# BIFURCATION OF OPERATOR EQUATIONS WITH UNBOUNDED LINEARIZED PART 

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#### Abstract

The bifuraction problem for the operator equation $x=\lambda L x+G(\lambda, x)$ is considered, where $L$ is a closed linear operator with characteristic value $\lambda_{0}$, and $G(\lambda, x)$ is a continuous higher order term. If $I-\lambda_{0} L$ is a closed Fredholm operator and either $L$ is self-adjoint and $G$ is a continuously differentiable gradient operator or $\lambda_{0}$ is of odd algebraic multiplicity, then $\lambda_{0}$ is shown to be a bifurcation point.


Introduction. Several authors have considered the bifurcation problem for nonlinear operator equations with closed linearized part. J. MacBain [7] considered the case where the nonlinear term is compact and obtained global results, similar to those gotten by P. H. Rabinowitz [8] for compact operator equations. Other results in specialized instances were obtained, among others, by M. G. Grandall and P. H. Rabinowitz [3], M. Reeken [10], and R. Böhme [2] who also considered gradient operator equations.

In this note we extend known local bifurcation results, to nonlinear operator equations with linearized parts closed Fredholm operators and continuous higher order terms, dependent on $\lambda$, and where characteristic value is of odd algebraic multiplicity.

Bifurcation results are also obtained for variational equations, though except for the dependence of the higher order term on $\lambda$ they are not as strong as those of Böhme in [2].

1. Preliminary lemmas and definitions. To solve the bifurcation problem for a large class of nonlinear operators with noncontinuous linearized part we must introduce several preliminary definitions and technical lemmas.

The domain of a closed linear operator $T$ of a Banach space $X \rightarrow X$ will be denoted $D(T)$. If $T$ and $B$ are two closed linear operators of $X \rightarrow X$ by $T B$ we will mean the operator defined by $T(B x)$ for $x \in D(T B)=\{x \mid x \in D(B)$ and $B x \in D(T)\}$. The null space and range of $T$ will be denoted $N(T)$ and $R(T)$ respectively. For convenience we write $D\left(T^{k}\right)=D_{k}(T), N\left(T^{k}\right)=N_{k}(T), R\left(T^{k}\right)=R_{k}(T)$ and $\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} N_{k}(T)=N_{\infty}(T)$. The smallest integer $k>0$ such that $N_{k}(T)=N_{k+1}(T)$ is called the ascent of $T$ and is denoted by $\alpha(T)$. If there is no such $k$ we say that $\alpha(T)=\infty$. Similarly the smallest integer $k$ such that $R_{k}(T)=R_{k+1}(T)$ is called the descent of $T$ and
is denoted by $\delta(T)$ and we say $\delta(T)=\infty$ if there is no such $k$.
For the ascent and descent of an operator one can show
Lemma 1. $\quad N_{n}(T) \cong N_{n+1}(T), n=0,1, \cdots$. If $N_{k}(T)=N_{k+1}(T)$ for some $k$ then $N_{k+n}(T)=N_{k}(T) . \quad R_{n+1}(T) \subseteq R_{n}(T), n=0,1, \ldots$. If $R_{k+1}(T)=$ $R_{k}(T)$ then $R_{k+n}(T)=R_{k}(T)$. If $\alpha(T)=p<\infty$ and $\delta(T)<\infty$ then $\alpha(T)=\delta(T), R_{p}(T) \cap N_{p}(T)=\{0\}$ and $D_{p}(T)=N_{p}(T) \oplus\left\{R_{p}(T) \cap D_{p}(T)\right\}$.

Proof. See [12, pp. 271-273].
For any Banach space $X$, we denote its conjugate by $X^{*}$ and the conjugate of a linear operator $T$ by $T^{*}$. A closed linear operator $T$ of a real or complex Banach space $X$ into itself is said to be a Fredholm operator if $\overline{D(T)}=X, R(T)$ is closed and both $N(T)$ and $N\left(T^{*}\right)$ are finite. The index of a Fredholm operator $T$, written $\kappa(T)$, is $\operatorname{dim} N(T)-\operatorname{dim} N\left(T^{*}\right)$.

