

Digress to look a little at the continuous case.
 Recall $H_+ \subset L^2(dk/2\pi)$ consists of Fourier transforms
 of elements of $L^2(0, \infty; dx)$. One has

$$f(k_0) = \int_0^\infty e^{ik_0 x} f(x) dx = (\check{f}, e^{-ik_0 x}) = (\check{f}, \widehat{e^{-ik_0 x}})$$

$$\widehat{e^{-ik_0 x}}(k) = \int_0^\infty e^{ikx - ik_0 x} dx = \frac{i}{k - k_0}$$

Hence $f_a = \frac{i}{k - \bar{a}}$ is the point evaluator at $a \in \text{UHP}$

i.e. $(\check{f}, \frac{i}{k - \bar{a}}) = \int \frac{f(k)}{k - a} \frac{dk}{2\pi i} = f(a)$

as one would expect from Cauchy's formula. Also

 $|f(a)| = |(\check{f}, f_a)| \leq \|f\| \|f_a\|$

$$\|f_a\|^2 = f_a(a) = \frac{1}{2 \operatorname{Im} a}$$

Next suppose that R is a bounded measurable fn. on the line such that the map $f \mapsto Rf$ from L^2 to L^2 carries H_+ into H_+ . ~~Suppose~~ Suppose $|R(k)| \leq 1$ on R . Then we can extend R analytically in the UHP by

$$R(k) = \frac{(Rf)(k)}{f(k)}$$

Take $f = f_a$ so that the denominator doesn't vanish. Also

$$|R(a)f_a(a)| = |(Rf_a, f_a)| \leq \|f_a\|^2 \Rightarrow |R(a)| \leq 1$$

so R is bounded by 1 in the UHP.

There is a conjugation on \mathcal{H} given by

$$[f e_{\text{out}} + g e_{\text{in}}] \mapsto \bar{g} e_{\text{out}} + \bar{f} e_{\text{in}}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\| \bar{g} e_{\text{out}} + \bar{f} e_{\text{in}} \|^2 &= \| \bar{g} R + \bar{f} \|^2 + \| \bar{g} \|^2 - \| R \bar{g} \|^2 \\ &= \| f + g \bar{R} \|^2 + \| g \|^2 - \| \bar{R} g \|^2 = \| f e_{\text{out}} + g e_{\text{in}} \|^2\end{aligned}$$

Conjugation takes $U^n e_{\text{out}} \mapsto U^{-n} e_{\text{in}}$ and interchanges U and U^{-1} . In the port case it gives rise to a conjugation on \mathcal{H}_0 interchanging $e_{\text{out}}, e_{\text{in}}$ and V, V' .

Problem: Let's formally work out the continuous version of the Schur process. The idea will be to take discrete systems

$$g_{n\varepsilon} - \overline{h_{n\varepsilon}} p_{n\varepsilon} = \boxed{\text{sketch}} \sqrt{1 - |h_{n\varepsilon}|^2} g_{(n+1)\varepsilon}$$

$$p_{n\varepsilon} - h_{n\varepsilon} g_{n\varepsilon} = \sqrt{1 - |h_{n\varepsilon}|^2} e^{ik\varepsilon} p_{(n+1)\varepsilon}$$

and to let $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ with $n\varepsilon \rightarrow x$. Now we want

$$h_{n\varepsilon} \sim \varepsilon h_x$$

The first relation can be written

$$-\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \overline{h_{n\varepsilon}} p_{n\varepsilon} = \underbrace{\left(\sqrt{1 - |h_{n\varepsilon}|^2} - 1 \right)}_{\varepsilon} g_{(n+1)\varepsilon} + \frac{g_{(n+1)\varepsilon} - g_{n\varepsilon}}{\varepsilon}$$

and as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ it becomes

$$-\overline{h_x} p_x = \frac{d}{dx} g_x$$

The second relation ~~is~~ is

$$-\frac{1}{\epsilon} h_{n,\epsilon} g_{n\epsilon} \simeq \left(\frac{\sqrt{1 - |h_{n,\epsilon}|^2} - 1}{\epsilon} \right) e^{ik\epsilon} p_{(n+1)\epsilon}$$

$$+ \frac{e^{ik\epsilon} - 1}{\epsilon} p_{(n+1)\epsilon} + \frac{p_{(n+1)\epsilon} - p_{n\epsilon}}{\epsilon}$$

and in the limit it becomes

$$-h_x g_x = ik p_x + \frac{d}{dx} p_x$$

Thus we get

$$\frac{d}{dx} \begin{pmatrix} p_x \\ g_x \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -ik - h_x & 0 \\ -h_x & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} p_x \\ g_x \end{pmatrix}$$

which is essentially a Dirac system. It would seem that we maybe want to replace x by $-x$.

