# Fractional convexity maximum principle\*

Antonio Greco

Department of Mathematics and Informatics via Ospedale 72, 09124 Cagliari, Italy E-mail: greco@unica.it

#### Abstract

We construct an anisotropic, degenerate, fractional operator that nevertheless satisfies a strong form of the maximum principle. By applying such an operator to the concavity function associated to the solution of an equation involving the usual fractional Laplacian, we obtain a fractional form of the celebrated convexity maximum principle devised by Korevaar in the 80's. Some applications are discussed.

### 1 Introduction

The celebrated convexity maximum principle was proved by Nick Korevaar [13, 14] to answer a question posed by his advisor, prof. Robert Finn, concerning convexity of capillary surfaces in convex pipes. Korevaar's idea gave birth to a number of subsequent contributions, especially due to Kawohl [8, 9] and Kennington [10, 11, 12]. To be more specific, in order to prove the convexity of a continuous function u(x) in a convex domain  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^N$ ,  $N \geq 1$ , the concavity function

$$C(x,y) = 2u(\frac{x+y}{2}) - u(x) - u(y), \quad x, y \in \Omega$$
 (1.1)

was introduced (see [9, p. 113, (3.30)]). One may also deal with the function  $c(x, y, \lambda) = (1 - \lambda) u(x) + \lambda u(y) - u((1 - \lambda) x + \lambda y)$  for  $x, y \in \Omega$  and  $\lambda \in [0, 1]$  as in [12, p. 687], but we prefer to keep  $\lambda = \frac{1}{2}$  for simplicity. This is enough because u(x) is continuous.

The convexity of u(x) in  $\Omega$  is equivalent to the inequality  $C(x,y) \leq 0$  in the Cartesian product  $\Omega^2 = \Omega \times \Omega$ . In order to prove this inequality, the first step amounts to exclude that C(x,y) attains an interior, positive maximum, i.e., to prove a maximum principle. This is the reason why such kind of result became known as convexity maximum principle. Concerning the method of proof, in the mentioned

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papers the conclusion is obtained by contradiction, arguing at an interior point  $(x_0, y_0)$  where the concavity function supposedly becomes extremal. In [6], instead, an elliptic degenerate inequality satisfied by C(x, y) is constructed, starting from the equation satisfied by u(x). For instance, if a function  $u \in C^2(\Omega)$  is a classical solution of the torsion equation  $-\Delta u = 1$  in  $\Omega$ , then the following equality holds:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} \left( \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial x_i \, \partial x_i} + 2 \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial x_i \, \partial y_i} + \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial y_i \, \partial y_i} \right) = 0 \quad \text{in } \Omega^2.$$
 (1.2)

Equation (1.2), although degenerate, implies a maximum principle (see [6]). Independently of the method used for excluding that C(x,y) has interior positive maxima, in order to conclude that  $C(x,y) \leq 0$  in the whole domain  $\Omega^2$  it is necessary to ensure that  $C(x,y) \leq 0$  at the boundary of  $\Omega^2$ , i.e., when at least one of x,y lies on  $\partial\Omega$  (here we are assuming  $u \in C^0(\overline{\Omega})$ ). Unfortunately this turns out to be a difficult task, not only from a technical point of view, but also because the claim is false, even in very simple cases. For instance, if  $\Omega$  is a smooth, convex, bounded domain, then the solution v of

$$\begin{cases}
-\Delta v = 1 & \text{in } \Omega \\
v = 0 & \text{on } \partial\Omega
\end{cases}$$
(1.3)

is known to be power-concave in the sense that the function

$$u(x) = v^{\frac{1}{2}}(x) \tag{1.4}$$

is concave (see [9, p. 120, Example 3.4] and [12, p. 697, Remark 4.2.1]). Thus, the point of view is slightly changed. In fact, thanks to the exponent  $\frac{1}{2}$  in (1.4), the gradient Du becomes infinite along  $\partial\Omega$ , and this implies that the concavity function C(x,y) cannot attain a negative minimum on  $\partial(\Omega^2)$ . Hence, if u were not concave, the function C(x,y) would attain a negative minimum in the interior of  $\Omega^2$ . Furthermore, a minimum principle holds (see [9, p. 116, Theorem 3.13] and [12, p. 691, Theorem 3.1]). It follows that the minimum of C(x,y) over  $\overline{\Omega}^2$  equals zero, and therefore  $\sqrt{v(x)}$  is a concave function.

Different approaches have also been used for proving that solutions of elliptic PDE's are convex or concave: for instance, comparison of u(x) with its convex envelope [2] and constant-rank Hessian theorems [15].

