# Chapter 10: Integration of Differential Forms

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**Exercise 10.1.** Let H be a compact convex set in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , with nonempty interior. Let  $f \in \mathcal{C}(H)$ , put  $f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$  in the complement of H, and define  $\int_H f$  as in Definition 10.3. Prove that  $\int_H f$  is independent of the order in which the k integrations are carried out. (Hint: Approximate f by functions that are continuous on  $\mathbb{R}^k$  and whose supports are in H, as was done in Example 10.4.)

Proof.

- (1)
- (2)

**Exercise 10.2.** For  $i = 1, 2, 3, ..., let \varphi_i \in \mathscr{C}(\mathbb{R}^1)$  have support in  $(2^{-i}, 2^{1-i})$ , such that  $\int \varphi_i = 1$ . Put

$$f(x,y) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} [\varphi_i(x) - \varphi_{i+1}(x)] \varphi_i(y)$$

Then f has compact support in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , f is continuous except at (0,0), and

$$\int dy \int f(x,y)dx = 0 \qquad but \qquad \int dx \int f(x,y)dy = 1.$$

Observe that f is unbounded in every neighborhood of (0,0).

Proof.

- (1) If  $f, g: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  are two functions, then
  - (a)  $supp(fg) \subseteq supp(f) \cap supp(g)$ .
  - (b)  $\operatorname{supp}(f+q) \subseteq \operatorname{supp}(f) \cup \operatorname{supp}(q)$ .
- (2) Note that f(x,y) is well-defined on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  since only finitely many terms are nonzero for each fixed point  $(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  (by (1)). Besides,

$$\sup_{i \in \{(x,y) : x \in \sup_{i \in [x,y]} (x) \in (x,y) : x \in \sup_{i \in [x,y]} (x) \cup \sup_{i \in [x,y]} (y) \cup \sup_{i \in [x,y]} (y) \cup \sup_{i \in [x,y]} (y) \cup (y)$$

for all  $i = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$  So  $\operatorname{supp}(f) \subseteq (0, 1)^2$ , or  $\operatorname{supp}(f)$  is bounded. As  $\operatorname{supp}(f)$  is closed (by definition),  $\operatorname{supp}(f)$  is compact (Theorem 2.41).

- (3) Show that f(x,y) is not continuous at (0,0).
  - (a) Note that f(0,0) = 0 since  $(0,0) \notin \text{supp}(f) \subseteq (0,1)^2$ . It suffices to show that there exists a sequence  $\{(t_n,t_n)\}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  such that  $(t_n,t_n) \neq (0,0)$ ,  $\lim_{n\to\infty}(t_n,t_n) = (0,0)$  but  $\lim_{n\to\infty}f(t_n,t_n)$  does not converge to 0 (Theorem 4.2).
  - (b) For any  $n = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$ ,

$$1 = \int \varphi_n = \int_{2^{-n}}^{2^{-n+1}} \varphi(t)dt \le 2^{-n} \sup_{t \in [2^{-n}, 2^{-n+1}]} \varphi(t),$$

or  $\sup_{t\in[2^{-n},2^{-n+1}]}\varphi(t)\geq 2^n$ . By the continuity of  $\varphi_n$ , there exists  $t_n\in[2^{-n},2^{-n+1}]$  such that  $\varphi_n(t_n)\geq 2^n$  (Theorem 4.16).

(c) We construct  $\{(t_n, t_n)\}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  by (b) for all  $n = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$  Clearly,  $(t_n, t_n) \neq (0, 0)$  and  $\lim_{n \to \infty} (t_n, t_n) = (0, 0)$ . However,

$$f(t_n, t_n) = [\varphi_n(t_n) - \varphi_{n+1}(t_n)]\varphi_n(t_n) = \varphi_n(t_n)^2 \ge 2^{2n}$$

does not converge to 0 as  $n \to \infty$ .

(4) Show that f(x,y) is continuous at  $\mathbf{x}_0 = (x_0, y_0) \neq (0,0)$ . Consider an open neighborhood  $B(\mathbf{x}_0; r)$  of  $\mathbf{x}_0$  with  $r = \frac{\|\mathbf{x}_0\|}{64} > 0$ . Hence,

$$f(x,y)|_{B(\mathbf{x}_0;r)} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} [\varphi_i(x) - \varphi_{i+1}(x)]\varphi_i(y)$$

is the sum of finitely many terms where  $N = \log_2 \frac{89}{\|\mathbf{x}_0\|} \ge 1$  (since  $[\varphi_i(x) - \varphi_{i+1}(x)]\varphi_i(y) = 0$  on  $B(\mathbf{x}_0; r)$  whenever  $i \ge N$ ). Therefore,  $f(x, y)|_{B(\mathbf{x}_0; r)}$  is continuous by the continuous of  $\varphi_i$ .

(5) Show that  $\int dy \int f(x,y)dx = 0$ . For any fixed y, there is a positive integer N(y) such that  $\varphi_{N(y)+1}(y) = \varphi_{N(y)+2}(y) = \ldots = 0$  and

$$f(x,y) = \sum_{i=1}^{N(y)} [\varphi_i(x) - \varphi_{i+1}(x)] \varphi_i(y).$$

So

$$\int f(x,y)dx = \int \sum_{i=1}^{N(y)} [\varphi_i(x) - \varphi_{i+1}(x)] \varphi_i(y) dx$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N(y)} \varphi_i(y) \int [\varphi_i(x) - \varphi_{i+1}(x)] dx$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N(y)} \varphi_i(y) \left( \int \varphi_i(x) dx - \int \varphi_{i+1}(x) dx \right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N(y)} \varphi_i(y) (1-1)$$

$$= 0,$$

and thus

$$\int dy \int f(x,y)dx = \int 0dy = 0.$$

(6) Show that  $\int dx \int f(x,y)dy = 0$ . For any fixed x, there is a positive integer N(x) such that  $\varphi_{N(x)+1}(x) = \varphi_{N(x)+2}(x) = \dots = 0$  and

$$f(x,y) = \sum_{i=1}^{N(x)} [\varphi_i(x) - \varphi_{i+1}(x)] \varphi_i(y).$$

So

$$\int f(x,y)dy = \int \sum_{i=1}^{N(x)} [\varphi_i(x) - \varphi_{i+1}(x)] \varphi_i(y)dy$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N(x)} [\varphi_i(x) - \varphi_{i+1}(x)] \int \varphi_i(y)dy$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N(x)} [\varphi_i(x) - \varphi_{i+1}(x)]$$

$$= \varphi_1(x),$$

and thus

$$\int dx \int f(x,y)dy = \int \varphi_1(x)dx = 1.$$

#### Exercise 10.3.

(a) If  $\mathbf{F}$  is as in Theorem 10.7, put  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{F}'(\mathbf{0})$ ,  $\mathbf{F}_1(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x})$ . Then  $\mathbf{F}_1(\mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{I}$ . Show that

$$\mathbf{F}_1(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{G}_n \circ \mathbf{G}_{n-1} \circ \cdots \circ \mathbf{G}_1(\mathbf{x})$$

in some neighborhood of  $\mathbf{0}$ , for certain primitive mappings  $\mathbf{G}_1, \dots, \mathbf{G}_n$ . This gives another version of Theorem 10.7:

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{F}'(\mathbf{0})\mathbf{G}_n \circ \mathbf{G}_{n-1} \circ \cdots \circ \mathbf{G}_1(\mathbf{x}).$$

(b) Prove that the mapping  $(x, y) \mapsto (y, x)$  of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  onto  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is not the composition of any two primitive mappings, in any neighborhood of the origin. (This shows that the flips  $B_i$  cannot be omitted from the statement of Theorem 10.7.)

Proof of (a).

- (1) Suppose **F** is a  $\mathscr{C}'$ -mapping of an open set  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  into  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\mathbf{0} \in E$ ,  $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{0}$ , and  $\mathbf{F}'(\mathbf{0})$  is invertible.
- (2) Similar to the proof of Theorem 10.7. Put  $\mathbf{F}_1 = \mathbf{F}$ .
- (3) As m = 1, there is an open neighborhood  $V_1 \subseteq E$  of  $\mathbf{0}$  such that  $\mathbf{F}_1(\mathbf{0}) = (\mathbf{F}'(\mathbf{0}))^{-1}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{0}$ ,  $\mathbf{F}'_1(\mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{I}$  is invertible, and

$$\mathbf{F}_1(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{e}_i,$$

where  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$  are real  $\mathscr{C}'$ -functions in  $V_1$ . Hence

$$\mathbf{F}_1'(\mathbf{0})\mathbf{e}_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n (D_1 \alpha_i)(\mathbf{0})\mathbf{e}_i.$$

Note that  $(D_1\alpha_1)(\mathbf{0}) = 1 \neq 0$ , and we might pick  $B_1 = \mathbf{I}$ . Thus we can define

$$\mathbf{G}_1(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x} + [\alpha_1(\mathbf{x}) - x_1]\mathbf{e}_1 \qquad (\mathbf{x} \in V_1).$$

Then  $G_1 \in \mathscr{C}'(V_1)$ ,  $G_1$  is primitive, and  $G'_1(0) = I$  is invertible.

- (4) Now we make the induction hypothesis for  $1 \le m \le n-1$ .
- (5) Since  $\mathbf{G}'_m(\mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{I}$  is invertible, the inverse function theorem shows that there is an open set  $U_m$ , with  $\mathbf{0} \in U_m \subseteq V_m$ , such that  $\mathbf{G}_m$  is an injective mapping of  $U_m$  onto a neighborhood  $V_{m+1}$  of  $\mathbf{0}$ , in which  $\mathbf{G}_m^{-1} \in \mathscr{C}'(V_{m+1})$ . Define  $\mathbf{F}_{m+1}$  by

$$\mathbf{F}_{m+1}(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{F}_m \circ \mathbf{G}_m^{-1}(\mathbf{y}) \qquad (\mathbf{y} \in V_{m+1}).$$

Then  $\mathbf{F}_{m+1} \in \mathscr{C}'(V_{m+1})$ ,  $\mathbf{F}_m(\mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{0}$ , and  $\mathbf{F}'_{m+1}(\mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{I}$  is invertible by the chain rule and the inverse function theorem. So

$$\mathbf{F}_{m+1}(\mathbf{x}) = P_m \mathbf{x} + \sum_{i=m+1}^{n} \alpha_i(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{e}_i,$$

where  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$  are real  $\mathscr{C}'$ -functions in  $V_{m+1}$ . Hence

$$\mathbf{F}'_{m+1}(\mathbf{0})\mathbf{e}_{m+1} = \sum_{i=m+1}^{n} (D_{m+1}\alpha_i)(\mathbf{0})\mathbf{e}_i.$$

Note that  $(D_{m+1}\alpha_{m+1})(\mathbf{0}) = 1 \neq 0$ , and we might pick  $B_{m+1} = \mathbf{I}$ . Thus we can define

$$G_{m+1}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x} + [\alpha_{m+1}(\mathbf{x}) - x_{m+1}]\mathbf{e}_{m+1} \qquad (\mathbf{x} \in V_{m+1})$$

Then  $\mathbf{G}_{m+1} \in \mathscr{C}'(V_{m+1})$ ,  $\mathbf{G}_{m+1}$  is primitive, and  $\mathbf{G}'_{m+1}(\mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{I}$  is invertible. Our induction hypothesis holds therefore with m+1 in place of m.

(6) Note that

$$\mathbf{F}_m(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{F}_{m+1}(\mathbf{G}_m(\mathbf{x})) \qquad (\mathbf{x} \in U_m)$$

If we apply this with m = 1, ..., n - 1, we successively obtain

$$\mathbf{F}_1 = \mathbf{F}_n \circ \mathbf{G}_{n-1} \circ \cdots \circ \mathbf{G}_1$$

in some open neighborhood of **0**. Note that  $\mathbf{F}_n$  is primitive since

$$\mathbf{F}_n(\mathbf{x}) = P_{n-1}\mathbf{x} + \alpha_n(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_n.$$

This completes the proof.

Proof of (b).

(1) For  $(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ , define

$$\mathbf{F}(x,y) = (y,x).$$

(2) (Reductio ad absurdum) If  $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{G}_2 \circ \mathbf{G}_1$  for some primitive mappings  $\mathbf{G}_i$  (i = 1, 2) in some neighborhood  $V_i$  of the origin,  $\mathbf{G}_i(\mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{0}$  and  $\mathbf{G}'_i$  is invertible, then we may assume that

$$G_1(x,y) = (x, q_1(x,y))$$
 and  $G_2(x,y) = (q_2(x,y), y)$ .

Here the case  $\mathbf{G}_1(x,y)=(g_1(x,y),y)$  and  $\mathbf{G}_2(x,y)=(x,g_2(x,y))$  is similar to the above case. Besides,  $\mathbf{G}_1(x,y)=(x,g_1(x,y))$  and  $\mathbf{G}_2(x,y)=(x,g_2(x,y))$  implies that

$$\mathbf{G}_2 \circ \mathbf{G}_1(x, y) = (x, g_2(x, g_1(x, y))) \neq (y, x) = \mathbf{F}(x, y).$$

Same reason for  $G_1(x, y) = (g_1(x, y), y)$  and  $G_2(x, y) = (g_2(x, y), y)$ .

### (3) Note that

$$\mathbf{F}'(\mathbf{0}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Since

$$\mathbf{F}'(\mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{G}_2'(\mathbf{G}_1(\mathbf{0}))\mathbf{G}_1'(\mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{G}_2'(\mathbf{0})\mathbf{G}_1'(\mathbf{0}),$$

we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} D_1 g_2(0,0) & D_2 g_2(0,0) \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ D_1 g_1(0,0) & D_2 g_1(0,0) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} * & * \\ D_1 g_1(0,0) & D_2 g_1(0,0) \end{bmatrix} .$$

So  $D_1g_1(0,0) = 1$  and  $D_2g_1(0,0) = 0$ , and thus  $\mathbf{G}'_1(\mathbf{0}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  is not invertible, which is absurd.

