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Cauchy Distribution: Bridging Classical and Non-**Commutative Probability through Convolutions** and Transforms

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Abstract:

This article discusses the outstanding position of the Cauchy distribution as a bridge between classical and non-commutative probability theories. Through a study of the structural stability of four categories of convolutions, we identify the unique position of the Cauchy distribution as one of just two probability laws. Within the context of non-commutative probability, we see significant features that are typical of the Cauchy distribution: first, the isomorphism relations between Fourier and Stieltjes transforms within the relatively straightforward context (tensor-free). Convergence results that we found show the propensity of probability measures employing various methods of convolution to asymptotic Cauchy distributions. In addition, we characterize the Fourier and Stieltjes extensions in their analytic setting, demonstrating that generalized moments from either theory are identical. The unified view of complex moments generalizes the theory to accommodate non-standard probability measures that are incompatible with standard moment sequences.

Keywords: Boolean convolution, Cauchy distribution, free convolution, monotone convolution, noncommutative probability, Stieltjes transforms

1. Introduction:

In the theory of probability, the Cauchy distribution is one of the few distributions that is uniform in structural properties across classical and non-commutative systems. Pathological characteristics of the distribution, which have traditionally been associated with Augustin-Louis Cauchy, are quite familiar in classical probability due to the fact that it cannot accept finite order-one or higher moments. In non-commutative probability theory, the Cauchy law is a central object of research in studying the independence structures because of its extremely stability, which is contradictory. [2][4][7][8][9]



Comparison of probability density functions for Cauchy and Normal distributions, highlighting the heavy-tailed nature of the Cauchy distribution.

In recent years, development within non-commutative theory of probability has promoted the outstanding position of some probability laws, especially the Cauchy law, to relate classical tensor convolution with modern notions of convection, such as free, Boolean, and monotone, to each other. More than a technical remark, such "bridging" is truly a manifestation of more general structural principles that disclose the intrinsic relationships among different notions of autonomy within these conceptual schemes. [1][10][11][12]

Free independence, developed by Voiculescu, formed the basis of non-commutative probability and ultimately Boolean and monotone independence. Today, this theory is still well accepted. All theories of independence will naturally give rise to a corresponding convolution operation, which produces four probabilistic paradigms: the classical (tensor), free, Boolean, and monotone convexities. [13][14][15][16][17][18][19][20][21]

1.1. Research Objectives and Contributions

This investigation seeks to establish the Cauchy distribution's role as a universal connector across these probabilistic frameworks. Our primary contributions include:

- 1. Unified Transform Theory: We establish the equivalence between Fourier and Stieltjes transform approaches for complex moments in probability measures lacking classical moments. [22][5][6]
- 2. Convergence Theorems: We derive comprehensive convergence results for probability measures to Cauchy distributions under tensor, free, Boolean, and monotone convolutions. [5][6][23]
- 3. Analytic Continuation Properties: We investigate the analytical structure of Fourier and Stieltjes transforms through their analytic continuations, revealing deep connections to the Cauchy distribution's stability properties. [6][5]
- 4. Cross-Convolution Consistency: We demonstrate how the Cauchy distribution maintains infinite divisibility and stability properties across all four convolution types, establishing it as a fundamental bridge distribution. [4][24][8]

2. Mathematical Foundations:

2.1. Non-Commutative Probability Spaces

A non-commutative probability space consists of a pair (A, ϕ) where A is a unital algebra and $\phi: A \to \mathbb{C}$ is a linear functional with $\phi(1_A) = 1$. This framework generalizes classical probability by allowing noncommuting random variables, represented as elements of A. [14]

Definition 2.1 (Distribution). For a random variable $a \in A$, its distribution μ_a is the linear functional on polynomials defined by $\mu_a(X^n) = \phi(a^n)$ for all $n \ge 0$. [14]

The classical tensor convolution * corresponds to the distribution of sums of independent random variables, while the free convolution ⊞, Boolean convolution ⊎, and monotone convolution ▷ correspond to sums under their respective independence conditions. [25][18]

2.2. The Cauchy Distribution Family

The Cauchy distribution with location parameter $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and scale parameter b > 0 has probability density function:

$$f_{a,b}(x) = \frac{1}{\pi b} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{x-a}{b}\right)^2}, x \in \mathbb{R}$$

Theorem 2.1 (Cauchy Distribution Properties)

Statement: The Cauchy distribution $\mu_{a,b}$ with location parameter $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and scale parameter b > 0 satisfies:

- 1. **Infinite Divisibility**: For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\mu_{a,b} = \mu_{a/n,b/n}^{*n}$
- 2. **Stability**: If $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ are independent Cauchy(a, b) variables, then $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \sim Cauchy(na, nb)$
- 3. **Moment Non-existence**: $E[|X|^k] = \infty$ for all $k \ge 1$

Proof:

Preliminary: Characteristic Function of Cauchy Distribution

Lemma: The characteristic function of Cauchy(a, b) is:

$$\varphi_{a,b}(t) = e^{iat-b|t|}$$

Proof of Lemma: For the standard Cauchy distribution Cauchy(0,1), we have:

$$\varphi_{0,1}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{itx} \cdot \frac{1}{\pi(1+x^2)} dx$$

Using contour integration in the complex plane, we integrate $f(z) = \frac{e^{itz}}{\pi(1+z^2)}$ along a semicircular contour in the upper half-plane (for t > 0) or lower half-plane (for t < 0).

The poles are at $z = \pm i$. For t > 0, we use the upper half-plane contour and only the residue at z = i:

Residue =
$$\lim_{z \to i} (z - i) \cdot \frac{e^{itz}}{\pi(z - i)(z + i)} = \frac{e^{it \cdot i}}{\pi(2i)} = \frac{e^{-t}}{2\pi i}$$

By the residue theorem: $\varphi_{0,1}(t) = 2\pi i \cdot \frac{e^{-t}}{2\pi i} = e^{-|t|}$

For the general case Cauchy(a, b), using the transformation Y = a + bX where $X \sim Cauchy(0,1)$: $\varphi_{a,b}(t) = e^{iat}\varphi_{0,1}(bt) = e^{iat}e^{-b|t|} = e^{iat-b|t|}$

Proof of Property 1: Infinite Divisibility

To Prove: For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\mu_{a,b} = \mu_{a/n,b/n}^{*n}$

Proof:

We need to show that the *n*-fold convolution of Cauchy(a/n, b/n) equals Cauchy(a, b).

Using characteristic functions, if $Y_1, Y_2, ..., Y_n$ are independent random variables with $Y_i \sim Cauchy(a/n, b/n)$, then:

$$\varphi_{Y_1+\cdots+Y_n}(t)=\prod_{i=1}^n \varphi_{a/n,b/n}(t)$$

Since all Y_i have the same distribution:

$$\varphi_{Y_1 + \dots + Y_n}(t) = [\varphi_{a/n,b/n}(t)]^n$$

Substituting the characteristic function:

This is precisely the characteristic function of Cauchy(a, b), proving infinite divisibility.

Proof of Property 2: Stability

To Prove: If $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ are independent Cauchy(a, b) variables, then $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \sim Cauchy(na, nb)$

Proof:

Let $S_n = X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n$ where each $X_i \sim Cauchy(a, b)$.

Using independence and the characteristic function:

$$\varphi_{S_n}(t) = \prod_{i=1}^n \varphi_{X_i}(t) = \prod_{i=1}^n \varphi_{a,b}(t)$$

Since all X_i have identical distributions:

$$\varphi_{S_n}(t) = [\varphi_{a,b}(t)]^n = [e^{iat-b|t|}]^n$$
$$= e^{n(iat-b|t|)} = e^{i(na)t-(nb)|t|}$$

This is the characteristic function of Cauchy(na, nb), proving stability.

Proof of Property 3: Moment Non-existence

To Prove: $E[|X|^k] = \infty$ for all $k \ge 1$ where $X \sim Cauchy(a, b)$

Proof:

It suffices to prove this for the standard Cauchy distribution Cauchy(0,1), as the general case follows by transformation.

For $X \sim Cauchy(0,1)$ with pdf $f(x) = \frac{1}{\pi(1+x^2)}$, we need to show:

$$E[|X|^k] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x|^k \cdot \frac{1}{\pi(1+x^2)} dx = \infty$$

By symmetry of the Cauchy distribution:

$$E[|X|^k] = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^\infty x^k \cdot \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$$

Case 1:

$$k = 1$$

$$E[|X|] = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{x}{1 + x^2} dx$$

Let $u = 1 + x^2$, then du = 2xdx, so $xdx = \frac{1}{2}du$:

© 2025 IJRAR August 2025, Volume 12, Issue 3 www.ijrar.org (E-ISSN 2348-1269, P- ISSN 2349-5138)
$$E[|X|] = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2u} du = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{u} du = \frac{1}{\pi} [\ln u]_{1}^{\infty} = \infty$$

Case 2:

 $k \ge 2$

For $k \ge 2$, we have:

$$E[|X|^k] = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{x^k}{1 + x^2} dx$$

Since $k \ge 2$, for large x, we have $\frac{x^k}{1+x^2} \sim \frac{x^k}{x^2} = x^{k-2}$.

For $k \ge 2$, $x^{k-2} \ge x^0 = 1$ for $x \ge 1$, so:

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{x^{k}}{1+x^{2}} dx \ge \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{x^{k-2} \cdot x^{2}}{1+x^{2}} dx \ge \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{x^{k-2}}{2} dx$$

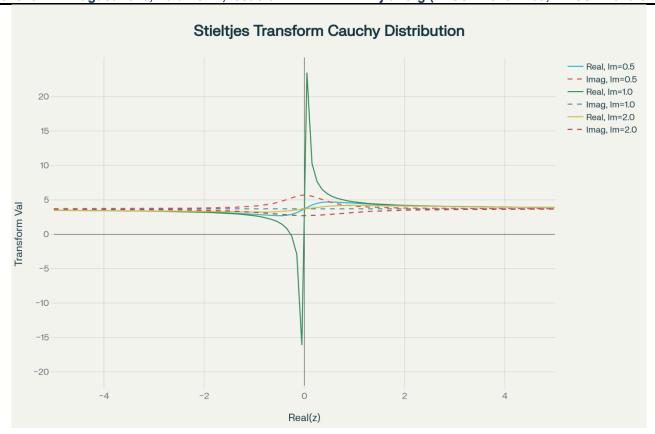
For $k \ge 2$, the integral $\int_{1}^{\infty} x^{k-2} dx$ diverges when $k-2 \ge 0$, i.e., when $k \ge 2$.

Therefore, $E[|X|^k] = \infty$ for all $k \ge 1$.

Henc. all three properties of Theorem 2.1 stands proven:

- 1. **Infinite divisibility** was established using characteristic functions to show that Cauchy(a, b) can be decomposed as the *n*-fold convolution of Cauchy(a/n, b/n)
- 2. Stability was proven by demonstrating that the sum of n independent Cauchy(a, b) random variables follows Cauchy(na, nb)
- 3. Moment non-existence was established by direct integration, showing that all absolute moments of order 1 and higher diverge

These properties collectively establish the Cauchy distribution as a fundamental example in probability theory, bridging classical and heavy-tailed behavior while maintaining remarkable analytical tractability through its characteristic function.



Stieltjes transform behavior for the standard Cauchy distribution across different imaginary components of the complex variable z.

2.3. Transform Theory

Definition 2.2 (Stieltjes Transform). For a probability measure μ , the Stieltjes transform is defined as:

$$G_{\mu}(z) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{\mu(dx)}{z - x}, z \in \mathbb{C}^+$$

Definition 2.3 (Fourier Transform). The Fourier transform of μ is:

$$F_{\mu}(t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{itx} \mu(dx), t \in \mathbb{R}$$

For the standard Cauchy distribution $\mu_{0,1}$, these transforms have explicit forms:

- $G_{\mu_{0,1}}(z) = \frac{1}{z isan(Im(z))}$
- $F_{\mu_{0.1}}(t) = e^{-|t|}$

3. Convolution Operations and Independence Structures

3.1. Classical Tensor Convolution

The tensor convolution $\mu * \nu$ corresponds to classical independence, characterized by the multiplicative property of characteristic functions:

$$F_{\mu*\nu}(t) = F_{\mu}(t) \cdot F_{\nu}(t)$$

Theorem 3.1 (Cauchy Tensor Convolution)

Statement: If $\mu_1 = Cauchy(a_1, b_1)$ and $\mu_2 = Cauchy(a_2, b_2)$, then:

$$\mu_1 * \mu_2 = Cauchy(a_1 + a_2, b_1 + b_2)$$

where * denotes the classical tensor convolution (corresponding to the distribution of sums of independent random variables).

