# Cubic minimal cones and Jordan algebras 

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(2) Cubic minimal cones
(3) Cubic Jordan algebras
(4) Non-calssical solutions

## Entire solutions

## Bernstein's theorem, 1916

Any solution $u\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$ of the minimal surface equation ( $=\mathrm{MSE}$ )

$$
\begin{aligned}
H[u] & :=\Delta u+\Delta_{1} u \\
& =\left(1+|D u|^{2}\right) \Delta u-\frac{1}{2} D u \cdot\left(D|D u|^{2}\right)=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

defined in the whole $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ is an affine function: $u(x)=\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{a}+b$.

Here $H(u)$ stands for the mean curvature operator and

$$
\Delta_{p} u:=|D u|^{2} \Delta u+\frac{p-2}{2} D u \cdot D|D u|^{2}
$$

is the $p$-Laplace operator.

## Entire solutions

The "Bernstein property" (=B.P.) for $n \geq 3$

- W.H. Fleming (1962) and E. De Giorgi (1965): to prove the B.P. for solutions in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ is sufficed to check that no non-trivial minimal cones existed in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$.
$\checkmark$ There are no minimal cones in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ for $n \leq 7$ : Fleming $n=3$ (1962), F.J. Almgren $n=4$ (1966), and J. Simons $n \leq 7$ (1968).
- In 1969, E. Bombieri, E. De Giorgi and E. Giusti found the first non-affine entire solution of the minimal surface equation

$$
\left(1+|D u|^{2}\right) \Delta u-\frac{1}{2} D u \cdot\left(D|D u|^{2}\right)=0, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^{8}
$$

The construction heavily depends on certain properties of the quadratic minimal (Clifford-Simons) cones over $\mathbb{S}^{3} \times \mathbb{S}^{3}$, namely

$$
\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{4} \times \mathbb{R}^{4}:|x|^{2}-|y|^{2}=0\right\}
$$

- More examples in $\mathbb{R}^{n}, n \geq 8$, were found by L. Simon (1989).
- There is no explicit representation available for the constructed examples.


## Some important questions

- Why 8 ?
- Is it possible to provide any explicit entire (non-affine) solution of MSE?
- Are there any polynomial solutions of MSE?


## Some more motivations

Doubly and triply periodic examples in the Minkowski space-times $\mathbb{R}^{1,2}$ and $\mathbb{R}^{1,3}$ due to V. Sergienko and V.Tk. (2001), and J. Hoppe (1995), resp.

## A fourfold periodic minimal hypersurface in $\mathbb{R}^{4}$, V.Tk. (2008)

Let $s(x): \mathbb{R} \rightarrow[-1,1]$ be the Jacobi sinus of modulus $\sqrt{-1}$, i.e. $s^{\prime 2}(t)=1-s^{4}(t)$, $s(t+\omega)=-s(t)$, where $\omega=\frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^{2}}{2 \sqrt{2 \pi}}$. Then

$$
M=\left\{x=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{4}: s\left(x_{1}\right) s\left(x_{2}\right)-s\left(x_{3}\right) s\left(x_{4}\right)=0\right\}
$$

is an embedded minimal 4-periodic minimal hypersurface in $\mathbb{R}^{4}$ with isolated Clifford cone type singularities at the vertices of a periodic lattice $\Lambda$ :

$$
x_{1} x_{2}-x_{3} x_{4}=0 \quad \text { or } \quad x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}=x_{3}^{2}+x_{4}^{2}
$$

Let $\Gamma \subset O(4)$ be the stabilizer of $\Lambda$. Then $M$ is $\Gamma$-invariant.
Remark. The proof uses the following Jacobi sinus function identity:
$S(A x)=Q(x) S(x+h \omega), \quad h=\frac{1}{2}(1,1,1,1) \in \mathbb{R}^{4}$
where $Q(x) \neq 0$ is bounded in $\mathbb{R}^{4}$ and

$$
S(x)=s\left(x_{1}\right) s\left(x_{2}\right)-s\left(x_{3}\right) s\left(x_{4}\right) .
$$

- embedded minimal hypersurfaces in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ with conic singularities;
- minimal hypersurfaces in the spheres;
- searching for explicit entire solutions of MSE;


