# On Solitons, Non-Linear Sigma-Models, and Two-Dimensional Gravity 

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Some interesting inter-connections between solitons, non-linear sigma-models, and gravity (in two and four dimensions) are discussed. Certain sigma-models and non-constant scalar curvature metrics are constructed from generalized solitons. Speculation is presented whether such metrics can be transformed ( by a suitable change of coordinates) to black hole metrics.

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## 1. Introduction

Various connections between non-linear sigma-models and gravity have been the subject of discussion for some forty years or so; compare $[1,2,3,8,10,11,12,13]$. Recent discussions have involved links between solitons and gravity [5,6,7,16,17]. We extend these discussions here, where a link between solitons, sigma-models, and two-dimensional Jackiw-Teitelboim gravity is presented. Also presented is a construction of sigma-models (specifically maps of the plane to the 2 -sphere), given solitons of a generalized type, and we construct corresponding metrics that we propose should be of interest for more general theories of two-dimensional dilaton gravity. Some background material on constant curvature metrics and sine-Gordon solitons is included before generalized sine-Gordon equations are considered.

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## 2. Constant curvature metrics, sine-Gordon solitons, and two-dimensional gravity

The connection between constant curvature metrics and solutions of sine-Gordon equations is reviewed here, with the introduction of some notation. For a pseudo Riemannian manifold $(M, g)$ with local expression

$$
\begin{equation*}
d s^{2}=\sum_{i, j=1}^{m=d i m M} g_{i j} d x_{i} d x_{j} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

of the metric $g$, we shall observe the following sign convention for the curvature tensor $R_{i j k}^{l}$ and the scalar curvature $R=R(g)$ of $g$, where $g^{-1}=\left[g^{i j}\right]$ :

$$
\begin{align*}
R_{i j k}^{l} & =\frac{\partial \Gamma_{j k}^{l}}{\partial x_{i}}-\frac{\partial \Gamma_{i k}^{l}}{\partial x_{j}}+\sum_{p=1}^{m}\left[\Gamma_{i p}^{l} \Gamma_{j k}^{p}-\Gamma_{j p}^{l} \Gamma_{i k}^{p}\right], \\
R & =\sum_{i, j=1}^{m} g^{i j} R_{i j} . \tag{2.2}
\end{align*}
$$

Here

$$
\begin{equation*}
R_{i j}=\sum_{l=1}^{m} R_{i l j}^{l}, \Gamma_{i j}^{k}=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{l=1}^{m} g^{l k}\left[\frac{\partial g_{i l}}{\partial x_{j}}+\frac{\partial g_{j l}}{\partial x_{i}}-\frac{\partial g_{i j}}{\partial x_{l}}\right] \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

are the Ricci tensor and Christoffel symbols, respectively, of $g$. The Gaussian curvature $K$ of $g$ is $K=-R / 2$. We will have an interest in the particular case when $M$ is two-dimensional: $m=2$. In this case one always has the formula $R_{i j}=(R / 2) g_{i j}$. That is, the Einstein vacuum equations $R_{i j}-\frac{R}{2} g_{i j}+\Lambda g_{i j}=0$ automatically hold for a vanishing cosmological constant $\Lambda$. These equations consequently are of less interest and one considers instead the non-trivial Einstein equation (in two dimensions)

$$
\begin{equation*}
R(g)=A(\text { a constant }) \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

due to Jackiw-Teitelboim (J-T) [9,15]. Equation (2.4) is derived from the J-T action integral

$$
\begin{equation*}
I_{\mathrm{J}-\mathrm{T}}(\tau, g)=\frac{1}{2 G} \int_{M} \sqrt{|\operatorname{detg}|} d x_{1} d x_{2}(A-R(g)) \tau \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

by variation of a scalar field $\tau\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$ (called a dilation). The example

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tau(x, t) \stackrel{\operatorname{def}}{=} \sqrt{1+v^{2}} \operatorname{sech}\left[\frac{m(x-v t)}{\sqrt{1+v^{2}}}\right] \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

