. See the $(D = 11, d = 6)$ point marked by a T in Table 2. It did not take long to realize that 6-dimensional string/string duality (and hence 4-dimensional electric/magnetic duality) follows from 11-dimensional membrane/fivebrane duality. The fundamental string is obtained by wrapping the membrane around a one-dimensional space and then compactifying on a four-dimensional space; whereas the solitonic string is obtained by wrapping the fivebrane around the four-dimensional space and then compactifying on the one-dimensional space. Nor did it take long before the more realistic kinds of electric/magnetic duality envisioned by Seiberg and Witten were also given an explanation in terms of string/string duality and hence M -theory.

Even the chiral $E_8 \times E_8$ string, which according to Witten's earlier theorem could never come from eleven-dimensions, was given an eleven-dimensional explanation by Petr Horava (Princeton University) and Witten. The no-go theorem is evaded by compactifying not on a circle (which has no ends), but on a line-segment (which has two ends). It is ironic that having driven the nail into the coffin of eleven-dimensions (and having driven Gell-Mann to utter "Ugh!"), Witten was the one to pull the nail out again! He went on to argue that if the size of this one-dimensional space is large compared to the six-dimensional Calabi-Yau manifold, then our world is approximately five-dimensional. This may have important consequences for confronting M -theory with experiment. For example, it is known that the strengths of the four forces change with energy. In supersymmetric extensions of the standard model, one finds that the fine structure constants $\alpha_3, \alpha_2, \alpha_1$ associated with the $SU(3) \times SU(2) \times U(1)$ all meet at about 10^{16} GeV, entirely consistent with the idea of grand unification. The strength of the dimensionless number $\alpha_G = GE^2$, where G is Newton's constant and E is the energy, also almost meets the other three, but not quite. This near miss has been a source of great interest, but also frustration. However, in a universe of the kind envisioned by Witten, spacetime is approximately a narrow five dimensional layer bounded by four-dimensional walls. The particles of the standard model live on the walls but gravity lives in the five-dimensional bulk. As a result, it is possible to choose the size of this fifth dimension so that all four forces meet at this common scale. Note that this is much

less than the Planck scale of 10^{19} GeV, so gravitational effects may be much closer in energy than we previously thought; a result that would have all kinds of cosmological consequences.

Thus this eleven-dimensional framework now provides the starting point for understanding a wealth of new non-perturbative phenomena, including string/string duality, Seiberg-Witten theory, quark confinement, particle physics phenomenology and cosmology.

11 Black holes and D -branes

Type II string theories differ from heterotic theories in one important respect: in addition to the usual Faraday 3-form charge, called the Neveu-Schwarz charge after Andre Neveu (University of Montpellier) and Schwarz, they also carry so-called Ramond charges, named after Pierre Ramond of the University of Florida, Gainesville. These are associated with Faraday 2-forms and 4-forms in the case of Type IIA and Faraday 3-forms and 5-forms in the case of Type IIB . Accordingly in 1993, Jiixin Lu and I were able to find new solutions of the Type IIA string equations describing super p -branes with $p = 0, 2$ and their duals with $p = 6, 4$ and new solutions of Type IIB string equations with $p = 1, 3$ and their duals with $p = 5, 3$. Interestingly enough, the Type IIB superthreebrane is *self-dual*, carrying a magnetic charge equal to its electric charge. This meant that there were more points on the brane-scan than had previously been appreciated. These occupy the V slots in Table 2. For all these solutions, the mass per unit p -volume was given by the charge, as a consequence of the preservation half of the spacetime supersymmetry. However, we recognized that they were in fact just the extremal mass=charge limit of more general non-supersymmetric solutions found previously by Horowitz and Strominger. These solutions, whose mass was greater than their charge, exhibit *event horizons*: surfaces from which nothing, not even light, can escape. They were *black* branes!

Thus another by-product of these membrane breakthroughs has been an appreciation of the role played by black holes in particle physics and string theory. In fact they can be regarded as black branes wrapped around the compactified dimensions. These black holes are tiny (10^{-35} meters) objects; not the multi-million solar mass objects that are gobbling up galaxies. However, the same physics applies to both and there are strong hints by Lenny Susskind (Stanford University) and others that M-theory may even clear up many of the apparent paradoxes of quantum black holes raised by Hawking.

As we have already discussed, one of the biggest unsolved mysteries in string theory is why there seem to be billions of different ways of compactifying the string from ten dimensions to four and hence billions of competing predictions of the real world. Remarkably, Brian Greene of Cornell University, David Morrison of Duke University and Strominger have shown that these wrapped around black branes actually connect one Calabi-Yau vacuum to another. This holds promise of a dynamical mechanism that would explain why the world is as it is, in other words, why we live in one particular vacuum. A fuller discussion may be found in Greene’s book [4].