July 21, 1978 (Erica born July 19)

The problem is to understand orthogonal projection, that is, to make sense out of

$$g_x = \text{pr}_{\mathcal{H}_x}(\mathbf{e}_{\text{in}})$$

Here $\mathcal{H}_x = (\text{out}, \text{in})^{-1}(e^{ikx} H_- \times H_+)$

$$= \text{out}^{-1}(e^{ikx} H_-) \cap \text{in}^{-1}(H_+)$$

A possible approach is to notice that $\text{in}^{-1}(H_+)$ is the orthogonal complement of $H_- \mathbf{e}_{\text{in}}$, hence we have

$$\mathcal{H} \ominus \mathcal{H}_x = (e^{ikx} H_+) \text{out} + (H_-) \mathbf{e}_{\text{in}}$$

when the latter is a closed subspace, which is the case when $|R(k)| \leq 1 - \varepsilon$. So we might try to find $\alpha \in H_+$, $\beta \in H_-$ such that if we put

$$g_x = \mathbf{e}_{\text{in}} - e^{ikx} \alpha \text{out} - \beta \mathbf{e}_{\text{in}}$$

then g_x is (formally) orthogonal to $\mathcal{H} \ominus \mathcal{H}_x$. Thus I want

$$\text{in}(g_x) = (-\beta) - e^{ikx} \alpha R \perp H_-$$

$$\text{out}(g_x) = (-\beta) \bar{R} - e^{ikx} \alpha \perp e^{ikx} H_+$$

To solve these equations we can replace R by $\bar{e}^{ikx} R$ and so reduce to the case where $x=0$, whence the equations become

$$\begin{aligned} 1 - \beta - \alpha R &\perp H_- \\ \bar{R} - \beta \bar{R} - \alpha &\perp H_+ \end{aligned}$$

The 1 in the first equation can be dropped. Let $j_+: H_+ \rightarrow L^2$, $j_-: H_- \rightarrow L^2$ be the inclusions. Then we get the equations

$$\beta + j_-^* R j_+ = 0$$

$$j_+^* \bar{R} j_- (1 - \beta) - \alpha = 0$$

so

$$\alpha - (j_+^* \bar{R} j_-)(j_-^* R j_+) \alpha = j_+^* \bar{R}$$

If we assume that $|R| \leq 1 - \varepsilon$ and that $R \in L^2$ then this equation has a unique solution α in H_+ . In fact

$$j_+ \alpha = P_+ \bar{R} + P_+ \bar{R} P_- R P_+ \bar{R} + (P_+ \bar{R} P_- R)^2 P_+ \bar{R} + \dots$$

where $P_{\pm} = j_{\pm} j_{\pm}^*$ is the projector on H_{\pm} . Also

$$-j_- \beta = P_- R P_+ \bar{R} + (P_- R P_+ \bar{R})^2 + \dots$$

so therefore we have solved the projective problem under the aforementioned conditions.

To get the x variation we replace R by $R_x = e^{ikx} R$ and then have

$$g_x = \boxed{\quad} (1 - \beta_x) e_{in} \boxed{\quad} - (e^{ikx} \alpha_x) e_{out}$$

If we put $\Gamma_x = P_+ \bar{R}_x$ then

$$1 - \beta_x = 1 + \Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x \cdot 1 + (\Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x)^2 \cdot 1 + \dots = (1 - \Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x)^{-1} \cdot 1$$

$$\alpha_x = \Gamma_x \cdot 1 + \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x \cdot 1 + \dots = \Gamma_x (1 - \Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x)^{-1} \cdot 1$$

$$\text{or } = (1 - \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^*)^{-1} \Gamma_x \cdot 1$$

so

$$\boxed{g_x = ((1 - \Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x)^{-1} \cdot 1) e_{in} - U(x) (\Gamma_x (1 - \Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x)^{-1} \cdot 1) e_{out}}$$

