



Natural Boundaries and Spectral Theory

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and

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Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



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In preparation

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



Definition of Natural Boundary

Classical Natural Boundary

Kotani–Remling Theory

The Main Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

If $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$ is a connected open set and f is analytic on Ω , $z_0 \in \partial\Omega$ is called *regular* if for some $r > 0$, f agrees on $\Omega \cap \{z \mid |z - z_0| < r\}$ with a function analytic near z_0 .



Definition of Natural Boundary

Classical Natural Boundary

Kotani–Remling Theory

The Main Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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A point is called *singular* if it is not regular.



Definition of Natural Boundary

Classical Natural Boundary

Kotani–Remling Theory

The Main Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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A point is called *singular* if it is not regular.

Set of regular points is open, so set of singular points is closed.



Definition of Natural Boundary

Classical Natural Boundary

Kotani–Remling Theory

The Main Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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A point is called *singular* if it is not regular.

Set of regular points is open, so set of singular points is closed.

$\partial\Omega$ is called a *natural boundary* if all points are singular.



Definition of Natural Boundary

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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A point is called *singular* if it is not regular.

Set of regular points is open, so set of singular points is closed.

$\partial\Omega$ is called a *natural boundary* if all points are singular.

One also says Ω is a domain of holomorphy for f .



Weierstrass' Example

We'll focus on a classical case where $\Omega = \mathbb{D} \equiv \{z \mid |z| < 1\}$
and f is described by a Taylor series

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$$

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



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We'll focus on a classical case where $\Omega = \mathbb{D} \equiv \{z \mid |z| < 1\}$ and f is described by a Taylor series

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$$

From his earliest days in understanding power series (1840s), Weierstrass understood the phenomenon.

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



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From his earliest days in understanding power series (1840s), Weierstrass understood the phenomenon.

He found the simple example

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z^{n!}$$

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



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He found the simple example

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z^{n!}$$

for which, when $\theta = 2\pi p/q$, p, q integral,

$$\lim_{r \uparrow 1} |f(re^{i\theta})| = \infty$$

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



Weierstrass' Example

**Classical Natural
Boundary**

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



Weierstrass' Example

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Kronecker found an example relevant to elliptic functions

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^{n^2}$$

has a natural boundary on $|z| = 1$.



Gap Theorems

The first general theorem was the Hadamard gap theorem.

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



Gap Theorems

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

The first general theorem was the Hadamard gap theorem.

Theorem (Hadamard, 1892). *If*

$$f(z) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j z^{n_j}$$

has a finite radius of convergence and

$$\inf_j \frac{n_{j+1}}{n_j} > 1$$

then the circle of convergence is a natural boundary.



Gap Theorems

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Fabry (1896) proved the same result needing only

$$\lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n_j}{j} = \infty$$

(Fabry required $n_{j+1} - n_j \rightarrow \infty$, but Faber (1906) noted that the proof extended.)



Gap Theorems

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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Mordell found an especially simple proof of Hadamard's gap theorem.



A Theorem of Szegő

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Because I've been teaching complex analysis, I used Google Books to look at discussions of gap theorems and happened to page down and saw a remarkable theorem of Szegő:



A Theorem of Szegő

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Because I've been teaching complex analysis, I used Google Books to look at discussions of gap theorems and happened to page down and saw a remarkable theorem of Szegő:

Theorem (Szegő, 1922). *If $f(z) = \sum a_n z^n$ and the set of values of $\{a_n\}$ is a finite set, then either $|z| = 1$ is a natural boundary, or else a_n is eventually periodic, in which case f is a rational function with poles on $\partial\mathbb{D}$.*



A Theorem of Szegő

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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When I saw this theorem, my mouth fell open.



Why my mouth fell open: Jacobi Matrices

For the past thirty years, a major focus of my research has been the spectral theory of Jacobi matrices and two-sided Jacobi matrices:

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

and the doubly infinite analog.

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



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and the doubly infinite analog.

Especially discrete Schrödinger operators where $a_n \equiv 1$.

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



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and the doubly infinite analog.

Especially discrete Schrödinger operators where $a_n \equiv 1$.

One studies the relation of the a 's and b 's to properties of the spectral measure.

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani-Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



Why my mouth fell open: Kotani

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani-Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

In 1982, Kotani studied ergodic Jacobi matrices (actually, he studied ergodic Schrödinger ODEs; I'm describing my 1983 results on analogs of his work for the discrete case).

That is, $Q \xrightarrow{T} Q$ is invariant and ergodic for a probability measure ω on Q . $A: Q \rightarrow (0, \infty)$, $B: Q \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ bounded and measurable, and J_ω has parameters $a_n(\omega) = A(T^n\omega)$, $b_n(\omega) = B(T^n\omega)$. He proved results about a.c. spectrum (i.e., the spectral measures have a piece that is a.c. w.r.t. dx); I'll say more about this later.



