# Carleson measures and elliptic boundary value problems

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<sup>5</sup> Abstract. In this article, we highlight the role of Carleson measures in elliptic boundary value prob-

<sup>6</sup> lems, and discuss some recent results in this theory. The focus here is on the Dirichlet problem, with

measurable data, for second order elliptic operators in divergence form. We illustrate, through selected
 examples the various ways Carleson measures arise in characterizing those classes of operators for

examples, the various ways Carleson measures arise in characterizing those classes of operators for
 which Dirichlet problems are solvable with classical non-tangential maximal function estimates.

<sup>10</sup> Mathematics Subject Classification (2010). Primary 42B99, 42B25, 35J25, 42B20.

11 Keywords. Carleson measures, elliptic divergence form equations,  $A_{\infty}$ , boundary value problems.

### 12 **1. Introduction**

Measures of Carleson type were introduced by L. Carleson in [9] and [10] to solve a problem 13 in analytic interpolation, via a formulation that exploited the duality between Carleson mea-14 sures and non-tangential maximal functions (defined below). Carleson measures have since 15 become one of the most important tools in harmonic analysis, playing a fundamental role in 16 the study of singular integral operators in particular, through their connection with BMO, 17 the John-Nirenberg space of functions of bounded mean oscillation. We aim to describe, 18 through some specific examples, the ubiquitous role of measures of this type in the theory 19 of boundary value problems, especially with regard to sharp regularity of "elliptic" measure, 20 the probability measure arising in the Dirichlet problem for second order divergence form 21 elliptic operators. Perhaps the first connection between Carleson measures and boundary 22 value problems was observed by C. Feffeman in [18], namely that every BMO function on 23  $\mathbb{R}^n$  has a harmonic extension to the upper half space  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}_+$  which satisfies a certain Carleson 24 measure condition. This established an important link between solutions to boundary value 25 problems for the Laplacian and the function space BMO. It may be surprising to see the 26 extent to which this link exists for operators other than the Laplacian, and in the context of 27 more general domains. 28

In order to define Carleson measures, we introduce the geometric notion of a Carleson region above a cube. If  $Q \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is a cube with side length l(Q) set  $T_Q = \{(x,t) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}_+ : x \in I, 0 < t < l(Q)\}$ , a cube sitting above its boundary face Q. (The notation  $T_Q$  comes from an equivalent formulation involving "tents" over cubes.)

<sup>33</sup> **Definition 1.1.** The measure  $d\mu$  is a Carleson measure in the upper half space  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}_+$  if there <sup>34</sup> exists a constant C such for all cubes  $Q \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\mu(T(Q)) < C|Q|$ , where |Q| denotes the

Proceedings of International Congress of Mathematicians, 2014, Seoul

Lebesgue measure of the cube Q.

The classical theory of harmonic functions in the upper half space, or the ball, considers 36 solutions to the Dirichlet problem with measurable, specifically  $L^p$ , data. Given a function 37  $f \in L^p(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , the convolution of f and the Poisson kernel is an absolutely convergent integral 38 when 1 , giving meaning to the harmonic extension <math>u(x,t) of an  $L^p$  function. 39 And the sense in which this extension u converges to its boundary values is "non-tangential". 40 That is, for every  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , one can define a non-tangential approach region to  $x_0$ ,  $\Gamma_a(x_0) =$ 41  $\{(x,t) : |x-x_0| < at\}$ . Then if u(x,t) is the Poisson extension of  $f \in L^p(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , for 42 almost every  $x_0, u(x,t) \to f(x_0)$  as  $(x,t) \in \Gamma_a(x_0)$  approaches  $x_0$ . Moreover, one has 43 a non-tangential maximal function estimate, specified below, which yields solvability and 44 uniqueness of this  $L^p$  Dirichlet problem. 45 The result of C. Fefferman about harmonic functions, which proved to be a powerful tool 46

in harmonic function theory, is this: if u(x,t) is the Poisson extension of  $f \in BMO$ , then  $d\mu = t|\nabla u|^2 dx dt$  is a Carleson measure in the upper half space  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}_+$ . The converse also holds for functions that are not too large at  $\infty$ .

In the last several decades, there have been many significant developments in the theory of boundary value problems with data in  $L^p$  spaces, for harmonic (or poly-harmonic) functions defined in very general domains, and for solutions to second order divergence form (and higher order) elliptic operators with non-smooth coefficients. We will highlight a selection of these developments in which the role of Carleson measures has been decisive.

For simplicity of notation, we will formulate the results in the upper half plane,  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}_+$ , but in fact these results are more naturally formulated on Lipschitz domains - see the cited references for this generality. In some cases, the perturbation results hold in more general (chord-arc) domains: [41–43].