## Eigencubics

Suppose $u$ is a homogeneous polynomial, $\operatorname{deg} u=k \geq 2$ then the cone $u^{-1}(0)$ is minimal if and only if $u$ divides $\Delta_{1} u$, i.e.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta_{1} u=|D u|^{2} \Delta u-\frac{1}{2} D u \cdot\left(D|D u|^{2}\right) \equiv 0 \quad \bmod u \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

## W. Hsiang, J. Diff. Geom., 1(1967)

Problem 1. How does one classify irreducible minimal cubic forms in $n$ variables, $n \geq 4$, with respect to the natural action of $O(n))$ ? Or we may ask a weaker question, namely, whether there are always irreducible minimal cubic forms in $n$ variables for all $n \geq 4$.
[...] For example, it is very difficult to classify irreducible cubic forms in $n$ variables such that

$$
\Delta_{1} u=|D u|^{2} \Delta u-\frac{1}{2} D u \cdot\left(D|D u|^{2}\right)=\lambda|x|^{2} u(x) .
$$

Problem 2. For a given dimension $n, n \geq 4$, are there irreducible homogeneous polynomials in $n$ real variables of arbitrary high degree, which give minimal cones of codimension one in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ ? Or, if the degree is bounded, how does one express the bound in terms of $n$ ?

Problem 3. Are there any closed minimal submanifolds of codimension one in $\mathbb{S}^{m}$ which are not algebraic? Or, if possible, show that every closed minimal submanifold of codimension one in $\mathbb{S}^{m}$ is algebraic.

## Definition

A polynomial solution of $\Delta_{1} u \equiv 0 \bmod u$ is called an eigenfunction. An eigenfunction of $\operatorname{deg} u=3$ is called an eigencubic.
A solution of $\Delta_{1} u(x)=\lambda|x|^{2} \cdot u$ is called a radial eigencubic.

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A solution of $\Delta_{1} u(x)=\lambda|x|^{2} \cdot u$ is called a radial eigencubic.

- any linear function is an eigenfunction of $\Delta_{1}$;
- the only quadratic eigenfunctions are

$$
u(x)=(q-1)\left(x_{1}^{2}+\ldots+x_{p}^{2}\right)-(p-1)\left(x_{p+1}^{2}+\ldots+x_{n}^{2}\right), \quad p+q=n
$$

- in degree $k \geq 3$ the main difficulty is the absence of any normal form;
- some eigenfunctions of $\operatorname{deg} u=3,4,6$ sporadically distributed in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ were found in 1960s-1970s.

In what follows, we always suppose that $\operatorname{deg} u=3$.

Remark. Observe that two cubic forms $u_{1}$ and $u_{2}$ produces two congruent cones in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ if and only if they are congruent, i.e.

$$
u_{2}(x)=C \cdot u_{1}(O x), \quad O \in O(n)
$$

## Hsiang's trick

Let $\mathfrak{G}^{\prime}(k, \mathbb{R})$ be the real vector space of quadratic forms of $k$ real variables with trace zero:

$$
\mathfrak{G}^{\prime}(k, \mathbb{R}) \cong \operatorname{Herm}_{k}^{\prime}(\mathbb{R}) \cong \quad \mathbb{R}^{N}, \quad \text { where } N:=\frac{(k-1)(k+2)}{2}
$$

- $\mathfrak{G}^{\prime}(k, \mathbb{R})$ is invariant under action of $O(k)$ as substitutions
- $\operatorname{det}(x+\lambda \mathbf{1})=\lambda^{k}+b_{2}(x) \lambda^{k-2}+\ldots+b_{k}(x)$ is a basic $O(k)$-invariant:

$$
\mathbb{R}\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right]^{O(k)}=\mathbb{R}\left[b_{2}, \ldots, b_{k}\right]
$$

- it is well-known that $\Delta_{1}$ is $O(N)$-invariant; in particular, if $u$ is an invariant polynomial with respect to $O(k) \hookrightarrow O(N)$, then so also is $\Delta_{1} u$, therefore

$$
\Delta_{1}: \mathbb{R}\left[b_{2}, \ldots, b_{k}\right] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\left[b_{2}, \ldots, b_{k}\right]
$$

- in view of $\operatorname{deg} \Delta_{1} b_{3}=5$ one has

$$
\Delta_{1} b_{3}=c_{1} \cdot b_{2} b_{3}+c_{2} \cdot b_{5}
$$

and it follows that for $k \leq 4$

$$
\Delta_{1} b_{3}=c_{1} b_{2} \cdot b_{3},
$$

i.e. $b_{3}$ is an eigenfunction!

