# CONVERGENCE RADII FOR EIGENVALUES OF TRI-DIAGONAL MATRICES

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ABSTRACT. Consider a family of infinite tri-diagonal matrices of the form L+zB, where the matrix L is diagonal with entries  $L_{kk}=k^2$ , and the matrix B is off-diagonal, with nonzero entries  $B_{k,k+1}=B_{k+1,k}=k^{\alpha},\ 0\leq\alpha<2$ . The spectrum of L+zB is discrete. For small |z| the n-th eigenvalue  $E_n(z),\ E_n(0)=n^2$ , is a well-defined analytic function. Let  $R_n$  be the convergence radius of its Taylor's series about z=0. It is proved that

$$R_n \le C(\alpha)n^{2-\alpha}$$
 if  $0 \le \alpha < 11/6$ .

### 1. Introduction

Since the famous 1969 paper of C. Bender and T. Wu [2], branching points and the crossings of energy levels have been studied intensively in the mathematical and physical literature (e.g., [8, 1, 4, 3] and the bibliography there). In this paper our goal is to analyze – mostly along the lines of J. Meixner and F. Schäfke approach [10] – a toy model of tri–diagonal matrices.

We consider the operator family L + zB, where L and B are infinite matrices of the form

$$(1.1) L = \begin{bmatrix} q_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdot \\ 0 & q_2 & 0 & 0 & \cdot \\ 0 & 0 & q_3 & 0 & \cdot \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & q_4 & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & b_1 & 0 & 0 & \cdot \\ c_1 & 0 & b_2 & 0 & \cdot \\ 0 & c_2 & 0 & b_3 & \cdot \\ 0 & 0 & c_3 & 0 & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \end{bmatrix}$$

with

$$(1.2) q_k = k^2,$$

$$(1.3) |b_k|, |c_k| \le Mk^{\alpha},$$

$$(1.4) \alpha < 2.$$

Sometimes we impose a symmetry condition:

$$(1.5) b_k = \bar{c_k}.$$

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Under the conditions (1.2)–(1.4) the spectrum of L + zB is discrete. If  $\alpha < 1$  then a standard use of perturbation theory shows that there is r > 0 such that for |z| < r

(1.6) 
$$Sp(L+zB) = \{E_n(z)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}, \quad E_n(0) = n^2,$$

where each  $E_n(z)$  is well-defined analytic function in the disc  $\{z : |z| < r\}$ . If  $\alpha \in [1,2)$ , then in general there is no such r > 0. But the fact that  $n^2$  is a simple eigenvalue of L guarantees (see [9], Chapter 7, Sections 1-3) that for each n there exists  $r_n > 0$  such that, on the disc  $\{z : |z| < r_n\}$ , there are an analytic function  $E_n(z)$  and an analytic eigenvector function  $\varphi_n(z)$  with

$$(1.7) (L+zB)\varphi_n(z) = E_n(z)\varphi_n(z), |z| < r_n,$$

(1.8) 
$$\varphi_n(0) = e_n, \ E_n(0) = n^2.$$

Let

$$(1.9) E_n(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k(n) z^k$$

be the Taylor series of  $E_n(z)$  about 0, and let  $R_n$ ,  $0 < R_n \le \infty$ , be its radius of convergence. The asymptotic behavior of the sequence  $(R_n)$  is one of the main topics of the present paper.

It may happen that  $R_n > r_n$ . Then, by (1.9),  $E_n(z)$  is defined in the disc  $\{z : |z| < R_n\}$  as an extension of the analytic function (1.7) in  $\{z : |z| < r_n\}$ . But are its values  $E_n(z)$  eigenvalues of L + zB if z is in the annulus  $r_n \le |z| < R_n$ ? The answer is positive as one can see from the next considerations.

In a more general context let us define Spectral Riemann Surface

(1.10) 
$$G = \{(z, E) : \exists g \in Dom(L), g \neq 0 \mid (L + zB)g = Eg\}.$$

This notion is justified by the following statement (coming from K. Weierstrass, H. Poincare, T. Carlemann – see discussions on the related history in [6, 11, 7]).

**Proposition 1.** If (1.1)–(1.4) hold, then there exists a nonzero entire function  $\Phi(z, w)$  such that

(1.11) 
$$G = \{(z, w) \in \mathbb{C}^2 : \Phi(z, w) = 0\}.$$

*Proof.* The identity

$$(1.12) \hspace{1cm} (L+zB)g=wg, \quad g\neq 0, \quad g\in Dom(L)$$

is equivalent to

(1.13) 
$$(1 - A(z, w))h = 0$$
 with  $h = L^{1/2}g \in Dom(L^{1/2}), h \neq 0$ ,

where

(1.14) 
$$A(z,w) = -zL^{-1/2}BL^{-1/2} + wL^{-1}.$$

Therefore, w is an eigenvalue of the operator L + zB if and only if 1 is an eigenvalue of the operator A(z, w).

