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Integral Representation

For

Solutions of Elliptic Differential Operators

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**Declaration**

“I declare that this project has been composed by me and that no part of the project has formed the basis for the award of any degree, diploma, associate ship, fellowship or any other similar title to me.

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*Author's signature* “



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## **Abstract**

This paper is devoted to integral representation for solutions of elliptic differential operators. Given  $\Omega$  an open bounded domain in  $R^n$ ,  $n \geq 2$ , with a smooth boundary  $\partial\Omega$ , and  $L$  an elliptic differential operator,  $u$  is a function such that  $u \in C^k(\Omega)$  and  $f$  is continuously differentiable function, we show that the solution  $u$  for the given equation

$$Lu = f$$

has an integral representation that can be derived from fundamental solution and Green's function.

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## Introduction

One of the important tools in the theory of PDEs is the integral representation of solutions. An integral representation is a formula of the solutions of a problem in terms of an integral depending on the Green's function and fundamental solutions for the operator given in the problem.

Integral representation plays a central role in various fields of pure and applied mathematics. In this paper we define elliptic operators, which are a special sort of partial differential operators. Many of the differential operators that crop up in problems in geometry, applied mathematics and physics are elliptic.

This paper consists of two chapters; the first one has a notations and preliminary results with the goals of developing and studying basic definitions and facts. Here I have tried to emphasize, whenever possible, familiar notations and basic results of denotation of partial derivative with few examples, in order to provide intuition and feeling for the project. For this part, a few important facts from result of advanced calculus like the Green's identities, integrals in polar coordinates and change of variable formulas are introduced. Chapter two mainly treats the integral representation for solutions of elliptic differential operators, chiefly for Laplace operator and other general elliptic differential operators. Here definitions, theorems with their proofs and examples with their explanations are provided and also a concept of fundamental and distributional solutions, Green's functions and its properties are discussed.

In the next sections I will define the general elliptic operators, and give a few examples and basic facts. Suppose  $L$  is an elliptic differential operator of order  $k$ . Moreover let  $u$  be a function defined and  $k$  times continuously differentiable in the closure of a domain  $\Omega$  of  $R^n$ . Provided the adjoint elliptic differential operator possesses a fundamental solution, we shall see that  $u$  can be recovered from  $Lu$  and the boundary values of  $u$ . Strictly speaking, we shall get an integral representation of  $u$ .

## CHAPTER ONE

### *Notations and preliminary results*

We fix some familiar notations used throughout this project.

$x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  is a variable point in the domain real  $n$ -dimensional Euclidean space  $R^n$ .

$$|x| = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right)^{1/2}$$

Let  $u(x) = u(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  be a differential function. We use any of the following notations to denote the partial derivative of  $u$  with respect to the  $i^{\text{th}}$  variable  $x_i$ .

$$u_{x_i}, \quad \partial_i u, \quad D_i u, \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_i}$$

The second partial derivatives of a twice continuously differentiable function  $u$  with respect to  $x_i$  and  $x_j$  will be denoting by any of the following notations.

$$u_{x_i x_j}, \quad \partial_{ij}^2 u, \quad D_{ij} u, \quad \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} u$$

We set  $D^0 = I$ , and for any positive integer  $k$ . We let  $D^k u$  to be the set of all partial derivatives of  $u$  of order  $k$ .

$Du$  denotes the gradient of  $u$ , that is

$$Du = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$$

Sometimes a much more convenient notation, the so called multi-index notation is used.

An  $n$  multi-index is an  $n$ -tuple of non negative integers

$$\alpha := (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n)$$



$$|\alpha| = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \cdots + \alpha_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i$$

So,

$$D^\alpha = \frac{\partial^{\alpha_1}}{\partial x_1^{\alpha_1}} \cdot \frac{\partial^{\alpha_2}}{\partial x_2^{\alpha_2}} \cdots \frac{\partial^{\alpha_n}}{\partial x_n^{\alpha_n}}$$

**Example 1** for  $n = 2$ ,  $\alpha = (0, 0)$  corresponds to  $D^\alpha u = u$

$|\alpha| = 1$  is associated with  $\alpha = (1, 0)$  or  $\alpha = (0, 1)$ .

$$\alpha = (1, 0): D^\alpha u = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_1}, \text{ or } \alpha = (0, 1): D^\alpha u = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_2}$$

$|\alpha| = 2$  is associated with  $\alpha = (2, 0)$ ,  $\alpha = (1, 1)$  or  $\alpha = (0, 2)$

$$\alpha = (2, 0): D^\alpha u = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_1^2}$$

$$\alpha = (1, 1): D^\alpha u = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2}$$

$$\alpha = (0, 2): D^\alpha u = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_2^2}$$

For  $n = 3$  just at  $\alpha = (1, 1, 2)$  with  $u = u(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$

$$D^\alpha u = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_1} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_2} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_3^2} = \frac{\partial^4 u}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2 \partial x_3^2}$$

In general for,

$$\alpha = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n), u(x) = u(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n), \quad D^\alpha u = \frac{\partial^{|\alpha|} u}{\partial x_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot \partial x_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots \partial x_n^{\alpha_n}}$$

**Example 2** The second order linear differential equation

$$\sum_{|\alpha| \leq n} a_\alpha(x) D^\alpha u(x) = f(x)$$

Can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} a_{(2,0)}u_{xx} + a_{(1,1)}(x)u_{xy} + a_{(0,1)}(x)u_{yy} & \quad |\alpha| = 2 \\ + a_{(1,0)}(x)u_x + a_{(0,1)}(x)u_y & \quad |\alpha| = 1 \\ + a_{(0,0)}(x)u & \quad |\alpha| = 0 \\ & = f(x) \end{aligned}$$

We will see few important facts from calculus below

**1.1 Green's identities**

a) Let  $\Omega$  be a bounded, open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\partial\Omega$  is  $C^1$  boundary of  $\Omega$ .

And Let

$n(x) = (n_1(x), \dots, n_n(x))$  be the unit outward normal derivative to  $\partial\Omega$  at  $x \in \partial\Omega$ .

$\Omega$  to be a  $C^1$  boundary and  $u \in C^1(\bar{\Omega})$ , then

$$\int_{\Omega} u_{x_i} dx = \int_{\partial\Omega} u n_i d\sigma, (i = 1, \dots, n)$$

In general we have,

$$\int_{\Omega} \text{div} w dx = \int_{\partial\Omega} w \cdot n d\sigma$$

Where  $w$  is a  $C^1$  vector field on  $\bar{\Omega}$  and the dot “ $\cdot$ ” denotes the Euclidean product of

vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $d\sigma$  is the volume element of  $\partial\Omega$ .

b) Let  $u, w \in C^1(\bar{\Omega})$  then for  $(i = 1, \dots, n)$

$$\int_{\Omega} u_{x_i} w dx = \int_{\partial\Omega} u w n_i d\sigma - \int_{\Omega} u w_{x_i} dx$$

**Proof**

$$\int_{\Omega} (uw)_{x_i} = \int_{\partial\Omega} (uw) n_i d\sigma \quad \text{from (a)}$$

But,

$$\int_{\Omega} (uw)_{x_i} = \int_{\Omega} (u_{x_i} w + u w_{x_i}) dx = \int_{\partial\Omega} (uw) \cdot n_i d\sigma$$

Therefore,

$$\int_{\Omega} u_{x_i} w dx = \int_{\partial\Omega} u w \cdot n_i d\sigma - \int_{\Omega} u w_{x_i} dx$$

c) Let  $u, w \in C^2(\bar{\Omega})$ . Then we have

$$(i) \int_{\Omega} \Delta u = \int_{\partial\Omega} \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} d\sigma$$

**Proof:**

$$\Delta u = \text{div}(Du)$$

$$\int_{\Omega} \Delta u = \int_{\Omega} \text{div}(Du) dx = \int_{\Omega} (Du) \cdot n d\sigma = \int_{\partial\Omega} \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} d\sigma$$

$$(ii) \int_{\Omega} u \Delta w dx = - \int_{\Omega} Du \cdot Dw dx + \int_{\partial\Omega} u \frac{\partial w}{\partial n} d\sigma$$

(Green's First Identity)

**Proof**

$$\text{div}(uDw) = \text{div}((uw_{x_1}, \dots, uw_{x_n})), \quad \text{where } Dw = (w_{x_1}, \dots, w_{x_n})$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left( u \frac{\partial w}{\partial x_i} \right) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_i} \cdot \frac{\partial w}{\partial x_i} + \sum_{i=1}^n u \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x_i^2} = Du \cdot Dw + u\Delta w.
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$u\Delta w = \operatorname{div}(uDw) - Du \cdot Dw$$

Integrating with respect to  $dx$  on  $\Omega$  we get;

