

Hypersymmetric black holes in 2+1 gravity

Marc Henneaux

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Supersymmetry is well known to have deep consequences.

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Supersymmetry is well known to have deep consequences.

In the context of higher spin gauge theories, supersymmetry is generalized to include fermionic symmetries described by parameters of spin $3/2$, $5/2$ etc

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Do these symmetries also have interesting implications?

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In particular, do they imply "hypersymmetry" bounds?

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Do these symmetries also have interesting implications?

In particular, do they imply "hypersymmetry" bounds?

The answer turns out to be affirmative, as can be seen for instance by analysing anti-de Sitter hypergravity in $2 + 1$ dimensions.

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Based on joint work with A. Pérez, D. Tempo, R. Troncoso (2015)

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But $so(2, 2)$ is isomorphic to $so(2, 1) \oplus so(2, 1)$

and $so(2, 1) \simeq sl(2, \mathbb{R})$

so that $so(2, 2)$ is isomorphic to $sl(2, \mathbb{R}) \oplus sl(2, \mathbb{R})$.

Note : one has also $sl(2, \mathbb{R}) \simeq sp(2, \mathbb{R}) \simeq su(1, 1)$ and thus the chain of isomorphisms $so(2, 1) \simeq sl(2, \mathbb{R}) \simeq sp(2, \mathbb{R}) \simeq su(1, 1)$

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- AdS gravity can be reformulated as an $sl(2, \mathbb{R}) \oplus sl(2, \mathbb{R})$ Chern-Simons theory.
- The action reads

$$I[A^+, A^-] = I_{CS}[A^+] - I_{CS}[A^-]$$

where A^+, A^- are connections taking values in the algebra $sl(2, \mathbb{R})$,

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- and where $I_{CS}[A]$ is the Chern-Simons action

$$I_{CS}[A] = \frac{k}{4\pi} \int_M \text{Tr} \left(A \wedge dA + \frac{2}{3} A \wedge A \wedge A \right).$$

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$$I_{CS}[A] = \frac{k}{4\pi} \int_M \text{Tr} \left(A \wedge dA + \frac{2}{3} A \wedge A \wedge A \right).$$

- The parameter k is related to the (2+1)-dimensional Newton constant G as $k = \ell/4G$, where ℓ is the AdS radius of curvature.

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$$A_{\mu}^{+a} = \omega_{\mu}^a + \frac{1}{\ell} e_{\mu}^a \quad \text{and} \quad A_{\mu}^{-a} = \omega_{\mu}^a - \frac{1}{\ell} e_{\mu}^a,$$

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$$A_\mu^{+a} = \omega_\mu^a + \frac{1}{\ell} e_\mu^a \quad \text{and} \quad A_\mu^{-a} = \omega_\mu^a - \frac{1}{\ell} e_\mu^a,$$

in terms of which one finds indeed

$$I[e, \omega] = \frac{1}{8\pi G} \int_M d^3x \left(\frac{1}{2} eR + \frac{e}{\ell^2} \right)$$

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which implies that one can locally set it to zero, $A = 0$, by a gauge transformation.

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The absence of local degrees of freedom manifests itself in the Chern-Simons formulation through the fact that the connection is flat,

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Note that the Chern-Simons gauge transformations enable one to go to gauges where the triad is degenerate.

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For instance, supergravity is obtained by simply replacing $sl(2, \mathbb{R})$ by a superalgebra that contains it.

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The subalgebra $sl(2, \mathbb{R})$ is called the “gravitational subalgebra”.

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In supergravity, the bosonic subalgebra is the direct sum $sl(2, \mathbb{R}) \oplus \mathcal{G}$, where \mathcal{G} is the “R-symmetry algebra”.

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The fermionic generators transform in the $\mathbf{2}$ of $sl(2, \mathbb{R})$, which might come with a non-trivial multiplicity (extended supergravities).

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The fermionic generators transform in the $\mathbf{2}$ of $sl(2, \mathbb{R})$, which might come with a non-trivial multiplicity (extended supergravities).