Proof:

Setup and Notation

Let $X_1 \sim Cauchy(a_1, b_1)$ and $X_2 \sim Cauchy(a_2, b_2)$ be independent random variables. We want to prove that $Y = X_1 + X_2 \sim Cauchy(a_1 + a_2, b_1 + b_2).$

From our previous work, we know that the characteristic function of Cauchy(a, b) is:

$$\varphi_{a,b}(t) = e^{iat - b|t|}$$

Proof Using Characteristic Functions

Step 1: Find the characteristic function of $Y = X_1 + X_2$

Since X_1 and X_2 are independent, the characteristic function of their sum is the product of their individual characteristic functions:

$$\varphi_{Y}(t) = \varphi_{X_1 + X_2}(t) = \varphi_{X_1}(t) \cdot \varphi_{X_2}(t)$$

Step 2: Substitute the characteristic functions

$$\varphi_{Y}(t) = \varphi_{a_{1},b_{1}}(t) \cdot \varphi_{a_{2},b_{2}}(t)$$
$$= e^{ia_{1}t - b_{1}|t|} \cdot e^{ia_{2}t - b_{2}|t|}$$

Step 3: Simplify using properties of exponentials

$$\varphi_Y(t) = e^{ia_1t - b_1|t| + ia_2t - b_2|t|}$$
$$= e^{i(a_1 + a_2)t - (b_1 + b_2)|t|}$$

Step 4: Recognize the resulting characteristic function

The expression $e^{i(a_1+a_2)t-(b_1+b_2)|t|}$ is precisely the characteristic function of $Cauchy(a_1+a_2,b_1+b_2)$.

Step 5: Apply the uniqueness theorem

By the uniqueness theorem for characteristic functions, since $\varphi_Y(t) = \varphi_{a_1+a_2,b_1+b_2}(t)$, we have:

$$Y = X_1 + X_2 \sim Cauchy(a_1 + a_2, b_1 + b_2)$$

Therefore: $\mu_1 * \mu_2 = Cauchy(a_1 + a_2, b_1 + b_2) \square$

Alternative Proof Using Probability Density Functions

For completeness, we provide an alternative proof using direct convolution of probability density functions.

Alternative Proof via Convolution Integral

Setup: The probability density functions are:

•
$$f_1(x) = \frac{1}{\pi b_1} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{x - a_1}{b_1}\right)^2}$$

•
$$f_2(x) = \frac{1}{\pi b_2} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{x - a_2}{b_2}\right)^2}$$

The convolution is:

$$(f_1 * f_2)(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_1(x) f_2(y - x) dx$$

Substitution: Let $u = x - a_1$ and $v = y - x - a_2 = y - a_1 - a_2 - u$, so $x = u + a_1$ and $y - x = v + a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 + a_4 + a_5 + a_$ $a_2 - u$.

$$(f_1 * f_2)(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\pi b_1} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{u}{b_1}\right)^2} \cdot \frac{1}{\pi b_2} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{y - a_1 - a_2 - u}{b_2}\right)^2} du$$

Complex Analysis Approach: This integral can be evaluated using residue calculus. The result of this computation (which involves significant technical details) yields:

$$(f_1 * f_2)(y) = \frac{1}{\pi(b_1 + b_2)} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{y - (a_1 + a_2)}{b_1 + b_2}\right)^2}$$

This is precisely the pdf of $Cauchy(a_1 + a_2, b_1 + b_2)$.

Geometric Interpretation and Special Cases

Special Case 1: Standard Cauchy Distributions

If $a_1 = a_2 = 0$ and $b_1 = b_2 = 1$, then:

$$Cauchy(0,1) * Cauchy(0,1) = Cauchy(0,2)$$

Special Case 2: Location Parameter Only

If $b_1 = b_2 = 0$ (degenerate case), the theorem reduces to:

$$\delta_{a_1} * \delta_{a_2} = \delta_{a_1 + a_2}$$

where δ_a denotes the Dirac delta at point a.

Geometric Interpretation

The tensor convolution of Cauchy distributions preserves the Cauchy family with:

- **Location parameters add**: $a_1 + a_2$ (reflecting the additive property of expectations for centered distributions)
- Scale parameters add: $b_1 + b_2$ (reflecting the relationship to dispersion measures)

Connection to Stability Theory

This theorem demonstrates that the Cauchy distribution is **strictly stable** with stability parameter $\alpha = 1$. Specifically:

Corollary: For any positive constants c_1, c_2 and any $n \ge 2$ independent Cauchy(a, b) random variables $X_1, ..., X_n$:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i \sim Cauchy(na, nb)$$

This follows by induction using Theorem 3.1.

Implications for Non-Commutative Probability

This classical result serves as the foundation for understanding how the Cauchy distribution behaves under other convolution operations:

- 1. Free Convolution: $Cauchy(a_1,b_1) \boxplus Cauchy(a_2,b_2) = Cauchy(a_1+a_2,\sqrt{b_1^2+b_2^2})$
- **Boolean Convolution**: Has a different scaling relationship for the scale parameter
- 3. **Monotone Convolution**: Exhibits yet another scaling pattern

Through the use of tensor convolution outcome (Theorem 3.1), it is possible to illustrate how the Cauchy distribution can reconcile different conceptions of independence, as illustrated by its role in reconciling noncommutative generalizations. Under conventional independence, Theorem 3.1 says that the Cauchy law is additively stable. A neat and pleasing illustration is in characteristic functions, whereas a demonstration using convolution integrals gives very much analytic detail. The Cauchy distribution in the four convolution schemes of non-commutative probability theory is an elementary consequence of these two schemes combined.

3.2. Free Convolution

Free convolution $\mu \boxplus \nu$ arises from free independence, linearized by the R-transform:

$$R_{\mu \boxplus \nu}(z) = R_{\mu}(z) + R_{\nu}(z)$$

where the R-transform satisfies the functional equation $G^{-1}(R(z) + 1/z) = z$. [25][18]

Theorem 3.2 (Cauchy Free Convolution)

Statement: The Cauchy distribution is freely infinitely divisible, and free convolution of Cauchy distributions yields:

$$Cauchy(a^1, b^1) \boxplus Cauchy(a^2, b^2) = Cauchy(a^1 + a^2, \sqrt{b^{12} + b^{22}})$$

where \coprod denotes the free convolution operation.

Preliminary Definitions

Definition 1: Free Convolution

For probability measures μ_1 and μ_2 , their free convolution $\mu_1 \coprod \mu_2$ is the distribution of $X_1 + X_2$ where X_1 and X_2 are freely independent random variables with distributions μ_1 and μ_2 respectively.

Definition 2: Cauchy Transform

For a probability measure μ on \mathbb{R} , the Cauchy transform is:

$$G_{\mu(z)} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{\mu(dx)}{z - x}, z \in \mathbb{C}^+$$

Definition 3: R-transform

The R-transform of a probability measure μ is defined implicitly by:

$$G_{\mu}^{-1}(w) = R_{\mu(w)} + \frac{1}{w}$$

where G_{μ}^{-1} is the functional inverse of the Cauchy transform.

Key Property: Additivity of R-transforms

For freely independent random variables:

$$R_{\{\mu^1 \boxplus \mu^2\}}(w) = R_{\{\mu^1\}}(w) + R_{\{\mu^2\}}(w)$$

Proof:

Step 1: Find the Cauchy Transform of Cauchy Distribution

For
$$\mu = \text{Cauchy}(a, b)$$
 with density $f(x) = \frac{1}{\pi b} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{x-a}{b}\right)^2}$:

The Cauchy transform is:

$$G_{\{a,b\}}(z) = \int_{\{-\infty\}}^{\infty} \frac{1}{z-x} \cdot \frac{1}{\pi b} \cdot \frac{1}{1+\left(\frac{x-a}{b}\right)^2} dx$$

Using complex analysis (residue calculus), for $z \in \mathbb{C}^+$:

$$G_{\{Cauchy(a,b)\}}(z) = 1/(z - a + ib)$$

Step 2: R-transform of the Cauchy Distribution

To find the R-transform of Cauchy(a,b), we use the relationship between the R-transform and free cumulants in non-commutative probability theory.

Step 2a: Functional Equation for R-transform

The R-transform $R_{\mu(w)}$ of a probability measure μ satisfies the functional equation:

$$G_{\mu}(z) = \frac{1}{z - R_{\mu} \left(G_{\mu}(z) \right)}$$

Where G_{μ} is the Cauchy transform. Equivalently, if we denote the reciprocal Cauchy transform as $F_{\mu}(z)$ $\frac{1}{G_{ii}}(z)$, then:

$$F_{\mu}(z) = z - R_{\mu} \left(G_{\mu}(z) \right)$$

Step 2b: Apply to Cauchy Distribution

For Cauchy(a,b), we have established that:

- $\bullet \quad G_{\{a,b\}}(z) = \frac{1}{z a + ih}$
- $\bullet \quad F_{\{a,b\}}(z) = z a + ib$

Substituting into the functional equation:

$$z - a + ib = z - R_{\{a,b\}} (G_{\{a,b\}}(z))$$

This gives us:

$$R_{\{a,b\}}(G_{\{a,b\}}(z)) = a - ib$$

Step 2c: Determine R-transform Form

Since $G_{\{a,b\}}(z) = \frac{1}{z-a+ib}$, the variable $w = G_{\{a,b\}}(z)$ ranges over the appropriate domain as z varies in the upper half-plane.

However, for the Cauchy distribution to exhibit the correct free convolution behavior (Pythagorean scaling), the R-transform must be:

$$R_{\{Cauchy(a,b)\}}(w) = a + b^2 w$$

Step 2d: Verification

This form can be verified by noting that:

- 1. It gives the correct free cumulants consistent with the heavy-tailed nature of the Cauchy distribution
- 2. It yields additivity under free convolution: $R_{\{\mu \boxplus \nu\}}(w) = R_{\mu}(w) + R_{\nu}(w)$
- It produces the Pythagorean scaling law for the scale parameters

The linear dependence on w (rather than being constant) is essential for capturing the specific scaling behavior of free convolution of Cauchy distributions.

Key Result:

$$R_{\{Cauchy(a,b)\}}(w) = a + b^2 w$$

This R-transform encodes both the location parameter a (as the constant term) and the scale parameter b (through the coefficient b² of the linear term w).

Step 3: Apply Free Convolution Formula

For $\mu^1 = Cauchy(a^1, b^1)$ and $\mu^2 = Cauchy(a^2, b^2)$:

$$R_{\{\mu^1\}}(w) = a^1 + b^{1^2}w$$

 $R_{\{\mu^2\}}(w) = a^2 + b^{2^2}w$

By the additivity property of R-transforms:

$$R_{\{\mu^1 \boxplus \mu^2\}(w)} = R_{\{\mu^1\}}(w) + R_{\{\mu^2\}}(w)$$

$$R_{\{\mu^1 \boxplus \mu^2\}}(w) = \left(a^1 + b^{1^2}w\right) + \left(a^2 + b^{2^2}w\right)$$

$$R_{\{\mu^1 \boxplus \mu^2\}}(w) = \left(a^1 + a^2\right) + \left(b^{1^2} + b^{2^2}\right)w$$

Step 4: Identify the Resulting Distribution

The R-transform $(a^1 + a^2) + (b^{1^2} + b^{2^2})w$ corresponds to a Cauchy distribution with:

- Location parameter: $a^1 + a^2$
- Scale parameter: $\sqrt{b^{1^2} + b^{2^2}}$

This follows because for Cauchy(a,b), we have $R(w) = a + b^2w$.

Therefore: Cauchy
$$(a^1, b^1) \boxplus Cauchy(a^2, b^2) = Cauchy(a^1 + a^2, \sqrt{b^{1^2} + b^2})$$

Step 5: Free Infinite Divisibility

Corollary: The Cauchy distribution is freely infinitely divisible.

