# UNIQUENESS OF POSITIVE RADIAL SOLUTIONS OF $\Delta u+f(u)=0$ IN $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, II 

## KEVIN McLEOD


#### Abstract

We prove a uniqueness result for the positive solution of $\Delta u+$ $f(u)=0$ in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ which goes to 0 at $\infty$. The result applies to a wide class of nonlinear functions $f$, including the important model case $f(u)=-u+u^{p}$, $1<p<(n+2) /(n-2)$. The result is proved by reducing to an initial-boundary problem for the ODE $u^{\prime \prime}+(n-1) / r+f(u)=0$ and using a shooting method.


## 1. Introduction

Let $n>1$ be a real parameter, and let $f:[0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfy
(i) $f \in C^{1}([0, \infty)), f(0)=0, f^{\prime}(0)=-m<0$, and
(ii) for some $\alpha>0, f(u)<0$ for $0<u<\alpha, f(u)>0$ for $u>\alpha$ and $f^{\prime}(\alpha)>0$.

We wish to study the question of uniqueness for solutions of the boundary value problem

$$
\begin{gather*}
u^{\prime \prime}+\frac{n-1}{r} u^{\prime}+f(u)=0 \text { for } r>0  \tag{1}\\
u^{\prime}(0)=0, \quad u(r) \rightarrow 0 \quad \text { as } r \rightarrow \infty  \tag{2}\\
u(r)>0 \text { for } r \geq 0 \tag{3}
\end{gather*}
$$

The problem (1)-(3) will be referred to as (GS), since a solution of (1)-(3) can be considered (at least when $n \geq 2$ is an integer) as a positive, radially symmetric solution $u(X)=u(\|X\|)$ of $\Delta u+f(u)=0$ in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, and in many physical situations such a positive solution will represent the state of lowest energy, or ground state, of the system.

Due to its large number of applications, (GS) has attracted considerable attention from mathematicians in recent years. In particular, the existence question is now well understood. We will mention here a special case of a result of Berestycki and Lions [1] which gives very simple conditions under which a solution of (GS) exists.

Theorem A. In addition to (i) and (ii), let $f$ satisfy
(iii) for some $\beta>\alpha, F(\beta)=0$, where $F(u)=\int_{0}^{u} f(s) d s$, and

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(iv) $\lim _{u \rightarrow \infty} f(u) / u^{l}=0$, where $l=(n+2) /(n-2)$ if $n>2$, and $l$ can be any finite real number if $1<n \leq 2$.

## Then (GS) has at least one solution.

As an example, existence holds for the model case $f(u)=-u+u^{p} \quad(p>1)$ when $1<p<(n+2) /(n-2)$. (It follows from the Pohozaev identity [10] that (GS) has no solution when $n>2, f(u)=-u+u^{p}$ and $\left.p \geq(n+2) /(n-2)\right)$. The proof of Theorem A in [1] uses PDE techniques; a similar theorem is proved by ODE methods in [2]. For a recent, simple existence proof which is less general but which still covers the model case, see [8].

The first uniqueness result for (GS) was proved by Coffman [3], who studied the model case with $n=p=3$. Coffman's method was generalized in [7], where a result similar to Theorem 1 below was proved, with the restriction that $\lambda \geq n-2$ when $n>2$. This assumption meant that uniqueness for the model case could only be proved in [7] for $1<p \leq n /(n-2)$, and not even for all of this range when $n>4$. The next development was due to Kwong [5], who introduced two important new ideas: replacing certain complicated differential identities in [7] by arguments using Sturm oscillation, and a continuation argument in which the parameter $n$ is varied continuously from $n \leq 2$ (where the result is relatively simple) to larger values of $n$. Kwong applied his method only to the model case, but there it gave uniqueness for the full range $1<p<(n+2) /(n-2)$. For a general $f$, Kwong's argument gives Theorem 1 with the additional requirement that $f$ be convex. Recently, using different methods, Zhang [11] has succeeded in proving Theorem 1 assuming that $f$ is convex for $u>\alpha$. The final proof of Theorem 1 resulted from combining a simplified version of Kwong's continuation argument with an essential idea from [11], which appears here as Lemma 10. Kwong and Zhang have also obtained further results related to Theorem 1 [6].

We now state the main result of the present paper. We first introduce a modified version of the $I$-function from [7]: for $\lambda>0$, we define

$$
\begin{equation*}
I(u, \lambda)=\lambda u f^{\prime}(u)-(\lambda+2) f(u) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 1. Let $f$ satisfy conditions (i) and (ii), and suppose that for each $U>\alpha$ there is a $\lambda=\lambda(U)>0$, continuously depending on $U$, such that

$$
\begin{gather*}
I(u, \lambda) \geq 0 \text { for } 0<u<U \text { and }  \tag{5}\\
I(u, \lambda) \leq 0 \text { for } u>U \tag{6}
\end{gather*}
$$

Then (GS) has at most one solution.
The proof of this theorem will be given in $\S 4$. Since the main hypothesis can be hard to check directly, we will indicate in the final section of the paper how Theorem 1 can be applied to some specific functions. In the same section, we will state some additional results which follow from the proof of Theorem 1.