Problem (1.3) also provides an example where all strategies for proving concavity must necessarily fail. Indeed, let  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  be an equilateral triangle. In this case the solution v is known explicitly, and we have Dv = 0 at each vertex of  $\partial\Omega$ : therefore the (positive) function v is not concave. Nevertheless, since v is power-concave, then its level sets are convex: this was initially proved by Makar-Limanov [17] in dimension 2 (see also [1, 16]).

In the present paper we extend the convexity maximum principle to continuous functions  $u \in C^0(\mathbb{R}^N)$  satisfying the equation

$$(-\Delta)^s u(x) = f(u) \quad \text{in } \Omega, \tag{1.5}$$

where  $(-\Delta)^s$ ,  $s \in (0,1)$ , is the fractional Laplacian

$$(-\Delta)^{s} u(x_{0}) = c_{N,s} \text{ P.V.} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{N}} \frac{u(x_{0}) - u(x)}{|x_{0} - x|^{N+2s}} dx$$

$$= c_{N,s} \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0^{+}} \int_{|x_{0} - x| > \varepsilon} \frac{u(x_{0}) - u(x)}{|x_{0} - x|^{N+2s}} dx.$$
(1.6)

Here P.V. stands for *principal value*, and the constant  $c_{N,s}$  (which is found, for instance, in [3, Remark 3.11]) is given by

$$c_{N,s} = \frac{4^s s \Gamma(\frac{N}{2} + s)}{\pi^{\frac{N}{2}} \Gamma(1 - s)}.$$

A continuous function  $u: \mathbb{R}^N \to \mathbb{R}$  is a solution of (1.5) if the integral in (1.6) converges for all  $x_0 \in \Omega$ , and if the equation in (1.5) is satisfied pointwise. To give an idea of the applications of the tools developed afterwards, let us quote a statement that holds under rather simple assumptions on f(t).

**Theorem 1.1** (Convexity maximum principle, sample statement 1). Let  $u \in C^0(\mathbb{R}^N)$  be a solution of (1.5) in a convex, bounded domain  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^N$ ,  $N \geq 2$ . Suppose that the function f(t) in (1.5) is monotone non-increasing and convex. If  $C(x,y) \leq 0$  for all  $(x,y) \notin \Omega^2$ , then  $C(x,y) \leq 0$  in all of  $\mathbb{R}^{2N}$ .

We also put into evidence the following surprising property of convex functions in two variables satisfying equation (1.5) in a (possibly unbounded, or even very small) convex domain  $\Omega$ .

**Theorem 1.2** (Convexity maximum principle, sample statement 2). Let  $s \in [\frac{1}{2}, 1)$ , and let  $u : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$  be a convex function in the plane satisfying equation (1.5) in a convex domain  $\Omega$ . Suppose that the function f in (1.5) is negative, and that -1/f(t) is a convex function. If there exist two distinct points  $x_0, y_0 \in \Omega$  such that  $u(\frac{x_0+y_0}{2}) = \frac{u(x_0)+u(y_0)}{2}$ , then the graph of u over  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is a ruled surface.

The convexity maximum principle is obtained by showing that C(x,y) satisfies a degenerate inequality (see Section 4) extending (1.2) to the fractional case. The inequality is constructed by introducing in Section 2 a convenient degenerate operator, denoted by  $(-\Delta_A)^s$ , which is proved to satisfy the maximum principle. The computation of  $(-\Delta_A)^s C$  in terms of  $(-\Delta)^s u$  is done in Section 3. The two sample statements given above are proved in the last section.

Equations posed in the exterior of a convex body K have also been considered in the literature: confining ourselves to fractional operators, we mention that the solution of

$$\begin{cases} (-\Delta)^{\frac{1}{2}} u = 0 & \text{in } \mathbb{R}^N \setminus K; \\ u = 1 & \text{in } K; \\ \lim_{|x| \to +\infty} u(x) = 0 \end{cases}$$

is shown to have *convex level sets* in [18].

# 2 Degenerate anisotropic fractional Laplacian

The following definition introduces a linear, non-local operator, denoted by  $(-\Delta_A)^s$ , which includes the fractional Laplacian as a special case. Apart from being non-local, such an operator may also be degenerate due to the fact that the domain of integration  $A(\mathbf{x}_0)$  indicated in (2.1) is allowed to have lower dimension than the whole space. Accordingly, a degenerate strong maximum principle holds (see Theorem 2.2).