Why my mouth fell open: Kotani

Classical Natural
Boundary

**Kotani–Remling
Theory**

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

In 1989, using these ideas and some others, he proved:

Theorem (Kotani, 1989). *If J_ω is an ergodic Jacobi matrix so that a_n, b_n take only finitely many values, then either J_ω has no a.c. spectrum or it is periodic.*



Why my mouth fell open: Remling

Classical Natural
Boundary

**Kotani–Remling
Theory**

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

This is made more explicit by a deterministic result proven two years ago:



Why my mouth fell open: Remling

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani-Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

This is made more explicit by a deterministic result proven two years ago:

Theorem (Remling, 2007 (or 2011?)). *Let J be a (one-sided) Jacobi matrix where a_n and b_n take only finitely many values. Then either J has no a.c. spectrum or a_n and b_n are eventually periodic.*



Remling's Theory

Remling's paper not only had many really new results but essentially optimal ones for no a.c. spectrum in the class where $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ and $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ are bounded and do not approach constants.

Classical Natural
Boundary

**Kotani-Remling
Theory**

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



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What Breuer and I have is an analog of Remling's main tool for power series, using the translation

no a.c. spectrum \sim natural boundary

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani-Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



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Thiele and Tao have emphasized that the spectral analysis of OPs is a kind of nonlinear Fourier transform so that Szegő's OP theorem (*not* the one above) is a nonlinear Plancherel, and Christ–Kiselev for L^2 would be a kind of nonlinear analog of Carleson's L^2 convergence theorem.

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



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Just so, our result is sort of Remling theory at infinitesimal coupling, so the proofs are much simpler.

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



Why I shouldn't have been surprised

Classical Natural
Boundary

**Kotani–Remling
Theory**

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Once Breuer and I started to look at the idea, we realized parallels it is surprising hadn't been noticed. Consider the major class of natural boundary and no a.c. spectrum results:



Why I shouldn't have been surprised

Classical Natural
Boundary

**Kotani–Remling
Theory**

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Once Breuer and I started to look at the idea, we realized parallels it is surprising hadn't been noticed. Consider the major class of natural boundary and no a.c. spectrum results:

- Gap Theorems \sim Sparse Potentials



Why I shouldn't have been surprised

Classical Natural
Boundary

**Kotani–Remling
Theory**

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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- Gap Theorems \sim Sparse Potentials
- Szegő \sim Kotani–Remling Finite Value



Why I shouldn't have been surprised

Classical Natural
Boundary

**Kotani–Remling
Theory**

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Once Breuer and I started to look at the idea, we realized parallels it is surprising hadn't been noticed. Consider the major class of natural boundary and no a.c. spectrum results:

- Gap Theorems \sim Sparse Potentials
- Szegő \sim Kotani–Remling Finite Value
- Random Power Series \sim Anderson Localization



Dense G_δ Result

Motivated by the Wonderland theorem of Simon from spectral theory, we found

Theorem. Fix $K \subset \mathbb{C}$ compact with more than one point. Let K^∞ be $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$, $a_n \in K$ in the product topology which is a compact metric space. Then $\{a \in K^\infty \mid \sum a_n z^n \text{ has a natural boundary on } \partial\mathbb{D}\}$ is a dense G_δ . A similar result is true for strong natural boundaries.

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



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The proof is only a few lines. The existence of a single natural boundary (e.g., Weierstrass) and the weak topology prove density, and the Vitali theorem implies the complement is a countable union of closed sets.

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



Reflectionless Jacobi Matrices

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani-Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

For a half-line Jacobi matrix J , its m -function is defined on $\mathbb{C}_+ = \{z \mid \text{Im } z > 0\}$ by

$$m(z; J) = \langle \delta_1, (J - z)^{-1} \delta_1 \rangle$$



Reflectionless Jacobi Matrices

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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$$m(z; J) = \langle \delta_1, (J - z)^{-1} \delta_1 \rangle$$

By general principles for Lebesgue a.e. x , $m(x + i0) = \lim_{\varepsilon \downarrow 0} m(x + i\varepsilon)$ exists.



Reflectionless Jacobi Matrices

If J is a whole-line Jacobi matrix, setting $a_0 = 0$ breaks J into half-line Jacobi matrices J_0^+ and J_0^- . Let m_0^\pm be their m -functions.

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



Reflectionless Jacobi Matrices

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

If J is a whole-line Jacobi matrix, setting $a_0 = 0$ breaks J into half-line Jacobi matrices J_0^+ and J_0^- . Let m_0^\pm be their m -functions.

The whole-line Jacobi matrix J is called *reflectionless* on $\mathfrak{e} \subset \mathbb{R}$ if and only if

$$m^+(x + i0) = (a_0^2 \overline{m_0^-(x + i0)})^{-1}$$

for a.e. $x \in \mathfrak{e}$.



Reflectionless Jacobi Matrices

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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$$m^+(x + i0) = (a_0^2 \overline{m_0^-(x + i0)})^{-1}$$

for a.e. $x \in \mathfrak{e}$.