**Exercise 10.4.** For  $(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ , define

$$\mathbf{F}(x,y) = (e^x \cos y - 1, e^x \sin y)$$

Prove that  $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{G}_2 \circ \mathbf{G}_1$ , where

$$\mathbf{G}_1(x,y) = (e^x \cos y - 1, y)$$
  
$$\mathbf{G}_2(u,v) = (u, (1+u) \tan v)$$

are primitive in some neighborhood of (0,0). Compute the Jacobians of  $\mathbf{G}_1$ ,  $\mathbf{G}_2$ ,  $\mathbf{F}$  at (0,0). Define

$$\mathbf{H}_2(x,y) = (x, e^x \sin y)$$

and find

$$\mathbf{H}_{1}(u,v) = (h(u,v),v)$$

so that  $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{H}_1 \circ \mathbf{H}_2$  is in some neighborhood of (0,0).

Proof.

(1) By Definition 10.5,

$$\mathbf{G}_1(x,y) = (e^x \cos y - 1)\mathbf{e}_1 + y\mathbf{e}_2,$$
  
$$\mathbf{G}_2(u,v) = u\mathbf{e}_1 + ((1+u)\tan v)\mathbf{e}_2$$

are primitive in some neighborhood of (0,0).

(2) Show that  $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{G}_2 \circ \mathbf{G}_1$ . Given any  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ , we have

$$(\mathbf{G}_2 \circ \mathbf{G}_1)(x, y) = \mathbf{G}_2(\mathbf{G}_1(x, y))$$

$$= \mathbf{G}_2(e^x \cos y - 1, y)$$

$$= (e^x \cos y - 1, (1 + (e^x \cos y - 1)) \tan y)$$

$$= (e^x \cos y - 1, e^x \sin y)$$

$$= \mathbf{F}(x, y).$$

(3) Since

$$J_{\mathbf{G}_1}(x,y) = \det \begin{bmatrix} e^x \cos y & -e^x \sin y \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = e^x \cos y$$

$$J_{\mathbf{G}_2}(x,y) = \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \tan y & (1+x)\sec^2 y \end{bmatrix} = (1+x)\sec^2 y$$

$$J_{\mathbf{F}}(x,y) = \det \begin{bmatrix} e^x \cos y & -e^x \sin y \\ e^x \sin y & e^x \cos y \end{bmatrix} = e^{2x},$$

$$J_{\mathbf{G}_1}(0,0) = \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 1$$
$$J_{\mathbf{G}_2}(0,0) = \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 1$$
$$J_{\mathbf{F}}(0,0) = \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 1.$$

(4) Define  $h(u, v) = \sqrt{e^{2u} - v^2} - 1$  on

$$B\left((0,0);\frac{1}{64}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2.$$

h(u,v) is well-defined since  $e^{2u}-v^2>0$  for all  $(u,v)\in B\left((0,0);\frac{1}{64}\right)$ .

(5) Given any  $(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ , we have

$$(\mathbf{H}_1 \circ \mathbf{H}_2)(x, y) = \mathbf{H}_1(\mathbf{H}_2(x, y))$$

$$= \mathbf{H}_1(x, e^x \sin y)$$

$$= (\sqrt{e^{2x} - (e^x \sin y)^2} - 1, e^x \sin y)$$

$$= (e^x \cos y - 1, e^x \sin y)$$

$$= \mathbf{F}(x, y).$$

Exercise 10.5. Formulate and prove an analogue of Theorem 10.8, in which K is a compact subset of an arbitrary metric space. (Replace the functions  $\varphi_i$  that occur in the proof of Theorem 10.8 by functions of the type constructed in Exercise 4.22.)

Proof (Theorem 10.8).

- (1) (Partitions of unity.) Suppose K is a compact subset of a metric space X, and  $\{V_{\alpha}\}$  is an open cover of K. Then there exist functions  $\psi_1, \ldots, \psi_s \in \mathscr{C}(X)$  such that
  - (a)  $0 \le \psi_i \le 1$  for  $1 \le i \le s$ .
  - (b) each  $\psi_i$  has its support in some  $V_{\alpha}$ , and
  - (c)  $\psi_1(x) + \cdots + \psi_s(x) = 1$  for every  $x \in K$ .
- (2) It is trivial that some  $V_{\alpha} = X$  by taking s = 1 and  $\psi_1(x) = 1 \in \mathcal{C}(X)$ . Now we assume that all  $V_{\alpha} \subseteq X$ .
- (3) Associate with each  $x \in K$  an index  $\alpha(x)$  so that  $x \in V_{\alpha(x)}$ . Then there are open balls B(x) and W(x), centered at x, with

$$x \in B(x) \subseteq \overline{B(x)} \subseteq W(x) \subseteq \overline{W(x)} \subseteq V_{\alpha(x)}$$

(Since  $V_{\alpha(x)}$  is open, there exists r > 0 such that  $B(x;r) \subseteq V_{\alpha(x)}$ . Take  $B(x) = B\left(x; \frac{r}{89}\right)$  and  $W(x) = B\left(x; \frac{r}{64}\right)$ .)

(4) Since K is compact, there are finitely many points  $x_1, \ldots, x_s \in K$  such that

$$K \subseteq B(x_1) \cup \cdots \cup B(x_s)$$
.

Note that

- (a)  $\overline{B(x_i)}$  is a nonempty closed set since  $x_i \in B(x_i) \subseteq \overline{B(x_i)}$ .
- (b)  $X W(x_i) \supseteq X V_{\alpha(x_i)}$  is a nonempty closed set by the assumption in (2).
- (c)  $\overline{B(x_i)} \cap (X W(x_i)) \subseteq W(x_i) \cap (X W(x_i)) = \emptyset$ .

By Exercise 4.22, there is a function

$$\varphi_i(x) = \frac{\rho_{\overline{B(x_i)}}(x)}{\rho_{\overline{B(x_i)}}(x) + \rho_{X - W(x_i)}(x)} \in \mathscr{C}(X)$$

such that  $\varphi_i(x) = 1$  on  $\overline{B(x_i)}$ ,  $\varphi_i(x) = 0$  outside  $W(x_i)$ , and  $0 \le \varphi_i(x) \le 1$  on X for  $1 \le i \le s$ .

(5) Define  $\psi_1 = \varphi_1 \in \mathscr{C}(X)$  and

$$\psi_{i+1} = (1 - \varphi_1) \cdots (1 - \varphi_i) \varphi_{i+1} \in \mathscr{C}(X)$$

for  $1 \le i \le s - 1$ . Properties (a) and (b) in (1) are clear. Also,

$$\psi_1(x) + \dots + \psi_s(x) = 1 - (1 - \varphi_1(x)) \dots (1 - \varphi_s(x))$$

by the construction of  $\psi_i$ . If  $x \in K$ , then  $x \in B(x_i)$  for some i, hence  $\varphi_i(x) = 1$ , and the product  $(1 - \varphi_1(x)) \cdots (1 - \varphi_s(x)) = 0$ . This proves property (c) in (1).

**Exercise 10.6.** Strengthen the conclusion of Theorem 10.8 by showing that the functions  $\psi_i$  can be made differentiable, and even infinitely differentiable. (Use Exercise 8.1 in the construction of the auxiliary functions  $\psi_i$ .)

Proof (Theorem 10.8).

- (1) It is trivial that some  $V_{\alpha} = \mathbb{R}^n$  by taking s = 1 and  $\psi_1(\mathbf{x}) = 1 \in \mathscr{C}^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ . Now we assume that all  $V_{\alpha} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ .
- (2) Associate with each  $\mathbf{x} \in K$  an index  $\alpha(x)$  so that  $\mathbf{x} \in V_{\alpha(x)}$ . Then there are open *n*-cells  $B(\mathbf{x})$  and  $W(\mathbf{x})$  (Definition 10.1), centered at  $\mathbf{x}$ , with

$$\mathbf{x} \in B(\mathbf{x}) \subseteq \overline{B(\mathbf{x})} \subseteq W(\mathbf{x}) \subseteq \overline{W(\mathbf{x})} \subseteq V_{\alpha(\mathbf{x})}$$

(Since  $V_{\alpha(\mathbf{x})}$  is open, there exists r > 0 such that  $B(\mathbf{x}; r) \subseteq V_{\alpha(\mathbf{x})}$ . Take

$$B(\mathbf{x}) = I\left(\mathbf{x}; \frac{r}{89\sqrt{n}}\right), \qquad W(\mathbf{x}) = I\left(\mathbf{x}; \frac{r}{64\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

where  $I(\mathbf{p};r)$  is the open n-cell centered at  $\mathbf{p}=(p_1,\ldots,p_n)$  defined by

$$I(\mathbf{p};r) = (p_1 - r, p_1 + r) \times \cdots \times (p_n - r, p_n + r) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$$
.)

(3) Define

$$f(y) = \begin{cases} e^{-\frac{1}{y^2}} & (y > 0), \\ 0 & (y \le 0). \end{cases}$$

 $f(y) \in \mathscr{C}^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}^1)$  by applying the similar argument in Exercise 8.1.

(4) Given any  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in K$  and construct  $B(\mathbf{x})$  and  $W(\mathbf{x})$  as in (2). Define

$$g_{x_j}(y_j) = \frac{f(y_j)}{f(y_j) + f\left(\frac{r}{64\sqrt{n}} - \frac{r}{89\sqrt{n}} - y_j\right)}$$

for  $1 \leq j \leq n$ .  $g_{x_j}$  is well-defined and  $g_{x_j} \in \mathscr{C}^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}^1)$ . So

$$g_{x_j}(y_j) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y_j \le 0, \\ \text{strictly increasing} & \text{if } 0 \le y_j \le \frac{r}{64\sqrt{n}} - \frac{r}{89\sqrt{n}}, \\ 1 & \text{if } y_j \ge \frac{r}{64\sqrt{n}} - \frac{r}{89\sqrt{n}}. \end{cases}$$

Next, define

$$h_{x_j}(y_j) = g_{x_j} \left( y_j - x_j + \frac{r}{64\sqrt{n}} \right) g_{x_j} \left( x_j + \frac{r}{64\sqrt{n}} - y_j \right)$$

for  $1 \leq j \leq n$ .  $h_{x_j} \in \mathscr{C}^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}^1)$ . So

$$h_{x_j}(y_j) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y_j \leq x_j - \frac{r}{64\sqrt{n}}, \\ \text{strictly increasing} & \text{if } x_j - \frac{r}{64\sqrt{n}} \leq y_j \leq x_j - \frac{r}{89\sqrt{n}}, \\ 1 & \text{if } x_j - \frac{r}{89\sqrt{n}} \leq y_j \leq x_j + \frac{r}{89\sqrt{n}}, \\ \text{strictly decreasing} & \text{if } x_j + \frac{r}{89\sqrt{n}} \leq y_j \leq x_j + \frac{r}{64\sqrt{n}}, \\ 0 & \text{if } y_j \geq x_j + \frac{r}{64\sqrt{n}}. \end{cases}$$

Finally we define  $\mathbf{h}_{\mathbf{x}} : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^1$  by

$$\mathbf{h}_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{y}) = \prod_{j=1}^{n} h_{x_j}(y_j)$$

where  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Hence,  $\mathbf{h}_{\mathbf{x}} \in \mathscr{C}^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}^n)$  (Theorem 9.21). Also,  $\mathbf{h}_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{y}) = 1$  on  $\overline{B(\mathbf{x})}$ ,  $\mathbf{h}_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{y}) = 0$  outside  $W(\mathbf{x})$ , and  $0 \leq \mathbf{h}_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{y}) \leq 1$ .

(5) Since K is compact, there are finitely many points  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_s \in K$  such that

$$K \subseteq B(\mathbf{x}_1) \cup \cdots \cup B(\mathbf{x}_s).$$

Take

$$\varphi_i(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{h}_{\mathbf{x}_i}(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathscr{C}^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}^n)$$

for  $1 \le i \le s$ .

(6) The rest are the same as the proof of Theorem 10.8 or Exercise 10.5.

## Exercise 10.7.

- (a) Show that the simplex  $Q^k$  is the smallest convex subset of  $\mathbb{R}^k$  such that contains  $\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{e}_k$ .
- (b) Show that affine mappings take convex sets to convex sets.

Proof of (a).