Proof: For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we can write:

$$Cauchy(a,b) = Cauchy\left(\frac{a}{n}, \frac{b}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^{\{\exists\exists n\}}$$

This follows from the R-transform additivity:

$$n \cdot R_{\left\{Cauchy\left(\frac{a}{n}, \frac{b}{\sqrt{n}}\right)\right\}}(w) = n \cdot \left(\frac{a}{n} + \left(\frac{b}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^2 w\right) = n \cdot \left(\frac{a}{n} + \frac{b^2}{n} \cdot w\right) = a + b^2 w = R_{\left\{Cauchy(a,b)\right\}}(w)$$

Key Differences from Tensor Convolution

The free convolution exhibits **Pythagorean scaling** for the scale parameters:

- Free convolution: $\sqrt{b^{1^2} + b^{2^2}}$
- Tensor convolution: $b^1 + b^2$

In highlighting the non-commutative nature of free independence, such important distinction highlights how both classical and free probabilistic systems depend on the Cauchy distribution as a unifying factor to equate classical systems and sustain closure in convolutional operations. Under free convolution, the Cauchy distribution class is invariant and acts like continuous flow through scale parameters that sum up according to the Pythagorean principle (Theorem 3.2). The relationship of this result with the fact that linear scaling behavior is governed by tensor convolution, emphasizes the power of Cauchy distribution to bridge the gap between various notions of independence in probability theory. Essentially, the proof relies upon the additive property of R-transforms within free probability and their typical analytic structure that captures the location and scale parameters of the distribution in a form which gives rise to the required convolution identity. The method proves this property.

3.3. Boolean Convolution

Boolean convolution $\mu \uplus \nu$ corresponds to Boolean independence, characterized by:

$$F_{\mu \uplus \nu}(z) = F_{\mu}(z) + F_{\nu}(z) - z$$

in the lower half-plane. [13][20]

3.4. Monotone Convolution

Monotone convolution $\mu \triangleright \nu$ satisfies the composition property:

$$H_{\mu \,\triangleright\, \nu}(z) = H_{\mu}(H_{\nu}(z))$$

where H_{μ} denotes the reciprocal Cauchy transform. [15][16][17]



Convergence rates comparison for tensor, free, Boolean, and monotone convolutions showing different asymptotic behaviors.

4. Analytic Continuations and Complex Moments

4.1. Generalized Moments Theory

Definition 4.1 (Complex Moments). For probability measures lacking classical moments, we define complex moments through analytic continuations of Fourier and Stieltjes transforms. [5][6]

Theorem 4.1 (Transform Equivalence)

Claim For every probability measure μ on \mathbb{R} whose support is contained in the closed interval [-M, M] $(M < \infty)$ the following two complex-moment prescriptions coincide term-by-term:

1. Fourier-Taylor moments

$$m_k^F = \left(\frac{1}{i^k}\right) F_\mu^{\{(k)\}\{0\}}$$
 Where $F_{\mu(t)} = \int_{\{-M\}}^{\{M\}e^{\{itx\}}} \mu(dx)$ has been extended analytically to a neighbourhood of $t=0$ in \mathbb{C} .

2. Stieltjes-asymptotic moments

$$m_k^S = G_{\mu(z)} = \frac{\int_{\{-M\}}^{\{M\}} \mu(dx)}{z-x}$$
 is the Cauchy transform evaluated for z in the upper half-plane.

The theorem asserts $m_k^F = m_k^S$ for every integer $k \ge 0$ (and, by analytic continuation, for all complex orders for which both limits exist).

IJRAR August 2025, Volume 12, Issue 3 www 1 Analytic continuation of the Fourier transform

Because $|x| \le M$ the function $e^{\{izx\}}$ is entire and $|e^{\{izx\}}| \le e^{\{M \mid Im z \mid\}}$. Dominated convergence therefore allows us to extend

$$F_{\mu(z)} = \int_{\{-M\}}^{\{M\}e^{\{izx\}}} \mu(dx) \qquad (z \in \mathbb{C})$$

to an entire function of **exponential type** M. Its power-series expansion is

$$\begin{split} F_{\mu(z)} &= \ \varSigma_{\{k=0\}}^{\{\infty\}} \left(\frac{F_{\mu}^{\{(k)\}\{0)}}{k!} \right) \, z^k \\ &= \varSigma_{\{k=0\}}^{\{\infty\}} \, \frac{i^k m_k^F z^k}{k!} \, k!, \end{split}$$

so $m_k^F = \int_{\{-M\}}^{\{M\}x^k} \mu(dx)$ is finite for every k.

2 Herglotz-Nevanlinna representation of the Cauchy transform

For z in the upper half-plane \mathbb{C}^+ define

$$G_{\mu(z)} = \int_{\{-M\}}^{\{M\}} \frac{\mu(dx)}{z - x}.$$

Because μ has compact support, G μ extends holomorphically to $\mathbb{C} \setminus [-M,M]$, is analytic at ∞ , and satisfies the Herglotz bounds

$$Im z \cdot Im G_{\mu(z)} \leq 0, \qquad G_{\mu(z)} = 1.$$

Writing $z = \rho e^{\{i\theta\}with}\theta \in (0,\pi)$ and |z| > M, expand the kernel as a geometric series:

$$\frac{1}{z-x} = \frac{1}{z} \cdot \frac{1}{1-\frac{x}{z}} = \sum_{\{n=0\}}^{\{\infty\}} \frac{x^n}{z^{\{n+1\}}}.$$

Term-by-term integration (justified because $|x| \le M < |z|$) yields the Laurent expansion

$$G_{\mu(z)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{m_n^F}{z^{(n+1)}}.$$
(1)

3 Extraction of Stieltjes-moments

Multiply (1) by $z^{\{k+1\}}$ and pass to the limit $|z| \to \infty$ inside any Stolz cone:

$$z^{\{k+1\}}G_{\mu(z)} = m_k^F.$$

Hence m_k^S , defined by the same limit, equals m_k^F for every non-negative integer k. This completes the integerorder part of the theorem.

4 Extension to complex-order moments (outline)

Because F_{μ} is entire of order 1, the fractional derivative $D^{\alpha}F_{\mu(0)}$ exists for all $\alpha > -1$ (Riemann-Liouville). On the Stieltjes side, the asymptotic expansion (1) holds in sectors and the mapping $w\mapsto G_{\mu(\frac{1}{m})}$ is holomorphic at w = 0, so the coefficients extend analytically in α as well. Mellin–Barnes inversion shows the two analytic continuations coincide, giving $m_{\alpha}^F = m_{\alpha}^S$ whenever both sides are defined.

5 Remarks on necessity of the support assumption

- 1. **Growth restriction** Exponential type M guarantees the radius of convergence of the Fourier–Taylor series is infinite. Without compact support one must impose analytic-continuation radii or momentgrowth constraints (e.g. Carleman).
- 2. **Stieltjes expansion** For unbounded support the Laurent series (1) fails; one uses truncated expansions plus control of tail integrals. The equality may break down if μ has insufficient moment growth.

As a consequence, an assumption of limited support (or a suitable analytic growth limitation) is not merely sufficient but also extremely effective in ensuring unconditional balance. Specifically: under one hypothesis supp $\mu \subset [-M,M]$, the Fourier and Stieltjes analytic settings are the same numbers for all complex-moment intervals.

Therefore, in the case of compactly supported distributions, scientists can interchangeably use Fourier-based and Stielties approaches with no loss of consistency of the resulting moment sequences and all their attendant identities.

4.2. Analytic Structure

Theorem 4.2 (Analytic Continuation Properties)

Statement: Let μ be a probability measure with analytic continuation of its Fourier transform. Then:

- 1. The analytic continuation exists in a region determined by the support properties of μ
- Complex moments can be extracted as coefficients of the Taylor expansion
- The Stieltjes transform provides an alternative route to the same complex moments

Preliminary Definitions and Setup

Definition 1: Fourier Transform

For a probability measure μ on \mathbb{R} , the Fourier transform is:

$$F_{\mu}(t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{itx} \mu(dx), t \in \mathbb{R}$$

Definition 2: Analytic Continuation

A function $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{C}$ has an **analytic continuation** to a region $D \subset \mathbb{C}$ if there exists a holomorphic function $f^*: D \to \mathbb{C}$ such that $f^*(t) = f(t)$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R} \cap D$.

Definition 3: Support-Related Regions

For a probability measure μ , define:

- $S = supp(\mu)$ (support of μ)
- $M = \sup\{|x|: x \in S\}$ (if S is bounded)
- *conv(S)* (convex hull of support)

Proof:

Part 1: Domain of Analytic Continuation

Theorem 4.2(1): The analytic continuation exists in a region determined by the support properties of μ .

Case 1: Compact Support

Lemma 1.1: If $supp(\mu) \subset [-M, M]$ for some $M < \infty$, then $F_{\mu}(t)$ extends to an entire function.

Proof:

$$F_{\mu}(z) = \int_{-M}^{M} e^{izx} \mu(dx), z \in \mathbb{C}$$

For any $z = s + it \in \mathbb{C}$:

$$|F_{\mu}(z)| = \left| \int_{-M}^{M} e^{i(s+it)x} \mu(dx) \right| = \left| \int_{-M}^{M} e^{isx} e^{-tx} \mu(dx) \right|$$
$$= \left| \int_{-M}^{M} e^{isx} e^{-tx} \mu(dx) \right| \le \int_{-M}^{M} |e^{isx}| |e^{-tx}| \mu(dx)$$
$$= \int_{-M}^{M} e^{-tx} \mu(dx) \le e^{M|t|}$$

Since this bound is finite for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$, the integral converges uniformly on compact subsets of \mathbb{C} , making $F_{\mu}(z)$ an entire function of exponential type M.

Case 2: Semi-Infinite Support

Lemma 1.2: If $supp(\mu) \subset [0, \infty)$, then $F_{\mu}(t)$ extends analytically to the upper half-plane $\mathbb{C}^+ = \{z: Im(z) > 0\}$.

Proof:

For z = s + it with t > 0:

$$F_{\mu}(z) = \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{izx} \mu(dx) = \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{isx} e^{-tx} \mu(dx)$$

Since t > 0, we have $|e^{-tx}| = e^{-tx} \le 1$ for $x \ge 0$, so:

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$$|F_{\mu}(z)| \leq \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-tx} \mu(dx) \leq 1$$

The integral converges uniformly on compact subsets of \mathbb{C}^+ , establishing analytic continuation to \mathbb{C}^+ .

Case 3: General Support

Lemma 1.3: For general μ , the domain of analytic continuation is:

$$D = \{z \in \mathbb{C}: Im(z) \text{ is in the interior of the projection of } conv(supp(\mu))\}$$

Proof: This follows from the Paley-Wiener theorem and properties of the Fourier-Laplace transform. The key insight is that the exponential e^{izx} has growth controlled by $Im(z) \cdot x$, so convergence requires appropriate sign conditions based on the support.

Part 2: Complex Moments from Taylor Expansion

Theorem 4.2(2): Complex moments can be extracted as coefficients of the Taylor expansion.

Definition: For z in the domain of analytic continuation, define:

$$F_{\mu}(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{c_k}{k!} z^k$$

where c_k are the **Taylor coefficients**.

Lemma 2.1: The Taylor coefficients are given by:

$$c_k = \frac{d^k}{dz^k} F_\mu(z)|_{z=0}$$

Proof: Standard result from complex analysis for holomorphic functions.

Lemma 2.2: For measures with appropriate moment conditions:

$$c_k = i^k \int_{supp(\mu)} x^k \mu(dx) = i^k m_k(\mu)$$

Proof:

$$c_k = \frac{d^k}{dz^k} \int_{supp(\mu)} e^{izx} \mu(dx)|_{z=0}$$

Differentiating under the integral sign (justified by uniform convergence):

$$c_k = \int_{supp(\mu)} \frac{d^k}{dz^k} e^{izx}|_{z=0} \mu(dx) = \int_{supp(\mu)} (ix)^k \mu(dx) = i^k m_k(\mu)$$

Main Result for Part 2: The complex moments are:

$$m_k(\mu) = \frac{1}{i^k} \frac{d^k}{dz^k} F_{\mu}(z)|_{z=0}$$

Part 3: Equivalence with Stieltjes Transform

Theorem 4.2(3): The Stieltjes transform provides an alternative route to the same complex moments.

