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# Radial solutions of scaling invariant nonlinear elliptic equations with mixed reaction terms 

Marie-Françoise Bidaut-Véron,<br>Marta Garcia-Huidobro ${ }^{\dagger}$<br>Laurent Véron ${ }^{\ddagger}$


#### Abstract

We study global properties of positive radial solutions of $-\Delta u=u^{p}+M|\nabla u|^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}$ in $\mathbb{R}^{N}$ where $p>1$ and $M$ is a real number. We prove the existence or the non-existence of ground states and of solutions with singularity at 0 .


2010 Mathematics Subject Classification. 35J62, 35B08, 6804.
Key words. elliptic equations; ground states; linearization; homoclinic and heteroclinic orbits; Floquet integral.

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## 1 Introduction

The aim of this article is to study local and global properties of positive radial solutions of the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\Delta u=|u|^{p-1} u+M|\nabla u|^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}, \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

in $\mathbb{R}^{N}$ or $\mathbb{R}^{N} \backslash\{0\}$ where $p>1$ and $M$ is a real parameter. This is a particular case of the following class of equations

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\Delta u=|u|^{p-1} u+M|\nabla u|^{q} \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $q>1$ which has been the subject or many works in the radial case when $M<0$, where a basic observation is that the two terms $|u|^{p-1} u$ and $M|\nabla u|^{q}$ are in competition. The first work in that case is due to Chipot and Weissler [14] who, in particular, solved completely the case $N=1$, then Serrin and Zou [19] performed a very detailed analysis. Much less is known in the case $M>0$. Under the scaling transformation $T_{k}$ defined for $k>0$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
u_{k}:=T_{k}[u](x)=k^{\frac{2}{p-1}} u(k x), \tag{1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

(1.2) becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\Delta u_{k}=\left|u_{k}\right|^{p-1} u_{k}+k^{\frac{2 p-q(p+1)}{p-1}} M\left|\nabla u_{k}\right|^{q}, \tag{1.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore, if $q \neq \frac{2 p}{p+1},(1.2)$ can be reduced to

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\Delta u=|u|^{p-1} u \pm|\nabla u|^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}} . \tag{1.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, when $q<\frac{2 p}{p+1}$, the limit equation of (1.4) when $k \rightarrow 0$ is the Lane-Emden equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\Delta u=|u|^{p-1} u \tag{1.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

the exponent $p$ is dominant. The other scaling transformation

$$
\begin{equation*}
v_{k}:=S_{k}[u](x)=k^{\frac{2-q}{q-1}} u(k x), \tag{1.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

transforms (1.2) into

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\Delta v_{k}=k^{\frac{q-p(2-q)}{q-1}}\left|v_{k}\right|^{p-1} v_{k}+M\left|\nabla v_{k}\right|^{q}, \tag{1.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

and if $q>\frac{2 p}{p+1}$, the limit equation of (1.8) when $k \rightarrow 0$ is the Riccati equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\Delta v=M|\nabla v|^{q}, \tag{1.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

the exponent $q$ is dominant. In [14] and [19] most of the study deals with the case $q \neq \frac{2 p}{p+1}$. In the critical case i.e. when

$$
\begin{equation*}
q=\frac{2 p}{p+1} \tag{1.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

then not only the sign of $M$ but also its value plays a fundamental role, with a delicate interaction with the exponent $p$. Notice that an equivalent form of (1.1) is

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\Delta v=\lambda|v|^{p-1} v \pm|\nabla v|^{q} \tag{1.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $\lambda>0$. In the critical case first studies in the case $M<0$ are due to Chipot and Weissler [14] for $N=1$. The case $N \geq 2$ was left open by Serrin and Zou [19] and the first partial results are due to Fila and Quittner [16] and Voirol [22, 23]. The case $M>0$ was not considered.

The equation (1.1) is the stationary part of the associated parabolic equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\partial_{t} u-\Delta u-|u|^{p-1} u-M|\nabla u|^{q}=0 . \tag{1.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is studied in [14] and [15], one of the aim being to find conditions for the blow-up of positive solutions. A general survey with several open problems can be found in [20].

In the non radial case an important contribution dealing with a priori estimates of local positive solutions of (1.2) and existence or non-existence of entire positive solution in $\mathbb{R}^{N}$ is due to the authors [7]. In this paper we complete the results of [7] in presenting a quite exhaustive study of the radial solutions of (1.1) for any real number $M$.

The radial solutions of (1.1) are functions $r \mapsto u(r)$ defined in $(0, \infty)$ where they satisfy

$$
\begin{equation*}
-u_{r r}-\frac{N-1}{r} u_{r}=|u|^{p-1} u+M\left|u_{r}\right|^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}} . \tag{1.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Because of the invariance of (1.13) under the transformation $T_{k}$ there exists an autonomous variant of (1.1) obtained by putting

$$
\begin{equation*}
u(r)=r^{-\frac{2}{p-1}} x(t) \quad \text { with } t=\ln r \tag{1.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

then

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{t t}+L x_{t}-\frac{2 K}{p-1} x+|x|^{p-1} x+M\left|\frac{2 K}{p-1} x-x_{t}\right|^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}=0 \tag{1.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

with

$$
\begin{equation*}
K=\frac{(N-2) p-N}{p-1} \text { and } L=\frac{(N-2) p-(N+2)}{p-1}=K-\frac{2}{p-1} . \tag{1.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

Putting $y(t)=-r^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}} u_{r}(r)$, then $(x(t), y(t))$ satisfies the system

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x_{t}=\frac{2}{p-1} x-y  \tag{1.17}\\
y_{t}=-K y+|x|^{p-1} x+M|y|^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}} .
\end{array}\right.
$$

We are mainly interested in the trajectories of the system which remain in the first quarter $\mathbf{Q}=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}: x>0, y>0\right\}$. Among these trajectories, the ones corresponding to ground states, i.e. positive $C^{2}$ solutions $u$ of (1.13) are defined on $[0, \infty)$. They verify $u_{r}(0)=0$ and actually they are $C^{\infty}$ on $\left.(0, \infty)\right)$. Using the invariance of the equation under $T_{k}$ all the ground states can be derived by scaling from a unique one which satisfies $u(0)=1$. Since it is easy to prove that such a solution $u$ is decreasing, in the variables $(x, y)$, a ground state is a trajectory of (1.17) in $\mathbf{Q}$, defined on $\mathbb{R}$ and satisfying $\lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty} \frac{y(t)}{x(t)}=0$. The corresponding trajectory is denoted by $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$.

Contrarily to the case of the Lane-Emden equation (1.6), there exists no natural Lyapunov function when $M \neq 0$. This makes the study much more delicate and it is based upon a phase plane analysis. The solutions of (1.13) invariant under $T_{k}$ for any $k>0$ correspond to constant solutions of (1.15) and have the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
U(r)=X r^{-\frac{2}{p-1}} \text { for all } r>0 \tag{1.18}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $X$ is a positive root of

$$
\begin{equation*}
X^{p-1}+M\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}} X^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}+\frac{2 K}{p-1}=0 . \tag{1.19}
\end{equation*}
$$

This equation plays a fundamental role in the description of the set of solutions of (1.13). The following constant, defined for $N=1,2$ and $p>1$ or $N \geq 3$ and $1<p \leq \frac{N}{N-2}$ has an important role in the description of the set roots of (1.19),

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu^{*}:=\mu^{*}(N)=(p+1)\left(\frac{N-(N-2) p}{2 p}\right)^{\frac{p}{p+1}} . \tag{1.20}
\end{equation*}
$$

This set is described in the following proposition.
Proposition 1 1- If $M \geq 0$, equation (1.19) admits a positive root, necessarily unique, if and only if $N \geq 3$ and $p>\frac{N}{N-2}$.
2- If $M<0$ and $p \geq \frac{N}{N-2}$, equation (1.19) admits a unique positive root $X_{M}$.
3- If $M<0$ and either $N=1,2$ and $p>1$ or $N \geq 3$ and $1<p \leq \frac{N}{N-2}$, there exists no positive root of (1.19) if $-\mu^{*}<M<0$, a unique positive root if $M=-\mu^{*}<0$ and two positive roots $X_{1, M}<X_{2, M}$ if $M<-\mu^{*}$.

We also set $Y_{M}=\frac{2}{p-1} X_{M}$ and $P_{M}=\left(X_{M}, Y_{M}\right)$ (resp. $\quad Y_{j, M}=\frac{2}{p-1} X_{j, M}$ and $P_{j, M}=$ $\left(X_{j, M}, Y_{j, M}\right)$, for $\left.\mathrm{j}=1,2\right)$ and define the corresponding singular solutions $U_{M}(r)=X_{M} r^{-\frac{2}{p-1}}$ $\left(\right.$ resp. $\left.U_{j, M}(r)=X_{j, M} r^{-\frac{2}{p-1}}\right)$.

Recall briefly the description of the positive solutions of the Lane-Emden equation (1.6), i.e. $M=0$ : there exists radial ground states if and only if $N \geq 3$ and $p \geq \frac{N+2}{N-2}$. If $p=\frac{N+2}{N-2}$ these ground states are explicit and they satisfy $\lim _{r \rightarrow \infty} r^{N-2} u(r)=c>0$. There exist infinitely many singular solutions $u$ ondulating around $U_{M}$. Note that a ground state corresponds to a homoclinic orbit at 0 for system (1.17) and these singular solutions are cycles surrounding $P_{M}$. We recall that an orbit of (1.17) which connects two different equilibria (resp. the same equilibrium) when $t \in \mathbb{R}$ is called heteroclinic (resp. homoclinic).

Without the radiality assumptions, and using a delicate combination of refined Bernstein techniques and Keller-0sserman estimate we have obtained in [7, Th. C, Th. D] a series of general a priori estimates for any positive solution of (1.1), in an arbitrary domain of $\mathbb{R}^{N}$ in the case $N \geq 1, p>1$ and $q=\frac{2 p}{p+1}$ and $M>0$. In particular we proved there that if $p>1$ and $M>M_{\dagger}:=\left(\frac{p-1}{p+1}\right)^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}\left(\frac{N(p+1)^{2}}{4 p}\right)^{\frac{p}{p+1}}$, or if $N \geq 2, p<\frac{N+3}{N-1}$ and $M>0$ equation (1.1) admits no ground state.

In the sequel we describe the ground states and the singular global solutions of (1.13) in $\mathbb{R}^{N} \backslash\{0\}$. Concerning the ground states, we discuss according to the sign of $M$ and the value of $p$. The next value of $M$ appears when we linearize the system (1.17) at the equilibrium $P_{M}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{M}=\bar{M}(N, p)=\frac{(p+1)((N-2) p-N-2)}{(4 p)^{\frac{p}{p+1}}\left((N-2)(p-1)^{2}+4\right)^{\frac{1}{p+1}}} . \tag{1.21}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $\bar{M}$ is positive (resp. negative) if $p>\frac{N+2}{N-2}$ (resp. $p<\frac{N+2}{N-2}$ and we set $\bar{\mu}=|\bar{M}|$ ). It is easy to see that if $M=\bar{M}$ then the characteristic values of the linearized operator at $P_{M}$ are purely imaginary. Notice that $\bar{M}$ is positive (resp. negative) according $p>\frac{N+2}{N-2}$ (resp. $p<\frac{N+2}{N-2}$ ).
Theorem A Let $N \geq 1, p>1$ and $M>0$.
1- If $1<p \leq \frac{N+2}{N-2}$ if $N \geq 3$, and any $p>1$ if $N=1,2$, then equation (1.13) admits no ground state.
2- If $N \geq 3$ and $p>\frac{N+2}{N-2}$, there exist constants $\tilde{M}_{\min }, \tilde{M}_{\max }$ verifying

$$
0<\bar{M}<\tilde{M}_{\min } \leq \tilde{M}_{\max }
$$

such that

- if $0<M<\tilde{M}_{\text {min }}$ there exist ground states $u$ satisfying $u(r) \sim U_{M}(r)$ when $r \rightarrow \infty$.
- if $M=\tilde{M}_{\text {min }}$ or $M=\tilde{M}_{\text {max }}$ there exists a ground state $u$ minimal at infinity, that is satisfying $\lim _{r \rightarrow \infty} r^{N-2} u(r)=c>0$.
- for $M>\tilde{M}_{\text {max }}$ there exists no radial ground state.

The values of $\tilde{M}_{\text {min }}$ and $\tilde{M}_{\text {max }}$ appear as transition values for which the ground state still exists but it is smaller than the others at infinity; it is of order $r^{2-N}$ instead of $r^{-\frac{2}{p-1}}$. They are not explicit but they can be estimated in function of $N$ and $p$. It is a numerical evidence that $\tilde{M}_{\text {min }}=\tilde{M}_{\text {max }}$ in the phase plane analysis of system (1.17) and we conjecture that this is true. When $M=\tilde{M}_{\text {min }}$ or $\tilde{M}_{\text {max }}$, the system (1.17) admits homoclinic trajectories. We prove that the system (1.17) admits a Hopf bifurcation when $M=\bar{M}$. When $p>\frac{N+2}{N-2}$ we also prove the existence of different types of positive singular solutions

Theorem A' Let $N \geq 3$.
1- If $\frac{N}{N-2}<p \leq \frac{N+2}{N-2}$ for any $M>0$ there exist a unique (always up to scaling transformation) positive singular solutions $u$ of (1.13) satisfying $\lim _{r \rightarrow 0} r^{\frac{2}{p-1}} u(r)=X_{M}$ and $\lim _{r \rightarrow \infty} r^{N-2} u(r)=c>0$

2- If $p>\frac{N+2}{N-2}$, then
(i) If $M>\tilde{M}_{\max }$, there exists a unique singular solution $u$ of (1.13) with the same behaviour as in 1 .
(ii) If $\bar{M}<M<\tilde{M}_{\text {min }}$ there exist positive singular solutions $u$ ondulating around $U_{M}$ on $\mathbb{R}$.

In terms of the system (1.17) the 1) and 2 -(i) correspond to the existence of a heteroclinic orbit in $\mathbf{Q}$ connecting $P_{M}$ to $(0,0)$ and (ii) to the existence of a cycle in $\mathbf{Q}$ surrounding $P_{M}$.

When $M$ is negative, the precise description of the trajectories of (1.17) depends also on the value of $p$ with respect to $\frac{N}{N-2}$. It is proved in [7, Th. $\left.\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{E}\right]$ that for $N \geq 3$ and $1<p<\frac{N+2}{N-2}$ there exists $\epsilon_{0}>0$ such that if $|M| \leq \epsilon_{0}$ equation (1.1) admits no positive solution in $\mathbb{R}^{N}$. The same conclusion holds if $N \geq 3,1<p \leq \frac{N}{N-2}$ (or $N=2$ and $p>1$ ) and $M>-\mu^{*}$. We first consider the case $p \geq \frac{N}{N-2}$ for which there exists a unique explicit singular solution $U_{M}$, and the results present some similarity with the ones of Theorem A.
Theorem B Let $N \geq 3, p \geq \frac{N}{N-2}$ and $M<0$. Then
1- If $p \geq \frac{N+2}{N-2}$, then equation (1.13) admits ground states $u$. Moreover they satisfy $u(r) \sim U_{M}(r)$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$.
2- If $\frac{N}{N-2} \leq p<\frac{N+2}{N-2}$, there exist numbers $\tilde{\mu}_{\min }$ and $\tilde{\mu}_{\max }$ verifying

$$
0<\bar{\mu}<\tilde{\mu}_{\min } \leq \tilde{\mu}_{\max }<\mu^{*}(1)
$$

such that
(i) for $M<-\tilde{\mu}_{\max }$ there exist ground states $u$ such that $u(r) \sim U_{M}(r)$ when $r \rightarrow \infty$.
(ii) for $M=-\tilde{\mu}_{\min }$ or for $M=-\tilde{\mu}_{\max }$ there exist ground states minimal at infinity in the sense that $u(r) \sim c r^{2-N}$ when $r \rightarrow \infty, c>0$.
(iii) for $-\tilde{\mu}_{\min }<M<0$ there exists no radial ground state.

Here also the value of $\tilde{\mu}_{\min }, \tilde{\mu}_{\max }$ are not explicit and we conjecture that they coincide. The next result presents some similarity with Theorem A'.
Theorem B' Let $N \geq 3$ and $\frac{N}{N-2}<p<\frac{N+2}{N-2}$.
(i) If $\bar{M}<M<0$ there exists a unique (up to scaling) positive singular solution $u$ of (1.13), such that $u(r) \sim U_{M}(r)$ when $r \rightarrow 0$ and $u(r) \sim c r^{2-N}$ when $r \rightarrow \infty$ for some $c>0$.
(ii) If $-\tilde{\mu}_{\min }<M<0$ there exist positive singular solutions $u$ ondulating around $U_{M}$ on $[0, \infty)$ and singular solution ondulating around $U_{M}$ in a neighbourhood of 0 and satisfying $u(r) \sim c r^{2-N}$ for some $c>0$ when $r \rightarrow \infty$.

In terms of the system (1.17), (i) corresponds to a heteroclinic orbit connecting $P_{M}$ and $(0,0)$, while (ii) to the existence of a periodic solution in $\mathbf{Q}$ around $P_{M}$, and the existence of a solution in $\mathbf{Q}$ converging to $(0,0)$ at $\infty$ and having a limit cycle at $t=-\infty$ which is a periodic orbit around $P_{M}$.

The situation is more complicated when $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$ and $M<-\mu^{*}$ because there exist two explicit singular solutions $U_{1, M}$ and $U_{2, M}$ which coincide when $M=-\mu^{*}$.
Theorem C Let $M<0, N \geq 3$ and $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$, or $N=2$ and $p>1$. Then there exist two constants $\tilde{\mu}_{\min }$ and $\tilde{\mu}_{\max }$ verifying

$$
\mu^{*} \leq \bar{\mu}<\tilde{\mu}_{\min } \leq \tilde{\mu}_{\max }<\mu^{*}(1),
$$

such that
1- If $M<-\tilde{\mu}_{\text {max }}$ then equation (1.13) admits ground states $u$ either ondulating around $U_{2, M}$ or such that $u(r) \sim U_{2, M}(r)$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$.
2- If $M=-\tilde{\mu}_{\text {min }}$ or $M=-\tilde{\mu}_{\text {max }}$ there exists a ground state $u$ such that $u(r) \sim U_{1, M}(r)$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$.
3- If $-\tilde{\mu}_{\text {min }}<M<0$ there exists no radial ground state.
Here again $\tilde{\mu}_{\text {min }}$ and $\tilde{\mu}_{\text {max }}$ appear as transition values for which the ground state still exists but it is smaller than the others at infinity: it behaves like $U_{1}$ instead of $U_{2}$. The proof of this theorem is very elaborate in particular in the case $N=2$. In the case $N=1$ the result is already proved in [14]. The nonexistence of ground state, not necessarily radial for $M>-\mu^{*}$ is proved in [1] and independently in [7] with a different method. In the radial case it was obtained much before in the case $N=1$ in [14] and then by Fila and Quittner [16] who raised the question whether the condition $-\tilde{\mu}_{\text {min }}<M<0$ is optimal for the non-existence of radial ground state. This question received a negative answer in the work of Voirol [22] who extended the domain of non-existence to $-\mu^{*}-\epsilon<M \leq-\mu^{*}$. The next result is the counterpart of Theorem C when dealing with singular solutions.
Theorem C' Let $M<0, N \geq 3$ and $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$.
(i) If $M<-\mu^{*}$ there exist positive singular solutions $u$ such that $u(r) \sim U_{1, M}(r)$ as $r \rightarrow 0$ and $u(r) \sim c r^{2-N}$ with $c>0$ when $r \rightarrow \infty$.
(ii) If $\bar{M} \leq M<-\mu^{*}$ there exists a unique up to scaling positive singular solution $u$, such that $u(r)=U_{2, M}(r)$ as $r \rightarrow 0$ and $u(r)=U_{1, M}(r)$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$. Furthermore $u(r)>U_{1, M}(r)$ for all $r>0$.
(iii) If $-\hat{\mu}_{\text {min }}<M<-\bar{\mu}$ there exist positive singular solutions $u$ ondulating around $U_{2, M}$ at 0 and such that $u(r) \sim U_{1, M}(r)$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$, and positive singular solutions $u$ ondulating around $U_{2, M}$ on $\mathbb{R}$.
(iv) If $M=-\tilde{\mu}_{\text {min }}$ or $M=-\hat{\mu}_{\text {max }}$ there exists a positive singular solutions $u$ different from $U_{1, M}$ such that $u(r) \sim U_{1, M}(r)$ when $r \rightarrow 0$ and $r \rightarrow \infty$.
(v) If $-\tilde{\mu}_{\text {min }}<M<-\hat{\mu}_{\text {max }}$ there exists a positive singular solution $u$ such that $\lim _{r \rightarrow 0} r^{N-2} u(r)=$ $c>0$ and either ondulating around $U_{2, M}$ or such that $u(r) \sim U_{2, M}(r)$ when $r \rightarrow \infty$.
(vi) If $N \geq 3$ and $M=-\mu^{*}$, there exist positive singular solutions $u$ satisfying $\lim _{r \rightarrow 0} r^{N-2} u(r)=$ $c>0$ and $u(r) \sim U_{-\mu^{*}}(r)$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$.

In terms of the system (1.17) (i) corresponds to a heteroclinic orbit connecting $P_{1, M}$ to $(0,0)$; (ii) to a heteroclinic orbit connecting $P_{2, M}$ to $P_{1, M}$; (iii) to a trajectory having a periodic orbit around $P_{2, M}$ for limit cycle at $-\infty$ and converging to $P_{2, M}$ at $\infty$ and to a periodic orbit around
$P_{2, M}$; (iv) corresponds to homoclinic orbit at $P_{1, M}$; (v) corresponds to a trajectory connecting $(0,0)$ at $-\infty$ and either converging to $P_{2, M}$ at $\infty$ or having a periodic orbit around $P_{2, M}$ for limit set at $\infty$; (vi) corresponds to a heteroclinic orbit connecting from $(0,0)$ to $P_{-\mu^{*}}$.

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## 2 General properties of the system

### 2.1 Reduction to autonomous equation and system

### 2.1.1 The standard reduction

We recall that if $u$ is a $C^{3}$ function defined on some interval $I \subset[0, \infty)$ verifying (1.13) and if

$$
u(r)=r^{-\frac{2}{p-1}} x(t) \quad \text { with } t=\ln r
$$

then $x$ satisfies the autonomous equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{t t}+L x_{t}-\frac{2 K}{p-1} x+|x|^{p-1} x+M\left|\frac{2 x}{p-1}-x_{t}\right|^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}=0 \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

on $\ln (I)$ where $K$ and $L$ are defined in (1.16). Setting $u_{r}=-r^{-\frac{p+1}{p-1}} y(t)$, then $(x(t), y(t))$ satisfies

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x_{t}=H_{1}(x, y)  \tag{2.2}\\
y_{t}=H_{2}(x, y)
\end{array}\right.
$$

where

$$
\begin{align*}
& H_{1}(x, y)=\frac{2 x}{p-1}-y  \tag{2.3}\\
& H_{2}(x, y)=-K y+|x|^{p-1} x+M|y|^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}} .
\end{align*}
$$

and we denote by $\mathbf{H}$ the vector field of $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ with components $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$.

### 2.1.2 The geometry of the vector field $\mathbf{H}$

Let us denote by $\mathbf{Q}:=\{(x, y): x>0, y>0\}$ the first quadrant. The vector field is inward in (resp. outward of) $\mathbf{Q}$ on the axis $\{(x, y): x>0, y=0\}$ (resp. $\{(x, y): x=0, y>0\}$ ). We set

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{L}:=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbf{Q}: y=\frac{2 x}{p-1}\right\} \quad \text { and } \mathcal{C}:=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbf{Q}: x=\left(K y-M y^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}\right\} \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $\psi(y)=\left(K y-M y^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$. Then $x_{t}=0$ on $\mathcal{L}$ and $y_{t}=0$ on $\mathcal{C}$. The curves $\mathcal{L}$ and $\mathcal{C}$ have zero, one or two intersections in $\mathbf{Q}$ according the value of $K$ and $M$. If $M, K>0$, then $\mathcal{C} \subset\left[0,\left(\frac{p-1}{2 p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} K^{\frac{2}{p+1}}\left(\frac{(p+1)}{2 p M}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p(p-1)}}\right] \times\left[0,\left(\frac{K}{M}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}\right]$. The points $(0,0), P_{M}$ and $\left(0,\left(\frac{K}{M}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}\right)$ belong to $\mathcal{C}$. The function $\psi$ is increasing on $\left(0,\left(\frac{K}{q M}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}\right)$ and decreasing on $\left(\left(\frac{K}{q M}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}},\left(\frac{K}{M}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}\right)$.

