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NONEXISTENCE OF SOLUTIONS IN $(0, 1)$ FOR K-P-P-TYPE EQUATIONS FOR ALL $d \geq 1$

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ABSTRACT. Consider the KPP-type equation of the form $\Delta u + f(u) = 0$, where $f:[0,1]\rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ is a concave function. We prove for arbitrary dimensions that there is no solution bounded in $(0, 1)$. The significance of this result from the point of view of probability theory is also discussed.

1. Introduction and main result

In this article we will investigate certain semilinear elliptic equations of the form $\Delta u + f(u) = 0$. Our assumption on the nonlinear term $f(u)$ is as follows.

Assumption 1. We assume that $f : [0, 1] \to \mathbb{R}$ is

- (i) continuous ,
- (ii) positive in $(0, 1)$ and
- (iii) $z \mapsto f(z)/z$ is strictly decreasing. \diamond

Consider now the Kolmogorov Petrovskii Piscunov-type (KPP) equation

$$
(1) \qquad \Delta u + f(u) = 0
$$

(2) $0 < u < 1$, in \mathbb{R}^d .

Theorem 1. Problem (1)-(2) has no solution for $d \geq 1$.

Semilinear elliptic equations of the form (1) have been widely studied. We mention here only two reviews [14, 15], where the exact number of positive solutions with different nonlinearities are studied. In [14] the differential equation is considered on a bounded domain, in [15] the equation is studied in the whole space \mathbb{R} , however, it is subject to the boundary condition $u \to 0$ as $|x| \to \infty$. The case of concave f has also been studied by several authors. In [1] the assumption on f is similar to ours, however, the problem is given on a bounded domain with Dirichlet boundary condition. In that paper the existence and uniqueness of the positive solution is proved. Castro et al. studied the case of concave nonlinearities in a series of papers, see e.g. [2, 3]. In these works the problem is given on a bounded domain with Dirichlet boundary condition. A generalized logistic equation, with $f(u) = mu - qu^p$ is studied in [8] on a bounded domain with Dirichlet boundary condition again.

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Summarizing, we can say that our equation (1) has been widely studied, however, in the papers where it is considered in the whole space \mathbb{R} , it is always subject to the boundary condition $u \to 0$ as $|x| \to \infty$. In these publications the aim is to determine the exact number of the so-called fast and slow decay solutions. Hence according to the authors knowledge there is no result available concerning problem $(1)-(2)$ under the assumptions given on f.

Remark 2 (Low dimensions). Our theorem can be proved very easily for $d \leq 2$. To see this, recall that Δ is a so-called *critical* operator in \mathbb{R}^d when $d = 1, 2$. Second order elliptic operators L with no zeroth order term are classified as being subcritical or critical according to whether the operator possesses or does not possess a minimal positive Green's function. In probabilistic terms criticality/subcriticality is captured by the recurrence/transience of the corresponding diffusion process (see Chapter 4 in [12]).

Another equivalent condition for L to be critical is that all positive functions h that are superharmonic (i.e. $Lh \leq 0$) are in fact harmonic (i.e. $Lh \equiv 0$). (See again Chapter 4 in [12])

Now, observe that $(1)-(2)$ and the positivity of f on $(0, 1)$ implies

(3)
$$
\Delta u = -f(u) < 0 \text{ in } \mathbb{R}^d.
$$

By the above criterion for critical operators, this is impossible in dimension one or two. \Diamond

The most important model case is the classical KPP equation, when

$$
(4) \qquad \qquad f(u) := \beta u (1 - u)
$$

with $\beta > 0$. (In fact this particular nonlinearity is intimately related to the distribution of a branching Brownian motion; see more on the subject in the next paragraph.) Here we present a proof of this result which is valid basically for concave functions. In fact, (iii) of Assumption 1 is related to the concaveness of the function.

The connection between the KPP equation and branching Brownian motion has already been discovered by McKean — it first appeared in the classic work $[10, 11]$.

Let $Z = (Z(t))_{t>0}$ be the d-dimensional binary branching Brownian motion with a spatially and temporally constant branching rate $\beta > 0$. The informal description of this process is as follows. A single particle starts at the origin, performs a Brownian motion on \mathbb{R}^d , after a mean- $1/\beta$ exponential time dies and produces two offspring, the two offspring perform independent Brownian motions from their birth location, die and produce two offspring after independent mean– $1/\beta$ exponential times, etc. Think of $Z(t)$ as the subset of \mathbb{R}^d indicating the locations of the particles $z_1^t, \ldots, z_t^{N_t}$ alive at time t (where N_t denote the number of particles at t). Write P_x to denote the law of Z when the initial particle starts at x . The natural filtration is denoted by $\{\mathcal{F}_t, t \geq 0\}.$

Then, as is well known (see e.g. Chapter 1 in [4]), the law of the process can be described via its Laplace functional as follows. If f is a positive measurable function, then

(5)
$$
E_x \exp\left(-\sum_{i=1}^{N_t} f(z_i^t)\right) = 1 - u(x,t),
$$

where u solves the initial value problem

(6)
$$
\dot{u} = \frac{1}{2}\Delta u + f(u) \text{ in } \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}_+
$$

$$
u(\cdot, 0) = 1 - e^{-f(\cdot)} \text{ in } \mathbb{R}^d
$$

$$
0 \le u \le 1 \text{ in } \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}_+,
$$

with f from (4) .

