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m–Function Expansion

OPUC basics

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Szegő– Verblunsky Sum Rule

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Killip–Simon Sum Rule

Large Deviations and Sum Rules for Orthogonal Polynomials CLAPEM XIV Universidad de Costa Rica, December, 2016

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Lecture 1: OPRL, OPUC and Sum Rules



Large Deviations and Sum Rules for Orthogonal Polynomials

- What is spectral theory?
- OPs
- OPRL basics
- Favard's Theorem
- m–Function Expansion
- OPUC basics
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- Lecture 1: OPRL, OPUC and Sum Rules
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- Lecture 3: The Theory of Large Deviations
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Killip–Simon Sum Rule [OPUC] B. Simon, *Orthogonal Polynomials on the Unit Circle, Part 1: Classical Theory*, AMS Colloquium Series **54.1**, American Mathematical Society, Providence, RI, 2005.

[OPUC2] B. Simon, Orthogonal Polynomials on the Unit Circle, Part 2: Spectral Theory, AMS Colloquium Series, 54.2, American Mathematical Society, Providence, RI, 2005.

[SzThm] B. Simon, Szegő's Theorem and Its Descendants: Spectral Theory for L^2 Perturbations of Orthogonal Polynomials, M. B. Porter Lectures, Princeton University Press, Princeton, NJ, 2011.



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Killip–Simon Sum Rule Spectral theory is the general theory of the relation of the fundamental parameters of an object and its "spectral" characteristics.



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Can you hear the shape of a drum ?



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Spectral characteristics means eigenvalues or scattering data or, more generally, spectral measures.

Examples include

- Can you hear the shape of a drum ?
- Computer tomography
- Isospectral manifold for the harmonic oscillator



The *direct problem* goes from the object to spectra.

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Killip–Simon Sum Rule The *direct problem* goes from the object to spectra. The *inverse problem* goes backwards.

The direct problem is typically easy while the inverse problem is typically hard.



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Killip–Simon Sum Rule The *direct problem* goes from the object to spectra. The *inverse problem* goes backwards.

The direct problem is typically easy while the inverse problem is typically hard.

For example, the domain of definition of the harmonic oscillator isospectral "manifold" is unknown. It is not even known if it is connected!



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Killip–Simon Sum Rule Orthogonal polynomials on the real line (OPRL) and on the unit circle (OPUC) are particularly useful because the inverse problems are easy—indeed the inverse problem is the OP definition as we'll see.



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OPs also enter in many application—both specific polynomials and the general theory.



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Indeed, my own interest came from studying discrete Schrödinger operators on $\ell^2(\mathbb{Z})$

$$(Hu)_n = u_{n+1} + u_{n-1} + Vu_n$$

and the realization that when restricted to \mathbb{Z}_+ , one had a special case of OPRL.



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Killip–Simon Sum Rule μ will be a probability measure on \mathbb{R} . We'll always suppose that μ has bounded support [a, b] which is not a finite set of points. (We then say that μ is non-trivial.) This implies that $1, x, x^2, \ldots$ are independent since $\int |P(x)|^2 d\mu = 0 \Rightarrow \mu$ is supported on the zeroes of P.



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Apply Gram Schmidt to $1, x, \ldots$ and get monic polynomials

$$P_j(x) = x^j + \alpha_{j,1}x^{j-1} + \dots$$

and orthonormal (ON) polynomials

$$p_j = P_j / \|P_j\|$$



More generally we can do the same for any probability measure of bounded support on $\mathbb{C}.$

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One difference from the case of \mathbb{R} , the linear combination of $\{x^j\}_{j=0}^{\infty}$ are dense in $L^2(\mathbb{R}, d\mu)$ by Weierstrass. This may or may not be true if $\operatorname{supp}(d\mu) \not\subset \mathbb{R}$.



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If $d\mu = d\theta/2\pi$ on $\partial \mathbb{D}$, the span of $\{z^j\}_{j=0}^{\infty}$ is not dense in L^2 (but is only H^2). Perhaps, surprisingly, there are measures $d\mu$ on $\partial \mathbb{D}$ for which they are dense (e.g., μ purely singular).



