# Random Matrix Models of String Theory Part I of 2 

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## Outline

Introduction

Random Matrices - Generalities
Eigenvalue Reduction and Vandermonde determinant

Continuum Limit and Double Scaling

Matrix Quantum Mechanics

Free Fermions and the $c=1$ String

## Introduction

- String theory was originally defined as a sum over worldsheets of ever-increasing genus.

- This is analogous to defining field theory by its expansion over Feynman diagrams.

- The number of handles in the surfaces, like the number of loops in the diagrams, count the order in perturbation theory.
- In field theory, there is a non-perturbative formulation (e.g. Lagrangian path integral) that contains information about such things as solitons, tunnelling and confinement.
- There exists a non-perturbative formulation of string theory too - but so far, it is known only about rather specific spacetime backgrounds.
- This is the random matrix formulation describes strings propagating in very low dimensional spacetimes, such as two.
- Hence, strings propagating in two spacetime dimensions (one space, one time) will be the subject of these lectures.
- The road to the nonperturbative formulation is rather long. We will start with a theory that almost achieves this, but fails. This is called the $c=1$ bosonic string.
- The theory is still rather interesting, in that we knows its partition function and scattering amplitudes to all orders in perturbation theory.
- Then we will turn our attention to the more recently understood noncritical type 0 A and 0 B strings. In perturbation theory these are very much like the bosonic string, but they are also non-perturbatively well-defined.


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## Random Matrices - Generalities

- There are two different ways to motivate the random matrix approach. Let us first start with the traditional motivation.
- The idea is to start with an action principle which generates, not Riemann surfaces but discrete (lattice-like) versions of them.
- This is quite easy to achieve. A discrete Riemann surface can be made by gluing together triangles:

- The next step would be to write a function that, on expanding, generates these triangles.
- This is achieved via a trick called lattice duality. Put a vertex at the centre of every triangle, and connect every pair of vertices by a line that cuts the common boundary of the triangles.

- In fact it's natural to thicken these new lines to double lines.

One sees now that the Riemann surface is covered by polygons glued together at their common edges.

- The polygons can have different numbers of sides. But the dual diagram always has three lines meeting at a point, precisely because we did lattice duality on triangles.
- Now we are almost done. Double lines are generated by matrices because they have two indices.
- And three-point vertices are generated by cubic couplings among the matrices.
- This suggests a random matrix integral will do the job::

$$
\mathcal{Z}=\int[d M] e^{-N \operatorname{tr}\left(\frac{1}{2} M^{2}+g M^{3}\right)}
$$

where $M$ are $N \times N$ Hermitian random matrices.

- This is still a little vague. What do we mean "do the job"? And is this the unique action for the purpose? Please be patient...
- The random matrix integral we wrote should be thought of as a field theory path integral, except that instead of fields we have matrices. Instead of an integral over space and time, we have a trace.
- The integral can be evaluated using the very same technique we learn in field theory: solve the quadratic (Gaussian) part explicitly and treat the rest in perturbation theory.
- For this we need to develop some rules. First, let $M$ be an $N \times N$ Hermitian matrix.
- The measure in the integral is then:

$$
[d M] \equiv \prod_{i=1}^{N} d M_{i i} \prod_{i<j=1}^{N} d M_{i j} d M_{i j}^{*}
$$

- Now we evaluate the Gaussian matrix integral in the presence of a source:

$$
\int[d M] e^{-N \operatorname{tr}\left(\frac{1}{2} M^{2}+J M\right)}=\left(\frac{2 \pi}{N}\right)^{\frac{N^{2}}{2}} e^{N \operatorname{tr} \frac{J^{2}}{2}}
$$

- Next we use this to compute the propagator:

$$
\left\langle M_{i j} M_{k l}\right\rangle \equiv \frac{\int[d M] M_{i j} M_{k l} e^{-N \operatorname{tr} \frac{1}{2} M^{2}}}{\int[d M] e^{-N \operatorname{tr} \frac{1}{2} M^{2}}}=\frac{1}{N} \delta_{i l} \delta_{j k}
$$