(with $\left.\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=(x, \tau)\right)$ appears in section 3 of [6].
Given $A$, solutions $g$ of equation (2.4) can be obtained on the basis of a well-known observation, where we denote the coordinates $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$ by $(x, y)$ : For a function $f(x, y)$, the metric $g$ defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
d s^{2}=\cos ^{2}(f(x, y)) d x^{2}+\sin ^{2}(f(x, y)) d y^{2} \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

(with $g_{12}=g_{21}=0$ ) has scalar curvature

$$
\begin{equation*}
R(g)=4\left(f_{x x}-f_{y y}\right) / \sin 2 f \tag{2.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

This follows by (2.3),(2.4), or more directly by the formula

$$
\begin{align*}
R= & \frac{2}{g_{11} g_{22}} R_{1212} \stackrel{i . e .}{=} \frac{2}{g_{11} g_{22}}\left[\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^{2} g_{11}}{\partial y^{2}}+\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^{2} g_{22}}{\partial x^{2}}-\frac{1}{4 g_{11}}\left(\frac{\partial g_{11}}{\partial y}\right)^{2}\right. \\
& \left.-\frac{1}{4 g_{22}}\left(\frac{\partial g_{22}}{\partial x}\right)^{2}-\frac{1}{4 g_{11}} \frac{\partial g_{11}}{\partial x} \frac{\partial g_{22}}{\partial x}-\frac{1}{4 g_{22}} \frac{\partial g_{11}}{\partial y} \frac{\partial g_{22}}{\partial y}\right] \tag{2.9}
\end{align*}
$$

of Gauss (for any two-dimensional metric with $g_{12}=g_{21}=0$ ) [14]. Equation (2.8) means that $g$ in (2.7) is a solution of the Einstein equation (2.4) $\Longleftrightarrow f(x, y)$ is a solution of the sine-Gordon equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{x x}-f_{y y}=\frac{A}{4} \sin 2 f . \tag{2.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Examples of solutions $f(x, y)$ of equation (2.10) (besides the trivial constant solutions $n \pi, n \in$ $\mathbb{Z}=$ the ring of integers) are the soliton ( solid wave) solutions:

1. $f(x, y)=2 \arctan [\exp (a(x-v y))]$ where $a=\left(1-v^{2}\right)^{-1 / 2}, A=2-i . e . K=-1$.
2. $f(x, y)=2 \arctan [\sinh (a v y) / v \cosh (a x)]$ for $a, A$ in example 1. This is a soliton-antisoliton (or kink-antikink) soliton.
3. $f(x, y)=2 \arctan [a \sin (v y) / v \cosh (a x)]$ where $a=\left(1-v^{2}\right)^{1 / 2}, A=2$. This is a breather solution.

Of interest as well is a Euclidean version

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta u \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial x^{2}}+\frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial t^{2}}=m^{2} \sin u(x, t) \tag{2.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

of the sine-Gordon equation. Here one considers the metric

$$
\begin{equation*}
d s^{2}=\cos ^{2}\left(\frac{u}{2}(x, t)\right) d x^{2}-\sin ^{2}\left(\frac{u}{2}(x, t)\right) d t^{2} \tag{2.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

(with coordinates $\left.\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=(x, t)\right)$, in contrast to the one in (2.7). Using the Gauss formula (2.9) one has, similarly, that $R=2 \Delta /(\sin u)$, and therefore this metric solves the Einstein equation (2.4) $R=2 m^{2} \Longleftrightarrow u$ satisfies (2.11). Here $m$ is any positive real number. For $v>0$ define

$$
\begin{equation*}
a=a(v)=\left(1+v^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}, \rho(x, t)=\frac{m(x-v t)}{a(v)}, \beta(x, t)=\frac{m(v x+t)}{a(v)} \tag{2.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then the dilation $\tau(x, t)$ in (2.6) is expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tau(x, t)=a(v) \operatorname{sech} \rho(x, t) \tag{2.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
u^{ \pm}(x, t) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} 4 \arctan [\exp ( \pm \rho(x, t))] \tag{2.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

