

## REAL ANALYSIS LECTURE NOTES

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## 5. DIVERGENCE THEOREM AND CONSEQUENCES

**5.1. Integration on hypersurfaces.** By a hypersurface  $\Gamma$  of class  $C^k$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , we mean a compact subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  admitting a finite covering by open connected subsets  $U_j$ :  $\Gamma \subset \cup_{j=1}^N U_j$ , with the following property: For every  $j$  there exists a function  $\rho_j \in C^k(U_j)$  such that the gradient  $\nabla \rho_j(x) = (\frac{\partial \rho_j}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial \rho_j}{\partial x_n})$  does not vanish in  $U_j$  and  $\Gamma \cap U_j = \{x \in U_j : \rho_j(x) = 0\}$ . Such a function  $\rho_j$  often is called a *local defining function* of  $\Gamma$ . Very often we will deal with the case when  $\Gamma = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \rho(x) = 0\}$  where  $\rho$  is a  $C^k$ -function on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Another way to define a hypersurface is through parametrization. Let  $D$  be an open connected subset of  $\mathbb{R}^{n-1}$  and  $\Phi = (\Phi_1, \dots, \Phi_n) : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  be an injective map of class  $C^k(D)$ . The hypersurface  $\Gamma = \Phi(D)$  is called a *parametrized hypersurface*.

**Example 5.1.** On  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with coordinates  $(x, y)$  consider for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

$$\rho(x, y) = \begin{cases} y, & \text{for } x \leq 0, \\ y - x^k, & \text{for } x > 0 \end{cases} .$$

Then  $\Gamma \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  given by  $r(x, y) = 0$  is a hypersurface of class  $C^{k-1}$ . It admits a global  $C^{k-1}$ -smooth parametrization  $\Phi : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \Gamma$  given by  $x \mapsto (x, x^k)$  for  $x > 0$ , and  $x \mapsto (x, 0)$  for  $x \leq 0$ .  $\diamond$

Let now  $\Omega$  be a bounded domain (an open connected subset) of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with the boundary  $\partial\Omega$  consisting of a finite number of disjoint hypersurfaces  $\Gamma_k$  of class  $C^1$ . A local defining function  $\rho_j$  for  $\Gamma_k$  as defined above is called a *local defining function of  $\Omega$*  if  $\Omega \cap U_j = \{x \in U_j : \rho_j(x) < 0\}$ . Then the gradient vector  $\nabla \rho_j(x)$  defines the outward-pointing normal direction to  $\partial\Omega$  at a point  $x \in \partial\Omega$ . We denote by

$$\vec{n}(x) := \frac{\nabla \rho(x)}{|\nabla \rho(x)|}$$

the unit vector in the outward-pointing normal direction. Let  $p = (p_1, \dots, p_n)$  be a boundary point of  $\Omega$  and  $\rho$  be a local defining function of  $\partial\Omega$  near  $p$ . Since  $\nabla \rho(p) \neq 0$ , then  $\partial \rho(p) / \partial x_k \neq 0$  for some  $1 \leq k \leq n$ . By the Implicit Function theorem there exists a neighbourhood  $U$  of  $p$ , a function  $\psi$  of class  $C^1$  such that

$$(1) \quad \partial\Omega \cap U = \{x \in U : x_k = \psi(x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}, x_{k+1}, \dots, x_n)\}.$$

Shrinking  $U$  if necessary we may assume that  $U = U' \times U''$ , where  $U'$  is a ball in the space  $\mathbb{R}^{n-1}$  centred at  $(p_1, \dots, p_{k-1}, p_{k+1}, \dots, p_n)$  and  $U''$  is an interval in  $\mathbb{R}$  centred at  $p_k$ . This representation allows us to view  $(x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}, x_{k+1}, \dots, x_n)$  as local coordinates on  $\partial\Omega$ : the projection

$$\pi_k : x \mapsto (x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}, x_{k+1}, \dots, x_n)$$

$$\pi_k : \partial\Omega \cap U \longrightarrow U'$$

is bijective. We point out that

$$\pi_k^{-1}(x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}, x_{k+1}, \dots, x_n) = (x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}, \psi(x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}, x_{k+1}, \dots, x_n), x_{k+1}, \dots, x_n)$$

for  $(x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}, x_{k+1}, \dots, x_n) \in U'$ . The map  $\pi_k^{-1} : U' \rightarrow \partial\Omega \cap U$  is clearly a local parametrization of the hypersurface  $\partial\Omega$ . We call  $U$  a *coordinate neighbourhood* of  $p$ .

