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ON PRINCIPAL EIGENVALUES FOR BOUNDARY VALUE PROBLEMS WITH INDEFINITE WEIGHT AND ROBIN BOUNDARY CONDITIONS

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ABSTRACT. We investigate the existence of principal eigenvalues (i.e., eigenvalues corresponding to positive eigenfunctions) for the boundary value problem $-\Delta u(x) = \lambda g(x)u(x)$ on D; $\frac{\partial u}{\partial n}(x) + \alpha u(x) = 0$ on ∂D , where D is a bounded region in \mathbf{R}^N , g is an indefinite weight function and $\alpha \in \mathbf{R}$ may be positive, negative or zero.

We discuss the existence of principal eigenvalues (i.e., eigenvalues corresponding to positive eigenfunctions) for the boundary value problem

(1)_{$$\alpha$$} $-\Delta u(x) = \lambda g(x)u(x)$ on $D;$ $\frac{\partial u}{\partial n}(x) + \alpha u(x) = 0$ on ∂D ,

where D is a bounded region in \mathbb{R}^N with smooth boundary, $g: D \to \mathbb{R}$ is a smooth function which changes sign on D, and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$.

Such problems have been studied in recent years because of associated nonlinear problems arising in the study of population genetics (see [3]). The study of the linear ordinary differential equation case, however, goes back to Picone and Bôcher (see [2]). Attention has been confined mainly to the cases of Dirichlet ($\alpha = \infty$) and Neumann boundary conditions.

In the case of Dirichlet boundary conditions it is well known (see [4]) that there exists a double sequence of eigenvalues for $(1)_{\alpha}$

$$\dots \lambda_2^- < \lambda_1^- < 0 < \lambda_1^+ < \lambda_2^+ \dots,$$

 λ_1^+ (λ_1^-) being the unique positive (negative) principal eigenvalue. It is also well known that the case where $0 < \alpha < \infty$ is similar to the Dirichlet case. In the case of Neumann boundary conditions, 0 is clearly a principal eigenvalue and there is a positive (negative) principal eigenvalue if and only if $\int_D g(x) dx < 0$ (> 0); in the case where $\int_D g(x) = 0$ there are no positive and no negative principal eigenvalues.

We shall investigate how the principal eigenvalues of $(1)_{\alpha}$ depend on α , obtaining new results for the case where $\alpha < 0$. This case seems to have been considered far less often than the case $\alpha \ge 0$, probably because it is more natural that the flux across the boundary should be outwards if there is a positive concentration at the

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boundary, and also because $\alpha \geq 0$ is an easier condition to use when applying the maximum principle to discuss positive solutions. By studying the case $\alpha < 0$, however, we obtain a much clearer overall view of how the principal eigenvalues of $(1)_{\alpha}$ depend on α . We shall show that, depending on α , $(1)_{\alpha}$ has two, one or zero principal eigenvalues, and that the natural way of distinguishing between principal eigenvalues is by considering the sign of $\int_D g(x)u_0^2 dx$, where u_0 denotes the corresponding eigenfunction rather than the sign of the eigenvalues themselves.

Our analysis is based on a method used by Hess and Kato ([4]). Consider, for fixed λ , the eigenvalue problem

$$(2)_{\alpha} \qquad -\Delta u(x) - \lambda g(x)u(x) = \mu u(x) \text{ on } D; \qquad \frac{\partial u}{\partial n}(x) + \alpha u(x) = 0 \text{ on } \partial D.$$

We denote the lowest eigenvalue of $(2)_{\alpha}$ by $\mu(\alpha, \lambda)$. Let

$$S_{\alpha,\lambda} = \{ \int_D |\nabla \phi|^2 \, dx + \alpha \int_{\partial D} \phi^2 \, dS_x - \lambda \int_D g \phi^2 \, dx \, : \, \phi \in W^{1,2}(D) \,, \, \int_D \phi^2 \, dx = 1 \}$$

When $\alpha \geq 0$, it is clear that $S_{\alpha,\lambda}$ is bounded below. It is shown in Smoller [5] by variational arguments that $\mu(\alpha, \lambda) = \inf S_{\alpha,\lambda}$ and that an eigenfunction corresponding to $\mu(\alpha, \lambda)$ does not change sign on D. Thus, clearly, λ is a principal eigenvalue of $(1)_{\alpha}$ if and only if $\mu(\alpha, \lambda) = 0$.

When $\alpha < 0$, the boundedness below of $S_{\alpha,\lambda}$ is no longer obvious *a priori*, but is a consequence of the following lemma.

