# COEXISTENCE OF SINGULAR AND REGULAR SOLUTIONS FOR THE EQUATION OF CHIPOT AND WEISSLER 

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## 1. Introduction

In this paper, we are interested in the existence of positive solutions of
$\left(P_{B_{R}}\right)$

$$
\left\{\begin{aligned}
\Delta u-|\nabla u|^{q}+\lambda u^{p}=0 & \text { on } B_{R} \\
u=0 & \text { on } \partial B_{R}
\end{aligned}\right.
$$

where $B_{R}$ is a ball in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ of radius $R$ and

$$
p>1, q=\frac{2 p}{p+1}, \lambda>0
$$

This problem was introduced in 1989 by M. Chipot and F. Weissler (cf. [CW]) in connection with the study of the nonlinear parabolic equation

$$
\begin{aligned}
u_{t} & =\Delta u-|\nabla u|^{q}+|u|^{p} & & \text { on } B_{R} \times(0, T), \\
u & =0 & & \text { on } \partial B_{R} \times(0, T), \\
u(x, 0) & =u_{0} & & \text { on } B_{R} .
\end{aligned}
$$

One can show that the solutions of $\left(P_{B_{R}}\right)$ are radially symmetric (using the technique of Gidas-Ni-Nirenberg [GNN]) and so we consider the solution $u_{a}$ of
$\left(P_{a}\right) \quad\left\{\begin{aligned} u^{\prime \prime}+\frac{n-1}{r} u^{\prime}-\left|u^{\prime}\right|^{q}+\lambda|u|^{p} & =0 \quad \text { if } r>0, \\ u(0) & =a, \\ u^{\prime}(0) & =0,\end{aligned}\right.$
where $a>0$.
We will denote by $z(a)$ the first zero of $u_{a}$ if it exists; if $u_{a}>0$ on $[0,+\infty)$, we will set $z(a)=+\infty$.

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We know from $[\mathbf{C W}]$ that $z$ verifies the relation $z(a)=a^{-\frac{p-1}{2}} z(1)$; we have then only two possibilities

- either $z(a)=+\infty$ for all $a>0$ and $\left(P_{B_{R}}\right)$ has no solution for any $R$;
- or $z(a)$ is finite for all $a>0$ and $z$ is a decreasing function from $[0,+\infty)$ into $[0,+\infty)\left(\mathrm{cf}.\left[\mathbf{C W}\right.\right.$, Lemma 4.7]); in this case, $\left(P_{B_{R}}\right)$ has one and only solution for any $R$.

The range of $\lambda$ is crucial for the behaviour of the map $z$.
In their paper, M. Chipot and F. Weissler show the following result:
Theorem. If $q=\frac{2 p}{p+1}$ and $p<\frac{n}{n-2}$ the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
u^{\prime \prime}(r)+\frac{n-1}{r} u^{\prime}(r)-\left|u^{\prime}(r)\right|^{q}+\lambda|u(r)|^{p}=0 \tag{I}
\end{equation*}
$$

has a solution in the form of $u(r)=k r^{-\frac{2}{p-1}}$ if and only if $\lambda \leq \lambda_{n, p}$ where

$$
\lambda_{n, p}=\frac{(2 p)^{p}}{(p+1)^{p+1}(2 p-n p+n)^{p}}=\frac{q^{p}}{(p+1)(2 p-n p+n)^{p}}
$$

When $n=1$ the equation (I) becomes autonomous and if $u: r \mapsto k r^{-\frac{2}{p-1}}$ is a solution of (I), the function $u_{1}: r \mapsto(r+c)^{-\frac{2}{p-1}}$, is a solution too. If $\lambda \leq \lambda_{1, p}$, then it follows from the Cauchy theorem and a translation argument (see [CW]) that the problem $\left(P_{B_{R}}\right)$ has no solution. This is also the case when $n \geq 1$ and $\lambda \leq \lambda_{1, p}($ see $[\mathbf{C W}]$ or $[\mathbf{V}$, Proposition I.7]).

In a more recent paper (see $[\mathbf{F Q}]$ ), M. Fila and P. Quittner show that the condition $\lambda>\lambda_{n, p}$ implies that $z(a)$ is finite for all $a>0$; but the case $\lambda=\lambda_{n, p}$ where we could have coexistence of the singular solution $u(r)=k r^{-\frac{2}{p-1}}$ and solutions of $\left(P_{a}\right)$ with $z(a)$ finite was open. We solve this issue here. Indeed we show :

Theorem A. Assume $q=\frac{2 p}{p+1}, \lambda_{n, p}=\frac{(2 p)^{p}}{(p+1)^{p+1}(2 p-n p+n)^{p}}$ and

1) $n=2$
2) $n \geq 3$ and $1<p<\frac{n}{n-2}$.