If $M<0$ and $K>0, \psi$ is concave and increasing on $(0, \infty)$ with $\psi(y)=(-M)^{\frac{1}{p}} y^{\frac{2}{p+1}}(1+o(1))$ as $y \rightarrow \infty$. If $M<0$ and $K<0, \psi$ is still concave and increasing on $\left(\left(\frac{K}{M}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}, \infty\right)$ with the same asymptotic as above. We quote below the possible connected components of $\mathbf{Q} \backslash(\mathcal{L} \cup \mathcal{C})$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{A} & =\left\{(x, y): \frac{2 x}{p-1}-y<0\right\} \cap\left\{(x, y):-K y+x^{p}+M y^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}<0\right\}=\left\{(x, y): x_{t}<0, y_{t}<0\right\} \\
\mathbf{B} & =\left\{(x, y): \frac{2 x}{p-1}-y>0\right\} \cap\left\{(x, y):-K y+x^{p}+M y^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}<0\right\}=\left\{(x, y): x_{t}>0, y_{t}<0\right\} \\
\mathbf{C} & =\left\{(x, y): \frac{2 x}{p-1}-y>0\right\} \cap\left\{(x, y):-K y+x^{p}+M y^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}>0\right\}=\left\{(x, y): x_{t}>0, y_{t}>0\right\} \\
\mathbf{D} & =\left\{(x, y): \frac{2 x}{p-1}-y<0\right\} \cap\left\{(x, y):-K y+x^{p}+M y^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}>0\right\} \cap\left\{(x, y): x>X_{2, M}\right\} \\
& =\left\{(x, y): x_{t}<0, y_{t}>0\right\} \cap\left\{(x, y): x>X_{2, M}\right\} . \\
\mathbf{E} & =\left\{(x, y): \frac{2 x}{p-1}-y<0\right\} \cap\left\{(x, y):-K y+x^{p}+M y^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}>0\right\} \cap\left\{(x, y): x<X_{1, M}\right\} \\
& =\left\{(x, y): x_{t}<0, y_{t}>0\right\} \cap\left\{(x, y): x<X_{1, M}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

These connected components are
$\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D}$ if $K \geq 0, M<0$ or $K, M>0$.
$\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D}$ if $K<0$ and $-\mu^{*}<M<0$.
$\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D}, \mathbf{E}$ if $K<0$ and $M=-\mu^{*}$.
$\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D}, \mathbf{E}$ if $K<0$ and $M<-\mu^{*}$.

### 2.1.3 Graphic representation of the vector field $H$

We present below some graphics of the vector field $H$ associated to system (1.17).


Figure 1: $M>0, K>0$.


Figure 2: $M<0, K \geq 0$.


Figure 3: $-\mu^{*}<M<0, K<0$.


Figure 4: $M=-\mu^{*}, K<0$.


Figure 5: $M<-\mu^{*}, K<0$.

### 2.1.4 Other reduction

The following change of unknowns, already used in [9] when $M=0$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sigma(t)=\frac{y(t)}{x(t)}=-r \frac{u_{r}(r)}{u(r)} \quad \text { and } \quad z(t)=\frac{|x|^{p-1} x(t)}{y(t)}=-r \frac{|u|^{p-1} u(r)}{u_{r}(r)}, \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

and valid if $u_{r} \neq 0$, transforms (1.17) into a Kolmogorov system with vector field $\mathbf{V}=\left(V_{1}, V_{2}\right)$

$$
\begin{align*}
& \sigma_{t}=\sigma\left(\sigma+2-N+z+\left.\left.M| | \sigma\right|^{p-1} \sigma z\right|^{\frac{1}{p+1}}\right)=V_{1}(\sigma ; z) \\
& z_{t}=z\left(N-p \sigma-z-\left.\left.M| | \sigma\right|^{p-1} \sigma z\right|^{\frac{1}{p+1}}\right)=V_{2}(\sigma ; z) . \tag{2.6}
\end{align*}
$$

Since $\sigma$ and $z$ are in factor the two axis $\{\sigma=0\}$ and $\{z=0\}$ are trajectories, actually not admissible for (2.2) in view of (2.5). The system is singular on these two axis however it can be desingularized in setting $\sigma=\tilde{\sigma}^{2 k+1}$ and $z=\tilde{z}^{2 k+1}$ for some integer $k>p+1$, which transforms (2.6) into a new nonsingular Kolmogorov system,

$$
\begin{align*}
& \tilde{\sigma}_{t}=\frac{1}{2 k+1} \tilde{\sigma}\left(\tilde{\sigma}^{2 k+1}+2-N+\tilde{z}^{2 k+1}+M\left|\left(|\tilde{\sigma}|^{p-1} \tilde{\sigma}\right)^{2 k+1} \tilde{z}^{2 k+1}\right|^{\frac{1}{p+1}}\right) \\
& \tilde{z}_{t}=\frac{1}{2 k+1} \tilde{z}\left(N-p \tilde{\sigma}^{2 k+1}-\tilde{z}^{2 k+1}-M\left|\left(|\tilde{\sigma}|^{p-1} \tilde{\sigma}\right)^{2 k+1} \tilde{z}^{2 k+1}\right|^{\frac{1}{p+1}}\right) \tag{2.7}
\end{align*}
$$

Therefore no other trajectory can intersect them in finite time and the quadrant $\mathcal{Q}:=\{(\sigma, z)$ : $\sigma>0, z>0\}$ is invariant. Furthermore $\sigma z=r^{2}|u|^{p-1}$. It is noticeable that if $M=0$ the initial system is quadratic and regular.

The system (2.6) will be used in the most delicate cases. It corresponds to the differentiation of the initial equation (2.1).

### 2.2 Regular solutions and ground states

Definition 2.1 A regular solution of (1.13) is a $C^{2}$ solution defined on some maximal interval $\left[0, r_{0}\right)$ satisfying $u(0)=u_{0}>0$ and $u_{r}(0)=0$. A ground state is a nonnegative $C^{2}$ solution defined on $[0, \infty)$.

The existence and uniqueness of a regular solution is standard by the Cauchy-Lipschitz integral method. If $u$ is a $C^{2}$ solution it satisfies $u_{r}<0$ on ( $0, r_{0}$ ). Indeed $r^{N-1} u_{r}(r)$ is decreasing near 0 , hence $u_{r}<0$ on some maximal interval $\left(0, r_{1}\right) \subset\left(0, r_{0}\right)$ and $u_{r}\left(r_{1}\right)=0$ if $r_{1}<r_{0}$. If $u\left(r_{1}\right)=0$ then $u \equiv 0$ by uniqueness. If $u\left(r_{1}\right)>0$ then $u_{r r}<0$ near $r_{1}$ which would imply that $u(r)<u\left(r_{1}\right)$ for $r_{1}-\epsilon \leq r<r_{1}$ which contradict the negativity of $u_{r}$ on $\left(0, r_{1}\right)$. Hence $u\left(r_{1}\right)<0$ which implies that $u_{r}(r)<0$ on the maximal interval $\left(0, r_{2}\right)$ where $u>0$. Thus, if $u$ is a ground state $u_{r}<0$ on $(0, \infty)$. Hence the trajectory of a ground state expressed in the system (1.17) lies in $\mathbf{Q}$ and expressed in the system (2.6) it lies in the quadrant $\mathcal{Q}$. It is easy to check that the regular solution $u:=u_{u_{0}}$, such that $u(0)=u_{0}$ satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
u(r)=u_{0}\left(1-\frac{u_{0}^{p-1} r^{2}}{2 N}-\frac{M(p+1)^{2}\left(u_{0}^{p-1} r^{2}\right)^{\frac{2 p+1}{p+1}}}{(4 p+2)((N+2) p+N) N^{q}}(1+o(1))\right) \quad \text { as } r \rightarrow 0 \tag{2.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Under the scaling transformation $T_{k}, u$ can be transformed into the regular solution (1.13) $u:=u_{1}$ satisfying $u(0)=1$. If one considers the system (1.17) the transformation $T_{k}$ becomes the time shift which transforms $t \mapsto(x(t), y(t))$ into $t \mapsto(x(t+\ln k), y(t+\ln k))$, and the
trajectory $(x(t), y(t))$ of (1.17) corresponding to a ground state is therefore uniquely determined and denoted by $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ and satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty}(x(t), y(t))=(0,0), \lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{y(t)}{x(t)}=0 \quad \text { and } \lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{y(t)}{x^{p}(t)}=\frac{1}{N} \tag{2.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence in the system (2.5) there holds on the corresponding trajectory

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} \sigma(t)=0, \lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} z(t)=N . \tag{2.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 2.3 Explicit singular solutions

Explicit self-similar solutions of (1.13), necessarily under the form $u=A r^{-\frac{2}{p-1}}$, play a fundamental role in the study, whenever they exist. The following result covers Proposition 1.

Proposition 2.2 1 - Let $M \geq 0$. Then there exists a unique self-similar solution of (1.13) if and only if $N \geq 3$ and $p>\frac{N}{N-2}$. We denote it by $U_{M}(r)=X_{M} r^{-\frac{2}{p-1}}$, where $X_{M}>0$ depends also on $M, N$ and $p$. To this solution is associated the equilibrium $\left(X_{M}, \frac{2}{p-1} X_{M}\right)$ of the system (1.17).
Furthermore the mappings $M \mapsto X_{M}$ is continuous and decreasing on $[0, \infty), M \mapsto M X_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}$ is increasing and there holds
(i) $\quad X_{0}=\left(\frac{2 K}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{1}{p-1}}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{p-1}{2}\left(\frac{K}{M}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}\left(1-\frac{1}{M}\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)^{p}\left(\frac{K}{M}\right)^{p}\right)_{+}^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}} \leq X_{M} \leq \frac{p-1}{2}\left(\frac{K}{M}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}} \tag{ii}
\end{equation*}
$$

2- Let $M<0$. If $N \geq 3$ and $p \geq \frac{N}{N-2}$ there exists a unique self-similar solution of (1.13) $U_{M}(r)$. The mapping $M \mapsto X_{M}$ is continuous and decreasing, $M \mapsto M X_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}$ is decreasing and there holds

$$
\begin{align*}
\max \left\{\left(\frac{2 K}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{1}{p-1}},\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{2}{p-1}}|M|^{\frac{p+1}{p(p-1)}}\right\} & \leq X_{M} \\
& \leq 2^{\frac{2}{p-1}}\left(\left(\frac{2 K}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{1}{p-1}}+\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{2}{p-1}}|M|^{\frac{p+1}{p(p-1)}}\right) . \tag{2.12}
\end{align*}
$$

3- Let $M<0$. If $N=1,2$ and $p>1$, or $N \geq 3$ and $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$, there exists no self-similar solution of (1.13) if $-\mu^{*}<M<0$ where $\mu^{*}=\mu^{*}(N)>0$ is defined in (1.20). If $M=-\mu^{*}$ there exists a unique self-similar solution $U_{-\mu^{*}}(r)$. If $M<-\mu^{*}<0$ there exist two-self-similar solutions $U_{1, M}(r)=X_{1, M} r^{-\frac{2}{p-1}}$ and $U_{2, M}(r)=X_{2, M} r^{-\frac{2}{p-1}}$ with $X_{1, M}<X_{2, M}$. Furthermore the mappings $M \mapsto X_{1, M}$ and $M \mapsto X_{2, M}$ are continuous, respectively increasing and decreasing on
$\left(-\infty,-\mu^{*}\right)$, while $M \mapsto M X_{1, M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}$ and $M \mapsto M X_{2, M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}$ are respectively decreasing and increasing. Furthermore there holds for $|M|$ large enough;
(ii) $\quad \frac{p-1}{2}\left(\frac{K}{M}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}<X_{1, M}<\frac{p-1}{2}\left(\frac{K}{M}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}\left(1-\frac{2}{K}\left(\frac{(p-1) K}{2 M}\right)^{p+1}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}$,
(iii) $\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{2}{p-1}}(-M)^{\frac{p+1}{p(p-1)}}\left(1-\frac{K}{M|M|^{\frac{1}{p}}}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}<X_{2, M}<\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{2}{p-1}}(-M)^{\frac{p+1}{p(p-1)}}$.

Proof. The function $U_{M}=X_{M} r^{-\frac{2}{p-1}}$ is a self-similar solution of (1.13) if and only if $X_{M}$ is a positive root of

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tilde{f}_{M}(x):=x^{p-1}+\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}} M x^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}-\frac{2 K}{p-1}=0 \tag{2.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equivalently $P_{M}=\left(X_{M}, Y_{M}\right)=\left(\frac{p-1}{2} Y_{M}, Y_{M}\right)$ is a fixed point of system (1.17), where $Y_{M}$ is the positive root of

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{M}(y)=\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)^{p} y^{p-1}+M y^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}-K=0 . \tag{2.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

The use of the variable $y$ is a little easer than $x$. Since $X_{0}$ is explicit if $M=0$, we shall study the cases $M \neq 0$.
1- Case $M>0$. If $K>0$, equivalently $p>\frac{N}{N-2}$, and $M \geq 0, f_{M}$ is an increasing function tending to $\infty$ at $\infty$ and negative at $y=0$. Hence $Y_{M}$ is the unique positive root of (2.15). If $K<0, f_{M}$ is positive on $[0, \infty)$, hence no such solution exists. Since

$$
\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)^{p} Y_{M}^{p-1}+M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}-K=0
$$

by the implicit function theorem, $M \mapsto Y_{M}$ is $C^{1}$. For $M>M^{\prime}>0, f_{M}(y)>f_{M^{\prime}}(y)$ for all $y>0$. Hence $M \mapsto Y_{M}$ is decreasing on $[0, \infty)$. Actually the expression of $f_{M}$ shows more, namely that $M \mapsto M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}$ is increasing on $[0, \infty)$. Furthermore

$$
M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}<K \Longrightarrow Y_{M}<\left(\frac{K}{M}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)^{p}\left(\frac{K}{M}\right)^{p+1}+M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}> & K \\
& \Longrightarrow Y_{M}>\left(\frac{K}{M}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}\left(1-\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)^{p} \frac{1}{M}\left(\frac{K}{M}\right)^{p}\right)_{+}^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}
\end{aligned}
$$

and we get (2.11).
2- Case $M<0$. Clearly $f_{M}$ has a minimum at $y=y_{0, M}$ where

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{0, M}=\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\left(\frac{-M}{p+1}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}} \text { and } f_{M}\left(y_{0, M}\right)=-\frac{2 p}{p-1}\left(\frac{-M}{p+1}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p}}-K \tag{2.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

2-(i) If $N \geq 3$ and $p \geq \frac{N}{N-2}$, then $f_{M}(0)<0, f_{M}$ is decreasing on ( $0, y_{0, M}$ ) and increasing on $\left(y_{0, M}, \infty\right)$, hence $f_{M}(y)=0$ has a unique positive root $Y_{M}>y_{0, M}$. Since for $M<M^{\prime}<0$ and $y>0, f_{M^{\prime}}(y)>f_{M}(y)$, the mapping $M \mapsto Y_{M}$ is continuous and decreasing and $M \mapsto M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}$ is increasing.
Then the left-hand side of (2.12) is clear. Next we put

$$
A^{p}=\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}|M|, B^{p+1}=\frac{2 K}{p-1}, \xi=X^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}, a=\frac{B}{A} \text { and } \eta=\frac{\xi}{A} .
$$

Then $\phi(\eta)=\eta^{p+1}-\eta-a^{p+1}=0$. Since

$$
\begin{aligned}
\phi(1+a) & =(1+a)^{p+1}-1-a-a^{p+1} \geq(1+a)^{p+1}-1-a-a^{p}-a^{p+1} \\
& \geq(1+a)\left((1+a)^{p}-\left(1+a^{p}\right)\right) \geq 0
\end{aligned}
$$

we derive $\eta \leq 1+a$, which implies the right-hand side of (2.12).
2-(ii) If $N=1,2$ or $N \geq 3$ and $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$, then $K<0$. Hence, if $f_{M}\left(y_{0, M}\right)>0$, or equivalently $-\mu^{*}<M \leq 0$, the equation $f_{M}(y)=0$ has no positive root, if $M=-\mu^{*}$, it has a double root $Y_{-\mu^{*}}$ where

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y_{-\mu^{*}}=\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{p}{p-1}}\left(\frac{-K}{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p-1}} \Longrightarrow \mu^{*} Y_{-\mu^{*}}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}=-\frac{p+1}{p} K \tag{2.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

and if $M<-\mu^{*}$ the equation (2.15) has two positive roots $0<Y_{1, M}<Y_{2, M}$ and since $f_{M}^{\prime}$ does not vanish at $Y_{j, M}$, they are $C^{1}$ functions of $M \in\left(-\infty, M^{*}\right)$, respectively increasing and decreasing. Since $M, K<0$, we obtain from $f_{M}\left(Y_{M}\right)=0$,

$$
Y_{1, M}>\left(\frac{K}{M}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}
$$

and

$$
\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)^{p} Y_{2, M}^{p-1}<-M Y_{2, M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} \Longrightarrow Y_{2, M}<\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}(-M)^{\frac{p+1}{p(p-1)}}
$$

For a sharper estimate, we have for $M$ large enough,

$$
\tilde{Y}=\left(\frac{K}{M}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}\left(1-\frac{2}{K}\left(\frac{(p-1) K}{2 M}\right)^{p+1}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}} \Longrightarrow f_{M}(\tilde{Y})<0
$$

Hence

$$
\left(\frac{K}{M}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}<Y_{1, M}<\left(\frac{K}{M}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}\left(1-\frac{2}{K}\left(\frac{(p-1) K}{2 M}\right)^{p+1}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}} .
$$

Similarly

$$
\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}(-M)^{\frac{p+1}{p(p-1)}}\left(1-\frac{K}{M|M|^{\frac{1}{p}}}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}<Y_{2, M}<\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}(-M)^{\frac{p+1}{p(p-1)}} .
$$

The estimates (2.13) follow.

### 2.3.1 Upper estimate of the regular solutions

We first recall the following estimate in the case $M \geq 0$, consequence of the fact that the positive solutions of (1.1) are superharmonic and proved in a more general setting in [7, Prop. 2.1].

Proposition 2.3 1- There exists no positive solution of (1.13) in $(R, \infty), R \geq 0$ if $M \geq 0$ and either $N=1,2$ and $p>1$ or $N \geq 3$ and $1<p \leq \frac{N}{N-2}$. In particular there exists no ground state.
2- If $N \geq 3, p>\frac{N}{N-2}, M \geq 0$ and $u$ is a positive solution of (1.13) in $(R, \infty), R \geq 0$. Then there exists $\rho \geq R$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
u(r) \leq \min \left\{\left(\frac{2 N}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{1}{p-1}}, \frac{p-1}{2}\left(\frac{p(N-2)-N}{(p-1) M}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}\right\} r^{-\frac{2}{p-1}}, \quad \text { for all } r>\rho, \tag{2.18}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|u_{r}(r)\right| \leq \min \left\{(N-2)\left(\frac{2 N}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{1}{p-1}},\left(\frac{p(N-2)-N}{(p-1) M}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}\right\} r^{-\frac{p+1}{p-1}} \quad \text { for all } r>\rho \tag{2.19}
\end{equation*}
$$

Furthermore, if $R=0$, inequalities (2.18), and (2.19) hold with $\rho=0$.
The next estimate is verified by any ground state, independently of the sign of $M$.
Proposition 2.4 Let $p>1$ and $N \geq 1$. Then the ground state $u$ of (1.13) with $u(0)=1$ satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
u(r) \leq \min \left\{1, c_{N, p, M} r^{-\frac{2}{p-1}}\right\} \quad \text { and } \quad\left|u_{r}(r)\right| \leq c_{N, p, M} r^{-\frac{p+1}{p-1}} \quad \forall r>0 \tag{2.20}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. The trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ starts from $(0,0)$ and enters the region $\mathbf{C}$. If it stays in $\mathbf{C}$, then $x$ is increasing on $\mathbb{R}$. Since $y<\frac{2 x}{p-1}$, if $x(t)$ tends to some finite limit as $t \rightarrow \infty$, it implies that the limit set of the trajectory exists. It cannot be a cycle since $x$ is monotone, thus it is one of the equilibrium of the system. Hence $x(t) \leq X_{j, M}$ for $j=1$ or 2 if $K<0$ and $M<-\mu^{*}$ or $x(t) \leq X_{M}$ if $K \geq 0$ and either $M>0$ or $-\mu^{*} \leq M \leq 0$. This implies that (2.20) holds. If $x(t)$ tends to $\infty$, so $y$ does because $y(t) \geq x^{p}(t)-\frac{2|K|}{p-1} x(t)-|M|\left(\frac{2 x(t)}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}} \rightarrow \infty$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$.

Therefore $y_{t} \geq C y^{p}$ for some $C>0$ which would imply that $t \mapsto y^{1-p}(t)+C(p-1) t$ is increasing, which is impossible.

Next we suppose that the trajectory leaves $\mathbf{C}$ by crossing the line $\mathcal{L}$. Since it cannot enters $\mathbf{B}$ through $\mathcal{C}$ (in the case $K<0, M \leq-\mu^{*}$ ), it leaves $\mathbf{C}$ by intersecting $\mathcal{L}$ and we denote by $t_{1}$ the first time where $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ intersects $\mathcal{L}$. Then $x_{t}\left(t_{1}\right)=0$ and $x_{t t}\left(t_{1}\right)=-y_{t}\left(t_{1}\right)<$ 0 . Therefore $t_{1}$ is a local maximum. Now the trajectory cannot cross again the half line $\left\{(x, y): x=x\left(t_{1}\right), y>\frac{2 x\left(t_{1}\right)}{p-1}\right\}$ because on it there holds $x_{t}=\frac{2 x\left(t_{1}\right)}{p-1}-y<0$. Hence $x(t) \leq x\left(t_{1}\right)$ for any $t \geq t_{1}$.

In the same way, either $y$ is increasing on $\mathbb{R}$ and since $x_{t}=\frac{2}{p-1} x-y$ and $x$ is bounded, $y$ cannot tend to infinity when $t \rightarrow \infty$, thus $y(t) \rightarrow y_{0}>0$, or $y$ is not monotone and $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ crosses $\mathcal{C}$ at a first value $t_{2}$, necessarily larger than $t_{1}$ and where $x_{t}\left(t_{2}\right)<0$. Then $y_{t t}\left(t_{2}\right)=p\left|x\left(t_{2}\right)\right|^{p-1} x_{t}\left(t_{2}\right)<$ 0 and $t_{2}$ is a local maximum of $y$. Therefore $\cup_{t \geq t_{2}}(x(t), y(t))$ remains in the subset of $\mathbf{Q}$ bordered by the portion of trajectory of $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ for $t \leq t_{2}$ and $\left\{(x, y): 0<x \leq x\left(t_{2}\right), y=y\left(t_{2}\right)\right\}$. This implies that $y(t) \leq y\left(t_{2}\right)$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$. Noticing that $u(r) \leq 1$ since $u$ is decreasing, we get the conclusion.