**Definition 2.1.** (Degenerate anisotropic fractional Laplacian) Let G be an open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $m \geq 1$ . For  $\boldsymbol{x}_0 \in G$ , choose an affine subspace  $A(\boldsymbol{x}_0) \subset \mathbb{R}^m$  of positive dimension  $k = k(\boldsymbol{x}_0) \leq m$  passing through  $\boldsymbol{x}_0$ . The operator  $(-\Delta_A)^s$  is defined as follows:

$$(-\Delta_A)^s w(\boldsymbol{x}_0) = c_{k(\boldsymbol{x}_0),s} \text{ P.V.} \int_{A(\boldsymbol{x}_0)} \frac{w(\boldsymbol{x}_0) - w(\boldsymbol{x})}{|\boldsymbol{x}_0 - \boldsymbol{x}|^{N+2s}} d\mathcal{H}^{k(\boldsymbol{x}_0)}(\boldsymbol{x})$$
(2.1)

provided that the integral in the right-hand side is well defined. The notation  $d\mathcal{H}^{k(\boldsymbol{x}_0)}$  represents the  $k(\boldsymbol{x}_0)$ -dimensional Hausdorff measure.

When  $k(\boldsymbol{x}) \equiv m$ , i.e., when  $A(\boldsymbol{x}) = \mathbb{R}^m$  for all  $\boldsymbol{x} \in G$ , the operator  $(-\Delta_A)^s$  is non-degenerate and coincides with the usual fractional Laplacian  $(-\Delta)^s$ . In such a case, a strong minimum principle is found in [7]. Apart from considering the more general case  $0 < k(\boldsymbol{x}) \leq m$ , here we also put into evidence that the conclusion propagates to the whole space (see Remark (4)).

**Theorem 2.2** (Anisotropic strong maximum principle). Let k be any function from G to the set  $\{1,\ldots,m\}$ , and let A be a function that associates to every  $\mathbf{x} \in G$  a  $k(\mathbf{x})$ -dimensional affine subspace  $A(\mathbf{x}) \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ . Let  $w \colon \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}$  be an upper semicontinuous function satisfying

$$(-\Delta_A)^s w(\mathbf{x}) \le b(\mathbf{x}) w(\mathbf{x}) \quad in G$$
(2.2)

where  $b: G \to \mathbb{R}$  is any real-valued function.

- (i) Assume that G is bounded,  $w \leq 0$  in  $\mathbb{R}^m \setminus G$ , and  $b \leq 0$  in G. Then  $w \leq 0$  in all of  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .
- (ii) If  $w \leq 0$  in all of  $\mathbb{R}^m$ , and if  $w(\mathbf{x}_0) = 0$  at some  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in G$ , then  $w(\mathbf{x}) = 0$  for all  $\mathbf{x} \in A(\mathbf{x}_0)$ .

**Remarks.** (1) Claim (ii) holds even though G is unbounded, and irrespectively for the sign of b.

- (2) The two claims may be used together: indeed, under the assumptions of Claim (i), it follows that w is non-positive and therefore Claim (ii) applies.
- (3) The degeneracy of the operator  $(-\Delta_A)^s$  for k < m reflects on Claim (ii): indeed, from the equality  $w(\boldsymbol{x}_0) = 0$  it is not possible to deduce w = 0 in all of  $\mathbb{R}^m$  as in the non-degenerate case  $k(\boldsymbol{x}_0) = m$ .

(4) The non-local character of the operator  $(-\Delta_A)^s$ , for  $k \leq m$ , also appears in Claim (ii): the claim asserts that  $w(\boldsymbol{x}) = 0$  for all  $\boldsymbol{x}$  in the affine subspace  $A(\boldsymbol{x}_0)$ , i.e. even though  $\boldsymbol{x} \notin G$  and independently from the geometry (connectedness) of G. By contrast, a similar result does not hold for the Laplacian. For example, if  $-\Delta u \leq 0$  in an open set  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^N$ , and if u = 0 on  $\partial\Omega$  and  $u(\boldsymbol{x}_0) = 0$  at some  $\boldsymbol{x}_0 \in \Omega$ , then the function u may well be negative in some connected component of  $\Omega$  distinct from the one containing  $\boldsymbol{x}_0$ .

Proof of Theorem 2.2. Claim (i). If w were positive somewhere in G, then, by the compactness of  $\overline{G}$  and using the fact that  $w \leq 0$  in  $\mathbb{R}^m \setminus G$ , w would reach its (positive) maximum at some  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in G$ . By (2.1) we may write

$$(-\Delta_A)^s w(\boldsymbol{x}_0) \geq c_{k(\boldsymbol{x}_0),s} \text{ P.V.} \int_{G \cap A(\boldsymbol{x}_0)} \frac{w(\boldsymbol{x}_0) - w(\boldsymbol{x})}{|\boldsymbol{x}_0 - \boldsymbol{x}|^{N+2s}} d\mathcal{H}^{k(\boldsymbol{x}_0)}(\boldsymbol{x})$$
$$+ c_{k(\boldsymbol{x}_0),s} \int_{A(\boldsymbol{x}_0) \setminus G} \frac{w(\boldsymbol{x}_0)}{|\boldsymbol{x}_0 - \boldsymbol{x}|^{N+2s}} d\mathcal{H}^{k(\boldsymbol{x}_0)}(\boldsymbol{x}).$$

