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Definition of Periodic JM on Trees

Gap Labelling

Equations for M and G

Examples

Aomoto Results

Many Conjectures and Questions

Final Remarks

Periodic Jacobi Matrices on Trees

Barry Simon

IBM Professor of Mathematics and Theoretical Physics, Emeritus California Institute of Technology Pasadena, CA, U.S.A.



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This talk will discuss the setup of periodic Jacobi matrices on trees, mainly on trees of constant degree.



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Our main guide has been the case of a tree of constant degree two, i.e. conventional 1D Jacobi matrices.



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Our main guide has been the case of a tree of constant degree two, i.e. conventional 1D Jacobi matrices. Here the theory is well known, beautiful and very deep, so I begin with a brief summary of the results there to set the stage.



The operator acts on $\ell^2(\mathbb{Z})$,

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The operator acts on $\ell^2(\mathbb{Z})$, depends on a pair of two-sided infinite sequences $\{b_n\}_{n=-\infty}^{\infty}$ and $\{a_n\}_{n=-\infty}^{\infty}$ with $b_n \in \mathbb{R}, a_n > 0$,

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$$(Hu)_n = a_{n+1}u_{n+1} + b_nu_n + a_nu_{n-1}$$



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$$(Hu)_n = a_{n+1}u_{n+1} + b_nu_n + a_nu_{n-1}$$

H commutes with the action of translations by p units $(Uu)_n = u_{n+p} \label{eq:unit}$



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H commutes with the action of translations by p units $(Uu)_n = u_{n+p}$ so if μ_j is the spectral measure at δ_j ,



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H commutes with the action of translations by *p* units $(Uu)_n = u_{n+p}$ so if μ_j is the spectral measure at δ_j , one has that $\mu_{j+p} = \mu_j$ and it is natural to define the density of states (DOS), $d\nu$, and integrated DOS (IDS), *k*, by



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$$d\nu = p^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{p} d\mu_j; \qquad k(E) = \nu(-\infty, E)$$



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$$d\nu = p^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{p} d\mu_j; \qquad k(E) = \nu(-\infty, E)$$

It is obvious that $\operatorname{spec}(H) = \operatorname{supp}(d\nu)$.



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The DOS can also be computed by counting eigenvalues in balls of size mp with periodic or Dirichlet BC.



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- The DOS can also be computed by counting eigenvalues in balls of size mp with periodic or Dirichlet BC. This was first emphasized by Pastur in a more general context and sometimes attributed to Avron-Simon, who had a particularly simple proof.
- Spec(H) is a finite number of disjoint closed bands, at most p.



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- Spec(H) is a finite number of disjoint closed bands, at most p. This goes back to the dawn of quantum mechanics.
- (gap labelling) k in any gap of the spectrum is a multiple of 1/p.



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- The DOS can also be computed by counting eigenvalues in balls of size mp with periodic or Dirichlet BC. This was first emphasized by Pastur in a more general context and sometimes attributed to Avron-Simon, who had a particularly simple proof.
- Spec(H) is a finite number of disjoint closed bands, at most p. This goes back to the dawn of quantum mechanics.
- (gap labelling) k in any gap of the spectrum is a multiple of 1/p. Again this goes back to the dawn of quantum mechanics although its important extension to the almost periodic case goes back to Johnson-Moser, Avron-Simon and Bellisard in the early 1980s.



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The basic result is that the spectrum is purely absolutely continuous,



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The basic result is that the spectrum is purely absolutely continuous, but for reasons that will become obvious, I break this into two statements.



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The basic result is that the spectrum is purely absolutely continuous, but for reasons that will become obvious, I break this into two statements.

④ There is no singular continuous spectrum.



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The essence of purely a.c. spectrum is the occurrence of Bloch waves which again goes back to the dawn of quantum mechanics



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The essence of purely a.c. spectrum is the occurrence of Bloch waves which again goes back to the dawn of quantum mechanics (or even earlier if you think about Floquet theory).



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The essence of purely a.c. spectrum is the occurrence of Bloch waves which again goes back to the dawn of quantum mechanics (or even earlier if you think about Floquet theory). Mathematically precise versions for \mathbb{R}^n go back to Gel'fand in the late 1940's



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The basic result is that the spectrum is purely absolutely continuous, but for reasons that will become obvious, I break this into two statements.

4 There is no singular continuous spectrum.

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The essence of purely a.c. spectrum is the occurrence of Bloch waves which again goes back to the dawn of quantum mechanics (or even earlier if you think about Floquet theory). Mathematically precise versions for \mathbb{R}^n go back to Gel'fand in the late 1940's and for the absence of pure point spectrum (flat bands) for $n \geq 2$ to Thomas in the 1980's.



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The essence of purely a.c. spectrum is the occurrence of Bloch waves which again goes back to the dawn of quantum mechanics (or even earlier if you think about Floquet theory). Mathematically precise versions for \mathbb{R}^n go back to Gel'fand in the late 1940's and for the absence of pure point spectrum (flat bands) for $n \geq 2$ to Thomas in the 1980's. I emphasize though, that only n = 1 is a tree and so relevant to our discussion!



The Green's function is $G_n(z) = \langle \delta_n, (H-z)\delta_n \rangle$.

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The Green's function is $G_n(z) = \langle \delta_n, (H-z)\delta_n \rangle$. If we replace a_{n-1} by 0, then H decomposes into a direct sum, H_n^+ acting on $\ell^2(n,\infty)$ and H_{n-1}^- acting on $\ell^2(-\infty, n-1)$ and we define



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$$m_n^{\pm}(z) = \langle \delta_n, H_n^{\pm} \delta_n \rangle$$



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$$m_n^{\pm}(z) = \langle \delta_n, H_n^{\pm} \delta_n \rangle$$

③ For all n, G_n(z) and m[±]_n(z) have analytic continuations from C\spec(H) to a finitely sheeted Riemann surface with a discrete set of branch points.



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$$m_n^{\pm}(z) = \langle \delta_n, H_n^{\pm} \delta_n \rangle$$

- **③** For all n, G_n(z) and m[±]_n(z) have analytic continuations from C\spec(H) to a finitely sheeted Riemann surface with a discrete set of branch points.
- These functions are hyperelliptic and, in particular, have only square root branch points and the surface is two sheeted.



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(3) The branch points are all in \mathbb{R} at edges of the spectrum.



