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Assume the h_n are real and consider the Schur recursion relation

$$1) \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1-h_n & u_n \\ -h_n & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_n \\ v_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} z & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_{n-1} \\ v_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

which is satisfied by the image of $\begin{pmatrix} p_n \\ q_n \end{pmatrix}$ under any of the representations in, out or more generally any homomorphism $H \rightarrow V$ compatible with U in H and \mathbb{C} in V (V might be a space of functions on a subset of \mathbb{C}^*). Introduce the change of variable

$$2) \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_n \\ v_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}$$

and we get

$$3) \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1-h_n & 0 \\ 0 & 1+h_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{z+1}{2} & \frac{z-1}{2} \\ \frac{z-1}{2} & \frac{z+1}{2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_{n-1} \\ y_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Eliminate y :

$$\left(\frac{z-1}{2}\right)y_{n-1} = (1-h_n)x_n - \left(\frac{z+1}{2}\right)x_{n-1},$$

and get

$$4) \quad (1+h_n)(1-h_{n+1})x_{n+1} - (z+1)x_n + zx_{n-1} = 0$$

If $z \neq 1$, then solutions of 4) and 3) are in 1-1 correspondence.

Given the numbers $t_n = (1+h_n)(1-h_{n+1})$ the h_n are not determined. To find them take a solution

$$5) \quad t_n x_{n+1} - 2x_n + x_{n-1} = 0$$

and put $1-h_n = \boxed{x_n}$ $\frac{x_{n-1}}{x_n}$. The condition that $-1 < h_n < 1$ is equivalent to x_n not changing sign.

Example: $t_n = 1$ all n .

$$x_{n+1} - 2x_n + x_{n-1} = 0$$

has the general solution

$$x_n = A + Bn$$

which doesn't change sign far out.

$$1 - h_n = \frac{x_{n-1}}{x_n} = \frac{A+Bn-B}{A+Bn} = 1 - \frac{B}{A+Bn}$$

This gives

$$h_n = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n+c} & c \text{ constant} \\ 0 & (\text{case } c=\infty) \end{cases}$$

Let us suppose that suppose that we have a Dirac system such that the associated x -equation has $t_n = \boxed{1}$ for $|n|$ large. ~~Then~~ Then any solution of the dx -equation has the form (assuming $z \neq 1$)

$$x_n = A + Bz^n$$

for either $n > 0$ or $n < 0$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{z-1}{2}\right) y_n &= (1-h_{n+1})x_{n+1} - \left(\frac{z+1}{2}\right)x_n \\ &= -h_{n+1}x_{n+1} + A \frac{1-z}{2} + B \frac{z-1}{2} z^n \\ y_n &= -\frac{2h_{n+1}x_{n+1}}{z-1} - A + Bz^n \end{aligned}$$

So

$$u_n = \frac{x_n + y_n}{2} = Bz^n - \frac{h_{n+1}(A + Bz^{n+1})}{z-1}$$

$$v_n = \frac{x_n - y_n}{2} = A + \frac{h_{n+1}(A + Bz^{n+1})}{z-1}$$

I want to calculate the scattering for the Dirac system. I look at the solution

$$k\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ T \end{pmatrix} = k \begin{pmatrix} e^{-in} \\ e^{-out} \end{pmatrix} \xleftarrow{n \rightarrow -\infty} \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{e}^{in} \\ v_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u^{in} \\ \tilde{g}_n \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} \begin{pmatrix} e^{out} \\ e^{-in} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} R \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

where k is a positive constant $= T(0) = \pi(1 - h_n)^{1/2}$.

This tells me to look for a solution of the x -equation with asymptotic behavior

$$kT \cdot 1 + O.z^n \longleftrightarrow 1 + R.z^n.$$

Thus to find R what we do is to compute the solution with

$$1 \longleftrightarrow A + Bz^n$$

and then $R = \frac{B}{A}$.

Compute the scattering matrix for the x -equation, assuming all $t_n = 1$ except for t_0 . Suppose

$$C + Dz^n \longleftrightarrow A + Bz^n$$

one has $x_n = C + Dz^n$ for $n < 0$
 $= A + Bz^n$ for $n \geq 0$

since the ^{key} equation is $t_0 x_1 = (1+z)x_0 - zx_{-1}$,
 and coming from $n < 0$ the change occurs with x_1 .

$$A + B = C + D$$

$$t_0(A + Bz) = (1+z)(C + D) - z(C + Dz^{-1}) = C + Dz$$

$$\text{So } \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ zt_0 & t_0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} B \\ A \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ z & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} D \\ C \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{pmatrix} B \\ A \end{pmatrix} &= \frac{1}{t_0(1-z)} \begin{pmatrix} t_0 & -1 \\ -zt_0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ z & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} D \\ C \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{1-z} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1/t_0 \\ -z & 1/t_0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ z & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} D \\ C \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{z/t_0 - 1}{z-1} & \frac{1/t_0 - 1}{z-1} \\ \frac{(1-1/t_0)z}{z-1} & \frac{z-1/t_0}{z-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} D \\ C \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

So the scattering matrix for any of the Dirac systems belonging to the x -equation should be essentially

$$\tilde{T}_{\infty, -\infty} = \text{const.} \begin{pmatrix} \bar{T} & R \\ \bar{R} & \bar{T} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{z/t_0 - 1}{z-1} & \frac{1/t_0 - 1}{z-1} \\ \frac{(1-1/t_0)z}{z-1} & \frac{z-1/t_0}{z-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