Next find $P_x = \text{pr}_{H_x} (U(x)e_{out})$

$$= U(x)e_{out} - (e^{ikx}\gamma) e_{out} - \delta e_{in}$$

with $\gamma \in H_+$, $\delta \in H_-$. Then

$$\text{in}(P_x) = e^{ikx}(1 - \gamma)R - \delta \perp H_-$$

$$\text{out}(P_x) = e^{ikx}(1 - \gamma) - \delta \bar{R} \perp e^{ikx}H_+$$

or

$$P_x R_x (1 - \gamma) = \delta$$

$$\gamma + P_+ \bar{R}_x \delta = 0$$

$$\Gamma_x^* \cdot 1 = P_x R_x = \delta - P_x R_x P_+ \bar{R}_x \delta = (1 - \Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x) \delta$$

$$\delta = (1 - \Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x)^{-1} \Gamma_x^* \cdot 1 = \Gamma_x^* (1 - \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^*)^{-1} \cdot 1$$

$$-\gamma = \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^* (1 - \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^*)^{-1} \cdot 1$$

$$1 - \gamma = (1 - \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^*)^{-1} \cdot 1$$

$$\boxed{P_x = U(x) ((1 - \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^*)^{-1} \cdot 1) e_{out} - (\Gamma_x^* (1 - \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^*)^{-1} \cdot 1) e_{in}}$$

(P_x, g_x) is a sum of four terms

$$\begin{aligned} \textcircled{1} & \quad \left(u(x) \left((I - \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^*)^{-1} \mathbf{1} \right) e_{\text{out}}, \left((I - \Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x)^{-1} \mathbf{1} \right) e_{\text{in}} \right) \\ & = \left(e^{ikx} R (I - \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^*)^{-1} \mathbf{1}, \underbrace{(I - \Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x)^{-1} \mathbf{1}}_{I - \beta \text{ essentially belongs to } H_-} \right) \\ & \quad \text{so this might be equal to} \\ & \stackrel{?}{=} \left(P_- R_x (I - \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^*)^{-1} \mathbf{1}, (I - \Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x)^{-1} \mathbf{1} \right) \\ & = \left(\Gamma_x^* (I - \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^*)^{-1} \mathbf{1}, (I - \Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x)^{-1} \mathbf{1} \right) \end{aligned}$$

However ~~if we use this argument then~~

$$\textcircled{2} = - \left((\Gamma_x^* (I - \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^*)^{-1} \mathbf{1}) e_{\text{in}}, (I - \Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x)^{-1} \mathbf{1} e_{\text{in}} \right)$$

will cancel this term and we will get zero for (P_x, g_x) . ?

<u>Point</u>	$\Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x = P_+ e^{ikx} \bar{R} P_- e^{-ikx} R = P_+ R \bar{R} P_- R$	for $x \leq 0$
<u>because</u>	$P_- e^{ikx} = e^{ikx} P_-$	<u>if $x < 0$</u>
<u>Similarly</u>	$\Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x = P_- e^{ikx} R P_+ e^{-ikx} \bar{R} = \Gamma_0^* \Gamma_0$	<u>for $x \geq 0$</u>
<u>because</u>		

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Review: Yesterday we found a way of interpreting the formula $g_x = \text{pr}_{H_x}(\epsilon_{in})$ which goes as follows. One has

$$H_x = (\text{out}, \text{in})^{-1} / (e^{ikx} H_- \times H_+)$$

$$= \text{orthogonal space to } (e^{ikx} H_+) e_{\text{out}} + (H_-) e_{\text{in}}$$

so we can look for an element

$$g_x = \epsilon_{in} - (e^{ikx} \alpha) e_{\text{out}} - \beta e_{\text{in}}$$

with $\alpha \in H_+$, $\beta \in H_-$ such that g_x is (formally) orthogonal to $(e^{ikx} H_+) e_{\text{out}} + (H_-) e_{\text{in}}$. This leads to the ~~orthogonal~~ conditions (formally)

