



# Exact Results in Supersymmetric Gauge Theories

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## Abstract

In this thesis we discuss supersymmetric gauge theories, focusing on exact results achieved using methods of integrability. For the larger part of the work we focus solely on the best known example of an integrable supersymmetric gauge theory, namely the  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  super Yang-Mills theory. After motivating the problem of solving it exactly and briefly reviewing the historical developments in the subject we begin rigorous analysis by firstly defining the theory. We discuss it from the gauge theory point of view and give the alternative string theoretic formulation via the AdS/CFT correspondence.

We devote a large portion of the thesis for perturbative integrability, which addresses the spectral problem in perturbation theory both in weak and strong coupling. As we develop integrability technology we keep on applying new concepts to the simplest non-trivial observable in the theory, the Konishi operator. We find its anomalous dimension using perturbative integrability methods at both ends of the range of the coupling constant. At this point we find first hints of exact results by introducing the slope function and exploiting it to extend perturbative results for the Konishi operator.

Finally we address the most recent developments in solving the spectral problem exactly. To that end we introduce the  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system after shortly discussing its motivation using the now arguably obsolete TBA and Y-system approaches. We then demonstrate the applicability of this construction by rederiving the slope function and deriving the so called curvature function. We show how these exact analytical results can be used to extract further information about the Konishi anomalous dimension.

We devote a separate section to the ABJM theory, which is another example of an integrable supersymmetric gauge theory closely related to  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  supersymmetric Yang-Mills. As most of the techniques in ABJM are analogous to the ones describes while covering  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  SYM, we only provide a very brief review of results with references to other work containing the details.

# Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>4</b>
1.1	Brief history of the subject . . . . .	4
1.2	Thesis overview . . . . .	10
<b>2</b>	<b><math>\mathcal{N} = 4</math> super Yang-Mills</b>	<b>11</b>
2.1	Action . . . . .	11
2.2	Observables . . . . .	12
2.3	Symmetry . . . . .	13
2.3.1	Superconformal multiplets . . . . .	14
2.4	String description at strong coupling . . . . .	16
2.4.1	Sigma model formulation . . . . .	17
<b>3</b>	<b>Perturbative Integrability</b>	<b>20</b>
3.1	One loop at weak coupling . . . . .	20
3.1.1	The $\mathfrak{sl}(2)$ sector . . . . .	24
3.2	Higher loops . . . . .	27
3.3	Asymptotic solution . . . . .	28
3.3.1	A glimpse ahead: the slope function . . . . .	29
3.4	Strong coupling and the algebraic curve . . . . .	30
3.4.1	Folded string . . . . .	33
3.5	String quantization and semi-classics . . . . .	34
3.6	Short strings . . . . .	34
3.7	Towards the full solution . . . . .	36
<b>4</b>	<b>Exact results</b>	<b>37</b>
4.1	Solution to the spectral problem . . . . .	37
4.1.1	TBA . . . . .	37
4.1.2	The Y-system . . . . .	39
4.2	The $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system . . . . .	40
4.3	Folded string . . . . .	42
4.4	Cusped Wilson line . . . . .	43
4.4.1	Classical limit . . . . .	44

4.5	Revisiting the slope function . . . . .	52
4.6	The curvature function . . . . .	55
4.6.1	Iterative procedure for the small $S$ expansion of the $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system . . . . .	56
4.6.2	Correcting $\mu_{ab}$ . . . . .	56
4.6.3	Correcting $\mathbf{P}_a$ . . . . .	59
4.6.4	Result for $J = 2$ . . . . .	61
4.6.5	Results for higher $J$ . . . . .	62
4.6.6	Weak coupling expansion . . . . .	64
4.6.7	Strong coupling expansion . . . . .	66
4.7	Update on short strings . . . . .	67
<b>5</b>	<b>ABJM</b>	<b>72</b>
5.1	Definitions . . . . .	72
5.2	Weak coupling . . . . .	72
5.3	Algebraic curve . . . . .	72
5.4	The $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system . . . . .	74
5.4.1	Applications . . . . .	74
<b>6</b>	<b>Conclusions</b>	<b>75</b>

# 1 Introduction

The title of this thesis is *Exact Results in Supersymmetric Gauge Theories*. A reasonable question to ask is – why would anyone care about that ? After all there is no evidence that supersymmetry is a true symmetry of nature and supersymmetric theories are mostly toy theories, we can not observe them in particle accelerators, as opposed to the Standard Model of particle physics. And indeed these are all valid points, however there are very good reasons for studying them.

Consider  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  super Yang-Mills, from a pragmatic point of view it is the simplest non-trivial quantum field theory in four spacetime dimensions and since attempts at solving realistic QFTs such as the theory of strong interactions (QCD) have so far been futile, it seems like a good starting point – some go as far as calling it the harmonic oscillator of QFTs.

Another (and probably the main) reason why  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  has been receiving so much attention in the last decades is the long list of mysterious and intriguing properties it seems to possess, making it almost an intellectual pursuit of understanding it. The theory has been surprising the theoretical physics community from the very beginning: it is a rare instance of a conformal theory in dimensions higher than two, it has a dual description in terms of a string theory and more recently it was discovered to be integrable. All of these properties give reasonable hope for actually solving the theory exactly, something that has never been achieved before for any four dimensional interacting QFT.

In the remainder of the section we give a proper introduction to the subject from a historic point of view focusing on  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  SYM and its integrability aspect, for it is integrability that allows one to actually find exact results in the theory. We then give an overview of the thesis itself, emphasizing which parts of the text are reviews of known material and which parts constitute original work.

## 1.1 Brief history of the subject

Quantum field theory has been at the spot light of theoretical physics since the beginning of the century when it was found that electromagnetism is described by the theory of quantum electrodynamics (QED). Since then people have been trying to fit other forces of nature into the QFT framework. Ultimately it worked: the theory of strong interactions, quantum chromodynamics or QCD for short, together with the electroweak theory, spontaneously broken down to QED, collectively make up the *Standard Model* of particle physics, which has been extensively tested in particle accelerators since then.

However nature did not give away her secrets without a fight. For some time it was thought that strong interactions were described by a theory of vibrating strings, as it seemed to in-

corporate the so-called Regge trajectories observed in experiments [1]. Even after discovering QCD, which is a Yang-Mills gauge theory, stringy aspects of it were still evident and largely mysterious. Most notably lattice gauge theory calculations at strong coupling suggested that surfaces of color-electric fluxes between quarks could be given the interpretation of stretched strings [2], thus an idea of a gauge-string duality was starting to emerge. It was strongly reinforced by t'Hooft, who showed that the perturbative expansion of  $U(N)$  gauge theories in the large  $N$  limit could be rearranged into a genus expansion of surfaces triangulated by the double-line Feynman graphs, which strongly resembles string theory genus expansions [3].



However it was the work of Maldacena in the end of 1997 that sparked a true revolution in the field [4]. He formulated the first concrete conjecture, now universally referred to as *AdS/CFT*, for a duality between a gauge theory, the maximally supersymmetric  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  super Yang-Mills, and type IIB string theory on  $AdS_5 \times S^5$ . Polyakov had already shown that non-critical string theory in four-dimensions describing gauge fields should be complemented with an extra Liouville-like direction thus enriching the space to a curved five dimensional manifold [5]. Furthermore the gauge theory had to be defined on the boundary of this manifold. Maldacena's conjecture was consistent with this view, as the gauge theory was defined on the boundary of  $AdS_5$ , whereas the  $S^5$  was associated with the internal symmetries of the gauge fields. The idea of a higher dimensional theory being fully described by a theory living on the boundary was also considered before in the context of black hole physics [6, 7] and goes by the name of holography, thus AdS/CFT is also referred to as a holographic duality.

The duality can be motivated by considering a stack of  $N$  parallel D3 branes in type IIB string theory. Open strings moving on the branes can be described by  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  SYM with the gauge group  $SU(N)$ . Roughly the idea is that there are six extra dimensions transverse to the stack of branes, thus a string stretching between two of them can be viewed as a set of six scalar fields  $(\Phi^i)^a_b$  defined in four dimensional spacetime carrying two extra indices denoting the branes it is attached to. These are precisely the indices of the adjoint representation of  $SU(N)$ . A similar argument can be put forward for other fields thus recovering the field content of  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  SYM. Far away from the branes we have closed strings propagating in empty space. In the low energy limit these systems decouple and far away from the branes we are left with ten dimensional supergravity.

Another way of looking at this system is considering the branes as a defect in spacetime, which from the point of view of supergravity is a source of curvature. The supergravity solution carrying D3 brane charge can be written down explicitly [8]. Far away from the branes it is obviously once again the usual flat space ten dimensional supergravity. However the near

horizon geometry of the brane system becomes  $AdS_5 \times S^5$ . Since both points of view end up with supergravity far away from the branes, one is tempted to identify the theories close to the branes,  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  SYM and type IIB string theory on  $AdS_5 \times S^5$ . This is exactly what Maldacena did in his seminal paper [4].

By studying the supergravity solution one can identify the parameters of the theories, namely  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  SYM is parameterized by the coupling constant  $g_{YM}$  and the number of colors  $N$ , whereas string theory has the string coupling constant  $g_s$  and the string length squared  $\alpha'$ . These are identified in the following way

$$4\pi g_s = g_{YM}^2 \equiv \frac{\lambda}{N}, \quad \frac{R^4}{\alpha'^2} = \lambda, \quad (1.1)$$

where  $\lambda$  is the t'Hooft coupling and  $R$  is the radius of both  $AdS_5$  and  $S^5$ , which is fixed as only the ratio  $R^2/\alpha'$  is measurable. A few things are to be noted here. First of all, the identification directly implements t'Hooft's idea of large  $N$  expansion of gauge theory, since  $g_s \sim 1/N$ . In fact in the large  $N$  limit only planar Feynman graphs survive and everything simplifies dramatically, a fact that we will take advantage of a lot in this thesis. In this limit the effective coupling constant of the gauge theory is  $\lambda$ .

The supergravity approximation is valid when  $\alpha' \ll R^2$ , which corresponds to strongly coupled gauge theory, thus the conjecture is of the weak-strong type. This fact is a blessing in disguise, since initially it seems very restrictive as one can not easily compare results of the theories. However it provides a possibility to access strongly coupled regimes of both theories, which was beyond reach before. Prescriptions for matching up observables on both sides of the correspondence were given in [9, 10]. However because of the weak-strong nature of the duality initial tests were performed only for BPS states, which are protected from quantum corrections. The first direct match was observed in [10] where it was shown that the spectrum of half-BPS single trace operators matches the Kaluza-Klein modes of type IIB supergravity. Another indirect confirmation of the conjecture was the formulation of type IIB string theory as a super-coset sigma model on the target space  $PSU(2, 2|4)/SO(2, 4) \otimes SO(6)$ , which has the same global symmetries as  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  SYM [15].

The situation changed dramatically in 2002 when Berenstein, Maldacena and Nastase devised a way to go beyond BPS checks [16]. The idea was to take an operator in gauge theory with large R-charge  $J$  and add some impurities, effectively making it “near-BPS”. The canonical example of such an operator is  $\text{Tr}(Z^J X^S)$ , where  $Z$  and  $X$  are two complex scalar fields of  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  SYM, with  $X$  being the impurities ( $S \ll J$ ). Since anomalous dimensions are suppressed like  $\lambda/J^2$ , perturbative gauge theory calculations are valid even at large  $\lambda$ , as long as  $\lambda' \equiv \lambda/J^2 \ll 1$  and  $N$  is large. It is thus possible to compare gauge theory calculations with string theory results. From the string theory point of view this limit corresponds to excitations of point-like strings with angular momentum  $J$  moving at the speed of light around the great circle of  $S^5$ . The background seen by this string is the so-called pp-wave geometry and string theory in this background is tractable.

The discovery of the BMN limit was arguably the first time it was explicitly demonstrated how the world sheet theory of a string can be reconstructed by a physical picture of scalar fields dubbed as “impurities” propagating in a closed single trace operator of “background” scalar fields of the gauge theory. Shortly after this discovery Minahan and Zarembo revolutionized the subject once again by discovering Integrability at the end of 2002 [17]. They showed that in the large  $N$  limit single-trace operators of scalar fields can be identified with spin chains and their anomalous dimensions at one-loop in weak coupling are given by the energies of the corresponding spin chain states. These spin-chain systems are known to be integrable, which in practice allows one to solve the problem exactly using techniques such as the Bethe ansatz [18]. This discovery sparked a very rapid development of integrability methods in AdS/CFT during the coming years.



Solving a quantum field theory in principle means finding all  $n$ -point correlation functions of all physical observables. Since  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  SYM is conformal it is enough to find all 2-point and 3-point correlators, as all higher point correlation functions can be decomposed in terms of these basic constituents. Due to conformal symmetry the two-point functions only depend on the scaling dimensions of operators, whereas for three point functions one also needs the so called structure constants  $C_{ijk}$  in addition to the scaling dimensions. Integrability methods from the very beginning mainly focused on solving the spectral problem in the large  $N$  limit, that is finding the spectrum of operators with definite anomalous dimensions and their exact numeric values. The initial discovery of [17] was that the spectral problem was analogous to diagonalizing a spin chain Hamiltonian, which was identified with the dilatation operator of the superconformal symmetry of the theory. The eigenstates correspond to operators in the gauge theory and the eigenvalues are their anomalous dimensions.

Soon after the initial discovery of integrability a spin chain formulation at one-loop was found for the full  $PSU(2, 2|4)$  theory, not only the scalar sector [19]. The result was also extended to two and three loops [20]. Integrability was also discovered at strong coupling as it was shown that the Metsaev-Tseytlin sigma model is classically integrable [21]. With integrability methods now being available at both weak and strong coupling it was possible to compare results in the BMN limit. As expected, comparisons in the first two orders of the BMN coupling constant  $\lambda'$  showed promising agreement [23, 24, 25], however an order of limits problem emerged at three loops [20].

All of these results seemed to suggest that integrability may be an all loop phenomenon, only the surface of it being scratched so far. This notion was strongly reinforced when classical string integrability was reformulated in the elegant language of algebraic curves by Kazakov,



Marshakov, Minahan and Zarembo (KMMZ), which made the connection with weak coupling more manifest [22]. The algebraic curve was interpreted as the continuum limit of Bethe equations, which made it possible to speculate about all loop equations. The first such attempt was made by Beisert, Dippel and Staudacher (BDS), who conjectured a set of Bethe equations and a dispersion relation which together successfully showcased some all-loop features [26]. This result was later extended to all sectors of the theory [27]. The BDS result was quickly shown to be incomplete as it was lacking a so-called dressing phase [28], a scalar function not constrained by symmetry of the problem. It was found to leading order at strong coupling in [28] and later to one-loop in [29]. A crossing equation satisfied by the dressing phase was soon found [30] and eventually solved by Beisert, Hernandez and Lopez (BHL) [31]. Collectively these results are often referred to as the asymptotic Bethe ansatz (ABA), reminding that they are valid only for asymptotically long spin chains. When the states are short so-called wrapping effects become relevant. At weak coupling they manifest as long-range spin chain interactions wrapping around the chain, whereas at strong coupling they are due to virtual particles self-interacting across the circumference of the worldsheet [32, 33].



Once the asymptotic solution was found attention shifted to finite size corrections, which once resolved would in principle complete the solution to the spectral problem for single trace operators. Scattering corrections in finite volume for arbitrary QFTs were first addressed by Lüscher [34], who derived a set of universal formulas. This approach, while very general and not directly related to integrability, was employed to calculate four [35] and five loop anomalous dimension coefficients [36] of the simplest non-BPS operator with length two, the Konishi operator. The results agreed with available diagrammatic four-loop calculations [37] and gave a new prediction for five loops.

An alternative approach more in line with integrability is the Thermodynamic Bete Ansatz (TBA). Its origins can be traced back to Yang and Yang [38], however it was the work of Alexey Zamolodchikov [39, 40] that brought it to the mainstream. The idea is to consider the partition function of a two dimensional integrable CFT and its “mirror” image found after exchanging length and time with a modular transformation. At large imaginary times the partition function will be dominated by the ground state energy, whereas in the mirror theory large time means asymptotic length, which is under control using the asymptotic Bethe ansatz techniques. Thus one can evaluate the partition function using the saddle point method and after rotating back to the original theory compute the exact ground state energy. Excited states can then be reached using analytic continuation. This approach was already proposed as an option for the AdS/CFT system in [33] and was first discussed in depth in [41]. The TBA approach crystalized in 2009

with multiple groups publishing results almost simultaneously [42, 43, 44, 45]. The Konishi anomalous dimension was initially checked at four [44] and five [47, 48] loops by linearizing the TBA equations, showing precise agreement with results obtained using the Lüscher method. Ultimately the Konishi anomalous dimension was calculated numerically for a wide range of values of the t'Hooft coupling constant [49].

And so the spectral problem seemed to be solved, at least in the case of Konishi an exact and complete result was finally found, even if only numerically. However it was increasingly becoming clear that the solution was not in its final and most elegant form. Indeed the TBA equations are an infinite set of coupled integral equations, obviously one has to employ various numerical tricks to actually solve them and this mostly works in a case-by-case basis. Cases such as the  $\mathfrak{sl}(2)$  sector of the theory, containing the Konishi operator [44] and cusped Wilson lines [50, 51] have been worked out explicitly, however it still remains a hard problem in general. From the very beginning alternative formulations of the solution were being proposed. An infinite set of non-linear functional equations, the so called Y-system was proposed already in [44], later completed with analytical constraints coming from the TBA equations [46]. Connections of the Y-system with the Hirota bilinear relation were later explored in [52] and the Y-system was reduced to a finite set of non-linear integral equations (FiNLIE). The long sought beauty of the solution to the spectral problem was arguably uncovered with the formulation of the  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system [53], also referred to as the quantum spectral curve. The whole TBA construction was ultimately reduced to a Riemann-Hilbert problem for eight  $Q$  functions, which can be thought of as the quantum analogues of quasimomenta found in the algebraic curve construction. The  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system quickly showed its potential as previously known results were rederived almost without any effort and new results were being rapidly discovered [54, 55].

Thus one can safely say that the spectral problem in  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  SYM is by now very well understood with numerical results readily available and deeper understanding of the structure being within reach. Integrability methods have also been useful in other areas such as three point functions [56, 57] and scattering amplitudes [58, 59], however the situation there is still not as complete. Having witnessed the successful resolution of the spectral problem it appears that  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  SYM is within reach of being solved completely. If this programme were to be successfully carried out it would be the first example of a four dimensional interacting quantum field theory being solved exactly. Undoubtedly this would provide a huge boost to our understanding of QFTs in general and hopefully bring us closer to solving QCD.

It turns out that  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  SYM is not the only example of an integrable supersymmetric gauge theory having a dual string description. Probably the most famous example involves the so called ABJM theory, proposed by Aharony, Bergman, Jafferis and Maldacena [11], following [12, 13, 14]. It is a three-dimensional superconformal Chern-Simons gauge theory with  $\mathcal{N} = 6$  supersymmetry. This theory was conjectured to be the effective theory for a stack of M2 branes at a  $Z_k$  orbifold point. In the large  $N$  limit its gravitational dual turns out to be M-theory

on  $AdS_4 \times S^7/Z_k$ . For large  $k$  and  $N$  with  $\lambda = N/k$  fixed, the dual theory becomes type IIA superstring theory in  $AdS_4 \times CP^3$ . This duality is also integrable and all of the developments outlined above have been reworked for it almost in parallel.

## 1.2 Thesis overview

Maybe a nice picture for the structure of the thesis.

## 2 $\mathcal{N} = 4$ super Yang-Mills

For the most part of this thesis we will be dealing with  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  super Yang-Mills theory. In this section we start off by defining it via its action and discussing its symmetries and observables. We also give an alternative formulation of the theory as a string theory, which is the core idea of the AdS/CFT correspondence. This formulation will later prove to be incredibly useful when discussing integrability and exact solutions.

### 2.1 Action

$\mathcal{N} = 4$  super Yang-Mills theory is a quantum field theory much like the Standard Model of particle physics with a certain field content and interaction pattern. It was first discovered by considering  $\mathcal{N} = 1$  super Yang-Mills theory in  $9 + 1$  spacetime dimensions [60], its action is given by

$$S = \int d^{10}x \text{Tr} \left( -\frac{1}{4} F_{MN} F^{MN} + \frac{1}{2} \bar{\Psi} \Gamma^M \mathcal{D}_M \Psi \right), \quad M = 1 \dots 10, \quad (2.1)$$

where  $\Psi$  is a Majorana-Weyl spinor in  $9 + 1$  dimensions with 16 real components and  $\Gamma^M$  are the appropriate gamma matrices. The covariant derivative  $\mathcal{D}_M$  is defined as

$$\mathcal{D}_M = \partial_M - ig_{YM} [A_M, \cdot], \quad (2.2)$$

where  $g_{YM}$  is the Yang-Mills coupling constant. The gauge group is in principle arbitrary, but we choose  $SU(N)$  in anticipation of the AdS/CFT correspondence. By dimensionally reducing this theory on a flat torus  $T^6$  one recovers the maximally supersymmetric  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  Yang-Mills gauge theory in  $3 + 1$  spacetime dimensions. The reduced action reads

$$S = \int d^4x \text{Tr} \left( -\frac{1}{2} \mathcal{D}_\mu \Phi_I \mathcal{D}^\mu \Phi^I + \frac{g_{YM}^2}{4} [\Phi_I, \Phi_J][\Phi^I, \Phi^J] - \frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} - \bar{\psi}^a \sigma^\mu \mathcal{D}_\mu \psi_a + \frac{ig_{YM}}{2} \sigma_I^{ab} \psi_a [\Phi^I, \psi_b] + \frac{ig_{YM}}{2} \sigma_{ab}^I \bar{\psi}^a [\Phi_I, \bar{\psi}^b] \right). \quad (2.3)$$

After dimensional reduction the gauge field  $A_M$  decomposes to the four dimensional gauge field  $A_\mu$  and to six real scalar fields  $\Phi_I$  whereas the Majorana-Weyl spinor  $\Psi_A$  breaks up into four copies of the left and right Weyl spinors in four dimensions

$$\Psi_A \ (A = 1, \dots, 16) \rightarrow \bar{\psi}_\alpha^a, \psi_{a\alpha} \ (\alpha, \dot{\alpha} = 1, 2, \ a = 1, \dots, 4). \quad (2.4)$$

It also gives rise to the  $SO(6) \simeq SU(4)$  symmetry called *R-symmetry*, which originally was part of the ten dimensional Poincare group, but now acts as an internal symmetry of the supercharges. It permutes the scalars, which live in the fundamental **6** of  $SO(6)$  and the spinors, which live in the fundamental of  $SU(4)$ , namely the lower index  $a$  in  $\psi_{a\alpha}$  transforms in **4**, while  $\bar{\psi}_\alpha^a$  transforms in  $\bar{\mathbf{4}}$ . From this it follows that we can combine the six real scalars

$\Phi^I$  into three complex scalars  $\Phi^{ab}$ , which then transform under the second rank antisymmetric **6** of  $SU(4)$ . The gauge field is a singlet under R-symmetry.

It is now a straightforward but rather tedious task to calculate the beta function for this theory. For any  $SU(N)$  gauge theory at one loop level it is given by [61]

$$\beta(g) = -\frac{g_{YM}^3}{16\pi^2} \left( \frac{11}{3}N - \frac{1}{6} \sum_s C_s - \frac{1}{3} \sum_f \tilde{C}_f \right) \quad (2.5)$$

where the first sum is over the real scalars and the second one over the fermions.  $C_s$  and  $\tilde{C}_f$  are the quadratic casimirs, which in our case are equal to  $N$  since all fields are in the adjoint representation of the group. It is then easy to see that at least at one loop level the theory is conformally invariant. In fact the  $\beta$  function was shown to be identically zero to all orders in perturbation theory [62, 63], hence  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  super Yang-Mills is fully conformally invariant even after quantization. After discussing the full symmetry algebra of the theory and its representations we will give an elegant argument why this is true.

## 2.2 Observables

The theory has 16 on-shell degrees of freedom which make up the gauge multiplet of  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  supersymmetry, namely  $(\Phi_I, \psi_a, A_\mu)$ . Gauge invariant operators are then formed by taking traces over the gauge group. An important class of operators are the *local operators*, which are traces of fields all evaluated at the same spacetime point. They have the general form

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{O}_{i_1\mu i_2\alpha\dots i_n\dots j_1\nu\beta\dots j_n}(x) &= \text{Tr} [\Phi_{i_1}(x) \mathcal{D}_\mu \Phi_{i_2}(x) \psi_\alpha(x) \dots \Phi_{i_n}(x)] \times \dots \\ &\dots \times \text{Tr} [\Phi_{j_1}(x) \mathcal{D}_\nu \psi_\beta(x) \dots \Phi_{j_n}(x)]. \end{aligned} \quad (2.6)$$

In this thesis we will be exclusively focusing on the planar limit, which is the limit when the number of colors  $N$  is sent to infinity. Diagrams involving multi-trace operators are non-planar, hence suppressed in the large  $N$  limit and therefore we will only be considering single trace operators. An example of a non-local operator is the Wilson loop, given by

$$W_L = \text{Tr} \left( \mathcal{P} \exp \oint_C dt \left( iA \cdot \dot{x} + \vec{\Phi} \cdot \vec{n} |\dot{x}| \right) \right), \quad (2.7)$$

which depends on the path  $x^\mu(t)$  in spacetime, hence it is known as a *line operator*. It also depends on the coupling to the scalar fields, which is encoded in the six-dimensional unit vector  $\vec{n}(t)$ . The scalar field term can also be understood by recalling that the scalar fields are a result of dimensional reduction from  $9+1$  dimensions, thus the coupling vector  $\vec{n}(t)$  together with the curve  $x^\mu(t)$  make up a path  $x^M(t)$  in  $9+1$  dimensional spacetime. In later sections of the text we will be considering cusped Wilson lines with other operators inserted at the cusp.

We will be mostly working in these two classes of operators, however in principle one could go on and define surface operators, etc.

### 2.3 Symmetry

Conformal symmetry, supersymmetry and R-symmetry are a part of a bigger group  $PSU(2, 2|4)$ , which is also known as the  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  *superconformal group*. It is the full symmetry group of  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  super Yang-Mills and is unbroken by quantum corrections. It is an example of a *supergroup*, i.e. a graded group containing bosonic and fermionic generators. The theory of supergroups is highly developed (see [64]) and much of the techniques from studying bosonic groups carry over to supergroups with some additional complications, i.e. Dynkin diagrams, root spaces, weights etc.