Remark. The above method does not give an explicit estimate of the upper bounds of $x$ and $y$ and such a bound can be estimated in some cases. If $M \geq 0$ it follows from Proposition 2.3 that for any $p>1$ there holds

$$
u(r) \leq\left(\frac{2 N}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{1}{p-1}} r^{-\frac{2}{p-1}}
$$

thus this estimate is independent of $M$. If $-\mu^{*}(2)<M<0$, it is easy to check that the function $v=\ln u$ satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\Delta v \geq a e^{(p-1) v} \tag{2.21}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $a=1-\left(\frac{|M|}{\mu^{*}(2)}\right)^{p+1}>0$. We derive that the function $w(r)=-\left(r^{N-1} v_{r}(r)\right)$ is increasing, with limit $\ell \in(0, \infty]$. Hence

$$
e^{(1-p) v(r)} \geq e^{(1-p) v(0)}+\frac{a(p-1) r^{2}}{4 N}
$$

This implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
u(r) \leq \min \left\{1, c_{0} a^{-\frac{1}{p-1}} r^{-\frac{2}{p-1}}\right\} . \tag{2.22}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 2.4 Linearization of the system (1.17) near equilibria

### 2.4.1 Linearization at $(0,0)$

The linearized system at $(0,0)$ is

$$
\left\{\begin{align*}
x_{t} & =\frac{2 x}{p-1}-y  \tag{2.23}\\
y_{t} & =-K y
\end{align*}\right.
$$

which admits the eigenvalues

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{1}=-K \quad \lambda_{2}=\frac{2}{p-1} . \tag{2.24}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that $\lambda_{2}-\lambda_{1}=N-2$.
(a) Assume that $N \geq 3$ and $p>\frac{N}{N-2}$, equivalently $K>0$, Then $(0,0)$ is a saddle point. There exists a unique unstable trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty}(x(t), y(t))=(0,0) \quad \text { and } \quad \lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty} \frac{y(t)}{x(t)}=0 \tag{2.25}
\end{equation*}
$$

and more precisely, from (2.8),

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x(t)=e^{\frac{2 t}{p-1}}\left(1-\frac{e^{2 t}}{2 N}-\frac{M(p+1)^{2} e^{\frac{4 p+2}{p+1} t}}{2(N(p+1)+2 p)(2 p+1)}(1+o(1))\right)  \tag{2.26}\\
y(t)=e^{\frac{2 p t}{p-1}}\left(\frac{1}{N}+\frac{M(p+1)}{N(p+1)+2 p} e^{\frac{(p-1) t}{p+1}}(1+o(1))\right) \quad \text { as } t \rightarrow-\infty
\end{array}\right.
$$

From Definition 2.2 and the lines which follow, the unstable trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}$ coincides with the regular trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$. This is included in the region $\mathbf{C}$ for $t<T_{0}$ for some $-\infty<T_{0} \leq \infty$. There exists also a unique stable trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{s t}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty}(x(t), y(t))=(0,0) \quad \text { and } \quad \lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty} \frac{y(t)}{x(t)}=\frac{2}{p-1}+K=N-2 \tag{2.27}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $N-2>\frac{2}{p-1}, \mathbf{T}_{s t}$ belongs to the region $\mathbf{A}$ for $t>T_{1}$ for some $T_{1}<\infty$.
Remark. If $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }} \subset \mathbf{Q}$ satisfies $\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty}(x(t), y(t))=(0,0)$, then $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}=\mathbf{T}_{\text {st }}$ and the corresponding solution is a ground state. The same conclusion holds, if $\mathbf{T}_{s t} \subset \mathbf{Q}$ satisfies $\lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty}(x(t), y(t))=$ $(0,0)$. Such a solution is called a homoclinic orbit at $(0,0)$. Because of the uniqueness of the stable and unstable trajectories of a saddle point, it is unique in the class of solutions satisfying (2.27). Equivalently the class of ground states $u$ of (1.13) satisfying $u(r) \sim c r^{2-N}$ for some $c>0$ is then a one parameter family characterized by $u(0)=u_{0}$.
(b) Assume that $N \geq 3$ and $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$. Then $K<0$ and $0<\lambda_{1}<\lambda_{2}$. Hence $(0,0)$ is a source and all the trajectories of (1.17) in some neighbourhood of $(0,0)$ converge to $(0,0)$ when $t \rightarrow-\infty$. Among those trajectories there exists one fast trajectory which satisfies

$$
\lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty} \frac{y(t)}{x(t)}=0
$$

It is actually the regular trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$. There exist also infinitely many slow trajectories which satisfy

$$
\lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty} \frac{y(t)}{x(t)}=N-2
$$

(c) If $p=\frac{N}{N-2}$, then $K=0$ and $\lambda_{1}=0<\lambda_{2}=N-2$. We still find the regular trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ associated to $\lambda_{2}$ and the corresponding eigenvector (1,0). By the central manifold theorem
corresponding to $\lambda_{1}$ there exists an invariant curve passing through $(0,0)$ with slope $N-2$. Using the matched asymptotic expansion method, one finds that if $M<0$ there exists a solution $x$ of (2.1) such that $x(t) \sim C_{N}|M|^{-\frac{1}{N-1}} t^{1-N}$ when $t \rightarrow \infty$, i.e. $\left.u(r) \sim C_{N}|M|^{-\frac{1}{N-1}} r^{2-N}(\ln r)\right)^{1-N}$ when $r \rightarrow \infty$, and if $M>0$ there exists a solution $x$ of $(2.1)$ such that $x(t) \sim C_{N} M^{-\frac{1}{N-1}}(-t)^{1-N}$ when $t \rightarrow-\infty$, equivalently $u(r) \sim C_{N}|M|^{-\frac{1}{N-1}} r^{2-N}\left(\ln \left(\frac{1}{r}\right)\right)^{1-N}$ when $r \rightarrow 0$.
(d) If $N=2,(0,0)$ is a source with $\lambda_{1}=\lambda_{2}=\frac{2}{p-1}$, with corresponding eigenspace $(1,0)$. The linearized problem is equivalent to equation

$$
x_{t t}-\frac{4}{q-1} x_{t}+\frac{4}{(q-1)^{2}} x=0
$$

with general solutions $x(t)=a e^{\frac{2 t}{q-1}}+b t e^{\frac{2 t}{q-1}}$ for some real parameters $a, b$. Hence there exists infinitely trajectories of (2.1) tending to 0 when $t \rightarrow-\infty$ and they are tangent to ( 1,0 ) at $(0,0)$. The regular trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ corresponds to $b=0$ and the other trajectories correspond to singular solutions $u$ of (1.1). They satisfy $u(r) \sim b \ln r$ as $r \rightarrow 0$ and there holds

$$
-\Delta u=u^{p}+M|\nabla u|^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}-2 \pi b \delta_{0},
$$

in the sense of distributions in $B_{\epsilon}$ for some $\epsilon>0$.
Next we give a general result in case the system admits only one equilibrium in $\mathbf{Q}$.
Lemma 2.5 Let $N \geq 3, p>\frac{N}{N-2}$ and $M \in \mathbb{R}$. If $u$ is a regular solution the following tetrachotomy occurs:
(i) either $\lim _{r \rightarrow \infty} r^{N-2} u(r)=c$ for some $c>0$,
(ii) or $u(r) \sim U_{M}(r)$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$,
(iii) or $u(r)$ has an $\omega$-limit cycle surrounding $P_{M}$,
(iv) or $u(r)$ changes sign for some $r>0$.

Proof. By assumption $P_{M}$ is the unique equilibrium. The trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ starts from $(0,0)$ and remains in the region $\mathbf{C}$ where $x_{t}, y_{t}>0$ for $t \leq t_{0} \leq \infty$. If $t_{0}=\infty, u$ is a ground state, hence it is bounded from Proposition 2.4. Its $\omega$-limit set is non-empty. Because $x$ and $y$ are monotone, it converges when $t \rightarrow \infty$ to some point which is necessarily $P_{M}$. If $t_{0}<\infty$, then at $t=t_{0}$ the trajectory leaves $\mathbf{C}$ through $\mathcal{L}$ since it cannot enter in $\mathbf{B}$, and it enters the region $\mathbf{D}$ where $x_{t}<0, y_{t}>0$. Moreover $x_{t}\left(t_{0}\right)=0$ and $x\left(t_{0}\right)>X_{M}$. Then three possibilities occur:
$(\alpha)$ either $x(t) \rightarrow X_{M}$ monotonicaly when $t \rightarrow \infty$; thus the trajectory converges to $P_{M}$.
$(\beta)$ either $x(t) \rightarrow 0$ monotonicaly when $t \rightarrow \infty$. Since $(0,0)$ is a saddle point, then $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}=\mathbf{T}_{s t}$. This implies that $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ is a homoclinic trajectory at $(0,0)$.
$(\gamma)$ or there exists $t_{1}>t_{0}$ such that $x_{t}\left(t_{1}\right)=0$. Then $x\left(t_{1}\right)<X_{M}$. Hence $\mathbf{T}_{r e g}$ enters the region $\mathbf{B}$ and by continuity there exists $t^{\prime}<t_{0}$ such that $x\left(t^{\prime}\right)=x\left(t_{1}\right)$ and $y\left(t^{\prime}\right)<y\left(t_{1}\right)$. Therefore the bounded region of $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ bordered by the segment $I=\left\{(x, y): x=x\left(t_{1}\right), y\left(t^{\prime}\right)<y<y\left(t_{1}\right)\right\}$ and the portion of $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ defined by $\left\{(x(t), y(t)) \in \mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}: t^{\prime} \leq t \leq t_{1}\right\}$ is positively invariant (notice that $x_{t}>0$ on $I$ ) and it contains $P_{M}$ and no other equilibrium. Therefore either the trajectory converges to $P_{M}$ or it admits an $\omega$-limit cycle which is a closed orbit surrounding $P_{M}$.

### 2.4.2 Linearization at a fixed point $P_{M}:=\left(X_{M}, Y_{M}\right)$

Suppose that $P_{M}$ (or $P_{j, M}$ ) exists. Then setting $(x, y)=\left(X_{M}, Y_{M}\right)+(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$, the linearized system at this point is

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\bar{x}_{t}=\frac{2 \bar{x}}{p-1}-\bar{y}  \tag{2.28}\\
\bar{y}_{t}=p X_{M}^{p-1} \bar{x}+\left(\frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}-K\right) \bar{y}
\end{array}\right.
$$

The eigenvalues of its matrix are the roots of

$$
\begin{equation*}
T(\lambda)=\lambda^{2}-\left(\frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}-L\right) \lambda+2 K-\frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} \tag{2.29}
\end{equation*}
$$

using equation (2.15). If $M$ is such that $\frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}=L$, then $2 K-\frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}=2 K-L=$ $K+\frac{2}{p-1}=N-2$, and we denote by $\bar{M}$ such a value of $M$ which is characterized by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{2 p}{p+1} \bar{M} Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}=L \tag{2.30}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $Y_{M}$ is a positive root of (2.15), we get

$$
\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\right)^{p} Y_{M}^{p-1}=A:=K-\frac{p+1}{2 p} L=\frac{(N-2)(p-1)^{2}+4}{2 p(p-1)}
$$

hence $\bar{M}$, well defined for $N \geq 2$, is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{M}=\frac{(p+1) L}{2 p}\left(\frac{1}{A}\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)^{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p+1}}=\frac{(p+1)((N-2) p-N-2)}{(4 p)^{\frac{p}{p+1}}\left((N-2)(p-1)^{2}+4\right)^{\frac{1}{p+1}}} \tag{2.31}
\end{equation*}
$$

That is (1.21).
Remark. We see that $\bar{M}>0$ (resp. $\bar{M}<0$ ) if and only if $N \geq 3$ and $p>\frac{N+2}{N-2}$ (resp. $1<p<\frac{N+2}{N-2}$ if $N \geq 3$ and any $p>1$ if $N=2$ ). If $M=\bar{M}$ and $N \geq 3$, the eigenvalues of the linearized system are purely imaginary. If $p=\frac{N+2}{N-2}$, then $\bar{M}=0$. It is known that in that case the point $P_{0}=\left(\left(\frac{N-2}{2}\right)^{\frac{N-2}{2}},\left(\frac{N-2}{2}\right)^{\frac{N}{2}}\right)$ is a center for the system (1.17) associated to $-\Delta u=u^{\frac{N+2}{N-2}}$ and that there exist infinitely many cycles turning around $P_{0}$ with equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{2} y^{2}+\frac{N-2}{2 N} x^{\frac{2 N}{N-2}}-\frac{N-2}{2} x y=E . \tag{2.32}
\end{equation*}
$$

It can be verified that $E<0$, in particular using the function $F$ defined in (2.35). For $N \geq 2$ and $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$, there always holds $\bar{M} \leq-\mu^{*}$ and more precisely

Lemma 2.6 If $N \geq 3$ and $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$, then $\bar{M}<-\mu^{*}$. If $N=2$ and $p>1$, then $\bar{M}=-\mu^{*}$.

Proof. From Proposition 2.2 and identities (2.17) and (2.29), there holds,

$$
\mu^{*}<\bar{\mu} \Longleftrightarrow \mu^{*} Y_{-\mu^{*}}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}<\bar{\mu} Y^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} \Longleftrightarrow 2|K|<|L| .
$$

But $|L|-2|K|=\frac{N-2}{p-1}$ and the conclusion follows. If $N=2$ we just replace $<$ by $=$ in the above series of equivalences.

Lemma 2.7 Assume $N \geq 3$. If $p>\frac{N+2}{N-2}$ and $M=\bar{M}>0$ then $P_{M}$ is a weak sink and a Andronov-Hopf bifurcation point. If $p<\frac{N+2}{N-2}$ and $M=\bar{M}<0$ then $P_{M}$ is a weak source.

Proof. We recall that a weak sink is an asymptotically stable equilibrium which attracts the nearby points as $t \rightarrow \infty$ at a rate slower than the usual exponential rate. A weak source is a weak sink of the system obtained by changing $t$ into $-t$ (see [17, Chap. 9]). We write $\bar{x}=x-X_{M}$, $\bar{y}=y-Y_{M}$ and obtain the new nonlinear system

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\bar{x}_{t}=\frac{2 \bar{x}}{p-1}-\bar{y}  \tag{2.33}\\
\bar{y}_{t}=p X_{\bar{M}}^{p-1} \bar{x}+\frac{2 p}{p+1} \bar{M} Y_{\bar{M}}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} \bar{y}-K \bar{y}+h(\bar{x}, \bar{y}),
\end{array}\right.
$$

where

$$
h(\bar{x}, \bar{y})=c_{1} \bar{x}^{2}+c_{2} \bar{y}^{2}+c_{3} \bar{x}^{3}+c_{4} \bar{y}^{3}+\ldots
$$

with

$$
\begin{aligned}
& c_{1}=\frac{p(p-1)}{2} X_{\bar{M}}^{p-2}, c_{2}=\frac{p(p-1)}{(p+1)^{2}} \bar{M} Y_{\bar{M}}^{-\frac{2}{p+1}} \\
& c_{3}=\frac{p(p-1)(p-2)}{6} X_{\bar{M}}^{p-3}, c_{4}=-\frac{2 p(p-1)}{3(p+1)^{3}} \bar{M} Y_{\bar{M}}^{-\frac{p+3}{p+1}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Setting $\alpha^{2}=\frac{4}{(p-1)^{2}}+N-2$, we have $p X_{\bar{M}}^{p-1}=\alpha^{2}$, since $X_{\bar{M}}=\frac{p-1}{2} Y_{\bar{M}}$ and $\bar{M}$ satisfies (2.30), thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
c_{1}=\frac{\alpha^{2}}{Y_{\bar{M}}}, \quad c_{2}=\frac{(p-1) L}{2(p+1) Y_{\bar{M}}}, \quad c_{3}=-\frac{(p-1) L}{3(p+1)^{2} Y_{\bar{M}}^{2}} . \tag{2.34}
\end{equation*}
$$

In order to compute the Lyapunov coefficients we transform the system by setting

$$
\gamma=\sqrt{N-2}, s=\gamma t, \gamma w=\frac{2 \bar{x}}{p-1}-\bar{y} .
$$

The new system is

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\bar{x}_{s}=w \\
w_{s}=-\bar{x}-\frac{1}{\gamma^{2}} h\left(\bar{x}, \frac{2 \bar{x}}{p-1}-\gamma w\right) .
\end{array}\right.
$$

By integrating the first line and using the expansion of $h$, we obtain

$$
w_{s}=-\bar{x}-\frac{1}{\gamma^{2}}\left[c_{1} \bar{x}^{2}+c_{2}\left(\frac{2 \bar{x}}{p-1}-\gamma w\right)^{2}+c_{3} \bar{x}^{3}+c_{4}\left(\frac{2 \bar{x}}{p-1}-\gamma w\right)^{3}+\ldots\right.
$$

This can be written in the following way

$$
w_{s}=-\bar{x}+\nu_{2,0} \bar{x}^{2}+\nu_{1,1} \bar{x} w+\nu_{0,2} w^{2}+\nu_{3,0} \bar{x}^{3}+\nu_{2,1} \bar{x}^{2} w+\nu_{1,2} \bar{x} w^{2}+\nu_{0,3} w^{3}+\ldots
$$

By [17, Th. 9.2.3], the Lyapunov coefficient is given by $\Lambda=\nu_{2,0}+3 \nu_{0,3}+\nu_{1,1}\left(\nu_{2,0}+\nu_{0,2}\right)$ which yields by computation

$$
\gamma \Lambda=\alpha^{2}\left(3 c_{4}-\frac{4 c_{2}}{p-1}\left(c_{2} \alpha+c_{1}\right)\right)=-\alpha^{2} \frac{(p-1)(N+1)}{(p+1)^{2} Y \frac{2}{M}} L
$$

If $L>0($ resp. $L<0) P_{\bar{M}}$ is a weak sink (resp. a weak source).

### 2.4.3 Energy and Lyapunov functionals for system (1.17)

If $x(t)$ is a solution of (2.1) we set

$$
\begin{equation*}
F(t):=\frac{x_{t}^{2}}{2}+\frac{|x|^{p+1}}{p+1}-\frac{K x^{2}}{p-1} \tag{2.35}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, if $(x(t), y(t)) \in \mathbf{Q}$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
F_{t}(t) & =-L x_{t}^{2}-M\left(\frac{2 x}{p-1}-x_{t}\right)^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}} x_{t}=-\left(L x_{t}+M y^{q}\right) x_{t} \\
& =-\left(L\left(\frac{2 x}{p-1}-y\right)+M y^{q}\right)\left(\frac{2 x}{p-1}-y\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, if $L M>0, F$ is monotone in the region $\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbf{Q}: \frac{2}{p-1} x-y>0\right\}$, located under $\mathcal{L}$.
Remark. a) This function was introduced classically in the case $M=0$, leading in particular to (2.32) when $p=\frac{N+2}{N-2}$.
b) With this function we can deduce an upper estimate of regular solution, completing, Proposition 2.3 and Proposition 2.4, namely if $M>0$ and $p \geq \frac{N+2}{N-2}$ any ground state satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
u(r) \leq\left(\frac{p+1}{p-1} K\right)^{\frac{1}{p-1}} r^{-\frac{2}{p-1}} \quad \text { for all } r>0 \tag{2.36}
\end{equation*}
$$

Next we construct a Lyapunov functional adapting the method initiated by [2] and already used in [3] and [4].
Lemma 2.8 We define on $\mathbb{R}^{2}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{J}(x, y)=\frac{K x^{2}}{p-1}-\frac{|x|^{p+1}}{p+1}-M\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}} \frac{(p+1)|x|^{\frac{3 p+1}{p+1}}}{3 p+1}-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{2 x}{p-1}-y\right)^{2} \tag{2.37}
\end{equation*}
$$

and, if $(x(t), y(t))$ is a solution of $(2.38), \mathcal{V}(t)=\mathcal{J}(x(t), y(t))$. If $(x(t), y(t))=(x, y) \in \mathbf{Q}$ we have

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{V}_{t}(t) & =\left(\frac{2 x}{p-1}-y\right)\left[L\left(\frac{2 x}{p-1}-y\right)-M\left(\left(\frac{2 x}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}-y^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}\right)\right]  \tag{2.38}\\
& =L\left(\frac{2 x}{p-1}-y\right)^{2}-M\left(\left(\frac{2 x}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}-y^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}\right)\left(\frac{2 x}{p-1}-y\right)
\end{align*}
$$

Consequently, the function $t \mapsto \mathcal{V}(t)$ is decreasing if $M>0$ and $1<p \leq \frac{N+2}{N-2}$, and increasing if $M<0$ and $p \geq \frac{N+2}{N-2}$.
Proof. We recall the ansatz introduced in [2] for finding a Lyapunov function for a system of the form

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x_{t}=f(x, y)  \tag{2.39}\\
y_{t}=g(x, y)
\end{array}\right.
$$

If $f(x, y)=0 \Longleftrightarrow y=h(x)$, then consider the function

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{L}(x, y)=\int_{h(x)}^{y} f(x, t) d t-\int_{0}^{x} g(t, h(t)) d t \tag{2.40}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the case of system (1.17), $h(x)=\frac{2 x}{p-1}$, and we find $\mathbf{L}(x, y)=\mathcal{J}(x, y)$. Then (2.38) and the conclusion follow.

Remark. If $L M>0$ we set

$$
\mathcal{H}=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbf{Q}: \frac{\left(\frac{2 x}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}-y^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}}{\frac{2 x}{p-1}-y}=\frac{L}{M}, \text { or } \frac{2 x}{p-1}=y=\left(\frac{L}{M q}\right)^{\frac{1}{q-1}}\right\}
$$

Then

$$
\mathcal{V}_{t}(t)=0 \Longleftrightarrow(x(t), y(t)) \in \mathcal{H} \bigcup\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbf{Q}: \frac{2 x}{p-1}=y\right\}
$$

Moreover $\mathcal{H}$ is starshapped with respect to 0 and we set

$$
\mathcal{R}:=\bigcup_{0 \leq \theta \leq 1} \theta \mathcal{H}=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbf{Q}: \frac{\left(\frac{2 x}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}-y^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}}{\frac{2 x}{p-1}-y} \leq \frac{L}{M}, \text { or } \frac{2 x}{p-1}=y \leq\left(\frac{L}{M q}\right)^{\frac{1}{q-1}}\right\}
$$

If $M>0$ we have $\mathcal{V}_{t}(t) \geq 0$ if $(x(t), y(t)) \in \mathcal{R}$ and $\mathcal{V}_{t}(t) \leq 0$ if $(x(t), y(t)) \in \mathcal{R}^{c} \cap \mathbf{Q}$. If $M<0$, the signs of $\mathcal{V}_{t}(t)$ in the same regions are opposite.

In [7] we also used a function introduced in [19] for equation (1.2). When $q=\frac{2 p}{p+1}$ it reduces to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{Z}(r)=r^{a}\left(\frac{p+1}{2} u_{r}^{2}+u^{p+1}+a \frac{u u_{r}}{r}+M u\left|u_{r}\right|^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}\right) \tag{2.41}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $a=\frac{2(p+1)(N-1)}{p+3}$. Since $r=e^{t}$, we find that in $\mathbf{Q}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{Z}(r)=e^{\frac{2(p+1) L}{p+3} t}\left(\frac{p+1}{2} y^{2}+x^{p+1}-a x y+M x y^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}\right) \tag{2.42}
\end{equation*}
$$

The function satisfies the relation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{Z}_{r}-\frac{2 p}{p+1} M u_{r}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} \mathcal{Z}=r^{a-1} \mathcal{U} \tag{2.43}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{U} & =\frac{2(N-1)\left(p^{2}-1\right)}{(p+3)^{2}} \frac{u u_{r}}{r}\left(-L+\frac{p(p+3)}{(p+1)^{2}} M r u_{r} \frac{p-1}{p+1}\right)  \tag{2.44}\\
& =\frac{2(N-1)\left(p^{2}-1\right)}{(p+3)^{2}} x y\left(-L+\frac{p(p+3)}{(p+1)^{2}} M y^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}\right) r^{-\frac{p+3}{p-1}}
\end{align*}
$$

Note that $\mathcal{U}$ has a constant $\operatorname{sign}$ in $\mathbf{Q}$ if $L M<0$.

### 2.4.4 Comparison results

Lemma 2.9 Let $N \geq 1$, $p>1$ and $M, M^{\prime} \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $M<M^{\prime}$. Then, as long as they lie below the line $\mathcal{L}$, i.e. $x_{t}>0$, the regular trajectories $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}^{M}$ and $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}^{M^{\prime}}$ associated to $M$ and $M^{\prime}$ respectively do not intersect. Furthermore $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}^{M}$ is below $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}^{M^{\prime}}$.

Proof. We use the expansion (2.26) and deduce, for $M_{i}=M$ or $M^{\prime}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{y^{M_{i}}(t)}{x^{M_{i}}(t)}=e^{2 t}\left(\frac{1}{N}+M_{i} \frac{e^{\frac{p-1}{p+1} t}}{N\left(N+\frac{2 p}{p+1}\right)}(1+o(1))\right) \tag{2.45}
\end{equation*}
$$

as $t \rightarrow-\infty$. Hence $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}^{M}$ is below $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}^{M^{\prime}}$ for $t \leq t^{*}$ for some $t^{*} \in \mathbb{R}$. Suppose that the trajectories intersect for a first time at some point $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ below $\mathcal{L}$. Since the system is autonomous, there will exist two solutions of the systems relative to $M$ and $M^{\prime}$ satisfying at the same time $t_{0}$, $x^{M}\left(t_{0}\right)=x^{M^{\prime}}\left(t_{0}\right)=x_{0}$ and $y^{M}\left(t_{0}\right)=y^{M^{\prime}}\left(t_{0}\right)=y_{0}$. From $(2.2), x_{t}^{M}\left(t_{0}\right)=x_{t}^{M^{\prime}}\left(t_{0}\right)>0$ and $y_{t}^{M}\left(t_{0}\right)=y_{t}^{M^{\prime}}\left(t_{0}\right)+\left(M-M^{\prime}\right) y_{0}^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}<y_{t}^{M^{\prime}}\left(t_{0}\right)$. Hence the intersection of the two trajectories is transverse and the slope of $\mathbf{T}_{r e g}^{M}$ at this intersection point is smaller that the one of $\mathbf{T}_{r e g}^{M^{\prime}}$ which is impossible. The second assertion follows immediately.

## 3 Study of ground states of (1.17) when $M>0$

When $M \geq 0$ and either $N \geq 3$ and $1<p \leq \frac{N}{N-2}$, or $N=1,2$ and $p>1$, there exists no ground state by Proposition 2.3; in this section we assume $N \geq 3$ and $p>\frac{N}{N-2}$.