On the space  $S_1$  of trace class operators T the determinant

$$(1.15) d(T) = \det(1 - T)$$

is well defined (see [6], Chapter 4, Section 1 or [12], Chapter 3, Theorem 3.4), and  $1 \in Sp(T)$  if and only if d(T) = 0 (see [12], Theorem 3.5 (b)).

Of course, the second term  $L^{-1}$  in (1.14) is an operator of trace class (even in  $S_p, p > 1/2$ ) by (1.2). But (1.3)–(1.4) imply that  $L^{-1/2}BL^{-1/2}$  is in the Schatten class  $S_p, p > 1/(2-\alpha)$ ; only  $\alpha < 1$  would guarantee that it is of trace class.

However, (1.15) could be adjusted (see [6] Chapter 4, Section 2 or [12], Chapter 9, Lemma 9.1 and Theorem 9.2). Namely, for any positive integer  $p \geq 2$  we set

(1.16) 
$$d_p(T) = \det(1 - Q_p(T))$$

where

$$Q_p(T) = 1 - (1 - T) \exp\left(T + \frac{T^2}{2} + \dots + \frac{T^{p-1}}{p-1}\right).$$

Then  $Q_p(T) \in S_1$  if  $T \in S_p$ , so  $d_p$  is a well-defined function of  $T \in S_p$  and  $1 \in S_p(T)$  if and only if  $d_p(T) = 0$ .

In our context we define, with  $A(z, w) \in (1.14)$  and  $p > 1/(2 - \alpha)$ ,

(1.17) 
$$\Phi(z, w) = \det \left[ (1 - Q_p(A(z, w))) \right].$$

Now, from Claim 8, Section 1.3, Chapter 4 in [6] it follows that  $\Phi(z, w)$  is an entire function on  $\mathbb{C}^2$ .

The function  $\Phi$  vanishes at (z, w) if and only if 1 is an eigenvalue of the operator A(z, w), i.e., if and only if  $(z, w) \in G$ . This completes the proof.  $\square$ 

In particular, the above Proposition implies that  $\Phi(z, E_n(z)) = 0$  if  $|z| < r_n$ , so by analyticity and uniqueness  $\Phi(z, E_n(z)) = 0$  if  $r_n \le |z| < R_n$ . Equivalence of the two definitions (1.10) and (1.11) for the Spectral Riemann Surface G explains now that  $E_n(z)$  is an eigenvalue function in the disc  $\{z: |z| < R_n\}$ .

Our main focus in the search for an understanding of the behavior of  $R_n$  will be on the special case where

$$(1.18) 0 \le \alpha < 2,$$

$$(1.19) b_k = \bar{c_k} = k^{\alpha}.$$

If  $\alpha = 0$  in (1.19), we have the Mathieu matrices. They arise if Fourier's method is used to analyze the Hill–Mathieu operator on  $I = [0, \pi]$ 

$$Ly = -y'' + 2a(\cos 2x)y$$
,  $y(\pi) = y(0)$ ,  $y'(\pi) = y'(0)$ .

In this case J. Meixner and F. W. Schäfke proved ([10], Thm 8, Section 1.5; [11], p. 87) the inequality  $R_n \leq Cn^2$  and conjectured that the asymptotic  $R_n \approx n^2$  holds. This has been proved 40 years later by H. Volkmer [13].

But what can be said if  $0 < \alpha < 2$ ? Proposition 4 in [5] shows that if (1.1)–(1.3) and (1.18) hold, then

$$(1.20) R_n \ge c n^{1-\alpha}.$$

This estimate from below cannot be improved in the class (1.1)–(1.3), (1.18) as examples in Section 4 show. But in the special case (1.18)–(1.19) one could expect the asymptotic

$$(1.21) R_n \asymp n^{2-\alpha}.$$

We show that

$$R_n < Cn^{2-\alpha}$$

at least for  $0 < \alpha < 11/6$ .

Notice that in the Hill–Mathieu case we have  $\alpha = 0$ ,  $b_k = 1 \,\forall k$ , so the operator B is bounded, while it could be unbounded in the case  $\alpha > 0$ . We use the approach of Meixner and Schäfke [10], but complement it with an additional argument to help us deal with the cases where the operator B is unbounded (but relatively compact with respect to L). The main result is the following.

**Theorem 2.** If the conditions (1.2) and (1.19) hold, then for each  $\alpha \in [0, \frac{11}{6})$  there exist constants  $C_{\alpha} > 0$  and  $N_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$(1.22) R_n \le C_\alpha n^{2-\alpha}, \quad n \ge N_\alpha.$$

Proof is given in Section 3. It has two parts. In Section 2, we prove an upper bound for Taylor coefficients  $|a_k(n)|$  in terms of k, n,  $R_n$  and  $\alpha$  (see Theorem 3). In Section 3 we show how a certain lower bound on  $|a_k(n)|$ , in terms of k, n, and  $\alpha$ , can be used to prove the desired inequality on particular subsets of [0,2). In the same section we provide such lower bounds for  $|a_2(n)|, |a_4(n)|, \ldots, |a_{12}(n)|$ . This general scheme could be used in an attempt to prove (1.22) for larger subsets of [0,2). One would then need to compute (and manipulate)  $a_k(n)$  for values of k > 12. See Section 3 for details.