Let $u_{a}$ be the solution of $\left(P_{a}\right)$. Then there exists $\lambda_{n, p}^{\prime}<\lambda_{n, p}$ such that $z(a)$ is finite for $\lambda>\lambda_{n, p}^{\prime}$.

Remark 1. When $\lambda=\lambda_{n, p}$, there exists only one solution of (I) of the form $u(r)=k r^{-\frac{2}{p-1}}$ (according to the proof of Proposition 5.5 in [CW]) and its graph cuts the one of the solution of $\left(P_{a}\right)$ for any $a>0$ (see [ $\mathbf{V}$, Proposition I.6]). In the case $\lambda_{n, p}^{\prime}<\lambda<\lambda_{n, p}$ the equation (I) has two distinct solutions in the form $u(r)=k r^{-\frac{2}{p-1}}$ whose graphs cut those of the solutions of $\left(P_{a}\right)$.

In the case $\frac{n}{n-2} \leq p<\frac{n+2}{n-2}$ there always exist singular solutions of (I). We show here the following theorem:

Theorem B. Assume $1<p<\frac{n+2}{n-2}, n \geq 3$ and $q=\frac{2 p}{p+1}$. If $\lambda \geq \Lambda_{n, p}$ where

$$
\Lambda_{n, p}=\frac{1}{(p+1)^{p+1}}+\frac{n(p-1) 2^{p} q^{p+1}}{(2 p+2-n p+n)^{p+1}}
$$

then $z(a)$ is finite for any $a>0$.
Remark 2. As in the case where $p<\frac{n}{n-2}$, the graphs of regular and singular solutions are crossing. In order to prove Theorems A and B, following [FQ], we introduce a two dimensional autonomous system. The main properties of this system are recalled in Section 2. The Sections 3, 4 and 5 are devoted to the cases $n=2, n \geq 3$ and $p<\frac{n}{n-2}, n \geq 3$ and $1<p<\frac{n+2}{n-2}$, respectively.

## 2. Transformation of the Problem to an Autonomous System

Let $u$ be a solution of $\left(P_{a}\right)$. We consider $(X, Y): t \mapsto(X(t), Y(t))$ defined by

$$
\left\{\begin{align*}
X(t) & =-\frac{r u^{\prime}}{u}  \tag{2}\\
Y(t) & =r^{2} u^{p-1} \\
r(t) & =e^{t}
\end{align*}\right.
$$

We will recall some results of [FQ] in Propositions 1 and 2.
First we find, since $r^{\prime}(t)=r(t)$

$$
\begin{aligned}
X^{\prime}(t) & =\frac{-\left(r u^{\prime}+r^{2} u^{\prime \prime}\right) u+u^{\prime} r^{2} u^{\prime}}{u^{2}} \\
& =\left(\frac{r u^{\prime}}{u}\right)^{2}-\frac{r u^{\prime}}{u}-\frac{r^{2} u^{\prime \prime}}{u} \\
& =X^{2}+X-\frac{r^{2}}{u}\left(\left(-u^{\prime}\right)^{q}-\lambda u^{p}-\frac{(n-1)}{r} u^{\prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and we obtain

$$
X^{\prime}(t)=(2-n) X+X^{2}+\lambda Y-X^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}} Y^{\frac{1}{p+1}}
$$

On the other hand,

$$
\begin{aligned}
Y^{\prime}(t) & =2 r^{2} u^{p-1}+r^{2}(p-1) u^{p-2} u^{\prime} r \\
& =r^{2} u^{p-1}\left(2+r(p-1) \frac{u^{\prime}}{u}\right) \\
& =Y(2-(p-1) X)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $u$ verifies also $u(0)=a$ and $u^{\prime}(0)=0$, we have

$$
\lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty} Y(t)=\lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty} X(t)=0, \text { according to }(2), \text { and } \lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty} \frac{Y(t)}{X(t)}=\frac{n}{\lambda}
$$

This last equality results from $\frac{Y(t)}{X(t)}=-\frac{r u^{p}}{u^{\prime}}$. If $t \rightarrow-\infty$, then $r \rightarrow 0$ and $\frac{u^{\prime}(r)}{r} \rightarrow$ $-\lambda \frac{u^{p}(0)}{n}$ since $u^{\prime \prime}+\frac{n-1}{r} u^{\prime}=\left|u^{\prime}\right|^{q}-\lambda u^{p}$ and $\lim _{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{u^{\prime}(r)}{r}=u^{\prime \prime}(0)$. These results are summarized in the following proposition:

Proposition 1. Let $u$ be a solution of $\left(P_{a}\right)$. If $(X, Y)$ is defined by (2) then $(X, Y)$ is a solution of the autonomous system

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x^{\prime}(t)=(2-n) x+x^{2}+\lambda y-x^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}} y^{\frac{1}{p+1}}  \tag{3}\\
y^{\prime}(t)=y(2-(p-1) x)
\end{array}\right.
$$

and we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty} Y(t)=\lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty} X(t)=0, \quad \lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty} \frac{Y(t)}{X(t)}=\frac{n}{\lambda} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let us recall also (according to a lemma in [FQ]) that an orbit of (3) starting when $t=t_{0}$ in the first quadrant $\{(x, y) \mid x \geq 0, y \geq 0\}$ stays in this quadrant when $t>t_{0}$. Moreover, there exists only one orbit coming from the origin $O$, its slope is $\frac{n}{\lambda}$.

The continuous dependence of solutions of $\left(P_{a}\right)$ on $\lambda$ implies that if $z(a)$ is finite for all $a$ when $\lambda=\lambda_{n, p}$, then there exists $\lambda_{n, p}^{\prime}<\lambda_{n, p}$ such that we have the same behaviour for all $\lambda \in\left(\lambda_{n, p}^{\prime}, \lambda_{n, p}\right]$.

In the computation below we set for convenience $\lambda=\lambda_{n, p}$.
Moreover, define $f$ and $g$ by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f(x, y)=(2-n) x+x^{2}+\lambda y-x^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}} y^{\frac{1}{p+1}} \\
& g(x, y)=y(2-(p-1) x)
\end{aligned}
$$

We see that $g(x, y)=0$ if $y=0$ or if $x=x_{1}$ where $x_{1}:=\frac{2}{p-1}$.
We are going to study the set $\Gamma$ defined by

$$
\Gamma=\{(x, y) \mid x \geq 0, y \geq 0, f(x, y)=0\}
$$

When $n=2$ this set is one half of the parabola defined by $x \geq 0$ and $y=$ $x^{2}(\lambda(p+1))^{-\frac{p+1}{p}}$ (see Proposition 2). It cuts the straight line $x=x_{1}$ at one point only (see Figure 1).

We study also the position (with respect to $\Gamma$ ) of the orbit $\mathcal{O}$ of the system (3) corresponding to the map $t \mapsto(X(t), Y(t))$. We show that
(a) $\mathcal{O}$ is located above $\Gamma$ when $0<X(t)<x_{1}$ because on the corresponding part of $\Gamma$ the vector field is "vertical and oriented upwards",
(b) $\mathcal{O}$ cuts the straight line $x=x_{1}$ above $\Gamma$ (by linearization of the vector field around the point of intersection of $\Gamma$ with this straight line),
(c) $X(t)$ blows up in finite time (see Figure 1).

When $n \geq 3, \Gamma$ is tangent to the straight line $x=x_{1}$ (for $\lambda=\lambda_{n, p}$ ) and located in the half-plane defined by $x \leq x_{1}$ (see Figure 2). We show next that for $0<X(t) \leq x_{1}, \mathcal{O}$ is located above $\Gamma$, and that if $X(t)>x_{1}$ then $X^{\prime}(t)>0$ and $Y^{\prime}(t)<0$. Then we deduce that $X(t)$ blows up in finite time.


Figure 1.


Figure 2.

Proposition 2. Let $\lambda=\lambda_{n, p}$ and $x$ be fixed, $x>0$, then $f(x, y)$ has a unique minimum for $y=h(x):=x^{2}(\lambda(p+1))^{-\frac{p+1}{p}}$. This minimum is

$$
m(x):=f(x, h(x))=x(n-2)\left(\frac{p-1}{2} x-1\right)
$$

The vector field $(f(x, y), g(x, y))$ has on the half straight line $x=x_{1}$ and $y \geq 0$ only one singular point $A=\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$ with $y_{1}=h\left(x_{1}\right)$.