**Example 5.2.** The upper hemisphere  $S^+ = S^3 \cap \{z > 0\}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  with coordinates  $(x, y, z)$  is the graph of the function  $z = \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2}$ . The unit normal vector to  $S^+$  at a point  $(x, y, z) \in S^+$  is  $\vec{n} = (x, y, z)$ .  $\diamond$

Now let  $f$  be a continuous (this assumption can be considerably weakened) function on  $\partial\Omega$ . Our goal is to define the integral of  $f$  over  $\partial\Omega$  as a *surface integral*. If an open set  $X \subset \partial\Omega$  admits a parametrization  $\Phi : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\Phi(D) = X \subset \partial\Omega$  then we define

$$(2) \quad \int_X f(x) dS = \int_D f \circ \Phi(t) |\vec{N}| dt,$$

where the coordinates of the vector  $\vec{N}$  is determined from  $\vec{N} = |\det(\nabla\Phi_1, \dots, \nabla\Phi_n, \vec{e})|$ . Here  $\vec{e} = (\vec{e}_1, \dots, \vec{e}_n)$  is a formal vector whose coordinates are the vectors of the standard basis in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . In fact, one can show that  $\vec{N}$  is the normal vector to  $X \subset \partial\Omega$ .

Now if  $U$  is a coordinate neighbourhood where  $\partial\Omega$  admits representation as in (1) and  $X$  is an open subset in  $\partial\Omega \cap U$  then

$$(3) \quad \int_X f dS = \int_{\pi_k(X)} f \circ \pi_k^{-1} (1 + \|\nabla\psi\|^2)^{1/2} dx_1 \dots dx_{k-1} dx_{k+1} \dots dx_n.$$

Both definitions agree because  $(1 + \|\nabla\psi\|^2)^{1/2}$  is just the length of the normal vector

$$(4) \quad \vec{N} = \left( \frac{\partial\psi}{\partial x_1}, \dots, 1, \dots, \frac{\partial\psi}{\partial x_n} \right)$$

(here 1 is on the  $k$ -th position) corresponding to the local parametrization of  $\partial\Omega$ . We refer to  $dS$  or the equivalent expression in a local parametrization as the *hypersurface area measure* (or the *element of the surface area* in some literature). Let  $\nu_k$  be the angle between  $\vec{n} = \vec{N} / \|\vec{N}\|$  and the vector  $\vec{e}_k$  (the  $k$ -th vector of the standard base of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ). Then

$$\cos \nu_k = (\vec{e}_k, \vec{n}) = (1 + \|\nabla\psi\|^2)^{-1/2}.$$

Thus

$$\int_X f dS = \int_{\pi_k(X)} f \circ \pi_k^{-1} \frac{1}{\cos \nu} dx_1 \dots dx_{k-1} dx_{k+1} \dots dx_n.$$

If  $f \equiv 1$ , then the integral  $\int_X dS$  represents the area of  $X$ . This terminology comes from  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , where the integral is indeed the area of a surface, while for  $n > 3$ , it is actually the  $(n - 1)$ -dimensional volume.