2. An upper bound for 
$$|a_k(n)|$$

In what follows in this section, suppose that n is a *fixed* positive integer.

**Theorem 3.** In the above notations, and under the conditions (1.2) and (1.3), if

(a) 
$$\alpha \in [0,2)$$
 and (1.5) holds, or (b)  $\alpha \in [0,1)$ , then

(2.1) 
$$|a_k(n)| \le C\rho^{-(k-1)} \left( n^{\alpha} + \rho^{\frac{\alpha}{2-\alpha}} \right), \quad 0 < \rho < R_n,$$

where  $C = C(\alpha, M)$ .

*Proof.* For r > 0, let

$$\Delta_r = \{ z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| < r \}, \quad C_r = \{ z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| = r \}.$$

Let us choose, for every  $z \in \Delta_{R_n}$ , an eigenvector  $g(z) = (g_n(z))_{n=1}^{\infty}$  such that  $||g(z)||_{\ell^2} = 1$  (this is possible by Proposition 1). Then

$$(2.2) (L+zB)g(z) = E_n(z)g(z), ||g(z)||_{\ell^2} = 1,$$

which implies (after multiplication from the right by g(z))

(2.3) 
$$\ell(z) + zb(z) = E_n(z), \quad z \in \Delta_{R_n},$$

where

(2.4) 
$$\ell(z) := \langle Lg(z), g(z) \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k^2 |g_k(z)|^2,$$

and

$$(2.5) b(z) := \langle Bg(z), g(z) \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left( c_k g_k(z) \overline{g_{k+1}(z)} + b_k g_{k+1}(z) \overline{g_k(z)} \right).$$

The functions  $\ell(z)$  and b(z) are bounded if  $|z| \le \rho < R_n$ . Indeed, by (2.4) we have  $\ell(z) > 0$ . By (2.5) and (1.3)

$$(2.6) |b(z)| \le \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} Mk^{\alpha} \left( |g_k(z)|^2 + |g_{k+1}|^2 \right) \le 2M \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k^{\alpha} |g_k(z)|^2,$$

so, estimating the latter sum by Hölder's inequality, we get

$$(2.7) |b(z)| \le 2M(\ell(z))^{\alpha/2}.$$

Therefore, in view of (2.3).

$$\ell(z) \le |E_n(z)| + |zb(z)| \le |E_n(z)| + 2M\rho(\ell(z))^{\alpha/2}, \quad |z| \le \rho.$$

Now, Young's inequality implies

$$\ell(z) \le |E_n(z)| + (1 - \alpha/2)2^{\frac{\alpha}{2-\alpha}} (2M\rho)^{\frac{2}{2-\alpha}} + (\alpha/4) \cdot \ell(z),$$

so, in view of (1.18),  $\ell(z)$  is bounded by

$$\ell(z) \le 2|E_n(z)| + 2(1 - \alpha/2)2^{\frac{\alpha}{2-\alpha}}(2M\rho)^{\frac{2}{2-\alpha}}, \quad |z| \le \rho.$$

By (2.7), the function b(z) is also bounded if  $|z| \leq \rho$ .

Since in (2.2) the vectors g(z),  $z \in \Delta_{R_n}$ , are chosen in an arbitrary way, we cannot expect the function  $z \to g(z)$  to be continuous, or even measurable. But the functions  $\ell(z)$  and b(z) are measurable. The explanation of this fact is the only difference in the proof of (2.1) in the cases (a) and (b).

(a) The functions  $\ell(z)$  and b(z) are continuous on  $\Delta_{R_n} \setminus (-R_n, R_n)$ .

Indeed, in view of (2.5) the symmetry assumption (1.5) implies that the function b(z) is real-valued. Therefore, from (2.3) it follows yb(z) =

 $Im E_n(z)$  with z = x + iy, so  $\ell(z)$  and  $\ell(z)$  are continuous on  $\Delta_{R_n} \setminus (-R_n, R_n)$  because

(2.8) 
$$b(z) = \frac{1}{y} Im(E_n(z)), \quad \ell(z) = Re(E_n(z)) - \frac{x}{y} Im(E_n(z)), \quad y \neq 0.$$

(b) For every z such that  $E_n(z)$  is a simple eigenvalue of L + wB the values  $\ell(z)$  and b(z) are uniquely determined by (2.4) and (2.5) and do not depend on the choice of the vector g(z) in (2.2). Therefore, the functions  $\ell(z)$  and b(z) are uniquely determined on the set

$$U = \{z \in \Delta_{R_n} : E_n(z) \text{ is a simple eigenvalue of } L + zB\}.$$

On the other hand, the set  $\Delta_{R_n} \setminus U$  is at most countable and has no finite accumulation points (see Section 5.1 in [5]).