Equation $(1)-(2)$ appears when one studies certain 'natural' martingales associated with branching Brownian motion (see e.g. [5]). To understand this, let Clated with branching Browman motion (see e.g. [0]). To understand this, let $\hat{\mathcal{F}}_t := \sigma(\bigcup_{s \geq t} \mathcal{F}_s)$ and consider the tail σ -algebra $\hat{\mathcal{F}}_{\infty} := \bigcap_{t \geq 0} \hat{\mathcal{F}}_s$. Choosing appropriate (sequences of) f 's one can then express the probabilities of various events $A_t \in \mathcal{F}_t$, for $t > 0$, in terms of the function u in (6). Letting $t \to \infty$ then leads to the conclusion that if $A \in \widehat{\mathcal{F}}_{\infty}$ denotes a certain tail event (e.g. having strictly positive limit for a certain nonnegative 'natural' martingale, or local/global extinction) then the function $u(x) := P_x(A)$ is either constant $(= 0 \text{ or } = 1)$, or it must solve $(1)-(2)$. Hence, it immediately follows from our main theorem that the tail σ -algebra is trivial, that is, all those events A satisfy $P(A) \equiv 0$ or $\equiv 1$.

Note that if $\beta > 0$ is replaced by a smooth nonnegative function $\beta(\cdot)$ that does not vanish everywhere, then this corresponds to having *spatially dependent* branching rate for the branching Brownian motion. It would be desirable therefore to investigate whether our main theorem can be generalized for such β 's.

2. Proof of the theorem

The proof is based on two ideas: the application of the semilinear elliptic maximum principle, which is generalized here fore concave functions, and a comparison between the semilinear and the linear problems. Using these two ideas we will show that the minimal positive solution of (1) is $u_{\min} \equiv 1$, hence (1) has no solution satisfying (2) .

First we state and prove a semilinear maximum principle. The results in this form is a generalization of [6, Proposition 7.1] for the particular case when the elliptic operator is $L = \Delta$.

Lemma 3 (Semilinear elliptic maximum principle). Let $f : [0, \infty) \to \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function, for which Assumption $1(iii)$ holds. Let $D \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ be a bounded domain with smooth boundary. If $v_i \in C^2(D) \cap C(D)$ satisfy $v_i > 0$ in D, $\Delta v_i + f(v_i) = 0$, in D for $i = 1, 2$, and $v_1 \ge v_2$ on ∂D , then $v_1 \ge v_2$ in \overline{D} .

Proof: The function $w := v_1 - v_2$ satisfies

(7)
$$
\Delta w + f(v_1) - f(v_2) = 0.
$$

We show that $w \geq 0$ in D. Suppose to the contrary that there exists a point $y \in D$ where w is negative. Let $\Omega_0 := \{x \in D \mid w(x) < 0\}$. Let Ω be the connected component of Ω_0 containing y. Since $w \geq 0$ on ∂D , one has $\Omega \subset\subset D$ and

(8)
$$
w < 0 \quad \text{in } \Omega \qquad w = 0 \quad \text{in } \partial \Omega.
$$

Let us multiply the equation $\Delta v_1 + f(v_1) = 0$ by w and equation (7) by v_1 , then subtract the second equation from the first, and integrate on Ω . Using that w =

 $v_1 - v_2$ one obtains

(9)
$$
I + II := \int_{\Omega} (w \Delta v_1 - v_1 \Delta w) + \int_{\Omega} (v_1 f(v_2) - v_2 f(v_1)) = 0.
$$

Using Green's second identity and that $w = 0$ in $\partial\Omega$ along with the fact that $\partial_{\nu}w > 0$ on $\partial\Omega$, we obtain

$$
I = -\int\limits_{\partial\Omega} v_1 \partial_\nu w \leq 0,
$$

where ν denotes the unit outward normal to $\partial\Omega$. Furthermore, since $v_1 < v_2$ in Ω , using (iii) of Assumption 1, we have that also $II < 0$:

$$
v_1 f(v_2) - v_2 f(v_1) = v_1 v_2 \left[\frac{f(v_2)}{v_2} - \frac{f(v_1)}{v_1} \right] < 0.
$$

It follows that the left hand side of (9) is negative, while its right hand side is zero. This contradiction proves that in fact $w \geq 0$ in D.

Remark 4 (Spatially dependent f 's). One can similarly prove the analogous more general result for the case, when $f: D \times [0, \infty) \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous in u and bounded in x, and $u \mapsto f(x, u)/u$ is strictly decreasing.

Let $f : [0,1] \to \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function which is positive in $(0,1)$. Based on ideas in [9] and using the comparison between the linear and the semilinear equations, we prove the following lemma.

