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## A NOTE ON THE HARMONIC DERIVATIVE

### Abstract

We characterize ordinary differentiability in terms on the harmonic derivative and a local Lipschitz type condition and apply the result to  $C^{k,1}$ –functions.

### 1 Introduction.

We study the connection between ordinary differentiability and some weaker types of pointwise differentiability for functions  $f$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . A function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is ordinary differentiable of order  $m$  at a point  $x = a$  if there is a polynomial  $P(x) = \sum_{|\alpha| \leq m} c_\alpha \cdot x^\alpha$  such that

$$R_m(x, a) = f(x) - P(x - a) = o(|x - a|^m),$$

as  $x \rightarrow a$ . It was proved by the author in [4] that ordinary differentiability is equivalent to  $L^p$ –differentiability (or approximative differentiability) together with a certain local Lipschitz type condition. It is the purpose of this note to prove the analogous result for the harmonic derivative as defined in Stein [5], Ch VIII. Put  $u(x, y) = P_y \star f(x)$ , where  $P_y(x)$  is the Poisson kernel. Then  $f$  is said to have a harmonic derivative  $D_h^\alpha f$  at  $x = a$  if  $D^\alpha u$  has a non–tangential limit at  $(a, 0)$ . We prove that  $f$  is ordinary differentiable of order  $m$  at  $x = a$  if and only if  $f$  has harmonic derivatives at  $x = a$  of all orders up to  $m$  and satisfies the condition  $B_m$ , see definition below (Theorems 3.1 and 3.2).

We apply these results to  $C^{k,1}$ –functions in the following way. Assume that  $f \in C^{m-1,1}(\Omega)$ ,  $m \geq 1$  (see the definition in Section 2). Then  $f$  has

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an ordinary differential of order  $m$  a.e. in  $\Omega$  by the Rademacher–Stepanov theorem. Theorem 3.3 gives a characterization of the points in  $\Omega$  where such a differential exists in terms of harmonic derivatives. A somewhat different approach to these problems is found in [3]. The paper [4] also contains applications to Bessel potentials. Compare also Stocke [6].

Section 2 contains our notation and definitions and our results are stated in Section 3. Section 4 prepares for the proofs in Section 5. In Section 6 we describe the relations between the various derivatives considered in this paper. In particular, we show that the harmonic derivative and the approximative derivative are not related.

## 2 Notation and Definitions.

We let  $\mathbb{R}^n$  denote the Euclidean space with points  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  and let  $\mathbb{R}_+^{n+1} = \{(x, y); x \in \mathbb{R}^n, y > 0\}$  denote the upper half space. Measure and integration is with respect to Lebesgue measure and is denoted by  $|E|$  and  $\int_E f(x) dx$  respectively. The Lebesgue spaces  $L^p(\mathbb{R}^n)$  with norm  $\|f\|_p$ ,  $1 \leq p < \infty$ , are defined in the usual way. Let  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$ . Then we define  $u(x, y) = P_y \star f(x)$ ,  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}_+^{n+1}$ , where

$$P_y(x) = c_n \cdot y \cdot (|x|^2 + y^2)^{-(n+1)/2}, (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}_+^{n+1},$$

is the Poisson kernel for an appropriate constant  $c_n$  [5], Ch. III. Then  $u(x, y)$  is harmonic in the upper half space  $\mathbb{R}_+^{n+1}$  and has non-tangential trace  $f$  almost everywhere on the boundary. A function  $g(x, y)$  defined on  $\mathbb{R}_+^{n+1}$  has non-tangential limit  $A$  at  $(a, 0)$  if  $g(x, y) \rightarrow A$  as  $(x, y) \rightarrow (a, 0)$  and  $(x, y) \in V_s$ , for every cone  $V_s = \{(x, y); |x - a| < s \cdot y\}$ , where  $s > 0$ . Differentiation of  $u$  with respect to the  $x$ -variable is written  $D^\alpha u(x, y)$ , where  $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n)$  is a multi-index of length  $|\alpha| = |\alpha_1| + |\alpha_2| + \dots + |\alpha_n|$ . We also put  $\alpha! = \alpha_1! \cdot \alpha_2! \cdot \dots \cdot \alpha_n!$ .

