# Alexandrov's theorem in curved manifolds

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May 11, 2012

## The isoperimetric problem

Queen Dido's problem: Minimize the length among all embedded curves in the plane with a given enclosed area.

Generalize this to higher dimensions: Minimize the area of an embedded hypersurface in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  among all surfaces that enclose a given volume V.

**Theorem.** Round spheres are optimal for the isoperimetric problem. More precisely, if  $\Omega$  is a domain in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  satisfying  $\operatorname{vol}(\Omega) = \operatorname{vol}(B)$ , then  $|\partial \Omega| \geq |\partial B|$ .

Symmetrization techniques show that if a minimizer exists it must be a sphere. Existence of a minimizer is a non-trivial issue. A rigorous proof (based on Brunn-Minkowski inequality) was found in the 20th century.

### The first variation of surface area

Study the isoperimetric problem using the Calculus of Variations developed by Bernoulli, Euler, and others.

Consider a domain  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  with smooth boundary. Let X be a smooth vector field, and let  $\Omega_t = \varphi_t(\Omega)$ , where  $\varphi_t$  is the flow generated by X. Then

$$\frac{d}{dt} \operatorname{vol}(\Omega_t) \Big|_{t=0} = \int_{\partial \Omega} \langle X, \nu \rangle$$

and

$$\frac{d}{dt}|\partial\Omega_t|\Big|_{t=0} = \int_{\partial\Omega} H\langle X,\nu\rangle.$$

Here, H is the mean curvature of the surface  $\partial \Omega$  (can be viewed as an  $L^2$  gradient of the area functional). Note that  $H = \lambda_1 + \ldots + \lambda_{n-1}$  where the  $\lambda_i$ 's are the principal curvatures of  $\partial \Omega$  (i.e. the reciprocals of the curvature radii).

Surfaces with H = 0 are minimal surfaces (soap films). The catenoid in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  is the simplest example.

# Surfaces with constant mean curvature in Euclidean space

**Proposition.** Suppose that the first variation of area is zero for variations that leave the enclosed volume unchanged. Then the mean curvature of  $\partial \Omega$  is constant: H = c.

The constant c can be viewed as a Lagrange multiplier.

Problem: Analyze hypersurfaces in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with constant mean curvature.

**Theorem** (Alexandrov 1956). Let  $\Sigma$  be a hypersurface in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  which has constant mean curvature and is embedded (i.e. no self-intersections). Then  $\Sigma$  is a round sphere.

Wente, Kapouleas: There exist non-trivial examples of constant mean curvature surfaces, but these fail to be embedded. The proof of Alexandrov's theorem is based on the **method of moving planes**: Reflect  $\Sigma$ across a hyperplane *P*. Move the hyperplane *P* until the reflected surface touches the original surface  $\Sigma$ . The reflected surface must coincide with the original surface by the strict maximum principle.

# Surfaces with constant mean curvature in Riemannian manifolds

Replace the ambient space  $\mathbb{R}^n$  by a curved Riemannian manifold. This question is motivated in part by questions in relativity:

- Christodoulou, Yau (1986): Let  $\Sigma \approx S^2$ be a stable surface of constant mean curvature in a 3-manifold (M,g) with positive scalar curvature. Then  $\Sigma$  has nonnegative Hawking mass.
- Huisken, Yau (1996): Let (M,g) be an asymptotically flat 3-manifold which has positive mass (i.e. (M,g) looks Euclidean near infinity). Then (M,g) admits a foliation by constant mean curvature surfaces near infinity. Under mild extra assumptions, this foliation is unique.

- Qing-Tian, Eichmair-Metzger: Optimal uniqueness theorem for large surfaces of constant mean curvature.
- Rigger: Similar results hold when (M,g) is asymptotic to hyperbolic space near infinity. (This corresponds to a universe with negative cosmological constant.)

#### The Schwarzschild manifold

Recall: The Schwarzschild spacetime describes a static black hole in general relativity.

The Schwarzschild manifold is defined as a  $\{t = \text{constant}\}\$  slice in the Schwarzschild spacetime. The resulting manifold is  $M = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : |x| \ge 1\}$ , and the metric is given by

$$g = (1 + |x|^{2-n})^{\frac{4}{n-2}} (dx_1^2 + \ldots + dx_n^2).$$

Note that (M,g) is asymptotic to Euclidean space near infinity. The boundary  $\partial M = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : |x| = 1\}$  is a minimal surface and is referred to as the **horizon**.

# A version of Alexandrov's Theorem for the Schwarzschild manifold

Goal: Classify all surfaces of constant mean curvature in the Schwarzschild manifold (not just the ones near infinity).

