



Spectral Theory of Orthogonal Polynomials

Periodic and Ergodic Spectral Problems

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Lecture 5: Isospectral Tori

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- Lecture 1: Introduction and Overview
- Lecture 2: Szegő Theorem for OPUC
- Lecture 3: Three Kinds of Polynomial Asymptotics
- Lecture 4: Potential Theory
- **Lecture 5: Isospectral Tori**
- Lecture 6: Fuchsian Groups
- Lecture 7: Chebyshev Polynomials, I
- Lecture 8: Chebyshev Polynomials, II

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

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Floquet Solutions

We turn next to two sided periodic Jacobi matrices, their isospectral tori and use that as a jump off to the start of finite gap isospectral tori which will involve some almost periodic examples.

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So $\{a_n, b_n\}_{n=-\infty}^{\infty}$ are two-sided sequences with some $p > 0$ in \mathbb{Z} so that

$$a_{n+p} = a_n \quad b_{n+p} = b_n$$

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For $z \in \mathbb{C}$ fixed, we are interested in solutions $\{u_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ of

$$a_n u_{n+1} + b_n u_n + a_{n-1} u_{n-1} = z u_n$$

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Floquet Solutions

that also obey for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ ($\lambda = e^{i\theta}$, $\theta \in \mathbb{C}$)

$$u_{n+p} = \lambda u_n$$

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Such solutions are called *Floquet solutions* as they are analogs of solutions of ODE, especially Hill's equation $-u'' + Vu = zu$, $V(x+p) = V(x)$.

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The analysis of such solutions is a delightful amalgam of three tools,

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Thus, there are, for z fixed, at most two different λ 's for which there is a solution.

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Periodic B.C. Jacobi Matrices

The (twisted) periodic boundary condition Jacobi matrix $J^{\text{per}, \lambda}$ is $p \times p$.

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If $\{u_n\}_{n=-\infty}^{\infty}$ is a Floquet solution, $u_0 = \lambda^{-1}u_p$,
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If $\{u_n\}_{n=-\infty}^{\infty}$ is a Floquet solution, $u_0 = \lambda^{-1}u_p$, $u_{p+1} = \lambda u_1$ so $\tilde{u} = \{u_n\}_{n=1}^p$ has $J^{\text{per}, \lambda} \tilde{u} = z \tilde{u}$.

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If $\{u_n\}_{n=-\infty}^{\infty}$ is a Floquet solution, $u_0 = \lambda^{-1}u_p$, $u_{p+1} = \lambda u_1$ so $\tilde{u} = \{u_n\}_{n=1}^p$ has $J^{\text{per}, \lambda} \tilde{u} = z \tilde{u}$.

Conversely, if \tilde{u} solves this, the unique u with $u_{n+p} = \lambda u_n$ and $\tilde{u} = \{u_n\}_{n=1}^p$ is a Floquet solution.

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Periodic B.C. Jacobi Matrices

This implies

- For any λ , there are at most p z 's which have a Floquet solution for that λ .

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- If $\lambda = e^{i\theta}$, $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$, $\lambda \neq \pm 1$, there are precisely p distinct z 's all real, for which there are Floquet solutions with that λ .

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The reality comes from hermicity of $J^{\text{per},\lambda}$.

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If $\lambda \neq \pm 1$, then $\bar{\lambda} \neq \lambda$. If u is a Floquet solution for λ , since z is real, \bar{u} is a Floquet solution for $\bar{\lambda}$ so there is a unique solution for that z .

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The reality comes from hermicity of $J^{\text{per},\lambda}$.

If $\lambda \neq \pm 1$, then $\bar{\lambda} \neq \lambda$. If u is a Floquet solution for λ , since z is real, \bar{u} is a Floquet solution for $\bar{\lambda}$ so there is a unique solution for that z . Thus, for $\lambda \in \partial\mathbb{D} \setminus \{\pm 1\}$, $J^{\text{per},\lambda}$ has p eigenvalues and each simple.



The Discriminant

The third tool concerns the p -step transfer matrix.

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The Discriminant

The third tool concerns the p -step transfer matrix.

