

Conformal metrics on \mathbb{R}^{2m} with constant Q -curvature and large volume

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Abstract

We study conformal metrics $g_u = e^{2u}|dx|^2$ on \mathbb{R}^{2m} with constant Q -curvature $Q_{g_u} \equiv (2m-1)!$ (notice that $(2m-1)!$ is the Q -curvature of S^{2m}) and finite volume. When $m = 3$ we show that there exists V^* such that for any $V \in [V^*, \infty)$ there is a conformal metric $g_u = e^{2u}|dx|^2$ on \mathbb{R}^6 with $Q_{g_u} \equiv 5!$ and $\text{vol}(g_u) = V$. This is in sharp contrast with the four-dimensional case, treated by C-S. Lin. We also prove that when m is odd and greater than 1, there is a constant $V_m > \text{vol}(S^{2m})$ such that for every $V \in (0, V_m]$ there is a conformal metric $g_u = e^{2u}|dx|^2$ on \mathbb{R}^{2m} with $Q_{g_u} \equiv (2m-1)!$, $\text{vol}(g) = V$. This extends a result of A. Chang and W-X. Chen. When m is even we prove a similar result for conformal metrics of *negative* Q -curvature.

KEYWORDS: Q -curvature, Paneitz operators, GMJS operators, conformal geometry.

1 Introduction and statement of the main theorems

We consider solutions to the equation

$$(-\Delta)^m u = (2m-1)!e^{2mu} \quad \text{in } \mathbb{R}^{2m}, \quad (1)$$

satisfying

$$V := \int_{\mathbb{R}^{2m}} e^{2mu(x)} dx < +\infty, \quad (2)$$

with particular emphasis on the role played by V .

Geometrically, if u solves (1) and (2), then the conformal metric $g_u := e^{2u}|dx|^2$ has Q -curvature $Q_{g_u} \equiv (2m-1)!$ and volume V (by $|dx|^2$ we denote the Euclidean metric). For the definition of Q -curvature and related remarks, we refer to Chapter 4 in [Cha] or to [FG] and [FH]. Notice that given a solution u to (1) and $\lambda > 0$, the function $v := u - \frac{1}{2m} \log \lambda$ solves

$$(-\Delta)^m v = \lambda(2m-1)!e^{2mv} \quad \text{in } \mathbb{R}^{2m}, \quad \int_{\mathbb{R}^{2m}} e^{2mv(x)} dx = \frac{V}{\lambda},$$

hence there is no loss of generality in the particular choice of the constant $(2m-1)!$ in (1). On the other hand this constant has the advantage of being the Q -curvature of the round sphere

S^{2m} . This implies that the function $u_1(x) = \log \frac{2}{1+|x|^2}$, which satisfies $e^{2u_1}|dx|^2 = (\pi^{-1})^*g_{S^{2m}}$ (here $\pi : S^{2m} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2m}$ is the stereographic projection) is a solution to (1)-(2) with $V = \text{vol}(S^{2m})$. Translations and dilations (i.e. Möbius transformations) actually give us a large family of solutions to (1)-(2) with $V = \text{vol}(S^{2m})$, namely

$$u_{x_0, \lambda}(x) := u_1(\lambda(x - x_0)) + \log \lambda = \log \frac{2\lambda}{1 + \lambda^2|x - x_0|^2}, \quad x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{2m}, \lambda > 0. \quad (3)$$

We shall call the functions $u_{x_0, \lambda}$ standard or *spherical* solutions to (1)-(2).

The question whether the family of spherical solutions in (3) exhausts the set of solutions to (1)-(2) has raised a lot of interest and is by now well understood. W. Chen and C. Li [CL] proved that on \mathbb{R}^2 ($m = 1$) every solution to (1)-(2) is spherical, while for every $m > 1$, i.e. in dimension 4 and higher, it was proven by A. Chang and W-X. Chen [CC] that Problem (1)-(2) admits solutions which are non spherical. In fact they proved

Theorem A (A. Chang-W-X. Chen [CC] 2001). *For every $m > 1$ and $V \in (0, \text{vol}(S^{2m}))$ there exists a solution to (1)-(2).*

Several authors have tried to classify spherical solutions or, in other words, to give analytical and geometric conditions under which a solution to (1)-(2) is spherical (see [CY], [WX], [Xu]), and to understand some properties of non-spherical solutions, such as their asymptotic behavior, their volume and their symmetry (see [Lin], [Mar1], [WY]). In particular C-S. Lin proved:

Theorem B (C-S. Lin [Lin] 1998). *Let u solve (1)-(2) with $m = 2$. Then either u is spherical (i.e. as in (3)) or $V < \text{vol}(S^4)$.*

Both spherical solutions and the solutions given by Theorem A are radially symmetric (i.e. of the form $u(|x - x_0|)$ for some $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{2m}$). On the other hand there also exist plenty of non-radial solutions to (1)-(2) when $m = 2$.

Theorem C (J. Wei and D. Ye [WY] 2006). *For every $V \in (0, \text{vol}(S^4))$ there exist (several) non-radial solutions to (1)-(2) for $m = 2$.*

Remark D Probably the proof of Theorem C can be extended to higher dimension $2m \geq 2$, yielding several non-symmetric solutions to (1)-(2) for every $V \in (0, \text{vol}(S^{2m}))$, but failing to produce non-symmetric solutions for $V \geq \text{vol}(S^{2m})$. As in the proof of Theorem A, the condition $V < \text{vol}(S^{2m})$ plays a crucial role.