**Theorem** (B. 2011). Let  $\Sigma$  be a closed, embedded, orientable surface in the Schwarzschild manifold with constant mean curvature. Then  $\Sigma$  is a sphere of symmetry, i.e.  $\Sigma = \{|x| = r\}$  for some constant r.

No assumptions on the topology of  $\Sigma$  or the dimension are needed. No stability assumptions are required.

#### Sketch of proof

Main difficulty: Method of moving planes no longer works!

New approach: Let  $M = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : |x| \ge 1\}$  and

$$g = (1 + |x|^{2-n})^{\frac{4}{n-2}} (dx_1^2 + \ldots + dx_n^2).$$

Consider the static potential

$$f = \frac{1 - |x|^{2-n}}{1 + |x|^{2-n}}$$

and the position vector field

$$X = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}.$$

Note that the (n + 1)-dimensional Lorentzian metric  $-f^2 dt^2 + g$  solves the **Einstein vacuum** equations! Moreover,  $D_i X_j = f g_{ij}$ , so X is conformal.

The main theorem is a consequence of the following proposition:

**Proposition.** Let  $\Sigma$  be a closed, embedded, orientable hypersurface with positive mean curvature. Then

$$(n-1)\int_{\Sigma} f d\mu = \int_{\Sigma} H \langle X, \nu \rangle d\mu$$

and

$$(n-1)\int_{\Sigma}\frac{f}{H}d\mu \geq \int_{\Sigma}\langle X,\nu\rangle\,d\mu.$$

Moreover, if equality holds then  $\Sigma$  is a sphere of symmetry.

The first statement follows from the divergence theorem. The second statement is related to a classical inequality of Heintze-Karcher. To prove it, we distinguish two cases:

**Case 1:**  $\Sigma$  is null-homologous.

**Case 2:**  $\Sigma$  is homologous to the horizon  $\partial M$ . We will focus here on Case 2, which is the more difficult one.

#### A geometric evolution equation

We claim:

$$(n-1)\int_{\Sigma}\frac{f}{H}d\mu \geq n\int_{\Omega}f+A(n).$$

Here,  $\Omega$  is the region bounded by  $\Sigma$  and the horizon  $\partial M$ . A(n) is a positive constant which reflects the contribution of the horizon.

**Idea of proof:** Deform the surface  $\Sigma$  with speed  $-f\nu$ , where  $\nu$  is the outward pointing unit normal. This gives a one-parameter family of surfaces  $\Sigma_t$ ,  $t \ge 0$ .

The evolution of the mean curvature is described by the equation

$$\frac{\partial H}{\partial t} = \Delta_{\Sigma} f + f \sum_{i} \lambda_{i}^{2} + f \operatorname{Ric}(\nu, \nu),$$

where the  $\lambda_i$ 's are the principal curvatures.

Key observation: Since the Lorentzian metric  $-f^2 dt^2 + g$  satisfies Einstein's equation, the potential f satisfies

$$(\Delta f) g - D^2 f + f \operatorname{Ric} = 0.$$

Hence, the evolution of the mean curvature becomes

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial H}{\partial t} &= \Delta_{\Sigma} f + f \sum_{i} \lambda_{i}^{2} + f \operatorname{Ric}(\nu, \nu) \\ &= \Delta f - (D^{2} f)(\nu, \nu) + f \operatorname{Ric}(\nu, \nu) \\ &- H \langle \nabla f, \nu \rangle + f \sum_{i} \lambda_{i}^{2} \\ &\geq -H \langle \nabla f, \nu \rangle + \frac{1}{n-1} f H^{2}. \end{aligned}$$

This allows us to show that the quantity

$$Q(t) = (n-1) \int_{\Sigma_t} \frac{f}{H} d\mu - n \int_{\Omega_t} f$$

is monotone decreasing!

We next analyze the limit of Q(t) as  $t \to \infty$ : For t large,  $\Sigma_t$  is close to the horizon, and we obtain

$$\limsup_{t\to\infty}\int_{\Sigma_t}\frac{f}{H}\,d\mu\geq A(n).$$

Consequently,

$$(n-1)\int_{\Sigma} \frac{f}{H}d\mu - n\int_{\Omega} f$$
  
= Q(0) \ge \lim\_{t \to \infty} \sup Q(t) \ge A(n),

completing the proof of the Theorem.

Concluding remarks:

- The surfaces Σ<sub>t</sub> sweep out a lightlike hypersurface in the Schwarzschild spacetime (i.e. the surfaces Σ<sub>t</sub> move with the speed of light).
- The surfaces  $\Sigma_t$  may not be smooth (due to focal points). To overcome this problem, approximate  $\Sigma_t$  by smooth surfaces.

# Constant mean curvature surfaces in warped product manifolds

Goal: Extend the previous analysis to more general spaces with rotational symmetry.

