# Existence, Uniqueness, and Nondegeneracy of Positive Solutions of Semilinear Elliptic Equations 

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#### Abstract

We study positive solutions of the Dirichlet problem: $\Delta u(x)+f(u(x))$ $=0, x \in D^{n}, u(x)=0, x \in \partial D^{n}$, where $D^{n}$ is an $n$-ball. We find necessary and sufficient conditions for solutions to be nondegenerate. We also give some new existence and uniqueness theorems.


In this paper we study positive solutions of the Dirichlet problem

$$
\begin{gather*}
\Delta u(x)+f(u(x))=0, \quad x \in \Omega  \tag{1}\\
u(x)=0, \quad x \in \partial \Omega \tag{2}
\end{gather*}
$$

where $\Omega$ is an $n$-ball $D_{R}^{n}$ of radius $R$. Our original interest was with the degeneracy problem for solutions of (1), (2). That is, we wanted to find conditions under which 0 is not in the spectrum of the linearized equations; in symbols,

$$
\text { if }\left\{\begin{aligned}
\Delta v(x)+f^{\prime}(u(x)) v(x) & =0, & & x \in \Omega \\
v(x) & =0, & & x \in \partial \Omega
\end{aligned}\right\}, \text { then } \quad v \equiv 0 .
$$

When this holds, we say that the solution $u$ of (1), (2) is non-degenerate; otherwise $u$ is called degenerate. The interest in this notion comes from the fact that the nondegeneracy of a solution allows application of certain topological techniques to it, whereby its stability properties can be investigated [8, Chap. 24, Sect. D]. In pursuing this problem, we were led quite naturally to existence and uniqueness questions for (1), (2), and we also obtain some new results in these directions.

From a result of Gidas et al. [4], all positive solutions of (1), (2) on $\Omega=D_{R}^{n}$ are (monotone decreasing) functions of the radius, and must therefore satisfy a nonautonomous ordinary differential equation. Our uniqueness results follow from a general theorem concerning non-bifurcation of solutions of equations of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
u^{\prime \prime}+g\left(u, u^{\prime}, t\right)=0 \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

[^0]satisfying linear boundary conditions. Again using the fact that positive solutions of (1), (2) on balls satisfy an ordinary differential equation, we prove some new existence theorems. Our hypotheses are only concerned with the behavior of $f$ at infinity; in particular, we do not require any sign conditions on $f(0)$ (compare with [6]). Thus for example, if $f(u)=O\left(u^{k}\right)$ as $u \rightarrow+\infty$, we give a general condition, [Eq. (36)], for solutions to exist. This enables us to prove, for example, that if $f$ is superlinear, and $f^{\prime \prime} \leqq 0$, then for each $n$, positive solutions exist for some range of $R$ 's.

In order to study the non-degeneracy of solutions of (1), (2), we use the decomposition of a solution of the linearized equations in terms of the eigenfunctions of the Laplacian on the $(n-1)$-sphere $S^{n-1}$. We prove that as a consequence of the monotonicity of the positive solution, all modes of higher order than the second must vanish. The fact that the lowest mode is zero follows from a general non-degeneracy theorem which we give for positive solutions of (3). Indeed, we find a necessary and sufficient condition for a positive solution of (1), (2) to be non-degenerate. This condition is stated in terms of the associated "timemap," $T(p), p=u(0)$, (see $[9,10]$ ), and the statement is that a positive solution is non-degenerate if and only if both $T^{\prime}(p) \neq 0$, and $u^{\prime}(R) \neq 0$. We remark that our existence and uniqueness theorems are also obtained from studying properties of the time-map.

We illustrate all of our theorems by considering the special cases where $f(u) / u$ is monotone. For example if $f(u) / u$ is a decreasing function, then (1), (2) has at most one positive solution. If in addition $f$ is positive, then solutions exist on all balls $D_{R}^{n}$, $R \geqq \delta>0$ provided that $f(u) / u \rightarrow 0$, while if $f(u) / u \geqq \lambda^{2}>0$, in $u>0$, solutions exist on $D_{R}^{n}$ only for a bounded range of $R$ 's, $0<R<R(\lambda, n)$. These positive solutions are always non-degenerate. In fact, even more is true; namely, whenever $(f(u) / u)^{\prime}<0$, then for any bounded domain $\Omega$ (not necessarily an $n$-ball), the entire spectrum of the linearized operator lies in the open subset of $\mathbb{R}, x<-\eta$, for some $\eta=\eta(f, n)>0$. This means that the positive solution is a stable stationary solution of the associated time-dependent problem

$$
\begin{gathered}
u_{t}=\Delta u+f(u), \quad(x, t) \in D_{R}^{n} \times \mathbb{R}_{+}, \\
\\
u=0, \quad(x, t) \in D_{R}^{n} \times \mathbb{R}_{+}
\end{gathered}
$$

Since the stationary solution depends only on the radius and is monotone, our stability result can be interpreted as showing that asymptotically, at least, this symmetry cannot be broken under small perturbations.

The case where both $(f(u) / u)^{\prime}>0$ and $f^{\prime \prime} \leqq 0$ in $u>0$ is also interesting. Namely, we show that if $f(0)<0$, the positive solution of (1), (2) exists only on balls $D_{R}^{n}$, where $R_{2}<R \leqq R_{1}$; that is on balls which are neither too small nor too large. These solutions are the unique positive ones, and are non-degenerate if and only if $R \neq R_{1}$. The degenerate solution on $D_{R_{1}}^{n}$ is the only one which also satisfies homogeneous Neumann boundary conditions. Among other things, this observation shows that for solutions of (1), (2), the condition $u^{\prime}(r)<0$ in $0<r<R$, (see [4]), cannot be improved. In addition we show that in this case, the positive solution is unique and is an unstable solution of the above time dependent problem. This implies, using a well-known result, [8, p. 100], that the existence of a positive
solution cannot be obtained via the method of upper and lower solutions; nor can positive solutions be gotten as minima of (unconstrained) functionals.

Some of our results are extensions to non-autonomous systems of our earlier work, where we considered related questions for autonomous second-order equations; the proof of non-degeneracy given here is actually simpler and more intuitive than our earlier less general result in [9]. The uniqueness question, where $\Omega=\mathbb{R}^{n}$, has recently been treated by Peletier and Serrin [7]. See also the survey paper by Lions [6], which is concerned mainly with existence questions. In both of these articles entirely different methods than ours are used.

## 2. Non-Autonomous Ordinary Differential Equations

In this section we prove a general result which will be used in many of our applications. Thus we consider non-negative solutions of the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
u^{\prime \prime}+g\left(u, u^{\prime}, t\right)=0, \quad 0<t<L \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $g$ is a $C^{2}$-function together with the boundary conditions

$$
\begin{equation*}
u^{\prime}(0)=u(L)=0 . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

The theorem which we prove below is valid for any linear boundary conditions; we take (4) only for ease in notation, and for the application to (1), (2). Let $u(0)=p>0$, $u^{\prime}(0)=0$ and let $u(t, p)$ denote the solution of (3), having $u(0)=p$. We set

$$
A=\left\{p \in \mathbb{R}_{+}: u(t, p)=0 \text { for some } t>0\right\}
$$

Define a mapping $T: A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{+}$by

$$
T(p)=\min \{t>0: u(t, p)=0\}
$$

Observe that $u \geqq 0$ is a solution to (3), (4) if and only if $u(0)=p \in A$ and $T(p)=L$. [ $T(p)$ is differentiable; see the appendix.]

Now in order to prove the uniqueness of solutions, it is sufficient to prove that $T^{\prime}(p) \neq 0$ for $p \in A^{\text {int }}$, (assuming that $A$ is connected, as it is in the applications; otherwise we only prove local uniqueness, in other words non-bifurcation in the sense that the solutions are isolated). For, if $u\left(\cdot, p_{1}\right)$ and $u\left(\cdot, p_{2}\right)$ are solutions of (3), (4) and $T\left(p_{1}\right)=L=T\left(p_{2}\right)$, then $T^{\prime}(p)=0$ for some $p \in A^{\text {int }}$ by Rolle's theorem.

The analytical expression for $T$ is fairly complicated and we shall avoid working with it here; instead, we shall proceed indirectly. To this end denote by $\sigma_{t}(q)$, the flow on $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ generated by (3) where $q=(u, v, t) \in \mathbb{R}^{3}$, with $u^{\prime}=v$, $v^{\prime}=-g(u, v, t), t^{\prime}=1$. Thus, if $X=(v,-g, 1)$, then $\sigma_{t}^{\prime}(q)=X_{\sigma_{t}(q)}, \sigma_{0}(q)=q$, and $\sigma_{t}\left(\sigma_{s}(q)\right)=\sigma_{t+s}(q)$. Let $\pi$ be the projection defined by $\pi(u, v, t)=(u, v, 0)$. We begin with an easy lemma.

Lemma 1. Assume that along an orbit $\left\{\sigma_{t}(q)\right\}$ of (3) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
v^{2}+u g(u, v, t)>0 \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where we are denoting $u^{\prime}$ by $v$. Then the vectors $\pi q, X$, and $\partial / \partial t$ form a basis at each point on $\left\{\sigma_{t}(q)\right\}$. (Here $\left.q=q(t)=(u(t), v(t), t), X=(v(t),-g(u(t), v(t), t)), 1\right)$, and $\partial / \partial t=(0,0,1)$.

Proof. The matrix

$$
(\pi q, X, \partial / \partial t)=\left(\begin{array}{rrr}
u & v & 0 \\
v & -g & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

is non-singular since (5) holds.
For $p \in R$, we let $\bar{p}=(p, 0,0) \in \mathbb{R}^{3}$, and $\sigma_{t}(\bar{p})=q$. Now assuming (5), we can write

$$
\begin{equation*}
d \sigma_{t}(\bar{p})[\bar{p}]=a \pi q+b X+c \partial / \partial t \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $a=a(t, p)$ and $b=b(t, p)$. But from (4)

$$
\partial \sigma_{T(p)}(\bar{p}) / \partial p=\partial(0, v(T(p)), T(p)) / \partial p=\left(0, v^{\prime}(T(p)) T^{\prime}(p), T^{\prime}(p)\right)
$$

and also from the chain rule,

$$
\partial \sigma_{T(p)}(\bar{p}) / \partial p=d \sigma_{T(p)}[\bar{p} /\|\bar{p}\|]+T^{\prime}(p) X=a \pi q+\left(b+T^{\prime}(p)\right) X+c \partial / \partial t
$$

Thus if we equate the first components of both expressions for $\partial \sigma_{T(p)}(\bar{p}) / \partial p$, and recall that $\pi q(T(p))=(0, v, 0)$, we find $b+T^{\prime}(p)=0$, if $v(T(p)) \neq 0$, where $b=b(T(p)$, $p$ ). If(5) holds, then for local uniqueness it suffices to prove that $b \neq 0$. Note too that if we equate third components, we get $T^{\prime}(p)=b+T^{\prime}(p)+c$; i.e., $c=-b$.

Now we differentiate (6) with respect to $t$ and use the well-known relation [5],

$$
\frac{d}{d t} d \sigma_{t}(v)=d X d \sigma_{t}(v)
$$

to obtain (where "dot" denotes differentiation with respect to $t$ ),

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a d X(\pi q)+b d X(X)+c d X(\partial / \partial t)=\dot{a} \pi q+a \pi \dot{q} q+\dot{b} X+b \dot{X}+\dot{c} \partial / \partial t \\
& \quad=\dot{a} \pi q+a(X-\partial / \partial t)+\dot{b} X+b d X(X)-\dot{b} \partial / \partial t
\end{aligned}
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
a d X(\pi q)-b d X(\partial / \partial t)=\dot{a} \pi q+a(X-\partial / \partial t)+\dot{b}(X-\partial / \partial t) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $\widetilde{\pi q}=(-v, u, 0)$, and $\widetilde{\pi \bar{X}}=(g, v, 0)$, then taking inner products with (7) by these quantities gives successively the following two equations:

$$
\begin{gather*}
\widetilde{\pi q} \cdot(X-\partial / \partial t) \dot{b}=\widetilde{\pi q} \cdot[d X(\pi q)-(X-\partial / \partial t)] a-\widetilde{\pi q} \cdot(d X(\partial / \partial t)) b \\
\widetilde{\pi \bar{X}} \cdot(\pi q) \dot{a}=\widetilde{\pi \widetilde{X}} \cdot[d X(\pi q)-(X-\partial / \partial t)] a-\widetilde{\pi X} \cdot(d X(\partial / \partial t)) b . \tag{8}
\end{gather*}
$$

Since

$$
X=\left(\begin{array}{r}
v \\
-g \\
1
\end{array}\right), \quad \text { and } \quad d X=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & 1 & 0 \\
-g_{2} & -g_{2} & -g_{3} \\
0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

the equations (8) become

$$
\begin{gather*}
-\left(v^{2}+u g\right) \dot{b}=u\left(g-u g_{u}-v g_{v}\right) a+u g_{t} b \\
\left(v^{2}+u g\right) \dot{a}=v\left(g-u g_{u}-v g_{v}\right) a+v g_{t} b . \tag{9}
\end{gather*}
$$

We define the quantity $\phi$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi=g-u g_{u}-v g_{v} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

and we then have the following theorem.
Theorem 2. Suppose that along an orbit $\sigma_{t}(\bar{p})$ of (3), (4), condition (5) holds, and uvф $g_{t}<0$ and both $\phi>0, g_{t}>0$ in $0<t<L$. Then Eq. (3) together with boundary conditions (4) has isolated (i.e., locally unique) solutions. If the domain of $T$ is connected, then global uniqueness holds in the sense that this problem has at most one solution.

