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Preface

This book grew out of the collaboration of the authors, which began in the Spring of 2010, and the first author’s PhD dissertation. The second author developed much of the theory in Part II during his Junior Research Fellowship at St. John’s College in Oxford, applying it to the Painlevé II equation in the non-asymptotic regime. The authors, together with Bernard Deconinck, then developed the methodology presented in Chapter 8 on the Korteweg-de Vries (KdV) equation. The accuracy that is observed begged for an explanation, leading to the framework in Chapter 7. Around the same time, the approaches for the nonlinear Schrödinger (NLS) equations, the Painlevé II transcendents and the finite-genus solutions of the KdV equation were developed. These applications along with the original KdV methodology make up Part III. Motivated by the difficulty in finding a comprehensive, beginning graduate-level reference for Riemann–Hilbert problems (RH problems) that included the L^2 theory of singular integrals, the first author compiled much of Part I during his PhD studies at the University of Washington.

Central to the philosophy of this book is the question: what does it mean to “solve” an equation? The most basic answer is to establish *existence* — the equation has at least one solution — and *uniqueness* — the equation has one and only one solution. A more concrete answer is that an equation is solved if its solution can be evaluated, typically by approximation in a reliable and efficient way. This can be accomplished via asymptotics: the solution to the equation is given by an approximation that improves with accuracy in certain parameter regimes. Otherwise, the solution can be evaluated by numerics: a sequence of approximations that converge to the true solution. In the case of linear partial differential equations (PDEs), standard solutions are given as integral representations obtained via, say, Fourier series or Green’s functions. Integral representations are preferable to the original PDE because they satisfy all the properties of a “solution” to the equation:

1. *Existence* and *uniqueness* generally follow directly from the well-understood integration theory.
2. *Asymptotics* are achievable via the *method of stationary phase* or the *method of steepest descent*.
3. *Numerics* for integrals has a well-developed theory, and the integral representations can be readily evaluated via quadrature.

In place of integral representations, fundamental integrable nonlinear ordinary differential equations (ODEs) and PDEs have a RH problem representation. RH problems are boundary-value problems for piecewise (or sectionally) analytic functions in the complex plane. Our goal is to solve these integrable nonlinear ODEs and PDEs by utilizing their RH problem representations in a manner analogous to integral representations. In some cases, we use RH problems to establish existence and uniqueness, as well as derive asymp-

otics. But most importantly, we want to be able to accurately evaluate the solutions inside and outside of asymptotic regimes with a unified numerical approach.

The stringent requirements we put into our definition of a “solution” forces all solutions we find to be in a very particular category: *nonlinear special functions*. A *special function* is shorthand for a mathematical function which arises in many physical, biological or computational settings or in a variety of mathematical settings. A nonlinear special function is a special function arising from a fundamentally nonlinear setting. For centuries, mathematicians have been studying special functions. An important feature that separates special functions from other elementary functions is that they generically take a *transcendental*¹ form.

The catenary, discovered by Leibniz, Huygens and Bernoulli in the 1600s, describes the shape of a freely-hanging rope in terms of the hyperbolic cousin of the cosine function. The study of special transcendental functions continued with the discovery of the Airy and Bessel functions which share similar but more complicated series representations when compared to the hyperbolic cosine function. These series representations are oft derived using a differential equation that is satisfied by the given function. Such a derivation succeeds in many cases when the differential equation is linear.

The 19th century was a golden age for special function theory. Techniques from the field of complex analysis were invoked to study the so-called elliptic functions. These functions are of a fundamentally nonlinear nature: elliptic functions are solutions of nonlinear differential equations. The early twentieth century marked the work of Paul Painlevé and his collaborators in identifying the so-called *Painlevé transcendents*. The Painlevé transcendents are solutions of nonlinear differential equations that possess important properties in the complex plane. Independent of their mathematical properties, which are described at length in [52], the Painlevé transcendents have found use in the asymptotic study of water wave models [4, 40, 35] and in statistical mechanics [111].

Through the study of RH problems, we discuss classical special functions (the Airy function, elliptic functions, the error function), canonical nonlinear special functions (elliptic functions, the Painlevé II transcendents) and some non-canonical special functions (solutions of integrable nonlinear PDES) which we advocate for inclusion in the pantheon of nonlinear special functions based on the structure we describe.

We now present the layout of the book to guide the reader. A comprehensive table of notations is given just prior to the index and optional sections are marked with an asterisk.

- Part I contains an introduction to the applied theory of RH problems. Chapter 1 contains a survey of applications where RH problems arise. Then Chapter 2 contains the classical development of the theory of Cauchy transforms of Hölder continuous functions. This theory is used to explicitly solve many scalar RH problems. Lebesgue and Sobolev spaces are used to develop the theory of singular integral equations to deal with the matrix, or non-commutative, case. Some of these results are new while many others are compiled from a multitude of references. Finally, the method of nonlinear steepest descent developed by P. Deift and X. Zhou is reviewed in a simplified form in Chapter 3. On first reading, many of the proofs in this part can be omitted.

¹In this context transcendental means that the function cannot be expressed as a finite number of algebraic steps, including rational powers, applied to a variable or variables [62].

- Part II contains a detailed development of the numerical methodology used to approximate the solutions of RH problems. While there is certainly some dependence of Part II on Part I, for the more numerically inclined, it can be read mostly independent because the dependencies are made clear. Many aspects of computational/numerical complex analysis are discussed in detail in Chapter 4 including convergence of trigonometric, Laurent and Chebyshev interpolation. The computation of Cauchy transforms is treated in Chapter 5. This numerical approach to Cauchy transforms is utilized in Chapter 6 to construct a collocation method for solving RH problems numerically. Finally, a uniform approximation theory that allows one to estimate the derivatives of solutions of RH problems is presented in Chapter 7.
- Part III contains the applications of the theory of Part II to specific integrable equations. Each of the chapters in Part III depends significantly on the material in Part I, specifically, Chapter 3 and on nearly all of Part II. Part III is written in a way that is appropriate for a reader interested only in numerical results wishing to understand the scope and applications of the methodology. As mentioned above, the applications are to the KdV equation (Chapter 8), the NLS equations (Chapter 9), the Painlevé II transcendents (Chapter 10), the finite-genus solutions of the KdV equation (Chapter 11) and the so-called dressing method (Chapter 12) applied to both the KdV and NLS equations to nonlinearly superimpose rapidly decaying solutions and periodic and quasi-periodic finite-genus solutions.

We would like to acknowledge the important contributions to this work of the first author's PhD advisor, Bernard Deconinck. We would also like to acknowledge the encouragement and input of Percy Deift, Ioana Dumitriu, Anne Greenbaum, Katie Oliveras, Bob O'Malley, Randy LeVeque, Natalie Sheils, Olga Trichtchenko, Ben Segal, Chris Swierczewski, and Vishal Vasan.

We sincerely hope the reader finds this to be a valuable resource.

Thomas Trogdon and Sheehan Olver

Part I

Riemann–Hilbert problems

Chapter 1

Classical applications of Riemann–Hilbert problems

A fundamental theme of complex analysis is that an analytic function can be uniquely expressed in terms of its behavior at the boundary of its domain of analyticity. A basic example of this phenomena is the partial fraction expansion of a rational function, which states that any rational function can be expressed as a sum of (finite) Laurent series around its poles. Consider the case of a rational function with only simple poles that is bounded at ∞ . We can reinterpret the partial fraction result as a solution to the following problem:

Problem 1.0.1. *Given distinct poles $\{z_1, \dots, z_m\}$, a normalization point $z_0 \in \mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\}$, a normalization constant $c_0 \in \mathbb{C}$, and residues $\{A_1, \dots, A_m\}$, find $r : \mathbb{C} \setminus \{z_1, \dots, z_m\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ that satisfies the following:*

1. $r(z)$ is analytic off $\{z_1, \dots, z_m\}$,
2. $r(z)$ is bounded at ∞ and has at most simple pole singularities throughout the complex plane:

$$\lim_{\tau \rightarrow z} |(\tau - z)r(z)| < \infty \text{ for all } z \in \mathbb{C},$$

3. $r(z_0) = c_0$, and
4. $r(z)$ satisfies the residue conditions

$$\operatorname{Res}_{z=z_k} r(z) = A_k \quad \text{for } k = 1, \dots, m.$$

The conditions of this problem are sufficient to uniquely determine r : if there existed another solution r^* , then their difference is bounded and analytic (by Theorem C.3), vanishes at z_0 and thence is zero by Liouville's theorem (Theorem C.2).