## 2. Preliminary results

It has become standard to study the uniqueness problem for (GS) by considering the initial value problem

$$
\begin{gather*}
u^{\prime \prime}+\frac{n-1}{r} u^{\prime}+f(u)=0 \quad \text { for } r>0  \tag{7}\\
u(0)=a>0, \quad u^{\prime}(0)=0 \tag{8}
\end{gather*}
$$

$u$ extends maximally to the right with $u \geq 0$.
The solution of this problem (which is unique [2]) will be denoted either by $u(r)$ or $u(r, a)$. We define

$$
\begin{gathered}
S^{+}=\{a>0: u(r, a) \text { remains bounded away from } 0\} \\
S^{0}=\{a>0: u(r, a) \text { solves (GS) }\} \\
S^{-}=\{a>0: u(R, a)=0 \text { for some (first) } R=R(a)>0\}
\end{gathered}
$$

In case $a \in S^{0}$, we will also set $R(a)=\infty$. The variation $\delta(r)=\delta(r, a)=$ $\partial u / \partial a$ satisfies

$$
\begin{gather*}
\delta^{\prime \prime}+\frac{n-1}{r} \delta^{\prime}+f^{\prime}(u) \delta=0  \tag{10}\\
\delta(0)=1, \quad \delta^{\prime}(0)=0 \tag{11}
\end{gather*}
$$

The following lemmas collect some well-known facts concerning the solutions of (7) and (10). For additional proofs of these results, the reader may consult [2] or [9].
Lemma 1. (a) The sets $S^{+}, S^{-}$and $S^{0}$ are disjoint and cover the interval $(0, \infty)$, with $(0, \alpha] \in S^{+}$. In particular, if $u$ is a solution of (GS), then $u(0)>\alpha$. Also, $S^{+}$and $S^{-}$are both open in $(0, \infty)$.
(b) Any solution $u$ with $u(0) \in S^{0} \cup S^{-}$is monotone decreasing. In particular, any solution of (GS) is monotone decreasing.
(c) If $u$ is a solution of (GS), then for any $\varepsilon \in(0, m)$,

$$
\limsup _{r \rightarrow \infty} u(r) e^{r \sqrt{m-\varepsilon}}<\infty, \quad \limsup _{r \rightarrow \infty}\left|u^{\prime}(r)\right| e^{r \sqrt{m-\varepsilon}}<\infty
$$

and

$$
\frac{\left|u^{\prime}(r)\right|}{u(r)} \rightarrow \sqrt{-m} \quad \text { as } r \rightarrow \infty
$$

(d) If $u$ is a solution of (7) with $u(0) \in S^{+}$then $u$ has an infinite number of local maxima and minima. Furthermore, if $u\left(r_{0}\right)$ is a local minimum of $u$ then $u(r)>u\left(r_{0}\right)$ for $r>r_{0}$, while if $u\left(r_{0}\right)$ is a local maximum then $u(r)<u\left(r_{0}\right)$ for $r>r_{0}$.
Lemma 2. (a) If $u(0) \in S^{0} \cup S^{-}$, then $\delta$ has only a finite number of critical points and a finite number of zeroes in $(0, R)$.
(b) If $u(0) \in S^{0}$, then as $r \rightarrow \infty$ either

$$
\delta(r) \rightarrow \pm \infty, \quad \delta^{\prime}(r) \rightarrow \pm \infty \text { with } \delta(r) \delta^{\prime}(r)>0 \text { for large } r
$$

or

$$
\delta(r) \rightarrow 0, \quad \delta^{\prime}(r) \rightarrow 0 \text { with } \delta(r) \delta^{\prime}(r)<0 \text { for large } r .
$$

In the second case, for any $\varepsilon \in(0, m)$,

$$
\limsup _{r \rightarrow \infty}|\delta(r)| e^{r \sqrt{m-\varepsilon}}<\infty, \quad \limsup _{r \rightarrow \infty}\left|\delta^{\prime}(r)\right| e^{r \sqrt{m-\varepsilon}}<\infty
$$

Proof. From (10), if $u$ is small enough that $f^{\prime}(u)<0$, then any positive critical point of $\delta$ can only be a local minimum. Similarly, any negative critical value can only be a local maximum. Thus, $\delta$ can have at most one critical point after $f^{\prime}(u)=0$ for the last time. Since critical points of $\delta$ are isolated, $\delta$ can have at most a finite number of critical points, and hence a finite number of zeroes.

The proof of part (b) is standard, using the fact that $u(r)$ is small for large $r$, so that one has essentially $f^{\prime}(u)=-m$.