If  $w \in U$ , then it is known ([9], Ch.VII, Sect. 1-3, in particular, Theorem 1.7) that there is a disc  $D(w,\tau)$  with center w and radius  $\tau$  such that  $E_n(z)$  is a simple eigenvalue of the operator L + zB for  $z \in D(w,\tau)$  and there exists an analytic eigenvector function  $\psi(z)$  defined in  $D(w,\tau)$ , i.e.,

$$(L+zB)\psi(z) = E_n(z)\psi(z), \quad \psi(z) \neq 0, \quad z \in D(w,\tau).$$

Let  $g(z) = \psi(z)/\|\psi(z)\|_{\ell^2}$  for  $z \in D(w,\tau)$ . Then the coordinate functions  $g_k(z)$  are continuous, and by (2.4) the function  $\ell(z)$ ,  $z \in D(w,\tau)$ , is a sum of a series of positive continuous terms. Therefore, the function  $\ell(z)$  is lower semi–continuous in  $D(w,\tau)$ , so it is lower semi–continuous in U. Thus,  $\ell(z)$  is measurable on  $\Delta_{R_n}$ . By (2.3) we have  $b(z) = (E_n(z) - \ell(z))/z$  for  $z \neq 0$ . Thus, b(z) is measurable in  $\Delta_{R_n}$  as well.

For each  $\rho \in (0, R_n)$ , consider the space  $L^2(C_\rho)$  with the norm  $\|\cdot\|_{\rho}$  defined by  $\|f\|_{\rho}^2 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} |f(\rho e^{i\theta})|^2 d\theta$ . The functions  $\ell(z)$  and b(z) are integrable on each circle  $C_\rho$ ,  $\rho < R_n$  because they are bounded and measurable on  $C_\rho$ .

From (2.7) and Hölder's inequality it follows that

(2.9) 
$$||b(z)||_{\rho} \le 2M ||\ell(z)||_{\rho}^{\alpha/2}.$$

Since  $\ell(z) > 0$ , by (2.3) and (2.7) we have

$$|Im(E_n(z) - n^2)| = |Im(zb(z))| \le \rho |b(z)|.$$

Therefore,

(2.10) 
$$||Im(E_n(z) - n^2)||_{\rho} \le \rho \cdot ||b(z)||_{\rho}.$$

If f is an analytic function defined on  $\Delta_{R_n}$  with f(0) = 0, then  $||Re(f)||_{\rho} = ||Im(f)||_{\rho}$ . In particular, we have

$$||Re(E_n(z) - n^2)||_{\rho} = ||Im(E_n(z) - n^2)||_{\rho},$$

which implies, by (2.10),

(2.11) 
$$||E_n(z) - n^2||_{\rho} \le \sqrt{2\rho} \cdot ||b(z)||_{\rho}.$$

In view of (2.3) and (2.11), the triangle inequality implies

$$\|\ell\|_{\rho} \le n^2 + \|E_n(z) - n^2\|_{\rho} + \|b(z)\|_{\rho} \le n^2 + (1 + \sqrt{2})\rho \cdot \|b(z)\|_{\rho}.$$

Therefore, from (2.9) it follows that

Now, Young's inequality yields

$$5M\rho \|\ell\|_{\rho}^{\alpha/2} \le \left(1 - \alpha/2\right) \left(5M2^{\alpha/2}\rho\right)^{\frac{2}{2-\alpha}} + \frac{\alpha}{4} \|\ell\|_{\rho} \le C_1 \rho^{\frac{2}{2-\alpha}} + \frac{1}{2} \|\ell\|_{\rho},$$

with  $C_1 = (1 - \alpha/2)(5M2^{\alpha/2})^{\frac{2}{2-\alpha}}$ . Thus, by (2.12), we have

$$\|\ell\| \le 2n^2 + 2C_1 \rho^{\frac{2}{2-\alpha}}.$$

In view of (2.11) and (2.9), this implies

$$(2.13) ||E_n(z) - n^2||_{\rho} \le 3M\rho \left(2^{\alpha/2}n^{\alpha} + (2C_1)^{\alpha/2}\rho^{\frac{\alpha}{2-\alpha}}\right).$$

By Cauchy's formula, we have

$$a_k(n) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\partial \Delta_{\rho}} \frac{E_n(\zeta) - n^2}{\zeta^{k+1}} d\zeta.$$

From (2.13) it follows that

$$|a_k(n)| \le \rho^{-k} ||E_n(z) - n^2||_{\rho} \le 3M\rho^{-k+1} \left( 2^{\alpha/2} n^{\alpha} + (2C_1)^{\alpha/2} \rho^{\frac{\alpha}{2-\alpha}} \right),$$

which implies (2.1) with  $C = 3M(2 + 2C_1)^{\alpha/2}$ . This completes the proof of Theorem 3.

Remark. In fact, to carry out the proof of Theorem 3 we need only to know that there exists a pair of functions  $\ell(z)$  and b(z) which satisfy (2.3) and (2.7), and are integrable on each circle  $C_{\rho}$ ,  $\rho < R_n$ . We explained that the pair defined by (2.2), (2.4) and (2.5) has these properties. In the case (a) of Theorem 3 the same argument could be used to define a pair of real analytic functions functions  $\ell(z)$  and  $\ell(z)$  which satisfy (2.3) and (2.7).