$$\text{in}(g_x) = (1 - \beta) - R e^{ikx} \alpha \perp H_-$$

$$\text{out}(g_x) = \bar{R}(1 - \beta) - e^{ikx} \alpha \perp e^{ikx} H_+$$

If P_\pm is the orthogonal projection on H_\pm , and $R_x = R e^{ikx}$, and we suppose $R \in L_2$, then we get

$$-\beta = P_- R \alpha$$

$$\alpha = P_+ \bar{R}(1 - \beta) = P_+ (\bar{R}) - P_+ \bar{R} \beta$$

Put $\Gamma_x = P_+ \bar{R} : H_- \rightarrow H_+$; then $\Gamma_x^* = P_- R$. so we get

$$\alpha = \Gamma_x P_- 1 + \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^* \alpha$$

$$\alpha = (1 - \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^*)^{-1} \Gamma_x 1$$

This is a well-defined elt of L^2 provided we assume $|R| \leq 1 - \varepsilon$ so that $\|\Gamma_x\| \leq 1 - \varepsilon$, and also $R \in L^2$ so $\Gamma_x 1 \in L^2$.

I now want to compute how α_x changes with x .

$$\Gamma_x \Gamma_x^* = P_+ \bar{R} e^{-ikx} P_- e^{ikx} R$$

$$\Gamma_{x+\varepsilon} \Gamma_{x+\varepsilon}^* = P_+ \bar{R}_x e^{-ik\varepsilon} P_- e^{ik\varepsilon} R_x$$

$$e^{-ik\varepsilon} P_- e^{ik\varepsilon} \hat{f}(k) = \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{ik(x-\varepsilon)} f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{-\varepsilon} e^{ikx} f(x) dx$$

$$\left. \frac{d}{d\varepsilon} (e^{-ik\varepsilon} P_- e^{ik\varepsilon} \hat{f}) (k) \right|_{\varepsilon=0} = -f(0) = - \int \hat{f}(k) \frac{dk}{2\pi} = -(\hat{f}, 1)$$

so

$$\frac{d}{dx} \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^* g = P_+ \bar{R}_x (-R_x g, 1) = \underbrace{(-g, \bar{R}_x)}_{\text{scalar element of } H_+} \underbrace{(\Gamma_x 1)}_{}$$

We use this to compute the derivative of β

$$\alpha = \Gamma_x 1 + \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^* \alpha$$

$$\Gamma_x^* (1 - \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^*) \alpha = \Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x 1 \quad -\beta = \Gamma_x^* \alpha$$

$$(1 - \Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x) \beta = -\Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x 1$$

But we need to differentiate $\Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x = P_- R e^{-ikx} P_+ e^{ikx} \bar{R}$

$$e^{ik\varepsilon} P_+ e^{-ik\varepsilon} \hat{f}(k) = \int_0^\infty e^{ik(x+\varepsilon)} f(x+\varepsilon) dx = \int_\varepsilon^\infty e^{ikx} f(x) dx$$

$$\left. \frac{d}{d\varepsilon} (e^{ik\varepsilon} P_+ e^{-ik\varepsilon} \hat{f}) \right|_{\varepsilon=0} = -f(0) = -(\hat{f}, 1)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x g = \Gamma_x^* (-\bar{R}_x g, 1) = -(g, R_x) \cdot \Gamma_x^* 1$$

So now differentiating

$$(1 - \Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x) \beta = -\Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x 1$$

gives

$$(1 - \Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x) \frac{d\beta}{dx} + (\beta, R_x) \Gamma_x^* 1 = (1, R_x) \Gamma_x^* 1$$

or

$$\frac{d\beta}{dx} = \boxed{(1 - \Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x)^{-1}} (1 - \beta, R_x) \Gamma_x^* 1$$

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Next ~~(1 - \Gamma_x P_x^*) \alpha~~ $(1 - \Gamma_x P_x^*) \alpha = \Gamma_x 1 = P_+ e^{-ikx} \bar{R}$, so we need to differentiate $\Gamma_x 1$.