**Example 5.3.** Consider the surface integral of a continuous function  $f(x, y, z)$  over an upper hemisphere  $S^+ = S^3 \cap \{z > 0\} \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ . First we use parametrization  $z = \psi(x, y) = \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2}$  for  $x^2 + y^2 < 1$ . Then

$$|1 + |\nabla\psi|^2| = 1 + \frac{x^2}{1 - x^2 - y^2} + \frac{y^2}{1 - x^2 - y^2} = \frac{1}{1 - x^2 - y^2}.$$

Therefore, from (3) we obtain

$$\int_{S^+} f dS = \int_{\{x^2 + y^2 < 1\}} f(x, y, \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2}) \frac{dx dy}{\sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2}}.$$

Now we use the parametrization of  $S^+$  that comes from the spherical coordinates. Let  $\Phi : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  be given by

$$\Phi(\theta, \phi) : (\sin \theta, \cos \phi, \sin \theta \sin \phi, \cos \theta).$$

Then  $\Phi((0, \pi/2) \times (0, 2\pi)) = S^+$  (excluding a set of measure 0). To apply (2) we first compute vectors of partial derivatives with respect to  $\theta$  and  $\phi$ . We have

$$\Phi_\theta = (\cos \theta \cos \phi, \cos \theta \sin \phi, -\sin \theta), \quad \Phi_\phi = (-\sin \theta \sin \phi, \sin \theta \cos \phi, 0).$$

Then

$$\vec{N} = \begin{vmatrix} \vec{e}_1 & \vec{e}_2 & \vec{e}_3 \\ \cos \theta \cos \phi & \cos \theta \sin \phi & -\sin \theta \\ -\sin \theta \sin \phi & \sin \theta \cos \phi & 0 \end{vmatrix} = \sin \theta (\cos \phi \sin \theta, \sin \phi \sin \theta, \cos \theta),$$

and so  $|\vec{N}| = \sin \theta$ . We conclude that

$$\int_{S^+} f dS = \int_{(0, \pi/2) \times (0, 2\pi)} f(\sin \theta, \cos \phi, \sin \theta \sin \phi, \cos \theta) \sin \theta \, d\theta \, d\phi.$$

That both integrals agree can be verified, for example, by calculating the surface area of  $S^+$  using these two representations of the surface integral.  $\diamond$

Finally, if  $U_j$  is an open covering of  $\partial\Omega$  by coordinate neighbourhoods, we set  $X_k = U_k \setminus \cup_{j=1}^{k-1} U_j$  so that  $\partial\Omega = \cup X_k$  and  $X_k$  are disjoint. Then we set

$$\int_{\partial\Omega} f dS = \sum_k \int_{X_k} f dS.$$

One can view this as a definition of the surface integral over  $\partial\Omega$ . It is not difficult to verify that the integral is well-defined, i.e., it is independent of the choice of the covering by coordinate neighbourhoods, local defining functions, etc. We leave this verification as an exercise to the reader.

**5.2. Divergence theorem.** The following theorem connects the integral over a domain  $\Omega$  with the surface integral over its boundary  $\Omega$ . It was discussed in some form in the work of Lagrange, Gauss, and most notably Ostrogradski, who gave a proof that would be considered complete by modern standards. It is sometimes referred to as Gauss-Ostrogradski theorem.

Recall that a vector field  $F$  on a domain  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is simply a map  $F : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ . The geometric interpretation of a vector field (which becomes nontrivial and important when one considers abstract manifolds) is that at each point  $x \in \Omega$  the value  $F(x)$  is thought of as a vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  originating at  $x$ . For example, given a function  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , the gradient  $\nabla f$  is a vector field on  $\Omega$ . Another example is a vector field given by (4) assigning to every boundary point of  $\partial\Omega$  a normal vector  $\vec{N}$  to  $\Omega$ . The divergence of a vector field  $F$  is defined as  $\text{div} \vec{F} = \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial x_1} + \dots + \frac{\partial F_n}{\partial x_n}$ .

**Theorem 5.1** (Divergence theorem). *Let  $\Omega$  be a bounded domain in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with the boundary of class  $C^1$ . Let  $\vec{F} = (F_1, \dots, F_n)$  be a vector field of class  $C^1(\bar{\Omega}) \cap C^1(\Omega)$ . Then*

$$(5) \quad \int_{\Omega} \text{div} \vec{F} dx = \int_{\partial\Omega} (\vec{F}, \vec{n}) dS,$$

where  $(a, b)$  denotes the usual scalar product of two vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\vec{n}$  denotes the vector field of the outward-pointing unit normals to  $\partial\Omega$ .