Indeed, by (1.5) the operator B is a self-adjoint, so L+xB,  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , is self-adjoint as well. Thus, the function  $E_n(z)$  takes real values on the real line and its Taylor's coefficients are real. Since the quotients  $\frac{1}{y}Im(x+iy)^k$ ,  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , are polynomials of y, it is easy to see by the Taylor series of  $E_n(z)$  that  $\frac{1}{y}Im(E_n(z))$  (defined properly for y=0) is a real analytic function in  $\Delta_{R_n}$ . Therefore, if one defines a pair of functions  $\tilde{\ell}(z)$  and  $\tilde{b}(z)$  by (2.8), then (2.3) holds immediately, and (2.7) follows because on  $\Delta_{R_n} \setminus (-R_n, R_n)$  these functions coincide with  $\ell(z)$  and b(z).

#### 3. An upper bound for $R_n$

In this section we use (2.1) in the case of (1.19) to prove Theorem 2. Roughly speaking, the bound (1.22) will be achieved for  $\alpha \in [0, \frac{11}{6})$  by inserting the known (from [5]) formulas for  $a_2(\alpha, n), \ldots, a_{12}(\alpha, n)$  into inequality (2.1). With our approach, using only  $a_{2k}$ ,  $k \leq 6$ , it is possible to get good lower bounds only if  $0 \leq \alpha < 11/6$ .

We begin with the following observation.

**Lemma 4.** Suppose the conditions (1.2),(1.3) and (1.18) hold.

- (a) If for some fixed  $k, n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $\alpha \in [0, 2 \frac{2}{k})$  we have  $a_k(n) \neq 0$ , then  $R_n < \infty$ .
  - (b) If  $R_n = \infty$ , then  $E_n(z)$  is a polynomial such that  $\deg E_n(z) \leq \frac{\alpha}{2-\alpha}$ .

*Proof.* Let  $a = |a_k(n)| > 0$ . Then, by Theorem 3,

(3.1) 
$$a\rho^{k-1} \le C\left(n^{\alpha} + \rho^{\frac{\alpha}{2-\alpha}}\right), \quad \forall \rho < R_n.$$

The condition  $\alpha \in [0, 2 - \frac{2}{k})$  implies  $k - 1 > \frac{\alpha}{2 - \alpha}$ ; therefore, (3.1) fails for sufficiently large  $\rho$ . Thus,  $R_n \leq \sup\{\rho : \rho \in (3.1)\} < \infty$ , which proves (a). If  $R_n = \infty$ , then (a) shows that  $a_k(n) = 0$  for all k such that  $k > \frac{\alpha}{2 - \alpha}$ . This proves (b).

**Lemma 5.** Suppose that conditions (1.2) and (1.3) hold. If for some fixed  $k, n \in \mathbb{N}$ , A > 0 and  $\alpha \in [0, 2 - \frac{2}{k})$  we have

$$(3.2) An^{k\alpha - 2(k-1)} \le |a_k(n)|,$$

then

$$(3.3) R_n \le \tilde{C} n^{2-\alpha},$$

where  $\tilde{C} = \tilde{C}(\alpha, M, A, k)$ .

*Proof.* It is enough to prove that

(3.4) 
$$\rho \le \tilde{C}n^{2-\alpha}, \quad \forall \rho \in (0, R_n).$$

Then (3.3) follows if we let  $\rho \to R_n$ .

By (2.1) we have

$$An^{k\alpha-2(k-1)} \le |a_k(n)| \le 2C(\alpha, M)\rho^{-(k-1)} \max(n^{\alpha}, \rho^{\frac{\alpha}{2-\alpha}}).$$

If  $n^{\alpha} \geq \rho^{\frac{\alpha}{2-\alpha}}$ , then we get (3.4) with  $\tilde{C} = 1$ .

Suppose that  $n^{\alpha} < \rho^{\frac{\alpha}{2-\alpha}}$ . Then  $\max(n^{\alpha}, \rho^{\frac{\alpha}{2-\alpha}}) = \rho^{\frac{\alpha}{2-\alpha}}$ , so

$$A\rho^{k-\frac{2}{2-\alpha}} \le 2C(\alpha, M)(n^{2-\alpha})^{k-\frac{2}{2-\alpha}}.$$

Thus, whenever  $\alpha < 2-2/k$ , this inequality implies (3.3) with  $\tilde{C} = (2C/A)^{\gamma}$ , where  $\gamma = (2-\alpha)/(k(2-\alpha)-2)$ .

According to the preceding lemma, all one needs in order to get an upper bound on  $R_n$  of the form (3.3) (or even to explain that  $R_n$  is finite) is to find a lower bound on  $|a_k(n)|$  of the form (3.2) (or at least to explain that  $a_k(n) \neq 0$ ). We now describe a technique to provide such lower bounds. Theorem 2 will follow when we get such lower bounds for  $|a_2(n)|, \ldots, |a_{12}(n)|$ .

