# Generating Axially Symmetric Minimal Hyper-Surfaces in $\mathbf{R}^{1,3}$ 

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#### Abstract

It is shown that, somewhat similar to the case of classical Bäcklund transformations for surfaces of constant negative curvature, infinitely many axially symmetric minimal hypersurfaces in 4-dimensional Minkowski-space can be obtained, in a non-trivial way, from any given one by combining the scaling symmetries of the equations in light cone coordinates with a non-obvious symmetry (the analogue of Bianchi's original transformation) which can be shown to be involutive/correspond to a space-reflection.


Recently [1, 2] various signs of integrability for axially symmetric membranes in 4dimensional space time,

$$
x^{\nu}(t, \varphi, \theta)=\left(\begin{array}{c}
t  \tag{1}\\
r(t, \varphi) \\
\cos \theta \\
z(t, \varphi)
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{c}
\tau+\zeta / 2 \\
R(\tau, \mu) \\
\cos \Psi \\
\tau-\zeta / 2
\end{array}\right)=\tilde{x}^{\nu}(\tau, \mu, \Psi),
$$

were revealed, including the use of

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{v^{\prime}}{E}=\dot{z}, \quad \dot{v}=r^{2} \frac{z^{\prime}}{E}, \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

(. and ' indicating derivatives with respect to $t$ and $\varphi$; the constant $E$ sometimes put equal to 1 ), where $r(t, \varphi)$ and $z(t, \varphi)$, describing the shape of the hypersurface, satisfy

$$
\begin{array}{lr}
\dot{r} r^{\prime}+\dot{z} z^{\prime}=0, & \text { and } \quad \dot{r}^{2}+\dot{z}^{2}+r^{2}\left(\frac{r^{\prime 2}+z^{\prime 2}}{E^{2}}\right)=1 ;  \tag{3}\\
E^{2} \ddot{z}=\left(r^{2} z^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}, & E^{2} \ddot{r}=\left(r^{2} r^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}-r\left(r^{\prime 2}+z^{\prime 2}\right)
\end{array}
$$

(the second line being implied by the first, provided $\dot{r} z^{\prime} \neq r^{\prime} \dot{z}$ ), while in light-cone coordinates, the first order equations of (3) take the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{\zeta}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\dot{R}^{2}+\frac{R^{2} R^{\prime 2}}{\eta^{2}}\right), \quad \zeta^{\prime}=\dot{R} R^{\prime} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

implying

$$
\begin{align*}
& \eta^{2} \ddot{R}=R\left(R R^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}  \tag{5}\\
& \eta^{2} \ddot{\zeta}=\left(R^{2} \zeta^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}, \tag{6}
\end{align*}
$$

with $R(\tau, \mu)=r(t, \varphi)$ and $\zeta=t-z, \cdot$ and ' denoting derivatives with respect to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tau=\frac{1}{2}(t+z(t, \varphi)) \quad \text { and } \quad \mu=\frac{1}{2 \eta}(E \varphi+v(t, \varphi)) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

(2) implying

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta \dot{\mu}=\frac{r^{2}}{E} \tau^{\prime}, \quad \eta \frac{\mu^{\prime}}{E}=\dot{\tau} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\eta$ is a constant (related to boosts in the $z$-direction, i. e. Minkowski rotations in the $(t, z)$-plane), often put equal to 1 just like $E$. Due to (5), respectively (6), (4) also implies the existence of a function $\kappa(\tau, \mu)$ satisfying

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\kappa^{\prime}}{\eta}=\dot{\zeta}, \quad \dot{\kappa}=R^{2} \frac{\zeta^{\prime}}{\eta} . \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

(1), (8), and (9) are all generalizations of the Minkowski version of Cauchy-Riemann equations, i. e. for $r^{2}=1$ and $R^{2}=1$ all 6 functions would satisfy the linear wave equation with respect to their independent variables $(t, \varphi$ for (1) and (8), $\tau, \mu$ for (9)).