First order harmonic derivatives were defined in [5], Ch. VIII and the general case is found in [7], p. 93.

**Definition 2.1.** Let  $m$  be a positive integer and let  $f$  be locally integrable at  $x = a$ . Let  $f_1$  be the restriction of  $f$  to a neighborhood  $U$  of  $a$  such that  $f_1 \in L^1(U)$ . We say that  $f$  has a harmonic derivative  $D_h^\alpha f(a) = d_\alpha$  at  $x = a$  if  $D^\alpha u(x, y)$  has non-tangential limit  $\alpha! \cdot d_\alpha$  at  $(a, 0)$ , where  $u(x, y) = P_y \star f_1(x)$ . If  $f$  has harmonic derivatives  $D_h^\alpha f(a)$  of all orders  $|\alpha| \leq m$  we say that  $f$  has a harmonic derivative at  $x = a$  of order  $m$  and we call

$$P(x - a) = \sum_{|\alpha| \leq m} d_\alpha \cdot (x - a)^\alpha$$

the harmonic differential of  $f$  at  $a$  of order  $m$ .

The definition of the harmonic differential is independent of the choice of  $U$ . Next we define a property called  $B_l$  which will be used in the statements of our theorems in Section 3.

**Definition 2.2 (Sjödin [4]).** Let  $m - 1 < l \leq m$ , where  $m$  is a positive integer. We say that  $f$  has property  $B_l$  at  $x = a$  if there is a polynomial  $Q(x) = \sum_{1 \leq |\alpha| \leq m-1} c_\alpha \cdot x^\alpha$  without constant term and of degree at most  $m - 1$ ,  $Q(x) \equiv 0$  for  $0 < l \leq 1$ , such that if  $f_m(x) = f(x) - Q(x)$ , then for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there are positive numbers  $t$  and  $\delta$ ,  $0 < t < \min(\epsilon, 1)$ , such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta \text{ and } |z - x| \leq t \cdot |x - a| \text{ imply } |f_m(z) - f_m(x)| \leq \epsilon \cdot |x - a|^l.$$

**Remark.** We note that the polynomial  $Q$  in Definition 2.2 is unique and if  $0 < l \leq 1$ , then  $m = 1$ ,  $Q \equiv 0$  and  $f_1(z) = f(z)$ .

A function  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , defined on an open subset  $\Omega$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , satisfies a Lipschitz condition on  $\Omega$  if there is a number  $M$  such that  $|f(x) - f(y)| \leq |x - y|$ , for all  $x, y \in \Omega$ . We say  $f$  satisfies a local Lipschitz condition on  $\Omega$  if every  $x \in \Omega$  has a neighborhood  $U$  and a number  $M_U$  such that  $|f(y) - f(z)| \leq M_U \cdot |y - z|$ , for all  $y, z \in U$ .

Let  $k$  be a nonnegative integer and let  $C^{k,1}(\Omega)$  denote the class of functions  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  which have continuous derivatives of order up to  $k$  such that  $D^\alpha f$ ,  $|\alpha| = k$ , satisfy a local Lipschitz condition on  $\Omega$ . Note that  $C^{0,1}(\Omega)$  is the standard class of locally Lipschitz continuous functions on  $\Omega$ .

### 3 Main Results.

Our main result is contained in the following theorems.

**Theorem 3.1.** *Let  $m$  be a positive integer and  $f$  a function defined in a neighborhood of  $x = a$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $f$  is differentiable at  $x = a$  of order  $m$  if and only if*

$$f \text{ has a harmonic derivative of order } m \text{ at } x = a \quad (1)$$

and

$$f \text{ has property } B_m \text{ at } x = a. \quad (2)$$

Theorem 3.1 follows easily from the following slightly more general result.

**Theorem 3.2.** *Theorem 3.1 remains true if condition (1) is replaced by the condition that*

$$D_h^\alpha f(a) \text{ exist for all } |\alpha| = m. \quad (3)$$

**Remark.** The function  $u(x, y)$  in Theorems 3.1 and 3.2 is well defined since property  $B_m$  implies that  $f$  is bounded in a neighborhood of  $x = a$ .

We give the following application of Theorem 3.1 to  $C^k$ -functions.

