Sep. 17

## The Laplace/Poisson Equations: Explicit Formulas

In this lecture we study the properties of the Laplace equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\triangle u=0, \quad x \in \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^{d} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the Poisson equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\triangle u=f, \quad x \in \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^{d} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

with Dirichlet boundary conditions

$$
\begin{equation*}
u=g \quad x \in \partial \Omega \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

through explicit representations of solutions.
We call a function $u$ harmonic in a region $\Omega$ if $\triangle u=0$ in $\Omega$.

## 1. Fundamental solution.

Recall that to solve a linear constant-coefficient $\operatorname{PDE} P(D) u=f$ in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$, it suffices to find $\Phi \in \mathcal{D}^{\prime}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
P(D) \Phi=\delta \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now we try to find such $\Phi$ for $P(D)=\triangle=\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x_{1}^{2}}+\cdots+\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x_{d}^{2}}$.
We notice that the equation $\triangle \Phi=\delta$ is invariant with respect to rotations/reflections, in other words, if $\Phi(x)$ is a solution, then $\Phi(O x)$ is also a solution where $O$ is an orthogonal matrix. Therefore it is reasonable to suspect that the solution takes the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi(x)=V(r), \quad r=\left(x_{1}^{2}+\cdots+x_{n}^{2}\right)^{1 / 2} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Simple computation yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial r}{\partial x_{i}}=\frac{1}{2}\left(x_{1}^{2}+\cdots+x_{n}^{2}\right)^{-1 / 2} 2 x_{i}=\frac{x_{i}}{r} \quad x \neq 0 \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

which gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x_{i}}=V^{\prime}(r) \frac{x_{i}}{r} ; \quad \frac{\partial^{2} \Phi}{\partial x_{i}^{2}}=V^{\prime \prime}(r) \frac{x_{i}^{2}}{r^{2}}+V^{\prime}(r)\left(\frac{1}{r}-\frac{x_{i}^{2}}{r^{3}}\right) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Summing up we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\triangle \Phi=V^{\prime \prime}(r)+\frac{n-1}{r} V^{\prime}(r) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

when $r>0$.
Since $\triangle \Phi=\delta$, from general theory of distributional solutions of elliptic PDEs we know that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{sing} \operatorname{supp} G \subset \operatorname{sing} \operatorname{supp} \delta=\{0\} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore $\Phi$ is $C^{\infty}$ in $\mathbb{R}^{n} \backslash\{0\}$, which means $\triangle \Phi=0$ holds in the classical sense for $x \neq 0$.
Thus it is reasonable to solve

$$
\begin{equation*}
\triangle \Phi=0 \quad x \neq 0 \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

first to narrow down the candidates. When $\Phi$ depends only on $r=|x|$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
V^{\prime \prime}(r)+\frac{n-1}{r} V^{\prime}(r)=0 \quad r>0 \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

This gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
\log \left(V^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}=\frac{1-n}{r} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad V^{\prime}(r)=\frac{a}{r^{n-1}} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some constant $a$. Integrating we obtain

$$
V(r)= \begin{cases}b \ln r+c & n=2  \tag{13}\\ \frac{b}{r^{n-2}}+c & n \geqslant 3\end{cases}
$$

for constants $b$ and $c$.
In particular, we can take special $b$ and $c$ to obtain

Definition 1. The distribution

$$
\Phi(x) \equiv \begin{cases}\frac{1}{2 \pi} \ln |x| & n=2  \tag{14}\\ \frac{1}{(2-n) n \alpha(n)} \frac{1}{|x|^{n-2}} & n=3\end{cases}
$$

where $\alpha(n)$ is the volume of the n-dimensional unit ball (or equivalently, $n \alpha(n)$ is the area of the $n-1$ dimensional unit sphere), is called the fundamental solution of the Laplace's equation.

One can verify that $\triangle \Phi=\delta$ holds in the sense of distributions. According to the definition of distributional derivatives,

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\triangle \Phi)(\phi) \equiv(-1)^{2} \Phi(\triangle \phi)=\Phi(\triangle \phi)=\int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} \Phi \triangle \phi \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the last equality comes from the fact that $\Phi$ is locally integrable, we only need to show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} \Phi \triangle \phi=\phi(0) \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

for any $\phi \in C_{0}^{\infty}$. To show this, we need to first establish the so-called Green's formula:
Lemma 2. Let $u, v$ be $C^{2}$ in $\Omega$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{\Omega} u \Delta v-v \Delta u \mathrm{~d} x=\int_{\partial \Omega} u \frac{\partial v}{\partial n}-v \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} \mathrm{~d} S \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $n$ is the outward unit normal vector of $\partial \Omega$.
Proof. Recall the Gauss theorem:

Now we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{\Omega} \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{f} \mathrm{d} x=\int_{\partial \Omega} \boldsymbol{f} \cdot \boldsymbol{n} \mathrm{d} S \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{align*}
\int u \Delta v-v \Delta u \mathrm{~d} x & =\int[\nabla \cdot(u \nabla v)-\nabla u \cdot \nabla v]-[\nabla \cdot(v \nabla u)-\nabla v \cdot \nabla u] \mathrm{d} x \\
& =\int \nabla \cdot(u \nabla v-v \nabla u) \mathrm{d} x \\
& =\int_{\partial \Omega} u(\boldsymbol{n} \cdot \nabla v)-v(\boldsymbol{n} \cdot \nabla u) \mathrm{d} S \\
& =\int_{\partial \Omega} u \frac{\partial v}{\partial n}-v \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} \mathrm{~d} S \tag{19}
\end{align*}
$$

Now we show that $\triangle \Phi=\delta$ for $n=2$, and leave the $n \geqslant 3$ case as an exercise.
Take any $\phi \in C_{0}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{R}^{2}\right)$, there is $R>0$ such that supp $\phi \subset B_{R}$ where $B_{R}$ denotes the open ball centered at the origin and with radius $R$. Now take $\varepsilon>0$ small. We set $\Omega=B_{R} \backslash B_{\varepsilon}$ and apply the Green's formula to $u=\Phi$ and $v=\phi$. Keep in mind that $\partial \Omega$ has two parts.

Since $\triangle \Phi=0$ in $\Omega$, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
\int_{\mathbb{R}^{2}} \Phi \triangle \phi & =\lim _{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \int_{B_{R} \backslash B_{\varepsilon}} \Phi \triangle \phi-\phi \Delta \Phi \\
& =\lim _{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \int_{\partial B_{R}} \Phi \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial n_{\text {out }}}-\phi \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial n_{\text {out }}}+\lim _{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \int_{\partial B_{\varepsilon}} \Phi \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial n_{\mathrm{in}}}-\phi \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial n_{\mathrm{in}}} \\
& \equiv A+B+C+D \tag{20}
\end{align*}
$$

Here $n_{\text {out }}=\frac{x}{R}$ for $x \in \partial B_{R}$ while $n_{\text {in }}(x)=-\frac{x}{\varepsilon}$ for $x \in \partial B_{\varepsilon}$.
Checking term by term, we have

- $A=0$ since $\operatorname{supp} \phi \subset B_{R}$ which means $\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial n_{\text {out }}}=0$.
- $B=0$ for the same reason.
- For $C$, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
\left|\int_{\partial B_{\varepsilon}} \Phi \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial n_{\mathrm{in}}}\right| & \leqslant \int_{\partial B_{\varepsilon}}|\log \varepsilon| \sup _{x \in \partial B_{\varepsilon}}|\nabla \phi|  \tag{21}\\
& \leqslant C \varepsilon|\log \varepsilon|
\end{align*}
$$

therefore $C=0$.

- Finally, for $D$, we have for $x \in \partial B_{\varepsilon}$,

Thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial n_{\mathrm{in}}}=-\frac{x}{\varepsilon} \cdot \nabla \Phi=-\left.\frac{x}{\varepsilon} \cdot\left(\frac{1}{2 \pi}\right)\left[\frac{1}{r} \frac{x}{r}\right]\right|_{r=|x|=\varepsilon}=-\frac{1}{2 \pi \varepsilon} \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
D=\lim -\int \phi \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial n_{\mathrm{in}}}=\lim \frac{1}{2 \pi \varepsilon} \int_{\partial B_{\varepsilon}} \phi=\phi(0) \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

In summary, $u=\Phi * f$ solves the Poisson equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\triangle u=f \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

in the sense of distributions for any $f \in \mathcal{E}^{\prime}\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}\right)$.

## 2. The Green's function for the Laplace equation.

In practice, we are more interested in solving the Poisson equation on a domain with boundary instead of the full space.