Just as $g(f(w))$ is a holomorphic function of $w$, if $f$ and $g$ are, the following 'non-linear' (respectively $r$-dependent) generalization holds:

## Theorem 1:

Let $r(t, \varphi)$ be given, as well as $(x(t, \varphi), y(t, \varphi))$ and $(\phi(t, \varphi), T(t, \varphi))$ satisfy

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
x^{\prime}=\dot{y}, & \dot{x}=r^{2} y^{\prime} \\
\phi^{\prime}=\dot{T}, & \dot{\phi}=r^{2} T^{\prime} \tag{11}
\end{array}
$$

$X(T, \phi)=x(t, \varphi)$ and $Y(T, \phi)=y(t, \varphi)($ with $R(T, \phi)=r(t, \varphi))$ will then satisfy

$$
\begin{equation*}
X^{\prime}=\dot{Y}, \quad \dot{X}=R^{2} Y^{\prime} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

provided the change of variables $(t, \varphi) \mapsto(T, \phi)$ is invertible i. e. $\dot{T}^{2}-r^{2} T^{\prime 2} \neq 0$.
Proof: We note that,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\partial_{t}=\dot{T} \partial_{T}+\dot{\phi} \partial_{\phi}, \quad \partial_{\varphi}=T^{\prime} \partial_{T}+\phi^{\prime} \partial_{\phi} . \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

So, using (11), (10) implies

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\dot{T} & T^{\prime} \\
r^{2} T^{\prime} & \dot{T}
\end{array}\right)\binom{X^{\prime}-\dot{Y}}{\dot{X}-R^{2} Y^{\prime}}=\binom{0}{0}
$$

hence (12) follows. For the construction of infinitely many non-trivial solutions of (5), the following observation will be crucial:

## Theorem 2:

Given (5), respectively (4) and (9), $\rho(\zeta, \kappa)=R(\tau, \mu)$ will satisfy $\ddot{\rho}=\rho\left(\rho \rho^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}$ i.e. a new solution of (5) can be generated by rewriting a starting solution $R$ in terms of $\zeta, \kappa$ (obtained by solving (4) and (9)).
Proof: Note that

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\tau_{\zeta} & \tau_{\kappa}  \tag{14}\\
\mu_{\zeta} & \mu_{\kappa}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\dot{\zeta} & \zeta^{\prime} \\
\dot{\kappa} & \kappa^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)^{-1}=\frac{1}{\delta}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\kappa^{\prime} & -\zeta^{\prime} \\
-\dot{\kappa} & \dot{\zeta}
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $\delta=\eta\left(\dot{\zeta}^{2}-R^{2} \frac{\zeta^{\prime 2}}{\eta^{2}}\right)=\frac{\eta}{4}\left(\dot{R}^{2}-R^{2} \frac{R^{\prime 2}}{\eta^{2}}\right)^{2}=: \eta \mathcal{L}^{2}$, gives

$$
\begin{align*}
\dot{\rho} & =\rho_{\zeta}=\left(\tau_{\zeta} \partial_{\tau}+\mu_{\zeta} \partial_{\mu}\right) R=\ldots=\frac{\dot{R}}{\mathcal{L}} \\
\rho^{\prime} & =\rho_{\kappa}=\left(\tau_{\kappa} \partial_{\tau}+\mu_{\kappa} \partial_{\mu}\right) R=\ldots=-\frac{R^{\prime}}{\eta \mathcal{L}} \tag{15}
\end{align*}
$$

A lengthy, but straigthforward, calculation of $\delta \ddot{\rho}=\left(\kappa^{\prime} \partial_{\tau}-\dot{\kappa} \partial_{\mu}\right) \frac{\dot{R}}{\mathcal{L}}$ and $\delta \rho^{\prime \prime}=-\left(-\zeta^{\prime} \partial_{\tau}+\right.$ $\left.\dot{\zeta} \partial_{\mu}\right) \frac{R^{\prime}}{\eta \mathcal{L}}$ then gives the desired result. Note also that (15) implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{2}\left(\dot{\rho}^{2}-\rho^{2} \rho^{\prime 2}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{2}\left(\dot{R}^{2}-\frac{R^{2} R^{\prime 2}}{\eta^{2}}\right)=1 \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

It would at first sight be tempting to apply Theorem 2 directly multiple times, to obtain infinitely many solutions from a given one. However, (16), as well as $(\zeta, \tau)$, as functions of $t, \varphi$, related to $(\tau, \mu)$ by the simple reflection $z \rightarrow-z$ (the factors of 2 being irrelevant, respectively cancelling) indicate that the transformation is involutive. Indeed, considering

$$
\begin{equation*}
X^{\prime}=\dot{Y}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\dot{\rho}^{2}+\rho^{2} \rho^{\prime 2}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad \dot{X}=\rho^{2} Y^{\prime}=\rho^{2} \dot{\rho} \rho^{\prime} \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

in $\tau, \mu$ coordinates, using $(\eta=1)$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\partial_{\zeta}=\frac{1}{\mathcal{L}^{2}}\left(\kappa^{\prime} \partial_{\tau}-\dot{\kappa} \partial_{\mu}\right), \quad \partial_{\kappa}=\frac{1}{\mathcal{L}^{2}}\left(-\zeta^{\prime} \partial_{\tau}+\dot{\zeta} \partial_{\mu}\right) \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