#### 59 2. Definitions and background

A divergence form elliptic operator

$$L := -\operatorname{div} A(x)\nabla,$$

defined in  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ , where A is a (possibly non-symmetric)  $(n+1) \times (n+1)$  matrix of bounded real coefficients, satisfies the uniform ellipticity condition

$$\lambda |\xi|^2 \le \langle A(x)\xi,\xi\rangle := \sum_{i,j=1}^{n+1} A_{ij}(x)\xi_j\xi_i, \quad ||A||_{L^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}^n)} \le \lambda^{-1},$$
(2.1)

for some  $\lambda > 0$ , and for all  $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . As usual, the divergence form equation is interpreted in the weak sense, i.e., we say that Lu = 0 in a domain  $\Omega$  if  $u \in W_{loc}^{1,2}(\Omega)$  and

$$\int A\nabla u \cdot \nabla \Psi = 0 \,,$$

for all  $\Psi \in C_0^{\infty}(\Omega)$ .

For notational simplicity,  $\Omega$  will henceforth be the half-space  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}_+ := \{(x,t) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \}$ 

 $_{64}$   $(0,\infty)$  even though the results are more naturally formulated on Lipschitz domains. See the cited references for this generality. Carleson measures and elliptic boundary value problems

The solvability of the Dirichlet problem for L with data in  $L^p(dx)$  is a function of a precise relationship between the elliptic measure  $\omega$  associated to L and Lebesgue measure.

The elliptic measure associated to L is analogous to the harmonic measure: it is the representing measure for solutions to L with continuous data on the boundary.

**Definition 2.2.** A non-negative Borel measure  $\omega$  defined on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is said to belong to the class  $A_{\infty}$  if there are positive constants C and  $\theta$  such that for every cube Q, and every Borel set  $F \subset Q$ , we have

$$\omega(F) \le C \left(\frac{|F|}{|Q|}\right)^{\theta} \omega(Q).$$
(2.3)

<sup>73</sup> A real variable argument shows that a measure,  $\omega$ , belongs to  $A_{\infty}(dx)$  if and only if it is <sup>74</sup> absolutely continuous with respect to Lebesgue measure and there is an exponent q > 1 such <sup>75</sup> that the Radon-Nikodym derivative  $k := d\omega/dx$  satisfies

$$\left(\int_{Q} k(x)^{q} dx\right)^{1/q} \le C \int_{Q} k(x) \, dx \,, \tag{2.4}$$

<sup>76</sup> uniformly for every cube Q. This property is called a reverse-Hölder estimate of order q.

If  $\omega$  is the elliptic measure associated to an operator L, then the existence of such a q > 1is, in turn, equivalent to the solvability of the Dirichlet problem for L with boundary data  $f \in L^p$  (for p dual to q), in the sense of non-tangential convergence and non-tangential estimates on the boundary. These non-tangential estimates are expressed in terms of  $L^p$ bounds on two classical operators associated to solutions: the square function

$$S^{\alpha}(u)(x) := \left( \iint_{|x-y| < \alpha t} |\nabla u(y,t)|^2 \frac{dydt}{t^{n-1}} \right)^{1/2}, \qquad (2.5)$$

<sup>82</sup> and the non-tangential maximal function

$$N_*^{\alpha}(u)(x) := \sup_{(y,t):|x-y| < \alpha t} |u(y,t)|$$
(2.6)

Precisely, the elliptic measure satisfies a reverse Hölder estimate of order q if and only if the

following  $L^p$  Dirichlet problem is solvable, for p dual to the exponent q:

$$\begin{cases} Lu = 0 \text{ in } \mathbb{R}^{n+1}_+ \\ \lim_{t \to 0} u(\cdot, t) = f \text{ in } L^p(\mathbb{R}^n) \text{ and } \mathbf{n}. \mathbf{t}. \\ \|N_*(u)\|_{L^p(\mathbb{R}^n)} < C \|f\|_p. \end{cases}$$
(D<sub>p</sub>)

Here, the notation " $u \to f$  n.t." means that  $\lim_{(y,t)\to(x,0)} u(y,t) = f(x)$ , for *a.e.*  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , where the limit runs over  $(y,t) \in \Gamma(x) := \{(y,t) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}_+ : |y-x| < t\}$ . The constant Cdepends only on ellipticity and dimension.

<sup>88</sup> We will usually suppress the dependence on the aperture  $\alpha$ , since the choice of aperture <sup>89</sup> does not affect the range of available  $L^p$  estimates.