$$\begin{aligned} \cancel{(1 - \Gamma_x P_x^*) \alpha} &= e^{ikx} (e^{ikx} P_+ e^{-ikx} \bar{R}) \\ \cancel{(1 - \Gamma_x P_x^*)} \frac{d\alpha}{dx} + (\alpha, \bar{R}_x) \Gamma_x 1 &= -ik \Gamma_x 1 \\ &\quad + e^{-ikx} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Gamma_{x+\varepsilon} 1 = e^{-ik\varepsilon} e^{ik\varepsilon} P_+ e^{-ik\varepsilon} \bar{R}_x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \Gamma_x 1 = -ik \Gamma_x 1 \cancel{(\bar{R}_x, 1)}$$

In general

$$\frac{d}{dx} (\Gamma_x g) = -ik(\Gamma_x g) - (g, R_x)$$

so

$$\cancel{(1 - \Gamma_x P_x^*)} \frac{d\alpha}{dx} + (\alpha, \bar{R}_x) \Gamma_x 1 = -ik \Gamma_x 1 - (1, R_x)$$

?

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Instead we can derive the derivative of α by starting with

$$\alpha = \Gamma_x(1-\beta)$$

$$e^{ikx}\alpha = e^{ikx}P_+ e^{-ikx} \bar{R}(1-\beta)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(e^{ikx}\alpha) = e^{ikx}P_+ e^{-ikx} \bar{R} \frac{d}{dx}(1-\beta) \\ - e^{-ikx}(e^{-ikx}\bar{R}(1-\beta), 1)$$

$$e^{-ikx} \frac{d}{dx}(e^{ikx}\alpha) = \Gamma_x \left\{ -(1-\beta, R_x) (1-\Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x)^{-1} \Gamma_x^* 1 \right\} \\ - (1-\beta, R_x)$$

$$e^{-ikx} \frac{d}{dx}(e^{ikx}\alpha) = -(1-\beta, R_x) \underbrace{(1-\Gamma_x \Gamma_x^*)^{-1} \cdot 1}_{1-\gamma \text{ on p. 129}}$$

So from the above two boxed formulas we have

$$\boxed{\frac{d}{dx} g_x = + (1-\beta, R_x) P_x}$$

Similarly we can compute $\frac{d}{dx} P_x$. First we need to collect the useful formulae

$$\frac{d}{dx} e^{ikx} P_+ e^{-ikx} f = \boxed{} - e^{ikx}(e^{-ikx} f, 1)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} e^{-ikx} P_- e^{ikx} f = - e^{-ikx}(e^{ikx} f, 1)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} (\Gamma_x \Gamma_x^* g) = - (g, \bar{R}_x) \cdot \Gamma_x^* 1$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} (\Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x g) = - (g, R_x) \cdot \Gamma_x^* 1$$

$$\text{Now } P_x = (e^{ikx}(1-\gamma))e_{\text{out}} - \delta e_{\text{in}}$$

$$\text{where } (1 - \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^*) (1 - \gamma) = 1 \quad \text{so}$$

$$- (1 - \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^*) \frac{d\gamma}{dx} + (1 - \gamma, \bar{R}_x) \Gamma_x 1 = 0$$

or

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} (1 - \gamma) &= - (1 - \gamma, \bar{R}_x) (1 - \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^*)^{-1} \Gamma_x 1 \\ &= - (1 - \gamma, \bar{R}_x) \alpha \end{aligned}$$

Also

$$+ \delta = \Gamma_x^* (1 - \gamma) = e^{ikx} \{ e^{-ikx} P_x e^{ikx} \bar{R} (1 - \gamma) \}$$

$$\frac{d\delta}{dx} = ik\delta - e^{ikx} \{ e^{-ikx} (e^{ikx} \bar{R} (1 - \gamma), 1) \} + \Gamma_x^* \frac{d}{dx} (1 - \gamma)$$

$$\frac{d\delta}{dx} = ik\delta - (1 - \gamma, \bar{R}_x) \underbrace{\{ 1 + \Gamma_x^* \alpha \}}_{1 - \beta}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} P_x &= \frac{d}{dx} \{ e^{ikx} (1 - \gamma) \} e_{\text{out}} - \frac{d\delta}{dx} e_{\text{in}} \\ &= ikP_x - (1 - \gamma, \bar{R}_x) e^{ikx} \alpha e_{\text{out}} \\ &\quad + (1 - \gamma, \bar{R}_x) (1 - \beta) e_{\text{in}} \end{aligned}$$

or

$$\boxed{\frac{d}{dx} P_x = ikP_x + (1 - \gamma, \bar{R}_x) g_x}$$

So now the problem is to show that $(1 - \beta, R_x)$, $(1 - \gamma, \bar{R}_x)$ are conjugate