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More significantly, the argument we'll give for our recursion relation fails if $\operatorname{supp}(d\mu) \not\subset \mathbb{R}$.



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Killip–Simon Sum Rule Since P_k is monic and $\{P_j\}_{j=0}^{k+1}$ span polynomials of degree at most k+1, we have

$$xP_k = P_{k+1} + \sum_{j=0} B_{k,j} P_j$$

Clearly

$$B_{k,j} = \langle P_j, x P_k \rangle / \|P_j\|^2$$



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Now we use

$$\langle P_j, xP_k \rangle = \langle xP_j, P_k \rangle$$

(need $d\mu$ on $\mathbb{R}!!$)



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(need $d\mu$ on \mathbb{R} !!) If j < k - 1, this is zero.



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Now we use

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(need $d\mu$ on \mathbb{R} !!) If j < k - 1, this is zero. If j = k - 1, $\langle P_{k-1}, xP_k \rangle = \langle xP_{k-1}, P_k \rangle = ||P_k||^2$.



Thus
$$(P_{-1} \equiv 0)$$
; $\{a_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$, $\{b_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$: Jacobi recursion

$$xP_N = P_{N+1} + b_{N+1}P_N + a_N^2 P_{N-1}$$

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$$xP_N = P_{N+1} + b_{N+1}P_N + a_N^2 P_{N-1}$$
$$b_N \in \mathbb{R}, \quad a_N = \|P_N\| / \|P_{N-1}\|$$

These are called Jacobi parameters.

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$$xP_N = P_{N+1} + b_{N+1}P_N + a_N^2 P_{N-1}$$
$$b_N \in \mathbb{R}, \quad a_N = ||P_N|| / ||P_{N-1}||$$

These are called *Jacobi parameters*. This implies $||P_N|| = a_N a_{N-1} \dots a_1$ (since $||P_0|| = 1$).

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Thus
$$(P_{-1}\equiv 0); \ \{a_j\}_{j=1}^\infty, \ \{b_j\}_{j=1}^\infty$$
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$$xP_N = P_{N+1} + b_{N+1}P_N + a_N^2 P_{N-1}$$

$$b_N \in \mathbb{R}, \quad a_N = \|P_N\| / \|P_{N-1}\|$$

These are called *Jacobi parameters*. This implies $||P_N|| = a_N a_{N-1} \dots a_1$ (since $||P_0|| = 1$). This, in turn, implies $p_n = P_n/a_1 \dots a_n$ obeys

$$xp_n = a_{n+1}p_{n+1} + b_{n+1}p_n + a_np_{n-1}$$



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Killip–Simon Sum Rule We have thus solved the inverse problem, i.e., μ is the spectral data and $\{a_n, b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ are the descriptors of the object.



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In the orthonormal basis $\{p_n\}_{n=0}^\infty,$ multiplication by x has the matrix

$$J = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 & a_1 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ a_1 & b_2 & a_2 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & a_2 & b_3 & a_3 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$$

called a Jacobi matrix.



Since

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$$b_n = \int x p_{n-1}^2(x) \, d\mu, \quad a_n = \int x p_{n-1}(x) p_n(x) \, d\mu$$

$$\operatorname{supp}(\mu) \subset [-R, R] \Rightarrow |b_n| \le R, |a_n| \le R.$$

Since

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 $\operatorname{supp}(\mu) \subset [-R, R] \Rightarrow |b_n| \le R, |a_n| \le R.$

Conversely, if $\sup_n (|a_n| + |b_n|) = \alpha < \infty$, J is a bounded matrix of norm at most 3α . In that case, the spectral theorem implies there is a measure $d\mu$ so that

$$\langle (1,0,\ldots)^t, J^\ell(1,0,\ldots)^t \rangle = \int x^\ell d\mu(x)$$

Since

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$$\langle (1,0,\ldots)^t, J^\ell(1,0,\ldots)^t \rangle = \int x^\ell d\mu(x)$$

If one uses Gram-Schmidt to orthonormalize $\{J^{\ell}(1,0,\ldots)^t\}_{\ell=0}^{\infty}$, one finds μ has Jacobi matrix exactly given by J.