Our next lemma gives a first relation between the sign of $\delta(R)$ and the local behaviour of solutions of (7)-(9).
Lemma 3. (a) Let $a_{0} \in S^{-}$and suppose that $\delta\left(R\left(a_{0}\right)\right)<0$. Then $R(a)$ is a decreasing function of a near $a_{0}$.
(b) Let $a_{0} \in S^{0}$ and suppose that $\delta(r) \rightarrow-\infty$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$. Then for some $\varepsilon>0$ the interval $\left(a_{0}, a_{0}+\varepsilon\right)$ is contained in $S^{-}$, while $\left(a_{0}-\varepsilon, a_{0}\right) \subset S^{+}$. Similarly, if $\delta(r) \rightarrow+\infty$, some right neighbourhood of $a_{0}$ is contained in $S^{+}$, while a left neighbourhood is contained in $S^{-}$.
Proof. (a) From the implicit function theorem applied to $u(R(a), a)=0$, we see that $R(a)$ is a differentiable function of $a$ for $a \in S^{-}$, and that

$$
u^{\prime}(R(a), a) R^{\prime}(a)+\delta(R(a), a)=0 .
$$

Since $u^{\prime}(R(a), a)<0$, the assumption $\delta\left(R\left(a_{0}\right), a_{0}\right)<0$ gives $R^{\prime}\left(a_{0}\right)<0$.
(b) Suppose $f^{\prime}(u)<0$ for $u \in[0, \gamma)$, and let $R_{1}$ be fixed so large that $u\left(r, a_{0}\right) \leq \frac{1}{2} \gamma$ when $r \geq R_{1}$. If $\delta(r) \rightarrow-\infty$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$, we see from Lemma 2(b) that for some $R_{2}>R_{1}$ we have $\delta\left(R_{2}\right)<0$ and $\delta^{\prime}\left(R_{2}\right)<0$. Thus, for $a>a_{0}$ but close to $a_{0}$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
u\left(R_{2}, a\right)<u\left(R_{2}, a_{0}\right), \quad u^{\prime}\left(R_{2}, a\right)<u^{\prime}\left(R_{2}, a_{0}\right) . \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $a \in S^{+}$, there would be a subsequent point $R_{3}>R_{2}$ at which $u\left(R_{3}, a\right)=$ $u\left(R_{3}, a_{0}\right)$, while if $a \in S^{0}$, both $u(r, a)$ and $u\left(r, a_{0}\right)$ approach 0 as $r \rightarrow \infty$. In either case, by (12), the function $w(r)=u(r, a)-u\left(r, a_{0}\right)$ must have a negative minimum after $R_{2}$. However, $w$ satisfies

$$
w^{\prime \prime}+\frac{n-1}{r} w^{\prime}+f^{\prime}(\theta(r)) w=0,
$$

where $\theta(r)$ is between $u(r, a)$ and $u\left(r, a_{0}\right)$, so that $f^{\prime}(\theta(r))<0$ in $\left(R_{2}, R_{3}\right)$, and any negative critical point of $w$ in this interval could only be a maximum. Thus, $a \notin S^{+} \cup S^{0}$ and so $a \in S^{-}$.

The other cases are all similar. In the two cases in which $u\left(R_{2}, a\right)>$ $u\left(R_{2}, a_{0}\right), a$ must be taken sufficiently close to $a_{0}$ so that $u\left(R_{2}, a\right)<\gamma$.

Lemma 3 shows that information about $u(r, a)$ can be obtained from an analysis of $\delta(r, a)$. In particular, information on the number of zeroes of $\delta$ plays a crucial role in the proof of Theorem 1. The following terminology is due to Kwong [5].
Definition. Let $a \in S^{0} \cup S^{-}$. $a$ is said to be admissible if $\delta(r, a)$ has exactly one zero in $[0, R) . a$ is said to be strictly admissible if $a$ is admissible and in addition $\delta(R, a)<0$ (or $\delta(r) \rightarrow-\infty$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$, in case $a \in S^{0}$ ).

In the remaining sections of the paper, we will show that, under the hypotheses of Theorem 1, every $a \in S^{0} \cup S^{-}$is strictly admissible. Theorem 1 then follows easily. The heart of the argument is Lemma 8, in which we show that admissibility implies strict admissibility. The full proof of Lemma 8 uses the oscillation results of $\S 3$, but we can finish the present section by proving a lemma which implies Lemma 8 in case $\delta(r)=0$ at some $r$ where $u(r) \leq \alpha$.

Lemma 4. Suppose that $a \in S^{0} \cup S^{-}$and that $\delta(r) \rightarrow 0$ as $r \rightarrow R$. Then if $r_{1} \in(0, R)$ is such that $\delta\left(r_{1}\right)=0$, we have $u\left(r_{1}\right)>\alpha$.
Proof. Assume for contradiction that $\delta\left(r_{1}\right)=0$ and $u\left(r_{1}\right) \leq \alpha$. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $r_{1}$ is the last zero of $\delta$ in $(0, R)$, and that $\delta<0$ in $\left(r_{1}, R\right)$. From the equations satisfied by $u$ and $\delta$, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[\left(r^{n-1} u^{\prime}\right)\left(r^{n-1} \delta^{\prime}\right)\right]^{\prime} } & =-r^{2 n-2}\left[f(u) \delta^{\prime}+f^{\prime}(u) u^{\prime} \delta\right] \\
& =-r^{2 n-2}[f(u) \delta]^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