Proof. Note $v(t)<0$ on $0<t<L$ since $u(t)>0$ on this range. We show now that $b(t)<0$ on $0<t<\varepsilon$, for some $\varepsilon>0$. To see this, consider the first equation in (9), which we write in the form, $b^{\prime}+h b=k a$, where $h=\left(u g_{t}\right)\left(v^{2}+u g\right)^{-1}$, and $k=-u \phi\left(v^{2}+u g\right)^{-1}$. Note that $k<0$, and $a>0$ for small $t>0$. If

$$
H(t)=\int_{\delta}^{t} h(s) d s, \quad \delta>0
$$

then multiplying our equation by $e^{H}$ and integrating, we get,

$$
b(t)=e^{H(\varepsilon)-H(t)} b(\varepsilon)+e^{-H(t)} \int_{\varepsilon}^{t} e^{H(s)} k(s) a(s) d s .
$$

Note that the above integral is negative, and that $\operatorname{sgn} h=\operatorname{sgn}\left(u g_{t}\right)>0$ so that $H(\varepsilon)$ $<0$ if $\varepsilon<\delta$. Thus if we let $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ in the above equation, we find that $b(t)<0$ for small $t>0$ since $b(0)=0$.

Now at $t=0, a=1$, and $b=0$. Also, when $a>0$ and $b=0, \operatorname{sgn} \dot{b}=\operatorname{sgn}(-u \phi)$, and when $a=0$, and $\operatorname{sgn} b=\operatorname{sgn}(-u \phi), \operatorname{sgn} \dot{a}=\operatorname{sgn}\left(-u v \phi g_{t}\right)>0$ if $t>0$. Thus the "orbit" $(a(t), b(t)) \equiv[a(u(t), v(t)), b(u(t), v(t))]$ is trapped in the quadrant $a>0$, sgn $b$ $=\operatorname{sgn}(-u \phi)<0$ (see Fig. 1). Noting that $a \neq 0$ when $t=L$ (for otherwise $b(L)=0$ and hence $c(L)=0$, so that $d \sigma_{L}(\bar{p})[\bar{p}]=0$; this is impossible since $\sigma_{L}$ is a diffeomorphism and $\bar{p} \neq 0$ ), we see that $b(L)<0$. This completes the proof.

## 3. Application to Uniqueness Problems

In this section we shall apply our theorem to solutions ${ }^{1}$ of the Dirichlet problem (1), (2). Here is our first theorem.

Theorem 3. Suppose that $f: \mathbb{R}_{+} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is $C^{2}$ and satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
(f(u) / u)^{\prime}<0, \text { for } \quad u>0 \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then there is at most one non-negative solution to the problem (1), (2). In addition $\operatorname{dom}(T)$ is connected.

[^1]

Fig. 1
Proof. First note that (11) implies $f(0) \geqq 0$. From the results in [4], the nonnegative solutions of (1), (2) are radially symmetric, and thus satisfy the ordinary differential equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
u^{\prime \prime}+\frac{n-1}{r} u^{\prime}+f(u)=0, \quad 0<r<R, \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

together with the boundary conditions

$$
\begin{equation*}
u^{\prime}(0)=u(R)=0 . \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the notation of the last section, we have

$$
g\left(u, u^{\prime}, r\right)=\frac{n-1}{r} u^{\prime}+f(u) ;
$$

thus $\phi=f(u)-u f^{\prime}(u)>0$, and $g_{\mathrm{r}}=-(n-1) r^{-2} u^{\prime}>0$, since $u^{\prime}<0$ in $0<r<R$ (see [4]). It follows that $u v \phi g_{r}<0$ in $r>0$, where we have set $u^{\prime}$ equal to $v$.

In order to apply Theorem 2 , we must also show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(r) \equiv v(r)^{2}+u(r) g(u(r), v(r), r)>0 \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

along any solution $(u(r), v(r))$ of (12), (13), where, as above, $v(r)=u^{\prime}(r)$. To do this it suffices to show two things; namely i) $h(0)>0$, and ii) $h^{\prime}(r)>0$ when $h(r)=0$.

For i ), note that $u(0)>0, v(0)=0$, and $v(r)<0$ if $r>0$. Thus, since $\lim _{r \rightarrow 0} v r^{-1}$ $=u^{\prime \prime}(0)$ and $n u^{\prime \prime}(0)+f(u(0))=0$, we see that $f(u(0)) \geqq 0$. But $f(u(0)) \neq 0$ since otherwise we would be at a "rest" point. Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
h(0) & =u(0)\left[-(n-1) \frac{f(u(0))}{n}+f(u(0))\right] \\
& =\frac{1}{n} u(0) f(u(0))>0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

For ii), we have, when $v^{2}=-u g$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
h^{\prime}(r) & =-2 v g+v g+u\left(g_{u} v-g_{v} g+g_{r}\right) \\
& =-v g+u v g_{u}-u g g_{v}+u g_{r} \\
& =-v g+u v g_{u}+v^{2} g_{v}+u g_{r} \\
& =-v \phi-\frac{n-1}{r^{2}} u v \\
& >0,
\end{aligned}
$$

since $v<0$ in $0<r \leqq R^{2}$. Thus (14) holds.

[^2]Finally, in order to complete the proof of the theorem we must prove that the domain of $T$ is connected. To this end, first note that $f(0) \geqq 0$, and that $f$ can be zero at most once in $u>0$.

Now we shall show that $D=\operatorname{dom}(T)$ is open. Let $p \in D$; then $f(p)>0$, and since $f$ satisfies (11), $f(u)>0$ for $0<u \leqq p$. It follows that $v(r, p)<0$ for $0<r \leqq R=T(p)$. Thus $u(T(p)+\varepsilon, p)<0$ for small $\varepsilon>0$, so $u(T(p)+\varepsilon, q)<p$ for $q$ near $p$; hence $q \in D$ and $D$ is open.

Next, let $\bar{p}=\inf D$, and choose $p_{n} \in D$ with $p_{n} \searrow p$. Since $u\left(T\left(p_{n}\right), p_{n}\right)=0$, and $T^{\prime}$ $>0$ on $D\left(\right.$ from Theorem 2), we see that $\lim u\left(T\left(p_{n}\right), p_{n}\right)=u\left(\lim T\left(p_{n}\right), \bar{p}\right)=0$; thus $\bar{p} \in D$. But as we have observed above, if $\bar{p}>0$, then $u^{\prime}(T(\bar{p}), \tilde{p})<0$, and this would violate the definition of $\bar{p}$. Thus $\bar{p}=0$ and $D=\{u>0\}$. This completes the proof.
Remarks. It is not very hard to show that $D=\operatorname{dom}(T)$ is in fact, non-void provided that $f$ satisfies (11). Thus, if $f(u) / u \searrow A>0$ as $u \rightarrow \infty$, then $f(u)=O(u)$ as $u \rightarrow \infty$, and by Corollary 15 (below), there are solutions $u(\cdot, p)$ for all sufficiently large $p$, and hence for all $p$. If on the other hand, $f(u) / u \searrow 0$ as $u \rightarrow \infty,[$ or $f(\beta)=0$ for some $\beta>0]$, then since $\bar{u}>u$ implies $f(u) / u>f(\bar{u}) / \bar{u}$, we see that $f^{\prime}(0)=k>0$. Therefore, defining $g(u)=k^{-1} f(u)$, we see there is a one-to-one correspondence between solutions of the Dirichlet problems for (1) and $\Delta u+g(u)=0$, (for different $R$ 's, of course). Thus we may assume that $f^{\prime}(0)=1$, and this enables us to apply Theorem 1.4 of [6] (see also [1]) in order to obtain a solution of (1), (2). Thus again $D \neq \emptyset$.

Our next result considers the case where $\phi$ is negative; here we find it necessary to further restrict $f^{3}$.

Theorem 4. Suppose that $f: \mathbb{R}_{+} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfies the conditions

$$
\begin{equation*}
(f(u) / u)^{\prime}>0 \quad \text { and } \quad f^{\prime \prime}(u) \leqq 0 \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $u>0$. Then $\operatorname{dom}(T)$ is connected, and there is at most one non-negative solution of the problem (1), (2).
Proof. Note first that $f(0) \leqq 0$. As in Theorem 3, we first show that $T^{\prime}(p)$ $=-b(T(p))<0$ for orbits with $v(T(p), p) \neq 0$, and then show that the domain of $T$ is an interval.

From (7), we have

$$
a\left(\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
\phi \\
0
\end{array}\right)+b\left(\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
g_{r} \\
0
\end{array}\right)=a^{\prime}\left(\begin{array}{c}
u \\
v \\
0
\end{array}\right)+b^{\prime}\left(\begin{array}{r}
v \\
-g \\
0
\end{array}\right)
$$

and this gives the equations

$$
\begin{gather*}
a^{\prime} u+b^{\prime} v=0 \\
a^{\prime} v-b^{\prime} g=a \phi+b g_{r} \tag{16}
\end{gather*}
$$

[^3]Since $g_{r}=-(n-1) v r^{-2}>0, \phi<0, u>0$ and $v<0$, we have $u v g_{r} \phi>0$, and the previous argument does not apply. However, since $a(0)=1, b(0)=0, u(0)>0, v(0)$ $=0$, and since we have shown in the last theorem that $g>0$ when $r=0$, we conclude that $b(r)>0$ for small $r$. We wish to show that $b(R)>0$.

Now from (16), $b^{\prime}>0$ when $b=0, a>0$, so it suffices to show that $a(r)>0$, or equivalently that $0<\theta<\pi / 2$, where $\tan \theta=b / a$. If we differentiate this equation with respect to $r$ we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\theta^{\prime} & =\frac{a b^{\prime}-b a^{\prime}}{a^{2}+b^{2}}=\frac{-\frac{u}{v} a a^{\prime}-b a^{\prime}}{a^{2}+b^{2}}=\frac{-(u a+v b)}{v\left(a^{2}+b^{2}\right)} a^{\prime} \\
& =\frac{-(u a+v b)}{\left(a^{2}+b^{2}\right.} \cdot \frac{\left(a \phi+b g_{r}\right)}{\left(v^{2}+u g\right)}
\end{aligned}
$$

Next define $\beta$ by $\tan \beta=-\phi / g_{r}$; then $0 \leqq \beta<\pi / 2$, and $\theta^{\prime}=0$ when $\theta=\beta$. Thus we shall show

$$
\left.(\beta-\theta)^{\prime}\right|_{\beta=\theta}=\left.\beta^{\prime}\right|_{\beta=\theta}>0
$$

from which it will follow that $\theta \leqq \beta<\pi / 2$. But this is easy since

$$
\beta^{\prime}=\frac{-g_{r} \phi+\phi g_{r r}}{g_{r}^{2}+\phi^{2}}=(n-1) \frac{v}{r^{2}}\left[-v u f^{\prime \prime}(u)+\frac{2}{r} \phi\right]>0
$$

in view of our hypotheses.
As above, we must show that (5) holds along each orbit for which $v(R)<0$. To this end let $h(r)$ be defined as in (14); then $h(0)>0$, and $h(R)=v(R)^{2}>0$. We claim that it suffices to show that the function

$$
\begin{equation*}
H(r)=\frac{h^{\prime}(r)+\frac{n-1}{r} h(r)}{-v(r)}=f(u(r))-u(r) f^{\prime}(u(r)) \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

is non-increasing. For, if this were so and $r_{1}$ was the first zero of $h$, then $h^{\prime}\left(r_{1}\right) \leqq 0$, so $H\left(r_{1}\right) \leqq 0$. But since $h(R)>0$, we let $r_{2}$ be the largest value in $\left(t_{1}, R\right)$ for which $h\left(r_{2}\right)$ $=0$ and then let $r_{3} \in\left(t_{2}, R\right)$ be such that $h\left(r_{3}\right)>0$ and $h^{\prime}\left(r_{3}\right)>0$. Then

$$
H\left(r_{3}\right)=\frac{h^{\prime}\left(r_{3}\right)+\frac{n-1}{r_{3}} h\left(r_{3}\right)}{-v\left(r_{3}\right)}>0 \geqq \frac{h^{\prime}\left(r_{1}\right)+\frac{n-1}{r_{1}} h\left(r_{1}\right)}{-v\left(r_{1}\right)}=H\left(r_{1}\right)
$$

this contradiction shows that no such $r$, exists; i.e., $h(r)>0,0 \leqq r \leqq R$. To show that $H$ is non-increasing, note that (17) gives $H^{\prime}(r)=-u f^{\prime \prime}(u) v \leqq 0$.

Observe now that if $\phi(u)=f(u)-u f^{\prime}(u)$, then $f(0)=\phi(0) \leqq 0$, and if $f(u)=0$ for some $u>0$, then $0>\phi(u)=-u f^{\prime}(u)$, so $f^{\prime}(u)>0$. Thus $f$ can have at most one positive root; call it $p_{0}$. Furthermore, if $f(\bar{u})>0$ for some $\bar{u}$, then $f^{\prime}(\bar{u})>0$, so $f^{\prime}(u)$ $>0$ for all $u>\bar{u}$.

We shall now show that the domain of $T$ is connected. In order to do this, we assume that $p_{1} \in \operatorname{domain}(T), p_{1}>0$. We define $B=\left\{p>p_{1}: p \notin \operatorname{domain}(T)\right\}$, and then show that $B$ is empty. If $B$ is not empty, let $p_{2}=\inf B$. Then $p_{2} \geqq p_{1}$, and we have


Fig. 2


Fig. 3

Lemma A. $p_{2} \in \operatorname{dom}(T)$.
Proof. Let $p_{n} \in \operatorname{dom}(T), p_{n} \nearrow p$. If there is a subsequence $\left\{p_{n}^{\prime}\right\}$ with $\lim T\left(p_{n}^{\prime}\right)=t_{2}$ $<\infty$, then since $u\left(T\left(p_{n}^{\prime}\right), p_{n}^{\prime}\right)=0$ for each $n$, we have $u\left(t_{2}, p_{2}\right)=0$, and $p_{2} \in \operatorname{dom}(T)$. For example, if $f(0)=0$, then no orbit has $v(T(p), p)=0$. Thus $T^{\prime}(p)<0$ for $p<p_{2}$ and $\lim _{p \rightarrow p^{-}} T(p)=T\left(p_{2}\right)$ is finite, so $p_{2} \in \operatorname{dom}(T)$. We may thus assume that $f(0)<0$.