Lemma 1. For every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists a constant $C(\epsilon) > 0$ such that

$$\int_{\partial D} \phi^2 \, dS_x \le \epsilon \int_D |\nabla \phi|^2 \, dx + C(\epsilon) \int_D \phi^2 \, dx$$

for all $\phi \in W^{1,2}(D)$.

Proof. Suppose that the result does not hold. Then there exist $\epsilon_0 > 0$ and a sequence $\{u_n\} \subseteq W^{1,2}(D)$ such that $\int_D |\nabla u_n|^2 dx = 1$ and

(3)
$$\int_{\partial D} u_n^2 \, dS_x \ge \epsilon_0 + n \int_D u_n^2 \, dx.$$

Suppose first that $\{\int_D u_n^2 dx\}$ is unbounded. Let $v_n = u_n/||u_n||_{L_2(D)}$. Clearly $\{v_n\}$ is bounded in $W^{1,2}(D)$, and so in $L^2(\partial D)$. But $\int_{\partial D} v_n^2 dS_x \ge n \int_D v_n^2 dx = n$, which is impossible.

Suppose now that $\{\int_D u_n^2 dx\}$ is bounded. Then $\{u_n\}$ is bounded in $W^{1,2}(D)$ and so has a subsequence, which we again denote by $\{u_n\}$, converging weakly to uin $W^{1,2}(D)$. Since $W^{1,2}(D)$ is compactly embedded in $L^2(\partial D)$ (see Adams [1], page 144) and in $L^2(D)$, it follows that $\{u_n\}$ converges to some function u in $L^2(\partial D)$ and in $L^2(D)$. Thus $\{\int_{\partial D} u_n^2 dS_x\}$ is bounded, and so it follows from (3) that $\lim_{n\to\infty} \int_D u_n^2 dx = 0$, i.e., $\{u_n\}$ converges to zero in $L^2(D)$. Hence $\{u_n\}$ converges to 0 in $L^2(\partial D)$, and this is impossible because of (3).

Choosing $\epsilon < \frac{1}{\alpha}$, it is easy to deduce from the above result that $S_{\alpha,\lambda}$ is bounded below, and it follows exactly as in [5] that $\mu(\alpha, \lambda) = \inf S_{\alpha,\lambda}$ and that an eigenfunction corresponding to $\mu(\alpha, \lambda)$ does not change sign on D. Thus it is again the case that λ is a principal eigenvalue of $(1)_{\alpha}$ if and only if $\mu(\alpha, \lambda) = 0$.

For fixed $\phi \in W^{1,2}(D)$, $\lambda \to \int_D |\nabla \phi|^2 dx + \alpha \int_{\partial D} \phi^2 dS_x - \lambda \int_D g \phi^2 dx$ is an affine and so concave function. As the infimum of any collection of concave functions is concave, it follows that $\lambda \to \mu(\alpha, \lambda)$ is a concave function. Also, by considering test



FIGURE 1. Graph of $\lambda \to \mu(\alpha, \lambda)$ when $\alpha > 0$.

functions $\phi_1, \phi_2 \in W^{1,2}(D)$ such that $\int_D g\phi_1^2 dx > 0$ and $\int_D g\phi_2^2 dx < 0$, it is easy to see that $\mu(\alpha, \lambda) \to -\infty$ as $\lambda \to \pm \infty$. Thus $\lambda \to \mu(\alpha, \lambda)$ is an increasing function until it attains its maximum, and is a decreasing function thereafter.

Suppose that $0 < \alpha < \infty$, i.e., we have the 'usual' Robin boundary condition. Then, as can be seen from the variational characterisation of $\mu(\alpha, \lambda)$ or the fact that $-\Delta$ has a positive principal eigenvalue, $\mu(\alpha, 0) > 0$ and so $\lambda \to \mu(\alpha, \lambda)$ must have a graph similar to that shown in Figure 1, i.e., $\lambda \to \mu(\alpha, \lambda)$ has exactly two zeros. Thus in this case $(1)_{\alpha}$ has exactly two principal eigenvalues, one positive and one negative.

In the case $\alpha \leq 0$ we have that $\mu(\alpha, 0) \leq 0$, and the situation is less clear.