For here, the point is the object on the left and the object on the right have boundary values that determine each other.



Right Limits

Classical Natural
Boundary

**Kotani–Remling
Theory**

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



Right Limits

Classical Natural
Boundary

**Kotani–Remling
Theory**

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Right limits were introduced as a tool in spectral analysis by Last–Simon (1996).



Right Limits

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Right limits were introduced as a tool in spectral analysis by Last–Simon (1996).

If J is a one-sided Jacobi matrix with parameters $\{a_n, b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$, $J^{(\infty)}$ a two-sided Jacobi matrix is called a right limit for J if and only if, for some $n_k \rightarrow \infty$ and all m (but *not* uniformly in m),

$$a_m^{(\infty)} = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_{m+n_k} \quad b_m^{(\infty)} = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} b_{m+n_k}$$



Right Limits

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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$$a_m^{(\infty)} = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_{m+n_k} \quad b_m^{(\infty)} = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} b_{m+n_k}$$

By compactness, if the a 's and b 's are bounded, there are always right limits.



Remling's Key Tool

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Theorem (Remling). *Let J be a half-line Jacobi matrix. If J has a.c. spectrum on $\epsilon \subset \mathbb{R}$, then every right limit is reflectionless on ϵ .*



Remling's Key Tool

Classical Natural
Boundary

**Kotani-Remling
Theory**

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Theorem (Remling). *Let J be a half-line Jacobi matrix. If J has a.c. spectrum on $\epsilon \subset \mathbb{R}$, then every right limit is reflectionless on ϵ .*

Earlier Kotani had proven in the ergodic case that for a.e. ω , $d\mu_\omega$ is reflectionless on $\epsilon = \text{a.c. spectrum}$.



Right Limits of Power Series

We consider power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$ with

$$\sup_n |a_n| = B < \infty$$

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

**The Main
Theorems**

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



Right Limits of Power Series

We consider power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$ with

$$\sup_n |a_n| = B < \infty$$

A right limit of $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$ is a two-sided sequence $\{b_n\}_{n=-\infty}^{\infty}$ so that for some $m_j \rightarrow \infty$ and each fixed $n \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$\lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} a_{m_j+n} = b_n$$

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

**The Main
Theorems**

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



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$$\lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} a_{m_j+n} = b_n$$

By compactness, right limits exist. Indeed, for any $m_j \rightarrow \infty$, there is a sub-subsequence with convergence.

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

**The Main
Theorems**

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



Analytic Functions Associated to $\{b_n\}_{n=-\infty}^{\infty}$

We do not form the Laurent series $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} b_n z^n$ which, in typical examples (e.g., where both $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} |b_n| \neq 0$ and $\limsup_{n \rightarrow -\infty} |b_n| \neq 0$), converges nowhere. Rather, we form two functions:

$$f_+(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n z^n \quad f_-(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{-1} b_n z^n$$

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



Analytic Functions Associated to $\{b_n\}_{n=-\infty}^{\infty}$

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$$f_+(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n z^n \quad f_-(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{-1} b_n z^n$$

f_+ is analytic on $|z| < 1$ and f_- on $|z| > 1$.

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



Analytic Functions Associated to $\{b_n\}_{n=-\infty}^{\infty}$

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f_+ is analytic on $|z| < 1$ and f_- on $|z| > 1$.

Example: $b_n \equiv 1 \Rightarrow f_+ = (1 - z)^{-1} \quad f_- = -(1 - z)^{-1}$

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



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f_+ is analytic on $|z| < 1$ and f_- on $|z| > 1$.

Example: $b_n \equiv 1 \Rightarrow f_+ = (1 - z)^{-1} \quad f_- = -(1 - z)^{-1}$

Notice for this case, f_+ has a continuation \tilde{f}_+ outside \mathbb{D} so that $\tilde{f}_+ + f_- = 0$.

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



Reflectionless Double Series

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

**The Main
Theorems**

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

We call $\{b_n\}_{n=-\infty}^{\infty}$ reflectionless on an open interval $I \subset \partial\mathbb{D}$ if and only if there is a function g analytic in a neighborhood, N , of I so that

$$g = f_+ \text{ on } N \cap \mathbb{D} \quad g = -f_- \text{ on } N \cap (\mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{D})$$



Reflectionless Double Series

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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$$g = f_+ \text{ on } N \cap \mathbb{D} \quad g = -f_- \text{ on } N \cap (\mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{D})$$

Thus, f_+ has an analytic continuation to $\mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\} \setminus (\partial\mathbb{D} \setminus I)$ whose Laurent series at ∞ is $-\sum_{n=-\infty}^{-1} b_n z^n$.



Reflectionless Double Series

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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As above, $b_n \equiv 1$ is reflectionless on $\partial\mathbb{D} \setminus \{1\}$.



Reflectionless Double Series

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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As above, $b_n \equiv 1$ is reflectionless on $\partial\mathbb{D} \setminus \{1\}$.