- By virtue of its structure, the propagator is naturally represented in terms of double lines:
- Next, consider the cubic term. This can be used to generate a cubic vertex, as in field theory:

- Combining these elements we see that the perturbation expansion of our matrix model is a dual triangulated surface.
- The matrix integral generates all possible closed diagrams. Therefore it will produce all types of Riemann surfaces. The topology of the surface is defined by the particular diagram.
- Indeed we know that if:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { number of vertices } & =V \\
\text { number of edges } & =E \\
\text { number of faces } & =F
\end{aligned}
$$

one has the relation:

$$
V-E+F=2-2 h
$$

where $h$ is the genus of the surface.

- The same relation is true on the dual graph, with

$$
V \leftrightarrow F
$$

- Now each vertex has a factor of $g N$, each propagator has $\frac{1}{N}$ and each face has a factor of $N$ from the sum over matrix indices.
- Therefore a given graph in the expansion will be of order:

$$
(g N)^{V} N^{-E} N^{F}=g^{V} N^{2-2 h}
$$

We learn that $\frac{1}{N^{2}}$ is the genus expansion parameter, and $g$ is an additional coupling constant to be held fixed.

- Thus the partition function can be written:

$$
\mathcal{Z}(g, N)=\sum_{h=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{Z}_{h}(g) N^{2-2 h}
$$

## Eigenvalue Reduction and Vandermonde determinant

- A Hermitian matrix can always be diagonalised:

$$
M=U \wedge U^{\dagger}
$$

where $U$ is a unitary matrix, and

$$
\Lambda=\operatorname{diag}\left(\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \cdots, \lambda_{N}\right)
$$

is a diagonal matrix of eigenvalues.

- The unitary matrix decouples from the action, which we can write as:

$$
\operatorname{tr}\left(\frac{1}{2} M^{2}+g M^{3}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{N}\left(\frac{1}{2} \lambda_{i}^{2}+g \lambda_{i}^{3}\right)
$$

- Next we reduce the integration measure to eigenvalues:

$$
[d M]=\prod_{i=1}^{N} d \lambda_{i} \Delta(\lambda)^{2}
$$

where we see the appearance of the Vandermonde determinant:

$$
\Delta(\lambda)=\prod_{i<j}\left(\lambda_{i}-\lambda_{j}\right)
$$

- This arises as follows. We have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
d M & =d U \wedge U^{\dagger}+U d \wedge U^{\dagger}+U \wedge d U^{\dagger} \Longrightarrow \\
U^{\dagger} d M U & =d \Lambda+\left[U^{\dagger} d U, \Lambda\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

- Next we use two facts:
(i) $d \alpha=U^{\dagger} d U$ is the infinitesimal element in the Lie algebra (tangent space to the unitary group).
(ii) the measures $[d M]$ and $\left[d M^{\prime}\right]=\left[U^{\dagger} d M U\right]$ are the same.
- Then we have:

$$
d M_{i j}^{\prime}=d \lambda_{i} \delta_{i j}+d \alpha_{i j}\left(\lambda_{i}-\lambda_{j}\right)
$$

Geometrically, this means that the identity metric on the $N^{2}$-dimensional space with coordinates $d M_{i j}^{\prime}$ transforms to a nontrivial metric:

$$
G_{A B}=\operatorname{diag}\left(1,1, \cdots, 1,\left(\lambda_{1}-\lambda_{2}\right)^{2},\left(\lambda_{1}-\lambda_{3}\right)^{2}, \cdots\right)
$$

in the coordinates $\left(\lambda_{i}, \alpha_{i j}\right)$.

- To transform the measure, we compute

$$
\sqrt{G}=\prod_{i \neq j}\left(\lambda_{i}-\lambda_{j}\right)=\Delta(\lambda)^{2}
$$

and therefore

$$
[d M]=[d U] \prod_{i=1}^{N} d \lambda_{i} \Delta(\lambda)^{2}
$$

- The integral over $d U$ is just a numerical factor since the integrand is independent of it. That completes the proof.