$T_p(z) \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ a_0 u_0 \end{pmatrix} = \lambda \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ a_0 u_0 \end{pmatrix}$ is equivalent to $\begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ a_0 u_0 \end{pmatrix}$ generating a Floquet solution !

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In terms of the OP's for $\{a_n, b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$,

$$T_p(z) = \begin{pmatrix} p_p(z) & -q_p(z) \\ a_p p_{p-1}(z) & -a_p q_{p-1}(z) \end{pmatrix}$$

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The discriminant, $\Delta(z)$, is defined by

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The discriminant, $\Delta(z)$, is defined by

$$\Delta(z) = \text{Tr}(T_p(z)) = p_p(z) - a_p q_{p-1}(z)$$

is a (real) polynomial of degree exactly p .

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Since $\det(T_p(z)) = 1$, it has algebraic eigenvalues λ and λ^{-1} where

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The Discriminant

Since $\det(T_p(z)) = 1$, it has algebraic eigenvalues λ and λ^{-1} where

$$\Delta(z) = \lambda + \lambda^{-1}; \quad \Delta(z) = 2 \cos \theta \text{ if } \lambda = e^{i\theta}$$

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Floquet solutions correspond to geometric eigenvalues for $T_p(z)$. If $\lambda \neq \pm 1$, it has multiplicity one, so is geometric. $\lambda = \pm 1$ has multiplicity 2, so there can be one or two Floquet solutions.

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An important consequence of the fact that $\Delta(z) \in (-2, 2)$ implies all z 's are real is

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An important consequence of the fact that $\Delta(z) \in (-2, 2)$ implies all z 's are real is $\Delta^{-1}[(-2, 2)] \subset \mathbb{R}$.

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The Discriminant

A basic fact of analytic functions is that if $f(z)$ is real (i.e., $f(\bar{z}) = \overline{f(z)}$), $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ with $f'(x_0) = 0$, there are non-real z 's near x_0 with $f(z)$ real and near $f(x_0)$.

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Thus, $\Delta^{-1}[(-2, 2)] \subset \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow \Delta'(x_0) \neq 0$ if $\Delta(x_0) \in (-2, 2)$.

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Thus, $\Delta^{-1}[(-2, 2)] \subset \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow \Delta'(x_0) \neq 0$ if $\Delta(x_0) \in (-2, 2)$.

Thus, $\Delta^{-1}[(-2, 2)] = (\alpha_1, \beta_1) \cup (\alpha_2, \beta_2) \cup \dots \cup (\alpha_p, \beta_p)$

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A basic fact of analytic functions is that if $f(z)$ is real (i.e., $f(\bar{z}) = \overline{f(z)}$), $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ with $f'(x_0) = 0$, there are non-real z 's near x_0 with $f(z)$ real and near $f(x_0)$.

Thus, $\Delta^{-1}[(-2, 2)] \subset \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow \Delta'(x_0) \neq 0$ if $\Delta(x_0) \in (-2, 2)$.

Thus, $\Delta^{-1}[(-2, 2)] = (\alpha_1, \beta_1) \cup (\alpha_2, \beta_2) \cup \dots \cup (\alpha_p, \beta_p)$

where $\alpha_1 < \beta_1 \leq \alpha_2 < \beta_2 \leq \alpha_3 < \dots < \beta_p$

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with Δ a smooth bijection of (α_j, β_j) to $(-2, 2)$.

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Could be orientation reversing or not.

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The Discriminant

Since $\Delta(x) \rightarrow \infty$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$, we must have $\Delta(\beta_p) = 2$.

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The Discriminant

Since $\Delta(x) \rightarrow \infty$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$, we must have $\Delta(\beta_p) = 2$.

It follows that $\Delta(\alpha_p) = -2$, $\Delta(\beta_{p-1}) = -2$,
 $\Delta(\alpha_{p-1}) = 2 \dots$, i.e.,

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$$\Delta(\beta_j) = (-1)^{p-j}2, \quad \Delta(\alpha_j) = (-1)^{p-j-1}2$$

If the α 's and β 's are all distinct, we have p points where $\Delta(x) = 2$ and p where $\Delta(x) = -2$.

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Since $\deg \Delta = p$, these are all the points.