Proof. Put $h(x)=x^{2}(\lambda(p+1))^{-\frac{p+1}{p}}$. We have

$$
\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y)=\lambda-\frac{1}{p+1} x^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}} y^{-\frac{p}{p+1}}
$$

so that

$$
\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y)<0 \text { if } 0<y<h(x) \text { and } \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y)>0 \text { if } y>h(x)
$$

Therefore, the map $y \mapsto f(x, y)$ has a unique minimum for $y=h(x)$. Its value is

$$
f(x, h(x))=(2-n) x+x^{2} \frac{\lambda^{\frac{1}{p}}(p+1)^{\frac{p+1}{p}}-p}{\lambda^{\frac{1}{p}}(p+1)^{1+\frac{1}{p}}} .
$$

But

$$
\lambda^{\frac{1}{p}}(p+1)^{\frac{p+1}{p}}=\frac{2 p}{2 p-n p+n}
$$

and

$$
\frac{\lambda^{\frac{1}{p}}(p+1)^{\frac{p+1}{p}}-p}{\lambda^{\frac{1}{p}}(p+1)^{1+\frac{1}{p}}}=(p-1)\left(\frac{n}{2}-1\right) .
$$

We obtain finally

$$
f(x, h(x))=(2-n) x+x^{2}(p-1)\left(\frac{n}{2}-1\right)=x(n-2)\left(\frac{p-1}{2} x-1\right) .
$$

The fact that the vector field $(f(x, y), g(x, y))$ has on the half straight line defined by $x=x_{1}, y \geq 0$ only one singular point $A=\left(x_{1}, h\left(x_{1}\right)\right)$ can be deduced easily from the expression for $m(x)$. This completes the proof of Proposition 2.

On the set $\mathcal{E}$ defined by $\mathcal{E}=\left\{(x, y) \mid 0<x<x_{1}, y>0\right\}$, we have $g(x, y)>0$. If we consider an orbit defined by a map $t \mapsto\left(X_{1}(t), Y_{1}(t)\right)$ such that $\left(X_{1}\left(t_{0}\right), Y_{1}\left(t_{0}\right)\right)$ is in $\mathcal{E}$, we have a priori three possible behaviours since the vector field $(f(x, y), g(x, y))$ has no singular point in $\mathcal{E}$ :

1) either $Y_{1}(t) \rightarrow+\infty$ as $t \rightarrow \alpha$ (with $\alpha=+\infty$ or $\alpha$ real) and $X_{1}(t)<x_{1}$ for $t \geq t_{0}$
2) either the orbit cuts the straight line $x=x_{1}$;

3 ) or this orbit has $A$ as the limit-point as $t \rightarrow \infty$.
First note that the case 1) cannot occur since from the formulae (3) for $X_{1}^{\prime}(t)$ and $Y_{1}^{\prime}(t)$ we could deduce $\lim \sup _{t \rightarrow \alpha} \frac{Y_{1}^{\prime}(t)}{X_{1}^{\prime}(t)} \leq \frac{2}{\lambda}$. Since $\lim _{t \rightarrow \alpha} Y_{1}(t)=+\infty$, we would get $\lim _{t \rightarrow \alpha} X_{1}(t)=+\infty$ which yields a contradiction with $X_{1}(t)<x_{1}$.

## 3. The Case $n=2$

In this section we prove Theorem A for $n=2$.
According to Proposition 2, for any $x>0$ the map $y \mapsto f(x, y)$ has a unique minimum and its value is $f(x, h(x))=0$ when $n=2$. The set defined by $f(x, y)=$ $0, x \geq 0, y \geq 0$ is then one half of the parabola defined by $y=h(x)=x^{2}(\lambda(p+$ 1)) $)^{-\frac{p+1}{p}}$. Moreover, if $x>0, y>0$ and $y \neq h(x)$ then $f(x, y)>0$.

Since $\lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty} \frac{Y(t)}{X(t)}=\frac{n}{\lambda}=\frac{2}{\lambda}$, the orbit $\mathcal{O}$ defined by the map $t \mapsto(X(t), Y(t))$ is in a neighbourhood of the origin above the parabola.

The vector field $(f(x, y), g(x, y))$ has two singular points in the first quadrant of the plane: the origin $O=(0,0)$ and $A=\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$ with $y_{1}=h\left(x_{1}\right)$.

If $0<x<x_{1}$ and $y=h(x)$, then $f(x, y)=0$ and $g(x, y)>0$, so that the orbit of $t \mapsto(X(t), Y(t))$ can cut the line $x=x_{1}$ at $\left(x_{1}, y\right)$ with $y \geq y_{1}$ or have $A$ as the limit point. Let us show that in fact the first possibility occurs.