Thus

$$R = \frac{1/t_0 - 1}{z - 1/t_0} \quad T = \frac{z-1}{z-1/t_0} \cdot \text{const} \quad \text{Now}$$

$$\det(\tilde{T}_{\infty, -\infty}) = \frac{1}{(z-1)^2} \left[\frac{z^2}{t_0} - z - \frac{z}{t_0^2} + \frac{1}{t_0} + z \left(1 - \frac{2}{t_0} + \frac{1}{t_0^2} \right) \right]$$

$$\frac{z^2 - 2z + 1}{t_0} = \frac{1}{t_0}$$

so the constant is $\sqrt{t_0}$. So

$$R = \frac{(1/t_0) - 1}{z - (1/t_0)} \quad T = \sqrt{\frac{1}{t_0}} \frac{z-1}{z-(1/t_0)}$$

Note that we have to have $0 < t_0 < 1$ in order that T be analytic in the disk. Check abs. values

$$|R|^2 + |T|^2 = \frac{\left(\frac{1}{t_0} - 1\right)^2 + \frac{1}{t_0}(z-1)(z^{-1}-1)}{(z-\frac{1}{t_0})(z^{-1}-\frac{1}{t_0})} = \frac{\left(\frac{1}{t_0}\right)^2 - 2\frac{1}{t_0} + 1 + \frac{1}{t_0}(1-z-z^{-1}+1)}{1 - \frac{1}{t_0}(z+z^{-1}) + \frac{1}{t_0^2}} = 1.$$

The next stage in the computation will be to compute the transfer matrices $\tilde{T}_{\infty,0}$, $\tilde{T}_{0,\infty}$ for the Dirac system under consideration. We have for the solution $x_n = A + Bz^n \quad n \geq 0$ that

$$\begin{pmatrix} u_0 \\ v_0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} B - \frac{h_1}{z-1}(A+Bz) \\ A + \frac{h_1}{z-1}(A+Bz) \end{pmatrix} = \boxed{\begin{pmatrix} 1 - \frac{h_1 z}{z-1} & -\frac{h_1}{z-1} \\ \frac{h_1 z}{z-1} & 1 + \frac{h_1}{z-1} \end{pmatrix}} \begin{pmatrix} B \\ A \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \boxed{\tilde{T}_{0,\infty}}$$

so we have

$$\text{Note that } \det \tilde{T}_{0,\infty} = 1 + \frac{h_1}{z-1} - \frac{h_1 z}{z-1} - \frac{h_1^2 z}{(z-1)^2} + \frac{h_1^2}{(z-1)^2} = 1 - h_1 \text{ which checks with}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \det \tilde{T}_{0,\infty} &= (1-h_1^2)(1-h_2^2) \dots \\ &= \underbrace{(1-h_1)(1+h_1)(1-h_2)}_{t_1=1} \underbrace{(1+h_2)(1-h_3)}_{t_2=1} \dots \end{aligned}$$

Work next from the other end: $x_n = C + Dz^n \quad n \leq 0$.

~~$$\begin{pmatrix} u_0 \\ v_0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} D - \frac{h_1}{z-1}x_1 \\ C + \frac{h_1}{z-1}x_1 \end{pmatrix}$$~~

incorrect

~~$$\text{But } t_0 x_1 = (z+1)x_0 - z x_{-1} = (z+1)(C+D) - z(C+Dz^{-1}) = C + Dz$$~~

~~$$x_1 = \frac{1}{t_0}(C+Dz)$$~~

~~$$\text{so } \begin{pmatrix} u_0 \\ v_0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} D - \frac{(h_1/t_0)(C+Dz)}{z-1} \\ C + \frac{(h_1/t_0)(C+Dz)}{z+1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \frac{(h_1/t_0)z}{z-1} & -\frac{(h_1/t_0)}{z-1} \\ \frac{(h_1/t_0)z}{z-1} & 1 + \frac{(h_1/t_0)}{z-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} D \\ C \end{pmatrix}$$~~

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$$x_n = C + Dz^n \quad n \leq 0, \quad x_1 = \frac{1}{t_0} (C + Dz)$$

$$\frac{z-1}{2} y_0 = (1-h_1)x_1 - \frac{z+1}{2} x_0 = \frac{1-h_1}{t_0} (C + Dz) - \frac{z+1}{2} (C + D)$$

$$y_0 = \frac{2(1-h_1)}{(z-1)} \frac{1}{t_0} (C + Dz) - \frac{z+1}{z-1} (C + D)$$

$$u_0 = \frac{x_0 + y_0}{2} = \frac{1}{z-1} \left(\frac{1-h_1}{t_0} \right) (C + Dz) + \overbrace{\frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \frac{z+1}{z-1} \right) (C + D)}^{\frac{-1}{z-1}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{z-1} \left\{ \left(\frac{1-h_1}{t_0} z - 1 \right) D + \left(\frac{1-h_1}{t_0} - 1 \right) C \right\}$$

$$v_0 = \frac{x_0 - y_0}{2} = \frac{-(1-h_1)}{(z-1) t_0} (C + Dz) + \frac{z}{z-1} (C + D)$$

$$= \frac{1}{z-1} \left\{ \left(-\frac{1-h_1}{t_0} z + z \right) D + \left(-\left(\frac{1-h_1}{t_0} \right) + z \right) C \right\}$$

so

$$\begin{pmatrix} u_0 \\ v_0 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{z-1} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1-h_1}{t_0} z - 1 & \frac{1-h_1}{t_0} - 1 \\ \left(-\frac{1-h_1}{t_0} + 1 \right) z & -\left(\frac{1-h_1}{t_0} \right) + z \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} D \\ C \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 - \frac{kz}{z-1} & \frac{-k}{z-1} \\ \frac{kz}{z-1} & 1 + \frac{k}{z-1} \end{pmatrix}}_{\sim T_{0,-\infty}} \begin{pmatrix} D \\ C \end{pmatrix}$$

where $1-k = \frac{1-h_1}{t_0}$. $\sim T_{0,-\infty}$. We have

$$\det(\sim T_{0,-\infty}) = 1-k = \frac{1-h_1}{t_0} \quad \text{which checks with}$$

$$\frac{1}{t_0} = \det(\sim T_{0,-\infty}) = \det(\sim T_{\infty,0}) \det(\sim T_{0,-\infty}) = \frac{1}{1-h_1} \cdot \frac{1-h_1}{t_0} \quad \checkmark$$