More generally, and if b_n is periodic, it is reflectionless and f_+ is rational with poles on $\partial\mathbb{D}$.



The Classical Case

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Theorem (Breuer–Simon). *Let $\sup_n |a_n| < \infty$ and suppose $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$ has an analytic continuation to a neighborhood of an open interval, $I \subset \partial\mathbb{D}$. Then any right limit is reflectionless on I .*



The Classical Case

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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Corollary. *Let $\sup_n |a_n| < \infty$. If there is a right limit not reflectionless on any $I \subset \partial\mathbb{D}$, then $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$ has a natural boundary on $\partial\mathbb{D}$.*



L^1 Natural Boundaries

Theorem (Breuer–Simon). *Let $\sup_n |a_n| < \infty$ and suppose for an open interval, $I \subset \partial\mathbb{D}$, and $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$, we have*

$$\sup_{r < 1} \int_I |f(re^{i\theta})| \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} < \infty$$

Then any right limit is reflectionless on I .

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



L^1 Natural Boundaries

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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Then any right limit is reflectionless on I .

Corollary. Let $\sup_n |a_n| < \infty$. If there is a right limit not reflectionless on any $I \subset \partial\mathbb{D}$, then $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$ has a strong natural boundary on $\partial\mathbb{D}$ (i.e., not H^1 in any sector and, in particular, not bounded there).



L^1 Natural Boundaries

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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Clearly, the L^1 theorem \Rightarrow the classical theorem, but we use the classical theorem in the proof of the L^1 theorem.



Uniform Bounds

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

**The Main
Theorems**

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

In both theorems, one proves something stronger than just the reflectionless property. For any right limit b , let $f_b(z)$ be the analytic function on $\mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\} \setminus (\partial\mathbb{D} \setminus I) \equiv \Omega_I$. Let \mathcal{R} be the set of right limits.



Uniform Bounds

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

**The Main
Theorems**

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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Then for any compact $K \subset \Omega_I$,

$$\sup_{b \in \mathcal{R}} \left[\sup_{z \in K} |f_b(z)| \right] < \infty$$



Uniform Bounds

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

**The Main
Theorems**

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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Then for any compact $K \subset \Omega_I$,

$$\sup_{b \in \mathcal{R}} \left[\sup_{z \in K} |f_n(z)| \right] < \infty$$

In particular, since \mathcal{R} is closed under right limits, $\{f_b\}_{b \in \mathcal{R}}$ is compact in the topology of uniform convergence on compact sets of Ω_I .



Ultimate Gap Theorem

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

The main theorems give optimal results among series with $\sup|a_n| < \infty$ and a_n does not approach a constant.



Ultimate Gap Theorem

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

The main theorems give optimal results among series with $\sup|a_n| < \infty$ and a_n does not approach a constant.

Theorem (Ultimate Gap Theorem). *Let $\sup_n|a_n| < \infty$. Suppose there is $n_j \rightarrow \infty$ so that*

$$\begin{aligned} a_{n_j+m} &\rightarrow 0 \quad \text{for each } m < 0 && \text{as } j \rightarrow \infty \\ a_{n_j} &\rightarrow \alpha \neq 0 && \text{as } j \rightarrow \infty \end{aligned}$$

Then $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$ has a strong natural boundary on $\partial\mathbb{D}$.



Ultimate Gap Theorem

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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$$a_{n_j+m} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{for each } m < 0 \quad \text{as } j \rightarrow \infty$$

$$a_{n_j} \rightarrow \alpha \neq 0 \quad \text{as } j \rightarrow \infty$$

Then $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$ has a strong natural boundary on $\partial\mathbb{D}$.

Note, by compactness, we only need $\liminf|a_{n_j}| \neq 0$.



Proof of the Gap Theorem

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



Proof of the Gap Theorem

By hypothesis and compactness, there is a right limit $\{b_n\}$ with

$$b_n = 0 \quad n < 0$$

$$b_0 = \alpha \neq 0$$

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



Proof of the Gap Theorem

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

By hypothesis and compactness, there is a right limit $\{b_n\}$ with

$$b_n = 0 \quad n < 0$$

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But then, $f_- \equiv 0$ while $f_+ \not\equiv 0$, so $-f_-$ cannot be an analytic continuation of f_+ .



Proof of the Gap Theorem

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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Notes. 1. For Fabry, density of nonzero elements is 0. We allow examples where the density is 1!



Proof of the Gap Theorem

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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But then, $f_- \equiv 0$ while $f_+ \not\equiv 0$, so $-f_-$ cannot be an analytic continuation of f_+ .

Notes. 1. For Fabry, density of nonzero elements is 0. We allow examples where the density is 1!

2. This result is not new; it follows from a result of Agmon (1951).



Soft and Hard Edges

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

There is an interesting subtlety. The last theorem would seem to contradict the following which says Fabry is optimal!



Soft and Hard Edges

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

There is an interesting subtlety. The last theorem would seem to contradict the following which says Fabry is optimal!