Suppose now that $T\left(p_{n}\right) \rightarrow+\infty$. This can only occur if $v(T(p), p)=0$ for a sequence of intervals approaching $p_{2}$ since $T^{\prime}(p)<0$ if $v(T(p), p) \neq 0$; see Fig. 2.

We let $H(u, v)=v^{2} / 2+F(u)$, where $F^{\prime}=f$, and $F(0)=0$. Then $H^{\prime} \leqq 0, H\left(p_{0}, 0\right)$ $=F\left(p_{0}\right)<0$, so $H<0$ in a neighborhood of $\left(p_{0}, 0\right)$. Note that $H(0,0)=0$, and that $H(u, v)=0$ is a bounded simple closed curve in the $u-v$ plane, which contains $\left(p_{0}, 0\right)$.

Let $r>0$ be given, and let $p_{1}<p<p_{2}$; then $H(u(T(p), v(T(p), p)) \geqq 0$, and hence $H^{\prime} \leqq 0$ implies $H \geqq 0$ below the curve $r=T(p)$ (see Fig. 2). Since $T(p) \rightarrow \infty$ as $p \rightarrow p_{2}^{-}$, we have $H\left(u\left(r, p_{2}\right), v\left(r, p_{2}\right)\right)>0$ for all $r \geqq 0$.

We now claim that the orbit through $\left(p_{2}, 0\right)$ meets $u=0$ at a point with $v \leqq 0$; this will imply that $p_{2} \in \operatorname{dom}(T)$, and will complete the proof of the lemma. To prove our claim, let $A>p_{0}$; then the orbit through $\left(p_{2}, 0\right)$ meets $u=A$ (see Theorem 8, below), at a point where $H>0$. Since $H\left(p_{0}, 0\right)<0$, there is a $c>0$ and an interval ( $a, A$ ) such that $H(u, c)=F(u)+c^{2} / 2<0$ for $u \in(a, A)$. Thus the orbit through $\left(p_{2}, 0\right)$ meets $u=A$ at a point with $v<c$, and meets $u=a$ with $v<c$, for some $r<(A-a) / c$. That is, this orbit meets the line $u=a$ for finite $r$ (see Fig. 3).

This implies that the orbit cannot stay in the region $u>0$ for all $r>0$. To see this, suppose the contrary. Since $f<0$ on $0 \leqq u \leqq a$, we can find $D>0$ such that $f(u)$ $\leqq-D$ on this interval. Since $-\left(r^{n-1} v\right)^{\prime}=f(u) r^{n-1} \leqq-r^{n-1} D$, on this interval, we obtain by integrating from $T$ to $T+t[u(T)=a]$,

$$
-(T+t)^{n-1} v(T+t) \leqq D\left[\frac{-(T+t)^{n}}{n}+\frac{T^{n}}{n}\right]-T^{n-1} v(T)
$$

This shows that $v(t+T)>0$ for large $t>0$. Thus the orbit through $\left(p_{2}, 0\right)$ crosses $H=0$. This is a contradiction, so the claim holds, and the lemma is proved.

If $r_{2}=T\left(p_{2}\right)$, and $v\left(r_{2}, p_{2}\right)<0$, then $u\left(r, p_{2}\right)<0$ for $r>r_{2}$, and hence by the continuity of the flow, $p_{2}$ is in the interior of the domain of $T$; i.e. $p_{2} \neq \inf B$. This is impossible, so we must have $v\left(r_{2}, p_{2}\right)=0$. We now show

Lemma B. $B=\phi$.
Proof. Choose $\varepsilon>0$ so that $\varepsilon<p_{0}$ and $\phi(u)+\varepsilon f^{\prime}(u)<0$ for $0 \leqq u \leqq p_{2}+1$. (This can be achieved since $v\left(r_{2}, p_{2}\right)=0$ implies $f(0)<0$ so that $\phi(u)=f(u)-u f^{\prime}(u)<0$ if $u \geqq 0$.) Now choose $\delta, 0<\delta<1$ such that $u\left(r_{2}, p\right)<\varepsilon$ for $p_{2} \leqq p \leqq p_{2}+\delta$ (we show in the appendix that $u$ depends smoothly on $p$ ).

Now we shall prove that there is a $\delta^{\prime} \leqq \delta$ such that $\left[p_{2}, p_{2}+\delta^{\prime}\right] \cap B=\phi$; this will be the desired contradiction since it will violate the definition of $p_{2}$. We begin with the following

Claim. There is a $\delta^{\prime}, 0<\delta^{\prime} \leqq \delta$, such that if $p \in\left[p_{2}, p_{2}+\delta\right] \cap B$, then $v\left(r_{2}, p\right) \leqq 0$.
If the claim were false, then we could find $p_{n} \in B$, with $p_{n} \searrow p_{2}$ and $v\left(r_{2}, p_{n}\right)>0$. Then set $z_{n}(r)=u\left(r, p_{n}\right)-u\left(r, p_{2}\right)$, and note that $z_{n}^{\prime \prime}+(n-1) r^{-1} z_{n}^{\prime}+f^{\prime}\left(\xi_{n}(r)\right) z_{n}=0$, where $\xi_{n}(r)$ is intermediate to $u\left(r, p_{n}\right)$ and $u\left(r, p_{2}\right)$. Also, $z_{n}(0)>0, z_{n}^{\prime}(0)=0, z_{n}\left(r_{2}\right)$ $>0$, and $z_{n}^{\prime}\left(r_{2}\right)>0$. Since $z_{n}$ satisfies a linear equation, $z_{n}(r)^{2}+z_{n}^{\prime}(r)^{2}>0$ for $0 \leqq r$ $\leqq r_{2}$. Thus we may define $\theta_{n}(r)=\arctan z_{n}^{\prime}(r) / z_{n}(r)\left[\right.$ or $\theta_{n}(r)=\operatorname{arccot} z_{n}(r) / z_{n}^{\prime}(r)$ near $\left.z_{n}(r)=0\right]$, and observe that $\theta_{n}(0)=0$ and $\theta_{n}\left(r_{2}\right)<-3 \pi / 2$. Then for any $r, 0 \leqq \mathrm{r} \leqq \mathrm{r}_{2}$, we have

$$
\theta_{n}^{\prime}(r)=\frac{-(n-1)}{r} \sin \theta_{n} \cos \theta_{n}-f^{\prime}\left(\xi_{n}(r)\right) \cos ^{2} \theta_{n}-\sin ^{2} \theta_{n}
$$

Let $z(r)=u^{\prime}\left(r, p_{2}\right)$; then $z$ satisfies the equation

$$
z^{\prime \prime}+(n-1) r^{-1} z+f^{\prime}\left(u\left(r, p_{2}\right)\right) z=0
$$

and the boundary conditions $z(0)=z\left(r_{2}\right)=0$. Note that $z^{\prime}(0)<0$ and $z^{\prime}\left(r_{2}\right)>0$. Again, $z(r)^{2}+z^{\prime}(r)^{2}>0$ and we may define $\theta(r)=\arctan z^{\prime}(r) / z(r)$ (or $\theta(r)$ $\left.=\arctan z(r) / z^{\prime}(r)\right)$, and observe that $\theta(0)=-\pi / 2, \theta\left(r_{2}\right)=-3 \pi / 2,-\pi / 2 \geqq \theta(r)$ $\geqq-3 \pi / 2$, and for any $r, 0 \leqq r \leqq r_{2}$,

$$
\theta^{\prime}(r)=\frac{-(n-1)}{r} \sin \theta \cos \theta-f^{\prime}\left(u\left(r, p_{2}\right)\right) \cos ^{2} \theta-\sin ^{2} \theta
$$

Moreover, for $n$ large, $f^{\prime}\left(\xi_{n}(r)\right)$ can be made uniformly close to $f^{\prime}\left(u\left(r, p_{2}\right)\right.$ ) on $0 \leqq r$ $\leqq r_{2}$. Also since $\theta(0)<\theta_{n}(0)$, and $\theta\left(r_{2}\right)>\theta_{n}\left(r_{2}\right)$, there is an $r_{1} \in\left(0, r_{2}\right)$ with $\theta\left(r_{1}\right)$ $=\theta_{n}\left(r_{1}\right)$. Now there is an $r_{3}=r_{3}\left(p_{n}\right) \in\left(0, r_{2}\right)$ with $\theta_{n}\left(r_{3}\right)=-\pi / 4$; thus $\theta_{n}\left(r_{3}\right)-\theta\left(r_{3}\right)$


Fig. 4
$\geqq-\pi / 4+\pi / 2=\pi / 4$. Since

$$
-\theta_{n}^{\prime}(r) \leqq f^{\prime}\left(u\left(r, p_{2}\right)\right) \cos ^{2} \theta_{n}(r)+\sin ^{2} \theta_{n}(r),
$$

and the right side is uniformly bounded on $\left[0, r_{2}\right]$, we see that $r_{3}\left(p_{n}\right) \geqq \eta>0$, where $\eta$ is independent of $n$. Also $r_{3}\left(p_{n}\right)<r_{2}$. Thus for $n$ large, $\theta_{n}$ and $\theta$ satisfy differential equations which are "close", $\theta_{n}\left(r_{1}\right)=\theta\left(r_{1}\right)$, but $\theta_{n}(r)-\theta(r)$ is not uniformly small. This violates the standard continuous dependence theorems. (Note that on $\eta \leqq r \leqq r_{2}$ the equation has continuous coefficients.) The proof of the claim is complete.

Now assume that there is some $\tilde{p} \in B \cap I$, where $I=\left[p_{2}, p_{2}+\delta\right]$. Then $\varepsilon>u\left(r_{2}\right.$, $\tilde{p})>0$, and $v\left(r_{2}, \tilde{p}\right) \leqq 0$. For $p \in I$, let $g(p)=\min \left\{u(\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{p}): r \in\left[0, r_{2}\right]\right\}$, and notice that if $g(p) \leqq 0$, then there is an $r<r_{2}$ with $u(r, p) \leqq 0$ so $p \in \operatorname{dom}(T)$. Now $g(\tilde{p})>0$, and we shall show that this gives a contradiction. Let $\eta=\max \{g(p): p \in I\}$; then $\eta>0$. If $p^{*}=\inf g^{-1}(\eta)$; then for $p_{2} \leqq p<p^{*}, u(\bar{T}(p), p)=\eta$ for some $\bar{T}(p)<r_{2}$ [for such $p$ we have $g(p)<\eta$ since $g(p)=\eta$ would imply $p=p^{*}$; thus $u(t, p)<\eta$ for some $\left.t<r_{2}\right]$. Now $\max \{\bar{T}(p): p \in I\}=r_{2}=\bar{T}\left(p^{*}\right)$, and $\bar{T}\left(p^{*}\right)-\bar{T}\left(p_{2}\right)>0$. Also, $v(\bar{T}(p), p)<0$ for $p_{2}<p<p^{*}$. To see this, suppose that $v(\bar{T}(p), p) \geqq 0$. Thus referring to the above figure, $v(\bar{T}(p), p)>0$ is clearly impossible, while if $v(\bar{T}(p), p)=0$, then $v\left(r_{2}, p\right)>0$, and this violates our earlier claim since $p \in B$. Thus $v(\bar{T}(p), p)<0$ for $p_{2}<p<p^{*}$.

Now we shift coordinates by writing $\bar{u}=u-\eta$. Since $\eta<\varepsilon, \phi(u)-\eta f^{\prime}(u)<0$ for $u \in\left[0, p_{2}+\delta\right]$. The idea is that in this "shifted" frame, the "new" form $\bar{\phi}$ is still negative. Thus, consider the equation $\bar{u}^{\prime \prime}+(n-1) r^{-1} \bar{u}^{\prime}+f(\bar{u}+\eta)=0$, together with the boundary conditions $\bar{u}^{\prime}(0)=\bar{u}(R)=0$. We have $\bar{u}\left(r_{2}, p\right)<0$ if $p \in\left[p_{2}, p_{2}\right.$ $\left.+\delta^{\prime}\right]$, so that this interval is in $\operatorname{dom}(\bar{T})$. Furthermore, $\bar{\phi}(\bar{u})=f(\bar{u}+\eta)$ $-(\bar{u}+\eta) f^{\prime}(\bar{u}+\eta)=\phi(u)+\eta f^{\prime}(u)<0$, on this interval, and since $f^{\prime \prime}(\bar{u}+\eta) \leqq 0$, we may conclude, as above, that $\bar{T}^{\prime}(p)<0$ on $\left[p_{2}, p_{2}+\delta^{\prime}\right]$. But since $\bar{T}\left(p^{*}\right)=r_{2}$, and $\bar{T}\left(p_{2}\right)<r_{2}$, we have $0<\bar{T}\left(p^{*}\right)-\bar{T}\left(p_{2}\right)=\left(p^{*}-p_{2}\right) T^{\prime}(\xi)$, for some $\xi \in\left(\mathrm{p}^{*}, \mathrm{p}_{2}\right)$. This implies $T^{\prime}(\xi)>0$, which is the desired contradiction. The proof of the lemma is complete.