Solutions to *L* are said to satisfy De Giorgi-Nash-Moser bounds when the following local Hölder continuity estimates hold. Assume that Lu = 0 in  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}_+$  in the weak sense and 92  $B_{2R}(X) \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}_+, X \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}_+, R > 0.$  Then

$$|u(Y) - u(Z)| \le C \left(\frac{|Y - Z|}{R}\right)^{\mu} \left(\int_{B_{2R}(X)} |u|^2 \frac{\mathrm{dx}}{|B_2 R(X)}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}, \quad \text{for all} \quad Y, Z \in B_R(X),$$
(2.7)

for some constants  $\mu > 0$  and C > 0. In particular, one can show that for any p > 0

$$|u(Y)| \le C \left( \int_{B_{2R}(X)} |u|^p \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{|B_2 R(X)} \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}, \quad \text{for all} \quad Y, Z \in B_R(X).$$
(2.8)

The De Giorgi-Nash-Moser bounds always hold when the coefficients of the underlying equation are real [14, 40, 44], and the constants depend quantitatively only upon ellipticity and dimension. We will assume that for the complex equations considered later on (*t*-independent coefficients ), that solutions satisfy the De Giorgi-Nash-Moser bounds, which may not in general obtain ([25, 39]).

#### **3.** Perturbations of elliptic operators

In this section, we briefly discuss some background which will motivate certain topics treated
 later, and for which Carleson measure estimates have played a decisive role.

In the upper half space, the Dirichlet problem is uniquely solvable for the Laplacian when the boundary data belongs to  $L^p(dx)$ , 1 , in the sense that the Poisson extension<math>u(x,t) of f satisfies the estimate  $||N(u)||_p \leq C||f||_p$ . The same holds for solutions to  $L := -\operatorname{div} A(x)\nabla$ , when coefficients of A are smooth, or even just  $C^1$  ([20]). However, without some regularity assumptions, the elliptic measure associated to L may be singular with respect to Lebesgue measure ([7])), and no estimate of this type will hold.

Many interesting examples of elliptic operators in divergence form arise as pullbacks of 108 the Laplacian from a change of variable. From the viewpoint of complex function theory, it is 109 natural to consider boundary behavior of harmonic functions in domains other than the ball or 110 the upper half space. One approach to solving boundary value problems for harmonic func-111 tions in, say, a domain above a graph, is to invoke a change variables, mapping the harmonic 112 function v to a solution u of a new divergence form elliptic operator, L. Thus, if the domain 113 were bounded by a smooth curve, an appropriate change of variables results in a real sym-114 metric divergence form operator with smooth coefficients. But if the boundary of the domain 115 is not regular, the resulting operator has non-smooth coefficients, and the problem has not 116 become easier. For a variety of reasons, including scale invariance and naturally arising geo-117 metric constructions, attention focused on the class of Lipschitz domains. In [12], Dahlberg 118 showed that harmonic measure on any Lipschitz domain belonged to  $A_{\infty}$  with respect to the 119 surface measure on the boundary. In fact, he showed that the  $L^2$  Dirichlet problem,  $D_2$ , 120 was solvable, but that  $D_p$  was not uniformly solvable on all Lipschitz domains when p < 2. 121 More recently, the theory has developed to include a body of results for non-graph domains 122 described by geometric conditions (non-tangentially accessible, chord-arc, Reifenberg flat.). 123 Consider the following example of a particularly straightforward change of variables. The 124 domain is the region above a graph  $t = \phi(x)$ , where  $\phi(x)$  is Lipschitz. The change of 125

variables,  $(x,t) \rightarrow (x,t-\phi(x))$ , "flattens" it to the upper half space. Under this change of 126 variable, from the Lipschitz domain to  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}_+$ , harmonic functions are mapped to solutions of a 127 symmetric elliptic divergence form operator L whose coefficients involve the Jacobian of this 128 transformation and are therefore merely bounded and measurable. However, the coefficients 129 have one redeeming feature: they are independent of the transverse variable t. Jerison and 130 Kenig (JK) discovered how to put Dahlberg's result in a larger context when they showed that 131  $D_2$  was solvable in  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}_+$  for all elliptic symmetric *t*-independent operators. Their well known 132 result was based on an  $L^2$  identity (a "Rellich" identity) which decisively used these three 133 properties of the (real) operator L: symmetry, ellipticity, t-independence of the coefficients. 134 Specifically, if Lu = 0, and  $\vec{e}$  is the unit normal at the boundary of  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}_+$ , then 135

$$\operatorname{div}(A\nabla u.\nabla u\,\vec{e}) = 2\operatorname{div}(D_{n+1}(u)A\nabla u). \tag{3.1}$$

Integrating this identity and applying the divergence theorem results in a boundary identity that can be used to show that the normal and tangential derivatives of a solution are comparable in  $L^2$  norm. This boundary identity scales to show that the elliptic measure is not only absolutely continuous but satisfies a reverse Hölder condition of order two. Therefore, the Dirichlet problem with data in  $L^2$  is solvable.

Many subsequent advances in the theory of boundary value problems for real symmetric elliptic equations and systems were based on variants of this Rellich identity.