Theorem (Polya (1942), Erdős (1945)). *Let n_k be such that for every b_k with*

$$0 < \limsup |b_k| \leq \sup |b_k| < \infty$$

$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k z^{n_k}$ has a natural boundary on $\partial\mathbb{D}$. Then $n_k/k \rightarrow \infty$.



Soft and Hard Edges

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

The resolution is that in the optimal gap theorem, we have sharp transitions from a_n 's going to zero and those going to nonzero.



Soft and Hard Edges

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

The resolution is that in the optimal gap theorem, we have sharp transitions from a_n 's going to zero and those going to nonzero.

On the other hand, the examples of Erdős have long blocks of n 's with a positive density of n_k 's, and one slowly ramps up in these blocks.



Soft and Hard Edges

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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This is reminiscent of constructions of Molchanov and Remling who placed reflectionless solitons between gaps to get a.c. spectrum examples with sparseness.



Soft and Hard Edges

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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This is reminiscent of constructions of Molchanov and Remling who placed reflectionless solitons between gaps to get a.c. spectrum examples with sparseness.

Or rather, since Erdős is earlier, they are reminiscent of Erdős.



Nondeterminism Implies NB

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Theorem (Breuer–Simon). *If there exists $m_j \rightarrow \infty$ and $n_j \rightarrow \infty$ so that $a_{n_j} - a_{m_j} \rightarrow b \neq 0$, $a_{n_j+m} - a_{m_j+m} \rightarrow 0$, either all $m < 0$ or all $m > 0$, then $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$ has a strong natural boundary.*



Nondeterminism Implies NB

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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Proof. Two right limits; same f_- , different $f_+(0)$, or same f_+ , different $f'_-(\infty)$. □



Rudin–Shapiro Series

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Definition.

$$P_0(x) = Q_0(x) = 1; \quad \deg(P_n) = \deg(Q_n) = 2^{n-1}$$

$$P_{n+1}(x) = P_n(x) + x^{2^n} Q_n(x) \quad Q_{n+1}(x) = P_n(x) - x^{2^n} q_n(x)$$



Rudin–Shapiro Series

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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Theorem (Brillheart, 1973). $f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n(x)$ has a natural boundary at $|x| = 1$.



Rudin–Shapiro Series

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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Theorem (Brillheart, 1973). $f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n(x)$ has a natural boundary at $|x| = 1$.

Proof. f has $P_n Q_n$, so $P_{n-1}(Q_{n-1})P_{n-1}(-Q_{n-1})$. □



Rudin–Shapiro Series

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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Proof. f has $P_n Q_n$, so $P_{n-1}(Q_{n-1})P_{n-1}(-Q_{n-1})$. □

Remark. Brillheart uses Szegő.



Proof of Szegő's Theorem

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

This follows in part ideas of Boas. Used in the Jacobi case, it provides an interesting alternative to Kotani's analysis of the analog.



Proof of Szegő's Theorem

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

This follows in part ideas of Boas. Used in the Jacobi case, it provides an interesting alternative to Kotani's analysis of the analog.

Lemma. *If a_n is a sequence with finitely many values and which is not eventually periodic, then $\forall N \forall p, \exists n, m \geq N$ so that*

$$\begin{aligned} a_{j+n} &= a_{j+m} & j &= 0, 1, 2, \dots, p-1 \\ a_{p+n} &\neq a_{p+m} \end{aligned}$$



Proof of Szegő's Theorem

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Proof of Lemma. Suppose not. Then, because there are only finitely many p blocks, $\exists N \exists P$ so that every p block determines the next 1, then by induction, 2, \dots full p block. That is, there is a function F on p blocks, so $F(p \text{ block}) = \text{next } p \text{ block}$.



Proof of Szegő's Theorem

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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For some k , $\text{ran}(F^k) = \text{ran}(F^{k+1}) = \dots$ since the set of p blocks is finite. So for some k , $\text{ran}(F^k) = \text{ran}(F^{k+1})$, so then all equal.



Proof of Szegő's Theorem

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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Once F is a bijection, on a finite set, $F^\ell = 1$ for some ℓ , so eventually periodic. \square



Proof of Szegő's Theorem

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

To get Szegő, if a_n is not eventually periodic, there are, by the lemma, two right limits, \tilde{a} and \tilde{b} so $\tilde{a}_j = \tilde{b}_j$ for $j \leq 0$, but $a_1 \neq b_1$, so at most one is reflectionless, so not periodic \Rightarrow natural boundary.



Classical Results

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Theorem (Steinhaus, 1929). *Suppose that $\sum a_n z^n$ has a finite radius of convergence. $\{\omega_n\}_{n=0}^\infty$ are iidrv with uniform distribution on $\partial\mathbb{D}$. For a.e. choice, $\sum a_n \omega_n z^n$ has a natural boundary on radius of convergence.*



Classical Results

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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Theorem (Paley–Zygmund, 1932). *Same result for $\omega_n = \pm 1$ equidistribution.*



Classical Results

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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Theorem (Paley–Zygmund, 1932). *Same result for $\omega_n = \pm 1$ equidistribution.*

Various irv extensions by Kahane (1968 book)



Reflectionless View

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

**Random Power
Series**

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

From our point of view, these results are “obvious” (so long as everything is bounded and doesn't go to a constant!).