The first integral is non-negative because  $w(\boldsymbol{x}_0) = \max w$ . Concerning the second integral, we have omitted P.V. because  $\boldsymbol{x}_0$  is interior to G. Furthermore, since  $k(\boldsymbol{x}_0) > 0$  and G is bounded, the difference  $A(\boldsymbol{x}_0) \setminus G$  has an infinite  $k(\boldsymbol{x}_0)$ -dimensional measure. This and  $w(\boldsymbol{x}_0) > 0$  imply that the second integral is strictly positive. Consequently, we get that  $(-\Delta_A)^s w(\boldsymbol{x}_0) > 0$ . However,  $b(\boldsymbol{x}_0) \leq 0$  by assumption, hence  $b(\boldsymbol{x}_0) w(\boldsymbol{x}_0) \leq 0$ , thus contradicting (2.2). Thus, we must have  $w \leq 0$  in all of  $\mathbb{R}^m$ , as claimed.

Claim (ii). Suppose, by contradiction, that  $w(\mathbf{x}_1) < 0$  at some  $\mathbf{x}_1 \in A(\mathbf{x}_0)$ . Then, by upper semicontinuity, there exists  $\varepsilon_1 > 0$  such that  $-w(\mathbf{x}) \geq \varepsilon_1$  for all  $\mathbf{x}$  in the ball  $B_1 = B(\mathbf{x}_1, \varepsilon_1)$ . By reducing  $\varepsilon_1$  if necessary, we may assume that  $\mathbf{x}_0 \notin \overline{B}_1$ , thus avoiding singularities in the second integral below. Recalling that  $w(\mathbf{x}_0) = 0$ , we may write

$$(-\Delta_A)^s w(\boldsymbol{x}_0) \geq c_{k(\boldsymbol{x}_0),s} \text{ P.V.} \int_{A(\boldsymbol{x}_0)\setminus B_1} \frac{-w(\boldsymbol{x})}{|\boldsymbol{x}_0 - \boldsymbol{x}|^{N+2s}} d\mathcal{H}^{k(\boldsymbol{x}_0)}(\boldsymbol{x})$$

$$+ c_{k(\boldsymbol{x}_0),s} \int_{B_1 \cap A(\boldsymbol{x}_0)} \frac{\varepsilon_1}{|\boldsymbol{x}_0 - \boldsymbol{x}|^{N+2s}} d\mathcal{H}^{k(\boldsymbol{x}_0)}(\boldsymbol{x}).$$

As before, the first integral non-negative because now  $w \leq 0$  in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . Furthermore, the second integral is strictly positive because the intersection  $B_1 \cap A(\boldsymbol{x}_0)$  has a positive  $k(\boldsymbol{x}_0)$ -dimensional measure. Hence we get  $(-\Delta_A)^s w(\boldsymbol{x}_0) > 0$ . However, since  $b(\boldsymbol{x}_0) w(\boldsymbol{x}_0) = 0$ , a contradiction with (2.2) is reached. Thus, we must have  $w(\boldsymbol{x}) = 0$  for all  $\boldsymbol{x} \in A(\boldsymbol{x}_0)$ , and the proof is complete.

## 3 Fundamental expansion

In order to investigate the convexity of a solution u of (1.5), we will apply the operator  $(-\Delta_A)^s$  introduced in (2.1) to the concavity function C(x,y). To this aim we let m=2N and  $k(\mathbf{x})=k(x,y)\equiv N$ . Furthermore, in the present section we suitably choose the subspace  $A(\mathbf{x})=A(x,y)$  and give an expression of  $(-\Delta_A)^s C$  in terms of  $(-\Delta)^s u$ . To this purpose, we start from a spectral analysis of the matrix M in (3.2). Such a matrix was used in [6] as the characteristic matrix of a local operator to be applied to C(x,y). It is worth recalling that the idea of a rotation of the coordinate frame in order to give a PDE a more convenient form goes back to d'Alembert, who investigated the wave equation (see [5, p. 216]).