For this, linearize the vector field $(x, y) \mapsto(f(x, y), g(x, y))$ at the point $A$. We have

$$
\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y)=2 x-\frac{2 p}{p+1} x^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} y^{\frac{1}{p+1}} \quad \text { and } \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y)=\lambda-\frac{1}{p+1} x^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}} y^{-\frac{p}{p+1}}
$$

Since $(\lambda(p+1))^{\frac{p+1}{p}}=\left(\frac{p}{p+1}\right)^{p+1}$, we have $h(x)=x^{2}(\lambda(p+1))^{-\frac{p+1}{p}}=x^{2}\left(\frac{p+1}{p}\right)^{p+1}$ and

$$
\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, h(x))=2 x\left(1-\frac{p}{p+1} x^{-\frac{2}{p+1}} x^{\frac{2}{p+1}} \frac{p+1}{p}\right)=0 \quad \text { for any } x
$$

Next, since $y \mapsto f\left(x_{1}, y\right)$ has its minimum for $y=y_{1}$ then $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)=0$. We have also $\frac{\partial g}{\partial x}\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)=-\frac{4}{p-1}\left(\frac{p+1}{p}\right)^{p+1}$ and $\frac{\partial g}{\partial y}\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)=0$. Thus we obtain

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}  \tag{5}\\
\frac{\partial g}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial g}{\partial y}
\end{array}\right)\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 0 \\
-\frac{4}{p-1}\left(\frac{p+1}{p}\right)^{p+1} & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

Let us now show that the orbit cuts the straight line $x=x_{1}$ at $A^{\prime}=\left(x_{1}, y_{1}^{\prime}\right)$ with $y_{1}^{\prime}>y_{1}$. Consider the set $\mathcal{E}^{\prime}$ of the plane defined by

$$
\mathcal{E}^{\prime}=\left\{(x, y) \mid 0<x<x_{1}, h(x) \leq y \leq y_{1}\right\}
$$

and let us set

$$
a=x-x_{1}, \quad b=y-y_{1}
$$

On the other hand, let $C_{1}=h^{\prime}\left(x_{1}\right)$ be the slope of the tangent line to the parabola at the point $A=\left(x_{1}, h\left(x_{1}\right)\right)$. We can see (cf. Figure 1) that if $(x, y)$ is in $\mathcal{E}^{\prime}$, then $\frac{b}{a}<C_{1}$. Next, from (5) there exists $\epsilon>0$ such that $-\epsilon<a<0$ and $-\epsilon<b \leq 0$ imply, as $f \geq 0$ on $\mathcal{E}$,

$$
0 \leq f\left(x_{1}+a, y_{1}+b\right)<\frac{C_{2}}{4 C_{1}\left(1+C_{1}\right)}(a+b)
$$

where

$$
C_{2}=-\frac{4}{p-1}\left(\frac{p+1}{p}\right)^{p+1}=\frac{\partial g}{\partial x}\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
g\left(x_{1}+a, y_{1}+b\right)>\frac{a C_{2}}{2} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $(x, y) \in \mathcal{E}^{\prime}$ is close to $A$ then $-\epsilon<a<0$ and $-\epsilon<b \leq 0$ so we can deduce from the fact that $a C_{1}<b$ that

$$
f\left(x_{1}+a, y_{1}+b\right)<\frac{C_{2}}{4 C_{1}\left(1+C_{1}\right)}\left(a+a C_{1}\right)=\frac{a C_{2}}{4 C_{1}}
$$

and, finally,

$$
\frac{g\left(x_{1}+a, y_{1}+b\right)}{f\left(x_{1}+a, y_{1}+b\right)}>2 C_{1}
$$

using (6). So we obtain that an orbit of the vector field $(f(x, y), g(x, y))$ passing, for $t=t_{0}$, through a point $(x, y)$ in $\mathcal{E}^{\prime}$ such that

$$
-\epsilon<a<0 \quad \text { and } \quad-\epsilon<b \leq 0 \quad \text { where } \quad a=x-x_{1}, b=y-y_{1}
$$

(cf. Figure 2) cuts for $t_{1}>t_{0}$ the straight line $x=x_{1}$ at $\left(x_{1}, y_{1}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ with $y_{1}^{\prime \prime}>y_{1}$. Since orbits cannot intersect, the orbit $\mathcal{O}$ has to cut the line $x=\frac{2}{p-1}$ above $A$.

Now $X(t)>x_{1}$ implies $g(X(t), Y(t))<0$ and $f(X(t), Y(t))>0$ except if $Y(t)=h(X(t))$; then, if $t \geq t_{1}^{\prime}, Y(t) \leq Y\left(t_{1}^{\prime}\right)$, on the other hand $X$ is increasing. The first equation of (3) shows that there exist $\alpha>0$ and $x_{2}>0$ such that $x>x_{2}$ implies $f(x(t), y(t))>\alpha x^{2}$. We deduce from this that $X$ blows up in a finite time $T$ and $z(a)=e^{T}$.

