

Comments and Addenda

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Static axially symmetric solutions of self-dual SU(2) gauge fields in Euclidean four-dimensional space

Louis Witten

Department of Physics, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio 45221

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All solutions of the stationary axially symmetric Einstein equations are shown to correspond to static axially symmetric solutions of self-dual SU(2) gauge fields. Some simple examples are given.

Yang¹ has reduced the problem of finding self-dual SU(2) gauge fields on Euclidean four-dimensional flat space to solving a set of three Laplace-type equations for one real and one complex variable. In the *R* gauge, Yang's field equations for the variables ϕ , ρ , and $\bar{\rho}$ are

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(\phi_{\bar{y}\bar{y}} + \phi_{z\bar{z}}) - \phi_y\phi_{\bar{y}} - \phi_z\phi_{\bar{z}} + \rho_y\bar{\rho}_{\bar{y}} + \rho_z\bar{\rho}_{\bar{z}} &= 0, \\ \phi(\rho_{y\bar{y}} + \rho_{z\bar{z}}) - 2\rho_y\phi_{\bar{y}} - 2\rho_z\phi_{\bar{z}} &= 0, \\ \phi(\bar{\rho}_{y\bar{y}} + \bar{\rho}_{z\bar{z}}) - 2\bar{\rho}_{\bar{y}}\phi_y - 2\bar{\rho}_{\bar{z}}\phi_z &= 0. \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

The subscript denotes partial differentiation and

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{2}y &\equiv x_1 + ix_2, & \sqrt{2}\bar{y} &\equiv x_1 - ix_2, \\ \sqrt{2}z &\equiv x_3 - ix_4, & \sqrt{2}\bar{z} &\equiv x_3 + ix_4 \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

for the complexified Cartesian coordinates x_μ ($\mu = 1, 2, 3, 4$). For real values of x_μ (which is all we henceforth consider) $\bar{\rho} = \rho^*$ and ϕ is real. The coordinates of the self-dual potentials b_μ^i are given by

$$\begin{aligned} \phi\bar{b}_y &= (i\rho_y, \rho_y, -i\phi_{\bar{y}}), & \phi\bar{b}_{\bar{y}} &= (-i\bar{\rho}_{\bar{y}}, \bar{\rho}_{\bar{y}}, i\phi_y), \\ \phi\bar{b}_z &= (i\rho_z, \rho_z, -i\phi_{\bar{z}}), & \phi\bar{b}_{\bar{z}} &= (-i\bar{\rho}_{\bar{z}}, \bar{\rho}_{\bar{z}}, i\phi_z). \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

Look for solutions of Eqs. (1) of the form $\rho = \sigma e^{i\alpha}$ where σ is a real function and α is a real constant; transform to the space coordinates x_μ and consider static solutions ($\partial/\partial x_4 = 0$). Equations (1) become

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(\nabla^2\phi) &= \vec{\nabla}\phi \cdot \vec{\nabla}\phi - \vec{\nabla}\sigma \cdot \vec{\nabla}\sigma, \\ \phi(\nabla^2\sigma) &= 2\vec{\nabla}\sigma \cdot \vec{\nabla}\sigma, \\ \sigma_{x_1}\phi_{x_2} - \phi_{x_1}\sigma_{x_2} &= 0, \\ \vec{\nabla} &\equiv (\partial/\partial x_1, \partial/\partial x_2, \partial/\partial x_3). \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

Assuming axial symmetry about x_3 , the third equation of the set (4) vanishes. With $\epsilon = \phi + i\sigma$, the first two equations become

$$\text{Re}(\nabla^2\epsilon) = \vec{\nabla}\epsilon \cdot \vec{\nabla}\epsilon. \tag{5}$$

This is the equation deduced by Ernst² for the axially symmetric gravitational field problem; ϵ is often called the Ernst potential. ϕ is the norm of the timelike Killing vector of the stationary space-time and σ is the twist potential.

Define

$$\epsilon \equiv \frac{(E-1)}{(E+1)}. \tag{6}$$

Then the equation for E is

$$(EE^* - 1)\nabla^2 E = 2E^*\vec{\nabla}E \cdot \vec{\nabla}E, \tag{7}$$

and Eq. (7) is the Ernst equation. We have shown that any stationary axisymmetric gravitational field yields through ϕ and $\rho (= \sigma e^{i\alpha})$ a self-dual gauge field. A simple class of solutions is

$$\begin{aligned} E &= e^{-i\beta} \coth\psi, \\ \nabla^2\psi &= 0, \end{aligned} \tag{8}$$

where β is a real constant and ψ any function that satisfies the Laplace equation. In gravitation these solutions are of interest only if $\beta = 0 \pmod{\pi}$; otherwise space-time is not asymptotically flat.