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- Let us now return to our goal of extracting a string theory from the matrix integral.
- Recall that the expansion of the integral is:

$$
\mathcal{Z}(g, N)=\sum_{h=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{Z}_{h}(g) N^{2-2 h}
$$

- We notice that the large- $N$ limit picks out the genus-0 contribution. In string theory, this would be tree level.
- But this is still not string theory. The genus-0 partition function, $\mathcal{Z}_{0}(g)$, describes discrete surfaces with all possible numbers of vertices.
- We would like to take a continuum limit where $\mathcal{Z}_{0}(g)$ is dominated by graphs with very many vertices (the dual graph then has many triangles).
- Defining the area of a triangulation as the number of triangles (or in the dual graph, the number of vertices), we are looking for infinite-area surfaces.
- To achieve this we exploit the constant parameter $g$. As $g$ is increased, the partition function undergoes a phase transition:

$$
\mathcal{Z}_{0}(g) \sim\left(g-g_{c}\right)^{2-\gamma}
$$

for some critical exponent $\gamma$.

- We have:

$$
\mathcal{Z}_{0}(g) \sim\left(g-g_{c}\right)^{2-\gamma} \sim \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{\gamma-3}\left(\frac{g}{g_{c}}\right)^{n}
$$

and therefore

$$
\langle n\rangle \sim \frac{1}{\mathcal{Z}_{0}(g)} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n \cdot n^{\gamma-3}\left(\frac{g}{g_{c}}\right)^{n} \sim \frac{\partial}{\partial g} \log \mathcal{Z}_{0} \sim \frac{1}{g-g_{c}}
$$

- Therefore, the average area diverges as $g \rightarrow g_{c}$.
- We see that to recover a continuum, tree-level theory we need to take the limit:

$$
N \rightarrow \infty, \quad g \rightarrow g_{c}
$$

- Remarkably, by changing this limit slightly, we can get a continuum theory that includes all genus contributions.
- First of all we expect that the divergence as $g \rightarrow g_{c}$ is a local phenomenon on the worldsheet. Therefore the value of $g_{c}$ is the same in all genus.
- Next we claim that in genus $h$, the divergence goes as:

$$
\mathcal{Z}_{h}(g) \sim\left(g-g_{c}\right)^{(2-\gamma)(1-h)}
$$

- Thus the full partition function behaves near $g \rightarrow g_{c}$ as:

$$
\mathcal{Z}(g, N) \sim \sum_{h} F_{h}\left[N\left(g-g_{c}\right)^{(2-\gamma) / 2}\right]^{2-2 h}=\sum_{h} F_{h} g_{s}^{2 h-2}
$$

where

$$
g_{s} \equiv\left[N\left(g-g_{c}\right)^{(2-\gamma) / 2}\right]^{-1}
$$

- Thus, to obtain a continuum theory that includes all genus we simply take the limit:

$$
N \rightarrow \infty, g \rightarrow g_{c}, g_{s} \equiv\left[N\left(g-g_{c}\right)^{(2-\gamma) / 2}\right]^{-1} \text { fixed }
$$

and it is $g_{s}$ that will be the new genus expansion parameter, or string coupling.

- The above limit is called the double scaling limit.
- The next step is to carry out the genus expansion of this matrix model in the double-scaling limit and see if it has the properties expected of a string theory.
- In fact by varying the matrix potential, one finds a series of string theories. These can be identified by their susceptibility $\chi$ to be the $(q=2, p)$ minimal CFT's coupled to worldsheet gravity (a Liouville field theory).
- Instead of pursuing this direction, I would like to introduce a somewhat different matrix model that leads to a more interesting string theory.


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## Matrix Quantum Mechanics

- Consider a Hermitian matrix $M(t)$ that depends on a parameter $t$. Let's write a matrix model:

$$
\mathcal{Z}=\int[d M(t)] e^{-N \int d t \operatorname{tr}\left(\frac{1}{2} D_{t} M^{2}+\frac{1}{2} M^{2}-\frac{g}{3!} M^{3}\right)}
$$

where

$$
D_{t} M \equiv \dot{M}+\left[A_{t}, M\right]
$$

This is a path integral for gauged matrix quantum mechanics.