**Theorem 3.3.** *Let  $m$  be a positive integer and let  $f \in C^{m-1,1}(\Omega)$ . Then  $f$  is ordinary differentiable of order  $m$  at a point  $a \in \Omega$  if and only if  $f$  has harmonic derivatives  $D_h^\alpha f(a)$  for all  $|\alpha| = m$ .*

## 4 Some Lemmas.

We start with some properties of the Poisson kernel which will be frequently used in the rest of this paper.

$$|D^\alpha P_y(x)| \leq c(\alpha, n) \cdot y^{-n-|\alpha|}, (x, y) \in R_+^{n+1}, \quad (4)$$

$$\int_{|x|>r} |D^\alpha P_y(x)| \cdot |x|^k dx \leq c(\alpha, k, n) \cdot y \cdot r^{k-|\alpha|-1},$$

$$\text{for } r \geq y > 0, k < |\alpha| + 1, \quad (5)$$

$$\int |D^\alpha P_y(x)| dx \leq c(\alpha, n) \cdot y^{-|\alpha|}, y > 0 \quad (6)$$

$$\int P_y(x) dx = 1, y > 0,$$

where as usual  $D^\alpha$  denotes differentiation with respect to  $x$ . The proofs are straight forward consequences of the formula  $P_y(x) = y^{-n} \cdot P_1(x/y)$  and are left to the reader. We now give three lemmas used in the proofs in Section 5 and begin with a lemma on functions having property  $B_l$ .

**Lemma 4.1.** (a) *If  $0 < l_0 < l_1$ , then property  $B_{l_1}$  implies property  $B_{l_0}$ ,*

(b) *If  $f$  has property  $B_l$  at  $x = a$ , then the limit  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = c_0$  exists,*

(c) *If  $f$  has property  $B_l$  at  $x = a$  there are numbers  $\delta_0 > 0$  and  $M$  such that*

$$|f(x) - c_0 - Q(x - a)| \leq M \cdot |x - a|^l,$$

*for  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_0$ .*

PROOF. The statement (a) is obvious from the definition, while (b) and (c) follow from [4], Lemma 5.3.  $\square$

**Lemma 4.2.** *Let  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  be multi-indices,  $|\alpha| \leq |\beta|$ . Then the integral*

$$\int D^\beta P_y(x-z) \cdot z^\alpha dz$$

*converges and equals zero unless  $\alpha = \beta$ . In that case it equals  $(-1)^\alpha \cdot \alpha!$ .*

The proof is through integration by parts, where we pass the derivatives  $D^\beta$  from  $P_y(x-z)$  to  $z^\alpha$ , see [5], p. 247.

**Lemma 4.3.** *Let  $m$  be an integer,  $m \geq 2$ , and let  $f$  be a function with compact support having property  $B_m$  at  $x = a$ , with polynomial  $Q(x) = \sum_{1 \leq |\alpha| \leq m-1} c_\alpha \cdot x^\alpha$ . Define  $u(x, y) = P_y \star f(x)$ . If  $D^\beta u(x, y)$  has a non-tangential limit  $\beta! \cdot d_\beta$  at  $(a, 0)$  for some  $\beta$  with  $1 \leq |\beta| \leq m-1$ , then  $d_\beta = c_\beta$ .*

PROOF. It follows from Lemma 4.1 that there are numbers  $c_0$ ,  $M$  and  $\delta_0 > 0$  such that

$$|f(x) - \sum_{|\alpha| \leq m-1} c_\alpha \cdot (x-a)^\alpha| \leq M \cdot |x-a|^m, \quad (7)$$

for  $|x-a| < \delta_0$ . It is no loss of generality to assume that  $f(x) = 0$ , for  $|x-a| > \delta_0$ . Let  $1 \leq |\beta| = k \leq m-1$  and define  $f_k(x) = f(x) - \sum_{|\alpha| \leq k} c_\alpha \cdot (x-a)^\alpha$ .