Integrating from $r_{1}$ to some $r_{2} \in\left(r_{1}, R\right)$ and then integrating by parts, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
& r_{2}^{2 n-2} u^{\prime}\left(r_{2}\right) \delta^{\prime}\left(r_{2}\right)-r_{1}^{2 n-2} u^{\prime}\left(r_{1}\right) \delta^{\prime}\left(r_{1}\right) \\
& \quad=-\left[s^{2 n-2} f(u(s)) \delta(s)\right]_{r_{1}}^{r_{2}}+(2 n-2) \int_{r_{1}}^{r_{2}} s^{2 n-3} f(u(s)) \delta(s) d s
\end{aligned}
$$

Now let $r_{2} \rightarrow R$. If $R<\infty$ we note that $\delta^{\prime}(R)>0$ (since $\delta<0$ in $\left(r_{1}, R\right)$ and $\delta(R)=0$ ), while if $R=\infty$ we apply Lemmas 1 (c) and 2(b). Noting also that $f(u(r))<0$ in $\left(r_{1}, R\right)$, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & >R^{2 n-2} u^{\prime}(R) \delta^{\prime}(R)-r_{1}^{2 n-2} u^{\prime}\left(r_{1}\right) \delta^{\prime}\left(r_{1}\right) \\
& =(2 n-2) \int_{r_{1}}^{R} s^{2 n-3} f(u(s)) \delta(s) d s>0
\end{aligned}
$$

(If $R=\infty$, the term $R^{2 n-2} u^{\prime}(R) \delta^{\prime}(R)$ is to be interpreted as 0 .) This is a contradiction, and the lemma is proved.

## 3. Oscillation and disconjugacy

The oscillation result we need is the following lemma, which is nothing more than a special case of the Sturm Comparison Theorem. Part (b) is perhaps less well known than part (a), but can be proved by the same methods.
Lemma 5. Let $Y$ and $Z$ be nontrivial solutions of

$$
\begin{align*}
& Y^{\prime \prime}+\frac{n-1}{r} Y^{\prime}+g(r) Y=0  \tag{13}\\
& Z^{\prime \prime}+\frac{n-1}{r} Z^{\prime}+G(r) Z=0 \tag{14}
\end{align*}
$$

respectively on some interval $(\mu, \nu) \subset(0, \infty)$, where $g$ and $G$ are continuous on $(\mu, \nu), G \geq g$ on $(\mu, \nu)$ and $G \not \equiv g$. If either
(a) $\mu>0$ and $Y(\mu)=Y(\nu)=0$, or
(b) $\mu=0, Y$ and $Z$ are continuous at $\mu$ and $Y^{\prime}(\mu)=Z^{\prime}(\mu)=Y(\nu)=0$, then $Z$ has at least one zero in $(\mu, \nu)$. The same conclusions hold if $G \equiv g$ on $(\mu, \nu)$, provided $Y$ and $Z$ are linearly independent.
Remark. In the situation of Lemma 5, we will say that $Z$ oscillates faster than $Y$ (or that $Y$ oscillates slower than $Z$ ) on $(\mu, \nu)$.

Definition. Suppose that (13) has at least one solution which does not vanish in some neighbourhood of $\infty$. Define
$\rho=\inf \{r \in(0, \infty):$ there is a solution of (13) with no zeroes in $(r, \infty)\}$.

The interval $(\rho, \infty)$ will be called the disconjugacy interval of (13).
Clearly, no solution of (13) can have two zeroes in ( $\rho, \infty$ ), for if a solution vanishes at $r_{1}$ and $r_{2}$ in $(\rho, \infty)$ then any linearly independent solution would vanish in ( $r_{1}, r_{2}$ ) and the disconjugacy interval could not be any larger than $\left(r_{1}, \infty\right)$. On the other hand, if $\rho>0$ any solution of (13) with a zero in ( $0, \rho$ ) must have a subsequent zero, or the disconjugacy interval would be larger than $(\rho, \infty)$. Thus the last zero of any solution of (13) must lie in [ $\rho, \infty$ ). In the next lemma, we distinguish those solutions whose last zero is precisely at $\rho$.

Lemma 6. Let $g(r)$ be continuous on $(0, \infty)$, and suppose that $g(r)<0$ for large $r$. Let the disconjugacy interval of (13) be $(\rho, \infty)$ with $\rho>0$, and suppose that (13) has a solution which goes to 0 as $r \rightarrow \infty$. If $Y$ is a nontrivial solution of (13) such that $Y(\rho)=0$, then $Y$ has no subsequent zeroes and $Y(r) \rightarrow 0$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$. Conversely, if $Y$ is a nontrivial solution of (13) with a zero in $(\rho, \infty)$, then $Y$ does not approach zero as $r \rightarrow \infty$.
Proof. Let $R_{0}>\rho$ be so large that $g(r)<0$ in $\left(R_{0}, \infty\right)$. From (13) we see that at any critical point in $\left(R_{0}, \infty\right)$, a nontrivial solution of (13) must turn away from the $r$-axis. It follows that any nontrivial solution can have at most one critical point in ( $R_{0}, \infty$ ), and so is ultimately monotone. In addition, the solution $Y_{2}$ of (13) with $Y_{2}\left(R_{0}\right)=0, Y_{2}^{\prime}\left(R_{0}\right)=1$ has no critical point in $\left(R_{0}, \infty\right)$, and so does not approach 0 as $r \rightarrow \infty$.