For  $n = 1$  the Divergence theorem becomes the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.

*Proof.* For simplicity of notation we assume that  $n = 3$ , the proof in the general case is completely analogous. We will assume that  $\Omega = \{(x, y, z) : (x, y) \in D, \psi_1(x, y) < z < \psi_2(x, y)\}$ , where  $D$  is a domain in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , and  $\psi$  and  $\phi$  are continuous functions on  $D$ . Moreover, we assume that a similar representation is also valid for projections onto the other two coordinate planes. Such domains sometimes are called *simple*. If the domain  $\Omega$  is not simple in all three directions, then we may divide it into smaller domains  $\Omega_i$  which are simple. Adding the results for each  $i$  gives the Divergence theorem for  $\Omega$  and  $\partial\Omega$ . Indeed, since after splitting  $\Omega$  the surface integrals over the newly introduced boundaries occur twice with the opposite normal vectors  $\vec{n}$ , their sum is equal to zero, and we end up with the surface integral over the original  $\partial\Omega$ .

Denote by  $\Gamma_j$  the surface  $\Gamma_j = \{(x, y, \psi_j(x, y)), (x, y) \in D\}$ . Then by Fubini's theorem

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\Omega} \frac{\partial F_3(x, y, z)}{\partial z} dx dy dz &= \int_D \left( \int_{\psi_1(x, y)}^{\psi_2(x, y)} \frac{\partial F_3(x, y, z)}{\partial z} dz \right) dx dy \\ \int_D F_3(x, y, \psi_2(x, y)) dx dy - \int_D F_3(x, y, \psi_1(x, y)) dx dy &= \int_{\Gamma_1 \cup \Gamma_2} F_3(x, y, z) \cos \nu_3 dS \end{aligned}$$

where  $\nu_3$  is the angle between the vector  $e_3$  and the normals  $(\frac{\partial\psi_2}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial\psi_2}{\partial y}, 1)$  when  $(x, y, z) \in \Gamma_2$  and  $(-\frac{\partial\psi_1}{\partial x}, -\frac{\partial\psi_1}{\partial y}, -1)$  when  $(x, y, z) \in \Gamma_1$  respectively.

Let now  $\Gamma_3 = \{(x, y, z) : (x, y) \in \partial D, \psi_1(x, y) < z < \psi_2(x, y)\}$  be the cylindric part of  $\partial\Omega$ . Let  $\nu_3$  still denotes the angle between  $\Gamma_3$  and the outward-pointing unit normal vector to  $\Gamma_3$ . Then  $\nu_3 = \pi/2$  and  $\cos \nu_3 = 0$ . Then

$$\int_{\Gamma_3} F_3(x, y, z) \cos \nu_3 dS = 0$$

Since  $\partial\Omega = \Gamma_1 \cup \Gamma_2 \cup \Gamma_3$  we can write

$$\int_{\partial\Omega} F_3(x, y, z) \cos \nu_3 dS = \int_{\Gamma_1 \cup \Gamma_2} F_3(x, y, z) \cos \nu_3 dS$$

and therefore

$$(6) \quad \int_{\Omega} \frac{\partial F_3(x, y, z)}{\partial z} dx dy dz = \int_{\partial\Omega} F_3(x, y, z) \cos \nu_3 dS$$