Theorems A, B, C and Remark D strongly suggest that also in dimension 6 and higher all non-spherical solutions to (1)-(2) satisfy $V < \text{vol}(S^{2m})$, i.e. (1)-(2) has no solution for $V > \text{vol}(S^{2m})$ and the only solutions with $V = \text{vol}(S^{2m})$ are the spherical ones. Quite surprisingly we found out that this is not at all the case. In fact in dimension 6 we found solutions to (1)-(2) with arbitrarily large V :

Theorem 1 *For $m = 3$ there exists $V^* > 0$ such that for every $V \geq V^*$ there is a solution u to (1)-(2), i.e. there exists a metric on \mathbb{R}^6 of the form $g_u = e^{2u}|dx|^2$ satisfying $Q_{g_u} \equiv 5!$ and $\text{vol}(g_u) = V$.*

In order to prove Theorem 1 we will consider only rotationally symmetric solutions to (1)-(2), so that (1) reduces to an ODE. Precisely, given $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ let $u = u_{a,b}(r)$ be the solution of

$$\begin{cases} \Delta^3 u = -e^{6u} & \text{in } \mathbb{R}^6 \\ u(0) = u'(0) = u''(0) = u'''(0) = 0 \\ u''(0) = \frac{\Delta u(0)}{6} = a \\ u'''(0) = \frac{\Delta^2 u(0)}{16} = b. \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

Here and in the following we will always (by a little abuse of notation) see a rotationally symmetric function f both as a function of one variable $r \in [0, \infty)$ (when writing f' , f'' , etc...) and as a function of $x \in \mathbb{R}^6$ (when writing Δf , $\Delta^2 f$, etc...). We also used that

$$\Delta f(0) = 6f''(0), \quad \Delta^2 f(0) = 16f'''(0),$$

see e.g. [Mar1, Lemma 17]. Also notice that in (4) we replaced $5!$ by 1 to make the computations lighter. As we already noticed, this is not a problem.

Theorem 2 *Let $u = u_{a,3}$ solve (4) for a given $a < 0$ and $b = 3$.¹ Then*

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^6} e^{6u_{a,3}} dx < \infty \text{ for } -a \text{ large; } \lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} \int_{\mathbb{R}^6} e^{6u_{a,3}} dx = \infty. \quad (5)$$

In particular the conformal metric $g_{u_{a,3}} = e^{2u_{a,3}}|dx|^2$ of constant Q -curvature $Q_{g_{u_{a,3}}} \equiv 1$ satisfies

$$\lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} \text{vol}(g_{u_{a,3}}) = \infty.$$

Theorem 1 will follow from Theorem 2 and a continuity argument (Lemma 8 below).

Going through the proof of Theorem A it is clear that it does not extend to the case $V > \text{vol}(S^{2m})$. With a different approach, we are able to prove that, at least when $m \geq 3$ is odd, one can extend Theorem A as follows.

Theorem 3 *For every $m \geq 3$ odd there exists $V_m > \text{vol}(S^{2m})$ such that for every $V \in (0, V_m]$ there is a non-spherical solution u to (1)-(2), i.e. there exists a metric on \mathbb{R}^{2m} of the form $g_u = e^{2u}|dx|^2$ satisfying $Q_{g_u} \equiv (2m-1)!$ and $\text{vol}(g_u) = V$.*

The condition $m \geq 3$ odd is (at least in part) necessary in view of Theorem B and [CL], but the case $m \geq 4$ even is open. Notice also that when $m = 3$, Theorems 1 and 3 guarantee the existence of solutions to (1)-(2) for

$$V \in (0, V_m] \cup [V^*, \infty),$$

¹The choice $b = 3$ is convenient in the computations, but any other $b > 0$ would work.

but we cannot rule out that $V_m < V^*$ (the explicit value of V_m is given in (38) below) and the existence of solutions to (1)-(2) is unknown for $V \in (V_m, V^*)$. Could there be a gap phenomenon?

We now briefly investigate how large the volume of a metric $g_u = e^{2u}|dx|^2$ on \mathbb{R}^{2m} can be when $Q_{g_u} \equiv \text{const} < 0$. Again with no loss of generality we assume $Q_{g_u} \equiv -(2m-1)!$. In other words consider the problem

$$(-\Delta)^m u = -(2m-1)!e^{2mu} \quad \text{on } \mathbb{R}^{2m}. \quad (6)$$

Although for $m = 1$ it is easy to see that Problem (6)-(2) admits no solutions for any $V > 0$, when $m \geq 2$ Problem (6)-(2) has solutions for some $V > 0$, as shown in [Mar2]. Then with the same proof of Theorem 3 we get:

Theorem 4 *For every $m \geq 2$ even there exists $V_m > \text{vol}(S^{2m})$ such that for $V \in (0, V_m]$ there is a solution u to (6)-(2), i.e. there exists a metric on \mathbb{R}^{2m} of the form $g_u = e^{2u}|dx|^2$ satisfying*

$$Q_{g_u} \equiv -(2m-1)!, \quad \text{vol}(g_u) = V.$$

The cases of solutions to (1)-(2) with m even, or (6)-(2) and m odd seem more difficult to treat since the ODE corresponding to (1) or (6), in analogy with (4) becomes

$$\Delta^m u(r) = (2m-1)!e^{2mu(r)},$$

whose solutions can blow up in finite time (i.e. for finite r) if the initial data are not chosen carefully (contrary to Lemma 5 below).

2 Proof of Theorem 2

Set $\omega_{2m-1} := \text{vol}(S^{2m-1})$ and let B_r denote the unit ball in \mathbb{R}^{2m} centered at the origin. Given a smooth radial function $f = f(r)$ in \mathbb{R}^{2m} we will often use the divergence theorem in the form

$$\int_{B_r} \Delta f dx = \int_{\partial B_r} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \nu} d\sigma = \omega_{2m-1} r^{2m-1} f'(r). \quad (7)$$

Dividing by $\omega_{2m-1} r^{2m-1}$ into (7) and integrating we also obtain

$$f(t) - f(s) = \int_s^t \frac{1}{\omega_{2m-1} \rho^{2m-1}} \int_{B_\rho} \Delta f dx d\rho, \quad 0 \leq s \leq t. \quad (8)$$

When no confusion can arise we will simply write u instead of $u_{a,3}$ or $u_{a,b}$ to denote the solution to (4). In what follows, also other quantities (e.g. R , r_0 , r_1 , r_2 , r_3 , ϕ , ξ_1 , ξ_2) will depend on a and b , but this dependence will be omitted from the notation.