are the soliton solutions of (2.11) analogous to the solution $f(x, y)=2 \arctan [\exp a(x-v y)]$ of (2.10) in example 1. Moreover the functions $\Phi^{ \pm}: \mathbb{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{2}$ from the plane to the unit 2-sphere given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi^{ \pm} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left(\cos \beta \sin \alpha^{ \pm}, \sin \beta \sin \alpha^{ \pm}, \cos \alpha^{ \pm}\right) \tag{2.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $\alpha^{ \pm} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} u^{ \pm} / 2$ are non linear $\sigma-$ models -i.e. they are harmonic maps in the sense of J. Eells and J. Sampson[4]; see section 3. One has that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sin \alpha^{ \pm} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \sin \frac{u^{ \pm}}{2}=\operatorname{sech} \rho, \cos \alpha^{ \pm}=\mp \tanh \rho \tag{2.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

Consequently we can also write

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi^{ \pm}=\frac{1}{a(v)}(\tau \cos \beta, \tau \sin \beta, \mp a(v) \tanh \rho) \tag{2.18}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equations (2.16), (2.18) connect solitons $u^{ \pm}$, non-linear $\sigma$-models $\Phi^{ \pm}$, and two-dimensional gravity via the dilation $\tau$, where moreover the metric $g$ in (2.12) for $u=u^{ \pm}$satisfies the two-dimensional Einstein-Jackiw-Teitelboim field equation $R(g)=2 m^{2}$ (by the remark following (2.12)) and is known to transform to the black hole metric

$$
\begin{equation*}
d s^{2}=-\left(m^{2} r^{2}-v^{2}\right) d T^{2}+\frac{d r^{2}}{\left(m^{2} r^{2}-v^{2}\right)} \tag{2.19}
\end{equation*}
$$

by a suitable change of variables $(x, t) \rightarrow(T, r)$. The explicit transformation $\Theta(x, t)=\left(\theta_{1}(x, t)\right.$, $\left.\theta_{2}(x, t)\right)=(T, r)$ of the metric (2.12) to the metric (2.19) is given, in fact, by

$$
\begin{align*}
& \theta_{1}(x, t)=\frac{-1}{2 m v} \log \left[\frac{a(v) \tanh \rho(x, t)+1}{a(v) \tanh \rho(x, t)-1}\right]+\frac{x}{v} \\
& \theta_{2}(x, t)=\tau(x, t) / m \tag{2.20}
\end{align*}
$$

which implements an observation of J. Gegenberg and G. Kunstatter [5,6], as discovered in [16,17].

## 3. A generalization of the sigma-models $\Phi^{ \pm}$in equation (2.16)

The main point of this section is to generalize the construction of the maps $\Phi^{ \pm}: \mathbb{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{2}$ in (2.16) in a way to produce new sigma-models. As the $\Phi^{ \pm}$were constructed via the solitons $u^{ \pm}$in (2.15), we shall seek first an appropriate replacement of these functions. We also consider the metric in (2.12) where $u$ is not necessarily a solution of the sine-Gordon equation, and the implication of such a metric for gravity.

For the sake of completeness, we define a harmonic map (or non-linear sigma-model) $\Phi$ : $(M, g) \rightarrow(N, h)$ of pseudo Riemannian manifolds. We proceed locally although a global, coordinate - independent definition is also available [4]. Let $\left(U, \phi=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}\right)\right),\left(V, \psi=\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right)\right)$ be local coordinate systems on $M, N$ with $U \subset \Phi^{-1}(V)$ so that one can consider the $j^{\text {th }}$ coordinate functions $\Phi^{j} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} y_{j} \circ \Phi \circ \phi^{-1}(1 \leq j \leq n)$ relative to these systems. We assume that $\Phi$ is a smooth map. Write $\partial_{j}=\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{j}}$ and let $\Delta_{g}$ denote the Laplace-Beltrami operator of $g$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta_{g} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\operatorname{detg}|}} \sum_{i, j=1}^{m} \partial_{i}\left[\sqrt{|\operatorname{detg}|} g^{i j} \partial_{j}\right] \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