**Lemma 6.** Under conditions (1.4) and (1.19), for each fixed  $\alpha < 2$ , the coefficient  $a_k(n,\alpha)$  can be written in the form

(3.5) 
$$a_k(n,\alpha) = n^{k\alpha - (k-1)} f_\alpha(1/n)$$

where

$$f_{\alpha}(w) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} P_k(j, \alpha) w^j$$

is analytic on the disk |w| < 1/k, and  $P_k(j, \alpha)$  are polynomials of  $\alpha$ .

*Proof.* We begin this proof by stating the equation (3.7) from [5]

(3.6) 
$$a_k(n) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\partial \Pi} \left( \sum_{|j-n| \le k} (\lambda - n^2) \langle R_{\lambda}^0(BR_{\lambda}^0)^k e_j, e_j \rangle \right) d\lambda,$$

where  $R_{\lambda}^{0} = (\lambda - L)^{-1}$ ,  $e_{j}$  is the  $j^{th}$  unit vector, and  $\Pi$  is the square centered at  $n^{2}$  of width 2n. This formula appears in [5] only in the case of  $\alpha \in [0, 1)$ , but its proof therein holds for  $\alpha < 2$  as well. It follows from (1.1) that for each  $j \in N$ ,

$$BR_{\lambda}^{0}e_{j} = \begin{cases} \frac{(j-1)^{\alpha}}{\lambda - j^{2}}e_{j-1} + \frac{j^{\alpha}}{\lambda - j^{2}}e_{j+1} & \text{if } j > 1\\ \\ \frac{1}{\lambda - 1}e_{2} & \text{if } j = 1. \end{cases}$$

So,  $(\lambda - n^2)\langle R_{\lambda}^0(BR_{\lambda}^0)^k e_j, e_j \rangle$  can be written as a finite sum each of whose terms is of the form

$$\frac{\lambda - n^2}{\lambda - (n - j_0')^2} \prod_{i=1}^{k} \frac{(n - d_i')^{\alpha}}{\lambda - (n - j_i')^2}$$

with  $j'_i$  and  $d'_i$  integers satisfying  $|j'_i|, |d'_i| < k$  for each i. So, from a residue calculation on (3.6),  $a_k(n)$  can be written as a linear combination of terms of the form

$$(3.7) (n-d_k)^{\alpha} \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} \frac{(n-d_i)^{\alpha}}{n^2 - (n-j_i)^2}$$

$$= C n^{k\alpha - (k-1)} \left(1 - \frac{d_k}{n}\right)^{\alpha} \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} \left[ \left(1 - \frac{d_i}{n}\right)^{\alpha} \left(1 - \frac{j_i}{2n}\right)^{-1} \right]$$

with  $C = \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} (2j_i)^{-1}$  and  $|j_i|, |d_i| < k$  for each *i*. For n > k, we have  $|d_i/n| < 1$  and  $|j_i/(2n)| < 1$ . Thus,

(3.8) 
$$\left(1 - \frac{d_i}{n}\right)^{\alpha} = 1 - \alpha \left(\frac{d_i}{n}\right) + \frac{\alpha(\alpha - 1)}{2} \left(\frac{d_i}{n}\right)^2 + \dots$$

(3.9) 
$$\left(1 - \frac{j_i}{2n}\right)^{-1} = 1 + \left(\frac{j_i}{2n}\right) + \left(\frac{j_i}{2n}\right)^2 + \dots$$

are analytic functions of z=1/n whenever n>k. Combining (3.7) with (3.8)–(3.9), we deduce that  $a_k(n)$  can be written as in (3.5) with  $f_{\alpha}(z)$  analytic for |z|<1/k.

The preceding lemma guarantees that whenever  $\alpha < 2$ ,

$$a_k(n,\alpha) = P_k(0,\alpha)n^{k\alpha-(k-1)} + O(n^{k\alpha-k})$$
 as  $n \to \infty$ .

When  $a_2(n), \ldots, a_{12}(n)$  were computed (following the approach of [5, p.305–306]), an interesting phenomenon was observed. If  $2 \le k \le 12$ , then

(3.10) 
$$P_k(j, \alpha) = 0 \text{ for each } 0 \le j \le k - 2.$$

In particular, if (1.18) and (1.19) hold, then

(3.11) 
$$a_k(n) = P_k(k-1,\alpha)n^{k\alpha-2(k-1)} + O(n^{k\alpha-2k+1}), \quad n \to \infty;$$

the polynomials  $P_k(k-1,\alpha)$ ,  $k=2,4,\ldots,12$ , are given in the following table.