$PSU(2, 2|4)$  has the bosonic subgroup of  $SU(2, 2) \times SU(4)$ , where  $SU(2, 2) \simeq SO(2, 4)$  is the conformal group in four dimensions and  $SU(4) \simeq SO(6)$  is the R-symmetry. The conformal group has the Poincaré group as a subgroup, which has a total of 10 generators including four translations  $P_\mu$  and six Lorentz transformations  $M_{\mu\nu}$ , in addition there is the generator for dilatations  $D$  and four special conformal generators  $K_\mu$ . Their commutation relations read

$$\begin{aligned} [D, M_{\mu\nu}] &= 0 \quad [D, P_\mu] = -iP_\mu \quad [D, K_\mu] = +iK_\mu, \\ [M_{\mu\nu}, P_\lambda] &= -i(\eta_{\mu\nu}P_\lambda - \eta_{\lambda\nu}P_\mu) \quad [M_{\mu\nu}, K_\lambda] = -i(\eta_{\mu\lambda}K_\nu - \eta_{\lambda\nu}K_\mu), \\ [P_\mu, K_\nu] &= 2i(M_{\mu\nu} - \eta_{\mu\nu}D). \end{aligned} \quad (2.8)$$

$\mathcal{N} = 4$  supersymmetry has 16 supercharges  $Q_{a\alpha}$  and  $\tilde{Q}_\alpha^a$  where  $\alpha, \dot{\alpha} = 1, 2$  are the Weyl spinor indices and  $a = 1, \dots, 4$  are the R-symmetry indices. These generators have the usual commutation and anti-commutation relations with the Poincaré generators given by

$$\begin{aligned} \{Q_{a\alpha}, \tilde{Q}_\alpha^b\} &= \gamma_{\alpha\dot{\alpha}}^\mu \delta_a^b P_\mu \quad \{Q_{a\alpha}, Q_{\alpha b}\} = \{\tilde{Q}_\alpha^a, \tilde{Q}_\alpha^b\} = 0, \\ [M^{\mu\nu}, Q_{a\alpha}] &= i\gamma_{\alpha\dot{\beta}}^{\mu\nu} \epsilon^{\beta\gamma} Q_{\gamma a} \quad [M^{\mu\nu}, \tilde{Q}_\alpha^a] = i\gamma_{\dot{\alpha}\beta}^{\mu\nu} \epsilon^{\dot{\beta}\dot{\gamma}} \tilde{Q}_{\dot{\gamma}}^a, \\ [P_\mu, Q_{a\alpha}] &= [P_\mu, \tilde{Q}_\alpha^a] = 0, \end{aligned} \quad (2.9)$$

where  $\gamma_{\alpha\dot{\beta}}^{\mu\nu} = \gamma_{\alpha\dot{\alpha}}^{[\mu} \gamma_{\dot{\beta}}^{\nu]} \epsilon^{\dot{\alpha}\dot{\beta}}$ . Commutators between supercharges and the conformal generators are also non trivial and introduce new supercharges,

$$\begin{aligned} [D, Q_{a\alpha}] &= -\frac{i}{2} Q_{a\alpha} \quad [D, \tilde{Q}_\alpha^a] = -\frac{i}{2} \tilde{Q}_\alpha^a, \\ [K^\mu, Q_{a\alpha}] &= \gamma_{\alpha\dot{\alpha}}^\mu \epsilon^{\dot{\alpha}\dot{\beta}} \tilde{S}_{\dot{\beta}a} \quad [K^\mu, \tilde{Q}_\alpha^a] = \gamma_{\alpha\dot{\alpha}}^\mu \epsilon^{\alpha\beta} S_\beta^a, \end{aligned} \quad (2.10)$$

where  $\tilde{S}_{\dot{\alpha}a}$  and  $S_\alpha^a$  are the *special conformal supercharges*. They have opposite R-symmetry representations compared to the usual supercharges. The special supercharges bring the total of supercharges to 32. The commutation and anti-commutation relations for the special conformal supercharges are very much like the ones for normal supercharges,

$$\begin{aligned} \{S_\alpha^a, \tilde{S}_{\dot{\alpha}b}\} &= \gamma_{\alpha\dot{\alpha}}^\mu \delta_b^a K_\mu \quad \{S_\alpha^a, S_\alpha^b\} = \{\tilde{S}_{\dot{\alpha}a}, \tilde{S}_{\dot{\alpha}b}\} = 0, \\ [M^{\mu\nu}, S_\alpha^a] &= i\gamma_{\alpha\dot{\beta}}^{\mu\nu} \epsilon^{\beta\gamma} S_\gamma^a \quad [M^{\mu\nu}, \tilde{S}_{\dot{\alpha}a}] = i\gamma_{\dot{\alpha}\beta}^{\mu\nu} \epsilon^{\dot{\beta}\dot{\gamma}} \tilde{S}_{\dot{\gamma}a}, \\ [K_\mu, S_\alpha^a] &= [K_\mu, \tilde{S}_{\dot{\alpha}a}] = 0. \end{aligned} \quad (2.11)$$

Finally the anti-commutation relations between the special conformal and usual supercharges close the algebra,

$$\begin{aligned} \{Q_{\alpha a}, S_{\beta}^b\} &= -i\epsilon_{\alpha\beta}\sigma^{IJ}{}_a{}^b R_{IJ} + \gamma_{\alpha\beta}^{\mu\nu}\delta_a{}^b M_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}\epsilon_{\alpha\beta}\delta_a{}^b D \\ \{\tilde{Q}_{\dot{\alpha}}^a, \tilde{S}_{\dot{\beta}b}\} &= +i\epsilon_{\dot{\alpha}\dot{\beta}}\sigma^{IJ}{}^a{}_b R_{IJ} + \gamma_{\dot{\alpha}\dot{\beta}}^{\mu\nu}\delta^a{}_b M_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}\epsilon_{\dot{\alpha}\dot{\beta}}\delta^a{}_b D \\ \{Q_{\alpha a}, \tilde{S}_{\dot{\beta}b}\} &= \{\tilde{Q}_{\dot{\alpha}}^a, S_{\beta}^b\} = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (2.12)$$

where  $R_{IJ}$  are the generators of R-symmetry with  $I, J = 1, \dots, 6$ . All supercharges transform under the two spinor representations of the R-symmetry group and all other generators commute with it. All of the generators can be organized as follows

$$\left( \begin{array}{c|c} K^{\mu}, P^{\mu}, M^{\mu\nu}, D & Q_{a\alpha}, \bar{S}_{a\dot{\alpha}} \\ \hline S_{\alpha}^a, \bar{Q}_{\dot{\alpha}}^a & R_{IJ} \end{array} \right) \quad (2.13)$$

where the generators in the diagonal blocks are bosonic and the ones in the anti-diagonal blocks are fermionic. They have a definite dimensions, which are not modified by the radiative corrections

$$[D] = [L] = [\bar{L}] = [R] = 0, \quad [P] = 1, \quad [K] = -1, \quad [Q] = 1/2, \quad [S] = -1/2. \quad (2.14)$$

In contrast, the classical dimensions of fields

$$[\Phi^I] = [A_{\mu}] = 1, \quad [\psi_a] = \frac{3}{2}, \quad (2.15)$$

do receive radiative corrections and acquire *anomalous dimensions*, which together with the bare dimension make up the conformal dimension

$$\Delta = \Delta_0 + \gamma(g_{YM}). \quad (2.16)$$

The name is justified by the fact that in conformal field theories all two point functions are determined by the scaling dimensions of the fields. More than that, together with the knowledge of all three point functions they are enough to determine any  $n$ -point function. This is why finding conformal dimensions of all operators, i.e. the spectrum of the theory is a very important step in solving it.

### 2.3.1 Superconformal multiplets

Fields of the theory can be organized in unitary representations of the superconformal symmetry group, which are labeled by quantum numbers of the bosonic subgroup

$$\begin{aligned} SO(1,3) \times SO(1,1) \times SU(4) \\ (s_+, s_-) \quad \Delta \quad [r_1, r_2, r_3] \end{aligned} \quad (2.17)$$

where  $(s_+, s_-)$  are the usual positive half-integer spin labels of the Lorentz group,  $\Delta$  is the positive conformal dimension that can depend on the coupling and  $[r_1, r_2, r_3]$  are Dynkin labels

of the  $R$ -symmetry. All unitary representations of the superconformal group have been classified into four families [65, 66], here we give a short description of the classification.

Looking at the commutation relations of the conformal subgroup (2.8), we see that the operators  $P_\mu$  and  $K_\mu$  act as raising and lowering operators for the dilatation operator  $D$  – this gives a hint as to how we could construct representations of the group. The dilatation operator  $D$  is the generator of scalings, i.e. upon a rescaling  $x \rightarrow \lambda x$  a local operator in a field theory scales as

$$\mathcal{O}(x) \rightarrow \lambda^{-\Delta} \mathcal{O}(\lambda x) \quad (2.18)$$

where  $\Delta$  is the conformal dimension of the operator  $\mathcal{O}(x)$ . Restricting to the point  $x = 0$ , which is a fixed point of scalings, we see that the conformal dimension is the eigenvalue of the dilatation operator,

$$[D, \mathcal{O}(0)] = -i\Delta \mathcal{O}(0). \quad (2.19)$$

It is now clear that acting on a field with  $K_\mu$  should lower the dimension by one and acting with  $P_\mu$  – raise it by one. We can show this explicitly using the Jacobi identity as

$$[D, [K_\mu, \mathcal{O}(0)]] = [[D, K_\mu], \mathcal{O}(0)] + [K_\mu, [D, \mathcal{O}(0)]] = -i(\Delta - 1) [K_\mu, \mathcal{O}(0)]. \quad (2.20)$$

Since operators in a unitary quantum field theory should have positive dimensions (aside from the identity operator), we should not be able to keep lowering the dimension indefinitely, i.e. there should always be an operator that satisfies

$$[K_\mu, \tilde{\mathcal{O}}(0)] = 0. \quad (2.21)$$

We call such operators *conformal primary operators*. Acting on these with  $P_\mu$  keeps producing operators with a dimension one higher – we call these the *descendants* of  $\tilde{\mathcal{O}}(0)$ . We can also act with the supercharges and looking at the commutators in (2.10) we see that they raise the dimension by 1/2, while the special conformal supercharges lower it by 1/2. Operators annihilated by special conformal supercharges are called *superconformal primaries*, which is a stronger condition than being a conformal primary.

(Super-)conformal primaries and their descendants make up multiplets that constitute the three families of discrete representations in the classification. They are further distinguished by the number of supercharges the primary commutes with. One example is a class of operators that satisfy the condition

$$\Delta = r_1 + r_2 + r_3, \quad (2.22)$$

a canonical representative would be a single-trace symmetrized scalar field operator such as

$$\mathcal{O}^{ij\dots k}(x) = \text{Tr} \left( \Phi(x)^{(i} \Phi(x)^j \dots \Phi(x)^k) \right). \quad (2.23)$$

These operators commute with half of the supercharges, thus they are referred to as half-BPS. A key fact is that operators in the same representation must have the same anomalous dimension,



because the generators of the group can only change it by half integer steps and there's only a finite number of generators. What is more, operators in the discrete BPS representations are protected from quantum corrections, because at any coupling the total dimension is always algebraically related to the Dynking labels of the R-symmetry, e.g. as in (2.22). Since charges of compact groups are quantized it must mean that the dimension can't continuously depend on the coupling and hence the anomalous dimension must vanish. This is however not true for the fourth continuous non-BPS family of representations, hence operators from these multiplets do acquire anomalous dimensions.

Let us conclude the section with an elegant argument for why the beta function of  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  super Yang-Mills is zero. One can use the algebra and shown that the operators  $\text{Tr } F_+ F_+$  and  $\text{Tr } F_- F_-$ , where  $F_{\pm}$  are the (anti-)self-dual field strengths, belong to the same multiplet as a superconformal primary [67], meaning that the  $\text{Tr } F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu}$  term in the Lagrangian is protected from quantum corrections, hence so is the coupling constant  $g_{YM}$ . This argument is valid to all orders in perturbation theory, which means that  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  super Yang-Mills is conformally invariant to all orders in perturbation theory.

## 2.4 String description at strong coupling

As already briefly explained in the introduction, the AdS/CFT conjecture states that  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  super Yang-Mills is exactly dual to type IIB string theory on  $AdS_5 \times S^5$ , [4, 9, 10]. To be more precise, the gauge group of the Yang-Mills theory is taken to be  $SU(N)$  and the coupling constant  $g_{YM}$ . The string theory is defined on  $AdS_5 \times S^5$  where both  $AdS_5$  and  $S^5$  have radius  $R$ . The self-dual five-form field  $F_5^+$  has integer flux through the sphere

$$\int_{S^5} F_5^+ = N, \quad (2.24)$$

and  $N$  is identified with the number of colors in the gauge theory. The string theory is further parameterized by the string coupling  $g_s$  and the string length squared  $\alpha'$ . The following relations are conjectured to hold

$$4\pi g_s = g_{YM}^2 \equiv \frac{\lambda}{N}, \quad \frac{R^4}{\alpha'^2} = \lambda, \quad (2.25)$$

where  $\lambda$  is the t'Hooft coupling. We will be working in the planar limit  $N \rightarrow \infty$  with  $\lambda$  fixed. It is easy to see that in this limit  $g_s \rightarrow 0$  and we are left with freely propagating strings. Furthermore, the regime of strongly coupled gauge theory when  $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$  corresponds to the regime of string theory where the supegravity approximation is valid, namely  $\alpha' \ll R^2$ . The takeaway here is that one can formulate strongly coupled planar  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  super Yang-Mills as a classical theory of free strings on  $AdS_5 \times S^5$ .

### 2.4.1 Sigma model formulation

A very useful formulation of string theory on  $AdS_5 \times S^5$  is the coset space sigma model [15] with the target superspace of

$$\frac{PSU(2, 2|4)}{SO(1, 4) \times SO(5)}. \quad (2.26)$$

The bosonic part of the supercoset where the string moves is given by

$$\frac{SO(2, 4) \times SO(6)}{SO(1, 4) \times SO(5)} = AdS_5 \times S^5, \quad (2.27)$$

which is constructed as the coset between the isometry and isotropy groups of  $AdS_5 \times S^5$ . The action is then written in terms of the algebra of  $PSU(2, 2|4)$ .

The superalgebra  $\mathfrak{psu}(2, 2|4)$  has no realization in terms of matrices, instead it is the quotient of  $\mathfrak{su}(2, 2|4)$  by matrices proportional to the identity. On the other hand  $\mathfrak{su}(2, 2|4)$  is a matrix superalgebra spanned by  $8 \times 8$  supertraceless matrices

$$M = \left( \begin{array}{c|c} A & B \\ \hline C & D \end{array} \right), \quad (2.28)$$

where the supertrace is defined as

$$S\text{Tr } M = \text{Tr } A - \text{Tr } D. \quad (2.29)$$

$A$  and  $D$  are elements of  $\mathfrak{su}(2, 2)$  and  $\mathfrak{su}(4)$  respectively, whereas the fermionic components are related by

$$C = \left( \begin{array}{c|c} +\mathbb{1}_{2 \times 2} & 0 \\ \hline 0 & -\mathbb{1}_{2 \times 2} \end{array} \right) B^\dagger. \quad (2.30)$$

An important feature of this algebra is the following automorphism

$$\Omega \circ M = \left( \begin{array}{c|c} EA^T E & -EC^T E \\ \hline EB^T E & ED^T E \end{array} \right), \quad E = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (2.31)$$

which endows the algebra with a  $\mathbb{Z}_4$  grading, since one can easily check that  $\Omega^4 = 1$ . This in turn means that any element of the algebra can be decomposed under this grading as

$$M = \sum_{i=0}^3 M^{(i)}, \quad (2.32)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} M^{(0,2)} &= \frac{1}{2} \left( \begin{array}{c|c} A \pm EA^T E & 0 \\ \hline 0 & D \pm ED^T E \end{array} \right) \\ M^{(1,3)} &= \frac{1}{2} \left( \begin{array}{c|c} 0 & B \pm iEC^T E \\ \hline C \mp iEB^T E & 0 \end{array} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (2.33)$$

and the morphism then acts on the elements of the decomposition as

$$\Omega \circ M^{(n)} = i^n M^{(n)}. \quad (2.34)$$

The Metsaev-Tseytlin action for the Green-Schwarz superstring is then given by

$$S = \frac{\sqrt{\lambda}}{4\pi} \int \text{STr} \left( J^{(2)} \wedge *J^{(2)} - J^{(1)} \wedge J^{(3)} + \Lambda \wedge J^{(2)} \right), \quad (2.35)$$

which is written down in terms of the graded elements of the algebra current

$$J = -g^{-1} dg \quad (2.36)$$

where  $g(\sigma, \tau) \in PSU(2, 2|4)$  is a map from the string worldsheet to the supergroup  $PSU(2, 2|4)$ . The last term contains a Lagrange multiplier  $\Lambda$ , which ensures that  $J^{(2)}$  is supertraceless, whereas all other components are manifestly traceless as seen from (2.33). Since the target space is the coset of  $PSU(2, 2|4)$  by  $SO(1, 4) \times SO(5)$ , the map  $g$  has an extra gauge symmetry

$$g \rightarrow gH, \quad H \in SO(1, 4) \times SO(5) \quad (2.37)$$

under which the components of the supercurrent transform as

$$J^{(0)} \rightarrow H^{-1} J^{(0)} H - H^{-1} dH \quad (2.38)$$

$$J^{(i)} \rightarrow H^{-1} J^{(i)} H, \quad i = 1, 2, 3 \quad (2.39)$$

The equations of motion read

$$d * k = 0, \quad (2.40)$$

where  $k = gKg^{-1}$  and

$$K = J^{(2)} + \frac{1}{2} * J^{(1)} - \frac{1}{2} * J^{(3)} - \frac{1}{2} * \Lambda. \quad (2.41)$$

They are equivalent to the conservation of the Noether current associated to the global left  $PSU(2, 2|4)$  multiplication symmetry.

Finally let us briefly remark on how the action reduces to the usual sigma model action if one restricts to bosonic fields. A purely bosonic representative of  $PSU(2, 2|4)$  has the form

$$g = \left( \begin{array}{c|c} A & 0 \\ \hline 0 & D \end{array} \right), \quad (2.42)$$

where  $A \in SO(6) \simeq SU(4)$  and  $D \in SO(2, 4) \simeq SU(2, 2)$ . Then we see that  $AEA^T$  is a good parametrization of

$$\frac{SO(6)}{SO(5)} \simeq \frac{SU(4)}{SP(4)} = S^5, \quad (2.43)$$

since it is invariant under  $A \rightarrow AH$  with  $H \in SP(4)$ . Similarly  $DED^T$  parametrizes  $AdS_5$ . If we now define the coordinates  $u^i$  and  $v^i$  in the following way

$$u^i \Gamma_i^S = AEA^T, \quad v^i \Gamma_i^A = DED^T, \quad (2.44)$$

with  $\Gamma^S$  and  $\Gamma^A$  being the gamma matrices of  $SO(6)$  and  $SO(2, 4)$  respectively, then by construction they will satisfy the following constraints

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= u \cdot u \equiv +u_1^2 + u_2^2 + u_3^2 + u_4^2 + u_5^2 + u_6^2 \\ 1 &= v \cdot v \equiv -v_1^2 - v_2^2 - v_3^2 - v_4^2 + v_5^2 + v_6^2, \end{aligned} \quad (2.45)$$

and the action (2.35) will read

$$S_b = \frac{\sqrt{\lambda}}{4\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} d\sigma \int d\tau \sqrt{h} (h^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu u \cdot \partial_\nu u + \lambda_u (u \cdot u - 1) - (u \rightarrow v)), \quad (2.46)$$

which is of course just the usual non-linear sigma model for a string moving in  $AdS_5 \times S^5$ .

### 3 Perturbative Integrability

In this section we dive into the magical world of integrability. Give picture summarizing all techniques and their ranges of applicability.

#### 3.1 One loop at weak coupling

Integrability in  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  SYM was first discovered while trying to find the spectrum of the theory, i.e. the conformal dimensions of various operators. We already saw that in any conformal field theory the two-point correlation functions are very restricted at tree level. For operators that are eigenvalues of dilatations, the correlators have the same form at all loop levels,

$$\langle \mathcal{O}(x) \tilde{\mathcal{O}}(y) \rangle \approx \frac{1}{|x - y|^{2\Delta(g)}}, \quad (3.1)$$

where  $\Delta(g)$  is the dimension of the operator. Classically  $\Delta = \Delta_0$  is simply the mass dimension, but at the quantum level it receives radiative corrections and acquires an *anomalous dimension*  $\gamma$ , such that  $\Delta(g) = \Delta_0 + \gamma(g)$ , where the anomalous dimension depends on the coupling. Usually the corrections are small and the correlator can be expanded as

$$\langle \mathcal{O}(x) \tilde{\mathcal{O}}(y) \rangle \approx \frac{1}{|x - y|^{2\Delta_0}} (1 - \gamma \ln \Lambda^2 |x - y|^2). \quad (3.2)$$

Obviously we want to calculate the spectrum for operators that are gauge invariant and since all fields are in the adjoint representation of the gauge group, all gauge invariant operators will consist of traces over the color indices. In general such an operator has the form of

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{O}_{i_1 \mu i_2 \alpha \dots i_n \dots j_1 \nu \beta \dots j_n}(x) &= \text{Tr} [\Phi_{i_1}(x) \mathcal{D}_\mu \Phi_{i_2}(x) \psi_\alpha(x) \dots \Phi_{i_n}(x)] \times \dots \\ &\dots \times \text{Tr} [\Phi_{j_1}(x) \mathcal{D}_\nu \psi_\beta(x) \dots \Phi_{j_n}(x)]. \end{aligned} \quad (3.3)$$

We assume that all the fields are evaluated at the same spacetime point  $x$  making the operators local. In the planar limit we can restrict ourselves to single trace operators, since states with multiple traces always involve non-planar Feynman diagrams, which are suppressed in the planar limit. To see how non-planar diagrams emerge and get suppressed consider the chiral primary operator

$$\Psi = \text{Tr}[Z^L] = Z^a_b Z^b_c \dots Z^l_a, \quad (3.4)$$

where the scalar field  $Z$  and its conjugate  $\tilde{Z}$  have the standard tree level correlator

$$\langle Z^a_b(x) \tilde{Z}^{b'}_{a'}(y) \rangle_{\text{tree}} \approx \frac{\delta^a_{a'} \delta_b^{b'}}{|x - y|^2}. \quad (3.5)$$

In order to find the anomalous dimension of the chiral primary operator  $\Psi$  we must calculate  $\langle \Psi(x) \tilde{\Psi}(x) \rangle$ . We do this by using Wick's theorem and plugging in the two-point correlator

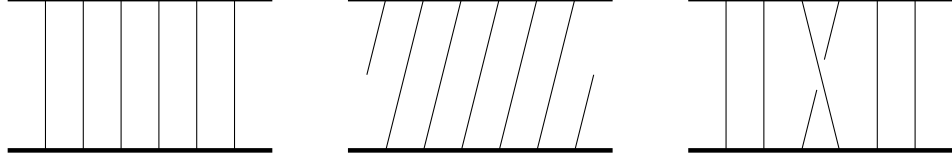


Figure 1: Possible types of contractions between fields in traces of operators, which are represented by horizontal lines. Vertical lines represent the contractions. First two figures are examples of planar contractions while the last one is an example of a non-planar contraction.

(3.5), which produces a lot of terms with delta function contractions between the adjoint indices. Some examples are

$$\dots \delta^{a'}_a \delta^{a_{a'}} \delta^{b'}_b \delta^{b_{b'}} \delta^{c'}_c \delta^{c_{c'}} \dots \quad (3.6a)$$

$$\dots \delta^{a'}_c \delta^{c_{a'}} \delta^{b'}_a \delta^{a_{b'}} \delta^{c'}_b \delta^{b_{c'}} \dots \quad (3.6b)$$

$$\dots \delta^{a'}_a \delta^{a_{b'}} \delta^{c'}_b \delta^{b_{a'}} \delta^{b'}_c \delta^{c_{c'}} \dots \quad (3.6c)$$

These contractions have a graphical interpretation. Consider the scalar field  $Z^a_b$  as a dot and each contraction of the adjoint indices as a line connecting these dots, then the chiral primary operator  $\Psi$  is simply a circle. Wick's theorem says that in order to find the correlator  $\langle \Psi(x) \tilde{\Psi}(y) \rangle$  we must sum all possible ways we can connect the dots in the circle of  $\Psi$  to the dots in the circle of  $\tilde{\Psi}$ . All the delta function contractions that we get after expanding the correlator represent precisely all the possible ways we can contract the dots in the circles. The three excerpts of contractions shown in (3.6) can be represented graphically as shown in fig. 3.1. One can immediately notice that the first two are planar, while the third one is intersecting itself. Evaluating the three contractions we immediately see that planar ones produce a factor of  $N^3$  while the non-planar one produces a factor of  $N$ , i.e. non-planar diagrams are suppressed and we can discard them once we take the planar limit  $N \rightarrow \infty$ . All that's left then are cyclic permutations of lines by shifting all of them as seen in fig. 3.1 while going from (a) to (b). There are  $L - 1$  shifts that can be done in this way, since after making a full circle we return to the initial configuration. Thus finally for the chiral primary correlator at tree level we find

$$\langle \Psi(x) \tilde{\Psi}(y) \rangle_{\text{tree}} \approx \frac{LN^L}{|x - y|^{2L}}, \quad (3.7)$$

where  $N^L$  comes from the contractions and  $L$  from all the possible planar ways we can contract. This can easily be generalized for correlators of operators with arbitrary scalar fields  $\Phi_{I_1 I_2 \dots I_L}(x) = \text{Tr} [\Phi_{I_1}(x) \Phi_{I_2}(x) \dots \Phi_{I_L}(x)]$  to

$$\langle \Phi_{I_1 I_2 \dots I_L}(x) \tilde{\Phi}^{J_1 J_2 \dots J_L}(y) \rangle_{\text{tree}} \approx \frac{1}{|x - y|^{2L}} \left( \delta^{J_1}_{I_1} \delta^{J_2}_{I_2} \dots \delta^{J_L}_{I_L} + \text{cycles} \right), \quad (3.8)$$

where “cycles” refers to terms with the  $J$  indices pushed.  $I$  and  $J$  are flavor indices, the color indices are suppressed.

So far so good, but in order to calculate anomalous dimensions we have to go beyond tree level. This may seem like a highly nontrivial thing to do, since we expect not only scalar

interactions, but also gluon exchanges and fermion loops appearing. Luckily the symmetry of the theory allows one to calculate all gluon and fermion effects in one go. First let's concentrate on the bosonic sector of the theory ignoring gluons. The action (2.3) contains a single scalar-only interaction term

$$\begin{aligned} S_\Phi &= -\frac{g^2}{4} \sum_{I,J} \int d^4x \operatorname{Tr} [\Phi_I, \Phi_J] [\Phi_I, \Phi_J] \\ &= -\frac{g^2}{4} \sum_{I,J} \int d^4x (\operatorname{Tr} [\Phi_I \Phi_I \Phi_J \Phi_J] - \operatorname{Tr} [\Phi_I \Phi_J \Phi_I \Phi_J]). \end{aligned} \quad (3.9)$$

In order to calculate the correlator (3.8) at one-loop level, one should insert this term and Wick contract. Just like in tree level, we only have to keep planar diagrams. For the interaction terms this means that only neighboring fields can interact. This drastically reduces the number of terms we get after Wick contracting. Because of that it is enough to consider a length two operator  $\Phi_{I_k I_{k+1}}$  and with a bit of work one can show that at one-loop level we get [?]

$$\begin{aligned} \left\langle \Phi_{I_k I_{k+1}}(x) \tilde{\Phi}^{J_k J_{k+1}} \right\rangle_{\text{one-loop}} &= \frac{\lambda}{16\pi^2} \frac{\ln(\Lambda^2 |x-y|^2)}{|x-y|^{2L}} \times \\ &\times \left( 2\delta_{I_k}^{J_{k+1}} \delta_{I_{k+1}}^{J_k} - \delta_{I_k I_{k+1}} \delta^{J_k J_{k+1}} - \delta_{I_k}^{J_k} \delta_{I_{k+1}}^{J_{k+1}} \right), \end{aligned} \quad (3.10)$$

where  $\lambda = g^2 N$  is the t'Hooft coupling. Comparing this to (3.8) we see that effectively the interactions permute and contract the delta function indices. We can introduce exchange and trace operators to make this explicit. The permutation operator, also called the exchange operator,  $\mathcal{P}_{l,l+1}$  is defined by it's action on a set of delta functions as

$$\mathcal{P}_{l,l+1} \delta_{I_1}^{J_1} \dots \delta_{I_l}^{J_l} \delta_{I_{l+1}}^{J_{l+1}} \dots \delta_{I_L}^{J_L} = \delta_{I_1}^{J_1} \dots \delta_{I_l}^{J_{l+1}} \delta_{I_{l+1}}^{J_l} \dots \delta_{I_L}^{J_L} \quad (3.11)$$

and the trace operator  $\mathcal{K}_{l,l+1}$  is defined as

$$\mathcal{K}_{l,l+1} \delta_{I_1}^{J_1} \dots \delta_{I_l}^{J_l} \delta_{I_{l+1}}^{J_{l+1}} \dots \delta_{I_L}^{J_L} = \delta_{I_1}^{J_1} \dots \delta_{I_l I_{l+1}} \delta^{J_l J_{l+1}} \dots \delta_{I_L}^{J_L}. \quad (3.12)$$

Using these operators we can rewrite the correlator in (3.10) in a more compact notation

$$\begin{aligned} \left\langle \Phi_{I_k I_{k+1}}(x) \tilde{\Phi}^{J_k J_{k+1}} \right\rangle_{\text{one-loop}} &= \\ &= \frac{\lambda}{16\pi^2} \frac{\ln(\Lambda^2 |x-y|^2)}{|x-y|^{2L}} (2\mathcal{P}_{k,k+1} - \mathcal{K}_{k,k+1} - 1) \delta_{I_k}^{J_k} \delta_{I_{k+1}}^{J_{k+1}}. \end{aligned} \quad (3.13)$$

This result includes four scalar interactions only, however as mentioned before at one-loop level we can also have gluon interactions and fermion loops in scalar propagators. The nice thing about these is that such interactions don't alter the flavor index structure, i.e. there are no permutations or traces. Basically this happens because the gluon transforms trivially under R-symmetry and hence can't change the flavor index (which transforms under R-symmetry). Fermions on the other hand do transform under R-symmetry and it is a miracle that happens only at one-loop level that they don't alter the flavor structure. Thus all of these interactions contribute a constant term  $C$ , which we can determine later. We can generalize our one-loop

result with all interactions included for operators of arbitrary length,

$$\begin{aligned} \left\langle \Phi_{I_1 I_2 \dots I_L}(x) \tilde{\Phi}^{J_1 J_2 \dots J_L}(y) \right\rangle_{\text{one-loop}} &= \frac{\lambda}{16\pi^2} \frac{\ln(\Lambda^2 |x-y|^2)}{|x-y|^{2L}} \times \\ &\times \sum_{l=1}^L (2 \mathcal{P}_{l,l+1} - \mathcal{K}_{l,l+1} - 1 + C) \left( \delta_{I_1}^{J_1} \delta_{I_2}^{J_2} \dots \delta_{I_L}^{J_L} + \text{cycles} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Combining this with the tree level result (3.8) and comparing to the general expression of a two-point function at one-loop level (3.2) we can deduce the anomalous dimension  $\gamma$ , which now becomes an operator  $\Gamma$  because of the flavor mixing. It is given by

$$\Gamma = \frac{\lambda}{16\pi^2} \sum_{l=1}^L (-2 \mathcal{P}_{l,l+1} + \mathcal{K}_{l,l+1} + 1 - C). \quad (3.14)$$

At first sight it may seem strange that what was supposed to be a number, i.e. a correction to the mass dimension of an operator has turned out to be an operator acting on the flavor space, i.e. a matrix. But this is very natural and in fact expected, since interactions can change the flavor of fields and we can't be sure that an operator at the quantum level has the same flavor indices as it does at the classical level. This line of thinking may lead to a natural question, why do we have mixing between the scalars only and not between all the fields in the theory including fermions, which miraculously do not appear. It turns out that this is a one-loop feature only and mixing becomes a problem at higher loop levels. In fact, the next subsection about closed sectors is devoted to the question of operator mixing.