Reflectionless View

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

**Random Power
Series**

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

From our point of view, these results are “obvious” (so long as everything is bounded and doesn't go to a constant!).

For reflectionless, $\{b_n\}_{n=-\infty}^{-1}$ determines b_0 . But if b_0 is “truly” random, e.g., independent and nonconstant, it is not determined. We are still trying to figure out the optimal statements of theorems—but here are two:



Reflectionless View

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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For reflectionless, $\{b_n\}_{n=-\infty}^{-1}$ determines b_0 . But if b_0 is “truly” random, e.g., independent and nonconstant, it is not determined. We are still trying to figure out the optimal statements of theorems—but here are two:

Theorem (Breuer–Simon). *Let $a_n(\omega)$ be a stationary, ergodic, bounded, nondeterministic process. Then for a.e. ω , $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(\omega)z^n$ has a strong natural boundary.*



Reflectionless View

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Theorem (Breuer–Simon). *Let $a_n(\omega)$ be independent (but not necessarily identically distributed) uniformly bounded random variable so that for some $n_j \rightarrow \infty$, $\text{Var}(a_{n_j}(\omega)) \rightarrow c \neq 0$. Then for a.e. ω , $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(\omega)z^n$ has a strong natural boundary.*



Reflectionless View

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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For example, for $n \neq n_j$, a_n can be nonrandom.



Pólya–Carleson Theorem

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Theorem (Pólya–Carleson, 1921). *If $\{a_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ are all integers, then either $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$ is rational or has a natural boundary on its radius of convergence.*



Pólya–Carleson Theorem

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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These a_n are unbounded so, in general, we can't hope to prove this.



Hecke's Example

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Determining which case one is in may not be easy.



Hecke's Example

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Determining which case one is in may not be easy.

Theorem (Hecke, 1921). *Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$. Let $[\dots] =$ integral part of \dots . Then $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} [\alpha n] z^n$ has a natural boundary on the unit circle.*



Hecke's Example

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Determining which case one is in may not be easy.

Theorem (Hecke, 1921). *Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$. Let $[\dots] =$ integral part of \dots . Then $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} [\alpha n] z^n$ has a natural boundary on the unit circle.*

Since $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \alpha n z^n = \alpha / (1 - z)^2$, this is equivalent to $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \{\alpha n\} z^n$ having a natural boundary, and that is a bounded sequence, so we can hope to prove this. Here $\{y\} = y - [y]$.



Damanik–Killip Theorem

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Theorem (Damanik–Killip, 2005). *Consider a Jacobi matrix, $J(\theta)$, with $a_n \equiv 1$ and $b_n(\theta) = g(\alpha n + \theta)$ where α is irrational, g is bounded and periodic with period 1, and on $[0, 1]$, g is continuous except at finitely many points, at one of which it has different right and left limit. Then for a.e. θ , $J(\theta)$ has no a.c. spectrum.*



Our Result

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Theorem (Breuer–Simon). *Let g be as in Damanik–Killip. Then for all θ , $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} g(\alpha n + \theta)z^n$ has a strong natural boundary.*



Our Result

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Theorem (Breuer–Simon). *Let g be as in Damanik–Killip. Then for all θ , $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} g(\alpha n + \theta)z^n$ has a strong natural boundary.*

Corollary. *Hecke's result*



Our Result

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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Corollary. *Hecke's result*

Sketch. Suppose θ_0 is a point of discontinuity. By finding n_j and m_j so $\{\alpha n_j\} \rightarrow \theta_0$ from below and $\{\alpha m_j\} \rightarrow \theta_0$ from above, we get two right limits, b and \tilde{b} , so that $b_0 \neq \tilde{b}_0$, but $b_n \neq \tilde{b}_n$ for finitely many n 's. By shifting, we can suppose $b_n = \tilde{b}_n$ for $n \leq -1$ but $b_0 \neq \tilde{b}_0$. They cannot both be reflectionless across the same interval.



M. Riesz's Lemma

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Lemma (M. Riesz, 1916). *Suppose $\sup_n |a_n| = A < \infty$ and $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$ has an analytic continuation to $\mathbb{D} \cup S$ where (for $R > 1$ and $\alpha < \beta$),*

$$S = \{z \mid 0 < |z| < R, \alpha < \arg(z) < \beta\}$$

continuous on \bar{S} with $M = \sup_{z \in \bar{S}} |f(z)|$. Let $z_1 = e^{i\alpha}$, $z_2 = e^{i\beta}$.



M. Riesz's Lemma

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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$$S = \{z \mid 0 < |z| < R, \alpha < \arg(z) < \beta\}$$

continuous on \bar{S} with $M = \sup_{z \in \bar{S}} |f(z)|$. Let $z_1 = e^{i\alpha}$, $z_2 = e^{i\beta}$.