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$$\begin{aligned}
 (1-\gamma, \bar{R}_x) &= (1, \bar{R}_x) - (\gamma, \bar{R}_x) & -\gamma = \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^* (1 - \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^*)^{-1} 1 \\
 &= (1, \bar{R}_x) + \boxed{\Gamma_x^* (1 - \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^*)^{-1} 1, \boxed{P\bar{R}_x}} \\
 &= (R_x, 1) + (\Gamma_x (1 - \Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x)^{-1} \Gamma_x^* 1, \Gamma_x 1) \\
 (1-\beta, R_x) &= (1, R_x) + (-\beta, P_- R_x) \\
 &= (1, R_x) + (\Gamma_x^* (1 - \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^*)^{-1} \Gamma_x 1, \Gamma_x^* 1) \\
 &\quad ((1 - \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^*)^{-1} \Gamma_x 1, \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^* 1)
 \end{aligned}$$

Note that

$$(R_x, 1) = \int e^{ikx} R \frac{dk}{2\pi}$$

is the Fourier transform of R ; it is an L^2 function defined a.e. The other terms $(\gamma, \bar{R}_x), (-\beta, R_x)$ are continuous functions of x , it seems.

Anyways, we have that conjugation changes $\Gamma_x = P_+ \bar{R}_x$ to $P_- R_x = \Gamma_x^*$. Hence

$$\overline{1-\gamma} = \overline{(1 - \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^*)^{-1} 1} = (1 - \Gamma_x^* \Gamma_x)^{-1} 1 = 1 - \beta$$

and so

$$(1-\gamma, \bar{R}_x) = (R_x, 1-\beta) = \overline{(-\beta, R_x)}$$

Finally it remains to see if this coefficient is related to (p_x, q_x) .

$$(p_x, g_x) = (e^{ikx}(1-\delta)e_{\text{out}} - \delta e_{\text{in}}, (1-\beta)e_{\text{in}} - e^{ikx}\alpha e_{\text{out}})$$

$$= ((1-\delta)R_x - \delta, 1-\beta) - (1-\delta - \delta \bar{R}_x, \alpha)$$

But recall



$$m(p_x) = (1-\delta)R_x - \delta \perp H_- \quad \text{and} \quad \beta \in H_-$$

$$e^{-ikx}_{\text{out}}(p_x) = 1 - \delta - \delta \bar{R}_x \quad \text{and} \quad \delta + \delta \bar{R}_x \perp H_+$$

$$\text{and} \quad \alpha \in H_+$$

hence we get

$$(p_x, g_x) = ((1-\delta)R_x, 1) - (\delta, 1) - (1, \alpha)$$

But

$$(\delta, 1) = (\Gamma_x^*(1 - \Gamma_x \Gamma_x^*)^{-1} 1, 1)$$

$$= (\Gamma_x^* 1 - \Gamma_x^* \gamma, 1)$$

We run into the following problem: $\Gamma_x^* = P_- R_x$,

~~how do we evaluate~~

$$(\Gamma_x^* \gamma, 1) = (P_- R_x \gamma, 1)$$

or for that manner what is $(P_- f, 1)$ for an element f of L^2 . Here P_- on the Fourier transform level is multiplication by ~~a~~ the characteristic function of $(-\infty, 0]$, so $(P_- f, 1) = \tilde{f}(0)$ is the value at a discontinuity.

July 24, 1978

Consider a Schrödinger DE on \mathbb{R}

$$Lu = -u'' + qu = k^2 u$$

with $q \in C_0^\infty(\mathbb{R})$. I want to construct $(\mathcal{H}, u(t), e_{\text{out}}, e_{\text{in}})$ which belongs to this DE. \mathcal{H} should be built up out of solutions ψ of the wave equation

$$L\psi = -\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2}$$

such solutions correspond under Fourier transform:

$$\psi(x, t) = \int e^{ikt} u(x, k) dk / 2\pi$$

to solutions $u(x, k)$ of $Lu = k^2 u$ in the space of functions of k .