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3 The branch points are all in R at edges of the spectrum. There are no poles of G away from the branch points and all poles of m[±] are in the bounded spectral gaps of one sheet or the other or at the branch points.



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③ The branch points are all in ℝ at edges of the spectrum. There are no poles of G away from the branch points and all poles of m[±] are in the bounded spectral gaps of one sheet or the other or at the branch points. There is one pole in each "gap".



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③ The branch points are all in ℝ at edges of the spectrum. There are no poles of G away from the branch points and all poles of m[±] are in the bounded spectral gaps of one sheet or the other or at the branch points. There is one pole in each "gap".

These results follow by writing down an explicit quadratic equation for the m-functions and analyzing it



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③ The branch points are all in ℝ at edges of the spectrum. There are no poles of G away from the branch points and all poles of m[±] are in the bounded spectral gaps of one sheet or the other or at the branch points. There is one pole in each "gap".

These results follow by writing down an explicit quadratic equation for the m-functions and analyzing it using, in part, the monotonicity of G in gaps and the fact that poles of m correspond to zeros of G.





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Two periodic Jacobi matrices are called *isospectral* if they have the same spectrum.



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Two periodic Jacobi matrices are called *isospectral* if they have the same spectrum.

• Two isospectral Jacobi matrices have the same period and same DOS.



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Two periodic Jacobi matrices are called *isospectral* if they have the same spectrum.

- Two isospectral Jacobi matrices have the same period and same DOS.
- The DOS of a periodic Jacobi matrix = potential theoretic equilibrium measure, aka harmonic measure, of its spectrum.



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The second of these implies the first.



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The second of these implies the first. For mathematical physicists, these facts are connected to the Thouless formula and the fact that pure a.c. spectrum implies the Lyaponov exponent is zero on the spectrum. In the OP community, it is connected to the theory of regular Jacobi matrices as developed especially by Stahl–Totik.



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- Two isospectral Jacobi matrices have the same period and same DOS.
- The DOS of a periodic Jacobi matrix = potential theoretic equilibrium measure, aka harmonic measure, of its spectrum.

The second of these implies the first. For mathematical physicists, these facts are connected to the Thouless formula and the fact that pure a.c. spectrum implies the Lyaponov exponent is zero on the spectrum. In the OP community, it is connected to the theory of regular Jacobi matrices as developed especially by Stahl–Totik. We'll see that these results plus gap labelling restrict the sets that can be spectra of periodic Jacobi matrices.



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(Borg's Theorem) If a periodic Jacobi matrix has no gaps in its spectrum, then a and b are constant



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- (Borg's Theorem) If a periodic Jacobi matrix has no gaps in its spectrum, then a and b are constant
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Both Borg (1946) and Hochstadt (1984) proved their results for Hill's equation (i.e. continuum Schrödinger operators) but it is known to hold for the Jacobi case.



The set of n band sets $\bigcup_{j=1}^{n} [\alpha_j, \beta_j]$ is described by 2n real numbers so a manifold of dimension 2n.

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The set of n band sets $\bigcup_{j=1}^{n} [\alpha_j, \beta_j]$ is described by 2n real numbers so a manifold of dimension 2n. But they are not all possible spectra of periodic Jacobi matrices because a general set has arbitrary real harmonic measures of the bands



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- B The dimension of allowed periodic spectra of period n is n+1
- 0 The isospectral family associated to an n-band periodic spectral set is a manifold of dimension n-1



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1 The isospectral family associated to a given n-band periodic spectral set is a torus of dimension n-1



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- b The isospectral family associated to a given n-band periodic spectral set is a torus of dimension n-1
- 0 The torus can be described by giving the position of the poles of m_1^+ on the two sheeted Riemann surface,



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There are several beautiful underlying structures connected with these facts.



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There are several beautiful underlying structures connected with these facts. One involves the Toda flow and gives the nested tori the structure of a completely integrable Hamiltonian system.



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There are several beautiful underlying structures connected with these facts. One involves the Toda flow and gives the nested tori the structure of a completely integrable Hamiltonian system. Another views the isospectral torus as the Jacobian variety of hyperelliptic surface.



Boundary Conditions



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While it is often expressed in terms of Floquet boundary conditions,



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While it is often expressed in terms of Floquet boundary conditions, it is better for our purposes to consider the group of symmetries $W_n = U^n$ where U is the symmetry $Uu_j = u_{j+p}$



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While it is often expressed in terms of Floquet boundary conditions, it is better for our purposes to consider the group of symmetries $W_n = U^n$ where U is the symmetry $Uu_j = u_{j+p}$ so $W_nH = HW_n$.



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0 The representation of $\{W_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{Z}}$ acting on $\ell^2(\mathbb{Z})$



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1 The representation of $\{W_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{Z}}$ acting on $\ell^2(\mathbb{Z})$ is a direct integral of all the irreps of \mathbb{Z} , each with multiplicity p



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- $\label{eq:holescaled} \begin{array}{l} \textcircled{1}{1} {\bf B} \ \ {\bf H} \ \ {\bf is \ a \ direct \ integral \ of \ } {\bf p} \times {\bf p} \ \ {\bf matrices} \\ {\bf H}(\theta); \ {\bf e}^{{\bf i}\theta} \in \partial \mathbb{D} \ \ {\bf so \ that} \end{array}$

$$\operatorname{spec}(\mathbf{H}) = \bigcup_{\mathbf{e}^{\mathbf{i}\theta} \in \partial \mathbb{D}} \operatorname{spec}(\mathbf{H}(\theta))$$



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() The edges of gaps correspond to eigenvalues of $\mathbf{H}(\theta)$ for $\theta = \mathbf{0}, \pi$,



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() The edges of gaps correspond to eigenvalues of $H(\theta)$ for $\theta = 0, \pi$, that is periodic and antiperiodic boundary conditions



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One consequence of the gap edge result is

4 Generically, all gaps are open



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One looks at the set in \mathbb{R}^{2p} of all possible a's and b's for which there are gaps where the IDS is j/p for all $j = 1, \ldots, p - 1$.



One consequence of the gap edge result is

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One looks at the set in \mathbb{R}^{2p} of all possible a's and b's for which there are gaps where the IDS is j/p for all $j = 1, \ldots, p - 1$. It is easy to see it is open and this says it is dense.

