

## ON THE LOCAL SOLVABILITY OF DARBOUX'S EQUATION

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ABSTRACT. We reduce the question of local nonsolvability of the Darboux equation, and hence of the isometric embedding problem for surfaces, to the local nonsolvability of a simple linear equation whose type is explicitly determined by the Gaussian curvature.

Let  $(M^2, g)$  be a two-dimensional Riemannian manifold. A well-known problem is to ask, when can one realize this locally as a small piece of a surface in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ ? That is, if the metric  $g = g_{ij}dx^i dx^j$  is given in the neighborhood of a point, say  $(x^1, x^2) = 0$ , when do there exist functions  $z_\alpha(x^1, x^2)$ ,  $\alpha = 1, 2, 3$ , defined in a possibly smaller domain such that  $g = dz_1^2 + dz_2^2 + dz_3^2$ ? This equation may be written in local coordinates as the following determined system

$$\sum_{\alpha=1}^3 \frac{\partial z_\alpha}{\partial x^i} \frac{\partial z_\alpha}{\partial x^j} = g_{ij}.$$

Due to its severe degeneracy, in the sense that every direction happens to be a characteristic direction, little information has been obtained by studying this system directly. However a more successful approach has been to reduce this system to the following single equation of Monge-Ampère type, known as the Darboux equation:

$$\det \nabla_{ij} z = K|g|(1 - |\nabla_g z|^2) \quad (1)$$

where  $\nabla_{ij}$  are second covariant derivatives,  $K$  is the Gaussian curvature,  $\nabla_g$  is the gradient with respect to  $g$ , and  $|g| = \det g$ . In fact, the local isometric embedding problem is equivalent to the local solvability of this equation (see the appendix).

Let us first recall the known results. Since equation (1) is elliptic if  $K > 0$ , hyperbolic if  $K < 0$ , and of mixed type if  $K$  changes sign, the manner in which  $K$  vanishes will play the primary role in the hypotheses of any result. The classical results state that a solution always exists in the case that  $g$  is analytic or  $K(0) \neq 0$ ; these results may be found in [4]. C.-S. Lin provides an affirmative answer in [10] and [11] when  $g$  is sufficiently smooth and satisfies  $K \geq 0$ , or  $K(0) = 0$  and  $\nabla K(0) \neq 0$ . When  $K \leq 0$  and  $\nabla K$  possesses a certain nondegeneracy, Han, Hong, and Lin [5] show that a smooth solution always exists if  $g$  is smooth. Lastly if the Gaussian curvature vanishes to finite order and the zero set  $K^{-1}(0)$  consists of Lipschitz curves intersecting transversely, then Han and the author [6] have proven

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2000 *Mathematics Subject Classification.* Primary: 35M10, 53A05; Secondary: 53B20.

*Key words and phrases.* Local Solvability, Monge-Ampère Equations, Isometric Embeddings.

The author is partially supported by NSF Grant DMS-0707086 and a Sloan Research Fellowship.

the existence of smooth solutions if  $g$  is smooth. Related results may be found in [1], [2], [3], [7], [8].

A negative result has been obtained by Pogorelov [13] (see also [12]), who found a  $C^{2,1}$  metric with no local  $C^2$  isometric embedding in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . More recently, the author [9] has constructed  $C^\infty$  examples of degenerate hyperbolic and mixed type Monge-Ampère equations of the form

$$\det(\partial_{ij}z + a_{ij}(p, z, \nabla z)) = k(p, z, \nabla z) \quad (2)$$

which do not admit a local solution, where  $p = (x^1, x^2)$  and  $\partial_{ij}$  denote second partial derivatives. A fundamental part of the strategy in [9] is to reduce the local nonsolvability of (2), to the local nonsolvability of a quasilinear equation whose type is explicitly determined by the function  $k$ . It is the purpose of this article to show that the Darboux equation possesses a similar property for a large class of Gaussian curvatures.

