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Harnack  
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# The Malmheden Theorem and the geometry of harmonic functions

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Swansea Summer School in Nonlinear PDEs, July 2024



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Let  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be open and  $u \in C^2(\Omega)$ .

For all  $x \in \Omega$ ,

$$\Delta u(x) := \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_j^2}(x).$$

We say that  $u$  is **harmonic** in  $\Omega$  if  $\Delta u(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in \Omega$ .



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# The Mean Value Theorem

## Theorem

Let  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be open and  $u \in L^1_{\text{loc}}(\Omega)$ . The following conditions are equivalent:

- (i). The function  $u$  belongs to  $C^2(\Omega)$  and  $\Delta u = 0$  in  $\Omega$ .
- (ii). For almost every  $x_0 \in \Omega$  and almost every  $r > 0$  such that  $B_r(x_0) \Subset \Omega$ , we have that

$$u(x_0) = \int_{\partial B_r(x_0)} u(x) d\mathcal{H}_x^{n-1}.$$

- (iii). For almost every  $x_0 \in \Omega$  and almost every  $r > 0$  such that  $B_r(x_0) \Subset \Omega$ , we have that

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# Proof of the Mean Value Theorem

If  $u$  satisfies either (ii) or (iii), it is actually  $C^\infty(\Omega)$ , since it coincides with its mollification  $u_\eta$ .

For instance, if (ii) holds,

$$u_\eta(x) := \int_{B_\eta} \tau_\eta(y) u(x-y) dy$$

by polar coordinates =  $\int_0^\eta \left[ \int_{\partial B_\rho} \tau_\eta(\rho e_1) u(x - \rho \omega) d\mathcal{H}_\omega^{n-1} \right] d\rho$

by (ii) =  $\int_0^\eta [\mathcal{H}^{n-1}(\partial B_\rho) \tau_\eta(\rho e_1) u(x)] d\rho$

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(The proof if (iii) can be done by reducing to (ii)).

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## Proof (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii)

Take  $x_0 := 0$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\partial_\rho \left( \int_{\partial B_\rho} u(x) d\mathcal{H}_x^{n-1} \right) &= \partial_\rho \left( \int_{\partial B_1} u(\rho\omega) d\mathcal{H}_\omega^{n-1} \right) \\ &= \int_{\partial B_1} \nabla u(\rho\omega) \cdot \omega d\mathcal{H}_\omega^{n-1} \\ &= \frac{1}{\mathcal{H}^{n-1}(\partial B_1)} \int_{\partial B_\rho} \nabla u(x) \cdot \nu(x) d\mathcal{H}_x^{n-1} \\ &\stackrel{\text{by Divergence Theorem}}{=} \frac{1}{\mathcal{H}^{n-1}(\partial B_1)} \int_{B_\rho} \Delta u(x) dx \\ &= 0.\end{aligned}$$

Hence, since we know already that  $u$  is continuous (actually, smooth),

$$\int_{\partial B_r} u(x) d\mathcal{H}_x^{n-1} = \lim_{\rho \searrow 0} \int_{\partial B_\rho} u(x) d\mathcal{H}_x^{n-1} = u(0).$$

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## Proof (ii) $\Rightarrow$ (iii)

Use polar coordinates:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{B_r} u(x) dx &= \frac{1}{|B_r|} \int_0^r \left[ \int_{\partial B_\rho} u(x) d\mathcal{H}_x^{n-1} \right] d\rho \\ &= \frac{1}{|B_r|} \int_0^r [\mathcal{H}^{n-1}(\partial B_\rho) u(0)] d\rho = \frac{\mathcal{H}^{n-1}(\partial B_1) u(0)}{|B_1| r^n} \int_0^r \rho^{n-1} d\rho \\ &= \frac{\mathcal{H}^{n-1}(\partial B_1) u(0) r^n}{|B_1| r^n n} = u(0). \end{aligned}$$

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## Proof (iii) $\Rightarrow$ (i)

Use that  $u$  is smooth, a Taylor expansion and odd cancellations:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \lim_{r \searrow 0} \frac{1}{r^2} \int_{B_r} (u(x) - u(0)) \, dx \\ &= \lim_{r \searrow 0} \frac{1}{|B_r| r^2} \int_{B_r} \left( \nabla u(0) \cdot x + \frac{1}{2} D^2 u(0) x \cdot x + O(|x|^3) \right) \, dx \\ &= \lim_{r \searrow 0} \frac{1}{2 |B_1| r^{n+2}} \int_{B_r} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \partial_i^2 u(0) \right) x_i^2 \, dx + O(r) \\ &= \text{const } \Delta u(0). \end{aligned}$$

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**Question:** Does the mean value formula characterize the domain? If every harmonic function in  $\Omega$  satisfies the mean value formula, then is it  $\Omega$  necessarily a ball?

Epstein (1962), Epstein and Schiffer (1965), Goldstein and Wellington (1971), Kuran (1972).



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*Let  $\Omega$  be an open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  containing the origin and with the property that*

$$u(0) = \int_{\Omega} u(x) dx$$

*for all functions  $u$  that are harmonic in  $\Omega$ .*

*Then,  $\Omega$  is a ball.*



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# Proof of Kuran Theorem

Up to a dilation, we suppose  $B_1 \subset \Omega$  and there exists  $y \in (\partial B_1) \cap (\partial \Omega)$ .  
Let us consider the “Poisson Kernel”

$$h(x) := \frac{|x|^2 - 1}{|x - y|^n} + 1.$$

By inspection,  $h$  is harmonic in  $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{y\}$ ,  $h(0) = 0$  and  $h \geq 1$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus B_1$ .  
Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} 0 = h(0) &= \int_{\Omega} h(x) dx = \frac{1}{|\Omega|} \left( \int_{B_1} h(x) dx + \int_{\Omega \setminus B_1} h(x) dx \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{|\Omega|} \left( |B_1| h(0) + \int_{\Omega \setminus B_1} h(x) dx \right) = \frac{1}{|\Omega|} \int_{\Omega \setminus B_1} h(x) dx \\ &\geq \frac{|\Omega \setminus B_1|}{|B_1|}. \end{aligned}$$

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Up to a dilation, we suppose  $B_1 \subset \Omega$  and there exists  $y \in (\partial B_1) \cap (\partial \Omega)$ .  
Let us consider the “Poisson Kernel”

$$h(x) := \frac{|x|^2 - 1}{|x - y|^n} + 1.$$

By inspection,  $h$  is harmonic in  $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{y\}$ ,  $h(0) = 0$  and  $h \geq 1$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus B_1$ .  
Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} 0 = h(0) &= \int_{\Omega} h(x) dx = \frac{1}{|\Omega|} \left( \int_{B_1} h(x) dx + \int_{\Omega \setminus B_1} h(x) dx \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{|\Omega|} \left( |B_1| h(0) + \int_{\Omega \setminus B_1} h(x) dx \right) = \frac{1}{|\Omega|} \int_{\Omega \setminus B_1} h(x) dx \\ &\geq \frac{|\Omega \setminus B_1|}{|B_1|}. \end{aligned}$$

Mean Value  
Theorem

Converse  
Mean Value  
Theorem

Malmheden  
Theorem

Schwarz  
Theorem

Fractional  
Malmheden  
Theorem

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Theorem

Superposition  
Theorem

Fractional  
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Inequality



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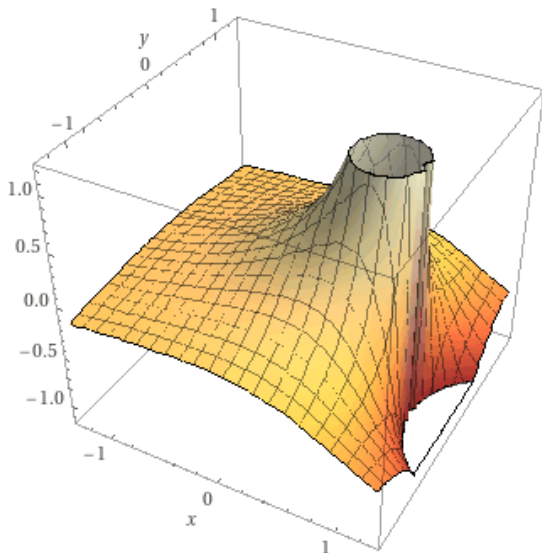
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Schwarz  
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Superposition  
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# Recall: the Poisson Kernel of the ball



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# Recall: the Poisson Kernel of the ball

## Theorem

*The solution of*

$$\begin{cases} \Delta u = 0 & \text{in } B_1, \\ u = f & \text{on } \partial B_1, \end{cases}$$

*has the form*

$$u(x) = \int_{\partial B_1} f(y) \frac{1 - |x|^2}{|x - y|^n} d\mathcal{H}_y^{n-1}.$$

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# Malmheden Theorem

A “geometric argument” to construct harmonic functions in a ball with given boundary datum.

$$\begin{cases} \Delta u = 0 & \text{in } B_1, \\ u = f & \text{on } \partial B_1. \end{cases}$$

- consider a point  $P$  in the ball,
- take an arbitrary chord passing through  $P$  and calculate the value at  $P$  of the linear function that interpolates the values of  $f$  at the endpoints of the chord,
- compute the average of these values over all possible chords through  $P$ .

This procedure produces the harmonic function in the ball with datum  $f$  on the boundary.