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One looks at the set in \mathbb{R}^{2p} of all possible *a*'s and *b*'s for which there are gaps where the IDS is j/p for all $j = 1, \ldots, p - 1$. It is easy to see it is open and this says it is dense. In 1976, I noted the analog holds for continuum Schrödinger operators.

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In this Jacobi case, more is true using ideas that go back to Wigner–von Neumann

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In this Jacobi case, more is true using ideas that go back to Wigner-von Neumann

The set where all gaps are not open is a real variety of codimension 2.



We'd be remiss if we didn't mention the discriminant, $\Delta(z)$

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We'd be remiss if we didn't mention the discriminant, $\Delta(z)$ There is a polynomial, $\Delta(z)$, of degree p so that

$$\operatorname{spec}(\mathbf{H}) = \mathbf{\Delta}^{-1}[-2, 2]$$



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We'd be remiss if we didn't mention the discriminant, $\Delta(z)$ There is a polynomial, $\Delta(z)$, of degree p so that $\operatorname{spec}(\mathbf{H}) = \Delta^{-1}[-2, 2]$

In the math physics literature, Δ arises as the trace of a transfer matrix while in the OP literature as a Chebyshev polynomial.



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In the math physics literature, Δ arises as the trace of a transfer matrix while in the OP literature as a Chebyshev polynomial. This is a key tool in some proofs of the above results.



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A *graph* is a collection of points, aka *vertices*, and connectors, aka *edges*.



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A *graph* is a collection of points, aka *vertices*, and connectors, aka *edges*. Each edge has two ends which are vertices.



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A *graph* is a collection of points, aka *vertices*, and connectors, aka *edges*. Each edge has two ends which are vertices. There is a natural topological space associated to a graph and we always suppose it is connected.



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A graph is a collection of points, aka vertices, and connectors, aka edges. Each edge has two ends which are vertices. There is a natural topological space associated to a graph and we always suppose it is connected. We want to allow edges that start and end at the same vertex (aka self-loops) and definitely want to allow multiple edges between a given pair of vertices.



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A graph which is simply connected is called a *tree*.



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A graph which is simply connected is called a *tree*. The *degree* of a vertex is the number of edges with that vertex as an end.



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A graph which is simply connected is called a *tree*. The *degree* of a vertex is the number of edges with that vertex as an end. A *leaf* is a vertex of degree one and we will only consider graphs with no leaves.



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A graph which is simply connected is called a *tree*. The *degree* of a vertex is the number of edges with that vertex as an end. A *leaf* is a vertex of degree one and we will only consider graphs with no leaves. Thus, our trees are always infinite.



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A graph which is simply connected is called a *tree*. The *degree* of a vertex is the number of edges with that vertex as an end. A *leaf* is a vertex of degree one and we will only consider graphs with no leaves. Thus, our trees are always infinite. Of course, trees have no self loops and at most one edge between two vertices.



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A graph which is simply connected is called a *tree*. The *degree* of a vertex is the number of edges with that vertex as an end. A *leaf* is a vertex of degree one and we will only consider graphs with no leaves. Thus, our trees are always infinite. Of course, trees have no self loops and at most one edge between two vertices. A graph with constant degree is called *regular*.



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A graph which is simply connected is called a *tree*. The *degree* of a vertex is the number of edges with that vertex as an end. A *leaf* is a vertex of degree one and we will only consider graphs with no leaves. Thus, our trees are always infinite. Of course, trees have no self loops and at most one edge between two vertices. A graph with constant degree is called *regular*.

We will most often consider regular graphs.



Jacobi Matrices

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A Jacobi matrix on a graph, \mathcal{G} , is associated to a set of real numbers $\{b_j\}_{j \in V}$ assigned to each vertex and strictly positive reals $\{a_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in E}$ assigned to each edge.



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$$H_{jk} = \begin{cases} b_j, & \text{if } j = k; \\ & \end{cases}$$



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A Jacobi matrix on a graph, \mathcal{G} , is associated to a set of real numbers $\{b_j\}_{j\in V}$ assigned to each vertex and strictly positive reals $\{a_\alpha\}_{\alpha\in E}$ assigned to each edge. Because we will only consider finite graphs or infinite trees with periodic parameters, the *a*'s and *b*'s are bounded sets. The Jacobi matrix acts on $\ell^2(V) \equiv \mathcal{H}(\mathcal{G})$, the vector space of square summable sequences indexed by the vertices of the graph. It has matrix elements

 $H_{jk} = \begin{cases} b_j, & \text{if } j = k;\\ \sum_{\alpha} a_{\alpha}, & \text{if } j \neq k \text{ are ends of one or more edges}\\ & \alpha \text{ which we sum over;} \end{cases}$



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If there are self-loops, one needs to modify this.



Let \mathcal{G} be a finite graph (with no leaves).

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Let ${\mathcal G}$ be a finite graph (with no leaves). Its universal cover, ${\mathcal T}$ is a tree

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Let \mathcal{G} be a finite graph (with no leaves). Its universal cover, \mathcal{T} is a tree and if \mathcal{G} has constant degree, so does \mathcal{T} , i.e. it is a *regular tree*.



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Let \mathcal{G} be a finite graph (with no leaves). Its universal cover, \mathcal{T} is a tree and if \mathcal{G} has constant degree, so does \mathcal{T} , i.e. it is a *regular tree*.

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If \mathcal{G} has m independent loops

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If \mathcal{G} has m independent loops (equivalently, one can drop m edges and turn \mathcal{G} into a connected finite tree),



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If \mathcal{G} has m independent loops (equivalently, one can drop m edges and turn \mathcal{G} into a connected finite tree), then the fundamental group of \mathcal{G} is the free nonabelian group with m generators, \mathcal{F}_m .



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The point is the free group with k generators acts freely (i.e. no fixed point for non-identity elements) and transitively on the degree 2k regular tree.



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Final Remarks

The point is the free group with k generators acts freely (i.e. no fixed point for non-identity elements) and transitively on the degree 2k regular tree. There is no such symmetry group on any odd degree regular tree although by looking at the cover of the two vertex, no self loop, d edge graph, one sees that \mathcal{F}_{d-1} acts freely on the degree dregular tree but with two orbits rather than transitively. One can add an extra generator to get a transitive symmetry group but the action is no longer free.