We have thus shown that the domain of $T$ is connected. We must still investigate the behavior of $T$ on the set

$$
D=\{p \in \operatorname{dom}(T): u(T(p), p)=v(T(p), p)=0\}
$$

since this set may consist of intervals on which $T^{\prime}>0$, and this would violate uniqueness of solutions.

Lemma C. $D$ is a single point; namely $D=\{\bar{p}\}$, where $\bar{p}=\inf \operatorname{dom}(T)$.
Proof. In Sect. 4, Corollary 16, we shall show that the domain of $T$ is non-void if (15) holds, (and $f$ is not everywhere negative!); thus $\bar{p}$ exists.

Suppose that $\tilde{p}_{1}$ and $\tilde{p}_{2}$ are in $D$. If there is a $p \notin D, p$ between $\tilde{p}_{1}$ and $\tilde{p}_{2}$, then there is an $\bar{r}>0$ with $u(\bar{r}, p)<0, v(\bar{r}, p)=0$. If $\sigma=u(\bar{r}, p)$, then if we shift coordinates, and write $\tilde{u}=u-\sigma$, then Lemma B is violated in this frame; namely, $\tilde{p}_{2}>p$ and $\tilde{p}_{2}$ $\notin \operatorname{dom}(T)$. Thus $D$ must be an interval. Curiously, we can easily eliminate the case $D=\operatorname{dom}(T)$ by referring to an existence theorem in the next section, but the case where $D$ is a finite interval is much more difficult. Namely, if $D$ were an unbounded interval of the form $p \geqq \bar{p}$, we again shift coordinates, $\bar{u}=u+\varepsilon$, where $\varepsilon>0$. Note that the hypotheses (15) are valid in this new frame, yet there are no solutions of the Dirichlet problem; this violates Corollary 16 below. Thus $D$ can only be a compact interval, $\left[\tilde{p}_{1}, \tilde{p}_{2}\right]$. (The argument we now give rules out both possibilities.) First observe that $T$ must be monotone on this interval; otherwise there would be two distinct points, $p_{1}^{\prime}, p_{2}^{\prime}$ on this interval for which $T\left(p_{1}^{\prime}\right)=T\left(p_{2}^{\prime}\right)$, and $u\left(T\left(p_{i}^{\prime}\right), p_{i}^{\prime}\right)$ $=v\left(T\left(p_{i}^{\prime}\right), p_{i}^{\prime}\right)=0, i=1,2$. This violates the standard uniqueness theorem for ordinary differential equations.

We next show that $T^{\prime} \leqq 0$ on $D=\left[\tilde{p}_{1}, \tilde{p}_{2}\right]^{4}$. Thus, suppose that $T>0$ on $D$. We may assume $\tilde{p}_{2}>\tilde{p}_{1}$; if equality holds, then there is nothing to prove. Let $T_{i}=T\left(\tilde{p}_{i}\right)$, $i=1,2$; then $T_{2}>T_{1}$. Choose $\varepsilon>0$ so small that both $T_{2}-\varepsilon>T_{1}$ and $F\left(A_{\varepsilon}\right)<0$, where $A_{\varepsilon}=u\left(T_{2}-\varepsilon, \tilde{p}_{2}\right)$; the latter can be achieved since $f(0)<0$. Note that $v\left(T_{2}\right.$ $\left.-\varepsilon, \tilde{p}_{2}\right) \neq 0$ since $H\left(u\left(T_{2}-\varepsilon, \tilde{p}_{2}\right), v\left(T_{2}-\varepsilon, \tilde{p}_{2}\right)\right)>0$; see Fig. 3. Consider now the equation $u(\tau, p)=A_{\varepsilon}, \tilde{p}_{1} \leqq p \leqq \tilde{p}_{2}$. Since $u^{\prime}(\tau, p)<0$, we see that this equation defines a function, $\tau=\tau(p), \tilde{p}_{1} \leqq p \leqq \tilde{p}_{2}$. If $\varepsilon$ is small, we have $\tau\left(\tilde{p}_{2}\right)=T\left(p_{2}\right)-\varepsilon>T\left(p_{1}\right)$ $>\tau\left(\tilde{p}_{1}\right) ;$ i.e., $\tau\left(\tilde{p}_{2}\right)>\tau\left(\tilde{p}_{1}\right)$. On the other hand if we shift coordinates by writing $\bar{u}=u$ $-A_{\varepsilon}$, then in this frame, if $\varepsilon$ is small, $A_{\varepsilon}$ is near zero, so (15) holds in this frame, and $v(\tau(p), p) \neq 0$ for $\tilde{p}_{1} \leqq p \leqq \tilde{p}_{2}$. Thus $\tau^{\prime}(p)=\bar{T}^{\prime}(p)<0$ so $\tau\left(\tilde{p}_{1}\right)>\tau\left(\tilde{p}_{2}\right)$. This is a contradiction, and so $T^{\prime} \leqq 0$ on $D$. (The proof of Theorem 4 is now complete.)

To finish the proof of Lemma C, we proceed in a manner similar to the proof of the above claim. Thus, suppose that $D$ is a non-trivial bounded interval, and choose $\tilde{p}$ in $D^{\text {int }}$. Then $w(r)=u^{\prime}(r, \tilde{p})$ satisfies $w^{\prime \prime}+(n-1) r^{-1} w^{\prime}+f^{\prime}(u(r, \tilde{p}))=0$, with $w(0)=w(T(\tilde{p}))=0, \quad$ and $\quad w^{\prime}(0)<0, \quad w^{\prime}(T(\tilde{p}))>0$. We may define $\theta(r)$ $=\arctan w^{\prime}(r) / w(r)$, and note that $\theta(0)=-\pi / 2, \theta(T(\tilde{p}))=-3 \pi / 2,-\pi / 2 \geqq \theta(r)$ $\geqq-3 \pi / 2$. Also for $0 \leqq r \leqq T(\tilde{p}), \theta^{\prime}(r)=-(n-1) r^{-1} \sin \theta \cos \theta-f^{\prime}(u(r, \tilde{p})) \cos ^{2} \theta$ $-\sin ^{2} \theta$. If now $p>\tilde{p}, p \in D$, we set $z(r)=u(r, p)-u(r, \tilde{p})$, and so $z^{\prime \prime}+(n-1) r^{-1} z^{\prime}$ $+f^{\prime}(\xi(r)) z=0, \xi(r)$ between $u(r, p)$ and $u(r, \tilde{p})$. Also $z(0)>0, z^{\prime}(0)=0, z(T(\tilde{p}))>0$, $z^{\prime}(T(\tilde{p}))>0$, since $u(T(\tilde{p}), \tilde{p})=0=u^{\prime}(T(\tilde{p}), \tilde{p})$, and $T(\tilde{p})>T(p)$ (equality would violate uniqueness), so $u^{\prime}(T(\tilde{p}), p)>0$ and $u(T(\tilde{p}), p)>0$. Now we define $\tilde{\theta}(r)$ $=\arctan z^{\prime}(r) / z(r)$. Then $\tilde{\theta}$ satisfies an equation which is "close" to the $z$ equation uniformly on $[0, T(\tilde{p})]$ if $\tilde{p}$ is close to $p$. Since $\theta(0)<\tilde{\theta}(0)$, and $\tilde{\theta}(T(\tilde{p})<\theta(T(\tilde{p}))$ we can find $t_{1} \in(0, T(\tilde{p}))$ with $\theta\left(t_{1}\right)=\tilde{\theta}\left(t_{1}\right)$. Also, there is $t_{2}=t_{2}(p) \in[0, T(\tilde{p})]$ with

[^4]$\tilde{\theta}\left(t_{2}\right)=-\pi / 4$, so $\tilde{\theta}\left(t_{2}\right)-\theta\left(t_{2}\right) \geqq \pi / 4$. Since $-\theta^{\prime}$ is bounded from above, uniformly on $[0, T(\tilde{p})]$, we see that $t_{2}(p) \geqq \eta>0, \eta$ independent of $p$. Thus $\theta\left(t_{1}\right)=\tilde{\theta}\left(t_{1}\right)$, but $\theta-\tilde{\theta}$ is not uniformly small; this is a contradiction, and the proof of Lemma $\mathbf{C}$ is complete.

As we have noted earlier, the proof of Theorem 4 is also complete.
We shall next show that if $f$ satisfies (15), then ${ }^{5}$
i) if $f(0)<0, \operatorname{dom}(T)=[\bar{p}, \infty)$ for some $\bar{p}>0$, and the orbit starting at $(\bar{p}, 0)$ is the unique one going through the origin; i.e., $u(T(\bar{p}), \bar{p})=0=v(T(\bar{p}), \bar{p})$,
ii) if $f(0)=0, \operatorname{dom}(T)=[0, \infty)$ and $v(T(p), p)<0$ for $p>0$.

Thus, suppose first that $f(0)<0$, and let $p_{0}$ be the positive root ${ }^{6}$ of $f$. If $p>p_{0}, p$ near $p_{0}$, then if $H(u, v)=v^{2} / 2+F(u),\left(F^{\prime}=f\right)$, we have $H(0, p)<0$, and since $H$ decreases on orbits, such $p$ cannot be in $\operatorname{dom}(T)$. Thus $\bar{p}=\inf \operatorname{dom}(T)>0$, and as we have seen earlier, the orbit through $(\bar{p}, 0)$ is the unique one which goes through the origin. If $f(0)=0$, then in order for solutions to exist, we must have $f^{\prime}(0)>0$. It follows that for $u>0, u$ near 0 , there is a $c>0$ such that $f(u) \geqq c u$. Now define $\tan \theta$ $=v / u$, and for $u>0, u$ near 0 , we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\theta & =\frac{u \dot{v}-v^{2}}{u^{2}+v^{2}}=\frac{-\left[v^{2}+(n-1) r^{-1} u v+u f(u)\right]}{u^{2}+v^{2}} \\
& \leqq \frac{-\left[v^{2}+(n-1) r^{-1} u v+c u^{2}\right]}{u^{2}+v^{2}} \\
& =\frac{-\left[\tan ^{2} \theta+(n-1) r^{-1} \tan \theta+c\right]}{\sec ^{2} \theta} \\
& =-\left[\sin ^{2} \theta+(\sin \theta \cos \theta)(n-1) r^{-1}+c \cos ^{2} \theta\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

As $r \rightarrow \infty, \theta \rightarrow \pi / 2$, and for large $r$, we see that $\theta^{\prime}$ is uniformly negative; i.e., $\theta^{\prime} \leqq-\eta$ for some $\eta>0$, for all sufficiently large $r$. It follows that $\theta=-\pi / 2$ for finite $r$. That is, $p \in \operatorname{dom}(T)$ for all sufficiently small $p>0$; this proves (ii).

We close this section with a few remarks. First note that if (15) holds, and $f(0)$ $<0$, (so for example if $f(u)=u-e^{-u}$ ), then positive solutions to the Dirichlet problem exist, and there must be exactly one positive solution for which $u(R)$ $=u^{\prime}(R)=0$. In particular, this shows that the conclusion $u^{\prime}(r)<0$ for $0<r<R$ in [3], cannot be improved. Finally, note that for this class of functions $f$, there is a real number $R_{1}$ such that if $R>R_{1}$, the problem (1), (2) has no positive solution; (this follows since $T^{\prime}<0$ and $T$ is bounded. The proof of the latter fact is similar to what we have shown in the proof of Lemma A. Namely, $H=0$ is a bounded closed curve containing $\left(p_{0}, 0\right)$. If $p_{n}>\bar{p}$ and $T\left(p_{n}\right) \rightarrow+\infty$, then since $H(u(r, \bar{p}), v(r, \bar{p}))>0$, the argument in the proof of Lemma A applies, and gives a contradiction.) But even more can be said about the domain of $T$. This will be discussed in the next section; Theorem 17.

[^5]
## 4. Existence of Radial Solutions

In this section we shall use techniques from the theory of ordinary differential equations in order to prove some existence theorems for positive solutions of (1), (2), or equivalently, of (12), (13). Our hypotheses are only concerned with the behavior of $f$ at infinity; in particular, we do not require that $f(0) \geqq 0$. Thus, for example, if $f(u)=O\left(u^{k}\right)$ as $u \rightarrow \infty$, we give a general condition for positive solutions to exist (Theorem 14). This enables us to prove, for example, that if $k<2$ and $n \leqq 3$, or if $k=1$ and $n \geqq 1$, positive radial solutions must exist. These results are applied to the case where $f$ satisfies (15), and they enable us to prove existence of solutions for all $n$.

We begin by writing the Eq. (12) as a first-order system:

$$
\begin{equation*}
u^{\prime}=v, \quad v^{\prime}=-(n-1) v r^{-1}-f(u) \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

In order to obtain solutions of this system, we find it convenient to consider the following two associated systems of equations:

$$
\begin{gather*}
\tilde{u}=\tilde{v}, \quad \tilde{v}^{\prime}=-(n-1) \tilde{v} r^{-1}-B ; \\
\tilde{u}(T)=A, \quad \tilde{v}(T)=q \tag{19}
\end{gather*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{gather*}
z^{\prime}=w, \quad w^{\prime}=-(n-1) w T^{-1}-B, \\
z(T)=A, \quad w(T)=q . \tag{20}
\end{gather*}
$$

Here $A, B, q$ and $T$ will be suitably chosen constants. Our first result is a comparison theorem relating solutions of the above systems.

Theorem 5. Suppose that $f(u)>B$ for $0 \leqq u \leqq A, u(T)=A>0$, and $v(T)=q<0$, for some $T>0$. Then $\tilde{u}(r) \geqq u(r)$ for $r \geqq T$ on $0 \leqq u \leqq A$, and if $\tilde{v}(r)<0, T \leqq r \leqq T_{1}$, then $z(r) \geq \tilde{u}(r)$ on this range.