(Check time dependence: After 6 seconds the wave ψ evolves into the wave ψ_b given by

$$\psi_b(x, t) = \psi(x, b+t) = \int e^{-ikt} e^{ibk} u(x, k) dk / 2\pi$$

and hence time evolution for solutions of the wave equation corresponds to multiplication by e^{ikt} .)

The next thing is to identify e_{in} and e_{out} . e_{in} should correspond to a solution of the wave equation consisting of a δ impulse coming in from the right giving rise to a transmitted and a reflected wave. Hence if we take the solution with the asymptotic behavior

$$(*) \quad e^{ikx} \longleftrightarrow Ae^{ikx} + Be^{-ikx}$$

~~outgoing to left~~ incoming from right outgoing to right

and divide by $A(k)$ to get

$$\boxed{\frac{1}{A}} e^{ikx} \longleftrightarrow e^{ikx} + \frac{B}{A} e^{-ikx}$$

we get what should be c_{in} .

If $u(x, k)$ is a solution of $Lu = k^2 u$, then we have

$$u(x, k) = \alpha(k) e^{ikx} + \beta(k) e^{-ikx} \quad x \gg 0$$

and clearly we want to define

$$in(u) = \alpha$$

$$out(u) = \beta$$

Hence

$$in(c_{in}) = 1$$

$$out(c_{in}) = \frac{B}{A}$$

so the reflection coefficient is $R = \frac{B}{A}$. As a check notice that for $k \in LHP$ the function e^{+ikx} decays as $x \rightarrow -\infty$, and grows as $x \rightarrow +\infty$; hence A is "well-defined" in the LHP and doesn't vanish there assuming no bound states. Thus R is analytic in the UHP. (strictly speaking admits an analytic extension to the UHP).

Similarly one has

$$e^{-ikx} \longleftrightarrow \bar{B} e^{ikx} + \bar{A} e^{-ikx}$$

incoming from left outgoing to right

so u_{out} is the solution with asymptotic behavior

$$\frac{1}{A} e^{-ikx} \xleftarrow{\text{out}} \frac{\bar{B}}{A} e^{ikx} + e^{-ikx}$$

Next I want to relate the Schrödinger DE to a Dirac DE. The point is that for a Dirac D.E. the inner product on solutions of the wave equation is the obvious one. So begin with

$$\frac{d}{dx} \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ik & h \\ h & -ik \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad h \text{ real} .$$

then

$$\frac{d}{dx} (u_1 + u_2) = ik(u_1 - u_2) + h(u_1 + u_2)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} (u_1 - u_2) = ik(u_1 + u_2) - h(u_1 - u_2)$$

$$\left(\frac{d}{dx} - h \right) (u_1 + u_2) = ik(u_1 - u_2)$$

$$\left(\frac{d}{dx} + h \right) (u_1 - u_2) = ik(u_1 + u_2)$$

$$\left(\frac{d^2}{dx^2} - h^2 \right) (u_1 + u_2) \quad \left(\frac{d}{dx} + h \right) \left(\frac{d}{dx} - h \right) (u_1 + u_2) = -k^2 u$$

Hence given the potential g I choose h to satisfy

$$h^2 = g.$$

and then a solution $\begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{pmatrix}$ of the Dirac equation gives rise to a solution $u = u_1 + u_2$ of the Schrödinger DE. Solutions of the Riccati equation are given by

$$h = \frac{u'}{u} \quad \text{where} \quad -u'' + gu = 0$$

$$\text{e.g. } \left(\frac{u'}{u}\right)' = \frac{u''}{u} - \left(\frac{u'}{u}\right)^2.$$

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and since we don't want h to have poles we need $u \neq 0$ for all x . For example $u = f(x, 0)$ works and gives an h with $h(x) = 0$ for $x \gg 0$. In general one expects $f(x, 0)$ to be independent from the solution ~ 1 as $x \rightarrow -\infty$, hence there appear to be many possibilities for h .

However we want a solution u of Schrödinger to be given by $u = u_1 + u_2$, where $\begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{pmatrix}$ is a solution of Dirac with the same in and out functions. ~~etc~~

The point maybe is that there ought to be some sort of mathematics connected with the fact that h cannot be chosen to be zero for $x \gg 0$ and $x \ll 0$ simultaneously, in general.