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If $\beta_{j-1} = \alpha_j$, there is one less point where $\Delta(x) = (-1)^{p-j-1}2$,

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If $\beta_{j-1} = \alpha_j$, there is one less point where $\Delta(x) = (-1)^{p-j-1}2$, but $\Delta'(\alpha_j) = 0$ since $\Delta - (-1)^{p-j-1}2$ has the same sign on both sides of α_j . It follows that

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Open and Closed Gaps

Theorem. $\Delta^{-1}([-2, 2]) = \cup_{j=1}^p [\alpha_j, \beta_j]$ *and*

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Open and Closed Gaps

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$\Delta'(\alpha_j) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \alpha_j = \beta_{j-1}$, $\Delta'(\beta_j) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \beta_j = \alpha_{j+1}$

and in that case, Δ'' is not zero at that point.

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The $[\alpha_j, \beta_j]$ are called the *bands* and (β_j, α_{j+1}) the *gaps*.

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If $\beta_j < \alpha_{j+1}$, we say that gap j is open.

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The $[\alpha_j, \beta_j]$ are called the *bands* and (β_j, α_{j+1}) the *gaps*.

If $\beta_j < \alpha_{j+1}$, we say that gap j is open.

If $\beta_j = \alpha_{j+1}$, we say gap j is closed.

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Open and Closed Gaps

Further analysis shows at a closed gap (with $\Delta(\alpha) = 2$ for simplicity) there are two periodic (Floquet) solutions,

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Open and Closed Gaps

Further analysis shows at a closed gap (with $\Delta(\alpha) = 2$ for simplicity) there are two periodic (Floquet) solutions, while at each of the edges of an open gap there is only one periodic (Floquet) solution.

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Open and Closed Gaps

Further analysis shows at a closed gap (with $\Delta(\alpha) = 2$ for simplicity) there are two periodic (Floquet) solutions, while at each of the edges of an open gap there is only one periodic (Floquet) solution. The transfer matrix has a Jordan anomaly, i.e., $\det = 1$, $\text{Tr} = 2$, but $T \neq \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

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Each of the gaps where $\Delta(x) \geq 2$ has two periodic solutions—either two at $\beta_j = \alpha_{j+1}$ or one each at β_j and α_{j+1}

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Each of the gaps where $\Delta(x) \geq 2$ has two periodic solutions—either two at $\beta_j = \alpha_{j+1}$ or one each at β_j and α_{j+1} so there are p periodic Floquet solutions, as there must be from the J^{per} analysis.

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Spectrum and Spectral Types

If z is such that $\Delta(z) \notin [-2, 2]$, then the roots of $\lambda + \lambda^{-1} = \Delta(z)$ have $|\lambda| > 1$, $|\lambda^{-1}| < 1$.

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Spectrum and Spectral Types

If z is such that $\Delta(z) \notin [-2, 2]$, then the roots of $\lambda + \lambda^{-1} = \Delta(z)$ have $|\lambda| > 1$, $|\lambda^{-1}| < 1$. It follows that there are different solutions u_{\pm} decaying exponentially at $\pm\infty$ so their Wronskian is not zero.

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$$G_{nm}(z) = u_{\max(n,m)}^+(z)u_{\min(m,n)}^-(z)/W(z)$$

is the matrix for $(J - z)^{-1}$, i.e., $z \notin \sigma(J)$.

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If $\Delta(z) \in [-2, 2]$, there is a bounded Floquet solution (since $|\lambda| = 1$). Then $\|(J - z)[u\chi_{[-N,N]}\|$ is bounded,

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If $\Delta(z) \in [-2, 2]$, there is a bounded Floquet solution (since $|\lambda| = 1$). Then $\|(J - z)[u\chi_{[-N,N]}\|$ is bounded, but since $\sum_{j=1}^p |u_{m+j}|^2$ is constant, $\|u\chi_{[-N,N]}\| \rightarrow \infty$ so $z \in \sigma(J)$. Thus

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Theorem. $\sigma(J) = \cup_{j=1}^p [\alpha_j, \beta_j]$.

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Spectrum and Spectral Types

If $\Delta(z) \in (-2, 2)$, we get that all solutions are bounded at $\pm\infty$

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Spectrum and Spectral Types

If $\Delta(z) \in (-2, 2)$, we get that all solutions are bounded at $\pm\infty$ and then by a Wronskian argument, $|u_n|^2 + |u_{n+1}|^2$ is bounded from below.