Lemma 5 *Given any $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, the solution u to the ODE (4) exists for all times.*

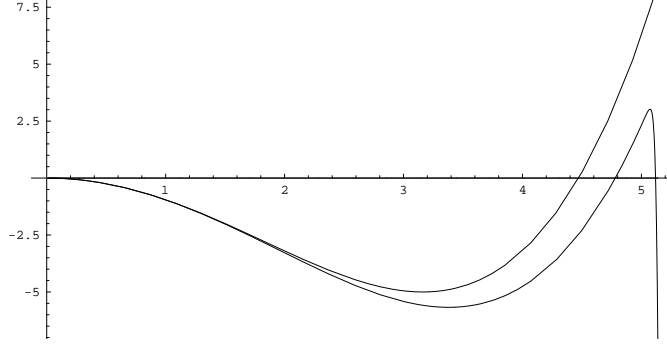


Figure 1: The functions $\phi(r) = \frac{a}{2}r^2 + \frac{1}{8}r^4$ (above) and $u_{a,3}(r) \leq \phi(r)$.

Proof. Applying (8) to $f = \Delta^2 u$, and observing that $\Delta(\Delta^2 u) = -e^{6u} \leq 0$ we get

$$\Delta^2 u(t) \leq \Delta^2 u(s) \leq \Delta^2 u(0) = 16b \quad 0 \leq s \leq t, \quad (9)$$

i.e. $\Delta^2 u(r)$ is monotone decreasing. This and (8) applied to Δu yield

$$\Delta u(r) \leq \Delta u(0) + \int_0^r \frac{1}{\omega_5 \rho^5} \int_{B_\rho} 16b dx d\rho = 6a + \int_0^r \frac{8}{3} b \rho d\rho = 6a + \frac{4}{3} b r^2.$$

A further application of (8) to u finally gives

$$u(r) \leq \int_0^r \frac{1}{\omega_5 \rho^5} \int_{B_\rho} (6a + \frac{4}{3} b |x|^2) dx d\rho = \int_0^r (a\rho + \frac{\rho^3 b}{6}) d\rho = \frac{a}{2} r^2 + \frac{b}{24} r^4 =: \phi(r). \quad (10)$$

Similar lower bounds can be obtained by observing that $-e^{6u} \geq -1$ for $u \leq 0$. This proves that $u(r)$ cannot blow-up in finite time and, by standard ODE theory, $u(r)$ exists for every $r \geq 0$. \square

Proof of (5) (completed). Fix $b = 3$ and take $a < 0$. The function $\phi(r) = \frac{a}{2}r^2 + \frac{1}{8}r^4$ vanishes for $r = R = R(a) := 2\sqrt{-a}$. In order to prove (5) we shall investigate the behavior of u in a neighborhood of R . The heuristic idea is that

$$u^{(j)}(0) = \phi^{(j)}(0), \quad \text{for } 0 \leq j \leq 5, \quad \Delta^3 \phi \equiv 0,$$

and for every $\varepsilon > 0$ on $[\varepsilon, R - \varepsilon]$ we have $\phi \leq C_\varepsilon a \rightarrow -\infty$ and $|\Delta^3 u| \leq e^{C_\varepsilon a} \rightarrow 0$ as $a \rightarrow -\infty$, hence for $r \in [0, R - \varepsilon]$ we expect $u(r)$ to be very close to $\phi(r)$. On the other hand, u cannot stay close to ϕ for r much larger than R because eventually $-\Delta^3 u(r)$ will be large enough to make $\Delta^2 u$, Δu and u negative according to (8) (see Fig. 1). Then it is crucial to show that u stays close to ϕ for some $r > R$ (hence in a region where ϕ is positive and $\Delta^3 u$ is not necessarily small) and long enough to make the second integral in (5) blow up as $a \rightarrow -\infty$.

Step 1: Estimates of $u(R)$, $\Delta u(R)$ and $\Delta^2 u(R)$. From (10) we infer

$$\Delta^3 u = -e^{6u} \geq -e^{6\phi},$$

which, together with (8), gives

$$\Delta^2 u(r) = \Delta^2 u(0) + \int_0^r \frac{1}{\omega_5 \rho^5} \int_{B_\rho} \Delta^3 u dx d\rho \geq 48 - \int_0^r \frac{1}{\omega_5 \rho^5} \int_{B_\rho} e^{6\phi(|x|)} dx d\rho. \quad (11)$$

We can explicitly compute (see Lemma 6 below and simplify (29) using that $\phi(R) = 0$ and $\int_{\sqrt{3}a}^{-\sqrt{3}a} e^{t^2} dt = 2 \int_0^{-\sqrt{3}a} e^{t^2} dt$)

$$\int_0^R \frac{1}{\omega_5 \rho^5} \int_{B_\rho} e^{6\phi(|x|)} dx d\rho = \frac{1}{48a} + \frac{(18a^2 + 1)\sqrt{3}}{144a^2} e^{-3a^2} \int_0^{-\sqrt{3}a} e^{t^2} dt.$$

Then by (9) and Lemma 7 below we conclude that

$$\Delta^2 u(r) \geq \Delta^2 u(R) \geq 48(1 + O(a^{-1})) \quad \text{for } 0 \leq r \leq R = 2\sqrt{-a}. \quad (12)$$

where here and in the following $|a^k O(a^{-k})| \leq C = C(k)$ as $a \rightarrow -\infty$ for every $k \in \mathbb{R}$. Then applying (8) as before we also obtain

$$\Delta u(r) \geq 6a + 4(1 + O(a^{-1}))r^2 \quad \text{for } 0 \leq r \leq R$$

and

$$u(r) \geq \frac{a}{2}r^2 + \frac{1 + O(a^{-1})}{8}r^4 = \phi(r) + O(a^{-1})r^4 \quad \text{for } 0 \leq r \leq R.$$