Theorem 2. Let $T$ and $B$ be two closed Fredholm operators of $X$ into $X$, then $T B$ is a closed Fredholm operator and $\kappa(T B)=$ $\kappa(T)+\kappa(B)$.

Proof. See [5, p. 103].
Theorem 3. Let T be a closed Fredholm operator of a real or complex Banach space $X$ into $X, T^{*}$ its conjugate and suppose $\operatorname{dim} N_{\infty}(T)<\infty$ and $\operatorname{dim} N_{\infty}\left(T^{*}\right)<\infty$. Then
(i) $\alpha(T)<\infty$ and $\delta(T)<\infty$,
(ii) $\quad R_{p}(T)$ is closed and $X=N_{p}(T) \oplus R_{p}(T)$ where $p=\alpha(T)$,
(iii) $T$ is a one-one map of $R_{p}(T)$ onto $R_{p}(T)$ with bounded inverse,
(iv) $\operatorname{dim} N_{\infty}(T)=\operatorname{dim} N_{\infty}\left(T^{*}\right)$ and $N_{p}\left(T^{*}\right)=N_{\infty}\left(T^{*}\right)$ and
(v) $\kappa(T)=0$.

Proof. The proof of $\alpha(T)<\infty$ is immediate. That $R_{p}(T)$ is closed follows from Theorem 2 by an induction. To complete the proof of statements (i) and (ii) we first show $\delta(T)<\infty$. Suppose $\delta(T)$ is not finite. Then $R_{i+1}(T)$ is a proper subset of $R_{i}(T)$ for $i=0,1, \cdots$. For each $i>0$, choose an $x_{i} \in R_{i-1}(T)-R_{i}(T)$ and a $y_{i} \in X^{*}$ such that, $y_{i}\left(x_{i}\right)=1, y_{i}\left(x_{j}\right)=0$ for $j<i$ and $y_{i}\left(R_{i}(T)\right)=0$. Each $y_{i} \in N_{i}\left(T^{*}\right)$ [5, p. 59] and as the $x_{i}$ are linearly independent so are the $y_{i}$. Hence $\operatorname{dim} N_{\infty}\left(T^{*}\right)=\infty$, contradicting our hypothesis and so $\delta(T)<\infty$.

As both the ascent and descent of $T$ are finite, if $p=\alpha(T)$ then $N_{p}(T) \cap R_{p}(T)=\{0\} . \quad$ Therefore as $\operatorname{dim} N_{p}(T)<\infty, N_{p}(T) \oplus R_{p}(T)$
is closed [5, p. 16]. Suppose $X \neq N_{p}(T) \oplus R_{p}(T)$. Then, since $\operatorname{codim} R_{p}(T)=\operatorname{dim} N_{p}\left(T^{*}\right)<\infty$, there exists a finite dimensional subspace $M$ such that $X=N_{p}(T) \oplus R_{p}(T) \oplus M$, [5, p. 103]. Moreover, as $T^{p}$ is the product of closed Fredholm operators

$$
\begin{equation*}
\overline{D_{p}(T)}=X \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
\overline{D_{p}(T)}=N_{p}(T) \oplus\left\{R_{p}(T) \cap \overline{D_{p}(T)}\right\} \bigoplus M \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand by Lemma 1

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{p}(T)=N_{p}(T) \oplus\left\{R_{p}(T) \cap D_{p}(T)\right\} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Clearly

$$
\begin{equation*}
N_{p}(T) \oplus\left\{R_{p}(T) \cap D_{p}(T)\right\} \subseteq N_{p}(T) \oplus\left\{R_{p}(T) \cap \overline{D_{p}(T)}\right\} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus Eqs. (1), (2), (3) and (4) imply $M=\{0\}$ and we have $X=N_{p}(T) \oplus$ $R_{p}(T)$. Statement (iii) is now immediate from statement (ii), Lemma 1 and the bounded inverse theorem [12, p. 179].