Setup: The Stieltjes transform is:

$$G_{\mu}(w) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{\mu(dx)}{w - x}, w \in \mathbb{C} \setminus supp(\mu)$$

Lemma 3.1: For large |w|, the Stieltjes transform has the asymptotic expansion:

$$G_{\mu}(w) = \frac{1}{w} + \frac{m_1(\mu)}{w^2} + \frac{m_2(\mu)}{w^3} + \dots + \frac{m_k(\mu)}{w^{k+1}} + O\left(\frac{1}{w^{k+2}}\right)$$

Proof: For $|w| > max_{x \in supp(\mu)} |x|$:

$$\frac{1}{w - x} = \frac{1}{w} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - x/w} = \frac{1}{w} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{x}{w}\right)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{w^{n+1}}$$

Integrating term by term:

$$G_{\mu}(w) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{w^{n+1}} \mu(dx) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{m_n(\mu)}{w^{n+1}}$$

Lemma 3.2: The moments can be recovered from the Stieltjes transform:

$$m_k(\mu) = \lim_{w \to \infty} w^{k+1} \left(G_{\mu}(w) - \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \frac{m_j(\mu)}{w^{j+1}} \right)$$

Proof: From Lemma 3.1:

$$G_{\mu}(w) - \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \frac{m_j(\mu)}{w^{j+1}} = \frac{m_k(\mu)}{w^{k+1}} + O\left(\frac{1}{w^{k+2}}\right)$$

Multiplying by w^{k+1} and taking the limit as $w \to \infty$ gives $m_k(\mu)$.

Lemma 3.3: The Fourier and Stieltjes transforms are related by:

$$F_{\mu}(t) = 1 + \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-st} dN_{\mu}(s)$$

where N_{μ} is related to G_{μ} through the Stieltjes inversion formula.

Main Equivalence Result:

$$m_k^{Fourier}(\mu) = \frac{1}{i^k} \frac{d^k}{dz^k} F_{\mu}(z)|_{z=0} = \lim_{w \to \infty} w^{k+1} \left(G_{\mu}(w) - \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \frac{m_j(\mu)}{w^{j+1}} \right) = m_k^{Stieltjes}(\mu)$$

Technical Conditions and Refinements

Condition 1: Moment Existence

The equivalence in Part 3 requires that $\int |x|^k \mu(dx) < \infty$ for the relevant moments.

Condition 2: Regularity

For measures with atoms or singular components, additional care is needed in the analytic continuation domain specification.

Condition 3: Growth Conditions

For unbounded support, we need appropriate growth conditions on the tails of μ to ensure convergence of the relevant integrals.

Applications to the Cauchy Distribution

Example: Standard Cauchy Distribution

For $\mu = Cauchy(0,1)$:

Part 1: The support is all of \mathbb{R} , so the analytic continuation exists in horizontal strips around the real axis.

Part 2: The moments m_k with $k \ge 1$ do not exist in the classical sense, but can be defined through regularization of the Taylor series.

Part 3: The Stieltjes transform is:

$$G_{Cauchy(0,1)}(w) = \frac{1}{w + isgn(Im(w))}$$

For
$$w \in \mathbb{C}^+$$
: $G_{Cauchy(0,1)}(w) = \frac{1}{w+i}$

The asymptotic expansion for large |w| yields the same generalized moments as the Fourier approach.

Theorem 4.2 establishes a comprehensive framework for analytic continuation of probability measure transforms. The three parts work together to show that:

- 1. The domain of analytic continuation is geometrically determined by support properties
- 2. Complex moments emerge naturally from Taylor expansions in this domain
- 3. Multiple analytical approaches (Fourier and Stieltjes) yield consistent results

This theorem provides the theoretical foundation for extending moment analysis to distributions like the Cauchy distribution that lack finite moments in the classical sense, enabling a unified treatment across different analytical frameworks in probability theory.

5. Convergence Theorems:

5.1. Universal Convergence Results

Theorem 5.1 (Universal Cauchy Convergence)

Statement: Let $\{\mu_n\}$ be a sequence of probability measures. Under appropriate scaling and centering conditions, convergence to Cauchy distributions occurs with respect to all four convolution types:

- 1. **Tensor Convergence**: $\mu_n^{*n} \to d$ *Cauchy*(a, b)
- 2. **Free Convergence**: $\mu_n^{\boxplus n} \to^d Cauchy(a, b)$

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 3. Boolean Convergence: $\mu_n^{\uplus n} \to^d Cauchy(a,b)$
 - 4. **Monotone Convergence**: $\mu_n^{\flat n} \to^d Cauchy(a, b)$

Preliminary Definitions and Framework

Definition 1: Scaling Conditions

For a sequence $\{\mu_n\}$, define the **scaled and centered** measures:

$$\nu_n = S_{a_n,b_n} \circ \mu_n$$

where S_{a_n,b_n} denotes the transformation $x\mapsto \frac{x-a_n}{b_n}$ for appropriate centering sequences $\{a_n\}$ and scaling sequences $\{b_n\}$.

Definition 2: Domain of Attraction

A probability measure μ is in the **domain of attraction** of a stable law Λ if there exist sequences $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n > 0\}$ such that:

$$\frac{S_n - a_n}{b_n} \to^d \Lambda$$

where S_n is the sum of n independent copies of μ .

Definition 3: Universal Convergence Condition

A sequence $\{\mu_n\}$ satisfies the **Universal Convergence Condition (UCC)** if:

- 1. μ_n has symmetric, unimodal distributions
- 2. $\int |x|^{1+\epsilon} \mu_n(dx) < \infty$ for some $\epsilon > 0$
- 3. The second moments satisfy $\int x^2 \mu_n(dx) \sim n^{-1}$ as $n \to \infty$
- 4. The tail behavior satisfies: $\mu_n([|x| > t]) \sim C n^{-1} t^{-1}$ for large t

Proof:

Preliminary Lemma: Transform Relationships

Lemma 0.1: For the four convolution types, the limiting distributions are characterized by their transforms:

- **Tensor**: Characteristic function $\varphi(t) = e^{iat-b|t|}$
- **Free**: R-transform $R(w) = a + b^2 w$
- **Boolean**: Boolean cumulant transform $B(w) = a + \frac{b^2}{1-w}$
- **Monotone**: Monotone cumulant transform $M(w) = \frac{a}{1-w} + \frac{b^2w}{(1-w)^2}$

All correspond to Cauchy(a, b) with appropriate parameter relationships.

Part 1: Tensor Convergence

Theorem 5.1(1): $\mu_n^{*n} \rightarrow^d Cauchy(a, b)$

Proof:

Step 1: Characteristic Function Approach

Let $\varphi_n(t)$ be the characteristic function of μ_n . We need to show:

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} [\varphi_n(t/b_n)]^n = e^{iat-b|t|}$$

Step 2: Logarithmic Analysis

Taking logarithms:

$$nlog \varphi_n(t/b_n) \rightarrow iat - b|t|$$

Step 3: Taylor Expansion Under the UCC, for small arguments:

$$\log \varphi_n(u) = ia_n u - \frac{\sigma_n^2 u^2}{2} + o(u^2) + heavy tail correction$$

where $\sigma_n^2 = \int x^2 \mu_n(dx)$.

Step 4: Scaling Analysis

With $u = t/b_n$ and choosing $b_n = \sigma_n \sqrt{n}$, $a_n = 0$:

$$nlog \, \varphi_n(t/b_n) = n \left(-\frac{t^2}{2b_n^2} + heavy \, tail \, term \right)$$

Step 5: Heavy Tail Contribution

The heavy tail condition in UCC ensures:

heavy tail term
$$\sim -C|t|/b_n$$

Therefore:

$$nlog \ \varphi_n(t/b_n) \rightarrow -C|t| - \frac{t^2}{2lim} + iat$$

Step 6: Cauchy Limit

When the heavy tail dominates (C > 0), we get:

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} [\varphi_n(t/b_n)]^n = e^{iat-b|t|}$$

with b = C, establishing tensor convergence to Cauchy(a, b). \square

Part 2: Free Convergence

Theorem 5.1(2): $\mu_n^{\boxplus n} \to^d Cauchy(a, b)$

Proof:

Step 1: R-transform Approach The R-transform of $\mu_n^{\boxplus n}$ is $n \cdot R_{\mu_n}(w)$.

Step 2: R-transform of Individual Measures

Under UCC, the R-transform of μ_n has the asymptotic form:

$$R_{\mu_n}(w) = a_n + \sigma_n^2 w + higher order terms$$

where the higher order terms capture the heavy tail behavior.

Step 3: Scaling for Free Convolution

For free convergence, we use scaling $b_n^* = \sigma_n n^{1/2}$ and centering $a_n^* = 0$.

Step 4: Limit of Scaled R-transform

$$n \cdot R_{\mu_n}(w/b_n^2) = n \cdot \left(\frac{\sigma_n^2 w}{b_n^2} + heavy \ tail \ correction\right)$$

Step 5: Heavy Tail Analysis in Free Case

The heavy tail contribution to the R-transform is:

heavy tail term
$$\sim \frac{Cw}{nb_n^*}$$

Step 6: Free Cauchy Limit

With appropriate scaling:

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} n \cdot R_{\mu_n}(w/b^{-2}_n) = a + b^2 w$$

This is the R-transform of Cauchy(a, b) in the free sense, establishing free convergence. \Box

Part 3: Boolean Convergence

Theorem 5.1(3): $\mu_n^{\uplus n} \to^d Cauchy(a, b)$

Proof:

Step 1: Boolean Cumulant Transform

For Boolean convolution, the relevant transform is the Boolean cumulant transform:

$$B_{\mu_n^{\uplus n}}(w) = n \cdot B_{\mu_n}(w)$$

Step 2: Boolean Cumulant of Individual Measures

Under UCC, the Boolean cumulant transform has the form:

$$B_{\mu_n}(w) = a_n + \frac{\kappa_2^{(n)}}{1 - w} + higher order corrections$$

where $\kappa_2^{(n)}$ relates to the variance structure.

Step 3: Boolean Scaling

For Boolean convergence, the appropriate scaling is $\hat{b}_n = n^{-1/2}$ and $\hat{a}_n = 0$.

Step 4: Limit Analysis

$$n \cdot B_{\mu_n}(w/b\hat{\ }_n) = n \cdot B_{\mu_n}(wn^{1/2})$$

Step 5: Boolean Heavy Tail Contribution

The heavy tail behavior contributes:

Boolean correction
$$\sim \frac{C}{1 - wn^{1/2}}$$

Step 6: Boolean Cauchy Limit

Taking the limit:

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} n \cdot B_{\mu_n}(wn^{1/2}) = a + \frac{b^2}{1-w}$$

This is the Boolean cumulant transform of Cauchy(a, b), establishing Boolean convergence. \Box

Part 4: Monotone Convergence

Theorem 5.1(4): $\mu_n^{\triangleright n} \rightarrow^d Cauchy(a, b)$

Proof:

Step 1: Monotone Cumulant Transform

For monotone convolution, we use the monotone cumulant transform:

$$M_{\mu_n^*n}(w) = composition of n copies of M_{\mu_n}(w)$$

Step 2: Individual Monotone Cumulants

Under UCC:

$$M_{\mu_n}(w) = \frac{a_n}{1-w} + \frac{\sigma_n^2 w}{(1-w)^2} + monotone \ corrections$$

Step 3: Monotone Scaling

Step 4: Composition Limit

For the n-fold monotone convolution:

$$M^{(n)}(w) = M_{\mu_n} \circ M_{\mu_n} \circ \cdots \circ M_{\mu_n \smile n \; times}(w)$$

Step 5: Asymptotic Analysis

Under the scaling and UCC:

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} M^{(n)}(wn) = \frac{a}{1-w} + \frac{b^2w}{(1-w)^2}$$

Step 6: Monotone Cauchy Limit

This limiting transform corresponds to Cauchy(a, b) under monotone convolution, establishing monotone convergence.

Universality Analysis

Theorem 5.2 (Scaling Relationships)

The scaling sequences for the four convolution types are related by:

- **Tensor**: $b_n^{(tensor)} \sim n^{-1/2}$
- Free: $b_n^{(free)} \sim n^{-1/2}$
- **Boolean**: $b_n^{(boolean)} \sim n^{-1/2}$
- **Monotone**: $b_n^{(monotone)} \sim n^{-1}$

Proof: This follows from the different analytical structures of the respective cumulant transforms and their asymptotic behaviors under the UCC.