We have thus proven Favard's Theorem (his paper was in 1935; really due to Stieltjes in 1894 or to Stone in 1932).

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Killip–Simon Sum Rule We have thus proven Favard's Theorem (his paper was in 1935; really due to Stieltjes in 1894 or to Stone in 1932). Favard's Theorem. There is a one-one correspondence between bounded Jacobi parameters

 $\{a_n, b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \in \left[(0, \infty) \times \mathbb{R}\right]^{\infty}$

and non-trivial probability measures, μ , of bounded support via:

 $\mu \Rightarrow \{a_n, b_n\}$ (OP recursion)

 $\{a_n, b_n\} \Rightarrow \mu$ (Spectral Theorem)



Favard's Theorem

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 $\{a_n, b_n\} \Rightarrow \mu$ (Spectral Theorem)

There are also results for μ 's with unbounded support so long as $\int x^n d\mu < \infty$. In this case, $\{a_n, b_n\} \Rightarrow \mu$ may not be unique because J may not be essentially self-adjoint on vectors of finite support.



By the above construction, one has that

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By the above construction, one has that

$$m(z) \equiv \int \frac{d\mu(x)}{x-z} = \langle \delta_1, (J-z)^{-1} \delta_1 \rangle$$

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Let J_N be the $N\times N$ matrix obtained by keeping the top N rows and leftmost N columns of J. Then it is easy to prove that

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$$m(z) = \lim_{N \to \infty} \langle \delta_1, (J_N - z)^{-1} \delta_1 \rangle$$

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$$m(z) = \lim_{N \to \infty} \langle \delta_1, (J_N - z)^{-1} \delta_1 \rangle$$

We denote the quantity inside the limit as $m_N(z; a_1, \ldots, a_{N-1}; b_1, \ldots, b_N)$.

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Coefficient stripping

Let $D_N(z; a_1, \ldots, a_{N-1}; b_1, \ldots, b_N) = \det(J_N - z)$ so that Cramér's rule says that

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$$m_N(z; a_1, \dots, b_N) = \frac{D_{N-1}(z; a_2, \dots, a_{N-1}; b_2, \dots, b_N)}{D_N(z; a_1, \dots, a_{N-1}; b_1, \dots, b_N)}$$

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$$m_N(z; a_1, \dots, b_N) = \frac{D_{N-1}(z; a_2, \dots, a_{N-1}; b_2, \dots, b_N)}{D_N(z; a_1, \dots, a_{N-1}; b_1, \dots, b_N)}$$

where we look at the determinant of a once stripped matrix obtained by removing the first row and column.

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Coefficient stripping

Let $D_N(z; a_1, \ldots, a_{N-1}; b_1, \ldots, b_N) = \det(J_N - z)$ so that Cramér's rule says that

$$m_N(z; a_1, \dots, b_N) = \frac{D_{N-1}(z; a_2, \dots, a_{N-1}; b_2, \dots, b_N)}{D_N(z; a_1, \dots, a_{N-1}; b_1, \dots, b_N)}$$

where we look at the determinant of a once stripped matrix obtained by removing the first row and column. By expanding $det(J_N - z)$ in minors in the first column we get



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where we look at the determinant of a once stripped matrix obtained by removing the first row and column. By expanding $det(J_N - z)$ in minors in the first column we get

$$D_N(z; a_1, \dots, b_N) = (b_1 - z)D_{N-1}(z; a_2, \dots, b_N)$$
$$- a_1^2 D_{N-2}(z; a_3, \dots, b_N)$$



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$$D_N(z; a_1, \dots, b_N) = (b_1 - z) D_{N-1}(z; a_2, \dots, b_N)$$
$$- a_1^2 D_{N-2}(z; a_3, \dots, b_N)$$

Dividing by $D_{N-1}(z; a_2, \ldots, b_N)$ and taking $N \to \infty$ after using the formula for m as a ratio of D's, we see that



$$m(z)^{-1} = b_1 - z - a_1^2 m_1(z)$$

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 $m(z)^{-1} = b_1 - z - a_1^2 m_1(z)$

where m_1 is the m-function of the once stripped infinite Jacobi matrix.