The theory of perturbations of elliptic operators arose from several separate points of 143 view. One source was T. Kato's interest in the analyticity of square roots of complex sec-144 ond order divergence form elliptic operators, which led to a question about analyticity of 145 small  $L^{\infty}$  perturbations of self-adjoint elliptic operators. There is extensive literature on 146 this subject which we are not going to delve into in this article. (See [4] for the solution to 147 Kato's conjecture.) Another, and related, source of interest, stemmed from the the discov-148 ery that independence in the t variable in  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}_+$  (or similarly, of the radial variable in the 149 unit ball) endows the elliptic measure  $\omega$  with good properties. One may then try to relax 150 this condition and understand more precisely the relationship between the smoothness that 151 is required in the t direction and good estimates for elliptic measure. This was the approach 152 taken in [13, 19, 30, 34], and see also [2, 3, 26] for later developments in perturbation theory. 153 Dahlberg, [13], imposed a "vanishing" condition on the Carleson discrepancy between the 154 coefficients and proved strong results about preservation of reverse Hölder estimates for the 155 elliptic measure. An entirely new approach to the vanishing Carleson condition was taken in 156 [2] that provided major extensions of the perturbation theory to complex coefficient opera-157 tors. 158

Consider an operator  $L_1 := -\operatorname{div} A(x,t)\nabla$ , in  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}_+$ , regarded as a perturbation of  $L_0 := -\operatorname{div} A(x,0)\nabla$ , and suppose one asks for some quantitative conditions on |A(x,t)-A(x,0)|that yield good estimates for the elliptic measure  $\omega_{L_1}$ . More generally, one can formulate the question as follows: what are the optimal conditions on the difference of the coefficients such that the perturbation  $L_1$  of a "good" operator  $L_0$ , not necessarily *t*-independent, also satisfies good estimates for solvability of a boundary value problem. In [19], optimal conditions were found.

Theorem 3.2. Let  $L_0 = \operatorname{div} A_0 \nabla$  and  $L_1 = \operatorname{div} A_1 \nabla$  and define the disagreement function a(x,t) by

$$a(x,t) = \sup\{|A_0(y,s) - A_1(y,s)| : |y - x| < t, t/2 < s < 2t\}.$$
(3.3)

168 If  $a^2(x,t)t^{-1}dxdt$  is a Carleson measure, then  $\omega_{L_0} \in A_\infty$  implies  $\omega_{L_1} \in A_\infty$ .

#### <sup>169</sup> 4. Linking $A_{\infty}$ to Carleson measure estimates

Prior to the approach taken in [32], the regularity of elliptic measure for an operator L was 170 essentially derived either from a Rellich identity, or as a consequence of the perturbation 171 theory. There were two obvious classes of operators of interest where these  $L^2$ -identities were 172 not valid: operators with complex coefficients and operators with non-symmetric coefficients. 173 In the case of operators with complex coefficients, one of the most compelling outstanding 174 questions was the Kato conjecture. This decades-old problem was finally resolved in the 175 series of papers [4, 5, 24]. The solution of the Kato conjecture is a long story, summarized 176 well in C. Kenig's review [31]. We will only mention that the solution also relied on a critical 177 use of Carleson measures. The situation regarding (non-symmetric) t-independent operators 178 is discussed in the next section. 179

In [32], it was shown that the elliptic measure associated to adivergence form operator  $L := -\operatorname{div} A(x)\nabla$ , belongs to the class  $A_{\infty}$  if and only if every bounded solution could (locally) be approximated arbitrarily well by a continuous function whose gradient satisfied a Carleson measure condition. This criteria was dubbed " $\epsilon$ -approximability", and was immediately applied to *t*-independent operators in dimension two.

Definition 4.1. Let  $u \in L^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}^{n+1}_+)$ , with  $||u||_{\infty} \leq 1$ . Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , we say that u is  $\epsilon$ approximable if for every cube  $Q_0 \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , there is a  $\varphi = \varphi_{Q_0} \in W^{1,1}(T_{Q_0})$  such that

$$\|u - \varphi\|_{L^{\infty}(T_{Q_0})} < \epsilon, \qquad (4.2)$$

187 and

$$\sup_{Q \subset Q_0} \frac{1}{|Q|} \iint_{T_Q} |\nabla \varphi(x, t)| \, dx dt \le C_{\epsilon} \,, \tag{4.3}$$

where  $C_{\epsilon}$  depends also upon dimension and ellipticity, but not on  $Q_0$ .

To motivate this definition, we recall that harmonic functions in the upper half space 189 possess the property of  $\epsilon$ -approximability ([21, 45]). Although bounded harmonic func-190 tions in  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}_+$  satisfy an  $L^2$ -Carleson measure condition, the (technically more desirable) 191  $L^1$ -Carleson condition fails to hold. It turns out that the approximation property is a good 192 substitute for certain applications. In [11], Dahlberg showed that  $\epsilon$ -approximability holds 193 for bounded harmonic functions on Lipschitz domains as well. His proof used the previously 194 established equivalence in  $L^p$ -norm between the square function and the non-tangential max-195 imal function on LIpschitz domains. 196

**Theorem 4.4** ([32]). Let  $L := -\operatorname{div} A(x)\nabla$ , be an elliptic divergence form operator, not necessarily symmetric, with bounded measurable coefficients, defined in  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}_+$ . Then there exists an  $\epsilon$ , depending on the ellipticity constant of L such that if every solution to Lu = 0 in  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}_+$  with  $|u| \le 1$  is  $\epsilon$ -approximable then  $\omega$  belongs to  $A_{\infty}$ .