**Proposition 3.1** (Spectral analysis). Let I be the  $N \times N$  unit matrix,  $N \ge 1$ , and let  $\sigma, \tau$  be two real numbers such that  $\sigma^2 + \tau^2 > 0$ . Furthermore, let  $\omega \in [0, 2\pi)$  be the angle determined uniquely by

$$\cos \omega = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 + \tau^2}}, \qquad \sin \omega = \frac{\tau}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 + \tau^2}}.$$
 (3.1)

Then, the  $2N \times 2N$  symmetric matrix  $M = M(\sigma, \tau)$  given by

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma^2 I & \sigma \tau I \\ \sigma \tau I & \tau^2 I \end{pmatrix} \tag{3.2}$$

is transformed into a diagonal matrix by means of the orthogonal, symmetric matrix  $P = P(\omega)$  defined as follows:

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} (\cos \omega) I & (\sin \omega) I \\ (\sin \omega) I & (-\cos \omega) I \end{pmatrix}. \tag{3.3}$$

More precisely, we have

$$P^T M P = (\sigma^2 + \tau^2) \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

where the exponent  $^T$  denotes transposition, and 0 is the  $N \times N$  null matrix. The matrix  $M(\sigma,\tau)$  has two distinct eigenvalues: the eigenvalue  $\lambda_0 = 0$  and the eigenvalue  $\lambda_1 = \sigma^2 + \tau^2$ , each one of multiplicity N. The corresponding eigenspaces  $V_0(\omega)$  and  $V_1(\omega)$  are given by

$$V_0(\omega) = \left\{ (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2N} \middle| \binom{x}{y} = P \binom{0}{\eta}, \ \eta \in \mathbb{R}^N \setminus \{0\} \right\};$$
$$V_1(\omega) = \left\{ (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2N} \middle| \binom{x}{y} = P \binom{\xi}{0}, \ \xi \in \mathbb{R}^N \setminus \{0\} \right\}.$$

*Proof.* All claims are easily verified by computation.

We can now prove the following fundamental lemma, which gives an expansion of  $(-\Delta_A)^s C$  in terms of  $(-\Delta)^s u$  provided that A is defined as in (3.4).

**Lemma 3.2** (Fundamental expansion). Let  $u: \mathbb{R}^N \to \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function such that the fractional Laplacian  $(-\Delta)^s u(x)$  is well defined for all x in a convex domain  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^N$ ,  $N \geq 1$ . Fix  $x_0, y_0 \in \Omega$ , and let  $z_0 = (x_0 + y_0)/2$ . Choose an angle  $\omega \in [0, 2\pi)$  and define the N-dimensional affine subspace  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^{2N}$  as follows:

$$A = (x_0, y_0) + V_1(\omega)$$

$$= \left\{ (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2N} \middle| \binom{x}{y} = \binom{x_0}{y_0} + P\binom{\xi}{0}, \ \xi \in \mathbb{R}^N \setminus \{0\} \right\}.$$
(3.4)

Then

$$(-\Delta_A)^s C(x_0, y_0) = 2\left(\frac{|\cos \omega + \sin \omega|}{2}\right)^{2s} (-\Delta)^s u(z_0)$$

$$-|\cos \omega|^{2s} (-\Delta)^s u(x_0) - |\sin \omega|^{2s} (-\Delta)^s u(y_0).$$
(3.5)

*Proof.* Since the operator  $(-\Delta_A)^s$  is linear, and by (1.1), we start by computing  $(-\Delta_A)^s w(x_0, y_0)$ , where w(x, y) = u(z) and  $z = \frac{x+y}{2}$ . By means of the matrix  $P = P(\omega)$  defined in (3.3), we perform the change of variables  $\binom{x}{y} = \binom{x_0}{y_0} + P\binom{\xi}{0}$  and find

$$(-\Delta_A)^s u(\frac{x+y}{2})_{|(x_0,y_0)} = c_{N,s} \text{ P.V.} \int_A \frac{u(z_0) - u(z)}{|(x_0,y_0) - (x,y)|^{N+2s}} d\mathcal{H}^N(x,y)$$
$$= c_{N,s} \text{ P.V.} \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} \frac{u(z_0) - u(z_0 + \frac{\cos\omega + \sin\omega}{2}\xi)}{|\xi|^{N+2s}} d\xi.$$

In the case when  $\cos \omega + \sin \omega = 0$ , we immediately obtain  $(-\Delta_A)^s u(\frac{x+y}{2})_{|(x_0,y_0)} = 0$ . Otherwise we take  $z = z_0 + \frac{\cos \omega + \sin \omega}{2} \xi$  as the new variable of integration. Since  $dz = (\frac{|\cos \omega + \sin \omega|}{2})^N d\xi$ , we arrive at

$$(-\Delta_A)^s u(\frac{x+y}{2})_{|(x_0,y_0)} = \left(\frac{|\cos\omega + \sin\omega|}{2}\right)^{2s} c_{N,s} \text{ P.V.} \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} \frac{u(z_0) - u(z)}{|z_0 - z|^{N+2s}} dz$$