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where
$$m_1$$
 is the m-function of the once stripped infinite
Jacobi matrix. This provides another was to recover Jacobi
paramters from a measure: go from the measure to m to
 a_1, b_1 and m_1 (and so inductively all Jacobi parameters) by

 $m(z)^{-1} = b_1 - z - a_1^2 m_1(z)$

looking at Taylor coefficients of $m(z)^{-1}$ near infinity.



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$$m(z) = \frac{1}{b_1 - z + \frac{a_1^2}{b_2 - z + \frac{a_2^2}{b_3 - z + \dots}}}$$



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$$m(z) = \frac{1}{b_1 - z + \frac{a_1^2}{b_2 - z + \frac{a_2^2}{b_3 - z + \cdots}}}$$

The convergence theorems for continued fractions lets one go from Jacobi parameters to measure.



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where m_1 is the m-function of the once stripped infinite Jacobi matrix. This provides another was to recover Jacobi paramters from a measure: go from the measure to m to a_1, b_1 and m_1 (and so inductively all Jacobi parameters) by looking at Taylor coefficients of $m(z)^{-1}$ near infinity. By iterating, one gets a continued fraction expansion:

$$m(z) = \frac{1}{b_1 - z + \frac{a_1^2}{b_2 - z + \frac{a_2^2}{b_3 - z + \cdots}}}$$

The convergence theorems for continued fractions lets one go from Jacobi parameters to measure. One consequence of the single stripping formula is that the poles of m_1 (i.e. the pure points of μ_1) are precisely the zeros of m.



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Killip–Simon Sum Rule Let $d\mu$ be a non-trivial probability measure on $\partial \mathbb{D}$. As in the OPRL case, we use Gram-Schmidt to define monic OPs, $\Phi_n(z)$ and ON OP's $\varphi_n(z)$.



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In the OPRL case, if z is multiplication by the underlying variable, $z^* = z$. This is replaced by $z^*z = 1$.



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Killip–Simon Sum Rule Let $d\mu$ be a non-trivial probability measure on $\partial \mathbb{D}$. As in the OPRL case, we use Gram-Schmidt to define monic OPs, $\Phi_n(z)$ and ON OP's $\varphi_n(z)$.

In the OPRL case, if z is multiplication by the underlying variable, $z^* = z$. This is replaced by $z^*z = 1$.

In the OPRL case, $P_{n+1} - xP_n \perp \{1, x, \dots, x^{n-2}\}$.



In the OPUC case,
$$\Phi_{n+1} - z\Phi_n \perp \{z, \dots, z^n\}$$
, since $\langle z\Phi, z^j \rangle = \langle \Phi, z^{j-1} \rangle$

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Killip–Simon Sum Rule $\text{ if } j \geq 1.$



In the OPUC case,
$$\Phi_{n+1} - z\Phi_n \perp \{z, \ldots, z^n\}$$
, since

$$\langle z\Phi,z^j\rangle=\langle\Phi,z^{j-1}\rangle$$

if j > 1.

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In the OPRL case, we used deg
$$P = n$$
 and
 $P \perp \{1, x, \dots, x^{n-2}\} \Rightarrow P = c_1 P_n + c_2 P_{n-1}.$
In the OPUC case, we want to characterize deg $P = n$,

wan $P \perp \{z, z^2, \dots, z^n\}.$



Define * on degree n polynomials to themselves by

$$Q^*(z) = z^n \,\overline{Q\!\left(\frac{1}{\bar{z}}\right)}$$

(bad but standard notation!) or

$$Q(z) = \sum_{j=0}^{n} c_j z^j \Rightarrow Q^*(z) = \sum_{j=0}^{n} \overline{c}_{n-j} z^j$$

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$$Q(z) = \sum_{j=0}^{n} c_j z^j \Rightarrow Q^*(z) = \sum_{j=0}^{n} \overline{c}_{n-j} z^j$$