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Harnack  
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# Malmheden Theorem

Given  $P \in B_1$  and  $e \in \partial B_1$ , let  $Q_+^P(e)$  and  $Q_-^P(e)$  (or, for short,  $Q_+(e)$  and  $Q_-(e)$ ) be the intersection between the straight line of direction  $e$  passing through  $P$  and  $\partial B_1$ , that is

$$Q_+(e) = P + r_+(e) e$$

and 
$$Q_-(e) = P + r_-(e) e,$$

where 
$$r_{\pm}(e) := -P \cdot e \pm \sqrt{D(e)},$$

with 
$$D(e) := (P \cdot e)^2 - |P|^2 + 1.$$

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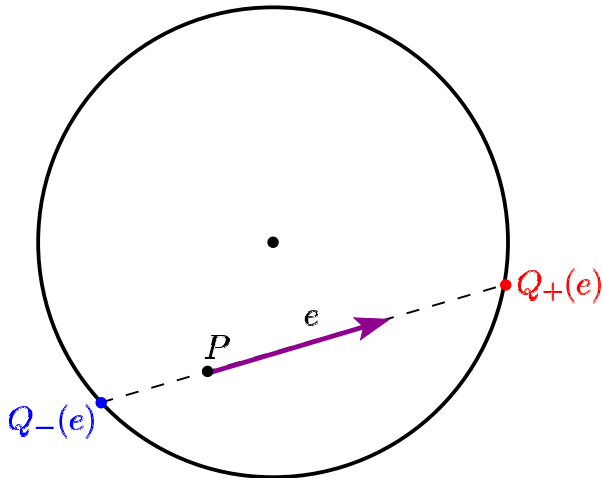
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# Malmheden Theorem



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# Malmheden Theorem

Let  $\ell_e$  be the affine function on  $P + e\mathbb{R}$  such that  $\ell_e(Q_-(e)) = f(Q_-(e))$  and  $\ell_e(Q_+(e)) = f(Q_+(e))$ .

$$\ell_e(P+se) = \frac{(f(Q_+(e)) - f(Q_-(e)))s + r_+(e)f(Q_-(e)) - r_-(e)f(Q_+(e)))}{r_+(e) - r_-(e)}.$$

Take the average over  $e$ :

$$u(P) := \int_{\partial B_1} \ell_e(P) d\mathcal{H}_e^{n-1}.$$

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## Theorem (Malmheden)

*This  $u$  is the solution of the Dirichlet problem in the ball:*

$$\begin{cases} \Delta u = 0 & \text{in } B_1, \\ u = f & \text{on } \partial B_1. \end{cases}$$



# Malmheden Theorem

Note that Malmheden Theorem contains the Mean Value Theorem as a special case, by taking  $P := 0$ : indeed, when  $P = 0$ ,

$$Q_+(e) = P + r_+(e)e,$$

$$Q_-(e) = P + r_-(e)e,$$

$$r_{\pm}(e) := -P \cdot e \pm \sqrt{D(e)}$$

and 
$$D(e) := (P \cdot e)^2 - |P|^2 + 1$$

become

$$D(e) = r_+(e) = -r_-(e) = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad Q_{\pm}(e) = \pm e.$$

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Therefore

$$\ell_e(0) = \frac{r_+(e)f(Q_-(e)) - r_-(e)f(Q_+(e))}{r_+(e) - r_-(e)} = \frac{f(e) + f(-e)}{2}.$$

Hence,

$$u(0) = \int_{\partial B_1} \frac{f(e) + f(-e)}{2} d\mathcal{H}_e^{n-1} = \int_{\partial B_1} f(e) d\mathcal{H}_e^{n-1},$$

which is the Mean Value Theorem.



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# Proof of Malmheden Theorem

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The proof relies on some useful “change of variable” formulas on the sphere:

For every continuous function  $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$(1) \int_{\partial B_1} g(\omega) d\mathcal{H}_\omega^{n-1} = \int_{\partial B_1} g(Q_\pm(\omega)) \frac{(\pm r_\pm(\omega))^n}{1 - |P|^2 - r_\pm(\omega)P \cdot \omega} d\mathcal{H}_\omega^{n-1}.$$



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# Proof of Malmheden Theorem

Also,

$$\begin{aligned} u(P) &= \int_{\partial B_1} \frac{r_+(e)f(Q_-(e)) - r_-(e)f(Q_+(e))}{r_+(e) - r_-(e)} d\mathcal{H}_e^{n-1} \\ (2) \quad &= \int_{\partial B_1} \frac{r_+(e)f(Q_-(e))}{r_+(e) - r_-(e)} d\mathcal{H}_e^{n-1} - \int_{\partial B_1} \frac{r_-(e)f(Q_+(e))}{r_+(e) - r_-(e)} d\mathcal{H}_e^{n-1} \\ &= 2 \int_{\partial B_1} \frac{r_+(e)f(Q_-(e))}{r_+(e) - r_-(e)} d\mathcal{H}_e^{n-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Besides, by a direct computation,

$$\frac{2r_+(e)}{r_+(e) - r_-(e)} = \frac{1 - |P|^2}{1 - |P|^2 - (P \cdot e)r_-(e)}$$

and  $|P - Q_-(e)| = -r_-(e)$ .

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# Proof of Malmheden Theorem

Thus, using (1), applied with  $g(e) := \frac{f(e)(1-|P|^2)}{|P-e|^n}$ , and (2),

$$\begin{aligned}u(P) &= \int_{\partial B_1} \frac{f(Q_-(e))(1-|P|^2)}{1-|P|^2-(P \cdot e)r_-(e)} d\mathcal{H}_e^{n-1} \\&= \int_{\partial B_1} \frac{f(Q_-(e))(1-|P|^2)}{|P-Q_-(e)|^n} \frac{(-r_-(e))^n}{1-|P|^2-(P \cdot e)r_-(e)} d\mathcal{H}_e^{n-1} \\&= \int_{\partial B_1} g(Q_-(e)) \frac{(-r_-(e))^n}{1-|P|^2-(P \cdot e)r_-(e)} d\mathcal{H}_e^{n-1} \\&= \int_{\partial B_1} g(e) d\mathcal{H}_e^{n-1} \\&= \int_{\partial B_1} \frac{f(e)(1-|P|^2)}{|P-e|^n} d\mathcal{H}_e^{n-1}.\end{aligned}$$

The integrand is precisely the Poisson Kernel of the ball, hence  $u$  is the solution of the Dirichlet problem.

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# Proof of Malmheden Theorem

It only remains to prove (1).

This relies on the following observations: First, for every  $\omega \in \partial B_1$  we have that

$$(3) \quad |\det DQ_{\pm}(\omega)| = \frac{(\pm r_{\pm}(\omega))^n}{1 - |P|^2 - r_{\pm}(\omega)P \cdot \omega}.$$

Also, there is a "spherical change of variable formula" for a diffeomorphism  $Q$  of  $B_R \setminus B_r$  such that  $Q(\partial B_{\rho}) = \partial B_{\rho}$  for each  $\rho \in [r, R]$ :

$$(4) \quad \int_{\partial B_1} g(\omega) d\mathcal{H}_{\omega}^{n-1} = \int_{\partial B_1} g(Q(\omega)) |\det DQ(\omega)| d\mathcal{H}_{\omega}^{n-1}.$$

Note that (1) follows directly from (3) and (4).

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Also, there is a "spherical change of variable formula" for a diffeomorphism  $Q$  of  $B_R \setminus B_r$  such that  $Q(\partial B_{\rho}) = \partial B_{\rho}$  for each  $\rho \in [r, R]$ :

$$(4) \quad \int_{\partial B_1} g(\omega) d\mathcal{H}_{\omega}^{n-1} = \int_{\partial B_1} g(Q(\omega)) |\det DQ(\omega)| d\mathcal{H}_{\omega}^{n-1}.$$

Note that (1) follows directly from (3) and (4).

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# Proof of Malmheden Theorem

It only remains to prove (1).

This relies on the following observations: First, for every  $\omega \in \partial B_1$  we have that

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# Proof of Malmheden Theorem

To prove (4): use the classical change of variable  $x := Q(y)$  to find

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{\partial B_1} g(\omega) d\mathcal{H}_\omega^{n-1} &= \frac{n}{R^n - r^n} \int_r^R \left[ \int_{\partial B_1} \rho^{n-1} g(\omega) d\mathcal{H}_\omega^{n-1} \right] d\rho \\ &= \frac{n}{R^n - r^n} \int_{B_R \setminus B_r} g\left(\frac{x}{|x|}\right) dx \\ &= \frac{n}{R^n - r^n} \int_{B_R \setminus B_r} g\left(\frac{Q(y)}{|Q(y)|}\right) |\det DQ(y)| dy \\ &= \frac{n}{R^n - r^n} \int_r^R \left[ \int_{\partial B_1} \rho^{n-1} g\left(\frac{Q(\rho\omega)}{|Q(\rho\omega)|}\right) |\det DQ(\rho\omega)| d\mathcal{H}_\omega^{n-1} \right] d\rho.\end{aligned}$$

Then, pick  $R := 1 + \varepsilon$  and  $r := 1$  and take the limit as  $\varepsilon \searrow 0$  to obtain (4).

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and  $D(\omega) := (P \cdot \omega)^2 - |P|^2 + 1.$

This is just careful linear algebra.

Up to a rotation, we can suppose that the points  $O$ ,  $P$  and  $P + \omega$  lie in the plane  $\{x_3 = \dots = x_n = 0\}$ . Also, up to a further rotation in this plane, we can suppose that  $\omega = e_1$ . Thus,

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Consequently,

$$\partial_1 Q_{\pm}(\omega) = (Q_{\pm,1}(e_1), Q_{\pm,2}(e_1), 0, \dots, 0).$$

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# Proof of Malmheden Theorem

Also,  $|\omega + \varepsilon e_j| = |e_1 + \varepsilon e_j| = 1 + o(\varepsilon)$ , therefore

$$\begin{aligned} & Q_{\pm}(\omega + \varepsilon e_j) \\ = & (1 + o(\varepsilon)) Q_{\pm} \left( \frac{\omega + \varepsilon e_j}{|\omega + \varepsilon e_j|} \right) \\ = & P + r_{\pm} \left( \frac{\omega + \varepsilon e_j}{|\omega + \varepsilon e_j|} \right) \frac{\omega + \varepsilon e_j}{|\omega + \varepsilon e_j|} + o(\varepsilon) \\ = & P + \left( -P \cdot \frac{\omega + \varepsilon e_j}{|\omega + \varepsilon e_j|} \pm \sqrt{\left( P \cdot \frac{\omega + \varepsilon e_j}{|\omega + \varepsilon e_j|} \right)^2 - |P|^2 + 1} \right) (\omega + \varepsilon e_j) + o(\varepsilon) \\ = & P + \left( -P \cdot (\omega + \varepsilon e_j) \pm \sqrt{(P \cdot (\omega + \varepsilon e_j))^2 - |P|^2 + 1} \right) (\omega + \varepsilon e_j) + o(\varepsilon) \\ = & P + \left( -P \cdot \omega - \varepsilon P \cdot e_j \pm \sqrt{(P \cdot \omega)^2 + 2\varepsilon(P \cdot \omega)(P \cdot e_j) - |P|^2 + 1} \right) (\omega + \varepsilon e_j) + o(\varepsilon) \\ = & P + \left( -P \cdot e_1 - \varepsilon P \cdot e_j \pm \sqrt{(P \cdot e_1)^2 - |P|^2 + 1} \pm \frac{\varepsilon(P \cdot e_1)(P \cdot e_j)}{\sqrt{(P \cdot e_1)^2 - |P|^2 + 1}} \right) (e_1 + \varepsilon e_j) \\ & + o(\varepsilon). \end{aligned}$$

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# Proof of Malmheden Theorem