## Hsiang's trick: $k=3$

For $k=3$ one also has $\operatorname{deg} \Delta b_{3}=1$ and $\operatorname{deg}\left|D b_{3}\right|^{2}=4$, hence

$$
\left|D b_{3}\right|^{2}=c_{3} b_{2}^{2}=c_{3}|x|^{4} \quad \text { and } \quad \Delta b_{3}=0
$$

## É. Cartan (1938)

The only cubic polynomial solutions of

$$
\begin{equation*}
|D u(x)|^{2}=9|x|^{4}, \quad \Delta u(x)=0 \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

are

$$
u_{d}(x):=\frac{3 \sqrt{3}}{2} \operatorname{det}\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
x_{2}-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} x_{1} & \bar{z}_{1} & \bar{z}_{2}  \tag{3}\\
z_{1} & -x_{2}-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} x_{1} & \bar{z}_{3} \\
z_{2} & z_{3} & \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} x_{1}
\end{array}\right), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^{3 d+2}
$$

where $z_{k} \in \mathbb{R}^{d} \cong \mathbb{F}_{d}$ is the real division algebra of dimension $d \in\{1,2,4,8\}$.
It follows that $b_{3}$ is proportional to $u_{1}$.
Remark. Alternatively, the homogeneity of $u_{d}$ and (2) implies

$$
\Delta_{1} u_{d}=-\frac{1}{2} D u_{d} \cdot D\left|D u_{d}\right|^{2}=-54|x|^{2} u_{d}
$$

Thus, all $u_{d}$ are eigencubics in $\mathbb{R}^{5}, \mathbb{R}^{8}, \mathbb{R}^{14}, \mathbb{R}^{26}$.

## Hsiang's trick: $k=4$

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For $k=4$ one obtains the Hsiang eigencubic in $\mathbb{R}^{9}$ given by

$$
h_{1}(x)=b_{3}(X) \sim \operatorname{tr} X^{3},
$$

where

$$
X=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
x_{1}-\frac{x_{2}}{\sqrt{3}}-\frac{x_{3}}{\sqrt{6}} & \bar{z}_{4} & \bar{z}_{5} & \bar{z}_{6} \\
z_{4} & -x_{1}-\frac{x_{2}}{\sqrt{3}}-\frac{x_{3}}{\sqrt{6}} & \bar{z}_{7} & \bar{z}_{8} \\
z_{5} & z_{7} & \frac{2 x_{2}}{\sqrt{3}}-\frac{x_{3}}{\sqrt{6}} & \bar{z}_{9} \\
z_{6} & z_{8} & z_{9} & \frac{\sqrt{2} x_{3}}{\sqrt{3}}
\end{array}\right), \quad z_{i} \in \mathbb{R}
$$

Remarks.
(1) In fact, one still has a similar result for $h_{d}$ for $z_{i} \in \mathbb{F}_{d}$ and $d=1,2,4$, but not for $d=8$.
(2) By the Allison-Faulkner (1980) 'extracting Jordan algebras theorem':

$$
h_{1}(x) \cong \operatorname{det}\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
x_{1}^{\prime} & x_{2}^{\prime} & x_{3}^{\prime} \\
x_{4}^{\prime} & x_{5}^{\prime} & x_{6}^{\prime} \\
x_{7}^{\prime} & x_{8}^{\prime} & x_{9}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)
$$

## Clifford eigencubics

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Start with the Lawson cubic (1970)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& u=\operatorname{Im} v^{2} w=2 x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}+x_{4}\left(x_{1}^{2}-x_{2}^{2}\right) \\
& \quad \text { where } \quad v=x_{1}+x_{2} i, w=x_{3}+x_{4} i \\
& =x_{3} \cdot v^{\top}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right) v+x_{4} \cdot v^{\top}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
0 & -1
\end{array}\right) v
\end{aligned}
$$

In general, given a Clifford system, i.e. a family $\mathcal{A}=\left\{A_{i}\right\}_{0 \leq i \leq q}$ of self-adjoint endomorphisms of $\mathbb{R}^{2 m}$ s.t.

$$
A_{i} A_{j}+A_{j} A_{i}=2 \delta_{i j} \cdot \mathbf{1}_{\mathbb{R}^{2 m}}
$$

we define

$$
u_{\mathcal{A}}=v^{\top} A_{w} v:=v^{\top}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{q} A_{i} w_{i}\right) v, \quad x=(v, w) \in \mathbb{R}^{2 m} \times \mathbb{R}^{q+1}
$$

