

## 1 Cauchy transforms and Plemelj's theorem

This lecture concerns the properties of the Cauchy transform:

**Definition (Cauchy transform)** For a contour  $\gamma$  and  $f : \gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  define the *Cauchy transform* as

$$\mathcal{C}_\gamma f(z) := \int_\gamma \frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta - z} d\zeta$$

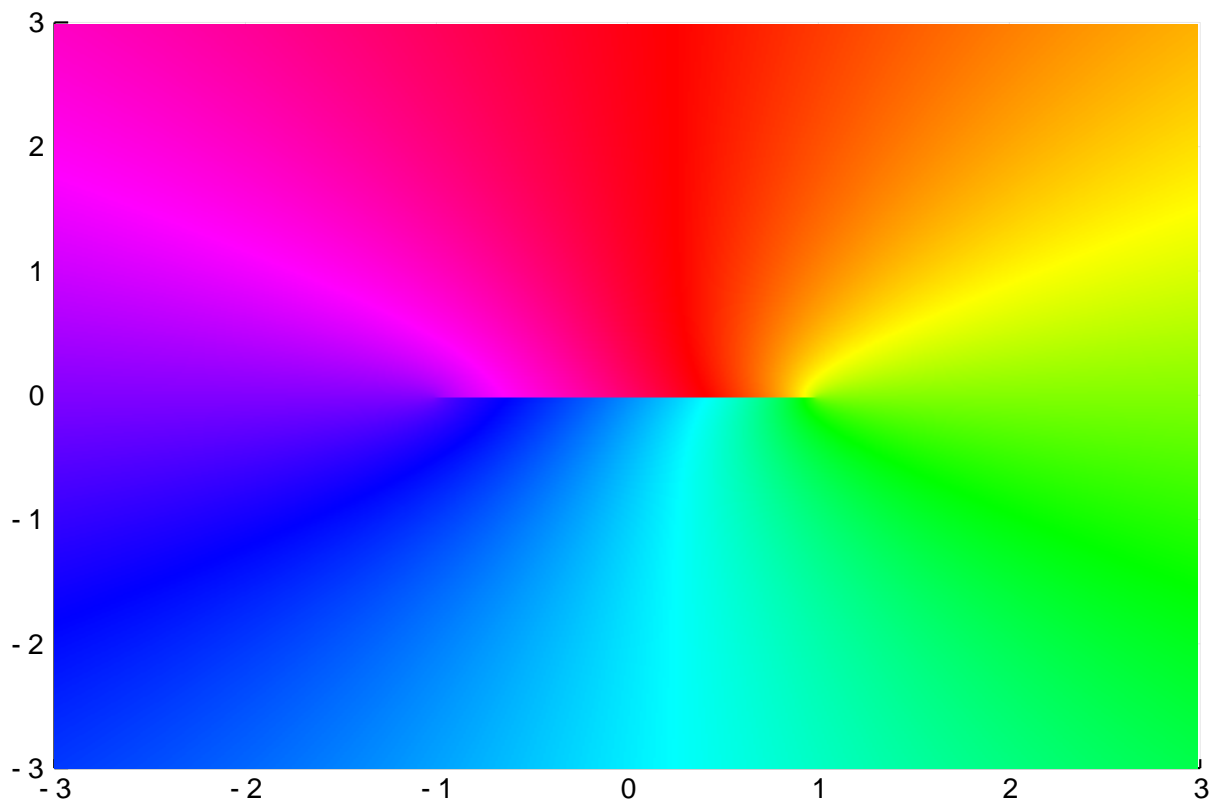
Unlike in Cauchy's integral formula,  $f$  need not be analytic and  $\gamma$  need not be closed.

We focus on the case of an interval  $[a, b]$ :

$$\mathcal{C}_{[a,b]} f(z) := \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_a^b \frac{f(x)}{x - z} dx$$

Here is a phase portrait of the Cauchy transform of a simple function:

```
using ApproxFun, SingularIntegralEquations, ComplexPhasePortrait, Plots
x = Fun(-1 .. 1)
f = exp(x)*sqrt(1-x^2)
phaseplot(-3..3, -3..3, z -> cauchy(f,z))
```



What's evident here is that it has a jump on the contour. It turns out that the Cauchy transform has a very simple subtractive jump. Here we denote

$$\mathcal{C}_{[a,b]}^+ f(x) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \mathcal{C}_{[a,b]} f(x + i\epsilon) \quad \mathcal{C}_{[a,b]}^- f(x) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \mathcal{C}_{[a,b]} f(x - i\epsilon)$$

that is the limit from above and below. For more complicated contours these would denote limit from the left/right or in the case of a simple closed contour, interior/exterior.