One can check that

$$\tilde{T}_{0,\infty} \tilde{T}_{\infty,-\infty} = \tilde{T}_{0,-\infty}$$

The interesting point of the calculation is that all these matrices have the same form

$$\tilde{T}_{\infty,-\infty} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \frac{\ell z}{z-1} & \frac{-\ell}{z-1} \\ \frac{\ell z}{z-1} & 1 + \frac{\ell}{z-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\ell = 1 - \frac{1}{t_0}$$

and that taking the above product for h_1 and ℓ yields the ~~matrix~~ matrix with parameter $h_1 + \ell - h_1 \ell$. So in this case

$$h_1 + 1 - \frac{1}{t_0} - h_1 \left(1 - \frac{1}{t_0}\right) = 1 - \frac{1}{t_0} + \frac{h_1}{t_0} = 1 - \left(\frac{1-h_1}{t_0}\right) = k.$$

which is the parameter for $\tilde{T}_{0,-\infty}$.

The purpose of this calculation was to exhibit examples of non-uniqueness.

Recall the general formulas

$$T_{\infty,-\infty} = \begin{pmatrix} \left(\frac{1}{T}\right)^- & \frac{R}{T} \\ \left(\frac{R}{T}\right)^- & \frac{1}{T} \end{pmatrix} = T_{\infty,0} T_{0,-\infty}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \left(\frac{1}{T_+}\right)^- & -\left(\frac{R_+}{T_+}\right)^- & \left(\frac{1}{T_-}\right)^- & \frac{R_-}{T_-} \\ -\frac{R_+}{T_+} & \left(\frac{1}{T_+}\right)^+ & \left(\frac{R_-}{T_-}\right)^- & \frac{1}{T_-} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\frac{1}{T} = \frac{1 - R_- R_+}{T_- T_+} \quad \text{or} \quad T = \frac{T_- T_+}{1 - R_- R_+}$$

$$\frac{R}{T} = \frac{R_- - \bar{R}_+}{T_- \bar{T}_+}$$

What I am trying to prove is that I can't find R_+, R_- so that, when T is defined by these formulas, one has $|T| \geq \varepsilon$ on S^1 .

To begin with suppose R_+, R_- are analytic for $|z| \leq 1$, but that R_-R_+ has the value 1 on S^1 . Let's first show that T_+, T_- are analytic for $|z| \leq 1$. $1 - |R_+|^2$ is real analytic ≥ 0 on S^1 hence it has finitely many zeroes each of even multiplicity. Suppose as a first case that $1 - |R_+|^2$ has only one zero at $g = 1$ with multiplicity 2. Then one \square can divide it by \square

$$\left(\frac{z-1}{2}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{e^{i\theta}-1}{2}\right)^2 = \sin^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) = \frac{1-\cos\theta}{2}$$

so we have $1 - |R_+|^2 = \left|\frac{z-1}{2}\right|^2 g$

where g is real analytic and > 0 on S^1 . Then $g = |f|^2$

where $f(z) = \exp \left\{ \int_{S^1} \frac{j+z}{j-z} \log g \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} \right\}$

is analytic invertible for $|z| \leq 1$. So now it's clear that T_+ will be $-(\frac{z-1}{2})f(z)$, and hence analytic for $|z| \leq 1$. The general case should be similar.

Suppose that R_-R_+ takes the value 1 at $z = j \in S^1$, w.m.o.g. $j = 1$ and also that $R_- = R_+ = 1$ at $z = 1$. I think it should be true that R_-R_+ has \square order 1 at $z = 1$.

$$R_-R_+(z) = 1 + \alpha_1(z-1) + \alpha_2(z-1)^2 + \dots$$

Because $|R_-R_+| \leq 1$ for $|z| \leq 1$ it should follow that $\alpha_1 = ia$ with $a > 0$. Clear.

But now note that at a point where $1 - R_-R_+$ vanishes it has order 1, but T_+, T_- also vanish, hence T must also vanish at this point.

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Problem: Can one exhibit non-uniqueness for an R such that $|R| \leq 1 - \varepsilon$. Equivalently can we find R_+, R_- such that if

$$T = \frac{T_- T_+}{1 - R_- R_+}$$

then $|T| \geq \varepsilon > 0$ and this is not true for T_-, T_+ .

We saw this was impossible for R_-, R_+ analytic for $|z| \leq 1$. In effect ~~any~~ any zero ^{on S} of $1 - R_- R_+$ is necessarily simple, and T_-, T_+ both vanish there, so T must also.