gives

$$
\begin{gathered}
\kappa^{\prime} \dot{x}-\dot{\kappa} x^{\prime}=R^{2}\left(-\zeta^{\prime} \dot{y}+\dot{\zeta} y^{\prime}\right)=\mathcal{L}^{2} \rho^{2} \dot{\rho} \rho^{\prime}=-R^{2} \dot{R} R^{\prime} \\
-\zeta^{\prime} \dot{x}+\dot{\zeta} x^{\prime}=\kappa^{\prime} \dot{y}-\dot{\kappa} y^{\prime}=\frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L}^{2}\left(\dot{\rho}^{2}+\rho^{2} \rho^{\prime 2}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left(\dot{R}^{2}+R^{2} R^{\prime 2}\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

which implies

$$
\binom{\dot{x}}{x^{\prime}}=\binom{0}{1}, \quad\binom{\dot{y}}{y^{\prime}}=\binom{1}{0}
$$

i. e. up to some trivial additive constants

$$
\begin{equation*}
x(\tau, \mu)=\mu, \quad y(\tau, \mu)=\tau \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

Just as with the original Bäcklund transformation 4] which (as observed by Lie) were a combination of Bianchi's original transformation [5] and trivial scaling symmetries ( see [6] for a nice discusion of $K=-1$ surfaces) one may combine Theorem 2 with the ('trivial') observation that

$$
\begin{equation*}
R_{\alpha, \gamma}(\tau, \mu)=\alpha R(\alpha \gamma \tau, \gamma \mu) \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

satisfies (5), if $R$ does, to obtain infinitely many solutions of (5) which are not simply results of (20) (namely applying theorem 2 and (20) infinitely many times, always in pairs).

As nice as this seems, explicit non-trivial elementary examples of the construction are not easy to come by:

$$
\begin{equation*}
R(\tau, \mu)=\sqrt{2} \frac{\mu}{\tau}, \quad \zeta=-\frac{\mu^{2}}{\tau^{3}}=-\frac{R^{2}}{2 \tau}, \text { and } \quad \kappa=\frac{\mu^{3}}{\tau^{4}} \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

is invariant under both (20) and the involutary transformation of theorem 2 ,

$$
\begin{equation*}
R \mapsto R^{*}(\tau, \mu):=\rho(\tau, \mu) \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

as $\frac{\kappa}{\zeta}=-\frac{\mu}{\tau}$, hence $\rho(\zeta, \tau)=-\sqrt{2} \frac{\kappa}{\zeta}$, i.e. $R^{*}=-R$ (which of course is always a solution, to be identified with $R$ as the radius of the rotated curve should, by definition, be positive.) (21) corresponds to $\mathcal{M}_{3}=\left\{x^{\nu} \in \mathbf{R}^{1,3} \mid t^{2}+x^{2}+y^{2}=z^{2}\right\}$, moving hyperboloids, which in orthonormal parametrization were shown in [7] to read

$$
\begin{equation*}
z(t, \varphi)= \pm t \sqrt{\frac{\sqrt{1+8 \frac{\varphi^{2}}{t^{4}}}+1}{2}}, \quad r(t, \varphi)=|t| \sqrt{\frac{\sqrt{1+8 \frac{\varphi^{2}}{t^{4}}}+1}{2}} \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

solving (2), hence also the second-order equations $(E=1)$

$$
\begin{equation*}
E^{2} \ddot{r}=\left(r^{2} r^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}-r\left(r^{\prime 2}+z^{\prime 2}\right), \quad E^{2} \ddot{z}=\left(r^{2} z^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand, applying Theorem 2 to the minimal hypersurface

$$
\begin{equation*}
R=\sqrt{2} \frac{\sqrt{\mu^{2}+\epsilon}}{\tau}, \quad \zeta=-\frac{\mu^{2}+\epsilon / 3}{\tau^{3}}, \quad \kappa=\frac{\mu^{3}+\epsilon \mu}{\tau^{4}} \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

