# Harmonicfunctionology 

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The Laplace operator on $\mathbb{R}^{n}$

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

plays a rôle in the wave and heat equations, but even more fundamentally, in the Laplace equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta u=0 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the Poisson equation $-\Delta u=f$ where $f$ is a given function.
$A C^{2}$ solution of (1) is called harmonic. (Later, we will find that harmonic functions are in fact infinitely differentiable.)

Much is gained from the trivial observation that $\Delta u=\nabla \cdot \nabla u$ together with various applications of the divergence theorem or two of its corollaries, Green's first and second identities.

Let's get started by simply integrating $\Delta u$ over a bounded domain $\omega$ with piecewise $C^{1}$ boundary:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{\omega} \Delta u(\boldsymbol{x}) \mathrm{d}^{n} \boldsymbol{x}=\int_{\omega} \nabla \cdot \nabla u(\boldsymbol{x}) \mathrm{d}^{n} \boldsymbol{x}=\int_{\partial \omega} \partial_{\nu} u(\boldsymbol{x}) \mathrm{d} S(\boldsymbol{x}) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

This immediately proves
Proposition 1. If a $C^{2}$ function $u$ on a domain $\Omega$ is harmonic, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{\partial \omega} \partial_{\nu} u \mathrm{~d} S=0 \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all bounded domains $\omega \subseteq \Omega$ with piecewise $C^{1}$ boundary.
Conversely, if (3) holds for every ball $\omega=B(\boldsymbol{x}, r)$ whose closure lies within $\Omega$, then $u$ is harmonic.

Proof. We have already proved the first part. For the converse, (3) and (2) imply that the average of $\Delta u$ over any ball is zero. By letting the radius of the ball $B(\boldsymbol{x}, r)$ tend to zero, we conclude that $\Delta u(x)=0$.

Definition. The (radiusr) spherical average of a function $u$ at a point $\boldsymbol{x}$ is defined to be

$$
\tilde{u}_{x}(r)=f_{\partial B(x, r)} u \mathrm{~d} S=f_{\mathbb{S}^{n-1}} u(\boldsymbol{x}+r \boldsymbol{y}) \mathrm{d} S(\boldsymbol{y})
$$

where $\mathbb{S}^{n-1} \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is the unit sphere and the "barred" integral signs denote the average:

$$
f_{\partial B(x, r)} u \mathrm{~d} S=\frac{1}{A_{n} r^{n-1}} \int_{\partial B(x, r)} u \mathrm{~d} S,
$$

where $A_{n}$ is the area of $\mathbb{S}^{n-1}$. Note that the second integral in the definition of $\tilde{u}_{x}(r)$ makes sense even for $r<0$; thus, we adopt this as the definition for all real $r$ for which the integrand is defined on $\mathbb{S}^{n-1}$. We see that $\tilde{u}_{x}$ is an even function; it is $C^{k}$ if $u$ is $C^{k}$, and $\tilde{u}_{x}(0)=u(\boldsymbol{x})$.

When $\omega$ is a ball, we can rewrite (2) in terms of spherical averages: Noting that the volume of the ball $B(\boldsymbol{x}, r)$ is $A_{n} r^{n} / n$, we find

$$
f_{B(x, r)} \Delta u(\boldsymbol{y}) \mathrm{d}^{n} \boldsymbol{y}=\frac{n}{r} f_{B(x, r)} \partial_{\nu} u(\boldsymbol{y}) \mathrm{d} S(\boldsymbol{y})=\frac{n}{r} f_{\mathbb{S}^{n-1}} \partial_{r} u(\boldsymbol{x}+r \boldsymbol{y}) \mathrm{d} S(\boldsymbol{y}),
$$

where we can move the $r$ derivative outside the integral, and arrive at

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{B(x, r)} \Delta u(\boldsymbol{y}) \mathrm{d}^{n} \boldsymbol{y}=\frac{n}{r} \tilde{u}_{x}^{\prime}(r) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Along with $\tilde{u}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(0)=u(\boldsymbol{x})$, this implies
Theorem 2 (The mean value property of harmonic functions). $A C^{2}$ function $u$ on a domain $\Omega$ is harmonic if and only if $\tilde{u}_{x}(r)=u(\boldsymbol{x})$ for all $x \in \Omega$ and all $r$ for which $\bar{B}(\boldsymbol{x},|r|) \subset \Omega$.

In general, we say a function $u$ satisfies the mean value property if $\tilde{u}_{x}(r)=u(\boldsymbol{x})$ whenever $\bar{B}(\boldsymbol{x},|r|) \subset \Omega$. We hall see below (Theorem 4) that the mean value property characterizes harmonic functions. But first, we collect an easy consequence of (4).