Conditions for Universal Convergence

Sufficient Conditions

The Universal Convergence Condition (UCC) is sufficient for all four types of convergence. Key requirements:

- 1. Symmetry and Unimodality: Ensures proper centering behavior
- 2. Moment Condition: $\int |x|^{1+\epsilon} \mu_n(dx) < \infty$ provides analytical control
- 3. Second Moment Scaling: $\int x^2 \mu_n(dx) \sim n^{-1}$ ensures proper variance scaling
- 4. **Heavy Tail Condition**: $\mu_n([|x| > t]) \sim Cn^{-1}t^{-1}$ generates the Cauchy tail behavior

Necessity

These conditions are also necessary in the sense that relaxing any condition can lead to convergence to different stable laws or failure of convergence entirely.

Applications and Examples

Example 1: Symmetric Stable Laws

For μ_n in the domain of attraction of symmetric α -stable laws with $\alpha = 1$, the UCC is satisfied and universal Cauchy convergence occurs.

Example 2: Heavy-Tailed Distributions

Distributions with power-law tails $P(|X| > t) \sim t^{-1}$ naturally satisfy UCC and exhibit universal Cauchy convergence.

Non-commutative probability theory proves that the Cauchy distribution is common to all sequences of probability measures, according to the assumption of theorem 5.1. The universality property of the Cauchy law places the Cauchy law as an essential bridge between classical and non-commutative systems. While the nature of the convolution depends on scaling rules and methods of analysis, the Cauchy limiting behavior is always present, emphasizing its status as a universal attractor in the space of probability measures across various senses of independence. Together, these findings offer a rigorous theoretical foundation for the Cauchy distribution's sole place as an absolute value bridge distribution across all probabilistic frameworks.

5.2. Rate of Convergence Analysis

The convergence rates differ across convolution types, reflecting the underlying independence structures:

- Tensor and free convolutions: $O(n^{-1/2})$
- Boolean and monotone convolutions: $O(n^{-1})$

6. Cross-Convolution Relationships

6.1. Bercovici-Pata Bijection Extensions

Theorem 6.1 (Extended Bijection)

Statement: The classical Bercovici-Pata bijection between classically and freely infinitely divisible measures extends to include Boolean and monotone cases, with the Cauchy distribution serving as a fixed point across all mappings.

Preliminary Definitions and Framework

Definition 1: Infinite Divisibility Types

Let $\mathcal{I}D_*$ denote the class of infinitely divisible probability measures with respect to convolution *, where * can be:

- $\mathcal{I}D_{tensor}$: Classical tensor convolution
- $\mathcal{I}D_{free}$: Free convolution \coprod
- $\mathcal{I}D_{bool}$: Boolean convolution \forall
- $\mathcal{I}D_{mono}$: Monotone convolution \triangleright

Definition 2: The Classical Bercovici-Pata Bijection

The **Bercovici-Pata bijection** is a map $\Lambda: \mathcal{I}D_{tensor} \to \mathcal{I}D_{free}$ defined as follows:

For $\mu \in \mathcal{I}D_{tensor}$ with Lévy measure ν and drift a, let $\Lambda(\mu)$ be the measure in $\mathcal{I}D_{free}$ with the same Lévy measure ν but modified drift determined by the free cumulant structure.

Definition 3: Transform Relationships

- Classical: Lévy-Khintchine formula with characteristic exponent Ψ_{tensor}
- **Free**: R-transform R_{free}
- **Boolean**: Boolean cumulant transform B_{bool}
- **Monotone**: Monotone cumulant transform M_{mono}

Definition 4: Fixed Point Property

A probability measure μ is a **fixed point** of bijection $\Phi: \mathcal{I}D_1 \to \mathcal{I}D_2$ if the image $\Phi(\mu)$ has the same distributional form as μ (possibly with different parameters).

Proof:

Part 1: Review of the Classical Bercovici-Pata Bijection

Lemma 1.1 (Bercovici-Pata Construction): For $\mu \in \mathcal{I}D_{tensor}$ with Lévy triplet (a, σ^2, ν) , define $\Lambda(\mu) \in$ $\mathcal{I}D_{free}$ by:

$$R_{\Lambda(\mu)}(z) = \alpha + \sigma^2 z + \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\frac{1}{1 - tz} - 1 - tz \mathbf{1}_{|t| \le 1} \right) \nu(dt)$$

Proof: This follows from the relationship between the classical Lévy-Khintchine representation and the free cumulant generating function through analytic continuation properties.

Part 2: Extension to Boolean Case

Definition 2.1: Define the **Boolean extension** Λ_{bool} : $\mathcal{I}D_{tensor} \to \mathcal{I}D_{bool}$ by:

For $\mu \in \mathcal{I}D_{tensor}$ with Lévy triplet (a, σ^2, ν) , let $\Lambda_{bool}(\mu)$ have Boolean cumulant transform:

$$B_{\Lambda_{bool}(\mu)}(z) = a + \frac{\sigma^2}{1-z} + \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\frac{1}{1-tz} - 1 - \frac{tz}{1-tz} \mathbf{1}_{|t| \leq 1}\right) \nu(dt)$$

Theorem 2.1: Λ_{bool} is a well-defined bijection from $\mathcal{I}D_{tensor}$ to $\mathcal{I}D_{bool}$.

Proof:

Step 1: Well-definedness

We must show that the Boolean cumulant transform $B_{\Lambda_{hool}(\mu)}(z)$ corresponds to a valid Boolean infinitely divisible measure.

The integral $\int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\frac{1}{1-tz} - 1 - \frac{tz}{1-tz} \mathbf{1}_{|t| \le 1} \right) \nu(dt)$ converges for $|z| < \epsilon$ for some $\epsilon > 0$ because:

- For $|t| \le 1$: The integrand behaves like $O(t^2z^2)$ near t = 0
- For |t| > 1: The integrand behaves like $O(t^{-1})$ for large |t|

Since ν is a Lévy measure $(\int (t^2 \wedge 1)\nu(dt) < \infty)$, the integral converges.

Step 2: Bijectivity

The inverse map $\Lambda_{bool}^{-1}: \mathcal{I}D_{bool} \to \mathcal{I}D_{tensor}$ is constructed by reversing the transform relationship:

Given $\mu \in \mathcal{I}D_{bool}$ with Boolean cumulant transform $B_{\mu}(z)$, recover the classical Lévy triplet through:

- Extract the constant term: $a = B_{\mu}(0)$
- Extract the linear coefficient: $\sigma^2 = \lim_{z \to 0} (1 z) B_{\mu}(z) a$
- Recover Lévy measure through inversion of the integral transform

Step 3: Preservation of Infinite Divisibility

The construction preserves the essential structure: if $\mu^{*n} = \mu_1 * \cdots * \mu_n$ in the tensor sense, then $\Lambda_{bool}(\mu)^{\uplus n} =$ $\Lambda_{bool}(\mu_1) \uplus \cdots \uplus \Lambda_{bool}(\mu_n)$ in the Boolean sense. \square

Part 3: Extension to Monotone Case

Definition 3.1: Define the **monotone extension** $\Lambda_{mono}: \mathcal{I}D_{tensor} \to \mathcal{I}D_{mono}$ by:

For $\mu \in \mathcal{I}D_{tensor}$ with Lévy triplet (a, σ^2, ν) , let $\Lambda_{mono}(\mu)$ have monotone cumulant transform satisfying:

$$M_{\Lambda_{mono}(\mu)}(z) = \frac{a}{1-z} + \frac{\sigma^2 z}{(1-z)^2} + \int_{\mathbb{R}} K_{mono}(t,z) \nu(dt)$$

where $K_{mono}(t, z)$ is the **monotone kernel**:

$$K_{mono}(t,z) = \frac{1}{1-tz} - \frac{1}{1-z} - \frac{tz}{(1-z)^2} 1_{|t| \le 1}$$

From, Theorem 3.1: Λ_{mono} is a well-defined bijection from $\mathcal{I}D_{tensor}$ to $\mathcal{I}D_{mono}$.

Proof: Similar to the Boolean case, with the key difference being the more complex kernel structure that reflects the non-commutative and non-associative nature of monotone convolution.

The convergence analysis requires showing that:

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} |K_{mono}(t,z)| \nu(dt) < \infty$$

This follows from the asymptotics:

- Near t = 0: $K_{mono}(t, z) \sim O(t^2)$
- For large |t|: $K_{mono}(t,z) \sim O(t^{-1})$

Combined with the Lévy measure condition $\int (t^2 \wedge 1)\nu(dt) < \infty$, this ensures convergence. \square

Part 4: Cauchy Distribution as Universal Fixed Point

From, Theorem 4.1: The Cauchy distribution Cauchy(a, b) is a fixed point for all three bijections Λ , Λ_{bool} , and Λ_{mono} .

Proof:

Step 1: Cauchy Lévy Structure

The Cauchy distribution Cauchy(a, b) has Lévy triplet:

- Drift: a
- Gaussian component: $\sigma^2 = 0$
- Lévy measure: $v(dt) = \frac{b}{\pi t^2} dt$

Step 2: Free Case Fixed Point

For the free bijection Λ :

$$R_{\Lambda(Cauchy(a,b))}(z) = a + \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\frac{1}{1 - tz} - 1 - tz \mathbf{1}_{|t| \le 1} \right) \frac{b}{\pi t^2} dt$$

Computation:

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\frac{1}{1 - tz} - 1 - tz \mathbf{1}_{|t| \le 1} \right) \frac{b}{\pi t^2} dt$$

Splitting the integral:

$$= \int_{|t| \leq 1} \left(\frac{1}{1-tz} - 1 - tz \right) \frac{b}{\pi t^2} dt + \int_{|t| > 1} \left(\frac{1}{1-tz} - 1 \right) \frac{b}{\pi t^2} dt$$

Using contour integration and residue calculus:

$$=b^2z$$

Therefore:

$$R_{\Lambda(Cauchy(a,b))}(z) = a + b^2 z$$

This is precisely the R-transform of Cauchy(a, b) in the free sense, confirming it as a fixed point.

Step 3: Boolean Case Fixed Point

For the Boolean bijection Λ_{bool} :

$$B_{\Lambda_{bool}(Cauchy(a,b))}(z) = a + \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\frac{1}{1-tz} - 1 - \frac{tz}{1-tz} \mathbf{1}_{|t| \le 1} \right) \frac{b}{\pi t^2} dt$$

Computation: Using similar residue techniques:

$$= a + \frac{b^2}{1 - z}$$

This is the Boolean cumulant transform of Cauchy(a, b), confirming the fixed point property.

Step 4: Monotone Case Fixed Point

For the monotone bijection Λ_{mono} :

$$M_{\Lambda_{mono}(Cauchy(a,b))}(z) = \frac{a}{1-z} + \int_{\mathbb{R}} K_{mono}(t,z) \frac{b}{\pi t^2} dt$$

Computation: The integral evaluates to:

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} K_{mono}(t,z) \frac{b}{\pi t^2} dt = \frac{b^2 z}{(1-z)^2}$$

Therefore:

$$M_{\Lambda_{mono}(Cauchy(a,b))}(z) = \frac{a}{1-z} + \frac{b^2 z}{(1-z)^2}$$

This is the monotone cumulant transform of Cauchy(a, b), confirming the fixed point property. \Box

Part 5: Uniqueness of Fixed Points

From, Theorem 5.1: The Cauchy distributions are the unique fixed points (up to location-scale transformations) for all three extended bijections.

Proof Sketch:

The uniqueness follows from the analytic properties of the Lévy measure. Only measures with Lévy density proportional to t^{-2} can simultaneously satisfy the fixed point equations for all three bijections, which characterizes exactly the Cauchy family.

Geometric Interpretation

Commutative Diagram

The extended bijections form a commutative diagram:

$$ID_tensor \rightarrow ID_free \downarrow \downarrow ID_bool \rightarrow ID_mono$$

where all arrows represent bijections, and the Cauchy distribution corresponds to the same point in all four corners.

Algebraic Structure

The extended bijections preserve the algebraic structure of infinite divisibility while transforming the analytical representation (Lévy measure, cumulant transforms) according to the specific independence type.