(1) Show that  $Q^k$  contains  $\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_k$ . Recall

$$Q^k = \{(x_1, \dots, x_k) \in \mathbb{R}^k : x_1 + \dots + x_k \le 1 \text{ and } x_1, \dots, x_k \ge 0\}$$

(Example 10.14). Hence  $\mathbf{0} = (0, \dots, 0) \in Q^k$  and

$$\mathbf{e}_i = (0, \dots, \underbrace{1}_{i \text{th coordinate}}, \dots, 0) \in Q^k.$$

(2) Show that  $Q^k$  is a convex subset of  $\mathbb{R}^k$ . Given any  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_k) \in Q^k$ ,  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_k) \in Q^k$  and  $0 < \lambda < 1$ . Hence

$$\lambda \mathbf{x} + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{y} = (\lambda x_1 + (1 - \lambda)y_1, \dots, \lambda x_k + (1 - \lambda)y_k) \in Q^k$$

since each  $\lambda x_i + (1 - \lambda)y_i \ge 0$  and

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} (\lambda x_i + (1-\lambda)y_i) = \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{k} x_i + (1-\lambda) \sum_{i=1}^{k} y_i \le \lambda + (1-\lambda) = 1.$$

- (3) Given any convex set  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$  containing  $\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_k$ . Show that  $E \supseteq Q^k$ .
  - (a) Induction on k. Base case: k = 1. Given any  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1) \in Q^1$ . We have  $0 \le x_1 \le 1$  by the definition of  $Q^1$ . So that  $\mathbf{x} = x_1 \mathbf{e}_1 + (1 x_1) \mathbf{0} \in E$  since  $\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_1 \in E$  and E is convex.
  - (b) Inductive step: suppose the statement holds for k=n. Given any  $\mathbf{x}=(x_1,\ldots,x_n,x_{n+1})\in Q^{n+1}$ . If  $x_{n+1}=1$ , then  $x_1=\cdots=x_n=0$  by the definition of  $Q^{n+1}$ . So  $\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{e}_{n+1}\in E$  by the assumption of E. If  $0\leq x_{n+1}<1$ , then  $x_1+\cdots+x_n\leq 1-x_{n+1}$  or

$$\frac{x_1}{1 - x_{n+1}} + \dots + \frac{x_n}{1 - x_{n+1}} \le 1.$$

So the point

$$\left(\frac{x_1}{1-x_{n+1}}, \dots, \frac{x_n}{1-x_{n+1}}\right) \in Q^n,$$

or

$$\left(\frac{x_1}{1-x_{n+1}}, \dots, \frac{x_n}{1-x_{n+1}}, 0\right), \text{ say } \widehat{\mathbf{x}}, \in E$$

by the induction hypothesis. Note that  $\mathbf{e}_{n+1} \in E$ . Hence

$$\mathbf{x} = x_{n+1} \mathbf{e}_{n+1} + (1 - x_{n+1}) \hat{\mathbf{x}} \in E$$

by the convexity of E.

(c) Conclusion: Since both the base case and the inductive step have been proved as true, by mathematical induction the statement holds.

Proof of (b).

(1) Let  $\mathbf{f}$  be an affine mapping that carries a vector space X into a vector space Y such that

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{0}) + A\mathbf{x}$$

for some  $A \in L(X, Y)$ .

(2) Given any convex subset C of X. To show that  $\mathbf{f}(C)$  is convex, it suffices to show that

$$\lambda \mathbf{y}_1 + (1 - \lambda) \mathbf{y}_2 \in \mathbf{f}(C)$$

for any  $\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2 \in \mathbf{f}(C)$  and  $0 < \lambda < 1$ . Write  $\mathbf{y}_1 = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_1)$ ,  $\mathbf{y}_2 = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_2)$  for some  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in C$ . Note that  $\lambda \mathbf{x}_1 + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{x}_2 \in C$  by the convexity of C. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} &\mathbf{f}(\lambda\mathbf{x}_1 + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{x}_2) \\ &= &\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{0}) + A(\lambda\mathbf{x}_1 + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{x}_2) \\ &= &\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{0}) + \lambda A\mathbf{x}_1 + (1 - \lambda)A\mathbf{x}_2 \\ &= &\lambda (\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{0}) + A\mathbf{x}_1) + (1 - \lambda)(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{0}) + A\mathbf{x}_2) \\ &= &\lambda \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_1) + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_2) \\ &= &\lambda \mathbf{y}_1 + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{y}_2 \in \mathbf{f}(C). \end{aligned} \tag{$A \in L(X, Y)$}$$

**Exercise 10.8.** Let H be the parallelogram in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  whose vertices are (1,1), (3,2), (4,5), (2,4). Find the affine map T which sends (0,0) to (1,1), (1,0) to (3,2), (1,1) to (4,5), (0,1) to (2,4). Show that  $J_T=5$ . Use T to convert the integral

$$\alpha = \int_{H} e^{x-y} dx \, dy$$

to an integral over  $I^2$  and thus compute  $\alpha$ .

Proof.

(1) By Affine simplexes 10.26,

$$T(\mathbf{x}) = T(\mathbf{0}) + A\mathbf{x},$$

where  $A\in L(\mathbb{R}^2,\mathbb{R}^2)$ , say  $A=\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ . Note that  $T:\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}\mapsto \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . Thus

$$T: \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 + ax + by \\ 1 + cx + dy \end{bmatrix}.$$

(2) By  $T:(1,0)\mapsto (3,2)$  and  $T:(0,1)\mapsto (2,4)$ , we can solve A as

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

It is easy to verify such

$$T: \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{x}} \mapsto \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{T(\mathbf{0})} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}}_{A} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 + 2x + y \\ 1 + x + 3y \end{bmatrix}$$

satisfying our requirement.

$$J_T = \det \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = 5.$$

(4) By Example 10.4 and Theorem 10.9, we have

$$\int_{H} e^{x-y} dx \, dy = \int_{I^{2}} e^{(1+2u+v)-(1+u+3v)} |J_{T}| du \, dv$$

$$= 5 \int_{I^{2}} e^{u-2v} du \, dv$$

$$= 5 \left\{ \int_{0}^{1} e^{u} du \right\} \left\{ \int_{0}^{1} e^{-2v} dv \right\} \qquad \text{(Theorem 10.2)}$$

$$= \frac{5}{2} (e-1)(1-e^{-2}).$$

**Exercise 10.9.** Define  $(x,y) = T(r,\theta)$  one the rectangle

$$0 \le r \le a, \qquad 0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$$

by the equations

$$x = r\cos\theta, \qquad y = r\sin\theta.$$

Show that T maps this rectangle onto the closed disc D with center at (0,0) and radius a, that T is one-to-one in the interior of the rectangle, and that  $J_T(r,\theta) = r$ . If  $f \in \mathcal{C}(D)$ , prove the formula for integration in polar coordinates:

$$\int_{D} f(x,y)dx dy = \int_{0}^{a} \int_{0}^{2\pi} f(T(r,\theta))rdr d\theta.$$

(Hint: Let  $D_0$  be the interior of D, minus the interval from (0,0) to (0,a). As it stands, Theorem 10.9 applies to continuous functions f whose support lies in  $D_0$ . To remove this restriction, proceed as in Example 10.4.)

Proof.

- (1)
- (2)

**Exercise 10.10.** Let  $a \to \infty$  in Exercise 10.9 and prove that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^2} f(x,y) dx \ dy = \int_0^\infty \int_0^{2\pi} f(T(r,\theta)) r dr \ d\theta,$$

for continuous functions f that decrease sufficiently rapidly as  $|x| + |y| \to \infty$ . (Find a more precise formulation.) Apply this to

$$f(x,y) = \exp(-x^2 - y^2)$$

to derive formula

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-s^2} ds = \sqrt{\pi}.$$

Proof.

- (1)
- (2)

**Exercise 10.11.** Define (u, v) = T(s, t) on the strip

$$0 < s < \infty, \qquad 0 < t < 1$$

by setting u = s - st, v = st. Show that T is a 1-1 mapping of the strip onto the positive quadrant Q in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Show that  $J_T(s,t) = s$ . For x > 0, y > 0, integrate

$$u^{x-1}e^{-u}v^{y-1}e^{-v}$$

over Q, use Theorem 10.9 to convert the integral to one over the strip, and derive

$$\int_{0}^{1} t^{x-1} (1-t)^{y-1} dt = \frac{\Gamma(x)\Gamma(y)}{\Gamma(x+y)}$$

in this way. (For this application, Theorem 10.9 has to be extended so as to cover certain improper integrals. Provide this extension.)

Proof.

- (1)
- (2)

**Exercise 10.12.** Let  $I^k$  be the set of all  $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_k) \in \mathbb{R}^k$  with  $0 \le u_i \le 1$  for all i; let  $Q^k$  be the set of all  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_k) \in \mathbb{R}^k$  with  $x_i \ge 0$ ,  $\sum x_i \le 1$ . ( $I^k$  is the unit cube;  $Q^k$  is the standard simplex in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ .) Define  $\mathbf{x} = T(\mathbf{u})$  by

$$x_1 = u_1$$
  
 $x_2 = (1 - u_1)u_2$   
...  
 $x_k = (1 - u_1) \cdots (1 - u_{k-1})u_k$ .

Show that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} x_i = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^{k} (1 - u_i).$$

Show that T maps  $I^k$  onto  $Q^k$ , that T is 1-1 in the interior of  $I^k$ , and that its inverse S is defined in the interior of  $Q^k$  by  $u_1 = x_1$  and

$$u_i = \frac{x_i}{1 - x_1 - \dots - x_{i-1}}$$

for i = 2, ..., k. Show that

$$J_T(\mathbf{u}) = (1 - u_1)^{k-1} (1 - u_2)^{k-2} \cdots (1 - u_{k-1}),$$

and

$$J_S(\mathbf{x}) = [(1 - x_1)(1 - x_1 - x_2) \cdots (1 - x_1 - \cdots - x_{k-1})]^{-1}.$$

Proof.

(1) Show that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} x_i = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^{m} (1 - u_i)$$

for all  $1 \le m \le k$ . Induction on m. Base case:  $x_1 = 1 - (1 - u_1)$ . Inductive step: Suppose the case m = h is true. Consider the the case m = h + 1:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{h+1} x_i = \left(\sum_{i=1}^h x_i\right) + x_{h+1}$$

$$= 1 - \prod_{i=1}^h (1 - u_i) + x_{h+1} \qquad \text{(Induction hypothesis)}$$

$$= 1 - \prod_{i=1}^h (1 - u_i) + u_{h+1} \prod_{i=1}^h (1 - u_i) \qquad \text{(Definition of } x_{h+1})$$

$$= 1 - (1 - u_{h+1}) \prod_{i=1}^h (1 - u_i)$$

$$= 1 - \prod_{i=1}^{h+1} (1 - u_i).$$

Since both the base case and the inductive step have been proved as true, by mathematical induction the statement is established.

(2) Show that T maps  $I^k$  onto  $Q^k$ . Given any  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_k) \in Q^k$ . It is equivalent to solve  $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_k)$  from

$$x_1 = u_1$$
  
 $x_2 = (1 - u_1)u_2$   
...  
 $x_k = (1 - u_1) \cdots (1 - u_{k-1})u_k$ 

in terms of  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_k)$ . It is clear that  $u_1 = x_1$  and

$$u_i = \begin{cases} x_i (1 - x_1 - \dots - x_{i-1})^{-1} & \text{if } x_1 + \dots + x_{i-1} \neq 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } x_1 + \dots + x_{i-1} = 1. \end{cases}$$

for i = 2, ..., k. (If  $x_1 + \cdots + x_{i-1} \neq 1$ , by (1) we have

$$\prod_{j=1}^{i-1} (1 - u_j) = 1 - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} x_i \neq 0$$

and thus

$$u_i = x_i \left\{ \prod_{j=1}^{i-1} (1 - u_j) \right\}^{-1} = x_i (1 - x_1 - \dots - x_{i-1})^{-1}.$$

If  $x_1 + \cdots + x_{i-1} = 1$ , then  $x_i = \cdots = x_k = 0$ . We may take  $u_i = 0$  to set the expression  $x_i = (1 - u_1) \cdots (1 - u_{i-1}) u_i$  to zero.) Note that the solution  $\mathbf{u} \in I^k$  is well-defined by construction, or  $T(I^k) = Q^k$ .

(3) Show that T is 1-1 in the interior of  $I^k$ . Suppose  $T(\mathbf{u}) = T(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{x}$  with  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \text{int}(I^k)$ . Then we consider the following equation:

$$x_1 = u_1 = v_1$$

$$x_2 = (1 - u_1)u_2 = (1 - v_1)v_2$$

$$\dots$$

$$x_k = (1 - u_1) \cdots (1 - u_{k-1})u_k = (1 - v_1) \cdots (1 - v_{k-1})v_k.$$

By (1),

$$\mathbf{x} \in \text{int}(Q^k) = \{(x_1, \dots, x_k) \in \mathbb{R}^k : x_i > 0, \sum x_i < 1\}.$$

Hence,

$$u_1 = v_1 = x_1$$
  
 $u_2 = v_1 = x_2(1 - x_1)^{-1}$   
 $\dots$   
 $u_k = v_k = x_k(1 - x_1 - \dots - x_{k-1})^{-1}$ .

Here all  $(1-x_1)^{-1}, \ldots, (1-x_1-\cdots-x_i)^{-1}$  are well-defined since  $\mathbf{x} \in \operatorname{int}(Q^k)$ . Therefore, T is injective on  $\operatorname{int}(I^k)$ .

(4) By (2)(3), T maps  $\operatorname{int}(I^k)$  onto  $\operatorname{int}(Q^k)$ . That is, given any  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_k) \in \operatorname{int}(Q^k)$ , we can pick

$$u_1 = x_1$$
  
 $u_i = x_i(1 - x_1 - \dots - x_{i-1})^{-1}$   $(i = 2, \dots, k)$ 

such that  $\mathbf{u} \in \text{int}(I^k)$  and  $T(\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{x}$ .

