

Uniqueness and symmetry of minimizers of Hartree type equations with external Coulomb potential

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1 Introduction

In a recent paper [3], Georgiev and Venkov establish first radial symmetry and then uniqueness of minimizers to the action functional

$$\mathcal{S}_\omega(u) = \frac{1}{2} \|\nabla u\|_2^2 + \frac{1}{4} A(|u|^2) - \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \frac{|u(x)|^2}{|x|} dx + \frac{\omega}{2} \|u\|_2^2$$

on $H^1(\mathbb{R}^3)$ and for $\omega \in (\frac{1}{16}, \frac{1}{4})$. Here the convolution term

$$A(v) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \frac{v(x)v(y)}{|x-y|} dx dy$$

reflects the nonlocal effect of the Coulomb potential. If the convolution term A had the opposite sign, as already remarked in [3], one could use symmetrization results to prove the symmetry of minimizers by variational arguments. This was in fact done in [7]. Instead, Georgiev and Venkov used a variant of the reflection method to prove symmetry, and then they analyzed the Euler equation, which was now an ordinary differential equation in $r = |x|$ to establish uniqueness. For the symmetry proof they had to assume $\omega > 1/16$.

In the present paper we prove first the uniqueness of possible positive minimizers (for any $\omega \in \mathbb{R}$, although positive minimizers can only exist for $0 \leq \omega < 1/4$) by revealing a hidden convexity property of the underlying functional. It turns out, that the “bad” sign in front of the convolution term is in fact “very good” because it has a strict convexity property. Then symmetry follows from the simple observation that uniqueness fails if there is a nonradial minimizer, because it could be rotated and give rise to a second minimizer.

2 Main result

Since $S_\omega(u) = S_\omega(|u|)$, if there exists a minimizer, there is also a nonnegative one, and it satisfies the associated nonlinear and nonlocal Euler equation

$$-\Delta u(x) + \omega u(x) + \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \frac{|u(y)|^2 dy}{|x-y|} u(x) = \frac{u(x)}{|x|} \geq 0 \quad (2.1)$$

both in a weak and classical sense, classical except possibly at zero. Hence, by the strong maximum principle, nonnegative solutions are positive everywhere except possibly at zero.

Theorem 2.1. *Almost everywhere positive minimizers of S_ω are unique, because $S_\omega(u) = T_\omega(|u^2|)$ if $u > 0$ a.e., and the functional*

$$T_\omega(v) := \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \frac{|\nabla v|^2}{4v} dx + \frac{1}{4}A(v) + \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \left(-\frac{1}{2|x|} + \frac{\omega}{2} \right) v dx$$

is strictly convex on the convex set $\mathcal{V} := \{v = |u|^2 \mid u \in H^1(\mathbb{R}^3), u > 0 \text{ a.e.}\}$.

Remark 2.2. *Our argument still works if the variational problem is subject to the physically relevant constraint $\|u\|_2^2 = 1$. In terms of v , this constraint amounts to $\int_{\mathbb{R}^3} v dx = 1$, which is affine in v . Moreover, in this case the value of ω is irrelevant, as the term $\frac{\omega}{2}\|u\|_2^2$ then just adds a constant in the functional.*

For the proof we show in Lemmata 2.3 and 2.5 that all three terms are convex and that at least one of them is strictly convex in v . The last term is linear in v , so it is convex. To show that the convolution term is convex, one can calculate its second variation in direction $\varphi \in C_0^\infty(\mathbb{R}^3)$.

$$\frac{\partial^2 A}{\partial \varphi^2}(u) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \frac{\varphi(x)\varphi(y)}{|x-y|} dx dy,$$

and notes that this is nonnegative even for sign-changing φ , a fact that has long been known in potential theory, see [6]. Finally, the convexity of the first term and of more general functionals was stated as Proposition 4 in [5], and inspired by [4].

For the reader's convenience, let us also show that the functional S_ω is well-defined and finite for every $u \in H^1(\mathbb{R}^3)$.

Lemma 2.3. *Let $N = 3$. Then $H^1(\mathbb{R}^N)$ is continuously embedded in $L^{\frac{4N}{N+2}}(\mathbb{R}^N)$, and the functional*

$$A(|u|^2) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} \frac{u^2(x)u^2(y)}{|x-y|^{N-2}} dx dy \quad (2.2)$$

is well-defined for $u \in H^1(\mathbb{R}^N)$.