Lastly, we show statement (iv). From statement (ii) it follows that $X^{*}=R_{p}(T)^{\perp} \oplus N_{p}(T)^{\perp}$ [5, p. 100] where for $U \cong X, U^{\perp}=\{y \in$ $\left.X^{*} \mid y(x)=0, x \in U\right\}$. The $\operatorname{dim} R_{p}(T)^{\perp}=\operatorname{dim} N_{p}(T), R_{p}(T)^{\perp}=N_{p}\left(T^{*}\right)$ [5, p. 51] and $N_{p}(T)^{\perp}=R_{p}\left(T^{*}\right)$ [5 p. 95]. Thus $X^{*}=N_{p}\left(T^{*}\right) \oplus R_{p}\left(T^{*}\right)$ and so $N_{p}\left(T^{*}\right)=N_{\infty}\left(T^{*}\right)$, which in turn implies

$$
\operatorname{dim} N_{\infty}(T)=\operatorname{dim} N_{p}(T)=\operatorname{dim} N_{p}\left(T^{*}\right)=\operatorname{dim} N_{\infty}\left(T^{*}\right)
$$

To show statement (v) we note that statement (iv) implies $\kappa\left(T^{p}\right)=0$. But by an induction it follows from Theorem 2 that $\kappa\left(T^{p}\right)=p \kappa(T)$. Hence $\kappa(T)=0$.
2. Odd multiplicity results. Let $X$ be a real Banach space and suppose $L$ is a densely defined closed linear map of $X$ into $X$ with a real characteristic value $\lambda_{0}$, that is there exists a nonzero $x_{0} \in X$ such that $\lambda_{0} L x_{0}=x_{0}$. The algebraic multiplicity of $\lambda_{0}$ is defined to be $\operatorname{dim} N_{\infty}\left(I-\lambda_{0} L\right)$. Suppose further $G(\lambda, x)$ is a continuous map of a neighborhood of $\left(\lambda_{0}, 0\right) \in \boldsymbol{R} \times X$ into $X$ satisfying

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\|G\left(\lambda, x_{1}\right)-G\left(\lambda, x_{2}\right)\right\|=h\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\left\|x_{1}-x_{2}\right\| \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

for ( $\lambda, x$ ) near $\left(\lambda_{0}, 0\right)$ and where $h(a, b)$ is a function independent of $\lambda$ tending to zero as both $a$ and $b$ tend to zero. We shall be concerned with finding nontrivial solutions, that is points $(\lambda, x) \in \boldsymbol{R} \times X, x \neq 0$, satisfying the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
x=\lambda L x+G(\lambda, x) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

The closure of the set of nontrivial solutions of (6) will be denoted by $S$. We will call $\lambda_{0}$ a bifurcation point of Eq. (6) if every neighborhood of ( $\lambda_{0}, 0$ ) contains a nontrivial solution of (6). Using a topological degree argument, P. H. Rabinowitz [8] proved the following bifurcation result:

Theorem 4. If $L$ is completely continuous, $\Omega$ is a bounded open set in $\boldsymbol{R} \times X$ containing ( $\left.\lambda_{0}, 0\right), G(\lambda, x)$ is completely continuous on $\bar{\Omega}$ and $\lambda_{0}$ is a characteristic value of odd algebraic multiplicity, then there is a maximal closed connected subset $C$ of $S$ such that $C \subseteq \bar{\Omega}$, $\left(\lambda_{0}, 0\right) \in C$ and $C$ either meets the boundary of $\Omega$ or meets $(\hat{\lambda}, 0)$, where $\hat{\lambda}$ is another characteristic value of $L$.

By methods somewhat similar to those of [7] we can obtain a partial extension of Theorem 4 to those instance where Eq. (6) is not completely continuous and indeed $L$ is not even bounded.