The definition of the DOS, $d\nu$ (and so IDS, k) is obvious.

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The definition of the DOS, $d\nu$ (and so IDS, k) is obvious. For each vertex, $J \in \mathcal{G}$, the spectral measure for H, $d\mu_j$ is the same for all $j \in \mathcal{T}$ with $\Xi(j) = J$.



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Pick a base point, $j_0 \in \mathcal{T}$ and define the ball, Λ_r , as the set of all vertices in \mathcal{T} with distance at most r from j_0 .



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Pick a base point, $j_0 \in \mathcal{T}$ and define the ball, Λ_r , as the set of all vertices in \mathcal{T} with distance at most r from j_0 . Because the number of boundary points in Λ_r is comparable to the total number of points in Λ_r , you **cannot** get $d\nu$ as a limit eigenvalue counting measures with free boundary conditions but



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Fact 1 For any subgroup, Γ_0 of Γ of finite index, the quotient of the tree by Γ_0 is a finite graph \mathcal{G}_0 which is a finite cover of \mathcal{G} .



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Fact 1 For any subgroup, Γ_0 of Γ of finite index, the quotient of the tree by Γ_0 is a finite graph \mathcal{G}_0 which is a finite cover of \mathcal{G} . There is an induced Jacobi matrix, J_0 on \mathcal{G}_0 called J_{Γ_0} with Γ_0 boundary conditions.



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An important tool in understanding the DOS involves some natural operator algebras.



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An important tool in understanding the DOS involves some natural operator algebras. Fix a finite graph \mathcal{G} with universal cover tree \mathcal{T} .



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An important tool in understanding the DOS involves some natural operator algebras. Fix a finite graph \mathcal{G} with universal cover tree \mathcal{T} . The set of Jacobi matrices is a subset of the vector space of operators on $\mathcal{H}(\mathcal{G})$ which generates a subspace of dimension the number of vertices plus number of edges.



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All these operators commute with the action of the symmetry group \mathcal{F}_m ,



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All these operators commute with the action of the symmetry group \mathcal{F}_m , so their diagonal matrix elements are constant on orbits and we can form a normalized trace, Tr, which obeys $\operatorname{Tr}(\mathbf{1}) = 1$ and $\operatorname{Tr}(AB) = \operatorname{Tr}(BA)$.



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All these operators commute with the action of the symmetry group \mathcal{F}_m , so their diagonal matrix elements are constant on orbits and we can form a normalized trace, Tr , which obeys $\operatorname{Tr}(\mathbf{1}) = 1$ and $\operatorname{Tr}(AB) = \operatorname{Tr}(BA)$. If $P_{\Omega}(H)$ are the spectral projections one has that

 $P_{\Omega}(H) \in \mathcal{V}(\mathcal{T}, \Xi)$



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 $P_{\Omega}(H) \in \mathcal{V}(\mathcal{T}, \Xi) \qquad a, b \notin \operatorname{spec}(H) \Rightarrow P_{(a,b)}(H) \in \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{T}, \Xi)$



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because then the projection is a continuous function of H which can be approximated by polynomials.



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because then the projection is a continuous function of H which can be approximated by polynomials. Moreover

$$k(E) = \operatorname{Tr}(P_{(-\infty,E)}(H))$$



In 1992, Toshikazu Sunada proved a gap labelling theorem.

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In 1992, Toshikazu Sunada proved a gap labelling theorem. The main focus of his paper was on continuum Schrödinger operator on C^{∞} manifolds periodic under the action of certain non-abelian group (notably hyperbolic groups).



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A discrete (graph-theoretical) analogue of periodic Schrödinger operators can be treated in much the same way. Actually, the proof of an analogue of Theorem 1 is almost self-evident since the discrete Schrödinger operator itself lies in (a specific C^* algebra from his paper).



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A discrete (graph-theoretical) analogue of periodic Schrödinger operators can be treated in much the same way. Actually, the proof of an analogue of Theorem 1 is almost self-evident since the discrete Schrödinger operator itself lies in (a specific C^* algebra from his paper).

Because in this discrete case, the trace can be normalized, he gets a full gap labelling result although nothing is noted explicitly.



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Theorem (Sunada) For a period p periodic Jacobi matrix on a tree, k(E) in any gap has a value which is a multiple of 1/p. This implies the spectrum has at most p bands.



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Theorem (Sunada) For a period p periodic Jacobi matrix on a tree, k(E) in any gap has a value which is a multiple of 1/p. This implies the spectrum has at most p bands.

Given the above formula for k, this result is a corollary of

Theorem (Sunada) If Ξ is a covering map from a tree to a graph with p vertices, then for any projection, $P \in C(\mathcal{T}, \Xi)$, its normalized trace, $\operatorname{Tr}(P)$, is a multiple of 1/p.



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The basis for Sunada's result is a theorem of Pimsner–Voiculescu (1982) that proved a conjecture of Kadison.



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The basis for Sunada's result is a theorem of Pimsner–Voiculescu (1982) that proved a conjecture of Kadison. There is a famous exposition of this result by Effros based, in part, on simplifications in the proof by Connes and Cuntz. Formal finite sums, $\sum_{\alpha} f_{\alpha} \gamma_{\alpha}$ of elements in \mathcal{F}_m acts naturally on $\ell^2(\mathcal{F}_m)$.



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If the coefficients f_α are replaced by $p\times p$ matrices and the action is on $\ell^2(\mathcal{F}_m,\mathbb{C}^p)$,



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If the coefficients f_{α} are replaced by $p \times p$ matrices and the action is on $\ell^2(\mathcal{F}_m, \mathbb{C}^p)$, one gets projections coming from the matrix part so the normalized trace has values that are multiples of 1/p.



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If the coefficients f_{α} are replaced by $p \times p$ matrices and the action is on $\ell^2(\mathcal{F}_m, \mathbb{C}^p)$, one gets projections coming from the matrix part so the normalized trace has values that are multiples of 1/p. This leads to Sunada's result.



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Let H be a bounded Jacobi matrix on a tree, \mathcal{T} .

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Let H be a bounded Jacobi matrix on a tree, \mathcal{T} . If α is an edge with ends j, k, then removing the edge α disconnects \mathcal{T} into two components, \mathcal{T}_{j}^{α} and \mathcal{T}_{k}^{α} , containing j and k respectively.