(where $\epsilon$ is a constant), whose level set form,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{M}_{3}=\left\{x^{\nu} \in \mathbf{R}^{1,3} \left\lvert\,\left(t^{2}+x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}\right)(t+z)^{2}=\frac{16 \epsilon}{3}\right.\right\} \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

was, 30 years after Dirac's spherically symmetric solution [8] the first non-trivial, polynomial solution [9, is already very difficult to fully work out in detail, as one has to solve polynomial equations of high degree(s) to obtain $\mu(\zeta, \kappa)$ and $\tau(\zeta, \kappa)$ and hence $\rho(\zeta, \kappa)$, from (25) -or to find an explicit orthonormal parametrization of (26) by inverting

$$
\begin{equation*}
t=\tau-\frac{\mu^{2}+\epsilon / 3}{2 \tau^{3}} \quad E \varphi=\mu+\frac{\mu^{3}+\epsilon \mu}{2 \tau^{4}} \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

Before going to the next example, note that (20) will give

$$
\begin{equation*}
\zeta_{\alpha, \gamma}(\tau, \mu)=\alpha^{3} \gamma \zeta(\alpha \gamma \tau, \gamma \mu), \quad \kappa_{\alpha, \gamma}(\tau, \mu)=\alpha^{4} \gamma \kappa(\alpha \gamma \tau, \gamma \mu) \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the effect of scale transformations in $(t, \varphi)$ parametrization can be calculated according to

$$
\begin{align*}
t & =\tau+\frac{\alpha^{3} \gamma}{2} \zeta(\alpha \gamma \tau, \gamma \mu) \\
E \varphi & =\mu+\frac{\alpha^{4} \gamma}{2} \kappa(\alpha \gamma \tau, \gamma \mu) \tag{29}
\end{align*}
$$

the inversion of which gives $\tau=\tau_{\alpha, \gamma}(t, \varphi), \mu=\mu_{\alpha, \gamma}(t, \varphi)$ from which

$$
\begin{equation*}
z_{\alpha, \gamma}(t, \varphi)=\tau-\frac{1}{2} \zeta_{\alpha, \gamma}, \quad \text { and } \quad r_{\alpha, \gamma}(t, \varphi)=R_{\alpha, \gamma}(\tau, \mu) \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

can in principle be calculated.
Consider now, as a third (class of) example(s)

$$
\begin{equation*}
R=\tau \sqrt{\mu}, \quad \zeta=\frac{\mu \tau}{2}+\frac{\tau^{5}}{40}, \quad \kappa=\frac{\tau^{4}}{8} \mu+\frac{\mu^{2}}{4} \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

respectively their scaled versions,

$$
\begin{align*}
R_{\alpha, \gamma} & =R_{\beta=\alpha^{2} \gamma^{3 / 2}}(\tau, \mu)=\beta \tau \sqrt{\mu} \\
\zeta_{\beta} & =\beta^{2}\left(\frac{\mu \tau}{2}+\beta^{2} \frac{\tau^{5}}{40}\right)=\frac{R_{\beta}^{2}}{2 \tau}+\frac{\beta^{4} \tau^{5}}{40} \\
\kappa_{\beta} & =\beta^{4} \frac{\tau^{4} \mu}{8}+\beta^{2} \frac{\mu^{2}}{4} \tag{32}
\end{align*}
$$

corresponding to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{M}=\left\{x^{\nu} \in \mathbf{R}^{1,3} \mid t^{2}-x^{2}-y^{2}-z^{2}=C(t+z)^{6}\right\}, \quad \text { with } \quad C=\frac{\beta^{4}}{1280}>0 \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

(discussed in [2, 1] and 'quantized' in [10]). In order to obtain $R^{*}$, respectively $\rho$, by writing $R$ in $(31) /(32)$ as a function of $\zeta$ and $\kappa$ one would have to solve polynomial equations like $(\beta=1)$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(2 \zeta-\frac{\tau^{5}}{20}\right)\left(\frac{9}{20} \tau^{5}+2 \zeta\right)=4 \tau^{2} \kappa \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

As a final example, consider

$$
\begin{equation*}
R=\sqrt{2} F(\tau) \mu, \quad \zeta=F \dot{F} \mu^{2}, \quad \kappa=F^{4} \mu^{3}+\frac{1}{3} \mu^{3} \tag{35}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $F$ is an elliptic function satisfying

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{F}^{2}=F^{4}+1 \tag{36}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here one can compute that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho(\zeta, \kappa)=\zeta^{1 / 2} F\left(\kappa \zeta^{-3 / 2}\right) \tag{37}
\end{equation*}
$$

showing that the involutary transformation $R \mapsto \rho$ of Theorem 2 maps two self-similar solutions (with different exponents) onto each other.

