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Killip-Simon Theorem

Recent Developments in the Spectral Theory of Orthogonal Polynomials

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

Lecture 1: Introduction and Overview



Spectral Theory of Orthogonal Polynomials

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This past year has seen three remarkable developments in the spectral theory of orthogonal and related polynomials.

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In the first lecture, I'll recall the framework of orthogonal polynomials on the real line (OPRL) and unit circle (OPUC)



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In the first lecture, I'll recall the framework of orthogonal polynomials on the real line (OPRL) and unit circle (OPUC) and then focus on two related topics: sum rules (specifically Szegő's theorem as a sum rule and the Killip-Simon theorem) and Szegő asymptotics. The last three lectures will be one each on the new developments.



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

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, as one can prove using Szegő's theorem, 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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Because $\langle P_j, xP_n \rangle = \langle xP_j, P_n \rangle$ (OPRL only)

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Because $\langle P_j, xP_n \rangle = \langle xP_j, P_n \rangle$ (OPRL only) = 0 if j < n - 1, the P's obey a three term recurrence relation:

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



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

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

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

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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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.

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

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

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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

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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

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

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

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)



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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)

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.



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Killip-Simon Theorem 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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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, $P_{n+1} - xP_n \perp \{1, x_1, \dots, x_{n-2}\}$.



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In the OPRL case, $P_{n+1} - xP_n \perp \{1, x_1, \dots, x_{n-2}\}$. In the OPUC case, $\Phi_{n+1} - z\Phi_n \perp \{z, \dots, z^n\}$, since

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

 $\text{ if } j \geq 1. \\$



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if $j \ge 1$.

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



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

In the OPRL case, $P_{n+1} - xP_n \perp \{1, x_1, \dots, x_{n-2}\}$. In the OPUC case, $\Phi_{n+1} - z\Phi_n \perp \{z, \dots, z^n\}$, since $\langle z\Phi_n, z^j \rangle = \langle \Phi_n, z^{j-1} \rangle$

if $j \ge 1$.

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



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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(bad but standard notation!) or

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

Then, * is anti-unitary 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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Applying * for deg n + 1 polynomials to this yields

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

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

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

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Multiplication by z unitary plus * antiunitary \Rightarrow

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

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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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Verblunsky's Theorem. There is a one–one correspondence between Verblunsky coefficients

 $\{\alpha_n\}_{n=0}^\infty \in \mathbb{D}^\infty$

and non-trivial probability measures, μ , of supported on \mathbb{D} .

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For Jacobi, it is similar.



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Verblunsky's Theorem

For Jacobi, it is similar. Instead of $\rho_{n-1} = 0$, we have $a_n = 0$ and there are again 2n - 1 free parameters $\{a_j\}_{j=1}^{n-1} \cup \{b_j\}_{j=1}^n$.



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By a simple argument, $||\Phi_n||^2$ is the minimum of $\int |P(x)|^2 d\mu(x)$ over all monic polynomials of degree n. Thus $||\Phi_n||^2 \le ||z\Phi_{n-1}||^2 = ||\Phi_{n-1}||^2$ so the norms are decreasing and thus have a limit. Szegő identified this limit:



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



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

This has been called the *Szegő-Veblunsky sum rule* (by Gamboa et. al in the work I'll discuss in Lecture 2).



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Less common is information in the other direction.



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Less common is information in the other direction. I invented the name "gems of spectral theory" for equivalences.



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



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Killip-Simon Theorem Sum rules where one side only involves spectral information and one side parameters generate gems by noting the equivalence of the two sides being finite. For this to work easily, both sides have to be positive (or negative) to prevent the issue of cancelling infinities. The Szegő-Veblunsky sum rule implies a gem:

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

This is especially interesting because it implies there exists $\ell^2 \alpha$'s with essentially arbitrary imbedded singular spectrum!



Next, I want to discuss the issue of Szegő Asymptotics.

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Next, I want to discuss the issue of Szegő Asymptotics. If $\int \log(w(\theta)) \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} > -\infty$, one can define a function, D(z) on \mathbb{D} by

$$D(z) = \exp\left(\int \frac{e^{i\theta} + z}{e^{i\theta} - z} \log(w(\theta)) \frac{d\theta}{4\pi}\right)$$

By a cutoff argument, $D \in H^2(\mathbb{D})$ and $|D(e^{i\theta})|^2 = f(\theta)$ in terms of boundary values.