The first condition ensures that the theory contains gravity and only bosonic fields of “spins” 2 and 1 (and a single “graviton”). The second condition ensures that spinors are spin- $\frac{3}{2}$ fields.

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This leads to higher spin gauge theories in 3D.

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This leads to higher spin gauge theories in 3D.

In 3D, the higher spin gauge theories are simply given by a Chern-Simons theory with appropriate “higher spin” (super)algebra.

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This leads to higher spin gauge theories in 3D.

In 3D, the higher spin gauge theories are simply given by a Chern-Simons theory with appropriate “higher spin” (super)algebra.

These higher spin (super)algebras are obtained by lifting the above restrictions that limited the spin content to ≤ 2 .

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In 3D, the higher spin gauge theories are simply given by a Chern-Simons theory with appropriate “higher spin” (super)algebra.

These higher spin (super)algebras are obtained by lifting the above restrictions that limited the spin content to ≤ 2 .

One then considers general (super)algebras containing the gravitational subalgebra $sl(2, \mathbb{R})$, but with their bosonic subalgebra not necessarily of the form $sl(2, \mathbb{R}) \oplus \mathcal{G}$.

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More precisely, one replaces the gauge algebra $sl(2, \mathbb{R}) \oplus sl(2, \mathbb{R})$ by $osp(1|4) \oplus osp(1|4)$, the bosonic subalgebra of which is $sp(4) \oplus sp(4)$. The resulting theory contains automatically gravity since $sl(2, \mathbb{R}) \subset sp(4)$.

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More precisely, one replaces the gauge algebra $sl(2, \mathbb{R}) \oplus sl(2, \mathbb{R})$ by $osp(1|4) \oplus osp(1|4)$, the bosonic subalgebra of which is $sp(4) \oplus sp(4)$. The resulting theory contains automatically gravity since $sl(2, \mathbb{R}) \subset sp(4)$.

The possibility to have a finite number of higher spin gauge fields is in contrast with $D > 3$ where one needs an infinite number of higher spin gauge fields to get a consistent theory. But what is the spin content?

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The spin-4 field decouples in the limit of zero cosmological constant, where one gets the theory of Aragone and Deser (1984).

Some conventions

Basis of $osp(1|4)$:

$$[L_i, L_j] = (i-j) L_{i+j},$$

$$[L_i, U_m] = (3i-m) U_{i+m},$$

$$[L_i, \mathcal{S}_p] = \left(\frac{3}{2}i-p\right) \mathcal{S}_{i+p},$$

$$[U_m, U_n] = \frac{1}{2^2 3} (m-n) \left((m^2 + n^2 - 4) \left(m^2 + n^2 - \frac{2}{3} mn - 9 \right) - \frac{2}{3} (mn - 6) mn \right) L_{m+n} \\ + \frac{1}{6} (m-n) (m^2 - mn + n^2 - 7) U_{m+n},$$

$$[U_m, \mathcal{S}_p] = \frac{1}{2^3 3} \left(2m^3 - 8m^2 p + 20mp^2 + 82p - 23m - 40p^3 \right) \mathcal{S}_{i+p},$$

$$\{\mathcal{S}_p, \mathcal{S}_q\} = U_{p+q} + \frac{1}{2^2 3} (6p^2 - 8pq + 6q^2 - 9) L_{p+q}.$$

Here L_i , with $i = 0, \pm 1$, stand for the spin-2 generators that span the gravitational $sl(2, \mathbb{R})$ subalgebra, while U_m and \mathcal{S}_p , with $m = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3$ and $p = \pm \frac{1}{2}, \pm \frac{3}{2}$, correspond to the spin-4 and fermionic spin- $\frac{5}{2}$ generators, respectively.

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The connection reads

$$A^+ = A_\mu^i L_i + B_\mu^m U_m + \psi_\mu^p \mathcal{S}_p$$

and a similar expression holds for A^- .