THEOREM 5. Let $L$ and $G$ be as described above. Suppose $I-\lambda_{0} L$ is a closed Fredholm operator and $\lambda_{0}$ is a characteristic value of odd algebraic multiplicity of $L$ and a characteristic value of finite algebraic multiplicity of $L^{*}$. Then there exists a maximal closed connected subset of $S$ meeting $\left(\lambda_{0}, 0\right)$ and $\lambda_{0}$ is a bifurcation point.

Proof. By Theorem 3, $X=N \oplus R$ where $N=N_{\infty}\left(I-\lambda_{0} L\right)$ and $R=R_{\infty}\left(I-\lambda_{0} L\right)$. Thus $x \in X$ can be uniquely expressed as $x=u+v$ where $u \in N$ and $v \in R$. Moreover for all $\lambda \in \boldsymbol{R}, I-\lambda L: N \rightarrow N$, $R \rightarrow R$ and $G(\lambda, x)=G_{N}(\lambda, x)+G_{R}(\lambda, x)$ where $G_{N}(\lambda, x) \in N$ and $G_{R}(\lambda, x) \in R$. Thus our problem is equivalent to that of finding solutions $(\lambda, u, v) \in \boldsymbol{R} \times N \times R$ of the system of equations

$$
\begin{align*}
u-\lambda L u & =G_{N}(\lambda, u+v)  \tag{6a}\\
v-\lambda L v & =G_{R}(\lambda, u+v) \tag{6b}
\end{align*}
$$

Since $I-\lambda L$ has a bounded inverse on $R$ for $\lambda$ near $\lambda_{0}$ and $(I-\lambda L)^{-1}$ is continuous in $\lambda$ for all $1 / \lambda$ in the resolvent of $L$ (as a mapping of $R \rightarrow R$ ) [12, p. 257], ( $\lambda, u, v$ ) is a solution of (6a), (6b) if and only if $(\lambda, u, v)$ is a solution of the system

$$
\begin{align*}
u & =\lambda L u+G_{N}(\lambda, u+v)  \tag{7a}\\
v & =(I-\lambda L)^{-1} G_{R}(\lambda, u+v) \tag{7b}
\end{align*}
$$

An application of the contraction mapping principle [4, p. 260] to Eq. (7b) shows the existence of a uniquely determined continuous
function, $v(\lambda, u)=v$ such that $v(\lambda, u)=(I-\lambda L)^{-1} G_{R}(\lambda, u+v(\lambda, u))$ for all $(\lambda, u)$ in a neighborhood of $\left(\lambda_{0}, 0\right)$. Consequently it suffices to find solutions in $R \times N$ of the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
u=\lambda L u+G_{N}(\lambda, u+v(\lambda, u)) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

By continuity Eq. (8) satisfies the hypothesis of Theorem 4 near $\left(\lambda_{0}, 0\right)$ thus there exists a closed connected subset $C^{\prime}$ of $S$ meeting $\left(\lambda_{0}, 0\right)$ and $\lambda_{0}$ is a bifurcation point. As the union of connected sets containing a common point is connected an application of Zorn's lemma [6, p. 62] will show that $S$ contains a unique maximal closed connected subset $C$ meeting ( $\lambda_{0}, 0$ ). Thus $C^{\prime} \subseteq C$ and our theorem is proven.

Remark. Rabinowitz [9, p. 17] has proven a result similar to Theorem 5 for $L$ bounded.
3. Gradient operators. Let $X$ be a real Hilbert space and suppose $L$ is a densely defined closed self-adjoint linear operator of $X$ into $X$ with a characteristic value $\lambda_{0}$. Suppose further $G(\lambda, x)$ is a twice continuously differentiable map of a neighborhood of $\left(\lambda_{0}, 0\right) \in$ $\boldsymbol{R} \times X$ into $X$ such that for fixed $\lambda, G(\lambda, x)$ is a gradient map [13, p. 54] and $G(\lambda, 0) \equiv 0$ and $G_{x}(\lambda, 0) \equiv 0$ for all $\lambda$ near $\lambda_{0}$. We shall be concerned with solving the bifurcation problem for the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
x=\lambda L x+G(\lambda, x) \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

For $L$ bounded, M. S. Berger [1] has shown
Theorem 6. If $L$ is bounded and $I-\lambda_{0} L$ is a Fredholm operator then $\lambda_{0}$ is a bifurcation point of Eq. (9).