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_{\Omega} u \Delta w dx &= \int_{\Omega} \operatorname{div}(uDw) dx - \int_{\Omega} Du \cdot Dw dx \\
&= \int_{\partial\Omega} uDw \cdot n d\sigma - \int_{\Omega} Du \cdot Dw dx \quad \dots \text{by (a)} \\
&= \int_{\partial\Omega} u \frac{\partial w}{\partial n} d\sigma - \int_{\Omega} Du \cdot Dw dx
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\int_{\Omega} u\Delta w dx = - \int_{\Omega} Du \cdot Dw dx + \int_{\partial\Omega} u \frac{\partial w}{\partial n} d\sigma$$

$$(iii) \quad \int_{\Omega} (u\Delta w - w\Delta u) dx = \int_{\partial\Omega} \left( u \frac{\partial w}{\partial n} - w \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} \right) d\sigma$$

(Green's Second Identity)

**Proof** We consider the first Green's identity;

$$\int_{\Omega} u\Delta w dx = - \int_{\Omega} Du \cdot Dw dx + \int_{\partial\Omega} u \frac{\partial w}{\partial n} d\sigma$$

and

$$\int_{\Omega} w \Delta u dx = - \int_{\Omega} Du \cdot Dw dx + \int_{\partial \Omega} w \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} d\sigma \text{ for } u, w \in C^2(\bar{\Omega})$$

Then subtract the two equations yields the Green's second identity;

$$\int_{\Omega} (u \Delta w - w \Delta u) dx = \int_{\partial \Omega} (u \frac{\partial w}{\partial n} - w \frac{\partial u}{\partial n}) d\sigma$$

Note that  $Du \cdot Dw = Dw \cdot Du$  implies

$$- \int_{\Omega} Du \cdot Dw dx + \int_{\Omega} Dw \cdot Du dx = 0$$

## **1.2 Integrals in polar coordinates**

If  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $x = |x| \frac{x}{|x|} = rw$ , where  $r \in (0, \infty)$  and  $w = \frac{x}{|x|} \in S^{n-1} \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n = : |x|=1\}$

which is a unit sphere.

If  $f$  is Lebesgue measurable function in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  such that either  $f \geq 0$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  or  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , then

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) dx = \int_0^{\infty} \int_{S^{n-1}} f(rw) r^{n-1} d\sigma(w) dr$$

Also,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{B(x^0, r)} f(x) dx &= \int_0^r \int_{S^{n-1}} f(x^0 + \rho w) \rho^{n-1} d\sigma(w) d\rho \\ &= \int_0^r \int_{\partial B(x^0, t)} f(w) r^{n-1} d\sigma(w) dt \end{aligned}$$

The above formulas allow us to convert n-dimensional Lebesgue integrals into integrals over spheres.

### 1.3 Change of Variable Formula

Let  $\Omega$  be an open set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $\Psi: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  be a one-to-one  $C^1$  function such that

$\Psi^{-1}: \Psi(\Omega) \rightarrow \Omega$  is also  $C^1$ . Suppose that  $f$  is Lebesgue integrable on  $\Psi(\Omega)$ . Then  $f \circ \Psi$  is Lebesgue integrable on  $\Omega$ , and

$$\int_{\Psi(\Omega)} f(x) dx = \int_{\Omega} f(\Psi(x)) |\det J\Psi(x)| dx$$

where  $J\Psi(x)$  is the Jacobian matrix of  $\Psi$  at  $x \in \Omega$ .

We also need to fix some notations

$\omega_n$  denotes the volume of the unit ball  $B(0, 1)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (i.e.  $\omega_n := |B(0, 1)|$ )

It follows that

$$|\partial B(0, 1)| = n\omega_n.$$

where

$$\partial B(0, 1) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : |x| = 1\}$$

Let

$$\Psi(x) = y + rx. \text{ then } J\Psi(x) = rI.$$

Note that

$$|B(x, r)| = \int_{B(x, r)} dx = \int_{\Psi(B(0, 1))} dx = \int_{B(0, 1)} |\det J\Psi(x)| dx$$

Since

$$\Psi(x) = (y_1 + rx_1, y_2 + rx_2, \dots, y_n + rx_n)$$

$$J\Psi(x) = \begin{bmatrix} r & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & r \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|\det J\Psi(x)| = r^n$$

Thus

$$|B(x, r)| = \int_{B(0,1)} r^n dx = r^n \int_{B(0,1)} dx = r^n |B(0,1)| = r^n \omega_n$$

Therefore,

$$|B(x, r)| = r^n \omega_n$$

Similarly,

$$|\partial B(x, r)| = r^{n-1} n \omega_n$$

**Theorem** let  $u \in C^2(\Omega)$  satisfy  $\Delta u = 0$  in  $\Omega$ . Then for any ball  $B = B_R(y) \subset\subset \Omega$ , we have

$$(i) \quad u(y) = \frac{1}{n\omega_n R^{n-1}} \int_{\partial B} u d\sigma$$

$$(ii) \quad u(y) = \frac{1}{\omega_n R^n} \int_B u dx$$

For harmonic functions, the above theorem asserts that the function value at the center of the ball  $B$  is equal to the integral mean values over both the surface  $\partial B$  and  $B$  itself. These results known as the mean value theorems.

**Proof** let  $\rho \in (0, R)$  and apply

$$\int_{\Omega} \Delta u = \int_{\partial\Omega} \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} d\sigma$$

to the ball  $B_\rho = B_\rho(y)$ . We obtain

$$\int_{\partial B_\rho} \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} d\sigma = \int_{B_\rho} \Delta u = 0$$

Introducing a radial and angular coordinates  $= |x - y|, \omega = \frac{x-y}{r}$ , and writing

$u(x) = u(y + r\omega)$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\partial B_\rho} \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} d\sigma &= \int_{\partial B_\rho} \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} (y + \rho\omega) d\sigma = \rho^{n-1} \int_{|\omega|=1} \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} (y + \rho\omega) d\omega \\ &= \rho^{n-1} \frac{\partial}{\partial \rho} \int_{|\omega|=1} u(y + \rho\omega) d\omega = \rho^{n-1} \frac{\partial}{\partial \rho} \left[ \rho^{1-n} \int_{\partial B_\rho} u d\sigma \right] = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Consequently for any  $\rho \in (0, R)$ ,

$$\rho^{1-n} \int_{\partial B_\rho} u d\sigma = R^{1-n} \int_{\partial B_R} u d\sigma$$

And since

$$\lim_{\rho \rightarrow 0} \rho^{1-n} \int_{\partial B_\rho} u d\sigma = n\omega_n u(y)$$

relation (i) follow. To get relation (ii) we write (i) in the form

$$n\omega_n \rho^{n-1} u(y) = \int_{\partial B_\rho} u d\sigma, \rho \leq R$$

and integrate with respect to  $\rho$  from 0 to  $R$ . The relation (ii) follows immediately.



## CHAPTER TWO

### *Integral Representation for Solutions of Elliptic Differential Operators*

#### 2.1 Elliptic differential operators

We begin this section with some preliminary definitions.

**Definition 1** A domain  $\Omega$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is an open, bounded subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Definition 2** The boundary of a set  $\Omega$  is the intersection of the closure of  $\Omega$  and the closure of the complement  $\Omega^c$ , which is denoted by  $\partial\Omega$ . that is  $\partial\Omega = \bar{\Omega} \cap \overline{\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega}$ .

Let  $L$  be a linear partial differential operator of order  $m$  defined in an open subset  $\Omega$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Assume that  $L$  can be represented by means of the standard coordinate system  $x$  in the following way:

$$Lu := L(x, D) = \sum_{|\alpha| \leq m} a_\alpha(x) D^\alpha u$$

Or simply,

$$L := L(x, D) = \sum_{|\alpha| \leq m} a_\alpha(x) D^\alpha \quad , D^\alpha = \frac{\partial^{\alpha_1}}{\partial x_1^{\alpha_1}} \dots \frac{\partial^{\alpha_m}}{\partial x_m^{\alpha_m}} \quad (2.1.1)$$

Where the coefficients  $a_\alpha(x)$ , ( $|\alpha| \leq m$ ) are real valued functions defined in  $\Omega$ . The principal part (or leading part) of  $L$  is the operator obtained by deleting all lower order terms:

$$L_\alpha(x, D) = \sum_{|\alpha|=m} a_\alpha(x) D^\alpha$$

The function  $L_\alpha(x, \xi) = \sum_{|\alpha|=m} a_\alpha \xi^\alpha$ , which is a homogeneous polynomial of degree  $m$  with respect to  $\xi$ , is said to be the principal of  $L$ .

**Definition 3** an operator  $L$  is said to be elliptic of order  $m$  at  $x$  if and only if  $L_\alpha(x, \xi) \neq 0$  for  $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\xi \neq 0$ .

$L$  is called elliptic in  $\Omega$  if  $L$  is elliptic at every point of  $\Omega$ . And  $L$  is called uniformly elliptic in  $\Omega$  if there exist positive numbers  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  (independent of  $(x, \xi)$ ) such that the following inequality holds:

$$c_1 |\xi|^m \leq |L_1(x, \xi)| \leq c_2 |\xi|^m \text{ if } x \in \bar{\Omega} \text{ and } \xi \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad 2.1.2$$

**Remark1** ellipticity is a condition only on the leading part of  $L$ , no restriction is imposed on the coefficients of lower order terms.