If an analytic function is not rational, then it necessarily has more exotic singularities; typically, branch cuts and essential singularities. However, in many instances we can build up analogues of Problem 1.0.1 using *Riemann–Hilbert (RH) problems* to uniquely determine a function by its behavior at such singularities. Loosely speaking, an RH problem consist of finding a *sectionally analytic function* in terms of its behavior at the boundary of regions of analyticity. For z in some contour Γ , we use the notation $\Phi^+(s)$ and $\Phi^-(s)$ to refer to the boundary values that a function $\Phi(z)$ takes as z approaches s from the left and right of Γ , respectively. The prototypical RH problem takes the

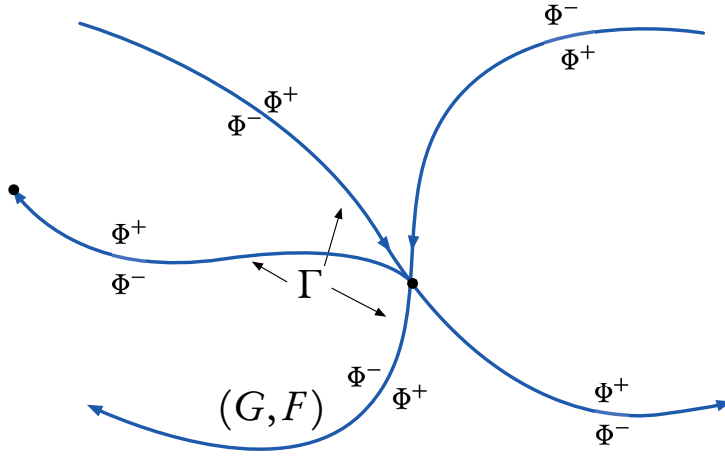


Figure 1.1. A generic oriented jump contour Γ with the pair of jump functions (G, F) . When $F = 0$ we specify the jump with G alone. The black dots signify (finite) endpoints of the contours.

following form²:

Problem 1.0.2. Given a contour Γ , a normalization point $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$, a normalization constant $C_0 \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$, and jump functions $G : \Gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ (also called the jump matrix) and $F : \Gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$, find $\Phi : \mathbb{C} \setminus \Gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ that satisfies the following:

1. $\Phi(z)$ is analytic off Γ (in each component of $\mathbb{C} \setminus \Gamma$),
2. $\Phi(z)$ is bounded at ∞ and has weaker than pole singularities throughout the complex plane,
3. $\Phi(z_0) = C_0$, and
4. $\Phi(z)$ satisfies the jump condition

$$\Phi^+(s) = \Phi^-(s)G(s) + F(s) \quad \text{for } s \in \Gamma.$$

See Figure 1.1 for a schematic of a generic RH problem.

Remark 1.0.1. When $F(s)$ is zero, we use the notation $[G; \Gamma]$ to refer to this RH problem, with appropriate additional regularity properties, see Section 2.7.

Remark 1.0.2. When the RH problem is scalar ($m = n = 1$), we use lower case variables: e.g., ϕ satisfies the jump condition

$$\phi^+(s) = \phi^-(s)g(s) + f(s).$$

In this chapter, we invoke the philosophy of A. R. Its [64] and demonstrate how

²The definition of a RH problem is made precise in Definition 2.38.

several classical problems can be reduced to RH problems. These fall under three fundamental categories:

1. Integral representations: we obtain simple, constant coefficient scalar RH problems for error functions and elliptic integrals.
2. Differential equations: we obtain matrix RH problems that encode the Airy function, and the solution to inverse monodromy problems.
3. Spectral analysis of operators: we construct matrix RH problems that encode the potential of a Schrödinger operator and the entries of a Jacobi operator in terms of their spectral data.

Unlike the partial fraction case, existence and uniqueness of such problems is a delicate question, which we defer until Chapter 2. However, for the purposes of this chapter a simple rule of thumb suffices: if G and F are bounded and piecewise continuous, and the winding number³ of $\det G(s)$ is zero, we expect the RH problem to be solvable even if the solution is not unique⁴.

1.1 ■ Error function: from integral representation to Riemann–Hilbert problem

The *complementary error function* is defined by

$$\operatorname{erfc} z = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_z^\infty e^{-s^2} ds.$$

This is an entire function in z , and behaves like a smoothed step function on the real axis, with $\operatorname{erfc}(\infty) = 0$ and

$$\operatorname{erfc}(-\infty) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^\infty e^{-x^2} dx = 2.$$

The error function is important in statistics, the cumulative density function (CDF) of a Gaussian random variable is given by $1 - \frac{1}{2}\operatorname{erfc} x$, and it is a critical tool in describing asymptotics of solutions to differential equations near essential singularities [84].

One can certainly calculate error functions via quadrature: for a quadrature rule

$$\int_0^\infty f(x) dx \approx \sum_{k=1}^n w_k f(x_k),$$

approximate

$$\operatorname{erfc} z \approx \sum_{k=1}^n w_k e^{-(x_k+z)^2}.$$

However, the integrand becomes increasingly oscillatory as the imaginary part of z becomes large, so that an increasing number of quadrature points are required to resolve the oscillations.

³The winding number is the number of times an image of a function wraps around the origin. Technically speaking, a zero winding number in this context is not sufficient for existence and uniqueness but we defer these details to Chapter 2, see also Section 8.2.4.

⁴Typically, the solution can be made unique by imposing additional conditions.

An effective alternative to quadrature rules applied to the integral representation is to apply numerical methods to a RH problem. To this end, we reduce the integral representation to a simple RH problem. The first stage is to manipulate $\operatorname{erfc} z$ so that it has nice behavior at $+\infty$. We can determine its asymptotic behavior via integration by parts:

$$\begin{aligned}\int_z^\infty e^{-s^2} ds &= -\int_z^\infty \left(\frac{d}{ds} \left[\frac{e^{-s^2}}{2s} \right] + \frac{e^{-s^2}}{2s^2} \right) ds \\ &= \frac{e^{-z^2}}{2z} - \int_z^\infty \frac{e^{-s^2}}{2s^2} ds.\end{aligned}$$

The second integral satisfies, for $\operatorname{Re} z \geq 0$ and $|z| > 1$,

$$\left| e^{z^2} \int_z^\infty \frac{e^{-s^2}}{2s^2} ds \right| = \left| \int_0^\infty \frac{e^{-2zx-x^2}}{2(x+z)^2} dx \right| \leq \frac{1}{2|z|^2} \int_0^\infty e^{-x^2} dx = \frac{1}{4|z|^2}.$$

It follows that $e^{z^2} \operatorname{erfc} z$ is bounded in the right half plane (boundedness for $|z| \leq 1$ follows from analyticity), and decays as $z \rightarrow +\infty$. Similarly, we can construct a companion function by integrating from $-\infty$ and normalizing: we have

$$e^{z^2}(2 - \operatorname{erfc} z) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{z^2} \int_{-\infty}^z e^{-s^2} ds$$

is bounded in the left half plane, and decays as $z \rightarrow -\infty$.

Combining these two functions, we can construct a sectionally analytic function

$$\psi(z) = \begin{cases} e^{z^2}(2 - \operatorname{erfc} z), & \text{if } \operatorname{Re} z < 0, \\ -e^{z^2} \operatorname{erfc} z, & \text{if } \operatorname{Re} z > 0. \end{cases}$$

This has a discontinuity along the imaginary axis, and we can encode the jump along this discontinuity via the following scalar RH problem:

Problem 1.1.1. Find $\psi : \mathbb{C} \setminus i\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ that satisfies the following:

1. $\psi(z)$ is analytic off the imaginary axis,
2. $\psi(z)$ is bounded throughout the complex plane,
3. $\psi(z)$ decays at ∞ , and
4. for y on the branch cut along the imaginary axis (oriented from $-i\infty$ to $i\infty$), it satisfies the jump

$$\psi^+(y) - \psi^-(y) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{y^2} \int_{-\infty}^\infty e^{-x^2} dx = 2e^{y^2},$$

where $\psi^+(y) = \lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \psi(y - \epsilon)$ and $\psi^-(y) = \lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \psi(y + \epsilon)$ are the limits from the left and right, respectively.

Figure 1.2 depicts the jump contours and jump functions, Figure 1.3 depicts the solution.

This RH problem has a unique solution (Problem 2.3.1) and solving the RH problem *globally throughout the complex plane* can be accomplished via a single fast Fourier transform (Section 5.3).

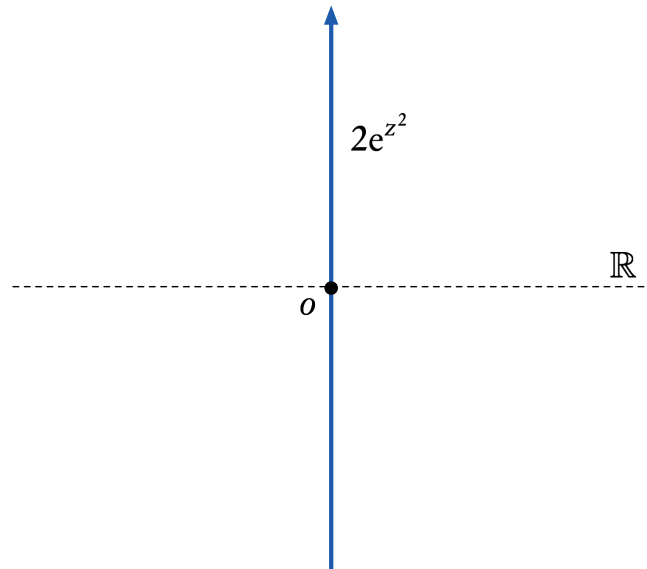


Figure 1.2. The jump contour and jump function $G(z) = 2e^{z^2}$ for the complementary error function.