k	$P_k(k-1,\alpha)$
	$-\alpha + \frac{1}{2}$
4	$-\alpha^3 + \frac{9}{4}\alpha^2 - \frac{11}{8}\alpha + \frac{5}{32}$
6	$-\frac{9}{4}\alpha^5 + \frac{73}{8}\alpha^4 - \frac{27}{2}\alpha^3 + \frac{281}{32}\alpha^2 - \frac{147}{64}\alpha + \frac{9}{64}$
8	$-\frac{61}{9}\alpha^7 + \frac{2881}{72}\alpha^6 - \frac{6875}{72}\alpha^5 + \frac{33937}{288}\alpha^4 - \frac{11437}{144}\alpha^3 + \frac{64649}{2304}\alpha^2 - \frac{4507}{1024}\alpha + \frac{1469}{8192}$
10	$-\frac{1525}{64}\alpha^9 + \frac{23705}{128}\alpha^8 - \frac{353023}{576}\alpha^7 + \frac{648539}{576}\alpha^6 - \frac{5774039}{4608}\alpha^5 + \frac{7955297}{9216}\alpha^4$
	$-\frac{6626165}{18432}\alpha^3 + \frac{6173425}{73728}\alpha^2 - \frac{148881}{16384}\alpha + \frac{4471}{16384}$
12	$-\frac{221321}{2400}\alpha^{11} + \frac{8544347}{9600}\alpha^{10} - \frac{1207947}{320}\alpha^9 + \frac{71029219}{7680}\alpha^8 - \frac{92577243}{6400}\alpha^7 + \frac{385333821}{25600}\alpha^6$
	$-\frac{16162765}{1536}\alpha^5 + \frac{9344339}{1920}\alpha^4 - \frac{583689039}{409600}\alpha^3 + \frac{296768801}{1228800}\alpha^2 - \frac{12877899}{655360}\alpha + \frac{121191}{262144}$

Numerical computations tell us that in the following table, each inequality in the second column holds on the union of intervals shown in the first column.

Set	Inequality
$\alpha \in S_2 = \left[0, \frac{1}{4}\right] \cup \left[\frac{3}{4}, 1\right)$	$ P_2(1,\alpha)  > \frac{1}{8}$
$\alpha \in S_4 = \left[\frac{1}{4}, \frac{3}{4}\right] \cup \left[1, \frac{9}{8}\right] \cup \left[\frac{11}{8}, \frac{3}{2}\right)$	$ P_4(3,\alpha)  > \frac{1}{32}$
$\alpha \in S_6 = \left[\frac{9}{8}, \frac{11}{8}\right] \cup \left[\frac{25}{16}, \frac{5}{3}\right)$	$ P_6(5,\alpha)  > \frac{1}{200}$
$\alpha \in S_8 = \left[\frac{3}{2}, \frac{25}{16}\right] \cup \left[\frac{5}{3}, \frac{7}{4}\right)$	$ P_8(7,\alpha)  > \frac{1}{10}$
$\alpha \in S_{10} = \left[\frac{7}{4}, \frac{9}{5}\right)$	$ P_{10}(9,\alpha)  > \frac{1}{2}$
$\alpha \in S_{12} = \left[\frac{9}{5}, \frac{11}{6}\right)$	$ P_{12}(11,\alpha)  > 1$

*Proof of Theorem 2.* In view of (3.11) and the above table, there is a constant A>0 such that, for each  $\alpha\in[0,2-\frac{1}{6})$ , we have

$$(3.12) |a_k(n,\alpha)| > An^{k\alpha - 2(k-1)}, \quad n \ge N_\alpha.$$

Therefore, Lemma 5 implies that there exists a constant  $C_{\alpha}$  such that

$$R_n \le C_\alpha n^{2-\alpha}$$
 for  $n \ge N_\alpha$ .

Thus, (1.22) holds for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , which completes the proof of Theorem 2.

## 4. General discussion

In this section we give a few examples to show that the order  $1-\alpha$  of lower bound (1.20) for  $R_n$  is sharp in the class of matrices B with (1.2)–(1.4).

1. A case in which  $R_n \sim n^{1-\alpha}$ . Let  $\alpha \in [0,1)$ . Suppose now that in (1.1) we set

$$(4.1) b_k = c_k = (2 + (-1)^k)k^{\alpha}$$

$$(4.2) q_k = k^2$$

Then by [5], Section 7.5, p.35,

$$|a_2(n)| = \left| \frac{b_{n-1}c_{n-1}}{2n-1} - \frac{b_nc_n}{2n+1} \right| = \begin{cases} \left| \frac{9(n-1)^{2\alpha}}{2n-1} - \frac{n^{2\alpha}}{2n+1} \right| & \text{if } n \text{ is odd,} \\ \left| \frac{(n-1)^{2\alpha}}{2n-1} - \frac{9n^{2\alpha}}{2n+1} \right| & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \end{cases}$$

so

$$|a_2(n)| \ge c n^{2\alpha - 1}, \quad c > 0.$$

In view of Lemma 4, this implies that  $R_n < \infty$  for  $\alpha \in [0,1)$ .