**Note** the same definition of ellipticity (Definition 3) applies to ordinary differential operators.

Suppose that a  $n^{th}$  order ordinary differential equation  $Lu = f$ , with smooth coefficients  $a_i(x)$  and a smooth  $f$ , is given by

$$a_n(x) \frac{d^n u(x)}{dx^n} + \dots + a_1(x) \frac{du(x)}{dx} + a_0(x)u(x) = f(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow L = a_n(x) \frac{d^n}{dx^n} + \dots + a_1(x) \frac{d}{dx} + a_0(x)$$

Then the principal of  $L$  is just

$$L_n(x, \xi) = a_n(x)\xi^n.$$

So that  $L$  is elliptic on  $R^n$  provided  $a_n(x)$  is non-vanishing on  $R$ . we use immediately that examples of ODEs are easy to obtain. All ODEs with constant coefficients are elliptic.

Consider a Bessel's equation

$$x^2 \frac{d^2 u}{dx^2} + x \frac{du}{dx} + (x^2 - \lambda^2)u = 0, \lambda \in R$$

$$L = x^2 \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + x \frac{d}{dx} + (x^2 - \lambda^2)$$

The principal of  $L$  is

$$L_2(x, \xi) = x^2 \xi^2$$

Which vanishes at  $x = 0$ , hence it shows  $L$  is non elliptic operator.

**Definition 4** an  $n \times n$  real symmetric matrix  $A$  is said to be a positive definite if

$$x^T A x > 0$$

For all non zero vector  $x$  with real entries ( $x \in R^n$ ), where  $x^T$  denotes the transpose of  $x$ .

**Example 2.1**

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

is positive definite for a vector with the entries  $x = \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \end{bmatrix}$  the quadratic form is

$$x^T A x = [x_0, x_1] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \end{bmatrix} = x_0^2 + x_1^2 > 0$$

Where the entries  $x_0, x_1$  are real and at least one of them non zero, this shows  $A$  is positive definite.

**Definition 5** an operator of second order with real coefficients of the form

$$L = \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} + \sum_{i=1}^n b_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} + c(x). \quad 2.1.3$$

With  $a_{ij}(x) = a_{ji}(x)$  is elliptic at  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  if and only if the matrix  $(a_{ij})_{i,j=1}^n$  is positive definite.

**Definition 6**  $L$  is also elliptic in(2.1.3), if there exists a positive function  $\mu(x)$  such that

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij}(x) \xi_i \xi_j \geq \mu(x) \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i^2 \text{ for all } (\xi_1, \xi_2, \dots, \xi_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad 2.1.4$$

**Example 2.2** the Laplace operator  $\Delta$  is elliptic

**Check**

$$Lu = \Delta u \Rightarrow \sum_{i,j=1}^n \delta_{ij} D_{ij} u \Rightarrow a_{ij} = \delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & i = j \\ 0, & i \neq j \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow a_{ij} \xi_i \xi_j = \delta_{ij} \xi_i \xi_j$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} \xi_i \xi_j = \sum_{i,j=1}^n \delta_{ij} \xi_i \xi_j$$

$$\geq \sum_{i,j=1}^n \delta_{ij} (\xi_i)^2 = \sum_{i,j=1}^n (\xi_i)^2 = \|\xi\|^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} \xi_i \xi_j \geq \|\xi\|^2$$

which is the ellipticity condition with  $\mu(x) = 1$ .

Consequently, the Laplace operator  $\Delta$  is elliptic.

**Example 2.3** given the minimum surface equation

$$Lu = \operatorname{div} \left( \frac{Du}{\sqrt{1 + \|Du\|^2}} \right) = 0$$

The operator  $L$  is elliptic.

**Check**

$$\operatorname{div} \left( \frac{Du}{\sqrt{1 + \|Du\|^2}} \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left( \frac{D_i u}{\sqrt{1 + \|Du\|^2}} \right) \quad (*)$$

But,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left( \frac{D_i u}{\sqrt{1 + \|Du\|^2}} \right) &= \frac{\sqrt{1 + \|Du\|^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} (D_i u) - D_i u \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \sqrt{1 + \|Du\|^2}}{1 + \|Du\|^2} \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{1 + \|Du\|^2} D_{ii} u - D_i u \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \sqrt{(1 + \sum_{j=1}^n (D_j u)^2)}}{1 + \|Du\|^2} \\ &= \frac{(1 + \|Du\|^2) D_{ii} u - D_i u \sum_{j=1}^n D_j u D_{ij} u}{(1 + \|Du\|^2)^{3/2}} \quad (**) \end{aligned}$$

Now, applying (\*\*) into (\*), we have

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left( \frac{D_i u}{\sqrt{1 + \|Du\|^2}} \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(1 + \|Du\|^2) D_{ii} u - D_i u \sum_{j=1}^n D_j u D_{ij} u}{(1 + \|Du\|^2)^{3/2}} \\ &\Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n \left( (1 + \|Du\|^2) D_{ii} u - D_i u \sum_{j=1}^n D_j u D_{ij} u \right) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n (1 + \|Du\|^2) D_{ii}u - \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n D_i u D_j u D_{ij} u = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n (1 + \|Du\|^2) \delta_{ij} D_{ij} u - \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n D_i u D_j u D_{ij} u = 0 \text{ where } \delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & i = j \\ 0, & i \neq j \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{i,j=1}^n ([1 + \|Du\|^2] \delta_{ij} - D_i u D_j u) D_{ij} u = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow a_{ij} = [1 + \|Du\|^2] \delta_{ij} - D_i u D_j u$$

$$\Rightarrow a_{ij} \xi_i \xi_j = [1 + \|Du\|^2] \delta_{ij} \xi_i \xi_j - D_i u D_j u \xi_i \xi_j$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} \xi_i \xi_j = [1 + \|Du\|^2] \sum_{i,j=1}^n \delta_{ij} \xi_i \xi_j - \sum_{i,j=1}^n D_i u \xi_i D_j u \xi_j$$

$$= [1 + \|Du\|^2] \sum_{i=1}^n (\xi_i)^2 - \sum_{i=1}^n (D_i u \xi_i)^2$$

$$= [1 + \|Du\|^2] \|\xi\|^2 - \|Du\xi\|^2 \geq [1 + \|Du\|^2] \|\xi\|^2 - \|Du\|^2 \|\xi\|^2 = \|\xi\|^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} \xi_i \xi_j \geq \|\xi\|^2$$

which is the ellipticity condition with  $\mu(x) = 1$

Consequently the operator  $L$  is elliptic

**Definition 7** the operator

$$(L + h) = \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij}(x) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} + \sum_{i=1}^n b_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} + h ,$$

where  $h$  is an operator of order less than the order of  $L$ .

is said to be elliptic at  $x$  if

$$L = \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$$

is elliptic there. (See Remark 1)

**Example 2.4** We consider a general secondary linear partial differential equation in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

$$a(x, y)u_{xx} + 2b(x, y)u_{xy} + c(x, y)u_{yy} + d(x, y)u_x + e(x, y)u_y + f(x, y)u + h(x, y) = 0$$

From this,

$$[a_{ij}] = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix}$$

The corresponding eigenvalues of  $a_{ij}$ ,  $\lambda_1 = \lambda_1(x, y)$  and  $\lambda_2 = \lambda_2(x, y)$  are real and  $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 = ac - b^2$ . So in this case the operator is elliptic at  $(x, y)$  if and only if  $ac - b^2 > 0$ .

### **2.1.1 The Laplace operator**

The simplest partial differential equation of elliptic type is the familiar Laplace equation.

$$\Delta u = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_i^2}, u \in C^2(\Omega)$$

Where

$$\Delta = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i^2}$$

is the Laplace operator.

#### **2.1.1.1 The fundamental solution of Laplace operator**

Let

$$L = L(x, D) = \sum_{|\alpha| \leq m} a_\alpha(x) D^\alpha$$

be an elliptic differential operator of order  $m$  in an open subset  $\Omega$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , where  $\Omega$  may be a small neighborhood of a point or the whole space  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Definition** a function  $E(x, y)$  is called fundamental solution of  $L$  if for every  $f(x) \in C_0^\infty(\Omega)$ ,

$$u(x) = \int_{\Omega} E(x, y) f(y) dy$$

Solves the equation

$$L(x, D)u(x) = f(x) \text{ in } \Omega.$$

which can be interpreted in the sense of the theory of generalized functions as

$$L(x, D)E(x, y) = \delta(x - y)$$

where  $\delta$  is the Dirac delta-function defined as



$$\int f(x)\delta(x)dx = f(0).$$

Where  $C_0^\infty(\Omega)$  in the above denotes a set of infinitely differentiable function with compact support.