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$$g_{\mu\nu} \sim str(e_\mu e_\nu), \quad h_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma} \sim str(e_\mu e_\nu e_\rho e_\sigma) + a str(e_{(\mu} e_{\nu)}) str(e_\rho e_{\sigma)}),$$

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These interaction terms are not known in closed form. They can be constructed perturbatively.

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There is no known definition of a geometry that would be invariant under higher spin gauge symmetries.

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In particular, given a solution to the field equation, there is no known way to ascribe to it a well-defined causal structure.

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We shall come back to that question later.

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$$A_{\varphi}^{\pm}(r, \varphi) \xrightarrow{r \rightarrow \infty} L_{\pm 1} - \frac{2\pi}{k} \mathcal{L}^{\pm}(\varphi) L_{\mp 1} + O\left(\frac{1}{r}\right),$$

and

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Coussaert, Henneaux, van Driel 1995

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The “asymptotic symmetries” are those gauge transformations $\delta A_i^\pm = \partial_i \Lambda^\pm + [A_i^\pm, \Lambda^\pm]$ that preserve the boundary conditions, i.e., such that $A_i^\pm + \delta A_i^\pm$ fulfills also the boundary conditions.

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They are given by

$$\Lambda^\pm \xrightarrow{r \rightarrow \infty} \pm \epsilon_\pm(\varphi) \left(L_{\pm 1} - \frac{2\pi}{k} \mathcal{L}^\pm(\varphi) L_{\mp 1} \right) \\ \mp \epsilon'_\pm(\varphi) L_0 \pm \frac{1}{2} \epsilon''_\pm(\varphi) L_{\mp 1}$$

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The functions $\epsilon_\pm(\varphi)$ are arbitrary functions of φ and parametrize the asymptotic symmetries.

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Furthermore, one easily finds that the generators of the asymptotic symmetry algebra are given explicitly by the \mathcal{L}^\pm 's themselves (when the constraints hold) and read explicitly

$$Q_\pm[\epsilon_\pm] = \pm \int_{r \rightarrow \infty} \epsilon_\pm(\varphi) \mathcal{L}^\pm(\varphi) d\varphi$$

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and commute between themselves $[\mathcal{L}_m^+, \mathcal{L}_n^-]_{PB} = 0$ ($2D$ conformal algebra).

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and commute between themselves $[\mathcal{L}_m^+, \mathcal{L}_n^-]_{PB} = 0$ ($2D$ conformal algebra).

Thus, the Virasoro algebra emerges in the reduction procedure enforced by the AdS boundary conditions.

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The same asymptotic analysis can be performed for hypergravity.

One gets an enhancement of the asymptotic algebra, from the Virasoro algebra to the $W_{(2, \frac{5}{2}, 4)}$ -superalgebra, which contains the Virasoro generators but also generators of higher conformal weights.

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How does this proceed ?

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The same asymptotic analysis can be performed for hypergravity.

One gets an enhancement of the asymptotic algebra, from the Virasoro algebra to the $W_{(2, \frac{5}{2}, 4)}$ -superalgebra, which contains the Virasoro generators but also generators of higher conformal weights.

How does this proceed ?

Sugra : Henneaux, Maoz, Schwimmer (2000) ;

Higher spins : S.-J. Rey + MH (2010) ; A. Campoleoni, S.

Fredenhagen, S. Pfenninger, S. Theisen (2010)

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$$A_{\varphi}^{\pm}(r, \varphi) \xrightarrow{r \rightarrow \infty} L_{\pm 1} - \frac{2\pi}{k} \mathcal{L}^{\pm}(\varphi) L_{\mp 1} + \frac{\pi}{5k} \mathcal{U}^{\pm}(\varphi) U_{\mp 3} - \frac{2\pi}{k} \psi^{\pm}(\varphi) \mathcal{L}_{\mp \frac{3}{2}},$$

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Again, the non trivial fields $\mathcal{L}^{\pm}(\varphi)$, $\mathcal{U}^{\pm}(\varphi)$ and $\psi^{\pm}(\varphi)$ appear along the lowest (highest)-weight generators.