- In terms of the genus expansion, this model has the same properties as the simpler model of constant matrices.
- However, it also has a parameter $t$ that will endow the string theory with a time direction.
- Here, $A_{t}$ is a $U(N)$ gauge field, due to which the matrix model has a local (in time) gauge symmetry:

$$
M(t) \rightarrow U^{\dagger}(t) M(t) U(t)
$$

- We can gauge fix $A_{t}=0$, but must remember to impose its equation of motion ("Gauss Law"):

$$
[M, \dot{M}]=0
$$

on physical states.

- The eigenvalue reduction comes about by diagonalising the matrix:

$$
M(t)=U(t) \Lambda(t) U(t)^{\dagger}
$$

- We appear to have a problem. The matrix model action does not reduce only to eigenvalues:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{tr}\left(\dot{M}^{2}\right) & =\operatorname{tr}\left(\dot{\Lambda}+\left[U^{\dagger} \dot{U}, \Lambda\right]\right)^{2}=\operatorname{tr}\left(\dot{\Lambda}^{2}+\left[U^{\dagger} \dot{U}, \Lambda\right]^{2}\right) \\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{N} \dot{\lambda}_{i}^{2}+\sum_{i<j}\left(\lambda_{i}-\lambda_{j}\right)^{2} \dot{\alpha}_{i j} \dot{\alpha}_{j i}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\dot{\alpha}_{i j}=\left(U^{\dagger} \dot{U}\right)_{i j}$.

- Moreover, the Vandermonde determinant will now appear in the measure at every time $t$.
- To avoid these two inconveniences, it is convenient to pass to the Hamiltonian, which acts on a Hilbert space of wave functions: $\Psi\left(M_{i j}\right)$ or $\Psi\left(\lambda_{i}, \alpha_{i j}\right)$.
- In terms of $M$, the Hamiltonian is just:

$$
\begin{aligned}
H & =-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial M_{i i}^{2}}-\sum_{i<j} \frac{\partial}{\partial M_{i j}} \frac{\partial}{\partial M_{j i}}-\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{tr} M^{2}+\frac{g}{3!\sqrt{N}} \operatorname{tr} M^{3} \\
& =H_{k i n}+H_{\text {int }}
\end{aligned}
$$

where we first scaled the matrix $M$ by $\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}$.

- However, because of the metric that we saw earlier, the kinetic term $H_{k i n}$ is nontrivial in the $\lambda_{i}, \alpha_{i j}$ coordinates.
- Indeed, the correct answer is:

$$
\begin{aligned}
H_{k i n} & =-\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{G}} \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda_{i}} \sqrt{G} \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda_{i}}+\sum_{i<j} \frac{1}{\left(\lambda_{i}-\lambda_{j}\right)^{2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{G}} \Pi_{i j} \sqrt{G} \Pi_{j i} \\
& =-\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\Delta(\lambda)^{2}} \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda_{i}} \Delta(\lambda)^{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda_{i}}+\sum_{i<j} \frac{1}{\left(\lambda_{i}-\lambda_{j}\right)^{2}} \Pi_{i j} \Pi_{j i}
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
\Pi_{i j}=[\Lambda,[\Lambda, \dot{\alpha}]]_{i j}
$$

is the canonical momentum conjugate to $\alpha_{j i}$.

- However, the Gauss law constraint $[M, \dot{M}]=0$ precisely implies that:

$$
[\Lambda,[\Lambda, \dot{\alpha}]]=0
$$

on physical states. Thus the second term in $H$ vanishes.