on $U$. If $\Gamma_{i j}^{k}$ are the Christoffel symbols of $h$ (see (2.3), with $g$ there replaced by $h$ ) then the nonlinear Laplacians $\tilde{\Delta}_{s}(1 \leq s \leq n)$ are defined to act on $\Phi$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left.\left(\tilde{\Delta}_{s} \Phi\right)(p) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \sum_{i, j=1}^{m}\left(g^{i j} \circ \phi^{-1}\right) \sum_{k, r=1}^{n} \partial_{i} \Phi^{k} \partial_{j} \Phi^{r}\right|_{\phi(p)} \Gamma_{k r}^{s}(\Phi(p))+\left.\Delta_{g} \Phi^{s}\right|_{\phi(p)} \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $p \in U . \Phi$ is harmonic if it satisfies the system of equations

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\tilde{\Delta}_{s} \Phi^{s}\right)=0,(1 \leq s \leq n=\operatorname{dim} N) \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The field equation (3.3) can be derived by a variational principle where the energy integral of $\Phi$ is made stationary with respect to $\Phi$. For a Bosonic string, for example, this integral is the Polyakov integral and the equations (3.3) coincide with the equation of the motion of the string - say for $M=$ its two-dimensional world sheet and $N=\mathbb{R}^{26}, 26$ being the critical dimension. If $M \subset \mathbb{R}^{1}$ is some interval, then $\Phi$ is simply a smooth curve in $N$ and the equations (3.3) are the familiar conditions that $\Phi$ should be a geodesic. If $N$ is a flat space with vanishing Christoffel symbols $\Gamma_{i j}^{k}$ then the conditions (3.3) reduce to the standard conditions for harmonicity. In the case of $M=\mathbb{R}^{2}, N=\mathbb{S}^{2}$ with their standard Riemannian metrics, one has the following result. Given smooth functions $\alpha, \beta: \mathbb{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, the function $\Phi=\Phi_{\alpha, \beta}: \mathbb{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{2}$ defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi_{\alpha, \beta}=(\cos \beta \sin \alpha, \sin \beta \sin \alpha, \cos \alpha) \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

is harmonic (-i.e. it satisfies conditions (3.3)) if $\alpha, \beta$ satisfy the conditions

$$
\begin{align*}
\Delta \alpha \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} & \frac{\partial^{2} \alpha}{\partial x^{2}}+\frac{\partial^{2} \alpha}{\partial t^{2}}=\left[\left(\frac{\partial \beta}{\partial x}\right)^{2}+\left(\frac{\partial \beta}{\partial t}\right)^{2}\right] \sin \alpha \cos \alpha \\
& (\sin \alpha) \Delta \beta+2\left[\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial x} \frac{\partial \beta}{\partial x}+\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial t} \frac{\partial \beta}{\partial t}\right] \cos \alpha=0 \tag{3.5}
\end{align*}
$$

For example, $\alpha^{ \pm} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} u^{ \pm} / 2$ and $\beta$ in (2.13) satisfy the system (3.5), since we have noted that $u^{ \pm}$ satisfy the Euclidean sine-Gordon equation (2.11). Hence one can conclude that $\Phi^{ \pm}=\Phi_{\alpha^{ \pm}, \beta}$ in (2.16) are harmonic maps, as asserted in section 2.

A fifth example, which nicely connects non-linear sigma-models and gravity ( this time fourdimensional gravity) is obtained by taking $M=\mathbb{R}^{2}, N=\mathbb{R} \times(\mathbb{R}-\{0\}) \times \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$,

$$
g(x, t)=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0  \tag{3.6}\\
0 & -1
\end{array}\right], h\left(y_{1}, y_{2}, y_{3}, y_{4}\right)=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
-e^{y_{1}} & 0 & 0 & e^{y_{1}} \\
0 & e^{y_{1}} & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & e^{y_{1}} s h^{2} y_{2} & 0 \\
e^{y_{1}} & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $s h$ denotes the hyperbolic sine. cth similarly will denote the hyperbolic cotangent. The conditions (3.3) here ( where $s=4$ ) reduce to the following, where we write $\Phi=\left(\Phi^{1}, \Phi^{2}, \Phi^{3}, \Phi^{4}\right)$, $\Delta_{g}=\frac{\partial}{\partial x^{2}}-\frac{\partial}{\partial t^{2}}(=$ the Laplace- Beltrami operator of $g)$ :