### 3.1 Behaviour near equilibrium

Since $M \geq 0$ and $p>\frac{N}{N-2}$ there exists a unique equilibrium $P_{M} \in \mathbf{Q}$. The sign of the real part of the characteristic roots of the linearization of the system (2.2) at $P_{M}$ depends on the position of $M$ with respect to $\bar{M}$ defined in (2.31).

Lemma 3.1 Assume $M>0$ and $N \geq 3$.

1) If $\frac{N}{N-2}<p \leq \frac{N+2}{N-2}$, then $P_{M}$ is a source.
2) If $p>\frac{N+2}{N-2}$; then $P_{M}$ is a sink when $M<\bar{M}$ and it is a source when $M>\bar{M}$.
3) If $p>\frac{N+2}{N-2}$, then $P_{\bar{M}}$ a weak sink. Furthermore, if $0<M-\bar{M}<\epsilon$, for $\epsilon$ small enough, there exists a periodic trajectory in $\mathbf{Q}$ surrounding $P_{M}$.

Proof. Step 1: Assume $\frac{N}{N-2}<p \leq \frac{N+2}{N-2}$. The linearized system is given in (2.28). Because $M>0$, the product of the characteristic roots given by equation (2.29) is positive since it is given by

$$
2 K-\frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}=\frac{2}{p+1} K+\frac{2 p}{p+1}\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)^{p} Y_{M}^{p-1} .
$$

The sum (or the real part) of the characteristic roots is equal to $\frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}-L$ which is positive, as $p \leq \frac{N+2}{N-2}$ implies $L<0$. Hence $P_{M}$ is a source.
Step 2: Assume $p>\frac{N+2}{N-2}$, hence $L>0$. As in Step 1, the product of the characteristic roots is positive. By Proposition 2.2-(1), $M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}$ is an increasing function of $M$, then the sum (or the real part of) of the characteristic roots, given by $\frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}-L$ is also increasing and vanishes if $M=\bar{M}$. It is negative if $0<M<\bar{M}$ and positive if $M>\bar{M}$. It implies assertion 2. Step 3: If $M=\bar{M}$, and $p>\frac{N+2}{N-2}$, then $P_{\bar{M}}$ is a weak sink by Lemma 2.7. The appearance of the limit cycle, which is the called the Andronov-Hopf bifurcation, occurs for $M>\bar{M}$ when $M-\bar{M}$ is small enough (see [17, Chap. 9]).
Remark. The product of the characteristic roots is also expressed by

$$
2 K-\frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}=\frac{2 M}{p+1} Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}+2\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)^{2} Y_{M}^{p-1}
$$

Hence it is positive for any $M \geq 0, p>1$.
Next we give some sufficient conditions for nonexistence of a periodic solution or a homoclinic orbit at $(0,0)$.

Lemma 3.2 Assume $N \geq 3$. If $M>0$ and $1<p \leq \frac{N+2}{N-2}$ the system (1.17) admits no closed orbit in $\overline{\mathbf{Q}}$. If $0<M \leq \bar{M}$ and $p>\frac{N+2}{N-2}$, the system (1.17) admits no cycle in $\mathbf{Q}$ surrounding $P_{M}$.

Proof. If $\gamma$ is a non-trivial closed orbit it corresponds either to a $T$-periodic solution or a solution such that

$$
\lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty}(x(t), y(t))=\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty}(x(t), y(t))
$$

The function $\mathcal{V}$ defined in (2.37) is monotone and it satisfies either $\mathcal{V}(0)=\mathcal{V}(T)$ or $\lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty} \mathcal{V}(t)=$ $\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{V}(t)$. Hence it is constant and by (2.38) it implies $y(t)=\frac{2}{p-1} x(t)$ for all $t$, a contradiction.

Next we suppose $p>\frac{N+2}{N-2}, 0<M \leq \bar{M}$ and that there exists a $T$-periodic solution $(x(t), y(t)$ with trajectory $\gamma \subset \mathbf{Q}$ surrounding $P_{M}$, hence $P_{M}$ belongs to the bounded connected component $\Gamma$ of $\mathbb{R}^{2} \backslash\{\gamma\}$ bordered by $\gamma$. Since $P_{M}$ is a sink or a weak sink by Lemma 3.1, there exists a neighbourhood $\mathcal{O}$ of $P_{M}$ such that all the trajectories issued from $\mathcal{O}$ converge to $P_{M}$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$. Hence any trajectory issued from $\mathcal{O}$, necessarily contained in $\Gamma$, has an $\alpha$-limit set in $\bar{\Gamma}$ which is either a stationary point different from $P_{M}$, which is excluded, or a limit cycle
$\left\{(x(t), y(t)\}_{t \in[0, \tau)}:=\gamma^{\prime} \subset \bar{\Gamma}(\tau\right.$ is its period $)$. This limit cycle is not stable, hence, by Floquet's theory

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{0}^{\tau}\left(\frac{\partial H_{1}(x(t), y(t))}{\partial x}+\frac{\partial H_{2}(x(t), y(t))}{\partial y}\right) d t=\int_{0}^{\tau}\left(\frac{2 p M}{p+1} y^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}(t)-L\right) d t \geq 0 \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

We perform the change of unknowns $\bar{x}=x-X_{M}, \bar{y}=y-Y_{M}$ used in Lemma 2.7 which leads to the system (2.33). The explicit value of the remaining term is

$$
\begin{align*}
h(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) & =\left(\bar{x}+X_{M}\right)^{p}-X_{M}^{p}-p X_{M}^{p-1} \bar{x}+M\left(\bar{y}+Y_{M}\right)^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}-M Y_{M}^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}-\frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} \bar{y}  \tag{3.2}\\
& =\Phi(\bar{x})+M \Psi(\bar{y})
\end{align*}
$$

where $\Phi$ and $\Psi$ are defined accordingly. It is positive by convexity because $M>0$. Since from (2.33),

$$
\frac{2}{p-1} \int_{0}^{\tau} \bar{x}(t) d t-\int_{0}^{\tau} \bar{y}(t) d t=0
$$

and

$$
0=p X_{M}^{p-1} \int_{0}^{\tau} \bar{x}(t) d t+\frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} \int_{0}^{\tau} \bar{y}(t) d t-K \int_{0}^{\tau} \bar{y}(t) d t+\int_{0}^{\tau} h(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) d t
$$

we derive

$$
\left(\frac{p(p-1)^{p}}{2^{p}} Y_{M}^{p-1}+\frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}-K\right) \int_{0}^{\tau} \bar{y}(t) d t<0
$$

Using the equation (2.15) satisfied by $Y_{M}$ it yields

$$
(p-1)\left(K-\frac{M}{p+1} Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}\right) \int_{0}^{\tau} \bar{y}(t) d t<0
$$

By (2.11)-(ii), $K-\frac{M}{p+1} Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}>0$, hence $\int_{0}^{\tau} \bar{y}(t) d t<0$, therefore $\tau^{-1} \int_{0}^{\tau} y(t) d t<Y_{M}$ and by concavity,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{\tau} \int_{0}^{\tau}(y(t))^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} d t \leq\left(\frac{1}{\tau} \int_{0}^{\tau} y(t) d t\right)^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}<Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Combining (3.1) and (3.3), we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
L<\frac{2 p M}{p+1} Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $M \mapsto M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}$ is decreasing by Proposition 2.2 -(1-ii) we have for $0 \leq M \leq \bar{M}$

$$
0=\frac{2 p \bar{M}}{p+1} Y_{\bar{M}}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}-L \geq \frac{2 p M}{p+1} Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}-L
$$

which contradicts (3.4).
Remark. Up to changing the sense of variation of $\mathcal{V}(t)$, the proof of the first assertion shows that there exists no closed orbit in $\overline{\mathbf{Q}}$ if $M<0$ and $p \geq \frac{N+2}{N-2}$. However the proof of the second assertion is not valid when $M<0$.

The nonexistence of any periodic solution can also be proved when the equilibrium is a node (i.e. the two characteristic values are real with the same sign).

Lemma 3.3 1 - Let $N \geq 3$ and $p>\frac{N+2}{N-2}$. There exists a unique and explicit $M_{0}>\bar{M}$ such that for any $M \geq M_{0}, P_{M}$ is a repelling node, degenerate if $M=M_{0}$. If $\bar{M}<M<M_{0}, P_{M}$ is a repelling spiraling point. If $3 \leq N \leq 10$ and $0<M<\bar{M}, P_{M}$ is an attracting spiraling point.
2- If $N \geq 11$ and $\frac{N+2}{N-2}<p<\frac{N-2 \sqrt{N-1}}{N-4-2 \sqrt{N-1}}$ there exists a unique and explicit $0<M_{1}<\bar{M}$ such that if $P_{M}$ is an attracting node if $0<M<M_{1}$ and an attracting spiraling point if $M_{1}<M<\bar{M}$.
3- If $M>M_{0}$ or if $0<M<M_{1}$, there exist no periodic trajectory in $\mathbf{Q}$ around $P_{M}$, neither no homoclinic trajectory in $\mathbf{Q}$ at $(0,0)$ surrounding $P_{M}$.

Proof. The characteristic values are real if and only if

$$
\begin{align*}
D & =\left(\frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}-L\right)^{2}-8\left(K-\frac{p}{p+1} M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}\right) \\
& =\left(\frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}-L+2+2 \sqrt{N-1}\right)\left(\frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}-L+2-2 \sqrt{N-1}\right) \tag{3.5}
\end{align*}
$$

$$
\geq 0
$$

Hence (3.5) is satisfied if one of the following conditions holds:

$$
\begin{align*}
& M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} \leq \frac{p+1}{2 p}(L-2-2 \sqrt{N-1})  \tag{i}\\
& M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} \geq \frac{p+1}{2 p}(L-2+2 \sqrt{N-1}) \tag{ii}
\end{align*}
$$

It is easy to check that for $p>\frac{N+2}{N-2}$, one has $0<L-2+2 \sqrt{N-1}<q K$. Since $M>0$, by Proposition 2.2-(1), the mapping $M \mapsto M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}$ is continuous, increasing and from [0, $\infty$ ) into $[0, \infty)$. Therefore there exists a unique $M_{0}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
M_{0} Y_{M_{0}}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}=\frac{p+1}{2 p}(L-2+2 \sqrt{N-1}) \tag{3.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using (2.15) we find

$$
\begin{equation*}
M_{0}=\frac{p+1}{2 p}\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)^{\frac{p}{p+1}} \frac{K-\frac{2 p}{p-1}+2 \sqrt{N-1}}{\left(\frac{p-1}{2 p} K+\frac{p+1}{p-1}-\frac{(p+1) \sqrt{N-1}}{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p+1}}} . \tag{3.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Concerning the lower bound in (i), there holds

$$
\begin{equation*}
L-2-2 \sqrt{N-1}>0 \Longleftrightarrow p>\frac{N-2 \sqrt{N-1}}{N-2 \sqrt{N-1}-4} \quad \text { and } N \geq 11 \tag{3.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then we can define $M_{1}$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
M_{1} Y_{M_{1}}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}=\frac{p+1}{2 p}(L-2-2 \sqrt{N-1}) \tag{3.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

which leads to

$$
\begin{equation*}
M_{1}=\frac{p+1}{2 p}\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)^{\frac{p}{p-1}} \frac{K-\frac{2 p}{p-1}-2 \sqrt{N-1}}{\left(\frac{p-1}{2 p} K+\frac{p+1}{p-1}+\frac{(p+1) \sqrt{N-1}}{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p+1}}} . \tag{3.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that

$$
\frac{2 p}{p+1} M_{1} Y_{M_{1}}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}=L-2-2 \sqrt{N-1}<L=\frac{2 p}{p+1} \bar{M} Y^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} \leq L-2+2 \sqrt{N-1}=\frac{2 p}{p+1} M_{0} Y_{M_{0}}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}
$$

Hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
M_{1}<\bar{M}<M_{0} . \tag{3.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Next we prove 3) by adapting an argument introduced in [12] for quadratic systems. We return to system (2.33) that we write under the form

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\bar{x}_{t}=a \bar{x}-\bar{y}  \tag{3.13}\\
\bar{y}_{i}=c \bar{x}+d \bar{y}+\Phi(\bar{x})+M \Psi(\bar{y})
\end{array}\right.
$$

which defines $a, c, d$ with $\Phi$ and $\Psi$ given by (3.13), and the trinomial (2.29) for characteristic values endows the form

$$
T(\lambda)=\lambda^{2}-(d+a) \lambda+a d+c .
$$

In the range of values of $M$, the discriminant $D=(d+a)^{2}-4(a d+c)=(d-a)^{2}-4 c$ is positive. We consider the intersection of a straight line $\ell$ passing through $P_{M}$ with equation $\bar{y}=A \bar{x}$ with a trajectory $(\bar{x}(t), \bar{y}(t))$. Then

$$
\left\{\begin{aligned}
U=\bar{y}_{t}-A \bar{x}_{t} & =\left(A^{2}+(d-a) A+c\right) \bar{x}+\Phi(\bar{x})+M \Psi(\bar{y}) \\
& =\left(A^{2}+(d-a) A+c\right) \bar{x}+\Phi(\bar{x})+M \Psi(A \bar{x}) .
\end{aligned}\right.
$$

We can choose $A \neq 0$ such that $A^{2}+(d-a) A+c=0$ since $D>0$. Since $\Phi$ and $\Psi$ achieves positive values, we derive from the expression of $h$ that $U>0$ for $\bar{x} \neq 0$. This proves that any closed orbit around $P_{M}$ or passing by $P_{M}$ can intersect $\ell$ only one time which is a contradiction.

### 3.2 Existence or nonexistence of ground states

Proposition 3.4 Let $N \geq 3, \frac{N}{N-2}<p \leq \frac{N+2}{N-2}$ and $M>0$. Then there exists no radial ground state, and there exists a singular solutions $u(r)$ such that $\lim _{r \rightarrow 0} r^{\frac{2}{p-1}} u(r)=X_{M}$ and $\lim _{r \rightarrow \infty} r^{N-2} u(r)=c$ for some $c>0$.

Proof. Assume that $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ remains in $\mathbf{Q}$, by Lemma 2.5 we have three possibilities:
$(\alpha)$ either $\mathbf{T}_{r e g}$ converges to $P_{M}$ when $t \rightarrow \infty$, which is impossible since $P_{M}$ is a source,
$(\beta)$ or $\mathbf{T}_{r e g}$ has a limit cycle at $\infty$, and this is impossible by Lemma 3.2,
$(\gamma)$ or $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ converges to $(0,0)$ when $t \rightarrow \infty$, hence it is a homoclinic orbit. The function $\mathcal{V}$ defined in (2.37) is decreasing by Lemma 2.8. Since $\mathcal{V}(-\infty)=\mathcal{V}(\infty)=0$, it is identically 0 and
so is $\mathcal{V}_{t}$. This implies that $\frac{2 x(t)}{p-1}-y(t)=0$ for all $t$ which is a contradiction. Hence $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ does not remain in $\mathbf{Q}$.

We denote by $\Xi$ the connected region of $\mathbf{Q}$ bordered by the semi-axis $\{(x, y): x=0, y>0\}$ and $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$. Since $\mathbf{H}$ is outward on the semi-axis, $\Xi$ is negatively invariant. By Section 3.4.1, $(0,0)$ is a saddle point, hence the stable trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{s t}=\left\{(x(t), y(t)\}\right.$ satisfies $\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{y(t)}{x(t)}=N-2$ which implies $u(r) \sim c r^{2-N}$ for some $c>0$. Its $\alpha$-limit set $\alpha\left(\mathbf{T}_{s t}\right)$ cannot be a limit cycle as we have seen it above. If it contains $(0,0)$ it implies again that $\mathcal{V}$, which is monotone, is equal to 0 , hence $\mathcal{V}_{t} \equiv 0$ and $\frac{2 x(t)}{p-1}-y(t) \equiv 0$, which is impossible. Hence $\alpha\left(\mathbf{T}_{s t}\right)$ contains $P_{M}$. Since $P_{M}$ is a source it implies that $\mathbf{T}_{s t}$ converges to $P_{M}$ when $t \rightarrow-\infty$.

Proposition 3.5 Let $N \geq 3$ and $p>\frac{N+2}{N-2}$. Then for any $0<M \leq \bar{M}$ there exists a ground state $u$ which satisfies $u \sim U_{M}$ at $\infty$.

Proof. If $0<M<\bar{M}$ (resp. $M=\bar{M}$ ), $P_{M}$ is a sink (resp. a weak sink). Suppose first that the trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ does not stay in $\mathbf{Q}$, then it leaves $\mathbf{Q}$ at some point $\left(0, y_{s}\right)$ with $y_{s}>0$. As a consequence, the stable trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{s t}$ at $(0,0)$ remains in the negatively invariant region $\Xi$ defined in the proof of Proposition 3.4. Since it cannot converge to $P_{M}$ when $t \rightarrow-\infty$ it admits a limit cycle surrounding $P_{M}$ which contradicts Lemma 3.2. Therefore $\mathbf{T}_{r e g} \subset \mathbf{Q}$ and, again using Lemma 3.2, either it converges to $P_{M}$ when $t \rightarrow \infty$ and the proof is complete, or to $(0,0)$ and $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}=\mathbf{T}_{\text {st }}$ is a homoclinic trajectory. The trace of the linearized system (2.23) at $(0,0)$ is equal to $\frac{2}{p-1}-K=-L<0$. Therefore, from [17, Th. 9.3.3] the connection is attracting and the trajectories inside the bounded region $\mathcal{T}$ bordered by the homoclinic trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ spiral towards it when $t \rightarrow \infty$. Hence any such trajectory inside $\mathcal{T}$ either has a limit cycle when $t \rightarrow-\infty$ which is impossible by Lemma 3.2 or converges to $P_{M}$ which is also impossible. Consequently there exists no homoclinic trajectory at $(0,0)$ which ends the proof.

Next we study the case where $M$ is large enough. We have already proved in [7] that for any $p>1$, there exists $M_{\dagger}=M_{\dagger}(N, p)>0$ (see introduction) such that if $M>M_{\dagger}$ there exists no ground state, radial or non-radial. In the radial case we have a more precise result.

Proposition 3.6 Let $N \geq 3$ and $p>\frac{N+2}{N-2}$. Then for any $M \geq M_{0}$ there exists no ground state, but there exist singular solutions $u$ which satisfy $\lim _{r \rightarrow 0} r^{\frac{2}{p-1}} u(r)=X_{M}$ and $\lim _{r \rightarrow \infty} r^{N-2} u(r)=c>0$.

Proof. Since $M \geq M_{0}>\bar{M}, P_{M}$ is a source by Lemma 3.1, and there exist no periodic orbit neither a homoclinic trajectory at $(0,0)$ by Lemma 3.3. Thus $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ leaves $\mathbf{Q}$ through the semiaxis $\{(0, y): y>0\}$ by Lemma 2.5. As in the proof of Proposition 3.5 the stable trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{s t}$ at $(0,0)$ remains in the negatively invariant region $\Xi$ already defined. Then it converges necessarily to $P_{M}$ when $t \rightarrow-\infty$.

Next we study the case $\bar{M}<M<M_{0}$.
Theorem 3.7 Let $N \geq 3, p>\frac{N+2}{N-2}$. There exist two positive real numbers $\tilde{M}_{\min }$ and $\tilde{M}_{\max }$ such that $\bar{M}<\tilde{M}_{\text {min }} \leq \tilde{M}_{\max }<M_{0}$ such that,
1- For $\bar{M}<M<\tilde{M}_{\text {min }}$ there exist ground states ondulating around $U_{M}$ when $r \rightarrow \infty$ and positive singular solutions ondulating around $U_{M}$ on $[0, \infty)$.

2- For $M=\tilde{M}_{\text {min }}$ and for $M=\tilde{M}_{\text {max }}$ there exist ground states $u$ such that $\lim _{r \rightarrow \infty} r^{N-2} u(r)=$ $c>0$.
3- For $\tilde{M}_{\max }<M<M_{0}$ there exists no ground state and there exist singular solutions such that $\lim _{r \rightarrow 0} r^{\frac{2}{p-1}} u(r)=X_{M}$ or turning around $P_{M}$ when $r \rightarrow 0$, and $\lim _{r \rightarrow \infty} r^{N-2} u(r)=c>0$.

Proof. Since $M$ is subject to vary, we put it in exponent in the different specific trajectories of the system. For $\bar{M}<M<M_{0}, P_{M}$ is a source and the trajectories converging toward this point when $t \rightarrow-\infty$ are spiralling. We have three possibilities:
(i) either $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}^{M}$ leaves $\mathbf{Q}$ at some point $\left(0, y_{s}\right), y_{s}>0$,
(ii) or $\mathbf{T}_{r e g}^{M}$ has a $\omega$-limit set which is a periodic orbit surrounding $P_{M}$,
(iii) or $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}^{M}$ converges to $(0,0)$ when $t \rightarrow \infty$.

If (i) holds, then $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{M}$ remains in the region $\Xi:=\Xi^{M}$ of $\mathbf{Q}$ bordered by $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}^{M}$ and the semi-axis $\{(0, y): y>0\}$. Then, either it converges to $P_{M}$ when $t \rightarrow-\infty$, or it admits an unstable (from outside) $\alpha$-limit cycle. We denote by $\left(x_{s t}^{M}, y_{s t}^{M}\right)$ the first backward intersection of $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{M}$ with the straight line $\mathcal{L}$. Furthermore $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}^{M}$ intersects $\mathcal{L}$ at some point (necessarily unique) ( $x_{\text {reg }}^{M}, y_{\text {reg }}^{M}$ ). Because of the relative position of $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{M}$ and $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}^{M}$, there holds

$$
g(M)=x_{r e g}^{M}-x_{s t}^{M}>0
$$

If (ii) holds, then we claim that $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{M}$ leaves $\mathbf{Q}$ at some point $\left(x_{s}, 0\right)$ with $x_{s}>0$. Indeed, if $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{M} \subset \mathbf{Q}$, it is bounded by Proposition 2.3. Hence the $\alpha$-limit set is non-empty. It cannot be $(0,0)$ since $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{M} \neq \mathbf{T}_{r e g}^{M}$ and $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{M}$ cannot converge to $P_{M}$ or have a limit cycle around $P_{M}$ since it would imply that $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{M} \cap \mathbf{T}_{r e g}^{M} \neq\{\emptyset\}$. Hence $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{M}$ intersects $\mathcal{L}$ at some point $\left(x_{s t}^{M}, y_{s t}^{M}\right)$ and $\mathbf{T}_{r e g}^{M}$ intersect the first time $\mathcal{L}$ and $\left(x_{\text {reg }}^{M}, y_{\text {reg }}^{M}\right)$. Because $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}^{M}$ lies in the region of $\mathbf{Q}$ bordered by $\mathbf{T}_{\text {st }}^{M}$ and the semi-axis $\{(x, 0): x>0\}$, there holds

$$
g(M)=x_{r e g}^{M}-x_{s t}^{M}<0
$$

If (iii) holds then $g(M)=0$.
The function $g$ defined for any $M \in\left(\bar{M}, M_{0}\right)$ is continuous. We know that there exists $\epsilon>0$ such that for any $M \in(\bar{M}, \bar{M}+\epsilon), \mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}^{M}$ has a $\omega$-limit cycle surrounding $P_{M}$, hence $g(M)<0$. If $M=M_{0}, \mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}^{M}$ leaves $\mathbf{Q}$ at some point $\left(0, y_{s}\right)$ with $y_{s}>0$ from Proposition 3.6 and the intersection of $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}^{M}$ with the semi-axis $\{(0, y): y>0\}$ is transverse at $\left(0, y_{s}\right)$. By continuity with respect to the parameter $M$, for any $M \in\left(M_{0}-\epsilon^{\prime}, M_{0}\right.$ ], for $\epsilon^{\prime}>0$ small enough, $\mathbf{T}_{r e g}^{M}$ leaves $\mathbf{Q}$ at some point of the semi-axis. So we are in situation (i) and $g(M)>0$.
Then, by continuity of $g$ there exist $\tilde{M}_{\text {min }}$ and $\tilde{M}_{\text {max }}$ such that $\bar{M}<\tilde{M}_{\text {min }} \leq \tilde{M}_{\max }<M_{0}$ such that $g\left(\tilde{M}_{\text {min }}\right)=g\left(\tilde{M}_{\text {max }}\right)=0$. If $M=\tilde{M}_{\text {min }}$ or $M=\tilde{M}_{\text {max }}, \mathbf{T}_{s t}^{M}=\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}^{M}$ and the trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}^{M}$ is a homoclinic at $(0,0)$. For $\bar{M}<M<M_{\text {min }}$ we are in situation (ii), which proves 1. For $M>\tilde{M}_{\text {max }}$ we are in situation (i) and either $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{M}$ converges to $P_{M}$ or has a $\alpha$-limit cycle surrounding $P_{M}$ when $t \rightarrow-\infty$.