Taking the first order in  $\varepsilon$ , we find that

$$\partial_j Q_{\pm}(\omega) = \alpha_j e_1 + r_{\pm}(e_1) e_j,$$

where

$$\alpha_j := \mp \frac{P \cdot e_j r_{\pm}(e_1)}{\sqrt{D(e_1)}}.$$

These observations lead to

$$DQ_{\pm}(\omega) = \begin{pmatrix} Q_{\pm,1}(e_1) & Q_{\pm,2}(e_1) & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \alpha_2 & r_{\pm}(e_1) & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \alpha_3 & 0 & r_{\pm}(e_1) & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \alpha_4 & 0 & 0 & r_{\pm}(e_1) & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \alpha_5 & 0 & 0 & 0 & r_{\pm}(e_1) & \dots & 0 \\ & & & & & \ddots & \\ \alpha_n & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & r_{\pm}(e_1) \end{pmatrix}$$

and therefore

$$(5) \quad |\det DQ_{\pm}(\omega)| = \left| r_{\pm}(e_1)^{n-2} \det \begin{pmatrix} Q_{\pm,1}(e_1) & Q_{\pm,2}(e_1) \\ \alpha_2 & r_{\pm}(e_1) \end{pmatrix} \right|.$$

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# Proof of Malmheden Theorem

We also note that

$$\begin{aligned}Q_{\pm}(e_1) &= (P \cdot e_1, P \cdot e_2, 0, \dots, 0) + \left(-P \cdot e_1 \pm \sqrt{(P \cdot e_1)^2 - |P|^2 + 1}\right) e_1 \\&= \left(\pm \sqrt{(P \cdot e_1)^2 - |P|^2 + 1}, P \cdot e_2, 0, \dots, 0\right) \\&= \left(\pm \sqrt{D(e_1)}, P \cdot e_2, 0, \dots, 0\right)\end{aligned}$$

and consequently

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} Q_{\pm,1}(e_1) & Q_{\pm,2}(e_1) \\ \alpha_2 & r_{\pm}(e_1) \end{pmatrix} = \frac{(r_{\pm}(e_1))^2}{(r_{\pm}(e_1))^2 + P \cdot e_1 r_{\pm}(e_1)}.$$

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Thus, retaking (5),

$$|\det DQ_{\pm}(\omega)| = \left| \frac{(r_{\pm}(e_1))^n}{1 - |P|^2 - (P \cdot e_1) r_{\pm}(e_1)} \right|$$

Checking the positivity of the latter term, we obtain (3). ◀ ◻ ▶ ◀ ◻ ▶ ◀ ≡ ▶ ◀ ≡ ▶ ≡ ↻ 🔍 ↺ 29/114

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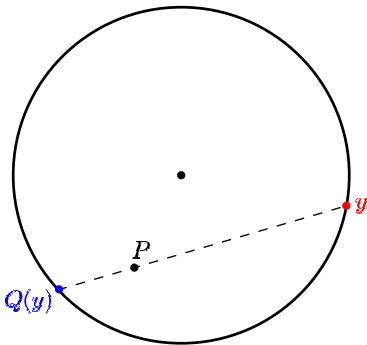
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# The two-dimensional case

A particular case of Malmheden Theorem is when  $n = 2$ .



For this, for every  $y \in \partial B_1 \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ , let  $Q^P(y)$ , or for short  $Q(y)$ , be defined by

$$Q(y) := y - \frac{2(P - y) \cdot y}{|P - y|^2} (P - y).$$

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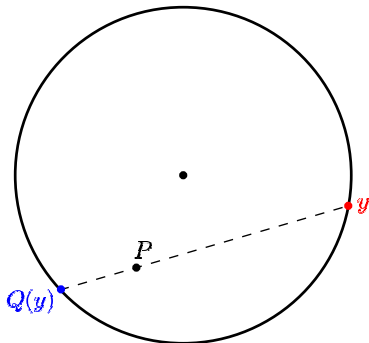
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# The two-dimensional case

## Theorem (Schwarz)

Let  $n = 2$  and

$$u(P) := \int_{\partial B_1} f(Q(\omega)) d\mathcal{H}_\omega^1.$$

*This  $u$  is the solution of the Dirichlet problem in the ball:*

$$\begin{cases} \Delta u = 0 & \text{in } B_1, \\ u = f & \text{on } \partial B_1. \end{cases}$$

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Theorem

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Inequality



# The two-dimensional case

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Theorem

Converse  
Mean Value  
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Malmheden  
Theorem

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Harnack  
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A beautiful application of Schwarz Theorem is the determination of the temperature of a plate in which the boundary temperature is kept to 1 along an arc of circumference and to 0 along the rest of the boundary.

That is, if the temperature is 1 along an arc  $\Sigma$  and 0 on the rest of the circumference, can you tell me the temperature at a point  $P$  of the disk only using elementary geometry?



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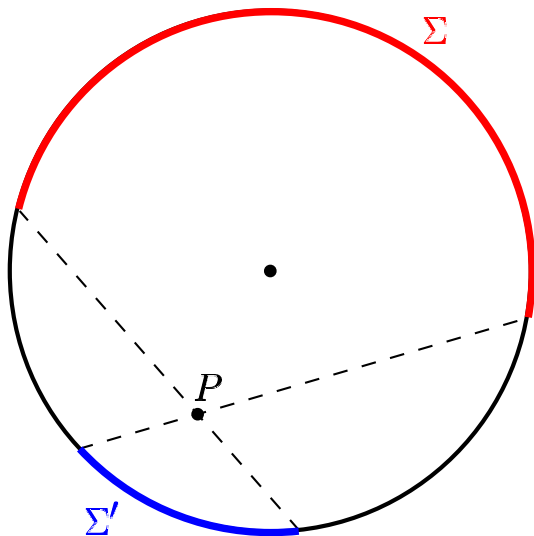
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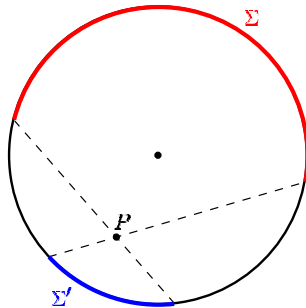
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# The two-dimensional case



**Answer:** one projects the arc  $\Sigma$  through the focal point  $P$  obtaining a “conjugated arc”  $\Sigma'$ . Then, the temperature at  $P$  is exactly equal to the length of  $\Sigma'$  divided by  $2\pi$ . Indeed this is the content of Schwarz Theorem when  $f := \chi_{\Sigma}$ .

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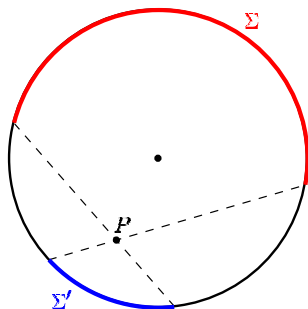
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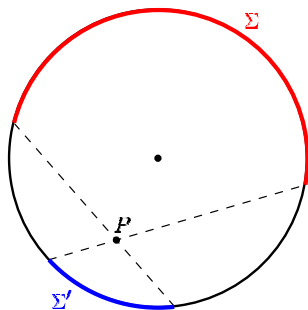
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We stress that **Schwarz Theorem only holds in the plane.**

Indeed, if  $n \geq 3$ , let  $\Sigma := \partial B_1 \cap \{x_n < 0\}$  be the lower halfsphere and  $f := \chi_\Sigma$ .

If Schwarz Theorem held true we would have that the function  $u(P)$  given by the surface area of the spherical cap obtained by projecting  $\Sigma$  through the point  $P$  would be harmonic.

But this cannot be true.



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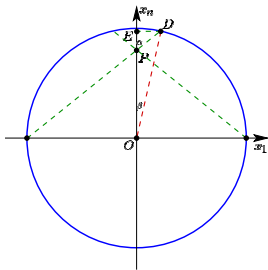
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# Proof of Schwarz Theorem



Indeed, if  $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$  and  $P = (0, \dots, 0, 1 - \varepsilon)$  then (by trigonometry or “dimensional analysis”) we would have that  $u(P) \simeq \varepsilon^{n-1}$ . Therefore

$$\partial_\nu u(0, \dots, 1) = \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \frac{u(0, \dots, 0, 1 - \varepsilon) - u(0, \dots, 0, 1)}{\varepsilon} = 0,$$

against Hopf Lemma.

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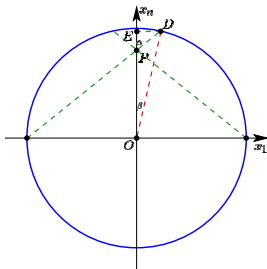
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# Proof of Schwarz Theorem

Note that  $Q(Q_{\pm}(e)) = Q_{\mp}(e)$ .

By (1) applied with  $g(\omega) := f(Q(\omega))$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\partial B_1} f(Q(\omega)) d\mathcal{H}_\omega^1 &= \int_{\partial B_1} g(\omega) d\mathcal{H}_\omega^1 \\ &= \int_{\partial B_1} g(Q_-(\omega)) \frac{(r_-(\omega))^2}{1 - |P|^2 - r_-(\omega)P \cdot \omega} d\mathcal{H}_\omega^1 \\ &= \int_{\partial B_1} f(Q(Q_-(\omega))) \frac{(r_-(\omega))^2}{1 - |P|^2 - r_-(\omega)P \cdot \omega} d\mathcal{H}_\omega^1 \\ &= \int_{\partial B_1} f(Q_+(\omega)) \frac{(r_-(\omega))^2}{1 - |P|^2 - r_-(\omega)P \cdot \omega} d\mathcal{H}_\omega^1 \\ &= \int_{\partial B_1} f(Q_+(\omega)) \frac{2r_+(\omega)(r_-(\omega))^2}{(r_+(\omega) - r_-(\omega))(1 - |P|^2)} d\mathcal{H}_\omega^1 \\ &= \int_{\partial B_1} f(Q_+(\omega)) \frac{2r_-(\omega)}{r_+(\omega) - r_-(\omega)} d\mathcal{H}_\omega^1, \end{aligned}$$

which is the harmonic function constructed in Malmheden Theorem.





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# Fractional Laplacian

## What is the Laplacian?

Multiplication by  $|\xi|^2$  in the “frequency space”.

If  $\mathcal{F}$  is the Fourier transform,

$$u(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \mathcal{F}u(\xi) e^{ix \cdot \xi} d\xi.$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x_j}(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} i\xi_j \mathcal{F}u(\xi) e^{ix \cdot \xi} d\xi.$$

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A “better way” to look at the Laplacian:  
comparing with local averages.

$$\lim_{r \searrow 0} \frac{1}{r^{n+2}} \int_{B_r(x)} (u(x) - u(y)) dy = -C \Delta u(x).$$





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$$(-\Delta)^s u(x) = \mathcal{F}^{-1}(|\xi|^{2s} \mathcal{F}u(\xi)).$$

$(-\Delta)^s$  is a nonlocal diffusive operator.

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As the classical Laplacian, the fractional Laplacian tends to “average out” oscillations.

Differently from the classical Laplacian, the fractional Laplacian takes into account the “global” behaviour of the functions.



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Strong interest from the **theoretical** point of view

- harmonic analysis,
- singular integrals,
- fractional calculus,
- pseudodifferential operators...