A fundamental solution  $E(x, y)$  of the Laplace operator  $\Delta$  is the solution of the inhomogeneous equation

$$\Delta E(x, y) = \delta(x - y)$$

**Definition:-** A radial function is a function of the form  $u(x) = \gamma(|x|)$  for some functions  $\gamma: [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

Let

$$r(x) = |x| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$$

For  $i = 1, \dots, n$

$$\frac{\partial r}{\partial x_i} = \frac{1}{2}(x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \cdot 2x_i = \frac{x_i}{r}, (x \neq 0)$$

Now for  $u(x) = \gamma(|x|)$  for some  $\gamma \in C^2(0, \infty)$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_i} &= \gamma_r(r) \frac{\partial r}{\partial x_i} = \gamma_r(r) \frac{x_i}{r} \\ \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_i^2} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left( \gamma_r(r) \frac{x_i}{r} \right) \\ &= \gamma_{rr} \frac{x_i^2}{r^2} + \gamma_r \left( \frac{1}{r} + x_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \frac{1}{r} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Where

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \frac{1}{r} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} (x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}} = -\frac{1}{2}(x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2)^{-\frac{3}{2}} 2x_i = -\frac{x_i}{r^3}$$

Then,

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_i^2} = \gamma_{rr} \frac{x_i^2}{r^2} + \gamma_r \left( \frac{1}{r} - \frac{x_i^2}{r^3} \right)$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta u &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_i^2} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_{rr} \frac{x_i^2}{r^2} + \gamma_r \left( \frac{1}{r} - \frac{x_i^2}{r^3} \right) \\ &= \gamma_{rr} + \gamma_r \left( \frac{n-1}{r} \right), x \neq 0\end{aligned}$$

Therefore to find  $u$  such that  $\Delta u = 0$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$ , we solve the differential equation

$$\gamma_{rr} + \gamma_r \left( \frac{n-1}{r} \right) = 0$$

Assuming

$$\gamma(r) \neq 0, \quad \frac{\gamma_{rr}}{\gamma_r} = \frac{1-n}{r}$$

Integrate in  $r$

$$\Rightarrow \ln \gamma_r = (1-n) \ln r + k$$

$$\Rightarrow \gamma_r = c_1 r^{1-n}$$

Where,  $k$  and  $c_1$  are constants.

Integrate again

$$\text{for } n = 2: \quad \gamma_r \frac{c_1}{r} \Rightarrow \gamma = c_1 \ln r + c_2$$

$$n > 2: \quad \gamma_r \frac{c_1}{r^{n-1}} \Rightarrow \gamma = -\frac{1}{n-2} \frac{c_1}{r^{n-2}} + c_2$$

Consequently if  $r > 0$ , we have

$$\gamma(r) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2-n} \frac{c_1}{r^{n-2}} + c_2 & \text{if } n > 2 \\ c_1 \ln r + c_2 & \text{if } n = 2 \end{cases}$$

Where  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  are constants. That shows that  $u(x): x \mapsto \gamma(|x|)$  is a solution of  $\Delta u = 0$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$ .

Therefore we set that by the translation invariance of the Laplace operator the function

$$u: x \mapsto \gamma(|x - y|)$$

is a solution of

$$\Delta u = 0 \text{ on } \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{y\}$$

Note that there are infinitely many solutions of  $\Delta u = 0$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{y\}$ . Since the constant  $c_2$  is harmonic even at 0, it contributes nothing and can be omitted. We take  $c_2 = 0$  but would like to choose the constant  $c_1$  such that

$$\Delta_x \gamma(|x - y|) = \delta_y(x), \quad (x \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{y\})$$

In the sense that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \gamma(|x - y|) \Delta \varphi(y) dy = \varphi(x)$$

for all  $\varphi \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)$

For this, suppose  $\varphi \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)$  say  $\varphi$  is supported in the open set  $\Omega$  and let  $\epsilon > 0$  small enough

Such that

$$B_\epsilon(x) \subseteq \Omega, \text{ let } \Omega_\epsilon = \Omega \setminus \overline{B_\epsilon}(x)$$

We will assume for the case  $n \geq 3$  the case  $n = 2$  being similar.

Let  $\nu(y)$  denote the outer normal to  $\partial \Omega_\epsilon$  at  $y$ . Note that at  $y \in \partial B_\epsilon(x)$

$$v(y) = \frac{x - y}{|x - y|}$$

By Green's second identity we see that

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{\Omega_\epsilon} (\gamma(|x - y|)\Delta\varphi(y) - \Delta\gamma(|x - y|)\varphi(y))dy \\ &= \int_{\partial\Omega_\epsilon} \left( \gamma(|x - y|) \frac{\partial\varphi}{\partial v} - \varphi(y) \frac{\partial\gamma(|x - y|)}{\partial v} \right) d\sigma(y) \end{aligned}$$

Since

$$\Delta\gamma(|x - y|) = 0 \text{ on } \Omega_\epsilon ,$$

and recalling that  $\varphi = 0$  near  $\partial\Omega$  we see that

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\Omega_\epsilon} \gamma(|x - y|)\Delta\varphi(y)dy &= \int_{\partial\Omega_\epsilon} \left( \gamma(|x - y|) \frac{\partial\varphi}{\partial v} - \varphi(y) \frac{\partial\gamma(|x - y|)}{\partial v} \right) d\sigma(y) \\ &= \int_{|x-y|=\epsilon} \left( \gamma(|x - y|) \frac{\partial\varphi}{\partial v} - \varphi(y) \frac{\partial\gamma(|x - y|)}{\partial v} \right) d\sigma(y) \\ &= \frac{c_1}{(2 - n) \epsilon^{n-2}} \int_{|x-y|=\epsilon} \frac{\partial\varphi}{\partial v} d\sigma(y) - \int_{|x-y|=\epsilon} \varphi(y) \frac{\partial\gamma(|x - y|)}{\partial v} d\sigma(y) \end{aligned}$$

Here  $v$  is the outer normal vector field, note that since

$$\gamma(|x - y|)|\Delta\varphi(y)|_{x_{\Omega_\epsilon}(y)} \leq \gamma(|x - y|)|\Delta\varphi(y)|$$

For all  $\epsilon > 0$ , and  $\gamma(|x - y|)\Delta\varphi(y)$  is integrable on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , by the Lebesgue dominating convergence theorem we see that

$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{\Omega_\epsilon} \gamma(|x - y|)\Delta\varphi(y)dy = \int_{\Omega} \gamma(|x - y|)\Delta\varphi(y)dy$$

Since  $\varphi \in C^\infty(\Omega)$ , and hence  $D\varphi(y)$  is bounded it is clear that

$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{c_1}{(2 - n) \epsilon^{n-2}} \int_{|x-y|=\epsilon} \frac{\partial\varphi}{\partial v} d\sigma(y) = 0$$

Note that this limit is still true provided that  $D\varphi$  is locally bounded on  $\Omega$ .

Also, on  $\partial B_\epsilon(x)$

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial \gamma(|x-y|)}{\partial v} &= D_y \gamma(|x-y|) \cdot v \\
&= D_y \gamma(|x-y|) \frac{x-y}{|x-y|} \\
&= \frac{c_1}{(2-n)} (n-2) \frac{|y-x|}{|x-y|} |x-y|^{1-n} \cdot \frac{x-y}{|x-y|} \\
&= c_1 |x-y|^{1-n}
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_{|x-y|=\epsilon} \varphi(y) \frac{\partial \gamma(|x-y|)}{\partial v} d\sigma(y) &= \frac{c_1}{\epsilon^{n-1}} \int_{|x-y|=\epsilon} \varphi(y) d\sigma(y) \\
&= c_1 n \omega_n \epsilon \int_{|x-y|=\epsilon} \varphi(y) d\sigma(y) \\
&\rightarrow = c_1 n \omega_n \varphi(x) \\
&\text{as } \epsilon \rightarrow 0
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore we see that

$$\int_{\Omega} \gamma(|x-y|) \Delta \varphi(y) dy = c_1 n \omega_n \varphi(x) = \varphi(x)$$

Hence we choose  $c_1 = \frac{1}{n \omega_n}$

Similarly, For case  $n=2$ , we have,

$$\int_{\Omega} \gamma(|x-y|) \Delta \varphi(y) dy = c_1 2\pi \varphi(x), \text{ since } \partial B(0,1) = 2\pi, \text{ when } n = 2$$

Hence we choose  $c_1 = \frac{1}{2\pi}$

Therefore for  $x \neq 0$ , we define

$$\Gamma(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2\pi} \ln|x| & \text{if } n = 2 \\ \frac{1}{n(2-n)\omega_n|x|^{n-2}} & \text{if } n > 2 \end{cases}$$

Note  $\Delta\Gamma = 0$  for  $x \neq 0$  but not defined if  $x = 0$ .  $\Delta\Gamma$  can be defined everywhere in the sense of distributions,

$$\Delta\Gamma = \delta \quad , \quad \delta_0(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & , x = 0 \\ 0 & , x \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\Delta\Gamma(x-y) = \begin{cases} 0 & , x \neq y \\ 1 & , x = y \end{cases}$$

Formally, this suggests a solution formula for a poisson equation

$$\Delta u = f \text{ in } \mathbb{R}^n$$

**Check**

---

$$\Delta u = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \Delta_x \Gamma(x-y) f(y) dy = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \delta_x(y) f(y) dy = f(x)$$

**Definition:**-The function

$$\Gamma(|x-y|) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2\pi} \ln|x-y| & \text{if } n = 2 \\ \frac{1}{n(2-n)\omega_n|x-y|^{n-2}} & \text{if } n > 2 \end{cases}$$

is the fundamental solution of Laplace operator.