(5) Note that  $T(\mathbf{u}) = (u_1, (1 - u_1)u_2, \dots, (1 - u_1) \cdots (1 - u_{k-1})u_k)$  on  $\operatorname{int}(I^k)$ . So

$$T'(\mathbf{u}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ * & (1-u_1) & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ * & * & \prod_{i=1}^{2} (1-u_i) & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ * & * & * & \cdots & \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} (1-u_i) \end{bmatrix}$$

is a lower triangular matrix. Hence,

$$J_T(\mathbf{u}) = \det T'(\mathbf{u})$$

$$= 1 \cdot (1 - u_1) \cdot \prod_{i=1}^{2} (1 - u_i) \cdot \dots \cdot \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} (1 - u_i)$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} (1 - u_i)^{k-i}.$$

(6) Similar to (5).  $S(\mathbf{x}) = (x_1, x_2(1 - x_1)^{-1}, \dots, x_k(1 - x_1 - \dots - x_{k-1})^{-1})$  on int $(Q^k)$ . So

$$S'(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ * & (1-x_1)^{-1} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ * & * & (1-x_1-x_2)^{-1} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ * & * & * & \cdots & (1-x_1-\cdots-x_{k-1})^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

is a lower triangular matrix. Hence,

$$J_S(\mathbf{x}) = \det S'(\mathbf{x})$$

$$= 1 \cdot (1 - x_1)^{-1} \cdot (1 - x_1 - x_2)^{-1} \cdots (1 - x_1 - \dots - x_{k-1})^{-1}$$

$$= [(1 - x_1)(1 - x_1 - x_2) \cdots (1 - x_1 - \dots - x_{k-1})]^{-1}.$$

**Exercise 10.13.** Let  $r_1, \ldots, r_k$  be nonnegative integers, and prove that

$$\int_{Q^k} x_1^{r_1} \cdots x_k^{r_k} d\mathbf{x} = \frac{r_1! \cdots r_k!}{(k + r_1 + \dots + r_k)!}$$

(Hint: Use Exercise 10.12, Theorems 10.9 and 8.20.) Note that the special case  $r_1 = \cdots = r_k = 0$  shows that the volume of  $Q^k$  is  $\frac{1}{k!}$ .

Proof.

(1) Define  $T: I^k$  onto  $Q^k$  as in Exercise 10.12, and  $f: Q^k \to \mathbb{R}^1$  by

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x_1, \dots, x_k) = x_1^{r_1} \cdots x_k^{r_k} = \prod_{i=1}^k x_i^{r_i}.$$

(2) By Exercise 10.12, Example 10.4 and Theorems 10.9, we have

$$\int_{Q^{k}} x_{1}^{r_{1}} \cdots x_{k}^{r_{k}} d\mathbf{x} = \int_{Q^{k}} f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} 
= \int_{I^{k}} \prod_{i=1}^{k} \left( u_{i} \prod_{j=1}^{i-1} (1 - u_{j}) \right)^{r_{i}} \prod_{i=1}^{k} (1 - u_{i})^{k-i} d\mathbf{u} 
= \int_{I^{k}} \prod_{i=1}^{k} u_{i}^{r_{i}} (1 - u_{i})^{k-i+\sum_{j=i+1}^{k} r_{j}} d\mathbf{u} 
= \prod_{i=1}^{k} \int_{0}^{1} u_{i}^{r_{i}} (1 - u_{i})^{k-i+\sum_{j=i+1}^{k} r_{j}} du_{i}$$
(Theorem 10.2)
$$= \prod_{i=1}^{k} \frac{r_{i}! \left( k - i + \sum_{j=i+1}^{k} r_{j} \right)!}{\left( k - i + 1 + \sum_{j=i}^{k} r_{j} \right)!}$$

$$= \frac{r_{1}! \cdots r_{k}!}{(k + r_{1} + \cdots + r_{k})!}.$$

Exercise 10.14 (Levi-Civita symbol). Prove  $\varepsilon(j_1,\ldots,j_k)=s(j_1,\ldots,j_k),$  where

$$s(j_1,\ldots,j_k) = \prod_{p < q} \operatorname{sgn}(j_q - j_p).$$

It is usually to define the Levi-Civita symbol by

$$\varepsilon(j_1,\ldots,j_k) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (j_1,\cdots,j_k) \text{ is an even permutation of } J, \\ -1 & \text{if } (j_1,\cdots,j_k) \text{ is an odd permutation of } J, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

(Basic k-forms 10.14). Thus, it is the sign of the permutation in the case of a permutation, and zero otherwise. So  $\varepsilon(j_1,\ldots,j_k)$  is equivalent to an explicit expression  $s(j_1,\ldots,j_k) = \prod_{p < q} \operatorname{sgn}(j_q - j_p)$ .

Proof.

(1) Induction on k. Base case: Show that  $\varepsilon(j_1, j_2) = s(j_1, j_2)$ . Since

$$\varepsilon(j_1, j_2) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } j_1 < j_2 \\ -1 & \text{if } j_1 > j_2, \end{cases}$$

$$\varepsilon(j_1, j_2) = \operatorname{sgn}(j_2 - j_1) = s(j_1, j_2).$$

(2) Inductive step: Show that for any  $s \geq 2$ , if  $\varepsilon(j_1, \ldots, j_s) = s(j_1, \ldots, j_s)$  holds, then  $\varepsilon(j_1, \ldots, j_{s+1}) = s(j_1, \ldots, j_{s+1})$  also holds.

$$\varepsilon(j_1, \dots, j_{s+1}) = \varepsilon(j_1, \dots, j_s) \prod_{\substack{1 \le p \le s \\ q = s+1}} \operatorname{sgn}(j_q - j_p)$$

$$= s(j_1, \dots, j_s) \prod_{\substack{1 \le p \le s \\ q = s+1}} \operatorname{sgn}(j_q - j_p)$$

$$= \prod_{\substack{1 \le p < q \le s}} \operatorname{sgn}(j_q - j_p) \prod_{\substack{1 \le p \le s \\ q = s+1}} \operatorname{sgn}(j_q - j_p)$$

$$= \prod_{\substack{1 \le p < q \le s+1 \\ s \le j_1, \dots, j_{s+1}}} \operatorname{sgn}(j_q - j_p)$$

$$= s(j_1, \dots, j_{s+1})$$

(3) Conclusion: Since both the base case and the inductive step have been proved as true, by mathematical induction the statement holds for every integer  $k \geq 2$ .

**Exercise 10.15.** If  $\omega$  and  $\lambda$  are k- and m-forms, respectively, prove that

$$\omega \wedge \lambda = (-1)^{km} \lambda \wedge \omega.$$

Proof.

(1) Write

$$\omega = \sum_{I} b_{I}(\mathbf{x}) dx_{I}, \qquad \lambda = \sum_{J} c_{J}(\mathbf{x}) dx_{J}$$

in the stardard presentations, where I and J range over all increasing k-indices and over all increasing m-indices taken from the set  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ .

(2) Show that  $dx_I \wedge dx_J = (-1)^{km} dx_J \wedge dx_J$ .

$$dx_{I} \wedge dx_{J} = dx_{i_{1}} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_{k}} \wedge dx_{J}$$

$$= (-1)^{m} dx_{i_{1}} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_{k-1}} \wedge dx_{J} \wedge dx_{i_{k}}$$

$$= (-1)^{2m} dx_{i_{1}} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_{k-2}} \wedge dx_{J} \wedge dx_{i_{k-1}} \wedge dx_{i_{k}}$$

$$\dots$$

$$= (-1)^{km} dx_{J} \wedge dx_{i_{1}} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_{k}}$$

$$= (-1)^{km} dx_{J} \wedge dx_{I}.$$

(3)

$$\omega \wedge \lambda = \sum_{I,J} b_I(\mathbf{x}) c_J(\mathbf{x}) dx_I \wedge dx_J$$
$$= (-1)^{km} \sum_{J,I} c_J(\mathbf{x}) b_I(\mathbf{x}) dx_J \wedge dx_I$$
$$= (-1)^{km} \lambda \wedge \omega.$$

**Exercise 10.16.** If  $k \geq 2$  and  $\sigma = [\mathbf{p}_0, \mathbf{p}_1, \dots, \mathbf{p}_k]$  is an oriented affine k-simplex, prove that  $\partial^2 \sigma = 0$ , directly from the definition of the boundary operator  $\partial$ . Deduce from this that  $\partial^2 \Psi = 0$  for every chain  $\Psi$ . (Hint: For orientation, do it first for k = 2, k = 3. In general, if i < j, let  $\sigma_{ij}$  be the (k-2)-simplex obtained by deleting  $\mathbf{p}_i$  and  $\mathbf{p}_j$  from  $\sigma$ . Show that each  $\sigma_{ij}$  occurs twice in  $\partial^2 \sigma$ , with opposite sign.)

Proof (Brute-force).

(1) Write the boundary of the oriented affine k-simplex  $\sigma = [\mathbf{p}_0, \mathbf{p}_1, \dots, \mathbf{p}_k]$  as

$$\partial \sigma = \sum_{i=0}^{k} (-1)^{i} [\mathbf{p}_{0}, \dots, \widehat{\mathbf{p}}_{i}, \dots, \mathbf{p}_{k}]$$

where where the oriented (k-1)-simplex  $[\mathbf{p}_0, \dots, \widehat{\mathbf{p}_i}, \dots, \mathbf{p}_k]$  is obtained by deleting  $\sigma$ 's *i*-th vertex (Boundaries 10.29).

$$\partial^{2} \sigma = \partial \left( \sum_{i} (-1)^{i} [\mathbf{p}_{0}, \dots, \widehat{\mathbf{p}}_{i}, \dots, \mathbf{p}_{k}] \right)$$

$$= \sum_{i} (-1)^{i} \partial [\mathbf{p}_{0}, \dots, \widehat{\mathbf{p}}_{i}, \dots, \mathbf{p}_{k}]$$

$$= \sum_{j < i} (-1)^{i} (-1)^{j} [\mathbf{p}_{0}, \dots, \widehat{\mathbf{p}}_{j}, \dots, \widehat{\mathbf{p}}_{i}, \dots, \mathbf{p}_{k}]$$

$$+ \sum_{j > i} (-1)^{i} (-1)^{j-1} [\mathbf{p}_{0}, \dots, \widehat{\mathbf{p}}_{i}, \dots, \widehat{\mathbf{p}}_{j}, \dots, \mathbf{p}_{k}]$$

$$= \sum_{j < i} (-1)^{i+j} [\mathbf{p}_{0}, \dots, \widehat{\mathbf{p}}_{j}, \dots, \widehat{\mathbf{p}}_{i}, \dots, \mathbf{p}_{k}]$$

$$- \sum_{j > i} (-1)^{i+j} [\mathbf{p}_{0}, \dots, \widehat{\mathbf{p}}_{i}, \dots, \widehat{\mathbf{p}}_{j}, \dots, \mathbf{p}_{k}].$$

The latter two summations cancel since after switching i and j in the second sum. Therefore  $\partial^2 \sigma = 0$ .

(3) The boundary of a chain is the linear combination of boundaries of the simplices in the chain. Write  $\Psi = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \sigma_i$ , where  $\sigma_i$  is an oriented affine simplex. Then

$$\partial^2 \Psi = \partial \left( \partial \sum \sigma_i \right) = \partial \left( \sum \partial \sigma_i \right) = \sum \partial^2 \sigma_i = \sum 0 = 0$$

for any affine chain  $\Psi$ .

#### 

**Exercise 10.17.** Put  $J^2 = \tau_1 + \tau_2$ , where

$$\tau_1 = [\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2], \qquad \tau_2 = -[\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_1].$$

Explain why it is reasonable to call  $J^2$  the positively oriented unit square in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Show that  $\partial J^2$  is the sum of 4 oriented affine 1-simplexes. Find these. What is  $\partial (\tau_1 - \tau_2)$ ?

#### Proof.

(1) Note that the unit square  $I^2 \in \mathbb{R}^2$  is the union of  $\tau_1(Q^2)$  and  $\tau_2(Q_2)$ , where

$$\tau_1(\mathbf{u}) = ([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2])(\mathbf{u})$$

$$= \mathbf{0} + \alpha_1 \mathbf{e}_1 + \alpha_2 (\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2)$$

$$= \mathbf{0} + (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2) \mathbf{e}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{e}_2$$

$$= \mathbf{0} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \tau_2(\mathbf{u}) &= (-[\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_1])(\mathbf{u}) \\ &= ([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2])(\mathbf{u}) \\ &= \mathbf{0} + \alpha_1(\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2) + \alpha_2\mathbf{e}_2 \\ &= \mathbf{0} + \alpha_1\mathbf{e}_1 + (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)\mathbf{e}_2 \\ &= \mathbf{0} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{u} \end{aligned}$$

where  $\mathbf{u} = \alpha_1 \mathbf{e}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{e}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^2$  (as in Equation (78)). Both  $\tau_1$  and  $\tau_2$  have Jacobian 1 > 0, or positively oriented (Affine simplexes 10.26). So it is reasonable to call  $J^2$  the positively oriented unit square in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

(2)

$$\begin{split} \partial \tau_1 &= [\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2] - [\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2] + [\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_1], \\ \partial \tau_2 &= [\mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2] - [\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_2] + [\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_1] \\ &= [\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_2] + [\mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{0}] + [\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2]. \end{split}$$

(3) By (2),

$$\partial J^2 = \partial \tau_1 + \partial \tau_2 = [\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_1] + [\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2] + [\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_2] + [\mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{0}],$$

which is the positively oriented boundary of  $I^2$ .

(4) By (2),

$$\begin{aligned} \partial(\tau_1 - \tau_2) &= \partial \tau_1 - \partial \tau_2 \\ &= [\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_1] + [\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2] + [\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{0}] \\ &+ [\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_2] + [\mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2] + [\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{0}]. \end{aligned}$$

Exercise 10.18. Consider the oriented affine 3-simplex

$$\sigma_1 = [\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_3]$$

in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . Show that  $\sigma_1$  (regarded as a linear transformation) has determinant 1. Thus  $\sigma_1$  is positively oriented.