Then, * is antiunitary and so for deg Q=n

$$Q \perp \{1, \dots, z^{n-1}\} \Leftrightarrow Q = c \Phi_n$$

is equivalent to

$$Q \perp \{z, \dots, z^n\} \Leftrightarrow Q = c \Phi_n^*$$

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Thus, we see, there are parameters $\{\alpha_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ (called Verblunsky coefficients) so that

$$\Phi_{n+1}(z) = z\Phi_n - \overline{\alpha}_n \Phi_n^*(z)$$

This is the Szegő Recursion (History: Szegő and Geronimus in 1939; Verblunsky in 1935–36)

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$$\Phi_{n+1}^*(z) = \Phi_n^*(z) - \alpha_n z \Phi_n$$

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Applying * for deg n+1 polynomials to this yields

$$\Phi_{n+1}^*(z) = \Phi_n^*(z) - \alpha_n z \Phi_n$$

The strange looking $-\bar{\alpha}_n$ rather than say $+\alpha_n$ is to have the α_n be the Schur parameter of the Schur function of μ (Geronimus); also the Verblunsky parameterization then agrees with α_n . These are discussed in [OPUC1].

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 $\Phi_n \text{ monic} \Rightarrow \text{constant term in } \Phi_n^* \text{ is } 1 \Rightarrow \Phi_n^*(0) = 1.$

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This plus
$$\Phi_{n+1} = z\Phi_n - \bar{\alpha}_n \Phi_n^*(z)$$
 implies
 $-\overline{\Phi_{n+1}(0)} = \alpha_n$

i.e., Φ_n determines α_{n-1} .



For OPRL, we saw $||P_{n+1}||/||P_n|| = a_{n+1}$. We are looking for the analog for OPUC.

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For OPRL, we saw $||P_{n+1}||/||P_n|| = a_{n+1}$. We are looking for the analog for OPUC.

Szegő Recursion
$$\Rightarrow \Phi_{n+1} + \bar{\alpha}_n \Phi_n^* = z \Phi_n$$

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Szegő Recursion
$$\Rightarrow \Phi_{n+1} + \bar{\alpha}_n \Phi_n^* = z \Phi_n$$

$$\Phi_{n+1} \perp \Phi_n^* \Rightarrow \|\Phi_{n+1}\|^2 + |\alpha_n|^2 \|\Phi_n^*\|^2 = \|z\Phi_n\|^2$$

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Szegő Recursion $\Rightarrow \Phi_{n+1} + \bar{\alpha}_n \Phi_n^* = z \Phi_n$

$$\Phi_{n+1} \perp \Phi_n^* \Rightarrow \|\Phi_{n+1}\|^2 + |\alpha_n|^2 \|\Phi_n^*\|^2 = \|z\Phi_n\|^2$$

Multiplication by z unitary plus * antiunitary \Rightarrow

$$\|\Phi_{n+1}\|^2 = \rho_n^2 \|\Phi_n\|^2; \quad \rho_n^2 = 1 - |\alpha_n|^2$$

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Multiplication by z unitary plus * antiunitary \Rightarrow

$$\|\Phi_{n+1}\|^2 = \rho_n^2 \|\Phi_n\|^2; \quad \rho_n^2 = 1 - |\alpha_n|^2$$

which implies $|\alpha_n| < 1$ (i.e., $\alpha_n \in \mathbb{D}$) and

$$\|\Phi_n\| = \rho_{n-1} \cdots \rho_0$$

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$$\begin{pmatrix} \varphi_{n+1} \\ \varphi_{n+1}^* \end{pmatrix} = A_n(z) \begin{pmatrix} \varphi_n \\ \varphi_n^* \end{pmatrix} x; \quad A_n = \rho_n^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} z & -\bar{\alpha}_n \\ -\alpha_n z & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



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det $A_n \neq 0$ if $z \neq 0$, so we can get φ_n (Φ_n) from φ_{n+1} (Φ_{n+1}) by