By simple computation we have

$$D_i \Gamma(x-y) = \frac{1}{n\omega_n} (x_i - y_i) |x-y|^{-n}$$

$$D_{ij} \Gamma(x-y) = \frac{1}{n\omega_n} \{ |x-y|^2 \delta_{ij} - n(x_i - y_i)(x_j - y_j) \} |x-y|^{-n-2}$$

Clearly,  $\Gamma$  is harmonic for  $x \neq y$ .

**Lemma 2.1.1.1** we have

$$\text{a) } |D\Gamma(x)| \leq \frac{c}{|x|^{n-1}}, \quad x \neq 0$$

$$\text{b) } |D^2\Gamma(x)| \leq \frac{c}{|x|^n} \quad x \neq 0$$

$$\text{c) } \frac{\partial\Gamma(x)}{\partial v} = \frac{1}{n\omega_n r^{n-1}} \quad \forall x \in \partial B(0, r)$$

Note

$$\frac{\partial\Gamma}{\partial v}(x) = D\Gamma(x) \cdot \frac{x}{|x|} \quad \text{where } v(x) = \frac{x}{|x|}$$

**Proof**

---

$$\text{a) } \text{for } n = 2 : \quad \frac{\partial \ln|x|}{\partial x_i} = \frac{1}{|x|} \frac{\partial|x|}{\partial x_i} = \frac{1}{|x|} \frac{x_i}{|x|}$$

$$D\Gamma(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{x}{|x|^2} \quad \Rightarrow |D\Gamma(x)| \leq \frac{c}{|x|}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{for } n > 2 : \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \frac{1}{|x|^{n-2}} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left[ \sum x_k^2 \right]^{\frac{-(n-2)}{2}} \\ &= -\frac{(n-2)}{2} \left[ \sum x_k^2 \right]^{-\left(\frac{n-2}{2}+1\right)} 2x_i = -(n-2) \frac{x_i}{|x|^n} \end{aligned}$$

$$D\Gamma(x) = \frac{-1}{n(2-n)\omega_n} \cdot \left[ \frac{-(n-2)x}{|x|^n} \right]$$

$$D\Gamma(x) = \frac{1}{n\omega_n} \frac{x}{|x|^n}$$

$$|D\Gamma(x)| \leq \frac{1}{n\omega_n} \frac{|x|}{|x|^n} = \frac{1}{n\omega_n} \frac{1}{|x|^{n-1}}$$

$$\Rightarrow |D\Gamma(x)| \leq \frac{c}{|x|^{n-1}}$$

b) for  $n = 2$  ;  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \ln|x| = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left[ \frac{x_i}{|x|^2} \right] = \frac{\delta_{ij}}{|x|^2} + x_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \frac{1}{|x|^2}$

But

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \frac{1}{|x|^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left[ \sum x_k^2 \right]^{-1} = - \left[ \sum x_k^2 \right]^{-2} 2x_j = -2 \frac{x_j}{|x|^4}$$

$$D^2\Gamma(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left[ \frac{\delta_{ij}}{|x|^2} - \frac{x_i x_j}{|x|^4} \right]$$

$$|D^2\Gamma(x)| \leq \frac{1}{2\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{|x|^2} - \frac{2|x_i||x_j|}{|x|^4} \right] \leq \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{3}{|x|^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow D^2\Gamma(x) \leq \frac{c}{|x|^2}$$

for  $n > 2$  ;  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left[ \frac{1}{|x|^{n-2}} \right] = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left( -(n-2) \frac{x_i}{|x|^n} \right)$

$$= -(n-2) \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} x_i \frac{1}{|x|^n} + x_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \frac{1}{|x|^n} \right]$$

$$= -(n-2) \left[ \frac{\delta_{ij}}{|x|^n} + x_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \frac{1}{|x|^n} \right]$$

But

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \frac{1}{|x|^n} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left[ \sum x_k^2 \right]^{-\frac{n}{2}} = \frac{-n}{2} \left[ \sum x_k^2 \right]^{-\frac{(n+1)}{2}} \cdot 2x_j = \frac{-nx_j}{|x|^{n+1}}$$



$$\begin{aligned}
D^2\Gamma(x) &= \frac{1}{n(2-n)\omega_n} (-1)(n-2) \left[ \frac{\delta_{ij}}{|x|^n} - nx_i x_j \frac{1}{|x|^{n+1}} \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{n\omega_n} \left[ \frac{\delta_{ij}}{|x|^n} - nx_i x_j \frac{1}{|x|^{n+1}} \right]
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
|D^2\Gamma(x)| &\leq \frac{1}{n\omega_n} \left[ \frac{1}{|x|^n} - n \frac{|x_i||x_j|}{|x|^{n+1}} \right] \leq \frac{1}{n\omega_n} \left[ \frac{1}{|x|^n} - \frac{n}{|x|^n} \right] \leq \frac{1-n}{n\omega_n} \frac{1}{|x|^n} \\
&\Rightarrow |D^2\Gamma(x)| \leq \frac{c}{|x|^n}
\end{aligned}$$

c) for  $n = 2$  ;  $D\Gamma(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} D\ln|x| = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{1}{|x|} \frac{x}{|x|}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial\Gamma}{\partial v}(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{x}{|x|^2} \frac{x}{|x|} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{|x|^2}{|x|^2|x|} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{1}{|x|}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{for } n > 2 ; \frac{\partial\Gamma}{\partial v}(x) &= D\Gamma(x) \cdot \frac{x}{|x|} = \frac{1}{n\omega_n} \frac{x}{|x|^n} \frac{x}{|x|} = \frac{1}{n\omega_n} \frac{|x|^2}{|x|^{n+1}} = \frac{1}{n\omega_n |x|^{n-1}} \\
&= \frac{1}{n\omega_n r^{n-1}}
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\frac{\partial\Gamma}{\partial v}(x) = \frac{1}{n\omega_n r^{n-1}} \quad \forall x \in \partial B(0, r)$$

**Theorem (Integral Representation)**

Let  $\Omega$  be a domain with  $c^1$  boundary. If  $u \in c^2(\bar{\Omega})$ . Then for any  $x \in \Omega$ .

$$u(x) = \int_{\Omega} \Gamma(x-y) \Delta u(y) dy - \int_{\partial\Omega} \left( \Gamma(x-y) \frac{\partial u(y)}{\partial \nu} - u(y) \frac{\partial \Gamma(x-y)}{\partial \nu} \right) d\sigma(y) \quad (1)$$

**Proof**  $\Gamma$  is defined on  $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{y\}$  as follows

$$\Gamma(x-y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2\pi} \ln|x-y| & \text{if } n = 2 \\ \frac{1}{n(2-n)\omega_n} \frac{1}{|x-y|^{n-2}} & \text{if } n > 2 \end{cases}$$

$\Gamma(x-y)$  Satisfies  $\Delta \Gamma(x-y) = 0$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{y\}$  for  $n \geq 2$ . let  $x \in \Omega$ .

Then  $B(y, \epsilon) \subset \subset \Omega$  for some  $\epsilon > 0$ . Let  $\Omega_\epsilon = \Omega \setminus \bar{B}(y, \epsilon)$

Now  $u(y)$  and  $\Gamma(x-y)$  are in  $c^2(\bar{\Omega}_\epsilon)$ . We apply Green's second identity

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{\Omega_\epsilon} (\Gamma(x-y) \Delta u(y) - u(y) \Delta \Gamma(x-y)) dy \\ &= \int_{\partial\Omega_\epsilon} \left( \Gamma(x-y) \frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu}(y) - u(y) \frac{\partial \Gamma(x-y)}{\partial \nu} \right) d\sigma(y) \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\Gamma(x-y)$  is harmonic in  $\Omega_\epsilon$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\Omega_\epsilon} \Gamma(x-y) \Delta u(y) dy &= \int_{\partial\Omega_\epsilon} \left( \Gamma(x-y) \frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu}(y) - u(y) \frac{\partial \Gamma(x-y)}{\partial \nu} \right) d\sigma(y) \\ &= \int_{\partial\Omega} \left( \Gamma(x-y) \frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu}(y) - u(y) \frac{\partial \Gamma(x-y)}{\partial \nu} \right) d\sigma(y) \\ &+ \int_{\partial B(y, \epsilon)} \left( \Gamma(x-y) \frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu}(y) - u(y) \frac{\partial \Gamma(x-y)}{\partial \nu} \right) d\sigma(y) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& \underbrace{\int_{\Omega_\epsilon} \Gamma(x-y) \Delta u(y) dy}_{=I_\epsilon} \\
&= \int_{\partial\Omega} \left( \Gamma(x-y) \frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu}(y) - u(y) \frac{\partial \Gamma(x-y)}{\partial \nu} \right) d\sigma(y) \\
&+ \underbrace{\int_{\partial B(y,\epsilon)} \left( \Gamma(x-y) \frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu}(y) \right) d\sigma(y)}_{=J_\epsilon} - \underbrace{\int_{\partial B(y,\epsilon)} \left( u(y) \frac{\partial \Gamma(x-y)}{\partial \nu} \right) d\sigma(y)}_{=K_\epsilon}
\end{aligned}$$