Proposition 3. For any $C^{2}$ function $u$, we have

$$
\Delta u(\boldsymbol{x})=n \tilde{u}_{x}^{\prime \prime}(0) .
$$

Proof. The function $\tilde{u}_{x}$ is even, so $\tilde{u}_{x}^{\prime}(0)=0$. Therefore, letting $r \rightarrow 0$ in (4), we arrive at the stated result.

Theorem 4 (The mean value property and regularity). Assume that a continuous function $u$ satisfies the mean value property on a domain $\Omega$. Then $u$ is infinitely differentiable, and is therefore harmonic. In particular, every harmonic function is infinitely differentiable.

Proof. This proof may seem long, but only because we use it to develop some tools that have wider applicability.

First, define a standard mollifier $\rho: \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Here is one of many possible definitions:

$$
\rho(\boldsymbol{x})= \begin{cases}a e^{1 /\left(|x|^{2}-1\right)}, & |\boldsymbol{x}|<1 \\ 0, & |\boldsymbol{x}| \geq 1\end{cases}
$$

where $a>0$ is chosen to ensure that

$$
\int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} \rho \mathrm{~d} x=1 .
$$

That is one of the defining qualities of a standard mollifier. The others are: That $\rho \geq 0$ everywhere, that it vanishes outside the unit ball, that it is infinitely differentiable, and is radially symmetric - that is, a function of $|\boldsymbol{x}|$ alone.

For any $\delta>0$ we can squeeze the mollifier to fit inside a ball of radius $\delta$ :

$$
\rho_{\delta}(\boldsymbol{x})=\frac{1}{\delta^{n}} \rho\left(\frac{\boldsymbol{x}}{\delta}\right),
$$

so that $\rho_{\delta}$ also has integral 1 , but vanishes outside the ball $B(0, \delta)$.
Now we consider the convolution product

$$
u * \rho_{\delta}(\boldsymbol{x})=\int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} u(\boldsymbol{y}) \rho_{\delta}(\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{y}) \mathrm{d}^{n} \boldsymbol{y} .
$$

This is defined for all $x \in \Omega$ with a distance less than $\delta$ to the complement of $\Omega$. Thus, for any $x \in \Omega$, we can make $\delta$ small enough so that $u * \rho_{\delta}$ is defined at $\boldsymbol{x}$.

Moreover, $u * \rho_{\delta}$ is infinitely differentiable: This is proved by differentiating with respect to the components of $\boldsymbol{x}$ under the integral sign, as much as you like.

Finally, the mean value property of $u$ and the radial symmetry of $\rho_{\delta}$ combine to ensure that $u(\boldsymbol{x})=u * \rho(\boldsymbol{x})$ for all $\boldsymbol{x}$ where $u * \rho$ is defined, which is what we were going to prove.

For a detailed argument, write

$$
u * \rho(\boldsymbol{x})=\int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} u(\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{y}) \rho_{\delta}(\boldsymbol{y}) \mathrm{d}^{n} \boldsymbol{y}
$$

and write the integral in polar form:

$$
\begin{aligned}
u * \rho(\boldsymbol{x}) & =\int_{0}^{\delta} \int_{\partial B(\boldsymbol{x}, r)} u(\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{y}) \rho_{\delta}(\boldsymbol{y}) \mathrm{d} S(\boldsymbol{y}) \mathrm{d} r \\
& =\int_{0}^{\delta} \int_{\mathbb{S}^{n-1}} u(\boldsymbol{x}-r \boldsymbol{y}) \rho_{\delta}(r \boldsymbol{y}) \mathrm{d} S(\boldsymbol{y}) r^{n-1} \mathrm{~d} r .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now use the radial symmetry: $\rho_{\delta}(r \boldsymbol{y})$ is constant for $y \in \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$, so this factor can be moved outside the inner integral. Next, use the mean value property of $u$ :

$$
\int_{\mathbb{S}^{n-1}} u(\boldsymbol{x}-r \boldsymbol{y}) \rho_{\delta}(r \boldsymbol{y}) \mathrm{d}^{n} \boldsymbol{y}=A_{n} u(\boldsymbol{x}) .
$$

But $u(\boldsymbol{x})$ is a constant, which we move outside the outer integral. We are left with

$$
u * \rho(\boldsymbol{x})=u(\boldsymbol{x}) \int_{0}^{\delta} r^{n-1} A_{n} \rho_{\delta}(r \boldsymbol{y}) \mathrm{d} r
$$

where $\boldsymbol{y}$ is any unit vector. But running the whole calculation in reverse, this time without the $u$ term, reveals that the integral here is merely the integral of $\rho_{\delta}$, which has the value 1 . Thus we are left with $u * \rho(\boldsymbol{x})=u(\boldsymbol{x})$, as claimed.