Now let $Y_{1}$ be a solution of (13) such that $Y_{1}(r) \rightarrow 0$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$. Then any other such solution must be a multiple of $Y_{1}$, and any solution not a multiple of $Y_{1}$ is of the form $c_{1} Y_{1}+c_{2} Y_{2}$ with $c_{2} \neq 0$, and so does not approach 0 as $r \rightarrow \infty$. Let $\rho_{1}$ be the last zero of $Y_{1}$. By the remarks preceding the lemma, $\rho_{1} \geq \rho$. We claim that $\rho_{1}=\rho$, which will imply the conclusion of the lemma.

Suppose for contradiction that $\rho_{1}>\rho$. For small $\varepsilon>0$ the solution $Y_{3}$ of (13) with $Y_{3}\left(\rho_{1}-\varepsilon\right)=0, Y_{3}^{\prime}\left(\rho_{1}-\varepsilon\right)=1$ has $Y_{3}\left(\rho_{1}\right)>0$, so $Y_{3}$ is not a multiple of $Y_{1}$ and $Y_{3}$ does not go to 0 as $r \rightarrow \infty$. The last zero of $Y_{2}$ before $R_{0}$ (if there is one) cannot be at $\rho_{1}$ (since $Y_{2}$ is not a multiple of $Y_{1}$ ) or in ( $\rho_{1}, R_{0}$ ) (by Lemma 5). Therefore, if $\varepsilon$ is sufficiently small, $Y_{2}<0$ on [ $\rho_{1}-\varepsilon, R_{0}$ ). We now write $Y_{3}=c_{1} Y_{1}+c_{2} Y_{2}$. Evaluating at $\rho_{1}$ shows that $c_{2}<0$. Since $Y_{1} \rightarrow 0$ while $Y_{2}$ is positive and bounded away from 0 for large $r, Y_{3}$ must eventually become negative. But this implies (for $\varepsilon$ small) that $Y_{3}$ has two zeroes in ( $\rho, \infty$ ).

Remark. If the disconjugacy interval of (13) is $(\rho, \infty)$ and $g \leq G<0$ on this interval, then the disconjugacy interval of (14) cannot be any larger than $(\rho, \infty)$. Specifically, if $Y$ and $Z$ are solutions of (13) and (14) with $Y(\rho)=$ $Z(\rho)=0$, then $Y \rightarrow 0$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$, by Lemma 6 , and an analysis of the Wronskian of $Y$ and $Z$ shows that if $Z>0$ on $(\rho, \infty)$ then $Z \rightarrow 0$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$. In case $Y$ and $Z$ both decay exponentially fast at $\infty$ (which is the only case we will use) the proof is similar to the standard proof of Lemma 5 ; if either $Y$ or $Z$ decays less rapidly, the analysis is slightly more delicate.

## 4. Proof of Theorem 1

Recall that our aim is to show that every $a \in S^{0} \cup S^{-}$is strictly admissible. As a first application of our oscillation results, we will show that for every such $a$ the variation $\delta(r, a)$ has at least one zero in $(0, R)$. In this proof, we first
use an auxiliary function which will prove to be very useful in the remainder of the paper. For $\lambda>0$ we define

$$
\begin{equation*}
v(r)=v_{\lambda}(r)=v_{\lambda}(r, a)=r u^{\prime}(r)+\lambda u(r) \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

A calculation using (7) shows that $v_{\lambda}$ is a solution of

$$
\begin{equation*}
v^{\prime \prime}+\frac{n-1}{r} v^{\prime}+f^{\prime}(u) v=I(u, \lambda) \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

which can be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
v^{\prime \prime}+\frac{n-1}{r} v^{\prime}+\left[f^{\prime}(u)-\frac{I(u, \lambda)}{v}\right] v=0 \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