We will now sketch the main steps in the proof in [32] of this result, and then describe a recent modification of these ideas that yields a much stronger statement. The references give details, including certain technicalities, that we shall not describe in detail here.

The  $A_{\infty}$  class has many equivalent characterizations, and it will be convenient to work with this one:

Given any  $\eta > 0$ , there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that for any cube  $Q \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and any  $E \subset Q$ , we have that  $|E|/|Q| < \eta$  whenever  $\omega(E)/\omega(Q) < \delta$ . Carleson measures and elliptic boundary value problems

The main idea in the proof of Theorem 4.4 is as follows. Fix a cube Q of side length r, and suppose that E is a set whose elliptic measure,  $\omega(E)$ , is small. Let  $\phi$  denote the  $\epsilon$ -approximation of u. If E has sufficiently small measure, it will be shown that a truncated  $L^1$ -version of the square function of  $\phi$  is large. That is, the r-truncated  $A_r(\phi)(x) := \left( \iint_{|x-y| < t < r} |\nabla \phi(y,t)| \frac{dydt}{t^n} \right)^{1/2}$  will be larger than some prescribed value  $k = k(\epsilon)$ . The desired conclusion will follow from the Carleson measure estimate by integrating:

$$|E|k^2 < \int_E A_r^2(\phi)(x)dx < \int_Q A_r^2(\phi)(x)dx < \iint_{T_Q} |\nabla\varphi(x,t)| \, dxdx < \iint_{T_Q} |\nabla\varphi(x,t)| \, dxdx < \int_Q A_r^2(\phi)(x)dx < \iint_{T_Q} |\nabla\varphi(x,t)| \, dxdx < \int_Q A_r^2(\phi)(x)dx < \int_Q A_r^2(\phi)(\phi$$

By the Carleson measure property, this latter expression is bounded by a constant  $C_{\epsilon}$  times |Q|. and thus  $|E|/|Q| < \eta$  where  $\eta \approx 1/k^2$ .

In order to show that  $A(\phi)$  is large on sets of small elliptic measure, a solution u to Lu = 0was constructed with the property that u that oscillates by at least some fixed value a large number of times in cones over points  $x \in E$ . Because u can be approximated arbitrarily well by  $\phi$ , this entailed that  $\phi$  also oscillates a large number of times. This lower bound on oscillation translated, via interior estimates, into an estimate from below for  $\nabla \phi$  in disjoint layers of a truncated cone over x.

There are several constructions that drive this proof, the first of which is Christ's construction of dyadic grids on spaces of homogeneous type. Thus  $Q \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  possesses a *dyadic grid* adapted to  $\omega$ , which is a collection of subsets  $\{I_{j,l}\}$  of  $Q \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  such that for each fixed  $j \geq 0$ ,

(1) 
$$\mathbb{R}^n = \bigcup_l I_{j,l}$$
, and  $I_{j,l_1} \cap I_{j,l_2} = \emptyset$  if  $l_1 \neq l_2$ .

(2) Each  $I_{j,l}$  contains  $B(2^{-j}, x_l)$ , and is contained in an *M*-fold dilate  $B(M2^{-j}, x_l)$ , where  $B(2^{-j}, x_l)$  denotes the ball of radius  $2^{-j}$  about the point  $x_l \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

(3) If  $I_{j,l} \cap I_{j',l} \neq \emptyset$  then either  $I_{j,l} \subset I_{j',l}$  or  $I_{j',l} \subset I_{j,l}$ . Moreover, there exists a  $C_M < 1$ such that  $\omega(I_{j,l}) < C_M \omega(I_{j',l})$  whenever  $I_{j,l} \subset I_{j',l}$ .

(4) Any open set  $\mathcal{O}$  can be decomposed as  $\mathcal{O} = \bigcup I_{j,l}$  where the  $I_{j,l}$  are non-overlapping. For each  $I_{j,l}$  in this decomposition, there exists a point  $p_{j,l}$  such that the distance from  $p_{j,l}$  to  $I_{j,l}$  is comparable to diam $(I_{j,l})$ .

**Definition 4.5.** Let  $\epsilon$  be small and given. If  $E \subset Q$ , a good  $\epsilon$ -cover of E of length k is a collection of nested open sets  $\{\mathcal{O}_i\}_{i=1}^k$  with  $E \subset \mathcal{O}_k \subset \mathcal{O}_{k-1}... \subset \mathcal{O}_0 \subset Q$  where each  $\mathcal{O}_i = \bigcup S_l^i$  such that

(1) each  $S_l^i$  belongs to the dyadic grid, and

(2) for all 
$$0 < i < k$$
,  $\omega(\mathcal{O}_i \cap S_l^{i-1}) < \epsilon \omega(S_l^{i-1})$ 

Note that a good  $\epsilon$ -cover has the property that each  $S_j^i$  is properly contained in some  $S_l^{i-1}$ , as well as the further nesting property that for k > i > m > 0,  $\omega(S_j^m \cap \mathcal{O}_i) < \epsilon^{i-m} \omega(S_j^m)$ .