Lemma 2. Suppose that u_0 is an eigenfunction of $(2)_{\alpha}$ corresponding to the principal eigenvalue $\mu(\alpha, \lambda)$. Then

$$rac{d\mu}{d\lambda}(lpha,\lambda) = -rac{\int_D g u_0^2\,dx}{\int_D u_0^2\,dx}.$$

Proof. Regarding u and μ as functions of λ , we have

$$-\Delta u(\lambda) - \lambda g(x)u(\lambda) = \mu(\lambda)u(\lambda) \text{ on } D; \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial n}u(\lambda) + \alpha u(\lambda) = 0 \text{ on } \partial D.$$

Let $v(\lambda) = \frac{du}{d\lambda}$. Then $v(\lambda)$ satisfies

(4)
$$-\Delta v(\lambda) - \lambda g(x)v(\lambda) - \mu(\lambda)v(\lambda) = g(x)u(\lambda) + \frac{d\mu}{d\lambda}(\lambda)u(\lambda) \text{ on } D.$$

In addition, $\frac{\partial}{\partial n}v(\lambda) + \alpha v(\lambda) = 0$ on ∂D .

Multiplying (4) by $u(\lambda)$ and integrating over D gives

$$0 = \int_D g(x)[u(\lambda)]^2 \, dx + \frac{d\mu}{d\lambda}(\lambda) \int_D [u(\lambda)]^2 \, dx$$

and so the result follows.

The above lemma shows that where $\lambda \to \mu(\alpha, \lambda)$ is an increasing (decreasing) function we have that $\int_D g(x)[u(\lambda)]^2 dx < 0 (> 0)$, and at critical points we must have $\int_D g(x)[u(\lambda)]^2 dx = 0$. The next lemma shows that $\lambda \to \mu(\alpha, \lambda)$ has a unique critical point.



FIGURE 2. Graph of $\lambda \to \mu(\alpha, \lambda)$ when $\alpha = 0$ in the cases where (a) $\int_D g > 0$, (b) $\int_D g < 0$, (c) $\int_D g = 0$.

Lemma 3. Suppose that u_0 is an eigenfunction of $(2)_{\alpha}$ corresponding to the principal eigenvalue $\mu(\alpha, \lambda_0)$ such that $\int_D g(x) u_0^2 dx = 0$. Then $\mu(\alpha, \lambda_0) > \mu(\alpha, \lambda)$ whenever $\lambda \neq \lambda_0$, i.e., the unique global maximum of $\lambda \to \mu(\alpha, \lambda_0)$ occurs when $\lambda = \lambda_0.$

Proof. We may assume without loss of generality that $\int_D u_0^2 dx = 1$. Then

$$\mu(\alpha, \lambda_0) = \int_D |\nabla u_0|^2 \, dx + \alpha \int_{\partial D} u_0^2 \, dS_x.$$

Hence

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$$\mu(\alpha,\lambda) \leq \int_{D} |\nabla u_0|^2 \, dx + \alpha \int_{\partial D} u_0^2 \, dS_x - \lambda \int_{D} g(x) u_0^2 \, dx$$
$$= \int_{D} |\nabla u_0|^2 \, dx + \alpha \int_{D} u_0^2 \, dS_x = \mu(\alpha,\lambda_0).$$

Suppose $\lambda \neq \lambda_0$ and $\mu(\alpha, \lambda) = \mu(\alpha, \lambda_0)$. Then u_0 is a minimizer for $S_{\alpha,\lambda}$, and it follows that u_0 must satisfy

$$-\Delta u_0(x) - \lambda g(x)u_0(x) = \mu(\alpha, \lambda)u_0(x) \text{ on } D; \quad \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial n}(x) + \alpha u_0(x) = 0 \text{ on } \partial D.$$

0

But as $\mu(\alpha, \lambda) = \mu(\alpha, \lambda_0)$, u_0 also satisfies

$$-\Delta u_0(x) - \lambda_0 g(x) u_0(x) = \mu(\alpha, \lambda) u_0(x) \text{ on } D; \quad \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial n}(x) + \alpha u_0(x) = 0 \text{ on } \partial D,$$

and this is a contradiction. Hence $\mu(\alpha, \lambda) < \mu(\alpha, \lambda_0)$.

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Thus
$$\lambda \to \mu(\alpha, \lambda)$$
 is a concave function which is increasing on some interval of
the form $(-\infty, \hat{\lambda})$, has a maximum turning point at $\lambda = \hat{\lambda}$, and is decreasing on
 $(\hat{\lambda}, \infty)$. Hence the graph of $\lambda \to \mu(\alpha, \lambda)$ may have 2, 1 or 0 intersections with the
 μ -axis, and so $(1)_{\alpha}$ may have 2, 1 or 0 principal eigenvalues.