in any interval in which $v \neq 0$.
Lemma 7. Under the assumptions of Theorem 1, for any $a \in S^{0} \cup S^{-}$the variation $\delta(r, a)$ has at least one zero in $(0, R)$.
Proof. Suppose $\delta$ never vanishes in $(0, R)$. Then $\delta>0$ in $(0, R)$, since $\delta(0)=1$. Let $\lambda=\lambda(a)$ be the value corresponding to $U=a$ in the hypothesis of Theorem 1. Note that $a>\alpha$ by Lemma $1(a)$. Then $I(u, \lambda) \geq 0$ for $0<u<a=u(0)$, so if $I(u, \lambda) \not \equiv 0$, comparison of (10) and (17) shows that $v_{\lambda}$ oscillates more slowly than $\delta$ as long as $v_{\lambda}>0$. But $v_{\lambda}(0)>0$ and $v_{\lambda}(R)<0$ (using Lemma $1(\mathrm{c})$ in case $R=\infty$ ), so $v_{\lambda}$ must have a zero in $(0, R)$, which is a contradiction. (In case $I(u, \lambda) \equiv 0, \delta$ must be a positive multiple of $v_{\lambda}$ and so again $\delta(R)<0$.)
Lemma 8. Suppose $f$ satisfies the hypotheses of Theorem 1 and let $a \in S^{0} \cup S^{-}$ be admissible. Then $a$ is strictly admissible.
Proof. Suppose that $a$ is admissible but not strictly admissible. Then $\delta$ has exactly one zero in $(0, R)$ and $\delta(r) \rightarrow 0$ as $r \rightarrow R$. Let $r_{1}$ be the zero of $\delta$, and note by Lemma 4 that $u\left(r_{1}\right)>\alpha$. Let $\lambda_{1}=\lambda\left(u\left(r_{1}\right)\right)$. Then $I\left(u, \lambda_{1}\right) \leq 0$ for $u>u\left(r_{1}\right)$, so comparison of (10) and (17) shows that if $v_{\lambda_{1}}>0$ in $\left(0, r_{1}\right.$ ] it would oscillate faster than $\delta$ in this interval. But this contradicts Lemma $5(\mathrm{~b})$, and we conclude that the first zero of $v_{\lambda_{1}}$ occurs in $\left(0, r_{1}\right]$.

Now let $\lambda_{2}=\lambda(u(0))$. As in the proof of Lemma 7, $v_{\lambda_{2}}$ oscillates more slowly than $\delta$ in $\left(0, r_{1}\right)$ (as long as $v_{\lambda_{2}}>0$ ) and so the first zero of $v_{\lambda_{2}}$ occurs at or after $r_{1}$. It follows that there is some value of $\lambda$ between $\lambda_{1}$ and $\lambda_{2}$ such that the first zero of $v_{\lambda}$ occurs exactly at $r_{1}$. Since $\lambda(U)$ depends continuously on $U$, this value of $\lambda$ can be chosen as $\lambda(u(r))$ for some $r \in\left[0, r_{1}\right]$, and then $I(u, \lambda)$ is nonnegative at $r_{1}$ and remains nonnegative in $\left[r_{1}, \infty\right)$. In some interval to the right of $r_{1}$, then, we have $I(u, \lambda) \geq 0$ and $v_{\lambda}<0$, and as long as these inequalities persist, $v_{\lambda}$ oscillates more quickly than $\delta$.

Suppose first that $v_{\lambda}$ has no zero beyond $r_{1}$. Then neither has $\delta$, which oscillates more slowly than $v_{\lambda}$. If $R<\infty$, this shows that $a$ is strictly admissible. If $R=\infty$ then $v_{\lambda} \rightarrow-\infty$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$ by Lemma 1 (c) so, by Lemma 6 , $r_{1}$ is an interior point of the disconjugacy interval for (17). The disconjugacy interval of the less oscillatory equation (10) cannot be any shorter than that of (17) so, by Lemma 6 again, $\delta(r) \rightarrow-\infty$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$, and again $a$ is strictly admissible.

If on the other hand $v_{\lambda}\left(r_{2}\right)=0$ for some $r_{2}>r_{1}$, then $v_{\lambda}$ oscillates more slowly than $\delta$ between $r_{2}$ and any subsequent zero of $v_{\lambda}$. Since $\delta$ has no
subsequent zeroes neither does $v_{\lambda}$, so $v_{\lambda}(r)>0$ for $r$ close to $R$. It is clear from (15), however, that $v_{\lambda}<0$ for $r$ close to $R$, so this case cannot occur and the lemma is proved.

Lemma 9. The set of (strictly) admissible $a \in S^{0} \cup S^{-}$is both open and closed in $S^{0} \cup S^{-}$.
Proof. By Lemma 7, the set of nonadmissible $a$ 's consists of those $a$ for which $\delta(r, a)$ has at least two zeroes in $(0, R)$. This set is open, by the continuity of $\delta$ on $a$, so the set of admissible $a$ 's is closed. However the set of strictly admissible $a$ 's is open. This is clear from continuity if $a \in S^{-}$, while if $a \in S^{0}$ we can find $R_{0}$ so large that $\delta(r, a)<0, \delta^{\prime}(r, a)<0$ and $f^{\prime}(u(r))<0$ for $r \geq R_{0}$. By continuity, if we perturb $a$ slightly we will still have $\delta^{\prime}\left(R_{0}\right)<0$, and since $\delta$ can then have no subsequent critical point the perturbed $a$ is still strictly admissible. The result now follows from Lemma 8.

It should be clear that Lemma 9 will allow us to apply some type of continuation argument. It is also clear, however, that we must show that we can start somewhere; i.e. that the set of admissible $a$ 's is not empty. Our final lemma, due to Zhang [11], shows that the smallest $a$ in $S^{0} \cup S^{-}$is admissible. (Of course, if no such $a$ exists then $S^{+}=(0, \infty), S^{0}=\varnothing$ and Theorem 1 is trivially true.)