**Theorem (Plemelj on the interval I)** Suppose  $(b-x)^\alpha (x-a)^\beta f(x)$  is differentiable on  $[a, b]$ , for  $\alpha, \beta < 1$ . Then the Cauchy transform has the following properties:

1. *Analyticity*:  $\mathcal{C}_{[a,b]} f(z)$  is analytic in  $\bar{\mathbb{C}} \setminus [a, b]$
2. *Decay*:  $\mathcal{C}_{[a,b]} f(\infty) = 0$
3. *Jump*: It has the subtractive jump:

$$\mathcal{C}_{[a,b]}^+ f(x) - \mathcal{C}_{[a,b]}^- f(x) = f(x) \quad \text{for} \quad a < x < b$$

2. *Regularity*:  $\mathcal{C}_{[a,b]} f(z)$  has weaker than pole singularities at  $a$  and  $b$

**Sketch of Proof** We show the proof for  $[-1, 1]$ .

1. From the dominated convergence theorem, we know that  $\mathcal{C}f(z)$  is complex-differentiable off  $[-1, 1]$ :

$$\frac{d}{dz} \mathcal{C}f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{d}{dz} \frac{f(x)}{x-z} dx = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{f(x)}{(x-z)^2} dx$$

We know it is analytic at  $\infty$  because

$$\mathcal{C}f(z^{-1}) = z \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{f(x)}{zx-1} dx$$

is differentiable at zero.

- 2.

$$\mathcal{C}f(\infty) = 0$$

follows from uniform convergence of  $\frac{1}{z-x}$  to zero as  $z \rightarrow \infty$ .

3. For the constant function, which is analytic, this follows by considering a contour  $\gamma_x^+$  perturbed above  $x$  and  $\gamma_x^-$  perturbed below  $x$ , see plots below. Therefore, by Cauchy integral formula we have

$$\mathcal{C}^+ 1(x) - \mathcal{C}^- 1(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma_x^-} \frac{1}{x-z} dx - \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma_x^+} \frac{1}{x-z} dx = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint \frac{1}{x-z} dx = 1.$$

For other functions, we consider, for  $z = x + i\epsilon$ ,

$$\mathcal{C}f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{f(t) - f(x)}{t-z} dt + f(x) \mathcal{C}1(z)$$

For  $\epsilon = 0$ , the first integral exists because the singularity at  $t = x$  is removable:

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow x} \frac{f(t) - f(x)}{t - x} = f'(x)$$

We leave it as an exercise (or see [Trogdon & Olver 2015, Lemma 2.7]) to show that  $\int_{-1}^1 \frac{f(t) - f(x)}{t - z} dt$  converges to  $\int_{-1}^1 \frac{f(t) - f(x)}{t - x} dt$  as  $z \rightarrow x$ . It follows that

$$\mathcal{C}^\pm f(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{f(t) - f(x)}{t - x} dt + f(x) \mathcal{C}^\pm 1(x)$$

and in particular

$$\mathcal{C}^+ f(x) - \mathcal{C}^- f(x) = f(x)(\mathcal{C}^+ 1(x) - \mathcal{C}^- 1(x)) = f(x)$$

4. We show that it has a weaker than pole singularity at  $+1$ , with  $-1$  following by the same argument. First note that  $f$  is absolutely integrable.