- We are left with the kinetic Hamiltonian

$$
H_{k i n}=-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{\Delta(\lambda)^{2}} \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda_{i}} \Delta(\lambda)^{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda_{i}}
$$

- Using the identity:

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial \lambda_{i}^{2}} \Delta(\lambda)=0
$$

we can re-write this Hamiltonian as:

$$
H_{k i n}=-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{\Delta(\lambda)} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial \lambda_{i}^{2}} \Delta(\lambda)
$$

- This acts on wave functions $\Psi(\lambda)$ that are symmetric under interchange of all the eigenvalues.
- The Schrödinger equation:

$$
H \Psi(\lambda)=E \Psi(\lambda)
$$

can now be re-written

$$
\tilde{H} \tilde{\Psi}(\lambda)=E \tilde{\Psi}(\lambda)
$$

where

$$
\begin{align*}
\tilde{H} & =\Delta(\lambda) H \frac{1}{\Delta(\lambda)}=\sum_{i=1}^{N}\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial \lambda_{i}^{2}}-\frac{1}{2} \lambda_{i}^{2}+\frac{g}{3!\sqrt{N}} \lambda_{i}^{3}\right) \\
\tilde{\Psi}(\lambda) & =\Delta(\lambda) \Psi(\lambda) \tag{1}
\end{align*}
$$

- Thus we are left with a system of mutually noninteracting particles with coordinates $\lambda_{i}$ moving in a common potential. The extra $\Delta$ factor makes the wave functions fermionic.


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- We have reduced the Hamiltonian of Matrix Quantum Mechanics to a sum of one-particle Hamiltonians:

$$
H=\sum_{i=1}^{N} h\left(\lambda_{i}\right)
$$

where

$$
h(\lambda)=-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial \lambda^{2}}-\frac{1}{2} \lambda^{2}+\frac{1}{3!\sqrt{\beta}} \lambda^{3}, \quad \beta=\frac{N}{g^{2}}
$$

- We now wish to study this free fermion system in a large- $N$, double-scaled limit.
- What do we want to know about the system?
- We would like to compute the partition function of the matrix model. In Hamiltonian formulation, this can be written:

$$
\mathcal{Z}={ }_{\text {out }}\langle 0| e^{-H T}|0\rangle_{\text {in }}
$$

- For large times $T$, it is the ground state energy that contributes:

$$
\lim _{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln Z}{T}=-E_{g r}
$$

- Therefore we will try to compute the ground state energy of the free fermions.
- First, it is convenient to redefine variables in a way that provides us some physical intuition.
- If we send $\lambda \rightarrow \sqrt{\beta} \lambda$ then the single-particle Schrödinger equation becomes:

$$
\left(-\frac{1}{2 \beta^{2}} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial \lambda^{2}}-\frac{1}{2} \lambda^{2}+\frac{1}{3!} \lambda^{3}\right) \Psi(\lambda)=\frac{1}{\beta} E \Psi(\lambda)
$$

- The advantage of this is that we can interpret $\beta^{-1}$ as $\hbar$, Planck's constant. The equation is then written:

$$
\left(-\frac{\hbar^{2}}{2} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial \lambda^{2}}-\frac{1}{2} \lambda^{2}+\frac{1}{3!} \lambda^{3}\right) \Psi(\lambda)=\hbar E \Psi(\lambda)=\varepsilon \Psi(\lambda)
$$

- The kinetic term has the usual form for quantum mechanics, and $E$ on the RHS is the energy measured in units of Planck's constant.
- Now we can start to understand the double scaling limit. The potential looks like this:

- The Hamiltonian is actually unbounded below. However, eigenvalues localised on the right will tunnel through the barrier at a rate of order $e^{-\beta}=e^{-\frac{N}{g^{2}}}$.
- Therefore at this stage we have to bid farewell to our hopes of the theory being nonperturbatively well-defined.
- However, as long as we are only interested in perturbation theory in $\frac{1}{N^{2}}$, we can ignore tunneling.
- In this approximation, the Hamiltonian has discretely spaced levels on the right of the barrier, with typical spacing of order $\hbar=\beta^{-1}$.