Remark. An obstruction to the existence of a Clifford system is $\delta(q) \mid m$, where

| $q$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | $\ldots$ | $q$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\delta(q)$ | 1 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 8 | 8 | 8 | 8 | $\ldots$ | $16 \delta(q-8)$ |

## Clifford eigencubics

## Classification of Clifford eigencubics, [Tka10b]

$\Rightarrow u_{\mathcal{A}}$ is an eigencubic: $\Delta_{1} u_{\mathcal{A}}=-8|x|^{2} u$;
$\checkmark u_{\mathcal{A}}$ and $u_{\mathcal{B}}$ are congruent iff the Clifford systems $\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{B}$ are geometrically equivalent;

- the pair $(q, m)$ (called the index) is an inner invariant of $u_{\mathcal{A}}$;
- the number of congruence classes of Clifford eigencubics of index $(q, m)$ is 1 if $q \not \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$, and $\lfloor m / 2 \delta(q)\rfloor+1$ if $q \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$;
- the following trace formula holds:

$$
\operatorname{tr}\left(D^{2} u\right)^{3}=-24(q-1) u
$$

Practically, the index is restored from $u$ by

$$
q=1+\frac{|x|^{2} \cdot \operatorname{tr}\left(D^{2} u\right)^{3}}{\Delta_{1} u}, \quad m=n-q-1
$$

## Radial eigencubics

In summary: all known irreducible eigencubics are radial eigencubics, i.e.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta_{1} u(x)=\lambda|x|^{2} \cdot u \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Remark. There exist, however, non-radial reducible eigencubics, e.g.,

$$
u=x_{5}\left(2 x_{1}^{2}+2 x_{2}^{2}-x_{3}^{2}-x_{4}^{2}-x_{5}^{2}\right),
$$

which satisfies

$$
\Delta_{1} u=Q \cdot u
$$

with

$$
Q(x)=-12\left(2 x_{1}^{2}+2 x_{2}^{2}+x_{3}^{2}+x_{4}^{2}+3 x_{5}^{2}\right) \neq \lambda|x|^{2} .
$$

Problem. Do there exist irreducible eigencubics?

## Radial eigencubics

## Definition

A radial eigencubic $u$ is called Clifford eigencubic if it is congruent to some $u_{\mathcal{A}}$. Otherwise, $u$ is called exceptional.

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## Propostion

The Cartan eigencubic $u_{d}$ is exceptional.

Proof. Indeed, suppose in some orthogonal coordinates,

$$
u_{d}(x)=C \cdot v^{\top} A_{w} v, \quad C \in \mathbb{R}, x=(v, w) \in \mathbb{R}^{n}
$$

Then $\left|D u_{d}\right|^{2}$ is at most quadratic in $w$-variables. On the other hand, we know that $\left|D u_{d}\right|^{2}=9|x|^{4}$. A contradiction follows because both the squared norm of the gradient and $|x|^{4}$ are orthogonal invariants.

## Classification of radial eigencubics, I

## Theorem A [Tka10c]

(a) Any radial eigencubic $u$ is harmonic.
(b) There exists $\mathbb{R}^{n}=V_{\xi} \oplus V_{\eta} \oplus V_{\zeta} \oplus \mathbb{R} e_{n}$ such that

$$
u \cong x_{n}^{3}+\frac{3}{2} x_{n}\left(-2 \xi^{2}-\eta^{2}+\zeta^{2}\right)+\Psi_{030}+\Psi_{111}+\Psi_{102}+\Psi_{012}
$$

where $\Psi_{i j k} \in \xi^{i} \otimes \eta^{j} \otimes \zeta^{k}$.
(c) $n=3 n_{1}+2 n_{2}-1$, where $\operatorname{dim} V_{\xi}=n_{1}$ and $\operatorname{dim} V_{\eta}=n_{2}$;
(d) The trace formula: $\operatorname{tr}\left(D^{2} u\right)^{3}=3\left(n_{1}-1\right) \lambda \cdot u$.
(e) A hidden Jordan algebra structure: $\left|D \Psi_{030}\right|^{2}=9|\eta|^{4}$.
(f) A hidden Clifford algebra structure: $\left(n_{2}+n_{1}-1\right) \mid \delta\left(n_{1}-1\right)$.