Now that we have acknowledged that the anomalous dimension is a matrix and found an expression for it, the next logical step would be diagonalizing it and finding the flavor eigenstates. One example of such an eigenstate is the chiral primary operator  $\Psi$ . Since it contains scalar fields of only one type, the permutation and trace operators act trivially on it. Thus we see that

$$\Gamma \Psi = \frac{\lambda}{16\pi^2} \sum_{l=1}^L (-2 + 1 - C) \Psi, \quad (3.15)$$

but by definition a chiral primary has an anomalous dimension of zero, which then fixes the constant  $C$  to  $-1$ . And finally we get

$$\Gamma = \frac{\lambda}{16\pi^2} \sum_{l=1}^L (2 - 2 \mathcal{P}_{l,l+1} + \mathcal{K}_{l,l+1}). \quad (3.16)$$

A keen eye might already notice that this expression resembles a Hamiltonian of a spin chain. In fact, this is hardly surprising, since from the very beginning we were talking about fields as points in some closed line, which indeed resembles a spin chain. Furthermore the correlators that we were calculating are nothing more than propagators from one state of the chain to another, hence no wonder that the operator describing this evolution looks like a Hamiltonian for a spin chain. This identification is very useful, because the spin chains that appear in AdS/CFT are integrable and can be solved exactly, which gives us hope that we can apply the same techniques here and solve the spectral problem in  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  exactly. This is indeed what was first done in



the seminal paper [?], which launched the integrability program in AdS/CFT. However saying that the spectral problem can be solved exactly in this particular case is too strong, since we are only at one-loop level. Nevertheless it turns out that one can apply the same techniques going beyond one-loop level. What happens is that long range interactions start appearing in the Hamiltonian as one goes higher in loops. What is more unexpected is that under certain limits one can actually guess how the solution should look like at all loops. Further techniques like the thermodynamic Bethe ansatz can then be applied to solve the spectral problem exactly without assuming any limits. The coming sections will explore these techniques in more detail.

### 3.1.1 The $\mathfrak{sl}(2)$ sector

Let us now focus on the  $SU(2)$  sector of  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  SYM. The anomalous dimension operator is then given by

$$\Gamma = \frac{\lambda}{8\pi^2} \sum_{l=1}^L (1 - \mathcal{P}_{l,l+1}). \quad (3.17)$$

Up to a constant factor this is the same as the Hamiltonian for the Heisenberg spin chain (also called the XXX spin chain), which is a quantum description of a one dimensional magnet. The Hamiltonian is given by

$$\mathbf{H} = \sum_{l=1}^L (1 - \mathcal{P}_{l,l+1}), \quad (3.18)$$

which can also be rewritten in terms of Pauli matrices as

$$\mathbf{H} = 2 \sum_{l=1}^L \left( \frac{1}{4} - \vec{S}_l \cdot \vec{S}_{l+1} \right), \quad \vec{S}_l = \frac{1}{2} \vec{\sigma}_l. \quad (3.19)$$

Hence solving the spectral problem in  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  SYM translates into solving the Schrödinger equation

$$\mathbf{H} |\psi\rangle = E |\psi\rangle, \quad (3.20)$$

where we now seek to find the energy eigenvalues for the Hamiltonian of the spin chain. If the chain is short, this is a trivial diagonalization problem that can be easily solved by a present day computer. However this problem was first solved analytically by Hans Bethe in a time when computers were still in their infancy. The original solution (English translation available in [?]) now goes by the name of *coordinate Bethe ansatz* and it is by far one of the most important and beautiful solutions in physics in the past century, which is still very widely used even to this day. The idea is to make an educated guess for the wave function  $|\psi\rangle$ , plug it in to the Schrödinger equation and determine when does it actually hold. This produces a set of algebraic Bethe ansatz equations for a set of variables unimaginatively called the Bethe roots. All observables can then be expressed in terms of these numbers as simple algebraic functions, thus transforming a diagonalization problem to an algebraic problem. This has an enormous advantage, since in the asymptotic limit, when the spin chain is very large, instead of diagonalizing an infinite matrix, the set of algebraic equations actually simplify and produce integral equations, which can be solved.

We already discussed that the anomalous dimension  $\Gamma$  must be a matrix due to operator mixing in  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  SYM. In the  $SU(2)$  sector we have mixing only between two scalar fields, e.g.  $W$  and  $Z$ . In the spin chain picture these fields can be treated as up and down spin states, i.e.

$$|\uparrow\rangle = Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad |\downarrow\rangle = W = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (3.21)$$

thus local single trace operators can be treated as states of a spin chain, e.g.

$$\text{Tr}(WWZWWZW) = |\downarrow\downarrow\uparrow\downarrow\downarrow\uparrow\downarrow\rangle \quad (3.22)$$

Due to the cyclicity of the trace all rotations of the chain are equivalent. We should also specify the periodicity boundary condition

$$\vec{S}_{L+1} = \vec{S}_1. \quad (3.23)$$

The operators  $\vec{S}_l$  act as Pauli matrices on the  $l$ 'th spin site and trivially on all the others. Since a spin “chain” with a single site would have a state space  $\mathbb{C}^2$ , a spin chain of length  $L$  has a state space  $\mathbb{C}^{\otimes L^2}$ , which has  $2^L$  basis vectors and the Hamiltonian is then a  $2^L \times 2^L$  matrix, which we need to diagonalize. Working directly with Pauli matrices one can find some simple results directly, e.g. it is trivial to show that the chiral primary operator

$$|\Psi\rangle = \text{Tr}[Z^L] = |\uparrow\uparrow \dots \uparrow\rangle \quad (3.24)$$

is an eigenstate of the Hamiltonian with zero energy, i.e. it is the ferromagnetic ground state of the spin chain, which we will denote as  $|0\rangle$  from now on. This is expected, since we know that chiral primaries have zero anomalous dimensions. Another eigenstate of the Hamiltonian is the *single magnon* state, defined as

$$|p\rangle = \sum_{n=1}^L e^{ipn} |n\rangle, \quad (3.25)$$

where  $|n\rangle$  is the ground state with the  $n$ 'th spin flipped,

$$|n\rangle = S_n^- |0\rangle = |\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow \dots \downarrow \dots \uparrow\uparrow\uparrow\rangle, \quad (3.26)$$

here  $p$  is formally just a parameter, but it can be interpreted as the momentum of the excitation travelling in the spin chain. Due to the cyclicity of the chain the momentum is quantized,

$$p = \frac{2\pi}{L} n, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad (3.27)$$

where  $n$  is the mode number. The energy of the excitation is given by the dispersion relation

$$E(p) = 4 \sin^2 \frac{p}{2}. \quad (3.28)$$

Now consider a two magnon state

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{n < m} \psi(n, m) |n, m\rangle, \quad |n, m\rangle = S_n^- S_m^- |0\rangle. \quad (3.29)$$

The situation is not so trivial this time, since the two magnons might scatter among themselves. We now plug this into (3.20) and find the conditions for  $\psi(n, m)$ , which are

$$\begin{aligned} E \psi(n, m) &= 4 \psi(n, m) - \psi(n+1, m) - \psi(n-1, m) \\ &\quad - \psi(n, m+1) - \psi(n, m-1) \end{aligned} \quad (3.30)$$

when  $m > n+1$  and

$$E \psi(n, n+1) = 2 \psi(n, n+1) - \psi(n-1, n+1) - \psi(n, n+2) \quad (3.31)$$

when  $m = n+1$ , i.e. when the two magnons scatter. The solution is now a superposition of single magnon states

$$\psi(n, m) = e^{ikn+ipm} + S(k, p) e^{ipn+ikm}, \quad (3.32)$$

where

$$S(p, k) = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \cot \frac{k}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \cot \frac{p}{2} - i}{\frac{1}{2} \cot \frac{k}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \cot \frac{p}{2} + i} \quad (3.33)$$

is the scattering matrix. As required, such a state is an eigenstate and the energy is given by

$$E = E(p) + E(k), \quad (3.34)$$

i.e. it is simply the sum of the single magnon energies. Finally the spin chain periodicity condition imposes the following equations

$$e^{ikL} S(p, k) = e^{ipL} S(k, p) = 1. \quad (3.35)$$

It is now straightforward to generalize this procedure, which is exactly what Bethe did in his seminal paper [?]. The wave function for  $M$  spins down can be written as

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{1 \leq l_1 < l_2 < \dots < l_M \leq L} \psi(l_1, l_2, \dots, l_M) S_{l_1}^- S_{l_2}^- \dots S_{l_M}^- |0\rangle. \quad (3.36)$$

The sum is chosen in a way so as not to over count states. The Bethe ansatz is the educated guess of the wave function

$$\psi(l_1, l_2, \dots, l_M) = \sum_{\sigma \in \text{perm}(1, 2, \dots, M)} A(p) e^{ip_{\sigma_1} l_1 + ip_{\sigma_2} l_2 + \dots + ip_{\sigma_M} l_M}, \quad (3.37)$$

where the sum runs over all permutations of the down spin labels  $1, 2, \dots, M$ .  $p_i$  are the momenta of the down spins, which can be treated as excitations moving in the vacuum state of the spin chain. The ansatz then looks like a superposition of plane waves. As in the two magnon case, one should now plug in the ansatz and find the conditions that make it work. The result is a set of algebraic equations, called the *Bethe equations* [?]

$$e^{ip_k L} = - \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq k}}^M \frac{e^{ip_j} - e^{ip_k} + 1}{e^{ip_k} - e^{ip_j} + 1} \quad \text{for } k = 1, 2, \dots, M \quad (3.38)$$

and the amplitude is given by

$$A(r) = \text{sign}(\sigma) \prod_{j < k} (e^{ip_j} - e^{ip_k} + 1). \quad (3.39)$$

These equations can be interpreted physically once rewritten as

$$e^{ip_k L} \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq k}}^M S(p_j, p_k) = 1, \quad \text{where } S(p_j, p_k) = -\frac{e^{ip_k} - e^{ip_j} + 1}{e^{ip_j} - e^{ip_k} + 1}. \quad (3.40)$$

This is simply saying that if we take a magnon, carry it around the spin chain, the total phase change which is a result of free propagation ( $e^{ip_k L}$ ) and scattering with other magnons ( $S(p_j, p_k)$ ) must be trivial. Changing variables to

$$e^{ip_k} = \frac{u_k + i/2}{u_k - i/2}, \quad u_k = \frac{1}{2} \cot \frac{p_k}{2}, \quad (3.41)$$

brings the Bethe equations (3.38) to a more familiar form

$$\left( \frac{u_k + i/2}{u_k - i/2} \right)^L = \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq k}}^M \frac{u_k - u_j + i}{u_k - u_j - i}, \quad (3.42)$$

where now one solves for the Bethe roots  $u_k$ , also known as magnon rapidities. It is now straightforward to see that this general solution reproduces the two magnon scenario we discussed earlier. The energy of the  $M$  magnon state is given by

$$E = \sum_{k=1}^M \frac{1}{u_k^2 + 1/4}, \quad (3.43)$$

which also agrees with the single and two magnon examples.

The key thing worth noting in (3.40) is that the spin chain can be fully described in terms of the scattering matrix for just two particles, i.e. the full  $M$  particle scattering matrix factorizes. This is the defining property of integrability [?], since factorized scattering means that individual momenta are conserved in each two particle scattering producing a tower of conserved quantities – just the thing one would want in an integrable system.

Give the  $\mathfrak{sl}(2)$  Hamiltonian, example states and energies.

### 3.2 Higher loops

The next step in solving the spectral problem is increasing the loop level. For the  $SU(2)$  sector this has first been done for two-loops using mainly diagrammatic methods and by fixing the structure of the operator by symmetry. The resulting dilatation operator is given by [?]

$$\Gamma_{2-loop} = \frac{\lambda}{8\pi^2} \sum_{l=1}^L (-4 + 6 \mathcal{P}_{l,l+1} - (\mathcal{P}_{l,l+1} \mathcal{P}_{l+1,l+2} + \mathcal{P}_{l+1,l+2} \mathcal{P}_{l,l+1})). \quad (3.44)$$

In the spin chain picture this corresponds to a Hamiltonian for a long range spin chain with two nearest neighbour interactions. This spin chain has been shown to be integrable [?]. This result has been extended to three, four and five loops [?]. The explicit expressions for the dilatation operator at higher loops get more and more lengthy and complicated, but a pattern

emerges that at loop level  $l$  the dilatation operator can be identified with a Hamiltonian of a long range spin chain where at most  $l$  nearest neighbours in the chain interact. What is even more remarkable is that these spin chains also turn out to be integrable [?], which hints that integrability may be an all loop phenomenon. This was in part verified by solving the spectral problem in the asymptotic limit, i.e. when the spin chain length  $L$  becomes infinite, but the number of excitations  $M$  is kept finite. The solution is given by conjecturing a set of *asymptotic Bethe ansatz equations*, which since their original inception have been extensively verified [?, ?]. The equations have the same form as in the one-loop case (3.40), but the scattering function for two magnons gets modified to [?]

$$S(p_i, p_j) = \frac{u(p_i) - u(p_j) + i}{u(p_i) - u(p_j) - i} \times S_D(p_i, p_j), \quad (3.45)$$

where  $S_D(p_i, p_j)$  is the so called dressing factor (an explicit expression for it can be found in [?]) and the rapidities are now defined as

$$u(p) = \frac{1}{2} \cot \frac{p}{2} \sqrt{1 + \frac{\lambda}{\pi^2} \sin^2 \frac{p}{2}}. \quad (3.46)$$

The outcome is that all one-loop results get slightly modified, e.g. the magnon dispersion relation (3.28) becomes

$$E(p) = \frac{8\pi^2}{\lambda} \left( \sqrt{1 + \frac{\lambda}{\pi^2} \sin^2 \frac{p}{2}} - 1 \right), \quad (3.47)$$

which in the low coupling limit  $\lambda \rightarrow 0$  agrees with the one-loop result as it should. For many magnon states the energy is still given by the sum of individual magnon energies. It is truly remarkable that such a simple solution exists even though the Hamiltonian of the all-loop spin chain is not known. But even though such an easy generalization to an all-loop solution looks promising, it is only the first step towards the full solution of the spectral problem in  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  SYM.

Short example of a two loop Hamiltonian, perturbative corrections for the states found above with contact terms.

### 3.3 Asymptotic solution

$$\left( \frac{x_k^+}{x_k^-} \right)^J = \prod_{j \neq k}^S \frac{x_k^- - x_j^+}{x_k^+ - x_j^-} \frac{1 - 1/(x_k^+ x_j^-)}{1 - 1/(x_k^- x_j^+)} \sigma^2(u_k, u_j), \quad k = 1, \dots, S \quad (3.48)$$

where

$$\Delta = J + S + \gamma(g), \quad \gamma(g) = \frac{i\sqrt{\lambda}}{2\pi} \sum_{j=1}^S \left( \frac{1}{x_j^+} - \frac{1}{x_j^-} \right) \quad (3.49)$$

with

$$u(x) = g \left( x + \frac{1}{x} \right) \quad (3.50)$$

### 3.3.1 A glimpse ahead: the slope function

The asymptotic Bethe ansatz (3.48) is the first non-trivial exact result we encountered so far, even if only valid in the asymptotic limit. In this short paragraph we will demonstrate how it can be used to find the exact *slope function*  $\gamma^{(1)}(g)$ , which is defined as the linear term in the small  $S$  expansion of the anomalous dimension, namely

$$\gamma(g) = \gamma^{(1)}(g) S + \gamma^{(2)}(g) S^2 + \mathcal{O}(S^3). \quad (3.51)$$

The subleading coefficient  $\gamma^{(2)}(g)$  is called the *curvature function* and it will be the main study object of section ??, where we also address the question of what it actually means to send an integer quantity  $S$  to zero.

The slope function was initially conjectured in [68] and later independently proved in [69] and [70], our derivation will follow the former reference. The starting point is the logarithm of the asymptotic Bethe ansatz (3.48), given by

$$\frac{J}{i} \log \left( \frac{x_k^+}{x_k^-} \right) - \sum_{j \neq k}^S \frac{1}{i} \log \left( \frac{x_k^- - x_j^+}{x_k^+ - x_j^-} \frac{1 - 1/(x_k^+ x_j^-)}{1 - 1/(x_k^- x_j^+)} \sigma^2(u_k, u_j) \right) = 2\pi n_k, \quad (3.52)$$

where  $n_k$  is the mode number of the  $k$ 'th Bethe root. In the small  $S$  limit the number of Bethe roots also tends to zero and in this regime they stop interacting [68], thus we will consider the case when  $n_k = n$  and the general result will simply be a linear combination of terms with different values of  $n_k$ . The key idea of the derivation is assuming that the result only depends on the combination  $\Lambda \equiv n\sqrt{\lambda}$  and taking the small  $n$  limit. Obviously this limit is also the strong coupling limit, as  $\lambda \sim 1/n^2 \rightarrow \infty$ . This considerably simplifies the derivation, for starters we only need the strong coupling expansion of the dressing phase, which is given by [??]

$$\log \sigma(u_k, u_j) \simeq -\log \left( \frac{1 - 1/(x_k^+ x_j^-)}{1 - 1/(x_k^- x_j^+)} \right) + i(u_j - u_k) \log \left( \frac{x_j^- x_k^- - 1}{x_j^+ x_k^+ - 1} \frac{x_j^+ x_k^+ - 1}{x_j^- x_k^- - 1} \right). \quad (3.53)$$

Also, since  $u_k \sim 1/n$  we can simplify the shifts in the rapidities  $u_k$ , namely

$$x_k^\pm = x \left( u_k \pm \frac{i}{2} \right) = x \left( \frac{1}{g} \left( x_k + \frac{1}{x_k} \right) \pm \frac{i}{2} \right) = x_k \pm \frac{i}{2g} \frac{x_k^2}{x_k^2 - 1} + \mathcal{O} \left( \frac{1}{g^2} \right). \quad (3.54)$$

Plugging in the leading order dressing phase expansion and getting rid of the shifts in the rapidities reduces the asymptotic Bethe ansatz equations (3.52) to

$$\sum_{j \neq k} \frac{2}{x_k - x_j} + \frac{1}{x_k} \left( J + \gamma + \frac{2}{1 - x_k^2} \right) = \frac{\Lambda(x_k^2 - 1)}{2x_k^2} \quad (3.55)$$

$$\gamma = G(1) - G(-1) \quad (3.56)$$

$$G^2(x) + G'(x) + \left( \frac{J + \gamma + 2}{x} - \frac{2x}{x^2 - 1} + \frac{\Lambda}{2} \frac{1 - x^2}{x^2} \right) G(x) = F(x) \quad (3.57)$$

$$F(x) = \frac{\Lambda}{2} \frac{G(0) + G'(0)x}{x^2} + (J + \gamma + 2) \frac{G(0)}{x} - \frac{G(1)}{x - 1} - \frac{G(-1)}{x + 1} \quad (3.58)$$

$$\Lambda G'(0) = 2G(1) + 2G(-1) - 2G(0)(J + \gamma + 2) - \Lambda S \quad (3.59)$$

$$F(x) = \frac{\Lambda}{2} \left( \frac{G(0)}{x^2} - \frac{S}{x} \right) + \frac{G(-1)}{x(x+1)} - \frac{G(1)}{x(x-1)} \quad (3.60)$$

$$G(x) = \frac{x^2 - 1}{x^{J+2}} e^{\Lambda \frac{x^2+1}{2x}} \int_{x_0}^x dy F(y) \frac{y^{J+2}}{y^2 - 1} e^{-\Lambda \frac{y^2+1}{2y}} \quad (3.61)$$

$$\Lambda(G(0) - S) - G(+1)(2J + 1) + G(-1) = 0 \quad (3.62a)$$

$$\Lambda(G(0) + S) + G(-1)(2J + 1) - G(+1) = 0 \quad (3.62b)$$

$$G(x) = -\frac{\Lambda S}{2J} - \frac{\gamma}{2x} - \frac{\Lambda}{4J} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x^{J+2}} e^{\Lambda \frac{x^2+1}{2x}} \int_0^x dy (\gamma J y^{J-1} + \Lambda S y^J) e^{-\Lambda \frac{y^2+1}{2y}} \quad (3.63)$$

$$I_\nu(\Lambda) = \frac{(-1)^{-\nu}}{2\pi i} \oint dy y^{\nu-1} e^{\Lambda \frac{y^2+1}{2y}} \quad (3.64)$$

$$\gamma J(-1)^J I_J(\Lambda) + \Lambda S(-1)^{J+1} I_{J+1}(\Lambda) = 0 \quad (3.65)$$

$$\gamma^{(1)}(\Lambda) = \frac{\Lambda}{J} \frac{I_{J+1}(\Lambda)}{I_J(\Lambda)} \quad (3.66)$$

### 3.4 Strong coupling and the algebraic curve

In the previous section we defined strings on  $AdS_5 \times S^5$  in terms of the algebra current  $J$ , given in (2.36). This current has the property of being flat,

$$dJ - J \wedge J = 0, \quad (3.67)$$

and what is more, one can even define a one parameter family of connections from it by [?]

$$L(x) = J^{(0)} + \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1} J^{(2)} - \frac{2x}{x^2 - 1} \left( *J^{(0)} - \Lambda \right) + \sqrt{\frac{x+1}{x-1}} J^{(1)} + \sqrt{\frac{x-1}{x+1}} J^{(3)}, \quad (3.68)$$

which are flat for all  $x$ ,

$$dL(x) - L(x) \wedge L(x) = 0. \quad (3.69)$$

Here  $L(x)$  is the *Lax connection* and  $x$  is the spectral parameter. The existence of such a set of connections signals that the theory is at least classically integrable. This can be shown by constructing the monodromy matrix

$$\Omega(x) = \mathcal{P} \exp \oint_\gamma L(x), \quad (3.70)$$

where  $\gamma$  is any path wrapping the worldsheet cylinder. Since the connection is flat, by definition it is path independent and we can evaluate the integral along any  $\tau = \text{const}$  loop. Furthermore, shifting the  $\tau$  value corresponds to doing a similarity transformation on the monodromy matrix [?], meaning that the eigenvalues must be time independent. Thus we have an infinite tower of conserved charges, hinting that the theory may be integrable. Denote the eigenvalues of the monodromy matrix as

$$\{e^{i\hat{p}_1(x)}, e^{i\hat{p}_2(x)}, e^{i\hat{p}_3(x)}, e^{i\hat{p}_4(x)} \mid e^{i\tilde{p}_1(x)}, e^{i\tilde{p}_2(x)}, e^{i\tilde{p}_3(x)}, e^{i\tilde{p}_4(x)}\}. \quad (3.71)$$

Here the quantities  $p(x)$  are called *quasi-momenta*. The bar as always denotes the  $\mathbb{Z}_2$  grading and we use the convention that hatted quantities correspond to  $AdS_5$  variables and quantities with tildes correspond to  $S^5$ . From elementary algebraic geometry we know that the zeroes of any polynomial define an algebraic curve and since the eigenvalues  $e^{ip(x)}$  are the zeroes of the characteristic polynomial of the monodromy matrix, they must also define an algebraic curve. A key idea in the development of integrability was the realization that this algebraic curve also known as the *spectral curve* can be used to define classical string solutions [?]. It is highly nontrivial to reconstruct a classical string solution given a set of quasi-momenta, yet they provide a very convenient way of describing solutions and they are very useful for solving the spectral problem. In that sense the spectral curve is the string analogue of the Bethe equations, which can also be used to find explicit solutions, but their true power lies in their ability to efficiently solve the spectral problem.

The characteristic equation for the monodromy matrix is of order eight, meaning that the algebraic curves it defines can be thought of as cuts connecting eight sheets of a Riemann surface. A cut connecting sheets  $i$  and  $j$  is denoted as  $\mathcal{C}^{ij}$  and the quasi-momenta on these sheets have discontinuities

$$p_i(x + i\epsilon) - p_j(x - i\epsilon) = 2\pi n_{ij}, \quad (3.72)$$

where  $n_{ij}$  is an integer. Four of the eight sheets correspond to the  $AdS_5$  part of the string target space and the other four to the  $S^5$  part, hence the indices  $i$  and  $j$  take on values

$$i \in \{\tilde{1}, \tilde{2}, \hat{1}, \hat{2}\}, \quad j \in \{\tilde{3}, \tilde{4}, \hat{3}, \hat{4}\} \quad (3.73)$$

and we define  $p$  to have either a hat or a tilde based on the index, i.e.

$$p_{\hat{i}}(x) \equiv \hat{p}_i(x) \quad \text{and} \quad p_{\tilde{i}}(x) \equiv \tilde{p}_i(x). \quad (3.74)$$

We determine the polarization of a solution by the type of sheets the corresponding cut connects, e.g. if it connects two hatted sheets, the string is polarized in the  $AdS_5$  part of the background and if it connects mixed sheets it is a fermionic excitation. Solutions in closed sectors, e.g. strings moving in the  $\mathbb{R} \times S^3$  submanifold of the target space will be limited to cuts between a subset of the eight sheets. Some examples of cuts are shown in fig. ???. For each cut we associate the so called *filling fraction* defined by

$$S_{ij} = \pm \frac{\lambda}{8\pi^2 i} \oint_{\mathcal{C}^{ij}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{x^2}\right) p_i(x) dx, \quad (3.75)$$



where a plus sign is used for indices with a hat and a minus for indices with a tilde. These are the action angle variables for the theory, which is another concept from classical integrability [?]. Roughly they measure the length of the cut, it is also known that they correspond to the excitation numbers of strings or the number of Bethe roots in the spin chain picture [?], hence they are integers.

Since the Lax connection has poles at  $x = \pm 1$ , so do the quasi-momenta. Due to the Virasoro constraint, which comes about from the diffeomorphism invariance of the worldsheet, the residues of the quasi-momenta are constrained to

$$\{\hat{p}_1, \hat{p}_2, \hat{p}_3, \hat{p}_4 \mid \tilde{p}_1, \tilde{p}_2, \tilde{p}_3, \tilde{p}_4\} = \frac{\{\alpha_{\pm}, \alpha_{\pm}, \beta_{\pm}, \beta_{\pm}, \mid \alpha_{\pm}, \alpha_{\pm}, \beta_{\pm}, \beta_{\pm}\}}{x \pm 1}. \quad (3.76)$$

An additional constraint on the quasi-momenta comes from the fact that the algebra  $\mathfrak{psu}(2, 2|4)$  has an automorphism, which is the cause for an additional  $\mathbb{Z}_4$  grading. The constraints are given by [?]

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{p}_{1,2}(x) &= -\tilde{p}_{2,1}(1/x) - 2\pi m \\ \tilde{p}_{3,4}(x) &= -\tilde{p}_{4,3}(1/x) - 2\pi m \\ \hat{p}_{1,2,3,4}(x) &= -\hat{p}_{2,1,4,3}(1/x). \end{aligned} \quad (3.77)$$

These relations define an inversion symmetry. Finally one can look at the asymptotics of the quasi-momenta as the spectral parameter becomes infinite. In this limit the Lax connection becomes related to the Noether currents of the theory and hence one can relate the quasi-momenta to the charges of the global symmetry algebra by [?]

$$\begin{pmatrix} \hat{p}_1 \\ \hat{p}_2 \\ \hat{p}_3 \\ \hat{p}_4 \\ \tilde{p}_1 \\ \tilde{p}_2 \\ \tilde{p}_3 \\ \tilde{p}_4 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{2\pi}{x} \begin{pmatrix} +\mathcal{E} - \mathcal{S}_1 + \mathcal{S}_2 \\ +\mathcal{E} + \mathcal{S}_1 - \mathcal{S}_2 \\ -\mathcal{E} - \mathcal{S}_1 - \mathcal{S}_2 \\ -\mathcal{E} + \mathcal{S}_1 + \mathcal{S}_2 \\ +\mathcal{J}_1 + \mathcal{J}_2 - \mathcal{J}_3 \\ +\mathcal{J}_1 - \mathcal{J}_2 + \mathcal{J}_3 \\ -\mathcal{J}_1 + \mathcal{J}_2 + \mathcal{J}_3 \\ -\mathcal{J}_1 - \mathcal{J}_2 - \mathcal{J}_3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (3.78)$$

where the charges are rescaled by  $\mathcal{Q} = Q/\sqrt{\lambda}$ . Thus we see that we can characterize the quasi-momenta by describing their behaviour at poles and under symmetries, by their asymptotics and their filling fractions.