Similarly, we establish the formulae

$$(7) \quad \int_{\Omega} \frac{\partial F_1(x, y, z)}{\partial x} dx dy dz = \int_{\partial\Omega} F_1(x, y, z) \cos \nu_1 dS$$

and

$$(8) \quad \int_{\Omega} \frac{\partial F_2(x, y, z)}{\partial y} dx dy dz = \int_{\partial\Omega} F_2(x, y, z) \cos \nu_2 dS$$

where  $\nu_1$  and  $\nu_2$  are angles between the outward-pointing unit normal to  $\partial\Omega$  and the standard base vectors  $e_1$  and  $e_2$ . Taking the sum in (6), (7), (8) we obtain

$$(9) \quad \int_{\Omega} \operatorname{div} \vec{F} dx = \int_{\partial\Omega} (F_1(x, y, z) \cos \nu_1 + F_2(x, y, z) \cos \nu_2 + F_3(x, y, z) \cos \nu_3)$$

which is precisely (5) for dimension 3. □

In conclusion we mention some useful consequence of the Divergence theorem. Let  $f$  be a function of class  $C(\overline{\Omega}) \cap C^1(\Omega)$ . Applying the Divergence theorem to the vector field  $\vec{F} = f e_k$  we obtain

$$(10) \quad \int_{\Omega} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_k}(x) dx = \int_{\partial\Omega} f(x)(e_k, \vec{n}(x)) dS$$

Let  $f = u \cdot v$ . Then, since

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x_k} v = \frac{\partial(uv)}{\partial x_k} - u \frac{\partial v}{\partial x_k},$$

formula (10) gives

$$(11) \quad \int_{\Omega} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_k}(x)v(x) dx = \int_{\partial\Omega} u(x)v(x)(e_k, \vec{n}(x)) dS - \int_{\Omega} u \frac{\partial v}{\partial x_k} dx$$

which is just the multidimensional *integration by parts* formula. Since  $(e_k, \vec{n}) = \cos \nu_k$ , where  $\nu_k$  is the angle between vectors  $e_k$  and  $\vec{n}$ , the integration by parts formula can be rewritten as

$$\int_{\Omega} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_k}(x)v(x) dx = \int_{\partial\Omega} u(x)v(x) \cos \nu_k dS - \int_{\Omega} u \frac{\partial v}{\partial x_k} dx$$

Recall that the Laplacian of a  $C^2$ -smooth function  $u(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  is the function  $\Delta u = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_j^2}(x)$ .

Consider now two functions  $u$  and  $v$  of class  $C^2(\Omega) \cap C^1(\bar{\Omega})$  such that their Laplacians  $\Delta u$  and  $\Delta v$  are integrable in  $\Omega$ . Clearly,

$$\Delta u = \operatorname{div}(\nabla u).$$

Furthermore, for every boundary point  $x \in \partial\Omega$  the scalar product  $(\nabla u(x), \vec{n}(x))$  coincides with the directional derivative  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial \vec{n}}$ . On the other hand

$$v\Delta u = v \operatorname{div}(\nabla u) = \operatorname{div}(v\nabla u) - (\nabla u, \nabla v).$$

Integrating this identity over  $\Omega$  and applying the Divergence theorem we obtain *the first Green's formula*:

$$(12) \quad \int_{\Omega} v\Delta u dx = \int_{\partial\Omega} v \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} dS - \int_{\Omega} (\nabla u, \nabla v) dx$$

Similarly we have

$$\int_{\Omega} u\Delta v dx = \int_{\partial\Omega} u \frac{\partial v}{\partial n} dS - \int_{\Omega} (\nabla v, \nabla u) dx$$

Subtracting this last equality from (12) we obtain *the second Green's formula*

$$(13) \quad \int_{\Omega} (v\Delta u - u\Delta v) dx = \int_{\partial\Omega} \left( v \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} - u \frac{\partial v}{\partial n} \right) dS$$

**5.3. Change of variables in the integral.** We systematically use the *theorem on a change of variables in an integral*.

**Theorem 5.2.** Let  $\Phi : \bar{\Omega}' \rightarrow \bar{\Omega}$  be a  $C^1$ -diffeomorphism between two domains in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with  $C^1$ -smooth boundary, and let  $f \in L^1(\Omega)$ . Then

$$\int_{\Omega} f(x) dx = \int_{\Omega'} f \circ \Phi(y) |J_{\Phi}(y)| dy$$

where  $J_{\Phi}$  denotes the determinant of the differential (Jacobian matrix) of the map  $\Phi$ .