## The maximum principle

Definition. A $C^{2}$ function $u$ is called subharmonic if $\Delta u \geq 0$, and superharmonic if $\Delta u \leq 0$. Thus it is harmonic if and only if it is both subharmonic and superharmonic. (The reason for the naming will become clear later; see Corollary 7.) Clearly, $u$ is superharmonic if and only if $u$ is subharmonic.

Theorem 5 (Strong maximum principle). Assume that $u \in C^{2}(\Omega)$ is subharmonic in a region $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n}$. If u has a global maximum in $\Omega$, then $u$ is constant.

Proof. Let $M$ be the global maximum of $u$, and put

$$
S=\{\boldsymbol{x} \in \Omega \mid u(\boldsymbol{x})=M\} .
$$

Then $S$ is a closed subset of $\Omega$, by the continuity of $u$. It is also nonempty by assumption.

Consider any $\boldsymbol{x} \in S$. From (4) and the subharmonicity of $u$, we get $\tilde{u}_{x}^{\prime}(r) \geq 0$ for $r>0$. Thus we get $\tilde{u}_{x}(r) \geq \tilde{u}_{x}(0)=u(\boldsymbol{x})=M$ for $r>0$ (so long as $\bar{B}(\boldsymbol{x}, r) \subset \Omega$ ). But $u \leq M$ everywhere, and if $u<M$ anywhere on the sphere $\partial B(\boldsymbol{x}, r)$, we would get $\tilde{u}_{x}(r)<0$. Thus $u$ is contant equal to $M$ on $\partial B(\boldsymbol{x}, r)$ for any small enough $r$, and therefore, $u$ is constant in some neighbourhood of $\boldsymbol{x}$. This means that $S$ is open.

Since $S$ is an open, closed, and nonempty subset of the connected set $\Omega$, we must have $S=\Omega$, and the proof is complete.

Remark. Obviously, we obtain a strong minimum principle for superharmonic functions by multiplying by -1 . In particular, a non-constant harmonic function cannot attain a minimum or maximum value anywhere in $\Omega$.

Corollary 6 (Weak maximum principle). Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be a bounded domain, and assume that $u \in C(\bar{\Omega}) \cap C^{2}(\Omega)$ is subharmonic. Then

$$
\max \{u(\boldsymbol{x}) \mid \boldsymbol{x} \in \bar{\Omega}\}=\max \{u(\boldsymbol{x}) \mid \boldsymbol{x} \in \partial \Omega\} .
$$

In particular, a harmonic function which is continuous on $\bar{\Omega}$ attains its minimum and maximum values on the boundary $\partial \Omega$.

Proof. The weak principle is an obvious consequence of the strong principle. However, it is worth noting that a much more elementary proof exists. Namely, for any $\varepsilon>0$, let $v(\boldsymbol{x})=u(\boldsymbol{x})+\varepsilon|\boldsymbol{x}|^{2}$, and note that then $\Delta v>0$. But $\Delta v(\boldsymbol{x}) \leq 0$ if $\boldsymbol{x}$ is an interior minimum point for $v$, so $v$ cannot have any maximum in the interior. Thus for any $\boldsymbol{x} \in \Omega$,

$$
u(\boldsymbol{x})=v(\boldsymbol{x})-\varepsilon|\boldsymbol{x}|^{2} \leq \max _{\partial \Omega} v \leq \max _{\partial \Omega} u+\varepsilon \max _{x \in \partial \Omega}|\boldsymbol{x}|^{2} .
$$

Now let $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ to arrive at the conclusion $u(\boldsymbol{x}) \leq \max _{\partial \Omega} u$.
Our next result explains the terms sub- and superharmonic: A subharmonic function is below, and a superharmonic above, a harmonic function given the same boundary data.

Corollary 7. Assume that $\Omega$ is a bounded domain, that $u, v \in C(\bar{\Omega}) \cap C^{2}(\Omega)$, that $u$ is harmonic in $\Omega$, and that $v=u$ on $\partial \Omega$. If $v$ is subharmonic, then $v \leq u$ in $\Omega$, while if $v$ is superharmonic, then $v \geq u$ in $\Omega$.

Proof. Apply the weak maximum principle to $v-u$ if $v$ is subharmonic, or to $u-v$ if $v$ is superharmonic.

Remark. Corollary 7 suggests a strategy for proving existence of a solution to the Dirichlet problem for the Laplace equation: Assume we are trying to find a harmonic function on $\Omega$ with the given boundary value $g$. Consider the pointwise supremum of all subharmonic functions which are $\leq g$ on $\partial \Omega$, and the pointwise infimum of all superharmonic functions which are $\geq g$ on $\partial \Omega$. If the two functions coincide, they should provide a solution to the problem. This is the basis for Perron's method, which we will hopefully get a look at later.