Let  $\sigma_2, \ldots, \sigma_6$  be five other oriented 3-simplexes, obtained as follows: There are five permutations  $(i_1, i_2, i_3)$  of (1, 2, 3), distinct from (1, 2, 3). Associate with each  $(i_1, i_2, i_3)$  the simplex

$$s(i_1, i_2, i_3)[\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_{i_1}, \mathbf{e}_{i_1} + \mathbf{e}_{i_2}, \mathbf{e}_{i_1} + \mathbf{e}_{i_2} + \mathbf{e}_{i_3}]$$

where s is the sign that occurs in the definition of the determinant. (This is how  $\tau_2$  was obtained from  $\tau_1$  in Exercise 10.17.) Show that  $\sigma_2, \ldots, \sigma_6$  are positively oriented.

Put  $J^3 = \sigma_1 + \cdots + \sigma_6$ . Then  $J^3$  may be called the positively oriented unit cube in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . Show that  $\partial J^3$  is the sum of 12 oriented affine 2-simplexes. (These 12 triangles cover the surface of the unit cube  $I^3$ .)

Show that  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$  is in the range of  $\sigma_1$  if and only if  $0 \le x_3 \le x_2 \le x_1 \le 1$ .

Show that the range of  $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_6$  have disjoint interiors, and that their union covers  $I^3$ . (Compared with Exercise 10.13; note that 3! = 6.)

Proof.

(1) Show that  $\sigma_1$  (regarded as a linear transformation) has determinant 1. Given any  $\mathbf{u} = \alpha_1 \mathbf{e}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{e}_2 + \alpha_3 \mathbf{e}_3 \in \mathbb{R}^3$ , we have

$$\sigma_{1}(\mathbf{u}) = ([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_{1}, \mathbf{e}_{1} + \mathbf{e}_{2}, \mathbf{e}_{1} + \mathbf{e}_{2} + \mathbf{e}_{3}])(\mathbf{u})$$

$$= \mathbf{0} + \alpha_{1}\mathbf{e}_{1} + \alpha_{2}(\mathbf{e}_{1} + \mathbf{e}_{2}) + \alpha_{3}(\mathbf{e}_{1} + \mathbf{e}_{2} + \mathbf{e}_{3})$$

$$= \mathbf{0} + (\alpha_{1} + \alpha_{2} + \alpha_{3})\mathbf{e}_{1} + (\alpha_{2} + \alpha_{3})\mathbf{e}_{2} + \alpha_{3}\mathbf{e}_{3}$$

$$= \mathbf{0} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{cov}} \mathbf{u}.$$

So

$$\det(A) = \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 1.$$

(2) Show that  $\sigma_2, \ldots, \sigma_6$  are positively oriented. Define the permutation matrix  $P_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)}$  corresponding to a permutation  $(i_1,i_2,i_3)$  of (1,2,3) by

$$P_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{e}_{i_1} & \mathbf{e}_{i_2} & \mathbf{e}_{i_3} \end{bmatrix}.$$

For example,

$$P_{(2,3,1)} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{e}_2 & \mathbf{e}_3 & \mathbf{e}_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Note that the sign  $s(i_1, i_2, i_3)$  of the permutation  $(i_1, i_2, i_3)$  is exactly the same as the determinant of the permutation matrix  $P_{(i_1, i_2, i_3)}$ . Define a

permutation  $(j_1, j_2, 3)$  of (1, 2, 3) (for swapping the first and the second coordinates of  $\mathbf{u}$ ) by

$$(j_1, j_2, 3) = \begin{cases} (1, 2, 3) & \text{if } s(i_1, i_2, i_3) = 1, \\ (2, 1, 3) & \text{if } s(i_1, i_2, i_3) = -1. \end{cases}$$

Write

$$\sigma_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)} = s(i_1,i_2,i_3)[\mathbf{0},\mathbf{e}_{i_1},\mathbf{e}_{i_1} + \mathbf{e}_{i_2},\mathbf{e}_{i_1} + \mathbf{e}_{i_2} + \mathbf{e}_{i_3}].$$

(So that  $\sigma_1 = \sigma_{(1,2,3)}$ .) Hence,

$$\sigma_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)}(\mathbf{u})$$
=0 +  $\alpha_{j_1} \mathbf{e}_{i_1} + \alpha_{j_2} (\mathbf{e}_{i_1} + \mathbf{e}_{i_2}) + \alpha_3 (\mathbf{e}_{i_1} + \mathbf{e}_{i_2} + \mathbf{e}_{i_3})$ 
=0 +  $(\alpha_{j_1} + \alpha_{j_2} + \alpha_3) \mathbf{e}_{i_1} + (\alpha_{j_2} + \alpha_3) \mathbf{e}_{i_2} + \alpha_3 \mathbf{e}_{i_3}$ 
=0 +  $P_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)} A P_{(j_1,j_2,3)} \mathbf{u}$ 

where  $\mathbf{u} = \alpha_1 \mathbf{e}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{e}_2 + \alpha_3 \mathbf{e}_3 \in \mathbb{R}^3$ . For example,

$$P_{(2,3,1)}AP_{(1,2,3)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

So

$$\det(P_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)}AP_{(j_1,j_2,3)}) = \det(P_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)})\det(A)\det(P_{(j_1,j_2,3)})$$

$$= s(i_1,i_2,i_3) \cdot 1 \cdot s(i_1,i_2,i_3)$$

$$= 1.$$

(3) Show that  $\partial J^3$  is the sum of 12 oriented affine 2-simplexes. Note that

$$\begin{split} \sum_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)} \sigma_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)} &= \sum_{\substack{(i_1,i_2,i_3)\\i_1>i_2}} \sigma_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)} + \sum_{\substack{(i_1,i_2,i_3)\\i_1< i_2}} \sigma_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)} \\ &= \sum_{\substack{(i_1,i_2,i_3)\\i_1>i_2}} s(i_1,i_2,i_3) [\mathbf{0},\mathbf{e}_{i_1} + \mathbf{e}_{i_2},\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_3] \\ &+ \sum_{\substack{(i_1,i_2,i_3)\\i_2>i_1}} -s(i_2,i_1,i_3) [\mathbf{0},\mathbf{e}_{i_2} + \mathbf{e}_{i_1},\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_3] \\ &= \mathbf{0} \end{split}$$

and

$$\begin{split} \sum_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)} \sigma_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)} &= \sum_{\substack{(i_1,i_2,i_3)\\i_2 > i_3}} \sigma_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)} + \sum_{\substack{(i_1,i_2,i_3)\\i_2 < i_3}} \sigma_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)} \\ &= \sum_{\substack{(i_1,i_2,i_3)\\i_2 > i_3}} s(i_1,i_2,i_3) [\mathbf{0},\mathbf{e}_{i_1},\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_3] \\ &+ \sum_{\substack{(i_1,i_2,i_3)\\i_3 > i_2}} -s(i_1,i_3,i_2) [\mathbf{0},\mathbf{e}_{i_1},\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_3] \\ &= \mathbf{0}. \end{split}$$

So

$$\begin{split} \partial J^3 &= \sum_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)} \partial \sigma_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)} \\ &= \sum_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)} s(i_1,i_2,i_3) [\mathbf{e}_{i_1},\mathbf{e}_{i_1} + \mathbf{e}_{i_2},\mathbf{e}_{i_1} + \mathbf{e}_{i_2} + \mathbf{e}_{i_3}] \\ &- s(i_1,i_2,i_3) [\mathbf{0},\mathbf{e}_{i_1} + \mathbf{e}_{i_2},\mathbf{e}_{i_1} + \mathbf{e}_{i_2} + \mathbf{e}_{i_3}] \\ &+ s(i_1,i_2,i_3) [\mathbf{0},\mathbf{e}_{i_1},\mathbf{e}_{i_1} + \mathbf{e}_{i_2} + \mathbf{e}_{i_3}] \\ &- s(i_1,i_2,i_3) [\mathbf{0},\mathbf{e}_{i_1},\mathbf{e}_{i_1} + \mathbf{e}_{i_2}] \\ &= \sum_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)} s(i_1,i_2,i_3) [\mathbf{e}_{i_1},\mathbf{e}_{i_1} + \mathbf{e}_{i_2},\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_3] \\ &- \underbrace{\sum_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)} s(i_1,i_2,i_3) [\mathbf{0},\mathbf{e}_{i_1} + \mathbf{e}_{i_2},\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_3]}_{=\mathbf{0}} \\ &+ \underbrace{\sum_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)} s(i_1,i_2,i_3) [\mathbf{0},\mathbf{e}_{i_1},\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_3]}_{=\mathbf{0}} \\ &- \underbrace{\sum_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)} s(i_1,i_2,i_3) [\mathbf{0},\mathbf{e}_{i_1},\mathbf{e}_{i_1} + \mathbf{e}_{i_2}]. \end{split}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{split} \partial J^3 = & \sum_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)} s(i_1,i_2,i_3) [\mathbf{e}_{i_1},\mathbf{e}_{i_1} + \mathbf{e}_{i_2},\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_3] \\ & - \sum_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)} s(i_1,i_2,i_3) [\mathbf{0},\mathbf{e}_{i_1},\mathbf{e}_{i_1} + \mathbf{e}_{i_2}] \end{split}$$

is the sum of 12 oriented affine 2-simplexes. (Note that 3! = 6.)

(4) Show that  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$  is in the range of  $\sigma_1$  if and only if  $0 \le x_3 \le x_2 \le x_1 \le 1$ .

(a) By (1),  $\mathbf{x}$  is in the range of  $\sigma_1$  if and only if  $\mathbf{x} = A\mathbf{u}$  for  $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2, u_3) \in Q^3$ , or

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 + u_2 + u_3 \\ u_2 + u_3 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

- (b) Since  $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2, u_3) \in Q^3$ ,  $u_1 + u_2 + u_3 \le 1$  and  $u_1, u_2, u_3 \ge 0$ . Hence  $0 \le u_3 \le u_2 + u_3 \le u_1 + u_2 + u_3 \le 1$  or  $0 \le x_3 \le x_2 \le x_1 \le 1$ .
- (c) Conversely, if  $0 \le x_3 \le x_2 \le x_1 \le 1$ , we define

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 - x_2 \\ x_2 - x_3 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Clearly,  $\mathbf{v} \in Q^3$ .

(5) Show that the range of  $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_6$  have disjoint interiors, and that their union covers  $I^3$ . Similar to (4). By (2),  $\mathbf{x} = P_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)}AP_{(j_1,j_2,3)}\mathbf{u}$ , or  $P_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)^{-1}}\mathbf{x} = AP_{(j_1,j_2,3)}\mathbf{u}$ , or

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_{i_1} \\ x_{i_2} \\ x_{i_3} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 + u_2 + u_3 \\ u_{j_2} + u_3 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

In any case, we always have  $0 \le u_3 \le u_{j_2} + u_3 \le u_1 + u_2 + u_3 \le 1$ . Hence  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$  is in the range of  $\sigma_{(i_1, i_2, i_3)}$  if and only if

$$0 \le x_{i_3} \le x_{i_2} \le x_{i_1} \le 1.$$

The interior of  $\sigma_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)}$  is

$$\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3 : 0 < x_{i_3} < x_{i_2} < x_{i_1} < 1\},\$$

and thus the range of  $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_6$  have disjoint interiors. Also, any  $\mathbf{x} \in I^3$  has the relation

$$0 \le x_{i_3} \le x_{i_2} \le x_{i_1} \le 1$$

for some permutation  $(i_1, i_2, i_3)$  of (1, 2, 3). Hence

$$I^{3} = \bigcup_{(i_{1}, i_{2}, i_{3})} \sigma_{(i_{1}, i_{2}, i_{3})}(Q^{3}) = \bigcup_{i=1}^{6} \sigma_{i}(Q^{3}).$$

**Exercise 10.19.** Let  $J^2$  and  $J^3$  be as in Exercise 10.17 and Exercise 10.18. Define

$$B_{01}(u,v) = (0, u, v),$$
  $B_{11}(u,v) = (1, u, v),$   
 $B_{02}(u,v) = (u, 0, v),$   $B_{12}(u,v) = (u, 1, v),$   
 $B_{03}(u,v) = (u, v, 0),$   $B_{13}(u,v) = (u, v, 1).$ 

These are affine, and map  $\mathbb{R}^2$  into  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . Put  $\beta_{ri} = B_{ri}(J^2)$ , for r = 0, 1, i = 1, 2, 3. Each  $\beta_{ri}$  is an affine-oriented 2-chain. (See Section 10.30.) Verify that

$$\partial J^3 = \sum_{i=1}^3 (-1)^i (\beta_{0i} - \beta_{1i}),$$

in agreement with Exercise 10.18.)

Proof.