In order to appreciate the non-triviality of implementing the $z \mapsto-z$ symmetry on solutions $R(\tau, \mu), \zeta(\tau, \mu)$ of $(4),(5)$ and (6), consider for example $(25) /(26)$ : although Theorem-2 is difficult to apply explicitly (as for that $\mu$ and $\tau$ would be needed as explicit functions of $\zeta$ and $\kappa$ ), one may observe that $\zeta^{4} / \kappa^{3}$ depends only on $\mu$ hence $\mu=\mu\left(\zeta \kappa^{-3 / 4}\right)$, implying $\tau=\zeta^{-1 / 3} h\left(\zeta \kappa^{-3 / 4}\right)$ and $\rho=\zeta^{1 / 3} f\left(\zeta \kappa^{-3 / 4}\right)$. Theorem 2 thus predicts a new solution $\tilde{R}(\tau, \mu)$, that is of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tilde{R}(\tau, \mu)=\tau^{1 / 3} f\left(\mu \tau^{-3 / 4}:=\xi\right) \tag{38}
\end{equation*}
$$

Both (4), and the $z \mapsto-z$ variant of (26),

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(2 \tau \tilde{\zeta}+\tilde{R}^{2}\right) \tilde{\zeta}^{2}=\frac{16 \epsilon}{3}=C(<0) \tag{39}
\end{equation*}
$$

then imply/suggest that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tilde{\zeta}(\tau, \mu)=\tau^{-1 / 3} g(\xi) \tag{40}
\end{equation*}
$$

Indeed, (38)/(40) consistently reduces (39) and (4) to

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 g^{3}+f^{2} g^{2}=C(<0) \tag{41}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the 2 ODE's

$$
\begin{align*}
g^{\prime} & =f^{\prime}\left(\frac{1}{3} f+\xi f^{\prime}\right)  \tag{42}\\
2\left(\xi g^{\prime}-\frac{g}{3}\right) & =\left(\frac{1}{3} f+\xi f^{\prime}\right)^{2}+\frac{9}{16} \xi^{14 / 3} f^{2}\left(f^{\prime}\right)^{2} \tag{43}
\end{align*}
$$

Using (from (41))

$$
\begin{equation*}
f=-\frac{1}{g} \sqrt{C-2 g^{3}}, \quad f^{\prime}=\frac{g^{\prime}}{g^{2} \sqrt{C-2 g^{3}}}\left(C+g^{3}\right) \tag{44}
\end{equation*}
$$

(42) can be written as

$$
\begin{align*}
-\frac{d \xi}{\xi} & =-3 \frac{d g}{g} \frac{\left(C+g^{3}\right)^{2}}{\left(C+4 g^{3}\right)\left(C-2 g^{2}\right)} \stackrel{\left(z=-g^{3}\right)}{=} \frac{d z}{z} \frac{(z-C)^{2}}{(2 z+C)(4 z-C)} \\
& =d z\left(-\frac{1}{z}+\frac{3 / 4}{(z+C / 2)}+\frac{3 / 8}{(z-C / 4)}\right) \tag{45}
\end{align*}
$$

implying

$$
\begin{equation*}
E^{2} \xi=\frac{z}{(z+C / 2)^{3 / 4}(z-C / 4)^{3 / 8}} \tag{46}
\end{equation*}
$$

(43), on the other hand gives

$$
\begin{array}{r}
6\left(C+4 g^{3}\right)\left(C-2 g^{3}\right) g^{3}-6 g^{3}\left(C+g^{3}\right)^{2}-\left(C-2 g^{3}\right)\left(C+g^{3}\right)^{2}-\left(C+4 g^{3}\right)(C-2 g) \\
+2\left(C+g^{3}\right)\left(C+4 g^{3}\right)\left(C-2 g^{3}\right)=\frac{9}{16} \frac{\xi^{8 / 3}}{g^{2}}\left(C-2 g^{3}\right)^{2}\left(C+4 g^{3}\right) \tag{47}
\end{array}
$$

with a (at first sight 'weird') factor $\frac{\xi^{8 / 3}}{g^{2}}$, which however, using (46) (with $E^{2}=1$ ) is exactly what is needed to make (43) consistent with $(42) /(41)$ (both sides of (47) are equal to $-9 z^{2}(C-4 z)$, provided the integration constant $E^{2}$ is chosen to be equal to 1 ).

So, while (25) can not be explicitly inverted, the solution that is obtained from it via Theorem 2, respectively $z \mapsto-z$ in (26), can be obtained 'almost explicitly', the function $g(\xi)$ in (40) solving a polynomial equation of degree 27 ,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\xi^{8}\left(g^{3}+C / 4\right)^{3}\left(g^{3}-C / 2\right)^{6}=g^{24} \tag{48}
\end{equation*}
$$

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