Another interconnection was recently uncovered by Polchinski who realized that the Type *II* super p -branes carrying Ramond charges may be identified with the so-called Dirichlet-branes (or D -branes, for short) that he had studied some years ago by looking at strings with unusual boundary conditions. Dirichlet was a French mathematician who first introduced such boundary conditions. These D -branes are just the surfaces on which open strings can end. In the process, he discovered an 8-brane in Type *IIA* theory and a 7-brane and 9-brane in Type *IIB* which had previously been overlooked. See Table 2. This D -brane technology has opened up a whole new chapter in the history of supermembranes. In particular, it has enabled Strominger and Cumrun Vafa from Harvard to make a comparison of the black hole entropy calculated from the degeneracy of wrapped-around black brane states with the Bekenstein-Hawking entropy of an extreme black hole. Their agreement provided the first microscopic explanation of black hole entropy. Moreover, as Townsend had shown earlier, the extreme black hole solutions of the ten-dimensional Type *IIA* string (in other words, the Dirichlet 0-branes) were just the Kaluza-Klein particles associated with wrapping the eleven-dimensional membrane around a circle. Moreover, four-dimensional black holes also admit the interpretation of intersecting membranes and fivebranes in eleven-dimensions. All this holds promise of a deeper understanding of black hole physics via supermembranes.

12 Eleven to twelve: is it still too early?

We have remarked that eleven spacetime dimensions are the maximum allowed by super p -branes. This is certainly true if we believe that the Universe has only one time dimension. Worlds with more than one time present all kind of headaches for theoretical physicists and they prefer not to think about them. For example, there would be no “before” and

“after” in the conventional sense. Just for fun, however, in 1987 Miles Blencowe (Imperial College, University of London) and I imagined what would happen if one relaxed this one-time requirement. We found that we could not rule out the possibility of a supersymmetric extended object with a (2 space, 2 time) worldvolume living in a (10 space, 2 time) spacetime. We even suggested that the Type *IIB* string with its (1 space, 1 time) worldsheet living in a (9 space, 1 time) spacetime might be descended from this object in much the same way that the Type *IIA* string with its (1 space, 1 time) worldsheet living in a (9 space, 1 time) spacetime is descended from the (2 space, 1 time) worldvolume of the supermembrane living in a (10 space, 1 time) spacetime. This idea lay dormant for almost a decade but has recently been revived by Vafa and others in the context of *F-theory*. The utility of *F-theory* is certainly beyond dispute: it has yielded a wealth of new information on string/string duality. But should the twelve dimensions of *F-theory* be taken seriously? And if so, should *F-theory* be regarded as more fundamental than *M-theory*? (If *M* stands for Mother, maybe *F* stands for Father.) To make sense of *F-theory*, however, it seems necessary to somehow freeze out the twelfth timelike dimension where there appears to be no dynamics. Moreover, Einstein’s requirement that the laws of physics be invariant under changes in the spacetime coordinates seems to apply only to ten or eleven of the dimensions and not to twelve. So the symmetry of the theory, as far as we can tell, is only that of ten or eleven dimensions. The more conservative interpretation of *F-theory*, therefore, is that the twelfth dimension is just a mathematical artifact with no profound significance. Time (or perhaps I should say “Both times”) will tell.

13 So what is M-theory?

Is M-theory to be regarded literally as membrane theory? In other words should we attempt to “quantize” the eleven dimensional membrane in some, as yet unknown, non-perturbative way? Personally, I think the jury is still out on whether this is the right thing to do. Witten, for example, strongly believes that this is not the correct approach. He would say, in physicist’s jargon, that we do not even know what the right degrees of freedom are. So although *M-theory* admits 2-branes and 5-branes, it is probably much more besides.

Recently, Tom Banks and Stephen Shenker at Rutgers together with Willy Fischler from the University of Texas and Susskind have even proposed a rigorous definition of *M-theory*

known as M(atrrix) theory which is based on an infinite number of Dirichlet 0-branes. In this picture spacetime is a fuzzy concept in which the spacetime coordinates x, y, z, \dots are matrices that do not commute e.g. $xy \neq yx$. This approach has generated great excitement but does yet seem to be the last word. It works well in high dimensions but as we descend in dimension it seems to break down before we reach the real four-dimensional world.

Another interesting development has recently been provided by Juan Maldacena at Harvard, who has suggested that M -theory on anti-de Sitter space, including all its gravitational interactions, may be completely described by a non-gravitational theory on the boundary of anti-de Sitter space. This holds promise not only of a deeper understanding of M -theory, but may also throw light on non-perturbative aspects of the theories that live on the boundary, which in some circumstances can include the kinds of quark theories that govern the strong nuclear interactions. Models of this kind, where a bulk theory with gravity is equivalent to a boundary theory without gravity, have also been advocated by 't Hooft and independently by Susskind who call them *holographic* theories. The reader may notice a striking similarity to the earlier idea of “The membrane at the end of the universe” [6] and interconnections between the two are currently being explored.

M -theory has sometimes been called the *Second Superstring Revolution*, but we feel this is really a misnomer. It certainly involves new ideas every bit as significant as those of the 1984 string revolution, but its reliance upon supermembranes and eleven dimensions makes it sufficiently different from traditional string theory to warrant its own name. One cannot deny the tremendous historical influence of the last decade of superstrings on our current perspectives. Indeed, it is the pillar upon which our belief in a quantum consistent M -theory rests. In my opinion, however, the focus on the perturbative aspects of one-dimensional objects moving in a ten-dimensional spacetime that prevailed during this period will ultimately be seen to be a small (and perhaps physically insignificant) corner of M -theory. The overriding problem in superunification in the coming years will be to take the Mystery out of M -theory, while keeping the Magic and the Membranes.

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