The same result may be obtained for $L$ unbounded but closed.
Theorem 7. If $I-\lambda_{0} L$ is a Fredholm operator then $\lambda_{0}$ is a bifurcation point of $E q$. (9).

Proof. As in the proof of Theorem 5 it suffices to solve the bifurcation problem for the system of equations

$$
\begin{aligned}
u & =\lambda L u+G_{N}(\lambda, u+v) \\
v & =(I-\lambda L)^{-1} G_{R}(\lambda, u+v)
\end{aligned}
$$

for $(\lambda, u, v) \in \boldsymbol{R} \times N \times R, G_{N} \in N$ and $G_{R} \in R$, where $N=N\left(I-\lambda_{0} L\right)$ and $R=R\left(I-\lambda_{0} L\right)$. By the implicit function theorem [4, p. 265] there exists a uniquely determined, twice continuously differentiable
function $v(\lambda, u)$ such that

$$
v(\lambda, u)=(I-\lambda L)^{-1} G_{R}(\lambda, u+v(\lambda, u))
$$

for all $(\lambda, u)$ near ( $\lambda_{0}, 0$ ). Thus our problem is reduced to solving the operator equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
u=\lambda L u+G_{N}(\lambda, u+v(\lambda, u)) \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $(\lambda, u) \in \boldsymbol{R} \times N$. Moreover, if for fixed $\lambda, \mathscr{G}(\lambda, x)$ is the potential of $G(\lambda, x)$ (that is $\left.\mathscr{G}_{x}(\lambda, x)=G(\lambda, x)\right)$ then arguing as in the proof of Theorem 1 in [14] one can readily verify that for fixed $\lambda$

$$
\frac{1}{2}\langle(I-\lambda L)(u+v(\lambda, u)), u+v(\lambda, u)\rangle-\mathscr{G}(\lambda, u+v(\lambda, u))
$$

is a potential for $(I-\lambda L) u-G_{N}(\lambda, u+v(\lambda, u)) . \quad(\langle$,$\rangle is the inner$ product on $X$.)

Therefore Eq. (10) is a gradient operator equation. Hence, as (10) satisfies the hypothesis of Theorem $6, \lambda_{0}$ must be a bifurcation point of Eq. (9).
4. Remarks and two counterexamples. By Theorem 3 we could have replaced the hypothesis on the multiplicity of $\lambda_{0}$ of Theorem 5 by the equivalent hypothesis $\lambda_{0}$ is a characteristic value of the same odd algebraic multiplicity of both $L$ and $L^{*}$. Moreover we could have alternately assumed $\lambda_{0}$ a characteristic value of odd algebraic multiplicity and $I-\lambda_{0} L$ is a Fredholm operator of index zero since we can show

Theorem 8. Suppose $T$ is a closed linear Fredholm operator of $X$ into $X$. If $\operatorname{dim} N_{\infty}(T)<\infty$ and $\kappa(T)=0$ then $\operatorname{dim} N_{\infty}\left(T^{*}\right)=\operatorname{dim} N_{\infty}(T)$.

Proof. Let $p=\alpha(T)$. Then by Theorem 2, $\kappa\left(T^{p}\right)=p \kappa(T)=0$. As in the proof of Theorem 3, $N_{p}(T) \oplus R_{p}(T) \oplus M=X$. If $M \neq\{0\}$ then $\operatorname{dim} N_{p}\left(T^{*}\right)>\operatorname{dim} N_{p}(T)$ which is impossible as $\kappa\left(T^{p}\right)=0$. Hence $X=N_{p}(T) \oplus R_{p}(T)$ which implies $X^{*}=N_{p}\left(T^{*}\right) \oplus R_{p}\left(T^{*}\right)$ and so $\operatorname{dim} N_{\infty}\left(T^{*}\right)=\operatorname{dim} N_{p}\left(T^{*}\right)=\operatorname{dim} N_{p}(T)$.