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$$\int |\varphi_n^*(e^{i\theta}) D(e^{i\theta}) - 1|^2 \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} + \int |\varphi_n^*(e^{i\theta})|^2 d\mu_s = 2\left(1 - \prod_{j=n}^\infty \rho_j\right)$$

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LHS =
$$\int \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} + \int |\varphi_n^*(e^{i\theta})|^2 d\mu - 2\operatorname{Re} \int D(e^{i\theta})\varphi_n^*(e^{i\theta})\frac{d\theta}{2\pi}$$

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$$= 2 - 2\operatorname{Re}(D(0)\varphi_n^*(0))$$

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 $= 2 \left[1 - \prod_{j=0}^{\infty} \rho_j \left(\prod_{j=0}^{n-1} \rho_j^{-1} \right) \right]$

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Since RHS $\rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ (if the product converges, i.e., if the Szegő condition holds), each term goes to zero.



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Thus
$$\int |\varphi_n^*(e^{i\theta})|^2 d\mu_s \to 0$$
 and $\varphi_n^* D \to 1$ in $L^2(\partial \mathbb{D}, \frac{d\theta}{2\pi})$.



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Thus, uniformly in $|z| \ge r^{-1} > 1$,

$$z^{-n}\varphi_n(z) \to \left[\overline{D\left(\frac{1}{\overline{z}}\right)}\right]^{-1}$$



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which is called *Szegő asymptotics* for φ_n .



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

called the Szegő condition for [-2, 2].



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Szegő Asymptotics translates to the existence of analytic functions, G, on \mathbb{D} and, \widetilde{G} , on $\mathbb{C} \setminus [-2, 2]$ so that if the Szegő condition for [-2, 2] holds.



$$z^{-n}P_n\left(z+\frac{1}{z}\right) \to G(z)$$

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$$\begin{split} z^{-n}P_n\left(z+\frac{1}{z}\right) &\to G(z) \\ \text{Equivalently, for } x \in \mathbb{C} \setminus [-2,2] \\ &\left(\frac{x}{2} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{x}{2}\right) - 1}\right)^{-n}P_n(x) \to \widetilde{G}(x) \end{split}$$



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$$z^{-n}P_n\left(z+\frac{1}{z}\right)\to G(z)$$

Equivalently, for $x \in \mathbb{C} \setminus [-2, 2]$ $\left(\frac{x}{2} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{x}{2}\right) - 1}\right)^{-n} P_n(x) \to \widetilde{G}(x)$

Various authors allowed adding discrete point spectrum outside [-2, 2] until around 2000, Pehersdorfer-Yuditskii and Killip-Simon got the ultimate result in cases where the Szegő condition for [-2, 2] holds.



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Various authors allowed adding discrete point spectrum outside [-2, 2] until around 2000, Pehersdorfer-Yuditskii and Killip-Simon got the ultimate result in cases where the Szegő condition for [-2, 2] holds. In 2006, Damanik-Simon found necessary and sufficient condition on the Jacobi parameters for Szegő Asymptotics to hold that, surprisingly to some, included some for which the Szegő condition for [-2, 2] fails.



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1 It is harmonic and positive on $\mathbb{C} \setminus \mathfrak{e}$



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- 1 It is harmonic and positive on $\mathbb{C} \setminus \mathfrak{e}$
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It is harmonic and positive on C \ e
 For q.e. x ∈ e, the boundary value is 0
 G_e(z) - log |z| is harmonic at ∞

Moreover, near ∞

$$\exp(G_{\mathfrak{e}}(z)) = \frac{|z|}{C(\mathfrak{e})} + \mathcal{O}(1)$$

where $C(\mathfrak{e})$ is the logarithmic capacity of \mathfrak{e} which is 1 for $\mathfrak{e}=[-2,2]).$



In 2000, Rowan Killip and I proved the following OPRL analog of Szegő's Theorem.

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Killip–Simon Theorem Let $d\mu(x) = f(x) dx + d\mu_s$ with Jacobi parameters $\{a_n, b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$. Then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n - 1)^2 + b_n^2 < \infty$$

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$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n - 1)^2 + b_n^2 < \infty$$

if and only if

(i) (Blumental–Weyl) $\sigma_{ess}(J) = ess \operatorname{supp}(d\mu) = [-2, 2]$, i.e., $\operatorname{supp}(d\mu)$ is a set of pure points whose only possible limit points are ± 2 : $E_1^- < E_2^- < \ldots < -2$; $2 < \ldots < E_2^+ < E_1^+$.

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(ii) (Lieb-Thirring) $\sum_{\pm,j} (|E_j^{\pm}| - 2)^{3/2} < \infty$. (iii) (Quasi-Szegő) $\int (x^2 - 4)^{1/2} \log (f(x)) dx < \infty$.