We begin by partially constructing the Gaussian curvature. Here we will denote the coordinates  $x^1$  and  $x^2$  by  $x$  and  $y$  respectively. Define sequences of disjoint open squares  $\{X^n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  and  $\{X_1^n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  whose sides are aligned with the  $x$  and  $y$ -axes, and such that  $X^n$ , and  $X_1^n$  are centered at  $q_n = (\frac{1}{n}, 0)$ ,  $X^n \subset X_1^n$ , and  $X^n, X_1^n$  have widths  $\frac{1}{2n(n+1)}, \frac{1}{n(n+1)}$ , respectively. Set  $K \equiv 0$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2 - \bigcup_{n=1}^\infty X_1^n$ . Define

$$X = \{(x, y) \mid |x| < 1, |y| < 1\}$$

and let  $\phi \in C^\infty(\overline{X})$  be such that  $\phi$  vanishes to infinite order on  $\partial X$ , and either  $\phi(q) > 0$  or  $\phi(q) < 0$  for all  $q \in X$  (here  $\overline{X}$  denotes the closure of  $X$ ). We now define  $K$  in  $X^n$  by

$$K(q) = \gamma_n \phi(4n(n+1)(q - q_n)), \quad q \in \overline{X}^n,$$

where  $\{\gamma_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  is a sequence of positive numbers that are to be chosen with the property that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \gamma_n = 0$  in order to insure that  $K \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^2)$ . A description of how  $K$  should be prescribed in the remaining region  $\bigcup_{n=1}^\infty (X_1^n - X^n)$  shall be given below.

**Theorem 1.** *Suppose that  $K$  adheres to the description given above, and that a local  $C^5$  solution  $z$  of the Darboux equation exists in a domain containing the origin. Then in a neighborhood of a point on  $\partial X^n$  for some  $n$  sufficiently large, there exists a  $C^2$  function  $u$  constructed from  $z$  which after an appropriate change of coordinates satisfies the equation*

$$\partial_{tt}u + K \partial_{ss}u = Kf, \quad (3)$$

where  $f \in C^0$  also depends on  $z$  and is strictly positive.

This theorem suggests a strategy for constructing smooth counterexamples to the local solvability of the Darboux equation, or equivalently the local isometric embedding problem. Namely, complete the construction of a smooth Gaussian curvature function in the region  $\bigcup_{n=1}^\infty (X_1^n - X^n)$ , in such a way that the linear equation (3) can have no local solution. Whether this is possible is still an open question, however as pointed out above, a similar strategy was successfully employed for the related Monge-Ampère equation (2). Note that in order for this strategy to be utilized for the Darboux equation, it must be shown that given a smooth function  $K$  there always exists a locally defined smooth metric  $g$  having Gaussian curvature  $K$ . This may be accomplished in the following way. Let  $\Omega$  be a neighborhood of

the origin, and let  $G \in C^\infty(\Omega)$  be the unique solution of the equation

$$\partial_{xx}G + KG = 0, \quad G(0, y) = 1, \quad \partial_x G(0, y) = 0.$$

By choosing  $\Omega$  sufficiently small we have that  $G > 0$ . Then

$$g = dx^2 + G^2 dy^2$$

is a smooth Riemannian metric and has Gaussian curvature  $K$  in the domain  $\Omega$ .

The first step in verifying Theorem 1, will be to show that certain second covariant derivatives of any solution of (1) cannot vanish on  $\partial X^n$  for  $n$  sufficiently large. Suppose that a local solution  $z \in C^2$  of (1) exists, so that upon rewriting the equation we have

$$b^{ij} \nabla_{ij} z = 2K(1 - |\nabla_g z|^2), \tag{4}$$

where the Einstein summation convention concerning raised and lowered indices has been used (this convention will also be utilized in what follows) and

$$(b^{ij}) = |g|^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} \nabla_{22} z & -\nabla_{12} z \\ -\nabla_{12} z & \nabla_{11} z \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then integrating by parts yields

$$\int_{X^n} b^{ij} \nabla_{ij} z d\omega_g = - \int_{X^n} \nabla_j z \nabla_i b^{ij} d\omega_g + \int_{\partial X^n} b^{ij} n_i \nabla_j z d\sigma_g, \tag{5}$$