But  $\int_{\Omega_\epsilon} u(y) \Delta \Gamma(x-y) = 0$ , since  $\Gamma(x-y)$  satisfies Laplace equation.

$$\begin{aligned}
I_\epsilon &= \int_{\Omega_\epsilon} \Gamma(x-y) \Delta u(y) dy \\
&= \int_{\Omega} \Gamma(x-y) \Delta u(y) x_{\Omega_\epsilon}(y) dy
\end{aligned}$$

Note  $x_{\Omega_\epsilon}(y) \rightarrow x_\Omega(y)$  as  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$

$$\begin{aligned}
& |\Gamma(x-y) \Delta u(y) x_{\Omega_\epsilon}(y)| \leq |\Gamma(x-y)| |\Delta u(y)| \\
I_\epsilon &\rightarrow \int_{\Omega} \Gamma(x-y) \Delta u(y) x_\Omega(y) dy = \int_{\Omega} \Gamma(x-y) \Delta u(y) dy
\end{aligned}$$

as  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$

$$\begin{aligned}
|J_\epsilon| &= \left| \int_{\partial B(y,\epsilon)} \Gamma(x-y) \frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu}(y) d\sigma(y) \right| \\
&= c_n \max_{\Omega} |Du| \int_{\partial B(y,\epsilon)} \frac{1}{|x-y|^{n-2}} d\sigma(y) \\
&= c_n \max_{\Omega} |Du| \int_0^\epsilon \int_{S^{n-1}} \frac{1}{r^{n-2}} r^{n-1} d\sigma(w) dr \\
&= n\omega_n c_n \max_{\Omega} |Du| \int_0^\epsilon r dr
\end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow |J_\epsilon| \leq c_n \max_{\Omega} |Du| \epsilon^2 \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } \epsilon \rightarrow 0$$

$$\therefore \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} J_\epsilon = 0$$

$$K_\epsilon = \int_{\partial B(y, \epsilon)} u(y) \frac{\partial \Gamma(x-y)}{\partial v} d\sigma(y), y \in \partial B(y, \epsilon)$$

$$\frac{\partial \Gamma(x-y)}{\partial v} = D\Gamma(x-y) \cdot v(y)$$

$$= D\Gamma(x-y) \cdot \frac{x-y}{|x-y|}, v(y) = \frac{x-y}{|x-y|} \text{ for } x \in \partial B(y, \epsilon)$$

$$\Gamma(x-y) = \frac{1}{n(2-n)\omega_n} |x-y|^{2-n}$$

$$D\Gamma(x-y) = \frac{1}{n\omega_n} |x-y|^{1-n} \frac{y-x}{|y-x|}$$

$$\therefore \frac{\partial \Gamma(x-y)}{\partial v} = \frac{1}{n\omega_n} |y-x|^{-n} (y-x) \frac{x-y}{|x-y|}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{n\omega_n} |y-x|^{-n} \frac{|y-x|^2}{|y-x|}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{n\omega_n} |y-x|^{1-n}$$

$$K_\epsilon = \int_{\partial B(y, \epsilon)} u(y) \frac{\partial \Gamma(x-y)}{\partial v} d\sigma(y)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{n\omega_n} \int_{\partial B(y, \epsilon)} \frac{u(y)}{|x-y|^{n-1}} d\sigma(y)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{n\omega_n \epsilon^{n-1}} \int_{\partial B(y, \epsilon)} u(y) d\sigma(y)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{|\partial B(y, \epsilon)|} \int_{\partial B(y, \epsilon)} u(y) d\sigma(y)$$

But

$$\frac{1}{|\partial B(y, \epsilon)|} \int_{\partial B(y, \epsilon)} u(y) d\sigma(y) = \frac{1}{|\partial B(y, \epsilon)|} \int_{\partial B(y, \epsilon)} (u(y) - u(x)) d\sigma(y) + u(x)$$

Since

$$\frac{1}{|\partial B(y, \epsilon)|} \int_{\partial B(y, \epsilon)} u(x) d\sigma(y) = u(x)$$

After taking limit as  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$  (2) becomes;

$$\int_{\Omega} \Gamma(x-y) \Delta u(y) dy = \int_{\partial\Omega} \left( \Gamma(x-y) \frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu}(y) - u(y) \frac{\partial \Gamma(x-y)}{\partial \nu} \right) d\sigma(y) + u(x)$$

Hence

$$u(x) = \int_{\Omega} \Gamma(x-y) \Delta u(y) dy - \int_{\partial\Omega} \left( \Gamma(x-y) \frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu}(y) - u(y) \frac{\partial \Gamma(x-y)}{\partial \nu} \right) d\sigma(y)$$

**Lemma 2.1.1.2:** If  $u \in C^2(\bar{\Omega})$  satisfies  $\Delta u = 0$  in  $\Omega$  then

$$u(x) = - \int_{\partial\Omega} \left( \Gamma(x-y) \frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu}(y) - u(y) \frac{\partial \Gamma(x-y)}{\partial \nu} \right) d\sigma(y)$$

**Proof**

The proof follows from the above theorem

$$u(x) = \underbrace{\int_{\Omega} \Gamma(x-y) \Delta u(y) dy}_{=0} - \int_{\partial\Omega} \left( \Gamma(x-y) \frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu}(y) - u(y) \frac{\partial \Gamma(x-y)}{\partial \nu} \right) d\sigma(y)$$

Since

$$\Delta u = 0$$

Therefore

$$u(x) = - \int_{\partial\Omega} \left( \Gamma(x-y) \frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu}(y) - u(y) \frac{\partial \Gamma(x-y)}{\partial \nu} \right) d\sigma(y)$$

Note that the normal derivative  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu}$  on  $\partial\Omega$  is not known, so we would like to modify the

above formula to get a formula which does not involve  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu}$ .

Suppose for each  $x \in \Omega$ , there is a function  $\phi^x$  such that

$$\begin{cases} \Delta \phi^x(y) = 0 & \text{in } \Omega \\ \phi^x(y) = -\Gamma(x-y) & \text{on } \partial\Omega \end{cases}$$

Using Green's second identity on  $\Omega$  with  $u(y)$  and  $\phi^x(y)$  we get

$$\int_{\Omega} \phi^x(y) \Delta u(y) dy = \int_{\partial\Omega} \left( \phi^x(y) \frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu}(y) - u(y) \frac{\partial \phi^x(y)}{\partial \nu} \right) d\sigma(y) \quad (3)$$

Adding (3) to (1) we get,

$$\begin{aligned} u(x) &= \int_{\Omega} (\Gamma(x-y) + \phi^x(y)) \Delta u(y) dy \\ &\quad - \int_{\partial\Omega} \left( (\Gamma(x-y) + \phi^x(y)) \frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu}(y) - u(y) \frac{\partial(\Gamma(x-y) + \phi^x(y))}{\partial \nu} \right) d\sigma(y) \\ u(x) &= \int_{\Omega} (\Gamma(x-y) + \phi^x(y)) \Delta u(y) dy + \int_{\partial\Omega} u(y) \frac{\partial(\Gamma(x-y) + \phi^x(y))}{\partial \nu} d\sigma(y) \\ &\quad - \int_{\partial\Omega} (\Gamma(x-y) + \phi^x(y)) \frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu}(y) d\sigma(y) \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

### **2.1.1.2 Green's function of Laplace operator**

**Definition** a function  $G(x, y)$  defined for  $x, y \in \bar{\Omega}$   $x \neq y$  is called the Green's function for the Laplace operator on  $\Omega$ . If

- (1)  $G(x, y) = 0$  for  $x \in \partial\Omega$
- (2)  $G(x, y) = \Gamma(x-y) + \phi^x(y)$  is harmonic in  $x \in \Omega$

Now (4) becomes

$$\begin{aligned} u(x) &= \int_{\Omega} G(x, y) \Delta u(y) dy + \int_{\partial\Omega} u(y) \frac{\partial G(x, y)}{\partial \nu} d\sigma(y) - \int_{\partial\Omega} \underbrace{G(x, y)}_{=0} \frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu}(y) d\sigma(y) \\ u(x) &= \int_{\Omega} G(x, y) \Delta u(y) dy + \int_{\partial\Omega} u(y) \frac{\partial G(x, y)}{\partial \nu} d\sigma(y) \end{aligned}$$

Using this formula we can obtain a solution of the Dirichlet problem for the Poisson equation

$$\begin{cases} \Delta u = f \text{ in } \Omega \\ u = \varphi \text{ on } \partial\Omega \end{cases}$$

By the representation formula

$$u(x) = \int_{\Omega} G(x,y)f(y)dy + \int_{\partial\Omega} \varphi(y) \frac{\partial G(x,y)}{\partial \nu} d\sigma(y)$$

Similar to the Dirichlet problem if

$$\begin{cases} \Delta u = 0 \text{ in } \Omega \\ u = \varphi \text{ on } \partial\Omega \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

The solution is given by

$$u(x) = \int_{\partial\Omega} \varphi(y) \frac{\partial G(x,y)}{\partial \nu} d\sigma(y)$$

Here  $u(x)$  is the integral representation for the solution of the equation (5)

**Theorem:** The Green's function  $G(x, y)$  is symmetric that is  $G(x, y) = G(y, x)$ , for  $x, y \in \Omega, x \neq y$ .