Let us now revisit the simplest string solution we know, the BMN string and describe it using the spectral curve. Not surprisingly it is the simplest algebraic curve possible, containing no poles or cuts except the trivial ones at  $x = \pm 1$ . The quasi-momenta are given by [?]

$$\tilde{p}_{1,2} = -\tilde{p}_{3,4} = \hat{p}_{1,2} = -\hat{p}_{3,4} = \frac{2\pi \mathcal{J} x}{x^2 - 1}. \quad (3.79)$$

From the asymptotic behaviour as  $x \rightarrow \infty$  we can determine the charges of this solution by comparing to (4.21) and we find

$$\mathcal{J}_1 = \mathcal{J}, \quad \mathcal{E} = \kappa = \mathcal{J}, \quad (3.80)$$

all other charges being zero. Many other solutions can be characterized this way, e.g. the giant magnon corresponds to a two cut solution [?].

As already mentioned, the key advantage of describing solutions using algebraic curves is the ability to solve the spectral problem without actually solving the equations of motion. We already saw this at the classical level, where finding the energy of a solution amounts to looking at the asymptotic behaviour of the quasi-momenta. Quasi-classical analysis of the spectral curve enables one to go beyond the classical theory and find quantum corrections to the energy levels of classical solutions. The idea of quasi-classical analysis and the spectral curve for that matter traces back to the early days of quantum mechanics. Consider a particle in a smooth one dimensional potential described by the wave function  $\psi(x)$ . Define the quasi-momentum by

$$p(x) \equiv \frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{\psi'(x)}{\psi(x)}, \quad (3.81)$$

the Schrödinger equation then looks like

$$p^2(x) - i\hbar p'(x) = 2m(E - V), \quad (3.82)$$

which would be the classic energy momentum relation if it were not for the  $\hbar$  term. The quasi-momentum has a pole for each zero of the wave function, so for a highly excited state this will be some big number  $N \rightarrow \infty$  and we would recover the classical solution. What is more, the poles get closer and closer to each other and in the classical limit they condense to form a cut connecting two sheets in a Riemann surface. Thus in the classical limit we recover the spectral curve of this system. We also know that the number of poles is given by

$$\frac{1}{2\pi\hbar} \oint_C p(x) dx = N, \quad (3.83)$$

which is also the Bohr-Sommerfeld quantization condition. This integral effectively measures the size of the cut when the poles condense to a cut, thus this is the filling fraction. This simplified discussion illustrates how one could go from a classical system to a quantum one. The idea of quasi-classical analysis is to start with a classical solution and perturb it by adding microscopic cuts to the Riemann surface, which effectively describe some quantum excitations. This is exactly what has been done for various string solutions in  $AdS_5 \times S^5$  [?]. One can then proceed with comparing the spectra of string solutions beyond the classical level with spectra of spin chain states at higher loop levels and the results so far have been encouraging [?].

Describe flat connections, monodromies, sheets etc.

### 3.4.1 Folded string

Give solution

### 3.5 String quantization and semi-classics

Describe the quantization procedure. Derive next coefficient for Konishi.

### 3.6 Short strings

This section describes the work performed by the author which culminated in the publication [?], which itself is largely based on the semiclassical analysis performed in [?].

Here we are interested in the so called  $SL(2)$  sector of the theory, which is composed of operators of the form  $\text{Tr}(D^S Z^J) + \text{permutations}$ , where  $D$  is the covariant derivative,  $S$  is the spin and  $J$  is the angular momentum of the operator. This sector is convenient, since equations suitable for numerical studies were formulated for it and thus one can cross check everything against numerics. On the string theory side operators from this sector correspond to the so-called spinning folded strings. At the classical level, it is convenient to describe them in terms of the scaled charges  $\mathcal{S} = S/\sqrt{\lambda}$ ,  $\mathcal{J} = J/\sqrt{\lambda}$ . They have a simple and clear dynamical meaning: the spin  $\mathcal{S}$  is associated with rotation around the center of  $AdS_5$  while  $\mathcal{J}$  is an angular momentum on the sphere. At small  $\mathcal{S}$ , the string is short and admits a near-flat space description. At large  $\mathcal{S}$ , the string stretches and reaches the boundary of  $AdS$  with the characteristic scaling  $E \sim \log \mathcal{S}$  of its energy. Short strings are especially interesting, since their strong coupling limit looks very difficult to address both within the gauge theory and perturbative string theory approaches, on the other hand, quantum corrections in the semiclassical approximation are fully under control and can be studied by algebraic curve tools.

The algebraic curve method is one of the most advanced ways of computing the semi-classical corrections  $AdS/CFT$ . The method is heavily based on integrability and is naturally free from any perturbation theory ambiguities. The only input needed to proceed with the quantization is a set of quasi-momenta  $\hat{p}_i, \tilde{p}_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$  which were mentioned in the previous section on integrability. In particular, the folded string solution corresponds to the curve with two symmetric cuts with real branch-points  $\pm b, \pm a$  such that  $1 < a < b$ . The explicit form of the quasi-momenta depends on the twist  $J$  and the Lorentz spin  $S$  and can be constructed using the methods of [?], [22], [?].

A more detailed description of the procedure will be given in the following section on  $AdS_4/CFT_3$ , since the author has performed the analysis in that case and published the result in [?] [?]. At this stage the take away point is that the semiclassical quantization procedure produces the following result for the energy of a folded string up to one loop level

$$\Delta^{\text{classical}} + \delta E = \lambda^{1/4} \sqrt{2S} + \frac{1}{\lambda^{1/4}} \frac{2J^2 + S(3S - 2)}{4\sqrt{2S}}. \quad (3.84)$$

The authors contribution to the  $AdS_5/CFT_4$  case is the publication [?], which builds on top of the aforementioned semiclassical analysis in the following way. Consider the limit  $\mathcal{S} \rightarrow 0$

where the semiclassical correction to the string energy can be written as

$$\delta E \simeq \frac{-\mathcal{S}}{2(\mathcal{J}^3 + \mathcal{J})} + \mathcal{S}^2 \left[ \frac{3\mathcal{J}^4 + 11\mathcal{J}^2 + 17}{16\mathcal{J}^3(\mathcal{J}^2 + 1)^{5/2}} - \sum_{m>0, m \neq n} \frac{n^3 m^2 (2m^2 + n^2 \mathcal{J}^2 - n^2)}{\mathcal{J}^3 (m^2 - n^2)^2 (m^2 + n^2 \mathcal{J}^2)^{3/2}} \right] \quad (3.85)$$

If the parameters  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{J}$  are fixed to some values then the sums can be evaluated. Note that this expression mixes various orders of the coupling. Now consider the conjecture in [68]. It says that making expansions of the scaling dimension squared first in  $\mathcal{S} \rightarrow 0$  and then in  $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$  should reveal the following structure

$$\Delta^2 = J^2 + S(A_1 \sqrt{\mu} + A_2 + \dots) + S^2 \left( B_1 + \frac{B_2}{\sqrt{\mu}} + \dots \right) + \mathcal{O}(S^3), \quad (3.86)$$

where the coefficients  $A_i$ ,  $B_i$ ,  $C_i$  are some functions of  $J$  and  $\sqrt{\mu} = n\sqrt{\lambda}$  with  $n$  being the mode number. This is, as can be easily seen, a nontrivial constraint on  $\Delta$  itself as

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta &= J + \frac{S}{2J} \left( A_1 \sqrt{\mu} + A_2 + \frac{A_3}{\sqrt{\mu}} + \dots \right) \\ &+ S^2 \left( -\frac{A_1^2}{8J^3} \mu - \frac{A_1 A_2}{4J^3} \sqrt{\mu} + \left[ \frac{B_1}{2J} - \frac{A_2^2 + 2A_1 A_3}{8J^3} \right] + \left[ \frac{B_2}{2J} - \frac{A_2 A_3 + A_1 A_4}{4J^3} \right] \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu}} + \dots \right) + \mathcal{O}(S^3). \end{aligned} \quad (3.87)$$

One of the results of [68] is the exact formula for all the coefficients  $A_i$ . They can be found easily by expanding a simple combination of Bessel functions, called the “slope”, around infinity and it produces [68]:

$$A_1 = 2, \quad A_2 = -1, \quad A_3 = J^2 - \frac{1}{4}, \quad A_4 = J^2 - \frac{1}{4} \dots \quad (3.88)$$

Comparing with our one-loop result 4.211 we can also find the  $B_i$ ’s,

$$B_1 = \frac{3}{2}, \quad B_2 = \begin{cases} -3\zeta_3 + \frac{3}{8} & , \quad n = 1 \\ -24\zeta_3 - \frac{13}{8} & , \quad n = 2 \\ -81\zeta_3 - \frac{24}{8} & , \quad n = 3 \end{cases} \quad (3.89)$$

The equation ?? allows one to make a very nontrivial prediction for the strong coupling expansion of operators with fixed length  $J$  and the number of derivatives  $S$ . For that end we simply fix  $S$  and  $J$  in ?? and expand for large  $\lambda$  or, equivalently,  $\mu$ . This procedure gives:

$$\Delta_{S,J,n} \simeq \sqrt{2S} \mu^{1/4} + \frac{2J^2 + 3S^2 - 2S}{4(2S)^{1/2} \mu^{1/4}} + \frac{-21S^4 + (32B_2 + 12)S^3 + (20J^2 - 12)S^2 + 8J^2 S - 4J^4}{32(2S)^{3/2} \mu^{3/4}} \quad (3.90)$$

where  $B_2$  is given in ??. Note that according to our observations there are some inconsistencies in the conjecture that this derivation relies on when  $n > 1$  and thus this result should be treated with great care.

The end result is that we were able to boost the one loop result ?? to two loops simply by utilizing Basso’s conjecture. We checked the prediction against exact TBA results and the agreement was very convincing.

Combine with slope, derive next coefficient for Konishi.

### 3.7 Towards the full solution

Mention nested BAE, full  $\mathfrak{psu}(2,2-4)$  spin chain without going into much detail.

## 4 Exact results

In this section we leave the perturbative regime (weak and strong coupling) behind and move on towards exact results in  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  super Yang-Mills, where by “exact” we mean available at any value of the coupling constant. In principle such results are the ultimate goal of the whole AdS/CFT programme and being able to extract them is a remarkable achievement.

One can argue that the spectral problem has been worked out exactly, at least conceptually, as we will review shortly. However in practice one immediately runs into technical difficulties with finding solutions, thus at the moment only certain calculations have been carried out explicitly. In this section we will present a few examples of exact results, most notably the slope and curvature functions, which are the two leading coefficients in the small spin expansion of the anomalous dimension of the folded string. As mentioned before, they are indeed exact in the coupling constant, yet they are somewhat abstract, one might even say not physical and thus of little use. We will argue the opposite by demonstrating how one can use them in order to find new information about physically relevant quantities such as the Konishi anomalous dimension.

We will start the section by reviewing the exact solution to the spectral problem of AdS/CFT, first discussing historic approaches and quickly moving on to the novel  $\mathbf{P}\mu$  approach. We then devote the rest of the section to various exact results, mostly achieved using the  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system.

### 4.1 Solution to the spectral problem

Historically the first solution to the spectral problem that fully incorporated finite length corrections was the thermodynamic Bethe ansatz (TBA). Being a set of infinite integral equations it was obviously very hard to use in practice and was thus soon reformulated as an infinite set of functional relations, the so called Y-system. Both of these formulations can now be seen as intermediary steps towards the more elegant  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system, which we cover in more depth in the next subsection.

#### 4.1.1 TBA

The idea here is to consider the mirror theory of the Euclidean version of the original theory, where by Euclidean we mean a theory that is defined by the analytical continuation in the  $y = it$  complex time variable. The mirror theory is then defined by exchanging time and size coordinates with  $x = i\tau$  being the complex version of the mirror time coordinate  $\tau$  and  $y$  being the space coordinate. The mirror theory is obviously different from the original, e.g. for the asymptotic  $SU(2)$  spin chain the original dispersion relation (3.47) gets mirror inverted to [?]

$$\tilde{E}(\tilde{p}) = 2 \arcsin \frac{\sqrt{\tilde{p}(16\pi^2 + \tilde{p}\lambda)}}{8\pi}, \quad (4.1)$$

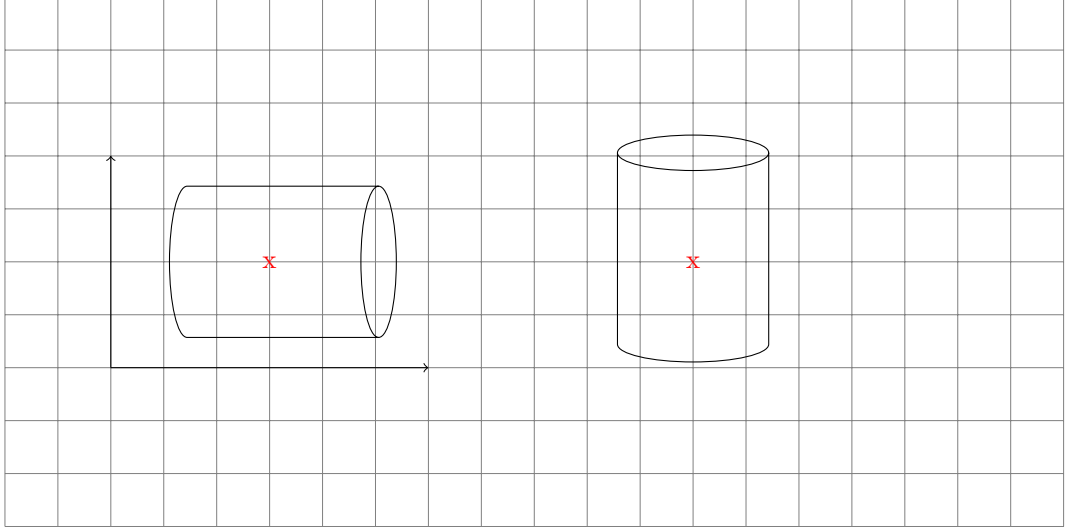


Figure 2: A high level illustration of the idea behind the TBA method: by double Wick rotating the theory one can exchange time with length and thus finite volume scattering with the ground state scattering at finite length.

the scattering matrix also has a different pole structure, meaning that the theory has different bound states from the original ones. But the remarkable thing is that mirroring a theory preserves integrability, meaning that one can solve it with an asymptotic Bethe ansatz [?]. One can use this fact, since the partition functions for these theories satisfy the obvious identity

$$Z(L, R) = \tilde{Z}(R, L), \quad (4.2)$$

where  $L$  is the length scale of the original theory and  $R$  is the time scale. At asymptotic time scales the partition function is dominated by contributions from the ground state, this applies to any length scale of the system, thus in the asymptotic time limit

$$Z(L, R) = \text{Tre}^{-R H(L)} \xrightarrow{R \rightarrow \infty} e^{-R E_0(L)}. \quad (4.3)$$

This limit corresponds to the infinite length limit for the mirror model, which we can solve using the asymptotic Bethe ansatz, thus

$$\tilde{Z}(R, L) = \text{Tre}^{-L \tilde{H}(R)} \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow \infty} \sum_n e^{-L \tilde{E}_n(R)}, \quad (4.4)$$

where  $\tilde{H}$  is the Hamiltonian of the mirror theory. Now we simply identify the partition functions and solve for the ground state energy in the original theory at any length  $L$ . The result is then a simple integral given by [?]

$$E_0(L) = -\frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_r \int du (\partial_u \tilde{p}) \log \left( 1 + e^{-\epsilon_r(u)} \right), \quad (4.5)$$

where  $\epsilon_r(u)$  is the so called pseudo energy, defined in terms of the density of solutions with some charge  $r$  in the mirror theory and we sum over all charges that describe the solutions. Energies of excited states at finite length can then be found by analytic continuation [?].

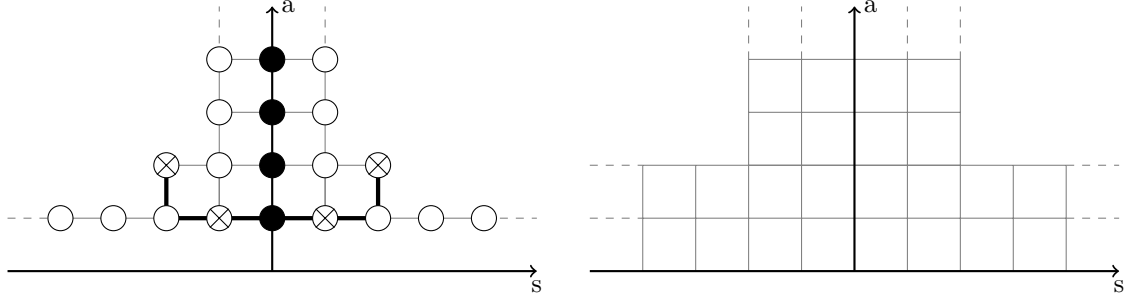


Figure 3: The domains of the  $Y_{a,s}$  and  $T_{a,s}$  functions (left and right respectively). The  $Y_{a,s}$  functions are defined on the nodes, where the type of node signifies the type of excitation. The  $T_{a,s}$  functions are defined on the lattice points of the grid.

The argument for the finite size solution presented here is very sketchy and for the full  $PSU(2,2|4)$  theory the story is obviously way more complicated, but everything that we discussed has indeed been done for the full theory. The solution is written in terms of a Y-system [?], which is a set of algebraic equations frequently found in integrable systems [?]. The Y-system equations have been verified on numerous occasions and have thus far passed every test [?].

$$\log Y_{a,s}(u) = \delta_s^0 iL p_a(u) + \int dv K_{a,s}^{a',s'}(u,v) \log(1 + Y_{a',s'}(v)) \quad (4.6)$$

$$E = \sum_j \epsilon_1(u_{4,j}) + \sum_{a=1}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{du}{2\pi i} \frac{\partial \epsilon_a^*}{\partial u} \log(1 + Y_{a,0}^*(u)) \quad (4.7)$$

#### 4.1.2 The Y-system

The Y-system

$$\frac{Y_{a,s}^+ Y_{a,s}^-}{Y_{a+1,s} Y_{a-1,s}} = \frac{(1 + Y_{a,s+1})(1 + Y_{a,s-1})}{(1 + Y_{a+1,s})(1 + Y_{a-1,s})} \quad (4.8)$$

$$T_{a,s}^+ T_{a,s}^- = T_{a+1,s} T_{a-1,s} + T_{a,s+1} T_{a,s-1} \quad (4.9)$$

$$Y_{a,s} = \frac{T_{a,s+1} T_{a,s-1}}{T_{a+1,s} T_{a-1,s}} \quad (4.10)$$

$$T_{a,s} \rightarrow g_1^{[a+s]} g_2^{[a-s]} g_3^{[s-1]} g_4^{[-a-s]} T_{a,s} \quad (4.11)$$



## 4.2 The $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system

In this section we review the formulation of the  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system, and also discuss its symmetries which will be useful later. Below, we will restrict the discussion to states in the  $sl(2)$  sector as presented in [?]. Remarkably, the general case is not much more complicated and will appear soon in [?].

The  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system is a nonlinear system of functional equations for a four-vector  $\mathbf{P}_a(u)$  and a  $4 \times 4$  antisymmetric matrix  $\mu_{ab}(u)$  depending on the spectral parameter  $u$ . For full details about the origin of the construction we refer the reader to [?]. As functions of  $u$ , both  $\mathbf{P}_a$  and  $\mu_{ab}$  have prescribed analyticity properties which play a key role. First,  $\mathbf{P}_a$  must have only a single branch cut in  $u$  going between  $-2g$  and  $2g$ , being analytic in the rest of the complex plane. We call this cut the *short* cut, while the cut on the real line connecting the same two points through infinity is called the *long* cut. The functions  $\mu_{ab}$  have an infinite set of short branch cuts going between  $-2g + in$  and  $2g + in$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  (see Fig. ??). Most importantly, the analytic continuation of  $\mathbf{P}_a$  and  $\mu_{ab}$  through these cuts is again expressed in terms of these functions, according to the following equations:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_a = -\mu_{ab}\chi^{bc}\mathbf{P}_c, \quad \text{with} \quad \chi^{ab} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (4.12)$$

and

$$\tilde{\mu}_{ab} - \mu_{ab} = \mathbf{P}_a \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_b - \mathbf{P}_b \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_a. \quad (4.13)$$

Here we denote by  $\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_a$  and  $\tilde{\mu}_{ab}$  the analytic continuation of  $\mathbf{P}_a$  and  $\mu_{ab}$  through the cut on the real axis. In addition, we have a pseudo-periodicity condition

$$\tilde{\mu}_{ab}(u) = \mu_{ab}(u + i) \quad (4.14)$$

which, actually, means that  $\mu_{ab}(u)$  would be an  $i$ -periodic function if defined with long cuts instead of the short cuts.

The functions  $\mu_{ab}$  are also constrained by the relations

$$\mu_{12}\mu_{34} - \mu_{13}\mu_{24} + \mu_{14}^2 = 1, \quad (4.15)$$

$$\mu_{14} = \mu_{23}, \quad (4.16)$$

the first of which states that the Pfaffian of the matrix  $\mu_{ab}$  is equal to 1. Let us also write the equations (4.12) explicitly:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_1 = -\mathbf{P}_3\mu_{12} + \mathbf{P}_2\mu_{13} - \mathbf{P}_1\mu_{14} \quad (4.17)$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_2 = -\mathbf{P}_4\mu_{12} + \mathbf{P}_2\mu_{14} - \mathbf{P}_1\mu_{24} \quad (4.18)$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_3 = -\mathbf{P}_4\mu_{13} + \mathbf{P}_3\mu_{14} - \mathbf{P}_1\mu_{34} \quad (4.19)$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_4 = -\mathbf{P}_4\mu_{14} + \mathbf{P}_3\mu_{24} - \mathbf{P}_2\mu_{34}. \quad (4.20)$$

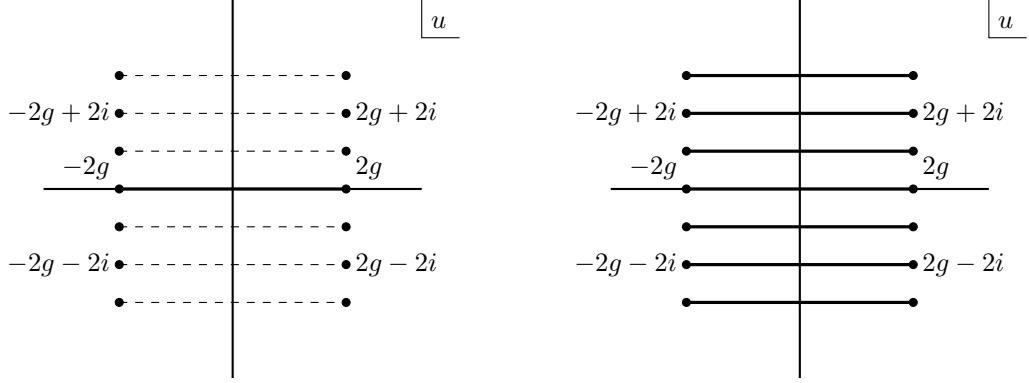


Figure 4: **Cuts in the  $u$  plane.** We show the location of branch cuts in  $u$  for the functions  $\mathbf{P}_a(u)$  (left) and  $\mu_{ab}(u)$  (right). The infinitely many cuts of  $\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_a$  are shown on the left picture with dashed lines.

The above equations ensure that the branch points of  $\mathbf{P}_a$  and  $\mu_{ab}$  are of the square root type, i.e.  $\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_a = \mathbf{P}_a$  and  $\tilde{\mu}_{ab} = \mu_{ab}$ .

Finally, we require that  $\mathbf{P}_a$  and  $\mu_{ab}$  do not have any singularities except these branch points<sup>1</sup>.

The quantum numbers and the energy of the state are encoded in the asymptotics of the functions  $\mathbf{P}_a$  and  $\mu_{ab}$  at large real  $u$ . The generic case is described in [?], while here we are interested in the states in the  $sl(2)$  sector, for which the relations read [?]

$$\mathbf{P}_a \sim (A_1 u^{-J/2}, A_2 u^{-J/2-1}, A_3 u^{J/2}, A_4 u^{J/2-1}) \quad (4.21)$$

$$(\mu_{12}, \mu_{13}, \mu_{14}, \mu_{24}, \mu_{34}) \sim (u^{\Delta-J}, u^{\Delta+1}, u^{\Delta}, u^{\Delta-1}, u^{\Delta+J}) \quad (4.22)$$

where  $J$  is the twist of the gauge theory operator, and  $\Delta$  is its conformal dimension. With these asymptotics, the equations (4.12)-(4.16) form a closed system which fixes  $\mathbf{P}_a$  and  $\mu_{ab}$ .

Lastly, the spin  $S$  of the operator is related [?] to the leading coefficients  $A_a$  of the  $\mathbf{P}_a$  functions (see (4.21)):

$$A_1 A_4 = \frac{((J+S-2)^2 - \Delta^2)((J-S)^2 - \Delta^2)}{16iJ(J-1)} \quad (4.23)$$

$$A_2 A_3 = \frac{((J-S+2)^2 - \Delta^2)((J+S)^2 - \Delta^2)}{16iJ(J+1)}. \quad (4.24)$$

The  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system enjoys a symmetry preserving all of its essential features. It has the form of a linear transformation of  $\mathbf{P}_a$  and  $\mu_{ab}$  which leaves the system (4.12)-(4.16) and the asymptotics (4.21), (4.22) invariant. Indeed, consider a general linear transformation  $\mathbf{P}'_a = R_a{}^b \mathbf{P}_b$  with a non-degenerate constant matrix  $R$ . In order to preserve the system (4.12),  $\mu$  should at the same time be transformed as

$$\mu' = -R\mu\chi R^{-1}\chi. \quad (4.25)$$

<sup>1</sup>For odd values of  $J$  the functions  $\mathbf{P}_a$  may have an additional branch point at infinity. However, it should cancel in any product of two  $\mathbf{P}_a$ 's, and therefore it will not appear in any physically relevant quantity (see [?], [?]). We will discuss some explicit examples in the text.

Such a transformation also preserves the form of (4.13) if

$$R^T \chi R \chi = -1, \quad (4.26)$$

which also automatically ensures antisymmetry of  $\mu_{ab}$  and (4.15), (4.16). In general, this transformation will spoil the asymptotics of  $\mathbf{P}_a$ . These asymptotics are ordered as  $|\mathbf{P}_2| < |\mathbf{P}_1| < |\mathbf{P}_4| < |\mathbf{P}_3|$ , which implies that the matrix  $R$  must have the following structure<sup>2</sup>

$$R = \begin{pmatrix} * & * & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & * & 0 & 0 \\ * & * & * & * \\ * & * & 0 & * \end{pmatrix}. \quad (4.27)$$

The general form of  $R$  which satisfies (4.26) and does not spoil the asymptotics generates a 6-parametric transformation, which we will call a  $\gamma$ -transformation. The simplest  $\gamma$ -transformation is the following rescaling:

$$\mathbf{P}_1 \rightarrow \alpha \mathbf{P}_1, \quad \mathbf{P}_2 \rightarrow \beta \mathbf{P}_2, \quad \mathbf{P}_3 \rightarrow 1/\beta \mathbf{P}_3, \quad \mathbf{P}_4 \rightarrow 1/\alpha \mathbf{P}_4, \quad (4.28)$$

$$\mu_{12} \rightarrow \alpha \beta \mu_{12}, \quad \mu_{13} \rightarrow \frac{\alpha}{\beta} \mu_{13}, \quad \mu_{14} \rightarrow \mu_{14}, \quad \mu_{24} \rightarrow \frac{\beta}{\alpha} \mu_{24}, \quad \mu_{34} \rightarrow \frac{1}{\alpha \beta} \mu_{34}, \quad (4.29)$$

with  $\alpha, \beta$  being constants.

In all the solutions we consider in this paper all functions  $\mathbf{P}_a$  turn out to be functions of definite parity, so it makes sense to consider  $\gamma$ -transformations which preserve parity.  $\mathbf{P}_1$  and  $\mathbf{P}_2$  always have opposite parity (as one can see from (4.21)) and thus should not mix under such transformations; the same is true about  $\mathbf{P}_3$  and  $\mathbf{P}_4$ . Thus, depending on parity of  $J$  the parity-preserving  $\gamma$ -transformations are either

$$\mathbf{P}_3 \rightarrow \mathbf{P}_3 + \gamma_3 \mathbf{P}_2, \quad \mathbf{P}_4 \rightarrow \mathbf{P}_4 + \gamma_2 \mathbf{P}_1, \quad (4.30)$$

$$\mu_{13} \rightarrow \mu_{13} + \gamma_3 \mu_{12}, \quad \mu_{24} \rightarrow \mu_{24} - \gamma_2 \mu_{12}, \quad \mu_{34} \rightarrow \mu_{34} + \gamma_3 \mu_{24} - \gamma_2 \mu_{13} - \gamma_2 \gamma_3 \mu_{12}$$

for odd  $J$  or

$$\mathbf{P}_3 \rightarrow \mathbf{P}_3 + \gamma_1 \mathbf{P}_1, \quad \mathbf{P}_4 \rightarrow \mathbf{P}_4 - \gamma_1 \mathbf{P}_2, \quad (4.31)$$

$$\mu_{14} \rightarrow \mu_{14} - \gamma_1 \mu_{12}, \quad \mu_{34} \rightarrow \mu_{34} + 2\gamma_1 \mu_{14} - \gamma_1^2 \mu_{12},$$

for even  $J$ .