At $r = R$ this reduces to

$$u(R) \geq O(a).$$

Step 2: Behavior of $u(r)$, $\Delta u(r)$, $\Delta^2 u(r)$ for $r \geq R$. Define r_0 (depending on $a < 0$) as

$$r_0 := \inf\{r > 0 : u(r) = 0\} \in [R, \infty].$$

We first claim that $r_0 < \infty$. We have by Lemma 6 and Lemma 7

$$\int_{B_R} e^{6\phi} dx = \omega_5 \left(-\frac{4a}{3} + \frac{4(6a^2 - 1)\sqrt{3}}{9} e^{-3a^2} \int_0^{-\sqrt{3}a} e^{t^2} dt \right) = O(a). \quad (13)$$

Since on B_{r_0} we have $u \leq 0$, hence $\Delta^3 u \geq -1$, using (7)-(8) and (13) we get for $r \in [R, r_0]$

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta^2 u(r) &\geq \Delta^2 u(R) - \int_R^r \frac{1}{\omega_5 \rho^5} \left(\int_{B_R} e^{6\phi} dx + \int_{B_\rho \setminus B_R} 1 dx \right) d\rho \\ &\geq 48 + O(a) \left[\frac{1}{R^4} - \frac{1}{r^4} \right] - \int_R^r \frac{\rho^6 - R^6}{6\rho^5} d\rho \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

Assuming $r \in [R, 2R]$ we can now bound with a Taylor expansion

$$\frac{1}{R^4} - \frac{1}{r^4} = R^{-4} \tilde{O}\left(\frac{r - R}{R}\right) \quad (15)$$

and

$$\rho^6 - R^6 \leq r^6 - R^6 = R^6 \tilde{O}\left(\frac{r-R}{R}\right), \quad \text{for } \rho \in [R, r],$$

which together with (15) yields

$$\int_R^r \frac{\rho^6 - R^6}{6\rho^5} d\rho \leq \int_R^r \frac{r^6 - R^6}{6\rho^5} d\rho \leq R^2 \tilde{O}\left(\left(\frac{r-R}{R}\right)^2\right), \quad (16)$$

where for any $k \in \mathbb{R}$ we have $|t^{-k} \tilde{O}(t^k)| \leq C = C(k)$ uniformly for $0 \leq t \leq 1$. Using (15) and (16) we bound in (14)

$$\Delta^2 u(r) \geq 48 + O(a^{-1}) \tilde{O}\left(\frac{r-R}{R}\right) + R^2 \tilde{O}\left(\left(\frac{r-R}{R}\right)^2\right), \quad r \in [R, \min\{r_0, 2R\}],$$

whence

$$\Delta^2 u(r) \geq 48 + O(a^{-1}) + R^2 \tilde{O}\left(\left(\frac{r-R}{R}\right)^2\right) \chi_{(R, \infty)}(r), \quad r \in [0, \min\{r_0, 2R\}],$$

where $\chi_{(R, \infty)}(r) = 0$ for $r \in [0, R]$ and $\chi_{(R, \infty)}(r) = 1$ for $r > R$. Then with (8) we estimate for $r \in [0, \min\{r_0, 2R\}]$

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta u(r) &\geq 6a + 4(1 + O(a^{-1}))r^2 + \chi_{(R, \infty)}(r) \int_R^r \frac{1}{\omega_5 \rho^5} \int_{B_\rho \setminus B_R} R^2 \tilde{O}\left(\left(\frac{|x| - R}{R}\right)^2\right) dx d\rho \\ &= 6a + 4(1 + O(a^{-1}))r^2 + R^4 \tilde{O}\left(\left(\frac{r-R}{R}\right)^4\right) \chi_{(R, \infty)}(r). \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} u(r) &\geq \frac{a}{2} r^2 + \frac{1 + O(a^{-1})}{8} r^4 + \chi_{(R, \infty)}(r) \int_R^r \frac{1}{\omega_5 \rho^5} \int_{B_\rho \setminus B_R} R^4 \tilde{O}\left(\left(\frac{|x| - R}{R}\right)^4\right) dx d\rho \\ &= \phi(r) + O(a^{-1}) r^4 + R^6 \tilde{O}\left(\left(\frac{r-R}{R}\right)^6\right) \chi_{(R, \infty)}(r), \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

where the integrals in (17) and (18) are easily estimated bounding $|x|$ with r and applying (16).

Making a Taylor expansion of $\phi(r)$ at $r = R$ and using that $\phi(R) = 0$, we can further estimate the right-hand side of (18) for $r \in [R, \min\{r_0, 2R\}]$ as

$$\begin{aligned} u(r) &\geq \phi'(R)(r - R) + R^2 \tilde{O}\left(\left(\frac{r-R}{R}\right)^2\right) + O(a^{-1}) r^4 + R^6 \tilde{O}\left(\left(\frac{r-R}{R}\right)^6\right) \\ &= -aR(r - R) + O(a^{-1}) R^4 + R^2 \tilde{O}\left(\left(\frac{r-R}{R}\right)^2\right) + R^6 \tilde{O}\left(\left(\frac{r-R}{R}\right)^6\right) =: \psi_a(r) \end{aligned}$$

Now choosing $r = R(1 + 1/\sqrt{-a})$, so that $(r - R)/R \rightarrow 0$ as $a \rightarrow -\infty$, we get

$$\lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} \psi_a(R(1 + 1/\sqrt{-a})) \geq \lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} \left(4(-a)^{\frac{3}{2}} + O(a) - C\right) = \infty.$$

In particular

$$r_0 \in [R, R(1 + 1/\sqrt{-a})].$$

We now claim that

$$\lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} \Delta u(r_0) = \infty. \quad (19)$$

Indeed we infer from (17)