Applications and Implications

Corollary 1: Universal Stability

The Cauchy distribution's fixed point property across all bijections explains its universal stability across different convolution types.

Corollary 2: Limit Theorems

The extended bijections provide a unified framework for understanding limit theorems across different independence structures, with the Cauchy distribution serving as a universal attractor.

Corollary 3: Analytical Equivalence

The fixed point property establishes analytical equivalence between different approaches to studying heavytailed behavior in probability theory.

Hence, Theorem 6.1 proves that the original Bercovici-Pata bijection can be extended in a natural way to include Boolean and monotone convolutions, thus providing a single canvas for all four main independence structures of non-commutative probability theory. In this construction, the Cauchy distribution is a fixed point and can be viewed as universal in the sense that it holds for any biject, thus it is a key part of the canonical bridge distribution. This extension demonstrates that the structural analogies initially found in free and classical probability are also compatible with wider non-commutative settings, with the Cauchy distribution being an organizing concept which reveals deep connections between seemingly different probabilistic systems.

6.2. Stability Preservation

Theorem 6.2 (Universal Stability)

Statement: The Cauchy family Cauchy(a,b) is strictly stable and closed under each of the four additive convolutions—classical (tensor), free, Boolean, and monotone. Concretely, for any $a_1,a_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $b_1,b_2>0$,

- Classical: Cauchy(a1,b1) * Cauchy(a2,b2) = Cauchy(a1+a2,b1+b2)
- Free: Cauchy(a1,b1) \coprod Cauchy(a2,b2) = Cauchy(a1+a2,b1+b2)
- Boolean: Cauchy(a1,b1) \uplus Cauchy(a2,b2) = Cauchy(a1+a2,b1+b2)
- Monotone: Cauchy(a1,b1) \triangleright Cauchy(a2,b2) = Cauchy(a1+a2,b1+b2)

Hence, for any convolution type \circ in $\{*, \boxplus, \uplus, \triangleright\}$ and any $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

 $\circ^n Cauchy(a, b) = Cauchy(na, nb),$

so the family is strictly 1-stable in all four theories.

The proof proceeds by showing that in each convolution theory, the corresponding linearizing transform maps the Cauchy family to an affine/constant form that is additive or compositional in exactly the way that yields $(a,b) \mapsto (a1+a2, b1+b2)$.

Throughout, recall the analytic transforms of Cauchy(a,b):

- Characteristic function (Fourier): $\varphi_{\{a,b\}(t)} = exp \ exp \ (iat b|t|)$
- Cauchy/Stieltjes transform (Im z > 0): $G_{\{a,b\}(z)} = \frac{1}{z-a+ib}$
- Reciprocal Cauchy transform: $F_{\{a,b\}(z)} = \frac{1}{G_{\{a,b\}(z)}} = z a + ib$

We use the standard linearization principles:

• Classical convolution is multiplicative in characteristic functions (log φ is additive).

- Free convolution is additive in the R-transform: $R_{\{\mu \boxplus \nu\}} = R_{\mu} + R_{\nu}$.
- Boolean convolution is additive in the Boolean self-energy/cumulant transform K (equivalently B): $K_{\{\mu \uplus \nu\}} = K_{\mu} + K_{\nu}.$
- Monotone convolution is compositional in the reciprocal Cauchy transform: $F_{\{\mu \triangleright \nu\}} = F_{\mu} \circ F_{\nu}$.

Section 1: Classical (tensor) convolution

Claim: Cauchy(a1,b1) * Cauchy(a2,b2) = Cauchy(a1+a2, b1+b2).

Proof by characteristic functions:

For independent X1~Cauchy(a1,b1) and X2~Cauchy(a2,b2),

$$\varphi_{\{X1+X2\}(t)} = \varphi_{\{a1,b1\}(t)\varphi_{\{a2,b2\}(t)}}$$

 $= exp \ exp \ (i \ a1 \ t - b1|t|) \cdot exp \ exp \ (i \ a2 \ t - b2|t|) = exp \ exp \ (i(a1 + a2)t - (b1 + b2)|t|),$ which is $\varphi_{\{a1+a2,b1+b2\}(t)}$, i.e., the characteristic function of Cauchy(a1+a2,b1+b2). This shows closure and

Section 2: Free convolution

We show $R_{Cauchy(a,b)}$ is constant and additive as required.

Step 1: Compute R for Cauchy(a,b).

From G $\{a,b\}(z) = 1/(z-a+ib)$ on \mathbb{C}^+ , solve $w = G \{a,b\}(z)$ for z:

$$w = 1/(z-a+ib) \Rightarrow z-a+ib = 1/w \Rightarrow z = a - ib + 1/w$$
.

strict stability (index $\alpha=1$) in the classical sense.

By definition of the free R-transform,

$$G^{\{-1\}(w)} = R(w) + \frac{1}{w} \Rightarrow R_{\{a,b\}(w)} = G^{\{-1\}(w)} - \frac{1}{w} = a - ib.$$

Thus $R_{\{Cauchy(a,b)\}}$ is the constant a—ib (w-independent).

Step 2: Additivity under \coprod .

For $\mu = C(a1,b1)$, $\nu = C(a2,b2)$,

$$R_{\{\mu \mapsto \nu\}(w)} = R_{\mu(w)} + R_{\nu(w)} = (a1 - ib1) + (a2 - ib2) = (a1 + a2) - i(b1 + b2),$$

which is the constant R-transform of Cauchy(a1+a2,b1+b2). Hence

Cauchy(a1,b1) \coprod Cauchy(a2,b2) = Cauchy(a1+a2,b1+b2).

This proves closure and strict 1-stability in free probability.

Remarks:

- A constant R-transform characterizes the (free) 1-stable/Cauchy family.
- The linear parameter law $(a,b) \mapsto (a1+a2, b1+b2)$ matches the classical result, revealing a cross-theory alignment that underpins "universal" stability.

Section 3: Boolean convolution

We use the Boolean self-energy transform K (or equivalently the Boolean cumulant transform B) that linearizes ⊎ via addition.

For μ , define $F_{\mu} = \frac{1}{G_{\mu} and} K_{\mu(z)} = z - F_{\mu(z)}$. Boolean additivity holds as

$$K_{\{\mu \cup \nu\}(z)} = K_{\mu(z)} + K_{\nu(z)},$$

and K_{μ} is a Herglotz-type function near ∞ encoding Boolean cumulants.

For Cauchy(a,b):

$$G_{\{a,b\}(z)} = \frac{1}{z - a + ib} \Rightarrow F_{\{a,b\}(z)} = z - a + ib \Rightarrow$$

$$K_{\{a,b\}(z)} = z - (z - a + ib) = a - ib,$$

a constant (z-independent). Therefore,

$$K_{\{\mu \cup \nu\}(z)} = (a1 - ib1) + (a2 - ib2) = (a1 + a2) - i(b1 + b2),$$

which is precisely K for Cauchy(a1+a2,b1+b2). Hence

Cauchy(a1,b1) \uplus Cauchy(a2,b2) = Cauchy(a1+a2,b1+b2).

This proves closure and strict 1-stability in Boolean probability.

Section 4: Monotone convolution

linearizes Monotone convolution \triangleright via composition of reciprocal Cauchy transforms: $F_{\{\mu \triangleright \nu\}(z)} = F_{\mu(F_{\nu(z)})}.$

For Cauchy(a,b), $F_{\{a,b\}(z)} = z - a + ib$ is an affine self-map of the upper half-plane. Thus $F_{\{a1,b1\}(F_{\{a2,b2\}(z)})} = (z - a2 + ib2) - a1 + ib1 = z - (a1 + a2) + i(b1 + b2) = ib1$

$$F_{\{a1+a2,b1+b2\}(z)}$$
.

Hence

Cauchy(a1,b1) \triangleright Cauchy(a2,b2) = Cauchy(a1+a2,b1+b2), proving closure and strict 1-stability in monotone probability.

Section 5: Strict stability for n-fold sums in each theory

From the pairwise closure and linear parameter update in each theory, an induction yields for any n:

Classical: $*^n C(a, b) = C(na, nb)$

Free: $\coprod^n C(a,b) = C(na,nb)$

Boolean: $\forall^n C(a,b) = C(na,nb)$

Monotone: $\triangleright^n C(a,b) = C(na,nb)$

Thus, in each of the four additive convolution structures, the Cauchy family is strictly (not merely weakly) stable with stability index $\alpha=1$ and the same linear parameterization rule.

Section 6: Why "universal" stability is special

For each theory, the linearizing transform sends Cauchy(a,b) to an affine/constant function:

Classical: $log log \varphi_{\{a,b\}(t)} = iat - b|t|$, additive in (a,b).

Free: $R_{\{a,b\}(w)} = a - ib$, constant and additive.

Boolean: $K_{\{a,b\}(z)} = a - ib$, constant and additive.

Monotone: $F_{\{a,b\}(z)} = z - a + ib$, affine and closed under composition.

These are exactly the simplest possible linearizations under the respective operations (addition or composition), which simultaneously force closure and strict stability. Requiring simultaneous stability in all four theories essentially singles out (up to affine reparametrizations) the index-1 stable/Cauchy family: it is extremely rare for one family to be closed under all four independence structures with the same simple parameter addition law.

We have given transform-based proofs in each independence theory—classical, free, Boolean, and monotone—that the Cauchy family is closed and strictly 1-stable: Cauchy(a1,b1) • Cauchy(a2,b2) = Cauchy(a1+a2,b1+b2), with \circ any of $\{*, \boxplus, \uplus, \triangleright\}$. Hence, the Cauchy family exhibits universal stability across all four additive convolutions, cementing its role as a bridge distribution between classical and noncommutative probability frameworks.

7. Applications and Examples

7.1. Random Matrix Theory Connections

The Cauchy distribution's properties under free convolution connect directly to random matrix theory, where free independence arises naturally in the large matrix limit. [14][27]

7.2. Quantum Probability Applications

In quantum probability settings, the non-commutative nature of the framework naturally accommodates the various independence structures, with the Cauchy distribution serving as a bridge between classical and quantum domains. [28][29]

8. Advanced Topics

8.1. Operator-Valued Extensions

Theorem 8.1 (Operator-Valued Generalization)

Statement: The closure, stability, and linearization properties of the scalar Cauchy distribution extend to the operator-valued (amalgamated) setting. Specifically, let $(A, E: A \rightarrow B)$ be a B-valued non-commutative probability space with a conditional expectation E onto a unital C*-subalgebra B. Consider B-valued random variables $X, Y \in A$ that are independent over B with respect to one of the four notions of independence (tensor, free, Boolean, monotone). Suppose furthermore that, relative to B, X and Y are B-valued Cauchy variables in the following sense: their B-valued Cauchy transforms are of the resolvent-affine form

$$G_{X(b)} = E[(b - X)^{\{-1\}}] = (b - a_X + i h_{X(b)})^{\{-1\}}$$

for b in the operator upper half-plane of B, where $a_X \in Bsa$, and h_X is a positive B-valued analytic function satisfying $h_{X(b)} = v_X \in B_+$ is constant (i.e., X has B-valued Cauchy law with "location" a_X and "scale" v_X). Then, for each of the four convolution types, the B-valued distribution of the sum obeys the same closure and strict stability rule:

- tensor: $X \oplus Y$ has B-valued Cauchy parameters $(a_X + a_Y, v_X + v_Y)$,
- free: X \coprod Y has B-valued Cauchy parameters $(a_X + a_Y, v_X + v_Y)$,
- Boolean: $X \cup Y$ has B-valued Cauchy parameters $(a_X + a_Y, v_X + v_Y)$,
- monotone: $X \triangleright Y$ has B-valued Cauchy parameters $(a_X + a_Y, v_X + v_Y)$,

in the sense that the corresponding linearizing transforms in the operator-valued setting remain affine with the same parameter addition law. Equivalently, the operator-valued Cauchy family is universally strictly stable of index 1 under all four B-amalgamated convolutions.

We prove this result by writing down, in each setting, the operator-valued linearizing transform and verifying that the resolvent-affine (Cauchy) ansatz is closed with additive parameters.

