

minute. The corresponding figures for scales-of-one are 60 and 1200 counts a minute for the slow and the fast recorders, respectively.

The writers wish to take this opportunity to correct a misprint in reference (2) below. In that reference, Eq. (10) reads $1/n_{1 \max}$. This should be corrected to read $1/(n_{1 \max} \times e)$.

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- ¹ L. Alaoglu and N. M. Smith, Phys. Rev. 53, 832 (1938).
² H. Lifschutz and O. S. Duffendack, Phys. Rev. 54, 714 (1938).
³ H. V. Neher, Rev. Sci. Inst. 10, 29 (1939).

On the Equilibrium of Massive Spheres

It is usually stated¹ that general relativity sets an upper limit to the mass and radius of a sphere of constant proper energy density ρ . This result is obtained by considering only those solutions of Einstein's field equations which give a finite central proper pressure p ; the minimum mass and radius for which p first becomes infinite at the center are taken as the limiting values. In his original paper¹ Schwarzschild points out the existence of other solutions with infinite central p , but dismisses them as physically inadmissible because of this singularity without a further discussion of their properties. However, an examination of these solutions, which are described below, shows that they lead to arbitrarily large masses and radii.

On the other hand a cold neutron gas model² leads to an upper limit on the size of a static sphere. It is of interest to try to account for the difference in behavior of these two models. If for a material consisting of particles in motion (and which may exert forces on each other) the energy-momentum tensors for the particles, and for the force fields (apart from gravitation) associated with them, are additive and have non-negative traces, then for such a material $T = \rho - 3p \geq 0$ must always hold. The $\rho = \text{const.}$ model for sufficiently high pressures has $T < 0$. This not altogether consistent model corresponds to the case of perfectly incompressible particles packed tightly together and treated essentially nonrelativistically in that the contribution of the forces to ρ is not taken into account. A negative T near the center of the sphere, such as makes possible an arbitrarily large mass for the $\rho = \text{const.}$ model, may be regarded as analogous to a negative (repulsive) mass which keeps the sphere from collapsing.

Both the original Schwarzschild solutions, and the new singular solutions leading to arbitrarily large spheres, may be obtained by a method considerably simpler than the one used by Schwarzschild. Einstein's equations for constant ρ and for the line-element

$$ds^2 = -e^{\lambda(r)} dr^2 - r^2 d\theta^2 - r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2 + e^{\nu(r)} dt^2$$

reduce to:³

$$e^{\nu(r)} = \frac{(1 - 2u_b/r_b)\rho^2}{[\dot{p}(r) + \rho]^2} \quad (1)$$

$$dU/dx = 3x^2 \quad (2)$$

and
$$\frac{dP}{dx} = -\frac{P+3}{2x(x-U)} [Px^3 + U], \quad (3)$$

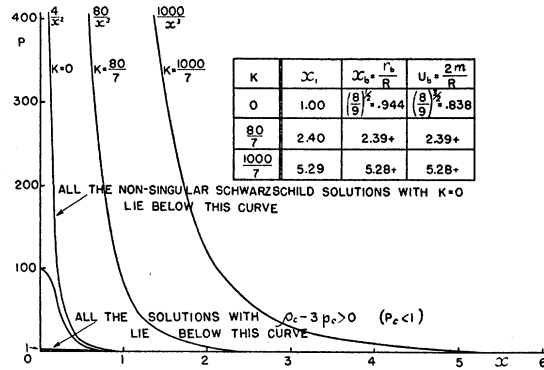


FIG. 1.

where x , U , P , are dimensionless quantities defined by $x = r/R$, $U = 2u/R$, $P = 8\pi R^2 p$; $u \equiv \frac{1}{2} r(1 - e^{-\lambda})$, R is a characteristic length determined in terms of the given constant ρ by $R^2 = 3/8\pi\rho$; and relativistic units, making $c=1$, $G=1$, are used throughout. The radius r_b of the sphere is determined by that value x_b of x where P first vanishes, and the gravitational mass of the sphere is given by $m = u_b$, the value of u at $x = x_b$. The integral of (2) above is $U = x^3 - K$, where $K \geq 0$ in order that $e^{-\lambda} = [1 - r^2/R^2 + KR/r]$ should nowhere change sign. The usual procedure¹ corresponds to making $K=0$, and then Eq. (3) may be at once explicitly integrated, and gives the well known Schwarzschild interior solution:

$$P = \frac{3(P_c + 1)(1 - x^2)^{1/2} - (P_c + 3)}{(P_c + 3) - (P_c + 1)(1 - x^2)^{1/2}},$$

where P_c is the value of P at $x=0$. If $P_c \rightarrow \infty$, which is commonly taken as the limiting solution, then as $x \rightarrow 0$, $P \sim 4/x^2$, and the corresponding radius and mass are fixed by $x_b = (8/9)^{1/2}$, and $U_b = (8/9)^{1/2}$. This solution makes $e^{\nu} \rightarrow 0$ and $e^{\lambda} \rightarrow 1$ as $r \rightarrow 0$.

The new singular solutions are obtained by making $K > 0$. Eq. (3) now can not be explicitly integrated in terms of known functions, but it may be shown that solutions exist which near the origin behave like $P \sim 7K/x^3$. Numerical integration of (3) for several values of K shows that x_b is very closely given by the largest positive root x_1 of $x - U = x - x^3 + K = 0$. Thus $x_b \sim x_1$, $U_b = x_b^3 - K \sim x_1^3 - K = x_1$. For very large K , $x_1 \sim K^{1/3}$, so that $x_b \sim K^{1/3}$, $U_b \sim K^{1/3}$, and it is seen that no upper limit on the size of the sphere exists, if the singular solutions for the pressure are not excluded. For these solutions both $e^{\lambda} \rightarrow 0$ and $e^{\nu} \rightarrow 0$ as $r \rightarrow 0$. Fig. 1 gives a general idea of the various solutions, including the Schwarzschild limiting solution and the last one for which $\rho_c - 3p_c \geq 0$ ($P_c \leq 1$) holds.

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¹ K. Schwarzschild, Berl. Ber. (1916), p. 424; A. S. Eddington, *The Mathematical Theory of Relativity* (Cambridge, 1924), p. 168; R. C. Tolman, *Relativity, Thermodynamics and Cosmology* (Oxford, 1934), pp. 246-247, and others.

² J. R. Oppenheimer and G. M. Volkoff, this issue, Phys. Rev. 55, 374 (1939). Eqs. (1), (2) and (3) are Eqs. (7), (9) and (10) of that article rewritten for constant ρ .