### 4.3 Folded string

Mention Frolov numerics. Volin's 8(9) ? loops with  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ .

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<sup>2</sup>This matrix would of course be lower triangular if we ordered  $\mathbf{P}_a$  by their asymptotics.

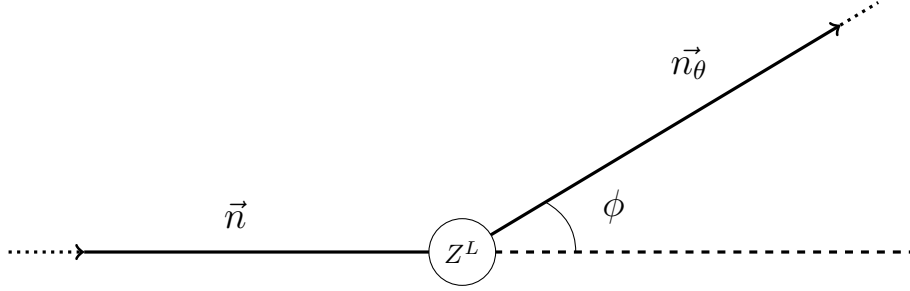


Figure 5: The cusped Wilson line with an operator insertion.

#### 4.4 Cusped Wilson line

The observable which we will be considering is the same as in [51],[50] and [?]: it consists of two rays of a supersymmetric Wilson line forming a cusp with the angle  $\phi$  and an operator  $Z^L$  inserted at the cusp, where  $Z$  is a scalar of  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  SYM (see figure ??). To completely define a supersymmetric Wilson line we should also specify the coupling to scalars, which is parameterized by a six-dimensional unit vector  $\vec{n}(t)$  at each point of the line ( $t$  being a parameter on the line). In our case  $\vec{n}(t)$  is constant and equal  $\vec{n}$  on one ray and  $\vec{n}_\theta$  on another ray, so that  $\vec{n} \cdot \vec{n}_\theta = \cos \theta$ . Due to the R-symmetry the observable depends on  $\vec{n}, \vec{n}_\theta$  only through  $\theta$ .

Explicitly the observable is defined as

$$W_L = \text{P exp} \int_{-\infty}^0 dt \left( iA \cdot \dot{x}_q + \vec{\Phi} \cdot \vec{n} |\dot{x}_q| \right) \times Z^L \times \text{P exp} \int_0^{\infty} dt \left( iA \cdot \dot{x}_{\bar{q}} + \vec{\Phi} \cdot \vec{n}_\theta |\dot{x}_{\bar{q}}| \right). \quad (4.32)$$

Due to the cusp the expectation value of such an observable diverges as

$$\langle W_L \rangle \sim \left( \frac{\Lambda_{IR}}{\Lambda_{UV}} \right)^{\Gamma_L(\lambda)}, \quad (4.33)$$

where  $\Lambda_{IR}$  and  $\Lambda_{UV}$  are the infra-red and ultraviolet cut-offs respectively [?],[?]. The quantity  $\Gamma_L$ , which we will call the cusp anomalous dimension, will be the main object of our studies. When  $\theta^2 - \phi^2 = 0$  the observable  $W_L$  becomes BPS and the cusp anomalous dimension vanishes [?]. In [51] the anomalous dimension in the near-BPS limit  $\theta = 0, \phi \rightarrow 0$  was calculated using the method of Y-system or Thermodynamical Bethe Ansatz [42, 43, 45]. In [54] the calculation was generalized to the case of arbitrary, but close to each other angles  $\theta^2 - \phi^2 \rightarrow 0$ . In this general case the cusp anomalous dimension was found to be

$$\Gamma_L(\lambda) = \frac{\phi - \theta}{4} \partial_\theta \log \frac{\det \mathcal{M}_{2L+1}}{\det \mathcal{M}_{2L-1}} + \mathcal{O}((\phi - \theta)^2), \quad (4.34)$$

where  $\mathcal{M}_N$  is an  $(N+1) \times (N+1)$  sized matrix defined as

$$(\mathcal{M}_N)_{ij} = I_{i-j+1}^\theta, \quad (4.35)$$

$$I_n^\theta = i^{n+1} I_n \left( \frac{\sqrt{\lambda}}{\sin \beta} \right) \sin n\beta, \quad \text{with} \quad \sin \beta = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \theta^2/\pi^2}},$$

and  $I_n(x)$  are modified Bessel functions of the first kind. In [53] the result for the case  $L = 0, \theta = 0$  was re-derived in a significantly shorter way by using the novel  $P - \mu$  system.

The AdS/CFT duality allows one to relate the observable in  $\mathcal{N} = 4$  SYM described above to an open string in AdS which ends on a cusped line on the boundary of AdS. In particular, in the classical scaling limit when  $L$  and  $\lambda$  are both taken to infinity with  $L/\sqrt{\lambda}$  fixed, we can match  $\Gamma_L$  with the energy of the classical string. However, since the result contains determinants of  $(2L + 1) \times (2L + 1)$  sized matrices it is not obvious how to take the large  $L$  limit. In the subsequent sections we develop the apparatus for this, describe the classical string solution and finally compare the results for the energy.

Bremstahlung result from  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ .

#### 4.4.1 Classical limit

Taking the classical limit  $L \rightarrow \infty$  keeping  $L/\sqrt{\lambda}$  fixed becomes considerably easier once we realize that the cusp anomalous dimension (4.34) can be expressed in terms of an expectation value of some operator in a matrix model. In this section we will show how to use this approach to find the large  $N$  expansion of the determinant of  $\mathcal{M}_N$  defined in (4.35).

One can check that the quantities  $I_n^\theta$  defined in the previous section can be rewritten in the following integral representation

$$I_n^\theta = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint \frac{dx}{x^{n+1}} \sinh(2\pi g(x + 1/x)) e^{2g\theta(x-1/x)}, \quad (4.36)$$

where the integration contour is the unit circle and  $g = \frac{\sqrt{\lambda}}{4\pi}$ . This makes it possible to write the determinant of  $\mathcal{M}_N$  as

$$\det \mathcal{M}_N = \oint \prod_{i=1}^{N+1} \frac{dx_i}{2\pi i} e^{2g\theta(x_i - \frac{1}{x_i})} \sinh\left(2\pi g\left(x_i + \frac{1}{x_i}\right)\right) \times \det X, \quad (4.37)$$

where

$$\det X = \begin{vmatrix} x_1^{-2} & x_1^{-1} & \dots & x_1^{N-1} & x_1^{N-2} \\ x_2^{-3} & x_2^{-2} & \dots & x_2^N & x_2^{N-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ x_N^{-N-1} & x_N^{-N} & \dots & x_N^{-2} & x_N^{-1} \\ x_{N+1}^{-N-2} & x_{N+1}^{-N-1} & \dots & x_{N+1}^{-3} & x_{N+1}^{-2} \end{vmatrix} = \frac{\prod_{i < j}^{N+1} (x_i - x_j)}{\prod_{i=1}^{N+1} x_i^{i+1}}, \quad (4.38)$$

and we recognize the numerator as the Vandermonde determinant  $\Delta(x_i)$ . We can further simplify the final result by anti-symmetrizing the denominator, which we can do because everything else in the integrand is anti-symmetric and the integration measure is symmetric w.r.t  $x_i$ , thus under the integral we can replace  $\det X$  by

$$\det X' = \frac{\Delta^2(x_i)}{(N+1)!} \prod_{i=1}^{N+1} \frac{1}{x_i^{N+2}}. \quad (4.39)$$

Thus finally we get the following expression

$$\det \mathcal{M}_N = \frac{1}{(2\pi i)^{N+1}} \oint \prod_{i=1}^{N+1} \frac{dx_i}{x_i^{N+2}} \frac{\Delta^2(x_i)}{(N+1)!} \sinh(2\pi g(x_i + 1/x_i)) e^{2g\theta(x_i - 1/x_i)}, \quad (4.40)$$

which indeed has the structure of a partition function of some matrix model<sup>3</sup>. It now becomes a matter of simple algebra to convince oneself that the cusp anomalous dimension (4.34) can be written in terms of expectation values in this matrix model, namely

$$\Gamma_L(g) = g \frac{\phi - \theta}{2} \left[ \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^{2L+1} \left( x_i - \frac{1}{x_i} \right) \right\rangle_{2L+1} - \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^{2L-1} \left( x_i - \frac{1}{x_i} \right) \right\rangle_{2L-1} \right], \quad (4.41)$$

where  $\langle \dots \rangle_N$  denotes the normalized expectation value in the matrix model of size  $N$  with the partition function defined in (4.40). Note that this formula is exact and we have not yet taken any limits.

In this section we will explore the classical  $L \sim \sqrt{\lambda} \rightarrow \infty$  limit of the matrix model (4.40). As usual in matrix models, when the size of matrices becomes large, the partition function is dominated by the solution of the saddle point equations. In the leading order it is just equal to the value of the integrand at the saddle point. Here we work in this approximation, leaving the corrections (beyond the first one calculated in section ??) for future work.

The partition function (4.40) can be recast in the form <sup>4</sup>

$$\det \mathcal{M}_{2L} = \frac{1}{(2\pi i)^{2L+1}} \frac{1}{(2L+1)!} \oint \prod_{i=1}^{2L+1} dx_i e^{-S(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{2L+1})}, \quad (4.42)$$

where the action is given by

$$\begin{aligned} S &= \sum_{i=1}^{2L+1} \left[ 2g\theta \left( x_i - \frac{1}{x_i} \right) - (2L+2) \log x_i \right] + 2 \sum_{i < j}^{2L+1} \log(x_i - x_j) + \\ &+ \sum_{i=1}^{2L+1} \log \sinh \left( 2\pi g \left( x_i + \frac{1}{x_i} \right) \right). \end{aligned} \quad (4.43)$$

The saddle point equations  $\partial S / \partial x_j = 0$  now read<sup>5</sup>

$$g\theta \left( 1 + \frac{1}{x_j^2} \right) - \frac{L}{x_j} + \sum_{i \neq j}^{2L+1} \frac{1}{x_j - x_i} + \pi g \left( 1 - \frac{1}{x_j^2} \right) \coth \left( 2\pi g \left( x_j + \frac{1}{x_j} \right) \right) = 0. \quad (4.44)$$

We can further simplify them by noting that a large coupling constant  $g$  appears inside the cotangent and since the roots  $x_i$  are expected to be of order 1, with exponential precision it is possible to replace

$$\coth \left( 2\pi g \left( x_j + \frac{1}{x_j} \right) \right) \approx \text{sgn}(\text{Re}(x_j)). \quad (4.45)$$

Finally we bring the equations to a more canonical and convenient form and get the following result,

$$-\theta \frac{x_j^2 + 1}{x_j^2 - 1} + \frac{L}{g} \frac{x_j}{x_j^2 - 1} - \frac{1}{g} \frac{x_j^2}{x_j^2 - 1} \sum_{i \neq j}^{2L+1} \frac{1}{x_j - x_i} = \pi \text{sgn}(\text{Re}(x_j)). \quad (4.46)$$

<sup>3</sup>Namely, it is equal to the partition function of a two-matrix model. We thank I.Kostov for discussions related to this question.

<sup>4</sup>we take  $N = 2L$ .

<sup>5</sup>Technically the  $x_j^{-1}$  term has a coefficient of  $L+1$ , but since we are taking  $L \rightarrow \infty$  we chose to neglect it for simplicity.

An alternative way of finding these values  $x_i$  is to consider the following quantity  $P_L(x)$ , which played an important role in [51],

$$P_L(x) = \frac{1}{\det \mathcal{M}_{2L}} \begin{vmatrix} I_1^\theta & I_0^\theta & \cdots & I_{2-2L}^\theta & I_{1-2L}^\theta \\ I_2^\theta & I_1^\theta & \cdots & I_{3-2L}^\theta & I_{2-2L}^\theta \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ I_{2L}^\theta & I_{2L-1}^\theta & \cdots & I_1^\theta & I_0^\theta \\ x^{-L} & x^{1-L} & \cdots & x^{L-1} & x^L \end{vmatrix}. \quad (4.47)$$

The numerator is the same as  $\det \mathcal{M}_{2L}$  except in the last line  $x_{2L+1}$  is replaced by  $x$  which is not integrated over. In the classical limit all integrals are saturated by their saddle point values, i.e. one can remove the integrals by simply replacing  $x_i \rightarrow x_i^{cl}$ . If we replace  $x$  with any saddle point value  $x_i^{cl}$  the determinant will contain two identical rows and will automatically become zero, thus the zeros of  $P_L(x)$  are the saddle point values. On the complex plane they are distributed on two arcs as shown in figure ???. As expected, for the case  $\theta = 0$  we recover two symmetric arcs on the unit circle [51].

Now, following [?],[?],[51], we introduce the quasimomentum  $p(x)$  as

$$p(x) = -\theta \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1} + \frac{L}{g} \frac{x}{x^2 - 1} - \frac{2L}{g} \frac{x^2}{x^2 - 1} G_L(x), \quad (4.48)$$

where the resolvent  $G_L(x)$  is

$$G_L(x) = \frac{1}{2L} \sum_{k=1}^{2L+1} \frac{1}{x - x_k}. \quad (4.49)$$

The motivation for introducing  $p(x)$  is that the saddle point equations (4.46) expressed through  $p(x)$  take a very simple form

$$\frac{1}{2} (p(x_i + i\epsilon) + p(x_i - i\epsilon)) = \pi \operatorname{sgn}(\operatorname{Re}(x_i)). \quad (4.50)$$

In the classical limit the poles in the quasimomentum condense and form two cuts. The shifts  $\pm i\epsilon$  in the equation above refer to taking the argument of the quasimomentum to one or the other side of the cut.

The quasimomentum (4.48) introduced in the previous section is a convenient object to consider when taking the classical limit  $L \sim \sqrt{\lambda} \rightarrow \infty$ , because in this limit it is related to the algebraic curve of the corresponding classical solution. In this section we will construct this curve explicitly.

In the classical limit the poles of  $p(x)$ , which we denote as  $x_i$ , are governed by the saddle-point equation and condense on two cuts in the complex plane, as shown in figure ??. The saddle-point equation (4.46) has a symmetry  $x \rightarrow -1/x$ , so does the set of poles  $x_i$ . For the quasimomentum (4.48) this symmetry manifests as the identity  $p(x) = -p(-1/x)$ . Thus we conclude that the two cuts are related by an  $x \rightarrow -1/x$  transformation. This and the invariance of the saddle-point equation under complex conjugation implies that the four branch points can be parameterized as  $\{r e^{i\psi}, r e^{-i\psi}, -1/r e^{i\psi}, -1/r e^{-i\psi}\}$ . Note that in the case  $\theta = 0$

the symmetry is enhanced to  $p(x) = -p(-x)$  and  $p(1/x) = p(x)$ , which is not true for arbitrary  $\theta$ .

The crucial point to notice is that while  $p(x)$  satisfies the equation (4.50) which has different constants on the right hand side for the two different cuts, the corresponding equation for  $p'(x)$  has a zero on the right hand side for both cuts, thus we expect  $p'(x)$  to have a simpler form than  $p(x)$ . Our strategy is to write down an ansatz for the derivative  $p'(x)$  using the symmetries and analytical properties of  $p(x)$  and then integrate it. The form of the expression we get is analogous to the curve constructed in [22], which also helps us to construct the ansatz.

First,  $p(x)$  has four branch points and according to (4.50) its derivative changes sign on each cut, hence all the cuts are of square-root type. One can write  $p'(x) \propto 1/y(x)$ , where

$$y(x) = \sqrt{x - re^{i\psi}} \sqrt{x - re^{-i\psi}} \sqrt{x + \frac{1}{r}e^{i\psi}} \sqrt{x + \frac{1}{r}e^{-i\psi}}. \quad (4.51)$$

Second, since the algebraic curve is obtained from (4.48) in the classical limit,  $p(x)$  should have simple poles at  $x = \pm 1$ . Finally, from (4.48) we can get the behaviour at infinity:

$$p'(x) \approx \frac{L}{g} \frac{1}{x^2} + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{x^3}\right). \quad (4.52)$$

By using the knowledge about these singularities and asymptotics we can fix  $p(x)$  completely. Based on what we know up to now we write down our ansatz for the derivative

$$p'(x) = \frac{A_1 x^4 + A_2 x^3 + A_3 x^2 + A_4 x + A_5}{(x^2 - 1)^2 \sqrt{x - re^{i\psi}} \sqrt{x - re^{-i\psi}} \sqrt{x + \frac{1}{r}e^{i\psi}} \sqrt{x + \frac{1}{r}e^{-i\psi}}}. \quad (4.53)$$

The polynomial in the numerator is of order four in order to maintain the correct asymptotics, and below we fix its coefficients using the properties of the quasimomentum.<sup>6</sup>

The  $x \rightarrow -1/x$  symmetry for the derivative implies that  $A_1 = A_5$  and  $A_2 = -A_4$ . Next, simple poles at  $x = \pm 1$  in  $p(x)$  require zero residues of  $p'(x)$  at  $x = \pm 1$ , which fixes  $A_2$  to be

$$A_2 = -\frac{(2A_1 + A_3)r(r^2 - 1)\cos\psi}{r^4 - 2r^2\cos 2\psi + 1}. \quad (4.54)$$

We fix the two remaining unknowns  $A_1$  and  $A_3$  after integrating the  $p'(x)$ . We don't write the intermediate results of the integration as the expressions are enormous without any apparent structure. Looking back at (4.50) we see that at the branchpoints

$$p(x_{bp}) = \pm\pi. \quad (4.55)$$

We use this condition to fix  $A_1$  and we get

$$A_1 = \frac{A_3}{2} \frac{K_1 - E_1}{E_1 + K_1 - 2a^2 K_1 \cos^2(\psi)}, \quad (4.56)$$

where

$$E_1 = \mathbb{E}(a^2 \sin^2(\psi)), \quad K_1 = \mathbb{K}(a^2 \sin^2(\psi)), \quad a = \frac{2r}{r^2 + 1}. \quad (4.57)$$

---

<sup>6</sup>Comparing with the asymptotic one can immediately see that  $A_1 = L/g$ , however our objective is to express  $p(x)$  solely in terms of  $r$  and  $\psi$ , which parameterize the algebraic curve.



Finally we can use the  $x \rightarrow -1/x$  symmetry on the quasimomentum itself, as before we only used it on the derivative. Imposing the symmetry yields

$$A_3 = \frac{8}{a} (E_1 + K_1 - 2a^2 \cos^2(\psi) K_1). \quad (4.58)$$

As expected, after plugging these coefficients into  $p(x)$  (and using the identities from the Appendix ??) the whole expression simplifies enormously and we are left with our main result

$$p(x) = \pi - 4i E_1 \mathbb{F}_1(x) + 4i K_1 \mathbb{F}_2(x) - a \left( \frac{x + r e^{-i\psi}}{x + \frac{1}{r} e^{i\psi}} \right) \left( \frac{2/r e^{i\psi}}{x^2 - 1} \right) y(x) K_1, \quad (4.59)$$

where

$$\mathbb{F}_1(x) = \mathbb{F} \left( \sin^{-1} \sqrt{\left( \frac{x - r e^{-i\psi}}{x + \frac{1}{r} e^{i\psi}} \right) \left( \frac{e^{i\psi}}{i a r \sin \psi} \right)} \middle| a^2 \sin^2(\psi) \right), \quad (4.60)$$

$$\mathbb{F}_2(x) = \mathbb{E} \left( \sin^{-1} \sqrt{\left( \frac{x - r e^{-i\psi}}{x + \frac{1}{r} e^{i\psi}} \right) \left( \frac{e^{i\psi}}{i a r \sin \psi} \right)} \middle| a^2 \sin^2(\psi) \right). \quad (4.61)$$

We verified this result numerically by comparing it to the extrapolation of the discrete quasimomentum (4.48) at large  $L$  and got an agreement up to thirty digits. We also compared this expression at  $\theta = 0$  with the quasimomentum obtained in [51] and the expressions agree perfectly.

The resulting quasimomentum is parameterized in terms of the branchpoints, i.e. the parameters are the radius  $r$  and angle  $\psi$ . They are determined in terms of  $L/g$  and  $\theta$ , which are parameters of the matrix model. We already mentioned that  $L/g$  is simply the constant  $A_1$ , which we found to be

$$\frac{L}{g} = 4 \frac{K_1 - E_1}{a}, \quad (4.62)$$

and looking back at (4.48) we see that  $\theta = p(0) = -p(\infty)$ , hence

$$\begin{aligned} \theta &= -\pi + \frac{2a}{r} e^{i\psi} K_1 \\ &\quad - 4i K_1 \mathbb{E} \left( \sin^{-1} \sqrt{\frac{e^{i\psi}}{i a r \sin \psi}} \middle| a^2 \sin^2(\psi) \right) \\ &\quad + 4i E_1 \mathbb{F} \left( \sin^{-1} \sqrt{\frac{e^{i\psi}}{i a r \sin \psi}} \middle| a^2 \sin^2(\psi) \right). \end{aligned} \quad (4.63)$$

In the next section the two equations above will be matched with two analogous equations following from the classical string equations of motion.

As we have mentioned before, in the classical  $L \sim \sqrt{\lambda} \rightarrow \infty$  limit  $\Gamma_L(\lambda)$  can be matched with the energy of an open string. In this section we will describe the corresponding string solution and find the classical energy.

The class of string solutions we are interested in was introduced in [50] and generalized in [51]. It is a string in  $AdS_3 \times S^3$  governed by the parameters  $\theta, \phi$ ,  $AdS_3$  charge  $E$  and  $S^3$  charge

$L$ ; the four parameters are restricted by the Virasoro constraint. The ansatz for the embedding coordinates of  $AdS^3$  and  $S^3$  is

$$y_1 + iy_2 = e^{i\kappa\tau} \sqrt{1 + r^2(\sigma)}, \quad y_3 + iy_4 = r(\sigma) e^{i\phi(\sigma)}, \quad (4.64)$$

$$x_1 + ix_2 = e^{i\gamma\tau} \sqrt{1 + \rho^2(\sigma)}, \quad x_3 + ix_4 = r(\sigma) e^{if(\sigma)}. \quad (4.65)$$

The range of the worldsheet coordinate is  $-s/2 < \sigma < s/2$ , where  $s$  is to be found dynamically. The angles  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  parameterizing the cusp enter the string solution through the boundary conditions  $\phi(\pm s/2) = \pm(\pi - \phi)/2$  and  $f(\pm s/2) = \pm\theta/2$ . The equations of motion and Virasoro constraints lead to the following system of equations (see Appendix E of [51] for more details, also [?]):

$$f(\gamma, l_\theta) = f(\kappa, l_\phi), \quad (4.66)$$

$$h(\gamma, l_\theta) = \theta, \quad h(\kappa, l_\phi) = \phi, \quad (4.67)$$

$$g(\gamma, l_\theta) = L, \quad g(\kappa, l_\phi) = E, \quad (4.68)$$

where

$$f(\gamma, l) = \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{\gamma^2 + k^2 + 1}} \mathbb{K} \left( \frac{-k^2 + \gamma^2 + 1}{k^2 + \gamma^2 + 1} \right), \quad (4.69)$$

$$h(\gamma, l) = \frac{2l}{k(1 + k^2 - \gamma^2)} \left[ (1 + \gamma^2 + k^2) \Pi \left( \frac{k^2 - 2l^2 - \gamma^2 + 1}{2k^2} \middle| \frac{k^2 - \gamma^2 - 1}{2k^2} \right) - 2\gamma^2 \mathbb{K} \left( \frac{k^2 - \gamma^2 - 1}{2k^2} \right) \right], \quad (4.70)$$

$$g(\gamma, l) = -2\sqrt{2} \frac{\sqrt{\gamma^2 + k^2 + 1}}{\gamma} \left[ \mathbb{E} \left( \frac{-k^2 + \gamma^2 + 1}{k^2 + \gamma^2 + 1} \right) - \mathbb{K} \left( \frac{-k^2 + \gamma^2 + 1}{k^2 + \gamma^2 + 1} \right) \right], \quad (4.71)$$

$$k^4 = \gamma^4 - 2\gamma^2 + 4\gamma^2 l^2 + 1.$$

One can see that the variables  $\theta, l_\theta, \gamma$  and  $L$  are responsible for the  $S^3$  part of the solution, while  $\phi, l_\phi, \kappa$  and  $E$  are their analogues for  $AdS_3$ . The two parts of the solution are connected only by the Virasoro condition which leads to (4.66). We are interested in the limit when  $\theta \approx \phi$ . In this limit the two groups of variables responsible for  $S^3$  and  $AdS_3$  parts of the solution become close to each other, namely  $l_\theta \approx l_\phi$  and  $E \approx L$ . The cusp anomalous dimension should be compared with the difference  $E - L$ , because  $L$  is the classical part of the dimension of the observable  $W_L$ . To find  $E - L$  we linearize the system (4.69),(4.70),(4.71) around  $\phi \approx \theta$ , which yields

$$E - L = (\phi - \theta) \left| \frac{\partial(g, f)}{\partial(l, \kappa)} \right| \bigg/ \left| \frac{\partial(h, f)}{\partial(l, \kappa)} \right|. \quad (4.72)$$

Plugging in here the explicit form of  $g, f$  and  $h$  one gets as a result an extremely complicated expression with a lot of elliptic functions. However, there exists a parametrization in which the result looks surprisingly simple: this parametrization comes from comparison of the string conserved charges with the corresponding quantities of the algebraic curve. One can notice that the equations for  $\theta$  and  $L/g$  in the end of the last section have the same structure as

the equations (4.67) and (4.68). Indeed, it is possible to match them precisely if one chooses the correct identification of parameters of the string solution  $l_\theta, \gamma$  with the parameters of the algebraic curve  $r, \psi$ . We used the elliptic identities presented in the appendix ?? to bring the equations to identical form after the following identifications

$$\gamma = \frac{2r}{\sqrt{r^4 - 2r^2 \cos 2\psi + 1}}, \quad l_\theta = \frac{(r^2 - 1) \cos \psi}{\sqrt{r^4 - 2r^2 \cos 2\psi + 1}}. \quad (4.73)$$

As another confirmation of correctness of this identification, after plugging it into (4.72) the complicated expression reduces to the following simple formula for the classical energy

$$E - L = g(\phi - \theta)(r - 1/r) \cos \psi. \quad (4.74)$$

Notice that this can be rewritten as a sum over the branch points of the algebraic curve

$$E - L = \frac{g}{2}(\phi - \theta) \sum_i a_i, \quad (4.75)$$

where  $a_i = \{r e^{i\psi}, r e^{-i\psi}, -1/r e^{i\psi}, -1/r e^{-i\psi}\}$ .

In this section we will find the classical limit of the cusp anomalous dimension from the algebraic curve. At large  $L$  the formula (4.34) can be rewritten as

$$\Gamma_L(g) = \frac{\phi - \theta}{4} \partial_\theta \partial_L \det \mathcal{M}_{2L}. \quad (4.76)$$

Use the integral representation (4.40) for  $\det \mathcal{M}_L$  we can notice that

$$\partial_\theta \log \det \mathcal{M}_L = \left\langle 2g \sum_{i=1}^{2L} (x_i - 1/x_i) \right\rangle, \quad (4.77)$$

where by the angular brackets we denoted an expectation value in the matrix model with the partition function (4.40). In the quasiclassical approximation the expectation value is determined by the saddle-point, i.e. the previous expression is equal to  $2g \sum_{i=1}^{2L} (x_i - 1/x_i)$ , where the roots  $x_i$  are the solutions of the saddle-point equation (4.46). Since the set of the roots has a  $x \rightarrow -1/x$  symmetry, the two terms in the sum give the same contribution. Thus

$$\partial_\theta \log \det \mathcal{M}_L = -4g \sum_{i=1}^{2L} \frac{1}{x_i} = 8g L G(0), \quad (4.78)$$

where we used the resolvent (4.49).

Using the relation (4.48) between the resolvent and the quasimomentum we find  $G(0) = \frac{g}{L} (p''(0)/4 - \theta)$ , so the final expression for the cusp anomalous dimension in terms of the quasimomentum is

$$\Gamma_L(g) = -\frac{g^2}{2} \partial_L p_L''(0). \quad (4.79)$$

The formula for  $p(x)$  presented in the previous section is given in terms of the parameters of the branch points  $r$  and  $\psi$ . They are implicitly defined through  $L/g$  and  $\theta$  by the equations

(4.62) and (4.63). In order to get  $\Gamma_L$  we express  $\partial_L$  through  $\partial_r$  and  $\partial_\psi$  and then apply (4.79) to (4.59). Finally we obtain a very simple result in terms of  $r$  and  $\psi$

$$\Gamma_L(g) = g(\phi - \theta)(r - 1/r) \cos \psi \quad (4.80)$$

which exactly coincides with the calculation from the string solution!