We explicitly define

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Gamma(a, x)=\Phi(x-a) \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\Phi$ is the fundamental solution, to make the presentation clearer.
The Dirichlet problem takes the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\triangle u=f \quad \text { in } \Omega, \quad u=g \quad \text { on } \partial \Omega \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

In this case, we have
Theorem 3. Suppose $\Omega$ is a bounded domain in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, and that $u \in C^{1}(\bar{\Omega}) \cap C^{2}(\Omega)$. Then for any $a \in \Omega$ there holds

$$
\begin{equation*}
u(a)=\int_{\Omega} \Gamma(a, x) \triangle u(x) \mathrm{d} x-\int_{\partial \Omega}\left(\Gamma(a, x) \frac{\partial u}{\partial n_{x}}(x)-u(x) \frac{\partial \Gamma}{\partial n_{x}}(a, x)\right) \mathrm{d} S_{x} \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

The proof uses the Green's formula and can be found in F. Lin and Q. Han Elliptic Partial Differential Equations. One further notices that for any $\Psi(a, x)$ satisfying $\triangle_{x} \Psi=0$ (here $\triangle_{x}$ denotes the Laplacian with respect to the variable $x$ ), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
u(a)=\int_{\Omega} \tilde{\Gamma}(a, x) \triangle u(x) \mathrm{d} x-\int_{\partial \Omega}\left(\tilde{\Gamma}(a, x) \frac{\partial u}{\partial n_{x}}(x)-u(x) \frac{\partial \tilde{\Gamma}}{\partial n_{x}}(a, x)\right) \mathrm{d} S_{x} \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tilde{\Gamma}(a, x)=\Gamma(a, x)+\Psi(a, x) \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using the equation and boundary conditions, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
u(a)=\int_{\Omega} \tilde{\Gamma}(a, x) f(x) \mathrm{d} x+\int_{\partial \Omega} g(x) \frac{\partial \tilde{\Gamma}}{\partial n_{x}}(a, x) \mathrm{d} S-\int_{\partial \Omega} \tilde{\Gamma}(a, x) \frac{\partial u}{\partial n_{x}}(x) \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

To be able to find $u(a)$, all we need to do is to find a function $G(a, x)$ such that

1. $G(a, x)=\Gamma(a, x)+\Psi(a, x)$ where $\Psi$ is harmonic w.r.t. $x$,
2. $G(a, x)=0$ for $x \in \partial \Omega$.

For such $G$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
u(a)=\int_{\Omega} G(a, x) f(x) \mathrm{d} x+\int_{\partial \Omega} g(x) \frac{\partial G}{\partial n_{x}}(a, x) \mathrm{d} S \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

where both terms on the RHS are known (of course only when we can construct this $G!$ ).
The conditions on $G$ implies that $\Psi$ solves

$$
\begin{equation*}
\triangle \Psi=0 \quad \text { in } \Omega, \quad \Psi(a, x)=-\Gamma(a, x) \quad \text { on } \partial \Omega \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

This can be done by cleverly transforming and combining $\Gamma$ 's when the domain has simple geometry. However when for general domains obviously the problem is as hard as the original Dirichlet problem for $u$.

Example 4. (Green's function for the ball $B_{R}$ ) For each $a \in B_{R}$, we need to find $\Psi(a, x)$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\triangle_{x} \Psi(a, x)=0 \quad \text { in } B_{R} ; \quad \Psi(a, x)=-\Gamma(a, x) \quad \text { on } \partial B_{R} . \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

For simplicity of presentation, we abuse notation and write $\Gamma(a, x)$ as $\Gamma(|x-a|)$.
The idea is to find a point $b=b(a) \notin B_{R}$ and a constant $c$, then set $\Psi(a, x)=-\Gamma(c|x-b(a)|)$. Note that for any $b \notin B_{R},-\Gamma(c|x-b|)$ is harmonic in $B_{R}$. Thus all we need to do is finding appropriate $c$ and $b$ so that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Gamma(|x-a|)=\Gamma(c|x-b|) \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

From the explicit formula of $\Gamma$ we see that this can hold if and only if $|x-a|=c|x-b|$ for all $x \in \partial B_{R}$. Let $a=\left(\begin{array}{c}a_{1} \\ \vdots \\ a_{n}\end{array}\right), b=\left(\begin{array}{c}b_{1} \\ \vdots \\ b_{n}\end{array}\right)$. Then $|x-a|=c|x-b|$ becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(x_{1}-a_{1}\right)^{2}+\cdots+\left(x_{n}-a_{n}\right)^{2}=c^{2}\left[\left(x_{1}-b_{1}\right)^{2}+\cdots+\left(x_{n}-b_{n}\right)^{2}\right] \tag{35}
\end{equation*}
$$

Simplifying, we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(1-c^{2}\right)\left[x_{1}^{2}+\cdots+x_{n}^{2}\right]=2\left[\left(a_{1}-c^{2} b_{1}\right) x_{1}+\cdots+\left(a_{n}-c^{2} b_{n}\right) x_{n}\right]+c^{2} \sum b_{i}^{2}-\sum a_{i}^{2} . \tag{36}
\end{equation*}
$$