**Proof** Take  $x, y \in \Omega$  with  $x \neq y$ . choose  $r > 0$  small enough such that  $B(x, r) \cap B(y, r) = \emptyset$ . And consider  $B(x, r) \subset \Omega$  and  $B(y, r)$ . Set  $G_x(z) = G(x, z)$  and  $G_y(z) = G(y, z)$ . By applying Green's formula in  $\Omega \setminus [(B(x, r) \cap B(y, r))]$  we get,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\Omega \setminus (B(x,r) \cap B(y,r))} (G_x \Delta G_y - G_y \Delta G_x) dz &= \int_{\partial\Omega} (G_x \frac{\partial G_y}{\partial \nu} - G_y \frac{\partial G_x}{\partial \nu}) d\sigma \\ - \int_{\partial B(x,r)} (G_x \frac{\partial G_y}{\partial \nu} - G_y \frac{\partial G_x}{\partial \nu}) d\sigma &- \int_{\partial B(y,r)} (G_x \frac{\partial G_y}{\partial \nu} - G_y \frac{\partial G_x}{\partial \nu}) d\sigma \end{aligned}$$

Since  $G_x$  and  $G_y$  are harmonic for  $x \neq z$  and  $y \neq z$  respectively, and vanishes on  $\partial\Omega$  we have

$$\int_{\partial B(x,r)} (G_x \frac{\partial G_y}{\partial \nu} - G_y \frac{\partial G_x}{\partial \nu}) d\sigma + \int_{\partial B(y,r)} (G_x \frac{\partial G_y}{\partial \nu} - G_y \frac{\partial G_x}{\partial \nu}) d\sigma = 0$$

Note that the left side has the same limit as the left side in the following as  $r \rightarrow 0$

$$\int_{\partial B(x,r)} (\Gamma \frac{\partial G_x}{\partial \nu} - G_y \frac{\partial \Gamma}{\partial \nu}) d\sigma + \int_{\partial B(y,r)} (G_x \frac{\partial \Gamma}{\partial \nu} - \Gamma \frac{\partial G_x}{\partial \nu}) d\sigma = 0$$

While we have

$$\int_{\partial B(x,r)} \Gamma \frac{\partial G_y}{\partial v} d\sigma \rightarrow 0, \int_{\partial B(y,r)} \Gamma \frac{\partial G_x}{\partial v} d\sigma \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } r \rightarrow 0$$

And

$$\int_{\partial B(x,r)} G_y \frac{\partial \Gamma}{\partial v} d\sigma \rightarrow G_y(x), \int_{\partial B(y,r)} G_x \frac{\partial \Gamma}{\partial v} d\sigma \rightarrow G_x(y) \text{ as } r \rightarrow 0$$

This implies

$$G_y(x) - G_x(y), \text{ or } G(y, x) = G(x, y)$$

## **2.2 Integral Representations for Solutions of an operator**

Let  $\Omega$  be a n open t hree dimension r egion in  $R^3$  and t he bounda ry  $\partial\Omega$  be a si mply connected, infinitely smooth surface.

Let  $a \in (R^3), a(x) > 0$

Consider the following scalar differential operators;

$$L_a = \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left[ a(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \right]$$

$$E_a(u, v) = \sum_{i=1}^3 a(x) \frac{\partial u(x)}{\partial x_i} \frac{\partial v(x)}{\partial x_i} = a(x) \nabla u(x) \nabla v(x)$$

$$T_a(x, n(x), \partial_x) = \sum_{i=1}^3 a(x) n_i(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} = a(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial n(x)}$$

We want to show that  $L_a$  is elliptic operator as follows;



$L_a$  can be written as:

$$L_a = \sum_{i=1}^3 a(x) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i^2} + \sum_{i=1}^3 b_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \quad , \quad b_i = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} a(x) \quad (2.2.1)$$

Comparing (2.2.1) to Eq.(2.1.3),  $L_a$  is an operator of second order to show its ellipticity, we use Definition 6.

Here in (2.2.1)  $a_{ij} = a(x)$  and  $i = j$

$$a_{ij} \xi_i \xi_j = a(x) \xi_i \xi_j$$

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^3 a_{ij} \xi_i \xi_j = \sum_{i,j=1}^3 a(x) \xi_i \xi_j = a(x) \sum_{i,j=1}^3 \xi_i \xi_j = a(x) \sum_{i=1}^3 \xi_i^2 = a(x) \|\xi\|^2$$

This implies that  $L_a$  is elliptic with  $\mu(x) = a(x) > 0$ .

We can get the first and second Green's identity for an operator  $L_a$  ;

$$\int_{\Omega} [v L_a u + E_a(u, v)] dx = \int_{\partial\Omega} v T_a u d\sigma$$

(First Green's identity for an operator  $L_a$ )

$$\int_{\Omega} (v L_a u - u L_a v) dx = \int_{\partial\Omega} (v T_a u - u T_a v) d\sigma$$

(Second Green's identity for an operator  $L_a$ )

To get the first identity for an operator  $L_a$  , we begin by

$$L_a u = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left[ a(x) \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_i} \right] = \operatorname{div}(a Du)$$

Recall

$$\operatorname{div}(a Du) = Da \cdot Du + a \Delta u$$

Integrate both sides over  $\Omega$  yields

$$\int_{\Omega} (Da \cdot Du + a\Delta u) dx = \int_{\Omega} \operatorname{div}(aDu) dx = \int_{\partial\Omega} aDu \cdot n d\sigma = \int_{\partial\Omega} a \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} d\sigma = \int_{\partial\Omega} T_a u d\sigma$$

$$vL_a u = v \operatorname{div}(aDu) = vDa \cdot Du + av\Delta u$$

$$\int_{\Omega} vL_a u dx = \int_{\Omega} (vDa \cdot Du + av\Delta u) dx \quad (2.2.2)$$

But,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\Omega} av\Delta u dx &= - \int_{\Omega} D(av) \cdot D u dx + \int_{\partial\Omega} av \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} d\sigma \\ &= - \int_{\Omega} vDa \cdot D u dx - \int_{\Omega} aDv \cdot D u dx + \int_{\partial\Omega} av \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} d\sigma \end{aligned} \quad (2.2.3)$$

Inserting (\*\*) in to (\*) yields

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\Omega} vL_a u dx &= - \int_{\Omega} aDu \cdot Dv dx + \int_{\partial\Omega} av \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} d\sigma \\ \int_{\Omega} [vL_a u + E_a(u, v)] dx &= \int_{\partial\Omega} vT_a u d\sigma \end{aligned} \quad (2.2.4)$$

The equation (2.2.4) is the first Green's identity for operator  $L_a$ .

To get the second Green's identity for an operator  $L_a$  we use the (2.2.4)

$$\int_{\Omega} [vL_a u + E_a(u, v)] dx = \int_{\partial\Omega} vT_a u d\sigma \quad (2.2.5)$$

And similarly,

$$\int_{\Omega} [uL_a v + E_a(v, u)] dx = \int_{\partial\Omega} uT_a v d\sigma \quad (2.2.6)$$

Subtracting (2.2.6) from (2.2.5) we get the second Green's identity for operator  $L_a$ .

$$\int_{\Omega} (vL_a u - uL_a v) dx = \int_{\partial\Omega} (vT_a u - uT_a v) d\sigma$$

### 2.2.1 Parametrix

A function  $P_a(x, y)$  of two variables  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^3$  is called a parametrix for an operator  $L_a$  if

$$L_a P_a(x, y) = \delta(x - y) + R_a(x, y) \quad (2.2.7)$$

Example the function

$$P_a(x, y) = \frac{-1}{4\pi a(y)|x - y|} \quad x, y \in \mathbb{R}^3$$

is a Parametrix with the corresponding weakly singular remainder

$$R_a(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{x_i - y_i}{4\pi a(y)|x - y|^3} \frac{\partial a(x)}{\partial x_i} \quad x, y \in \mathbb{R}^3$$

Check

$$L_a P_a(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left[ a(x) \frac{\partial P_a(x, y)}{\partial x_i} \right] = Da \cdot DP_a(x, y) + a \Delta P_a(x, y)$$

$$(i) \quad a \Delta P_a(x, y) = a \Delta \left( \frac{-1}{4\pi a(y)|x - y|} \right) = \frac{a(x)}{a(y)} \left( \frac{-1}{4\pi|x - y|} \right) = \frac{a(x)}{a(y)} \delta(x - y)$$