We give an example to show that if $\lambda_{0}$ is a characteristic value of odd algebraic multiplicity of $L$ but $\kappa\left(I-\lambda_{0} L\right)<0$ then $\lambda_{0}$ may fail to be a bifurcation point.

Let $H=\ell_{2} \times \boldsymbol{R}$ and let $S$ be the shift operator on $\ell_{2}$, that is $S:\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \cdots\right) \rightarrow\left(0, a_{1}, a_{2}, \cdots\right)$ and consider the equations

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x=\lambda\left[(S+I) x+\left(y^{2}, 0, \cdots\right)\right] \\
& y=\lambda y
\end{aligned}
$$

for $(\lambda, x, y) \in \boldsymbol{R} \times H=\boldsymbol{R} \times\left(\ell_{2} \times \boldsymbol{R}\right) . \quad \lambda_{0}=1$ is a characteristic value of linear part of odd multiplicity and as

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
I-\lambda_{0}(S+I) & 0 \\
0 & I-\lambda_{0} I
\end{array}\right)=-\left(\begin{array}{ll}
S & 0 \\
0 & 0
\end{array}\right)=L
$$

we see $\kappa(L)<0$. Moreover a simple examination of cases for $y=0$ or $y \neq 0$ shows that $\lambda_{0}=1$ is not a bifurcation point of the system.

Lastly we show that if $\lambda_{0}$ is a characteristic value of odd geometric multiplicity (that is $\operatorname{dim} N\left(I-\lambda_{0} L\right)$ is odd) but $\kappa\left(I-\lambda_{0} L\right)>0$ then $\lambda_{0}$ may fail to be a bifurcation point.

Let $x, y \in \ell_{2}$ and consider the system of equations

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x=\lambda\left(S^{2}+I\right) x+\lambda\left(\|x\|^{2}+\|y\|_{1}^{2}, 0, \cdots\right) \\
& y=\lambda\left(S^{*}+I\right) y
\end{aligned}
$$

where $S^{*}$ is the adjoint of $S$, that is the left shift operator $S^{*}:\left(y_{1}, y_{2}, \cdots\right) \rightarrow\left(y_{2}, y_{3}, \cdots\right)$.

If $\lambda_{0}=1$ then the dimension of the null space of the linearized part of the system, $I-\lambda_{0} L$, is equal to 3 and $\operatorname{dim} N\left(I-\lambda_{0} L^{*}\right)=2$. Thus $\kappa\left(I-\lambda_{0} L\right)=3-2>0$. Moreover for $\lambda$ near $\lambda_{0}$ the system has no solutions other than trivial ones. Indeed, suppose $(\lambda, x, y)$ is a nontrivial solution and $x=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots\right)$. Then we have the equality

$$
(I-\lambda)\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots\right)=\lambda\left(0,0, x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots\right)+\lambda\left(\|x\|^{2}+\|y\|^{2}, 0, \cdots\right)
$$

Thus $x_{1}=\lambda(1-\lambda)^{-1}\left(\|x\|^{2}+\|y\|^{2}\right)$ and for $n=1, \cdots, x_{2 n}=0$ and $x_{2 n+1}=\lambda(1-\lambda)^{-1} x_{2 n-1}$. Therefore

$$
x=\left(\|x\|^{2}+\|y\|^{2}\right)\left(\lambda(1-\lambda)^{-1}, 0, \lambda^{2}(1-\lambda)^{-2}, \cdots\right) .
$$

However as $\lambda^{n}(1-\lambda)^{-n} \nrightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ for $1 / 2 \leqq \lambda, x \notin \ell_{2}$. Hence the system does not have any nontrivial solutions for $\lambda$ near $\lambda_{0}=1$.

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