$$= \left(\frac{|\cos\omega + \sin\omega|}{2}\right)^{2s} (-\Delta)^s u(z_0).$$

Note that the last equality collects the case  $\cos \omega + \sin \omega = 0$  as well. To proceed further, let us compute  $(-\Delta_A)^s w(x_0, y_0)$  where the function w, different from before, is given by w(x, y) = u(x). Denote by  $\pi_1(x, y) = x$  the first canonical projection over  $\mathbb{R}^N$ . Using again the change of variables  $\binom{x}{y} = \binom{x_0}{y_0} + P\binom{\xi}{0}$  we find

$$(-\Delta_A)^s u(\pi_1(x,y))_{|(x_0,y_0)} = c_{N,s} \text{ P.V.} \int_A \frac{u(x_0) - u(x)}{|(x_0,y_0) - (x,y)|^{N+2s}} d\mathcal{H}^N(x,y)$$
$$= c_{N,s} \text{ P.V.} \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} \frac{u(x_0) - u(x_0 + (\cos \omega) \xi)}{|\xi|^{N+2s}} d\xi.$$

If  $\cos \omega = 0$  we immediately obtain  $(-\Delta_A)^s u(\pi_1(x,y))|_{(x_0,y_0)} = 0$ . Otherwise we use  $x = x_0 + (\cos \omega) \xi$  as the new variable of integration. Since  $dx = |\cos \omega|^N d\xi$ , we arrive at

$$(-\Delta_A)^s u(\pi_1(x,y))_{|_{(x_0,y_0)}} = |\cos \omega|^{2s} c_{N,s} \text{ P.V.} \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} \frac{u(x_0) - u(x)}{|x_0 - x|^{N+2s}} dx$$
$$= |\cos \omega|^{2s} (-\Delta)^s u(x_0).$$

The equality above continues to hold when  $\cos \omega = 0$ . Finally, a similar computation shows that  $(-\Delta_A)^s u(\pi_2(x,y))_{|_{(x_0,y_0)}} = |\sin \omega|^{2s} (-\Delta)^s u(y_0)$ , where  $\pi_2(x,y) = y$  is the second canonical projection over  $\mathbb{R}^N$ . The lemma follows.

# 4 A non-local inequality

We establish a non-local inequality of the form (2.2) satisfied by the function C(x, y) in the set  $G = \Omega^2$ . More precisely, we give conditions on the function f in (1.5) sufficient to obtain such an inequality through the expansion (3.5). We state for first the general assumption (4.1), then we discuss some special cases where such an assumption holds.

**Lemma 4.1** (Non-local inequality). Let  $\Omega$  be a convex domain in  $\mathbb{R}^N$ , and let u be a (continuous) solution of (1.5). Denote by  $U = \{t \in \mathbb{R} \mid t = u(x) \text{ for some } x \in \Omega\}$  the interval described by u(x) as x ranges in  $\Omega$ . Suppose that for every couple of real numbers  $t_1, t_2 \in U$  there exists an angle  $\omega = \omega(t_1, t_2) \in [0, 2\pi)$  such that

$$2\left(\frac{|\cos\omega + \sin\omega|}{2}\right)^{2s} f(\frac{t_1 + t_2}{2}) - |\cos\omega|^{2s} f(t_1) - |\sin\omega|^{2s} f(t_2) \le 0.$$
 (4.1)

Then for every  $(x_0, y_0) \in G$  we may define the N-dimensional affine subspace  $A = A(x_0, y_0) \subset \mathbb{R}^{2N}$  by letting  $\omega = \omega(u(x_0), u(y_0))$  in (3.4), and we have

$$(-\Delta_A)^s C(x_0, y_0) \le b(x_0, y_0) C(x_0, y_0) \quad \text{for all } (x_0, y_0) \in G$$
 (4.2)

where the coefficient  $b(x_0, y_0)$  is given by

$$b(x_0, y_0) = \begin{cases} 2\left(\frac{|\cos\omega + \sin\omega|}{2}\right)^{2s} \frac{f(u(\frac{x_0 + y_0}{2})) - f(\frac{u(x_0) + u(y_0)}{2})}{C(x_0, y_0)}, & C(x_0, y_0) \neq 0; \\ 0 & C(x_0, y_0) = 0. \end{cases}$$

*Proof.* The conclusion follows from Lemma 3.2 by using assumption (4.1) and the identity

$$2\left(\frac{|\cos\omega + \sin\omega|}{2}\right)^{2s} f(u(z_0)) = 2\left(\frac{|\cos\omega + \sin\omega|}{2}\right)^{2s} f(\frac{u(x_0) + u(y_0)}{2}) + b(x_0, y_0) C(x_0, y_0).$$

**Remarks.** (1) If the function f is monotone non-increasing then  $b(x,y) \leq 0$  in G. The last inequality is an assumption of Claim (i) of the maximum principle (Theorem 2.2).