where  $d\omega_g$  and  $d\sigma_g$  are the elements of area and length with respect to  $g$ , and  $(n_1, n_2)$  is the unit outer normal to  $\partial X^n$  also with respect to  $g$ . In order to calculate the interior term on the right-hand side we note that  $b^{ij}$  is a contravariant 2-tensor, so that

$$\nabla_i b^{ij} = \partial_i b^{ij} + \Gamma_{il}^i b^{lj} + \Gamma_{il}^j b^{il}$$

where  $\Gamma_{ij}^l$  are Christoffel symbols. Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_i b^{i1} &= |g|^{-1} (\partial_1 \nabla_{22} z - \partial_2 \nabla_{12} z) + |g|^{-2} (-\partial_1 |g| \nabla_{22} z + \partial_2 |g| \nabla_{12} z) \\ &\quad + |g|^{-3/2} (\partial_1 |g|^{1/2} \nabla_{22} z - \partial_2 |g|^{1/2} \nabla_{12} z) + \Gamma_{il}^1 b^{il} \\ &= |g|^{-1} (\partial_1 \nabla_{22} z - \partial_2 \nabla_{12} z + |g| \Gamma_{ij}^1 b^{ij}) - \Gamma_{ij}^i b^{j1}, \end{aligned}$$

after making use of the identity

$$\Gamma_{ij}^i = |g|^{-1/2} \partial_j |g|^{1/2}.$$

Moreover direct computation shows that

$$\begin{aligned} &\partial_1 \nabla_{22} z - \partial_2 \nabla_{12} z + |g| \Gamma_{ij}^1 b^{ij} \\ &= -\Gamma_{j2}^j \partial_{12} z + \Gamma_{j1}^j \partial_{22} z \\ &\quad + (\partial_2 \Gamma_{12}^i - \partial_1 \Gamma_{22}^i - \Gamma_{11}^1 \Gamma_{22}^i + 2\Gamma_{12}^1 \Gamma_{12}^i - \Gamma_{22}^1 \Gamma_{11}^i) \partial_i z \\ &= |g| (\Gamma_{j2}^j b^{12} + \Gamma_{j1}^j b^{11}) \\ &\quad + (\partial_2 \Gamma_{12}^i - \partial_1 \Gamma_{22}^i - \Gamma_{11}^1 \Gamma_{22}^i + 2\Gamma_{12}^1 \Gamma_{12}^i - \Gamma_{22}^1 \Gamma_{11}^i - \Gamma_{j2}^j \Gamma_{12}^i + \Gamma_{j1}^j \Gamma_{22}^i) \partial_i z, \end{aligned}$$

and we observe that the coefficient of  $\partial_i z$  is in fact a curvature term. More precisely, if it is denoted by  $\chi^i$  then

$$\chi^i = \partial_2 \Gamma_{12}^i - \partial_1 \Gamma_{22}^i + \Gamma_{12}^j \Gamma_{j2}^i - \Gamma_{22}^j \Gamma_{j1}^i = -R_{212}^i = -g^{i1} |g| K$$

where  $R_{jkl}^i$  is the Riemann tensor. We now have

$$\partial_1 \nabla_{22} z - \partial_2 \nabla_{12} z + |g| \Gamma_{ij}^1 b^{ij} = |g| (\Gamma_{j2}^j b^{12} + \Gamma_{j1}^j b^{22} - g^{i1} K \partial_i z)$$

so that

$$\nabla_i b^{i1} = -Kz^1. \tag{6}$$

Similarly

$$\nabla_i b^{i2} = -Kz^2. \tag{7}$$

With the help of (4), (6), and (7) it follows that (5) becomes

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{X^n} K(2 - 3|\nabla_g z|^2) d\omega_g \\ &= \int_{\partial X^n} |g|^{-1/2} [(\nabla_1 z \nabla_{22} z - \nabla_2 z \nabla_{12} z) \bar{n}_1 + (\nabla_2 z \nabla_{11} z - \nabla_1 z \nabla_{12} z) \bar{n}_2] d\sigma, \end{aligned} \tag{8}$$

where  $(\bar{n}_1, \bar{n}_2)$  is the Euclidean unit outer normal to  $\partial X^n$  and  $d\sigma$  is the Euclidean element of length.