Proof. Let $h(r)=\tilde{u}(r)-u(r)$. Then $h(T)=0, h^{\prime}(r)=\tilde{v}(r)-v(r)$, and $h^{\prime}(T)=0$. Next, $h^{\prime \prime}(r)=\tilde{v}^{\prime}(r)-v^{\prime}(r)=-(n-1) r^{-1} h^{\prime}(r)-B+f(u)$, so $h^{\prime \prime}(T)>0$. Now if $h^{\prime}\left(r_{1}\right)=0$ for some $r_{1}>T, 0 \leqq u \leqq A$, then $h^{\prime \prime}\left(r_{1}\right)>0$. It follows that $h^{\prime}(r)>0$ for all $r>T$ on $0 \leqq u$ $\leqq A$, so that $\tilde{u}(r)>u(r)$ if $r>T, 0 \leqq u \leqq A$. For the second part, let $g(r)=z(r)-\tilde{u}(r)$. Then $g(T)=0, g^{\prime}(r)=w(r)-\tilde{v}(r), g^{\prime}(T)=0, g^{\prime \prime}(r)=w^{\prime}(r)-\tilde{v}^{\prime}(r), g^{\prime \prime}(T)=0, g^{\prime \prime \prime}(r)$ $=w^{\prime \prime}(r)-\tilde{v}^{\prime \prime}(r)=-(n-1) T^{-1} w^{\prime}(r)+(n-1) r^{-1} \tilde{v}^{\prime}(r)-(n-1) r^{-2} \tilde{v}(r)$, and $g^{\prime \prime \prime}(T)$ $=-(n-1) T^{-2} \tilde{v}(T)>0$. Thus $g(r)>0$ if $T<r<T+\varepsilon$, for some $\varepsilon>0$. On the other hand, if $g^{\prime}\left(r_{1}\right)=0$ for some $r_{1}, T_{1} \geqq r_{1}>T$, then $g^{\prime \prime}\left(r_{1}\right)=-(n-1) w\left(r_{1}\right) T^{-1}$ $+(n-1) \tilde{v}\left(r_{1}\right) r_{1}^{-1}=-(n-1) \tilde{v}\left(r_{1}\right)\left(T^{-1}-r_{1}^{-1}\right)>0$. Hence $g^{\prime}(r)>0$ for $T_{1} \geqq r>T$ and so $g(r)>0$ on this range.

We shall apply this comparison theorem in order to prove that the Dirichlet problem (1), (2) has a solution for some $R>0$, provided that (15) holds. We shall then discuss the range of $R$ 's. The existence theorem will follow from a general theorem, which will be applied in other contexts as well. We begin with a lemma.

Lemma 6. Suppose that

$$
m_{p} \leqq f(u) \leqq M_{p}, \quad A \leqq u \leqq p .
$$



Fig. 5

Then for any solution of (12), there is an $r_{1}>0$ with $u\left(r_{1}, p\right)=A$. Moreover,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[\frac{2 n}{M_{p}}(p-A)\right]^{1 / 2} \leqq r_{1} \leqq\left[\frac{2 n}{m_{p}}(p-A)\right]^{1 / 2} \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. We have, on $A \leqq u \leqq p$,

$$
r^{n-1} m_{p} \leqq\left(-r^{n-1} u^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}=r^{n-1} f(u) \leqq r^{n-1} M_{p}
$$

Thus integrating from 0 to $r$, gives

$$
\frac{r m_{p}}{n} \leqq-u^{\prime} \leqq \frac{r M_{p}}{n}
$$

so that

$$
\frac{r^{2} m_{p}}{2 n} \leqq p-u(r) \leqq \frac{r^{2} M_{p}}{2 n}
$$

This shows that $r_{1}$ exists and that (21) holds.
We apply this lemma to the following situation. Suppose that $f(0)<0, f(u)<0$, $0 \leqq u<\alpha$, and $f(\alpha)=0$; see Fig. 5 .

Let $\varepsilon>0$ be any positive number. Consider the orbit of (18) which starts out at $u=p, v=0, r=0$. By our lemma, this orbit crosses the line $u=\alpha+\varepsilon$, at some point which we call $q_{\varepsilon}$; cf Fig. 5. We let $T_{\varepsilon}$ be defined by $u\left(T_{\varepsilon}, p\right)=\alpha+\varepsilon$. Then we have the following lemma.

Lemma 7. If $f(u) \geqq \theta$ for $u \geqq \alpha+\varepsilon$, then

$$
-q_{\varepsilon} / T_{\varepsilon} \geqq \theta / n
$$

Proof. If we integrate $-\left(v r^{n-1}\right)^{\prime}=r^{n-1} f(u)$, we get

$$
-q_{\varepsilon} T_{\varepsilon}^{n-1}=\int_{0}^{T_{\varepsilon}} r^{n-1} f(u) d r \geqq \theta T_{\varepsilon}^{n} / n
$$

from which the result follows.

We can now state our first theorem.
Theorem 8. Suppose that $f(u) \geqq m>0$ for $u \geqq A$. Then
(1) for any $p>A$, there is $a T>0$ such that $u(T, p)=A$.
(2) Let $q=v(T, p)$; if $q T \rightarrow-\infty$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$, then the problem (12), (13) has a solution, with $R=T(p)$.

Proof. Part (1) is a consequence of Lemma 6. For the second part, consider the system (20). We shall show that if $w\left(r_{1}\right)=0$, then $z\left(r_{1}\right)<0$, provided that $-q T$ is sufficiently large. Then Theorem 5 implies that $u(T(p), p)=0$ for some $p>0$. (In the applications, we usually take $A=\alpha+\varepsilon, q=q_{\varepsilon}, T=T_{\varepsilon} ;$ cf. Fig. 5.)

Suppose $f(u) \geqq B, B<0$, and set

$$
\beta=(n-1) / T, \quad \delta=(n-1) q / T B=\beta q / B .
$$

Equation (20) can be explicitly integrated as

$$
\begin{equation*}
w(r)=e^{-\beta r} q-\frac{B}{\beta}\left(1-e^{-\beta r}\right), \text { and thus } 1+\delta=e^{\beta r_{1}} . \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

Furthermore,

$$
z\left(r_{1}\right)-A=\int_{0}^{r_{1}} w(s) d s=-\frac{q}{\beta}\left(e^{-\beta r_{1}}-1\right)-\frac{B r_{1}}{\beta}-\frac{B}{\beta^{2}}\left(e^{-\beta r_{1}}-1\right),
$$

and using (22), we find

$$
z\left(r_{1}\right)=A+\frac{q T}{n-1}\left[1-\frac{\ln (1+\delta)}{\delta}\right] .
$$

If $\phi(\delta)=1-\delta^{-1} \ln (1+\delta)$, then $\phi(0)=0$, and $\phi(\delta)>0$ for $\delta>0$. Since $\delta=(n-1) B^{-1}(q / T)$, it follows from Lemma 4 that $\phi$ is bounded away from zero. Since $q T \rightarrow \infty$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$, we see that $z\left(r_{1}\right)<0$ for large $p$. This completes the proof.

Our next result gives a condition under which $q \rightarrow-\infty$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$; before stating it, we need a little notation. Thus, referring to Fig. 5, let $A=\alpha+\varepsilon, F^{\prime}=f$, and

$$
M_{p}=\sup _{A \leqq u \leqq p} f(u)
$$

Proposition 9. Suppose that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{p \rightarrow \infty}\left[F(p)+\frac{n-1}{n} M_{p}(A-p)\right]=+\infty ; \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

then $q \rightarrow-\infty$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$.
Proof. The equation $-\left(r^{n-1} v\right)^{\prime}=f(u) r^{n-1}$ gives $-\left(r^{n-1} v\right)^{\prime} \leqq M_{p} r^{n-1}$, and by integration we get

$$
\frac{v}{r} \geqq-\frac{M_{p}}{n} .
$$

Then if $u(T)=A,\left(T=T_{\varepsilon}\right)$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
q^{2} / 2+F(A)-F(p) & =\int_{0}^{T} H^{\prime} d r=\int_{0}^{T}-(n-1) \frac{v^{2}}{r} d r \\
& \geqq \int_{0}^{T} \frac{n-1}{n} M_{p} v d r=\frac{n-1}{n} M_{p}(A-p)
\end{aligned}
$$

and (23) implies the desired result.
We next give a class of functions $f$ for which $T_{\varepsilon}$ is bounded away from zero.
Proposition 10. Suppose that $(f(u) / u)^{\prime}>0$ and that $f^{\prime}(u)$ is bounded from above. ${ }^{7}$ Then $T_{\varepsilon}$ is bounded away from zero.

Proof. The equation $-\left(r^{n-1} v\right)^{\prime}=r^{n-1} f(u)$, gives $-\left(r^{n-1} v\right)^{\prime} \leqq r^{n-1} f(p)$, and if we integrate this from 0 to $r$, we get $-v \leqq r f(p) / n$. Integrating again gives, for $p>2(\alpha+\varepsilon)$,

$$
\frac{p}{2}<p-(\alpha+\varepsilon) \leqq p-u(r)=\int_{0}^{T_{\varepsilon}}-v d r \leqq \frac{T_{\varepsilon}^{2} f(p)}{2 n}
$$

Thus if $f^{\prime}(u)<k$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
T_{\varepsilon}^{2} \geqq n p / f(p) \geqq n / f^{\prime}(p) \geqq n / k \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the proof is complete.
Corollary 11. Suppose that the hypotheses of the last proposition hold. Then $T(p)$ is bounded away from zero.

Proof. Replace $T_{\varepsilon}$ by $T(p)$ in the above proof.
As a consequence of the last three results, we have the following theorem.
Theorem 12. Suppose that (23) holds, and that the hypotheses of Proposition 10 are valid. Then problem (12), (13) has a positive solution, for some $R=R(n)$.

We pause here to give some examples. First, if $f(u)=u-e^{-u}$, and $n=2$, then it is easy to check that all of the above hypotheses hold. If $f(u)=2 u-2+e^{-u}$, and $n=2$, then again all of the above hypotheses hold.

We remark that an existence theorem for any function $f(u)$ which satisfies $(f(u) / u)^{\prime}>0$, cannot be obtained by the usual method of upper and lower solutions. This holds since the positive solution being unique (by Theorem 4), it must necessarily be a stable solution of the associated time dependent parabolic problem.

$$
\begin{gathered}
u_{t}=\Delta u+f(u), \quad(x, t) \in D_{R}^{n} \times \mathbb{R}_{+} \\
u=0, \quad x \in \partial D_{r}^{n} \times \mathbb{R}_{+}
\end{gathered}
$$

see [7, Theorem 10.5]. But, as we shall show in Sect. 6, solutions which satisfy the above condition cannot be stable.

[^6]We shall now give some general conditions under which $q_{\varepsilon} T_{\varepsilon} \rightarrow-\infty$ (cf. Theorem 8). These will be applied to yield existence theorems for certain classes of $f$ 's.

We assume that $f(u)=O\left(u^{k}\right), k>0$, as $u \rightarrow \infty$, or more precisely, we assume that ${ }^{8}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(u) / u^{k} \rightarrow 1 \quad \text { as } \quad u \rightarrow+\infty \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

We fix $\alpha$, choose $p>\alpha$ and let $T$ be the "time" that the orbit starting at $u=p, v=0$, $t=0$, takes to get to the line $u=\bar{u}$, where $\alpha \leqq \bar{u}<p$. (We think of $\bar{u}$ as $\alpha+\varepsilon$ in our above earlier discussion.)

We have $-(v r)^{\prime}=(n-2) v+r f(u)$. Thus, if $q=v(T)$, then integrating this equation from $r=0$ to $r=T$ gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
-q T=-(n-2)(p-\bar{u})+\int_{0}^{T} r f(u(r) d r . \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now choose points $1>a_{1}>a_{2}>\ldots>a_{s}>0$, and let $u$ be successively: $p=a_{0} p$, $a_{1} p, \ldots, a_{s} p, \bar{u}$. If $T_{j}$ denotes the "time" the orbit takes to go from $u=a_{j-1} p$ to $u=a_{j} p$, then setting $T_{0}=0$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{0}^{T} r f(u(r)) d r & =\sum_{j=0}^{s} \int_{T_{j}}^{T_{j+1}} r f(u(r)) d r+\int_{T_{s}}^{T} r f(u(r)) d r \\
& \geqq \sum_{j=0}^{s} \int_{T_{j}}^{T_{j+1}} r f(u(r)) d r .
\end{aligned}
$$

But

$$
\int_{T_{j}}^{T_{j+1}} r f(u(r)) d r \geqq c^{\prime} \int_{T_{j}}^{T_{j+1}}\left(a_{j+1} p\right)^{k} r d r=c^{\prime} p^{k} a_{j+1}^{k} \frac{T_{j+1}^{2}-T_{j}^{2}}{2},
$$

so that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{r}^{T} r f(u(r)) d r & \geqq c^{\prime} \frac{p^{k}}{2}\left\{a_{1}^{k} T_{1}^{2}+a_{2}^{k}\left(T_{2}^{2}-T_{1}^{2}\right)+\ldots+a_{s}^{k}\left(T_{s}^{2}-T_{s-1}^{2}\right)\right\} \\
& =c^{\prime} \frac{p^{k}}{2}\left\{T_{1}^{2}\left(a_{1}^{k}-a_{2}^{k}\right)+\ldots+T_{s-1}^{2}\left(a_{s-1}^{k}-a_{s}^{k}\right)+T_{s}^{2} a_{s}^{k}\right\}, \\
& \geqq c^{\prime} \frac{p^{k}}{2}\left\{T_{1}^{2}\left(a_{1}^{k}-a_{s}^{k}\right)+\ldots+T_{s-1}^{2}\left(a_{s-1}^{k}-a_{s}^{k}\right)\right\},
\end{aligned}
$$

and this latter sum converges, as $s \rightarrow \infty$, to the Riemann-Stieltjes integral

$$
c^{\prime} \frac{p^{k}}{2} \int_{0}^{1} T_{a}^{2} d a^{k}
$$

where $T_{a}$ is the "time" the orbit takes to go from $p$ to $a p$. Thus from (26), we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
-q T \geqq-(n-2)(p-\bar{u})+\frac{p^{k}}{2} \int_{0}^{1} T_{a}^{2} d a^{k} . \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

[^7]Next, $-\left(r^{n-1} v\right)^{\prime}=r^{n-1} f(u) \leqq r^{n-1} c p^{k}$, and so if we integrate this from 0 to $r$, we get

$$
-v \leqq r c p^{k} / n
$$

Integrating again from $r=0$ to $r=T_{a}$, gives

$$
p-a p \leqq \frac{T_{a}^{2}}{2 n} c p^{k}
$$

so that $T_{a}^{2} \geqq(1-a) p^{1-k} \frac{2 n}{c}$. If we put this in (27) we obtain

$$
-q T \geqq-(n-2)(p-\bar{u})+\frac{p n c^{\prime}}{c} \int_{0}^{1}(1-a) d a^{k}=-(n-2)(p-\bar{u})+\frac{p n c^{\prime}}{c}\left(1-\frac{k}{k+1}\right) .
$$

Thus $-q T \rightarrow \infty$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$, provided that $\frac{n c^{\prime}}{c}\left(1-\frac{k}{k+1}\right)>n-2$. Since we may take $c / c^{\prime}$ arbitrarily close to 1 , we want $n /(n-2)>k+1$, or $2 /(n-2)>k$. We have thus proved the following theorem.