- Very qualitatively, we see that the depth of the well is of order 1 , and the level spacing is roughly of order

$$
\frac{1}{\beta}=\frac{g^{2}}{N}
$$

- We have to fill up the well with $N$ fermions. Because of the Pauli principle, in the ground state they will fill the first $N$ levels.
- Thus the topmost level ("Fermi level") will be at a height of order $g^{2}$ above the bottom of the well.
- And $g$ is precisely the parameter in our control.
- For small $g$, the Fermi level can be below the barrier. But for large enough $g$, this level will rise above the barrier and eigenvalues will spill out to the other side.
- This is precisely the phase transition that makes continuum Riemann surfaces!
- To do better than this crude approximation, we use the WKB method to find the eigenvalues of this potential.
- This tells us that the $n$ 'th energy eigenvalue $\varepsilon_{n}$ is given by:

$$
\oint p_{n}(\lambda) d \lambda_{n}=\frac{2 \pi}{\beta} n
$$

where:

$$
p_{n}(\lambda)=\sqrt{2\left(\varepsilon_{n}+\frac{1}{2} \lambda^{2}-\frac{1}{3!} \lambda^{3}\right)}
$$

and the integral is over a closed classical orbit.

- If the topmost orbit has turning points $\lambda_{+}, \lambda_{-}$, the Fermi level $\mu_{F}$ satisfies:

$$
\int_{\lambda_{-}}^{\lambda_{+}} \sqrt{2\left(\mu_{F}+\frac{1}{2} \lambda^{2}-\frac{1}{3!} \lambda^{3}\right)} d \lambda=\pi \frac{N}{\beta}=\pi g^{2}
$$

- This confirms our qualitative guess that tuning $g$ is responsible for tuning the Fermi level.
- Since we are going to take the limit of large $N$, it is convenient to analyse this problem in terms of the density of states of the system:

$$
\rho(\varepsilon)=\frac{1}{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \delta\left(\varepsilon-\varepsilon_{i}\right)
$$

- Then we have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
E_{g r} & =\beta \varepsilon_{g r}=\beta \sum_{i=1}^{N} \varepsilon_{i}=\beta^{2} \int_{V_{\min }}^{\mu_{F}} d \varepsilon \varepsilon \rho(\varepsilon) \\
g^{2} & =\frac{N}{\beta}=\int_{V_{\min }}^{\mu_{F}} d \varepsilon \rho(\varepsilon)
\end{aligned}
$$

- To compute the density of states, we equate the two expressions for $g^{2}$ to get:

$$
g^{2}=\int_{V_{\min }}^{-\mu} d \varepsilon \rho(\varepsilon)=\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{\lambda_{-}}^{\lambda_{+}} \sqrt{2\left(-\mu+\frac{1}{2} \lambda^{2}-\frac{1}{3!} \lambda^{3}\right)} d \lambda
$$

where we have defined the positive quantity $\mu=-\mu_{F}$.

- Differentiating in $-\mu$, we get:

$$
\begin{aligned}
-\frac{\partial g^{2}}{\partial \mu} & =\rho(-\mu)=\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{\lambda_{-}}^{\lambda_{+}} \frac{d \lambda}{\sqrt{2\left(-\mu+\frac{1}{2} \lambda^{2}-\frac{1}{3!} \lambda^{3}\right)}} \\
& =-\frac{1}{\pi} \log \mu+\mathcal{O}\left(\beta^{-2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

- We are looking for a singularity at a critical value $g_{c}$, so we define:

$$
\Delta=\pi\left(g_{c}^{2}-g^{2}\right)
$$

and seek a relation between $\Delta$ and $\mu$, given that both go to zero together.

- From the previous page we have:

$$
\frac{\partial \Delta}{\partial \mu}=\pi \rho(-\mu)=-\log \mu
$$

which can be integrated to give:

$$
\Delta(\mu)=-\mu \log \mu
$$

- The last step is to differentiate the equation

$$
E_{g r}=\beta^{2} \int_{V_{\min }}^{-\mu} d \varepsilon \varepsilon \rho(\varepsilon)
$$

to get:

$$
\frac{\partial E_{g r}}{\partial \mu}=-\beta^{2} \mu \rho(-\mu)
$$

which on integrating gives:

$$
E_{g r}=\frac{1}{2 \pi}(\beta \mu)^{2} \log \mu
$$

- With this we have performed the single-scaled limit of this matrix model and found the free energy (log of the partition function) in genus 0 .
- Note that the key result was the logarithmic behaviour of the density of states as a function of $\mu$ as $\mu \rightarrow 0$.
- To leading order in the WKB approximation, this depended only on the quadratic part of the potential. In fact, this is true to all orders in the WKB approximation.
- To see this, let us go back to the original form of the one-particle Hamiltonian:

$$
h(\lambda)=-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial \lambda^{2}}-\frac{1}{2} \lambda^{2}+\frac{1}{3!\sqrt{\beta}} \lambda^{3}
$$