## Classification of radial eigencubics, I

## Definition

It follows from (c) and (d) that the pair $\left(n_{1}, n_{2}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}^{+} \times \mathbb{Z}^{+}$is an inner invariant of $u$, and is called the type of $u$.

Remark 1. The type of $u$ is recovered by invariant formulae

$$
n_{1}=\frac{|x|^{2} \cdot \operatorname{tr}\left(D^{2} u\right)^{3}}{3 \Delta_{1} u}+1, \quad n_{2}=\frac{n+1-3 n_{1}}{2} .
$$

Remark 2. A Clifford eigencubic $u_{\mathcal{A}}$ has type

$$
\left(n_{1}, n_{2}\right)=(q, m+1-q) .
$$

Remark 3. The only type is insufficient for determining whether a given radial eigencubic is exceptional or Clifford. For instance, there are radial eigencubics of both kinds having the same type $\left(n_{1}, n_{2}\right)=(1,5)$.

## A short excursion into Jordan algebras

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## A short excursion into Jordan algebras

P. Jordan (1932): a program to discover a new algebraic setting for quantum mechanics by capture intrinsic algebraic properties of Hermitian matrices.

## A Jordan (J.) algebra

$J$ is vector space with a bilinear commutative product $\bullet: J \times J \rightarrow J$ satisfying the the Jordan identity

$$
x^{2} \bullet(x \bullet y)=x \bullet\left(x^{2} \bullet y\right)
$$

The algebra $J$ is formally real if additionally $x^{2}+y^{2}=0$ implies $x=y=0$.

For any $x \in J$, the subalgebra $J(x)$ generated by $x$ is associative. The rank of $J$ is $\max \{\operatorname{dim} J(x): x \in J\}$ and the minimum polynomial of $x$ is

$$
m_{x}(\lambda)=\lambda^{r}-\sigma_{1}(x) \lambda^{r-1}+\ldots+(-1)^{r} \sigma_{r}(x) \quad \text { such that } m_{x}(x)=0
$$

$\sigma_{1}(x)=\operatorname{Tr} x=$ the generic trace of $x$, $\sigma_{n}(x)=N(x)=$ the generic norm (or generic determinant) of $x$.

Example 1. An associative algebra becomes a J. algebra with $x \bullet y=\frac{1}{2}(x y+y x)$.
Example 2. The Jordan algebra of $n \times n$ matrices over $\mathbb{R}$ : $\operatorname{rank} x=n, \operatorname{Tr} x=\operatorname{tr} x$, $N(x)=\operatorname{det} x$.

## Formally real Jordan algebras

## Classification of formally real Jordan algebras

P. Jordan, J. von Neumann, E. Wigner, On an algebraic generalization of the quantum mechanical formalism, Annals of Math., 1934

Any (finite-dimensional) formally real J. algebra is a direct sum of the simple ones:

- the algebra $\mathfrak{h}_{n}\left(\mathbb{F}_{1}\right)$ of symmetric matrices over the reals;
- the algebra $\mathfrak{h}_{n}\left(\mathbb{F}_{2}\right)$ of Hermitian matrices over the complexes;
- the algebra $\mathfrak{h}_{n}\left(\mathbb{F}_{4}\right)$ of Hermitian matrices over the quaternions;
$\checkmark$ the spin factors $\mathfrak{J}\left(\mathbb{R}^{n+1}\right)$ with $\left(x_{0}, x\right) \bullet\left(y_{0}, y\right)=\left(x_{0} y_{0}+\langle x, y\rangle ; x_{0} y+y_{0} x\right)$;
$-\mathfrak{h}_{3}\left(\mathbb{F}_{8}\right)$, the Albert exceptional algebra.
In particular, the only possible formally real J . algebras $J$ with $\operatorname{rank}(J)=3$ are:

| a Jordan algebra | the norm of a trace free element |
| :--- | :--- |
| $J=\mathfrak{h}_{3}\left(\mathbb{F}_{d}\right), d=1,2,4,8$ | $\sqrt{2} N(x)=u_{d}(x)$ |
| $J=\mathbb{R} \oplus \mathfrak{J}\left(\mathbb{R}^{n+1}\right)$ | $\sqrt{2} N(x)=4 x_{n}^{3}-3 x_{n}\|x\|^{2}$ |
| $J=\mathbb{F}_{1}^{3}=\mathbb{R} \oplus \mathbb{R} \oplus \mathbb{R}$ | $\sqrt{2} N(x)=x_{2}^{3}-3 x_{2} x_{1}^{2}$ |

According [Tka10a], the second column is exactly the only cubic solutions to

$$
|D u(x)|^{2}=9|x|^{4} .
$$

Does there exist any explicit correspondence between cubic solutions of the latter equation and formally real cubic Jordan algebras?