- (2) Assumption (4.1) is satisfied if  $f(t) \ge 0$  for all  $t \in U$ . This is readily seen by letting  $\omega(t_1, t_2) = \frac{3}{4} \pi$  for all  $t_1, t_2 \in U$ , so that  $\cos \omega + \sin \omega = 0$ .
- (3) If f is a convex function (hence, in particular, if f is constant) then assumption (4.1) holds with  $\omega(t_1, t_2) \equiv \frac{\pi}{4}$ .

A further condition implying (4.1) involves the harmonic concavity of the function g = -f. For the present purposes, it is convenient to adopt the following definition:

**Definition 4.2.** (Harmonic concavity) A non-negative function g defined in an interval  $U \subset \mathbb{R}$  is harmonic concave if

$$g(\frac{t_1+t_2}{2}) \ge \frac{2g(t_1)g(t_2)}{g(t_1)+g(t_2)}$$

for every  $t_1, t_2 \in U$  such that  $g(t_1) + g(t_2) > 0$ .

If g is concave, then it is harmonic concave (see [12, p. 688]). In comparison to the definition in [6, 11, 12], the present one is restricted to the case  $g \geq 0$ : this because we will consider the power function  $g^{2s-1}$  in the proof of the following proposition. In the realm of continuous, non-negative functions, all the mentioned definitions coincide. Continuity enters in this equivalence because the definition here (as well as in [6]) involves just the middle point  $\frac{t_1+t_2}{2}$  instead of the whole interval  $\lambda t_1 + (1-\lambda)t_2$ ,  $\lambda \in (0,1)$ , as in [11, 12]. Finally, it is worth recalling that a positive continuous function g is harmonic concave if and only if 1/g is convex.

**Proposition 4.3.** Suppose  $s \in [\frac{1}{2}, 1)$ . If  $f(t) \leq 0$  for all  $t \in U$ , and if the function g = -f is harmonic concave, then (4.1) holds.

Proof. Fix  $t_1, t_2 \in U$ . If  $f(t_1) = f(t_2) = 0$ , we may take  $\omega$  arbitrarily and (4.1) holds because  $f(\frac{t_1+t_2}{2}) \leq 0$ . For later purposes we choose  $\omega = \frac{5}{4}\pi$ . If, instead,  $f(t_1) + f(t_2) > 0$ , then we let  $\omega \in (\frac{3}{4}\pi, \frac{7}{4}\pi)$  be the angle determined by (3.1) with  $\sigma = f(t_2)$  and  $\tau = f(t_1)$ . Since  $|\sigma + \tau| = -\sigma - \tau$ , the target condition (4.1) may be rewritten as

$$\left(\frac{-\sigma - \tau}{2}\right)^{2s} g\left(\frac{t_1 + t_2}{2}\right) - \frac{|\sigma|^{2s} g(t_1) + |\tau|^{2s} g(t_2)}{2} \ge 0. \tag{4.3}$$

If either  $|\sigma| = g(t_2) = 0$  or  $|\tau| = g(t_1) = 0$ , then (4.3) trivially holds. Otherwise, since g is harmonic concave, in order to prove (4.3) it is enough to check that

$$\left(\frac{g(t_2)+g(t_1)}{2}\right)^{2s-1} g(t_1) g(t_2) - \frac{(g(t_2))^{2s} g(t_1) + (g(t_1))^{2s} g(t_2)}{2} \ge 0.$$

Dividing by  $g(t_1) g(t_2)$  we get the equivalent inequality

$$\left(\frac{g(t_2)+g(t_1)}{2}\right)^{2s-1} - \frac{(g(t_2))^{2s-1}+(g(t_1))^{2s-1}}{2} \ge 0,$$

which holds true because the power function  $a^{2s-1}$  with  $s \in [\frac{1}{2}, 1)$  is concave in the variable a > 0.

# 5 Applications

Let us prove the two sample statements given in the Introduction. We start proving the following, generalized form of Theorem 1.1, which also applies to non-convex functions f(t).

**Theorem 5.1.** Let  $u \in C^0(\mathbb{R}^N)$  be a solution of (1.5) in a convex, bounded domain  $\Omega$ . Suppose that the function f(t) in (1.5) satisfies (4.1) and is monotone non-increasing when t ranges in the interval U, image of the domain  $\Omega$  trough the function u. If

$$u(\frac{x+y}{2}) \le \frac{u(x)+u(y)}{2}$$

whenever  $x, y \notin \Omega$ , as well as when  $x \in \Omega$  and  $y \notin \Omega$ , then u is convex in  $\mathbb{R}^N$ .