If we assume we approach 1 at an angle of  $-\pi + \delta \leq \theta \leq \pi - \delta$ , the uniform convergence of  $(z - 1)\mathcal{C}f(z)$  to zero follows from observing that  $\frac{z-1}{z-t}$  can be made arbitrarily small in a larger and larger interval. This is easiest to see for real  $x > 1$ , where for  $1 \leq x \leq 1 + \epsilon^2$  we have

$$\left| \frac{x-1}{x-t} \right| \leq \epsilon$$

for all  $t \leq 1 + \epsilon^2 - \epsilon$ , or more generously,  $t \leq 1 - \epsilon$ . Therefore,

$$|(x-1)\mathcal{C}f(x)| \leq \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-1}^{1-\epsilon} |f(t)| \left| \frac{x-1}{x-t} \right| dt + \int_{1-\epsilon}^1 |f(t)| dt \leq \epsilon \int_{-1}^1 |f(t)| dt + \int_{1-\epsilon}^1 |f(t)| dt$$

Both terms tends to zero as  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ , hence so does  $|(x-1)\mathcal{C}f(x)|$ . To extend this to the interval itself (that is,  $\delta = 0$ ), we use the stronger requirement that  $(1-x)^\alpha(1+x)^\beta f(x)$  is differentiable. For  $\alpha = \beta = 0$ , this follows from the expression in condition (3) and the fact that (found via direct integration)

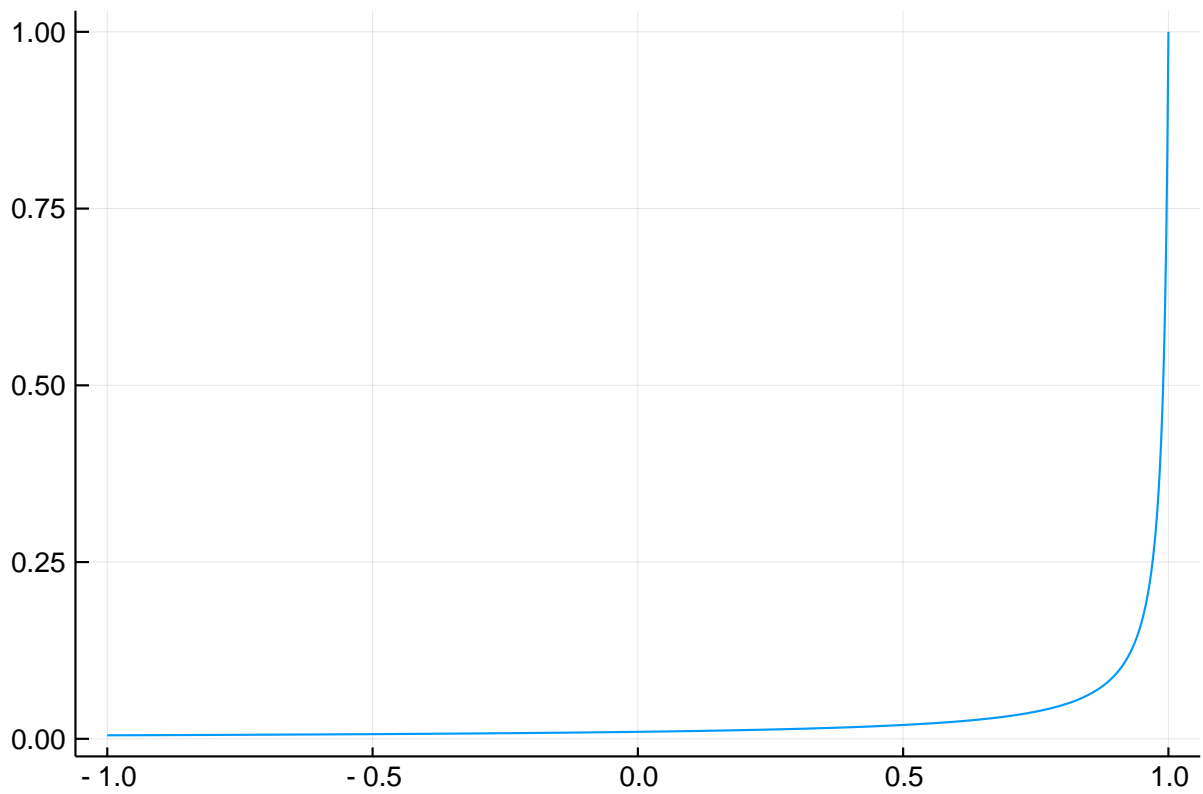
$$\mathcal{C}1(z) = \frac{\log(z-1) - \log(z+1)}{2\pi i}$$

has only logarithmic singularities, and  $f(x)$  is bounded.