Theorems A and A' follow from the previous results.

Remark. It is a challenging question to prove that there is unique $M$ such that there is a homoclinic trajectory at $(0,0)$. Up to now all we can prove is that if there exist two parameters $0<M_{1}<M_{2}$ such that for each of them there exists a homoclinic trajectory of $(0,0)$ in $\mathbf{Q}$ $\mathbf{T}^{M_{i}}:=\mathbf{T}_{\text {st }}^{M_{i}}=\mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}^{M_{i}}(\mathrm{i}=1,2)$, then $\mathbf{T}^{M_{2}}$ is a subset of the domain of $\mathbf{Q}$ limited by $\mathbf{T}^{M_{1}}$.

## 4 Study of ground states of (1.17) when $M<0$

We will distinguish the cases $p \geq \frac{N}{N-2}$ where system (1.17) admits a unique non-trivial equilibrium and $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$ where the existence of zero, one or two equilibria depends on the value of $M$ with respect to $-\mu^{*}$ defined in (1.20). In order to avoid confusion we set

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{\mu}=|\bar{M}|=\frac{(p+1)|p(N-2)-(N+2)|}{(4 p)^{\frac{p}{p+1}}\left((N-2)(p-1)^{2}+4\right)^{\frac{1}{p+1}}} . \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $\bar{\mu}=\bar{M}$ if $p>\frac{N+2}{N-2}$ and $\bar{\mu}=-\bar{M}$ if $p<\frac{N+2}{N-2}$.
Proposition 4.1 let $N \geq 3, p \geq \frac{N}{N-2}$ and $M<0$.
1- If $p \geq \frac{N+2}{N-2}, P_{M}$ is a sink.
2- If $\frac{N}{N-2} \leq p<\frac{N+2}{N-2}$, then $P_{M}$ is a sink if $M<\bar{M}$, it is a source if $\bar{M}<M<0$, and $P_{\bar{M}}$ is a weak source. Moreover there exists $M_{1}<\bar{M}$ such that $P_{M}$ is a node if $M \leq M_{1}$. If $\frac{N}{N-2} \leq p<\frac{N+2 \sqrt{N-1}}{N-4+2 \sqrt{N-1}}$, there exists $M_{0} \in(\bar{M}, 0)$ such that $P_{M}$ is a node for $M \geq M_{0}$ and a spiraling equilibrium if $M_{1}<M<M_{0}$.

Proof. The equation (2.29) satisfied by the characteristic roots is written under the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
T(\lambda)=\lambda^{2}+\left(\frac{2 p}{p+1}|M| Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}+L\right) \lambda+2 K+\frac{2 p}{p+1}|M| Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}=0 . \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $K \geq 0$ the product of the roots is positive; the real part of the roots is positive if and only if $\frac{2 p}{p+1}|M| Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}+L<0$. If $p \geq \frac{N+2}{N-2}$, then $L \geq 0$ and $P_{M}$ is a sink. If $\frac{N}{N-2} \leq p<\frac{N+2}{N-2}$, then $\bar{M}$ is characterized by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{2 p}{p+1} \bar{M} Y^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}=L<0 \tag{4.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

By Proposition 2.2 the function $M \mapsto M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}$ is increasing and onto on $(-\infty, 0)$. Therefore, $P_{M}$ is a sink if $M<\bar{M}$ and a source if $\bar{M}<M<0$. Finally, if $M=\bar{M}$, the two roots are imaginary and by Lemma 2.7 $P_{M}$ is a weak source. Finally, from (3.6), the characteristic roots are real if and only

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{2 p|M|}{p+1} Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} \leq|L|+2-2 \sqrt{N-1} \text { or } \frac{2 p|M|}{p+1} Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} \geq|L|+2+2 \sqrt{N-1} \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Notice that there always hold $|L|+2-2 \sqrt{N-1}<|L|$ since $N \geq 3$. The first condition in (4.4) requires $|L|+2-2 \sqrt{N-1}>0$, equivalently $p<\frac{N+2 \sqrt{N-1}}{N-4+2 \sqrt{N-1}}$. Since there holds
$\frac{N}{N-2}<\frac{N+2 \sqrt{N-1}}{N-4+2 \sqrt{N-1}}<\frac{N+2}{N-2}$, the conclusion follows and $M_{0}$ and $M_{1}$ are given by (3.8) and (3.11).

The most intricate case corresponds to $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$ or $N=1,2$ where there may exist 0,1 or 2 equilibria.

Proposition 4.2 Assume $N=1,2$ and $p>1$ or $N \geq 3$ and $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}, M<-\mu^{*}$ and let $P_{j, M}, j=1$ or 2, be the two equilibria of (1.17).
1- Then $P_{1, M}$ is a saddle point.
2- Let $N \geq 3$. If $\bar{M}<M<-\mu^{*}$, then $P_{2, M}$ is a source; if $M<\bar{M}$, then $P_{2, M}$ is a sink; $P_{2, \bar{M}}$ is a weak source. Moreover there exist $M_{1}<\bar{M}$ such that $P_{2, M}$ is a node for $M \leq M_{1}$; there exists also $M_{0} \in\left(\bar{M},-\mu^{*}\right)$ such that $P_{2, M}$ is a node for $M \leq M_{1}$ or for $M_{0} \leq M<-\mu^{*}$, and it is a spiraling equilibrium if $M_{1}<M<M_{0}$.
3- Let $N=2$. Then $P_{2, M}$ is a sink. There exists $M_{1}<-\mu^{*}$ such that $P_{2, M}$ is a node if and only if $M \leq M_{1}$.
4- If $N=1$, then $P_{2, M}$ is a sink and a node.
Proof. Recall that, from Proposition 2.2, $M \mapsto M Y_{1, M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}$ is decreasing and $M \mapsto M Y_{2, M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}$ is increasing. We first consider the linearized operator at $P_{1, M}$. The product of the roots of (4.2) is equal to $2 K-\frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{1, M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}$. Since $M<-\mu^{*}$,

$$
2 K-\frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{1, M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}<2 K+\frac{2 p}{p+1} \mu^{*} Y_{-\mu^{*}}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}=0
$$

Hence $P_{1, M}$ is a saddle point.
Next we consider $P_{2, M}$. If $\bar{M}<M<-\mu^{*}$, since $M \mapsto M Y_{2, M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}$ is increasing,

$$
\begin{equation*}
M Y_{2, M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}>\bar{M} Y_{2, \bar{\mu}}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}=\frac{p+1}{2 p} L \tag{4.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 K-\frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{2, M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}>2 K+\frac{2 p}{p+1} \mu^{*} Y_{-\mu^{*}}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}=0 \tag{4.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence $P_{2, M}$ is a source. If $M<\bar{M}$, then the $\operatorname{sign}$ in (4.5) is reversed and

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 K-\frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{2, M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}>2 K-\frac{2 p}{p+1} \bar{\mu} Y_{\bar{\mu}}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}>2 K+\frac{2 p}{p+1} \mu^{*} Y_{-\mu^{*}}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}=0 \tag{4.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus $P_{2, M}$ is a sink. By Lemma $2.7 P_{2, \bar{M}}$ is a weak source, and assertion 2 is proved. Finally, if $N=2$ and $M<-\mu^{*}=\bar{M}$ from Lemma 2.6, therefore $P_{2, M}$ is a sink.
Next we look for conditions which insure that $P_{2, M}$ is a node. The characteristic roots are real if and only one of the two conditions (3.6) where $Y_{M}$ is replaced by $Y_{2, M}$ holds:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{2, M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} \geq L-2+2 \sqrt{N-1}  \tag{i}\\
& \frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{2, M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} \leq L-2-2 \sqrt{N-1} \tag{4.8}
\end{align*}
$$

For $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}, M \mapsto \Phi(M):=\frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{2, M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}$ is an increasing diffeomorphism from $\left(-\infty,-\mu^{*}\right]$ to $(-\infty, 2 K]$. Since $L-2 \sqrt{N-1}-2<2 K$ there exists a unique $M_{1}<-\mu^{*}$ such that $\Phi\left(M_{1}\right)=$ $L-2-2 \sqrt{N-1}$ and (4.8)-(ii) holds when $M \leq M_{1}$.Since $L-2+2 \sqrt{N-1}>2 K$ is equivalent to $(N-2)^{2}<0$, there exists no $M \leq-\mu^{*}$ such that (4.8)-(i) holds. When $N=2$ only $M=-\mu^{*}$ satisfies (4.8)-(i) with equality. If $N \geq 3$ there exists a unique $M_{0}<-\mu^{*}$ such that (4.8)-(i) holds. Hence for any $M_{0} \leq M<-\mu^{*}$, inequality (4.8)-(i) holds with $M_{0}$ and $M_{1}$ defined by (3.8) and (3.11).

At end assume $N=1$. For any $M \leq-\mu^{*}(1)=-(p+1)\left(\frac{p+1}{2 p}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p}}$, there holds

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{2, M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}-L \leq-\frac{2 p}{p+1} \mu_{*} Y_{2,-\mu^{*}}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}=2 K-L=-1 . \tag{4.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore $P_{2, M}$ is always a sink and the discriminant of (2.29) is equal to $\left(\frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{2, M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}-L+2\right)^{2}$, hence the characteristic roots are negative.
Notations. Under the assumptions of Proposition 4.2 there exist two stable trajectories $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1, j}$, $\mathrm{j}=1,2$, converging to $P_{1, M}$ when $t \rightarrow \infty$, associated to a negative characteristic value $\lambda$; the common slope at $P_{1, M}$ is $\frac{2}{p-1}+|\lambda|$. We assume that $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,1}$ is locally below $\mathcal{L}$ and $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,2}$ locally above $\mathcal{L}$, thus these trajectories are coming from the regions $\mathbf{C}$ and $\mathbf{A}$ defined in the proof of Proposition 2.4. There exist also two unstable trajectories $\mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}^{1, j}, \mathrm{j}=3,4$, converging to $P_{1, M}$ when $t \rightarrow-\infty$, associated to a positive characteristic value $\lambda^{\prime}$ and the common slope at $P_{1, M}$ is $\frac{2}{p-1}-\lambda^{\prime}$. We assume that $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,3}$ is locally below $\mathcal{L}$ and $\mathbf{T}_{\text {st }}^{1,4}$ locally above $\mathcal{L}$, thus, in a neighbourhood of $P_{1, M}$, these trajectories belong also to the regions $\mathbf{C}$ and $\mathbf{A}$. In particular the trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,1}$ cannot cross $\mathcal{L}$, neither the segment $\left\{(x, y): x=X_{1 M}, 0 \leq y \leq Y_{1 M}\right\}$. Hence either it converges to $(0,0)$ when $t \rightarrow-\infty$, or it crosses the axis $\{y=0\}$ at some point with positive $x$-coordinate less than $X_{1, M}$.
Remark. In the critical case $M=-\mu^{*}$ there holds $-\frac{2 p}{p+1} \mu^{*} Y_{-\mu^{*}}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}=2 K=2-N-L$, hence the characteristic polynomial is $T(\lambda)=\lambda(\lambda+2-N)$. If $N \geq 3$ the characteristic values are 0 and $N-2$, with respective corresponding eigenvectors $\left(1, \frac{2}{p-1}\right)$ and $\left(1, \frac{2}{p-1}+2-N\right)$. There exists an invariant curve $\Gamma$ passing through $P_{1, M}=P_{2, M}$, tangent to $\left(1, \frac{2}{p-1}\right)$ by the center manifold theorem. If $N=2$ the two characteristic values are 0 with the eigenspace generated by $\left(1, \frac{2}{p-1}\right)$ which is tangent to the central manifold (a curve) at $(0,0)$.

Next we look for the existence of limit cycles. Since $M<0$, we cannot argue using the convexity argument used in Lemma 3.2. We use system (2.6) which also has a convexity property as we see it in the proof below.

Lemma 4.3 1- If $N \geq 3$ and $p \geq \frac{N+2}{N-2}$ and $M<0$, there is no cycle surrounding $P_{M}$.
2- If $N \geq 3, \frac{N}{N-2}<p<\frac{N+2}{N-2}$ and $\bar{M} \leq M<0$, there is no cycle surrounding $P_{M}$.
3- If $N \geq 3$ and $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$ or $N=2$ and $\bar{M} \leq M \leq-\mu^{*}$, there is no cycle surrounding $P_{2, M}$.

Proof. For 1, assume that there exists a periodic trajectory $\left(x(t), y(t)\right.$ surrounding $P_{M}$. By Green's formula,

$$
\begin{align*}
0=\oint_{\gamma}\left(-H_{2}(x, y) d x+H_{1}(x, y) d y\right) & =\iint_{\Gamma}\left(\frac{\partial H_{1}(x, y)}{\partial x}+\frac{\partial H_{2}(x, y)}{\partial y}\right) d x d y  \tag{4.10}\\
& =\iint_{\Gamma}\left(\frac{2 p M}{p+1}|y|^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}-L\right) d x d y
\end{align*}
$$

Since $L \geq 0$ and $M<0$ we obtain a contradiction. This proves the first assertion.
For 2 and 3 we assume that $\gamma_{0} \subset \mathbf{Q}$ is a cycle surrounding $P_{M}$ or $P_{2, M}$ and we denote by $\Gamma_{0}$ the bounded domain bordered by $\gamma_{0}$. By Proposition 4.1 and Proposition $4.2, P_{M}$ and $P_{2, M}$ are sources. We use the system (2.6). Setting $J(\sigma, z)=\left(\sigma^{p} z\right)^{\frac{1}{p+1}}$, it becomes

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\sigma_{t}=\sigma(\sigma+2-N+z+M J(\sigma, z)):=F(\sigma, z)  \tag{4.11}\\
z_{t}=z(N-p \sigma-z-M J(\sigma, z)):=G(\sigma, z)
\end{array}\right.
$$

In the phase plane $(\sigma, z)$ the equilibrium $P_{M}$ becomes

$$
\mathcal{P}_{M}=\left(\sigma_{M}, z_{M}\right)=\left(\frac{Y_{M}}{X_{M}}, \frac{X_{M}^{p}}{Y_{M}}\right)=\left(\frac{2}{p-1},\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)^{p} Y_{M}^{p-1}\right)
$$

Similarly $P_{2, M}$ becomes $\mathcal{P}_{2, M}=\left(\sigma_{2, M}, z_{2, M}\right)=\left(\frac{Y_{2, M}}{X_{2, M}}, \frac{X_{2, M}^{p}}{Y_{2, M}}\right)=\left(\frac{2}{p-1},\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)^{p} Y_{2, M}^{p-1}\right)$ and $\mathcal{P}_{M}$ and $\mathcal{P}_{2, M}$ are sources. Hence, any trajectory converging to this point $\mathcal{P}_{M}$ (or $\mathcal{P}_{2, M}$ ) admits an omega-limit cycle $\gamma \subset \bar{\Gamma}_{0}$. Consequently this cycle is not unstable which implies that the Floquet integral relative to this T-periodic solution is nonpositive:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{I}:=\int_{0}^{T}\left(\frac{\partial F(\sigma, z)}{\partial \sigma}+\frac{\partial G(\sigma, z)}{\partial z}\right)(t) d t \leq 0 \tag{4.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

The computation gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial F}{\partial \sigma}+\frac{\partial G}{\partial z} & =(2-p) \sigma+2-z+M \frac{2 p+1}{p+1}\left(\sigma^{p} z\right)^{\frac{1}{p+1}}-M \frac{p+2}{p+1}\left(\sigma^{p} z\right)^{\frac{1}{p+1}} \\
& =(2-p) \sigma+2-z+M \frac{p-1}{p+1} J(\sigma, z)
\end{aligned}
$$

We set $\sigma=\sigma_{M}+\bar{\sigma}$ and $z=z_{M}+\bar{z}$ (the computation would be the same with ( $\sigma_{M}, z_{M}$ ) replaced by $\left.\left(\sigma_{2, M}, z_{2, M}\right)\right)$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\mathcal{I}}{T} & =\frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T}\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial \sigma}+\frac{\partial G}{\partial z}\right)(\sigma(t), z(t)) d t \\
& =(2-p)\left(\sigma_{M}+\frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T} \bar{\sigma}(t) d t\right)+2-z_{M}-\frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T} \bar{z}(t) d t .+\frac{p-1}{p+1} \frac{M}{T} \int_{0}^{T} J(\sigma(t), z(t)) d t
\end{aligned}
$$

By addition

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\sigma_{t}}{\sigma}+\frac{z_{t}}{z} & =\sigma-(N-2)+z+N-p \sigma-z=2-(p-1) \sigma \\
& =2-(p-1) \sigma_{M}-(p-1) \bar{\sigma}=-(p-1) \bar{\sigma}
\end{aligned}
$$

Integrating on a period, we get $\int_{0}^{T} \bar{\sigma}(t) d t=0$. We also derive from (4.11)

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =\sigma_{M}+\frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T} \bar{\sigma}(t) d t+2-N+z_{M}+\frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T} \bar{z}(t) d t+\frac{M}{T} \int_{0}^{T} J(\sigma, z) d t \\
& =\frac{2}{p-1}+2-N+z_{M}+\frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T} \bar{z}(t) d t+\frac{M}{T} \int_{0}^{T} J(\sigma, z) d t \\
& =-K+z_{M}+\frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T} \bar{z}(t) d t+\frac{M}{T} \int_{0}^{T} J(\sigma, z) d t
\end{aligned}
$$

Furthermore, $\sigma_{M}+2-N+z_{M}+M J\left(\sigma_{M}, z_{M}\right)=0$. Indeed

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T} \bar{z}(t) d t=-\frac{M}{T} \int_{0}^{T}\left(J(\sigma, z)-J\left(\sigma_{M}, z_{M}\right)\right) d t \tag{4.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Next we show that the function $J$ is concave on $\mathcal{Q}:=\{(\sigma, z): \sigma>0, z>0\}$ : indeed

$$
J(\sigma, z)-J\left(\sigma_{M}, z_{M}\right)=\frac{\partial J}{\partial \sigma}\left(\sigma_{M}, z_{M}\right) \bar{\sigma}+\frac{\partial J}{\partial z}\left(\sigma_{M}, z_{M}\right) \bar{z}+\frac{1}{2}\left(a \bar{\sigma}^{2}+2 b \bar{\sigma} \bar{z}+c \bar{z}^{2}\right)
$$

where $a, b$ and $c$ depend on $\sigma, \sigma_{M}, z$ and $z_{M}$ and:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{\partial J}{\partial \sigma}(\sigma, z)=\frac{p}{p+1} \sigma^{-\frac{1}{p+1}} z^{\frac{1}{p+1}} \text { and } \frac{\partial J}{\partial z}(\sigma, z)=\frac{1}{p+1} \sigma^{\frac{p}{p+1}} z^{-\frac{p}{p+1}} \\
a=-\frac{p}{(p+1)^{2}} \sigma_{\theta}^{-\frac{p+2}{p+1}} z_{\theta}^{\frac{1}{p+1}}, b=\frac{p}{(p+1)^{2}} \sigma_{\theta}^{-\frac{1}{p+1}} z_{\theta}^{\frac{p}{p+1}} \text { and } c=-\frac{p}{(p+1)^{2}} \sigma_{\theta}^{\frac{p}{p+1}} z_{\theta}^{-\frac{2 p+1}{p+1}}
\end{gathered}
$$

where $\left(\sigma_{\theta}, z_{\theta}\right)=\left(\theta \sigma+(1-\theta) \sigma_{M}, \theta z+(1-\theta) z_{M}\right)$ for some $\theta \in(0,1)$. Since

$$
b^{2}-a c=\frac{p^{2}}{(p+1)^{4}}\left(\sigma_{\theta}^{-\frac{2}{p+1}} z_{\theta}^{-\frac{2}{p+1}}-\sigma_{\theta}^{-\frac{2}{p+1}} z_{\theta}^{-\frac{2 p}{p+1}}\right)=0
$$

then $a \bar{\sigma}^{2}+2 b \overline{\sigma z}+c \bar{z}^{2}=a\left(\bar{\sigma}+\frac{b}{a} \bar{z}\right)^{2}=-2 R^{2}(t) \leq 0$ and from (4.13),

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T} \bar{z}(t) d t & =-\frac{M}{T} \frac{\partial J}{\partial \sigma}\left(\sigma_{M}, z_{M}\right) \int_{0}^{T} \bar{\sigma}(t) d t-\frac{M}{T} \frac{\partial J}{\partial z}\left(\sigma_{M}, z_{M}\right) \int_{0}^{T} \bar{z}(t) d t+\frac{M}{T} \int_{0}^{T} R^{2}(t) d t \\
& =-\frac{M}{T(p+1)} \sigma_{M}^{\frac{p}{p+1}} z_{M}^{-\frac{p}{p+1}} \int_{0}^{T} \bar{z}(t) d t+\frac{M}{T} \int_{0}^{T} R^{2}(t) d t
\end{aligned}
$$

thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(1+\frac{M \sigma_{M}^{\frac{p}{p+1}} z_{M}^{-\frac{p}{p+1}}}{p+1}\right) \int_{0}^{T} \bar{z}(t) d t=M \int_{0}^{T} R^{2}(t) d t \tag{4.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

When $M<0$ we have already seen that $Y_{M}>y_{0, M}:=\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\left(\frac{-M}{p+1}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}$, defined in (resp. $Y_{2, M}>y_{0, M}$ ), which yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
1+\frac{M \sigma_{M}^{\frac{p}{p+1}} z_{M}^{-\frac{p}{p+1}}}{p+1}=\left(Y_{M}^{\frac{p(p-1)}{p+1}}-y_{0, M}^{\frac{p(p-1)}{p+1}}\right) Y_{M}^{-\frac{p(p-1)}{p+1}}>0 \Longrightarrow \int_{0}^{T} \bar{z}(t) d t<0 \tag{4.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\mathcal{I}}{T}=(2-p) \sigma_{M}+2-z_{M}-\frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T} \bar{z}(t) d t+\frac{M(p-1)}{T(p+1)} \int_{0}^{T} J(\sigma, z) d t \\
& =(2-p) \sigma_{M}+2-z_{M}-\frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T} \bar{z}(t) d t+\frac{M(p-1)}{p+1} J\left(\sigma_{M}, z_{M}\right) \\
& +\frac{M(p-1)}{T(p+1)} \int_{0}^{T}\left(J(\sigma, z)-J\left(\sigma_{M}, z_{M}\right)\right) d t .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence from (4.13)

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{\mathcal{I}}{T} & =(2-p) \sigma_{M}+2-z_{M}-\frac{2 p}{T(p+1)} \int_{0}^{T} \bar{z}(t) d t+\frac{M(p-1)}{p+1} J\left(\sigma_{M}, z_{M}\right) \\
& =\frac{2}{p-1}-\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)^{p} Y_{M}^{p-1}-\frac{2 p}{T(p+1)} \int_{0}^{T} \bar{z}(t) d t+\frac{M(p-1)}{p+1} Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}  \tag{4.16}\\
& =\frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}-L-\frac{2 p}{T(p+1)} \int_{0}^{T} \bar{z}(t) d t
\end{align*}
$$

But from Proposition 2.2,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{M}<M<0 \Longrightarrow \frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}-L=\frac{2 p}{p+1}\left(M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}-\bar{M} Y_{\bar{M}}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}\right)>0 \tag{4.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

Combining (4.15) and (4.17) we obtain $\mathcal{I}>0$ which contradicts the nonpositivity of the Floquet integral in the case $M>\bar{M}$. Finally, if $\bar{M}=M$, then $\int_{0}^{T} \bar{z}(t) d t=0$, which implies by (4.14) that $R \equiv 0$ on the omega-limit cycle $\gamma$. Using the expression of $R(t)$ we infer

$$
\bar{\sigma}+\frac{b}{a} \bar{z} \equiv 0 \text { where } \frac{a}{b}=\frac{1}{z_{\theta} \sigma_{\theta}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}} \text { and }\left(\sigma_{\theta}, z_{\theta}\right)=\left(\theta \sigma+(1-\theta) \sigma_{M}, \theta z+(1-\theta) z_{M}\right)
$$

for $\theta=\theta(t) \in(0,1)$. This is clearly impossible if one considers points at the intersection of $\gamma$ and the straight line $\mathcal{L}$. The same argument holds when $N=2$ where $\bar{M}=-\mu^{*}$.
Remark. The above proof can easily be adapted to recover the second statement of Lemma 3.2. Indeed, if $p>\frac{N+2}{N-2}$ and $0<M<\bar{M}, P_{M}$ is a sink. Hence if there is a cycle surrounding $P_{M}$, we can assumed that it is an $\alpha$-limit cycle, say $\gamma$, and the integral $\mathcal{I}$ given by (4.12) is nonnegative by Floquet's theory. The inequality (4.14) yields $\int_{0}^{T} \bar{z}(t) d t>0$ since $1+\frac{M \sigma_{M}^{\frac{p}{p+1}} z_{M}^{-\frac{p}{p+1}}}{p+1}>1$. For $M<\bar{M}$ there holds $\frac{2 p}{p+1} M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}<L$ from the monotonicity of $M \mapsto M Y_{M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}$, which contradicts the sign of $\mathcal{I}$.