## 4. The Case $n \geq 3$ and $1<p<\frac{n}{n-2}$

Proposition 3. Let $\lambda=\lambda_{n, p}$. The curve $\Gamma=\{(x, y) \mid x \geq 0, y \geq 0, f(x, y)=$ $0\}$ admits a tangent line at every point. The half straight line defined by $x=c$, $y \geq 0$ cuts $\Gamma$ at one point if $c=\frac{2}{p-1}$, two points if $n-2 \leq c<\frac{2}{p-1}$, one point if $0 \leq c<n-2$.

Moreover, $\Gamma=\Gamma_{1} \cup \Gamma_{2}$ where $\Gamma_{1}$ and $\Gamma_{2}$ are the graphs of some functions $h_{1}$ and $h_{2}$,

$$
\Gamma_{1}=\{(x, y) \in \Gamma \mid y \leq h(x)\}, \quad \Gamma_{2}=\{(x, y) \in \Gamma \mid y \geq h(x)\}
$$

(see Figure 2).
Proof. One has $f(x, 0)=(2-n) x+x^{2}$ so that $f(\cdot, 0)<0$ on $(0, n-2)$ and $f(\cdot, 0)>0$ on $(n-2,+\infty)$. On the other hand, according to Proposition 2, for $x$ fixed, $x>0$, the map $y \mapsto f(x, y)$ attains its unique minimum at $y=h(x)$; its value is

$$
m(x)=x(n-2)\left(\frac{p-1}{2} x-1\right)
$$

This minimum is negative if $0<x<x_{1}$, zero if $x=x_{1}$ and positive if $x>x_{1}$. A half line $x=C, y \geq 0$ has then in common with $\Gamma$

- one point if $0<C<n-2$ or if $C=x_{1}$,
- two points if $n-2 \leq C<x_{1}$,
- no point if $x>x_{1}$.

Next, if $0<x<x_{1}$ and $y \neq h(x)$, then $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) \neq 0$. For $A=\left(x_{1}, h\left(x_{1}\right)\right)$ we have $m^{\prime}\left(x_{1}\right)=n-2$. Since $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(A)=0$ and $m^{\prime}=\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}+h^{\prime} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ it follows that $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(A) \neq 0$. This shows that for every point $M=(x, y)$ of $\Gamma$ such that $y>0$, either $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(M) \neq 0$, or $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(M) \neq 0$.

The above considerations show that there exist two functions $h_{1}:\left[n-2, x_{1}\right] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $h_{2}:\left[0, x_{1}\right] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(x, y)=0$ if and only if $y=h_{1}(x)$ or $y=h_{2}(x)$, $h_{1}, h_{2}$ verifying the following conditions:

1) if $n-2<x<x_{1}$ then $h_{1}(x)<h(x)$;
2) if $0<x<x_{1}$ then $h(x)<h_{2}(x)$;
3) $h\left(x_{1}\right)=h_{1}\left(x_{1}\right)=h_{2}\left(x_{1}\right)$.

Moreover, $h_{2}$ is differentiable at 0 since $f(x, y)=(2-n) x+\lambda y+o\left(\sqrt{x^{2}+y^{2}}\right)$, and $h_{2}^{\prime}(0)=\frac{n-2}{\lambda}$. We can verify also that $h_{1}^{\prime}(n-2)=0$.

Since $\Gamma$ is differentiable at $\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$, there exists $x_{1}^{\prime} \in\left(0, x_{1}\right)$, such that $h_{2}$ is decreasing on $\left[x_{1}^{\prime}, x_{1}\right]$.