Let  $0 < \epsilon < 1$  be arbitrary and define a cone  $V$  by  $V = \{(x, t); t \geq \epsilon \cdot |x-a|\}$ . We put  $y = \epsilon \cdot |x-a|$ . Then  $(x, y) \in V$ . Now consider the identity

$$I = \int D^\beta P_y(x-z) \cdot f_k(z) dz = D^\beta u(x, y) - \sum_{|\alpha| \leq k} \int D^\beta P_y(x-z) \cdot c_\alpha \cdot (z-a)^\alpha dz.$$

The first term on the right hand side tends to  $\beta! \cdot d_\beta$  as  $x \rightarrow a$  by our assumption, while the second term equals  $\beta! \cdot c_\beta$  by Lemma 4.1. We finish the proof of the lemma by showing that  $|I|$  tends to zero as  $x \rightarrow a$ . We have

$$|I| \leq \int |D^\beta P_y(x-z)| \cdot |f_k(z)| dz = \int_{|z-x| \geq |x-a|} + \int_{|z-x| \leq |x-a|} = A_1 + A_2. \quad (8)$$

It follows from (7) and the definition of  $f_k$  that there is  $M_1$ , independent of  $x$ , such that  $|f_k(x)| \leq M_1 \cdot \min(|x-a|^k, |x-a|^{k+1})$ , for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then for  $|x-a| \leq 1$

$$A_1 \leq M_1 \cdot \int_{|z-x| \geq |x-a|} |D^\beta P_y(x-z)| \cdot |z-a|^k dz \leq$$

$$\leq 2^k \cdot M_1 \cdot \int_{|w| \geq |x-a|} |D^\beta P_y(w)| \cdot |w|^k dw \leq c(k, n) \cdot M_1 \cdot \epsilon,$$

by (5) and the properties of  $f_k$ . Further,

$$\begin{aligned} A_2 &\leq M_1 \cdot \int_{|z-x| \leq |x-a|} |D^\beta P_y(z-x)| \cdot |z-a|^{k+1} dz \leq \\ &\leq 2^{k+1} \cdot M_1 \cdot |x-a|^{k+1} \int |D^\beta P_y(w)| dw \leq c(k, n) \cdot M_1 \cdot \epsilon^{-k} \cdot |x-a|, \end{aligned}$$

by (6). It follows that  $I$  tends to zero as  $x \rightarrow a$ , which completes the proof of Lemma 4.3.  $\square$

## 5 Proofs of Theorems 3.2 and 3.3.

We start with the proof of Theorem 3.2. The necessity part is straight forward. Assume that  $f$  is differentiable at  $x = a$  of order  $m$ . Then it is easy to see that  $f$  has property  $B_m$  at  $x = a$  and  $f$  has a harmonic differential of order  $m$ . See [5], p. 247 for the case  $m = 1$ . The general case is proved analogously.

Now we turn to the proof of the sufficiency part of Theorem 3.2. Assume that (2) and (3) hold. Let  $0 < \epsilon < 1$  be arbitrary and choose  $\delta$ ,  $t$  and the polynomial  $Q(x)$  as in Definition 2.2,  $Q(x) \equiv 0$  if  $m = 1$ . Without loss of generality we assume that  $f$  is zero outside a suitable disc centered at  $x = a$ . Then, as in the proof of Lemma 4.2, there is a unique number  $c_0$  and  $M_1 > 0$ , independent of  $x$ , such that

$$|f(x) - \sum_{|\alpha| \leq m-1} c_\alpha \cdot x^\alpha| \leq M_1 \cdot \min(|x-a|^{m-1}, |x-a|^m), \quad (9)$$

for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $\alpha! \cdot a_\alpha$ ,  $|\alpha| = m$ , be the non-tangential limit of  $D^\alpha u(x, y)$  at  $(a, 0)$  according to (3), where  $u(x, y) = P_y \star f(x)$ , and define  $P(x) = \sum_{|\alpha| \leq m} c_\alpha \cdot x^\alpha$ . We are going to prove that  $f(x) - P(x-a) = o(|x-a|^m)$ , as  $x \rightarrow a$ , and start from the identity

$$f(x) - P(x-a) = (f_m(x) - f_m(z)) + (f_m(z) - c_0) - \sum_{|\alpha|=m} c_\alpha \cdot (x-a)^\alpha, \quad (10)$$

where as usual  $f_m(w) = f(w) - Q(w-a)$ . Multiplying (10) with  $P_y(x-z)$  and integrating with respect to  $z$  over  $|z-x| \leq t \cdot |x-a|$  gives