# Fractional Laplacian

...and in view of concrete applications

- finance,
- engineering,
- elasticity,
- quantum mechanics,
- fluid mechanics,
- phase transitions,
- materials sciences,
- biology...

Models:

- boundary (lower dimensional) effects,
- long-range interactions.

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# Probability:

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Fractional  
Schwarz  
Theorem

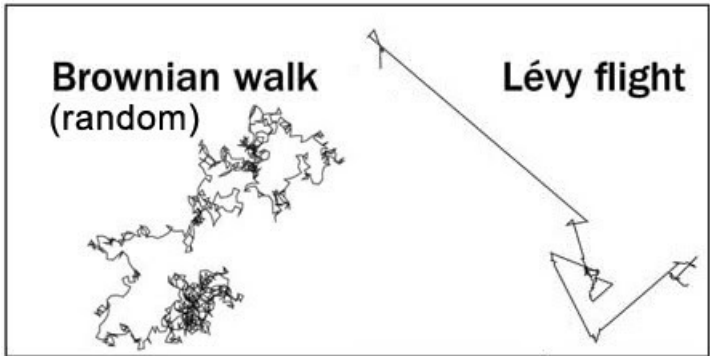
Superposition  
Theorem

Fractional  
Harnack  
Inequality

- stochastic processes with “long jumps” (Lévy flights),
- classical processes at “discrete times” (stroboscopic lamps),
- classical processes at a “lower dimensional set” (trace theory).



# Probability:



Mean Value  
Theorem

Converse  
Mean Value  
Theorem

Malmheden  
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Schwarz  
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Fractional  
Malmheden  
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Schwarz  
Theorem

Superposition  
Theorem

Fractional  
Harnack  
Inequality



# Probability:

Mean Value  
Theorem

Converse  
Mean Value  
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Malmheden  
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Schwarz  
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Fractional  
Malmheden  
Theorem

Fractional  
Schwarz  
Theorem

Superposition  
Theorem

Fractional  
Harnack  
Inequality

E.g. in an integer lattice  $h\mathbb{Z}^n$ , jumping from  $hk$  to  $h\tilde{k}$  in time step  $h^{2s}$  occurs with probability density proportional to

$$\frac{1}{|k|^{n+2s}}.$$

Polynomial, rather than exponential, tail.



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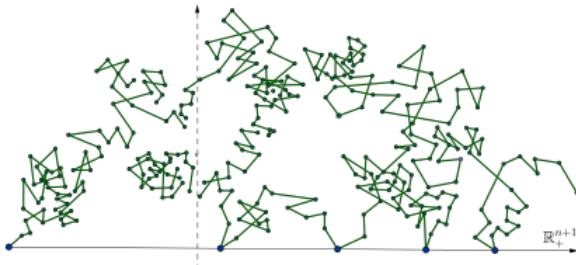
$$\frac{1}{|k|^{n+2s}}.$$

**Polynomial**, rather than exponential, tail.



# Probability:

Trace/boundary stochastic processes.



Mean Value  
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Converse  
Mean Value  
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Malmheden  
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Schwarz  
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**Fractional  
Malmheden  
Theorem**

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Schwarz  
Theorem

Superposition  
Theorem

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# An $s$ -harmonic function

Mean Value  
Theorem

Converse  
Mean Value  
Theorem

Malmheden  
Theorem

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Fractional  
Malmheden  
Theorem

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Schwarz  
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Inequality

## Theorem

For any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , let  $w_s(x) := x_+^s = \max\{x, 0\}^s$ . Then

$$(6) \quad (-\Delta)^s w_s(x) = \begin{cases} -c_s |x|^{-s} & \text{if } x < 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x > 0, \end{cases}$$

for a suitable constant  $c_s > 0$ .





# Proof

First, we show that

$$(7) \quad \int_0^1 \frac{(1+t)^s + (1-t)^s - 2}{t^{1+2s}} dt + \int_1^{+\infty} \frac{(1+t)^s}{t^{1+2s}} dt = \frac{1}{s}.$$

Indeed, given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we integrate by parts:

$$\begin{aligned} \Xi &:= \int_{\varepsilon}^1 \frac{(1+t)^s + (1-t)^s - 2}{t^{1+2s}} dt \\ &= -\frac{1}{2s} \int_{\varepsilon}^1 \left[ (1+t)^s + (1-t)^s - 2 \right] \frac{d}{dt} t^{-2s} dt \\ &= \frac{1}{2s} \left[ \frac{(1+\varepsilon)^s + (1-\varepsilon)^s - 2}{\varepsilon^{2s}} - 2^s + 2 \right] \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} \int_{\varepsilon}^1 \frac{(1+t)^{s-1} - (1-t)^{s-1}}{t^{2s}} dt \\ &= \frac{1}{2s} [o(1) - 2^s + 2] + \frac{1}{2} \left( \int_{\varepsilon}^1 (1+t)^{s-1} t^{-2s} dt - \int_{\varepsilon}^1 (1-t)^{s-1} t^{-2s} dt \right). \end{aligned}$$



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# Proof

Moreover, by changing variable  $\tilde{t} := t/(1-t)$ ,

$$\int_{\varepsilon}^1 (1-t)^{s-1} t^{-2s} dt = \int_{\varepsilon/(1-\varepsilon)}^{+\infty} (1+\tilde{t})^{s-1} \tilde{t}^{-2s} d\tilde{t},$$

thus

$$\begin{aligned} \Xi &= \frac{1}{2s} [o(1) - 2^s + 2] \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} \left[ \int_{\varepsilon}^1 (1+t)^{s-1} t^{-2s} dt - \int_{\varepsilon/(1-\varepsilon)}^{+\infty} (1+t)^{s-1} t^{-2s} dt \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2s} [o(1) - 2^s + 2] \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} \left[ \int_{\varepsilon}^{\varepsilon/(1-\varepsilon)} (1+t)^{s-1} t^{-2s} dt - \int_1^{+\infty} (1+t)^{s-1} t^{-2s} dt \right]. \end{aligned}$$

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# Proof

Also, since

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{\varepsilon}^{\varepsilon/(1-\varepsilon)} (1+t)^{s-1} t^{-2s} dt &\leq \int_{\varepsilon}^{\varepsilon/(1-\varepsilon)} (1+\varepsilon)^{s-1} \varepsilon^{-2s} dt \\ &= \varepsilon^{2-2s} (1-\varepsilon)^{-1} (1+\varepsilon)^{s-1},\end{aligned}$$

we have

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \int_{\varepsilon}^{\varepsilon/(1-\varepsilon)} (1+t)^{s-1} t^{-2s} dt = 0.$$

Therefore

$$\Xi = \frac{-2^s + 2}{2s} - \frac{1}{2} \int_1^{+\infty} (1+t)^{s-1} t^{-2s} dt.$$

Now, integrating by parts,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{2} \int_1^{+\infty} (1+t)^{s-1} t^{-2s} dt &= \frac{1}{2s} \int_1^{+\infty} t^{-2s} \frac{d}{dt} (1+t)^s dt \\ &= -\frac{2^s}{2s} + \int_1^{+\infty} t^{-1-2s} (1+t)^s dt.\end{aligned}$$



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# Proof

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Therefore,

$$\int_0^1 \frac{(1+t)^s + (1-t)^s - 2}{t^{1+2s}} dt = \frac{-2^s + 2}{2s} + \frac{2^s}{2s} - \int_1^{+\infty} t^{-1-2s} (1+t)^s dt,$$

proving (7).



# Proof

Now, we claim that

$$(8) \quad (-\Delta)^s w_s(1) = 0.$$

the function  $t \mapsto (1+t)^s + (1-t)^s - 2$  is even, therefore

$$\int_{-1}^1 \frac{(1+t)^s + (1-t)^s - 2}{|t|^{1+2s}} dt = 2 \int_0^1 \frac{(1+t)^s + (1-t)^s - 2}{t^{1+2s}} dt.$$

Moreover, by changing variable  $\tilde{t} := -t$ ,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{-1} \frac{(1-t)^s - 2}{|t|^{1+2s}} dt = \int_1^{+\infty} \frac{(1+\tilde{t})^s - 2}{\tilde{t}^{1+2s}} d\tilde{t}.$$

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# Proof

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{w_s(1+t) + w_s(1-t) - 2w_s(1)}{|t|^{1+2s}} dt \\ = & \int_{-\infty}^{-1} \frac{(1-t)^s - 2}{|t|^{1+2s}} dt + \int_{-1}^1 \frac{(1+t)^s + (1-t)^s - 2}{|t|^{1+2s}} dt \\ & + \int_1^{+\infty} \frac{(1+t)^s - 2}{|t|^{1+2s}} dt \\ = & 2 \int_0^1 \frac{(1+t)^s + (1-t)^s - 2}{t^{1+2s}} dt + 2 \int_1^{+\infty} \frac{(1+t)^s - 2}{t^{1+2s}} dt \\ = & 2 \left[ \Xi + \int_1^{+\infty} \frac{(1+t)^s}{t^{1+2s}} dt - 2 \int_1^{+\infty} \frac{dt}{t^{1+2s}} \right] \\ = & 2 \left[ \frac{1}{s} - 2 \int_1^{+\infty} \frac{dt}{t^{1+2s}} \right]. \end{aligned}$$

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Since

$$\int_1^{+\infty} \frac{dt}{t^{1+2s}} = \frac{1}{2s},$$

we obtain that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{w_s(1+t) + w_s(1-t) - 2w_s(1)}{|t|^{1+2s}} dt = 0,$$

that is (8).



# Proof

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Moreover,

$$w_s(-1+t) + w_s(-1-t) - 2w_s(-1) = (-1+t)_+^s + (-1-t)_+^s \geq 0$$

and not identically zero, which gives that

$$(9) \quad -(-\Delta)^s w_s(-1) > 0.$$





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# Proof

Now, we let  $\sigma \in \{+1, -1\}$  denote the sign of a fixed  $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ . We claim that

$$(10) \quad \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{w_s(\sigma(1+t)) + w_s(\sigma(1-t)) - 2w_s(\sigma)}{|t|^{1+2s}} dt \\ = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{w_s(\sigma+t) + w_s(\sigma-t) - 2w_s(\sigma)}{|t|^{1+2s}} dt.$$

Indeed, the formula above is obvious when  $x > 0$  (i.e.  $\sigma = 1$ ), so we suppose  $x < 0$  (i.e.  $\sigma = -1$ ) and we change variable  $\tau := -t$ :

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{w_s(\sigma(1+t)) + w_s(\sigma(1-t)) - 2w_s(\sigma)}{|t|^{1+2s}} dt \\ = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{w_s(-1-t) + w_s(-1+t) - 2w_s(\sigma)}{|t|^{1+2s}} dt \\ = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{w_s(-1+\tau) + w_s(-1-\tau) - 2w_s(\sigma)}{|\tau|^{1+2s}} d\tau \\ = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{w_s(\sigma+\tau) + w_s(\sigma-\tau) - 2w_s(\sigma)}{|\tau|^{1+2s}} d\tau,$$

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# Proof

Now we use a scaling argument: for any  $r \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$w_s(|x|r) = (|x|r)_+^s = |x|^s r_+^s = |x|^s w_s(r).$$

That is

$$w_s(xr) = w_s(\sigma|x|r) = |x|^s w_s(\sigma r).$$

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# All functions are $s$ -harmonic:

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We say that  $u$  is  **$s$ -harmonic in  $\Omega$**  if  $(-\Delta)^s u = 0$  in  $\Omega$ .