Moreover, $A(v)$ is strictly convex on $\{v = |u|^2 \mid u \in H^1(\mathbb{R}^N)\}$.

Proof. For $0 < \alpha < N$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}^N$ let

$$k_\alpha(x) := \frac{1}{C_\alpha} \frac{1}{|x|^{N-\alpha}}, \quad \text{with the constant } C_\alpha := \pi^{\frac{N}{2}} 2^\alpha \frac{\Gamma(\frac{\alpha}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{N-\alpha}{2})} > 0,$$

denote the kernel of the Riesz potential, whose Fourier transform is given by $\xi \mapsto |2\pi\xi|^{-\alpha}$ (see [10] or [6], e.g.). For the integrability properties of convolutions with k_α we recall the Hardy-Littlewood-Sobolev inequality for Riesz potentials: For $0 < \alpha < N$, $1 < p < \infty$ and $1 < q < \infty$ such that $\frac{1}{q} = \frac{1}{p} - \frac{\alpha}{N}$, and for $u \in L^p(\mathbb{R}^N)$, we have that

$$\|k_\alpha * u\|_{L^q(\mathbb{R}^N)} \leq C \|u\|_{L^p(\mathbb{R}^N)}$$

with some constant $C > 0$ (where $*$ denotes convolution). In particular, this implies that $v \cdot (k_2 * v) \in L^1$ and $k_1 * v \in L^2$ if $v \in L^{\frac{2N}{N+2}}$, the former by Hölder's inequality. By Sobolev's embedding theorem, if $u \in H^1(\mathbb{R}^N)$ and $N = 3$, then $u^2 \in L^{\frac{N}{N-2}}(\mathbb{R}^N) \cap L^1(\mathbb{R}^N) = L^3(\mathbb{R}^3) \cap L^1(\mathbb{R}^3)$ and a fortiori $|u|^2 \in L^{\frac{2N}{N+2}}(\mathbb{R}^N) = L^{\frac{6}{5}}(\mathbb{R}^3)$. This shows that $A(|u|^2)$ is well defined on $H^1(\mathbb{R}^3)$.

To show convexity, we essentially follow the proof of [6, Theorem 1.15]. Observe that A is a quadratic form and that it suffices to show that $A(v) \geq 0$ for every v , with strict inequality if $v \neq 0$. Since $k_\alpha * k_\beta = k_{\alpha+\beta}$ for arbitrary $\alpha, \beta > 0$ with $\alpha + \beta < N$, we obtain that

$$\begin{aligned} C_2 A(v) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} v \cdot (k_2 * v) dx \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} v \cdot ((k_1 * k_1) * v) dx \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} v(x) k_1(x-y-z) k_1(z) v(y) dx dy dz \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} v(x) k_1(x-z) k_1(z-y) v(y) dx dy dz \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} (k_1 * v)^2 dz \geq 0, \end{aligned}$$

where we also used the fact that $k_1(x-z) = k_1(z-x)$.

Moreover, the last inequality is strict unless $k_1 * v = 0$, and this may happen only if the Fourier transform of $k_1 * v$ vanishes, i.e., $|2\pi\xi|^{-1} \hat{v}(\xi) = 0$ for a.e. $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^N$. Clearly, this is possible only if $\hat{v} = 0$ and thus $v = 0$. \square

In the next lemma we show that the term containing the weight $1/|x|$ is well defined on $H^1(\mathbb{R}^N)$, because the right hand side in (2.3) is dominated by $\|u\|_{H^{1,2}(\mathbb{R}^N)}^2$.

Lemma 2.4 (cf. Remark 6 in [9]). *For $N \geq 2$ and every $u \in H^1(\mathbb{R}^N)$,*

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^N} \frac{u^2(x)}{|x|} dx \leq \frac{2}{N-1} \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} |u(x) \nabla u(x)| dx. \quad (2.3)$$

Moreover, equality holds in (2.3) if and only if u is radially symmetric and $u(x)\nabla u(x) \cdot x \leq 0$ for a.e. $x \in \mathbb{R}^N$.