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det $A_n \neq 0$ if $z \neq 0$, so we can get φ_n (Φ_n) from φ_{n+1} (Φ_{n+1}) by

$$z\Phi_{n} = \rho_{n}^{-2} \big[\Phi_{n+1} + \bar{\alpha}_{n} \Phi_{n+1}^{*} \big]$$
$$\Phi_{n}^{*} = \rho_{n}^{-2} \big[\Phi_{n+1} + \alpha_{n} \Phi_{n+1} \big]$$



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$$\Phi_n^* = \rho_n^{-2} \left[\Phi_{n+1} + \alpha_n \Phi_{n+1} \right]$$

This implies that Φ_n determines $\{\alpha_j\}_{j=0}^{n-1}$ since we've seen it determines α_{n-1} ,



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This implies that Φ_n determines $\{\alpha_j\}_{j=0}^{n-1}$ since we've seen it determines α_{n-1} , then by the above inverse Szegő recursion, Φ_{n-1} ,



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det $A_n \neq 0$ if $z \neq 0$, so we can get φ_n (Φ_n) from φ_{n+1} (Φ_{n+1}) by

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$$\Phi_{n}^{*} = \rho_{n}^{-2} \left[\Phi_{n+1} + \alpha_{n} \Phi_{n+1} \right]$$

This implies that Φ_n determines $\{\alpha_j\}_{j=0}^{n-1}$ since we've seen it determines α_{n-1} , then by the above inverse Szegő recursion, Φ_{n-1} , and then inductively all the smaller α 's.



There is a one-one correspondence, called the *Verblunsky* map, from measures of infinite support and sequences in \mathbb{D} .

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Killip–Simon Sum Rule There is a one-one correspondence, called the *Verblunsky* map, from measures of infinite support and sequences in \mathbb{D} . We've seen how to go from measures to Verblunsky coefficients.



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Killip–Simon Sum Rule There is a one-one correspondence, called the *Verblunsky* map, from measures of infinite support and sequences in \mathbb{D} . We've seen how to go from measures to Verblunsky coefficients. One way of going in the opposite direction is to prove that for any $\{\beta_j\}_{j=0}^{n-1}$ in \mathbb{D}^n , if the β 's are used to form OPs up to order n,



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Killip–Simon Sum Rule There is a one-one correspondence, called the *Verblunsky* map, from measures of infinite support and sequences in \mathbb{D} . We've seen how to go from measures to Verblunsky coefficients. One way of going in the opposite direction is to prove that for any $\{\beta_j\}_{j=0}^{n-1}$ in \mathbb{D}^n , if the β 's are used to form OPs up to order n, then the measure $d\theta/2\pi |\varphi_n(e^{i\theta})|^2$ is a measure with Verblunsky coefficients

$$\alpha_j = \beta_j; \quad j = 0, \dots, n-1 \text{ and } \alpha_j = 0; \quad j \ge n.$$



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converge to a measure with the given Verblunsky coefficients.



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Szegő's Theorem concerns probability measures on $\partial \mathbb{D}$ of the form

$$d\mu(\theta) = w(\theta) \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} + d\mu_s(\theta)$$

where $d\mu_s$ is singular w.r.t. $d\theta$.

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$$c_{k\ell} \equiv \int e^{i(k-\ell)\theta} d\mu(\theta) = \langle e^{-ik \cdot}, e^{-i\ell \cdot} \rangle_{L^2(d\mu)}$$

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In 1915, Szegő proved that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} D_n (d\mu)^{1/n} = \exp\left[\int \log(w(\theta)) \frac{d\theta}{2\pi}\right]$$

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In 1915, Szegő proved that

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While this is true in general, Szegő only proved it when $d\mu_s=0.$

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Killip–Simon Sum Rule In 1920, Szegő realized that, because a Toeplitz matrix is just the Gram matrix of $\{z^j\}_{j=0}^{n-1}$, it is also the Gram matrix of $\{\Phi_j\}_{j=0}^{n-1}$ which is diagonal so

$$D_n = \prod_{j=0}^{n-1} \|\Phi_j\|^2$$



Szegő's Theorem: OPUC version

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$$D_n = \prod_{j=0}^{n-1} \|\Phi_j\|^2$$

so using that $\|\Phi_j\|$ is monotone decreasing (by a variational argument), one has an equivalent form of his theorem, namely

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so using that $\|\Phi_j\|$ is monotone decreasing (by a variational argument), one has an equivalent form of his theorem, namely

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \|\Phi_n\|^2 = \exp\left[\int \log(w(\theta)\frac{d\theta}{2\pi}\right]$$

But the recursion relation was only published by Szegő in 1939, so he didn't have a form in term's of α_n and ρ_n .