An arbitrary function can be approximated arbitrarily well in a given ball by functions whose fractional Laplacian vanishes in such ball, in sharp contrast with the rigidity of classical harmonic functions.



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# All functions are $s$ -harmonic:

S. Dipierro, O. Savin, E. Valdinoci (2017)

*Fix  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then, given any function  $u \in C^k(B_1)$  and any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exist  $R_\varepsilon > 1$  and  $u_\varepsilon \in H^s(\mathbb{R}^n) \cap C^s(\mathbb{R}^n)$  such that*

$$(-\Delta)^s u_\varepsilon = 0 \quad \text{in } B_1,$$

$$u_\varepsilon = 0 \quad \text{in } \mathbb{R}^n \setminus B_{R_\varepsilon}$$

*and* 
$$\|u - u_\varepsilon\|_{C^k(B_1)} \leq \varepsilon.$$

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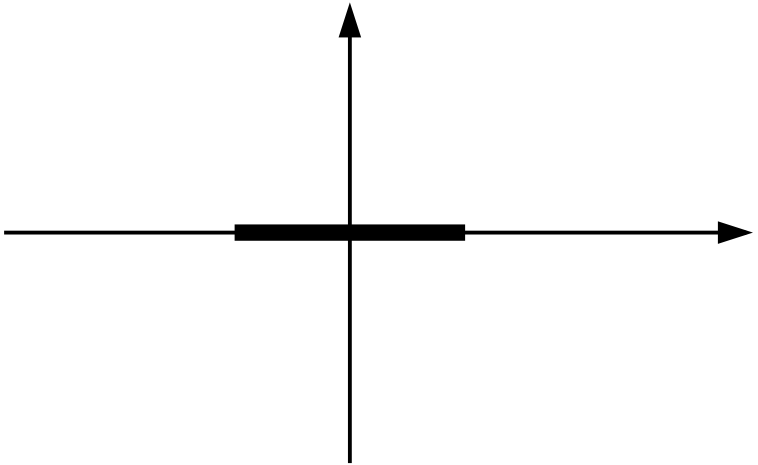
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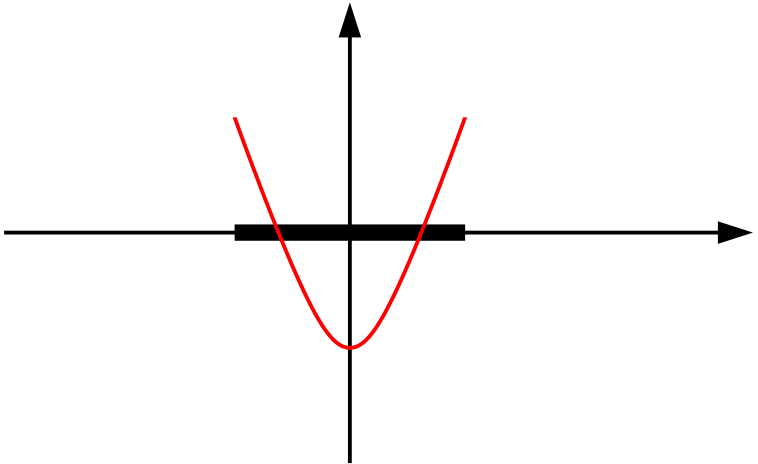
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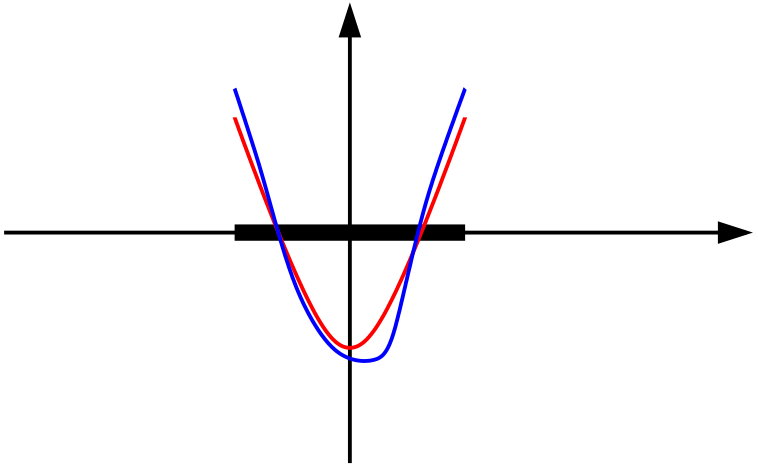
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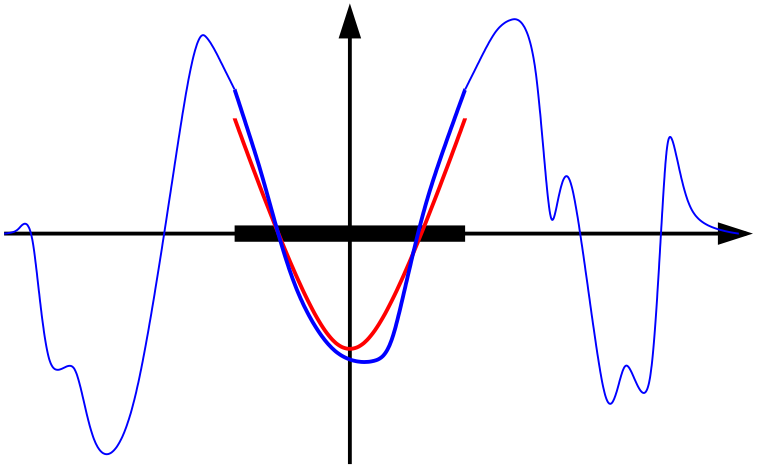
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# Sketch of the proof:

By **Stone-Weierstrass Theorem**, it suffices to prove the result for polynomials. Hence, from now on, we suppose that

$$u(x) = \frac{x^\beta}{\beta!}.$$

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# Sketch of the proof:

**Core Lemma:** spanning the derivative of a function.

There exists a function  $v$  such that

$$(-\Delta)^s v = 0 \quad \text{in } B_r,$$

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## Proof of the Core Lemma in 1D:

Let  $\mathcal{Z}$  be the set of functions  $v$  such that  $(-\Delta)^s v = 0$  in  $(-r, r)$ . For any  $v \in \mathcal{Z}$ , let

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$$V := \{\mathcal{D}^\beta v(0) \text{ s.t. } v \in \mathcal{Z}\}.$$

Notice that  $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{\beta+1}$  is a vector space.

We claim that  $V = \mathbb{R}^{\beta+1}$ .

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By contradiction, we suppose that there exists  $c = (c_j) \in \mathbb{R}^{\beta+1} \setminus \{0\}$  such that

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\beta} c_j v^j(0) = 0.$$

Choose  $v(x) := (x + \eta)_+^s$ , then

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## Sketch of the proof:

Set  $t := 1/\eta$ :

$$0 = \sum_{j=0}^{\beta} c_j s(s-1) \cdots (s-j+1) t^j.$$

Use the Identity Principle of Polynomials and therefore, for every  $j \in \{0, \dots, \beta\}$ ,

$$c_j s(s-1) \cdots (s-j+1) = 0,$$

which gives  $c_j = 0$  for every  $j \in \{0, \dots, \beta\}$ .

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## Sketch of the proof:

Define

$$u_\varepsilon(x) := \frac{v(\varepsilon x)}{\varepsilon^{|\beta|}}.$$

Since

$$v(x) = \frac{x^\beta}{\beta!} + O(x^\gamma),$$

with  $|\gamma| > |\beta|$ , we have that

$$u_\varepsilon(x) = \frac{v(\varepsilon x)}{\varepsilon^{|\beta|}} = \frac{(\varepsilon x)^\beta}{\beta! \varepsilon^{|\beta|}} + O\left(\frac{\varepsilon^{|\gamma|} x^\gamma}{\varepsilon^{|\beta|}}\right) = \frac{x^\beta}{\beta!} + O(\varepsilon^{|\gamma| - |\beta|} x^\gamma),$$

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# Fractional Mean Value Theorem

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## Theorem

A function  $u : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is  $s$ -harmonic in  $B_R$  if and only if, for each  $r \in (0, R)$ ,

$$u(0) = c(n, s) \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \setminus B_r} \frac{r^{2s} u(y)}{(|y|^2 - r^2)^s |y|^n} dy,$$

where

$$c(n, s) := \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \setminus B_1} \frac{dy}{(|y|^2 - 1)^s |y|^n} \right)^{-1}.$$



# Fractional Mean Value Theorem

We define

$$d\mu_r(y) := \frac{c(n, s) r^{2s} dy}{(|y|^2 - r^2)^s |y|^n}$$

and we can interpret  $\mu_r$  as a probability measure on  $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus B_r$ . Then, the Fractional Mean Value Theorem can be written, for short,

$$u(0) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \setminus B_r} u(y) d\mu_r(y).$$

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# Fractional Kuran Theorem

The Fractional Mean Value Theorem has an “inverse”, in the spirit of Kuran Theorem:

C. Bucur, S. Dipierro, E. Valdinoci (2020)

*Let  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be a bounded open set, containing the origin, and  $r := \text{dist}(0, \partial\Omega)$ .*

*Suppose that*

$$(11) \quad u(0) = \frac{1}{\mu_r(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega)} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega} u(y) d\mu_r(y)$$

*for all  $s$ -harmonic functions  $u$  in  $\Omega$ .*

*Then,  $\Omega = B_r$ .*

In short: if  $\Omega$  satisfies a fractional mean value property with respect to a suitable measure, then  $\Omega$  is necessarily a ball.