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta u(r_0) &\geq 6a + 4(1 + O(a^{-1}))r_0^2 - C \\ &\geq 6a + 4(1 + O(a^{-1}))R^2 - C \\ &\geq -10a - C, \end{aligned}$$

for $-a$ large enough, whence (19). Set

$$r_1 = r_1(a) := \inf\{r > r_0 : u(r) = 0\}.$$

Applying (7) to (17), and recalling that $\frac{r_0 - R}{R} \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{a}}$, similar to (18) we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} u'(r_0) &\geq ar_0 + \frac{1 + O(a^{-1})}{2}r_0^3 - C \\ &\geq ar_0 + \frac{1 + O(a^{-1})}{2}r_0R^2 - C \\ &\geq -ar_0 - C. \end{aligned}$$

In particular for $-a$ large enough we have $u'(r_0) > 0$, which implies $r_1 > r_0$. Using (7)-(8) and that $\Delta^3 u(r) \leq -1$ for $r \in [r_0, r_1]$, it is not difficult to see that $r_1 < \infty$. Moreover there exists at least a point $r_2 = r_2(a) \in (r_0, r_1]$ such that $u'(r_2) \leq 0$, which in turn implies that

$$\Delta u(r_3) < 0 \quad \text{for some } r_3 = r_3(a) \in (r_0, r_2], \quad (20)$$

since otherwise we would have by (7)

$$u'(r_2) = \frac{1}{\omega_5 r_2^5} \int_{B_{r_0}} \Delta u dx + \frac{1}{\omega_5 r_2^5} \int_{B_{r_2} \setminus B_{r_0}} \Delta u dx \geq \frac{r_0^5}{r_2^5} u'(r_0) > 0,$$

contradiction.

Step 3: Conclusion. We now use the estimates obtained in Step 1 and Step 2 to prove (5).

From (8), (19) and (20) we infer

$$\lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} \int_{r_0}^{r_3} \frac{1}{\omega_5 r^5} \int_{B_r} \Delta^2 u dx dr = \lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} (\Delta u(r_3) - \Delta u(r_0)) = -\infty, \quad (21)$$

hence by the monotonicity of $\Delta^2 u(r)$ (see (9))

$$\lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} \Delta^2 u(r_3)(r_3^2 - r_0^2) = -\infty. \quad (22)$$

We now claim that

$$\lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} \int_{B_{r_3}} e^{6u} dx = \infty. \quad (23)$$

Indeed consider on the contrary an arbitrary sequence a_k with $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_k = -\infty$ and

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \int_{B_{r_3}} e^{6u} dx < \infty, \quad (24)$$

where here r_3 and u depend on a_k instead of a of course. Since $u \geq 0$ in $B_{r_3} \setminus B_{r_0}$ we have

$$\int_{B_{r_3}} e^{6u} dx \geq \int_{B_{r_3} \setminus B_{r_0}} 1 dx = \frac{\omega_5}{6} (r_3^6 - r_0^6).$$

Now observe that $(r_3^6 - r_0^6) \geq (r_3^2 - r_0^2)r_0^4$ to conclude that (24) implies

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (r_3^2 - r_0^2) \leq \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{r_3^6 - r_0^6}{r_0^4} = 0. \quad (25)$$

Then (8), (12) and (22) yield

$$\begin{aligned} (r_3^2 - r_0^2) \int_R^{r_3} \frac{1}{\omega_5 r^5} \int_{B_r} e^{6u} dx dr &= (r_3^2 - r_0^2) (\Delta^2 u(R) - \Delta^2 u(r_3)) \\ &\geq -\Delta^2 u(r_3) (r_3^2 - r_0^2) \rightarrow \infty \quad \text{as } k \rightarrow \infty. \end{aligned}$$

By (25) we also have

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \int_R^{r_3} \frac{1}{\omega_5 r^5} \int_{B_r} e^{6u} dx dr = \infty,$$

which implies at once

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \int_{B_{r_3}} e^{6u} dx \geq \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} 4R^4 \omega_5 \int_R^{r_3} \frac{1}{\omega_5 r^5} \int_{B_r} e^{6u} dx dr = \infty,$$

contradicting (24). Then (23) is proven.

It remains to show that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^6} e^{6u} dx < \infty,$$

at least for $-a$ large enough. It follows from (22) and the monotonicity of $\Delta^2 u$ that for $-a$ large enough we have

$$\Delta^2 u(r) < B < 0, \quad \text{for } r \geq r_3, \quad (26)$$

and, using (7)-(8) as already done several times, we can find $r_a \geq r_3$ such that

$$(\Delta u)'(r) < \frac{B}{6}r, \quad \Delta u(r) < \frac{B}{12}r^2, \quad u'(r) < \frac{B}{96}r^3, \quad u(r) < \frac{B}{384}r^4, \quad \text{for } r \geq r_a. \quad (27)$$

Then

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^6} e^{6u} dx \leq \int_{B_{r_a}} e^{6u} dx + \int_{\mathbb{R}^6 \setminus B_{r_a}} e^{\frac{B}{64}|x|^2} dx < \infty,$$

as wished. □

2.1 Two useful lemmas

We now state and prove two lemmas used in the proof of Theorem 2.