Define, for $N = 0, 1, 2, \dots$,

$$S_+^N(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n+N} z^n \quad S_-^N(z) = \sum_{n=-N}^{-1} a_{n+N} z^n$$



M. Riesz's Lemma

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Then S_+^N has an analytic continuation to $\mathbb{D} \cup S$, continuous on \bar{S} , and for $N \geq 1$,

$$\sup_{\bar{S}} |(z - z_1)(z - z_2)S_+^N(z)| \leq (A + M)(1 + R)^2(R - 1)^{-1}$$



M. Riesz's Lemma

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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$$\sup_{\bar{S}} |(z - z_1)(z - z_2)S_+^N(z)| \leq (A + M)(1 + R)^2(R - 1)^{-1}$$

Note. For later purposes, we note S_+^N has a continuation to $\bar{S} \setminus \{0\}$ and that on $\bar{S} \setminus \{0\}$,

$$S_+^N + S_-^N = z^{-N}f(z) \quad (*)$$



Riesz's Proof

By the maximum principle, we only need the bound on $\partial S \setminus \{z_1, z_2\}$. Let $g(z) = (z - z_1)(z - z_2)S_+^N(z)$.

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



Riesz's Proof

By the maximum principle, we only need the bound on $\partial S \setminus \{z_1, z_2\}$. Let $g(z) = (z - z_1)(z - z_2)S_+^N(z)$.

On $\{z \mid 0 \leq |z| = r < 1; \arg(z) = \alpha \text{ or } \beta\}$,

$$|g(z)| \leq (1-r)(2) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} Ar^n = 2A \leq (A+M)(1+R)^2(R-1)^{-1}$$

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani-Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



Riesz's Proof

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani-Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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On $\{z \mid 0 \leq |z| = r < 1; \arg(z) = \alpha \text{ or } \beta\}$,

$$|g(z)| \leq (1-r)(2) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} Ar^n = 2A \leq (A+M)(1+R)^2(R-1)^{-1}$$

On $|z| > 1$,

$$\begin{aligned} |S_-^N(z)| &\leq A|z|^{-1}(1 - |z|^{-1})^{-1} \\ &= A(|z| - 1)^{-1} \end{aligned}$$



Riesz's Proof

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani-Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

On $\{z \mid 1 < |z| < R; \arg(z) = \alpha \text{ or } \beta\}$, by (*),

$$\begin{aligned} |g(z)| &\leq [M|z|^{-N} + A(|z| - 1)^{-1}][(|z| - 1)(1 + R)] \\ &\leq (A + M)(1 + R) \leq (A + M)(1 + R)^2(R - 1)^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

since $|z|^{-N}(|z| - 1) < 1$.



Riesz's Proof

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

On $\{|z| = R; \arg(z) \in [\alpha, \beta]\}$, by (*),

$$\begin{aligned} |g(z)| &\leq [MR^{-N} + A(R-1)^{-1}](1+R)^2 \\ &\leq (A+M)(1+R)^2(R-1)^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

since $R^{-N} \leq (R-1)^{-1}$.



Breuer–Simon Proof

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

By Riesz, if $N_j \rightarrow \infty$, $\{S_+^N\}$ are uniformly bounded on compact subsets of S . By right limit, S_+^N converges on \mathbb{D} . So, by Vitali, $S_+ \rightarrow f_+$ on $\mathbb{D} \cup S$.



Breuer–Simon Proof

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

By Riesz, if $N_j \rightarrow \infty$, $\{S_+^N\}$ are uniformly bounded on compact subsets of S . By right limit, S_+^N converges on \mathbb{D} . So, by Vitali, $S_+ \rightarrow f_+$ on $\mathbb{D} \cup S$.

By (*), on $S \cap \{|z| > 1\}$, $f_+ + f_- = 0$, so Q.E.D.



E^1 (Sector)

We need the following facts about a function f analytic on \mathbb{D} obeying $\sup_{0 < r < 1} \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} |f(re^{i\theta})| \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} < \infty$:

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



E^1 (Sector)

We need the following facts about a function f analytic on \mathbb{D} obeying $\sup_{0 < r < 1} \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} |f(re^{i\theta})| \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} < \infty$:

- It has nontangential boundary values $f(e^{i\theta})$ on (α, β) .

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



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- It has nontangential boundary values $f(e^{i\theta})$ on (α, β) .
- f is L^1 on each $(\alpha + \varepsilon, \beta - \varepsilon)$.

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



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- It has nontangential boundary values $f(e^{i\theta})$ on (α, β) .
- f is L^1 on each $(\alpha + \varepsilon, \beta - \varepsilon)$.
- For each such ε , the convergence is also in L^1 -norm.