$$
\begin{array}{r}
{\left[\Phi_{x}^{1}\right]^{2}-\left[\Phi_{t}^{1}\right]^{2}+\Delta_{g} \Phi^{1} \stackrel{(i)}{=} 0,} \\
\Phi_{x}^{1} \Phi_{x}^{2}-\Phi_{t}^{1} \Phi_{t}^{2}-\frac{1}{2}\left[\left(\Phi_{x}^{3}\right)^{2}-\left(\Phi_{t}^{3}\right)^{2}\right] \operatorname{sh} 2 \Phi^{2}+\Delta_{g} \Phi^{2} \stackrel{(i i)}{=} 0, \\
\Phi_{x}^{1} \Phi_{x}^{3}-\Phi_{t}^{1} \Phi_{t}^{3}+2\left[\Phi_{x}^{2} \Phi_{x}^{3}-\Phi_{t}^{2} \Phi_{t}^{3}\right] c t h \Phi^{2}+\Delta_{g} \Phi^{3} \stackrel{(i i i)}{=} 0, \\
\frac{1}{2}\left[\left(\Phi_{x}^{1}\right)^{2}-\left(\Phi_{t}^{1}\right)^{2}\right]-\frac{1}{2}\left[\left(\Phi_{x}^{2}\right)^{2}-\left(\Phi_{t}^{2}\right)^{2}\right]-\frac{1}{2}\left[\left(\Phi_{x}^{3}\right)^{2}-\left(\Phi_{t}^{3}\right)^{2}\right] s h^{2} \Phi^{2}+\Delta_{g} \Phi^{4} \stackrel{(i v)}{=} 0 . \tag{3.7}
\end{array}
$$

These equations follow by a direct computation of the Christoffel symbols of $h$ in (3.6); see Appendix 1. On the other hand, the conditions $(i),(i i),(i i i),(i v)($ for $\Phi: M \rightarrow N$ to be a sigma-model) are exactly the Einstein gravitational equations for a 4-dimensional plane-symmetric space-time. Thus one has another beautiful connection between non-linear sigma-models and gravitation. This latter one is due to S.Chervon and A. Muslimov [1]; also see [2,3,13].

The key to generalizing the functions $u^{ \pm}$in (2.15), and hence the functions $\Phi^{ \pm}$, is the following very simple observation: The pair $(\rho, \beta)$ in (2.13) satisfies the Cauchy-Riemann (C-R) equations: $\rho_{x}=\frac{m}{a}=\beta_{t}, \rho_{t}=\frac{-m v}{a}=-\beta_{x}$. Thus $\rho$ and $\beta$ are harmonic conjugates. This observation motivates us now to choose $\rho$ to be any harmonic function on the plane $\mathbb{R}^{2}: \Delta \rho=\frac{\partial^{2} \rho}{\partial x^{2}}+\frac{\partial^{2} \rho}{\partial t^{2}}=0$. Since $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ is simply connected we now choose $\beta$ to be a harmonic conjugate of $\rho: \rho+\sqrt{-1} \beta$ is an analytic function. Motivated by (2.15) and the definition $\alpha^{ \pm}=u^{ \pm} / 2$, we define

$$
\begin{equation*}
u(x, t) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} 4 \arctan (\exp \rho), \alpha \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \frac{u}{2} . \tag{3.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

One has (compare (2.17))

$$
\begin{gather*}
\sin \alpha=\operatorname{sech} \rho \quad, \cos \alpha=-\tanh \rho \\
\alpha_{x}=\frac{1}{2} u_{x}=\rho_{x} \operatorname{sech} \rho, \alpha_{t}=\frac{1}{2} u_{t}=\rho_{t} \operatorname{sech} \rho \\
\Delta u=2(\Delta \rho) \operatorname{sech} \rho-2(\operatorname{sech} \rho \tanh \rho)\left(\rho_{x}^{2}+\rho_{t}^{2}\right) \tag{3.9}
\end{gather*}
$$