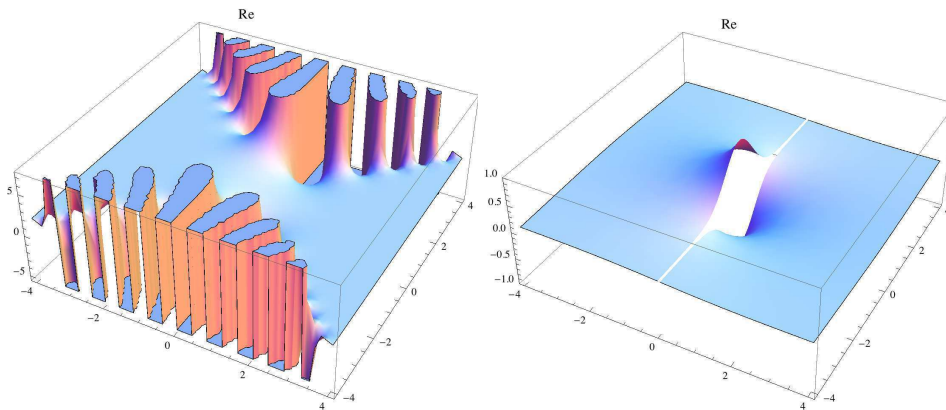


Figure 1.3. The real part of $\text{erfc } z$ (left) and the real part of ψ (right).

1.2 • Elliptic integrals

Define the *elliptic integral of the first kind*⁵ by

$$g(z; a) = \int_0^z \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-z^2}\sqrt{a^2-z^2}} dz,$$

for real $a > 1$. Here the integration path can be taken to be a straight line from the origin to z , which introduces branch cuts along $[1, \infty)$ and $(-\infty, -1]$.

⁵The usual convention is to define Legendre's elliptic integral of the first kind $F(\phi, m) \triangleq m^{-1}g(\sin \phi; m^{-1})$. However, the definition as g leads naturally to a RH problem.

Elliptic integrals arose to describe arclengths of ellipses. They form a fundamental tool in building functions on Riemann surfaces, along with their functional inverses the *Jacobi elliptic functions*. Like error functions, calculating elliptic integrals with quadrature has several issues, with the additional difficulty introduced by the singularities of the integrand at ± 1 and $\pm a$. Rephrasing g as a solution to a RH problem allows for the resolution of these difficulties.

To determine a RH problem for g , we first construct a RH problem for the integrand

$$\psi(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-z^2}\sqrt{a^2-z^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-z}\sqrt{1+z}\sqrt{a-z}\sqrt{a+z}}.$$

The square root (with standard choice of branch) satisfies a multiplicative jump for $x < 0$ of

$$\sqrt{x^+} = -i\sqrt{|x|} = -\sqrt{x^-}.$$

This implies that $\psi^+(x) = \psi^-(x)$ for $x > a$ and $x < -a$, i.e., $\psi(x)$ is continuous and hence analytic (by Theorem C.11) on $[a, \infty)$ and $(-\infty, -a]$. On the remaining branch cuts along $[-a, -1]$ and $[a, 1]$, it satisfies the jump

$$\psi_+(x) + \psi_-(x) = 0 \quad \text{for } -a < x < -1 \quad \text{and} \quad 1 < x < a. \quad (1.1)$$

Returning to g , since the singularities of ψ are integrable, we have the limit of g from above and below for $x \geq 0$ given by

$$g_{\pm}(x) = \int_0^x \psi_{\pm}(x) dx = \begin{cases} \int_0^x \psi(x) dx, & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1, \\ \int_0^1 \psi(x) dx + \int_1^x \psi_{\pm}(x) dx, & \text{if } 1 \leq x \leq a, \\ \int_0^1 \psi(x) dx + \int_1^a \psi_{\pm}(x) dx + \int_a^x \psi(x) dx, & \text{if } a \leq x. \end{cases}$$

Define the *complete Elliptic integral*⁶

$$K(s) \triangleq \int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}\sqrt{1-s^2x^2}} dx. \quad (1.2)$$

We use the cancellation of the integrand to determine, for $1 \leq x \leq a$,

$$g_+(x) + g_-(x) = \int_0^x [\psi_+(x) + \psi_-(x)] dx = 2 \int_0^1 \psi(x) dx = 2 \frac{K(a^{-1})}{a}.$$

Similarly, the analyticity of ψ between $[0, 1]$ and $[1, \infty)$ tells us, for $x > a$,

$$g_+(x) - g_-(x) = \int_0^x [\psi_+(x) - \psi_-(x)] dx = 2 \int_1^a \psi_+(x) dx = 2i \frac{K(\sqrt{1-a^{-2}})}{a},$$

where the final expression follows from applying the change of variables $x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-(1-a^{-2})t^2}}$ and simplifying. From the symmetry relationship $g(-z) = -g(z)$, we determine the equivalent jumps on the negative real axis. We thus arrive at a RH problem:

⁶We use the convention of [84, Chapter 19], which differs from MATHEMATICA's `EllipticK` routine: $\text{EllipticK}(s^2) \equiv K(s)$.

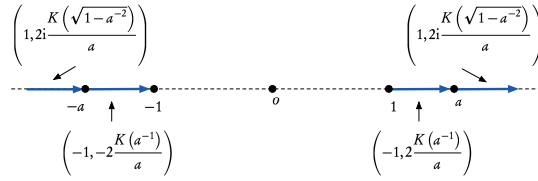


Figure 1.4. The jump contours and jump functions for the Jacobi elliptic integral RH problem.

Problem 1.2.1. Find g that satisfies the following:

1. $g(z)$ is analytic off $[1, \infty) \cup (-\infty, -1]$,
2. $g(z)$ is bounded throughout the complex plane,
3. $g(0) = 0$, and
4. on the branch cuts it satisfies the jumps

$$\begin{aligned}
 g_+(x) + g_-(x) &= 2 \frac{K(a^{-1})}{a} \quad \text{for } 1 < x < a, \\
 g_+(x) + g_-(x) &= -2 \frac{K(a^{-1})}{a} \quad \text{for } -a < x < -1, \\
 g_+(x) - g_-(x) &= 2i \frac{K(\sqrt{1-a^{-2}})}{a} \quad \text{for } a < x, \\
 g_+(x) - g_-(x) &= 2i \frac{K(\sqrt{1-a^{-2}})}{a} \quad \text{for } x < -a.
 \end{aligned}$$

See Figure 1.4 for the jump contours and jump functions.

We solve this RH problem numerically, giving an approximation to the elliptic integral that is accurate throughout the complex plane, see Section 5.5.

1.3 ■ Airy function: from differential equation to Riemann–Hilbert problem

RH problems can also be seen as a way to recover solutions to differential equations from their asymptotic behavior. The canonical example is the *Airy equation*

$$y''(z) = zy(z).$$

Liouville–Green approximation (or WKB approximation) informs us that along any given direction for which z approaches ∞ , there are two linearly independent solutions that satisfy the asymptotic behavior

$$z^{-1/4} e^{\pm \frac{2}{3} z^{3/2}}.$$

However, the well-known *Stokes' phenomenon* says that the asymptotic behavior of a single solution changes depending on the sector of the complex plane in which z approaches

∞ .

A canonical particular solution is the *Airy function*, which satisfies

$$\text{Ai}(z) \sim \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\pi}} z^{-1/4} e^{-\frac{2}{3}z^{3/2}} \quad \text{for} \quad -\frac{2\pi}{3} \leq \arg z \leq \frac{2\pi}{3}$$

uniformly⁷. By plugging into the ODE, we see that $\text{Ai}(\omega z)$ and $\text{Ai}(\omega^2 z)$ are also solutions to the Airy equation, for $\omega = e^{-\frac{2i\pi}{3}}$. We can deduce asymptotics of these from the asymptotics of the Airy function, with a bit of care taken due to the branch cut of the asymptotic formula:

$$\begin{aligned} \omega \text{Ai}(\omega z) &\sim -\frac{z^{-1/4}}{2\sqrt{\pi}} \begin{cases} ie^{\frac{2}{3}z^{3/2}}, & \text{if } 0 \leq \arg z \leq \pi, \\ e^{-\frac{2}{3}z^{3/2}}, & \text{if } -\pi \leq \arg z \leq -\frac{2\pi}{3}, \end{cases} \\ \omega^2 \text{Ai}(\omega^2 z) &\sim \frac{z^{-1/4}}{2\sqrt{\pi}} \begin{cases} -e^{-\frac{2}{3}z^{3/2}}, & \text{if } \frac{2\pi}{3} \leq \arg z \leq \pi, \\ ie^{\frac{2}{3}z^{3/2}}, & \text{if } -\pi \leq \arg z \leq 0. \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

We choose two linearly independent solutions in each sector

$$y(z) = \begin{cases} [-\omega \text{Ai}(\omega z), -i\omega^2 \text{Ai}(\omega^2 z)], & \text{if } -\pi < \arg z < -\frac{2\pi}{3}, \\ [\text{Ai}(z), -i\omega^2 \text{Ai}(\omega^2 z)], & \text{if } -\frac{2\pi}{3} < \arg z < 0, \\ [\text{Ai}(z), i\omega \text{Ai}(\omega z)], & \text{if } 0 < \arg z < \frac{2\pi}{3}, \\ [-\omega^2 \text{Ai}(\omega^2 z), i\omega \text{Ai}(\omega z)], & \text{if } \frac{2\pi}{3} < \arg z < \pi, \end{cases}$$

so that

$$y(z) \sim \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\pi}} z^{-1/4} [e^{-\frac{2}{3}z^{3/2}}, e^{\frac{2}{3}z^{3/2}}]$$

throughout the complex plane.