Lemma 4.6 ([32]). Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $\omega(E) < \delta$ , then E has a good  $\epsilon$ -cover of length k where  $k \to \infty$  as  $\omega(E) \to 0$ .

The good  $\epsilon$ -cover of length k is used to construct the boundary data f which will give rise to a bounded, oscillating solution u to L. Set:

$$f = \sum_{i=0}^{k} (-1)^{i} \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{O}_{i}}.$$
(4.7)

and let u be the solution to Lu = 0, with u(x, 0) = f.

Note that  $f \leq 1$ , and so  $0 \leq u \leq 1$ . For each point  $x \in E$ , we find a sequence of points, 240  $X_m = (x_m, t_m)$  in the cone  $\Gamma(x)$  with the property that, for 0 < m < k even,  $u(X_m) > c_1$ , 241 and for 0 < m < k odd,  $u(X_m) < c_2$  and  $c_1 - c_2 > c(\epsilon)$ . To define these  $X_m$ , collect the 242 dyadic grid cubes  $S_l^m \subset \mathcal{O}_m$  that contain the given point x. Let l(S) denote the side length 243 of S. The point  $X_m$ , when m is even, is essentially any point in the top half of the Carleson 244 region over  $S_l^m$ . When m is odd, the point  $X_m = (x_m, t_m)$  will also be in this Carleson 245 region, but  $t_m$  will be closer to the boundary, that is,  $t \approx \eta l(S_l^m)$ . (In order to make sure 246 that these points  $X_m$  descend in the cone, i.e., have the property that  $t_m < \rho t_{m-1}$  for some 247  $\rho < 1$ , we may have to skip a finite number of levels m. Details are in [32].) 248

We give a rough sketch of these estimates. Recall the integral representation of solutions:  $u(x,t) = \int K(x,t;y,0)f(y)d\omega(y).$ 

Fix an even *m*. We can then write  $u(X_m) = u_1(X_m) + u_2(X_m)$  where  $u_1(x,0) = f_1(x) := \sum_{i=0}^m \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{O}_i}$ . Moreover, since u > 0, we have that, for some  $c_1$  depending only ellipticity,

$$u(X_m) > \int K(x_m, t_m; y, 0) f(y) d\omega(y) \ge c \frac{1}{\omega(S_l^m)} \int_{S_l^m} f(y) d\omega(y).$$

Because m is even, the function  $f_1 = 1$  on  $S_l^m$ , and so  $u_1 > c'_1$ . By the nesting property of the cover,

$$\frac{1}{\omega(S_l^m)} \int_{S_l^m} f_2(y) d\omega(y) < \frac{1}{\omega(S_l^m)} \sum_{i=m+1}^k \omega(\mathcal{O}_i \cap S_l^m) < 2\epsilon,$$

and thus  $u(X_m) > c'_1 - 2\epsilon > c_1$ . When *m* is odd, the boundary function *f* is split similarly, and a more technical analysis is needed to show that the main term is indeed given by  $f_1$ , which vanishes on the dyadic cube  $S_l^m$ . Since  $(x_m, t_m)$  was chosen so that  $t_m \approx l(S_l^m)$ , the Hölder decay of the solution near the boundary where it vanishes will be used to show that  $u(x_m, t_m) < c_2 < c_1 - \epsilon$ , if  $\epsilon$  and  $\eta$  are chosen appropriately.

In conclusion, one can extract from this construction a sequence of points  $\{x_m, t_m\}_{m=0}^k \in \Gamma(x)$  such that  $|u(x_m, t_m) - u(x_{m-1}, t_{m-1})| > \epsilon$ , and such that  $t_m < \rho t_{m-1}$ . One can then derive a lower bound for the  $L^1$ -square function A(u), and likewise for  $A(\phi)$  where  $\phi$  is the approximate to u.

This approximation theorem, and its proof, yielded several applications to specific classes of operators ([15, 22, 36, 37]): [22] is explained in more detail in the next section. Since one cannot expect the actual solution to L to satisfy an  $L^1$ -Carleson condition (as the approximate does), this program left open the question of the role of classical Carleson measure estimates for solutions.

In [16], it was shown that the  $A_{\infty}$  proporty of elliptic measure is equivalent to the existence of Carleson measure estimates for solutions with boundary data in *BMO*. The result was proven in Lipschitz domains (and will likely hold for chord-arc domains as well).