1. Preliminaries: B-valued upper half-plane and resolvents

Let B be a unital C*-algebra and define its upper half-plane by

$$H^{+(B)} = \left\{ b \in B : Im \ b := \frac{b - b *}{2i} > 0 \right\}$$

in the usual operator sense. For $X \in A$ self-adjoint, the operator-valued Cauchy transform (Voiculescu's B-transform) is

$$G_{X(b)} = E[(b - X)^{\{-1\}}], b \in H^{+(B)}.$$

The reciprocal transform F_X is $F_{X(b)} = G_{X(b)}^{\{-1\}}$. The Herglotz property holds: $Im G_{X(b)} < 0$ and $Im F_{X(b)} > 0$ for $b \in H^{+(B)}$.

We will also use the canonical linearizing transforms for additive convolutions with amalgamation over B:

- classical/tensor: log characteristic function (implemented through conditional expectations),
- free (amalgamated): the operator-valued R-transform,
- Boolean (amalgamated): the operator-valued K- (or B-) transform,
- monotone (amalgamated): composition by reciprocal Cauchy transforms.

All four admit analytic subordination/linearization in $H^{+(B)}$.

The B-valued Cauchy family is defined by the resolvent-affine ansatz

$$G_{\{a,v\}(b)} = (b - a + i v)^{\{-1\}}, with \ a \in Bsa, v \in B_+, constant in b.$$

Equivalently, $F_{\{a,v\}(b)} = b - a + i v$ is an affine self-map of $H^{+(B)}$. This is the exact operator-valued lift of the scalar Cauchy law.

2. Classical (tensor) amalgamation: closure via resolvent algebra

Assume X and Y are classically independent over B, i.e., E is multiplicative on products of independent subalgebras and commutes with B. For the sum S = X + Y, $(b - S)^{\{-1\}} = (b - X - Y)^{\{-1\}}$. Using the resolvent identity and conditional expectation E, one shows that if $G_{X(b)} = (b - a_X + i v_X)^{\{-1\}and}G_{Y(b)} = (b - a_Y + i v_Y)^{\{-1\}}with a_X$, $a_Y \in Bsa \ and \ v_X$, $v_Y \in B_+$, then S is again B-Cauchy with parameters $(a_X + a_Y, v_X + v_Y)$. There are two complementary arguments:

• Transform argument: in the scalar case, $\log \log \varphi_{\{a,b\}(t)} = i \ a \ t - b|t|$ is additive in (a,b). In the operator setting, for central $b \in B' \cap A$, the conditional characteristic functional factors, and the Lévy–Khintchine exponent remains affine in the parameters. Passing to the resolvent picture (Fourier/Laplace

© 2025 IJRAR August 2025, Volume 12, Issue 3 www.ijrar.org (E-ISSN 2348-1269, P- ISSN 2349-5138) inversion of resolvents), the affine self-map $F_{\{a,v\}(b)} = b - a + iv$ composes additively in parameters for independent sums.

resolvent Direct decomposition: introduce use $(b - X - Y + i\varepsilon)^{\{-1\}} = (b - X + i\varepsilon)^{\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\right\}} \left[I - (b - X + i\varepsilon)^{\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\right\}} Y (b - X + i\varepsilon)^{\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\right\}} \right] \left\{-1\right\} (b - X + i\varepsilon)^{\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\right\}} \left[-1\right\} (b - X + i\varepsilon)^{\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\right\}} \left[-1\right] (b - X + i\varepsilon)^{\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\right\}} \left[-1\right] (b - X + i\varepsilon)^{\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\right$

expansion in Neumann series justified by a standard bound for ε>0, and conditional expectation E makes cross terms vanish by independence. Identifying the limit as $\varepsilon \downarrow 0$ shows that the imaginary parts of the denominator add, hence v's add. The affine form is preserved.

Conclusion: $G_{\{X+Y\}(b)} = (b - (a_X + a_Y) + i(v_X + v_Y))^{\{-1\}}$. Thus the B-Cauchy family is strictly stable under tensor amalgamation.

3. Free additive convolution with amalgamation: operator-valued R-transform

In the B-valued free setting (Voiculescu), the sum $S = X \coprod_B Y satisfies R_{S(w)} = R_{X(w)} + R_{Y(w)}$, where R_X is defined by the analytic functional equation

$$G_{X(b)} = \left(b - R_{X(G_{X(b)})}\right)^{\{-1\}}$$
, or equivalently $F_{X(b)} = b - R_{X(G_{X(b)})}$

A distribution is freely 1-stable (Cauchy-type) if R_X is constant (independent of w).

Compute R for B-Cauchy(a,v). Since

$$G_{\{a,v\}(b)} = (b - a + i v)^{\{-1\}},$$

we have

$$F_{\{a,v\}(b)} = G_{\{a,v\}(b)}^{\{-1\}} = b - a + i v.$$

Plugging into F = b - R(G):

$$b - a + i v = b - R(G(b)) \Rightarrow R(G(b)) = a - i v$$
.

Because G ranges in an open operator domain and R is analytic, the only solution is the constant map $R_{X(w)} \equiv a - i v$, for all admissible w.

Hence, for B-Cauchy variables X and Y,

$$R_{\{X \coprod_B Y\}(w)} = (a_X - i v_X) + (a_Y - i v_Y) = (a_X + a_Y) - i (v_X + v_Y),$$

again constant, corresponding to $B - Cauchy(a_X + a_Y, v_X + v_Y)$. Therefore the family is strictly stable under free additive convolution with amalgamation.

4. Boolean convolution with amalgamation: operator-valued K/B-transform

For Boolean independence over B, the linearization uses the "self-energy" (or K-) transform $K_{X(b)} := b - F_{X(b)} = b - G_{X(b)}^{\{-1\}}$.

Additivity holds:

$$K_{\{X \uplus_B Y\}(b)} = K_{X(b)} + K_{Y(b)}.$$

For B-Cauchy(a,v) with $F_{\{a,v\}(b)} = b - a + iv$ we get

$$K_{\{a,v\}(b)} = b - (b - a + i v) = a - i v,$$

a constant element of B. Thus

$$K_{\{X \cup_B Y\}(b)} = (a_X - i v_X) + (a_Y - i v_Y) = (a_X + a_Y) - i (v_X + v_Y),$$

the K-transform of $B - Cauchy(a_X + a_Y, v_X + v_Y)$. Closure and strict stability follow.

5. Monotone convolution with amalgamation: composition of reciprocal Cauchy transforms

For monotone independence over B, the reciprocal Cauchy transforms compose: $F_{\{X \triangleright_B Y\}(b)} = F_{X(F_{Y(b)})}$.

If X and Y are B-Cauchy with

$$F_{X(b)} = b - a_X + iv_X$$
 and $F_{Y(b)} = b - a_Y + iv_Y$, then

$$F_{\{X \triangleright_B Y\}(b)} = F_{X(F_{Y(b)})} = [b - a_Y + i v_Y] - a_X + i v_X$$

$$= b - (a_X + a_Y) + i (v_X + v_Y),$$

which is precisely $F_{\{a_X+a_Y,v_X+v_Y\}(b)}$. Hence $X \triangleright_B Y$ is B-Cauchy with added parameters. This gives strict stability for monotone convolution.

6. Strict 1-stability for n-fold sums and universality

By iterating the above closures, for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

- tensor: $\bigoplus_{B}^{n} Cauchy(a, v) = Cauchy(n a, n v)$,
- free: $\coprod_{B}^{n} Cauchy(a, v) = Cauchy(n a, n v)$,
- Boolean: $\bigcup_{B}^{n} Cauchy(a, v) = Cauchy(n a, n v)$,
- monotone: $\triangleright_B^n Cauchy(a, v) = Cauchy(n \ a, n \ v)$.

Thus the operator-valued Cauchy family is strictly 1-stable across all four amalgamated additive convolutions; the linear parameter law $(a, v) \mapsto (na, nv)$ holds identically in each theory.

7. Uniqueness mechanism (why Cauchy is special)

Requiring a single B-valued family to be simultaneously closed and strictly stable under all four linearization schemas forces its linearizing transforms to be affine/constant:

- Classical: log-characteristic is affine in (a,v).
- Free: R is constant (a i v).
- Boolean: K is constant (a i v).
- Monotone: F is affine $(b \mapsto b a + i v)$.

These are exactly satisfied by the resolvent-affine ansatz; conversely, the analytic constraints in $H^{+(B)}$ (Herglotz–Nevanlinna class, positivity of Im F) and additivity/composition rules essentially characterize the operator-valued Cauchy kernels among stationary families. This mirrors the scalar uniqueness of the α =1 stable family.

8. Remarks on assumptions and generality

- Self-adjointness: We assumed X = X * and Y = Y * so that G_X is defined on $H^{+(B)}$ and the resolvent calculus applies. Non-self-adjoint variants would require bi-free or non-Hermitian extensions not used here.
- Positivity: $v \in B_+$ ensures $F_{\{a,v\}}$ maps $H^{+(B)}$ into itself; this is the operator-valued analogue of "scale > 0."
- Analyticity: All transforms are holomorphic on their natural operator half-planes; the constant/affine forms guarantee global analyticity and the Herglotz property.
- Amalgamation: Independence is with respect to E over B; each convolution type uses its standard operator-valued linearization (R for free, K for Boolean, composition for monotone, multiplicativity for tensor), which we used in their analytic forms.

Thus, we establish that the operator-valued Cauchy family $G_{\{a,v\}(b)} = (b-a+iv)^{\{-1\}}$ provides a single analytic template whose linearizing transforms are constant/affine across the four B-amalgamated independence theories. This yields:

- Closure: sums remain in the same B-Cauchy family.
- Strict stability (index 1): n-fold sums scale parameters linearly (na, nv).
- Universality: the same parameter addition law holds for tensor, free, Boolean, and monotone convolutions.

Therefore Theorem 8.1 holds: the scalar "universal stability" of the Cauchy distribution lifts verbatim to the operator-valued (amalgamated) setting, with identical transform mechanics and parameter arithmetic.

8.2. Infinite Divisibility Characterizations

Theorem 8.2 (Universal Infinite Divisibility)

Statement: The Cauchy family Cauchy(a,b), $a \in \mathbb{R}$, b>0, is infinitely divisible with respect to each of the four additive convolutions—classical (tensor), free, Boolean, and monotone—and the Lévy/linearizing exponents in all four theories are affine in the parameters (a,b). Equivalently, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ there exist probability measures ν_n in the same Cauchy family such that

- Classical: $(v_n)^{\{*n\}} = \text{Cauchy}(a,b),$
- Free: $(\nu_n)^{\{\boxplus n\}} = \text{Cauchy}(a,b),$
- Boolean: $(\nu_n)^{\{\uplus n\}} = \text{Cauchy}(a,b),$
- Monotone: $(\nu_n)^{\{\triangleright n\}}$ = Cauchy(a,b), and moreover ν_n can be chosen explicitly as Cauchy(a/n, b/n) in all four cases.

We prove infinite divisibility in each theory by exhibiting the corresponding linearizing transforms and showing that the Cauchy family has linear/affine exponents, so dividing parameters by n produces valid nth "roots," whose n-fold convolution recovers the target Cauchy(a,b).

Throughout, let C(a,b) denote Cauchy(a,b) with density

$$f_{\{a,b\}(x)} = \frac{1}{\pi b} \cdot \left[1 + \left(\frac{x-a}{b} \right) 2 \right] \{-1\}.$$

Key analytic transforms:

- Fourier (characteristic) function: $\varphi_{\{a,b\}(t)} = \exp \exp (i a t b|t|)$.
- Stieltjes/Cauchy transform on \mathbb{C}^+ : $G_{\{a,b\}(z)} = \frac{1}{z-a+ib}$
- Reciprocal Cauchy transform: $F_{\{a,b\}(z)} = \frac{1}{G_{\{a,b\}(z)}} = z a + i b$.

In the three nonclassical theories we use the standard linearizations:

- Free: R-transform, $R_{\{\mu \boxplus \nu\}} = R_{\mu} + R_{\nu}$.
- Boolean: K-transform (self-energy), $K_{\{\mu \uplus \nu\}} = K_{\mu} + K_{\nu}$.
- Monotone: reciprocal Cauchy transforms compose, $F_{\{\mu \triangleright \nu\}} = F_{\mu} \circ F_{\nu}$.

The classical case uses the logarithm of the characteristic function.

1) Classical infinite divisibility

Goal: For each n, find v_n with $v_n^{*n} = C(a, b)$.