Here we will check our formula (4.80) in the limit  $\phi = 0$  and  $\theta \rightarrow 0$  considered in section E.2 of [51]. As the angles go to zero, the branch points approach the unit circle:  $r \rightarrow 1$ , thus the formula (4.80) gives

$$\Gamma_L(g) = 2g\theta(r - 1) \cos \psi. \quad (4.81)$$

In this limit  $r - 1 \propto \theta$ , and the coefficient of proportionality can be found by expanding<sup>7</sup> the equation (4.63) for  $\theta$  around  $r = 1$ :

$$2(1 - r) \frac{\mathbb{E}(\sin^2 \psi)}{\cos \psi} = \theta/2. \quad (4.82)$$

Plugging it into the formula above we get

$$\Gamma_L(g) = g\theta^2 \frac{\cos^2 \psi}{2\mathbb{E}(\sin^2 \psi)} \quad (4.83)$$

which perfectly agrees with (190) of [51].

Now that the classical limit of the cusp anomalous dimension is calculated, we can consider corrections to it. In the limit  $L \sim \sqrt{\lambda} \rightarrow \infty$  which we are studying here the perturbative expansion around the classical value can be written as

$$\Gamma_L(g) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} g^{1-n} b_n(L/g) + \text{non-perturbative terms}. \quad (4.84)$$

The classical energy is  $g b_0(L/g)$  and other corrections are suppressed by powers of  $g$ . A symmetry of the formula for  $\Gamma_L(g)$  found in [?] allows one to express the even terms in the expansion (4.84) through the odd ones and the other way round. In particular,  $b_1$  can be obtained from  $b_0$  by differentiating with respect to  $L/g$ . Since the classical energy is

$$\Gamma_L^{\text{cl}}(g) = g(\phi - \theta)(r - 1/r) \cos \psi \quad (4.85)$$

by differentiating it with respect to  $L/g$  we find that the perturbative part of energy in the first two orders in the classical expansion is

$$\Gamma_L(g) = g(\phi - \theta)(r - 1/r) \cos \psi \left( 1 + \frac{1}{g} f(r, \psi) \right), \quad (4.86)$$

where

$$f(r, \psi) = \frac{r + 1/r}{4} \frac{|r^2 e^{2i\psi} + 1|^2 K_1 - r^2 |r + \frac{1}{r} + e^{i\psi} - e^{-i\psi}|^2 E_1}{|(r + \frac{1}{r})(r^2 e^{2i\psi} - 1) E_1 - (r - \frac{1}{r})(r^2 e^{2i\psi} + 1) K_1|^2}, \quad (4.87)$$

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<sup>7</sup>The equation (4.63) is written in the approximation  $\phi \approx \theta$  and now on the top of it we want to take a limit  $\theta \rightarrow 0$ . Since before we have neglected the terms  $\mathcal{O}(\theta - \phi)^2$ , the result, which is now of the order  $\mathcal{O}(\theta)^2$  will not generally be reproduced. However, we found that here and in several other formulas correct small angle limit is reproduced if before taking  $\theta, \phi$  to zero we replace  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  by the middle angle  $\phi_0 = \frac{\phi + \theta}{2}$ , which is in our case equal to  $\theta/2$ .

and  $E_1, K_1$  are defined in (4.57). We have checked this formula and the classical energy (4.74) against a numerical extrapolation of the exact expression (4.34) and found an agreement up to more than thirty digits.

Find the curve, matrix models.

## 4.5 Revisiting the slope function

In this section we will find the solution of the  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system (4.12)-(4.16) corresponding to the  $sl(2)$  sector operators at leading order in small  $S$ . Based on this solution we will compute the slope function  $\gamma^{(1)}(g)$  for any value of the coupling.

The solution of the  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system is a little simpler for even  $J$ , because for odd  $J$  extra branch points at infinity will appear in  $\mathbf{P}_a$  due to the asymptotics (4.21). Let us first consider the even  $J$  case.

The description of the  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system in the previous section was done for physical operators. Our goal is to take some peculiar limit when the (integer) number of covariant derivatives  $S$  goes to zero. As we will see this requires some extension of the asymptotic requirement for  $\mu$  functions. In this section we will be guided by principles of naturalness and simplicity to deduce these modifications which we will summarize in section ???. There we also give a concrete prescription for analytical continuation in  $S$ , which we then use to derive the curvature function.

We will start by finding  $\mu_{ab}$ . Recalling that  $\Delta = J + \mathcal{O}(S)$ , from (4.23), (4.24) we see that  $A_1 A_4$  and  $A_2 A_3$  are of order  $S$  for small  $S$ , so we can take the functions  $\mathbf{P}_a$  to be of order  $\sqrt{S}$ . This is a key simplification, because now (4.13) indicates that the discontinuities of  $\mu_{ab}$  on the cut are small when  $S$  goes to zero. Thus at leading order in  $S$  all  $\mu_{ab}$  are just periodic entire functions without cuts. For power-like asymptotics of  $\mu_{ab}$  like in (4.22) the only possibility is that they are all constants. However, we found that in this case there is only a trivial solution, i.e.  $\mathbf{P}_a$  can only be zero. The reason for this is that for physical states  $S$  must be integer and thus cannot be arbitrarily small, nevertheless, it is a sensible question how to define an analytical continuation from integer values of  $S$ .<sup>8</sup>

Thus we have to relax the requirement of power-like behavior at infinity. The first possibility is to allow for  $e^{2\pi u}$  asymptotics at  $u \rightarrow +\infty$ . We should, however, remember about the constraints (4.15) and (4.16) which restrict our choice and the fact that we can also use  $\gamma$ -symmetry. Let us show that by allowing  $\mu_{24}$  to have exponential behavior and setting it to  $\mu_{24} = C \sinh(2\pi u)$  we arrive to the correct result. We analyze the reason for this choice in detail in section ??.

To simplify the constant part of  $\mu_{ab}$  let us now make use of the  $\gamma$ -transformation, described in section ??. This allows us to set  $\mu_{12} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{34} = 0$  and the constant  $C$  to 1 then the constraint (4.15) imposes  $\mu_{13} = 0$  and  $\mu_{14} = -1$ .

<sup>8</sup>Restricting the large positive  $S$  behavior one can achieve uniqueness of the continuation.

Having fixed all  $\mu$ 's at leading order we get the following system of equations for  $\mathbf{P}_a$ :

$$\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_1 = -\mathbf{P}_3 + \mathbf{P}_1, \quad (4.88)$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_2 = -\mathbf{P}_4 - \mathbf{P}_2 - \mathbf{P}_1 \sinh(2\pi u), \quad (4.89)$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_3 = -\mathbf{P}_3, \quad (4.90)$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_4 = +\mathbf{P}_4 + \mathbf{P}_3 \sinh(2\pi u). \quad (4.91)$$

Recalling that the functions  $\mathbf{P}_a$  only have a single short cut, we see from these equations that  $\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_a$  also have only this cut! This means that we can take all  $\mathbf{P}_a$  to be infinite Laurent series in the Zhukovsky variable  $x(u)$ , which rationalizes the Riemann surface with two sheets and one cut. It is defined as

$$x + \frac{1}{x} = \frac{u}{g} \quad (4.92)$$

where we pick the solution with a short cut, i.e.

$$x(u) = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{u}{g} + \sqrt{\frac{u}{g} - 2} \sqrt{\frac{u}{g} + 2} \right). \quad (4.93)$$

Solving the equations (4.89) and (4.90) with the asymptotics (4.21) we uniquely fix  $\mathbf{P}_1 = \epsilon x^{-J/2}$  and  $\mathbf{P}_3 = \epsilon (x^{-J/2} - x^{+J/2})$ , where  $\epsilon$  is a constant yet to be fixed; we expect it to be proportional to  $\sqrt{S}$ . Thus the equations (4.89) and (4.91) become

$$\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_2 + \mathbf{P}_2 = -\mathbf{P}_4 - \epsilon x^{-J/2} \sinh(2\pi u), \quad (4.94)$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_4 - \mathbf{P}_4 = \epsilon (x^{-J/2} - x^{+J/2}) \sinh(2\pi u). \quad (4.95)$$

We will first solve the second equation. It is useful to introduce operations  $[f(x)]_+$  and  $[f(x)]_-$ , which take parts of Laurent series with positive and negative powers of  $x$  respectively. Taking into account that

$$\sinh(2\pi u) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} I_{2n+1} x^{2n+1}, \quad (4.96)$$

where  $I_k \equiv I_k(4\pi g)$  is the modified Bessel function of the first kind, we can write  $\sinh(2\pi u)$  as

$$\sinh(2\pi u) = \sinh_+ + \sinh_-, \quad (4.97)$$

where explicitly

$$\sinh_+ = [\sinh(2\pi u)]_+ = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} I_{2n-1} x^{2n-1} \quad (4.98)$$

$$\sinh_- = [\sinh(2\pi u)]_- = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} I_{2n-1} x^{-2n+1}. \quad (4.99)$$

We now take the following ansatz for  $\mathbf{P}_4$

$$\mathbf{P}_4 = \epsilon (x^{J/2} - x^{-J/2}) \sinh_- + Q_{J/2-1}(u), \quad (4.100)$$

where  $Q_{J/2-1}$  is a polynomial of degree  $J/2 - 1$  in  $u$ . It is easy to see that this ansatz solves (4.95) and has correct asymptotics. The polynomial  $Q_{J/2-1}$  can be fixed from the equation

(4.94) for  $\mathbf{P}_2$ . Indeed, from the asymptotics of  $\mathbf{P}_2$  we see that the lhs of (4.94) does not have powers of  $x$  from  $-J/2 + 1$  to  $J/2 - 1$ . This fixes

$$Q_{J/2-1}(x) = -\epsilon \sum_{k=1}^{J/2} I_{2k-1} \left( x^{\frac{J}{2}-2k+1} + x^{-\frac{J}{2}+2k-1} \right). \quad (4.101)$$

Once  $Q_{J/2-1}$  is found, we set  $\mathbf{P}_2$  to be the part of the right hand side of (4.94) with powers of  $x$  less than  $-J/2$ , which gives

$$\mathbf{P}_2 = -\epsilon x^{+J/2} \sum_{n=\frac{J}{2}+1}^{\infty} I_{2n-1} x^{1-2n}. \quad (4.102)$$

This completes the solution for even  $J$ , we summarize it below:

$$\mu_{12} = 1, \mu_{13} = 0, \mu_{14} = -1, \mu_{24} = \sinh(2\pi u), \mu_{34} = 0, \quad (4.103)$$

$$\mathbf{P}_1 = \epsilon x^{-J/2} \quad (4.104)$$

$$\mathbf{P}_2 = -\epsilon x^{+J/2} \sum_{n=J/2+1}^{\infty} I_{2n-1} x^{1-2n} \quad (4.105)$$

$$\mathbf{P}_3 = \epsilon \left( x^{-J/2} - x^{+J/2} \right) \quad (4.106)$$

$$\mathbf{P}_4 = \epsilon \left( x^{J/2} - x^{-J/2} \right) \sinh_- - \epsilon \sum_{n=1}^{J/2} I_{2n-1} \left( x^{\frac{J}{2}-2n+1} + x^{-\frac{J}{2}+2n-1} \right). \quad (4.107)$$

In the next section we fix the remaining parameter  $\epsilon$  of the solution in terms of  $S$  and find the energy, but now let us briefly discuss the solution for odd  $J$ . As we mentioned above the main difference is that the functions  $\mathbf{P}_a$  now have a branch point at  $u = \infty$ , which is dictated by the asymptotics (4.21). In addition, the parity of  $\mu_{ab}$  is different according to the asymptotics of these functions (4.22). The solution is still very similar to the even  $J$  case, and we discuss it in detail in Appendix ???. Let us present the result here:

$$\mu_{12} = 1, \mu_{13} = 0, \mu_{14} = 0, \mu_{24} = \cosh(2\pi u), \mu_{34} = 1 \quad (4.108)$$

$$\mathbf{P}_1 = \epsilon x^{-J/2}, \quad (4.109)$$

$$\mathbf{P}_2 = -\epsilon x^{J/2} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{-\frac{J+1}{2}} I_{2k} x^{2k}, \quad (4.110)$$

$$\mathbf{P}_3 = -\epsilon x^{J/2}, \quad (4.111)$$

$$\mathbf{P}_4 = \epsilon x^{-J/2} \cosh_- - \epsilon x^{-J/2} \sum_{k=1}^{\frac{J-1}{2}} I_{2k} x^{2k} - \epsilon I_0 x^{-J/2}. \quad (4.112)$$

Note that now  $\mathbf{P}_a$  include half-integer powers of  $x$ .

**Fixing the global charges of the solution.** Finally, to fix our solution completely we have to find the value of  $\epsilon$  and find the energy in terms of the spin using (4.23) and (4.24). For this we first extract the coefficients  $A_a$  of the leading terms for all  $\mathbf{P}_a$  (see the asymptotics (4.21)).

From (4.104)-(4.107) or (4.109)-(4.112) we get

$$A_1 = g^{J/2}\epsilon, \quad (4.113)$$

$$A_2 = -g^{J/2+1}\epsilon I_{J+1}, \quad (4.114)$$

$$A_3 = -g^{-J/2}\epsilon, \quad (4.115)$$

$$A_4 = -g^{-J/2+1}\epsilon I_{J-1}. \quad (4.116)$$

Expanding (4.23), (4.24) at small  $S$  with  $\Delta = J + S + \gamma$ , where  $\gamma = \mathcal{O}(S)$ , we find at linear order

$$\gamma = i(A_1 A_4 - A_2 A_3) \quad (4.117)$$

$$S = i(A_1 A_4 + A_2 A_3). \quad (4.118)$$

Plugging in the coefficients (4.113)-(4.116) we find that

$$\epsilon = \sqrt{\frac{2\pi i S}{J I_J(\sqrt{\lambda})}} \quad (4.119)$$

and we obtain the anomalous dimension at leading order,

$$\gamma = \frac{\sqrt{\lambda} I_{J+1}(\sqrt{\lambda})}{J I_J(\sqrt{\lambda})} S + \mathcal{O}(S^2), \quad (4.120)$$

which is precisely the slope function of Basso [68].

While the above discussion concerned the ground state, i.e. the  $sl(2)$  sector operator with the lowest anomalous dimension at given twist  $J$ , it can be generalized for higher mode numbers. In the asymptotic Bethe ansatz for such operators we have two symmetric cuts formed by Bethe roots, with corresponding mode numbers being  $\pm n$  (for the ground state  $n = 1$ ). To describe these operators within the  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system we found that we should take  $\mu_{24} = C \sinh(2\pi n u)$  instead of  $\mu_{24} = C \sinh(2\pi u)$  (and for odd  $J$  we similarly use  $\mu_{24} = C \cosh(2\pi n u)$  instead of  $\mu_{24} = C \cosh(2\pi u)$ ). Then the solution is very similar to the one above, and we find

$$\gamma = \frac{n\sqrt{\lambda} I_{J+1}(n\sqrt{\lambda})}{J I_J(n\sqrt{\lambda})} S, \quad (4.121)$$

which reproduced the result of [68] for non-trivial mode number  $n$ . In Appendix ?? we also show how using the  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system one can reproduce the slope function for a configuration of Bethe roots with arbitrary mode numbers and filling fractions.

In summary, we have shown how the  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system correctly computes the energy at linear order in  $S$ . In section ?? we will compute the next,  $S^2$  term in the anomalous dimension.

## 4.6 The curvature function

In this section we use the  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system to compute the  $S^2$  correction to the anomalous dimension, which we call the curvature function  $\gamma^{(2)}(g)$ . First we will discuss the case  $J = 2$  in detail and then describe the modifications of the solution for the cases  $J = 3$  and  $J = 4$ , more details on which can be found in appendix ??.



#### 4.6.1 Iterative procedure for the small $S$ expansion of the $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system

For convenience let us repeat the leading order solution of the  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system for  $J = 2$  (see (4.103)-(4.107))

$$\mathbf{P}_1^{(0)} = \epsilon \frac{1}{x} \quad , \quad \mathbf{P}_2^{(0)} = +\epsilon I_1 - \epsilon x [\sinh(2\pi u)]_- \quad , \quad (4.122)$$

$$\mathbf{P}_3^{(0)} = \epsilon \left( \frac{1}{x} - x \right) \quad , \quad \mathbf{P}_4^{(0)} = -2\epsilon I_1 - \epsilon \left( \frac{1}{x} - x \right) [\sinh(2\pi u)]_- \quad . \quad (4.123)$$

Here  $\epsilon$  is a small parameter, proportional to  $\sqrt{S}$  (see (4.119)), and by  $\mathbf{P}_a^{(0)}$  we denote the  $\mathbf{P}_a$  functions at leading order in  $\epsilon$ .

The key observation is that the  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system can be solved iteratively order by order in  $\epsilon$ . Let us write  $\mathbf{P}_a$  and  $\mu_{ab}$  as an expansion in this small parameter:

$$\mathbf{P}_a = \epsilon \mathbf{P}_a^{(0)} + \epsilon^3 \mathbf{P}_a^{(1)} + \epsilon^5 \mathbf{P}_a^{(2)} + \dots \quad (4.124)$$

$$\mu_{ab} = \mu_{ab}^{(0)} + \epsilon^2 \mu_{ab}^{(1)} + \epsilon^4 \mu_{ab}^{(2)} + \dots \quad (4.125)$$

This structure of the expansion is dictated by the equations (4.12), (4.13) of the  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system (as we will soon see explicitly). Since the leading order  $\mathbf{P}_a$  are of order  $\epsilon$ , equation (4.13) implies that the discontinuity of  $\mu_{ab}$  on the cut is of order  $\epsilon^2$ . Thus to find  $\mu_{ab}$  in the next to leading order (NLO) we only need the functions  $\mathbf{P}_a$  at leading order. After this, we can find the NLO correction to  $\P_a$  from equations (4.13). This will be done below, and having thus the full solution of the  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system at NLO we will find the energy at order  $S^2$ .

#### 4.6.2 Correcting $\mu_{ab} \dots$

In this subsection we find the NLO corrections  $\mu_{ab}^{(1)}$  to  $\mu_{ab}$ . As follows from (4.13) and (4.14), they should satisfy the equation

$$\mu_{ab}^{(1)}(u+i) - \mu_{ab}^{(1)}(u) = \mathbf{P}_a^{(0)} \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_b^{(0)} - \mathbf{P}_b^{(0)} \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_a^{(0)} \quad , \quad (4.126)$$

in which the right hand is known explicitly. For that reason let us define an apparatus for solving equations of this type, i.e.

$$f(u+i) - f(u) = h(u) \quad . \quad (4.127)$$

More precisely, we consider functions  $f(u)$  and  $h(u)$  with one cut in  $u$  between  $-2g$  and  $2g$ , and no poles. Such functions can be represented as infinite Laurent series in the Zhukovsky variable  $x(u)$ , and we additionally restrict ourselves to the case where for  $h(u)$  this expansion does not have a constant term<sup>9</sup>.

One can see that the general solution of (4.127) has a form of a particular solution plus an arbitrary  $i$ -periodic function, which we also call a zero mode. First we will describe the

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<sup>9</sup>The r.h.s. of (4.126) has the form  $F(u) - \tilde{F}(u)$  and therefore indeed does not have a constant term in its expansion, as the constant in  $F$  would cancel in the difference  $F(u) - \tilde{F}(u)$ .

construction of the particular solution and later deal with zero modes. The linear operator which gives the particular solution of (4.127) described below will be denoted as  $\Sigma$ .

Notice that given the explicit form (4.123) of  $\mathbf{P}_a^{(0)}$ , the right hand side of (4.126) can be represented in a form

$$\alpha(x) \sinh(2\pi u) + \beta(x), \quad (4.128)$$

where  $\alpha(x), \beta(x)$  are power series in  $x$  growing at infinity not faster than polynomially. Thus for such  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  we define

$$\Sigma \cdot [\alpha(x) \sinh(2\pi u) + \beta(x)] \equiv \sinh(2\pi u) \Sigma \cdot \alpha(x) + \Sigma \cdot \beta(x). \quad (4.129)$$

We also define  $\Sigma \cdot x^{-n} = \Gamma' \cdot x^{-n}$  for  $n > 0$ , where the integral operator  $\Gamma'$  defined as

$$(\Gamma' \cdot h)(u) \equiv \oint_{-2g}^{2g} \frac{dv}{4\pi i} \partial_u \log \frac{\Gamma[i(u-v)+1]}{\Gamma[-i(u-v)]} h(v). \quad (4.130)$$

This requirement is consistent because of the following relation <sup>10</sup>

$$(\Gamma' \cdot h)(u+i) - (\Gamma' \cdot h)(u) = -\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{-2g}^{2g} \frac{h(v)}{u-v} dv = h_-(u) - \widetilde{h}_+(u). \quad (4.131)$$

What is left is to define  $\Sigma$  on positive powers of  $x$ . We do it by requiring

$$\Sigma \cdot [x^a + 1/x^a] \equiv p'_a(u) \quad (4.132)$$

where  $p'_a(u)$  is a polynomial in  $u$  of degree  $a+1$ , which is a solution of

$$p'_a(u+i) - p'_a(u) = \frac{1}{2} (x^a + 1/x^a) \quad (4.133)$$

and satisfies the following additional properties:  $p'_a(0) = 0$  for odd  $a$  and  $p'_a(i/2) = 0$  for even  $a$ . One can check that this definition is consistent and defines  $p'_a(u)$  uniquely. Explicit form of the first few  $p'_a(u)$ , which we call periodized Chebyshev polynomials, can be found in appendix ??.

From this definition of  $\Sigma$  one can see that the result of its action on expressions of the form (4.128) can again be represented in this form - what is important for us is that no exponential functions other than  $\sinh(2\pi u)$  appear in the result.

A good illustration of how the definitions above work would be the following two simple examples. Suppose one wants to calculate  $\Sigma \cdot (x - \frac{1}{x})$ , then it is convenient to split the argument of  $\Sigma$  in the following way:

$$\Sigma \cdot \left(x - \frac{1}{x}\right) = \Sigma \cdot \left(x + \frac{1}{x}\right) - 2\Sigma \cdot \frac{1}{x}. \quad (4.134)$$

In the first term we recognize  $p'_1(u) = \frac{iu(u-i)}{2g}$ , whereas in the second the argument of  $\Sigma$  is decaying at infinity, thus  $\Sigma$  is equivalent to  $\Gamma'$  in this context. Notice also that  $\Gamma' \cdot \frac{1}{x} = -\Gamma' \cdot x$ . All together, we get

$$\Sigma \cdot \left(x - \frac{1}{x}\right) = \Sigma \cdot \left(x + \frac{1}{x}\right) - 2\Sigma \cdot \frac{1}{x} = 2p'_1(u) + 2\Gamma' \cdot x \quad (4.135)$$

<sup>10</sup>We remind that  $f_+$  and  $f_-$  stand for the part of the Laurent expansion with, respectively, positive and negative powers of  $x$ , while  $\tilde{f}$  is the analytic continuation around the branch point at  $u = 2g$  (which amounts to replacing  $x \rightarrow \frac{1}{x}$ )

In a similar way, in order to calculate  $\Sigma \cdot \frac{\sinh_- - \sinh_+}{2}$ , one can write  $\frac{\sinh_- - \sinh_+}{2} = \sinh_- - \frac{1}{2} \sinh(2\pi u)$ . Notice that since  $\sinh_-$  decays at infinity,

$$\Sigma \cdot \sinh_- = \Gamma' \cdot \sinh_- . \quad (4.136)$$

Also, since  $i$ -periodic functions can be factored out of  $\Sigma$ ,

$$\Sigma \cdot \sinh(2\pi u) = \sinh(2\pi u) \Sigma \cdot 1 = \sinh(2\pi u) p'_0(u)/2. \quad (4.137)$$

Finally,

$$\Sigma \cdot \frac{\sinh_- - \sinh_+}{2} = \Gamma' \cdot (\sinh_-) - \frac{1}{2} \sinh(2\pi u) p'_0(u). \quad (4.138)$$

As an example we present the particular solution for two components of  $\mu_{ab}$  (below we will argue that  $\pi_{12}$  and  $\pi_{13}$  can be chosen to be zero, see (4.147))

$$\mu_{13}^{(1)} - \pi_{13} = \Sigma \cdot (\mathbf{P}_1 \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_3 - \mathbf{P}_3 \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_1) = \epsilon^2 \Sigma \cdot \left( x^2 - \frac{1}{x^2} \right) = \epsilon^2 \left( \Gamma' \cdot x^2 + p'_2(u) \right), \quad (4.139)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_{12}^{(1)} - \pi_{12} &= \Sigma \cdot (\mathbf{P}_1 \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_2 - \mathbf{P}_2 \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_1) = \\ &= -\epsilon^2 \left[ 2I_1 \Gamma' \cdot x - \sinh(2\pi u) \Gamma' \cdot x^2 - \Gamma' \cdot \left( \sinh_- \left( x^2 + \frac{1}{x^2} \right) \right) \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (4.140)$$

Now let us apply  $\Sigma$  defined above to (4.126), writing that its general solution is

$$\mu_{ab}^{(1)} = \Sigma \cdot (\mathbf{P}_a^{(0)} \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_b^{(0)} - \mathbf{P}_b^{(0)} \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_a^{(0)}) + \pi_{ab}, \quad (4.141)$$

where the zero mode  $\pi_{ab}$  is an arbitrary  $i$ -periodic entire function, which can be written similarly to the leading order as  $c_{1,ab} \cosh 2\pi u + c_{2,ab} \sinh 2\pi u + c_{3,ab}$ . Again, many of the coefficients  $c_{i,ab}$  can be set to zero. First, the prescription from section ?? implies that non-vanishing at infinity part of coefficients of  $\sinh(2\pi u)$  and  $\cosh(2\pi u)$  in  $\mu_{12}$  is zero. As one can see from the explicit form (4.140) of the particular solution which we choose for  $\mu_{12}$ , it does not contain  $\cosh(2\pi u)$  and the coefficient of  $\sinh(2\pi u)$  is decaying at infinity. So in order to satisfy the prescription, we have to set  $c_{2,12}$  and  $c_{3,12}$  to zero. Second, since the coefficients  $c_{n,ab}$  are of order  $S$ , we can remove some of them by making an infinitesimal  $\gamma$ -transformation, i.e. with  $R = 1 + \mathcal{O}(S)$  (see section ?? and Eq. (4.25)). Further, the Pfaffian constraint (4.15) imposes 5 equations on the remaining coefficients, which leaves the following 2-parametric family of zero modes

$$\pi_{12} = 0, \quad \pi_{13} = 0, \quad \pi_{14} = \frac{1}{2} c_{1,34} \cosh 2\pi u, \quad (4.142)$$

$$\pi_{24} = c_{1,24} \cosh 2\pi u, \quad \pi_{34} = c_{1,34} \cosh 2\pi u. \quad (4.143)$$

Let us now look closer at the exponential part of  $\mu_{14}$  and  $\mu_{24}$ . Combining the leading order (4.103) and the perturbation (4.141) and taking into account the fact that operator  $\Sigma$  does not produce terms proportional to  $\cosh 2\pi u$ , we obtain

$$\mu_{14} = \frac{1}{2} c_{1,34} \cosh 2\pi u + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon) \sinh 2\pi u + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon^2) + \dots, \quad (4.144)$$

$$\mu_{24} = \frac{1}{2} c_{1,24} \cosh 2\pi u + (1 + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon)) \sinh 2\pi u + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon^2) + \dots, \quad (4.145)$$

where dots stand for powers-like terms or exponential terms suppressed by powers of  $u$ .

As we remember from section ??, only the 2nd solution of the 5th order Baxter equation (??) can contribute to the exponential part of  $\mu_{14}$  and  $\mu_{24}$ , which means that  $\mu_{14}$  and  $\mu_{24}$  are proportional to the same linear combination of  $\sinh 2\pi u$  and  $\cosh 2\pi u$ . From the second equation one can see that this linear combination can be normalized to be  $\frac{1}{2}c_{1,24} \cosh 2\pi u + (1 + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon)) \sinh 2\pi u$ . Then  $\mu_{14} = C \left( \frac{1}{2}c_{1,24} \cosh 2\pi u + (1 + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon)) \sinh 2\pi u \right)$ , where  $C$  is some constant, which is of order  $\mathcal{O}(\epsilon)$ , because the coefficient of  $\sinh 2\pi u$  in the first equation is  $\mathcal{O}(\epsilon)$ . Taking into account that  $c_{1,24}$  is  $\mathcal{O}(\epsilon)$  itself, we find that  $c_{1,34} = \mathcal{O}(\epsilon^2)$ , i.e. it does not contribute at the order which we are considering. So the final form of the zero mode in (4.141) is

$$\pi_{12} = 0, \pi_{13} = 0, \pi_{14} = 0, \quad (4.146)$$

$$\pi_{24} = c_{1,24} \cosh 2\pi u, \pi_{34} = 0. \quad (4.147)$$

In this way, using the particular solution given by  $\Sigma$  and the form of zero modes (4.147) we have computed all the functions  $\mu_{ab}^{(1)}$ . The details and the results of the calculation can be found in appendix ??.