We now determine the jumps of y using the symmetry relationship

$$\text{Ai}(z) + \omega \text{Ai}(\omega z) + \omega^2 \text{Ai}(\omega^2 z) = 0.$$

This relationship holds true since $\text{Ai}(z) + \omega \text{Ai}(\omega z) + \omega^2 \text{Ai}(\omega^2 z)$ also solves the Airy equation with zero initial conditions:

$$\begin{aligned} (1 + \omega + \omega^2) \text{Ai}(0) &= \left(1 + 2\cos\frac{2\pi}{3}\right) \text{Ai}(0) = 0 \\ (1 + \omega^2 + \omega^4) \text{Ai}'(0) &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

⁷This asymptotic behavior can be extended to $|\arg z| \leq \pi - \delta$ for any δ , however, we only use the asymptotics in the stated sector.

It follows that y satisfies the following jumps:

$$\begin{aligned} y_+(x) &= y_-(x) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -i \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{for } x \in (0, \infty), \\ y_+(s) &= y_-(s) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -i & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{for } s \in (0, e^{\frac{2\pi i}{3}} \infty), \\ y_+(s) &= y_-(s) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -i & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{for } s \in (0, e^{-\frac{2\pi i}{3}} \infty), \\ y_+(x) &= y_-(x) \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i \\ -i & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{for } x \in (-\infty, 0). \end{aligned}$$

We now remove the asymptotic behavior

$$\phi(z) = 2\sqrt{\pi}z^{1/4}y(z) \begin{bmatrix} e^{\frac{2}{3}z^{3/2}} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-\frac{2}{3}z^{3/2}} \end{bmatrix},$$

so that $\phi(z) \sim [1, 1]$ as $z \rightarrow \infty$. We thus obtain the following vector-valued RH problem:

Problem 1.3.1. Find $\phi(z) : \mathbb{C} \setminus \Gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{1 \times 2}$, $\Gamma = [0, \infty) \cup (-\infty, 0] \cup [0, e^{\frac{2\pi i}{3}} \infty) \cup [0, e^{-\frac{2\pi i}{3}} \infty)$, that satisfies the following:

1. $\phi(z)$ is analytic off Γ ,
2. $\phi(z)$ has weaker than pole singularities throughout the complex plane,
3. $\phi(z) \sim [1, 1]$ at ∞ , and
4. on Γ , ϕ satisfies the jumps

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_+(x) &= \phi_-(x) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -ie^{-\frac{4}{3}x^{3/2}} \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{for } x \in (0, \infty), \\ \phi_+(s) &= \phi_-(s) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -ie^{\frac{4}{3}s^{3/2}} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{for } s \in (0, e^{\frac{2\pi i}{3}} \infty), \\ \phi_+(s) &= \phi_-(s) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -ie^{\frac{4}{3}s^{3/2}} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{for } s \in (0, e^{-\frac{2\pi i}{3}} \infty), \\ \phi_+(x) &= \phi_-(x) \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{for } x \in (-\infty, 0). \end{aligned}$$

This vector-valued RH problem is solvable numerically, giving a numerical method for calculating the Airy function that is accurate throughout the complex plane, see Section 6.3.

1.4 • Monodromy

Suppose we are given a second order *Fuchsian ODE*, i.e.,

$$Y'(z) = A(z)Y(z) = \sum_{k=1}^r \frac{A_k}{z - z_k} Y(z)$$

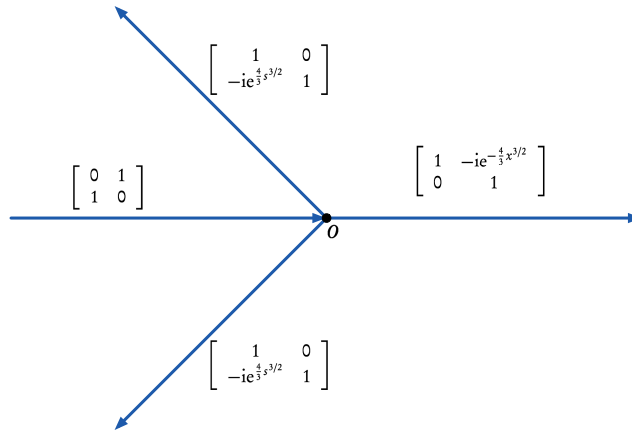


Figure 1.5. The jump contour and jump functions for the Airy function RH problem.

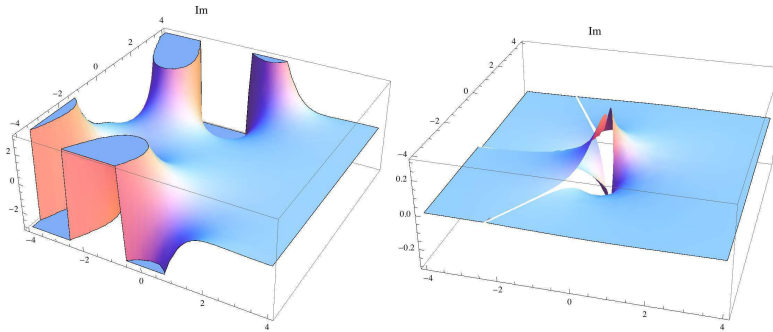


Figure 1.6. The imaginary part of $\text{Ai } z$ (left) and the imaginary part of ϕ (right).

where z_k are distinct and $A_k \in \mathbb{C}^{2 \times 2}$. As a concrete example, we consider the case of three singular points $z_1 = 1$, $z_2 = 2$ and $z_3 = 3$, and take $Y(0) = I$. By integrating the differential equation along a straight contour, we obtain a solution $Y(z)$ that is analytic off the contour $(1, \infty)$. For any x not equal to a singular point z_k , we define the limits from above and below:

$$Y_+(x) = \lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} Y(x + i\epsilon) \quad \text{and} \quad Y_-(x) = \lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} Y(x - i\epsilon).$$

These functions can also be considered as solutions to the differential equation obtained by integrating along arcs that avoid the singular points.

Note that $Y_+(x)$ and $Y_-(x)$ satisfy the same ODE as Y , hence we know that the columns of $Y_+(x)$ are a linear combination of the columns of $Y_-(x)$. In other words, there is a *monodromy matrix* $M_1 \in \mathbb{C}^{2 \times 2}$ so that $Y_+(x) = Y_-(x)M_1$ for any $x \in (1, 2)$. By analytic continuation, this relationship is satisfied for all $x \in (1, 2)$. Similarly, for all $x \in (2, 3)$ we have $Y_+(x) = Y_-(x)M_2$ and for all $x \in (3, \infty)$ we have $Y_+(x) = Y_-(x)M_3$.

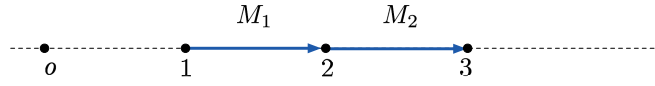


Figure 1.7. The jump contour and jump functions for the inverse monodromy RH problem.

Consider the special case where

$$\sum_{k=1}^r A_k = 0.$$

We find that that $Y(z)$ is analytic at ∞ , as verified by doing a change of variables $U(z) = Y(1/z)$ so that

$$\begin{aligned} U'(z) &= -\frac{1}{z^2} Y'(1/z) = -\frac{1}{z^2} \sum_{k=1}^r \frac{A_k}{z^{-1} - z_k} Y(1/z) = \sum_{k=1}^r \frac{A_k z^{-1}}{1 - z_k z} U(z) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^r A_k z^{-1} (1 + z_k z + \mathcal{O}(z^2)) U(z) = \sum_{k=1}^r A_k (z_k + \mathcal{O}(z)) U(z) \end{aligned}$$

has a normal point at the origin. For our special case of three singular points, this implies that $Y_+(x) = Y_-(x)$ for all $x \in (3, \infty)$, hence $M_3 = I$.