Lemma 5 (Radially symmetric solutions). Assume in addition that f satisfies $\liminf_{z\downarrow 0}$ $\frac{f(z)}{z} > 0$ (this is automatically satisfied under Assumption 1(iii)). Then for any $y \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $p \in (0,1)$ there exists a ball $\Omega := B_R(y)$ (with some $R > 0$) and a radially symmetric C^2 function $v : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$
\Delta v + f(v) = 0
$$

$$
v > 0 \text{ in } \Omega, \qquad v = 0 \text{ in } \partial \Omega, v(y) = p.
$$

Proof: We show the existence of a radially symmetric solution of the form $v(x)$ $V(|x-y|)$. Let $V \in C^2([0,\infty))$ be the solution of the initial value problem

(10)
$$
(r^{d-1}V'(r))' + r^{d-1}f(V(r)) = 0
$$

(11)
$$
V(0) = p, V'(0) = 0.
$$

Writing Δ in polar coordinates, one sees that it is sufficient to prove that there exists an $R > 0$ such that $V(R) = 0$ and $V(r) > 0$ for all $r \in [0, R)$.

To this end, consider the linear initial value problem

(12)
$$
(r^{d-1}W'(r))' + r^{d-1}mW(r) = 0
$$

(13)
$$
W(0) = p, \ W'(0) = 0,
$$

where $m > 0$ is chosen so that $f(u) > mu$ holds for all $u \in (0, p)$. (Our assumptions on f guarantee the existence of such an m .) It is known that W has a first root, which we denote by ρ . Note that in this case $-m$ is the first eigenvalue of the Laplacian on the ball B_o . We now show that V has a root in $(0, \rho]$. In order to do

so let us multiply (12) by V and (10) by W, then subtract one equation from the other, and finally, integrate on $[0, \rho]$. We obtain

(14)
$$
I + II := \int_{0}^{\rho} [(r^{d-1}W'(r))'V(r) - (r^{d-1}V'(r))'W(r)] dr
$$

$$
+ \int_{0}^{\rho} r^{d-1}[mW(r)V(r) - W(r)f(V(r))] dr = 0.
$$

Suppose now that V has no root in $(0, \rho)$. Then, integrating by parts, $I =$ $\rho^{d-1}W'(\rho)V(\rho) < 0.$

Next, observe that by integrating (10), one gets $V'(r) < 0$ (i.e. V is decreasing). Hence $V(r) < p$, yielding $mV(r) - f(V(r)) < 0$. Therefore II, and thus the whole left hand side of (14) are negative; contradiction. This contradiction proves that V in fact has a root in $(0, \rho]$.

Remark 6 (Spatially dependent f's). When f depends also on x, our method breaks down as it is no longer possible to use ordinary differential equations to show the existence of a solution attaining a value close to one at a given point.

There is one easy case though: it is immediately seen that if there exists a $g(u)$, with $f(x, u) > q(u)$ and $q(u)$ satisfies the conditions of Theorem 1, then Theorem 1 remains valid for $f(x, u)$ as well.

Indeed, we know that $u_{min} \geq 1$, where u_{min} is the minimal positive solution for the semilinear equation with g. Recall (see e.g. $[6, 7]$) that one way of constructing the minimal positive solution is as follows. One takes large balls $B_R(0)$, and positive solutions with zero boundary condition on these balls (in our case we know from [9] that there exist such positive solutions for arbitrarily large R 's), and finally, lets $R \to \infty$; using the monotonicity in R that follows from the semilinear elliptic maximum principle (Lemma 3), the limiting function exists and positive. It is standard to prove that it solves the equation on the whole space, and by Lemma 3 again it must be the minimal such solution.

Now suppose that $0 < v$ solves the semilinear equation with $f(x, u)$. Then v is a supersolution: $0 \geq \Delta v + q(v)$; hence by the above construction of u_{min} and by an obvious modification of the proof of Lemma 3, $v \ge u_{min} \ge 1$.

The general case is harder. For example, when $f(x, u) := \beta(x)(u - u^2)$ and β is a smooth nonnegative bounded function, the mere existence of positive solutions on large balls is no problem as long as the generalized principal eigenvalue of $\Delta + \beta$ on \mathbb{R}^d is positive. (The method in [13], pp. 26-27 goes through for $f(x, u) :=$ $\beta(x)(u - u^2)$ even though β is constant in [13].) The problematic part is to show that the solution is large at the center of the ball.

Proof of Theorem 1: Suppose that problem $(1)-(2)$ has a solution. Choose an arbitrary point $y \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and an arbitrary number $p \in (0,1)$. Note that by Assumption 1, f satisfies the conditions of Lemma 5 and consider the ball $B_R(y)$ and the radially symmetric function v on it, which are guaranteed by Lemma 5. We can apply Lemma 3 with $D = B_R(y)$, $v_1 = u$ and $v_2 = v$ and obtain that $u \geq v$. In particular then, $u(y) \ge v(y) = p$. Since y and p were arbitrary, we obtain that $u \ge 1$, in contradiction with (2) . Consequently, $(1)-(2)$ has no solution.

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