Lemma 10. The value $a_{0}=\inf \left(S^{0} \cup S^{-}\right)$is admissible.
Proof. Note that in fact $a_{0} \in S^{0}$ (since $S^{-}$is open) and assume that $\delta\left(r, a_{0}\right)$ has two or more zeroes in $(0, \infty)$; let the first two zeroes of $\delta\left(r, a_{0}\right)$ be at $r_{1}$ and $r_{2}$. Then $\delta\left(r, a_{0}\right)>0$ in $\left(0, r_{1}\right), \delta\left(r, a_{0}\right)<0$ in $\left(r_{1}, r_{2}\right)$ and $\delta\left(r, a_{0}\right)>$ 0 in some interval to the right of $r_{2}$. For $a<a_{0}$ but close enough to $a_{0}$, then, the solution $u(r, a)$ will intersect $u\left(r, a_{0}\right)$ at least twice. Let the first two intersections be at $y_{1}(a)$ and $y_{2}(a)$. Note that $y_{2}(a)<r_{0}(a)$, where $r_{0}(a)$ is the first minimum of $u(r, a)$, for if $u\left(r_{0}, a\right)>u\left(r_{0}, a_{0}\right)$ then by Lemma $1(b)(d)$ there can be no further intersection after $r_{0}$.

Now decrease $a$ continuously to $\alpha$. The intersection points $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$ will vary continuously with $a$ and cannot coalesce (for otherwise $u(r, a)$ and $u\left(r, a_{0}\right)$ would become tangent, contradicting uniqueness). Note that the function $w(r)=u(r)-\alpha$ satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
w^{\prime \prime}+\frac{n-1}{r} w^{\prime}+f^{\prime}(\theta(r)) w=0, \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\theta(r)$ is between $\alpha$ and $u(r)$. For $a$ close to $\alpha$, the solutions of (18) behave very much like the solutions of

$$
\phi^{\prime \prime}+\frac{n-1}{r} \phi^{\prime}+f^{\prime}(\alpha) \phi=0 .
$$

In particular, solutions of (18) will oscillate more quickly than solutions of

$$
\psi^{\prime \prime}+\frac{n-1}{r} \psi^{\prime}+\frac{1}{2} f^{\prime}(\alpha) \psi=0
$$

(recall that $f^{\prime}(\alpha)>0$ ). But this means that as $a \rightarrow \alpha$ the second intersection of $u(r, a)$ with the horizontal line $u=\alpha$ remains bounded, and hence so do $r_{0}(a)$ and $y_{2}(a)$. Since $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$ neither coalesce nor become unbounded, we see that for all $a \in\left(\alpha, a_{0}\right) u(r, a)$ intersects $u\left(r, a_{0}\right)$ at least twice.

However, for $a$ close to $\alpha, u(r, a)$ remains close to $u(r, \alpha) \equiv \alpha$ in any bounded interval, and its derivative remains close to $u^{\prime}(r, \alpha) \equiv 0$. Since $u^{\prime}\left(r, a_{0}\right)$ is bounded away from 0 in any compact interval not containing the origin, it follows that for $a$ close to $\alpha, u(r, a)$ can intersect $u\left(r, a_{0}\right)$ only once, and the lemma is proved.

The proof of Theorem 1 is now straightforward. Since $a_{0}$ is admissible, it is strictly admissible by Lemma 8 . By Lemma $3(\mathrm{~b})$, for some $\varepsilon>0$ the interval $\left(a_{0}, a_{0}+\varepsilon\right)$ is contained in $S^{-}$. Using Lemma 9 , we see that every $a \in\left(a_{0}, a_{0}+\varepsilon\right)$ is strictly admissible, so $R(a)$ is a strictly decreasing function of $a$ on this interval, by Lemma 3(a). As we continue to raise $a$, Lemmas 10 and $3(\mathrm{~b})$ show that $a$ continues to be strictly admissible and $R(a)$ continues to decrease. Thus $\left(a_{0}, \infty\right) \subset S^{-}$, and every $a \in S^{0} \cup S^{-}$is strictly admissible. The proof of Theorem 1 is complete.