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Point: Yesterday I saw that there were in general many Dirac equations belonging to a Schrödinger equation with potential δ of compact support. However since the reflection coefficient R is analytic in the UHP (and bounded by 1 if g supported in $(-\infty, 0]$) the Dirac system I am after has $h=0$ for $x \gg 0$. This means that the Dirac systems associated to the left and right scattering will be different.

For a Dirac system

$$\frac{d}{dx} \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ik & h \\ h & -ik \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

one gets a Hilbert space $\mathcal{F}(x, t)$ out of solutions of the associated wave equation using the norm

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\mathcal{F}(x, t)|^2 dx$$

which is independent of t . Assuming $h=0$ for $x \gg 0$ one has "incoming" solutions to the wave equation of the form

$$\mathcal{F}(x, t) = \begin{pmatrix} f(x+t) \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad x \geq 0$$

with $f \in C_0^\infty(\mathbb{R})$, and \mathcal{F} is to be zero for $x \leq 0$ and $t \ll 0$. This is just the solution α_{in} where $f = \int e^{ikx} \alpha(k) dk / 2\pi$. In fact

$$\tilde{\alpha}(x)$$

$$e_{in}(x, k) = \begin{pmatrix} e^{ikx} \\ \bar{R}e^{-ikx} \end{pmatrix} \quad x > 0$$

\int_0^∞

$$\mathcal{F}(x, t) = \int e^{ikt} e_{in}(\boxed{x}) \alpha(k) dk / 2\pi$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} f(x+t) \\ \widetilde{R}\alpha(t-x) \end{pmatrix} \quad x > 0$$

It's clear more or less that we actually do get the formulas

$$\|\alpha e_{in}\|^2 = \|\alpha\|^2, \quad \|\beta e_{out}\|^2 = \|\beta\|^2, \quad (\beta e_{out}, \alpha e_{in}) = (R\beta, \alpha)$$

this way.

Question: Is it possible that $\boxed{\cdot}$ of the different possible h satisfying $g = h' + h^2$, that only the h with $h=0$ for $x \gg 0$ has the correct R function? Otherwise you will have ^{different} Dirac systems with the same R .

So suppose $g = h' + h^2$ where g has compact support. Solutions of $u'' = gu$ are linear outside the support of g , $\boxed{\cdot}$ say $u = ax + b$, hence

$$h = \frac{u'}{u} = \frac{a}{ax+b} = O\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) \quad \text{as } |x| \rightarrow \infty$$

$$= 0 \quad \text{if } a = 0$$

Consider now the solution ψ_{in} of Schrödinger with asymptotic behavior

$$Te^{ikx} \longleftrightarrow e^{ikx} + \bar{R}e^{-ikx}$$

Now if u is a solution of Schröd., then the corresponding Dirac solution $(\begin{smallmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{smallmatrix})$ is found by solving

$$u_1 + u_2 = u$$

$$u_1 - u_2 = \frac{1}{ik} \left(\frac{d}{dx} - h \right) u$$

If $u = e^{ikx}$ for x outside the support of g , then we find

$$2u_1 = e^{ikx} \left(1 + 1 - \frac{h}{ik} \right) \quad \text{or}$$

$$u_1 = e^{ikx} \left(1 - \frac{h}{2ik} \right) \sim e^{ikx} \quad \text{as } |x| \rightarrow \infty$$

$$u_2 = \frac{h}{2ik} e^{ikx} \sim 0 \quad \text{as } |x| \rightarrow \infty.$$

Similarly for $u = e^{-ikx}$ we have

$$u_1 = -\frac{h}{2ik} e^{-ikx} \sim 0$$

$$u_2 = \left(1 + \frac{h}{2ik} \right) e^{-ikx} \sim e^{-ikx} \quad \text{as } |x| \rightarrow \infty$$

and so therefore no matter what h is, $u = e^{ikx}$ for ~~except at some points~~ corresponds to the Dirac solution with asymptotic behavior $\begin{pmatrix} e^{ikx} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, etc. Hence we have

$$T \begin{pmatrix} e^{ikx} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \longleftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} e^{ikx} \\ \bar{R}e^{-ikx} \end{pmatrix}$$

and so we get the same scattering function R .