where $\Delta \rho=0$, by hypothesis. Therefore $\Delta \alpha=(\sin \alpha \cos \alpha)\left(\rho_{x}^{2}+\rho_{t}^{2}\right)=(\sin \alpha \cos \alpha)\left(\beta_{t}^{2}+\beta_{x}^{2}\right)$ (by the $\mathrm{C}-\mathrm{R}$ equations), which is the first equation in (3.5). The second equation there also holds since $\Delta \beta=0$ (by definition of $\beta$ ), and since $\alpha_{x} \beta_{x}+\alpha_{t} \beta_{t} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \frac{1}{2}\left(\rho_{x} \beta_{x}+\rho_{t} \beta_{t}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left[\rho_{x}\left(-\rho_{t}\right)+\rho_{t} \rho_{x}\right]$ (again by the $C-R$ equations $)=0$. In summary we have therefore shown the following.

Theorem 1. Let $\rho(x, t)$ be any harmonic function on $\mathbb{R}^{2}: \Delta \rho=\rho_{x x}+\rho_{t t}=0$. Let $\beta(x, t)$ be a harmonic conjugate of $\rho(x, t)$. Define $u$ and $\alpha$ by (3.8). The $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are solutions of the system of equations in (3.5), and hence the function $\Phi_{\alpha \beta}: \mathbb{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{2}$ defined in (3.4) is non-linear sigmamodel - i.e. $\Phi_{\alpha \beta}$ satisfies the system of equations (3.3). Also $u$ satisfies the generalized type of sine-Gordon equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta u=\left(\rho_{x}^{2}+\rho_{t}^{2}\right) \sin u \tag{3.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

(by (3.9)), which contrasts equation (2.11).

Consider the metric in (2.12) where we now take $u$ there to be the function in (3.8) for $\rho$ in Theorem 1. Denote this metric by $g_{\rho}$, which is a generalized type of soliton metric, given equation (3.10). By the remark following (2.12) it scalar curvature is given by $2 \Delta u /(\sin u)$, which by equation (3.10) equals $2\left(\rho_{x}^{2}+\rho_{t}^{2}\right): R\left(g_{\rho}\right)=2\left(\rho_{x}^{2}+\rho_{t}^{2}\right)$, which generally is non -constant -i.e. $g \rho$ generally will not solve equation (2.4). One can determine all harmonic conjugate pairs $(\rho, \beta)$ for which $R\left(g_{\rho}\right)$ is a constant. Such pairs are given by $\rho(x, t) \stackrel{(i)}{=} a x-b t+c, \beta(x, t) \stackrel{(i i)}{=} b x+a t+d$ for suitable real numbers $a, b, c, d$ (which is consistent with the pair $(\rho, \beta)$ given in (2.31)). To see this, let $f=\rho+i \beta$ be the corresponding analytic function. Then $f^{\prime}=\rho_{x}+i \beta_{x}=\rho_{x}-i \rho_{t}$, by C-R, $\Rightarrow R\left(g_{\rho}\right)=2\left|f^{\prime}\right|^{2}$. In particular if $R\left(g_{\rho}\right)$ is a constant then $\left|f^{\prime}\right|$ is a constant, and since $f^{\prime}(z)$ is also analytic one may conclude that $f^{\prime}(z)$ is a constant: $\rho_{x}+i \beta_{x}=a+i b \Rightarrow \rho(x, t)=a x+c(t), \beta(x, t)=$ $b x+d(t)$, where by C-R, $a=\rho_{x}=\beta_{t}=d^{\prime}(t), c^{\prime}(t)=\rho_{t}=-\beta_{x}=-b \Rightarrow d(t)=a t+d, c(t)=$ $-b t+c$, which proves (i) and (ii).