For this to hold for all $x \in \partial B_{R}$, we need

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(1-c^{2}\right) R^{2}=2\left[\left(a_{1}-c^{2} b_{1}\right) x_{1}+\cdots+\left(a_{n}-c^{2} b_{n}\right) x_{n}\right]+c^{2} \sum b_{i}^{2}-\sum a_{i}^{2} \tag{37}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $x \in B_{R}$. As a consequence we have

$$
\begin{align*}
a_{i} & =c^{2} b_{i} \quad i=1, \ldots, n  \tag{38}\\
\left(1-c^{2}\right) R^{2} & =c^{2} \sum b_{i}^{2}-\sum a_{i}^{2} \tag{39}
\end{align*}
$$

whose solutions are

$$
\begin{align*}
c^{2} & =\frac{\sum a_{i}^{2}}{R^{2}}=\frac{|a|^{2}}{R^{2}}  \tag{40}\\
b & =a / c^{2}=\frac{R^{2}}{|a|^{2}} a \tag{41}
\end{align*}
$$

Thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Psi(a, x)=-\Gamma\left(\frac{|a|}{R}\left|x-\frac{R^{2}}{|a|^{2}} a\right|\right) \tag{42}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
G(a, x)=\Gamma(|x-a|)-\Gamma\left(\frac{|a|}{R}\left|x-\frac{R^{2}}{|a|^{2}} a\right|\right) \tag{43}
\end{equation*}
$$

Remark 5. One easily checks that $G(a, x)=G(x, a)$ for the Green's function on $B_{R}$, by writing

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{|a|}{R}\left|x-\frac{R^{2}}{|a|^{2}} a\right|=\left|\frac{|a|}{R} x-\frac{R}{|a|} a\right|=\left(\frac{|a|^{2}|x|^{2}}{R^{2}}-2 a \cdot x+R^{2}\right)^{1 / 2} \tag{44}
\end{equation*}
$$

This turns out to remain true for other Green's functions. A formal argument to convince oneself about this is the following.

Let $a \in \Omega$ be arbitrary. We would like to show $G(a, x)=G(x, a)$ for all $x \in \Omega$. Writing $G_{1}(x) \equiv G(a, x)$, the goal becomes to show that $G_{1}(x)=G(x, a)$.

Now $G_{1}(x)$ solves

$$
\begin{equation*}
\triangle G_{1}=\delta_{a}, \quad G_{1}=0 \quad \text { on } \partial \Omega \tag{45}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus formally we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
G_{1}(x)=\int_{\Omega} G(x, y) \delta_{a}(y)=G(x, a) \tag{46}
\end{equation*}
$$

Obviously the above argument has several "holes". For example $G(x, y) \notin C(\Omega)$ so the action of $\delta_{a}(y)$ on it is not defined. However one can make it rigorous by computing

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{\Omega \backslash B_{\varepsilon}\left(x_{1}\right) \cup B_{\varepsilon}\left(x_{2}\right)}\left(G_{1} \triangle G_{2}-G_{2} \triangle G_{1}\right) \mathrm{d} x \tag{47}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $G_{1}(x)=G\left(x_{1}, x\right)$ and $G_{2}(x)=G\left(x, x_{2}\right)$, and then let $\varepsilon \searrow 0$. See L. C. Evans Partial Differential Equations for details.
3. Harmonic functions.

A function $u \in C^{2}(\Omega)$ is said to be harmonic if $\Delta u=0$. Let $g$ be its boundary value, we see that

$$
\begin{equation*}
u(a)=\int_{\partial \Omega} g(x) \frac{\partial G}{\partial n_{x}}(a, x) \mathrm{d} S_{x} . \tag{48}
\end{equation*}
$$

In particular, when $\Omega=B_{R}$, we have the Poisson representation formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
u(a)=\frac{R^{2}-|a|^{2}}{n \alpha(n) R} \int_{\partial B_{R}} \frac{g(x)}{|a-x|^{n}} \mathrm{~d} S_{x} \tag{49}
\end{equation*}
$$

## 4. Well-posedness.

Given the Dirichlet problem

$$
\begin{equation*}
\triangle u=f, \quad u=g \quad \text { on } \partial \Omega \tag{50}
\end{equation*}
$$

as soon as we have the Green's function, we can write

$$
\begin{equation*}
u(a)=\int_{\Omega} G(a, x) f(x) \mathrm{d} x+\int_{\partial \Omega} g(x) \frac{\partial G}{\partial n_{x}}(a, x) \mathrm{d} S_{x} \tag{51}
\end{equation*}
$$

There are several issues need to be settled (they will be settled in the following few weeks).