Recall from distribution if  $a \in C^\infty$ , then  $a\delta = a(0)\delta$  it means take  $\varphi \in D(\mathbb{R}^n)$  and consider

$$\langle a\delta, \varphi \rangle = \langle \delta, a\varphi \rangle = \langle \delta, \psi \rangle, \quad \psi = a\varphi \in D(\mathbb{R}^n)$$

$$\langle \delta, \psi \rangle = \psi(0) = a(0)\varphi(0) = a(0)\langle \delta, \varphi \rangle = \langle a(0)\delta, \varphi \rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle a\delta, \varphi \rangle = \langle a(0)\delta, \varphi \rangle$$

$$\frac{a(x)}{a(y)} \delta(x - y) = a(x, y) \delta(x - y) = \underbrace{a(x, y)}_{=1} \Big|_{x=y} \delta(x - y) = \delta(x - y)$$

Therefore,

$$a \Delta P_a(x, y) = \delta(x - y)$$

Next I will show that

$$(ii) \quad Da.DP_a(x, y) = R_a(x, y)$$

$$\begin{aligned} DP_a(x, y) &= D\left(\frac{-1}{4\pi a(y)|x-y|}\right) = \frac{1}{4\pi a(y)} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left(\frac{-1}{|x-y|}\right) = \frac{1}{4\pi a(y)} \frac{-(1)' + |x-y|'}{|x-y|^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{4\pi a(y)} \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{x_i - y_i}{|x-y|^3} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} Da.DP_a(x, y) &= \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{\partial a(x)}{\partial x_i} \frac{1}{4\pi a(y)} \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{x_i - y_i}{|x-y|^3} = \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{1}{4\pi a(y)} \frac{x_i - y_i}{|x-y|^3} \frac{\partial a(x)}{\partial x_i} \\ &= R_a(x, y) \end{aligned}$$

From this we get

$$L_a P_a(x, y) = \delta(x-y) + R_a(x, y).$$

Recall Green's second identity for an operator  $L_a$

$$\int_{\Omega} (vL_a u - uL_a v) dx = \int_{\partial\Omega} (vT_a u - uT_a v) d\sigma \quad (2.2.8)$$

Let  $u$  be a solution of

$$\begin{cases} L_a u = f \text{ in } \Omega \\ u = \varphi \text{ on } \partial\Omega \end{cases} \quad (2.2.9)$$

And substitute  $v$  by  $P_a(x, y)$  in (2.2.7) we have

$$\begin{aligned} &\int_{\Omega} \left( P_a(x, y)f(x) - u(x) \underbrace{L_a P_a(x, y)}_{=\delta(x-y)+R_a(x,y)} \right) dx \\ &= \int_{\partial\Omega} (P_a(x, y)T_a u(x) - u(x)T_a P_a(x, y)) d\sigma \\ &\int_{\Omega} (P_a(x, y)f(x) - u(x)(\delta(x-y) + R_a(x, y))) dx \\ &= \int_{\partial\Omega} (P_a(x, y)T_a u(x) - u(x)T_a P_a(x, y)) d\sigma \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& \int_{\Omega} P_a(x, y) f(x) dx - \int_{\Omega} u(x) \delta(x - y) dx - \int_{\Omega} u(x) R_a(x, y) dx \\
& \quad = \int_{\partial\Omega} P_a(x, y) T_a u(x) d\sigma - \int_{\partial\Omega} u(x) T_a P_a(x, y) \\
u(y) & = \int_{\Omega} P_a(x, y) f(x) dx - \int_{\Omega} u(x) R_a(x, y) dx \\
& \quad - \int_{\partial\Omega} P_a(x, y) T_a u(x) d\sigma + \int_{\partial\Omega} \varphi T_a P_a(x, y) d\sigma \quad (2.2.10)
\end{aligned}$$

Note that  $u(y) = u * \delta = \int u(x) \delta(x - y) dx$

From Eq. (2.2.10),  $u(y)$  is the integral representation for the solution of Eq.(2.2.9).

If

$$a = 1, \quad R_a(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{x_i - y_i}{4\pi|x - y|^3} \frac{\partial(1)}{\partial x_i} = 0$$

This implies from Eq. (2.2.7)  $L_a P_a(x, y) = \delta(x - y)$

$\Rightarrow P_a(x, y)$  is a fundamental solution for an operator  $L_a$  for  $a = 1$ .

Basically, for  $a = 1$ ,

$$L_a u = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left[ a(x) \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_i} \right] = \operatorname{div}(aDu) = Da \cdot Du + a\Delta u = \Delta u$$

$$\Rightarrow L_a = \Delta$$

Substitute a fundamental solution  $P_a(x, y)$  by  $E(x, y)$ , and

$$T_a(x, n(x), \partial_x) = a(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial n(x)} = \frac{\partial}{\partial n(x)} \text{ for } a = 1$$

in 2.2.10) becomes

$$\begin{aligned}
u(y) &= \int_{\Omega} E(x, y)f(x)dx - \int_{\Omega} u(x) \cdot 0 dx \\
&\quad - \int_{\partial\Omega} E(x, y) \frac{\partial u(x)}{\partial n(x)} d\sigma + \int_{\partial\Omega} \varphi \frac{\partial E(x, y)}{\partial n(x)} d\sigma \\
u(y) &= \int_{\Omega} E(x, y)f(x)dx + \int_{\partial\Omega} \left( \varphi \frac{\partial E(x, y)}{\partial n} - E(x, y) \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} \right) d\sigma \tag{2.2.11}
\end{aligned}$$

Eq.(2.2.11) shows us  $u(y)$  is the integral representation for  $\begin{cases} \Delta u = f & \text{in } \Omega \\ u = \varphi & \text{on } \partial\Omega \end{cases}$

$\Rightarrow$  Eq. (2.2.10) reduces to Eq. (2.2.11) for  $a = 1$ .

### 2.3 Fundamental solution for Ordinary differential operators

**Definition** let  $L$  be a differential operator of the form

$$L = \sum_{|\alpha| \leq k} a_{\alpha}(x) D^{\alpha} \quad , \quad D = \frac{d}{dx}$$

A function  $E(x, y)$  is called a fundamental solution of  $L$ , if for every function  $f(x)$ , which is sufficiently regular and vanishes outside a bounded set

$$L \left[ \int E(x, y)f(y)dy \right] = f(x).$$

Symbolically this amounts to  $E(x, y)$  being a solution of the inhomogeneous differential equation

$$LE(x, y) = \delta(x - y)$$

Where  $\delta$  denotes the so called Dirac delta function defined as;

$$\delta(x) = \begin{cases} \infty, & x = 0 \\ 0, & x \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

and which is also constrained to satisfy the identity

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x) dx = 1$$

**Example 1** consider the scalar problem

$$Lu := \frac{d^2 u}{dx^2} = 0$$

We would like to find a fundamental solution  $E(x, y)$  satisfying

$$LE(x, y) = \delta(x - y)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d^2}{dx^2} E(x, y) = \delta(x - y)$$

Since the general solution of the ODE for  $x \neq y$  can be written as  $A + Bx$ . we may take as ansatz for  $E(x, y)$

$$E(x, y) = \begin{cases} A_1 + B_1 x & \text{if } x < y \\ A_2 + B_2 x & \text{if } x > y \end{cases}$$

Using integration, we obtain for sufficiently small  $\varepsilon$  that

$$\frac{dE}{dx}(y + \varepsilon; y) - \frac{dE}{dx}(y - \varepsilon; y) = \int_{y-\varepsilon}^{y+\varepsilon} \delta(x - y) dx = 1.$$

Applying these conditions to the solution above, we find

$$B_2 - B_1 = 1.$$

Since  $E$  is apparently continuous at  $x = y$ , we also find

$$A_1 + B_1 y = A_2 + B_2 y.$$

Hence we obtain the fundamental solution

$$E(x; y) = \begin{cases} A_1 + B_1 x & \text{if } x \leq y \\ A_1 - y + (B_1 + 1)x & \text{if } x > y. \end{cases}$$

Where  $A_1$  and  $B_1$  are arbitrary constants.

**Recall** The Heaviside function  $H(x)$  is defined to be equal to zero for every negative value of  $x$  and to unity for every positive value of  $x$ , that is

$$H(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 0 \\ 1, & x > 0 \end{cases}$$

It has jump discontinuity at  $x = 0$

$$H' = \delta$$

This is sometimes written as

$$H(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \delta(t) dt$$

**Example2** find the fundamental solution for ordinary differential equation  $u'' = f$ .

To find the fundamental solution  $E(x)$ , we want to solve  $E''(x) = \delta(x)$ . Recall that the Heaviside function  $H(x)$  satisfies  $(H(x) + c)' = \delta(x)$  for any constant  $c$ . Let us take  $c = \frac{-1}{2}$  and try to solve

$$E'(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{-1}{2} & \text{if } x > 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases} \quad (*)$$

We may integrate (\*) to obtain a particular solution

$$E(x) = \frac{1}{2}|x| \quad (**)$$

as our fundamental solution. (The choice  $c = -1/2$  was made to simplify the resultant form (\*\*)) of the fundamental solution.)



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