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If $\Delta(z) \in (-2, 2)$, we get that all solutions are bounded at $\pm\infty$ and then by a Wronskian argument, $|u_n|^2 + |u_{n+1}|^2$ is bounded from below. So by a Carmona-type formula, one should expect purely a.c. spectrum.

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Here is a replacement: Away from the bands, $G_{nn} = u_n^+ u_n^- / W$ as we've seen.

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Here is a replacement: Away from the bands, $G_{nn} = u_n^+ u_n^- / W$ as we've seen. By continuity of eigenfunctions of transfer matrix in z , u_n^\pm has a limit at $z = x + i\varepsilon$ with $\varepsilon \downarrow 0$ which are Floquet solutions.

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Here is a replacement: Away from the bands, $G_{nn} = u_n^+ u_n^- / W$ as we've seen. By continuity of eigenfunctions of transfer matrix in z , u_n^\pm has a limit at $z = x + i\varepsilon$ with $\varepsilon \downarrow 0$ which are Floquet solutions. This is true at least at interiors of bands where the transfer matrix has distinct eigenvalues.

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Spectrum and Spectral Types

W is non-vanishing on each (α_j, β_j) since u^+ and u^- are distinct Floquet solutions ($e^{\pm i\theta}$).

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Spectrum and Spectral Types

W is non-vanishing on each (α_j, β_j) since u^+ and u^- are distinct Floquet solutions ($e^{\pm i\theta}$). Thus, $G_{nn}(z)$ is continuous from \mathbb{C}_+ to $\mathbb{C}_+ \cup \mathbb{R} \setminus \{\alpha_j, \beta_j\}_{j=1}^p$.

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But if $\mu^{(n)}$ is the spectral measure of δ_n :

$$G_{nn}(z) = \int \frac{d\mu^{(n)}(x)}{x - z}$$

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But if $\mu^{(n)}$ is the spectral measure of δ_n :

$$G_{nn}(z) = \int \frac{d\mu^{(n)}(x)}{x - z}$$

The continuity implies $d\mu^{(n)}$ is purely a.c., so we have proven

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But if $\mu^{(n)}$ is the spectral measure of δ_n :

$$G_{nn}(z) = \int \frac{d\mu^{(n)}(x)}{x - z}$$

The continuity implies $d\mu^{(n)}$ is purely a.c., so we have proven

Theorem. *A periodic two-sided Jacobi matrix has purely absolutely continuous spectrum.*

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Spectrum and Spectral Types

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One can write out an explicit spectral representation with Floquet solutions with $z \in (\alpha_j, \beta_j)$ as continuum eigenfunctions.

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Potential Theory

We start with a puzzle. Δ determines
 $\alpha_1 < \beta_1 \leq \alpha_2 < \beta_2 \leq \dots$ as the roots of $\Delta^2 - 4$.

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That constant is determined by α_p when Δ is -2 . Thus, $\beta_p, \alpha_{p-1}, \beta_{p-2}$ plus α_p determine the remaining $p - 1$ α 's and β 's.

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The answer will lie in potential theory.

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Potential Theory

For any $z \in \mathbb{C}$, there are two Floquet indices, λ_{\pm} , solving $\lambda + \lambda^{-1} = \Delta(z)$.

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Potential Theory

For any $z \in \mathbb{C}$, there are two Floquet indices, λ_{\pm} , solving $\lambda + \lambda^{-1} = \Delta(z)$. If $|\lambda_{+}| \geq 1$, we see that

$$\gamma(z) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log \|T_n(\lambda)\| = \frac{1}{p} \log |\lambda_{+}(z)|$$

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Solving the quadratic equation for λ

$$\gamma(z) = \frac{1}{p} \left[\log \left| \frac{\Delta(z)}{2} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{\Delta(z)}{2}\right)^2 - 1} \right| \right]$$

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On $\epsilon = \cup_{j=1}^p [\alpha_j, \beta_j]$, $|\dots| = 1$, so $\gamma(z) \geq 0$,

$\gamma(z) = 0$ on ϵ .