Here's an improvement in this argument

$$|T|^2 = \frac{(|R_-|^2)(|R_+|^2)}{|1 - R_- R_+|^2} = \frac{(|R_-|^2)(|R_+|^2)}{1 - |R_- R_+|^2} \cdot \frac{1 - |R_- R_+|^2}{|1 - R_- R_+|^2}$$

The second factor we recognize ~~as~~ as the radial limit of the ^{positive} harmonic function in the disk

$$\operatorname{Re} \left(\frac{1 + R_- R_+}{1 - R_- R_+} \right).$$

Hence this function is $\frac{d\nu}{d\theta}$ where $d\nu$ is the measure associated to this harmonic function. Hence

$$\int \frac{1 - |R_- R_+|^2}{|1 - R_- R_+|^2} \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} \leq \int d\nu = 1$$

\uparrow because $R_+(0) = 0$

~~with equality iff~~ $d\nu$ is abs. cont. w.r.t. $d\theta$.

The first factor can be rewritten, putting $1 - |R_-|^2 = a$
 $1 - |R_+|^2 = b$ as

$$\frac{ab}{1 - (1-a)(1-b)} = \frac{ab}{a+b-ab} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{b} - 1}$$

and since ~~a~~ $a \leq 1, b \leq 1$ we see

$$\frac{ab}{a+b-ab} \leq \min\{a, b\}.$$

Thus we have

$$|T|^2 \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} \leq (1 - |R_-|^2) d\nu$$

so integrating over a small interval Δ of S^1 and using $|T| \geq \varepsilon$ we get the estimate

$$(*) \quad |\Delta| \leq \text{const.} \cdot \max_{\Delta} (1 - |R_-|^2).$$

This is enough to show that R_- can't be differentiable as a function on S^1 , because the derivative of $1 - |R_-|^2 \geq 0$ at a point where $|R_-| = 1$ is zero.

Conclusion: If $|T| \geq \varepsilon$ ~~on S^1~~ , then we have $(*)$ showing that R_- can't be differentiable at a point on S^1 where it has the ^{abs.} value 1. Similarly for R_+ .

Next we construct an example of ~~the~~ R_-, R_+ such that $|T| \geq \varepsilon$ but T_+, T_- are not bounded away from zero. We take $R = R_+$. Then

$$|T|^2 = \frac{1 - |R_+|^2}{|1 - R_+^2|} = \frac{1 + |R_+|}{|1 + R_+|} \cdot \frac{1 - |R_+|}{|1 - R_+|}$$

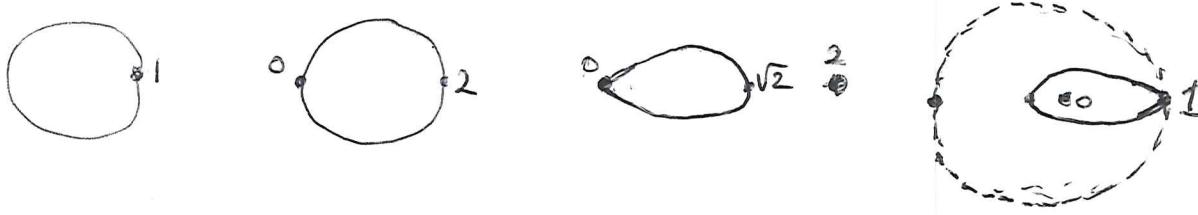
The first factor will cause no trouble provided we keep R_+ away from -1. To keep the second factor bounded away from zero, we allow R_+ to take the value 1 but we keep it in a sector, so that the distance



of R_+ from S^1 is ~~not~~ bounded below by the distance to 1 times a constant.

Example of such an R_+ .

$$z \mapsto \frac{1-z}{B} \mapsto \left(\frac{1-z}{B}\right)^{1/2} \mapsto 1 - \left(\frac{1-z}{B}\right)^{1/2}$$



$$\therefore R_+(z) = 1 - (1-z)^{1/2}$$

such an R_+ gives us an R with $\|R\| \leq 1-\varepsilon$ but it might happen that the $R_- R_+$ factorization for R is part of the canonical Schur system associated to R . In the constructing the canonical system we show there is a unique solution to the requirements

$RB + \bar{A}$ analytic in disk

$RA + \bar{B}$ " " "

with $A \in 1 + zH_+$, $B \in zH_+$; here $A = \frac{1}{T_+}$, $B = \frac{R_+}{T_+}$ up to an innocent scalar factor. Thus we know that R_+ is determined by R , when $\frac{1}{T_+} \in L^2$. So what is T_+ in the above case?

Put $z = e^{i\theta}$ and say $\theta > 0$.

$$1-z = 1 - (1+i\theta - \frac{\theta^2}{2}) = -i\theta + \frac{\theta^2}{2} = -i\theta(1 + \frac{\theta}{2}i)$$

$$\sqrt{1-z} = e^{-i\pi/4} \sqrt{\theta} \left(1 + \frac{i}{4}\theta\right)$$

$$\begin{aligned} |T_+|^2 &= 1 - (R_+)^2 = 1 - (1 - \sqrt{1-z})(1 - \sqrt{1-z^{-1}}) = \sqrt{1-z} + \sqrt{1-z^{-1}} - \sqrt{1-z}\sqrt{1-z^{-1}} \\ &= e^{-i\pi/4} \sqrt{\theta} \left(1 + \frac{i}{4}\theta\right) + e^{i\pi/4} \sqrt{\theta} \left(1 - \frac{i}{4}\theta\right) - \theta^2 \left(1 + \frac{\theta^2}{16}\right) \\ &= \boxed{\quad} \left(e^{-i\pi/4} + e^{i\pi/4}\right) \sqrt{\theta} + O(\theta) \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore |T_+| \approx (\text{pos. const}) \theta^{1/4}$$

and hence $\frac{1}{T_+}$ will be L^2 . In fact even instead of the square root we put

$$R(z) = 1 - (1-z)^a \quad a < 1$$

Then we get

$$|T_+|^2 \approx (e^{-i\frac{\pi}{2}a} + e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}a}) \theta^a$$

hence $\int \frac{1}{|T_+|^2} d\theta$ behaves like $\int \frac{d\theta}{\theta^a}$ which converges.