Lemma 6 For $\phi(r) = \frac{a}{2}r^2 + \frac{1}{8}r^4$, $a \leq 0$, we have

$$\int_{B_r} e^{6\phi(|x|)} dx = \omega_5 \left[\frac{2}{3}a + \frac{1}{3}e^{6\phi(r)}(-2a + r^2) + \frac{(12a^2 - 2)\sqrt{3}}{9}e^{-3a^2} \int_{-\sqrt{3}(a+r^2/2)}^{-\sqrt{3}a} e^{t^2} dt \right] =: \xi_1(r) \quad (28)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^r \frac{1}{\omega_5 \rho^5} \int_{B_\rho} e^{6\phi(|x|)} dx d\rho &= \frac{-2a - e^{6\phi(r)}(-2a + r^2)}{12r^4} \\ &+ \frac{(2 - 12a^2 + 3r^4)\sqrt{3}}{36r^4} e^{-3a^2} \int_{-\sqrt{3}(a+r^2/2)}^{-\sqrt{3}a} e^{t^2} dt := \xi_2(r) \end{aligned} \quad (29)$$

Proof. Patiently differentiating, using that $e^{-3a^2} \frac{d}{dr} \int_{-\sqrt{3}(a+r^2/2)}^{-\sqrt{3}a} e^{t^2} dt = \sqrt{3}re^{6\phi(r)}$, one sees that

$$\xi_1'(r) = \omega_5 r^5 e^{6\phi(r)}, \quad \xi_2'(r) = \frac{\xi_1(r)}{\omega_5 r^5}.$$

Using that $\phi(0) = 0$ it is also easy to see that $\xi_1(0) = 0$.

Since $\xi_2(0)$ is not defined, we will compute the limit of $\xi_2(r)$ as $r \rightarrow 0$. We first compute the Taylor expansions

$$e^{6\phi(r)} = 1 + 3ar^2 + \frac{3}{4}(1 + 6a^2)r^4 + r^4 o(1),$$

and

$$\sqrt{3}e^{-3a^2} \int_{-\sqrt{3}(a+r^2/2)}^{-\sqrt{3}a} e^{t^2} dt = \frac{3}{2}r^2 + \frac{9}{4}ar^4 + r^4 o(1),$$

with errors $o(1) \rightarrow 0$ as $r \rightarrow 0$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{-2a - e^{6\phi(r)}(-2a + r^2)}{12r^4} &= \frac{(1 - 6a^2)r^2 + (\frac{3}{2}a - 9a^3)r^4}{12r^4} + o(1) \\ &= -\frac{(2 - 12a^2 + 3r^4)\sqrt{3}}{36r^4} e^{-3a^2} \int_{-\sqrt{3}(a+r^2/2)}^{-\sqrt{3}a} e^{t^2} dt, \end{aligned}$$

with $o(1) \rightarrow 0$ as $r \rightarrow 0$. Hence $\lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \xi_2(r) = 0$. \square

Lemma 7 We have

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} r e^{-r^2} \int_0^r e^{t^2} dt = \frac{1}{2}. \quad (30)$$

Proof. Clearly (30) is equivalent to

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} r e^{-r^2} \int_2^r e^{t^2} dt = \frac{1}{2}. \quad (31)$$

Integrating by parts we get for $r \geq 2$

$$r e^{-r^2} \int_2^r e^{t^2} dt = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{r e^{-r^2+4}}{4} + r e^{-r^2} \int_2^r \frac{e^{t^2}}{2t^2} dt. \quad (32)$$

Another integration by parts yields

$$r e^{-r^2} \int_2^r \frac{e^{t^2}}{2t^2} dt = \frac{1}{4r^2} - \frac{r e^{-r^2+4}}{32} + r e^{-r^2} \int_2^r \frac{e^{t^2}}{12t^4} dt \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } r \rightarrow \infty,$$

where we used that the function $t^{-4}e^{t^2}$ is increasing on $[2, r]$, hence

$$0 \leq \int_2^r \frac{e^{t^2}}{12t^4} dt \leq \int_2^r \frac{e^{r^2}}{12r^4} dt = (r-2) \frac{e^{r^2}}{12r^4}.$$

We conclude by taking the limit as $r \rightarrow \infty$ in (32). \square

3 Proof of Theorem 1

We start with the following lemma.

Lemma 8 *Set*

$$V(a) = \frac{1}{5!} \int_{\mathbb{R}^6} e^{6u_{a,3}} dx$$

where $u = u_{a,3}$ is the solution to (4) for given $a < 0$ and $b = 3$. Then there exists $a^* < 0$ such that V is continuous on $(-\infty, a^*]$.

Proof. It follows from (21) and the monotonicity of $\Delta^2 u$ that we can fix $-a^*$ so large that

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} \Delta^2 u_{a,3}(r) < 0, \quad \text{for every } a \leq a^*.$$

Fix now $\varepsilon > 0$. Given $a \leq a^*$ it is not difficult to find $r_a > 0$ and $B = B(a) < 0$ such that

$$\Delta^2 u_{a,3}(r) < B < 0, \quad \text{for } r \geq r_a \quad (33)$$

and, possibly choosing r_a larger, using (7)-(8) as already done in the proof of Theorem 2, we get

$$(\Delta u_{a,3})'(r) < \frac{B}{6} r, \quad \Delta u_{a,3}(r) < \frac{B}{12} r^2, \quad u'_{a,3}(r) < \frac{B}{96} r^3, \quad u_{a,3}(r) < \frac{B}{384} r^4, \quad \text{for } r \geq r_a. \quad (34)$$

By possibly choosing r_a even larger we can also assume that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^6 \setminus B_{r_a}} e^{\frac{B}{64}|x|^4} dx < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}. \quad (35)$$

By ODE theory the solution $u_{a,3}$ to (4) is continuous with respect to a in $C_{\text{loc}}^k(\mathbb{R}^6)$ for every $k \geq 0$, in the sense that for any $r' > 0$, $u_{a',3} \rightarrow u_{a,3}$ in $C^k(B_{r'})$ as $a' \rightarrow a$. In particular we can find $\delta > 0$ (depending on ε) such that if $|a - a'| < \delta$ then (33)-(34) with a replaced by a' are still satisfied for $r = r_a$ (not $r_{a'}$) and (33) holds also for every $r > r_a$ since $\Delta^2 u_{a',3}(r)$ is decreasing in r (see (9)). Then, with (7)-(8) we can also get the bounds in (34) for every $r \geq r_a$ (and $u_{a',3}$ instead of $u_{a,3}$). For instance

$$\begin{aligned} (\Delta u_{a',3})'(r) &= \frac{1}{\omega_5 r^5} \int_{B_r} \Delta^3 u_{a',3} dx = \left(\frac{r_a}{r}\right)^5 (\Delta u_{a',3})'(r_a) + \frac{1}{\omega_5 r^5} \int_{B_r \setminus B_{r_a}} \Delta^2 u_{a',3} dx \\ &< \left(\frac{r_a}{r}\right)^5 \frac{B r_a}{6} + \frac{B(r^6 - r_a^6)}{6r^5} = \frac{B}{6} r. \end{aligned}$$