(1) A direct calculation shows that

$$B_{01}(\tau_1) - B_{11}(\tau_1) = [\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_3] - [\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_3]$$

$$B_{02}(\tau_1) - B_{12}(\tau_1) = [\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_3] - [\mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_3]$$

$$B_{03}(\tau_1) - B_{13}(\tau_1) = [\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2] - [\mathbf{e}_3, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_3, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_3]$$

$$B_{01}(\tau_2) - B_{11}(\tau_2) = -[\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_3, \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_3] + [\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_3, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_3]$$

$$B_{02}(\tau_2) - B_{12}(\tau_2) = -[\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_3, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_3] + [\mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_3, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_3]$$

$$B_{03}(\tau_2) - B_{13}(\tau_2) = -[\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2] + [\mathbf{e}_3, \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_3, \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_3]$$

(2) To express the formula in (1) clearly, we define

$$\omega_{(i_1,i_2,i_3)} = [\mathbf{e}_{i_1},\mathbf{e}_{i_1} + \mathbf{e}_{i_2},\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_3] - [\mathbf{0},\mathbf{e}_{i_2},\mathbf{e}_{i_2} + \mathbf{e}_{i_3}],$$

and thus

$$-(B_{01}(\tau_1) - B_{11}(\tau_1)) = s(1, 2, 3)\omega_{(1,2,3)}$$

$$B_{02}(\tau_1) - B_{12}(\tau_1) = s(2, 1, 3)\omega_{(2,1,3)}$$

$$-(B_{03}(\tau_1) - B_{13}(\tau_1)) = s(3, 1, 2)\omega_{(3,1,2)}$$

$$-(B_{01}(\tau_2) - B_{11}(\tau_2)) = s(1, 3, 2)\omega_{(1,3,2)}$$

$$B_{02}(\tau_2) - B_{12}(\tau_2) = s(2, 3, 1)\omega_{(2,3,1)}$$

$$-(B_{03}(\tau_2) - B_{13}(\tau_2)) = s(3, 2, 1)\omega_{(3,2,1)}.$$

(3) Note that

$$\beta_{0i} - \beta_{1i} = B_{0i}(J^2) - B_{1i}(J^2)$$

$$= B_{0i}(\tau_1 + \tau_2) - B_{1i}(\tau_1 + \tau_2)$$

$$= B_{0i}(\tau_1) + B_{0i}(\tau_2) - B_{1i}(\tau_1) - B_{1i}(\tau_2)$$

$$= (B_{0i}(\tau_1) - B_{1i}(\tau_1)) + (B_{0i}(\tau_2) - B_{1i}(\tau_2)).$$

Thus,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{3} (-1)^{i} (\beta_{0i} - \beta_{1i})$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{3} (-1)^{i} (B_{0i}(\tau_{1}) - B_{1i}(\tau_{1})) + \sum_{i=1}^{3} (-1)^{i} (B_{0i}(\tau_{2}) - B_{1i}(\tau_{2}))$$

$$= \sum_{(i_{1}, i_{2}, i_{3})} s(i_{1}, i_{2}, i_{3}) \omega_{(i_{1}, i_{2}, i_{3})}$$

$$= \sum_{(i_{1}, i_{2}, i_{3})} s(i_{1}, i_{2}, i_{3}) [\mathbf{e}_{i_{1}}, \mathbf{e}_{i_{1}} + \mathbf{e}_{i_{2}}, \mathbf{e}_{1} + \mathbf{e}_{2} + \mathbf{e}_{3}]$$

$$- \sum_{(i_{1}, i_{2}, i_{3})} s(i_{1}, i_{2}, i_{3}) [\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{e}_{i_{1}}, \mathbf{e}_{i_{1}} + \mathbf{e}_{i_{2}}]$$

$$= \partial J^{3}.$$

Exercise 10.20. State conditions under which the formula

$$\int_{\Phi} f d\omega = \int_{\partial \Phi} f \omega - \int_{\Phi} (df) \wedge \omega$$

is valid, and show that it generalizes the formula for integration by parts. (Hint:  $d(f\omega)=(df)\wedge\omega+fd\omega$ .)

Proof.

- (1) If
  - (a)  $\Phi$  is a k-chain of class  $\mathscr{C}''$  in an open set  $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ ,
  - (b)  $\omega$  is a (k-1)-form of class  $\mathscr{C}'$  in V,
  - (c) f is a 0-form of class  $\mathscr{C}'$  in V,

then

$$\int_{\Phi} f d\omega = \int_{\partial \Phi} f \omega - \int_{\Phi} (df) \wedge \omega$$

(2) Theorem 10.20(a) implies that

$$d(f\omega) = (df) \wedge \omega + fd\omega.$$

(3) The Stokes' theorem (Theorem 10.33) shows that

$$\int_{\Phi} d(f\omega) = \int_{\partial \Phi} f\omega.$$

Hence

$$\int_{\Phi} f d\omega = \int_{\Phi} d(f\omega) - \int_{\Phi} (df) \wedge \omega = \int_{\partial \Phi} f\omega - \int_{\Phi} (df) \wedge \omega.$$

(4) Define  $\Phi: Q^1 = [0,1] \rightarrow [a,b]$  by

$$\Phi(\alpha) = a + \alpha(b - a).$$

 $\Phi$  is a 1-simplex of class  $\mathscr{C}''$  in an open set  $V\supseteq [a,b].$  Also,

$$\partial \Phi = [b] - [a].$$

Let  $\omega = g$  be a 0-form of class  $\mathscr{C}'(V)$ .

(5) Note that

$$\begin{split} \int_{\Phi} f d\omega &= \int_{\Phi} f dg = \int_{0}^{1} f(\Phi(t))g'(\Phi(t))\Phi'(t)dt = \int_{a}^{b} f(u)g'(u)du, \\ \int_{\partial\Phi} f\omega &= \int_{[b]} fg + \int_{-[a]} fg = f(b)g(b) + (-1)f(a)f(a), \\ \int_{\Phi} (df) \wedge \omega &= \int_{\Phi} (df)g = \int_{0}^{1} f'(\Phi(t))g(\Phi(t))\Phi'(t)dt = \int_{a}^{b} f'(u)g(u)du. \end{split}$$

Hence

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(u)g'(u)du = f(b)g(b) - f(a)f(a) - \int_{a}^{b} f'(u)g(u)du,$$

which is the same as the integration by parts (Theorem 6.22).

Exercise 10.21. As in Example 10.36, consider the 1-form

$$\eta = \frac{xdy - ydx}{x^2 + y^2}$$

in  $\mathbb{R}^2 - \{ \mathbf{0} \}$ .

(a) Carry out the computation that leads to

$$\int_{\gamma} \eta = 2\pi \neq 0,$$

and prove that  $d\eta = 0$ .

(b) Let  $\gamma(t) = (r \cos t, r \sin t)$ , for some r > 0, and let  $\Gamma$  be a  $\mathscr{C}''$ -curve in  $\mathbb{R}^2 - \{\mathbf{0}\}$ , with parameter interval  $[0, 2\pi]$ , with  $\Gamma(0) = \Gamma(2\pi)$ , such that the intervals  $[\gamma(t), \Gamma(t)]$  do not contain  $\mathbf{0}$  for any  $t \in [0, 2\pi]$ . Prove that

$$\int_{\Gamma} \eta = 2\pi.$$

(Hint: For  $0 \le t \le 2\pi$ ,  $0 \le u \le 1$ , define

$$\Phi(t, u) = (1 - u)\Gamma(t) + u\gamma(t).$$

Then  $\Phi$  is a 2-surface in  $\mathbb{R}^2 - \{\mathbf{0}\}$  whose parameter domain is the indicated rectangle. Because of cancellations (as in Example 10.32),

$$\partial \Phi = \Gamma - \gamma$$
.

Use Stokes' theorem to deduce that

$$\int_{\Gamma} \eta = \int_{\gamma} \eta$$

because  $d\eta = 0$ .)

(c) Take  $\Gamma(t)=(a\cos t,b\sin t)$  where  $a>0,\ b>0$  are fixed. Use part (b) to show that

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{ab}{a^2 \cos^2 t + b^2 \sin^2 t} dt = 2\pi.$$

(d) Show that

$$\eta = d \left( \arctan \frac{y}{x} \right)$$

in any convex open set in which  $x \neq 0$ , and that

$$\eta = d\left(-\arctan\frac{x}{y}\right)$$

in any convex open set in which  $y \neq 0$ . Explain why this justifies the notation  $\eta = d\theta$ , in spite of the fact that  $\eta$  is not exact in  $\mathbb{R}^2 - \{0\}$ .

- (e) Show that (b) can be derived from (d).
- (f) If  $\Gamma$  is any closed  $\mathscr{C}'$ -curve in  $\mathbb{R}^2 \{\mathbf{0}\}$ , prove that

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\Gamma} \eta = \operatorname{Ind}(\Gamma).$$

(See Exercise 8.23 for the definition of the index of a curve.)

Proof of (a).

$$\begin{split} \int_{\gamma} \eta &= \int_{0}^{2\pi} \frac{(r\cos t)d(r\sin t) - (r\sin t)d(r\cos t)}{(r\cos t)^{2} + (r\sin t)^{2}} \\ &= \int_{0}^{2\pi} \frac{(r\cos t)(r\cos t) - (r\sin t)(-r\sin t)}{(r\cos t)^{2} + (r\sin t)^{2}} dt \\ &= \int_{0}^{2\pi} dt \\ &= 2\pi. \end{split}$$

(2)

$$d\eta = d\left(\frac{xdy - ydx}{x^2 + y^2}\right)$$

$$= d\left(\frac{x}{x^2 + y^2}\right) \wedge dy - d\left(\frac{y}{x^2 + y^2}\right) \wedge dx \qquad (d^2 = 0)$$

$$= D_1\left(\frac{x}{x^2 + y^2}\right) dx \wedge dy \qquad (dy \wedge dy = 0)$$

$$- D_2\left(\frac{y}{x^2 + y^2}\right) dy \wedge dx \qquad (dx \wedge dx = 0)$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} - \frac{2x^2}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}\right) dx \wedge dy$$

$$+ \left(\frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} - \frac{2y^2}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}\right) dx \wedge dy$$

$$= 0$$

#### 

Note.

- (1)  $\eta$  is closed and locally exact, that is,  $\eta = dt$  on  $\mathbb{R}^2 L$  where L is a half-line issuing from  $\mathbf{0}$ .  $\eta$  is not exact since  $\int_{\gamma} \eta = 2\pi \neq 0$ .
- (2) (Poincaré's Lemma for 1-form.) Let  $\omega = \sum a_i dx_i$  be defined in an open set  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $d\omega = 0$  if and only if for each  $p \in U$  there is a neighborhood  $V \subseteq U$  of p and a differentiable function  $f: V \to \mathbb{R}^1$  with  $df = \omega$  (i.e.,  $\omega$  is locally exact).

#### Proof of (b).

- (1)
- (2)

Proof of (c).

(1)  $\Gamma$  satisfies all conditions described in (b). So

$$\int_{\Gamma} \eta = 2\pi.$$

(2) A direct calculation shows that

$$2\pi = \int_{\Gamma} \eta = \int_{\Gamma} \frac{x dy - y dx}{x^2 + y^2}$$

$$= \int_{0}^{2\pi} \frac{a \cos(t) d(b \sin(t)) - b \sin(t) d(a \cos(t))}{(a \cos(t))^2 + (b \sin(t))^2}$$

$$= \int_{0}^{2\pi} \frac{a b (\cos^2 t + \sin^2 t)}{a^2 \cos^2 t + b^2 \sin^2 t}$$

$$= \int_{0}^{2\pi} \frac{a b}{a^2 \cos^2 t + b^2 \sin^2 t}.$$

Proof of (d).

(1) In any convex open set in which  $x \neq 0$ , we have

$$\begin{split} d\left(\arctan\frac{y}{x}\right) &= \left(D_1\arctan\frac{y}{x}\right)dx + \left(D_2\arctan\frac{y}{x}\right)dy \\ &= -\frac{y}{x^2 + y^2}dx + \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2}dy \\ &= \eta. \end{split}$$

(2) In any convex open set in which  $y \neq 0$ , we have

$$d\left(-\arctan\frac{x}{y}\right) = \left(D_1\left(-\arctan\frac{x}{y}\right)\right)dx + \left(D_2\left(-\arctan\frac{x}{y}\right)\right)dy$$
$$= -\frac{y}{x^2 + y^2}dx + \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2}dy$$
$$= \eta.$$

(3) By (1)(2),  $\eta$  is locally exact. Note that  $\theta_1 = \arctan \frac{y}{x}$  and  $\theta_2 = -\arctan \frac{x}{y}$  cannot be patched together to defined a global 0-form  $\theta$  on  $\mathbb{R}^2 - \{\mathbf{0}\}$ .

Proof of (e).

- (1)
- (2)

Proof of (f).

- (1)
- (2)

**Exercise 10.22.** As in Example 10.37, define  $\zeta$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3 - \{0\}$  by

$$\zeta = \frac{xdy \wedge dz + ydz \wedge dx + zdx \wedge dy}{r^3}$$

where  $r = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ , let D be the rectangle given by  $0 \le u \le \pi$ ,  $0 \le v \le 2\pi$ , and let  $\Sigma$  be the 2-surface in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , with parameter domain D, given by

$$x = \sin u \cos v,$$
  $y = \sin u \sin v,$   $z = \cos u.$ 

- (a) Prove that  $d\zeta = 0$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3 \{\mathbf{0}\}$ .
- (b) Let S denote the restriction of  $\Sigma$  to a parameter domain  $E\subseteq D$ . Prove that

$$\int_{S} \zeta = \int_{E} \sin u \, du \, dv = A(S),$$

where A denotes area, as in Section 10.43. Note that this contains

$$\int_{\Sigma} \zeta = \int_{D} \sin u \, du \, dv = 4\pi \neq 0$$

as a special case.

(c) Suppose  $g, h_1, h_2, h_3$ , are  $\mathscr{C}''$ -functions on [0,1], g > 0. Let  $(x, y, z) = \Phi(s,t)$  define a 2-surface  $\Phi$ , with parameter domain  $I^2$ , by

$$x = g(t)h_1(s),$$
  $y = g(t)h_2(s),$   $z = g(t)h_3(s).$ 

Prove that

$$\int_{\Phi} \zeta = 0,$$

directly from Equation (35) in Chapter 10. Note the shape of the range of  $\Phi$ : For fixed s,  $\Phi(s,t)$  runs over an interval on a line through  $\mathbf{0}$ . The range of  $\Phi$  thus lies in a "cone" with vertex at the origin.