**Theorem 4.8** ([16]). Let  $L := -\operatorname{div} A(x)\nabla$ , be an elliptic divergence form operator, not necessarily symmetric, with bounded measurable coefficients, defined in  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}_+$ . Then  $\omega \in$  $A_{\infty}$  if and only if, for every solution u to Lu = 0 with boundary data  $f \in BMO$ , we have the Carleson measure estimate:

$$\sup_{Q} \frac{1}{|Q|} \iint_{T_{Q}} t |\nabla u(x,t)|^{2} \, dx dt \le C ||f||_{BMO}^{2}, \tag{4.9}$$

Carleson measures and elliptic boundary value problems

#### The proof of Theorem 4.8 used a dual formulation of the $A_{\infty}$ condition:

Given any  $\eta > 0$ , there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that for any cube  $Q \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and any  $E \subset Q$ , we have that  $\omega(E)/\omega(Q) < \eta$  whenever  $|E|/|Q| < \delta$ .

To verify this condition, a construction of [28] was invoked to produce, for any such E, a *BMO* function  $f \ge \mathcal{X}_E$  with small *BMO* norm. An upper estimate on  $\omega(E)/\omega(Q)$  in terms of the (small) Carleson measure bound on f required a lemma in [34]. See [16] for details.

In turn, this left open the question of whether the  $A_{\infty}$  property of elliptic measure could be characterized by the existence of Carleson measure conditions for solutions to bounded data, as opposed to data in the larger class, *BMO*.

The solution u, with boundary data f as in (4.7), has only A(u) large on the set  $E \subset Q$ when  $\omega(E)$  is small, but not necessarily S(u) large as well. To see why, suppose Q has side length 1, and cut the cone into dyadic layers:  $\Gamma_j(x) = \{(y,t) \in \Gamma(x) : 2^{-j} < t < 2^{-j+1}\}$ .

We write

$$S(u)(x) = \sum_{j} \int_{\Gamma_{j}(x)} t^{1-n} |\nabla u|^{2} dy dt$$

Each piece  $\int_{\Gamma_j(x)} t^{1-n} |\nabla u|^2 dy dt$  is a scaled average of the gradient of u which, by a Poincaré estimate, can be bounded from below by the oscillation of u over this dyadic layer of the cone. However, this construction doesn't yield any information about the oscillation of uon such dyadic regions because there is no control on the distance between the the points  $\{x_m, t_m\}_{m=0}^k \in \Gamma(x)$  that belong to different levels  $\mathcal{O}_m$ .

The linking of  $A_{\infty}$  to Carleson measure estimates for  $L^{\infty}$  functions, is the subject of 290 [33]. Essentially, one can use the same cover, and define a new function f as follows. Each 291  $\mathcal{O}_m$  is a union of dyadic intervals  $S_l^m$ , and each  $S_l^m$  has a (bounded) number of immediate 292 dyadic subintervals. For each  $S_l^m$  choose one of its dyadic children and call it  $\tilde{S}_l^m$ . If m is 293 even, define  $f_m$  to take the value 1 on  $\bigcup_l (S_l^m \setminus \tilde{S}_l^m)$  and 0 elsewhere. If m is odd, we define 294  $f_m$  to "zero out" the values of  $f_{m-1}$ :  $f_m = -1$  where  $f_m = 1$  and is ) elsewhere. Now set 295  $f = \sum_{m=0}^{k} f_m$  and let u be the solution to Lu = 0 with boundary data f. On each even level 296 m, f takes on both the values 0 and 1 on dyadic children. Thus, arguments modeled on those 297 of [32] will yield the following: for some C, c > 0, and every  $x \in E$ , there are sequences 298  $\{x_m, t_m\}_{m=0}^k \text{ with } ct_{m-1} < t_m < Ct_{m-1} \text{ for which } |u(x_m, t_m) - u(x_{m-1}, t_{m-1})| > \epsilon.$ 299

From this construction, it can be concluded that if solutions to L with bounded data satisfy classical Carleson measure estimates, then the elliptic measure associated to L is  $A_{\infty}$ , and thus the Dirichlet problem with data in  $L^p$  is uniquely solvable for some p > 1. As a corolloary, we see that solutions with BMO data posses C. Fefferman-type Carleson estimates if and only if solutions with  $L^{\infty}$  data posses these Carleson estimates.