Conclusion: The factorization constructed is essentially the canonical factorization.

In general suppose $|T| \geq \varepsilon$. Then from

$$T = \frac{T_+ T_-}{1 - R_- R_+}$$

we get

$$\left| \frac{T}{T_+} \right|^2 = \frac{1 - |R_-|^2}{|1 - R_- R_+|^2} \leq \frac{1 - |R_- R_+|^2}{|1 - R_- R_+|^2}$$

because $|R_-|^2 \geq |R_- R_+|^2 \Rightarrow 1 - |R_-|^2 \leq 1 - |R_- R_+|^2$. However we have seen the latter is integrable, so we have

$$\varepsilon^2 \int \frac{1}{|T_+|^2} d\theta \leq \int \left| \frac{T}{T_+} \right|^2 d\theta < \infty.$$

showing that $\frac{1}{T_+} \in L^2$. This should be exactly what is needed to prove uniqueness for Schur systems having $\|R\|_\infty < 1$.

October 12, 1978: (Becky is 12)

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Let $R \in H_\infty$ satisfy $\log(1 - |R|^2) \in L^1$ so that there is a unique outer function T with $T(0) > 0$ and $|T|^2 = 1 - |R|^2$. Let \mathcal{H} be obtained by completing $f_{\text{out}} + g_{\text{in}}$ with norm determined from R in the usual way. I know that the kernel of the "out" representation is isomorphic to L^2 in the following way:

$$\begin{aligned}\psi: L^2 &\xrightarrow{\sim} \text{Ker}(\text{out}) \\ 1 &\mapsto e_{\text{out}}^- = \frac{1}{f}(e_{\text{in}} - \bar{R}e_{\text{out}}).\end{aligned}$$

In more detail, one has an orthogonal decomposition

$$f_{\text{out}} + g_{\text{in}} = (f + g\bar{R})e_{\text{out}} + g(e_{\text{in}} - \bar{R}e_{\text{out}})$$

$$\|f_{\text{out}} + g_{\text{in}}\|^2 = \|f + g\bar{R}\|^2 + \int |g|^2(1 - |R|^2)d\theta/2\pi$$

which shows that \mathcal{H} is the ^{orth} direct sum of $L^2 e_{\text{out}}$ and $L^2(\underline{\quad} d\mu) \cdot (e_{\text{in}} - \bar{R}e_{\text{out}})$ where $d\mu = (1 - |R|^2)d\theta/2\pi$. Thus there exists an element e_{out}^- given by the above formula; also $\underline{\quad} e_{\text{out}}^-$ forms an orthonormal basis for Ker out .

Next we have

$$L^2 \xrightarrow{\psi \sim} \text{Ker}(\text{out}) \xrightarrow{\text{in}} L^2$$

$$1 \mapsto \frac{1}{f}(e_{\text{in}} - \bar{R}e_{\text{out}}) \mapsto T$$

so by the lemma on 119, if $\mathcal{H}_\infty = \cap \mathcal{H}_n = (\text{out}, \text{in})^{-1}(0 \times H_+)$, then $\psi^{-1}\mathcal{H}_\infty = \{f \in L^2 \mid Tf \in H_+\} = H_+$. If $\tilde{g}_\infty = \text{pr}_{\mathcal{H}_\infty}(e_{\text{in}})$, then

$$\tilde{g}_\infty = \text{pr}_{\mathcal{H}_\infty}(e_{\text{in}} - \bar{R}e_{\text{out}}) = \text{pr}_{\mathcal{H}_+}(\psi T) = \psi(\text{pr}_{H_+}(T))$$

$\phi(T(0)) = T(0) \bar{e}_{\text{out}}$. Thus we get

$$\bar{e}_{\text{out}} = \text{pr}_{\mathcal{H}_{-\infty}}(\bar{e}_{\text{in}})/\text{norm.} = \tilde{g}_{-\infty}.$$

Since $\tilde{g}_{-\infty} \neq 0$ we must also have $\tilde{g}_n \neq 0$ for all n and so the question arises as to whether $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} g_n = \bar{e}_{\text{in}}$. Now $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \tilde{g}_n$ should be the orthogonal projection ~~of~~ of \bar{e}_{in} onto

$$\mathcal{H}_{\infty} = \overline{\bigcup_n \mathcal{H}_n}$$

so we need only prove $\bar{e}_{\text{in}} \in \mathcal{H}_{\infty}$.

Recall $\bar{e}_{\text{in}} = \frac{1}{T}(e_{\text{out}} - R\bar{e}_{\text{in}}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} U^{+n} p_n \in \bigcap_n U^+ \mathcal{H}_{-n} (= \bigcap_n U^+ \mathcal{H}_{-n,0} = \bigcap_n \mathcal{H}_{0,-n} = \mathcal{H}_{0,-\infty}) \subset \mathcal{H}_0$

Hence $U^k \bar{e}_{\text{in}} \subset U^k \mathcal{H}_0 \subset \mathcal{H}_k \subset \mathcal{H}_{\infty}$.