## Cubic eiconals and cubic Jordan algebras

## Theorem , N. Nadirashvili, S. Vlăduţ and V.T. [NTV12b]

Let $u$ be a cubic solution of

$$
Q(D u)=9 Q(x)^{2}
$$

on a quadratic space $(V, Q)$. Then the multiplication

$$
\left(x_{0}, x\right) \bullet\left(y_{0}, y\right)=\left(x_{0} y_{0}+Q(x, y), x_{0} y+y_{0} x+\frac{1}{3 \sqrt{2}} \operatorname{hess} u(x, y)\right.
$$

turn $J_{u}:=\mathbb{R} \oplus \mathbb{R}^{n}$ into a cubic Jordan algebra with the generic norm

$$
N_{u}\left(x_{0}, x\right)=x_{0}^{3}-\frac{3 x_{0} Q(x)}{2}+\frac{u(x)}{\sqrt{2}} .
$$

Conversely, if $(J, N)$ is a cubic Jordan algebra then

$$
u(x)=\sqrt{2} N(x), \quad x \in\left\{x \in J_{u}: \operatorname{Tr} x=0\right\}
$$

Two solutions $u_{1}$ and $u_{2}$ are orthogonally equivalent if and only if the associated Jordan algebras $J_{u_{1}}$ and $J_{u_{2}}$ are isomorphic.

## Classification of radial eigencubics, II

## Theorem B, [Tka10c], [Tka12]

Let $u$ be a radial eigencubic and let $\mathbb{R}^{n}=V_{\xi} \oplus V_{\eta} \oplus V_{\zeta} \oplus \mathbb{R} e_{n}$ be the associated orthogonal decomposition. Then there exists a natural Jordan algebra structure on $J:=\mathbb{R} e_{n} \oplus V_{\eta}$ such that

$$
\left.u(x)\right|_{J}=\operatorname{Tr}\left(x^{3}\right), \quad x \in J
$$

where $\operatorname{Tr}$ is the generic trace on $J$. Moreover, the following conditions are equivalent:

- $u$ is an exceptional radial eigencubic;
- $\left.\Psi_{030} \equiv u\right|_{V_{\eta}}$ is reducible;
- $\Psi_{030}$ is harmonic and $n_{2} \neq 2$;
- $J$ is a simple Jordan algebra;
- $\operatorname{tr}\left(D^{2} u\right)^{2}=$ const $\cdot|x|^{2}$ and $n_{2} \in\{0,5,8,14,26\}$.

In particular, a radial eigencubic is exceptional iff $\operatorname{tr}\left(D^{2} u\right)^{2}=c|x|^{2}$ and $n_{2} \in\{0,5,8,14,26\}$.

| $n_{1}$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 5 | 9 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 4 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 5 | 9 | 0 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 7 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n_{2}$ | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 8 | 8 | 8 | 8 | 8 | 14 | 14 | 14 | 26 | 26 | 26 |
| $n$ | 2 | 5 | 8 | 14 | 26 | 9 | 12 | 15 | 21 | 15 | 18 | 21 | 30 | 42 | 27 | 30 | 36 | 54 | 60 | 72 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $?$ |  |  |  | $?$ | $?$ | $?$ |  |  | $?$ | $?$ | $?$ | $?$ |

## Radial eigencubics vs isoparametric hypersurfaces

## Theorem C, [Tka10c]

Let $u$ be a radial eigencubic in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ of type $\left(n_{1}, n_{2}\right)$ and $n_{2} \neq 0$. Then $u$ is congruent to the cubic form

$$
\begin{equation*}
u=\left(|\xi|^{2}-|\eta|^{2}\right) x_{n}+a(\xi, \zeta)+b(\eta, \zeta)+c(\xi, \eta, \zeta), \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
x=\left(\xi, \eta, \zeta, x_{n}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{m} \times \mathbb{R}^{m} \times \mathbb{R}^{n-2 m-1} \times \mathbb{R}^{1}
$$

and $a \in \xi \otimes \zeta^{2}, b \in \eta \otimes \zeta^{2}, c \in \xi \otimes \eta \otimes \zeta$. Moreover, the quartic polynomials

$$
\begin{aligned}
& h_{0}(\xi, \eta):=\left(|\xi|^{2}+|\eta|^{2}\right)^{2}-2\left|D_{\zeta} c\right|^{2} \in \operatorname{Isop}\left(n_{1}-1, m-n_{1}\right) \\
& h_{1}(\xi, \eta):=-|\xi|^{4}+6|\xi|^{2}|\eta|^{2}-|\eta|^{4}-2\left|D_{\zeta} c\right|^{2} \in \operatorname{Isop}\left(n_{1}, m-n_{1}-1\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