The map from $\{A_k\}$ to the monodromy matrices $\{M_k\}$ is known as the *Riemann–Hilbert correspondence*. We now consider the inverse map: recovering $\{A_k\}$ from $\{M_k\}$. Observe that the solution Y can be described by a RH problem given in terms of the monodromy matrices:

Problem 1.4.1. Find $Y(z) : \mathbb{C} \setminus [1, 3] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{2 \times 2}$ that satisfies the following:

1. $Y(z)$ is analytic off $[1, 3]$,
2. $Y(z)$ has weaker than pole singularities throughout the complex plane,
3. $Y(0) = I$, and
4. Y satisfies the jump

$$\begin{aligned} Y_+(x) &= Y_-(x) M_1 \quad \text{for } x \in (1, 2), \\ Y_+(x) &= Y_-(x) M_2 \quad \text{for } x \in (2, 3). \end{aligned}$$

Hilbert's twenty-first problem essentially posed the question whether one can uniquely recover $\{A_k\}$ from the monodromy matrices $\{M_k\}$. If we can solve this RH problem, then we know that

$$A(z) = Y'(z) Y(z)^{-1},$$

and if this is rational then we can recover A_k from the Laurent series of A around each singular point. We solve this problem numerically in Section 6.4

Remark 1.4.1. *Whether the RH problem is always solvable with $A(z)$ rational is a delicate question. For the case of three or fewer singular points, the problem is solvable in terms of hypergeometric functions. The case of four or more singular points is substantially more difficult to solve directly and requires Painlevé transcendents, see [52, pp.80]. In the general case, it was originally answered in the affirmative by Plemelj [94], however, there was a flaw in the argument restricting its applicability to the case where at least one M_k is diagonalizable. Counter examples were found by Bolibrukh [15], see also [6]. On the other hand, setting up and numerically solving an RH problem is straightforward regardless of the number of singular points.*

1.5 ■ Jacobi operators and orthogonal polynomials

RH problems can be used for *inverse spectral problems*. Our first example is the family of *Jacobi operators*:

$$J = \begin{bmatrix} a_0 & \sqrt{b_1} & & & \\ \sqrt{b_1} & a_1 & \sqrt{b_2} & & \\ & \sqrt{b_2} & a_2 & \sqrt{b_3} & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots \\ & & & & \ddots \end{bmatrix} \quad (1.3)$$

We assume that J is endowed with a domain space so that it is self-adjoint with respect to the ℓ^2 inner product⁸. Self-adjointness ensures that $(J - z)^{-1}$ is bounded for all z off the real axis, and the spectral theorem guarantees the existence of a *spectral measure* μ for J , a probability measure that satisfies

$$\mathbf{e}_0^\top (J - z)^{-1} \mathbf{e}_0 = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{d\mu(x)}{x - z} \quad \text{for } z \notin \text{supp } \mu \equiv \sigma(J)$$

where $\mathbf{e}_0 = [1, 0, 0, \dots]^\top$ and $\sigma(J)$ denotes the spectrum of J . The *spectral map* is the map from the operator J to its spectral measure μ .

We now consider the *inverse spectral map*: recovering the operator J given its spectral measure. The key to this inverse spectral problem are the polynomials orthogonal with respect to the weight $d\mu(x)$; *i.e.*, orthogonal with respect to the inner product

$$\langle f(x), g(x) \rangle_\mu = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x)g(x)d\mu(x).$$

We see below that the entries of the operator J are embedded in the three-term recurrence relationship that the orthogonal polynomials satisfy.

Applying the Gram–Schmidt procedure to the sequence $\{1, x, x^2, \dots\}$ produces a se-

⁸If J is bounded on ℓ^2 , then J is self-adjoint on ℓ^2 . In the unbounded case, J can be viewed as the self-adjoint extension of J_0 , the restriction of the Jacobi operator to acting on the space of vectors with a finite number of non-zero entries.

quence of (monic) orthogonal polynomials⁹

$$\begin{aligned}\pi_{-1}(x) &= 0, \\ \pi_0(x) &= 1, \\ \pi_{n+1}(x) &= (x - \alpha_n)\pi_n(x) - \beta_n\pi_{n-1}(x).\end{aligned}$$

Here the coefficients α_n, β_n are those in the usual *three-term recurrence relation*, given by

$$\alpha_n = \langle x\pi_n(x), \pi_n(x) \rangle_\mu \gamma_n, \text{ and } \beta_n = \langle x\pi_n(x), \pi_{n-1}(x) \rangle_\mu \gamma_{n-1}$$

for

$$\gamma_n = \langle \pi_n(x), \pi_n(x) \rangle_\mu^{-1}.$$

It is easy to see such coefficients exist using $\langle f(x), xg(x) \rangle_\mu = \langle xf(x), g(x) \rangle_\mu$. A remarkable fact, which we do not demonstrate here (see [28, p. 31]) is that $\alpha_n = a_n$ and $\beta_n = b_n$ for a large class of Jacobi operators.

Another remarkable fact is that these coefficients can be expressed in terms of a solution of a RH problem. Let $w(x)dx = d\mu(x)$, assuming the spectral measure has a continuous density. Then, consider the function

$$\begin{aligned}\Psi_n(z) &= \begin{bmatrix} \pi_n(z) & \mathcal{C}_\mathbb{R}[\pi_n w](z) \\ -2\pi i \gamma_{n-1} \pi_{n-1}(z) & -2\pi i \gamma_{n-1} \mathcal{C}_\mathbb{R}[\pi_{n-1} w](z) \end{bmatrix}, \\ \mathcal{C}_\mathbb{R}f(z) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_\mathbb{R} \frac{f(x)}{x-z} dx,\end{aligned}$$

i.e., $\mathcal{C}_\mathbb{R}f(z)$ is the *Cauchy integral* of f . For f with sufficient smoothness, the Cauchy integral satisfies $\mathcal{C}_\mathbb{R}^+ f(x) - \mathcal{C}_\mathbb{R}^- f(x) = f(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$, where $\mathcal{C}_\mathbb{R}^\pm f(x)$ is the limit of $\mathcal{C}_\mathbb{R}f(z)$ from above and below, as described in Lemma 2.7. It follows immediately that $\Psi_n(z)$ satisfies the following jump on the real axis:

$$\Psi_n^+(x) = \Psi_n^-(x) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & w(x) \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{for } x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

We can further use orthogonality of π_k with every lower degree polynomial to determine the asymptotic behavior as $z \rightarrow \infty$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{C}_\mathbb{R}[\pi_k w](z) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_\mathbb{R} \frac{\pi_k(x)}{x-z} d\mu(x) = -\frac{1}{2\pi iz} \int_\mathbb{R} \pi_k(x) \left(1 + \frac{x}{z} + \frac{x^2}{z^2} + \dots \right) d\mu(x) \\ &= -\frac{1}{2\pi iz^{k+1}} \int_\mathbb{R} \pi_k(x) x^k \left(1 + \frac{x}{z} + \frac{x^2}{z^2} + \dots \right) d\mu(x) \\ &\sim -\frac{\int_\mathbb{R} \pi_k(x) x^k d\mu(x)}{2\pi iz^{k+1}} = -\frac{\langle \pi_k, \pi_k \rangle_\mu}{2\pi iz^{k+1}} = -\frac{1}{2\pi i \gamma_k z^{k+1}}.\end{aligned} \tag{1.4}$$

We thus find that $\Psi_n(z)$ has the following asymptotic behavior:

⁹It can be shown that $\mathbf{e}_0^\top J^k \mathbf{e}_0 = \int_\mathbb{R} x^k d\mu(x)$, implying that all moments are finite and guaranteeing the validity of the Gram-Schmidt procedure.

$$\Psi_n(z) \begin{bmatrix} z^{-n} & 0 \\ 0 & z^n \end{bmatrix} = I + \mathcal{O}(z^{-1}) \text{ as } |z| \rightarrow \infty.$$

We can now state the inverse spectral problem in terms of the solution of a RH problem.

Problem 1.5.1. Find $\Psi \equiv \Psi_n : \mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{2 \times 2}$ that satisfies the following:

1. $\Psi(z)$ is analytic off \mathbb{R} ,
2. $\Psi(z)$ has the asymptotic behavior

$$\Psi(z) \begin{bmatrix} z^{-n} & 0 \\ 0 & z^n \end{bmatrix} = I + \mathcal{O}(z^{-1}) \text{ as } |z| \rightarrow \infty, \text{ and}$$

3. $\Psi(z)$ satisfies the jump

$$\Psi^+(x) = \Psi^-(x) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & w(x) \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

With some technical assumptions on $w(z)$, this RH problem is uniquely solvable and we can recover the Jacobi operator J which has spectral measure $d\mu(x) = w(x)dx$. This is accomplished by expanding the solution near infinity

$$\Psi(z) = \left(I + \frac{Y_1}{z} + \frac{Y_2}{z^2} + \mathcal{O}(z^{-3}) \right) \begin{bmatrix} z^n & 0 \\ 0 & z^{-n} \end{bmatrix}.$$

The terms in this expansion can be determined from (1.4), from which we compute

$$(Y_1)_{12}(Y_1)_{21} = \frac{\gamma_{n-1}}{\gamma_n} = \langle \pi_n, \pi_n \rangle_\mu \gamma_{n-1} = \langle \pi_n, x \pi_{n-1} \rangle_\mu \gamma_{n-1} = \beta_n,$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{(Y_2)_{12}}{(Y_1)_{12}} - (Y_1)_{22} &= \gamma_n \langle x^{n+1}, \pi_n \rangle_\mu - \gamma_{n-1} \langle x^n, \pi_{n-1} \rangle_\mu \\ &= \gamma_n \langle x^n, \pi_{n+1} + \alpha_n \pi_n + \beta_n \pi_{n-1} \rangle_\mu - \gamma_{n-1} \langle x^n, \pi_{n-1} \rangle_\mu \\ &= \alpha_n + \gamma_n \beta_n \langle x^n, \pi_{n-1} \rangle_\mu - \gamma_{n-1} \langle x^n, \pi_{n-1} \rangle_\mu = \alpha_n. \end{aligned}$$

While this RH problem has differing asymptotic conditions than our model RH problem (Problem 1.0.2), it can be reduced to the required form using the so-called equilibrium measure arising in potential theory, see [28].