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On $\mathfrak{e} = \cup_{j=1}^p [\alpha_j, \beta_j]$, $|\dots| = 1$, so $\gamma(z) \geq 0$,

$\gamma(z) = 0$ on \mathfrak{e} . $\gamma(z)$ is harmonic on $\mathbb{C} \setminus \mathfrak{e}$

since $\frac{\Delta}{2} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{\Delta}{2}\right)^2 - 1}$ is analytic and non-vanishing there and $\gamma(z) = \log(|z|) + O(1)$ at ∞ , since $\Delta(z)$ is a degree p polynomial.

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Potential Theory

Thus $\gamma(z) = G_\epsilon(z)$ is the potential theorists' Green's function. Therefore, as we saw in Lecture 4,

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Thus $\gamma(z) = G_\epsilon(z)$ is the potential theorists' Green's function. Therefore, as we saw in Lecture 4,

Theorem. $\gamma(z)$ as given above is the potential theorists' Green's function and periodic Jacobi parameters are associated to regular measures (in the Stahl–Totik sense).

Corollary. $C(\epsilon) = (a_1 \cdots a_p)^{1/p}$

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By general principles, if G_ϵ is smooth up to ϵ on ϵ^{int} , the equilibrium measure $d\rho_\epsilon(x) = f_\epsilon(x)dx$ where

$$f_\epsilon(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} G_\epsilon(x + iy) \Big|_{y=0}$$

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Thus, the equilibrium measure is

$$f_\epsilon(z) = \frac{1}{p\pi} \frac{|\Delta'(x)|}{\sqrt{4 - \Delta^2(x)}} = \frac{1}{p\pi} \left| \frac{d}{dx} \arccos\left(\frac{\Delta(x)}{2}\right) \right|$$

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Potential Theory

In each, band $\Delta(\lambda)$ goes from -2 to 2 , so $\arccos(\frac{\Delta}{2})$ from π to 0 . Thus,

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This explains the puzzle mentioned earlier.

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This is also a density of zeros way of understanding why the above f_ϵ is the DOS.

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This is also a density of zeros way of understanding why the above f_ϵ is the DOS. For the periodic eigenfunctions with a box of size kp are the Floquet solutions with $\lambda = e^{2\pi ij/k}$, $j = 0, 1, 2, \dots, k - 1$.

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Weyl Solutions

An important property of second kind OPRL, sometimes used as the definition is that for $n \geq 0$,

$$q_n(x) = \int \frac{p_n(x) - p_n(y)}{x - y} d\mu(y)$$

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$$m_\mu(z) = \int \frac{d\mu(x)}{x - z}$$

$$w_n(x) \equiv \langle p_n, (\bullet - z)^{-1} \rangle = q_n(x) + m(x)p_n(x)$$

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If $\inf a_n > 0$, constancy of the Wronskian shows this is the unique ℓ^2 -solution.

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Coefficient Stripping and Continued Fractions

In terms of initial data for $\begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ a_0 u_0 \end{pmatrix}$, the Weyl solution has initial data $\begin{pmatrix} m(z) \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$.

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

which upon iterations yields the continued fraction of Jacobi, Markov and Stieltjes:

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

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Quadratic Equations

In the period p case, stripping p times leave J invariant

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Quadratic Equations

In the period p case, stripping p times leave J invariant so m must obey:

$$\begin{pmatrix} p_p(z) & -q_p(z) \\ a_p p_{p-1}(z) & -a_p q_{p-1}(z) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} m(z) \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} m(z) \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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which leads to the quadratic equation

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$$\alpha(z)m(z)^2 + \beta(z)m(z) + \gamma(z) = 0 \quad \alpha(z) = a_p p_{p-1}(z)$$

$$\beta(z) = p_p(z) + a_p q_{p-1}(z) \quad \gamma(z) = q_p(z)$$

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which leads to the quadratic equation

$$\alpha(z)m(z)^2 + \beta(z)m(z) + \gamma(z) = 0 \quad \alpha(z) = a_p p_{p-1}(z)$$

$$\beta(z) = p_p(z) + a_p q_{p-1}(z) \quad \gamma(z) = q_p(z)$$

This is reminiscent of the results of Legendre and Galois on numeric continued fractions.