*Proof.* We will give the proof for  $n = 3$ . Assume that the coordinates in  $\Omega$  are  $(x, y, z)$  and  $(u, v, w)$  in  $\Omega'$ . Suppose  $\partial\Omega$  is parametrized by a function

$$\phi(s, t) \rightarrow (x(s, t), y(s, t), z(s, t)), \quad (s, t) \in D \subset \mathbb{R}^2.$$

Then after substituting  $\phi$  into  $\Phi$ , the hypersurface  $\partial\Omega'$  is given by some function

$$(s, t) \rightarrow (u(s, t), v(s, t), w(s, t)).$$

Define the function

$$F(x, y, z) = \int_0^z f(x, y, \xi) d\xi.$$

Then  $\frac{\partial F}{\partial z} = f$  in  $\Omega$ . We will use the notation  $\frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(s, t)}$  to denote the determinant of the Jacobian matrix obtained by taking partial derivatives of the functions  $x(s, t)$  and  $y(s, t)$  with respect to variables  $(s, t)$ . Similar notation will be used for any other collection of functions and variables. Set

$$\vec{N} = (N_1, N_2, N_3) = \left( \frac{\partial(y, z)}{\partial(s, t)}, \frac{\partial(z, x)}{\partial(s, t)}, \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(s, t)} \right).$$

and

$$\vec{N}' = (N'_1, N'_2, N'_3) = \left( \frac{\partial(v, w)}{\partial(s, t)}, \frac{\partial(w, u)}{\partial(s, t)}, \frac{\partial(u, v)}{\partial(s, t)} \right).$$

We claim that

$$(14) \quad N_3 = \frac{\partial(\Phi_1, \Phi_2)}{\partial(v, w)} N'_1 + \frac{\partial(\Phi_1, \Phi_2)}{\partial(w, u)} N'_2 + \frac{\partial(\Phi_1, \Phi_2)}{\partial(u, v)} N'_3.$$

This can be verified by writing

$$x = \Phi_1(u(s, t), v(s, t), w(s, t)), \quad y = \Phi_2(u(s, t), v(s, t), w(s, t)),$$

differentiating these equations with respect to  $s$  and  $t$  and then substituting into  $N_3 = x_s y_t - x_t y_s$ . The vectors  $\vec{N}$  and  $\vec{N}'$  are normal to  $\partial\Omega$  and  $\partial\Omega'$  respectively, say,  $N$  is the outward-pointing normal to  $\partial\Omega$ , and  $\vec{N}'$  is the inward-point normal to  $\partial\Omega'$ . Then

$$(15) \quad \vec{n} = \vec{N}/|\vec{N}| \quad \text{and} \quad \vec{n}' = -\vec{N}'/|\vec{N}'|$$

are the corresponding unit normal vectors. By the Divergence theorem,

$$\int_{\Omega} f \, dx \, dy \, dz = \int_{\Omega} \frac{\partial F}{\partial z} \, dx \, dy \, dz = \int_{\partial\Omega} F \cos(e_3, \vec{n}) \, dS = \int_D F N_3 \, ds \, dt.$$

Substitution of  $N_3$  from (14) gives

$$\int_{\Omega} f \, dx \, dy \, dz = \int_D F \left( \frac{\partial(\Phi_1, \Phi_2)}{\partial(v, w)} N'_1 + \frac{\partial(\Phi_1, \Phi_2)}{\partial(w, u)} N'_2 + \frac{\partial(\Phi_1, \Phi_2)}{\partial(u, v)} N'_3 \right) \, ds \, dt.$$