Remark 1.5.1. The special case of solving this RH problem when $n = 0$ is considered in Example 2.17.

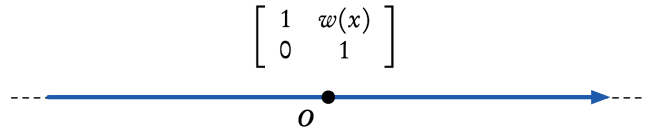


Figure 1.8. The jump contour and jump functions for the orthogonal polynomial RH problem.

Remark 1.5.2. The numerical Riemann–Hilbert approach can be adapted to this setting to compute this inverse spectral map in specific cases [91, 108].

1.6 - Spectral analysis of Schrödinger operators

Our second example of an inverse spectral problem is for the time-independent *Schrödinger operator*

$$Lu = -\frac{d^2u}{dx^2} - V(x)u \tag{1.5}$$

where V is, for simplicity, smooth with exponential decay¹⁰. One initially considers L as acting on smooth, rapidly decaying functions on \mathbb{R} . With an appropriate extension, as in the case of Jacobi operators, L becomes self-adjoint: one replaces strong with weak differentiation and has L act on the Sobolev space $H^2(\mathbb{R})$. This particular example is of great importance for integrable systems.

We see that, similar to the spectral map for Jacobi operators, there exists a spectral map from the Schrödinger operator to *spectral data* or *scattering data*. RH problems can then be used for the *inverse spectral map*, recovering the potential V from the operators spectral data. Details on the spectrum of Schrödinger operators can be found in [67, Chapt. 5] (see also [32]).

The determination of the spectral data starts with the free Schrödinger operator $-\frac{d^2}{dx^2}$, whose (essential) spectrum is the positive real axis $[0, \infty)$ ¹¹. The operator L is a relatively compact perturbation of $-\frac{d^2}{dx^2}$, hence the spectrum of L must only differ from $-\frac{d^2}{dx^2}$ by the possible addition of discrete eigenvalues lying in $(-\infty, 0)$. The assumptions made on V are sufficient to ensure that there are only a finite number of eigenvalues $\{\lambda_j\}_{j=1}^n$ [32].

The associated spectral data is defined on the spectrum, by considering the solutions to equation $Lu = \lambda u$ ¹². The solution space of the free equation is spanned by $e^{\pm isx}$, $s^2 = \lambda$. Thus, because V decays rapidly, we expect the solutions of (1.5) to be approximately

¹⁰Assuming that $|V(x)|$ is integrable and its first moment is finite is enough for most of the results we state here [32]

¹¹This can be verified by considering the Fourier transform of the operator.

¹²Generally speaking, to rigorously establish the facts we state here one proceeds with the analysis of an integral equation [2, Chapter 2] (see also Chapter 3 for a detailed analysis of similar integral equations).

equal to a linear combination of these free solutions asymptotically. Define four solutions of $Lu = \lambda u$, for $s \in \mathbb{R}$ by

$$\begin{aligned}\psi_p(x; s) &\sim e^{+isx}(1 + o(1)), \text{ as } x \rightarrow +\infty, \\ \phi_p(x; s) &\sim e^{+isx}(1 + o(1)), \text{ as } x \rightarrow -\infty, \\ \psi_m(x; s) &\sim e^{-isx}(1 + o(1)), \text{ as } x \rightarrow +\infty, \\ \phi_m(x; s) &\sim e^{-isx}(1 + o(1)), \text{ as } x \rightarrow -\infty.\end{aligned}$$

As there can only be two linearly independent solutions of a second order differential equation, there must exist an x -independent *scattering matrix* $S(s)$ such that

$$\begin{bmatrix} \psi_p(x; s) & \psi_p'(x; s) \\ \psi_m(x; s) & \psi_m'(x; s) \end{bmatrix} = S(s) \begin{bmatrix} \phi_p(x; s) & \phi_p'(x; s) \\ \phi_m(x; s) & \phi_m'(x; s) \end{bmatrix}. \quad (1.6)$$

Because V is real, we have two further properties, similar to the symmetries of the Fourier transform of a real-valued function, that will prove useful. Complex conjugacy commutes with L and hence we have a conjugacy relationship between the solutions:

$$\psi_p(x; s) = \overline{\psi_m(x; s)} \quad \text{and} \quad \phi_p(x; s) = \overline{\phi_m(x; s)}.$$

Furthermore, by direct substitution into the differential equation we have the symmetry relationship with respect to negating the spectral variable:

$$\psi_p(x; s) = \psi_m(x; -s) \quad \text{and} \quad \phi_p(x; s) = \phi_m(x; -s).$$

The scattering matrix encodes the spectral data associated with the continuous spectrum of L , in particular, we have the *reflection coefficient* $\rho(z) \triangleq b(z)/a(z)$. The determinants of these matrices can be expressed in terms of the *Wronskian* $W(f, g) = fg' - gf'$, which we use to simplify the definition of S . Indeed, *Abel's formula* indicates that the Wronskian of any two solutions must be independent of x . From the asymptotic behavior of the solutions, assuming the expansion can be differentiated, one can deduce $W(\psi_p, \psi_m) = -2is = W(\phi_p, \phi_m)$. Then $S(s)$ is expressed as

$$S(s) = \begin{bmatrix} A(s) & B(s) \\ b(s) & a(s) \end{bmatrix} = -\frac{1}{2is} \begin{bmatrix} \psi_p(x; s) & \psi_p'(x; s) \\ \psi_m(x; s) & \psi_m'(x; s) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \phi_m'(x; s) & -\phi_p'(x; s) \\ -\phi_m(x; s) & \phi_p(x; s) \end{bmatrix}, \quad (1.7)$$

so that each element is again a Wronskian divided by $-2is$. The conjugacy relationship of the solutions ensures that $A(s) = \overline{a(s)}$ and $B(s) = \overline{b(s)}$, therefore $\overline{\rho(s)} = \frac{B(s)}{A(s)}$.

We must also determine the spectral data associated with the discrete spectrum. Consider the (2, 2) element of $S(s)$:

$$a(s) = -\frac{W(\psi_m, \phi_p)}{2is}.$$

Rephrasing these solutions to a second order differential equation in terms of solutions to Volterra integral equations, one shows that ψ_p and ϕ_m can be analytically continued in the s variable throughout the lower-half plane while ψ_m and ϕ_p can be analytically

continued in the s variable throughout the upper-half plane. This latter fact indicates that $a(z)$ is analytic in the upper-half plane. Now, assume that for discrete values z_1, \dots, z_n in the upper-half plane, ψ_p is a multiple of ϕ_m , both of which must decay exponentially with respect to x in their respective directions of definition. The conclusion is that ψ_p must be an $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ eigenfunction of L and $z_j^2 = \lambda_j$ is an eigenvalue of L . Furthermore, $a(z)$ must vanish at each such $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ eigenvalue and these zeros can be shown to be simple [2, p. 78]. The discrete spectral data are then given by the *norming constants* $c_j = b(z_j)/a'(z_j)$.

Remark 1.6.1. *It is important to note that b is defined on \mathbb{R} . It may or may not have an analytic continuation into the upper-half plane. When we define $b(z_j)$ we are not referring to the function on the real axis or its analytic continuation. We are referring to the proportionality constant: $\psi_p(x; z_j) = b(z_j)\phi_m(x; z_j)$. In this way, $b(z_j)$ could be viewed as abuse of notation because one could have $b = 0$ on \mathbb{R} but $b(z_j) \neq 0$.*

We now consider the problem of recovering the potential V from the *spectral data* ρ , $\{c_j\}$ and $\{\lambda_j\}$. We accomplish this task through the analyticity properties of $\psi_{p/m}(x; s)$ and $\phi_{p/m}(x; s)$ with respect to the spectral variable s . Before deriving the correct construction, we investigate an approach that fails: rearranging (1.6) only in terms of the analyticity properties of the solutions. This gives us the jump

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} \psi_m(x; s) & \phi_p(x; s) \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} \phi_m(x; s) & \psi_p(x; s) \end{bmatrix} \tilde{G}(s), \quad s \in \mathbb{R}, \\ \text{for } \tilde{G}(s) &= \begin{bmatrix} a(s) - \frac{B(s)b(s)}{A(s)} & -\frac{B(s)}{A(s)} \\ \frac{b(s)}{A(s)} & \frac{1}{A(s)} \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned} \quad (1.8)$$

The left-hand side of this equation is analytic in the upper-half plane while the vector on the right-hand side is analytic in the lower-half plane. For fixed x , it can be shown that

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} \psi_m(x; z) & \phi_p(x; z) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{izx} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-izx} \end{bmatrix} &= [1, 1] + \mathcal{O}(1/z), \\ \begin{bmatrix} \phi_m(x; z) & \psi_p(x; z) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{izx} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-izx} \end{bmatrix} &= [1, 1] + \mathcal{O}(1/z), \end{aligned}$$

as $|z| \rightarrow \infty$ in their respective domains of analyticity. This is close to a valid RH problem. The main issue here is that $\det \tilde{G}(s) = a(s)/A(s)$ does not generically have a zero winding number¹³ which violates our rule of thumb, and therefore we do not expect the problem to have a (unique) solution.