Furthermore, up to taking $\delta > 0$ even smaller, we can assume that

$$\left| \int_{B_{r_a}} e^{6u_{a',3}} dx - \int_{B_{r_a}} e^{6u_{a,3}} dx \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}. \quad (36)$$

Finally, the last bound in (34) and (35) imply at once

$$\left| \int_{\mathbb{R}^6 \setminus B_{r_a}} e^{6u_{a',3}} dx - \int_{\mathbb{R}^6 \setminus B_{r_a}} e^{6u_{a,3}} dx \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2},$$

which together with (36) completes the proof. \square

Proof of Theorem 1 (completed). Set $V^* = V(a^*)$, where a^* is given by Lemma 8. By Lemma 8, Theorem 2 and the intermediate value theorem, for every $V \geq V^*$ there exists $a \leq a^*$ such that

$$\frac{1}{5!} \int_{\mathbb{R}^6} e^{6u_{a,3}} dx = V,$$

hence the metric $g_{u_{a,3}} = e^{2u_{a,3}} |dx|^2$ has constant Q -curvature equal to 1 and $\text{vol}(g_{u_{a,3}}) = 5!V$. Applying the transformation

$$u = u_{a,3} - \frac{1}{6} \log 5!$$

it follows at once that the metric $g_u = e^{2u} |dx|^2$ satisfies $\text{vol}(g_u) = V$ and $Q_{g_u} \equiv 5!$, hence u solves (1)-(2). \square

4 Proof of Theorems 3 and 4

When $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is radially symmetric we have $\Delta f(x) = f''(|x|) + \frac{n-1}{|x|} f'(|x|)$. In particular we have

$$\Delta^m r^{2m} = 2^{2m} m(2m-1)! \quad \text{in } \mathbb{R}^{2m}. \quad (37)$$

For $m \geq 2$ and $b \leq 0$ let u_b solve

$$\begin{cases} \Delta^m u_b = -(2m-1)! e^{2mu_b} & \text{in } \mathbb{R}^{2m} \\ u_b^{(j)}(0) = 0 & \text{for } 0 \leq j \leq 2m-1, j \neq 2m-2 \\ u_b^{(2m-2)} = b. \end{cases}$$

From (7)-(8) it follows that $u_0 \leq 0$, hence $\Delta^m u_0 \geq -(2m-1)!$. We claim that

$$u_0(r) \geq \psi(r) := -\frac{r^{2m}}{2^{2m}m}.$$

Indeed according to (37) ψ solves

$$\Delta^m \psi = -(2m-1)! \leq \Delta^m u_0 \quad \text{in } \mathbb{R}^{2m}$$

and

$$\psi^{(j)}(0) = 0 = u_0^{(j)}(0) \quad \text{for } 0 \leq j \leq 2m-1,$$

which implies

$$\Delta^j \psi(0) = 0 = \Delta^j u_0(0) \quad \text{for } 0 \leq j \leq m-1,$$

see [Mar1, Lemma 17]. Then the claim follows from (7)-(8) and a simple induction.

Now integrating we get

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^{2m}} e^{2mu_0} dx \geq \int_{\mathbb{R}^{2m}} e^{2m\psi} dx = \omega_{2m-1} \int_0^\infty r^{2m-1} \exp\left(-\frac{r^{2m}}{2^{2m-1}}\right) dr = \frac{2^{2m-2}\omega_{2m-1}}{m} =: V_m.$$

Using the formulas

$$\omega_{2m-1} = \text{vol}(S^{2m-1}) = \frac{2\pi^m}{(m-1)!}, \quad \omega_{2m} = \text{vol}(S^{2m}) = \frac{2^{2m}(m-1)!\pi^m}{(2m-1)!}, \quad m \geq 1$$

we verify

$$V_m = \frac{(2m)!}{4(m!)^2} \omega_{2m}, \quad \frac{V_2}{\omega_4} = \frac{3}{2} > 1, \quad \frac{V_{m+1}}{\omega_{2m+2}} \left(\frac{V_m}{\omega_{2m}}\right)^{-1} = \frac{(2m+2)(2m+1)}{(m+1)^2} > 1, \quad (38)$$

hence by induction

$$V_m > \text{vol}(S^{2m}) \quad \text{for } m \geq 2. \quad (39)$$

With the same argument used to prove Lemma 8 we can show that the function

$$V(b) := \int_{\mathbb{R}^{2m}} e^{6u_b} dx, \quad b \in (-\infty, 0]$$

is finite and continuous. Indeed it is enough to replace (33) with

$$\Delta^{m-1} u_b(r) \leq B < 0 \quad \text{for } r \geq r_b,$$

and (34) with

$$(\Delta^{m-1-j} u_b)'(r) < C_{m,j} B r^{2j-1}, \quad \Delta^{m-1-j} u_b(r) < D_{m,j} B r^{2j}, \quad \text{for } r \geq r_b, \quad 1 \leq j \leq m-1$$

where r_b is chosen large enough and

$$C_{m,1} = \frac{1}{2m}, \quad D_{m,j} = \frac{C_{m,j}}{2j}, \quad C_{m,j+1} = \frac{D_{m,j}}{2m+2j},$$

whence

$$C_{m,j} = \frac{(m-1)!}{2^{2j-1}(j-1)!(m+j-1)!}, \quad D_{m,j} = \frac{(m-1)!}{2^{2j}j!(m+j-1)!}.$$