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Again, the non trivial fields $\mathcal{L}^{\pm}(\varphi)$, $\mathcal{U}^{\pm}(\varphi)$ and $\psi^{\pm}(\varphi)$ appear along the lowest (highest)-weight generators.

These boundary conditions are invariant under gauge transformations that are generated by

$$Q^{\pm}[\epsilon_{\pm}, \chi_{\pm}, \vartheta_{\pm}] = \pm \int d\varphi (\epsilon_{\pm} \mathcal{L}^{\pm} + \chi_{\pm} \mathcal{U}^{\pm} - i\vartheta_{\pm} \psi^{\pm}),$$

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with ϵ_{\pm} , χ_{\pm} and ϑ_{\pm} arbitrary functions of φ . The “charges” $\mathcal{L}^{\pm}(\varphi)$, $\mathcal{U}^{\pm}(\varphi)$ and $\psi^{\pm}(\varphi)$ form the $W_{(2, \frac{5}{2}, 4)}$ -superalgebra.

$W_{(2, \frac{5}{2}, 4)}$ -superalgebra

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$$i[L_m, L_n]_{PB} = (m-n)L_{m+n} + \frac{k}{2}m^3\delta_{m+n}^0,$$

$$i[L_m, U_n]_{PB} = (3m-n)U_{m+n},$$

$$i[L_m, \psi_n]_{PB} = \left(\frac{3}{2}m-n\right)\psi_{m+n},$$

$$i[U_m, U_n]_{PB} = \frac{1}{2^2 3^2} (m-n) \left(3m^4 - 2m^3 n + 4m^2 n^2 - 2mn^3 + 3n^4\right) L_{m+n}$$

$$+ \frac{1}{6} (m-n) \left(m^2 - mn + n^2\right) \mathcal{U}_{m+n} - \frac{2^3 3\pi}{k} (m-n) \Lambda_{m+n}^{(6)}$$

$$- \frac{7^2 \pi}{3^2 k} (m-n) \left(m^2 + 4mn + n^2\right) \Lambda_{m+n}^{(4)} + \frac{k}{2^3 3^2} m^7 \delta_{m+n}^0,$$

$$i[U_m, \psi_n]_{PB} = \frac{1}{2^2 3} \left(m^3 - 4m^2 n + 10mn^2 - 20n^3\right) \psi_{m+n} - \frac{23\pi}{3k} i\Lambda_{m+n}^{(11/2)}$$

$$+ \frac{\pi}{3k} (23m - 82n) \Lambda_{m+n}^{(9/2)},$$

$$i[\psi_m, \psi_n]_{PB} = U_{m+n} + \frac{1}{2} \left(m^2 - \frac{4}{3}mn + n^2\right) L_{m+n} + \frac{3\pi}{k} \Lambda_{m+n}^{(4)} + \frac{k}{6} m^4 \delta_{m+n}^0,$$

The generators \mathcal{U}_n, ψ_n have respective conformal weights 4 and $\frac{5}{2}$;
unchanged central charge $c = 6k = \frac{3\ell}{2G}$ (two copies).

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$$(2\pi)^{-1} (\hat{\psi}_0 \hat{\psi}_0 + \hat{\psi}_0 \hat{\psi}_0) = \frac{2}{2\pi} \hat{\psi}_0^2 = \mathcal{U} + \frac{3\pi}{k} \mathcal{L}^2 \geq 0.$$

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(The quantum $W(2, 5/2, 4)$ -superalgebra, with the unitarity conditions $L_m^\dagger = L_{-m}$, $U_m^\dagger = U_{-m}$, $\psi_m^\dagger = \psi_{-m}$ implied by the classical reality conditions, admits arbitrarily large values of the central charge.)

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This is a nonlinear bound.

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In the absence of a well-defined geometry, black holes and black hole thermodynamics are defined through the Euclidean continuation.