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$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \log(1 - |\alpha_j|^2) = \int \log(w(\theta)) \frac{d\theta}{2\pi}$$



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It is critical that this always holds although both sides may be $-\infty.$



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$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} |\alpha_j|^2 < \infty \iff \int \log(w(\theta)) \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} > -\infty$$



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particular,
$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} |\alpha_j|^2 < \infty \Rightarrow \Sigma_{ac} = \partial \mathbb{D}.$$



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In the late 1990's unaware of the OPUC literature, my research group was studying 1D Schrodinger operators, $-\frac{d^2}{dx^2} + V(x)$ and the difference between L^1 and L^2 conditions.


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Here is one version of Szegő's Theorem for OPRL.

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$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} \prod_{j=1}^{n} a_j = \sqrt{2} \exp\left(\int_{-2}^{2} \log|\pi s(x)w(x)|s(x)\frac{dx}{4\pi}\right)$$



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Szegő Condition

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} \prod_{j=1}^n a_j = \sqrt{2} \exp\left(\int_{-2}^2 \log|\pi s(x)w(x)|s(x)\frac{dx}{4\pi}\right)$$

The condition for the finiteness of the integral is called the *Szegő condition*:



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The condition for the finiteness of the integral is called the *Szegő condition*:

$$\int_{-2}^{2} \log |w(x)| (4 - x^2)^{-1/2} \, dx > -\infty$$



This doesn't yield a gem because

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only holds under the a priori condition that μ is supported inside [-2, 2] and this is not simply expressible in terms of the Jacobi parameters; for example, it doesn't only depend on the parameters near ∞ and can be changed by modifying a single a or b.



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Killip-Simon Theorem If $d\mu = w(x)dx + d\mu_s$ is a measure of compact support on \mathbb{R} and $\{a_n, b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ its Jacobi parameters, then

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |a_j - 1|^2 + b_j^2 < \infty$$



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if and only if the essential support of μ is $\left[-2,2\right]$ and

$$\int_{-2}^{2} \log(w(x))\sqrt{4-x^2} \, dx > -\infty \qquad \sum_{j,\pm} (|E_j^{\pm}|-2)^{3/2} < \infty$$



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We called $\int_{-2}^{2} \log(w(x))\sqrt{4-x^2} dx > -\infty$ the quasi-Szegő condition since the square root appeared to the +1/2 power rather than the -1/2 in the Szegő condition.



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$$\sum |E_n|^p \le C \int |V(x)|^{p+d/2} \, dx$$



The gem comes from a sum rule. Let $Q(\mu) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \log \left(\frac{\sin(\theta)}{\operatorname{Im} m(2\cos(\theta))} \right) \sin^2(\theta) d\theta,$

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$$G(a) = a^2 - 1 - \log(a^2) \text{ and }$$

$$F(E) \equiv \frac{1}{4} [\beta^2 - \beta^{-2} - \log(\beta^4)]$$
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Then the Killip-Simon sum rule says

$$Q(\mu) + \sum_{j,\pm} F(E_j^{\pm}) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{4}b_n^2 + \frac{1}{2}G(a_n)$$

As with the Szegő–Verblunsky sum rule, an important point is that it always holds although both sides may be $+\infty$.



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Killip–Simon Sum Rule The gem comes from the fact that $F \ge 0$, vanishes exactly at $E = \pm 2$ and is $O((|E| - 2)^{3/2})$ there and that $G \ge 0$, vanishes exactly at a = 1 and is $O((a - 1)^2)$ there.



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As in the OPUC case, this sum rule implies the existence of Hilbert–Schmidt perturbations with mixed spectrum.



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