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# First proof of Fractional Kuran Theorem

By contradiction, assume that  $\Omega \setminus B_r \neq \emptyset$  and pick  $p \in \Omega \setminus B_r$ . Since  $\Omega$  is open, there exists  $\rho > 0$  such that  $B_\rho(p) \subset \Omega$  and thus

$$\emptyset \neq B_\rho(p) \setminus \overline{B_r} \subset \Omega \setminus B_r.$$

Therefore,

$$\mu_r(\Omega \setminus B_r) > 0.$$

Moreover, if  $u$  is  $s$ -harmonic in  $\Omega$  with  $u(0) = 0$ ,

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# First proof of Fractional Kuran Theorem

Now we use that “all functions are locally  $s$ -harmonic up to an  $\epsilon$  error”, with  $\epsilon := \frac{r^2}{4}$ , our “favorite function  $f(x) := |x|^2$ ”, and a reference domain  $B_R$ , with  $R := \max_{y \in \bar{\Omega}} |y|$ . So, we find  $f_{r,R}$  such that

$$(-\Delta)^s f_{r,R} = 0 \quad \text{in } B_R,$$

$$\text{and} \quad \|f_{r,R} - f\|_{L^\infty(B_R)} \leq \epsilon = \frac{r^2}{4}.$$

Then, we define

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$$\text{and} \quad \|f_{r,R} - f\|_{L^\infty(B_R)} \leq \epsilon = \frac{r^2}{4}.$$

Then, we define

$$u^\star(x) := -f_{r,R}(x) + f_{r,R}(0).$$

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# First proof of Fractional Kuran Theorem

For all  $x \in B_R$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}u^*(x) &= -f_{r,R}(x) + f(x) + f_{r,R}(0) - f(0) - f(x) + f(0) \\ &\leq -f(x) + f(0) + |f(x) - f_{r,R}(x)| + |f_{r,R}(0) - f(0)| \\ &\leq -|x|^2 + \frac{r^2}{2}.\end{aligned}$$

Hence, for all  $x \in B_R \setminus B_r$ ,

$$-u^*(x) \geq |x|^2 - \frac{r^2}{2} \geq \frac{r^2}{2}.$$

Since  $\Omega \subset B_R$ , it follows that

$$\int_{\Omega \setminus B_r} -u^*(y) d\mu_r(y) \geq \frac{r^2}{2} \mu_r(\Omega \setminus B_r) > 0.$$

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# First proof of Fractional Kuran Theorem

For all  $x \in B_R$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}u^*(x) &= -f_{r,R}(x) + f(x) + f_{r,R}(0) - f(0) - f(x) + f(0) \\ &\leq -f(x) + f(0) + |f(x) - f_{r,R}(x)| + |f_{r,R}(0) - f(0)| \\ &\leq -|x|^2 + \frac{r^2}{2}.\end{aligned}$$

Hence, for all  $x \in B_R \setminus B_r$ ,

$$-u^*(x) \geq |x|^2 - \frac{r^2}{2} \geq \frac{r^2}{2}.$$

Since  $\Omega \subset B_R$ , it follows that

$$\int_{\Omega \setminus B_r} -u^*(y) d\mu_r(y) \geq \frac{r^2}{2} \mu_r(\Omega \setminus B_r) > 0.$$

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Since  $u^*(0) = 0$  and  $(-\Delta)^s u^*(x) = (-\Delta)^s f_{r,R}(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in B_R$ ,

$$0 = - \int_{\Omega \setminus B_r} u^*(y) d\mu_r(y) > 0,$$

contradiction!



## Second proof of Fractional Kuran Theorem

A structurally different proof of the Fractional Kuran Theorem is based on **potential theory**.

The idea is to suppose for simplicity (after a suitable approximation) that  $\Omega$  has  $C^{1,1}$  boundary, and use the fractional Poisson Kernel: we know that the fractional Poisson Kernel of  $B_R(x_0)$  is

$$P_{B_R(x_0)}(x, y) = \frac{c(n, s) (R^2 - |x - x_0|^2)^s}{(|y - x_0|^2 - R^2)^s |x - y|^n}$$

and if  $u$  is  $s$ -harmonic in  $\Omega$  then

$$u(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega} u(y) P_{\Omega}(x, y) dy.$$

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## Second proof of Fractional Kuran Theorem

Hence, under assumption (11), for any  $u \in C_0^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega)$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega} u(y) \left( \frac{P_{B_r}(0, y)}{\mu_r(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega)} - P_\Omega(0, y) \right) dy \\ &= \frac{1}{\mu_r(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega)} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega} u(y) P_{B_r}(0, y) dy - u(0) \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, by the arbitrariness of  $u$ ,

$$(12) \quad \frac{P_{B_r}(0, y)}{\mu_r(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega)} = P_\Omega(0, y)$$

for a.e.  $y \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega$ .

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This is an identity about fractional Poisson Kernels and we need to show that it forces  $\Omega$  to be the ball  $B_r$ .

Suppose not. The idea is then to choose a point  $p^* \in \partial\Omega$ , and  $p^* \notin \partial B_r$  and take the limit for  $y \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega$  to  $p^*$ : the right-hand side of (12) will tend to infinity, whereas the left-hand side gives a finite value.



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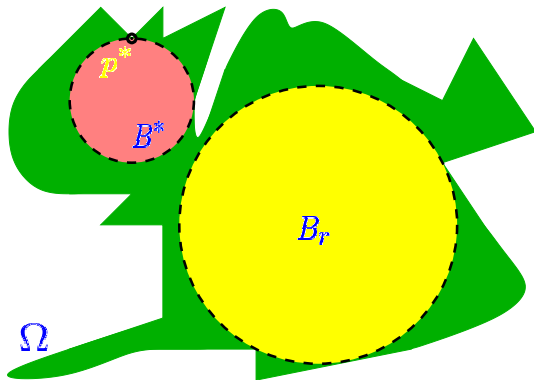
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The technical details go as follows: take a ball  $B^* \subset \Omega \setminus \overline{B_r}$  with  $(\partial B^*) \cap ((\partial\Omega) \setminus \overline{B_r}) \neq \emptyset$  and pick a point  $p^* \in (\partial B^*) \cap ((\partial\Omega) \setminus \overline{B_r})$ . We also take a sequence  $p_j \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega$  such that  $p_j \rightarrow p^*$  as  $j \rightarrow +\infty$ .





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Let  $\varpi := B_r \cup B^*$ . We consider, as a test for our contradiction, a harmonic function in  $\varpi$  formally corresponding to a Dirac mass at  $p_j$ .

On the one hand, this function will reproduce the Poisson Kernel  $P_\varpi(\cdot, p_j)$ ; on the other hand, the corresponding average would converge to a finite value, thus providing the desired contradiction.

The details of the technical argument go as follows. We take  $\varphi \in C_0^\infty(B_1, [0, 1])$ , with  $\varphi$  even and  $\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \varphi(x) dx = 1$ .



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## Second proof of Fractional Kuran Theorem

Let

$$\varphi_{k,p}(x) := k^n \varphi(k(x-p))$$

and  $u_{k,p}$  such that

$$\begin{cases} (-\Delta)^s u_{k,p} = 0 & \text{in } \varpi, \\ u_{k,p} = \varphi_{k,p} & \text{in } \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \varpi. \end{cases}$$

Given  $j$ , we always suppose that  $k$  is large, possibly in dependence of  $j$ , such that

$$\overline{B_{1/k}(p_j)} \subset \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \overline{\Omega}.$$

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Given  $\delta > 0$ , we take a smooth bounded open set  $\Omega^{(\delta)}$  that contains  $\Omega$  and such that all points of  $\Omega^{(\delta)}$  have distance less than  $\delta$  from  $\Omega$ .

We take  $\delta$  sufficiently small (possibly in dependence of  $k$  and  $j$ ), such that

$$\overline{B_{1/k}(p_j)} \subset \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \overline{\Omega^{(\delta)}}.$$

We take  $u_{k,p_j,\delta}$  to be the fractional harmonic function coinciding with  $\varphi_{k,p_j}$  outside  $\Omega^{(\delta)}$ .





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## Second proof of Fractional Kuran Theorem

We claim that

$$u_{k,p_j,\delta} \geq u_{k,p_j}.$$

Indeed,  $u_{k,p_j,\delta} \geq 0$ , by Maximum Principle. Hence, since  $u_{k,p_j} = \varphi_{k,p_j} = 0$  in  $(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \varpi) \cap (\mathbb{R}^n \setminus B_{1/k}(p_j))$ , it follows that the claim holds true at least in  $(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \varpi) \cap (\mathbb{R}^n \setminus B_{1/k}(p_j)) \supseteq (\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \varpi) \cap \Omega^{(\delta)}$ .

Since, by construction, it holds true in  $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega^{(\delta)}$ , it holds true in  $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \varpi$ .

Also, both  $u_{k,p_j,\delta}$  and  $u_{k,p_j}$  are  $s$ -harmonic in  $\varpi$ , hence the claim follows from the Maximum Principle.

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## Second proof of Fractional Kuran Theorem

Now we claim that

$$\lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega} u_{k,p_j,\delta}(y) d\mu_r(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega} \varphi_{k,p_j}(y) d\mu_r(y).$$

To this end, we observe that the image of  $\varphi_{k,p_j}$  is  $[0, k]$ , and therefore also the image of  $u_{k,p_j,\delta}$  is  $[0, k]$ , by Maximum Principle. Then, since

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega} u_{k,p_j,\delta}(y) d\mu_r(y) \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega(\delta)} u_{k,p_j,\delta}(y) d\mu_r(y) + \int_{\Omega(\delta) \setminus \Omega} u_{k,p_j,\delta}(y) d\mu_r(y) \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega(\delta)} \varphi_{k,p_j}(y) d\mu_r(y) + \int_{\Omega(\delta) \setminus \Omega} u_{k,p_j,\delta}(y) d\mu_r(y), \end{aligned}$$

one obtains the claim by taking the limit.

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## Second proof of Fractional Kuran Theorem

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}u_{k,p_j}(0) &\leq \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} u_{k,p_j,\delta}(0) \\&= \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\mu_r(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega)} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega} u_{k,p_j,\delta}(y) d\mu_r(y) \\&= \frac{1}{\mu_r(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega)} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega} \varphi_{k,p_j}(y) d\mu_r(y).\end{aligned}$$

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## Second proof of Fractional Kuran Theorem

Hence, since  $0 \in B_r \subset \varpi$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} P_{\varpi}(0, p_j) &= \lim_{k \rightarrow +\infty} u_{k, p_j}(0) \\ &\leq \lim_{k \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{\mu_r(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega)} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega} \varphi_{k, p_j}(y) d\mu_r(y) \\ &= \frac{c(n, s) r^{2s}}{\mu_r(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega) (|p_j|^2 - r^2)^s |p_j|^n}. \end{aligned}$$

Now, we use the geometry of the fractional Poisson Kernel, which gives a suitable  $c := c(n, s, \varpi) > 0$  such that

$$P_{\varpi}(0, p_j) \geq \frac{c (\text{dist}(0, \partial\varpi))^s}{(\text{dist}(p_j, \partial\varpi))^s (1 + \text{dist}(p_j, \partial\varpi))^s |p_j|^n}.$$

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## Second proof of Fractional Kuran Theorem

Hence, since  $0 \in B_r \subset \varpi$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} P_{\varpi}(0, p_j) &= \lim_{k \rightarrow +\infty} u_{k, p_j}(0) \\ &\leq \lim_{k \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{\mu_r(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega)} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega} \varphi_{k, p_j}(y) d\mu_r(y) \\ &= \frac{c(n, s) r^{2s}}{\mu_r(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega) (|p_j|^2 - r^2)^s |p_j|^n}. \end{aligned}$$

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## Second proof of Fractional Kuran Theorem

Hence, since  $p_j \rightarrow p^* \in \partial B^* \subseteq \partial \varpi$ ,

$$\lim_{j \rightarrow +\infty} P_{\varpi}(0, p_j) = +\infty$$

and therefore

$$\begin{aligned} +\infty &= \lim_{j \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{c(n, s) r^{2s}}{\mu_r(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega) (|p_j|^2 - r^2)^s |p_j|^n} \\ &= \frac{c(n, s) r^{2s}}{\mu_r(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \Omega) (|p^*|^2 - r^2)^s |p^*|^n} \\ &< +\infty, \end{aligned}$$

since  $p^* \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \overline{B_r}$ , contradiction.