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If
$$J_0$$
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Weyl's Theorem says $J - J_0$ compact $\Rightarrow \sigma_{ess}(J) = \sigma_{ess}(J_0) = [-2, 2].$



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$L_{1} = 0$ the L^{2} condition

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$$\operatorname{Tr}((J-J_0)^2) < \infty$$

Weyl's Theorem says $J - J_0$ compact $\Rightarrow \sigma_{ess}(J) = \sigma_{ess}(J_0) = [-2, 2]$. Note that it is theorem of Weyl-von Neumann that any self-adjoint operator has a Hilbert–Schmidt perturbation that is dense pure–point. So Killip–Simon says Jacobi perturbations of Jacobi matrices are from different from the general case!

For Schrödinger operators in 1D (and so on half line), Lieb–Thirring proved (initially for $p > \frac{1}{2}$, $p = \frac{1}{2}$ is Weidl and then Hundertmark–Lieb–Thomas)

$$\sum_{E_j,\pm} |E_j^{\pm}|^p \le C_p \int_0^\infty |V(x)|^{p+\frac{1}{2}}$$



Hundertmark–Simon (Killip–Simon for
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$$\sum \left(|E_j^{\pm}| - 2 \right)^p \le \widetilde{C}_p \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |a_j - 1|^{p + \frac{1}{2}} + |b_j|^{p + \frac{1}{2}}$$



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Quasi-Sezgő because power is $+\frac{1}{2}$, not $-\frac{1}{2}$ of Szegő condition.



Define
$$F$$
 on $\mathbb{R} \setminus [-2, 2]$ by $(|\beta| > 1)$
 $F(\beta + \beta^{-1}) = \frac{1}{4} [\beta^2 - \beta^{-2} - \log(\beta^4)];$
 $F(E) = \frac{1}{2} \int_2^{|E|} (y^2 - 4)^{\frac{1}{2}} dy$

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so $F(E) > 0$ and $F(E) = \frac{2}{3} (|E| - 2)^{\frac{3}{2}} + O((|E| - 2)^{\frac{5}{2}}).$

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Define $G(a) = a^2 - 1 - \log(a^2)$, so
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$$\begin{array}{l} \text{Define } F \text{ on } \mathbb{R} \setminus [-2,2] \text{ by } (|\beta| > 1) \\ F(\beta + \beta^{-1}) = \frac{1}{4} \big[\beta^2 - \beta^{-2} - \log(\beta^4) \big]; \\ F(E) = \frac{1}{2} \int_2^{|E|} (y^2 - 4)^{\frac{1}{2}} \, dy \\ \text{so } F(E) > 0 \text{ and } F(E) = \frac{2}{3} \big(|E| - 2 \big)^{\frac{3}{2}} + O\big((|E| - 2)^{\frac{5}{2}} \big). \\ \text{Define } G(a) = a^2 - 1 - \log(a^2), \text{ so} \\ G(a) > 0 \text{ on } (0, \infty) \setminus \{1\}; \ G(a) = 2(a - 1)^2 + O\big((a - 1)^3\big). \\ Q(\mu) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_{-2}^2 \log\big(\frac{\sqrt{4 - x^2}}{2\pi f(x)} \big) \sqrt{4 - x^2} \, dx \end{array}$$

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 $Q(\mu) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_{-2}^2 \log(\frac{\sqrt{4-x^2}}{2\pi f(x)}) \sqrt{4 - x^2} dx$
 P_2 -Sum Rule:
 $Q(\mu) + \sum F(E_n^{\pm}) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [\frac{1}{4} b_n^2 + \frac{1}{2} G(a_n)]$
if $\sigma_{\text{ess}}(\mu) = [-2, 2]$



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$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{RHS} &< \infty \Leftrightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n^2 + (a_n - 1)^2 < \infty. \\ \mathsf{LHS} &< \infty \Leftrightarrow \mathsf{Quasi-Szeg} \tilde{o} + \sum_{n,\pm} \left(|E_n^{\pm}| - 2 \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} < \infty. \end{aligned}$$



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Case had formal sum rules depending on terms in a Taylor series.



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Case had formal sum rules depending on terms in a Taylor series. We called them C_n sum rules.



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Case had formal sum rules depending on terms in a Taylor series. We called them C_n sum rules. The P_2 sum rules is $C_0 + \frac{1}{2}C_2$.



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Case had formal sum rules depending on terms in a Taylor series. We called them C_n sum rules. The P_2 sum rules is $C_0 + \frac{1}{2}C_2$. It happens that due to mysterious cancelations, the terms in this combination are positive, which is why we used "P".



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Nazarov-Peherstorfer-Volberg-Yuditskii and then, Denisov Kupin for OPUC, did find ways of generating positive sum rules but they didn't seem to be calculationally tractable.



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