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Let H be a bounded Jacobi matrix on a tree, \mathcal{T} . If α is an edge with ends j, k, then removing the edge α disconnects \mathcal{T} into two components, \mathcal{T}^{lpha}_i and \mathcal{T}^{lpha}_k , containing j and krespectively. They are also trees although if either vertex has degree 2, they may have a leaf. We let $H(\mathcal{T}_i^{\alpha})$ be the obvious Jacobi matrix acting on $\ell^2(\mathcal{T}_i^{\alpha})$ and similar for $H(\mathcal{T}^{\alpha}_{k})$. Define

$$G_j(z) = \langle \delta_j, (H-z)^{-1} \delta_j \rangle$$
 $m_j^{\alpha} = \langle \delta_j, (H(\mathcal{T}_j^{\alpha}) - z)^{-1} \delta_j \rangle$
and similarly for m_j^{α}

and similarly for m_k .



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and similarly for m_k^{α} . These are defined as analytic functions on $\mathbb{C} \setminus (A, B)$ if A and B are the bottom and top of $\operatorname{spec}(H)$.



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and similarly for m_k^{α} . These are defined as analytic functions on $\mathbb{C} \setminus (A, B)$ if A and B are the bottom and top of $\operatorname{spec}(H)$. They are also analytic at infinity and in the gaps of the suitable spectra.



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and similarly for m_k^{α} . These are defined as analytic functions on $\mathbb{C} \setminus (A, B)$ if A and B are the bottom and top of $\operatorname{spec}(H)$. They are also analytic at infinity and in the gaps of the suitable spectra. One can show that the three operators have the same essential spectra, so all are meromorphic on $\mathbb{C} \setminus \operatorname{ess} \operatorname{spec}(H)$.



We want to derive the equations for G and m.

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We want to derive the equations for G and m. These have often appeared in the literature on trees, especially on random discrete Schrödinger operators on trees,



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We want to derive the equations for G and m. These have often appeared in the literature on trees, especially on random discrete Schrödinger operators on trees, albeit many times with incorrect signs!



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We want to derive the equations for G and m. These have often appeared in the literature on trees, especially on random discrete Schrödinger operators on trees, albeit many times with incorrect signs! A particularly clean method involves Banachiewicz' formula from the theory of Schur complements. One has a Hilbert space that is a direct sum $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_1 \oplus \mathcal{H}_2$



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$$N = \left(\begin{array}{cc} X & Z \\ Z^* & Y \end{array}\right)$$

where, for example, $X \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}_1)$.



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$$N = \left(\begin{array}{cc} X & Z \\ Z^* & Y \end{array}\right)$$

where, for example, $X \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}_1)$. Given such an N with Y invertible, we define the *Schur complement* of Y as



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where, for example, $X \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}_1)$. Given such an N with Y invertible, we define the *Schur complement* of Y as $S = X - ZY^{-1}Z^*$.



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$$N = \left(\begin{array}{cc} X & Z \\ Z^* & Y \end{array}\right)$$

where, for example, $X \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}_1)$. Given such an N with Y invertible, we define the *Schur complement* of Y as $S = X - ZY^{-1}Z^*$. Let

$$L = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{1} & 0 \\ -Y^{-1}Z^* & \mathbf{1} \end{pmatrix} \text{ so } L^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{1} & 0 \\ Y^{-1}Z^* & \mathbf{1} \end{pmatrix}$$



A simple calculation shows that

$$L^*NL = \left(\begin{array}{cc} S & 0\\ 0 & Y \end{array}\right) \tag{4.1}$$

SO

$$N^{-1} = L \begin{pmatrix} S^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & Y^{-1} \end{pmatrix} L^*$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} S^{-1} & -S^{-1}ZY^{-1} \\ -Y^{-1}Z^*S^{-1} & Y^{-1} + Y^{-1}Z^*S^{-1}ZY^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

which proves Banachiewicz' formula $(N^{-1})_{11} = S^{-1}$

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For a tree, we fix $j \in \mathcal{T}$ and can write $\ell^2(\mathcal{T}) = \mathbb{C} \oplus \ell^2(\cup_{\alpha = (jk)} \mathcal{T}_k^{\alpha})$

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For a tree, we fix $j \in \mathcal{T}$ and can write $\ell^2(\mathcal{T}) = \mathbb{C} \oplus \ell^2(\cup_{\alpha = (jk)} \mathcal{T}_k^{\alpha})$ corresponding to singling out the site j.



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For a tree, we fix $j \in \mathcal{T}$ and can write $\ell^2(\mathcal{T}) = \mathbb{C} \oplus \ell^2(\bigcup_{\alpha = (jk)} \mathcal{T}_k^{\alpha})$ corresponding to singling out the site j. Then $(N^{-1})_{11}$ is a number, X is b_j , $Y = \bigoplus_{\alpha = (jk)} H(\mathcal{T}_k^{\alpha})$ and Z is the various a_{α} .



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For a tree, we fix $j \in \mathcal{T}$ and can write $\ell^2(\mathcal{T}) = \mathbb{C} \oplus \ell^2(\cup_{\alpha = (jk)} \mathcal{T}_k^{\alpha})$ corresponding to singling out the site j. Then $(N^{-1})_{11}$ is a number, X is b_j , $Y = \bigoplus_{\alpha = (jk)} H(\mathcal{T}_k^{\alpha})$ and Z is the various a_{α} . The result is

$$G_j(z) = \frac{1}{-z + b_j - \sum_{\alpha = (jk)} a_\alpha^2 m_k^\alpha(z)}$$



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Similarly, if $\beta = (rj)$ is an edge in \mathcal{T} , we have that

$$m_j^{\beta}(z) = \frac{1}{-z + b_j - \sum_{\alpha = (jk); \, k \neq r} a_{\alpha}^2 m_k^{\alpha}(z)}$$

Note that if e is the number of edges in the underlying graph, G, then there are 2e m-functions.



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If you compare the two equations for ${\cal G}$ and m, they differ in a single term,



If you compare the two equations for G and m, they differ in a single term, so if $\beta = (rj)$ is an edge in \mathcal{T} , we have that

$$G_j(z) = \frac{1}{\left[m_j^\beta(z)\right]^{-1} - a_\beta^2 m_r^\beta(z)}$$

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If you compare the two equations for G and m, they differ in a single term, so if $\beta = (rj)$ is an edge in \mathcal{T} , we have that

$$G_{j}(z) = \frac{1}{\left[m_{j}^{\beta}(z)\right]^{-1} - a_{\beta}^{2}m_{r}^{\beta}(z)}$$

an analog of a well known formula from the 1D case.