Given the metric $g_{\rho}$, an obvious and very interesting question arises: Can one construct a transformation of variables $\Theta_{\rho}: \mathbb{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2},(x, t) \rightarrow(T, r)$, under which $g_{\rho}$ goes (perhaps) to a black hole metric $G_{\rho}$ (as we did in (2.20) in the constant curvature set-up $R=2 m^{2}$ )? One would like $G_{\rho}$ to assume the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
d s^{2}=A(r) d T^{2}-\frac{d r^{2}}{A(r)} \tag{3.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

for example; compare (2.19). The latter metric has scalar curvature $-A^{\prime \prime}(r)(b y(2.9))$. In this more general setting we replace the J-T action integral given in (2.5) by

$$
\begin{equation*}
I(g, \tau)=\frac{1}{2 G} \int_{M} \sqrt{|\operatorname{det} g|} d x_{1} d x_{2}[V \circ \tau-R(g) \tau] \tag{3.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equations of motion

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
R(g)=\frac{d V}{d x_{2}} \circ \tau & (\text { varying } \tau) \\
\Delta_{g} \tau+V \circ \tau=0 & (\text { varying } g) \tag{3.13}
\end{array}
$$

where $V$ is a function of $x_{2}$ only and $\Delta_{g}$ is given by (3.1); see [7]. Hopefully, future work will lead to a construction of $\Theta_{\rho}$. We note in fact that for the coordinates $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=(T, r)$, the metric $G_{\rho}$ in (3.11) and the dilation $\tau(T, r) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} r$ do provide a solution of the field equations (3.13), for $A^{\prime}(r)=V(r)$. This follows from (3.1) which for $g=G_{\rho}$ gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta_{G_{\rho}}=\frac{1}{A(r)} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial T^{2}}-A(r) \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial r^{2}}-A^{\prime}(r) \frac{\partial}{\partial r} . \tag{3.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus indeed $V^{\prime}(\tau(T, r))=A^{\prime \prime}(r)=-R\left(G_{\rho}\right)(T, r)$ (as noted in the line following (3.11)), which is the first equation in (3.13), and $\left(\Delta_{G_{\rho}} \tau\right)(T, r)+V(\tau(T, r))=-A^{\prime}(r)+A^{\prime}(r)=0$, which is the second equation in (3.13).

Note also that the function

$$
\begin{equation*}
u_{2}(x, t)=4 \arctan \left[\frac{v}{\sqrt{1+v^{2}}}\left(\sinh \sqrt{1+v^{2}} m x\right) \sec v m t\right] \tag{3.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

is a solution of the Euclidean sine-Gordon equation $u_{x x}+u_{t t}=m^{2} \sin u$ in (2.11). This can be verified, for example, by a simple Maple program.

Given the solution (3.15), we can form the corresponding soliton metric $g_{u_{2}}$ in (2.12) which , in contrast to $g_{\rho}$, has constant curvature $R=2 m^{2}$ (again by the formula $R=2 \Delta /(\sin u)$ following (2.12)). Similar to the question posed for the metric $g_{\rho}$, it is meaningful to inquire whether one can construct a transformation $\Phi_{u_{2}}$ (as was done in (2.20) for the solitons in (2.15)) that realizes $g_{u_{2}}$ as a black hole metric. This is a question that my student, Miss S. Beheshti, is considering. The solution $u_{2}(x, t)$ is also called a kink-antikink solution. It describes a collision between a kink soliton and an antikink soliton.

## Appendix 1

For the sake of completeness of the discussion in Sec. 3, we list the values of all the Christoffel symbols of the metric $h$ in (3.6). For $y=\left(y_{1}, y_{2}, y_{3}, y_{4}\right) \in \mathbb{R} \times(\mathbb{R}-\{0\}) \times \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}, \Gamma_{11}^{1}(y)=1$, $\Gamma_{12}^{2}(y)=\frac{1}{2}, \Gamma_{33}^{2}(y)=\left(-\sinh y_{2}\right) \cdot \cosh y_{2}, \Gamma_{13}^{3}(y)=\frac{1}{2}, \Gamma_{23}^{3}(y)=\frac{\cosh y_{2}}{\sinh y_{2}}, \Gamma_{11}^{4}(y)=\frac{1}{2}, \Gamma_{22}^{4}(y)=-\frac{1}{2}$, $\Gamma_{33}^{4}(y)=\frac{-\left(\sinh y_{2}\right)^{2}}{2}$. All other symbols are zero ; of course one has the symmetry $\Gamma_{i j}^{k}=\Gamma_{j i}^{k}$.

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