$$(f(x) - P(x-a)) \cdot \int_{|w| \leq t \cdot |x-a|} P_y(w) dw = I_1 + I_2 + I_3, \quad (11)$$

where  $I_1$ ,  $I_2$  and  $I_3$  correspond to the three terms in the right hand side of (10). We define a cone  $V = \{(x, y); y \geq \epsilon \cdot t^m \cdot |x - a|\}$  and put  $y = \epsilon \cdot t^m \cdot |x - a|$ . Then  $(x, y) \in V$  and the integral in the left hand side of (11) is at least  $1 - c \cdot \epsilon$ . Hence it suffices to estimate  $I_k$ ,  $k = 1, 2, 3$ . First, Definition 2.2 implies that  $|I_1| \leq \epsilon \cdot |x - a|^m$ , for  $|x - a| < \delta$ . Next we split  $I_2$  as

$$I_2 = \int_{|z-a| \leq 2|x-a|} - \int_{|z-a| \leq 2|x-a|, |z-x| > t|x-a|} = I_2' + I_2'',$$

where

$$|I_2''| \leq M_1 \cdot 2^m \cdot |x - a|^m \cdot \int_{|w| \geq t|x-a|} P_y(w) dw \leq c(n, m) \cdot M_1 \cdot \epsilon \cdot |x - a|^m,$$

by (5) and (9). We now use Taylor's formula on the Poisson kernel to get

$$\begin{aligned} I_2' &= \sum_{|\alpha| \leq m-1} \frac{1}{\alpha!} \cdot \int_{|z-a| \leq 2 \cdot |x-a|} D^\alpha P_y(a-z) \cdot (x-a)^\alpha \cdot (f_m(z) - c_0) dz + \\ &+ \int_{|z-a| \leq 2 \cdot |x-a|} R_m(x, z) \cdot (f_m(z) - c_0) dz = A + B, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$R_m(x, z) = \sum_{|\alpha|=m} \frac{1}{\alpha!} \cdot \int_0^1 D^\alpha P_y(a-z+s(x-a)) \cdot (x-a)^\alpha ds$$

is the remainder. We claim that  $A$  and  $B + I_3$  are bounded by some constant times  $\epsilon \cdot |x - a|^m$ , as  $x \rightarrow a$ .

We split  $A$  as

$$A = \sum_{|z-a| \leq r|x-a|} \int + \sum_{r|x-a| < |z-a| \leq 2|x-a|} \int, \quad (12)$$

where the summation is over  $|\alpha| \leq m-1$  and  $r = t^m$ . The first sum in (12) has terms bounded by

$$\begin{aligned} &c(m) \cdot M_1 \cdot (r|x-a|)^m \cdot |x-a|^{|\alpha|} \cdot \int |D^\alpha P_y(w)| dw \leq \\ &\leq c(m, n) \cdot M_1 \cdot r^m \cdot |x-a|^{m+|\alpha|} \cdot y^{-|\alpha|} \leq c(m, n) \cdot M_1 \cdot \epsilon \cdot |x-a|^m. \end{aligned}$$

The terms in the second sum in (12) are bounded by

$$\begin{aligned} & c(m) \cdot M_1 \cdot |x - a|^{|\alpha|} \cdot \int_{r|x-a| < |z-a| \leq 2r|x-a|} |D^\alpha P_y(a-z)| \cdot |z-a|^m dz \leq \\ & \leq c(m) \cdot |x-a|^m \cdot \int_{|z-a| > r|x-a|} |D^\alpha P_y(a-z)| \cdot |z-a|^{|\alpha|} \leq c(m, n) \cdot \epsilon \cdot |x-a|^m. \end{aligned}$$

In both cases we used (5), (9),  $y = \epsilon \cdot t^m \cdot |x-a|$  and  $r = t^m$ . This proves our claim for  $A$ .