*Proof.* The assumptions on u imply  $C(x,y) \leq 0$  in  $\mathbb{R}^{2N} \setminus \Omega^2$ , those on f imply that C satisfies inequality (4.2) in the bounded domain  $G = \Omega^2$ , with  $b \leq 0$ . Since  $\Omega$  is bounded, the theorem follows from Claim (i) of Theorem 2.2.

The statement in Theorem 1.2 is a special case of the following, which makes use of the notion of harmonic concavity.

**Theorem 5.2.** Let  $s \in [\frac{1}{2}, 1)$ , and let  $u: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$  be a convex function in the plane satisfying equation (1.5) in a convex domain  $\Omega$ . Suppose that the function f in (1.5) is non-positive and harmonic concave. If there exist two distinct points  $x_0, y_0 \in \Omega$  such that  $u(\frac{x_0+y_0}{2}) = \frac{u(x_0)+u(y_0)}{2}$  then the graph of u over  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is a ruled surface.

*Proof.* Observe, firstly, that since u is convex by assumption then whenever C(x, y) = 0 the graph of u contains the line segment whose endpoints are  $(x, u(x)), (y, u(y)) \in \mathbb{R}^{N+1}$ . This will be repeatedly used in the sequel.

In order to prove the theorem, let us apply the fractional convexity maximum principle. The assumptions on f imply that C(x,y) satisfies inequality (4.2) in  $G = \Omega^2$ . The assumptions on u imply  $C(x,y) \leq 0$  in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ , and there exists  $(x_0,y_0) \in G$  such that  $C(x_0,y_0) = 0$ . Hence by Claim (ii) of Theorem 2.2 we have

$$C(x,y) = 0 \text{ for all } (x,y) \in A = A(x_0, y_0).$$
 (5.1)

The two-dimensional affine subspace  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^4$  is given by (3.4), where the angle  $\omega$  is chosen as in the proof of Proposition 4.3: if  $f(u(x_0)) = f(u(y_0)) = 0$  then  $\omega = \frac{5}{4}\pi$ , otherwise  $\omega$  is determined by (3.1) with  $\sigma = f(u(y_0))$  and  $\tau = f(u(x_0))$ . Since  $f \leq 0$  by assumption, we get  $\omega \in [\pi, \frac{3}{2}\pi]$ . In conclusion, by (5.1) we may write C(x,y) = 0 for all  $x,y \in \mathbb{R}^2$  given by

$$\begin{cases} x = x_0 + (\cos \omega) \xi \\ y = y_0 + (\sin \omega) \xi \end{cases}$$

as  $\xi$  ranges in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Letting  $\xi = \lambda (x_0 - y_0)$  for  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ , and recalling the initial observation, we see that the graph of u contains the whole straight line passing through  $(x_0, u(x_0))$  and  $(y_0, u(y_0))$ .

Now let us turn our attention to the points  $x_1 \in \mathbb{R}^2$  such that  $x_1 \neq x_0 + \lambda (x_0 - y_0)$  for every  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ . Since  $\cos \omega$  and  $\sin \omega$  cannot vanish simultaneously, without loss of generality suppose  $\cos \omega \neq 0$ . Then every  $x_1$  as above is given by  $x_1 = x_0 + (\cos \omega) \xi_1$  for a convenient  $\xi_1 \in \mathbb{R}^2$ , which in its turn defines a particular point  $y_1 = y_0 + (\sin \omega) \xi_1$ . Since  $\cos \omega, \sin \omega \leq 0$ , and since  $x_0 \neq y_0$  by assumption, we have  $y_1 \neq x_1$ . Arguing as before we get that the graph of u contains the whole straight line passing through  $(x_1, u(x_1))$  and  $(y_1, u(y_1))$ . Since  $x_1$  is arbitrary, the graph of u is a ruled surface, as claimed.

Let us conclude the paper by explaining why the present method cannot be used to prove that the solution to

$$\begin{cases} (-\Delta)^s u = -1 & \text{in } \Omega; \\ u = 0 & \text{in } \mathbb{R}^N \setminus \Omega, \end{cases}$$
 (5.2)

where  $\Omega$  is a smooth, convex, bounded domain, is concave in  $\Omega$ . Essentially, the present method fails because the solution u of (5.2), which is positive in  $\Omega$  and vanishes outside, is *not* concave in the whole space. Nevertheless, in view of the results in [19] concerning the boundary behavior of u, we may expect that the restriction of u to the domain  $\Omega$  is concave.

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12 Antonio Greco

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