Instead, consider

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\psi_m(x; s)}{a(s)} & \phi_p(x; s) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \phi_m(x; s) & \frac{\psi_p(x; s)}{A(s)} \end{bmatrix} G(s), \quad s \in \mathbb{R}, \quad (1.9)$$

and our task is to determine G . Straightforward algebra, combined with the definition of

¹³This can be demonstrated by considering that $a(s)$ and $A(s)$ are analytic functions in the upper- and lower-half planes respectively. Furthermore, $a(s)$ has zeros at $\{z_j\}$ and $A(s)$ at $\{\bar{z}_j\}$. Both functions have poles at $s = 0$ and this must be taken into account when computing the winding number with the argument principle.

ρ , demonstrates

$$G(s) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \frac{b(s)B(s)}{a(s)A(s)} & -\frac{B(s)}{A(s)} \\ \frac{b(s)}{a(s)} & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \rho(s)\bar{\rho}(s) & -\bar{\rho}(s) \\ \rho(s) & 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

which has unit determinant and therefore no winding number issues are present for $\det G(s)$. The division by $a(s)$ and $A(s)$ forces us to consider a sectionally *meromorphic* vector-valued function, depending parametrically on x

$$\Phi(z) \equiv \Phi(x; z) \triangleq \begin{cases} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\psi_m(x; z)}{a(z)} & \phi_p(x; z) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{izx} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-izx} \end{bmatrix}, & \text{if } z \in \mathbb{C}^+, \\ \begin{bmatrix} \phi_m(x; z) & \frac{\psi_p(x; z)}{A(z)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{izx} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-izx} \end{bmatrix}, & \text{if } z \in \mathbb{C}^-, \end{cases} \quad (1.10)$$

so that for $s \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\Phi^+(s) = \Phi^-(s) \begin{bmatrix} e^{-isx} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{isx} \end{bmatrix} G(s) \begin{bmatrix} e^{isx} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-isx} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \Phi(\infty) = [1, 1]. \quad (1.11)$$

Because Φ has poles on the imaginary axis corresponding to $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ eigenvalues of L (the points where a vanishes) we must impose residue conditions; as we must dictate the behavior of Φ at *all* of its singularities. Given $z_j \in i\mathbb{R}^+$ corresponding to an eigenvalue ($z_j^2 = \lambda_j$), we compute

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Res}_{z=z_j} \Phi(z) &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\psi_m(x; z_j)}{a'(z_j)} e^{iz_j x} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{b(z_j)\phi_p(x; z_j)}{a'(z_j)} e^{iz_j x} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \lim_{z \rightarrow z_j} \Phi(z) \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ c_j e^{2iz_j x} & 0 \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned} \quad (1.12)$$

where c_j are precisely the norming constants of the spectral data. Because $\psi_{p/m}(x; -s) = \psi_{m/p}(x; s)$ and $\phi_{p/m}(x; -s) = \phi_{m/p}(x; s)$, we have $a(-z) = A(z)$ and hence $\Phi(z)$ satisfies

$$\Phi(-z) = \Phi(z) \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Residue conditions may be obtained in the lower-half plane from this relationship.

We arrive at the following inverse spectral problem¹⁴.

Problem 1.6.1. Find $\Phi : \mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{1 \times 2}$ that satisfies the following:

¹⁴In the language of integrable systems solving this RH problem is called *inverse scattering*

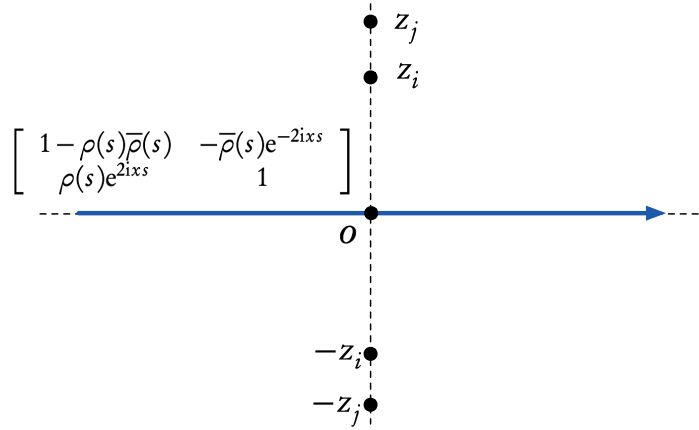


Figure 1.9. The jump contour and jump functions for the Schrödinger inverse spectral RH problem.

1. $\Phi(z)$ is meromorphic in $\mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{R}$,

$$\Phi^+(s) = \Phi^-(s) \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \rho(s)\bar{\rho}(s) & -\bar{\rho}(s)e^{-2isx} \\ \rho(s)e^{2isx} & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad s \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \Phi(\infty) = [1, 1],$$

for a function ρ that satisfies $\rho(-s) = \bar{\rho}(s)$, $|\rho(s)| < 1$ for $s \neq 0$,

2. $\Phi(z)$ has a finite number of poles $\{z_j\}_{j=1}^n$, $\{-z_j\}_{j=1}^n$, for $z_j = i\sqrt{-\lambda_j}$, $\lambda_j < 0$, on the imaginary axis where it satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Res}_{z=z_j} \Phi(z) &= \lim_{z \rightarrow z_j} \Phi(z) \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ c_j e^{2iz_j x} & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \\ \text{Res}_{z=-z_j} \Phi(z) &= \lim_{z \rightarrow -z_j} \Phi(z) \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -c_j e^{2iz_j x} \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \\ c_j &\in i\mathbb{R}^+, \end{aligned}$$

and

3. $\Phi(z)$ satisfies the (essential) symmetry condition

$$\Phi(-z) = \Phi(z) \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

If we can solve this RH problem, we can recover the potential $V(x)$ by

$$V(x) = 2i \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} z \partial_x \Phi(z)_1. \quad (1.13)$$

This follows since for $z \in \mathbb{C}^+$

$$\Phi^-(x; z)_1 = \phi_m(x; z) e^{izx} = 1 - \frac{1}{2iz} \int_{-\infty}^x [1 - e^{2iz(x-\tau)}] V(\tau) \Phi^-(\tau; z)_1 d\tau,$$

where the integral representation can be verified by substitution $\phi_m(x; z) = \Phi^-(x; z)_1 e^{-izx}$ into the Schrödinger equation, $Lu = z^2 u$. Therefore,

$$\partial_x \Phi^-(z)_1 = -e^{2izx} \int_{-\infty}^x e^{-2iz\tau} V(\tau) \Phi^-(\tau; z)_1 d\tau \sim \frac{\Phi^-(x; z)_1 V(x)}{2iz} \sim \frac{V(x)}{2iz} \quad \text{as } z \rightarrow \infty,$$

using integration by parts and the fact that $\Phi^-(x; z)_1 \rightarrow 1$ as $z \rightarrow \infty$. Similar relations follow for Φ^+ .

It can be shown that $\Phi(z)$ is uniquely specified by the above RH problem. Most importantly, we have characterized the operator $-d^2/d^2x - V(x)$ uniquely in terms of $\rho(z)$ defined on the essential spectrum and norming constants $\{c_j\}$ defined on the discrete spectrum $\{\lambda_j\}$. In this sense ρ , $\{c_j\}$ and $\{\lambda_j\}$ constitute the spectral data in the spectral analysis of Schrödinger operators. This procedure is critical in the solution of the Korteweg–de Vries equation with the inverse scattering transform as is discussed in great detail in Chapter 8.

Remark 1.6.2. *In the presentation we have ignored some technical details. One of which is the boundary behavior of $\phi_m(x; z)/a(z)$ as z approaches the real axis. Specifically, one needs to show $\Phi(z)$ as defined in (1.10) is in an appropriate Hardy space (see Section 2.5). Additionally, we used implicitly that $a(z)$ and $A(z)$ limit to unity for large z . These details can be established rigorously, see [32].*

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Notation and Abbreviations

(f)	The divisor of a meromorphic function f	276
$[\diamond, \diamond]$	The standard matrix commutator: $[M, N] = MN - NM$	88
$[G; \Gamma]$	An inhomogeneous L^2 RH problem	62
$Z(\Gamma)$	Functions that satisfy the absolutely converging zero-sum condition	154
$Z_n(\Gamma)$	A finite-dimensional subspace of $Z(\Gamma)$	162
$\text{Ai}(z)$	The Airy function	9
$\arg z$	The argument of complex number, $\arg z \in (-\pi, \pi]$	
$\bar{d}s$	$\bar{d}s = 1/(2\pi i)ds$	25
\mathcal{C}	Equivalent to $\mathcal{C}_{\mathbb{U}}$	128
\check{f}_k	The k th Chebyshev coefficient of f	116
$\text{codim } X$	The dimension of the quotient space Y/X where Y is clear from context .	340
$\text{deg } D$	The degree of a divisor D	276
$\text{dim } X$	The dimension of a vector space X	
$e^{\alpha \hat{\sigma}_3} A$	$e^{\alpha \sigma_3} A e^{-\alpha \sigma_3}$	88
ℓ^p	The Banach space of p -summable complex sequences. Context determines if sequences run over \mathbb{N} or \mathbb{Z}	338
$\ell^{(\lambda, R), p}$	p -summable complex sequences with algebraic and exponential decay	339
$\ell^{\lambda, p}$	p -summable complex sequences with algebraic decay	339
$\ell_{\pm}^{(\lambda, R), p}$	$\ell^{(\lambda, R), p}$ with a zero-sum condition	339
$\text{erfc } z$	The complimentary error function	5
\mathcal{F}^{-z}	The map to vanishing basis coefficients on the line	122
$F_{\alpha, \beta}$	The DFT matrix operator	111
\mathcal{T}	The operator that maps a function to its Chebyshev coefficients	116
$\mathcal{T}^{\pm z}$	The map to vanishing Chebyshev basis coefficients	123