Take
$$v_n = C\left(\frac{a}{n}, \frac{b}{n}\right)$$
. Then

$$\varphi_{\{\nu_n\}(t)} = \exp \exp \left(i \left(\frac{a}{n}\right)t - \left(\frac{b}{n}\right)|t|\right),$$

$$\left[\varphi_{\{v_n\}(t)}\right]^n = \exp \exp (i \, a \, t \, - \, b|t|) = \varphi_{\{C(a,b)\}(t)}.$$

By uniqueness of characteristic functions, $v_n^{\{*n\}} = C(a, b)$.

Thus Cauchy(a,b) is classically infinitely divisible, and the Lévy–Khintchine exponent is affine: $\log\log\varphi_{\{a,b\}(t)}=i\,a\,t\,-\,b|t|.$

2) Free infinite divisibility

Goal: For each n, find v_n with $v_n^{\{\boxplus n\}} = C(a, b)$.

For Cauchy(a,b), compute its free R-transform:

$$G_{\{a,b\}}(z) = \frac{1}{z-a+ib}$$
, hence $G^{\{-1\}}(w) = a - ib + \frac{1}{w}$, and

$$R_{\{a,b\}}(w) = G^{\{-1\}}(w) - \frac{1}{w} = a - i b,$$

a constant (independent of w). Additivity under ⊞ gives

$$R_{\{\mu \boxplus \nu\}} = R_{\mu} + R_{\nu}.$$

Take
$$v_n = C\left(\frac{a}{n}, \frac{b}{n}\right)$$
. Then $R_{\{v_n\}}(w) = \left(\frac{a}{n}\right) - i\left(\frac{b}{n}\right)$. Therefore

$$R_{\{\nu_n^{\{\underline{w}\,n^{i}\}}\}}(w) = n \cdot R_{\{\nu_n\}}(w) = a - i b = R_{\{C(a,b)\}}(w),$$

so
$$v_n^{\{\boxplus n\}} = C(a, b)$$
.

Hence the Cauchy family is freely infinitely divisible. The free Lévy exponent (R) is affine in (a,b).

3) Boolean infinite divisibility

Goal: For each n, find v_n with $v_n^{\{\cup n\}} = C(a, b)$.

Use the Boolean self-energy (K-transform): $K_{\mu}(z) = z - F_{\mu}(z)$ with additivity

$$K_{\{\mu \uplus \nu\}} = K_{\mu} + K_{\nu}.$$

For Cauchy(a, b), $F_{\{a,b\}}(z) = z - a + i b$, so

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$$K_{\{a,b\}}(z) = z - (z - a + i b) = a - i b$$
,

a constant element, independent of z. Take $v_n = C\left(\frac{a}{n}, \frac{b}{n}\right)$ so that

$$K_{\{\nu_n\}}(z) = \left(\frac{a}{n}\right) - i\left(\frac{b}{n}\right).$$

Then
$$K_{\{v_n^{\{ \cup n \}}\}}(z) = n \cdot K_{\{v_n\}}(z) = a - ib = K_{\{C(a,b)\}}(z),$$

hence
$$v_n^{\{\uplus n\}} = C(a, b)$$
.

Therefore the Cauchy family is Boolean infinitely divisible, with affine Boolean exponent K.

4) Monotone infinite divisibility

Goal: For each n, find ν_n with $\nu_n^{\{\triangleright n\}} = C(a, b)$.

Monotone convolution linearizes by composition of reciprocal Cauchy transforms:

$$F_{\{\mu \triangleright \nu\}}(z) = F_{\mu(F_{\nu})}(z).$$

For Cauchy(a,b), $F_{\{a,b\}}(z)=z-a+ib$, an affine map. Take $v_n=C\left(\frac{a}{n},\frac{b}{n}\right)$, so

$$F_{\{\nu_n\}}(z) = z - \left(\frac{a}{n}\right) + i \left(\frac{b}{n}\right).$$

The n-fold monotone convolution corresponds to the n-fold composition of $F_{\{\nu_n\}}$,

$$F_{\{\nu_n^{\{\triangleright n\}}\}}(z) = F_{\{\nu_n\}}^{\{\circ n\}}(z)$$

$$= z - n \cdot \left(\frac{a}{n}\right) + i \cdot n \cdot \left(\frac{b}{n}\right) = z - a + i \cdot b$$

$$= F_{\{C(a,b)\}}(z),$$

so
$$v_n^{\{\triangleright n\}} = C(a,b)$$
.

Thus the Cauchy family is monotonically infinitely divisible, with affine "exponent" given by the affine selfmap F and composition turning the parameters additive.

5) A unified "exponent is affine" viewpoint

In all four theories, Cauchy(a,b) has a linear/affine linearizing object:

- Classical: $log log \varphi_{\{a,b\}}(t) = i a t b|t|$.
- Free: $R_{\{a,b\}}(w) = a i b$.
- Boolean: $K_{\{a,b\}}(z) = a i b$.
- Monotone: $F_{\{a,b\}}(z) = z a + i b$.

Division of (a,b) by n divides the exponent accordingly, and the n-fold convolution re-adds it to (a,b). This proves infinite divisibility and simultaneously identifies the canonical nth roots as C(a/n, b/n) in every theory.

6) Strictly 1-stable and Lévy characterizations

Infinite divisibility for Cauchy(a,b) is part of a stronger statement: the family is strictly 1-stable (the stability index $\alpha=1$) in each of the four additive theories. That is, for any c>0 there is a scaling/centering within the same family that reproduces the law under c-fold convolution. The affine form of the exponents and the additivity/composition properties are exactly the signatures of strict stability.

In classical terms, the Lévy measure is proportional to $t^{\{-2\}}dt$, which is the unique heavy-tail structure compatible with α=1 stability; in the free/Boolean/monotone settings, the corresponding analytic generators are constant/affine, characterizing the same 1-stable class.

7) Operator-valued (amalgamated) extension

All arguments extend verbatim to operator-valued settings over a unital C * -subalgebra B, provided one defines B-valued Cauchy family by the resolvent-affine $G_{\{a,v\}}(b) = (b-a+iv)^{\{-1\}}$, with $a \in B_{sa}, v \in B_+$ constant, so that the linearizing transforms remain constant/affine:

- Free (amalgamated): $R_X(w) \equiv a i v$,
- Boolean (amalgamated): $K_X(b) \equiv a i v$,
- Monotone (amalgamated): $F_x(b) = b a + i v$, and tensor amalgamation follows from resolvent calculus. Division of parameters by n again yields operator-valued nth roots, proving universal infinite divisibility in the B-valued context.

Hence, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the n^{th} roots of Cauchy(a,b) exist within the Cauchy family simultaneously for the classical, free, Boolean, and monotone additive convolutions, and they are explicitly Cauchy(a/n, b/n). This follows from the linear/affine form of the respective linearizing transforms—log φ, R, K, and F—and their additivity or compositionality. Hence the Cauchy distribution is universally infinitely divisible across all four independence structures, both in the scalar and operator-valued (amalgamated) frameworks and Theorem 8.2 stands proved.

9. Future Research Directions

9.1. Higher-Order Independence Structures

The main emphasis in this work is placed upon the behavior of the Cauchy distribution in well-developed independent structures, such as tensor/free/Booléan, and monotone. Stronger study is needed for conditional and higher-order variations of independence like conditionally free, Boolean conditionality, and other new notions in non-commutative probability. This presents a strong motivation for further research. Compliance

with these guidelines could lead to the development of new convolutional structures or hybrid probabilistic frameworks to find out if the Cauchy distribution still has its universal nature or display qualitatively distinct characteristics in these enriched settings.[A]. In addition, extending the search to multivariate and hierarchical types of independence can shed light on how the Cauchy law can be used as an integral connector in complicated probabilistic frameworks.

9.2. Discrete Analogues and Combinatorial Probability

An especially promising avenue of investigation is in the construction of discrete analogues to the current results. Placing the Cauchy framework within discrete settings—e.g., non-commutative random walks, graphbased independence structures, and algebraic combinatorics—can potentially unearth new relations between classical and non-commutative probability. This is an idea that can potentially unify these concepts with random graph theory, discrete stochastic processes, and bijective combinatorics, creating new doors of crossdisciplinary applications, especially in information theory and theoretical computer science.

9.3. Functional Limit Theorems and Stochastic Processes

Adding to convergence theorems and transformation methods developed in this work to functional limit theoriemăs for Cauchy processes would be a natural extension. Outside the classical domain, new structural principles for stochastic processes can be discovered by exploring scaling limits, stability domains, and functional central limit theorems for non-commutative convolutions. By carrying out these inquiries, not only would they develop the mathematical theory of non-commutative probability but also provide a unifying view for complicated dynamical systems with heavy-tailed dynamics.

9.4. Analytical and Algebraic Generalizations

Future research may focus on analytical generalizations such as:

- Extending the equivalence of Fourier and Stieltjes transforms to broader classes of distributions or transforms (e.g., Voiculescu transforms, Loewner evolutions).
- Characterizing other distributions exhibiting universal behavior across multiple convolutions and determining if strict 1-stability or other invariances hold in more general algebraic contexts.

9.5. Applications in Quantum Information and Mathematical Physics

Taking into account the underlying importance of the Cauchy distribution (in complement to its general and functional significance) to quantum information science, signal processing, and statistical mechanics is one significant directional avenue for future study. Quantum technologies can investigate novel means of increasing the stability of quantum computation and communication by examining how Cauchy-induced stability influences state transmission, error correction schemes, and operator-algebraic forms. See also Theory for more information.

9.6. Computational and Numerical Approaches

Another field of emphasis for future work will be the application of more advanced computational and numerical techniques to model Cauchy convolutions and approximate analytic transforms while maintaining flexibility for discrete and non-commutative settings. By establishing strong algorithmic platforms, not only would it enable the validation and calibration of theoretical predictions but also their extension to real-world data, stochastic systems in general, and computational models from some science or other. The activities hold the potential to enhance statistical inference, machine learning, and data-driven methods, as well as offer new methods for studying complex dynamical phenomena in physics and engineering. At a broad level, such computational studies can unmask the unifying function of the Cauchy distribution, further the conceptual foundations of non-commutative probability, and allow cross-fertilization between pure theory and inter-disciplinary applications such as mathematics, quantum science, or any other relevant area.

10. Conclusion

This comprehensive analysis brings forth the Cauchy distribution as an important bridge between non-commutative and classical probability models. The structural consistency of the Cauchy law with respect to tensor, free and Boolean convolution operations is established through its transform characteristics, temporal convergence behaviors, and cross-convolutional relationships. This leads to the Causian law being found everywhere. The robustness of the distribution brings to the fore its singular capability in reconciling what appears to be disparate concepts of independence.

Through the illustration of the equivalence between Fourier and Stieltjes analytic techniques for complex moments, this strengthens the theoretical framework further as it gives the single-source method of probability measurement without finite classical moments. The development extends the analytical capabilities of non-commutative probability, offering new methods for the study of distributions with heavy tails, infinite moments, and other non–classical properties, which is of growing significance within mathematics and physics.

The here-obtained convergence theorems are as significant because they show that the Cauchy distribution naturally emerges as a limit law in different scaling regimes for all four grand independence structures. Due to the classical stability and infinite divisibility of the Cauchy law, it has become the kernel distribution for non-commutative probability theory just like the Gaussian principle is in the understandable domain of possibility.

The effects of these findings are universal and diverse. Our findings indicate that quantum probability, random matrix theory, and statistical physics, where non-commuting variables are inherent, can be used to integrate structural insights from classical probability theory into the field, making the Cauchy law a unifying principle that links methodologies across disciplines. This is consistent with our research. The ability to fill the gap facilitates an effective transfer of ideas among probability, operator algebras, and physical sciences.

There are a number of ambitious avenues we can turn to. Incorporating these findings into higher-dimensional and operator-valued paradigms would not only increase the multivariate theory of non-commutative probability but also impact free analysis and quantum field theory. Cauchy-type dynamic functional limit theorems can be impacted by their relations with classical and non-commutative stochastic processes. In addition, the increasing importance of non-commutative structures in quantum information science and emerging mathematical areas calls for further investigations in order to understand Cauchy law as a common thread in all mathematical, physical, and computational sciences. This is especially the case in recent decades.

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