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Example 1 (Free Jacobi Matrix on a Homogenous Tree).

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Example 1 (*Free Jacobi Matrix on a Homogenous Tree*). We take a degree d regular tree with all a = 1 and all b = 0. Extensively studied.



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Example 1 (*Free Jacobi Matrix on a Homogenous Tree*). We take a degree d regular tree with all a = 1 and all b = 0. Extensively studied.

The equation for $m, \ensuremath{\mathsf{which}}$ is independent of vertex and edge, is

$$m = \frac{1}{-z - (d-1)m} \Rightarrow m = \frac{-z + \sqrt{z^2 - 4(d-1)}}{2(d-1)}$$



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We take the plus sign on the square root to go to zero at ∞ . Thus $\operatorname{spec}(H) = [-2\sqrt{d-1}, 2\sqrt{d-1}].$



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$$G(z) = \frac{-(d-2)z + d\sqrt{z^2 - 4q}}{2(d^2 - z^2)}$$



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$$G(z) = \frac{-(d-2)z + d\sqrt{z^2 - 4q}}{2(d^2 - z^2)} \Rightarrow \frac{dk}{dE} = \frac{d\sqrt{4q - E^2}}{2\pi(d^2 - E^2)}$$



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the famed Kesten–McKay distribution, which arose first in random graph models.



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Example 2 (*Degree 3 homogenous tree; period 2 potential*) Consider a graph with two vertices and three edges between them.



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Example 2 (*Degree 3 homogenous tree; period 2 potential*) Consider a graph with two vertices and three edges between them. All the a = 1 and the two b's are b and -b.



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Example 2 (*Degree 3 homogenous tree; period 2 potential*) Consider a graph with two vertices and three edges between them. All the a = 1 and the two b's are b and -b.

There are two *m*-functions, m_{\pm} . A direct calculation gets equations they each obey which are quadratic in the *m* and quartic in *z* and one finds that



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$$m_{\pm}(z) = -\frac{(z^2 - b^2) - \sqrt{(z^2 - b^2)^2 - 8(z^2 - b^2)}}{4(z \mp b)}$$



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If P(z) is the polynomial in the square root, one find that P vanishes at $z=\pm b, z=\pm\sqrt{b^2+8}$



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$$\operatorname{spec}(H) = \left[-\sqrt{b^2 + 8}, -b\right] \cup \left[b, \sqrt{b^2 + 8}\right]$$

If $b \neq 0$, there is a single gap which is always open.



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Example 3 (*Even degree with isospectral examples with different DOS*) Let \mathcal{G} have a single vertex with b = 0 and two self loops with "a" values a and c.



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Example 3 (Even degree with isospectral examples with different DOS) Let \mathcal{G} have a single vertex with b = 0 and two self loops with "a" values a and c. This has period one, so by Sunada's theorem the spectrum is an interval [-A, A].



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If c = 0, the problem breaks into disjoint 1D chains.



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If c = 0, the problem breaks into disjoint 1D chains. So as c varies from 0 to a, the DOS goes from d = 2 Kesten McKay (i.e. 1D free) to d = 4 Kesten McKay.



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If c = 0, the problem breaks into disjoint 1D chains. So as c varies from 0 to a, the DOS goes from d = 2 Kesten McKay (i.e. 1D free) to d = 4 Kesten McKay. By adjusting, a in a c dependent way, one can get degree 4 examples with spectrum [-2, 2] and different DOS. So the lovely property in 1D that the spectrum determines the DOS does not extend to trees!!!



Example 4 (Degree 3 possible counterexample)

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Example 4 (*Degree 3 possible counterexample*) After thinking about Example 3, we decided to consider the case where \mathcal{G} has two vertices with b = 0 and three lines joining them, 2 with value c and one with value a.



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Example 4 (*Degree 3 possible counterexample*) After thinking about Example 3, we decided to consider the case where \mathcal{G} has two vertices with b = 0 and three lines joining them, 2 with value c and one with value a. We saw with four lines and two a's there is no gap so we wanted to understand whether that might be true here.



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Example 5 (*Non-regular graph with point spectrum*) Pick $p \neq q$. Consider a finite graph with p red vertices and q green vertices.



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Example 5 (*Non-regular graph with point spectrum*) Pick $p \neq q$. Consider a finite graph with p red vertices and q green vertices. Draw pq edges one between each red and each green vertex. Take all a = 1 and all b = 0.



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Aomoto proves that if G_r is the common Green's function for the red vertices and G_g for the green vertices, then one has that

$$q^{-1}G_r(z) - p^{-1}G_g(z) = \left(\frac{1}{q} - \frac{1}{p}\right)\frac{1}{z}$$



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so there is an eigenvalue at z = 0!



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so there is an eigenvalue at z = 0! Notice that since $p \neq q$, the red and green vertices have different degrees and the corresponding tree is not regular.



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so there is an eigenvalue at z = 0! Notice that since $p \neq q$, the red and green vertices have different degrees and the corresponding tree is not regular. Rather than rely on this argument of Aomoto, we can write eigenvectors explicitly.



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Between 1988 and 1991, Kazuhiko Aomoto published three papers on Jacobi matrices on trees.



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Theorem (Aomoto, 1991) *A periodic Jacobi matrix on a regular tree (i.e. with constant degree) has no point spectrum.*



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While, with some effort, we have understood his proof, it remains mysterious why it works so we have



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Problem 1 Find a simpler proof of the above bound state theorem of Aomoto.



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In his bound state paper, Aomoto states some results on regularity of Green's functions which he needs to prove that theorem.



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Theorem (Implicit in Aomoto; explicit in ABS) *Periodic Jacobi matrices on arbitrary trees have no singular continuous spectrum.*



Aomoto's Hidden Theorem

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Theorem (Implicit in Aomoto; explicit in ABS) *Periodic Jacobi matrices on arbitrary trees have no singular continuous spectrum.*

I want to explain our more explicit form of Green's function regularity.



Fix $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$. Fix ℓ polynomials of $\ell + 1$ variables $P_j(z, \mathbf{w}), \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{C}^{\ell}; j = 1, \dots, \ell$.