In the next statement we extend [14, Prop. 5.6] proved in the case $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$ but valid actually for any $p>1$ and give precision on the behavior of the solutions. The constant

$$
\mu^{*}(1)=\left(\frac{(p+1)^{2 p+1}}{(2 p)^{p}}\right)^{\frac{1}{p+1}}
$$

plays an important role. Recall also that $\mu^{*}(1)>\mu^{*}:=\mu^{*}(N)$ for $N \geq 2$.

Lemma 4.4 Let $p>1$. If $N \geq 2$ and $M \leq-\mu^{*}(1)$ or $N=1$ and $M<-\mu^{*}(1)$, then there exists a ground state $u$. Furthermore there holds

$$
\begin{equation*}
u_{r}^{2}(r)<\frac{2 p}{p+1} u^{p+1}(r) \quad \text { for all } r>0 \tag{4.18}
\end{equation*}
$$

As a consequence, the corresponding trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}=\left\{\left(x_{\text {reg }}(t), y_{\text {reg }}(t)\right\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}}\right.$ does not converge to $(0,0)$ when $t \rightarrow \infty$. If $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$ and $N \geq 3$ or $p>1$ and $N=1,2, \mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ does not converge to $P_{1, M}$ when $t \rightarrow \infty$.
Proof. Let $u$ be a regular solution of (1.13) with $u(0)=1$ and $u_{r}(0)=0$. As in [14] we set

$$
G(r)=\frac{1}{2}\left(u_{r}^{2}(r)-\frac{2 p}{p+1}|u|^{p+1}(r)\right) .
$$

Then $G(0)<0$ and $u>0$ on some maximal interval $\left[0, r_{1}\right)$ with $r_{1} \leq \infty$. If there exists a minimal $r_{0} \leq r_{1}$ such that $G\left(r_{0}\right)=0$, then $G_{r}\left(r_{0}\right) \geq 0$. From (1.13) we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
G_{r}\left(r_{0}\right) & =u_{r}\left(r_{0}\right)\left(u_{r r}\left(r_{0}\right)-p u^{p}\left(r_{0}\right)\right) \\
& =-\frac{N-1}{r_{0}} u_{r}^{2}\left(r_{0}\right)-u_{r}\left(r_{0}\right)\left((p+1) u^{p}\left(r_{0}\right)+M \left\lvert\, u_{r}\left(r_{0}\right)^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}\right.\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\left.G\left(r_{0}\right)=0, \left.u^{p}\left(r_{0}\right)=\left(\frac{p+1}{2 p}\right)^{\frac{p}{p+1}} \right\rvert\, u_{r}\left(r_{0}\right)\right)^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}$, hence

$$
G^{\prime}\left(r_{0}\right)=-\frac{N-1}{r_{0}} u_{r}^{2}\left(r_{0}\right)-u_{r}\left(r_{0}\right)\left|u_{r}\left(r_{0}\right)\right|^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}\left(\mu^{*}(1)+M\right) .
$$

Since $u_{r}\left(r_{0}\right)<0$ we obtain a contradiction. Therefore $G(r)<0$ for any $r \in\left(0, r_{0}\right)$. By continuity this implies (4.18) and in particular $u(r)>0$, hence $u$ is a ground state. Inequality (4.18) implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
u(r)>\frac{1}{\left(1+\frac{p-1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{2 p}{p+1}} r\right)^{\frac{2}{p-1}}} \quad \text { for all } r>0 \tag{4.19}
\end{equation*}
$$

from which follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
\liminf _{r \rightarrow \infty} r^{\frac{2}{p-1}} u(r) \geq\left(\frac{2(p+1)}{p(p-1)^{2}}\right)^{\frac{1}{p-1}} \tag{4.20}
\end{equation*}
$$

This implies that the trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ does not converge to ( 0,0 ) at infinity (a result which was clear when $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$ in which case $(0,0)$ is a source). For the last statement we have with the equation (2.14) satisfied by the equilibrium $X_{M}$ and the fact that $M \leq-\mu^{*}(1)$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\tilde{f}_{M}\left(\left(\frac{2(p+1)}{p(p-1)^{2}}\right)^{\frac{1}{p-1}}\right) & \leq \frac{2(p+1)}{p(p-1)^{2}}-\mu^{*}(1)\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}\left(\frac{2(p+1)}{p(p-1)^{2}}\right)^{\frac{1}{p+1}}-\frac{2 K}{p-1} \\
& \leq-\frac{2(N-1)}{p-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\tilde{f}_{M}$ has two roots $0<X_{1, M}<X_{2, M}$ by Proposition 2.2 and $M \leq-\mu^{*}(1)<-\mu^{*}(N)$, and we have $\left(\frac{2(p+1)}{p(p-1)^{2}}\right)^{\frac{1}{p-1}}>X_{1, M}$, the result follows.

Next we give an alternative proof of a result of [16].

Lemma 4.5 Let $N=1,2$ and $p>1$ or $N \geq 3$ and $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$. If $-\mu^{*}<M \leq 0$ there exists no ground state.

Proof. If $-\mu^{*}<M<0$, the only equilibrium of $(1.17)$ is $(0,0)$ and it is a source by Section 3.4.1. If there exists a ground state then the trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ remains in $\mathbf{Q}$. It is bounded by Proposition 2.4 hence it admits an $\omega$-limit set which either contains an equilibrium or is a periodic orbit. The two possibilities are excluded.

Next we study the case $M \leq-\mu^{*}$. In particular we cover the case $M=-\mu^{*}$ studied in [22] with a different proof, using the energy function $\mathcal{Z}$ defined in (2.41).

Lemma 4.6 Let $N \geq 3$ and $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$, or $N=2$ and $p>1$. If $M \leq-\mu^{*}$ then,
(i) $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ cannot converge to $P_{1, M}$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$ with $t \mapsto x(t)$ increasing,
(ii) $\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{r e g}}$ cannot intersect $\mathcal{L}$ at a point between $(0,0)$ and $P_{1, M}$.

Proof. The function $\mathcal{Z}$ defined by (2.41) satisfies (2.43) and (2.44). Then $\mathcal{U}>0$ as soon as

$$
|M| y^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} \leq|L| \frac{(p+1)^{2}}{p+3}
$$

For $M \leq-\mu^{*}$, there holds from Proposition 2.2 and (2.17),

$$
|M| Y_{1, M}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} \leq \mu^{*} Y_{-\mu^{*}}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}=\frac{p+1}{p}|K|<|L| \frac{(p+1)^{2}}{p(p+3)}
$$

Indeed we check that

$$
(p+1)|L|-(p+3)|K|=2(N-1) .
$$

Hence $\mathcal{U}>0$ for any $y \in\left[0, Y_{1, M}\right]$.
(i) Suppose that $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ converges to $P_{1, M}$ with $x(t)$ increasing, hence $(x(t), y(t)$ is below $\mathcal{L}$ and $y(t)$ is also increasing. Then from $(2.43) r \mapsto e^{\frac{2 p|M|}{p+1} \int_{0}^{r}\left|u_{r}\right|^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} d s} \mathcal{Z}(r)$ is increasing. But $\mathcal{Z}(0)=0$ and $\lim _{r \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{Z}(r)=0$ from (2.42) since $L<0$ and $x$ and $y$ are bounded. This is a contradiction.
(ii) Suppose that $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ intersects $\mathcal{L}$ at a point $\left(\tilde{x}_{M}, \tilde{y}_{M}\right)$ between $(0,0)$ and $P_{1, M}$, i.e. $\tilde{y}_{M}<Y_{1, M}$.
(a) If $M<-\mu^{*}$, then consider the stable trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,1}$ at $P_{1, M}$ which is below $\mathcal{L}$ : $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,1}$ cannot converge to $(0,0)$ when $t \rightarrow-\infty$; indeed it would be a unstable trajectory at the source point $(0,0)$ and since $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ is the unique fast unstable trajectory at this point (see Section 2.4.1), it is below $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,1}$ near zero and the two curve would intersect. Therefore $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,1}$ leaves $\mathbf{Q}$ through the semi-axis $\{(x, 0): x>0\}$ at some at some $x=x(\tau)$ and $(x(t), y(t)) \in \mathbf{Q}$ for $t>\tau$. Setting $\bar{r}=e^{\tau}$, there holds $\mathcal{Z}(\bar{r})=\bar{r}^{a} u^{p+1}(\bar{r})>0$ and again $r \mapsto e^{\frac{2 p|M|}{p+1} \int_{r}^{\infty}\left|u_{r}\right|^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} d s} \mathcal{Z}(r)$ is increasing with limit 0 as $r \rightarrow \infty$, a contradiction.
(b) If $M=-\mu^{*}$ and $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}:=\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}^{-\mu^{*}}$ intersects $\mathcal{L}$ at some point between $(0,0)$ and $P_{-\mu^{*}}$, then by continuity and transversality, $\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{r e g}}^{\mathrm{M}}$ intersects $\mathcal{L}$ at some point between $(0,0)$ and $P_{1, M}$ if $-\mu^{*}-\epsilon \leq M<-\mu^{*}$ provided $\epsilon>0$ is small enough. This contradicts (a).

Proposition 4.7 Let $N \geq 3$ and $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$ or $N=2$ and $p>1$.
(i) If $M<-\mu^{*}$ and $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ does not converge to $P_{2, M}$, then it intersects the line $\mathcal{L}$ at some point $(x, y)$ with $x>X_{2, M}$.
(ii) If $M=-\mu^{*}$ then $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ intersects $\mathcal{L}$ at some point $(x, y)$ with $x>X_{-\mu^{*}}$ and leaves $\mathbf{Q}$; there is no ground state.

Proof. (i) Suppose $M<-\mu^{*}$. If $\mathbf{T}_{r e g}$ remains below $\mathcal{L}$, then $x_{t}>0, y_{t}>0$ and $\mathbf{T}_{r e g}$ converges to $P_{1, M}$ or $P_{2, M}$ The first limit is excluded by Lemma 4.6 and the second by assumption. Hence $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ intersects $\mathcal{L}$. This intersection cannot occur between $(0,0)$ and $P_{1, M}$ and between $P_{1, M}$ and $P_{2, M}$ since the vector field $\mathbf{H}$ is inward in the region $\mathbf{B}$ on this segment, so it occurs at some point $(x, y)$ with $x>X_{2, M}$.
(ii) Suppose $M=-\mu^{*}$. By Lemma $4.6, \mathbf{T}_{r e g}$ intersects $\mathcal{L}$ at some point $(x, y)$ with $x>X_{-\mu^{*}}$ and it enters in the region $\mathbf{D}$ (note that the region $\mathbf{B}$ is empty). Consider the slope $\sigma=\frac{y}{x}$ of the trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg. }}$. As long as $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ stays under $\mathcal{L}, \sigma>\frac{2}{p-1}$. Now we introduce the system (2.5), (2.6) and set $\kappa=\frac{z}{\sigma}=\frac{x^{p+1}}{y^{2}}$. Hence

$$
\frac{\sigma_{t}}{\sigma}=\sigma+z-\mu^{*} \sigma^{\frac{p}{p+1}} z^{\frac{1}{p+1}}+2-N=\sigma \phi(\kappa)+2-N
$$

with

$$
\phi(\kappa)=1+\kappa-\mu^{*} \kappa^{\frac{1}{p+1}}
$$

The function $\phi$ achieves its minimum at $\kappa^{*}=\left(\frac{\mu^{*}}{p+1}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p}}$ and $\phi\left(\kappa^{*}\right)=\frac{(N-2)(p-1)}{2}$. Thus

$$
\frac{\sigma_{t}}{\sigma} \geq(N-2)\left(\sigma-\frac{p-1}{2}\right) \geq 0
$$

Thus $\sigma$ is nondecreasing. Therefore, after crossing $\mathcal{L}, \sigma>\frac{2}{p-1}$ and $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ cannot converge to $P_{-\mu^{*}}$.

### 4.1 Ground states and large solutions when $M<0$

The following result extends [7, Theorem B'] to a larger class of parameters $M$ in the radial case.

Proposition 4.8 Assume $N \geq 2, p>1$ and $M>-\mu^{*}(1)$. Then there exists no positive solution of (1.13) in $(a, b)$ for $a<b$ tending to infinity at $r=a$.

Proof. Without loss of generality we can assume $a=1$. If $M \geq-\mu^{*}(2)$ the result follows from [7, Theorem B'], hence we can assume $-\mu^{*}(1)<M<-\mu^{*}(2)$. We put $m=|M|>0$ and

$$
\alpha=\alpha(m)=\left(p^{p}\left(\frac{m}{p+1}\right)^{p+1}-1\right)>0
$$

If $u$ satisfies (1.13) and blows-up at $r=1$, then $v=\ln u$ satisfies

$$
\begin{align*}
-v_{r r}-\frac{N-1}{r} v_{r}+\alpha e^{(p-1) v} & \geq 0 \quad \text { in }(1, b)  \tag{4.21}\\
\lim _{r \rightarrow 1} v(r) & =\infty
\end{align*}
$$

Up to changing $b$, we can assuming that $u(b) \geq 1$, it follows that $v$ is bounded from below on $(1, b)$ by the solution of

$$
\begin{gather*}
-w_{r r}-\frac{N-1}{r} w_{r}+\alpha e^{(p-1) w} \geq 0 \quad \text { in }(1, b)  \tag{4.22}\\
\lim _{r \rightarrow 1} w(r)=\infty \quad v(b)=0 .
\end{gather*}
$$

It is classical [21] that $\left|w(r)-\frac{2}{p-1} \ln \left(\frac{1}{r-1}\right)\right|$ remains bounded on $(1, b)$. Returning to the variable $(x(t), y(t))$ solutions of $(1.17)$, then $x(t) \geq c t^{-\frac{2}{p-1}}$ on $(0, \ln b)$.
(i) We first observe that $t^{\frac{2}{p-1}} x(t)$ and $t^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}} y(t)$ remain bounded on $(0, \ln b)$. Indeed, by the equation satisfied by $y$ we get

$$
\left(e^{K t} y(t)\right)_{t} \geq-m e^{K t}|y(t)|^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}} \geq-c\left|e^{K t} y(t)\right|^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}
$$

and there exists a sequence $\left\{t_{n}\right\}$ converging to 0 such that $y\left(t_{n}\right) \rightarrow \infty$. Furthermore $z(t)=$ $e^{K t} y(t)$ satisfies

$$
-\left(\frac{p+1}{p-1}|z|^{-\frac{p-1}{p+1}} \operatorname{sgn}(z)\right)^{\prime} \geq c_{1} \Longrightarrow|z(t)|^{-\frac{p-1}{p+1}} \operatorname{sgn}(z(t)) \leq c_{2} t \Longrightarrow z(t) \geq c_{3} t^{-\frac{p+1}{p-1}}
$$

Therefore $y(t) \geq c_{3} t^{-\frac{p+1}{p-1}}$. Using the equation (2.1) we first observe that $x_{t}$ remains negative in a right neighbourhood of 0 otherwise there would exists a sequence $\left\{t_{n}\right\}$ decreasing to 0 where $x_{t}\left(t_{n}\right)=0$ and $x_{t t}\left(t_{n}\right) \geq 0$ yielding

$$
\left(x\left(t_{n}\right)\right)^{p}-\frac{K}{p-1} x\left(t_{n}\right)-m\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}\left(x\left(t_{n}\right)\right)^{\frac{2}{p-1}} \leq 0
$$

which is impossible since $x\left(t_{n}\right) \rightarrow \infty$. Similarly $y_{t}$ remains negative on some interval $\left(0, \tau_{1}\right)$ otherwise there would exists a sequence $\left\{t_{n}^{\prime}\right\}$ decreasing to 0 such that $y_{t}\left(t_{n}^{\prime}\right)=0$ and $y_{t t}\left(t_{n}^{\prime}\right) \geq 0$. Since

$$
y_{t t}=-K y_{t}+p x^{p-1} x_{t}-\frac{2 m p}{p+1} y^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} y_{t}
$$

and $x_{t} \leq 0$ we derive a contradiction. Therefore $y(t) \rightarrow \infty$ as $t \rightarrow 0, y_{t} \leq 0$ and

$$
-K y=x^{p}-m y^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}} \leq 0 \Longrightarrow y(t) \geq c_{4} x(t)^{\frac{p+1}{2}}
$$

which implies

$$
x_{t} \leq \frac{2 x}{p-1}-c_{4} x^{\frac{p+1}{2}} \leq c_{5} x^{\frac{p+1}{2}} \Longrightarrow x(t) \leq c_{6} c t^{-\frac{2}{p-1}}
$$

near $t=0$. Using again (1.17) and the monotonicity of $x(t)$ and $y(t)$,

$$
e^{-\frac{t}{p-1}} x\left(\frac{t}{2}\right) \geq \frac{(p-1)\left(e^{-\frac{t}{p-1}}-e^{-\frac{2 t}{p-1}}\right)}{2} y(t) \geq c_{6} t y(t)
$$

which yields $0 \leq y(t) \leq c_{7} t^{-\frac{p+1}{p-1} t}$ near $t=0$.
(ii) Next we set $\kappa(\tau)=(r-1)^{\frac{2}{p-1}} u(r)$ with $\tau=\ln (r-1)$. Then $\kappa$ satisfies on $(-\infty, \beta]$ for some $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$

$$
\begin{align*}
-\kappa_{\tau \tau}+\frac{p+3}{p-1} \kappa_{\tau}-\frac{2(p+1)}{(p-1)^{2}} \kappa & +\frac{(N-1) e^{\tau}}{1+e^{\tau}}\left(\frac{2}{p-1} \kappa-\kappa_{\tau}\right)  \tag{4.23}\\
& -\kappa^{p}+m\left|\frac{2}{p-1} \kappa-\kappa_{\tau}\right|^{\frac{2 p}{p-1}}=0
\end{align*}
$$

and $\kappa$ and $\kappa_{\tau}$ remain bounded from above and from below on $(-\infty, a]$. Therefore the limit set $\Sigma$ of the corresponding trajectory at $-\infty$ is not empty and it is included in the limit set $\tilde{\Sigma}$ at $-\infty$, of some trajectory of a nonnegative function satisfying the autonomous system

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\phi_{\tau \tau}+\frac{p+3}{p-1} \phi_{\tau}-\frac{2(p+1)}{(p-1)^{2}} \phi-\phi^{p}+m\left|\frac{2}{p-1} \phi-\phi_{\tau}\right|^{\frac{2 p}{p-1}}=0 \tag{4.24}
\end{equation*}
$$

Which is precisely equation (2.1) in dimension 1. By the Poincaré-Bendixon theorem, $\tilde{\Sigma}$ either contains an equilibrium or it is a limit cycle. If the limit set contains an equilibrium, say $W$, it is positive and satisfies

$$
-\frac{2(p+1)}{(p-1)^{2}} W-W^{p}+m\left(\frac{2}{p-1} W\right)^{\frac{2 p}{p-1}}=0
$$

Since $M>-\mu^{*}(1)$ the only nonnegative root is zero, which yields a contradiction. If the limit set is a cycle $\gamma$, it is a subset of $\mathbf{Q}$. This imply that there would exist an equilibrium in the region bordered by $\gamma$, contradiction. This ends the proof.

Corollary 4.9 Assume $N \geq 2, p>1$ and $-\mu^{*}(1)<M \leq-\mu^{*}$. Then any solution $(x(t), y(t))$ of system (1.17) issued from a point $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) \in \mathbf{Q}$ and staying in $\mathbf{Q}$ for $t \in I_{\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)} \cap \mathbb{R}_{-}$where $I_{\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)}$ is the maximal interval of existence of this solution is defined on $\mathbb{R}_{-}$and is bounded therein.

Proof. Consider any solution such that $\left(x(0), y(0)=\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) \in \mathbf{Q}\right.$ and suppose its negative trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{-}$is defined on some maximal interval $(\theta, 0]$ with $\theta \in(-\infty, 0)$ and thus unbounded. We first suppose that $t \mapsto x(t)$ is not monotone when $t \rightarrow \theta$. Then there exists a sequence $\left\{t_{n}\right\}$ decreasing to $\theta$ such that $x_{t}\left(t_{n}\right)=0$ and thus $a_{n}=\left(x\left(t_{n}\right), y\left(t_{n}\right)\right) \in \mathcal{L}, x_{t t}\left(t_{n}\right)=y_{t}\left(t_{n}\right)<0$ and $\lim _{t_{n} \rightarrow \theta} x\left(t_{n}\right)=\infty$.
Consider now the regular trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$. If $p \geq \frac{N}{N-2}$ then, from Lemma 2.5, either $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ converges to $P_{M}$ when $t \rightarrow \infty$, or it crosses $\mathcal{L}$ at a point $\left(x^{*}, \frac{2}{p-1} x^{*}\right)$ with $x^{*}>X_{M}$. If $n$ is such
that $x^{*}<x\left(t_{n}\right)$ we get a contradiction: indeed for $t<t_{n-1}, \mathbf{T}_{-}$stays in the region bordered from above by $\mathcal{L}$ and $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$, so it cannot intersect $\mathcal{L}$ at $a_{n}$.
If $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$, we infer the same contradiction using Proposition 4.7. Therefore $x(t)$ decreases monotonically to $\infty$ when $t \rightarrow \theta$. Since $M>-\mu(1)$ we derive a contradiction.
Hence $\inf I_{\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)}=-\infty$. By the same reasons as above, $t \mapsto x(t)$ is monotone decreasing and $x(t) \rightarrow \infty$ when $t \rightarrow-\infty$, and $y(t)>\frac{2}{p-1} x(t) \rightarrow \infty$. Moreover there exists $\bar{t}<0$ such that $y_{t}(t) \leq 0$ : indeed, if for some $t_{0}<\bar{t}, y_{t}\left(t_{0}\right)>0$, then $\left(x\left(t_{0}\right), y\left(t_{0}\right)\right) \in \mathbf{D}$ and necessarily $(x(t), y(t)$ remains in $\mathbf{D}$ for $t \leq t_{0}$ because $x_{t}(t)<0$ implies that $(x(t), y(t) \in \mathbf{D} \cup \mathbf{A}$ and the backward trajectory cannot cross the curve $\mathcal{C}$ where $y_{t}=0$; now this implies that $y_{t}(t)>0$ for $t \leq t_{0}$, a contradiction. Therefore $y_{t}(t) \leq 0$ for $t \leq \bar{t}$. Then

$$
|M| y^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}} \geq x^{p}-|K| y \geq x^{p}-\frac{|M|}{2} y^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}-c_{M} .
$$

Since $x(t) \rightarrow \infty$, we deduce for large $|t|$,

$$
\frac{|M|}{2} y^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}} \geq \frac{1}{2} x^{p} .
$$

Returning to the system (1.17), we get for large $|t|$

$$
x_{t}=\frac{2}{p-1} x-y \leq \frac{2}{p-1} x-|M|^{-\frac{2 p}{p+1}} x^{\frac{p+1}{2}} \leq-c^{2} x^{\frac{p+1}{2}} .
$$

Since $\frac{p+1}{2}>1$, it is straightforward to check by integration that a positive function $x$ satisfying the above differential inequality cannot be defined on a interval unbounded from below, which ends the proof.

Proposition 4.10 Assume $p>1$ and $-\mu^{*}(1)<M<-\mu^{*}(1)+\epsilon$ for $\epsilon>0$ small enough. Then there exists a ground state and (4.18) still holds.