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A “geometric argument” to construct  $s$ -harmonic functions in a ball with given “boundary” datum.

$$\begin{cases} (-\Delta)^s u = 0 & \text{in } B_1, \\ u = f & \text{in } \mathbb{R}^n \setminus B_1. \end{cases}$$



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To establish a fractional counterpart of Malmheden Theorem one needs the following structural modifications:

- the classical spherical averages are replaced by suitable weighted spherical averages,
- the geometric transformations involved are scaled in dependence of the radius of each of these spheres.



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To establish a fractional counterpart of Malmheden Theorem one needs the following structural modifications:

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- the classical spherical averages are replaced by suitable **weighted spherical averages**,
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# Fractional Malmheden Theorem

Setting:

$$f_\rho(x) := f(\rho x),$$

$\mathcal{L}_f^{a,b}(x)$  := the affine function such that

$$\mathcal{L}_f^{a,b}(a) = f(a) \text{ and } \mathcal{L}_f^{a,b}(b) = f(b),$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{f,e,\rho}(x) := \mathcal{L}_{f_\rho}^{Q_-^{x/\rho}(e), Q_+^{x/\rho}(e)}\left(\frac{x}{\rho}\right).$$

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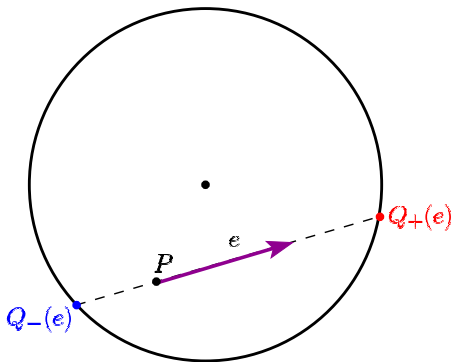
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# Fractional Malmheden Theorem

Recall:

$$Q_{\pm}(e) = P + r_{\pm}(e)e, \quad r_{\pm}(e) := -P \cdot e \pm \sqrt{D(e)},$$
$$D(e) := (P \cdot e)^2 - |P|^2 + 1.$$



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# Fractional Malmheden Theorem

Let us also consider the following kernel for the ball  $B_\rho$ .  
Given  $s \in (0, 1)$ , let

$$\mathcal{E}(x, \rho) := c_{n,s} \frac{\rho (1 - |x|^2)^s}{(\rho^2 - 1)^s (\rho^2 - |x|^2)},$$

where

$$c_{n,s} := \frac{\Gamma(n/2) \sin(\pi s)}{\pi^{(n+2)/2}}.$$

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# Fractional Malmheden Theorem

## Theorem (S. Dipierro, G. Giacomini, E. Valdinoci)

Let

$$u(P) := \int_1^{+\infty} \left[ \int_{\partial B_1} \mathcal{L}_{f,e,\rho}(x) \mathcal{E}(x, \rho) d\mathcal{H}_e^{n-1} \right] d\rho.$$

Then,  $u$  is the solution of the fractional Dirichlet problem in the ball:

$$\begin{cases} (-\Delta)^s u = 0 & \text{in } B_1, \\ u = f & \text{in } \mathbb{R}^n \setminus B_1. \end{cases}$$

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# Fractional Malmheden Theorem

When  $P = 0$ , we have that  $D(e) = 1$ ,  $r_{\pm}(e) = \pm 1$  and  $Q_{\pm}(e) = \pm e$ . Hence,

$$\mathcal{L}_{f,e,\rho}(0) = \mathcal{L}_{f_{\rho}^{Q_{-}^{0}(e), Q_{+}^{0}(e)}}(0) = \mathcal{L}_{f_{\rho}^{-e,e}}(0) = \frac{f(\rho e)}{2} + \frac{f(-\rho e)}{2}.$$

Also,

$$\mathcal{E}(0, \rho) = c_{n,s} \frac{\rho}{(\rho^2 - 1)^s \rho^2} = \frac{c_{n,s}}{(\rho^2 - 1)^s \rho}.$$

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# Fractional Malmheden Theorem

Thus, the Fractional Malmheden Theorem reduces to

$$\begin{aligned}u(0) &= \int_1^{+\infty} \left[ \int_{\partial B_1} \mathcal{L}_{f,e,\rho}(0) \mathcal{E}(0, \rho) d\mathcal{H}_e^{n-1} \right] d\rho \\&= \int_1^{+\infty} \left[ \int_{\partial B_1} \frac{c_{n,s}}{(\rho^2 - 1)^s \rho} \left( \frac{f(\rho e)}{2} + \frac{f(-\rho e)}{2} \right) d\mathcal{H}_e^{n-1} \right] d\rho \\&= \int_1^{+\infty} \left[ \int_{\partial B_\rho} \frac{c_{n,s}}{(\rho^2 - 1)^s \rho^n} \left( \frac{f(\omega)}{2} + \frac{f(-\omega)}{2} \right) d\mathcal{H}_\omega^{n-1} \right] d\rho \\&= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \setminus B_1} \frac{c_{n,s}}{(|y|^2 - 1)^s |y|^n} \left( \frac{f(y)}{2} + \frac{f(-y)}{2} \right) dy \\&= c_{n,s} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \setminus B_1} \frac{f(y)}{|y|^n (|y|^2 - 1)^s} dy,\end{aligned}$$

which is the Fractional Mean Value Theorem

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# Fractional Malmheden Theorem

Thus, the Fractional Malmheden Theorem reduces to

$$\begin{aligned}u(0) &= \int_1^{+\infty} \left[ \int_{\partial B_1} \mathcal{L}_{f,e,\rho}(0) \mathcal{E}(0, \rho) d\mathcal{H}_e^{n-1} \right] d\rho \\&= \int_1^{+\infty} \left[ \int_{\partial B_1} \frac{c_{n,s}}{(\rho^2 - 1)^s \rho} \left( \frac{f(\rho e)}{2} + \frac{f(-\rho e)}{2} \right) d\mathcal{H}_e^{n-1} \right] d\rho \\&= \int_1^{+\infty} \left[ \int_{\partial B_\rho} \frac{c_{n,s}}{(\rho^2 - 1)^s \rho^n} \left( \frac{f(\omega)}{2} + \frac{f(-\omega)}{2} \right) d\mathcal{H}_\omega^{n-1} \right] d\rho \\&= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \setminus B_1} \frac{c_{n,s}}{(|y|^2 - 1)^s |y|^n} \left( \frac{f(y)}{2} + \frac{f(-y)}{2} \right) dy \\&= c_{n,s} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \setminus B_1} \frac{f(y)}{|y|^n (|y|^2 - 1)^s} dy,\end{aligned}$$

which is the **Fractional Mean Value Theorem**.

Mean Value  
Theorem

Converse  
Mean Value  
Theorem

Malmheden  
Theorem

Schwarz  
Theorem

Fractional  
Malmheden  
Theorem

Fractional  
Schwarz  
Theorem

Superposition  
Theorem

Fractional  
Harnack  
Inequality



# Fractional Malmheden Theorem

Mean Value  
Theorem

Converse  
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Malmheden  
Theorem

Schwarz  
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**Fractional  
Malmheden  
Theorem**

Fractional  
Schwarz  
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Superposition  
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Fractional  
Harnack  
Inequality

Also, when  $s \nearrow 1$ , the Fractional Malmheden Theorem recovers the classical one.



# Proof of Fractional Malmheden Theorem

Once we “guess” the right formula, the proof relies on a series of identities due to the geometry of the projections.

Sketch:

- Start with the representation of the  $s$ -harmonic function in  $B_1$  via the **fractional Poisson Kernel**.
- This produces an integral outside  $B_1$ , which can be written in **polar coordinates**.
- After some scaling, one can recognize the function  $\mathcal{E}$  as a **weight for the integral**.
- Name whatever remains  $g$  and apply to it the spherical change of variable.
- Rearrange the terms and detect the cancellations coming from the geometry of the problem.

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# Fractional Schwarz Theorem

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Malmheden  
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## Theorem (S. Dipierro, G. Giacomini, E. Valdinoci)

Let  $n = 2$  and

$$u(x) := \int_1^{+\infty} \left[ \int_{\partial B_1} f_\rho(Q^{x/\rho}(e)) \mathcal{E}(x, \rho) d\mathcal{H}_e^1 \right] d\rho.$$

Then,  $u$  is the solution of the fractional Dirichlet problem in the ball:

$$\begin{cases} (-\Delta)^s u = 0 & \text{in } B_1, \\ u = f & \text{in } \mathbb{R}^n \setminus B_1. \end{cases}$$



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# Fractional Schwarz Theorem

When  $s \nearrow 1$ , the Fractional Schwarz Theorem recovers the classical one.

Also, let  $\Sigma$  be an arc in the circle  $\partial B_1 \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  and  $\Sigma_*$  be the cone generated by  $\Sigma$ , i.e.

$$\Sigma_* := \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\} \text{ s.t. } \frac{x}{|x|} \in \Sigma \right\}.$$

Consider the solution of the fractional Dirichlet problem in the ball with conical exterior datum:

$$\begin{cases} (-\Delta)^s u = 0 & \text{in } B_1, \\ u = \chi_{\Sigma_*} & \text{in } \mathbb{R}^n \setminus B_1. \end{cases}$$

Do we have a geometric way to represent such a solution?



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Do we have a **geometric way** to represent such a solution?



# Fractional Schwarz Theorem

Yes. Let  $\Sigma'_{x/\rho}$  be the projected arc of  $\Sigma$  on  $\partial B_1$  through the point  $x/\rho$ .

Let  $|\Sigma'_{x/\rho}|$  be its length.

Then, the Fractional Schwarz Theorem yields that

$$u(x) = \int_1^{+\infty} |\Sigma'_{x/\rho}| \mathcal{E}(x, \rho) d\rho.$$

That is,  $u$  is a superposition of scaled arc lengths, weighted by a the kernel  $\mathcal{E}$ .

