

NOTE ON A NONLINEAR EIGENVALUE PROBLEM

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ABSTRACT. This note complements some known facts about the ordinary differential equation $(|u'|^{p-2}u')' + \lambda|u|^{p-2}u = 0$. The eigenvalues exhibit a fascinating dependence on the exponent p , namely, $\sqrt[p]{\lambda_p} = \sqrt[q]{\lambda_q}$ for conjugate exponents. In terms of the Rayleigh quotients,

$$\min_u \frac{\|u'\|_p}{\|u\|_p} = \min_v \frac{\|v'\|_q}{\|v\|_q}, \quad \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1.$$

Corresponding eigenfunctions are related for conjugate exponents. We shall express this dependence in a nice formula.

1. Introduction. The minimum λ_p of the Rayleigh quotient

$$(1) \quad \frac{\int_a^b |u'(x)|^p dx}{\int_a^b |u(x)|^p dx}, \quad 1 < p < \infty$$

taken among all real-valued functions $u \in C^1[a, b]$ with $u(a) = u(b) = 0$ is equal to the first eigenvalue λ of the equation

$$(2) \quad \frac{d}{dx}(|u'|^{p-2}u') + \lambda|u|^{p-2}u = 0.$$

(The resulting sharp estimate $\sqrt[p]{\lambda_p}\|u\|_p \leq \|u'\|_p$ is called Wirtinger's inequality in the classical case $p = 2$, when the equation reduces to $u'' + \lambda u = 0$.) The existence of eigenvalues and eigenfunctions has been considered in [1, Theorem 4.4]. This problem has been thoroughly studied by M. Ôtani. He has explicitly determined all eigenvalues and described the eigenfunctions and their zeros, cf. [4]. These results are so exhaustive that it seems difficult to add anything

Mathematics subject classifications. 34A34, 34B99.
Received by the editors on October 20, 1990, and in revised form on March 8, 1991.

relevant to the original problem, and so the trend has been to generalize the equation. For example, in [2] Ôtani's approach is applied to the equation $(|u'|^{p-2}u')' + \lambda|u|^{p-2}u = f(u)$, and in [6] equations of the type $(|u'|^{p-2}u')' + a(x)|u|^{p-2}u = 0$ are studied. See [5] for further generalizations.

However, we will consider the original and more pregnant formulation (2). Our starting point is a simple but striking observation.

Proposition. *For conjugate exponents, we have*

$$(3) \quad \sqrt[p]{\lambda_p} = \sqrt[q]{\lambda_q}, \quad \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1.$$

This beautiful conjugation is an immediate consequence of Ôtani's formula [4, p. 28]

$$(4) \quad \lambda_p = (p-1) \left\{ \frac{2}{b-a} \int_0^1 \frac{dt}{(1-t^p)^{1/p}} \right\}^p$$

for the first eigenvalue of Equation (2). A direct evaluation of the integral (the so-called Eulerian integral of the first kind [9, 12.4]) yields

$$(4') \quad \sqrt[p]{\lambda_p} = \frac{2 \sqrt[p]{p-1} \pi}{(b-a)p \sin(\pi/p)}.$$

Moreover, even the higher eigenvalues appear in conjugate pairs. Thus, the whole spectrum exhibits the same conjugation property!

This interesting behavior reflects a fascinating dependence among the first eigenfunctions, say u_p and u_q , $1/p + 1/q = 1$. Namely, if one of these is known, the other one can be constructed by the aid of a nice formula. See (7). This is remarkable, although Equation (2) can be "completely" integrated, the reason being that for $p \neq 2$, the solution appears in the shape of a very unilluminating implicit function.¹ Moreover, there is a kind of conjugation among the higher eigenfunctions, too.

2. Conjugate eigenfunctions. For the necessary background, we refer the reader to [4] (especially Remark 8 on page 28 should be

noticed). Section 1 of [2] is a resumé of Ôtani's paper [4]. Before proving the conjugation formula, we will sketch these preliminaries.

The starting point is to consider all absolutely continuous functions $u : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ with $u(a) = u(b) = 0$. In this considerably wide class of functions, the existence of a positive minimum $\lambda_p > 0$ for the Rayleigh quotient (1) is easily established. Interpreting equation (2) in its weak form to begin with, we see that its smallest eigenvalue evidently is $\lambda = \lambda_p$. The corresponding first eigenfunction (or ground state solution) u_p is unique up to a constant factor, and it has no zeros in the open interval $]a, b[$. According to [4, Lemma 3] $u_p \in C^2[a, b]$, if $1 < p \leq 2$; and $u_p \in C^1[a, b] \cap C^2(J)$, $J = [a, b] \setminus \{(a+b)/2\}$, if $2 < p < \infty$ (in the latter case, u_p is not twice differentiable at the midpoint; at this point $u'_p = 0$). Thus, one can work with classical solutions. Actually, u_p is real analytic in the open intervals $]a, (a+b)/2[$ and $](a+b)/2, b[$.