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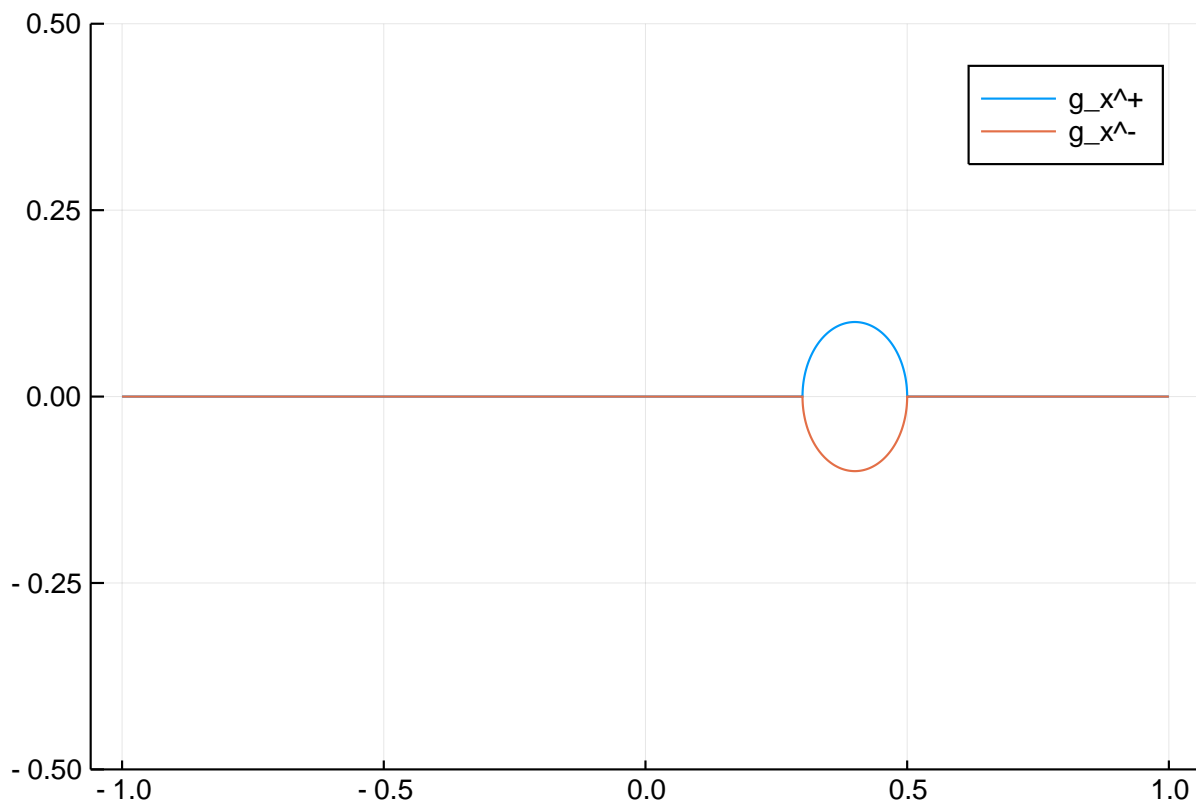
Here is a plot of  $\frac{x-1}{x-t}$  showing that it is small on an increasing portion of the interval as  $x \rightarrow 1$  from the right:

```
x = 1 + 0.01
tt = range(-1., 1.; length=1000)
plot(tt, abs.((x - 1) ./ (x - tt)); legend=false)
```



Here is a plot of  $\gamma_x^\pm$ :

```
x = 0.4
r = 0.1
tt = range( $\pi$ ,0.; length=100)
plot([-1.; x .+ r*cos.(tt);1.0], [0.; r*sin.(tt); 0.0];ylims=(-0.5,0.5),label="g_x^+")
plot!([-1.; x .+ r*cos.(tt);1.0], [0.; -r*sin.(tt); 0.0];ylims=(-0.5,0.5),label="g_x^-")
```



We can use the results of the previous results to show that it is in fact unique, combined with Liouville's theorem:

**Theorem (Liouville)** If  $f$  is entire and bounded in  $\mathbb{C}$ , then  $f$  must be constant.

**Theorem (Plemelj on the interval II)** Suppose  $\phi(z)$  satisfies the following properties:

1. *Analyticity:*  $\phi(z)$  is analytic in  $\bar{\mathbb{C}} \setminus [a, b]$
2. *Regularity:*  $\phi(z)$  has weaker than pole singularities at  $a$  and  $b$
3. *Decay:*  $\phi(\infty) = 0$
4. *Jump:* It has the subtractive jump:

$$\phi^+(x) - \phi^-(x) = f(x) \quad \text{for} \quad a < x < b$$

where  $(b-x)^\alpha(x-a)^\beta f(x)$  is differentiable in  $[a, b]$  for  $\alpha, \beta < 1$ .

Then  $\phi(z) = \mathcal{C}_{[a,b]} f(z)$ .

**Sketch of Proof** Consider

$$A(z) = \phi(z) - \mathcal{C}_{[a,b]} f(z)$$

This is continuous (hence analytic) on  $(a, b)$  as

$$A^+(x) - A^-(x) = \phi^+(x) - \phi^-(x) - \mathcal{C}_{[a,b]}^+ f(x) + \mathcal{C}_{[a,b]}^- f(x) = f(x) - f(x) = 0$$

Also,  $A$  has weaker than pole singularities at  $a$  and  $b$ , hence is analytic there as well: it's entire. Only entire functions that are bounded are constant, since it vanishes at  $\infty$  the constant must be zero.

■

*Example 1* We can use this theorem to prove the following relationships (using  $\diamond$  for the dummy variable):

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{z-1}\sqrt{z+1}} = -2i\mathcal{C}\left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\diamond^2}}\right](z) = -\frac{1}{\pi}\int_{-1}^1 \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x^2}(x-z)}$$

(1) follows because the jumps cancel. (2 and 3) are immediate. (4) follows from a simple calculation.

*Example 2* Now consider a problem of reducing

$$\phi(z) = \sqrt{z-1}\sqrt{z+1}$$

to its behaviour near its singularities. It has two singularities: it blows up at  $\infty$  and has a branch cut on  $[-1, 1]$

We can subtract out the singularity at infinity first to determine

$$\phi(z) = z + 2i\mathcal{C}[\sqrt{1-\diamond^2}](z)$$

Note this works because, as  $z \rightarrow \infty$ , we have

$$\phi(z) = z(\sqrt{1-1/z}\sqrt{1+1/z}) = z(1 + O(1/z))(1 + O(1/z)) = z + O(1/z)$$

hence  $\phi(z) - z$  vanishes at the origin. This is an example of summing over the behaviour at each singularity to recover the function (in this case,  $\phi$  has a singularity along the cut  $[-1, 1]$  and polynomial growth at  $\infty$ ).

Because  $\phi(z) - z$  decays, we can now deploy Plemelj II to determine:

$$\phi(z) - z = \mathcal{C}[\phi_+ - \phi_-](z)$$

where

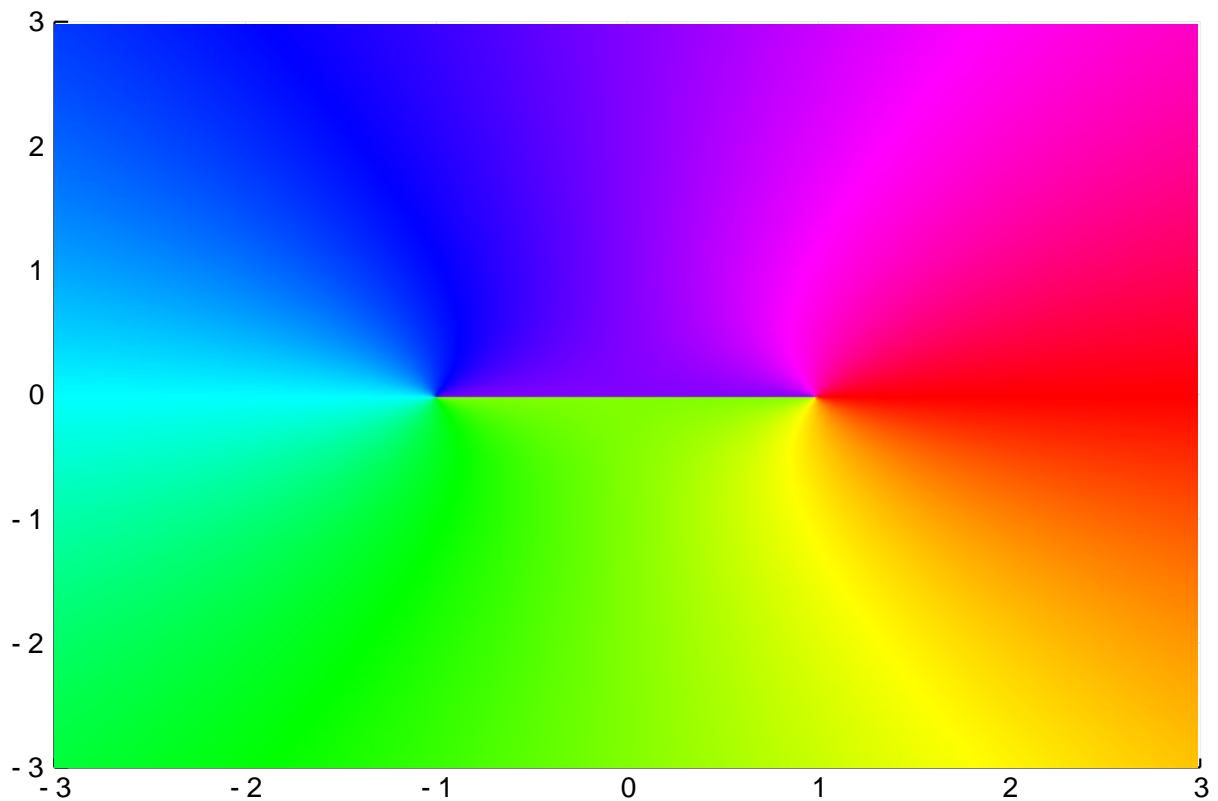
$$\phi_+(x) - \phi_-(x) = 2i\sqrt{1-x^2}$$

*Example 3* Finally, we have the following (also verifiable using indefinite integration):

$$\frac{\log(z-1) - \log(z+1)}{2\pi i} = \mathcal{C}[1](z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{dx}{x-z}$$

**Demonstration** From the phase plot we see it has a branch cut on  $[-1, 1]$ :

```
κ = z -> 1/(sqrt(z-1)*sqrt(z+1))
phaseplot(-3..3, -3..3, κ)
```



On the branch there is the expected jump:

```
x = 0.1
κ(x + 0.0im) - κ(x - 0.0im) , -2im/sqrt(1-x^2)

(0.0 - 2.010075630518424im, 0.0 - 2.010075630518424im)
```