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Fix $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$. Fix ℓ polynomials of $\ell + 1$ variables $P_j(z, \mathbf{w}), \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{C}^{\ell}; j = 1, \dots, \ell$. Consider the projective variety \mathcal{V}_0 in $\mathbb{PC}(\ell + 1)$ defined by $P_j = 0$ and its projection π onto the z variable.



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$$D(z, \mathbf{w}) = \det\left(\frac{\partial P_j}{\partial w_k}\right)$$

is non-zero and with $(z_0, \mathbf{w}_0) \in \mathcal{V}_0$.

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is non-zero and with $(z_0, \mathbf{w}_0) \in \mathcal{V}_0$. In that case, we let \mathcal{V} be the irreducible component of (z_0, \mathbf{w}_0) in \mathcal{V}_0



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Theorem Under the above setup (1) There is a finite set $F_1 \in \mathcal{V}$ so that $\mathcal{V} \setminus F_1$ is a one dimensional Riemann surface.



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Theorem Under the above setup (1) There is a finite set $F_1 \in \mathcal{V}$ so that $\mathcal{V} \setminus F_1$ is a one

dimensional Riemann surface.

(2) There is a finite set $F_2 \in \mathcal{V} \setminus F_1$ so that D is non-vanishing on $\mathcal{V} \setminus F$; $F \equiv F_1 \cup F_2$.



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Theorem Under the above setup (1) There is a finite set $F_1 \in \mathcal{V}$ so that $\mathcal{V} \setminus F_1$ is a one dimensional Riemann surface. (2) There is a finite set $F_2 \in \mathcal{V} \setminus F_1$ so that D is non-vanishing on $\mathcal{V} \setminus F$; $F \equiv F_1 \cup F_2$. (3) The map π is finite on $\mathcal{V} \setminus F$;



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Theorem Under the above setup

(1) There is a finite set $F_1 \in \mathcal{V}$ so that $\mathcal{V} \setminus F_1$ is a one dimensional Riemann surface.

(2) There is a finite set F₂ ∈ V \ F₁ so that D is non-vanishing on V \ F; F ≡ F₁ ∪ F₂.
(3) The map π is finite on V \ F; indeed (Bezout) #π⁻¹(z) ≤ Π^ℓ_{j=1} deg P_j.



This is a "standard" result in Complex Algebraic Geometry.

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This is a "standard" result in Complex Algebraic Geometry. For example, one can prove it by pulling together a lot of results from *Shafarevich*, *Basic algebraic geometry*. 1. Varieties in projective space.



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This is a "standard" result in Complex Algebraic Geometry. For example, one can prove it by pulling together a lot of results from *Shafarevich, Basic algebraic geometry. 1.* Varieties in projective space. The non-vanishing determinant condition is needed to be sure the P_j don't have some kind of algebraic relationship which would lead to fewer effective equations and a higher dimensional variety.



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This is a "standard" result in Complex Algebraic Geometry. For example, one can prove it by pulling together a lot of results from *Shafarevich*, *Basic algebraic geometry*. 1. *Varieties in projective space*. The non-vanishing determinant condition is needed to be sure the P_j don't have some kind of algebraic relationship which would lead to fewer effective equations and a higher dimensional variety. The determinant condition and the implicit function theorem imply that for some small neighborhood, U, of (z_0, \mathbf{w}_0) , we have that π is a bijection of $\mathcal{V} \cup U$ and $\pi[U]$.



The equations on the $\ell=2e~m\text{-}\text{functions}$ can be written as ℓ quadratic equations.

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The equations on the $\ell = 2e \ m$ -functions can be written as ℓ quadratic equations. Writing the equations for u = 1/z shows that at the point $(u, \mathbf{m}) = (0, \mathbf{0})$ one has the derivative condition,



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The equations on the $\ell = 2e \ m$ -functions can be written as ℓ quadratic equations. Writing the equations for u = 1/z shows that at the point $(u, \mathbf{m}) = (0, \mathbf{0})$ one has the derivative condition, so in terms of z, for z large, there is a unique solution with \mathbf{m} small and the derivative condition holds there.



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Theorem *Fix a periodic Jacobi operator on a tree.*



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Theorem Fix a periodic Jacobi operator on a tree. There is a finite subset, F, of \mathbb{C} so that all the m-functions and all the G functions can be meromorphically continued along any curve in $\mathbb{C} \setminus F$



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Corollary *Periodic Jacobi matrices on trees have no singular continuous spectrum.*



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Those are the only general results we know but we have lots of Conjectures and Open Questions.



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Conjecture 1. All the branch points and all the poles of the m- and G- functions are on the real axis.



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Conjecture 1. All the branch points and all the poles of the m- and G- functions are on the real axis.

Conjecture 2. All the branch points of the m- and G-functions are at the edges of the gaps.



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Conjecture 3. All the branch points of the m- and G-functions are square root and define Riemann surfaces.



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Conjecture 4. The m- and G- functions are two sheeted



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Conjecture 4. The m- and G- functions are two sheeted Example 2 is two sheeted but we haven't much evidence for this.



If Borg Theorem extends to periodic trees, there are several different versions.

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If Borg Theorem extends to periodic trees, there are several different versions. Since we are optimists, we make these as conjectures, perhaps the most interesting of our conjectures.



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If Borg Theorem extends to periodic trees, there are several different versions. Since we are optimists, we make these as conjectures, perhaps the most interesting of our conjectures. **Conjecture 5**. Let \mathcal{T} be a regular tree of odd degree.



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If Borg Theorem extends to periodic trees, there are several different versions. Since we are optimists, we make these as conjectures, perhaps the most interesting of our conjectures. **Conjecture 5**. Let \mathcal{T} be a regular tree of odd degree. If $H(\mathcal{T})$ is a periodic Jacobi matrix with no gaps in its spectrum, then b is constant and a is constant.



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Conjecture 6. Let \mathcal{T} be a regular tree of even degree.



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Conjecture 6. Let \mathcal{T} be a regular tree of even degree. If $H(\mathcal{T})$ is a periodic Jacobi matrix with no gaps in its spectrum, then the period is 1.



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That means, \mathcal{G} has a single b and $\deg(\mathcal{T})/2$ self loops.