The integral equality (8) will now be used to show that certain second covariant derivatives of any solution of the Darboux equation cannot vanish on  $\partial X^n$  for  $n$  sufficiently large. Let  $-v_n, +v_n$  represent the left and right vertical portions of  $\partial X^n$ , respectively, and let  $+h_n, -h_n$  represent the top and bottom horizontal portions of  $\partial X^n$ , respectively.

**Lemma 2.** *Suppose that  $K$  satisfies the hypotheses of Theorem 1. Then it is not possible for a  $C^2$  solution  $z$  of (1) to satisfy the following property for any  $n$  sufficiently large:*

$$\nabla_{22} z|_{\pm v_n} = 0, \quad \nabla_{11} z|_{\pm h_n} = 0. \tag{9}$$

*Proof.* We proceed by contradiction and assume that property (9) holds. Then since  $K|_{\partial X^n} = 0$ , the Darboux equation implies that  $\nabla_{12} z|_{\partial X^n} = 0$ . Therefore the right-hand side of (8) vanishes. However this yields a contradiction, as the left-hand side is nonzero for large  $n$ . To see this last fact observe that according to the appendix, any solution of the Darboux equation yields an isometric embedding  $F = (z_1, z_2, z)$  of the metric  $g$ . So that by performing an appropriate rigid body motion of this embedding, to obtain  $\bar{F} = AF$  where  $A$  is an orthogonal matrix, we can ensure that the new third component  $\bar{z}$  of  $\bar{F}$  satisfies  $|\nabla \bar{z}|(0, 0) = 0$ . Furthermore the appendix also shows that  $\bar{z}$  must satisfy the Darboux equation, and so we have  $2 - 3|\nabla_g \bar{z}|^2 > 1$  inside  $X^n$  if  $n$  is chosen sufficiently large. Therefore since  $K$  never vanishes on  $X^n$ , integral equality (8) yields a contradiction.  $\square$

In light of Lemma 2, there must exist a point  $p \in \partial X^n$  at which one of the given second covariant derivatives is nonzero. As arguments similar to those presented below may be applied if  $p \in -v_n$  or  $p \in \pm h_n$ , we assume without loss of generality that  $p \in +v_n$  so that  $\nabla_{22} z(p) \neq 0$ . It follows that after a change of coordinates near  $p$ , a solution  $u$  of equation (3) may be constructed. The following lemma will complete the proof of Theorem 1.

**Lemma 3.** *Suppose that there exists a  $C^5$  solution  $z$  of the Darboux equation satisfying  $\nabla_{22} z(p) \neq 0$ . Then there exists a  $C^3$  local change of coordinates near  $p = (p^1, p^2)$  given by*

$$t = x - p^1, \quad s = s(x, y),$$

and a  $C^2$  solution  $u$  of the equation

$$\partial_{tt} u + K \partial_{ss} u = K f,$$

where  $f \in C^0$  and is strictly positive if  $n$  is sufficiently large.

*Proof.* The desired coordinates  $(t, s)$  will be chosen to eliminate the mixed second covariant derivative appearing in (4). Since  $b^{ij}$  is a contravariant 2-tensor, under a coordinate change  $\bar{x}^i = \bar{x}^i(x^1, x^2)$  it transforms by

$$\bar{b}^{ij} = b^{lm} \frac{\partial \bar{x}^i}{\partial x^l} \frac{\partial \bar{x}^j}{\partial x^m}.$$

Therefore by setting  $t = \bar{x}^1 = x - p^1$ , we seek  $s = \bar{x}^2$  such that

$$\bar{b}^{12} = b^{11} \partial_x s + b^{12} \partial_y s = 0, \quad s(p^1, y) = cy, \tag{10}$$

where  $c$  is a nonzero constant to be determined. Observe that since  $b^{11} = |g|^{-1} \nabla_{22} z \neq 0$  near  $p$ , the line  $x = p^1$  is noncharacteristic for (10). Thus the theory of first order partial differential equations guarantees the existence of a unique local solution  $s \in C^3$ , in light of the fact that  $b^{11}, b^{12} \in C^3$ .