#### 4.6.3 Correcting $\mathbf{P}_a \dots$

In the previous section we found the NLO part of  $\mu_{ab}$ . Now, according to the iterative procedure described in section 4.6.1, we can use it to write a closed system of equations for  $\mathbf{P}_a^{(1)}$ . Indeed, expanding the system (4.20) to NLO we get

$$\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_1^{(1)} - \mathbf{P}_1^{(1)} = -\mathbf{P}_3^{(1)} + r_1, \quad (4.148)$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_2^{(1)} + \mathbf{P}_2^{(1)} = -\mathbf{P}_4^{(1)} - \mathbf{P}_1^{(1)} \sinh(2\pi u) + r_2, \quad (4.149)$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_3^{(1)} + \mathbf{P}_3^{(1)} = r_3, \quad (4.150)$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_4^{(1)} - \mathbf{P}_4^{(1)} = \mathbf{P}_3^{(1)} \sinh(2\pi u) + r_4, \quad (4.151)$$

where the free terms are given by

$$r_a = -\mu_{ab}^{(1)} \chi^{bc} \mathbf{P}_c^{(0)}. \quad (4.152)$$

Notice that  $r_a$  does not change if we add a matrix proportional to  $\mathbf{P}_a^{(0)} \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_b^{(0)} - \mathbf{P}_b^{(0)} \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_a^{(0)}$  to  $\mu_{ab}^{(1)}$ , due to the relations

$$\mathbf{P}_a \chi^{ab} \mathbf{P}_b = 0, \mathbf{P}_a \chi^{ab} \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_b = 0, \quad (4.153)$$

which follow from the  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system equations. In particular we can use this property to replace  $\mu_{ab}^{(1)}$  in (4.152) by  $\mu_{ab}^{(1)} + \frac{1}{2} \left( \mathbf{P}_a^{(0)} \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_b^{(0)} - \mathbf{P}_b^{(0)} \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_a^{(0)} \right)$ . This will be convenient for us, since in expressions for  $\mu_{ab}^{(1)}$  in terms of  $p_a$  and  $\Gamma$  (see (4.139), (4.140) and appendix ??) this change amounts to simply replacing  $\Gamma'$  by a convolution with a more symmetric kernel:

$$\Gamma' \rightarrow \Gamma, \quad (4.154)$$

$$(\Gamma \cdot h)(u) \equiv \oint_{-2g}^{2g} \frac{dv}{4\pi i} \partial_u \log \frac{\Gamma[i(u-v)+1]}{\Gamma[-i(u-v)+1]} h(v), \quad (4.155)$$

while at the same time replacing

$$p'_a(u) \rightarrow p_a(u), \quad (4.156)$$

$$p_a(u) = p'_a(u) + \frac{1}{2} (x^a(u) + x^{-a}(u)). \quad (4.157)$$

Having made this comment, we will now develop tools for solving the equations (4.148) - (4.151). Notice first that if we solve them in the order (4.150), (4.148), (4.151), (4.149), substituting into each subsequent equation the solution of all the previous, then at each step the problem we have to solve has a form

$$\tilde{f} + f = h \text{ or } \tilde{f} - f = h, \quad (4.158)$$

where  $h$  is known,  $f$  is unknown and both the right hand side and the left hand side are power series in  $x$ . It is obvious that equations (4.158) have solutions only for  $h$  such that  $h = \tilde{h}$  and  $h = -\tilde{h}$  respectively. On the class of such  $h$  a particular solution for  $f$  can be written as

$$f = [h]_- + [h]_0/2 \equiv H \cdot h \Rightarrow \tilde{f} + f = h \quad (4.159)$$

and

$$f = [h]_- \equiv K \cdot h \Rightarrow \tilde{f} - f = h, \quad (4.160)$$

where  $[h]_0$  is the constant part of Laurent expansion of  $h$  (it does not appear in the second equation, because  $h$  such that  $h = -\tilde{h}$  does not have a constant part). The operators  $K$  and  $H$  introduced here can be also defined by their integral kernels

$$H(u, v) = -\frac{1}{4\pi i} \frac{\sqrt{u-2g}\sqrt{u+2g}}{\sqrt{v-2g}\sqrt{v+2g}} \frac{1}{u-v} dv, \quad (4.161)$$

$$K(u, v) = +\frac{1}{4\pi i} \frac{1}{u-v} dv. \quad (4.162)$$

which are equivalent to (4.159), (4.160) of the classes of  $h$  such that  $h = \tilde{h}$  and  $h = -\tilde{h}$  respectively<sup>11</sup>. The particular solution  $f = K \cdot h$  of the equation  $\tilde{f} + f = h$  is unique in the class of functions  $f$  decaying at infinity, and the solution  $f = H \cdot h$  of  $\tilde{f} - f = h$  is unique for non-growing  $f$ . In all other cases the general solution will include zero modes, which, in our case are fixed by asymptotics of  $\mathbf{P}_a$ .

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<sup>11</sup>We denote e.g.  $K \cdot h = \oint_{-2g}^{2g} K(u, v) h(v) dv$  where the integral is around the branch cut between  $-2g$  and  $2g$ .

Now it is easy to write the explicit solution of the equations (4.148)-(4.151):

$$\mathbf{P}_3^{(1)} = H \cdot r_3, \quad (4.163)$$

$$\mathbf{P}_1^{(1)} = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{P}_3^{(1)} + K \cdot \left( r_1 - \frac{1}{2} r_3 \right), \quad (4.164)$$

$$\mathbf{P}_4^{(1)} = K \cdot \left( -\frac{1}{2} \left( \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_3^{(1)} - \mathbf{P}_3^{(1)} \right) \sinh(2\pi u) + \frac{2r_4 + r_3 \sinh(2\pi u)}{2} \right) - 2\delta, \quad (4.165)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}_2^{(1)} = & H \cdot \left( -\frac{1}{2} \left( \mathbf{P}_4^{(1)} + \sinh(2\pi u) \mathbf{P}_1^{(1)} + \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_4^{(1)} + \sinh(2\pi u) \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_1^{(1)} \right) + \right. \\ & \left. + \frac{r_4 + \sinh(2\pi u) r_1 + 2r_2}{2} \right) + \delta, \end{aligned} \quad (4.166)$$

where  $\delta$  is a constant fixed uniquely by requiring  $\mathcal{O}(1/u^2)$  asymptotics for  $\mathbf{P}_2$ . This asymptotic also sets the last coefficient  $c_{1,24}$  left in  $\pi_{12}$  to zero. Thus in the class of functions with asymptotics (4.21) the solution for  $\mu_{ab}$  and  $\mathbf{P}_a$  is unique up to a  $\gamma$ -transformation.

#### 4.6.4 Result for $J = 2$

In order to obtain the result for the anomalous dimension, we again use the formulas (4.23), (4.24) which connect the leading coefficients of  $\mathbf{P}_a$  with  $\Delta$ ,  $J$  and  $S$ . After plugging in  $A_i$  which we find from our solution, we obtain the result for the  $S^2$  correction to the anomalous dimension:

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_{J=2}^{(2)} = & \frac{\pi}{g^2(I_1 - I_3)^3} \oint \frac{du_x}{2\pi i} \oint \frac{du_y}{2\pi i} \left[ \frac{8I_1^2(I_1 + I_3)(x^3 - (x^2 + 1)y)}{(x^3 - x)y^2} \right. \\ & + \frac{8\text{sh}_-^x \text{sh}_-^y (x^2 y^2 - 1)(I_1(x^4 y^2 + 1) - I_3 x^2(y^2 + 1))}{x^2(x^2 - 1)y^2} \\ & - \frac{4(\text{sh}_-^y)^2 x^2 (y^4 - 1)(I_1(2x^2 - 1) - I_3)}{(x^2 - 1)y^2} \\ & + \frac{8I_1^2 \text{sh}_-^y x (2(x^3 - x)(y^3 + y) - 2x^2(y^4 + y^2 + 1) + y^4 + 4y^2 + 1)}{(x^2 - 1)y^2} \\ & - \frac{8(I_1 - I_3)I_1 \text{sh}_-^y x(x - y)(xy - 1)}{(x^2 - 1)y} \\ & \left. - \frac{4(I_1 - I_3)(\text{sh}_-^x)^2 (x^2 + 1)y^2}{(x^2 - 1)} \right] \frac{1}{4\pi i} \partial_u \log \frac{\Gamma(iu_x - iu_y + 1)}{\Gamma(1 - iu_x + iu_y)}. \end{aligned} \quad (4.167)$$

Here the integration contour goes around the branch cut at  $(-2g, 2g)$ . We also denote  $\text{sh}_-^x = \sinh_-(x)$ ,  $\text{sh}_-^y = \sinh_-(y)$  (recall that  $\sinh_-$  was defined in (4.99)). This is our final result for the curvature function at any coupling.

It is interesting to note that our result contains the combination  $\log \frac{\Gamma(iu_x - iu_y + 1)}{\Gamma(1 - iu_x + iu_y)}$  which plays an essential role in the construction of the BES dressing phase. We will use this identification in section ?? to compute the integral in (4.167) numerically with high precision.

In the next subsections we will describe generalizations of the  $J = 2$  result to operators with  $J = 3$  and  $J = 4$ .

#### 4.6.5 Results for higher $J$

Solving the  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system for  $J = 3$  is similar to the  $J = 2$  case described above, except for several technical complications, which we will describe here, leaving the details for the appendix ???. As in the previous section, the starting point is the LO solution of the  $\mathbf{P}\mu$  system, which for  $J = 3$  reads

$$\mathbf{P}_1 = \epsilon x^{-3/2}, \quad \mathbf{P}_3 = -\epsilon x^{3/2}, \quad (4.168)$$

$$\mathbf{P}_2 = -\epsilon x^{3/2} \cosh_- + \epsilon x^{-1/2} I_2, \quad (4.169)$$

$$\mathbf{P}_4 = -\epsilon x^{1/2} I_2 - \epsilon x^{-3/2} I_0 - \epsilon x^{-3/2} \cosh_-, \quad (4.170)$$

$$\mu_{12} = 1, \quad \mu_{13} = 0, \quad \mu_{14} = 0, \quad \mu_{24} = \cosh(2\pi u), \quad \mu_{34} = 1. \quad (4.171)$$

The first step is to construct  $\mu_{ab}^{(1)}$  from its discontinuity given by the equation (4.126). The full solution consists of a particular solution and a general solution of the corresponding homogeneous equation, i.e. zero mode  $\pi_{ab}$ . In our case the zero mode can be an  $i$ -periodic function, i.e. a linear combination of  $\sinh(2\pi u)$ ,  $\cosh(2\pi u)$  and constants. As in the case of  $J = 2$ , we use a combination of the Pfaffian constraint, prescription from section ?? and a  $\gamma$ -transformation to reduce all the parameters of the zero mode to just one, sitting in  $\mu_{24}$ :

$$\pi_{12} = 0, \quad \pi_{13} = 0, \quad \pi_{14} = 0, \quad \pi_{24} = c_{24,2} \sinh(2\pi u), \quad \pi_{34} = 0. \quad (4.172)$$

As in the previous section, the next step is to find  $\mathbf{P}_a^{(1)}$  from the  $P\mu$  system expanded to the first order, namely from

$$\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_1^{(1)} + \mathbf{P}_3^{(1)} = r_1, \quad (4.173)$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_2^{(1)} + \mathbf{P}_4^{(1)} + \mathbf{P}_1^{(1)} \cosh(2\pi u) = r_2, \quad (4.174)$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_3^{(1)} + \mathbf{P}_1^{(1)} = r_3, \quad (4.175)$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_4^{(1)} + \mathbf{P}_2^{(1)} - \mathbf{P}_3^{(1)} \cosh(2\pi u) = r_4, \quad (4.176)$$

where  $r_a$  are defined by (4.152) and for  $J = 3$  are given explicitly in appendix ??. In attempt to solve this system, however, we encounter another technical complication. As one can see from (4.168)-(4.170), the LO solution contains half-integer powers of  $J$ , meaning that the  $\mathbf{P}_a$  now have an extra branch point at infinity. However, the operations  $H$  and  $K$  defined by (4.162) work only for functions which have Laurent expansion in integer powers of  $x$ . In order to solve equations of the type (4.126) on the class of functions which allow Laurent-like expansion in  $x$  with only half-integer powers  $x$ , we introduce operations  $H^*, K^*$ :

$$H^* \cdot f \equiv \frac{x+1}{\sqrt{x}} H \cdot \frac{\sqrt{x}}{x+1} f, \quad (4.177)$$

$$K^* \cdot f \equiv \frac{x+1}{\sqrt{x}} K \cdot \frac{\sqrt{x}}{x+1} f. \quad (4.178)$$

In terms of these operations the solution of the system (4.173)-(4.176) is

$$\mathbf{P}_1^{(1)} = \frac{1}{2} (H^*(r_1 + r_3) + K^*(r_1 - r_3)) + \mathbf{P}_1^{\text{zm}}, \quad (4.179)$$

$$\mathbf{P}_3^{(1)} = \frac{1}{2} (H^*(r_1 + r_3) - K^*(r_1 - r_3)) + \mathbf{P}_2^{\text{zm}}, \quad (4.180)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}_2^{(1)} &= \frac{1}{2} (H^*(r_2 + r_4) + K^*(r_2 - r_4) - \\ &\quad - H^*(\cosh(2\pi u)K^*(r_1 - r_3)) - K^*(\cosh(2\pi u)H^*(r_1 + r_3))) + \mathbf{P}_3^{\text{zm}}, \end{aligned} \quad (4.181)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}_4^{(1)} &= \frac{1}{2} (H^*(r_2 + r_4) - K^*(r_2 - r_4) - \\ &\quad - H^*(\cosh(2\pi u)K^*(r_1 - r_3)) + K^*(\cosh(2\pi u)H^*(r_1 + r_3))) + \mathbf{P}_4^{\text{zm}}, \end{aligned} \quad (4.182)$$

where  $\mathbf{P}_a^{\text{zm}}$  is a solution of the system (4.173)-(4.176) with right hand side set to zero, whose explicit form  $\mathbf{P}_a^{\text{zm}}$  is given in Appendix ?? (see (??)-(??)) and which is parametrized by four constants  $L_1, L_2, L_3, L_4$ , e.g.

$$\mathbf{P}_1^{\text{zm}} = L_1 x^{-1/2} + L_3 x^{1/2}. \quad (4.183)$$

These constants are fixed by requiring correct asymptotics of  $\mathbf{P}_a$ , which also fixes the parameter  $c_{24,2}$  in the zero mode (4.172) of  $\mu_{ab}$ <sup>12</sup>. Indeed, a priori  $\mathbf{P}_2$  and  $\mathbf{P}_1$  have wrong asymptotics. Imposing a constraint that  $\mathbf{P}_2$  decays as  $u^{-5/2}$  and  $\mathbf{P}_1$  decays as  $u^{-3/2}$  produces five equations, which fix all the parameters uniquely.

Skipping the details of the intermediate calculations, we present the final result for the anomalous dimension:

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_{J=3}^{(2)} &= \oint \frac{du_x}{2\pi i} \oint \frac{du_y}{2\pi i} i \frac{1}{g^2(I_2 - I_4)^3} \left[ \frac{2(x^6 - 1)y(\text{ch}_-^y)^2(I_2 - I_4)}{x^3(y^2 - 1)} - \right. \\ &\quad - \frac{4\text{ch}_-^x \text{ch}_-^y (x^3 y^3 - 1)(I_2 x^5 y^3 + I_2 - I_4 x^2(xy^3 + 1))}{x^3(x^2 - 1)y^3} + \\ &\quad + \frac{(y^2 - 1)(\text{ch}_-^y)^2 I_2 ((x^8 + 1)(2y^4 + 3y^2 + 2) - (x^6 + x^2)(y^2 + 1)^2)}{x^3(x^2 - 1)y^3} - \\ &\quad - \frac{(y^2 - 1)(\text{ch}_-^y)^2 I_4 ((x^8 + 1)y^2 + (x^6 + x^2)(y^4 + 1))}{x^3(x^2 - 1)y^3} - \\ &\quad - \frac{4I_2 \text{ch}_-^y (x - y)(xy - 1)(I_2((x^6 + 1)(y^3 + y) + (x^5 + x)(y^4 + y^2 + 1) - x^3(y^4 + 1)) + I_4 x^3 y^2)}{x^3(x^2 - 1)y^3} \\ &\quad \left. - \frac{I_2^2 (y^2 - 1)(x - y)(xy - 1)(I_2((x^6 + x^4 + x^2 + 1)y + 2x^3(y^2 + 1)) + I_4(x^5 + x)(y^2 + 1))}{x^3(x^2 - 1)y^3} \right] \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{4\pi i} \partial_u \log \frac{\Gamma(iu_x - iu_y + 1)}{\Gamma(1 - iu_x + iu_y)}. \end{aligned} \quad (4.184)$$

We defined  $\text{ch}_-^x = \cosh_-(x)$  and  $\text{ch}_-^y = \cosh_-(y)$ , where  $\cosh_-(x)$  is the part of the Laurent expansion of  $\cosh(g(x + 1/x))$  vanishing at infinity, i.e.

$$\cosh_-(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} I_{2k} x^{-2k}. \quad (4.185)$$

The result for  $J = 4$  is given in appendix ??.

<sup>12</sup>Actually in this way  $c_{24,2}$  is fixed to be zero.



#### 4.6.6 Weak coupling expansion

Our results for the curvature function  $\gamma^{(2)}(g)$  at  $J = 2, 3, 4$  (Eqs. (4.167), (4.184), (??)) are straightforward to expand at weak coupling. We give expansions to 10 loops in appendix ??.

Let us start with the  $J = 2$  case, for which we found

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_{J=2}^{(2)} &= -8g^2\zeta_3 + g^4 \left( 140\zeta_5 - \frac{32\pi^2\zeta_3}{3} \right) + g^6 (200\pi^2\zeta_5 - 2016\zeta_7) \\ &+ g^8 \left( -\frac{16\pi^6\zeta_3}{45} - \frac{88\pi^4\zeta_5}{9} - \frac{9296\pi^2\zeta_7}{3} + 27720\zeta_9 \right) \\ &+ g^{10} \left( \frac{208\pi^8\zeta_3}{405} + \frac{160\pi^6\zeta_5}{27} + 144\pi^4\zeta_7 + 45440\pi^2\zeta_9 - 377520\zeta_{11} \right) + \dots \end{aligned} \quad (4.186)$$

Remarkably, at each loop order all contributions have the same transcendentality, and only simple zeta values (i.e.  $\zeta_n$ ) appear. This is also true for the  $J = 3$  and  $J = 4$  cases.

We can check this expansion against known results, as the anomalous dimensions of twist two operators have been computed up to five loops for arbitrary spin  $[?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?]$  (see also [?] and the review [?]). To three loops they can be found solely from the ABA equations, while at four and five loops wrapping corrections need to be taken into account which was done in [?, ?] by utilizing generalized Luscher formulas. All these results are given by linear combinations of harmonic sums

$$S_a(N) = \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{(\text{sign}(a))^n}{n^{|a|}}, \quad S_{a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots}(N) = \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{(\text{sign}(a_1))^n}{n^{|a_1|}} S_{a_2, a_3, \dots}(n) \quad (4.187)$$

with argument equal to the spin  $S$ . To make a comparison with our results we expanded these predictions in the  $S \rightarrow 0$  limit. For this lengthy computation, as well as to simplify the final expressions, we used the **Mathematica** packages HPL [?], the package [?] provided with the paper [?], and the HarmonicSums package [?].

In this way we have confirmed the coefficients in (4.186) to four loops. Let us note that expansion of harmonic sums leads to multiple zeta values (MZVs), which however cancel in the final result leaving only  $\zeta_n$ .

Importantly, the part of the four-loop coefficient which comes from the wrapping correction is essential for matching with our result. This is a strong confirmation that our calculation based on the  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system is valid beyond the ABA level. Additional evidence that our result incorporates all finite-size effects is found at strong coupling (see section ??).

For operators with  $J = 3$ , our prediction at weak coupling is

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_{J=3}^{(2)} &= -2g^2\zeta_3 + g^4 \left( 12\zeta_5 - \frac{4\pi^2\zeta_3}{3} \right) + g^6 \left( \frac{2\pi^4\zeta_3}{45} + 8\pi^2\zeta_5 - 28\zeta_7 \right) \\ &+ g^8 \left( -\frac{4\pi^6\zeta_3}{45} - \frac{4\pi^4\zeta_5}{15} - 528\zeta_9 \right) + \dots \end{aligned} \quad (4.188)$$

The known results for any spin in this case are available at up to six loops, including the wrapping correction which first appears at five loops [?, ?, ?]. Expanding them at  $S \rightarrow 0$  we

have checked our calculation to four loops.<sup>13</sup>

For future reference, in appendix ?? we present an expansion of known results for  $J = 2, 3$  up to order  $S^3$  at first several loop orders. In particular, we found that multiple zeta values appear in this expansion, which did not happen at lower orders in  $S$ .

Let us now discuss the  $J = 4$  case. The expansion of our result reads:

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_{J=4}^{(2)} = & g^2 \left( -\frac{14\zeta_3}{5} + \frac{48\zeta_5}{\pi^2} - \frac{252\zeta_7}{\pi^4} \right) \\ & + g^4 \left( -\frac{22\pi^2\zeta_3}{25} + \frac{474\zeta_5}{5} - \frac{8568\zeta_7}{5\pi^2} + \frac{8316\zeta_9}{\pi^4} \right) \\ & + g^6 \left( \frac{32\pi^4\zeta_3}{875} + \frac{3656\pi^2\zeta_5}{175} - \frac{56568\zeta_7}{25} + \frac{196128\zeta_9}{5\pi^2} - \frac{185328\zeta_{11}}{\pi^4} \right) \\ & + g^8 \left( -\frac{4\pi^6\zeta_3}{175} - \frac{68\pi^4\zeta_5}{75} - \frac{55312\pi^2\zeta_7}{125} + \frac{1113396\zeta_9}{25} - \frac{3763188\zeta_{11}}{5\pi^2} \right. \\ & \quad \left. + \frac{3513510\zeta_{13}}{\pi^4} \right) + \dots \end{aligned} \quad (4.189)$$

Unlike for the  $J = 2$  and  $J = 3$  cases, we could not find a closed expression for the energy at any spin  $S$  in literature even at one loop, however there is another way to check our result. One can expand the asymptotic Bethe ansatz equations at large  $J$  for fixed values of  $S = 2, 4, 6, \dots$  and then extract the coefficients in the expansion which are polynomial in  $S$ . This was done in [?] (see appendix C there) where at one loop the expansion was found up to order  $1/J^6$ :

$$\gamma(S, J) = g^2 \left( \frac{S}{2J^2} - \left( \frac{S^2}{4} + \frac{S}{2} \right) \frac{1}{J^3} + \left[ \frac{3S^3}{16} + \left( \frac{1}{8} - \frac{\pi^2}{12} \right) S^2 + \frac{S}{2} \right] \frac{1}{J^4} + \dots \right) + \mathcal{O}(g^4) \quad (4.190)$$

Now taking the part proportional to  $S^2$  and substituting  $J = 4$  one may expect to get a numerical approximation to the 1-loop coefficient in our result (4.189), i.e.  $-\frac{14\zeta_3}{5} + \frac{48\zeta_5}{\pi^2} - \frac{252\zeta_7}{\pi^4}$ . To increase the precision we extended the expansion in (4.190) to order  $1/J^8$ . Remarkably, in this way we confirmed the 1-loop part of the  $\mathbf{P}\mu$  prediction (4.189) with about 1% accuracy! In Fig. ?? one can also see that the ABA result converges to our prediction when the order of expansion in  $1/J$  is being increased.

Also, in contrast to  $J = 2$  and  $J = 3$  cases we see that negative powers of  $\pi$  appear in (4.189) (although still all the contributions at a given loop order have the same transcendentality). It would be interesting to understand why this happens from the gauge theory perspective, especially since expansion of the leading  $S$  term (??) has the same structure for all  $J$ ,

$$\gamma_J^{(1)} = \frac{8\pi^2 g^2}{J(J+1)} - \frac{32\pi^4 g^4}{J(J+1)^2(J+2)} + \frac{256\pi^6 g^6}{J(J+1)^3(J+2)(J+3)} + \dots \quad (4.191)$$

The change of structure at  $J = 4$  might be related to the fact that for  $J \geq 4$  the ground state anomalous dimension even at one loop is expected to be an irrational number for integer  $S > 0$  (see [?], [?]), and thus cannot be written as a linear combination of harmonic sums with integer coefficients.

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<sup>13</sup>As a further check it would be interesting to expand to order  $S^2$  the known results for twist 2 operators at five loops, and for twist 3 operators at five and six loops – all of which are given by huge expressions.

In the next section we will discuss tests and applications of our results at strong coupling.

#### 4.6.7 Strong coupling expansion

In this section we will present the strong coupling expansion of our results for the curvature function, and link these results to anomalous dimensions of short operators at strong coupling. We will also obtain new predictions for the BFKL pomeron intercept.

To obtain the strong coupling expansion of our exact results for the curvature function, we evaluated it numerically with high precision for a range of values of  $g$  and then made a fit to find the expansion coefficients. It would also be interesting to carry out the expansion analytically, and we leave this for the future.

For numerical study it is convenient to write our exact expressions (4.167), (4.184), (??) for  $\gamma^{(2)}(g)$ , which have the form

$$\gamma^{(2)}(g) = \oint du_x \oint du_y f(x, y) \partial_{u_x} \log \frac{\Gamma(iu_x - iu_y + 1)}{\Gamma(1 - iu_x + iu_y)} \quad (4.192)$$

where the integration goes around the branch cut between  $-2g$  and  $2g$ , in a slightly different way (we remind that we use notation  $x + \frac{1}{x} = \frac{u_x}{g}$  and  $y + \frac{1}{y} = \frac{u_y}{g}$ ). Namely, by changing the variables of integration to  $x, y$  and integrating by parts one can write the result as

$$\gamma^{(2)}(g) = \oint dx \oint dy F(x, y) \log \frac{\Gamma(iu_x - iu_y + 1)}{\Gamma(iu_y - iu_x + 1)} \quad (4.193)$$

where  $F(x, y)$  is some polynomial in the following variables:  $x, 1/x, y, 1/y, \text{sh}_-^x$  and  $\text{sh}_-^y$  (for  $J = 3$  it includes  $\text{ch}_-^x, \text{ch}_-^y$  instead of the  $\text{sh}_-$  functions). The integral in (4.193) is over the unit circle. The advantage of this representation is that plugging in  $\text{sh}_-^x, \text{sh}_-^y$  as series expansions (truncated to some large order), we see that it only remains to compute integrals of the kind

$$C_{r,s} = \frac{1}{i} \oint \frac{dx}{2\pi} \oint \frac{dy}{2\pi} x^r y^s \log \frac{\Gamma(iu_x - iu_y + 1)}{\Gamma(iu_y - iu_x + 1)} \quad (4.194)$$

These are nothing but the coefficients of the BES dressing phase [?, ?, 31, ?]. They can be conveniently computed using the strong coupling expansion [?]

$$C_{r,s} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left[ -\frac{2^{-n-1}(-\pi)^{-n} g^{1-n} \zeta_n (1 - (-1)^{r+s+4}) \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(n-r+s-1)) \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(n+r+s+1))}{\Gamma(n-1) \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(-n-r+s+3)) \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(-n+r+s+5))} \right] \quad (4.195)$$

However this expansion is only asymptotic and does not converge. For fixed  $g$  the terms will start growing with  $n$  when  $n$  is greater than some value  $N$ , and we only summed the terms up to  $n = N$  which gives the value of  $C_{r,s}$  with very good precision for large enough  $g$ .