- Existence.

The formula itself does not give us existence of the solution per se. We need to show that $\triangle u=$ $f$ indeed holds and $u$ takes $g$ as its boundary value. In light of the next section, we can set $v=u-$ $\int \Gamma(x-y) f(y)$ which satisfies the Laplace equation $\Delta v=0$ with some boundary conditions. Thus the question becomes whether we can show the existence of solutions to the Laplace equation.

When $\Omega=B_{R}$, it suffices to show that the Poisson integral representation indeed gives a solution to the Laplace equation.

For general $\Omega$, it is not possible to find a Green's function with explicit formula. It turns out somehow one can show the existence of solution to the Laplace equation $\triangle u=0$ through solving it iteratively on balls inside the domain. This is the Perron's method.

- Uniqueness.

It can be easily seen that if $u_{1}, u_{2}$ solves the same Poisson's equation, their difference $u_{1}-u_{2}$ satisfies the Laplace equation with zero boundary condition. Thus we only need to show that the zero function is the only solution in this situation. This is a consequence of the maximum principle.

- Regularity.

In the following section we prove a trivial regularity result. In the next lecture we will prove much more refined regularity versions.

## 5. Regularity - a glimpse.

Let $\Phi(x)$ be the fundamental solution of the Laplacian. Assuming $f \in C_{c}^{2}\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}\right)$ (twice continuously differentiable with compact support), then we have $u=\int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} \Phi(x-y) f(y) \in C^{2}\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}\right)$.

First write

$$
\begin{equation*}
u=\int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} \Phi(x-y) f(y)=\int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} \Phi(y) f(x-y) . \tag{52}
\end{equation*}
$$

Recall that $\Phi$ is locally integrable, thus by assumption both $\Phi(y) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}} f(x-y)$ and $\Phi(y) \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x_{i} \partial x_{j}} f(x-y)$ are integrable. As a consequence one has

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial u}{\partial x_{i}}=\int \Phi(y) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}} f(x-y) \quad \text { and } \quad \frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial x_{i} \partial x_{j}}=\Phi(y) \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x_{i} \partial x_{j}} f(x-y) \tag{53}
\end{equation*}
$$

following from properties of the Lebesgue integrals. ${ }^{1}$ Since both $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}} f(x-y)$ and $\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x_{i} \partial x_{j}} f(x-y)$ are uniformly continuous, $u \in C^{2}$.

The above result is obviously not satisfactory as no improvement on regularity is obtained, while intuitively, since $f$ is a linear combination of the double derivatives of $u$, one would expect the regularity of $u$ to be better than that of $f$. For example, it is natural to guess that $f \in C \Longrightarrow u \in C^{2}$ (which is obviously true in the one dimensional case). Unfortunately this particular conjecture is wrong, but $u$ turns out to be indeed twice more differentiable than $f$ if we use the "right" function spaces. We will discuss this issue more in the next lecture.

## Further readings.

- L. C. Evans, Partial Differential Equations, §2.2.
- D. Gilbarg, N. S. Trudinger, Elliptic Partial Differential Equations of Second Order, Chapter 2, Classics in Mathematics, Springer.
- Fanghua Lin, Qing Han, Elliptic Partial Differential Equations, §1.3, Courant Lecture Notes 1, AMS.


## Exercises.

Exercise 1. Prove that the fundamental solution for dimensional at least 3:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi(x)=\frac{1}{(2-n) n \alpha(n)} \frac{1}{|x|^{n-2}} \tag{55}
\end{equation*}
$$

solves the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\triangle \Phi=\delta \tag{56}
\end{equation*}
$$

in the sense of distributions. Remember that $n \alpha(n)$ is the area of the unit sphere in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. results.
Exercise 2. Construct the Green's function for the half-space $\left\{x_{n}>0\right\}$.

1. One can also prove directly using finite differences. For example, let $e_{i}$ be the unit vector in $x_{i}$ direction, that is $e_{i}=$ $(0, \ldots, 1, \ldots, 0)$ with the only 1 in the $i$-th position. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{u\left(x+\varepsilon e_{i}\right)-u(x)}{\varepsilon}=\int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} \Phi(y) \frac{f\left(x+\varepsilon e_{i}-y\right)-f(x-y)}{h} \mathrm{~d} y \tag{54}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $f \in C_{c}^{2}, \frac{f\left(x+\varepsilon e_{i}-y\right)-f(x-y)}{h} \rightarrow \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{i}}(x-y)$ uniformly because $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{i}}$ is uniformly continuous.