From now on, we shall normalize the situation so that $[a, b] = [0, 1]$ and $u'_p(0) = 1$. Then $u = u_p$ is positive in $]0, 1[$. By symmetry, $u(x) = u(1-x)$. Multiplying the equation by u' and integrating, we obtain

$$(5) \quad |u'|^p = 1 - \frac{\lambda}{p-1} u^p, \quad u'(0) = 1$$

and so we have to integrate

$$(6) \quad \pm \frac{du}{dx} = \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{p-1} u^p\right)^{1/p},$$

where the plus sign is valid for $0 \leq x \leq 1/2$ and the minus sign for $1/2 \leq x \leq 1$. Note that $u'(1/2) = 0$.

We are not going to explain how to find the fundamental formula (7) below, but, once it is given, the verification is easily done, as we shall see.

Theorem. *The first normalized eigenfunctions in $[0, 1]$ are related by*

$$(7) \quad \frac{\lambda_p u_p(x)^p}{p-1} + \frac{\lambda_q u_q(y)^q}{q-1} = 1, \quad \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$$

where $y = 1/2 - x$, when $0 \leq x \leq 1/2$, and $y = 3/2 - x$, when $1/2 \leq x \leq 1$. Moreover, $\sqrt[p]{\lambda_p} = \sqrt[q]{\lambda_q}$.

Proof. Let us use the abbreviations

$$u(x) = u_p(x), \quad \lambda = \lambda_p; \quad v(x) = v_q(x), \quad \mu = \lambda_q,$$

when $p + q = pq$. By symmetry, we may assume that $0 \leq x < 1/2$. Then $1 > \lambda u^p(x)/(p-1)$ and (6) yields

$$(8) \quad x = + \int_0^x dx = \int_0^{u(x)} \frac{du}{\left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{p-1} u^p\right)^{1/p}}, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1/2.$$

Anticipating the final result, we substitute

$$\frac{\lambda}{p-1} u^p + \frac{\mu}{q-1} v^q = 1, \quad \lambda q u^{p-1} du + \mu p v^{q-1} dv = 0$$

in (8), and after some simplification, we arrive at

$$(9) \quad \int_0^{u(x)} \frac{du}{\left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{p-1} u^p\right)^{1/p}} = \frac{\mu^{1/q}}{\lambda^{1/p}} \int_{?}^{[(q-1)/\mu]^{1/q}} \frac{dv}{\left(1 - \frac{\mu}{q-1} v^q\right)^{1/q}},$$

the lower limit of integration being

$$? = \left\{ \frac{q-1}{\mu} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{p-1} u(x)^p\right) \right\}^{1/q}.$$

On the other hand,

$$(10) \quad \frac{1}{2} - y = \int_y^{1/2} dy = \int_{v(y)}^{[(q-1)/\mu]^{1/q}} \frac{dv}{\left(1 - \frac{\mu}{q-1} v^q\right)^{1/q}}, \quad 0 \leq y \leq 1/2$$

by (6). Using the fact that $\mu^{1/q} = \lambda^{1/p}$, and comparing the integrals, we conclude that

$$(11) \quad v(y) = \left\{ \frac{q-1}{\mu} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{p-1} u(x)^p\right) \right\}^{1/q},$$

if $1/2 - y = x$. Treating the values $1/2 \leq x \leq 1$ in a similar way, we arrive at the desired result

$$\frac{\lambda u(x)^p}{p-1} + \frac{\mu v(y)^q}{q-1} = 1, \quad |x-y| = 1/2. \quad \square$$

3. Higher eigenvalues. The equation

$$\frac{d}{dx}(|u'|^{p-2}u') + \lambda|u|^{p-2}u = 0$$

has nontrivial solutions in $[0, 1]$ with zero endpoint values only for the following values of λ :

$$\lambda_p^{(k)} = k^p \lambda_p, \quad k = 1, 2, 3, \dots,$$

cf. [4]. Here $\lambda_p = \lambda_p^{(1)}$ is the first eigenvalue (4). (In the linear case we have the eigenvalues $k^2\pi^2$ corresponding to the normalized eigenfunctions $u_2^{(k)}(x) = \sin(k\pi x)/k\pi$, $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$). Hence,

$$(12) \quad \sqrt[p]{\lambda_p^{(k)}} = \sqrt[q]{\lambda_q^{(k)}}, \quad \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1.$$

This means that also *the higher eigenvalues appear in conjugate pairs.*

The higher eigenfunctions $u_p^{(1)}, u_p^{(2)}, \dots$ and $u_q^{(1)}, u_q^{(2)}, \dots$ are pairwise related, i.e., given $u_p^{(k)}$ (or only u_p) the conjugate k 'th eigenfunction $u_q^{(k)}$, $1/p + 1/q = 1$, can be constructed from an explicit formula. More precisely,

$$(13) \quad u_q^{(k)}(x) = (-1)^j u_q(kx - j), \quad j/k \leq x \leq (j+1)/k$$

for $j = 0, 1, 2, \dots, k-1$ according to [4, Theorem 1, Remark 8] or [2, Equation (1.4)], and so the missing link is provided by (7). Through this chain any $u_q^{(k)}$ can be constructed from any $u_p^{(m)}$, if $1/p + 1/q = 1$. It should be kept in mind that also the higher eigenfunctions are unique apart from a normalizing constant factor.² This is essential for the meaning of the construction.