Moreover, using that $\Delta^{m-1}u_b(0) = C_m b$ for some constant $C_m > 0$, $\Delta^m u_b(r) \leq 0$ for $r \geq 0$ and (7)-(8) as before, we easily obtain

$$u_b(r) \leq E_m b r^{2m-2}, \quad (40)$$

where $E_m := C_m C_{m,m-1} > 0$, hence

$$\lim_{b \rightarrow -\infty} V(b) \leq \lim_{b \rightarrow -\infty} \int_{\mathbb{R}^6} e^{6E_m b |x|^{2m-2}} dx = 0.$$

By continuity we conclude that for every $V \in (0, V_m]$ there exists $b \leq 0$ such that $u = u_b$ solves (1)-(2) if m is odd or (6)-(2) if m is even. Taking (39) into account it only remains to prove that the solutions u_b corresponding to $V = \text{vol}(S^{2m})$ is not a spherical one. This follows immediately from (40), which is not compatible with (3). \square

5 Applications and open questions

Possible gap phenomenon Theorems 1 and 3 guarantee that for $m = 3$ there exists a solution to (1)-(2) for every $V \in (0, V_3] \cup [V^*, \infty)$, with possibly $V_3 < V^*$. Could it be that for some $V \in (V_3, V^*)$ Problem (1)-(2) admits no solution?

If we restrict to rotationally symmetric solutions, some heuristic arguments show that the volume of a solution to (4), i.e. the function

$$V(a, b) := \int_{\mathbb{R}^6} e^{6u_{a,b}(|x|)} dx$$

need not be continuous for all $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2$, hence the image of the function V might not be connected.

Higher dimensions and negative curvature It is natural to ask whether Theorems 1 and 2 generalize to the case $m > 3$ or whether an analogous statement holds when $m \geq 2$ and (6) is considered instead of (1). Since the sign on the right-hand side of the ODE (4) plays a crucial role, we would expect that part of the proof of Theorem 2 can be recycled for (1) when $m \geq 5$ is odd, or for (6) when m is even.

For instance let $u_a = u_a(r)$ be the solution in \mathbb{R}^4 of

$$\begin{cases} \Delta^2 u_a = -6e^{4u_a} \\ u_a(0) = u'_a(0) = u'''_a(0) = 0 \\ u''_a(0) = a. \end{cases}$$

It should not be difficult to see that $u_a(r)$ exists for all $r \geq 0$ and that $\int_{\mathbb{R}^4} e^{4u_a(|x|)} dx < \infty$. Do we also have

$$\lim_{a \rightarrow +\infty} \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} e^{4u_a(|x|)} dx = \infty?$$

Non-radial solutions The proof of Theorem C cannot be extended to provide non-radial solutions to (1)-(2) for $m \geq 3$ and $V \geq \text{vol}(S^{2m})$, but it is natural to conjecture that they do exist.

Concentration phenomena The classification results of the solutions to (1)-(2), [CL], [Lin], [Xu] and [Mar1], have been used to understand the asymptotic behavior of unbounded sequences of solutions to the prescribed Gaussian curvature problem on 2-dimensional domains (see e.g. [BM] and [LS]), on S^2 (see [Str4]) and to the prescribed Q -curvature equation in dimension $2m$ (see e.g. [DR], [Mal], [MS], [Ndi], [Rob1], [Rob2], [Mar3], [Mar4]).

For instance consider the following model problem. Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^{2m}$ be a connected open set and consider a sequence (u_k) of solutions to the equation

$$(-\Delta)^m u_k = Q_k e^{2mu_k} \quad \text{in } \Omega, \quad (41)$$

where

$$Q_k \rightarrow Q_0 \quad \text{in } C_{\text{loc}}^1(\Omega), \quad \limsup_{k \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\Omega} e^{2mu_k} dx < \infty, \quad (42)$$

with the following interpretation: $g_k := e^{2u_k} |dx|^2$ is a sequence of conformal metrics on Ω with Q -curvatures $Q_{g_k} = Q_k$ and equibounded volumes.

As shown in [ARS] unbounded sequences of solutions to (41)-(42) can exhibit pathological behaviors in dimension 4 (and higher), contrary to the elegant results of [BM] and [LS] in dimension 2. This is partly due to Theorem A. In fact for $m \geq 2$ and $\alpha \in (0, (2m-1)! \text{vol}(S^{2m}))$ one can find a sequence (u_k) of solutions to (41)-(42) with $Q_0 > 0$ and

$$\lim_{R \rightarrow 0} \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \int_{B_R(x_0)} |Q_k| e^{2mu_k} dx = \alpha \quad \text{for some } x_0 \in \Omega. \quad (43)$$

For $m = 2$ this was made very precise by F. Robert [Rob1] in the radially symmetric case. In higher dimension or when Q_0 is not necessarily positive, thanks to Theorems 1-4 we see that α can take values larger than $(2m-1)! \text{vol}(S^{2m})$. Indeed if u is a solution to (1)-(2) or (6)-(2), then $u_k := u(kx) + \log k$ satisfies (41)-(42) with $\Omega = \mathbb{R}^{2m}$, $Q_k \equiv \pm(2m-1)!$ and

$$|Q_k| e^{2mu_k} dx \rightarrow (2m-1)! V \delta_0, \quad \text{weakly as measures.}$$

When $m = 2$, $Q_0 > 0$ (say $Q_0 \equiv 6$) it is unclear whether one could have concentration points carrying more Q -curvature than $6 \text{vol}(S^4)$, i.e. whether one can take $\alpha > 6 \text{vol}(S^4)$ in (43). Theorem B suggests that if the answer is affirmative, this should be due to the convergence to the same blow-up point of two or more blow-ups. Such a phenomenon is unknown in dimension 4 and higher, but was shown in dimension 2 by Wang [Wan] with a technique which, based on the abundance of conformal transformations of \mathbb{C} into itself, does not extend to higher dimensions.

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