Using this approach we computed the curvature function for a range of values of  $g$  (typically we took  $7 \leq g \leq 30$ ) and then fitted the result as an expansion in  $1/g$ . This gave us only numerical values of the expansion coefficients, but in fact we found that with very high precision the coefficients are as follows. For  $J = 2$

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_{J=2}^{(2)} &= -\pi^2 g^2 + \frac{\pi g}{4} + \frac{1}{8} - \frac{1}{\pi g} \left( \frac{3\zeta_3}{16} + \frac{3}{512} \right) - \frac{1}{\pi^2 g^2} \left( \frac{9\zeta_3}{128} + \frac{21}{512} \right) \\ &+ \frac{1}{\pi^3 g^3} \left( \frac{3\zeta_3}{2048} + \frac{15\zeta_5}{512} - \frac{3957}{131072} \right) + \dots, \end{aligned} \quad (4.196)$$

then for  $J = 3$

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_{J=3}^{(2)} &= -\frac{8\pi^2 g^2}{27} + \frac{2\pi g}{27} + \frac{1}{12} - \frac{1}{\pi g} \left( \frac{1}{216} + \frac{\zeta_3}{8} \right) - \frac{1}{\pi^2 g^2} \left( \frac{3\zeta_3}{64} + \frac{743}{13824} \right) \\ &+ \frac{1}{\pi^3 g^3} \left( \frac{41\zeta_3}{1024} + \frac{35\zeta_5}{512} - \frac{5519}{147456} \right) + \dots, \end{aligned} \quad (4.197)$$

and finally for  $J = 4$

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_{J=4}^{(2)} &= -\frac{\pi^2 g^2}{8} + \frac{\pi g}{32} + \frac{1}{16} - \frac{1}{\pi g} \left( \frac{3\zeta_3}{32} + \frac{15}{4096} \right) - \frac{0.01114622551913}{g^2} \\ &+ \frac{0.004697583899}{g^3} + \dots \end{aligned} \quad (4.198)$$

To fix coefficients for the first four terms in the expansion we were guided by known analytic predictions which will be discussed below, and found that our numerical result matches these predictions with high precision. Then for  $J = 2$  and  $J = 3$  we extracted the numerical values obtained from the fit for the coefficients of  $1/g^2$  and  $1/g^3$ , and plugging them into the online calculator EZFace [?] we obtained a prediction for their exact values as combinations of  $\zeta_3$  and  $\zeta_5$ . Fitting again our numerical results with these exact values fixed, we found that the precision of the fit at the previous orders in  $1/g$  increased. This is a highly nontrivial test for the proposed exact values of  $1/g^2$  and  $1/g^3$  terms. For  $J = 2$  we confirmed the coefficients of these terms with absolute precision  $10^{-17}$  and  $10^{-15}$  at  $1/g^2$  and  $1/g^3$  respectively (at previous orders of the expansion the precision is even higher). For  $J = 3$  the precision was correspondingly  $10^{-15}$  and  $10^{-13}$ .

For  $J = 4$  we were not able to get a stable fit for the  $1/g^2$  and  $1/g^3$  coefficients from EZFace, so above we gave their numerical values (with uncertainty in the last digit). However below we will see that based on  $J = 2$  and  $J = 3$  results one can make a prediction for these coefficients, which we again confirmed by checking that precision of the fit at the previous orders in  $1/g$  increases. The precision of the final fit at orders  $1/g^2$  and  $1/g^3$  is  $10^{-16}$  and  $10^{-14}$  respectively.

## 4.7 Update on short strings

Here we will find an analytic expression for the strong coupling expansion of the curvature function which generalizes the formulas (4.196) and (4.197) to any  $J$ . To this end it will be beneficial to consider the structure of classical expansions of the scaling dimension. A good entry point is considering the inverse relation  $S(\Delta)$ , frequently encountered in the context of BFKL. It satisfies a few basic properties, namely the curve  $S(\Delta)$  goes through the points  $(\pm J, 0)$  at any coupling, because at  $S = 0$  the operator is BPS. At the same time for non-BPS states one should have  $\Delta(\lambda) \propto \lambda^{1/4} \rightarrow \infty$  [9] which indicates that if  $\Delta$  is fixed,  $S$  should go to zero, thus combining this with the knowledge of fixed points  $(\pm J, 0)$  we conclude that at infinite coupling  $S(\Delta)$  is simply the line  $S = 0$ . As the coupling becomes finite  $S(\Delta)$  starts bending from the  $S = 0$  line and starts looking like a parabola going through the points  $\pm J$ , see fig. ??.

Based on this qualitative picture and the scaling  $\Delta(\lambda) \propto \lambda^{1/4}$  at  $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$  and fixed  $J$  and  $S$ , one can write down the following ansatz,

$$\begin{aligned} S(\Delta) = & (\Delta^2 - J^2) \left( \alpha_1 \frac{1}{\lambda^{1/2}} + \alpha_2 \frac{1}{\lambda} + (\alpha_3 + \beta_3 \Delta^2) \frac{1}{\lambda^{3/2}} + (\alpha_4 + \beta_4 \Delta^2) \frac{1}{\lambda^2} \right. \\ & \left. + (\alpha_5 + \beta_5 \Delta^2 + \gamma_5 \Delta^4) \frac{1}{\lambda^{5/2}} + (\alpha_6 + \beta_6 \Delta^2 + \gamma_6 \Delta^4) \frac{1}{\lambda^3} + \dots \right). \end{aligned} \quad (4.199)$$

We omit odd powers of the scaling dimension from the ansatz, as only the square of  $\Delta$  enters the  $\mathbf{P}\mu$ -system. We can now invert the relation and express  $\Delta$  in terms of  $S$  at strong coupling, which gives

$$\Delta^2 = J^2 + S \left( A_1 \sqrt{\lambda} + A_2 + \dots \right) + S^2 \left( B_1 + \frac{B_2}{\sqrt{\lambda}} + \dots \right) + S^3 \left( \frac{C_1}{\lambda^{1/2}} + \frac{C_2}{\lambda} + \dots \right) + \mathcal{O}(S^4), \quad (4.200)$$

where the coefficients  $A_i$ ,  $B_i$ ,  $C_i$  are some functions of  $J$ . There exists a one-to-one mapping between the coefficients  $\alpha_i$ ,  $\beta_i$ , etc. and  $A_i$ ,  $B_i$  etc, which is rather complicated but easy to find. We note that this structure of  $\Delta^2$  coincides with Basso's conjecture in [68] for mode number  $n = 1$ <sup>14</sup>. The pattern in (4.200) continues to higher orders in  $S$  with further coefficients  $D_i$ ,  $E_i$ , etc. and powers of  $\lambda$  suppressed incrementally. This structure is a nontrivial constraint on  $\Delta$  itself as one easily finds from (4.200) that

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta = & J + \frac{S}{2J} \left( A_1 \sqrt{\lambda} + A_2 + \frac{A_3}{\sqrt{\lambda}} + \dots \right) \\ & + S^2 \left( -\frac{A_1^2}{8J^3} \lambda - \frac{A_1 A_2}{4J^3} \sqrt{\lambda} + \left[ \frac{B_1}{2J} - \frac{A_2^2 + 2A_1 A_3}{8J^3} \right] + \left[ \frac{B_2}{2J} - \frac{A_2 A_3 + A_1 A_4}{4J^3} \right] \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda}} + \dots \right). \end{aligned} \quad (4.201)$$

By definition the coefficients of  $S$  and  $S^2$  are the slope and curvature functions respectively, so now we have their expansions at strong coupling in terms of  $A_i$ ,  $B_i$ ,  $C_i$ , etc. Since the  $S$  coefficient only contains the constants  $A_i$ , we can find all of their values by simply expanding the slope function (4.120) at strong coupling. We get

$$A_1 = 2, \quad A_2 = -1, \quad A_3 = J^2 - \frac{1}{4}, \quad A_4 = J^2 - \frac{1}{4} \dots \quad (4.202)$$

Note that in this series the power of  $J$  increases by two at every other member, which is a direct consequence of omitting odd powers of  $\Delta$  from (4.199). We also expect the same pattern to hold for the coefficients  $B_i$ ,  $C_i$ , etc.

The curvature function written in terms of  $A_i$ ,  $B_i$ , etc. is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_J^{(2)}(g) = & -\frac{2\pi^2 g^2 A_1^2}{J^3} - \frac{\pi g A_1 A_2}{J^3} - \frac{A_2^2 + 2A_1 A_3 - 4B_1 J^2}{8J^3} - \frac{A_2 A_3 + A_1 A_4 - 2B_2 J^2}{16\pi g J^3} \\ & - \frac{A_3^2 + 2A_2 A_4 + 2A_1 A_5 - 4B_3 J^2}{128\pi^2 g^2 J^3} - \frac{A_3 A_4 + A_2 A_5 + A_1 A_6 - 2B_4 J^2}{256\pi^3 g^3 J^3} + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{g^4}\right). \end{aligned} \quad (4.203)$$

The remaining unknowns here (up to order  $1/g^4$ ) are  $B_1$ ,  $B_2$ , which we expect to be constant due to the power pattern noticed above and  $B_3$ ,  $B_4$ , which we expect to have the form  $aJ^2 + b$  with

<sup>14</sup>The generalization of (4.200) for  $n > 1$  is not fully clear, as noted in [?], and this case will be discussed in appendix ??.

$a$  and  $b$  constant. These unknowns are immediately fixed by comparing the general curvature expansion (4.203) to the two explicit cases that we know for  $J = 2$  and  $J = 3$ . We find

$$B_1 = 3/2, \quad B_2 = -3\zeta_3 + \frac{3}{8}, \quad (4.204)$$

and

$$B_3 = -\frac{J^2}{2} - \frac{9\zeta_3}{2} + \frac{5}{16}, \quad B_4 = \frac{3}{16}J^2(16\zeta_3 + 20\zeta_5 - 9) - \frac{15\zeta_5}{2} - \frac{93\zeta_3}{8} - \frac{3}{16}. \quad (4.205)$$

Having fixed all the unknowns we can write the strong coupling expansion of the curvature function for arbitrary values of  $J$  as

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_J^{(2)}(g) &= -\frac{8\pi^2 g^2}{J^3} + \frac{2\pi g}{J^3} + \frac{1}{4J} + \frac{1 - J^2(24\zeta_3 + 1)}{64\pi g J^3} - \frac{8J^4 + J^2(72\zeta_3 + 11) - 4}{512g^2(\pi^2 J^3)} \\ &+ \frac{3(8J^4(16\zeta_3 + 20\zeta_5 - 7) - 16J^2(31\zeta_3 + 20\zeta_5 + 7) + 25)}{16384\pi^3 g^3 J^3} + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{g^4}\right). \end{aligned} \quad (4.206)$$

Expanding  $\gamma_{J=4}^{(2)}$  defined in (??) at strong coupling numerically we were able to confirm the above result with high precision.

In this section we will use the knowledge of slope functions  $\gamma_J^{(n)}$  at strong coupling to find the strong coupling expansions of scaling dimensions of operators with finite  $S$  and  $J$ , in particular we will find the three loop coefficient of the Konishi operator by utilizing the techniques of [68, ?]. What follows is a quick recap of the main ideas in these papers.

We are interested in the coefficients of the strong coupling expansion of  $\Delta$ , namely

$$\Delta = \Delta^{(0)}\lambda^{\frac{1}{4}} + \Delta^{(1)}\lambda^{-\frac{1}{4}} + \Delta^{(2)}\lambda^{-\frac{3}{4}} + \Delta^{(3)}\lambda^{-\frac{5}{4}} + \dots \quad (4.207)$$

First, we use Basso's conjecture (4.200) and by fixing  $S$  and  $J$  we re-expand the square root of  $\Delta^2$  at strong coupling to find

$$\Delta = \sqrt{A_1 S} \sqrt[4]{\lambda} + \frac{\sqrt{A_1}(J^2 + A_2 S + B_1 S^2)}{2A_1 \sqrt{S}} \frac{1}{\sqrt[4]{\lambda}} + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{\lambda^{\frac{3}{4}}}\right). \quad (4.208)$$

Thus we reformulate the problem entirely in terms of the coefficients  $A_i$ ,  $B_i$ ,  $C_i$ , etc. For example, the next coefficient in the series, namely the two-loop term is given by

$$\Delta^{(2)} = -\frac{(2A_2 + 4B_1 + J^2)^2 - 16A_1(A_3 + 2B_2 + 4C_1)}{16\sqrt{2}A_2^{3/2}}. \quad (4.209)$$

Further coefficients become more and more complicated, however a very clear pattern can be noticed after looking at these expressions: we see that the term  $\Delta^{(n)}$  only contains coefficients with indices up to  $n + 1$ , e.g. the tree level term  $\Delta^{(0)}$  only depends on  $A_1$ , the one-loop term depends on  $A_1$ ,  $A_2$ ,  $B_1$ , etc. Thus we can associate the index of these coefficients with the loop level. Conversely, from the last section we learned that the letter of  $A_i$ ,  $B_i$ , etc. can be associated with the order in  $S$ , i.e. the slope function fixed all  $A_i$  coefficients and the curvature function in principle fixes all  $B_i$  coefficients.

Looking at (4.208) we see that knowing  $A_i$  and  $B_i$  only takes us to one loop, in order to proceed we need to know some coefficients in the  $C_i$  and  $D_i$  series. This is where the next

$(S, J)$	$\lambda^{-5/4}$ prediction	$\lambda^{-5/4}$ fit	error	fit order
(2, 2)	$\frac{15\zeta_5}{2} + 6\zeta_3 - \frac{1}{2} = 14.48929958$	14.12099034	2.61%	6
(2, 3)	$\frac{15\zeta_5}{2} + \frac{63\zeta_3}{8} - \frac{1131}{512} = 15.03417190$	14.88260078	1.02%	5
(2, 4)	$\frac{21\zeta_3}{2} + \frac{15\zeta_5}{2} - \frac{25}{8} = 17.27355565$	16.46106336	4.94%	7

Table 1: Comparisons of strong coupling expansion coefficients for  $\lambda^{-5/4}$  obtained from fits to TBA data versus our predictions for various operators. The fit order is the order of polynomials used for the rational fit function (see [?] for details).

ingredient in this construction comes in, which is the knowledge of the classical energy and its semiclassical correction in the Frolov-Tseytlin limit, i.e. when  $\mathcal{S} \equiv S/\sqrt{\lambda}$  and  $\mathcal{J} \equiv J/\sqrt{\lambda}$  remain fixed, while  $S, J, \lambda \rightarrow \infty$ . Additionally we will also be taking the limit  $\mathcal{S} \rightarrow 0$  in all of the expressions that follow. In particular, the square of the classical energy has a very nice form in these limits and is given by [?, ?]

$$\mathcal{D}_{\text{classical}}^2 = \mathcal{J}^2 + 2\mathcal{S}\sqrt{\mathcal{J}^2 + 1} + \mathcal{S}^2 \frac{2\mathcal{J}^2 + 3}{2\mathcal{J}^2 + 2} - \mathcal{S}^3 \frac{\mathcal{J}^2 + 3}{8(\mathcal{J}^2 + 1)^{5/2}} + \mathcal{O}(\mathcal{S}^4), \quad (4.210)$$

where  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{classical}} \equiv \Delta_{\text{classical}}/\sqrt{\lambda}$ . The 1-loop correction to the classical energy is given by

$$\Delta_{sc} \simeq \frac{-\mathcal{S}}{2(\mathcal{J}^3 + \mathcal{J})} + \mathcal{S}^2 \left[ \frac{3\mathcal{J}^4 + 11\mathcal{J}^2 + 17}{16\mathcal{J}^3(\mathcal{J}^2 + 1)^{5/2}} - \sum_{\substack{m \geq 0 \\ m \neq n}} \frac{n^3 m^2 (2m^2 + n^2 \mathcal{J}^2 - n^2)}{\mathcal{J}^3 (m^2 - n^2)^2 (m^2 + n^2 \mathcal{J}^2)^{3/2}} \right] \quad (4.211)$$

If the parameters  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{J}$  are fixed to some values then the sum can be evaluated explicitly in terms of zeta functions. We now add up the classical and the 1-loop contributions<sup>15</sup>, take  $S$  and  $J$  fixed at strong coupling and compare the result to (4.200). By requiring consistency we are able to extract the following coefficients,

$$\begin{aligned} A_1 &= 2, & A_2 &= -1 \\ B_1 &= 3/2, & B_2 &= -3\zeta_3 + \frac{3}{8} \\ C_1 &= -3/8, & C_2 &= \frac{1}{16}(60\zeta_3 + 60\zeta_5 - 17) \\ D_1 &= 31/64, & D_2 &= \frac{1}{512}(-5520\zeta_3 - 5120\zeta_5 - 3640\zeta_7 + 901) \end{aligned}$$

As discussed in the previous section, we can in principle extract all coefficients with indices 1 and 2. In order to find e.g.  $B_3$  we would need to extend the quantization of the classical solution to the next order. Note that the coefficients  $A_1, A_2$  and  $B_1, B_2$  have the same exact values that we extracted from the slope and curvature functions.

The key observation in [?] was that once written in terms of the coefficients  $A_i, B_i, C_i$ , the two-loop term  $\Delta^{(2)}$  only depends on  $A_{1,2,3}, B_{1,2}, C_1$  as can be seen in (4.209). As discussed in the last section, the one-loop result fixes all of these constants except  $A_3$ , which in principle is a contribution from a true two-loop calculation. However we already fixed it from the slope function and thus we are able to find

$$\Delta^{(2)} = \frac{-21S^4 + (24 - 96\zeta_3)S^3 + 4(5J^2 - 3)S^2 + 8J^2S - 4J^4}{64\sqrt{2}S^{3/2}}. \quad (4.212)$$

<sup>15</sup>Note that they mix various orders of the coupling.

Now that we know the strong coupling expansion of the curvature function and thus all the coefficients  $B_i$ , we can do the same trick and find the three loop strong coupling scaling dimension coefficient  $\Delta^{(3)}$ , which now depends on  $A_{1;2;3;4}$ ,  $B_{1,2,3}$ ,  $C_{1,2}$ ,  $D_1$ . We find it to be

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta^{(3)} = & \frac{187 S^6 + 2(624 \zeta_3 + 480 \zeta_5 - 193) S^5 + (-146 J^2 - 4(336 \zeta_3 - 41)) S^4}{512\sqrt{2} S^{5/2}} + \\ & + \frac{(32(6 \zeta_3 + 7) J^2 - 88) S^3 + (-28 J^4 + 40 J^2) S^2 - 24 J^4 S + 8 J^6}{512\sqrt{2} S^{5/2}}, \end{aligned} \quad (4.213)$$

for  $S = 2$  it simplifies to

$$\Delta_{S=2}^{(3)} = \frac{1}{512} (J^6 - 20J^4 + 48J^2(4\zeta_3 - 1) + 192(12\zeta_3 + 20\zeta_5 + 1)) \quad (4.214)$$

and finally for the Konishi operator, which has  $S = 2$  and  $J = 2$  we get<sup>16</sup>

$$\Delta_{S=2, J=2}^{(3)} = \frac{15 \zeta_5}{2} + 6 \zeta_3 - \frac{1}{2}. \quad (4.215)$$

In order to compare our predictions with data available from TBA calculations [?], we employed Padé type fits as explained in [?]. The fit results are shown in table 1, we see that our predictions are within 5% error bounds, which is a rather good agreement. However we must be honest that for the  $J = 3$  and especially  $J = 4$  states we did not have as many data points as for the  $J = 2$  state and the fit is somewhat shaky.

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<sup>16</sup>The  $\zeta_3$  and  $\zeta_5$  terms are coming from semi-classics and were already known before [?] and match our result.



## 5 ABJM

### 5.1 Definitions

### 5.2 Weak coupling

### 5.3 Algebraic curve

This section describes a newly performed semiclassical analysis in  $AdS_4/CFT_3$  by the author which culminated in the publications [?] and [?]. All of the analysis has been largely carried out by the author individually, however the publications were co-authored with three other researchers in order not to compete and effectively duplicate the results, instead focusing on cross checking and speeding up the calculations. This work largely follows the analysis in  $AdS_5/CFT_4$ , however it turns out to be more technically involved, posing some very interesting questions in the process.

We will write all equations in terms of the  $\sigma$ -model coupling  $g$ . For large  $g$ , it is related to the 't Hooft coupling by  $\lambda = N/k = 8g^2$ , but, contrary to the  $AdS_5 \times S^5$  case, this relation will get corrections at finite  $g$ . The classical algebraic curve for  $AdS_4 \times \mathbb{CP}^3$  is a 10-sheeted Riemann surface. The spectral parameter moves on it and we shall consider 10 symmetric quasi momenta  $q_i(x)$

$$(q_1, q_2, q_3, q_4, q_5) = (-q_{10}, -q_9, -q_8, -q_7, -q_6). \quad (5.1)$$

They can have branch cuts connecting the sheets with  $q_i^+ - q_j^- = 2\pi n_{ij}$ . In the terminology of [?], the physical polarizations  $(ij)$  can be split into *heavy* and *light* ones and are summarized in the following table:

	AdS <sub>4</sub>	Fermions	$\mathbb{CP}^3$
heavy	(1, 10)(2, 9)(1, 9)	(1, 7)(1, 8)(2, 7)(2, 8)	(3, 7)
light		(1, 5)(1, 6)(2, 5)(2, 6)	(3, 5)(3, 6)(4, 5)(4, 6)

Inversion symmetry imposes these other constraints on the quasi momenta

$$q_1(x) = -q_2(1/x), \quad q_3(x) = 2\pi m - q_4(1/x), \quad q_5(x) = q_5(1/x), \quad (5.2)$$

where  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$  is a winding number. Thus, only 3 out of 10 quasi momenta are independent.

Semiclassical quantization is achieved by perturbing quasi-momenta introducing extra poles that shift the quasi-momenta  $q_i \rightarrow q_i + \delta q_i$ . The asymptotic expression of  $\delta q_i$  are related to the number  $N_{ij}$  of extra fluctuations and to the energy correction  $\delta E$ . The off-shell frequencies  $\Omega^{ij}(x)$  are defined in order to have

$$\delta E = \sum_{n, ij} N_n^{ij} \Omega^{ij}(x_n^{ij}), \quad (5.3)$$

where the sum is over all pairs  $(ij) \equiv (ji)$  of physical polarizations and integer values of  $n$  with  $q_i(x_n^{ij}) - q_j(x_n^{ij}) = 2\pi n$ . By linear combination of frequencies and inversion (as in the  $AdS_5/CFT_4$  case), we can derive all the off-shell frequencies in terms of two fundamental ones  $\Omega_A(x) = \Omega^{15}(x)$ ,  $\Omega_B(x) = \Omega^{45}(x)$ . Their explicit expressions turn out to be

$$\begin{aligned} \Omega^{29} &= 2 [-\Omega_A(1/x) + \Omega_A(0)], & \Omega^{1,10} &= 2\Omega_A(x), \\ \Omega^{19} &= \Omega_A(x) - \Omega_A(1/x) + \Omega_A(0), & \Omega^{37} &= \Omega_B(x) - \Omega_B(1/x) + \Omega_B(0), \\ \Omega^{35} &= \Omega^{36} = -\Omega_B(1/x) + \Omega_B(0), & \Omega^{45} &= \Omega^{46} = \Omega_B(x), \\ \Omega^{17} &= \Omega_A(x) + \Omega_B(x), & \Omega^{18} &= \Omega_A(x) - \Omega_B(1/x) + \Omega_B(0), \\ \Omega^{27} &= \Omega_B(x) - \Omega_A(1/x) + \Omega_A(0), & \Omega^{28} &= -\Omega_A(1/x) + \Omega_A(0) - \Omega_B(1/x) + \Omega_B(0), \\ \Omega^{15} &= \Omega^{16} = \Omega_A(x), & \Omega^{25} &= \Omega^{26} = -\Omega_A(1/x) + \Omega_A(0). \end{aligned}$$

In terms of the semiclassical variables  $\mathcal{S} = \frac{S}{4\pi g}$  and  $\mathcal{J} = \frac{J}{4\pi g}$ , the energy of the folded string can be expanded according to

$$E = 4\pi g \mathcal{E}_0(\mathcal{J}, \mathcal{S}) + \delta E(\mathcal{J}, \mathcal{S}) + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{g}\right), \quad (5.4)$$

where the small  $\mathcal{S}$  expansion of the classical contribution  $\mathcal{E}_0$  reads

$$\mathcal{E}_0 = \mathcal{J} + \frac{\sqrt{\mathcal{J}^2 + 1}}{\mathcal{J}} \mathcal{S} - \frac{\mathcal{J}^2 + 2}{4\mathcal{J}^3(\mathcal{J}^2 + 1)} \mathcal{S}^2 + \frac{3\mathcal{J}^6 + 13\mathcal{J}^4 + 20\mathcal{J}^2 + 8}{16\mathcal{J}^5(\mathcal{J}^2 + 1)^{5/2}} \mathcal{S}^3 + \dots \quad (5.5)$$

The quasi momenta are closely related to those of the  $AdS_5 \times S^5$  folded string since motion is still in  $AdS_3 \times S^1$  and the  $\mathbb{CP}^3$  part of the background plays almost no role. The only non-trivial case is

$$\begin{aligned} q_1(x) &= \pi f(x) \left\{ -\frac{J}{4\pi g} \left( \frac{1}{f(1)(1-x)} - \frac{1}{f(-1)(1+x)} \right) - \frac{4}{\pi(a+b)(a-x)(a+x)} \times \right. \\ &\quad \left. \times \left[ (x-a) \mathbb{K} \left( \frac{(b-a)^2}{(b+a)^2} \right) + 2a \Pi \left( \frac{(b-a)(a+x)}{(a+b)(x-a)} \middle| \frac{(b-a)^2}{(b+a)^2} \right) \right] \right\} - \pi \quad (5.6) \end{aligned}$$

where  $1 < a < b$ ,  $f(x) = \sqrt{x-a} \sqrt{x+a} \sqrt{x-b} \sqrt{x+b}$  and

$$\begin{aligned} S &= 2g \frac{ab+1}{ab} \left[ b \mathbb{E} \left( 1 - \frac{a^2}{b^2} \right) - a \mathbb{K} \left( 1 - \frac{a^2}{b^2} \right) \right], & J &= \frac{4g}{b} \sqrt{(a^2-1)(b^2-1)} \mathbb{K} \left( 1 - \frac{a^2}{b^2} \right), \\ E &= 2g \frac{ab-1}{ab} \left[ b \mathbb{E} \left( 1 - \frac{a^2}{b^2} \right) + a \mathbb{K} \left( 1 - \frac{a^2}{b^2} \right) \right]. \quad (5.7) \end{aligned}$$

The other independent quasi-momenta are  $q_3(x) = \frac{J}{2g} \frac{x}{x^2-1}$ ,  $q_5(x) = 0$ . The above expressions are valid for a folded string with minimal winding. Adding winding is trivial at the classical level, but requires non-trivial changes at the one-loop level [?]. The independent off-shell frequencies can be determined by the methods of [?] and read

$$\Omega_A(x) = \frac{1}{ab-1} \left( 1 - \frac{f(x)}{x^2-1} \right), \quad \Omega_B(x) = \frac{\sqrt{a^2-1} \sqrt{b^2-1}}{ab-1} \frac{1}{x^2-1}. \quad (5.8)$$

Finally the one-loop shift of the energy is given in full generality by the following sum of zero point energies

$$\delta E = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{ij} (-1)^{F_{ij}} \omega_n^{ij}, \quad \omega_n^{ij} = \Omega^{ij}(x_n^{ij}), \quad (5.9)$$

where the sum over  $(ij)$  is over the  $8_B + 8_F$  physical polarizations and  $x_n^{ij}$  is the unique solution to the equation  $q_i(x_n^{ij}) - q_j(x_n^{ij}) = 2\pi n$  under the condition  $|x_n^{ij}| > 1$ . The explicit sum over the infinite number of on-shell frequencies requires some care and a definite prescription since the sums are not absolutely convergent due to cancellations between bosonic and fermionic contributions (see [?] for an exhaustive discussion about this point).

The short string limit is generically  $\mathcal{S} \rightarrow 0$ . After a straightforward computation, our main result is

$$\begin{aligned} \delta E = & \left( -\frac{1}{2\mathcal{J}^2} + \frac{\log(2) - \frac{1}{2}}{\mathcal{J}} + \frac{1}{4} + \mathcal{J} \left( -\frac{3\zeta(3)}{8} + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{\log(2)}{2} \right) - \frac{3\mathcal{J}^2}{16} + \right. \\ & \left. + \mathcal{J}^3 \left( \frac{3\zeta(3)}{16} + \frac{45\zeta(5)}{128} - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{3\log(2)}{8} \right) + \dots \right) \mathcal{S} + \\ & + \left( \frac{3}{4\mathcal{J}^4} + \frac{\frac{1}{2} - \log(2)}{\mathcal{J}^3} - \frac{1}{8\mathcal{J}^2} + \frac{\frac{1}{16} - \frac{3\zeta(3)}{4}}{\mathcal{J}} - \frac{1}{8} + \mathcal{J} \left( \frac{69\zeta(3)}{64} + \frac{165\zeta(5)}{128} - \frac{27}{32} + \frac{\log(2)}{2} \right) + \right. \\ & \left. + \frac{3\mathcal{J}^2}{8} + \mathcal{J}^3 \left( -\frac{163\zeta(3)}{128} - \frac{405\zeta(5)}{256} - \frac{875\zeta(7)}{512} + \frac{235}{128} - \log(2) \right) + \dots \right) \mathcal{S}^2 + \dots \end{aligned} \quad (5.10)$$

This is the  $AdS_4/CFT_3$  equivalent of the result 4.211 in  $AdS_5/CFT_4$ . Unfortunately, since there is no analogue for Basso's conjecture, we were not able to do the same trick here.

## 5.4 The $\mathbf{P}_\mu$ -system

### 5.4.1 Applications

## 6 Conclusions

Conclude with a tearful and heroic description about the journey of Konishi through the land of integrability - from weak to strong coupling.

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