Theorem 13. Suppose that $f(u)$ satisfies (25). Then the problem (12), (13) has a positive solution for some $R$, provided that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{2}{n-2}>k \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

Notice that (28) holds if $n=3$ and $0<k<2$, and it also holds for all $k>0$ if $n=2$.
We shall prove one last theorem which together with Theorem 13 will imply, in particular, an existence theorem for (12), (13), for all $n$, provided that (15) holds. To this end, note that we have shown above that in order that $-q_{\varepsilon} T_{\varepsilon} \rightarrow \infty$, we need [cf. (27)]

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{p^{k-1}}{2} \int_{0}^{1} T_{a}^{2} d a^{k}>n-2 \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

For $n=3$, we have just seen that we can estimate $T_{a}^{2}$ from below, and this gives us an existence theorem for $k<2$. We shall now obtain different estimates on $T_{a}$ which will enable us to get a different existence theorem. We again assume that (25) holds.

If $0<p$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
T_{a}=\int_{p}^{a p} \frac{d u}{v}=\int_{a p}^{p} \frac{d u}{-v} \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

and if $\tau<r, f(u(\tau)) \geqq u(\tau)^{k} \geqq u(r)^{k}$. Thus as above

$$
-r^{n-1} v=\int_{0}^{r} \tau^{n-1} f(u(\tau)) d \tau \geqq c \int_{0}^{r} \tau^{n-1} u(r)^{k} d \tau
$$

so that $-v / r \geqq u^{k} / n$, where we are using the notation $u=u(r)$. From this we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{-v^{2}(\tau)}{\tau} \leqq c \frac{u(r)^{k} v(\tau)}{n} \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

Next, if $F^{\prime}=f$, then

$$
\frac{v^{2}}{2}+F(u)=F(p)-(n-1) \int_{0}^{r} \frac{v^{2}}{\tau} d \tau
$$

or

$$
\frac{v^{2}}{2}=F(p)-F(u)-(n-1) \int_{0}^{r} \frac{v^{2}}{\tau} d \tau=\int_{u}^{p} f(s) d s-(n-1) \int_{0}^{r} \frac{v^{2}}{\tau} d \tau
$$

From (25),

$$
\int_{u}^{p} f(s) d s \leqq\left. c \frac{s^{k+1}}{k+1}\right|_{u} ^{p}=c \frac{\left(p^{k+1}-u^{k+1}\right)}{k+1},
$$

and from (31)

$$
-(n-1) \int_{0}^{r} \frac{v^{2}}{t} d t \leqq c \frac{n-1}{n} u^{k}(u-p) .
$$

Therefore

$$
\frac{v^{2}}{2} \leqq \frac{c}{k+1}\left(p^{k+1}-u^{k+1}\right)-c \frac{n-1}{n} u^{k}(p-u) .
$$

If we use this in (30) we obtain

$$
T_{a} \geqq \int_{a p}^{p} \frac{d u}{\sqrt{2\left\{\frac{c}{k+1}\left(p^{k+1}-u^{k+1}\right)-c \frac{n-1}{n} u^{k}(p-u)\right\}}}
$$

Setting $u=p s$, gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
T_{a} \geqq \int_{a}^{1} \frac{p^{(1-k) / 2} d s}{\left.\sqrt{2\left\{\frac{c}{k+1}\left(1-s^{k+1}\right)-c \frac{n-1}{n} s^{k}(1-s)\right.}\right\}} . \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now let's consider the case where $k=1$; then from (32)

$$
\begin{equation*}
T_{a} \geq \int_{a}^{1} \frac{d s}{\sqrt{c\left(1-s^{2}\right)-2 c\left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right)\left(s-s^{2}\right)}} \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

Likewise, for $k=1$, (29) becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{0}^{1} T_{a}^{2} d a>2(n-2) . \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $T_{a}$ depends continuously on $c$ and $c$ can be taken arbitrarily close to 1 , we can assume $c=1$ in (33), and use the resulting expression for $T_{a}$ in order to prove (34).

Thus if $c=1$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
T_{a} & \geqq \int_{a}^{1} \frac{d s}{\sqrt{\frac{n-2}{n}\left[s^{2}-2 \frac{n-1}{n-2} s+\left(\frac{n-1}{n-2}\right)^{2}\right]-\frac{1}{(n-2)^{2}}}} \\
& =\sqrt{\frac{n}{n-2}} \int_{a}^{1} \frac{d s}{\sqrt{\left(s-\frac{n-1}{n-2}\right)^{2}-\frac{1}{(n-1)^{2}}}} \\
& =\sqrt{\frac{n}{n-2}} \ln \left|\left(\frac{n-1}{n-2}-s\right)+\sqrt{\left(s-\frac{n-1}{n-2}\right)^{2}-\frac{1}{(n-2)^{2}}}\right|_{a}^{1} \\
& =\frac{n}{n-2} \ln \left|(n-1)-a(n-2)+\sqrt{[(n-2) a-(n-1)]^{2}-1}\right| .
\end{aligned}
$$

Using this in (34) gives

$$
\int_{0}^{1} T_{a}^{2} d a \geqq \int_{0}^{1} \frac{n}{n-2}\left[\ln \left|(n-1)-a(n-2)+\sqrt{[(n-2) a-(n-1)]^{2}-1}\right|\right]^{2} d a
$$

If we let $y=(n-1)-(n-2) a$, we have

$$
\int_{0}^{1} T_{a}^{2} d a \geqq \int_{1}^{n-1} n\left[\ln \left(y+\sqrt{y^{2}-1}\right)\right]^{2} d y .
$$

Since we want (34) we must show

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{1}^{n-1}\left[\ln \left(y+\sqrt{y^{2}-1}\right)\right]^{2} d y>\frac{2(n-2)}{n} . \tag{35}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note now that $2>2(n-2) / n$, and that the left-hand side of (35) is monotone in $n$. But when $n=3$, it is easy to show that

$$
\int_{1}^{2}\left[\ln \left(y+\sqrt{y^{2}-1}\right)\right]^{2} d y>2 / 3
$$

hence (35) holds for $n=3$. If $n=4$, we have that

$$
\int_{1}^{3}\left[\ln \left(y+\sqrt{y^{2}-1}\right)\right]^{2} d y>2>2(n-2) / n
$$

and so (35) holds for $n \geqq 3$. It follows from Theorem 12 that for $k=1,(12),(13)$ has a solution for all $n$. We have thus proved the following theorem, and Corollary 15.

Theorem 14. Suppose that $f(u)$ satisfies (25). Then the problem (12), (13) has a positive solution for all sufficiently large $p$, for some $R=R(p)$, if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{0}^{1}\left(\int_{a}^{1} \frac{d s}{\sqrt{2\left\{\frac{1-s^{k+1}}{k+1}-\frac{n-1}{n} s^{k}(1-s)\right\}}}\right)^{2} d a^{k}>2(n-2) . \tag{36}
\end{equation*}
$$

Corollary 15. If $f(u)$ satisfies (25) with $k=1$, then (12), (13) has a positive solution for all sufficiently large $p$, for all $n \geqq 1$, for some $R$.

Corollary 16. Suppose that (15) holds and $f(u)>0$ for some $u>0$. Then (12), (13) has a positive solution for all sufficiently large $p$, for all $n \geqq 1$, for some $R$.

Proof. Since $f^{\prime \prime} \leqq 0$, we have

$$
\frac{f(u)}{u} \leqq f^{\prime}(u) \leqq f^{\prime}(0),
$$

and since $f(u) / u$ is an increasing function,

$$
\lim _{u \rightarrow \infty} f(u) / u=A
$$

exists. Thus given $\varepsilon>0$, we have
for $u \geqq u_{\varepsilon}$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
(A-\varepsilon) u \leqq f(u) \leqq A u \tag{37}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now in Eq. (1), make the change of variables $y=x \sqrt{A-\varepsilon}$; then (1) goes over into

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta_{y} u+\frac{1}{A-\varepsilon} f(u)=0, \quad|y|<R \sqrt{A-\varepsilon} \tag{38}
\end{equation*}
$$

We thus see that there is a one-one correspondence between solutions of the Dirichlet problem for (1) and (38). Thus, if we define $g(u)=(A-\varepsilon)^{-1} f(u)$, we have the estimate

$$
u \leqq g(u) \leqq \frac{A}{A-\varepsilon} u
$$

if $u \geqq u_{\varepsilon}$. We may now apply Corollary 15 to the equation $\Delta u+g(u)=0$, to conclude the existence of a solution to the Dirichlet problem for every $n$, for (38), and hence for (1).

As a consequence of this last result, we have the following theorem.
Theorem 17. Suppose that (15) holds, and $f(0)<0$. Then there are real numbers $R_{1}>R_{2}>0$ (depending on $f$ and $n$ ), such that the problem (1), (2) has positive solutions if and only if $R_{1} \geqq R>R_{2}$. Moreover if $u$ is the positive solution of (1), (2) for $R=R_{1}$ then $u\left(R_{1}\right)=u^{\prime}\left(R_{1}\right)=0$.

Proof. In the proof of Theorem 4, we have shown that such an $R_{1}$ exists, while the existence of the lower bound $R_{2}$ follows from Corollary 11. The actual existence of solutions is a consequence of Corollary 15.

Notice that for $f(u)=u-e^{-u}$, the bound $T^{2}(p) \geqq 2 n / f^{\prime}(0)$ gives $R_{2} \geqq \sqrt{n}$.
Concerning the case where $(f(u) / u)^{\prime}<0$, we have the following existence theorem, which is essentially known, and follows from degree theory arguments and results about positive operators; see [1]. We show here how existence also follows from Theorem 14. Recall that in this case $f$ can have at most one positive root.

Theorem 18. Suppose that $(f(u) / u)^{\prime}<0$ in $u>0$. Then the following statements concerning the problem (1), (2) are valid:
A. $0 \leqq R_{0}<T(p)<R_{1} \leqq \infty$, where $R_{0}=0$ if and only if $f(0)>0$, while $R_{1}<\infty$ if and only if $\lim _{u \rightarrow \infty} f(u) / u=\lambda>0$.
B. $\operatorname{dom}(T)=\{p: f(p)>0\}$.

We shall first prove the assertions concerning $R_{0}$. If $f(0)>0$ and $f(p)>0, p>0$, then $f(u) \geqq m>0$ on $0 \leqq u \leqq p$ for some $m>0$. Then integrating $-\left(r^{n-1} v\right)^{\prime}$ $=f(u) r^{n-1} \geqq m r^{n-1}$ yields $-v \geqq m r / n$, and integrating again gives $u(r) \leqq p$ $-m r^{2} / 2 n$. Thus $u(r)<0$ if $r^{2}>2 n p / m[$ so $p \in \operatorname{dom}(T)!]$ and $T(p)^{2}<2 n p / m$, so $T(p)$ $\rightarrow 0$ as $p \rightarrow 0$; thus $R_{0}=0$. If $f(0)=0$, then since $f(u)>0$ for some $u>0$ (in order for positive solutions to exist), and (11) holds, we see that $f^{\prime}(0)>0$. Let $A=f^{\prime}(0)$ and note that $f(u) \leqq(A+\varepsilon) u$, for small $u>0$, for some $\varepsilon>0$. For such $u$, along a solution we have

$$
\left(r^{n-1} v\right)^{\prime}=-r^{n-1} f(u) \geqq-r^{n-1}(A+\varepsilon) u \geqq-r^{n-1}(A+\varepsilon) p,
$$

so $v \geqq-r(A+\varepsilon) p / n$, and thus $-T(p)^{2}(A+\varepsilon) p / 2 n \leqq-p$; hence $T(p)^{2} \geqq 2 n /(A+\varepsilon)$, and thus $R_{0} \geqq 0$.