Consider a metric of the form  $g = dr^2 + h(r)^2 g_{S^{n-1}}$ . Assume that the warping function  $h : [0, \overline{r}) \to \mathbb{R}$ satisfies the following structure conditions:

(H1) 
$$h'(0) = 0$$
 and  $h''(0) > 0$ .

(H2) h'(r) > 0.

(H3) The scalar curvature of g is monotone decreasing in r.

**Theorem** (B. 2011). Let (M,g) be a rotationally symmetric manifold satisfying conditions (H1)-(H3). Moreover, let  $\Sigma$  be a closed, embedded, orientable hypersurface in (M,g) with constant mean curvature. Then  $\Sigma$  is umbilic. This theorem applies, inter alia, to Euclidean space, hyperbolic space, the hemisphere, and the Schwarzschild manifold. The result also applies to the DeSitter-Schwarzschild and Anti-DeSitter-Schwarzschild manifolds (non-zero cosmological constant).

Conversely, Alexandrov's theorem fails if the scalar curvature is not monotone in r:

**Theorem** (F. Pacard, X. Xu). Let g be a smooth metric on the ball  $B_{\overline{r}}(0) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  which is rotationally symmetric. Assume that the scalar curvature of g has a strict local extremum somewhere in  $B_{\overline{r}}(0)$ . Then there exist small spheres with constant mean curvature which are not umbilic.

Therefore, our result is essentially optimal.

## Minimal surfaces in the sphere $S^3$

We will now discuss a different (though related) problem:

Consider the three-dimensional unit sphere in  $\ensuremath{\mathbb{R}^4}$  :

 $S^3 = \{(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) \in \mathbb{R}^4 : x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 + x_4^2 = 1\}.$ Note: While there are no closed minimal surfaces in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , the topology of  $S^3$  allows **closed minimal surfaces**. Examples of minimal surfaces in  $S^3$ :

- The equator  $\{(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) \in \mathbb{R}^4 : x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 + x_4^2 = 1, x_4 = 0\}.$
- The Clifford torus  $\{(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) \in \mathbb{R}^4 : x_1^2 + x_2^2 = x_3^2 + x_4^2 = \frac{1}{2}\}.$

Examples of minimal surfaces in  $S^3$ :

- H.B. Lawson, Jr. (1970): Given any positive integer g, there exists an embedded minimal surface in  $S^3$  with genus g.
- Karcher, Pinkall, and Sterling (1988): Examples of embedded minimal surfaces in  $S^3$  with genus 3, 5, 6, 7, 11, 19, 73, and 601.
- Further examples constructed recently by Kapouleas-Yang (doubling construction).

Moreover, Lawson has constructed an infinite family of immersed minimal tori in  $S^3$ . These surfaces have self-intersections.

### The Lawson Conjecture

Motivation: Minimal  $S^2$ 's in  $S^3$  are unique.

**Theorem** (Almgren 1966). Let  $\Sigma \approx S^2$  be an immersed minimal surface in  $S^3$ . Then  $\Sigma$  is congruent to the equator.

It turns out that minimal tori in  $S^3$  are unique as well:

**Theorem** (B. 2012). The Clifford torus is the only embedded minimal torus in  $S^3$ .

This answers a question posed by H.B. Lawson, Jr., in 1970.

Proof of Lawson's conjecture involves an application of the maximum principle to a function which depends on a **pair of points**.

## Proof of Lawson's conjecture (sketch)

Let  $F: \Sigma \to S^3$  be an embedded minimal torus and let  $\nu : \Sigma \to S^3$  denote the unit normal vector field. We claim that F parametrizes the Clifford torus. Since F is minimal, the sum of the principal curvatures is 0 at each point. If both principal curvatures vanish at x, we say that x is an umbilic point.

Key idea: A minimal torus in  $S^3$  has no umbilic points. Consequently, the ratio

$$Q(x,y) = \sqrt{2} \frac{\langle \nu(x), F(y) \rangle}{|A(x)| (1 - \langle F(x), F(y) \rangle)}$$

is finite!

Consider a pair of points  $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$  where Q(x, y) is maximal. At the point  $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$ , the first derivatives of Q vanish, and the second derivatives form a negative definite matrix.

#### Proof of Lawson's conjecture (continued)

An intricate calculation shows that  $Q(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) \leq 1$ . Thus,  $Q(x, y) \leq 1$  for all points  $x, y \in \Sigma$ . An analogous argument gives  $Q(x, y) \geq -1$  for all points  $x, y \in \Sigma$ .

On the other hand, if the gradient of the curvature is non-zero, we can arrange that |Q(x,y)| > 1 where x, y are very close to each other. Since  $|Q(x,y)| \leq 1$  for all points  $x, y \in \Sigma$ , the curvature must be constant. This implies that  $\Sigma$  is the Clifford torus.