Let us consider now the orbit $\mathcal{O}$ of $t \mapsto(X(t), Y(t))$. It is located above the graph $\Gamma_{2}$ of $h_{2}$ in a neighbourhood of $O$ since $h_{2}^{\prime}(0)=\frac{n-2}{\lambda}$ and $\lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty} \frac{Y(t)}{X(t)}=\frac{n}{\lambda}$ according to Proposition 1. Since $g$ is continuous, for any $\varepsilon>0$ there exists $\eta>0$ such that $\varepsilon<x \leq x_{1}^{\prime}$ implies $g\left(x, h_{2}(x)\right)>\eta$. Since, on the other hand, $0<x<x_{1}^{\prime}$ implies $f\left(x, h_{2}(x)\right)=0$; the orbit $\mathcal{O}$ stays above $\Gamma_{2}$ when $0<$ $X(t)<x_{1}^{\prime}$. Finally, $x_{1}^{\prime}<X(t)<x_{1}$ implies $g(X(t), Y(t)) \geq 0$ and $Y(t)>h_{2}\left(x_{1}^{\prime}\right)$ (cf. Figure 2).
$\mathcal{O}$ cuts then the straight line $x=x_{1}$ since, on this straight line, the only singular point of the vector field is $A=\left(x_{1}, h_{2}\left(x_{1}\right)\right)$ and $h_{2}\left(x_{1}\right)<h_{2}\left(x_{1}^{\prime}\right)$ (let us recall that according to 3) above $\left.h_{2}\left(x_{1}\right)=h\left(x_{1}\right)\right)$. We can finish as in the case $n=2$, noting that if $X(t)>x_{1}$ then $f(X(t), Y(t))>0$ and $g(X(t), Y(t))<0$ which implies that $Y(t)$ is bounded and that $X(t)$ blows up in a finite time $T$, hence $z(a)=e^{T}$.

$$
\text { 5. The Case } n \geq 3 \text { And } 1<p<\frac{n+2}{n-2}
$$

If $p \geq \frac{n}{n-2}$ then $n-2 \geq \frac{2}{p-1}$ and the previous method cannot be applied. Moreover, if $p \rightarrow \frac{n}{n-2}$ then $2 p-n p+n \rightarrow 0$ and $\lambda_{n, p} \rightarrow+\infty$. We introduce here another method which gives in both cases $\frac{n}{n-2} \leq p<\frac{n+2}{n-2}$ and $1<p<\frac{n}{n-2}$ a new value

$$
\Lambda_{n, p}=\frac{1}{(p+1)^{p+1}}+\frac{2^{2 p+1}(p-1) n p^{p+1}}{((p+1)(2 p+2-n p+n))^{p+1}}
$$

such that $\lambda \geq \Lambda_{n, p}$ implies that $z(a)$ is finite for any $a>0$. When $p<\frac{n}{n-2}$, $\Lambda_{n, p}<\lambda_{n, p}$ if $p$ is near $\frac{n}{n-2}$.

The idea is to use the dissymmetry of the level lines of $f:(x, y) \mapsto f(x, y)$. In fact, if $0 \leq y<y_{0}$ (where $y_{0}$ is given in (8) below) and $\alpha \in\left(0, x_{1}\right)$ then we show

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
f\left(x_{1}+\alpha, y\right)>f\left(x_{1}-\alpha, y\right)  \tag{7}\\
g\left(x_{1}+\alpha, y\right)=-g\left(x_{1}-\alpha, y\right)
\end{array}\right.
$$

and we show also that $\lambda \geq \Lambda_{n, p}$ implies $\mathcal{O}$ is below the line $y=y_{0}$.
If $\mathcal{O}_{1}$ is the part of $\mathcal{O}$ in the set $\left\{(x, y) \mid 0 \leq x \leq x_{1}\right\}$, then $\mathcal{O}$ is above $S\left(\mathcal{O}_{1}\right)$ in the set $\left\{(x, y) \mid x \geq x_{1}\right\}$ where $S\left(\mathcal{O}_{1}\right)$ is the reflection of $\mathcal{O}_{1}$ with respect to the straight line $x=x_{1}$. This shows that $X(t)>x_{1}$ implies $X^{\prime}(t)>0$ and we can conclude as in the proof of Theorem A (notice that $n-2<2 x_{1}$ ).

First, we see that $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\left(x_{1}, y\right)=0$ if and only if

$$
(2-n)+2 x-\frac{2 p}{p+1} x^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} y^{\frac{1}{p+1}}=0
$$

with $x=x_{1}$ i.e.

$$
\begin{equation*}
y=y_{0}:=\left(\frac{(2-n)(p-1)+4}{p-1}\right)^{p+1}\left(\frac{p+1}{2 p}\right)^{p+1}\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)^{p-1} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now, we show the following lemma:
Lemma. If $\beta \in\left(-y_{0}, 0\right)$ and $\alpha \in\left(0, x_{1}\right)$ then

$$
f\left(x_{1}+\alpha, y_{0}+\beta\right)>f\left(x_{1}-\alpha, y_{0}+\beta\right)
$$