Since the surface measure on  $\partial\Omega'$  is given by  $dS' = |\vec{N}'| \, ds \, dt$  and since

$$(N'_1, N'_2, N'_3) = \left( -|\vec{N}'| \cos(e_1, \vec{n}'), -|\vec{N}'| \cos(e_2, \vec{n}'), -|\vec{N}'| \cos(e_3, \vec{n}') \right),$$

we get

$$\int_{\Omega} f \, dx \, dy \, dz = - \int_{\partial\Omega'} F \left( \frac{\partial(\Phi_1, \Phi_2)}{\partial(v, w)} \cos(e_1, \vec{n}') + \frac{\partial(\Phi_1, \Phi_2)}{\partial(w, u)} \cos(e_2, \vec{n}') + \frac{\partial(\Phi_1, \Phi_2)}{\partial(u, v)} \cos(e_3, \vec{n}') \right) \, dS'.$$

Evaluating the last surface integral by the divergence theorem, and using the relation

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial u} \left[ F \frac{\partial(\Phi_1, \Phi_2)}{\partial(v, w)} \right] + \frac{\partial}{\partial v} \left[ F \frac{\partial(\Phi_1, \Phi_2)}{\partial(w, u)} \right] + \frac{\partial}{\partial w} \left[ F \frac{\partial(\Phi_1, \Phi_2)}{\partial(u, v)} \right] = f \frac{\partial(\Phi_1, \Phi_2, \Phi_3)}{\partial(u, v, w)} = f J_{\Phi},$$

we finally obtain

$$\int_{\Omega} f \, dx \, dy \, dz = - \int_{\Omega'} f J_{\Phi} \, du \, dv \, dw.$$

Since the Jacobian does not vanish in  $\Omega'$ , it is either positive or negative. Taking  $f \equiv 1$  we see that it is negative for our choice of the sign in the normal vectors in (15). Therefore,  $-J_{\Phi} = |J_{\Phi}|$ . The proof for other choices of sign in (15) is similar.  $\square$

**Example 5.4.** Consider again the spherical coordinates in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi &: (r, \theta_1, \dots, \theta_{n-1}) \mapsto (x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ \Phi &: (0, +\infty) \times (0, \pi) \times \dots \times (0, \pi) \times (0, 2\pi) \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= r \cos \theta_1, \\ x_2 &= r \sin \theta_1 \cos \theta_2, \\ &\dots\dots\dots \\ x_{n-1} &= r \sin \theta_1 \sin \theta_2 \dots \sin \theta_{n-2} \cos \theta_{n-1}, \\ x_n &= r \sin \theta_1 \sin \theta_2 \dots \sin \theta_{n-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Then for a domain  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$\int_D f(x) \, dx = \int_{\Phi^{-1}(D)} f \circ \Phi(r, \theta) r^{n-1} (\sin \theta_1)^{n-2} \dots \sin \theta_{n-2} \, dr \, d\theta_1 \dots d\theta_{n-1}.$$

If  $\Gamma = RS^{n-1} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : |x| = R\}$  is the sphere centred at the origin of radius  $R$ , then from (2) we have

$$\int_{RS^{n-1}} f(x) \, dS = R^{n-1} \int_{D'} f \circ \Phi(R, \theta) (\sin \theta_1)^{n-2} \dots \sin \theta_{n-2} \, d\theta_1 \dots d\theta_{n-1}$$

with  $D' = \times(0, \pi) \times \dots \times (0, \pi) \times (0, 2\pi)$ . Suppose that  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$ . Then rewriting the above integral we obtain

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) \, dx = \int_0^\infty \left( \int_{rS^{n-1}} f(x) \, dS \right) r^{n-1} \, dr.$$

This can be interpreted as integration over a sphere of radius  $r$ , and then over all concentric spheres for  $0 < r < \infty$ .  $\diamond$

Let  $A \in O(n)$  be an orthogonal matrix :  $AA^t = Id$  and  $\mathcal{A}$  be the corresponding linear transformation of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , i.e.,  $\mathcal{A}(t) = At$ . It follows from the formula of the change of variables in the integral that

$$\int_{S^{n-1}} f(x) \, dS = \int_{S^{n-1}} f \circ \mathcal{A}(t) \, dS = \int_{S^{n-1}} f(At) \, dS$$

This property is often useful in computations of spherical integrals.