Gutperle, Kraus (2011) ; Ammon, Gutperle, Kraus, Perlmutter (2011, 2013)

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Carlip, Teitelboim (1995)

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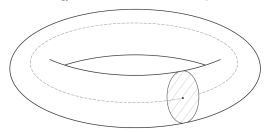
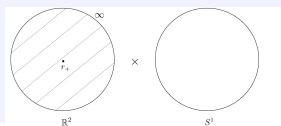
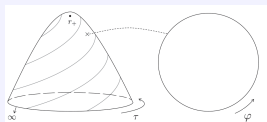
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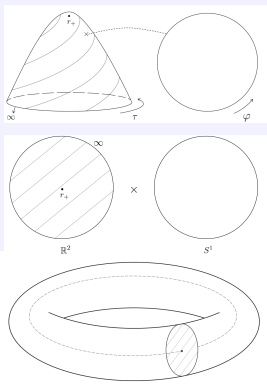
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The topology of the Euclidean black hole is a solid torus, $\mathbb{R}^2 \times S^1$. The “Euclidean horizon” r_+ is the origin of a system of polar coordinates r, τ in \mathbb{R}^2 . The Euclidean time τ is the polar angle. On the other hand, the S^1 is parametrized by the angle φ .

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More precisely :

The (Euclidean) black hole is the most general flat connection (with Euclidean version of the algebra) on a solid torus with no singularity, obeying the appropriate boundary conditions at infinity,

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The (Euclidean) black hole is the most general flat connection (with Euclidean version of the algebra) on a solid torus with no singularity, obeying the appropriate boundary conditions at infinity,

and allowing for a consistent thermodynamics (real entropy).

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One can derive the whole thermodynamics and in particular the below extremality condition (existence of a horizon) within the Chern-Simons formulation,

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One can derive the whole thermodynamics and in particular the below extremality condition (existence of a horizon) within the Chern-Simons formulation,

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This approach is crucial when higher spins are included, where there is no well-defined geometry.

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The hypergravity Euclidean black hole is then a flat $osp(1|4; \mathbb{C})$ -connection defined on the solid torus, obeying the above boundary conditions and regular everywhere, including at the origin r_+ .

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This is the generalization of absence of conical singularity at the horizon.

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This is the generalization of absence of conical singularity at the horizon.

Such solutions *exist*.

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$$A_\varphi = L_1 - \frac{2\pi}{k} \mathcal{L} L_{-1} + \frac{\pi}{5k} \mathcal{U} U_{-3},$$

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where \mathcal{L} and \mathcal{U} are now complex constants (related to the Lorentzian \mathcal{L}^\pm and \mathcal{U}^\pm) (mass, angular momentum and spin-4 charges).

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where \mathcal{L} and \mathcal{U} are now complex constants (related to the Lorentzian \mathcal{L}^\pm and \mathcal{U}^\pm) (mass, angular momentum and spin-4 charges).

The component A_τ along Euclidean time can be determined from the equations of motion and the boundary conditions, and involve two complex functions, ξ and μ ("chemical potentials").

The regularity condition (absence of conical singularity at the origin) determines ξ and μ in terms of the charges \mathcal{L} , \mathcal{U} .

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The Euclidean action gives the entropy
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The expressions are rather cumbersome but the derivation is
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One finds as extremality bounds $\mathcal{L}^\pm \geq 0$, $\frac{k}{3\pi} \mathcal{U}^\pm \leq \frac{2^4}{3^2} (\mathcal{L}^\pm)^2$ and

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One finds as extremality bounds $\mathcal{L}^\pm \geq 0$, $\frac{k}{3\pi} \mathcal{U}^\pm \leq \frac{2^4}{3^2} (\mathcal{L}^\pm)^2$ and

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The black holes that saturate this bound are extremal and
hypersymmetric (possess Killing vector-spinors).

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The question remains, however : can one define an invariant geometry in the presence of higher spin gauge fields ?

Another question is : can we account for all the bounds ?

One should consider more complete models that include supersymmetry, higher spin hypersymmetry. Perhaps one must go all the way to an infinite number of spins...