Proof. We have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\left(x_{1}, y_{0}\right)=(2-n)+\frac{4}{p-1}-\frac{2 p}{p+1}\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} y_{0}^{\frac{1}{p+1}}=0 \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f\left(x_{1}+\alpha, y_{0}+\beta\right) \\
& =(2-n)\left(\frac{2}{p-1}+\alpha\right)+\left(\frac{2}{p-1}+\alpha\right)^{2}+\lambda\left(y_{0}+\beta\right) \\
& \quad-\left(\frac{2}{p-1}+\alpha\right)^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}\left(y_{0}+\beta\right)^{\frac{1}{p+1}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Using the Taylor-Lagrange formula for the last term we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
f\left(x_{1}\right. & \left.+\alpha, y_{0}+\beta\right) \\
= & (2-n) \frac{2}{p-1}+(2-n) \alpha+\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\right)^{2}+\frac{4}{p-1} \alpha+\alpha^{2}+\lambda\left(y_{0}+\beta\right) \\
& -\left[\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}+\frac{2 p}{p+1}\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} \alpha+\frac{1}{2} \frac{2 p}{p+1} \frac{p-1}{p+1}\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\right)^{-\frac{2}{p+1}} \alpha^{2}\right. \\
& \left.+\frac{1}{6} \frac{2 p}{p+1} \frac{p-1}{p+1}\left(\frac{-2}{p+1}\right)\left(\frac{2}{p-1}+\theta \alpha\right)^{-\frac{p+3}{p+1}} \alpha^{3}\right] \\
& \times\left[y_{0}^{\frac{1}{p+1}}+\frac{1}{p+1}\left(y_{0}+\theta^{\prime} \beta\right)^{-\frac{p}{p+1}} \beta\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

where $0 \leq \theta \leq 1$ and $0 \leq \theta^{\prime} \leq 1$.
Using (9) we see that the only terms which are not symmetric in $\alpha$ are

$$
-\frac{2 p}{p+1}\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} \alpha \frac{1}{p+1}\left(y_{0}+\theta^{\prime} \beta\right)^{-\frac{p}{p+1}} \beta
$$

and

$$
-\frac{1}{6} \frac{2 p}{p+1} \frac{p-1}{p+1}\left(\frac{-2}{p-1}\right)\left(\frac{2}{p-1}+\theta \alpha\right)^{-\frac{p+3}{p+1}} \alpha^{3}\left[y_{0}^{\frac{1}{p+1}}+\frac{1}{p+1}\left(y_{0}+\theta^{\prime} \beta\right)^{-\frac{p}{p+1}} \beta\right] .
$$

The term

$$
\left[y_{0}^{\frac{1}{p+1}}+\frac{1}{p+1}\left(y_{0}+\theta^{\prime} \beta\right)^{-\frac{p}{p+1}} \beta\right]
$$

equal to $\left(y_{0}+\beta\right)^{\frac{1}{p+1}}$ is positive and $\left(y_{0}+\theta^{\prime} \beta\right)^{-\frac{p}{p+1}}$ too. Since $\beta<0$ we see that the signs of this expression and $\alpha$ are the same. This shows that $f\left(x_{1}+\alpha, y_{0}+\beta\right)>$ $f\left(x_{1}-\alpha, y_{0}+\beta\right)$ provided $\beta \in\left(-y_{0}, 0\right)$ and $\alpha \in\left(0, x_{1}\right)$.

It it easy to see that $g\left(x_{1}+\alpha, y_{0}+\beta\right)=-g\left(x_{1}-\alpha, y_{0}+\beta\right)$ for any $\beta$ and $\alpha$ since

$$
g\left(\frac{2}{p-1}+\alpha, y_{0}+\beta\right)=\left(y_{0}+\beta\right)\left(2-(p-1)\left(\frac{2}{p-1}+\alpha\right)\right)=-\left(y_{0}+\beta\right)(p-1) \alpha
$$

Consequently, (7) is verified.
Now, we use the fact (cf. Theorem 2 of [FQ]) that if $(X, Y): t \mapsto(X(t), Y(t))$ corresponds to $u$ then $0 \leq X(t) \leq x_{1}$ implies

$$
Y(t) \leq \frac{n}{\lambda-(p+1)^{-(p+1)}} X(t)
$$

In particular, if $X(t)=x_{1}$ then $Y(t) \leq \frac{n}{\lambda-(p+1)^{-(p+1)}} \frac{2}{p-1}$. Consequently, the orbit $\mathcal{O}$ corresponding to $u$ cuts the straight line $x=x_{1}$ below $A_{0}:=\left(x_{1}, y_{0}\right)$ provided

$$
\frac{n}{\lambda-(p+1)^{-(p+1)}} \frac{2}{p-1} \leq y_{0}
$$

Since the last inequality is equivalent to the condition $\lambda \geq \Lambda_{n, p}$, we see that this is a sufficient condition to have $z(a)$ finite for any $a>0$.

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