We now calculate each of the new coefficients for the Darboux equation. First note that  $\bar{b}^{11} = b^{11}$ , and with the help of (10)

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{b}^{22} &= b^{11} (\partial_x s)^2 + 2b^{12} \partial_x s \partial_y s + b^{22} (\partial_y s)^2 \\ &= (b^{11})^{-1} (\partial_y s)^2 \det b^{ij} \\ &= (|g| b^{11})^{-1} (\partial_y s)^2 K (1 - |\nabla_g z|^2). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore in the new coordinates Darboux's equation (4) is given by

$$b^{11} \bar{\nabla}_{11} z + K \bar{f} \bar{\nabla}_{22} z = 2K (1 - |\nabla_g z|^2), \tag{11}$$

where  $\bar{\nabla}_{ij}$  denote covariant derivatives with respect to the new coordinates  $(t, s)$  and

$$\bar{f} = (|g| b^{11})^{-1} (\partial_y s)^2 (1 - |\nabla_g z|^2).$$

Notice that if we choose

$$c = b^{11} |g|^{1/2} (1 - |\nabla_g z|^2)^{-1/2}(p),$$

then  $(b^{11})^{-1} \bar{f}(p) = 1$ . Moreover by setting

$$u(t, s) = z(t, s) - \int_0^t \left( \int_0^{t'} (\bar{\Gamma}_{11}^1 \partial_t z + \bar{\Gamma}_{11}^2 \partial_s z)(t'', s) dt'' \right) dt'$$

we have  $\partial_{tt} u = \bar{\nabla}_{11} z$ , so that (11) becomes

$$\partial_{tt} u + K \partial_{ss} u = K f$$

with

$$f = (b^{11})^{-1} [2(1 - |\nabla_g z|^2) + (\bar{f}(p) - \bar{f}) \bar{\nabla}_{22} z] + \bar{\Gamma}_{22}^1 \partial_t z + \bar{\Gamma}_{22}^2 \partial_s z + \partial_{ss}(u - z).$$

Lastly we observe that  $f(t, s) > 0$  in a sufficiently small neighborhood of  $p$  if  $n$  is large, since as in the proof of Lemma 2 we may assume that  $|\nabla z|(0, 0) = 0$ .  $\square$

### Appendix

Here we show that the local isometric embedding problem is equivalent to the local solvability of the Darboux equation (1). Assume that there exists a local  $C^2$  embedding  $F = (z_1, z_2, z_3)$  for a given metric  $g$ . Then according to the Gauss equations

$$\nabla_{ij} F = h_{ij} \nu,$$

where  $h_{ij}$  are the components of the second fundamental form with respect to a unit normal  $\nu$ . Then by taking the Euclidean inner product of this equation with the vector  $\vec{k} = (0, 0, 1)$ , we obtain

$$\det \nabla_{ij} z = K |g| (\nu \cdot \vec{k})^2$$

where for convenience we denote  $z_3$  by  $z$ . Furthermore, if  $\times$  represents the cross product operation between two vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  then

$$(\nu \cdot \vec{k})^2 = 1 - \left| \frac{(\partial_1 F \times \partial_2 F) \times \vec{k}}{|\partial_1 F \times \partial_2 F|} \right|^2 = 1 - g^{ij} \partial_i z \partial_j z = 1 - |\nabla_g z|^2,$$

where  $g^{ij}$  are components of the inverse matrix  $(g_{ij})^{-1}$ . Clearly the remaining two components of  $F$  must also satisfy equation (1). Conversely, if a local solution of (1) exists for a given metric  $g$  and  $|\nabla_g z| < 1$ , then a calculation shows that  $g - dz^2$  is a Riemannian metric and is flat. It follows that there exists a local change of coordinates  $z_1 = z_1(x^1, x^2)$ ,  $z_2 = z_2(x^1, x^2)$  such that  $g - dz^2 = dz_1^2 + dz_2^2$ .

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Received July 2008; revised June 2009.

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