Proof. We proceed as in the proof of Hardy's inequality in [2]. Clearly, it suffices to show (2.3) for $u \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^N)$ with compact support. Since

$$\frac{d}{dt} u(tx)^2 = 2u(tx)\nabla u(tx) \cdot x,$$

we obtain that

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} \frac{u^2(x)}{|x|} dx &\leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} \int_1^\infty 2|u(tx)\nabla u(tx)| dt dx \\ &= \int_1^\infty 2t^{-N} \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} |u(x)\nabla u(x)| dx dt \\ &= \frac{2}{N-1} \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} |u(x)\nabla u(x)| dx. \end{aligned}$$

Moreover, equality holds if and only if $-u(y)\nabla u(y) \cdot y = u(y)|\nabla u(y)||y|$ for a.e. $y \in \mathbb{R}^N$. This is the case precisely if u is radially symmetric and $u \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} \leq 0$. \square

It remains to establish the convexity of the first term in T_ω . This will follow from the following lemma.

Lemma 2.5. *Let $f : \mathbb{R}^N \times (0, \infty) \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ be defined by $f(\xi, \mu) := \frac{|\xi|^2}{\mu}$. Then f is convex in (ξ, μ) .*

Proof. The Hessian of f is given by

$$H := D_{(\xi, \mu)}^2 f(\xi, \mu) = \frac{2}{\mu^2} \begin{pmatrix} \mu & & & -\xi_1 \\ & \ddots & & \vdots \\ & & \mu & -\xi_N \\ -\xi_1 & \cdots & -\xi_N & \frac{|\xi|^2}{\mu} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{(N+1) \times (N+1)}.$$

It suffices to check that H is non-negative definite. This is easily done by noticing that $(Hy, y) \geq 0$ for every $y \in \mathbb{R}^{N+1}$. Alternatively, the characteristic polynomial of $\frac{\mu^2}{2}H$ is

$$\begin{aligned} p(\lambda) &:= \det\left(\frac{\mu^2}{2}H - \lambda I\right) = (\mu - \lambda)^{N-1} \left((\mu - \lambda) \left(\frac{|\xi|^2}{\mu} - \lambda \right) - \sum_{i=1}^N \xi_i^2 \right) \\ &= (\mu - \lambda)^{N-1} \left(\lambda - \left(\frac{|\xi|^2}{\mu} + \mu \right) \right) \lambda, \end{aligned}$$

and all its roots are non-negative. \square

Remark 2.6. *Incidentally, according to [1] "uniqueness of the minimum easily follows from nodal line properties", but this argument appears to be wrong. If there are two genuinely different positive minimizers of a quadratic functional, which solve a linear equation, a suitable linear combination will be another minimizer that has nodal sets and changes sign. For nonlinear equations one cannot expect the same behaviour unless one proves a convexity property of the underlying functional. This is what we did in Theorem 2.1.*

We conclude with brief variational arguments for nonexistence of positive solutions. Existence proofs for $\omega \in [0, 1/4)$ can be found in [9] (for $\omega = 0$, instead of $H^1(\mathbb{R}^3)$ a more natural, larger space is used). Let $I_\omega := \inf_{u \in H^1(\mathbb{R}^3)} S_\omega(u)$.

If $\omega < 0$ then $I_\omega = -\infty$. To see this one observes that for fixed $u \in H^1(\mathbb{R}^3)$ and $u_\delta(x) := \delta^{\frac{3}{2}}u(\delta x)$, $\delta > 0$,

$$\lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0^+} S_\omega(u_\delta) = \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\omega}{2} \|u_\delta\|_{L^2(\mathbb{R}^3)}^2 = \frac{\omega}{2} \|u\|_{L^2(\mathbb{R}^3)}^2.$$

On the other hand, if $\omega \geq \frac{1}{4}$, then $I_\omega = S_\omega(0) = 0$, and $S_\omega(u) > 0$ for $u \neq 0$. This follows from the observation that by Lemma 2.4,

$$S_\omega(u) \geq \frac{1}{2} \left(\omega - \frac{1}{4} \right) \|u\|_{L^2(\mathbb{R}^3)}^2 + A(|u|^2).$$

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