Proof. Assume $-\mu^{*}(1)<M<-\mu^{*}(1)+\epsilon$ and the regular solution $u$ is not a ground state. Then using the notation of Lemma 4.4 there exists $r_{0}>0$ such that $G\left(r_{0}\right)=0$ and $G^{\prime}\left(r_{0}\right) \geq 0$. Hence $u_{r}^{2}\left(r_{0}\right)=\frac{2 p}{p+1} u_{r}^{p+1}\left(r_{0}\right) \neq 0$, thus

$$
\frac{N-1}{r_{0}} \leq\left|u_{r}\left(r_{0}\right)\right|^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}\left(\mu^{*}(1)+M\right) .
$$

Put $t_{0}=\ln r_{0}$, then $y^{2}\left(t_{0}\right)=\frac{2 p}{p+1} x^{p+1}\left(t_{0}\right)$ and $N-1 \leq\left|y\left(t_{0}\right)\right|^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}\left(\mu^{*}(1)+M\right)$. Equivalently

$$
\begin{equation*}
y\left(t_{0}\right) \geq\left(\frac{N-1}{\epsilon}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}} \text { hence } x\left(t_{0}\right) \geq\left(\frac{2 p}{p+1}\right)^{\frac{1}{p+1}}\left(\frac{N-1}{\epsilon}\right)^{\frac{2}{p-1}} \tag{4.25}
\end{equation*}
$$

The curve $\left\{(x, y): y^{2}=\frac{2 p}{p+1} x^{p+1}\right\}$ cuts $\mathcal{L}$ at a unique $S_{0}=\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) \in \mathbf{Q}$ and $y_{0}^{p-1}=$ $\frac{p+1}{2 p}\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\right)^{p+1}$. If $M=-\mu^{*}(1)$ and $p \geq \frac{N}{N-2}\left(\right.$ resp. $\left.1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}\right)$, then $X_{-\mu^{*}(1)}>x_{0}$ (resp. $X_{2,-\mu^{*}(1)}>x_{0}$ ). Indeed this follows from (2.16). In the same way, if $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$, then
$X_{1,-\mu^{*}(1)}<x_{0}$. These configurations still hold if $\epsilon$ is small enough, i.e. $X_{-\mu^{*}(1)+\epsilon}>x_{0}$ if $p \geq \frac{N}{N-2}$ and $X_{1,-\mu^{*}(1)+\epsilon}<x_{0}<X_{2,-\mu^{*}(1)+\epsilon}$ if $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$. However, the regular trajectory associated to $M, \mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}^{M}$ has a unique intersection with $\mathcal{L}$, at a point $\left(x_{\text {reg }}\left(t_{1}\right), y_{\text {reg }}\left(t_{1}\right)\right.$ where $x_{\text {reg }}\left(t_{1}\right)$ is maximal, and either $p \geq \frac{N}{N-2}$ and $x_{r e g}\left(t_{1}\right)>X_{-\mu^{*}(1)+\epsilon}$, or $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$ and $x_{r e g}\left(t_{0}\right)>X_{1,-\mu^{*}(1)+\epsilon}$. In both case $t_{1}<t_{0}, y_{\text {reg }}\left(t_{1}\right)=\frac{2}{p-1} x_{\text {reg }}\left(t_{1}\right)$ and $x_{\text {reg }}\left(t_{1}\right)>\left(\frac{p+1}{2 p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p+1}}\left(\frac{N-1}{\epsilon}\right)^{\frac{2}{p-1}}$. Now, for $M>-\mu^{*}(1)$ the trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}^{M}$ remains above $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}^{-\mu^{*}(1)}$ as long as they remain below $\mathcal{L}$ by Lemma 2.9. Then we encounter two possibilities: either $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}^{-\mu^{*}(1)}$ converges to $P_{-\mu^{*}(1)}$ (or $P_{2,-\mu^{*}(1)}$ if $\left.1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}\right)$ with $x(t)$ and $y(t)$ increasing, or $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}^{-\mu^{*}(1)}$ crosses $\mathcal{L}$ at some point $(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})$ depending only on $N$ and $p$. Both possibilities are ruled out if $\epsilon$ is small enough. Hence $\mathbf{T}_{r e g}^{M}$ is a ground state if $M \in\left(-\mu^{*}(1),-\mu^{*}(1)+\epsilon\right]$ for $\epsilon>0$ small enough and $G$ remains negative.

### 4.2 The case $M<0, N \geq 3$ and $p \geq \frac{N+2}{N-2}$

Theorem 4.11 Assume $M<0, N \geq 3$ and $p \geq \frac{N+2}{N-2}$. Then there exist ground states $u$. Moreover they satisfy $u(r) \sim U_{M}(r)$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$.

Proof. Let $\left(x_{r e g}(t), y_{\text {reg }}(t)\right)$ be the regular solution issued from ( 0,0 ). By Lemma 2.8 the function $\mathcal{V}$ defined in (2.37) is increasing. Since it vanishes at $t=-\infty$ it is positive. If there exists some $t_{0}$ such that $x_{\text {reg }}\left(t_{0}\right)=0$ then $\mathcal{V}\left(t_{0}\right)<0$, which is impossible, hence $x_{\text {reg }}(t)>0$ for all $t$. Thus $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ is a ground state; it is bounded by Proposition 2.4, cannot converge to ( 0,0 ) since $\mathcal{V}(t)>\mathcal{V}(-\infty)=0$. There is no cycle from Lemma 4.3, hence it converges to $P_{M}$ which is a sink.
Remark. The existence of a ground state was already obtained in [19] with the use of the function $\mathcal{Z}$ defined in (2.41).
4.3 The case $M<0, N \geq 3$ and $\frac{N}{N-2}<p<\frac{N+2}{N-2}$

In what follows we give an improvement of [22, Theorem A] in which it is shown that in this range of exponent there exists some $\omega>0$ such that $-\omega \leq-M<0$ there exists no ground state. The expression of $\omega$ is explicit (and not simple).

Theorem 4.12 Assume $N \geq 3$ and $\frac{N}{N-2}<p<\frac{N+2}{N-2}$. If $\bar{M} \leq M<0$ there exists no ground state. Moreover there exists a unique, up to similarity transformation, positive solution u satisfying $u(r) \sim U_{M}(r)$ as $r \rightarrow 0$ such that $u(r) \sim c r^{2-N}(c>0)$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$.

Proof. Suppose that there exists such a ground state, then $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ remains in $\overline{\mathbf{Q}}$. By Proposition 4.1, $P_{M}$ is either a source if $\bar{M}<M$ or a weak source if $\bar{M}=M$, and by Lemma 4.3 there exists no cycle surrounding $P_{M}$. By Lemma $2.5,\left(x_{\text {reg }}(t), y_{\text {reg }}(t)\right)$ converges to $(0,0)$ when $t \rightarrow \infty$, hence $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ is a homoclinic orbit equivalently $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}=\mathbf{T}_{s t}=\mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}$. Now

$$
\text { Trace } D \mathbf{H}(0,0)=\frac{2}{p-1}-K=-L>0
$$

Hence, by [17, Th 9.3.3] the homoclinic orbit is repelling. Since $P_{M}$ is also repelling, we derive a contradiction because any trajectory issue from $\mathcal{B}$ must converge to $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$. Hence $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ intersects the axis $\{x=0\}$ for some positive $y_{1}>0$, there exists no ground state. We denote by $\mathcal{O}$ the region of $\mathbf{Q}$ delimited by the regular trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ and the segment $(0, y): 0<y<y_{1}$. It is negatively invariant. The stable trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{s t}=\left\{x_{s t}, y_{s t}\right\}$ of $(0,0)$ satisfies $x_{s t}(t)=$ $c e^{-K t}(1+o(1))$ and $y_{s t}(t)=c(N-2) e^{-K t}(1+o(1))$ when $t \rightarrow-\infty$, thus it remains in $\mathcal{O}$. Because there are no cycle in $\mathcal{O}$, it must converge to $P_{M}$, hence the corresponding $u_{s t}$ is equivalent to $U_{M}$ near $r=0$, which ends to proof.
Remark. In the previous theorem the positive solution $u$ satisfying $u(r) \sim U_{M}(r)$ as $r \rightarrow 0$ such that $u(r) \sim c r^{2-N}(c>0)$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$ is the stable trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{s t}$. It is a heteroclinic orbit connecting $(0,0)$ to $P_{M}$. We conjecture that in the case $p=\frac{N}{N-2}$ the non existence of ground state still holds and that there exists a unique solution $u$ such that satisfying $u(r) \sim U_{M}(r)$ as $r \rightarrow 0$ such that $u(r) \sim c r^{2-N}(\ln r)^{\frac{2-N}{2}}(c>0)$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$.

The expression of the result presents some similarity with Theorem 3.7 in the case $M>0$. However a new type of difficulty appears: in order to define properly an intersection function expressing the distance between some trajectories as in [4], we need to find some values of the parameter $M$ for which there exists a ground state. and all the trajectories in $\mathbf{Q}$ are bounded. It is not the case when $M<-\mu^{*}(1)$ even if there exists a ground state by Lemma 4.4 but we can easily proved that there exist large solutions. So we need to prove that for $M=-\mu^{*}(1)+\epsilon$ there exist a ground state and all the trajectories in $\mathbf{Q}$ are bounded. This is the object of Proposition 4.10 and Proposition 4.8.

Theorem 4.13 Let $N \geq 3$ and $\frac{N}{N-2}<p<\frac{N+2}{N-2}$. There exist positive constants $\tilde{\mu}_{\min } \leq \tilde{\mu}_{\max }$, verifying $\bar{\mu}<\tilde{\mu}_{\text {min }} \leq \tilde{\mu}_{\text {max }}<\mu^{*}(1)$ such that
(i) If $M<-\tilde{\mu}_{\text {max }}$ there exist ground states $u$ such that $u(r) \sim U_{M}(r)$ or ondulating around $U_{M}(r)$ when $r \rightarrow \infty$.
(ii) If $M=-\tilde{\mu}_{\text {max }}$ or If $M=-\tilde{\mu}_{\text {min }}$ there exist ground states $u$ such that $u(r) \sim c r^{2-N}, c>0$, when $r \rightarrow \infty$.
(iii) If $-\tilde{\mu}_{\text {min }}<M<0$ there exists no ground state. Furthermore there exist singular solutions $u$ ondulating around $U_{M}(r)$ when $r>0$ and singular solutions $u$ ondulating around $U_{M}(r)$ when $r \rightarrow 0$ and such that $u(r) \sim c r^{2-N}, c>0$, when $r \rightarrow \infty$.

Proof. Recall that $\bar{M}=-\bar{\mu}$. First we show that if $-\mu^{*}(1)<M<\bar{M}$, the stable trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{s t}:=\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{M}$ either has a limit cycle around $P_{M}$ or does not stay in $\mathbf{Q}$. If we assume that it stays in $\mathbf{Q}$, then it is bounded by Corollary 4.9. Since at $-\infty$ it cannot converge to $P_{M}$ which is a sink by Proposition 4.1, it admits a alpha-limit cycle which is a closed orbit around $P_{M}$.

For $-\mu^{*}(1)<M<\bar{M}$ we denote by $P_{s t}^{M}=\left(x_{s t}^{M}, x_{s t}^{M}\right)$ the farthest point of the closure $\overline{\mathbf{T}_{s t}}$ of the trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{s t}$ belonging to the line $\mathcal{L}$, i.e. the points with the largest $x$ (and $y$ )-coordinate. We also denote by $P_{r e g}^{M}=\left(x_{r e g}^{M}, x_{r e g}^{M}\right)$ the farthest point of the intersection of $\mathcal{L}$ with the closure $\overline{\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}}$ of $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}:=\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}^{M}$. More precisely since either $\mathbf{T}_{s t}$ leaves $\mathbf{Q}$ or has an alpha-limit cycle around $P_{M}$, in that case $P_{s t}^{M}$ corresponds to the last intersection of $\mathbf{T}_{s t}$ and $\mathcal{L}$. If $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ converges to $P_{M}$ monotonically, then $P_{r e g}^{M}=P_{M} \in \overline{\mathbf{T}_{r e g}}$, while if this convergence is not monotone, or if $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ admits a omega-limit cycle around $P_{M}$, or if $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ leaves $\mathbf{Q}, P_{\text {reg }}^{M}$ is the first intersection of $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$
with $\mathcal{L}$. Both the functions $M \mapsto x_{s t}^{M}$ and $M \mapsto x_{\text {reg }}^{M}$ are continuous, either by transversality argument or by the continuity of $M \mapsto X_{M}$. Hence the function $M \mapsto g(M)=x_{r e g}^{M}-x_{s t}^{M}$ is continuous. For $M<\bar{M}$ we encounter three possibilities:
(i) $x_{r e g}^{M}=X_{M}$ or $\mathbf{T}_{s t}$ converges to $X_{M}$ non-monotonicaly, or $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ has a omega-limit cycle around $P_{M}$. In such a case $\mathbf{T}_{s t}$ does not stay in $\mathbf{Q}$, thus $g(M)<0$.
(ii) $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ does not stay in $\mathbf{Q}$, then $\mathbf{T}_{s t}$ belongs to the region of $\mathbf{Q}$ bordered by $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ and the axis $\{x=0\}$. Then thus $g(M)>0$.
(iii) $g(M)=0$, then $\mathbf{T}_{s t}=\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ is a homoclinic orbit.

If $M=\bar{M}$ there exists no ground state by Theorem 4.12 hence, by continuity, this still holds for $\bar{M}-\epsilon<M<\bar{M}$ for $\epsilon>0$ small enough and then $g(\bar{M})>0$. By Proposition 4.10, if $-\mu^{*}(1)<M<-\mu^{*}(1)+\epsilon$, there exists a ground state, hence $g(M)<0$. Since $g$ is continuous there exists $M \in\left(-\mu^{*}(1), \bar{M}\right)$ such that $g(M)=0$.

If we define

$$
\begin{align*}
& \tilde{\mu}_{\text {min }}=\min \left\{|M| \in\left(\bar{\mu}, \mu^{*}(1)\right): g(M)>0\right\}  \tag{4.26}\\
& \tilde{\mu}_{\text {max }}=\max \left\{|M| \in\left(\bar{\mu}, \mu^{*}(1)\right): g(M)<0\right\}
\end{align*}
$$

then the trajectories $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ corresponding to $M=-\tilde{\mu}_{\text {min }}$ and $M=-\tilde{\mu}_{\text {max }}$ are homoclinic and they satisfy the statements (ii) of Theorem 4.13 and the conclusion follows.

The proof of Theorem B, B' follows from Theorem 4.12 and Theorem 4.13.

### 4.4 The case $M<0$ and $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$

We present first a general existence result of singular solutions.
Proposition 4.14 If $N \geq 3,1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$ and $M<-\mu^{*}$ there exists positive singular solutions $u$ such that $r^{N-2} u(r) \rightarrow c$ for some $c>0$ when $r \rightarrow 0$ and $r^{\frac{2}{p-1}} u(r) \rightarrow X_{1, M}$ when $r \rightarrow \infty$.
Proof. By Proposition 4.2 $P_{1, M}$ is a saddle point of system (1.17). By the remark after this proposition there exist two stable trajectories $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1, j}, j=1,2$ converging to $P_{1, M}$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$; the trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,1}$ is locally below the line $\mathcal{L}$ (see Proposition 4.7), hence it belongs to the region $\mathbf{C}$ for $t>t_{0}$. By Proposition 4.7 either the regular trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ converges to $P_{2, M}$ or it crosses the line $\mathcal{L}$ beyond $P_{2, M}$. Hence $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,1}$ cannot intersects $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$, and is trapped when $t$ decreases in the region $\mathbf{C}$ and the curve $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$. Thus it converges to $(0,0)$ when $t \rightarrow-\infty$. Because ( 0,0 ) is a source (see Section 3.4.1) with one fast trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{r e g}$, which satisfies $\lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty} e^{-\frac{2}{p-1} t} x_{r e g}(t)=u(0)$, the trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,1}$ is a slow one and it satisfies $\lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty} e^{\left(N-2-\frac{2}{p-1}\right) t} x_{r e g}(t)=c$.
Remark. Under the assumptions of Proposition 4.14 the trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}^{1,4}$ leaves $\mathbf{Q}$ since in this region it stays in the sector $\left\{(x, y): H_{j}(x, y)<0\right\}$ for $j=1,2$, and this sector contains no stable equilibrium. The result holds also if $M=-\mu^{*}$.
Theorem 4.15 Let $N \geq 3$ and $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$. Then
(i) if $\bar{M} \leq M \leq 0$ there exists no ground state.
(ii) if $\bar{M} \leq M<-\mu^{*}$ there exists a positive singular solution $u$, unique up to scaling, such that $u(r) \sim U_{2, M}(r)$ as $r \rightarrow 0, u(r) \sim U_{1, M}(r)$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$ and $u(r)>U_{1, M}(r)$ for any $r>0$.

Proof. (i) Let $\bar{M} \leq M \leq 0$. Suppose that there exists a ground state $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$, then $\bar{M} \leq M<-\mu^{*}$ by Lemma 4.5, and by Proposition 4.7. Furthermore this trajectory is bounded by Proposition 2.4. Moreover $P_{2, M}$ is a source or a weak source and there exists no cycle surrounding it by Proposition 4.2 and Lemma 4.3. Hence $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ converges to an equilibrium which cannot be ( 0,0 ) neither $P_{2, M}$. So, from Proposition 4.7, it converges to $P_{1, M}$ from above $\mathcal{L}$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$. Since $P_{1, M}$ is a saddle point $\mathbf{T}_{r e g}$ must coincide with the stable trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,2}$ of this point. Therefore the region bordered by $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}, \mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,1}$ and $(0,0)$ is invariant and it contains only one source equilibrium and no cycle around $P_{2, M}$ by Lemma 4.3. Any trajectory starting from this region must converge to $P_{1, M}$ which is impossible. Hence $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ is not a ground state. Since the trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{r e g}$ intersect the axis $\{x=0\}$, the trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,2}$ which converges to $P_{1, M}$ at infinity from above $\mathcal{L}$ is trapped in the region bordered by $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ and the semi-axis $\{(0, y): y>0\}$ which is negatively invariant. As there is no cycle in this region, it converges to $P_{2, M}$ when $t \rightarrow \infty$. To this trajectory corresponds a solution $u$ of (1.13) which satisfies $u(r) \sim U_{2, M}(r)$ when $r \rightarrow \infty$ and $u(r) \sim U_{1, M}(r)$ when $r \rightarrow 0$. Furthermore $u(r)>U_{1, M}(r)$ for all $r>0$.

The next result extends Proposition 4.14 to the case $M=-\mu^{*}$.
Proposition 4.16 Let $N \geq 3$ and $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$. If $M=-\mu^{*}$ there exists positive solutions $u$ satisfying $u(r) \sim c r^{2-N}$ when $r \rightarrow 0$ for some $c>0$ and $u(r) \sim U_{-\mu^{*}}(r)$ when $r \rightarrow \infty$.
Proof. Since $N \geq 3$, there still exist two unstable trajectories $\mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}^{1, j}(\mathrm{j}=3,4)$ starting from $P_{1, M}$ with slope $N-2 ; \mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}^{1,4}$, which is above $\mathcal{L}$, leaves $\mathbf{Q}$ through the semi-axis $\{(0, y): y>0\}$ (see the remark above). From Proposition 4.7 the trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ crosses $\mathcal{L}$ at a unique point $A_{\text {reg }}=\left(x_{r e g}, \frac{2}{p-1} x_{r e g}\right)$ with $x_{r e g}>X_{-\mu^{*}}$ and leaves $\mathbf{Q}$ through the semi-axis $\{(0, y): y>0\}$ and its exit point is above the exit point of $\mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}^{1,4}$. Hence the other unstable trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}^{1,3}$ which is trapped in the region of $\mathbf{Q}$ bordered by $\mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}^{1,4}, \mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ and the semi-axis $\{(0, y): y>0\}$, either converges to $P_{-\mu^{*}}$ or leaves $\mathbf{Q}$ crossing the semi-axis $\{(0, y): y>0\}$. Necessarily it intersects the line $\mathcal{L}$ at some point $\bar{A}=\left(\bar{x}, \frac{2}{p-1} \bar{x}\right)$ with $\bar{x}>X_{-\mu^{*}}$ and enters the region $\mathbf{D}$. As long as it stays above $\mathcal{L}$, as in the Proposition 4.7, there holds $\sigma_{t}>0$ (with the notations from this proposition). Thus it cannot converges to $P_{-\mu^{*}}$. Therefore $\mathbf{T}_{u n s t}^{1,3}$ crosses the semi-axis $\{(0, y): y>0\}$ between the exit points of $\mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}^{1,4}$ and $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$.
Let $\mathcal{R}$ be the open connected region of $\mathbf{Q}$ below the line $\mathcal{L}$ and bordered by $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ and $\mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}^{1,3}$. If $(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \in \mathcal{R}$ and $\tilde{\mathbf{T}}$ is the trajectory through this point, we have three possibilities:
(i) Either $\tilde{\mathbf{T}}$ leaves $\mathcal{R}$ crossing $\mathcal{L}$ between 0,0$)$ and $P_{-\mu^{*}}$,
(ii) Or $\tilde{\mathbf{T}}$ leaves $\mathcal{R}$ crossing $\mathcal{L}$ between $P_{-\mu^{*}}$ and $\bar{A}$,
(iii) Or $\tilde{\mathbf{T}}$ converges to $P_{-\mu^{*}}$.

The set of points satisfying (i) or (ii) are non-empty, disjoint and open. Therefore the set of points satisfying (iii) is non-empty and the corresponding trajectory $\tilde{\mathbf{T}}$ converges to $P_{-\mu^{*}}$ when $t \rightarrow \infty$. The backward trajectory remains in $\mathcal{R}$ which is negatively invariant. Since there is no fixed point in this region, it converges to $(0,0)$ when $t \rightarrow-\infty$ and it is a slow trajectory of this point, which ends the proof.

Next we describe the behaviour of the positive solutions for $M<-\bar{\mu}$. However, in order to use the method introduced in the proof of Theorem 4.13 we are confronted to another difficulty namely that there can exist homoclinic trajectories at $P_{1, M}$.

Theorem 4.17 Let $N \geq 3, M<0$ and $1<p<\frac{N}{N-2}$. Then there exist positive real numbers $\bar{\mu}<\hat{\mu}_{\min } \leq \hat{\mu}_{\max }<\tilde{\mu}_{\min } \leq \tilde{\mu}_{\max }<\mu^{*}(1)$ with the following properties

1) for $\bar{\mu}<|M|<\tilde{\mu}_{m i n}$ there is no radial ground state;
2) for $|M|=\tilde{\mu}_{\min }$ or $|M|=\tilde{\mu}_{\max }$ there exist ground states $u$ satisfying $u(r) \sim U_{1, M}(r)$ when $r \rightarrow \infty$;
3) for $|M|>\tilde{\mu}_{\max }$ there exist ground state either such that $u(r) \sim U_{2, M}(r)$ when $r \rightarrow \infty$ or ondulating around $U_{2, M}(r)$ when $r \rightarrow \infty$.

Moreover,
4) For $\bar{\mu}<|M|<\hat{\mu}_{\text {min }}$ there exist solutions $u$, necessarily singular, ondulating around $U_{2, M}$ as $r \rightarrow 0$ and $u(r) \sim U_{1, M}(r)$ when $r \rightarrow \infty$ and solutions $u$ ondulating around $U_{2, M}$ on $(0, \infty)$;
5) for $|M|=\hat{\mu}_{\min }$ or $|M|=\hat{\mu}_{\max }$ there exists a solution $u \neq U_{1, M}$ such that $u(r) \sim U_{1, M}(r)$ both when $r \rightarrow 0$ and $r \rightarrow \infty$;
6) for $\hat{\mu}_{\max }<|M|<\tilde{\mu}_{\text {min }}$ there exists a solution $u$ such that $u(r) \sim c r^{2-N}$ as $r \rightarrow 0$ and either $u(r) \sim U_{2, M}(r)$ or ondulating around $U_{2, M}$ when $r \rightarrow \infty$.

Proof. Step 1. For $M=\bar{M}$ we know the behaviour of solution from Theorem 4.15. The trajectories $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}, \mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}^{1,3}$ and $\mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}^{1,4}$ leave $\mathbf{Q}$ on $\{(0, y): y>0\}$ with transverse intersections, and $\mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}^{1,2}$ connects $P_{2, M}$ to $P_{1, M}$. This transversality property is also true for the corresponding trajectories with parameter $\bar{M}-\epsilon_{0} \leq M \leq \bar{M}$ for $\epsilon_{0}>0$ small enough. Let $\bar{M}_{\epsilon}=\bar{M}-\epsilon$ where $0<\epsilon \leq \epsilon_{0}$. Then $P_{2, \bar{M}_{\epsilon}}$ is a sink by Proposition 4.2. By Proposition 4.7, the points $P_{1, \bar{M}_{\epsilon}}$ and $P_{2, \bar{M}_{\epsilon}}$ belong to the region $\mathcal{R}_{\epsilon}$ bordered by $\mathbf{T}_{r e g}$, and the semi-axis $\{(0, y): y>0\}$. The trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,2}$ which converges to $P_{1, \bar{M}_{\epsilon}}$ at $\infty$, cannot converge to $P_{2, \bar{M}_{\epsilon}}$ at $-\infty$. Hence it has a limit cycle around $P_{2, \bar{M}_{\epsilon}}$. Note that $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,2}$ is included in the region bordered by $\mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}^{1,3}$ and $\mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}^{1,4}$.