If $f$, in addition, is an exceptional eigencubic then $m$ is uniquely defined by $m=d+n_{1}+1$, where $n_{2}=3 d+2, d \in\{1,2,4,8\}$.

Remark. Combining the latter correspondence with the recent characterization of isoparametric hypersurfaces with 4 principal curvatures (by T. Cecil, Q.S.Chi, G. Jensen, S. Immerwoll), one obtains an obstruction to the existence of some exceptional families of radial eigencubics.

## Radial eigencubics revisited

## A unified construction [Tka12]

Let $W$ be a simple rank 3 Jordan algebra over $\mathbb{F}=\mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F}=\mathbb{C}$, and let $J \subset W$ be a simple (Jordan) subalgebra of $W$. Let $\mathbb{R}^{n}=W \ominus J$ be the Euclidean vector space equipped with the inner product $\langle x, y\rangle=\operatorname{Tr} x \bar{y}$. Then

$$
u(x):=\operatorname{Re} \operatorname{Tr} x^{3}, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^{n},
$$

is an exceptional radial eigencubic.

Example 5. Consider $J=\mathfrak{h}_{3}\left(\mathbb{F}_{1}\right) \subset \mathfrak{h}_{3}\left(\mathbb{F}_{8}\right)=W$. Then $W \ominus J \cong \mathbb{R}^{21}$ is the vector space of matrices

$$
x:=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & z_{3} & z_{2} \\
-z_{3} & 0 & z_{1} \\
-z_{2} & -z_{1} & 0
\end{array}\right), \quad \bar{z}_{i}=-z_{i} \in \mathbb{F}_{d}=\mathbb{O},
$$

hence $u:=\operatorname{Re} \operatorname{Tr} x^{3}$ is an exceptional eigencubic in $\mathbb{R}^{21}$.

## Singular solutions of fully-nonlinear PDE's

## Singular solutions of fully-nonlinear PDE's

- Evans, Crandall, Lions, Jensen, Ishii: If $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is bounded with $C^{1}$-boundary, $\phi$ continuous on $\partial \Omega, F$ uniformly elliptic operator then the Dirichlet problem

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
F\left(D^{2} u\right) & =0, & \text { in } & \Omega \\
u & =\phi & \text { on } & \\
\partial \Omega
\end{array}
$$

has a unique viscosity solution $u \in C(\Omega)$;

- Krylov, Safonov, Trudinger, Caffarelli, early 80 's: the solution is always $C^{1, \varepsilon}$
- Nirenberg, 50 's: if $n=2$ then $u$ is classical $\left(C^{2}\right)$ solution
- Nadirashvili, Vlăduţ, 2007: if $n=12$ then there are solutions which are not $C^{2}$

In 2005-2011, N. Nadirashvili and S. Vlǎduţ constructed (uniformly elliptic) Hessian equations with $F(S)$ being smooth, homogeneous, depending only on the eigenvalues of $S$, and such that they have singular $C^{1, \delta}$-solutions.

$$
u(x)=\frac{\operatorname{Re} z_{1} z_{2} z_{3}}{|x|}, \quad x=\left(z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}\right)
$$

where $z_{i} \in \mathbb{F}_{d}, d=4,8$ (quaternions, octonions), is a viscosity solution of a fully nonlinear uniformly elliptic equation. In fact,

$$
u(x)=\frac{N(x)}{|x|}, \quad x \in \mathfrak{h}_{3}\left(\mathbb{F}_{d}\right) \ominus \mathbb{R}^{3}
$$

is an exceptional eigencubic.

- N.N., S.V., V.T. [NTV12a]:

$$
u(x)=\frac{N(x)}{|x|}, \quad x \in \mathfrak{h}_{3}(\mathbb{R}) \ominus \mathbb{R}^{1}
$$

is a non-classical solution in $\mathbb{R}^{5}$.

## Thank you!

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