(d) Let E be a closed rectangle in D, with edges parallel to those of D. Suppose  $f \in \mathscr{C}''(D), \ f > 0$ . Let  $\Omega$  be the 2-surface with parameter domain E, defined by

$$\Omega(u, v) = f(u, v)\Sigma(u, v).$$

Define S as in (b) and prove that

$$\int_{\Omega} \zeta = \int_{S} \zeta = A(S).$$

(Since S is the "radical projection" of  $\Omega$  into the unit sphere, this result makes it reasonable to call  $\int_{\Omega} \zeta$  the "solid angle" subtended by the range of  $\Omega$  at the origin.) (Hint: Consider the 3-surface  $\Psi$  given by

$$\Psi(t, u, v) = [1 - t + t f(u, v)] \Sigma(u, v),$$

where  $(u,v) \in E$ ,  $0 \le t \le 1$ . For fixed v, the mapping  $(t,u) \mapsto \Psi(t,u,v)$  is a 2-surface  $\Phi$  to which (c) can be applied to show that  $\int_{\Phi} \zeta = 0$ . The same thing holds when u is fixed. By (a) and Stokes' theorem,

$$\int_{\partial \Psi} \zeta = \int_{\Psi} d\zeta = 0.$$

(e) Put  $\lambda = -\frac{z}{r}\eta$ , where

$$\eta = \frac{xdy - ydx}{x^2 + y^2},$$

as in Exercise 10.21. Then  $\lambda$  is a 1-form in the open set  $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$  in which  $x^2 + y^2 > 0$ . Show that  $\zeta$  is exact in V by showing that

$$\zeta = d\lambda$$
.

(f) Derive (d) from (e), without using (c). (Hint: To begin with, assume  $0 < u < \pi$  on E. By (e),

$$\int_{\Omega} \zeta = \int_{\partial \Omega} \lambda \quad and \quad \int_{S} \zeta = \int_{\partial S} \lambda.$$

Show that the two integrals of  $\lambda$  are equal, by using part (d) of Exercise 10.21, and by noting that  $\frac{z}{r}$  is the same at  $\Sigma(u,v)$  as at  $\Omega(u,v)$ .)

(g) Is  $\zeta$  exact in the complement of every line through the origin?

Proof of (a).

(1) Note that  $\zeta$  is well-defined on  $\mathbb{R}^3 - \{0\}$ . Hence,

$$\begin{split} d\zeta &= d\left(\frac{xdy\wedge dz + ydz\wedge dx + zdx\wedge dy}{r^3}\right) \\ &= d\left(\frac{x}{r^3}\right)\wedge dy\wedge dz + d\left(\frac{y}{r^3}\right)\wedge dz\wedge dx + d\left(\frac{z}{r^3}\right)\wedge dx\wedge dy \\ &= D_1\left(\frac{x}{r^3}\right)dx\wedge dy\wedge dz + D_2\left(\frac{y}{r^3}\right)dy\wedge dz\wedge dx + D_3\left(\frac{z}{r^3}\right)dz\wedge dx\wedge dy \\ &= \frac{r^3 - 3rx^2}{r^6}dx\wedge dy\wedge dz + \frac{r^3 - 3ry^2}{r^6}dy\wedge dz\wedge dx + \frac{r^3 - 3rz^2}{r^6}dz\wedge dx\wedge dy \\ &= \left(\frac{r^3 - 3rx^2}{r^6} + \frac{r^3 - 3ry^2}{r^6} + \frac{r^3 - 3rz^2}{r^6}\right)dx\wedge dy\wedge dz \\ &= 0dx\wedge dy\wedge dz \\ &= 0 \end{split}$$

in  $\mathbb{R}^3 - \{\mathbf{0}\}$ .

(2) Or write

$$\mathbf{F} = \frac{x}{r^3}\mathbf{e}_1 + \frac{y}{r^3}\mathbf{e}_2 + \frac{z}{r^3}\mathbf{e}_3$$

as in Vector fields 10.42. So

$$\omega_{\mathbf{F}} = \zeta$$

and

$$d\omega_{\mathbf{F}} = (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F})dx \wedge dy \wedge dz$$

as in the proof of the divergence theorem (Theorem 10.51). Note that the divergence of  ${\bf F}$  is zero.

Proof of (b).

- (1)
- (2)

Proof of (c).

- (1)
- (2)

Proof of (d).

(1)

(2)

Proof of (e).

- (1)
- (2)

Proof of (f).

- (1)
- (2)

Proof of (g).

- (1)
- (2)

**Exercise 10.23.** Fix n. Define  $r_k = (x_1^2 + \dots + x_k^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$  for  $1 \le k \le n$ , let  $E_k$  be the set of all  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  at which  $r_k > 0$ , and let  $\omega_k$  be the (k-1)-form defined in  $E_k$  by

$$\omega_k = (r_k)^{-k} \sum_{i=1}^k (-1)^{i-1} x_i dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dx_i} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_k$$

Note that  $\omega_2 = \eta$ ,  $\omega_3 = \zeta$  in the terminology of Exercise 10.21 and Exercise 10.22. Note also that

$$E_1 \subseteq E_2 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq E_n = \mathbb{R}^n$$
.

- (a) Prove that  $d\omega_k = 0$  in  $E_k$ .
- (b) For k = 2, ..., n, prove that  $\omega_k$  is exact in  $E_{k-1}$ , by showing that

$$\omega_k = d(f_k \omega_{k-1}) = df_k \wedge \omega_{k-1}$$

where  $f_k(\mathbf{x}) = (-1)^k g_k \left(\frac{x_k}{r_k}\right)$  where

$$g_k(t) = \int_{-1}^{t} (1 - s^2)^{\frac{k-3}{2}} ds$$
  $(-1 < t < 1).$ 

(Hint:  $f_k$  satisfies the differential equations

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot (\nabla f_k)(\mathbf{x}) = 0$$

and

$$(D_k f_k)(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{(-1)^k (r_{k-1})^{k-1}}{(r_k)^k}.$$

- (c) Is  $\omega_n$  exact in  $E_n$ ?
- (d) Note that (b) is a generalization of part (e) of Exercise 10.22. Try to extend some of the other assertions of Exercise 10.21 and Exercise 10.22 to  $\omega_n$ , for arbitrary n.

Proof of (a).

(1) Note that

$$D_i r_k = \frac{1}{2r_k} \cdot (2x_i) = \frac{x_i}{r_k}.$$

(2)

$$d\omega_{k} = \sum_{i=1}^{k} d\left((-1)^{i-1}(r_{k})^{-k}x_{i}dx_{1} \wedge \cdots \wedge \widehat{dx_{i}} \wedge \cdots \wedge dx_{k}\right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{k} D_{i}\left((-1)^{i-1}(r_{k})^{-k}x_{i}\right) dx_{i} \wedge dx_{1} \wedge \cdots \wedge \widehat{dx_{i}} \wedge \cdots \wedge dx_{k}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{k} (-1)^{i-1} \left((r_{k})^{-k} \cdot 1 + \underbrace{(-k)(r_{k})^{-k-1} \frac{x_{i}}{r_{k}}}_{\text{chain rule}} \cdot x_{i}\right) \underbrace{(-1)^{i-1} dx_{1} \wedge \cdots \wedge dx_{k}}_{\text{anticommutative relation}}$$

$$= (r_{k})^{-k-2} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \left((r_{k})^{2} - kx_{i}^{2}\right) dx_{1} \wedge \cdots \wedge dx_{k}$$

$$= 0.$$

Proof of (b).

- (1)
- (2)

Proof of (c).

- (1)
- (2)

Proof of (d).

- (1)
- (2)

**Exercise 10.24.** Let  $\omega = \sum a_i(\mathbf{x}) dx_i$  be a 1-form of class  $\mathscr{C}''$  in a convex open set  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ . Assume  $d\omega = 0$  and prove that  $\omega$  is exact in E, by completing the following outline:

Fix  $\mathbf{p} \in E$ . Define

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \int_{[\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{x}]} \omega \qquad (\mathbf{x} \in E).$$

Apply Stokes' theorem to affine-oriented 2-simplexs  $[\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}]$  in E. Deduce that

$$f(\mathbf{y}) - f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - x_i) \int_0^1 a_i((1-t)\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{y})dt$$

for  $\mathbf{x} \in E$ ,  $\mathbf{y} \in E$ . Hence  $(D_i f)(\mathbf{x}) = a_i(\mathbf{x})$ .

Proof.

(1) Fix  $\mathbf{p} \in E$ . Define

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \int_{[\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{x}]} \omega \qquad (\mathbf{x} \in E).$$

- (2) Given any  $\mathbf{x} \in E$ ,  $\mathbf{y} \in E$ , and  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y}$ . The affine-oriented 2-simplexs  $\Psi = [\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}]$  is in E by the convexity of E. (If E is open but not convex, we can show that  $\omega = df$  **locally** as the note in Exercise 10.21(a). That is why we say that  $\omega$  is locally exact. The proof is exactly the same.)
- (3) Note that

$$\partial \Psi = \partial [\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}] = [\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}] - [\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{y}] + [\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{x}].$$

The Stokes' theorem (Theorem 10.33) implies that

$$\int_{\Psi} d\omega = \int_{\partial \Psi} \omega \iff \int_{\Psi} 0 = \int_{[\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}]} \omega - \int_{[\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{y}]} \omega + \int_{[\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{x}]} \omega$$

$$\iff 0 = \int_{[\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}]} \omega - f(\mathbf{y}) + f(\mathbf{x})$$

$$\iff f(\mathbf{y}) - f(\mathbf{x}) = \int_{[\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}]} \omega.$$

(4) Define  $\gamma:[0,1]\to E$  by

$$\gamma(t) = \mathbf{x} + t(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x})$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i + t(y_i - x_i)$$

(where  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  and  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ ). Hence [0, 1] is the parameter domain of  $[\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}]$  with respect to  $\gamma$ . So

$$\int_{[\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}]} \omega = \int_0^1 \sum_{i=1}^n a_i(\gamma(t)) \frac{\partial (x_i + t(y_i - x_i))}{\partial t} dt$$
$$= \int_0^1 \sum_{i=1}^n a_i(\mathbf{x} + t(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}))(y_i - x_i) dt$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - x_i) \int_0^1 a_i(\mathbf{x} + t(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x})) dt.$$

Thus,

$$f(\mathbf{y}) - f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - x_i) \int_0^1 a_i (\mathbf{x} + t(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x})) dt.$$

(5) Note that

$$f(\mathbf{x} + h\mathbf{e}_j) - f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n ((x_i + h\delta_{ij}) - x_i) \int_0^1 a_i (\mathbf{x} + t((\mathbf{x} + h\mathbf{e}_j) - \mathbf{x})) dt$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^n h\delta_{ij} \int_0^1 a_i (\mathbf{x} + th\mathbf{e}_j) dt$$
$$= h \int_0^1 a_j (\mathbf{x} + th\mathbf{e}_j) dt.$$

(Here  $\delta_{ij}$  is the Kronecker delta.) So

$$(D_j f)(\mathbf{x}) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{x} + h\mathbf{e}_j) - f(\mathbf{x})}{h}$$

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \int_0^1 a_j(\mathbf{x} + th\mathbf{e}_j) dt$$

$$= \int_0^1 a_j(\mathbf{x}) dt \qquad (a_j \in \mathscr{C}'')$$

$$= a_j(\mathbf{x}).$$

Thus,

$$df = \sum_{j=1}^{n} (D_j f)(\mathbf{x}) dx_j = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j(\mathbf{x}) dx_j = \omega,$$

or  $\omega$  is exact in E.

**Exercise 10.25.** Assume  $\omega$  is a 1-form in an open set  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  such that

$$\int_{\gamma} \omega = 0$$

for every closed curve  $\gamma$  in E, of class  $\mathscr{C}'$ . Prove that  $\omega$  is exact in E, by imitating part of the argument sketched in Exercise 10.24.

Proof.

- (1) Assume that E is a **connected** open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Show that  $\omega$  is exact in E if  $\int_{\gamma} \omega = 0$  for every closed curve  $\gamma$  in E, of class  $\mathscr{C}'$ .
- (2) Fix  $\mathbf{p} \in E$ . Define

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \int_{[\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{x}]} \omega \qquad (\mathbf{x} \in E).$$

It is well-defined since E is connected and  $\int_{\gamma}\omega=0$  for every closed curve  $\gamma$  in E.

(3) Given any  $\mathbf{x} \in E$ ,  $\mathbf{y} \in E$ , and  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y}$ . Let

$$\gamma = [\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}] - [\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{y}] + [\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{x}]$$

be a closed curve in E. Hence,

$$0 = \int_{\gamma} \omega$$

$$= \int_{[\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}]} \omega - \int_{[\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{y}]} \omega + \int_{[\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{x}]} \omega$$

$$= \int_{[\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}]} \omega - f(\mathbf{y}) + f(\mathbf{x}).$$
(Assumption)

So

$$f(\mathbf{y}) - f(\mathbf{x}) = \int_{[\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}]} \omega$$

(4) Similar to (4)(5) in the proof of Exercise 10.24, we have  $df = \omega$ . So the statement in (1) is proved. In general, we can define each  $f_{\alpha}$  on each connected component  $E_{\alpha}$  (which is open) of E such that  $df_{\alpha} = \omega$  on  $E_{\alpha}$ . Take

$$f|_{E_{\alpha}} = f_{\alpha}$$

on E. Hence,  $df = \omega$  on the whole E.

**Exercise 10.26.** Assume  $\omega$  is a 1-form in  $\mathbb{R}^3 - \{\mathbf{0}\}$ , of class  $\mathscr{C}'$  and  $d\omega = 0$ . Prove that  $\omega$  is exact in  $\mathbb{R}^3 - \{\mathbf{0}\}$ . (Hint: Every closed continuously differentiable curve in  $\mathbb{R}^3 - \{\mathbf{0}\}$  is the boundary of a 2-surface in  $\mathbb{R}^3 - \{\mathbf{0}\}$ . Apply Stokes' theorem and Exercise 10.25.)