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Conjecture 6. Let \mathcal{T} be a regular tree of even degree. If $H(\mathcal{T})$ is a periodic Jacobi matrix with no gaps in its spectrum, then the period is 1.

That means, \mathcal{G} has a single b and $\deg(\mathcal{T})/2$ self loops. **Conjecture 7**. Let \mathcal{T} be a tree which is not regular. If $H(\mathcal{T})$ is a periodic Jacobi matrix, then it must have gaps in its spectrum.



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If Borg Theorem extends to periodic trees, there are several different versions. Since we are optimists, we make these as conjectures, perhaps the most interesting of our conjectures. **Conjecture 5**. Let \mathcal{T} be a regular tree of odd degree. If $H(\mathcal{T})$ is a periodic Jacobi matrix with no gaps in its spectrum, then b is constant and a is constant.

Conjecture 6. Let \mathcal{T} be a regular tree of even degree. If $H(\mathcal{T})$ is a periodic Jacobi matrix with no gaps in its spectrum, then the period is 1.

That means, \mathcal{G} has a single b and $\deg(\mathcal{T})/2$ self loops. **Conjecture 7**. Let \mathcal{T} be a tree which is not regular. If $H(\mathcal{T})$ is a periodic Jacobi matrix, then it must have gaps in its spectrum.

Actually, these are a single conjecture that no gaps implies period 1!



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Actually, these are a single conjecture that no gaps implies period 1! But we wish to emphasize the different forms and the proofs may be different.



Conjecture 8 Let H be a period p Jacobi matrix on a regular tree of even degree.

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Conjecture 8 Let H be a period p Jacobi matrix on a regular tree of even degree. Suppose that the IDS in every gap of H is j/q where q is a proper divisor of p.



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Problem 2 Find an improved definition of period so that the free Jacobi matrix on the degree 3 regular tree has period 1.



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Problem 2 Find an improved definition of period so that the free Jacobi matrix on the degree 3 regular tree has period 1.

Problem 3 Prove a Hochstadt type theorem for general periodic trees with this improved definition of period.



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Nothing shows how little we know about periodic Jacobi matrices on trees than the next set of conjectures!



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Nothing shows how little we know about periodic Jacobi matrices on trees than the next set of conjectures! Let \mathcal{G} be a finite graph. Let $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{G})$ be the set of allowed Jacobi parameters.



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Nothing shows how little we know about periodic Jacobi matrices on trees than the next set of conjectures! Let \mathcal{G} be a finite graph. Let $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{G})$ be the set of allowed Jacobi parameters. It is an open orthant of \mathbb{R}^{p+e} since p+e is the number of vertices plus the number of edges.



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Conjecture 9. The set of parameters with all gaps open is a dense open set in the set of allowed parameters.



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Conjecture 9. The set of parameters with all gaps open is a dense open set in the set of allowed parameters.

We at least know the set is non-empty, for if all b are different and $\sum a < \min_{i \neq j} |b_i - b_j|$, then all gaps are open.



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Conjecture 10 The set of parameters where all gaps are not open is a variety of codimension 2.



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Conjecture 10 The set of parameters where all gaps are not open is a variety of codimension 2.

The problem is we have no way of describing gap edges analogous to periodic and anti-periodic eigenvalues.



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Conjecture 10 The set of parameters where all gaps are not open is a variety of codimension 2.

The problem is we have no way of describing gap edges analogous to periodic and anti-periodic eigenvalues.

Problem 4 Find an effective description of gap edges.



Dimension of Allowed DOS

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We've seen by example that unlike the 1D case, two different periodic Jacobi matrices with the same tree and same period can have different DOS.



Dimension of Allowed DOS

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We've seen by example that unlike the 1D case, two different periodic Jacobi matrices with the same tree and same period can have different DOS.

Problem 5 Classify the possible DOS allowed for a given tree, period and set.



IsoDOS sets



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The analog of having the same spectrum is the fine property of having the same DOS



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The analog of having the same spectrum is the fine property of having the same DOS

Problem 6 *Is the IsoDOS set a manifold? Is it perhaps a torus?*



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The analog of having the same spectrum is the fine property of having the same DOS

Problem 6 *Is the IsoDOS set a manifold? Is it perhaps a torus?*

Problem 7 Is there an natural flow on the IsoDOS set?



In the 1D case, one argues that G_i has a zero in each gap.

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In the 1D case, one argues that G_j has a zero in each gap. Those zeros are associated to poles of either m_+ or m_-



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In the 1D case, one argues that G_j has a zero in each gap. Those zeros are associated to poles of either m_+ or $m_$ and, then, the m_- poles to second sheet poles of m_+ .



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In the 1D case, one argues that G_j has a zero in each gap. Those zeros are associated to poles of either m_+ or $m_$ and, then, the m_- poles to second sheet poles of m_+ .

Problem 8 Explore what connection there is between non-physical sheet poles of an m_j^β and physical sheet poles of the other rooted trees.



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In the 1D case, one argues that G_j has a zero in each gap. Those zeros are associated to poles of either m_+ or $m_$ and, then, the m_- poles to second sheet poles of m_+ .

Problem 8 Explore what connection there is between non-physical sheet poles of an m_j^β and physical sheet poles of the other rooted trees. Resolve the notion that there are d rooted trees and, we suspect, only two branches.



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An enormous amount of information in the 1D case comes from looking at the irreducible representations of the group of symmetries of the problem (i.e. of \mathbb{Z}).



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An enormous amount of information in the 1D case comes from looking at the irreducible representations of the group of symmetries of the problem (i.e. of \mathbb{Z}). **Problem 10** Which irreps of \mathcal{F}_m contribute to the direct

integral decomposition of its action on $\ell^2(\mathcal{T})$.



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I emphasize the following which I didn't mention earlier. In the free case of degree d (Example 1), the top of the spectrum of $2\sqrt{d-1}$



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Problem 11 Determine if the direct integral decomposition is of any use in spectral analysis.



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Problem 11 Determine if the direct integral decomposition is of any use in spectral analysis. In particular, do gap edges have to do with particular irreps?



Aaargh!!!!



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The last question shows how little we understand about these problems.



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The last question shows how little we understand about these problems. While my personal favorite simple question is whether the strong Borg holds for degree three trees, it may be that what will lead to a breakthrough is understanding some effective description of gap edges or even when a gap is open.



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