We have already seen that when $\alpha > 0$, $(1)_{\alpha}$ has 2 principal eigenvalues, one positive and one negative. If $\alpha = 0$, i.e., we have Neumann boundary conditions, then $\mu(\alpha, 0) = 0$ and the corresponding eigenfunction is a constant. Hence $\frac{d\mu}{d\lambda}(0) >$ 0 (= 0) (< 0) as $\int_D g(x) dx < 0 (= 0) (> 0)$. Thus, when $\alpha = 0, \mu = 0$ is a principal eigenvalue in all cases; if $\int_D g(x) dx < 0$, there is an additional positive principal eigenvalue; and, if $\int_D g(x) dx > 0$, there is an additional negative principal eigenvalue and, if $\int_D g(x) dx = 0$, $\mu = 0$ is the only principal eigenvalue (see Figure 2).

We now consider what happens when $\alpha < 0$. We first assume that $\int_D g(x) dx < 0$. It is clear from the variational characterisation of $\mu(\alpha, \lambda)$ that $\alpha \to \mu(\alpha, \lambda)$ is a

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FIGURE 3. Graph of $\lambda \to \mu(\alpha, \lambda)$ when $\int g < 0$ and $\alpha < 0$, where (a) α is small, (b) α is large, and (c) $\alpha = \alpha_0$.

strictly increasing, concave (and so continuous) function. Thus, for α sufficiently small and negative, $\lambda \to \mu(\alpha, \lambda)$ must have a graph of the form shown in Figure 3(a), and so $(1)_{\alpha}$ has two positive principal eigenvalues. This state of affairs does not persist, however, for all $\alpha < 0$.

Lemma 4. There exists $\alpha^* < 0$ such that $(1)_{\alpha}$ has no principal eigenvalues if $\alpha < \alpha^*$.

Proof. Suppose $\alpha < 0$ and u_0 is a positive eigenfunction of $(1)_{\alpha}$ corresponding to a positive principal eigenvalue λ_0 . It is easy to show by using the maximum principle that $u_0(x) > 0$ for all $x \in \overline{D}$. Also $0 = \mu(\alpha, \lambda_0) < \mu(0, \lambda_0)$. Hence $\lambda_0 < \mu_0$ (the positive principal eigenvalue for the Neumann problem.)

Dividing $(1)_{\alpha}$ by u_0 and integrating over D, we have

$$\int_D \frac{-\Delta u_0}{u_0} \, dx = \lambda_0 \int_D g(x) \, dx,$$

and so

$$-\int_{\partial D} \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial n} \, u_0 \, dS_x - \int_D \frac{|\nabla u_0|^2}{u_0^2} \, dx = \lambda_0 \int_D g(x) \, dx,$$

i.e.,

$$\alpha \int_{\partial D} dS_x - \int_D \frac{|\nabla u_0|^2}{u_0^2} dx = \lambda_0 \int_D g(x) \, dx.$$

Hence $\alpha = (\lambda_0 \int_D g(x) dx + \int_D \frac{|\nabla u_0|^2}{u_0^2} dx) / |\partial D|$. Since $\lambda_0 < \mu_0$, α cannot be too negative, and the proof is complete.

It follows that for large negative α the graph of $\lambda \to \mu(\alpha, \lambda)$ must be as in Figure 3(b), and so by the continuity of $\alpha \to \mu(\alpha, \lambda)$ there must exist α_0 such that $\max_{\lambda} \mu(\alpha_0, \lambda) = 0$ (see Figure 3(c)). Clearly $(1)_{\alpha_0}$ has precisely one principal eigenvalue.

A similar analysis can be carried out in the case $\int_D g(x) dx > 0$; in this case two negative principal eigenvalues will occur for an appropriate range of negative α .

Our results may be summarized in the following theorem.

Theorem 5. There exists $\alpha_0 \leq 0$ such that

(i) if $\alpha < \alpha_0$, then $(1)_{\alpha}$ does not have a principal eigenvalue;

(ii) if $\alpha = \alpha_0$, then $(1)_{\alpha}$ has a unique principal eigenvalue with corresponding eigenfunction u_0 such that $\int_D g(x)u_0^2 dx = 0$;

(iii) if $\alpha > \alpha_0$, then $(1)_{\alpha}^{\Sigma}$ has exactly two principal eigenvalues λ and μ , $\lambda < 1$ μ ; if u_0 and v_0 are eigenfunctions corresponding to λ and μ , respectively, then $\int_{D}^{\cdot} g(x)u_{0}^{2} dx < 0 \ and \ \int_{D}^{\cdot} g(x)v_{0}^{2} dx > 0; \\ (iv) \quad \alpha_{0} = 0 \ if \ and \ only \ if \ \int_{D}^{\cdot} g(x) dx = 0.$

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