4. Comparison of eigenfunctions. The first eigenfunction u_p of (2), normalized by $u'(0) = 1$ (hence, $u'(1) = -1$) has maximum

$$(14) \quad u_p(1/2) = \sqrt[p]{\frac{p-1}{\lambda_p}} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\sin(\pi/p)}{(\pi/p)}$$

in $[0, 1]$. Clearly, $0 < u_p(1/2) < 1/2$, when $1 < p < \infty$. The maximum increases with p . The same is true for any $u_p(x)$, as p increases. Indeed,

$$(15) \quad u_s(x) > u_p(x), \quad 1 < p < s < \infty,$$

when $0 < x < 1$. This follows almost directly from (6), when one uses the fact that, for any fixed t in $]0, 1[$, the expression $(1-t^p)^{1/p}$ increases with p .

In particular³,

$$(16) \quad 0 < u_q(x) < \frac{\sin(\pi x)}{\pi} < u_p(x) < \frac{1}{2} - \left| x - \frac{1}{2} \right|$$

when $1 < q < 2 < p < \infty$ and $0 < x < 1$. Here the function $u_\infty(x) = 1/2 - |x - 1/2|$ is the solution to the "minimax" problem

$$(17) \quad \min_u \left\{ \frac{\max_x |u'(x)|}{\max_x |u(x)|} \right\} = 2$$

obtained when $p \rightarrow \infty$ (the admissible functions being merely absolutely continuous). One can show that $\lim_{q \rightarrow \infty} u_p(x) = u_\infty(x)$ uniformly in $[0, 1]$. By (7) also $\lim_{q \rightarrow 1+} u_q(x) = 0$ uniformly in $[0, 1]$. (However, the limiting eigenvalue $\lambda_1 = \lim_{q \rightarrow 1+} \lambda_q = 2$ is not attained for any reasonable admissible function with zero end point values.)

The curves $y = u_p(x)$, $0 < x < 1$, $1 < p < \infty$, form a field filling up the open triangle

$$\Delta = \{(x, y) \mid 0 < 2y < 1 - |2x - 1|, 0 < x < 1\}.$$

To see this, one just has to show that for any fixed x in $]0, 1[$, the function $p \rightarrow u_p(x)$ is continuous, $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ (we denote $u_1(x) = 0$, although this is not the solution to the problem, when $p = 1$). The

desired continuity with respect to p can be read off from (8), λ_p varying continuously with p .

More can be said about this, but we think that the above gives a sufficiently clear picture of the situation.

5. Concluding remarks. In several dimensions little is known about the corresponding problem. Given a bounded domain Ω in the n -dimensional Euclidean space \mathbf{R}^n , the minimization of the Rayleigh quotient

$$(18) \quad \frac{\int_{\Omega} |\nabla u|^p}{\int_{\Omega} |u|^p}$$

among all functions u (belonging to a convenient function space) with zero boundary values in Ω leads to the nonlinear eigenvalue problem

$$(19) \quad \operatorname{div} (|\nabla u|^{p-2} \nabla u) + \lambda |u|^{p-2} u = 0.$$

See, for example, [3, 7, 8]. The proper counterpart to the conjugation in one dimension is far from obvious: unfortunately, (3) does not hold even when Ω is a ball in \mathbf{R}^n and $n \geq 2$.

We intend to return to this topic in a subsequent work.

Acknowledgment. I thank the referee for pointing out the papers [1, 5].

ENDNOTES

1. The simplest way to integrate the equation is indicated in [6]: the convex function $z = z(x) = |u'(x)|^{p-2} u'(x) / |u(x)|^{p-2} u(x)$ satisfies the separable equation $z' + (p-1)|z|^q + \lambda_p = 0$.

2. This is not true in general for the equation $\operatorname{div} (|\nabla u|^{p-2} \nabla u) + \lambda |u|^{p-2} u = 0$ in several dimensions.

3. The exponents need not be conjugate here.

Note added in proof. Extending u_p as an odd function to the interval $[-1, 0]$ and, then, periodically to the whole real axis, i.e., $u_p(x) = -u_p(-x)$, $u_p(x+2) = u_p(x)$, we can write the higher eigenfunctions as $u_p^{(k)}(x) = u_p(kx)$.

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