Another class of solutions of interest is the Tomimatsu-Sato³ series of solutions; we state only the first two:

$$E = p\xi - iq\eta, \tag{9}$$

$$E = \frac{p^2 \xi^4 + q^2 \eta^4 - 1 - 2ipq\xi\eta(\xi^2 - \eta^2)}{2p\xi(\xi^2 - 1) - 2iq\eta(1 - \eta^2)}. \quad (10)$$

p, q are parameters such that $p^2 + q^2 = 1$. ξ, η are prolate spheroidal coordinates

$$\begin{aligned} x_3 &= c\xi\eta, & x_1 &= c(\xi^2 - 1)^{1/2}(1 - \eta^2)^{1/2} \sin\theta, \\ x_2 &= c(\xi^2 - 1)^{1/2}(1 - \eta^2)^{1/2} \cos\theta, & & \\ \xi &\geq 1, & -1 &\leq \eta \leq 1, & 0 &\leq \theta \leq 2\pi. \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

Equation (9) is the Kerr solution of general relativity with the special case of the Schwarzschild solution when $p=1, q=0$. As specific examples we calculate the gauge potentials for two special cases of the Kerr solution (9). One is $p=1, q=0$ (Schwarzschild), the other is $p=0, q=1$. First we write the gauge potentials in the x_μ coordinate system, taking for simplicity $\alpha=0$ (it can be shown

Example II: $p=0, q=1$ [in Eq. (9)].

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{b}_{x_1} &= \frac{1}{c(\eta^2 + 1)} \left(\frac{1}{r_1} - \frac{1}{r_2} \right) \left(-x_2, -x_1, + \frac{2\eta}{(\eta^2 - 1)} x_2 \right), \\ \bar{b}_{x_2} &= \frac{1}{c(\eta^2 + 1)} \left(\frac{1}{r_1} - \frac{1}{r_2} \right) \left(x_1, -x_2, - \frac{2\eta}{\eta^2 - 1} x_1 \right), \\ \bar{b}_{x_3} &= \frac{1}{c(\eta^2 + 1)} \left(0, \frac{x_3 + c}{r_2} - \frac{x_3 - c}{r_1}, 0 \right), \\ \bar{b}_{x_4} &= \frac{1}{c(\eta^2 + 1)} \left(\frac{x_3 + c}{r_2} - \frac{x_3 - c}{r_1}, 0, \frac{2\eta}{\eta^2 - 1} \left(\frac{x_3 - c}{r_1} - \frac{x_3 + c}{r_2} \right) \right), \\ r_1^2 &\equiv (x_3 - c)^2 + x_1^2 + x_2^2, & r_2^2 &\equiv (x_3 + c)^2 + x_1^2 + x_2^2, \\ \eta &= (r_2 - r_1)/2c, & \xi &= (r_2 + r_1)/2c. \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

In example I, the potentials are singular at $r_1 + r_2 = 2c$, which corresponds to the Schwarzschild horizon. Example II is singular at $\eta = \pm 1$ which corresponds to $|x_3| \geq c$. The nature of these singularities is to be determined.

A whole industry has grown up in general relativity theory which generates solutions of the stationary axisymmetric field equations from other solutions. (I cite only some papers.⁴) Basically this industry arises from elementary considerations.

The first is that if ϵ is a solution of Eq. (5), so is ϵ' where

$$\epsilon' = \frac{a\epsilon + ib}{1 + i\epsilon}. \quad (15)$$

a, b, c , are real constants and Eq. (15) represents a three-parameter group of transformations, G , which transform solutions into solutions. G does not commute with coordinate transformations C , so that by alternating operations C with G one can usually get an endless chain of solutions depending eventually on an infinite number of parameters.

that $\alpha \neq 0$ differs from $\alpha=0$ by a gauge transformation):

$$\begin{aligned} \phi \bar{b}_{x_1} &= (\sigma_{x_2}, \sigma_{x_1}, -\phi_{x_2}), \\ \phi \bar{b}_{x_2} &= (-\sigma_{x_1}, \sigma_{x_2}, \phi_{x_1}), \\ \phi \bar{b}_{x_3} &= (0, \sigma_{x_3}, 0), \\ \phi \bar{b}_{x_4} &= (\sigma_{x_3}, 0, -\phi_{x_3}). \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

Example I: $p=1, q=0$ [in Eq. (9)].

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{b}_{x_1} &= \left(0, 0, \frac{-x_2}{c(\xi^2 - 1)} \left(\frac{1}{r_1} + \frac{1}{r_2} \right) \right), \\ \bar{b}_{x_2} &= \left(0, 0, \frac{x_1}{c(\xi^2 - 1)} \left(\frac{1}{r_1} + \frac{1}{r_2} \right) \right), \\ \bar{b}_{x_3} &= (0, 0, 0), \\ \bar{b}_{x_4} &= \left(0, 0, - \frac{1}{c(\xi^2 - 1)} \left(\frac{x_3 + c}{r_2} + \frac{x_3 - c}{r_1} \right) \right). \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

Perhaps the best catalog of these transformations has been made by Kinnersley.⁴ The most interesting solutions in general relativity are those that are asymptotically flat; these do not necessarily map into the most interesting self-dual SU(2) gauge fields.

Ward⁵ has shown how to construct self-dual gauge fields. Atiyah and Ward⁶ and Corrigan, Fairlie, Yates, and Goddard⁶ have applied the Ward construction to finding finite-action solutions in the R gauge. It does not seem difficult to apply Ward's construction to find the static axisymmetric SU(2) self-dual fields in the R gauge and to select the fields for which $\rho = \bar{\rho}$ (up to a constant phase factor). Thus Ward's construction and the isomorphism described in this paper should give a constructive method of finding the stationary axisymmetric solutions of Einstein's equations.

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