The equation $v^{\prime}=-(n-1) v r^{-1}-f(u)$ implies that $\left(r^{n-1} v\right)^{\prime}=-r^{n} f(u)$. Integrating this from 0 to $r$ gives $r^{n-1} v(r)=-\int_{0}^{r} s^{n} f(u(s)) d s$. Hence, if $u(0)=p$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\max _{0 \leqq u \leqq p}(-v(r)) & =\max _{0 \leqq r \leqq T(p)} \frac{1}{r^{n-1}} \int_{0}^{r} s^{n} f(u(s)) d s \\
& \leqq \max _{0 \leqq r \leqq T(p)} \frac{1}{r^{n-1}} \int_{0}^{r} s^{n}\left[\max _{0 \leq u \leq p} f(u)\right] d s \\
& =\left[\max _{0 \leqq u \leqq p} f(u)\right] \frac{T(p)^{2}}{n+1}=\frac{M_{p}}{n+1} T(p)^{2},
\end{aligned}
$$

where $M_{p}=\max \{f(u): 0 \leqq u \leqq p\}$. Since $u^{\prime}=v$ implies that $T(p) \geqq p / \max _{0 \leqq u \leqq p}(-v(r))$, we obtain $T(p)^{3} \geqq(n+1) p / M_{p}$. We claim that $p / M_{p} \rightarrow \infty$ if and only if $f(p) / p \rightarrow 0$, as $p \rightarrow \infty$.

In order to prove the claim, first note that $M_{p} \geqq f(p)$ implies that if $M_{p} / p \rightarrow 0$, then $f(p) / p \rightarrow 0$. Conversely, suppose that $f(p) / p \rightarrow 0$. If $f$ is bounded, say $f(p) \leqq k$, then $k / p \geqq M_{p} / p$, so $M_{p} / p \rightarrow 0$. We may thus assume that $f$ is unbounded. Let $N>0$ be given; since $f(p) / p \rightarrow \infty$ and $(f(p) / p)^{\prime}<0$, we see that there is a $p_{0}>0$ such that $p / f(p) \geqq N$ for $p \geqq p_{0}$. On the closed interval $\left[0, p_{0}\right], f$ is bounded, say $f(p) \leqq k$. Since $f$ is unbounded, there is a $q>p_{0}$ such that $f(q)=k+1$. Let $f(\xi)$ $=\max \{f(p): 0 \leqq p \leqq q\}$. Then $\xi>p_{0}, \xi / f(\xi)>p_{0} / f\left(p_{0}\right) \geqq N$ so that $\xi / M_{\xi}=\xi / f(\xi)$ $>N$. Since $N$ was arbitrary and $u / f(u)$ is an increasing function, we see that $M_{p} / p \rightarrow 0$. This proves our claim.

Suppose that $f(u) / u \geqq \lambda>0$. We write (1) in the form

$$
u^{\prime \prime}+\frac{n-1}{r} u^{\prime}+\lambda^{2} u=\lambda^{2} u-f(u) \equiv h(t) \leqq 0 .
$$

For the linear system

$$
w^{\prime \prime}+\frac{n-1}{r} w^{\prime}+\lambda^{2} w=0,
$$

the associated time map $T$ is constant, $T(p) \equiv T_{L}$; this follows since $\phi$, as defined by (10) is identically zero. If $T(p)$ is the time map associated to (1), (2), we shall show that $T(p) \leqq T_{L}$, and this will give the desired conclusion.

Let $\varepsilon>0$ be a given small number, and let $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ be linearly independent solutions for the above linear (homogeneous) equation, where

$$
v_{1}(\varepsilon)=1, \quad v_{1}^{\prime}(\varepsilon)<0, \quad \text { and } \quad v_{2}(\varepsilon)=0, \quad v_{2}^{\prime}(\varepsilon)>0
$$

Using variation of parameters, we can write the solution of (1), (2) as

$$
u(t)=a v_{1}(t)+b v_{2}(t)+\int_{\varepsilon}^{t} \frac{v_{2}(t) v_{1}(s)-v_{1}(t) v_{2}(s)}{W(s)} h(s) d s
$$

where $a$ and $b$ are constants, and $W(s)$ is the associated Wronskian; i.e.,

$$
W(s)=\operatorname{det}\left(\begin{array}{ll}
v_{1}(s) & v_{1}^{\prime}(s) \\
v_{2}(s) & v_{2}^{\prime}(s)
\end{array}\right)
$$

Since $W(\varepsilon)>0$, we see $W(s)>0$ for all $s$. Also $0<W\left(T_{L}\right)=-v_{1}^{\prime}\left(T_{L}\right) v_{2}\left(T_{L}\right), v_{1}^{\prime}\left(T_{L}\right)<0$ imply that $v_{2}\left(T_{L}\right)>0$. Since

$$
u\left(T_{L}\right)=b v_{2}\left(T_{L}\right)+\int_{\varepsilon}^{T_{L}} \frac{v_{2}\left(T_{L}\right) v_{1}(s)}{W(s)} h(s) d s,
$$

we see that $u\left(T_{L}\right) \leqq 0$ if $b \leqq 0$. Thus, if $b \leqq 0$, we will have proved that $T(p) \leqq T_{L}$.
It remains to show $b \leqq 0$. We have

$$
u^{\prime}(\varepsilon)=a v_{1}^{\prime}(\varepsilon)+b, \quad u(\varepsilon)=a v_{1}(\varepsilon)
$$

so that

$$
b=\left[\frac{u^{\prime}(\varepsilon)}{u(\varepsilon)}-\frac{v_{1}^{\prime}(\varepsilon)}{v_{1}(\varepsilon)}\right] / v_{1}(\varepsilon) u(\varepsilon),
$$

and thus if the numerator is not zero,

$$
\operatorname{sgn} b=\operatorname{sgn}\left[\frac{u^{\prime}(\varepsilon)}{u(\varepsilon)}-\frac{v_{1}^{\prime}(\varepsilon)}{v_{1}(\varepsilon)}\right] .
$$

In order to compute this sign, we define $\theta=\arctan \left(u^{\prime} / u\right), \psi=\arctan \left(v_{1}^{\prime} / v_{1}\right)$. Then

$$
\dot{\theta}(r)=-\frac{v^{2}+u f(u)-(n-1) u v r^{-1}}{u^{2}+v^{2}}
$$

and as we have observed in the proof of Theorem $3, \lim v r^{-1}=-f(u(0)) / n$ as $r \rightarrow 0$, so that

$$
\dot{\theta}(0)=-\frac{1}{n} f(u(0)) / u(0) .
$$

Similarly, $\dot{\psi}(0)=-\lambda^{2} / n$. Thus $\dot{\psi}(0) \geqq \dot{\theta}(0)$, and so $v_{1}^{\prime}(\varepsilon) / v_{1}(\varepsilon) \geqq u^{\prime}(\varepsilon) / u(\varepsilon)$, for small $\varepsilon>0$. This implies that $b \leqq 0$.

Finally, assume that $f(\bar{p})=0$ for some $\bar{p}>0$. Then since $T^{\prime}>0$ and $u=0, v=\bar{p}$ is a "rest point," $T(p) \rightarrow \infty$ as $p \nearrow \bar{p}$. This completes the proof of A .

To prove $\mathbf{B}$, we first suppose that $f(\bar{p})=0$ for some $\bar{p}>0$. Then $f(p)<0$ for $p>\bar{p}$, as solutions cannot exist if $p \geqq \bar{p}$. Let $0<p<\bar{p}$, then as noted above, $p \in \operatorname{dom}(T)$ if $f(0)>0$. Suppose $0<p<\bar{p}$ and $f(0)=0$. As noted above, $f^{\prime}(0)>0$.

Define a new positive smooth function $g(u)$ by $g(u)=f(u)$ if $0 \leqq u \leqq p$, and $g(u) / u \searrow 0$ as $u \rightarrow \infty$ (see the depicted figure). Then since the orbit through $v=0, u=p$ depends only on the values of $f(u)$ for $u \leqq p$, we may apply a remark after Theorem 3 to conclude that $p \in \operatorname{dom}(T)$. Thus B holds if $f(\bar{p})=0$ for some $\bar{p}>0$. If $f(u)>0$ for all $u>0$, then if $f(0)>0$, as above $\operatorname{dom}(T)=\{u>0\}$, while if $f(0)=0$, Corollary 15 implies $p \in \operatorname{dom}(T)$ if $p \gg 1$. But Theorem 3 shows that $p \in \operatorname{dom}(T)$ for $p$ near 0 , and the assertion follows since $\operatorname{dom}(T)$ is connected (cf. Theorem 3). The proof is complete.


## 5. Nondegenerate Solutions

In this section we shall show that the ideas in the previous sections can be used to prove the non-degeneracy of solutions. We assume that $f \in C^{3}$.

We begin with the following theorem.
Theorem 19. Let $u(\cdot, \tilde{p})$ be a solution of (3), (4), where $g \in C^{3}$. Then $u(\cdot, \tilde{p})$ is nondegenerate if and only if $u_{p}(L, \tilde{p}) \neq 0$.

Proof. Differentiating (3) with respect to $p$ gives for $w=u_{p}{ }^{9}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
w^{\prime \prime}+g_{1}\left(\tilde{u}, \tilde{u}^{\prime}, t\right) w+g_{2}\left(\tilde{u}, \tilde{u}^{\prime}, t\right) w^{\prime}=0 \tag{39}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\tilde{u}(r) \equiv u(r, \tilde{p})$, and $g_{i}$ denotes differentiation of $g$ with respect to its $i^{\text {th }}$ argument. Also, $u^{\prime}(0, p)=0$ gives $u_{p}^{\prime}(0, p)=0$. Thus, if $\tilde{u}_{p}(L, \tilde{p})=0$, then $\tilde{u}_{p}$ satisfies (39) and the correct boundary conditions. Moreover, $u(0, p)=p, u_{p}(0, p)=1$, so $u_{p}(0, \tilde{p}) \neq 0$; thus the solution $u(\cdot, \tilde{p})$ is degenerate.

Conversely, if $u(\cdot, \tilde{p})$ is degenerate; i.e., if there exists a non-trivial solution $w$ of (39) which satisfies $w^{\prime}(0)=w(L)=0$, then $w(0) \neq 0$ and $u_{p}(t, \tilde{p})=w(t) / w(0)$, since both satisfy (39) and the same initial conditions.

We remark that the condition $u_{p}(L, \tilde{p}) \neq 0$ is generally very difficult to verify directly. However, if $u^{\prime}(L, \tilde{p}) \neq 0$, then the equation $u(t, p)=0$ defines $t$ implicitly as a smooth function of $p$ near ( $L, \tilde{p}$ ) (see the appendix); namely $T(p)$. Differentiating the equation $u(T(p), p)=0$, with respect to $p$, gives, at $\tilde{p}, u_{p}(L, \tilde{p})=-u^{\prime}(L, \tilde{p}) T^{\prime}(\tilde{p})$. Thus $u_{p}(L, \tilde{p})=0$ if and only if $T^{\prime}(p)=0$. Theorems $2-4$ give conditions under which $T^{\prime}(p) \neq 0$. The condition $u^{\prime}(L, \tilde{p}) \neq 0$ is automatically satisfied if $g(0,0, L)>0$. One sees this latter fact from the "phase portrait." Namely, since $u^{\prime}=v, v^{\prime}$ $=-g(u, v, t)$, We find that if $u(L, \tilde{p})=u^{\prime}(L, \tilde{p})=0$, then $-g(0,0, L)=v^{\prime}(L)>0$, since $v(L-\varepsilon)<0$, and $u^{\prime}(L)=0$. Similarly, if $g(0,0, t)=0$ for all $t \geqq 0$, then no orbit reaches the origin in finite time since the line $u=v=0$ in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ is invariant; thus

[^8]$u^{\prime}(L, \tilde{p}) \neq 0$ in this case too. The case where $u^{\prime}(L, \tilde{p})=0$ is quite interesting and will be considered in a forthcoming publication.

We now come to the main theorem in this section.
Theorem 20. Let $u=u(\cdot, p)$ be a non-negative solution of (1), (2) on $\Omega=D_{R}^{n}$. If both

$$
T^{\prime}(p) \neq 0, \text { and } \quad u^{\prime}(R, p) \neq 0
$$

then $u$ is non-degenerate, and conversely. In particular, $u$ is non-degenerate if (11) holds.