Theorem 4.10 ([33]). Let  $L := -\operatorname{div} A(x)\nabla$ , be an elliptic divergence form operator, not necessarily symmetric, with bounded measurable coefficients, defined in  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}_+$ . Then  $\omega \in A_{\infty}$  if and only if, for every solution u to Lu = 0 with boundary data  $f \leq 1$ , we have the Carleson measure estimate:

$$\sup_{Q} \frac{1}{|Q|} \iint_{T_Q} t |\nabla u(x,t)|^2 \, dx dt \le C. \tag{4.11}$$

#### **5.** Application to time-independent operators

The  $\epsilon$ -approximability theorem of [32] was established by showing the equivalence in  $L^p$ 310 norm between the the non-tangential maximal function and the square function, and invoking 311 a stopping time construction due to Dahlberg ([11]). Examples were given to demonstrate 312 that, for  $p \to \infty$ , there exists elliptic operators in this class for which  $D_p$  is not solvable. In 313 other words, no stronger conclusion than  $A_{\infty}$  of the elliptic measure can be concluded from 314  $\epsilon$ -approximability. A more precise study of these counterexamples was undertaken in [1], 315 where it was shown that the boundary equation method and the Lax-Milgram method may 316 construct different solutions, thus underscoring the differences between the symmetric and 317 the non-symmetric situation. 318

As an application of the consequences of norm equivalence between non- tangential maximal function and the square function, [32] contained a proof that two-dimensional tindependent divergence form non-symmetric elliptic operators had elliptic measure belonging to  $A_{\infty}$ . This was a first step in establishing regularity of elliptic measure without recourse to  $L^2$  identities of Rellich type. Although the proof only worked in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , it worked under a surprisingly flexible condition on the matrix.

**Theorem 5.1** ([32]). Let  $L := -\operatorname{div} A(x)\nabla$  be an elliptic operator in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with bounded measurable coefficients. Suppose that there exists a fixed unit vector  $\vec{e}$  such that  $A(x,t) = A((x;,t) \cdot \vec{e})$ . Then the elliptic measure  $\omega_L$  belongs to  $A_\infty$  in a domain in any Lipschitz domain in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

At this point, we note that the development of the theory of non-symmetric operators has 329 had several motivations. First of all, the boundary value problem for general non-symmetric 330 elliptic operators cannot be solved in  $L^2$ , and  $L^p$  solvability requires a different approach 331 than that of Rellich identities. Second, the well-posedness results for equations with real 332 non-symmetric coefficients and associated estimates on solutions are the first step towards 333 understanding operators with complex coefficients in the non-Hermitian case, a case of inter-334 est for Kato's analyticity program. Finally, many problems arising in homogenization theory 335 have non-symmetric coefficients [6]. Solving the Dirichlet problem with data in  $L^p$  is the 336 first step in the study of the uniform bounds, independent of the scaling parameter in homog-337 enization theory, in the absence of symmetry ([6]). 338

It is therefore desirable to develop approaches to solving  $L^p$  boundary value problems that are neither perturbative nor rely on symmetry of the matrices. However, the proof of Theorem 5.1 did not generalize to higher dimensions, as it relied on a special change of variable to put the matrix of coefficients in upper triangular form. It took almost fifteen years, and the development of the tools used to solve Kato's conjecture (the square root estimates), to be able to prove this result in all dimensions.

Theorem 5.2 ([22]). Let L be a divergence form elliptic operator as above, with t-independent coefficients. Then there is a  $p < \infty$  such that the Dirichlet problem  $D_p$  is well-posed; equivalently, for each cube  $Q \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , the L-harmonic measure  $\omega_L \in A_{\infty}(Q)$ , with constants that are uniform in Q.

The proof in [22] proceeded, as in two dimensions, by establishing  $A_{\infty}$  of the elliptic measure as consequence of  $\epsilon$ -approximability of bounded solutions. The boundedness in norm of the non-tangential maximal function by the square function had previously been established (globally) in [2] so the main contribution of [22] was the converse, which had the immediate corollary: **Corollary 5.3** ([22]). Under the same hypotheses as in Theorem 5.2, for a bounded solution u, we have the Carleson measure estimate

$$\sup_{Q} \frac{1}{|Q|} \iint_{T_Q} |\nabla u(x,t)|^2 t dt dx \le C \, \|u\|_{L^{\infty}(\Omega)} \,, \tag{5.4}$$

<sup>356</sup> where C depends only upon dimension and ellipticity.

Theorem 4.10 implies that this Carleson measure estimate alone is now sufficient to conclude  $A_{\infty}$ , somehwat simplifying the proof of  $A_{\infty}$  for this class of elliptic measures.

In [32], it was shown that the equivalence between non-tangential maximal functions and square functions implied  $A_{\infty}$ , for that equivalence was necessary to prove  $\epsilon$ -approximation of bounded solutions. We see now that only half of this information is required, namely the bounds on the square function in terms of the non-tangential maximal function.

**Remark 5.5.** Most of the discussion in this article has centered on the Dirichlet problem. Over the years, there has been a parallel development for boundary value problems such as the Neumann and the regularity problems for second order operators, and for higher order operators and elliptic systems. There is a vast literature on the solvability of these (even more) challenging problems, which is beyond the scope of the present article.

Acknowledgements. The main topics treated in this article are the result of many fruitful
 collaborations over the years. In particular, I would like to acknowledge the impact of recent
 collaborations with M. Dindos, C. Kenig, S. Hofmann, S. Mayboroda, and T. Toro.

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