In particular,

$$u(0) = |\Sigma| \int_1^{+\infty} \mathcal{E}(0, \rho) d\rho = \frac{|\Sigma|}{2\pi}.$$

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# Proof of Fractional Schwarz Theorem

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Use the Fractional Malmheden Theorem with  $n = 2$  and check the algebra.



# Superposition Theorem

As a byproduct of the Malmheden Theorem and the Fractional Malmheden Theorem, we see that **an  $s$ -harmonic function is the superposition of classical harmonic functions.**

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# Superposition Theorem

## Theorem (S. Dipierro, G. Giacomini, E. Valdinoci)

For each  $\rho > 1$  let  $u_{f_\rho}$  be the unique solution to the classical Dirichlet problem in the ball

$$\begin{cases} \Delta u_{f_\rho} = 0 & \text{in } B_1, \\ u_{f_\rho} = f_\rho & \text{on } \partial B_1. \end{cases}$$

Then, the solution of the fractional Dirichlet problem in the ball

$$\begin{cases} (-\Delta)^s u = 0 & \text{in } B_1, \\ u = f & \text{in } \mathbb{R}^n \setminus B_1. \end{cases}$$

can be written as

$$u(x) = |\partial B_1| \int_1^{+\infty} u_{f_\rho} \left( \frac{x}{\rho} \right) \mathcal{E}(x, \rho) d\rho.$$

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# Fractional Harnack Inequality

As a consequence of the Superposition Theorem, we have a new proof of the Fractional Harnack Inequality (see e.g. M. Kaßmann's thesis), with optimal constants:

## Theorem

If  $u$  is  $s$ -harmonic in  $B_1$ , then, for each  $r \in (0, 1)$  and  $x \in B_r$ ,

$$\frac{(1 - r^2)^s}{(1 + r)^n} u(0) \leq u(x) \leq \frac{(1 - r^2)^s}{(1 - r)^n} u(0).$$

*The constants above are optimal, and for  $s \nearrow 1$  they converge to the optimal constants of the classical Harnack inequality in  $B_r$  for harmonic functions in  $B_1$ .*

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# Proof of Fractional Harnack Inequality

Applying the Harnack inequality for classical harmonic functions to  $u_{f_\rho}$ , we have that

$$u_{f_\rho}(0) \leq \frac{(1 + |x|/\rho)^{n-1}}{1 - |x|/\rho} u_{f_\rho} \left( \frac{x}{\rho} \right).$$

From this, the Malmheden Theorem and the Fractional Malmheden Theorem we obtain that

$$\begin{aligned} u(0) &\leq c_{n,s} |\partial B_1| \int_1^\infty \frac{1}{\rho(\rho^2 - 1)^s} \frac{(1 + |x|/\rho)^{n-1}}{1 - |x|/\rho} u_{f_\rho} \left( \frac{x}{\rho} \right) d\rho \\ &= |\partial B_1| \int_1^\infty \mathcal{E}(x, \rho) \frac{(\rho^2 - |x|^2)}{\rho^2(1 - |x|^2)^s} \frac{(\rho + |x|)^{n-1}}{\rho^{n-2}(\rho - |x|)} u_{f_\rho} \left( \frac{x}{\rho} \right) d\rho \\ (13) \quad &= |\partial B_1| \int_1^\infty \mathcal{E}(x, \rho) \frac{(\rho + |x|)^n}{\rho^n(1 - |x|^2)^s} u_{f_\rho} \left( \frac{x}{\rho} \right) d\rho \\ &= |\partial B_1| \int_1^\infty \mathcal{E}(x, \rho) g(\rho, t) u_{f_\rho} \left( \frac{x}{\rho} \right) d\rho, \end{aligned}$$

where  $t := |x|$  and

$$g(\rho, t) := \frac{(\rho + t)^n}{\rho^n(1 - t^2)^s}.$$

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where  $t := |x|$  and

$$g(\rho, t) := \frac{(\rho + t)^n}{\rho^n (1 - t^2)^s}.$$



# Proof of Fractional Harnack Inequality

Since  $g(\rho, t)$  is decreasing in  $\rho$  and increasing in  $t$ , we have that

$$\frac{(1+r)^n}{(1-r^2)^s} = \sup_{(\rho, t) \in [1, \infty) \times [0, r]} g(\rho, t).$$

Therefore, it follows from (13) that

$$u(0) \leq |\partial B_1| \frac{(1+r)^n}{(1-r^2)^s} \int_1^\infty \mathcal{E}(x, \rho) u_{f_\rho} \left( \frac{x}{\rho} \right) d\rho = \frac{(1+r)^n}{(1-r^2)^s} u(x),$$

which establishes one side of the Fractional Harnack Inequality.

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# Proof of Fractional Harnack Inequality

To prove the other side, use again the Harnack inequality for harmonic functions:

$$u_{f_\rho} \left( \frac{x}{\rho} \right) \leq \frac{1 + |x|/\rho}{(1 - |x|/\rho)^{n-1}} u_{f_\rho}(0).$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} u(0) &= c_{n,s} |\partial B_1| \int_1^\infty \frac{u_{f_\rho}(0)}{\rho(\rho^2 - 1)^s} d\rho \\ &\geq c_{n,s} |\partial B_1| \int_1^\infty \frac{1}{\rho(\rho^2 - 1)^s} \frac{(1 - |x|/\rho)^{n-1}}{1 + |x|/\rho} u_{f_\rho} \left( \frac{x}{\rho} \right) d\rho \\ &= c_{n,s} |\partial B_1| \int_1^\infty \frac{(\rho - |x|)^{n-1}}{\rho^{n-1}(\rho^2 - 1)^s(\rho + |x|)} u_{f_\rho} \left( \frac{x}{\rho} \right) d\rho \\ &= |\partial B_1| \int_1^\infty \mathcal{E}(x, \rho) \frac{(\rho - |x|)^n}{\rho^n(1 - |x|^2)^s} u_{f_\rho} \left( \frac{x}{\rho} \right) d\rho. \end{aligned}$$

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# Proof of Fractional Harnack Inequality

To prove the other side, use again the Harnack inequality for harmonic functions:

$$u_{f_\rho} \left( \frac{x}{\rho} \right) \leq \frac{1 + |x|/\rho}{(1 - |x|/\rho)^{n-1}} u_{f_\rho}(0).$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} u(0) &= c_{n,s} |\partial B_1| \int_1^\infty \frac{u_{f_\rho}(0)}{\rho(\rho^2 - 1)^s} d\rho \\ &\geq c_{n,s} |\partial B_1| \int_1^\infty \frac{1}{\rho(\rho^2 - 1)^s} \frac{(1 - |x|/\rho)^{n-1}}{1 + |x|/\rho} u_{f_\rho} \left( \frac{x}{\rho} \right) d\rho \\ &= c_{n,s} |\partial B_1| \int_1^\infty \frac{(\rho - |x|)^{n-1}}{\rho^{n-1}(\rho^2 - 1)^s(\rho + |x|)} u_{f_\rho} \left( \frac{x}{\rho} \right) d\rho \\ &= |\partial B_1| \int_1^\infty \mathcal{E}(x, \rho) \frac{(\rho - |x|)^n}{\rho^n(1 - |x|^2)^s} u_{f_\rho} \left( \frac{x}{\rho} \right) d\rho. \end{aligned}$$

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# Proof of Fractional Harnack Inequality

Hence, if

$$g_1(\rho, t) := \frac{(\rho - t)^n}{\rho^n(1 - t^2)^s},$$

we have that

$$(14) \quad u(0) \geq |\partial B_1| \int_1^\infty \mathcal{E}(x, \rho) g_1(\rho, t) u_{f_\rho} \left( \frac{x}{\rho} \right) d\rho.$$

Since  $g_1$  is increasing in  $\rho$ , for all  $(\rho, t) \in [1, \infty) \times [0, r]$ ,

$$g_1(\rho, t) \geq g_1(1, t) = \frac{(1 - t)^n}{(1 - t^2)^s} = \frac{(1 - t)^{n-s}}{(1 + t)^s} =: g_2(t).$$

Since also  $g_2$  is decreasing, for all  $(\rho, t) \in [1, \infty) \times [0, r]$ ,

$$g_1(\rho, t) \geq g_2(r) = \frac{(1 - r)^{n-s}}{(1 + r)^s} = \frac{(1 - r)^n}{(1 - r^2)^s}.$$

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# Proof of Fractional Harnack Inequality

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# Proof of Fractional Harnack Inequality

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Plugging this information into (14),

$$u(0) \geq |\partial B_1| \frac{(1-r)^n}{(1-r^2)^s} \int_1^\infty \mathcal{E}(x, \rho) u_{f_\rho} \left( \frac{x}{\rho} \right) d\rho \geq \frac{(1-r)^n}{(1-r^2)^s} u(x),$$

which is the other side of the Fractional Harnack Inequality.



# Optimality of the constants in the Fractional Harnack Inequality

Let  $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$ . Then,

$$u_\varepsilon(x) := c_{n,s} \int_{B_\varepsilon((\varepsilon+1)e)} \frac{(1 - |x|^2)^s}{|y - x|^n} dy$$

is  $s$ -harmonic in  $B_1$ .

Let  $x = -re$  for  $r \in (0, 1)$ : we have that

$$\frac{u_\varepsilon(0)}{u_\varepsilon(-re)} = \frac{\int_{B_\varepsilon((\varepsilon+1)e)} \frac{dy}{|y|^n}}{\int_{B_\varepsilon((\varepsilon+1)e)} \frac{(1 - r^2)^s}{|y + re|^n} dy},$$

whence

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{u_\varepsilon(0)}{u_\varepsilon(-re)} = \frac{(1 + r)^n}{(1 - r^2)^s},$$

showing the optimality of the constants.

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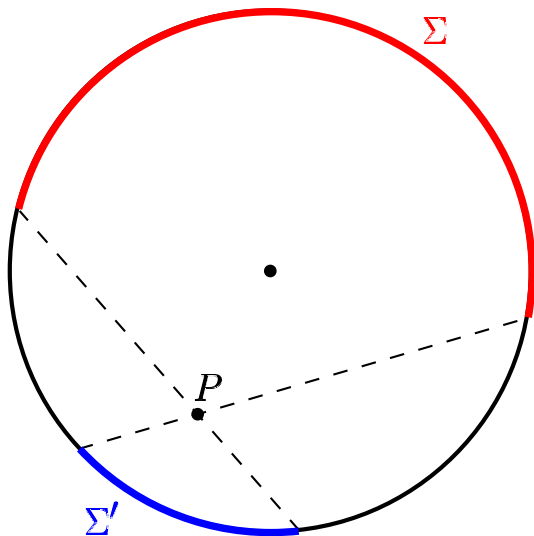
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Thanks a lot for your attention!



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