We are now only left with  $(B + I_3)$  and first note that

$$I_3 = - \sum_{|\alpha|=m} c_\alpha \cdot (x-a)^\alpha + I_4,$$

where  $|I_4| \leq c \cdot \sum_{|\alpha|=m} |c_\alpha| \cdot \epsilon \cdot |x-a|^m$  by (5). We split  $B$  into two terms

$$B = \int_{R^n} - \int_{|z-a| > 2|x-a|} = B_1 + B_2.$$

To prove our claim for  $(B + I_3)$ , and thereby complete the proof of Theorem 3.2, it suffices to show that  $|B_2| \leq c(m, n) \cdot M_1 \cdot \epsilon \cdot |x-a|^m$  and

$$B_1 - \sum_{|\alpha|=m} c_\alpha \cdot (x-a)^\alpha = o(|x-a|^m), \quad (13)$$

as  $x \rightarrow a$ . Estimating the remainder  $R_m(x, z)$  in Taylors formula gives that  $|B_2|$  is at most

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{|\alpha|=m} \frac{1}{\alpha!} \cdot \int_{|u| > |x-a|} du \int_0^1 ds |D^\alpha P_y(u)| \cdot |x-a|^m \cdot |f_m(a + s(x-a) - u) - a_0| \leq \\ & \leq c(m, n) \cdot M_1 \cdot \sum_{|\alpha|=m} \int_{|u| > |x-a|} du |D^\alpha P_y(u)| \cdot |x-a|^m \cdot (|u|^m + |x-a|^m) \leq \\ & \leq c(m, n) \cdot M_1 \cdot \epsilon \cdot |x-a|^m, \end{aligned}$$

by a change of variables and using (5) and (9). This settles the estimate for  $B_2$ . For  $B_1$  we have the formula

$$B_1 = \sum_{|\alpha|=m} \frac{1}{\alpha!} \cdot \int_0^1 ds D^\alpha u(a + s(x-a), y) \cdot (x-a)^\alpha \quad (14)$$



by Lemma 4.2. The point  $(a + s(x - a), y)$  belongs to the cone  $V$ . Hence the integral in (14) tends to  $\alpha! \cdot c_\alpha$  as  $x \rightarrow a$ , for all  $|\alpha| = m$ , since the integrand converges uniformly to  $\alpha! \cdot c_\alpha$ ,  $0 \leq s \leq 1$ . This proves (13) and completes the proof of Theorem 3.2.  $\square$

PROOF OF THEOREM 3.3. We first show that  $f$  has property  $B_m$  everywhere in  $\Omega$ . This is obvious if  $m = 1$  and the general case follows from Taylors formula. Theorem 3.3 now follows from Theorem 3.2.  $\square$

## 6 Examples and Remarks.

We start with two definitions. A function  $f$  is  $L^p$ -differentiable of order  $l$ ,  $m \leq l < m + 1$ , at  $x = a$  if there is a polynomial  $P(x - a)$  of order at most  $m$  such that

$$(r^{-n} \cdot \int_{|x-a| \leq r} |f(x) - P(x-a)|^p dx)^{1/p} = o(r^l), \text{ as } r \rightarrow 0,$$

and  $f$  is approximately differentiable of order  $l$  at  $x = a$  if

$$r^{-n} \cdot |\{x; |f(x) - P(x-a)| > \lambda \cdot |x-a|^l \text{ and } |x-a| < r\}| \rightarrow 0, \text{ as } r \rightarrow 0,$$

for every  $\lambda > 0$ . It is easy to see that  $L^p$ -differentiability implies approximative differentiability. That also  $L^p$ -differentiability implies the existence of a harmonic differential is proved in [5], p. 247 for  $m = 1$ . The same proof applies in the general case. In this section we show that the existence of a harmonic differential is not related to approximative differentiability. Consequently, our Theorems 3.1 and 3.2 do not follow from [4].

There are functions  $f$  that have approximate differentials of any order at  $x = a$  but are not locally integrable there, c.f. [1], p. 150. Such functions cannot have harmonic derivatives at  $x = a$ . In the rest of this section we construct an example of a function  $f$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  that has a harmonic differential but is not approximately differentiable at the origin.

**Example.** Let  $I = [a, b]$  be an interval and  $k$  a positive integer. Define

$$g_{I,k}(x) = (-1)^j, \text{ if } x \in [a + (j-1)v, a + jv), 1 \leq j \leq 2k,$$

where  $v = (b - a)/2k$ . The oscillating function  $g_{I,k}$  has a cancelling effect as expressed in the following lemma.