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Quadratic Equations

In the period p case, stripping p times leave J invariant so m must obey:

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This is reminiscent of the results of Legendre and Galois on numeric continued fractions.

By a direct calculation, the two discriminants are related by

$$\beta^2 - 4\alpha\gamma = \sqrt{\Delta(z)^2 - 4}$$

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Riemann Surface of the m -function

We have thus proven that the m -function of a periodic Jacobi matrix has a continuation as a meromorphic function on the two sheeted Riemann surface of $\sqrt{\Delta(z)^2 - 4}$, \mathcal{S} ,

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Riemann Surface of the m-function

We have thus proven that the m-function of a periodic Jacobi matrix has a continuation as a meromorphic function on the two sheeted Riemann surface of $\sqrt{\Delta(z)^2 - 4}$, \mathcal{S} , including points at infinity.

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Further analysis shows any meromorphic function which is different on the two sheets has degree at least $\ell + 1$.

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Further analysis shows any meromorphic function which is different on the two sheets has degree at least $\ell + 1$. Moreover the m -function has a pole at ∞ on the “top” sheet and

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Moreover the m -function has a pole at ∞ on the “top” sheet and in order that $\text{Im } m$ not change sign over a gap, on the two sheeted surface, m must have a pole in each of the ℓ gaps.

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Those points on the surface which “project down” to a gap, are a circle

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Those points on the surface which “project down” to a gap, are a circle - two intervals glued together at the ends.

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Dirichlet Data

There is thus a map from the m -function to the set of points on the product over the gaps of the points on the surface that project down to that gap, i.e. onto a ℓ -dimensional torus.

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Dirichlet Data

There is thus a map from the m -function to the set of points on the product over the gaps of the points on the surface that project down to that gap, i.e. onto a ℓ -dimensional torus. Moreover, if we consider the map as defined on all periodic Jacobi matrices with a given discriminant, Δ , one can prove with some effort that this map is a bijection.

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The possible m-functions are thus precisely the Herglotz functions (i.e. analytic functions in the upper half plane with positive imaginary part) that have an meromorphic continuation to the Riemann surface of $\sqrt{\Delta(z)^2 - 4}$ that have minimal degree and which are normalized to look like $-/z$ near ∞ . Christiansen, Simon and Zinchenko call these *minimal Herglotz functions*.

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Finite Gap Sets

Now consider a general compact subset $\epsilon \subset \mathbb{R}$ which has $\ell + 1$ components so its complement in \mathbb{R} has ℓ gaps.

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Finite Gap Sets

Now consider a general compact subset $\epsilon \subset \mathbb{R}$ which has $\ell + 1$ components so its complement in \mathbb{R} has ℓ gaps. Thus

$$\epsilon = [\alpha_1, \beta_1] \cup [\alpha_2, \beta_2] \cup \dots \cup [\alpha_{\ell+1}, \beta_{\ell+1}]$$

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where the meaning of the α 's and β 's has changed subtly from the prior notation when we have a periodic problem with closed gaps.

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where the meaning of the α 's and β 's has changed subtly from the prior notation when we have a periodic problem with closed gaps.

The same method which we didn't describe that constructs minimal Herglotz functions in the periodic case lets us do the same for the Riemann surface of

$$\sqrt{\prod_{j=1}^{\ell+1} (z - \alpha_j)(z - \beta_j)}$$

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Almost Periodic Isospectral Torus

There is again an ℓ dimensional torus of half line Jacobi matrices, each of them almost periodic with essential spectrum exactly equal to ϵ .

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Almost Periodic Isospectral Torus

There is again an ℓ dimensional torus of half line Jacobi matrices, each of them almost periodic with essential spectrum exactly equal to ϵ . The frequency spectrum of the almost periodic function is generated by the harmonic measures of the intervals, i.e. $\rho_\epsilon([\alpha_j, \beta_j])$.

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Theorem Every finite gap set, ϵ has an isospectral torus of almost periodic Jacobi matrices associated to it.

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Theorem Every finite gap set, ϵ has an isospectral torus of almost periodic Jacobi matrices associated to it. These are all periodic with period p if and only if each band has harmonic measure $\frac{j}{p}$ for $j \in \{1, \dots, p-1\}$.

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