~~contains $U^k \bar{e}_{\text{in}}$ for $k \geq 0$. Then \mathcal{H}_{∞} contains $U^k \bar{e}_{\text{in}}$ for $k \geq 0$. Better~~

$$\begin{aligned} U^k \bar{e}_{\text{in}} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} U^{k+n} p_n \in \bigcap_n U^{k+n} \mathcal{H}_{-n} = \bigcap_n \mathcal{H}_{k,-n-k} \\ &= \mathcal{H}_{k,-\infty} \subset \mathcal{H}_k \end{aligned}$$

Thus \mathcal{H}_{∞} contains $L^2 \bar{e}_{\text{in}} = \text{Ker } \text{in}$, and so $\mathcal{H}_{\infty} = \text{in}^{-1}(\text{in } \mathcal{H}_{\infty})$. But \mathcal{H}_{∞} also contains \bar{e}_{out} and is stable under U , so it contains $H_+ \bar{e}_{\text{out}}$. Thus $\text{in}(\mathcal{H}_{\infty})$ contains $H_+ T$ and as $\text{in}(\mathcal{H}_{\infty})$ is closed, and T is strict we see $\text{in}(\mathcal{H}_{\infty}) \supset H_+$. Since $\mathcal{H}_{\infty} \subset \text{in}^{-1}(H_+)$

we therefore find

$$\mathcal{H}_\infty = \text{im}^{-1}(H_+)$$

and so $e_{in} \in \mathcal{H}_\infty$ as was to be proved.

This proves

Prop: Let \mathcal{H} be constructed from R satisfying $\log(1 - |R|^2) \in L^1$. Then by orthogonal projection,

$$P_n = \text{pr}_{\mathcal{H}_n}(\mathbf{U}^n e_{out}) / \text{norm} \quad \tilde{g}_n = \text{pr}_{\mathcal{H}_n}(e_{out}) / \text{norm}$$

we get a Schur system with reflection coefficient R . Moreover we have the Szegő formula

$$\pi(1 - |R|^2) = \exp \int \log(1 - |R|^2) d\theta / 2\pi$$

The last step comes from the fact that we know

$$T(0) = \|\tilde{g}_\infty\| = \prod_{n \in \mathbb{N}} k_n \|\tilde{g}_n\| \xrightarrow{N \rightarrow \infty} \prod_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} k_n \cdot \underbrace{\|e_{in}\|}_1$$

continuous case: suppose $|R(k)| \leq 1$ $k \in \mathbb{R}$ given, one can form \mathcal{H} by completing pairs $\langle f, g \rangle \in L^2 \times L^2$ in the norm

$$\|\langle f, g \rangle\|^2 = \|f\|^2 + \|g\|^2 + 2\operatorname{Re}(Rf, g)$$

Here L^2 denotes square integrable $f(k)$ with $\|f\|^2 = \int |f|^2 dk / 2\pi$. Write $f_{\text{out}} + g_{\text{out}}$ for $\langle f, g \rangle$ so that one has isom. embeddings $i_{\text{in}}, i_{\text{out}} : L^2 \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$

given by $i_{\text{out}}(f) = f_{\text{out}}$, etc., and one can define projections $i_{\text{in}} = \boxed{i_{\text{in}}^*} i_{\text{in}}^*$, as usual. Put

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{H}_x &= (\text{out}, \text{in})^{-1}(e^{ikx} H_- \times H_+) \\ &= (e^{ikx} H_+ e_{\text{out}} + H_- e_{\text{in}})^\perp \end{aligned}$$

We try to construct $g_x = \text{proj}_{\mathcal{H}_x}(e_{\text{in}})$ formally

$$g_x = \overline{A_x} e_{\text{in}} - e^{ikx} B_x e_{\text{out}}$$

with $A_x \in I + H_+$, $B_x \in H_+$. It should be orthogonal to $(e^{ikx} H_+ e_{\text{out}} + H_- e_{\text{in}})$, leading to the equations

$$\overline{R} \overline{A_x} - e^{ikx} B_x \perp e^{ikx} H_+$$

or

$$\begin{cases} \overline{R_x} \overline{A_x} - B_x \perp H_+ & R_x = e^{ikx} R \\ \overline{A_x} - R_x B_x \perp H_- \end{cases}$$

Translate these equations into integral equations

$$\text{suppose } A_x = H \int_{y>0} e^{iky} \alpha_x(y) dy \quad e^{ikx} B_x = \int_{y>x} e^{iky} \beta_x(y) dy$$

Then we want

$$RA_x - R e^{-ikx} \overline{B_x} + e^{-ikx} H_- \quad \text{or}$$

$$\boxed{\int e^{-iky} \hat{R}(y) dy + \int_{z>0} e^{ik(y+z)} \hat{R}(y) \alpha_x(z) dy dz - \int_{y>x} e^{-iky} \overline{\beta_x(y)} dy}$$

is to be \perp to $e^{-ikx} H_-$, i.e. without e^{-iky} for $y \geq x$.

$$\int_{z>0} e^{ik(y+z)} \hat{R}(y) \alpha_x(z) dy dz = \int_{z>0} e^{-iky} \hat{R}(y-z) \alpha_x(z) dy dz$$

so you get

$$\boxed{\overline{\beta_x(y)} = \hat{R}(-y) + \int_{z>0} \hat{R}(-y-z) \alpha_x(z) dz \quad \text{for } y \geq x}$$

Similarly

$$\bar{A}_x - R e^{ikx} B_x = 1 + \int_{y>0} e^{-iky} \overline{\alpha_x(y)} dy - \int_{z>x} e^{ik(y+z)} \hat{R}(y) \beta_x(z) dy dz$$

is to be \perp H_- , i.e. without e^{-iky} for $y > 0$ so we get

$$\boxed{\overline{\alpha_x(y)} = \int_{z>x} \hat{R}(-y-z) \beta_x(z) dz \quad \text{for } y > 0}$$