T_n	The DCT matrix operator	117
$\Gamma(\zeta)$	The Gamma function	103
Γ^+	The region above a Lipschitz graph Γ	48
Γ^\dagger	The Schwarz conjugate of contour Γ : $\Gamma^\dagger = \{\bar{z} : z \in \Gamma\}$	76
γ_0	The set of non-smooth points of a contour Γ	57
$\hat{\mathbb{C}}$	A cut version of the complex plane	279
i	The imaginary unit $\sqrt{-1}$	
$\text{ind } \mathcal{T}$	The Fredholm index of an operator \mathcal{T} : $\dim \ker \mathcal{T} - \dim \text{codim } \text{ran } \mathcal{T}$	340
$\text{ind}_\Gamma g(s)$	The normalized increment of the argument of g as Γ is traversed	36
$J_\downarrow^{-1}(x)$	An inverse of the Joukowski map from the unit circle	351
$J_+^{-1}(z)$	A right inverse of the Joukowski map	350
$J_-^{-1}(z)$	A right inverse of the Joukowski map	350
$J_\uparrow^{-1}(x)$	An inverse of the Joukowski map from the unit circle	351
$\ker \mathcal{T}$	The kernel of an operator \mathcal{T}	340
$\ \diamond\ _p$	$\ \diamond\ _{L^p(\Gamma)}$ when Γ is clear from context	334
$\ \diamond\ _u$	The uniform norm	334
$\ \diamond\ _X$	The norm on a Banach space X	333
\mathbb{C}	The field of complex numbers	
\mathbb{C}^\pm	The open upper- (+) and lower-half (−) planes	
$\mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$	The vector space of $n \times m$ complex matrices	4
\mathbb{D}	The unit disk $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : z < 1\}$	45
\mathbb{I}	The closed unit interval $[-1, 1]$ oriented from left to right	
\mathbb{N}	The natural numbers $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$	
\mathbb{R}^\pm	The open left- (−) and right-half (+) lines	
\mathbb{U}	The unit circle $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : z = 1\}$ with counter-clockwise orientation	
\mathbb{Z}	The integers $\{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$	
$\mathcal{B}^+(\Gamma)$	The weighted Bergman space above the Lipschitz graph Γ	48
$\mathcal{C}'[G; \Gamma]$	The operator $u \mapsto u - \mathcal{C}_\Gamma^-[u(G - I)]$	63
$\mathcal{C}'[X_+, X_-; \Gamma]$	The operator $u \mapsto \mathcal{C}_\Gamma^+[uX_-] - \mathcal{C}_\Gamma^-[uX_+]$	66
$\mathcal{C}[G; \Gamma]$	The operator $u \mapsto u - \mathcal{C}_\Gamma^- u(G - I)$	63

$\mathcal{C}[X_+, X_-; \Gamma]$	The operator $u \mapsto \mathcal{C}_\Gamma^+ u X_+^{-1} - \mathcal{C}_\Gamma^- u X_-^{-1}$	66
$\mathcal{C}_\Gamma^\pm f(z)$	The boundary values $(\mathcal{C}_\Gamma f(z))^\pm$	30
$\mathcal{C}_\Gamma f(z)$	The Cauchy integral (transform) of f	25
$\mathcal{C}_n[G; \Gamma]$	A finite-dimensional approximation of $\mathcal{C}[G; \Gamma]$	177
$\mathcal{E}^\pm(\Gamma)$	The Hardy space to the left/right of an admissible contour Γ	56
$\mathcal{E}^p(D)$	The Hardy space on a general domain D	46
\mathcal{F}	The operator that maps to either Fourier or Laurent coefficients	345
\mathcal{H}^p	The L^p -based Hardy space on the disk	45
$\mathcal{K}(X, Y)$	The subspace of compact operators from X to Y	340
$\mathcal{L}(X, Y)$	The Banach algebra of bounded linear operators from X to Y	340
$\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$	The Schwartz class on \mathbb{R} : $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}) = \{f \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}) : \sup_x x^j f^{(k)}(x) < \infty \text{ for all } j, k \geq 0\}$	
$\mathcal{S}_\delta(\mathbb{R})$	The Schwartz class with exponential decay: $\mathcal{S}_\delta(\mathbb{R}) = \{f \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}) : \sup_x e^{\delta x } f(x) < \infty\}$	
Ω_\pm	Components to the left/right of a complete contour	24
∂D	The boundary of a set D	45
$\phi(z, b, a)$	The Lerch transcendent	140
$\Phi^\pm(s) = \Phi_\pm(s)$	The boundary values of Φ from the left/right	24
$\text{Res}_{z=a} f(z)$	The residue of a function $f(z)$ at a point $z = a$	3
$\text{sgn } x$	The sign of real number x , $\text{sgn } 0 = 0$	
$\sigma(q)$	The Bloch spectrum of q	278
σ_1	$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$	205
σ_3	$\text{diag}(1, -1)$	88
Σ_∞	The class of Jordan curves tending to straight lines at infinity	47
\Subset	$D \Subset A$ when D is a connected component of A	56
θ^m	Evenly-spaced points on the periodic interval	110
$\tilde{H}_\pm^k(\Gamma)$	$H_\pm^k(\Gamma) \oplus \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ when Γ is unbounded	66
\triangleq	Used for inline definitions	47
x^n	The Chebyshev points	117
$\{s_1, s_2, s_3\}$	Stokes' constants	257

\top	Transpose of a matrix or vector	
$A(D)$	The Abel map of a divisor D	276
$B(x, \delta)$	The ball centered at x of radius δ	
$B_{\theta, \phi}(x, \delta)$	$e^{i\phi}(\{y \in B(x, \delta) : \operatorname{Im}(x - y) / x - y > \sin \theta\} - x) + x$	27
C	A generic positive (unless otherwise specified) constant	
$C^k(A)$	The Banach space of k -times continuously differentiable functions	334
$C^{0, \alpha}(\Gamma)$	The Banach space of α -Hölder continuous functions	32
$C_c^k(A)$	The space of k -times continuously differentiable functions with compact support	334
$C_n[G; \Gamma]$	The collocation matrix for $\mathcal{C}[G; \Gamma]$	163
D^{-1}	$\{z^{-1} : z \in D\}$	47
$D_\nu(\zeta)$	The parabolic cylinder function	102
Df	The weak differentiation operator applied to f	58
$f _A$	The restriction of a function $f : D \rightarrow R$ to a set $A \subset D$	
f^\dagger	The Schwarz conjugate of a function $f : f^\dagger(z) = \overline{f(\bar{z})}^\top$	76
$H^k(\Gamma)$	The k th-order Sobolev space on a self-intersecting admissible contour Γ	58
$H_\pm^k(\Gamma)$	The Sobolev spaces of Zhou	61
$H_z^k(\Gamma)$	$H^k(\Gamma)$ with the $(k - 1)$ th-order zero-sum condition	59
I	The identity matrix/operator with dimensionality implied	
$L^p(\Gamma)$	The Lebesgue space on a self-intersecting curve Γ	334
n_i	The number of collocation points on Γ_i , $\Gamma = \Gamma_1 \cup \dots \cup \Gamma_L$	162
$P_{\text{II}}(s_1, s_2, s_3; x)$	The solution of the Painlevé II ODE with Stokes constants s_1, s_2, s_3	257
$q(n, x, t)$	An approximation to the solution of the PDE with n collocation points per contour	209
$R_\pm(\Gamma)$	Functions that are a.e. rational on each component of Ω_\pm	66
$T_k(x)$	The Chebyshev polynomials	353
$T_k^{\pm z}(x)$	The vanishing Chebyshev basis	123
U_k	The Chebyshev U polynomials	355
$\mathcal{H}_\Gamma f(z)$	The Hilbert transform of a function f	126
\mathcal{T}	The Chebyshev transform	353
$\mathcal{V}[f]$	The total variation of f	333

FP $\mathcal{C}_\Gamma f(z)$ The finite-part Cauchy transform of f	147
${}_2F_1$ The Gauss hypergeometric function	141
RH problem Riemann–Hilbert problem	3
BA Baker–Akhiezer	280
DCT Discrete cosine transform	117
DFT Discrete Fourier transform	111
IST Inverse scattering transform	87
KdV Korteweg-de Vries	195
NLS Nonlinear Schrödinger	235
ODE Ordinary differential equation	257
PDE Partial differential equation	195
SIE Singular integral equation	62

Index

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