Therefore, by (2.1) in Theorem 3, for each  $\alpha \in [0,1)$ , we have

(4.3) 
$$n^{2\alpha-1} \le |a_2(n)| \le 2C(\alpha)R_n^{-1} \max(n^{\alpha}, R_n^{\frac{\alpha}{2-\alpha}}), \quad n \ge n_0.$$

If  $n^{\alpha} \leq R_n^{\frac{\alpha}{2-\alpha}}$ , then  $R_n \geq n^{2-\alpha}$  and (4.3) gives  $n^{2\alpha-1} \leq 2C(\alpha)R_n^{\frac{2\alpha-2}{2-\alpha}}$ , which implies

$$2C(\alpha) \ge n^{2\alpha - 1} R_n^{\frac{2 - 2\alpha}{2 - \alpha}} \ge n^{2\alpha - 1} n^{2 - 2\alpha} = n.$$

Therefore, we have  $\max(n^{\alpha}, R_n^{\frac{\alpha}{2-\alpha}}) = n^{\alpha}$  for  $n > 2C(\alpha)$ . So, (4.3) implies  $R_n \leq 2C(\alpha)n^{1-\alpha}$  for  $n > 2C(\alpha)$ .

On the other hand, by Proposition 4 of [5, p.296], we have  $R_n \ge \frac{1}{8}n^{1-\alpha}$  for large enough n. Hence, we have shown that in the special case of (4.1)–(4.2),

$$(4.4) R_n \asymp n^{1-\alpha}.$$

2. Of course we can simplify the example (4.1) by choosing

(4.5) 
$$b_k = c_k = \left[1 + (-1)^{k-1}\right] k^{\alpha}$$

This ensures that L + zB - E(z)I has the structure of a tri-diagonal matrix with  $2 \times 2$  blocks along the diagonal. The  $m^{\rm th}$  block will have the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} T - E & zb \\ zb & V - E \end{bmatrix},$$

where

$$T = (2m-1)^2$$
,  $V = (2m)^2$ ,  $b = (2m-1)^\alpha$ ,  $m = 1, 2, \dots$ 

It follows that the two eigenvalues corresponding to this block are

$$E(z) = \frac{1}{2} \left( T + V \pm \sqrt{(T - V)^2 + 4z^2b^2} \right).$$

So, the branching points of these branches of E(z) occur at

$$z_{1,2} = \pm i \left( \frac{V - T}{2b} \right).$$

Hence, we have

$$(4.8) z_{1,2}^m = \pm \frac{i(4m-1)}{2(2m-1)^\alpha} = \pm i(2m)^{1-\alpha} \left(1 + \frac{2\alpha - 1}{4m} + O(m^{-2})\right)$$

Therefore,

$$R_{2m-1} = R_{2m} \sim (2m)^{1-\alpha},$$

i.e., we have the same sharp order  $1 - \alpha$  as in (4.4).

3. This simplified example (4.5) is extreme in the sense that the spectral Riemann surface (SRS)

$$G(B) = \{(z, E) \in \mathbb{C}^2 : (L + zB)f = Ef, f \in \ell^2, f \neq 0\}$$

splits: it is a union of Riemann surfaces defined by determinants of the blocks (4.6), i.e.,

$$E^{2} - E[(2m-1)^{2} + (2m)^{2}] + (2m-1)^{2}(2m)^{2} - z^{2}(2m-1)^{2} = 0, \quad m \in \mathbb{N}.$$

In the case (4.1) we have no elementary reason to say anything about (ir)reducibility of the spectral Riemann surface G(B) (see more about irreducibility of SRS in [5, 14]).

Nevertheless, we would conjecture that this surface G(B) is *irreducible* if  $B \in (4.1)$ , or more generally, if

(4.9) 
$$b_k = c_k \left( 1 + \gamma (-1)^{k-1} \right) k^{\alpha}, \quad 0 \le \gamma < 1.$$

If  $\gamma = 0$  we proved in [5], Theorem 3, such irreducibility for  $\alpha = 1/2$  and many but not all  $\alpha's$  in [0; 1/2].

If  $1 \le \alpha < 2$  let us choose in (4.6)

(4.10) 
$$b = b_m = \frac{1}{B_m} (2m - 1)^{\alpha}, \quad |B_m| \ge 1.$$

Then (4.7) holds, so by (4.8)

$$z_{1,2} = \pm i B_m (2m)^{1-\alpha} (1 + O(1/m)).$$

The sequence  $\{B_m\}$  could be chosen in such a way that the set A of accumulation points for  $\{z_{1,2}^m\}$  is the entire complex plane  $\mathbb{C}$ , or for any closed  $K \subset \mathbb{C}$  with K = -K we can make A = K.

4. Our argument in Section 2, uses Young's and Hölder's inequalities, i.e., the concavity of the function  $x^{\alpha/2}$ ,  $1 \le x < \infty$ ,  $0 \le \alpha < 2$ . It cannot be applied if  $\alpha < 0$  although in this case the operator  $B \in (1.3)$  is even compact. Yet, we conjecture that  $R_n \le K(\alpha)n^{2-\alpha}$  holds both for  $\alpha \in [\frac{11}{6}, 2)$  and  $\alpha < 0$ . Moreover, we expect that our conjecture (1.21) holds for  $\alpha < 0$  as well.

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