It might be nicer to work with

$$B_x = \int e^{iky} \tilde{\beta}_x(y) dy \quad \text{so } \tilde{\beta}_x(y) = \beta_x(x+y)$$

whence the integral equations become more symmetric

$$\overline{\tilde{\beta}_x(y)} = \hat{R}(-y-x) + \int_{z>0} \hat{R}(-y-x-z) \alpha_x(z) dz \quad \text{for } y \geq 0$$

$$\overline{\alpha_x(y)} = \int_{z>0} \hat{R}(-y-x-z) \tilde{\beta}_x(z) dz \quad \text{for } y \geq 0$$

Next point is to analyze the solutions. My first idea (p. 131) was to write the equations in the form

$$B_x = P_+(\bar{R}_x) + P_+ \bar{R}_x (\bar{A}_x - I)$$

$$\bar{A}_x - I = P_- R_x B_x$$

and to solve these equations for $B_x, A_x - I \in H_+$. For this to work one must assume $P_+(\bar{R}_x) = \bar{P}_x I \in H_+$.

This condition guarantees $\bar{\Gamma}_x \Gamma_x$ is differentiable as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} \bar{\Gamma}_x \Gamma_x u &= \frac{d}{dx} P_- R e^{ikx} P_+ e^{-ikx} R u \\ &= P_- R \left\{ - (R u, e^{ikx}) \cdot e^{ikx} \right\} \\ &= - (\bar{\Gamma}_x I) \cdot (u, R_x) = - (\bar{\Gamma}_x I) \cdot (u, \bar{\Gamma}_x I) \\ &\quad \text{for } u \in H_- \end{aligned}$$

Hence $\left\| \frac{\bar{\Gamma}_x P_x - \bar{\Gamma}_0 \Gamma_0}{x} u \right\| = \left\| \frac{1}{x} \int_0^x (\bar{\Gamma}_y I) \cdot (u, \bar{\Gamma}_y I) dy \right\|$

$$\leq \frac{1}{x} \int_0^x \| \bar{\Gamma}_y I \| \| \bar{\Gamma}_y I \| \| u \| dy \leq \left(\frac{1}{x} \int_0^x \| \bar{\Gamma}_y I \|^2 dy \right) \| u \|$$

This shows that $x \mapsto \bar{P}_x \Gamma_x$ is differentiable in norm at $x = 0$, hence at all x . (unclear - see below)

But in addition to $\Gamma_x |_{\in H_+}$ one wants to be able to differentiate it in x . Thus $-\bar{R}(-x)$

$$e^{-ikx} \frac{d}{dx} e^{ikx} P_+ e^{-ikx} \bar{R} = -(\bar{R}, e^{ikx}) = -\boxed{\text{something}} \hat{\bar{R}}(x)$$

and hence it seems we have to know that $\hat{\bar{R}}(x)$ exists for all x and is say continuous (or smooth). This means R has to decay as $k \rightarrow \infty$.

~~However the examples have $R = 0$ at $k = 0$, hence R has a discontinuity at $k = 0$, hence something peculiar happens when $x = 0$. We have to pay attention to be resolved.~~

~~PROBLEMS~~ Derivation of the DE.

$$B_x = P_+ \bar{R}_x \bar{A}_x \quad \bar{A}_x = I + P_- R_x B_x$$

Put $\Gamma_x = P_+ \bar{R}_x$. Then ~~PROBLEMS~~

$$B_x = \Gamma_x \bar{A}_x \quad \bar{A}_x = I + \bar{\Gamma}_x B_x = I + \bar{\Gamma}_x \Gamma_x \bar{A}_x$$

so $\bar{A}_x = (I - \bar{\Gamma}_x \Gamma_x)^{-1} I$. $B_x = (I - \Gamma_x \bar{\Gamma}_x)^{-1} \bar{\Gamma}_x I$

Assume for the moment that the usual formulas for differentiation are ~~PROBLEMS~~ valid

$$0 = \frac{d}{dx} (I - \bar{\Gamma}_x \Gamma_x) \bar{A}_x = (I - \bar{\Gamma}_x \Gamma_x) \frac{d\bar{A}_x}{dx} + (\bar{\Gamma}_x I)(\bar{A}_x, R_x)$$

so we get

$$\frac{d\bar{A}_x}{dx} = -\bar{h}(x) \bar{B}_x \quad \text{where } \bar{h}(x) = (\bar{A}_x, R_x)$$

$$\text{Also } e^{-ikx} \frac{d}{dx} e^{ikx} B_x = e^{-ikx} \frac{d}{dx} e^{ikx} P_x e^{-ikx} \bar{A}_x$$

$$= -(\bar{A}_x, R_x) + \Gamma_x \frac{d\bar{A}_x}{dx}$$

$$= -(\bar{A}_x, R_x) - \bar{h}(x) \Gamma_x \bar{B}_x$$

$$= -\bar{h}(x)(1 + \Gamma_x \bar{B}_x) = -\bar{h}(x) A_x$$

This shows that if

$$g_x = \bar{A}_x e_{in} - e^{ikx} B_x e_{out} \quad P_x = e^{ikx} A_x e_{out} - \bar{B}_x e_{in}$$

then

$$\frac{dg_x}{dx} = \boxed{\cancel{\bar{h} \bar{B}_x e_{in}}} - \bar{h} \bar{B}_x e_{in} + \bar{h} e^{ikx} A_x e_{out} = \bar{h}(x) P_x$$

$$\begin{aligned} e^{ikx} \frac{d}{dx} e^{-ikx} P_x &= e^{ikx} \left(\frac{d\bar{A}_x}{dx} e_{out} - \frac{d}{dx} (e^{-ikx} \bar{B}_x) e_{in} \right) \\ &= -\bar{h} e^{ikx} B_x e_{out} + \bar{h} \bar{A}_x e_{in} = \bar{h}(x) g_x \end{aligned}$$

or

$$\frac{d}{dx} \begin{pmatrix} P_x \\ g_x \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ik & \bar{h}(x) \\ \bar{h}(x) & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} P_x \\ g_x \end{pmatrix}$$