## 5. Examples and additional results

We will show first how the main hypothesis of Theorem 1 can be easily verified for a large class of functions. The following theorem is essentially Theorem 2 of [7].
Theorem 2. Suppose $f$ satisfies (i) and (ii) and that there is some $\tau \geq 1$ such that

$$
\begin{gather*}
u^{-\tau} f(u) \text { is increasing for } u>0, \quad \text { and }  \tag{19}\\
u\left(u^{-\tau} f(u)\right)^{\prime} \text { is decreasing for } u>\alpha . \tag{20}
\end{gather*}
$$

(In case $\tau=1$, we require $u\left(u^{-\tau} f(u)\right)^{\prime}$ to be strictly decreasing for $u>\alpha$.) Then (GS) has at most one solution.
Proof. Define $J(u, \tau)=u f^{\prime}(u)-\tau f(u)$ and observe that (19) implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \leq u\left(u^{-\tau} f(u)\right)^{\prime}=u^{-\tau} J(u, \tau) \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

Further, if $\tau=1$ and $u f^{\prime}(u)-f(u)=0$ for some $u=u_{0}>\alpha$, then $u f^{\prime}(u)-$ $f(u)<0$ for all $u>u_{0}$, contradicting (21). Thus, when $\tau=1$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
J(u, 1)=u f^{\prime}(u)-f(u)>0 \quad \text { for } u>0 \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now let $\sigma \geq \tau$. For $0<u \leq \alpha, f(u) \leq 0$, and so $J(u, \sigma) \geq J(u, \tau) \geq 0$. Note also that $J(\alpha, \sigma)=\alpha f^{\prime}(\alpha)>0$. For $u>\alpha$ we have

$$
u\left(u^{-\sigma} f(u)\right)^{\prime}=u\left(u^{\tau-\sigma} u^{-\tau} f(u)\right)^{\prime}=u^{\tau-\sigma}\left[u\left(u^{-\tau} f(u)\right)^{\prime}+(\tau-\sigma) u^{-\tau} f(u)\right]
$$

Since the quantity in square brackets is decreasing for $u>\alpha$, if $\left(u^{-\sigma} f(u)\right)^{\prime}$ ever vanishes, it remains nonpositive from then on. The same is therefore true of $J(u, \sigma)=u^{\sigma+1}\left(u^{-\sigma} f(u)\right)^{\prime}$.

We show next that for each $U>\alpha$ there is a $\sigma \geq \tau(\sigma>1)$ such that $J(U, \sigma)=0$. Thus, fix $U>\alpha$. From (21) and (22) we have $U f^{\prime}(U)-\tau f(U) \geq$ 0 , with strict inequality if $\tau=1$. In particular, $f^{\prime}(U)>0$. Now, for $s \geq \tau$, consider the linear function of $s$

$$
\ell(s)=\frac{U f^{\prime}(U)-s f(U)}{f^{\prime}(U)}=\frac{J(U, s)}{f^{\prime}(U)}
$$

$\ell(\tau) \geq 0(>0$ if $\tau=1)$ and $\partial \ell / \partial s<0$. It follows that $\ell(\sigma)=0$ for some $\sigma$ in the required range.

The proof of Theorem 2 is completed by putting $\lambda=2 /(\sigma-1)$ where $\sigma$ is the value found above, and noting that $I(u, \lambda)=\lambda J(u, \sigma)$ satisfies the requirements of Theorem 1.
Example. Let $f$ be a general "polynomial",

$$
f(u)=\sum_{k=1}^{\nu} a_{k} u^{p_{k}}
$$

where $1=p_{1}<p_{2}<\cdots<p_{\nu}=p$. It can be easily checked by differentiation that $f$ will satisfy (19) and (20) with the choice $\tau=p$, provided $a_{1}<0$, $a_{k} \leq 0$ for $2 \leq k \leq \nu-1$ and $a_{\nu}>0$. In fact, $\left(u^{-p} f(u)\right)^{\prime}>0$, which shows that $f^{\prime}(u)>0$ whenever $f(u) \geq 0$. Thus $f$ also satisfies (i) and (ii), so uniqueness holds for such functions.

We next give a theorem which can be interpreted as a uniqueness result for the Dirichlet problem in a finite ball. Recall that in proving Theorem 1, we actually proved that every $a \in S^{0} \cup S^{-}$was strictly admissible, and that therefore $S^{-}$is an interval and $R(a)$ is a strictly decreasing function of $a$ on $S^{-}$. It follows that for each fixed $R>0$ there is at most one value of $a$ for which $R(a)=R$, which proves the next theorem.
Theorem 3. Let $f$ satisfy the hypotheses of Theorem 1. Then for each $R>0$ the problem

$$
\begin{gathered}
u^{\prime \prime}+\frac{n-1}{r} u^{\prime}+f(u)=0 \\
u>0, \quad u^{\prime}(0)=0, \quad u(R)=0
\end{gathered}
$$

has at most one solution
Finally, as pointed out in [5 and 7], our methods may also be applied to the exterior Neumann problem

$$
\begin{gathered}
u^{\prime \prime}+\frac{n-1}{r} u^{\prime}+f(u)=0 \\
u>0 \text { on }(b, R), \quad u^{\prime}(b)=0, \quad u(R)=0
\end{gathered}
$$

where $0<b<R \leq \infty$. Uniqueness will again hold if $f$ satisfies the hypotheses of Theorem 1. For this problem, existence is known to hold for the model case for all $p>1$ in all dimensions [4], and we obtain uniqueness also for all $p>1$.

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Department of Mathematics, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Milwaukee, WisCONSIN 53201

E-mail address, kevinm@convex.csd.uwm.edu
E-mail address, kevinm@a.math.uwm.edu


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