For  $x < -1$  the branch cut is removable: we have continuity and therefore analyticity:

```
x = -2.3
κ(x + 0.0im) - κ(x - 0.0im)

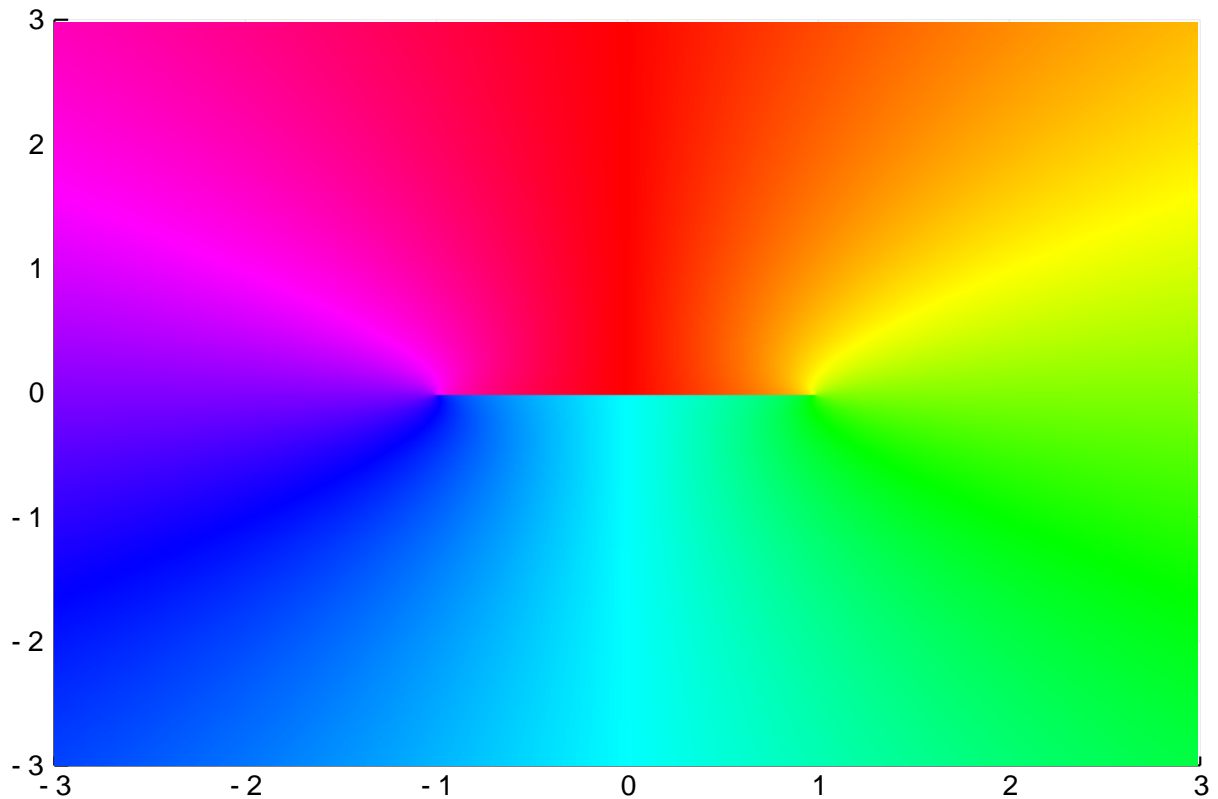
0.0 - 0.0im
```

3.  $\mu(z) = \frac{\log(z-1) - \log(z+1)}{2\pi i}$  is the unique function analytic in  $\mathbb{C} \setminus [-1, 1]$  with weaker than pole singularities at  $\pm 1$  satisfying  $\mu(\infty) = 0$  and

$$\mu_+(x) - \mu_-(x) = 1 \quad \text{for} \quad -1 < x < 1.$$

*Demonstration* Here we see from the phase plot of  $\mu$  that it has a branch cut on  $[-1, 1]$ :

```
μ = z -> (log(z-1) - log(z+1))/(2π*im)
phaseplot(-3..3, -3..3, μ)
```



For  $-1 < x < 1$  we have the jump 1:

```
x = 0.3
μ(x + 0.0im) - μ(x - 0.0im)

1.0 + 0.0im
```

For  $x < -1$  we see that the branch cuts cancel and we have continuity:

```
x = -4.3
μ(x + 0.0im) - μ(x - 0.0im)

0.0 + 0.0im
```

**Remark** As an aside, these integrals are computationally difficult because of the singularity in the integrand, hence standard integration methods become slow as  $z$  approaches the interval. There are other specialised routines (as implemented in `cauchy(f,z)`) that are much more efficient:

```
using BenchmarkTools
z = 0.1 + 0.0001im
x = Fun()
f = exp(x)
# μs is micro seconds (1E-6 seconds) while ms is milliseconds (1E-3 seconds)
@btime cauchy(f, z) # specialised routine

9.501 μs (18 allocations: 1.64 KiB)

@btime sum(f/(x-z))/(2π*im) # standard quadrature

197.280 ms (313 allocations: 207.54 MiB)
0.5525638794337968 - 0.3181012137711178im
```



We can evaluate the limit from above and below using the specialised routine, where standard quadrature breaks down. Here we see numerically that we recover  $f$  from taking the difference:

```
cauchy(f, 0.1+0.0im)-cauchy(f, 0.1-0.0im) , f(0.1)
```

```
(1.1051709180756475 + 0.0im, 1.1051709180756475)
```