- We see that as $\beta \rightarrow \infty$, the cubic term disappears completely. The states we are considering in this limit have energy $-\beta \mu$ which is kept finite.
- Thus from now on our single-particle Hamiltonian is:

$$
h(\lambda)=-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial \lambda^{2}}-\frac{1}{2} \lambda^{2}
$$

- Now we look at the double-scaled theory. We will see that the genus expansion parameter is $\beta \mu$.
- For this, the density of states will prove particularly useful. This time we need to know $\rho(\mu)$ to all orders in $\beta \mu$.
- We can write:

$$
\begin{align*}
\rho(\mu) & =\operatorname{tr} \delta(h+\beta \mu)=\frac{1}{\pi} \operatorname{Im} \operatorname{tr}\left[\frac{1}{h+\beta \mu-i \epsilon}\right]  \tag{2}\\
& =\frac{1}{\pi} \operatorname{Im} \int_{0}^{\infty} d T e^{-(\beta \mu-i \epsilon) T} \operatorname{tr} e^{-h T} \tag{3}
\end{align*}
$$

- Now we use the fact that our Hamiltonian is the continuation of a simple harmonic oscillator:

$$
\tilde{h}(\lambda)=-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial \lambda^{2}}+\frac{1}{2} \omega^{2} \lambda^{2}
$$

to the case $\omega=-i$. We easily see that:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{tr} e^{-\tilde{h} T} & =e^{-\frac{\omega T}{2}}+e^{-\frac{3 \omega T}{2}}+e^{-\frac{5 \omega T}{2}}+\cdots \\
& =\frac{e^{-\frac{\omega T}{2}}}{1-e^{-\omega T}} \\
& =\frac{1}{2 \sinh \omega T / 2}
\end{aligned}
$$

- Now we set $\omega \rightarrow-i$ and simultaneously use the $i \epsilon$ prescription to rotate $T \rightarrow i T$. Thus:

$$
\rho(\mu)=\frac{1}{\pi} \operatorname{Im} \int_{0}^{\infty} d T e^{-i \beta \mu T} \frac{1}{2 \sinh T / 2}
$$

- A small problem: this is logarithmically divergent at the lower limit of integration. This can be removed by differentiating and integrating back in $\beta \mu$.
- The result is best expressed in terms of the dilogarithm function:

$$
\Psi(x) \equiv \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \log \Gamma(x)
$$

and we find:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\rho(\mu) & =-\frac{1}{\pi} \Psi\left(\frac{1}{2}+i \beta \mu\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{\pi}\left(-\log \mu+\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^{2 n-1}-1}{n}\left|B_{2 n}\right|(2 \beta \mu)^{-2 n}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

- We clearly see that the genus expansion parameter in the double scaling limit is:

$$
g_{s}=(\beta \mu)^{-1}
$$

and it is held fixed as $\beta \rightarrow \infty, \mu \rightarrow 0$.

- Finally we recall that $E_{g r}(\mu)=\beta^{2} \int d \mu \mu \rho(\mu)$ to write:

$$
\begin{aligned}
E_{g r}\left(g_{s}\right)= & -\frac{1}{8 \pi}\left(-4 g_{s}^{-2} \log g_{s}+\frac{1}{3} \log g_{s}+\right. \\
& \left.\sum_{h=2}^{\infty} \frac{2^{2 h-1}-1}{2^{2 n} h(h-1)(2 h-1)}\left|B_{2 h}\right| g_{s}^{2 h-2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

- This is precisely the all-genus free energy of a string theory, the bosonic $c=1$ string theory.