**Lemma 6.1.** *Let  $h \in C^1(I)$ . Then*

$$\left| \int_I h(x) \cdot g_{I,k}(x) dx \right| \leq \frac{1}{4k} \cdot \sup_I |h'(x)| \cdot |I|^2.$$

The proof of Lemma 6.1 is elementary and therefore omitted. Now let  $f_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots$ , be the function  $g_{I,k}$  with  $I = [2^{-i}, 2^{1-i}]$ ,  $f_i(x) = 0$  outside  $I$ , where  $k = k_i$  will be defined later. Define

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} 2^{-i} \cdot f_i(x), \quad x > 0,$$

$f(0) = 0$  and  $f(-x) = f(x)$ . Then  $f$  does not have a first order approximative differential at  $x = 0$ . If such a differential exists it must equal zero, because  $f$  is an even function. This is however impossible, since  $|f(x)| \geq |x|/2$  for  $|x| \leq 1$ . It remains to prove that  $f$  has a first order harmonic derivative at  $x = 0$  if the sequence  $\{k_i\}$  increases fast enough.

Now we define  $u(x, y) = P_y \star f(x)$ . Then  $u$  is harmonic in the upper half plane and  $u(x, y) \rightarrow 0$ , as  $(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)$  non-tangentially, since  $x = 0$  is a Lebesgue point of  $f$  and  $f(0) = 0$  [5], Ch. VII, Theorem 1. Further,

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \int P'_y(x - z) \cdot f(z) dz,$$

since the differentiated integral converges uniformly on the entire real axis. Let  $s > 0$  and define a cone  $V_s = \{(x, y); |x| < s \cdot y \text{ and } y > 0\}$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be arbitrary,  $0 < \epsilon < \min(1/s, 1)$ , and let  $0 < y < 1$ . Now assume that  $(x, y) \in V_s$  and write

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \int P'_y(x - z) \cdot f(z) dz = \int_{|z| \geq r} + \int_{-r}^0 + \int_0^r = A + B + C,$$

where  $r = 2/(\epsilon \cdot \sqrt{y})$ . Then

$$|A| \leq \int_{|z-x| \geq r/2} |P'_y(x - z)| \cdot |f(z)| dz \leq \int_{|w| \geq r/2} |P'_y(w)| dw \leq c \cdot \epsilon,$$

by (5). Lemma 6.1 and the estimate  $|P''_y(w)| \leq c \cdot y^{-3}$  gives

$$|B| \leq \sum_{I=1}^{\infty} 2^{-I} \cdot \left| \int_{-r}^0 P'_y(x - z) dz \right| \leq \sum_N^{\infty} 2^{-3i} \cdot y^{-3} \cdot k_i^{-1},$$

where  $N = N(\epsilon, y) = [\log_2 1/r]$ . Choosing  $k_i = 2^{4i}$  we get  $|B| \leq c \cdot \epsilon^{-7} \cdot \sqrt{y}$  and hence  $\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} |B| = 0$ . We get an analogous estimate for the term  $C$ . It follows that  $\limsup_{y \rightarrow 0} |\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}| \leq c \cdot \epsilon$ . Since  $\epsilon$  and  $s$  are arbitrary we conclude that  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}$  tends non-tangentially to zero at  $(0, 0)$ . This proves that  $f$  has a first order harmonic derivative at  $x = 0$  and completes our example.

**Remark.** It is possible to choose the sequence  $\{k_i\}_1^\infty$  such that  $\frac{\partial^j u}{\partial x^j}$  tends to zero non-tangentially, for all  $j = 1, 2, \dots$ , i.e.  $f$  has harmonic derivatives of all orders equal to zero at  $x = 0$ . We simply choose  $k_i = 2^{2^i}$ . Then for  $s > 0$ ,  $0 < \epsilon < \min(s^{-j-1}, 1)$ ,  $0 < y < 1$  and  $(x, y) \in V_s$  we can proceed as above with  $r = 2 \cdot (y/\epsilon)^{1/(j+1)}$  to prove that  $\partial^j u / \partial x^j$  tends to zero non-tangentially at  $(0, 0)$ , for  $j = 1, 2, \dots$ .

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