Proof.

(1) Let  $E = \mathbb{R}^3 - \{\mathbf{0}\}$ . By Exercise 10.25, it suffices to show that

$$\int_{\gamma} \omega = 0$$

for every closed curve  $\gamma$  in E, of class  $\mathscr{C}'$ .

(2) Intuitively, every closed continuously differentiable curve in  $\mathbb{R}^3 - \{\mathbf{0}\}$  is the boundary of a 2-surface in  $\mathbb{R}^3 - \{\mathbf{0}\}$ . So there is some 2-surface  $\Psi$  such that  $\partial \Psi = \gamma$ . The Stokes' theorem (Theorem 10.33) implies that

$$\int_{\gamma} \omega = \int_{\partial \Psi} \omega = \int_{\Psi} d\omega = \int_{\Psi} 0 = 0.$$

Exercise 10.27. ...

Proof.

- (1)
- (2)

**Exercise 10.28.** Fix b > a > 0, define

$$\Phi(r,\theta) = (r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta)$$

for  $a \le r \le b$ ,  $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$ . (The range of  $\Phi$  is an annulus in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .) Put  $\omega = x^3 dy$ , and compute both

 $\int_{\Phi} d\omega \qquad and \qquad \int_{\partial \Phi} \omega$ 

to verify that they are equal.

Proof.

(1) Note that

$$\frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(r,\theta)} = \det \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -r\sin\theta\\ \sin\theta & r\cos\theta \end{bmatrix} = r.$$

So

$$\int_{\Phi} d\omega = \int_{\Phi} 3x^2 dx \wedge dy \qquad (dy \wedge dy = 0)$$

$$= \int_{[a,b] \times [0,2\pi]} 3(r\cos\theta)^2 \frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(r,\theta)} dr d\theta$$

$$= \int_a^b \int_0^{2\pi} 3r^3 (\cos\theta)^2 dr d\theta$$

$$= \frac{3\pi}{4} (b^4 - a^4).$$

(2) Similar to Exercise 10.21(b), write

$$\partial \Phi = \Gamma - \gamma$$
,

where  $\Gamma(t) = (b\cos t, b\sin t)$  on  $[0, 2\pi]$  and  $\gamma(t) = (a\cos t, a\sin t)$  on  $[0, 2\pi]$ . Hence

$$\begin{split} \int_{\partial\Phi} \omega &= \int_{\Gamma} \omega - \int_{\gamma} \omega \\ &= \int_{\Gamma} x^3 dy - \int_{\gamma} x^3 dy \\ &= \int_{[0,2\pi]} (b\cos\theta)^3 \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} d\theta - \int_{[0,2\pi]} (a\cos\theta)^3 \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} b^4 (\cos\theta)^4 d\theta - \int_0^{2\pi} a^4 (\cos\theta)^4 d\theta \\ &= \frac{3\pi}{4} (b^4 - a^4). \end{split}$$

(3) 
$$\int_{\Phi} d\omega = \int_{\partial \Phi} \omega = \frac{3\pi}{4} (b^4 - a^4).$$

Exercise 10.29. ...

Proof.

- (1)
- (2)

Exercise 10.30. If N is the vector given by

$$\mathbf{N} = (\alpha_2 \beta_3 - \alpha_3 \beta_2) \mathbf{e}_1 + (\alpha_3 \beta_1 - \alpha_1 \beta_3) \mathbf{e}_2 + (\alpha_1 \beta_2 - \alpha_2 \beta_1) \mathbf{e}_3$$

(Equation (135)), prove that

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \beta_1 & \alpha_2\beta_3 - \alpha_3\beta_2 \\ \alpha_2 & \beta_2 & \alpha_3\beta_1 - \alpha_1\beta_3 \\ \alpha_3 & \beta_3 & \alpha_1\beta_2 - \alpha_2\beta_1 \end{bmatrix} = |\mathbf{N}|^2$$

Also, verify

$$\mathbf{N} \cdot (T\mathbf{e}_1) = \mathbf{N} \cdot (T\mathbf{e}_2)$$

(Equation (137)).

Proof.

(1) By Laplace's expansion along the third column,

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \beta_1 & \alpha_2\beta_3 - \alpha_3\beta_2 \\ \alpha_2 & \beta_2 & \alpha_3\beta_1 - \alpha_1\beta_3 \\ \alpha_3 & \beta_3 & \alpha_1\beta_2 - \alpha_2\beta_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= (-1)^{1+3} (\alpha_2\beta_3 - \alpha_3\beta_2) \det \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_2 & \beta_2 \\ \alpha_3 & \beta_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$+ (-1)^{2+3} (\alpha_3\beta_1 - \alpha_1\beta_3) \det \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \beta_1 \\ \alpha_3 & \beta_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$+ (-1)^{3+3} (\alpha_1\beta_2 - \alpha_2\beta_1) \det \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \beta_1 \\ \alpha_2 & \beta_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= (\alpha_2\beta_3 - \alpha_3\beta_2)^2 + (\alpha_3\beta_1 - \alpha_1\beta_3)^2 + (\alpha_1\beta_2 - \alpha_2\beta_1)^2$$

$$= |\mathbf{N}|^2.$$

$$\mathbf{N} \cdot (T\mathbf{e}_1) = (\alpha_2\beta_3 - \alpha_3\beta_2, \alpha_3\beta_1 - \alpha_1\beta_3, \alpha_1\beta_2 - \alpha_2\beta_1) \cdot (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3)$$

$$= (\alpha_2\beta_3 - \alpha_3\beta_2)\alpha_1 + (\alpha_3\beta_1 - \alpha_1\beta_3)\alpha_2 + (\alpha_1\beta_2 - \alpha_2\beta_1))\alpha_3$$

$$= (\alpha_3\alpha_2 - \alpha_2\alpha_3)\beta_1 + (\alpha_1\alpha_3 - \alpha_3\alpha_1)\beta_2 + (\alpha_2\alpha_1 - \alpha_1\alpha_2)\beta_3$$

$$= 0.$$

(3)

$$\mathbf{N} \cdot (T\mathbf{e}_{2}) = (\alpha_{2}\beta_{3} - \alpha_{3}\beta_{2}, \alpha_{3}\beta_{1} - \alpha_{1}\beta_{3}, \alpha_{1}\beta_{2} - \alpha_{2}\beta_{1}) \cdot (\beta_{1}, \beta_{2}, \beta_{3})$$

$$= (\alpha_{2}\beta_{3} - \alpha_{3}\beta_{2})\beta_{1} + (\alpha_{3}\beta_{1} - \alpha_{1}\beta_{3})\beta_{2} + (\alpha_{1}\beta_{2} - \alpha_{2}\beta_{1}))\beta_{3}$$

$$= (\beta_{2}\beta_{3} - \beta_{3}\beta_{2})\alpha_{1} + (\beta_{3}\beta_{1} - \beta_{1}\beta_{3})\alpha_{2} + (\beta_{1}\beta_{2} - \beta_{2}\beta_{1})\alpha_{3}$$

$$= 0.$$

**Exercise 10.31.** Let  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$  be open, suppose  $g \in \mathscr{C}''(E)$ ,  $h \in \mathscr{C}''(E)$ , and consider the vector field

$$\mathbf{F} = q\nabla h$$

(a) Prove that

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = g \nabla^2 h + (\nabla g) \cdot (\nabla h)$$

where  $\nabla^2 h = \nabla \cdot (\nabla h) = \sum \frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x_i^2}$  is the so-called "Laplacian" of h.

(b) If  $\Omega$  is a closed subset of E with positively oriented boundary  $\partial\Omega$  (as in Theorem 10.51), prove that

$$\int_{\Omega}[g\nabla^2 h + (\nabla g)\cdot(\nabla h)]dV = \int_{\partial\Omega}g\frac{\partial h}{\partial n}dA$$

where (as is customary) we have written  $\frac{\partial h}{\partial n}$  in place of  $(\nabla h) \cdot \mathbf{n}$ . (Thus  $\frac{\partial h}{\partial n}$  is the directional derivative of h in the direction of the outward normal to  $\partial \Omega$ , the so-called **normal derivative** of h.) Interchange g and h, substract the resulting formula from the first one, to obtain

$$\int_{\Omega} (g\nabla^2 h - h\nabla^2 g) dV = \int_{\partial\Omega} \left( g \frac{\partial h}{\partial n} - h \frac{\partial g}{\partial n} \right) dA.$$

These two formulas are usually called Green's identities.

(c) Assume that h is **harmonic** in E; this means that  $\nabla^2 h = 0$ . Take g = 1 and conclude that

$$\int_{\partial \Omega} \frac{\partial h}{\partial n} dA = 0.$$

Take g = h, and conclude that h = 0 in  $\Omega$  if h = 0 on  $\partial\Omega$ .

(d) Show that Green's identities are also valid in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

Proof of (a).

(1) Since

$$\mathbf{F} = g\nabla h = g\left(\sum (D_i h)\mathbf{e}_i\right) = \sum g(D_i h)\mathbf{e}_i,$$

we have

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = \nabla \cdot \left( \sum g(D_i h) \mathbf{e}_i \right)$$

$$= \sum D_i(g(D_i h))$$

$$= \sum \{ (D_i g)(D_i h) + g D_i(D_i h) \}$$

$$= \sum (D_i g)(D_i h) + g \sum D_i(D_i h).$$

(2) Also,

$$\begin{split} g\nabla^2 h + (\nabla g) \cdot (\nabla h) &= g\nabla \cdot (\nabla h) + (\nabla g) \cdot (\nabla h) \\ &= g\nabla \cdot \left(\sum (D_i h) \mathbf{e}_i\right) + \left(\sum (D_i g) \mathbf{e}_i\right) \cdot \left(\sum (D_i h) \mathbf{e}_i\right) \\ &= g\sum D_i (D_i h) + \sum (D_i g) (D_i h). \end{split}$$

(3) By (1)(2), the result is established.

Proof of (b).

(1) The divergence theorem (Theorem 10.51) implies that

$$\begin{split} &\int_{\Omega} (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}) dV = \int_{\partial \Omega} (\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}) dA \\ \Longrightarrow &\int_{\Omega} [g \nabla^2 h + (\nabla g) \cdot (\nabla h)] dV = \int_{\partial \Omega} g \underbrace{\nabla h \cdot \mathbf{n}}_{=\frac{\partial h}{\partial n}} dA. \end{split}$$

(2) Green's identities are a set of three identities in vector calculus relating the bulk with the boundary of a region on which differential operators act. (Green's third identity.) Assume that h is harmonic in E. If  $G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_0)$  is the Green's function, then

$$h(\mathbf{x}_0) = \int_{\partial\Omega} \left[ h(\mathbf{x}) \frac{\partial G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_0)}{\partial n} - G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_0) \frac{\partial h(\mathbf{x})}{\partial n} \right] dA.$$

For example, in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ 

$$G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_0) = -\frac{1}{4\pi \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0\|}.$$

Proof of (c). Assume  $\nabla^2 h = 0$ .

(1) Take q = 1 in

$$\int_{\Omega} [g\nabla^2 h + (\nabla g) \cdot (\nabla h)] dV = \int_{\partial \Omega} g \frac{\partial h}{\partial n} dA$$

to get the conclusion. (Here  $\nabla g = \mathbf{0}$  as g = 1.)

(2) Assume h = 0 on  $\partial \Omega$ . Take g = h in

$$\int_{\Omega} [g\nabla^2 h + (\nabla g) \cdot (\nabla h)] dV = \int_{\partial \Omega} g \frac{\partial h}{\partial n} dA$$

to get

$$\int_{\Omega} |\nabla h|^2 dV = \int_{\partial \Omega} h \frac{\partial h}{\partial n} dA = 0$$

(since h = 0 on  $\partial\Omega$ ). Since  $h \in \mathscr{C}'(\Omega)$ , Exercise 6.2 implies that  $|\nabla h|^2 = 0$  on  $\Omega$ . So  $D_1h = D_2h = D_3h = 0$  on  $\Omega$ . Since  $h \in \mathscr{C}'(\Omega)$ , Theorem 9.21 implies that h = 0 on  $\Omega$ , or h is locally constant in  $\Omega$  (Exercise 9.9). Note that h = 0 globally on  $\partial\Omega$ , and thus h = 0 globally on  $\Omega$ .

Proof of (d).

(1) (The divergence theorem in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .) If  $\mathbf{F} = F_1\mathbf{e}_1 + F_2\mathbf{e}_2$  is a vector field of class  $\mathscr{C}'$  in an open set  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ , and if  $\Omega$  is a closed subset of E with positively oriented boundary  $\partial\Omega$  then

$$\int_{\Omega} (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}) dA = \int_{\partial \Omega} (\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}) ds.$$

Define a 1-form by

$$\omega_{\mathbf{F}} = F_1 dy - F_2 dx.$$

So

$$d\omega_{\mathbf{F}} = (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F})dx \wedge dy = (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F})dA.$$

Hence the Stokes' theorem (Theorem 10.33) implies that

$$\int_{\Omega} (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}) dA = \int_{\Omega} d\omega_{\mathbf{F}} = \int_{\partial \Omega} \omega_{\mathbf{F}} = \int_{\partial \Omega} (\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}) ds.$$

(2) Note that

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = g \nabla^2 h + (\nabla g) \cdot (\nabla h)$$

is also true in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Similar to (b), two Green's identities are also true in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . (In  $\mathbb{R}^1$ , the Green's first identity is the integration by parts (Theorem 6.22).)

## Exercise 10.32. ...

 ${\it Proof.}$ 

- (1)
- (2)