For $\alpha>0$ small enough set $M^{\alpha}=-\mu^{*}(1)+\alpha$. By Proposition 4.10 the corresponding regular trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{r e g}$ is a ground state. Since $(0,0)$ is a source and (4.18) holds, it cannot converge neither to $(0,0)$ nor to $P_{1, M^{\alpha}}$ as in Lemma 4.4. Hence either it converges to $P_{2, M^{\alpha}}$ at $\infty$ or it admits a limit cycle around. Next, $\mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}^{1,3}$ is trapped in the positively invariant region bordered by $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,1}$ which connects $(0,0)$ to $P_{1, M}$, the portion of the curve $\mathcal{C}$ below $\mathcal{L}$ (hence between $P_{1, M}$ and $\left.P_{2, M}\right)$ and $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ between $(0,0)$ and its second intersection with $\mathcal{C}$; therefore, it converges to $P_{2, M^{\alpha}}$ at $\infty$ or it admits a limit cycle too. Finally consider the trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,2}$ which tends to $P_{1, M^{\alpha}}$ at $\infty$. It stays in the negatively invariant region $\left\{(x, y): y>\frac{2}{p-1} x\right.$ or $\left.x>X_{1, M}\right\}$. If it stays in $\mathbf{Q}$, then the solution is defined on $\mathbb{R}$ and the trajectory is bounded from Corollary 4.9. So, either it converges to a fixed point or it has a limit cycle around $P_{2, M^{\alpha}}$ when $t \rightarrow-\infty$. This is impossible since it would intersect $\mathbf{T}_{r e g}$. Hence for $M=M^{\alpha}, \mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,2}$ leaves $\mathbf{Q}$ in finite time at $(x(\bar{t}), 0)$ for some $x(\bar{t})>0$. Then there exist $t_{0}>t_{1}>\bar{t}$ such that $y_{t}\left(t_{0}\right)=0$ and $y\left(t_{0}\right)$ is the maximum of $y$ on $(\bar{t}, \infty)$ and $\left(x\left(t_{1}\right), y\left(t_{1}\right)\right) \in \mathcal{L}$. Hence $x(t) \leq x\left(t_{1}\right)$ for $\bar{t} \leq t \leq t_{1}$.
Step 2. Next consider any $M \in\left(-\mu^{*}(1), \bar{M}\right)$. In any case the trajectories $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,2}$ and $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ are bounded as long as the stay in $\mathbf{Q}$ from Corollary 4.9. Then we define $\left(x_{r e g}^{M}, y_{r e g}^{M}\right)$ as the farthest point on $\mathcal{L}$ belonging to the closure $\overline{\mathbf{T}}_{\text {reg }}$ of $\mathbf{T}_{r e g}$, and $\left(x_{s t}^{M}, y_{s t}^{M}\right)$ as the farthest point on $\mathcal{L}$ belonging to $\overline{\mathbf{T}}_{s t}$.

Let $A$ be the set of $M \in\left(-\mu^{*}(1), \bar{M}\right)$ such that there is no ground state, let $B_{1}$ be the set of $M \in\left(-\mu^{*}(1), \bar{M}\right)$ such that there exists a ground state converging to $P_{1, M}$ at $\infty$ and let $B_{2}$ be
the set of $M \in\left(-\mu^{*}(1), \bar{M}\right)$ such that there exists a ground state converging to $P_{2, M}$ or having a limit cycle at $\infty$. Then $\left(-\mu^{*}(1), \bar{M}\right)=A \cup B_{1} \cup B_{2}$. Clearly $\bar{M} \in A$ and $M^{\alpha} \in B_{2}$, furthermore if $M \in A \cup B_{1} \cup B_{2}$ we have three possibilities.

- Any $M \in B_{2}$ has the same properties as $M^{\alpha}$, hence $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ is a ground state which converges to $P^{2, M}$ or has a limit cycle around $P^{2, M} ; \mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}^{1,3}$ either converges to $P^{2, M}$ or has a limit cycle around $P^{2, M}$; and $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,2}$ intersects $\mathcal{L}$ at a last value $t_{1}$.
- If $M \in A, \mathbf{T}_{r e g}$ is not a ground state and it leaves $\mathbf{Q}$ through the semi-axis $\{x=0, y>0\}$; $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,2}$ and $\mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}^{1,3}$ are included in the region of $\mathbf{Q}$ bordered by $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ and three configurations are possible:
A-(i) either $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,2}$ has a limit cycle around $P_{2, M}$ and $\mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}^{1,3}$ leaves $\mathbf{Q}$
A-(ii) or $\mathbf{T}_{u n s t}^{1,3}$ converges to $P_{2, M}$ or has a limit cycle around.
A-(iii) or $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,2}=\mathbf{T}_{u n s t}^{1,3}$ which means this trajectory is homoclinic with respect to $P_{1, M}$. Note that $\bar{M}_{\epsilon}$ satisfies A-(i).

As in the proof of Theorem 4.13 the mappings $M \mapsto x_{r e g}^{M}$ and $M \mapsto x_{1,2}^{M}$ are continuous. We set $g(M)=x_{\text {reg }}^{M}-x_{1,2}^{M}$. If $M \in A$, then $g(M)<0$ and if $M \in B_{2}$, then $g(M)>0$. Since $g$ is continuous there exists $M \in\left(-\mu^{*}(1),-\bar{\mu}\right)$ such that $g(M)=0$. Hence $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}=\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,2}$ and $B_{1} \neq \emptyset$. More precisely we can define $\bar{\mu}<\tilde{\mu}_{\min }<\tilde{\mu}_{\max }<\mu^{*}(1)$ such that $\tilde{\mu}_{\min } \in B_{1}, \tilde{\mu}_{\max } \in B_{1}$. If $|M|<\tilde{\mu}_{\text {min }}, g(M)>0$ and there is no ground state. If $|M|>\tilde{\mu}_{\text {max }}, g(M)<0$ and there exists a ground state $u$ such that $r^{\frac{2}{p-1}} u(r) \rightarrow X_{2, M}$ or such that $r^{\frac{2}{p-1}} u(r)$ is turning around $X_{2, M}$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$.

Finally we consider the relative position of $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,2}$ and $\mathbf{T}_{u n s t}^{1,3}$ when $M \in\left[-\tilde{\mu}_{m i n},-\bar{\mu}\right)$. In any of the three situations A-(i), A-(ii) and A-(iii), $\mathcal{L}$ intersects $\mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}^{1,3}$ at a first point of xcoordinate $x_{1,3}^{M}$ and $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,2}$ at a last point of x-coordinate $x_{1,2}^{M}$. We define the continuous function $M \mapsto h(M)=x_{1,3}^{M}-x_{1,2}^{M}$. Then $h\left(\bar{M}_{\epsilon}\right)>0$ and $h\left(-\tilde{\mu}_{\text {min }}\right)=x_{1,3}^{M}-x_{\text {reg }}^{M}<0$. Hence there exists at least one $M \in\left(-\tilde{\mu}_{\text {min }},-\bar{\mu}\right)$ where $h(M)=0$ and for such a $M$, A-(iii) holds. Then we define $\hat{\mu}_{\text {min }}$ and $\hat{\mu}_{\text {max }}$ in $\left(\bar{\mu}, \tilde{\mu}_{\text {min }}\right)$ such that A-(iii) holds if $|M|=-\hat{\mu}_{\text {min }}$ or if $|M|=-\hat{\mu}_{\text {max }}$. Hence, if $-\hat{\mu}_{\text {min }}<M<-\bar{\mu}, h(M)>0$ and the trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}^{1,3}$ starts from $P_{1, M}$ and converges to $P_{2, M}$ or has a limit cycle around $P_{2, M}$. If $-\hat{\mu}_{\max }<M<-\tilde{\mu}_{\min }, h(M)<0$ and the trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,2}$ starts from $(0,0)$ with the slope $N-2$ and converges to $P_{1, M}$ when $t \rightarrow \infty$.

Proofs of Theorem $C$ and $C^{\prime}$. They are a consequence of Proposition 4.14, Theorem 4.15, Proposition 4.16 and Theorem 4.17.

Remark. It is an open problem whether the cycles which may exist for some $M$ are unique or not. It is a numerical evidence that it holds if $M>0$, but unclear if $M<0$.

### 4.5 The case $M<0, N=2$ and $p>1$

A first difficulty in this case comes from the fact that there exist singular solutions $u$ with a logarithmic blow-up. The main difficulty comes from the equality of $\mu^{*}(2)$ and $\bar{\mu}$. Hence $-\bar{\mu}$ is no longer a weak source as in the case $N>2$.

Theorem 4.18 Assume $N=2, p>1$. There exist positive numbers $\tilde{\mu}_{\text {min }}$ and $\tilde{\mu}_{\text {max }}$ such that $-\mu^{*}(2)<\tilde{\mu}_{\min } \leq \tilde{\mu}_{\max }<\mu^{*}(1)$ with the following properties:

1) For $-\tilde{\mu}_{\text {min }}<M<-\mu^{*}(2)$ there exists to ground state.
2) for $M<-\tilde{\mu}_{\text {max }}$ there exists a ground state $u$ either such that $u(r) \sim U_{2, M}(r)$ or ondulating around $U_{2, M}(r)$ when $r \rightarrow \infty$.
3) $M=-\tilde{\mu}_{\text {min }}$ there exists a ground state $u$ such that $u(r) \sim U_{1, M}(r)$ when $r \rightarrow \infty$.

Proof. If $M=\bar{M}=-\mu^{*}(2)$ there exists no ground state from Proposition 4.7. By continuity this property is still valid for $\bar{M}^{\epsilon}=\bar{M}-\epsilon$ for $\epsilon>0$ small enough. As in the proof of Theorem 4.17 with $N \geq 3$ we still denote by $A$ the set of $M \in\left(-\mu^{*}(1),-\mu^{*}(2)\right)$ such that there is no ground state. We define in a similar way the set $B_{1}$ and $B_{2}$. The previous situation is still valid with the only difference that $\bar{M}_{\epsilon}$ does not satisfies A-(i) but A-(ii): indeed from [18, Th. 8.2, Lemma 8.7], see Appendix, for $\epsilon<\epsilon_{0}$ small enough there is no cycle around $P_{2, M}$ which is a sink by Proposition 4.2. Thus $\mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}^{1,3}$ converges to $P_{2}, M$ when $t \rightarrow \infty$ and $\mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,2}$ converges to 0 when $t \rightarrow-\infty$, and since there is no ground state it satisfies $x(t) \sim c e^{\frac{2 t}{p-1}}|t|$ when $t \rightarrow-\infty$ for some $c>0$. Hence the function $g: M \mapsto g(M)=x_{r e g}^{M}-x_{1,2}^{M}$ defined as in the proof of Theorem 4.17 shares the same properties and the conclusion follows.

Remark. We conjecture that there is no cycle when $N=2$. If it is true, then for any $-\tilde{\mu}<$ $M<-\mu^{*}, \mathbf{T}_{s t}^{1,2}$ converges to $(0,0)$ as $t \rightarrow-\infty$. Equivalently there exists a positive solution $u$ of (1.13) with a logarithmic blow-up at $r=0$ and such that $u(r) \sim U_{1, M}(r)$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$. Hence there exist also a positive solution $u$ of (1.13) such that $u(r) \sim U_{1, M}(r)$ as $r \rightarrow 0$ and $u(r) \sim U_{2, M}(r)$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$.

### 4.6 The case $M<0, N=1$ and $p>1$

In the case $N=1$, the equation is invariant under the translation group $\mathcal{T}_{\alpha}[u]()=.u(.+\alpha)$ for $\alpha=0$ and any ground state is symmetric with respect to its vertex.

Theorem 4.19 Let $N=1$. Then there exists a ground state $u$ if and only if $M \leq-\mu^{*}(1)$. It satisfies $u(r) \sim U_{2, M}(r)$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$. Furthermore, if $M<-\mu^{*}(1)$ there exists a positive singular solution $u$ which satisfies $u(r) \sim U_{1, M}(r)$ as $r \rightarrow 0$ and $u(r) \sim U_{2, M}(r)$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$.

Proof. The existence when $M<-\mu^{*}(1)$ is proved in Lemma 4.4 but the proof therein is not valid when $M=-\mu^{*}(1)$ in which case a second beautiful construction due to Chipot and Weissler [14] applies: if $M \leq-\mu^{*}(1)$ there exist singular solutions $U_{1, M}$ and $U_{2, M}$. If $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ is not a ground state, the corresponding solution $u$ vanishes at $r=r_{0}>0$. Hence there exists a translation of $u$, say $r \mapsto u(r-c)$ which is tangent to $U_{1, M}$ which is impossible. If $M<-\mu^{*}(1)$ estimate (4.18) implies (4.20) which in turn implies that $r^{\frac{2}{p-1}} u(r)$ cannot converge to $X_{1, M}$. Notice that there exists no cycle in the phase plane ( $x, y$ ) otherwise the corresponding solution $u$ would be singular and ondulating hence a translation of it say $x \mapsto u(x+c)$ which is now singular at $x=-c$ and defined for $x>-c$ could be made tangent somewhere to $U_{1, M}$ (or $U_{2, M}$ ) which is impossible. Therefore $r^{\frac{2}{p-1}} u(r)$ converge to $X_{2, M}$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$.
In order to prove that there exists a heteroclinic connecting $P_{1, M}$ to $P_{2, M}$ and since $\mathbf{T}_{r e g}$ converges to $P_{1, M}$, there exists a smallest $\tau$ such that $x_{r e g}(\tau)=X_{1, M}$ and the vector field $\mathbf{H}$ is directed to the right on the segment $J=\left\{(x, y): x=X_{1, M}, y_{\text {reg }}(\tau) \leq y \leq Y_{1, M}\right\}$, we have three possibilities:
(i) either $x_{r e g}(t) \rightarrow X_{1, M}$ monotonically. In that case the region bordered by the segment $J$, the portion of $\mathcal{L}$ between $P_{1, M}$ and $P_{2, M}$ and the portion of trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ for $t>\tau$ is positively invariant. Since $\mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}^{1,3}$ belongs to this region, it converges to $P_{2, M}$ when $t \rightarrow \infty$.
(ii) either $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ has a first intersection with $\mathcal{L}$ at a point $\left.x\left(t_{1}\right), y\left(t_{1}\right)\right)$ with $x\left(t_{1}\right)>X_{2, M}$. Then it enters successively the region $\mathbf{D}$ where $x_{t}<0$ and $y_{t}>0$ and the region the region $\mathbf{A}$ where $x_{t}<0$ and $y_{t}<0$ and finally intersects $\mathcal{L}$ between $P_{1, M}$ and $P_{2, M}$ at some point $\left.x\left(t_{2}\right), y\left(t_{2}\right)\right)$, or converges to $P_{2, M}$ monotonically, in which case we set $t_{2}=\infty$. In that case the region bordered by the segment $J$, the portion of $\mathcal{L}$ between $P_{1, M}$ and $\left.x\left(t_{2}\right), y\left(t_{2}\right)\right)$ and the portion of trajectory $\mathbf{T}_{\text {reg }}$ for $\tau<t<t_{2}$ is positively invariant. Since $\mathbf{T}_{\text {unst }}^{1,3}$ belongs to this region we conclude as in case (i).

### 4.7 Appendix: Non-existence of cycle in the case $N=2$

The difficulty comes from the fact that when $M=\bar{M}=-\bar{\mu}=-\mu^{*}(2)$, the linearised system at $P_{2, \bar{M}}$ has zero as a double eigenvalue. Following Kuznetsov's notations [18, Lemma 8.7] we consider the system associated to (2.1), with two extra parameters $\vec{\alpha}=\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}\right)$ called the bifurcation parameters,

$$
\begin{align*}
& x_{t}=v \\
& v_{t}=\alpha_{2}+\frac{4}{p-1} v-\frac{4}{(p-1)^{2}} x-x^{p}+\left(\bar{\mu}+\alpha_{1}\right)\left(\frac{2}{p-1} x-v\right)^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}:=g\left(x, v, \alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}\right) . \tag{4.27}
\end{align*}
$$

We recall that $\bar{\mu}=(p+1) p^{-\frac{p}{p+1}}$ and set $\vec{x}=(x, v), g\left(x, v, \alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}\right)=g(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})$ and

$$
y_{0}=Y_{\bar{M}, 2}=\frac{1}{p^{\frac{1}{p-1}}}\left(\frac{2}{p-1}\right)^{\frac{p+1}{p-1}}=, x_{0}=X_{\bar{M}, 2}=\frac{p-1}{2} y_{0}
$$

linearize (4.27) at $\tilde{P}_{0}=\left(x_{0}, 0\right)$, with $\vec{\alpha}$ fixed, we obtain the new system

$$
\begin{align*}
\bar{x}_{t} & =v \\
v_{t} & =\alpha_{2}+\alpha_{1} y_{0}^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}+\frac{2 \alpha_{1} p}{p^{2}-1} y_{0}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} \bar{x}-\frac{2 \alpha_{1} p}{p+1} y_{0}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}} v-\alpha_{1} y_{0}^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}+\alpha_{2}  \tag{4.28}\\
& +\frac{1}{2}\left(g_{x x}\left(P_{0}\right) \bar{x}^{2}+2 g_{x v}\left(P_{0}\right) \bar{x} v+g_{v v}\left(P_{0}\right) v^{2}\right)+R(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) .
\end{align*}
$$

In order to agree with Kuznetsov's notations, we write (4.28) under the form

$$
\begin{align*}
& y_{1 t}=y_{2} \\
& y_{2 t}=g_{00}+g_{10} y_{1}+g_{01} y_{2} \frac{1}{2}\left(g_{20} y_{1}^{2}+2 g_{11} y_{1} y_{2}+g_{02} y_{2}^{2}\right)+R(\vec{y}, \vec{\alpha}) \tag{4.29}
\end{align*}
$$

where $R(\vec{y}, \vec{\alpha})=O\left(|\vec{y}|^{3}\right)$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& g_{00}=\alpha_{2}+\alpha_{1} y_{0}^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}, g_{1,0}=\frac{4 p \alpha_{1}}{p^{2}-1} y_{0}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}, g_{01}=-\frac{2 p \alpha_{1}}{p+1} y_{0}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}, g_{11}=-\frac{4 p}{(p+1)^{2}}\left(\frac{p+1}{p^{p+1}}+\alpha_{1}\right) y_{0}^{-\frac{2}{p+1}} \\
& g_{20}=-\frac{4 p}{(p+1)^{2}}\left(\frac{p+1}{p^{\frac{p}{p+1}}}-\frac{2 \alpha_{1}}{p-1}\right) y_{0}^{-\frac{2}{p+1}}, g_{02}=-\frac{2 p(p-1)}{(p+1)^{2}}\left(\frac{p+1}{p^{\frac{p}{p+1}}}+\alpha_{1}\right) y_{0}^{-\frac{2}{p+1}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that, if $\alpha_{1}=0$, the three coefficients $g_{11}, g_{20}$ and $g_{02}$ are negative.
Following Kuznetsov proof, we perform several changes of variables:
1- Setting $y_{1}=v_{1}+\delta, v_{2}=y_{2}$ were $\delta=\delta(\vec{\alpha})$, we can get rid of the coefficient of $v_{2}$ in the second equation and obtain

$$
\begin{align*}
& v_{1 t}=v_{2} \\
& v_{2 t}=h_{00}+h_{10} y_{1}+\frac{1}{2}\left(h_{20} v_{1}^{2}+2 h_{11} v_{1} v_{2}+h_{02} v_{2}^{2}\right)+Q(\vec{v}, \vec{\alpha}) \tag{4.30}
\end{align*}
$$

were $Q(\vec{v}, \vec{\alpha})=O\left(|\vec{v}|^{3}\right)$ and

$$
\delta=-\frac{g_{01}}{g_{1,1}(0)}(1+o(1)) \quad \text { as } \quad \vec{\alpha} \rightarrow 0
$$

with $g_{01}$ (resp. $g_{00}$ and $\left.g_{10}\right)$ stands for $g_{0,1}(\vec{\alpha})$ (resp. $g_{00}(\vec{\alpha})$ and $g_{10}(\vec{\alpha})$ ) and

$$
h_{00}=g_{00}-\frac{g_{01} g_{10}}{g_{1,1}(0)}+o(1), h_{10}=g_{10}-\frac{g_{01} g_{20}}{g_{1,1}(0)}+o(1) \text { and } h_{20}=g_{20}, h_{11}=g_{11}, h_{02}=g_{02}
$$

2- Time scaling, $\frac{d t}{d \tau}=1+\theta v_{1}(t)$ where $\theta=\theta(\vec{\alpha})$, and $\left.\xi_{1}=v_{1}, \xi_{2}=\left(1+\theta v_{1}\right)\right) v_{2}$ in order to get rid of the coefficients of $v_{2}^{2}$ in the equations for $\xi_{2}$, then

$$
\begin{align*}
& \xi_{1 t}=\xi_{2} \\
& \xi_{2 t}=f_{00}+f_{10} \xi_{1} \frac{1}{2} h f_{20} \xi_{1}^{2}+f_{11} \xi_{1} \xi_{2}+h_{02} v_{2}^{2}+P(\vec{\xi}, \vec{\alpha}) \tag{4.31}
\end{align*}
$$

where $P(\vec{\xi}, \vec{\alpha})=O\left(|\vec{\xi}|^{3}\right)$,

$$
f_{00}=h_{00}(1+o(1)), f_{10}=\left(h_{10}-\frac{h_{00} h_{02}}{2}\right)(1+o(1)), f_{20}=\left(h_{20}-h_{10} h_{02}\right)(1+o(1))
$$

and $f_{11}=h_{11}(1+o(1))$. We rewrite the equation of $\xi_{2 t}$ under the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\xi_{2 t}=\mu_{1}(\vec{\alpha})+\mu_{2}(\vec{\alpha}) \xi_{1}+A(\vec{\alpha}) \xi_{1}^{2}+B(\vec{\alpha}) \xi_{1} \xi_{2}+O\left(|\vec{\xi}|^{3}\right) \tag{4.32}
\end{equation*}
$$

where, for $|\vec{\alpha}|$ small enough,

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left.\mu_{1}=h_{00}=\left(g_{00}-\frac{g_{10} g_{01}}{g_{11}(0)}\right)(1+o(1))\right)=\alpha_{1} y_{0}^{\frac{2 p}{p+1}}(1+o(1)) \\
\left.\mu_{2}=\left(h_{10}-\frac{h_{02} h_{00}}{2}\right)(1+o(1))\right)=\frac{2\left(p^{2}+2 p-1\right)}{p^{2}-1} y_{0}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}(1+o(1)) \\
A(\vec{\alpha})=-\frac{2 p}{p+1}\left(\frac{1}{p}\right)^{\frac{p}{p+1}} y_{0}^{-\frac{2}{p+1}}(1+o(1))
\end{gathered}
$$

and

$$
B(\vec{\alpha})=-\frac{4}{p+1}\left(\frac{1}{p}\right)^{\frac{p}{p+1}} y_{0}^{-\frac{2}{p+1}}(1+o(1))
$$

At end we change again time and put

$$
t=\left|\frac{B}{A}\right| \tau, \eta_{1}=\frac{B^{2}}{A} \xi_{1} \text { and } \eta_{2}=\operatorname{sgn}\left(\frac{B}{A}\right) \frac{B^{3}}{A^{2}} \xi_{2},
$$

in order to see that $\vec{\eta}=\left(\eta_{1}, \eta_{2}\right)$ verifies

$$
\begin{align*}
& \eta_{1 t}=\eta_{2} \\
& \eta_{2 t}=\beta_{1}(\vec{\alpha})+\beta_{2}(\vec{\alpha}) \eta_{1}+\eta_{1}^{2}+\operatorname{sgn}\left(\frac{B(0)}{A(0)}\right) \eta_{1} \eta_{2}+O\left(|\vec{\eta}|^{3}\right) . \tag{4.33}
\end{align*}
$$

In our situation

$$
\operatorname{sgn}\left(\frac{B(0)}{A(0)}\right)=1 .
$$

After further computations and simplifications we obtain, with $\alpha_{2}=0$ and eliminating the terms which contain $\alpha_{1}^{2}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\beta_{1}=-\frac{64}{p^{2}-1} \alpha_{1} y_{0}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}(1+o(1)) \text { and } \beta_{2}=\frac{8 p^{2}+2 p-1}{p^{2}-1} \alpha_{1} y_{0}^{\frac{p-1}{p+1}}(1+o(1)) . \tag{4.34}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore, the discriminant $\beta_{2}^{2}-4 \beta_{1}$ of the polynomial $\mathcal{P}\left(\eta_{1}\right)=\beta_{1}+\beta_{2} \eta_{1}+\eta_{1}^{2}$ is positive for $\alpha_{1}>0$.

By [18, Lemma 8.7] there is no cycles in the region of the plane ( $\beta_{1}, \beta_{2}$ ) located in the second quadrant, which is our case since $\alpha_{1}>0$. Furthermore, the equilibrium $\left(\beta_{1}, \beta_{2}\right)=(0,0)$, which has a double zero eigenvalue has one stable trajectory converging when $t \rightarrow \infty$ and one unstable trajectory converging when $t \rightarrow-\infty$. Hence it is a saddle point.

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