Proof. First, recall from [4] that $u^{\prime}(r)<0$ if $r>0$. We want to show that 0 is not in the spectrum of the linearized equations if $T^{\prime}(p) \neq 0$ and $u^{\prime}(R, p) \neq 0$; that is, we want to show that $v \equiv 0$ is the only solution of the problem

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta v+f^{\prime}(u) v=0, \quad x \in \Omega, \quad v(\partial \Omega)=0 . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now it is a standard result that every solution of (40) can be written in the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
v(r, \theta)=\sum_{N=0}^{\infty} a_{N}(r) \Phi_{N}(\theta), \quad \theta \in S^{n-1}, \quad r \geqq 0 \tag{41}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\Phi_{0}=$ const. and for $N \geqq 1, \Phi_{N}$ is an eigenfunction of the Laplacian on the ( $n-1$ )-sphere $S^{n-1}$ (see, e.g., [2] for the case $n=3$ ). If we use this in (40), we obtain the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{N=0}^{\infty}\left(a_{N}^{\prime \prime}+\frac{n-1}{r} a_{N}^{\prime}+\frac{\lambda_{N}}{r^{2}} a_{N}+f^{\prime}(u) a_{N}\right) \Phi_{N}=0, \tag{42}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\lambda_{N}=N(N+n-2), \quad N \geqq 0 . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

see [2, p. 161].
In view of (42) we have, for $N \geqq 0$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{N}^{\prime \prime}+\frac{n-1}{r} a_{N}^{\prime}+\frac{\lambda_{N}}{r^{2}} a_{N}+f^{\prime}(u) a_{N}=0, \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

and ${ }^{10}$ for $N \geqq 1$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{N}(R)=a_{N}(0)=0 . \tag{45}
\end{equation*}
$$

We shall show that (44), and (45) imply that $a_{N}(r) \equiv 0,0 \leqq r \leqq R$, if $N \geqq 1$. Then we shall show that Theorem 19 implies that $a_{0}(r) \equiv 0$, and so we will have that $v \equiv 0$, and the non-degeneracy of $u$ will be proved. To this end, let $w=d u / d r$; then $w$ satisfies the equation

$$
w^{\prime \prime}+\frac{n-1}{r} w^{\prime}-\frac{n-1}{r^{2}} w+f^{\prime}(u) w=0 .
$$

$10 a_{N}(r) \Phi_{N}(\theta)$ is undefined at $r=0$ unless $a_{N}(0)=0$. Formally, $a_{N}(r)=\int_{n^{n-1}} v(r, \theta) \Phi_{N}(\theta) d \theta$, and since $v$ is continuous at $r=0, a_{N}(0)=v(0) \int_{S^{n-1}} \Phi_{N}(\theta) d \theta=\frac{v(0)}{\lambda_{N}} \int_{S^{n-1}} \Delta \Phi_{N}(\theta) d \theta=0$

Assume $N \geqq 1$; multiply this last equation by $-a_{N} r^{n-1}$, multiply (44) by $w r^{n-1}$, add the two resulting equations and integrate from $r=0$ to $r=\widetilde{R} \leqq R$, where $\widetilde{R}$ is the first zero of $a_{N}$. This gives

$$
\left.r^{n-1}\left[w(r) a_{N}^{\prime}(r)-a_{N}(r) w^{\prime}(r)\right]\right|_{0} ^{\tilde{R}}=\int_{0}^{\tilde{R}} r^{n-3}\left[-\lambda_{N}-(n-1)\right] a_{N}(r) w(r) d r,
$$

or, in view of the boundary conditions (45),

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tilde{R}^{n-1} w(\tilde{R}) a_{N}^{\prime}(\tilde{R})=\int_{0}^{\tilde{R}} r^{n-3}\left[-\lambda_{N}-(n-1)\right] a_{N}(r) w(r) d r \tag{46}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that $-\lambda_{N}-(n-1)>0$ if $N>1$, while $-\lambda_{1}=n-1$. Thus (46) implies that $a_{N}(r) \equiv 0$ if $N \geqq 2$. Since $w(R) \neq 0, u(R)=0$ (and $u \neq 0$ ), then setting $\tilde{R}=R$ in (46) gives $a_{1}(R) \equiv 0$.

It remains to prove that $a_{0}(r) \equiv 0$. Since $u^{\prime}(R, p) \neq 0$, it follows from the remark which we made after the proof of Theorem 18 , that

$$
u_{p}(R, p)=-u^{\prime}(R, p) T^{\prime}(p) \neq 0
$$

Hence from Theorem 19, $a_{0}(r) \equiv 0$.
Conversely, if the solution $u(\cdot, p)$ is non-degenerate, then $u^{\prime}(R, p) \neq 0$, for otherwise, the function $u^{\prime}(r, p) \Phi_{1}(\theta)$ would be a non-zero solution of (44), (45). Furthermore, using the fact that $u^{\prime}(R, p) \neq 0$, we see as above, that if $T^{\prime}(p)=0$, then $u_{p}(\cdot, p)$ would be a non-zero solution of $(40)$; thus $T^{\prime}(p) \neq 0$.

It is useful to summarize our results for solutions of (1), (2) in the cases where $\Omega=D_{R}^{n}$. We define $\psi(u)=f(u) / u$, and consider two cases:

1) $\psi^{\prime}(u)<0$ in $u>0$, and 2) both $\psi^{\prime}(u)>0$ and $f^{\prime \prime}(0)<0$ in $u>0$.

Case 1. $w^{\prime}(u)<0$. [If $f(0)=0$, then there are no positive solutions.]
A.



Fig. 6. Solutions exists only for $R>R_{0}>0$
B. $f(u)>0$ in $u>0$. Here there are two subcases:
i) if $f(u) / u \rightarrow 0$ as $u \rightarrow \infty$, then $T$ has the following form:



Fig. 7. $T(p) \rightarrow \infty$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$
ii) if $f(u) / u \geqq \lambda^{2}>0$, then $T$ has the following form:



Fig. 8. $T(p) \leqq R_{1}$ for all $p>0$
All of the above positive solutions are unique, stable and non-degenerate.
Case 2. $\psi^{\prime}(u)>0, f(0)<0$, and $f^{\prime \prime}(u) \leqq 0$.



Fig. 9
Solutions exist for $R_{2}<R \leqq R_{1}$; all positive solutions are unique, and nondegenerate if $p>\tilde{p}$. If $u(0)=\tilde{p}$, the corresponding solution is degenerate and in this case $u^{\prime}\left(R_{1}, \tilde{p}\right)=0$.

## 6. Concluding Remarks

If $u$ is a positive solution of (1), (2) in any domain $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}(\Omega$ is need not be an $n$-ball $)$, and $\sigma(u)$ denotes the spectrum of the linearized operator about $u$, then we shall show that $\sigma(u) \subset\{x>0\}$ if (11) holds, and $\sigma(u) \cap\{x>0\}$ is non-void if $(f(u) / u)^{\prime}>0$. In fact, we have the following somewhat more general result.

Theorem 21. Let $\Omega$ be a bounded domain in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, and let $u$ be a non-negative solution of the problem

$$
\begin{gather*}
\Delta u(x)+f(u(x))=0, \quad x \in \Omega,  \tag{46-47}\\
a(x) u(x)+b(x) \frac{d u(x)}{d n}=0, \quad x \in \partial \Omega, \tag{48}
\end{gather*}
$$

where $a^{2}+b^{2}=1$, and $d / d n$ denotes the outward-pointing normal derivative on $\partial \Omega$. Then if $\psi(u) \equiv f(u)-u f^{\prime}(u)$, we have
a) if $\psi>0$ in $u>0, \sigma(u) \subset\{x \in \mathbb{R} ; x<0\}$,
b) if $\psi<0$ in $u>0, \sigma(u) \cap\{x \in \mathbb{R} ; x>0\}$ is non-void.

Proof. Let $u$ be a non-negative solution of (47), (48), and consider the eigenvalue equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta v+f^{\prime}(u) v=\lambda v, \quad x \in \Omega \tag{49}
\end{equation*}
$$

with boundary conditions (48). Suppose that $v$ is a solution of (49), (48), and $\lambda$ is the principal eigenvalue of $\Delta+f^{\prime}(u)$ on $\Omega$, together with the boundary conditions (48). From a well-known result, (see [8]), we may assume that $v>0$ on $\Omega$.

We multiply (49) by $u$, (47) by $v$, add and integrate over $\Omega$ to get

$$
\int_{\Omega} v\left[\Delta u+u f^{\prime}(u)\right]+\int_{\partial \Omega}\left(u \frac{d v}{d n}-v \frac{d n}{d n}\right)=\lambda \int_{\Omega} u v .
$$

Since the equations $a u+b \frac{d u}{d n}=0$ and $a v+b \frac{d v}{d n}=0$ have a non-zero solution $(a, b)$, we see that the above boundary term vanishes. Then using (47), we find

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{\Omega}-v p(u)=\lambda \int_{\Omega} u v . \tag{50}
\end{equation*}
$$

This shows that if $\psi>0$ in $u>0$, then $\lambda<0$, while if $\psi<0$ in $u>0$, the $\lambda>0$.
As we have remarked earlier, this together with Theorem 4 implies that if (15) holds, then one cannot prove existence theorems for (1), (2) via the method of upper and lower solutions (nor by a variational approach, in which $u$ is a minimum of a functional).

The same argument yields still a more general result. Namely, consider the equation with self-adjoint boundary conditions

$$
L u(x)+f(u(x))=0, \quad x \in \Omega .
$$

Here $\Omega$ is a bounded domain (not necessarily a ball), and $L$ is a linear 2nd-order elliptic operator. Then the following theorem holds (cf. [8, Chap. 11, Appendix]).
Theorem 22. Let $u$ be a positive solution of the above problem. Then conclusions a) and b) of the last theorem are valid.

## Appendix

We shall show here that if $u$ is a solution of (12) and (13), then $u$ is a smooth function of $p(\text { and } r)^{11}$. The usual theorems are not applicable here since the coefficient of $u^{\prime}$ in (12) is not continuous in any neighborhood of $r=0$. Note that as a consequence of the smoothness of $u$, it follows that $T$ is a smooth function of $p$.
Theorem. Let $f \in C^{k}$ and let $u=u(r, p)$ be a solution of (12), (13) with $u(0, p)=p$. Then $u$ is $a C^{k}$ function ${ }^{12}$ of $r$ and $p$.

Proof. It suffices to show that $u$ is a $C^{k}$ function in any interval $0 \leqq r \leqq \delta$, since we may then apply the standard theorems.

Now the equation $\left(r^{n-1} u\right)^{\prime}=-r^{n-1} f(u)$ gives

$$
u^{\prime}(r, p)=-\frac{1}{r^{n-1}} \int_{0}^{r} s^{n-1} f(u(s, p)) d s
$$

[^9]and so if we take first the case $n>2$, we have
\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
u(r, p) & =p+\int_{0}^{r}-\frac{1}{t^{n-1}}\left(\int_{0}^{t} s^{n-1} f(u(s, p)) d s\right) d t \\
& =p-\int_{0}^{r} \int_{r}^{s}(s / t)^{n-1} f(u(s, p)) d t d s \\
& =p+\int_{0}^{r}\left(r^{2-n}-s^{2-n}\right) s^{n-1} f(u(s, p)) d s \\
& =p+\frac{1}{n-2} \int_{0}^{r}\left[r\left(\frac{s}{r}\right)^{n-1}-s\right] f(u(s, p)) d s
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

Thus, if $n>2$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
u(r, p)=p+\frac{1}{n-2} \int_{0}^{r}\left[r\left(\frac{s}{r}\right)^{n-1}-s\right] f(u(s, p)) d s \tag{51}
\end{equation*}
$$

whiel if $n=2$, a similar calculation gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
u(r, s)=p+\int_{0}^{s} s \ln (r / s) f(u(s, p)) d s \tag{52}
\end{equation*}
$$

We shall assume $n>2$, and prove the theorem in this case; the case $n=2$ is similar and will be left to the reader. Thus, motivated by (51), we let $\mathscr{F}$ be the class of $C^{k}$ functions of $r$ and $p$ with the $C^{k}$-norm which satisfy the conditions

$$
h(0, p)=p, \quad h_{r}(0, p)=0
$$

We define a mapping $T$ on $\mathscr{f}$ by

$$
T h(r, p)=p+\frac{1}{n-2} \int_{0}^{r}\left[r\left(\frac{s}{r}\right)^{n-1}-s\right] f(h(s, p)) d s
$$

It is straightforward to check that $T h$ is in $\mathscr{F}$, and that $T$ is a contraction mapping for small $r \geqq 0$. It follows that $T$ has a unique fixed point $h$ in $\mathscr{J}$. We set $u(r, p)$ $\equiv h(r, p)$; then $u^{\prime}(0, p)=0, u(0, p)=p$, and by direct calculation, $u$ satisfies (12).

Acknowledgements. We would like to acknowledge, with pleasure, our thanks to Paul Federbush, and John Mallet-Paret, for helpful discussions. Leon Karp deserves special thanks for his interest in our work; indeed, conversations with him helped to sharpen many parts of the paper.

We are grateful to the referee for pointing out some places where our arguments were incomplete, as well as simplifying the proof of Theorem 3.

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Communicated by L. Nirenberg
Received August 6, 1983; in revised form May 2, 1984

Note added in proof. If $f \in C^{0}$, and $u(r, p)$ solves (12), (13), with $u(0, p)=p$, then $u$ is a $C^{2}$ function of $r$, and $u, u_{r}, u_{r r}$ are $C^{1}$ in $p$. This holds since $u$ is a fixed point of the above map $T$, now considered as a map from $C^{0}[0, a] \rightarrow C^{2}[0, a]$; hence $u$ is $C^{2}$ in $r$. Now we may follow the usual proof of differentiability with respect to initial values to see that $u, u_{r}, u_{r r}$ are $C^{1}$ in $p$. Thus in Sect. 5 , we need only assume $f \in C^{1}$.


[^0]:    * Research supported in part by NSF Contract Number MCS 80-02337

[^1]:    1 By a solution, we always mean a positive solution $u, u \neq 0$

[^2]:    2 Thus if $v(R)=0$, then $v^{\prime}(R)=-f(0)<0$. Hence $v(R-\varepsilon)>0$ for some $\varepsilon>0$; this is a contradiction

[^3]:    3 If we do not have some further restriction on $f$, then solutions may not exist. For example, if $f(u)=u^{k}$, then as is well-known (see, e.g. [6]), solutions do not exist if $k>\frac{n+2}{n-2}$

[^4]:    4 Note that this will prove that $T$ is a monotone function, and hence will complete the proof of Theorem 4

[^5]:    5 Assuming solutions exist; they do by Corollary 16, below
    6 If $f$ has no positive root then no positive solution exists

[^6]:    7 In particular, if (15) holds, this will be the case

[^7]:    8 It is not difficult to consider the more general case $f(u) / u^{k} \rightarrow c>0$ as $u \rightarrow \infty$

[^8]:    9 The fact that $u$ depends smoothly on $p$ is shown in the appendix; $f \in C^{3}$ is needed to ensure $w^{\prime \prime}$ is continuous

[^9]:    11 A similar result is given in a preprint by Ni and Nussbaum, Uniqueness and Nonuniqueness for Positive Radial Solutions of $\Delta u+f(u, r)=0$
    12 In the applications to the non-degeneracy problem, we need $k \geqq 3$ since $u_{p}^{\prime \prime}$ must be defined