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



E^1 (Sector)

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- It has nontangential boundary values $f(e^{i\theta})$ on (α, β) .
- f is L^1 on each $(\alpha + \varepsilon, \beta - \varepsilon)$.
- For each such ε , the convergence is also in L^1 -norm.
- $F(z) = \int_{\alpha+\varepsilon}^{\beta-\varepsilon} f(e^{i\theta})(e^{i\theta} - z)^{-1} \frac{d\theta}{2\pi}$ is analytic on $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{e^{i\theta} \mid \alpha + \varepsilon < \theta < \beta - \varepsilon\}$ with a jump discontinuity

$$F(e^{i\theta}(1 - 0)) - F(e^{i\theta}(1 + 0)) = f(e^{i\theta})$$

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



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- It has nontangential boundary values $f(e^{i\theta})$ on (α, β) .
- f is L^1 on each $(\alpha + \varepsilon, \beta - \varepsilon)$.
- For each such ε , the convergence is also in L^1 -norm.
- $F(z) = \int_{\alpha+\varepsilon}^{\beta-\varepsilon} f(e^{i\theta})(e^{i\theta} - z)^{-1} \frac{d\theta}{2\pi}$ is analytic on $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{e^{i\theta} \mid \alpha + \varepsilon < \theta < \beta - \varepsilon\}$ with a jump discontinuity

$$F(e^{i\theta}(1 - 0)) - F(e^{i\theta}(1 + 0)) = f(e^{i\theta})$$

These all follow from results in Chapter 10 of Duren's H^p -spaces book on E^1 (interior of a rectifiable Jordan curve)

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



Painlevé's Theorem

We need the following generalized Painlevé's theorem:

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



Painlevé's Theorem

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

We need the following generalized Painlevé's theorem:

Theorem. Let f_+ be analytic in \mathbb{D} , f_- in $\mathbb{C} \setminus \overline{\mathbb{D}}$ with $\sup_{0 < r < 1} \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} |f_+(re^{i\theta})| \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} < \infty$ and that $\sup_{1 < r < 2} \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} |f_-(re^{i\theta})| \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} < \infty$. Suppose $f_+(e^{i\theta}) = f_-(e^{i\theta})$ a.e. on (α, β) . Then there is a function $F(z)$ analytic on $\mathbb{C} \setminus [\partial\mathbb{D} \setminus (\alpha, \beta)]$ equal to f_+ on \mathbb{D} .



Painlevé's Theorem

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

We need the following generalized Painlevé's theorem:

Theorem. Let f_+ be analytic in \mathbb{D} , f_- in $\mathbb{C} \setminus \overline{\mathbb{D}}$ with $\sup_{0 < r < 1} \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} |f_+(re^{i\theta})| \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} < \infty$ and that $\sup_{1 < r < 2} \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} |f_-(re^{i\theta})| \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} < \infty$. Suppose $f_+(e^{i\theta}) = f_-(e^{i\theta})$ a.e. on (α, β) . Then there is a function $F(z)$ analytic on $\mathbb{C} \setminus [\partial\mathbb{D} \setminus (\alpha, \beta)]$ equal to f_+ on \mathbb{D} .

This is an easy Morera-like argument.



Breuer–Simon Proof

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

Fix $\varepsilon > 0$ and let F be the function given by the Cauchy integral of $f(e^{i\theta}) \upharpoonright (\alpha + \varepsilon, \beta - \varepsilon)$. Let

$$b_n = \int_{\alpha+\varepsilon}^{\beta-\varepsilon} e^{-in\theta} f(e^{i\theta}) \frac{d\theta}{2\pi}$$

Then F has Taylor expansions $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n z^n$ near 0 and $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{-1} b_n z^n$ near ∞ .



Breuer–Simon Proof

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof

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Moreover, $b_n \rightarrow 0$ as $|n| \rightarrow \infty$ by the Riemann–Lebesgue lemma. In particular, $\sup_n |b_n| < \infty$.



Breuer–Simon Proof

Let $c_n = a_n - b_n$ and $f_+(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n$, so

$$\lim_{r \uparrow 1} f_+(re^{i\theta}) = f(e^{i\theta}) - F((1-0)e^{i\theta})$$

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



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Let $f_- = -\sum_{n=-\infty}^{-1} b_n z^n$ so its boundary values are

$$\lim_{r \uparrow 1} f_-(re^{i\theta}) = -F((1+0)e^{i\theta})$$

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

Random Power
Series

Hecke's Example

Classical Proof

L^1 Proof



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$$\lim_{r \uparrow 1} f_-(re^{i\theta}) = -F((1+0)e^{i\theta})$$

Thus, by the discontinuity of F , Painlevé's theorem applies and $f_-(z)$ has an analytic continuation through $(\alpha + \varepsilon, \beta - \varepsilon)$. Since $b_n \rightarrow 0$ right limits of $\{a_n\}$ are the same as right limits of $\{c_n\}$ so the classical result implies the L^1 result.

Classical Natural
Boundary

Kotani–Remling
Theory

The Main
Theorems

Gap Theorems

Szegő's Theorem

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Series

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Classical Proof

L^1 Proof