Finally we have

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{h}(x) &= (\bar{A}_x, R_x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} ((\bar{\Gamma}_x \Gamma_x)^n, R_x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} ((\bar{\Gamma}_x \Gamma_x)^n)_{ij} \bar{\Gamma}_x^j \\ &= \left(\sum_{n \geq 0} \Gamma_x (\bar{\Gamma}_x \Gamma_x)^n \right)_{ij} = (B_x, I) \end{aligned}$$

Even simpler: $\overline{h(x)} = (\bar{A}_x, R_x) = (\bar{A}_x, P-R_x) = (\bar{A}_x, \bar{F}_x)$

$$= (\Gamma_x \bar{A}_x, I) = (B_x, I)$$

So what remains is to establish this rigorously.

What do we need to prove A_x is differentiable?

We need to show that

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{\bar{\Gamma}_{x+\varepsilon} \Gamma_{x+\varepsilon} - \bar{\Gamma}_x \Gamma_x}{\varepsilon} = -(\bar{\Gamma}_x I)(, \bar{\Gamma}_x I)$$

where the limit has to be taken in norm. However we know that for any $u \in H_-$, $\bar{\Gamma}_x \Gamma_x u$ is differentiable as a function of x , ~~continuous~~ with derivative $-(\bar{\Gamma}_x I)(u, \bar{\Gamma}_x I)$ which is continuous in x . Hence the FTC shows that

$$\bar{\Gamma}_\varepsilon \Gamma_\varepsilon u = \bar{\Gamma}_0 \Gamma_0 u = \int_0^\varepsilon -(\bar{\Gamma}_x I)(u, \bar{\Gamma}_x I) dx$$

$$\left[\frac{\bar{\Gamma}_\varepsilon \Gamma_\varepsilon - \bar{\Gamma}_0 \Gamma_0}{\varepsilon} - \{ -(\bar{\Gamma}_0 I)(, \bar{\Gamma}_x I) \} \right] u = \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \int_0^\varepsilon \left[-(\bar{\Gamma}_x I)(u, \bar{\Gamma}_x I) + (\bar{\Gamma}_0 I)(u, \bar{\Gamma}_0 I) \right] dx$$

and the point is that from the continuity of $\bar{\Gamma}_x I$ in x one can ^{see} ~~estimate~~ the norm of the operator

$$(\bar{\Gamma}_x I)(?, \bar{\Gamma}_x I) - (\bar{\Gamma}_0 I)(?, \bar{\Gamma}_0 I)$$

approaches 0, etc.

IMPORTANT: (\bar{A}_x, R_x) makes sense because R decays fast, however (B_x, I) doesn't have an

immediate meaning. In fact if we have

$$B_x = \int_0^{\infty} e^{iky} \tilde{f}_x(y) dy$$

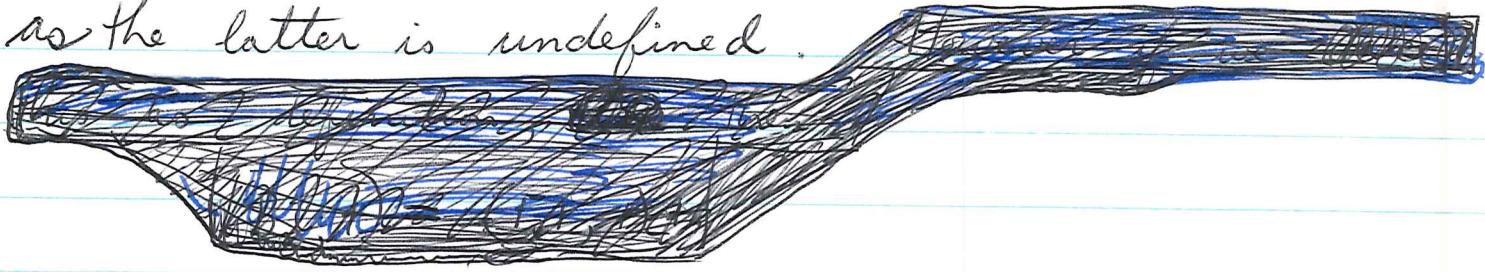
then there are two possible interpretations for

$$(B_x, 1) = \hat{B}_x(0) = 0 \text{ or } \tilde{f}_x(0).$$

The calculation at the bottom of page 267 is (initially) meaningless because one ~~one term~~ doesn't have

$$(1, R_x) = (1, P R_x)$$

as the latter is undefined.



Similarly we have trouble making sense out of

$$\begin{aligned} (P_x, q_x) &= (e^{ikx} A_x e_{\text{out}} - \bar{B}_x e_{\text{in}}, e_{\text{in}}) \\ &= (A_x, \bar{R}_x) - (\bar{B}_x, 1). \end{aligned}$$

Deift-Trubowitz trace formula: Given

$$-u'' + g u = k^2 u$$

with $g(x)$ decaying fast as $|x| \rightarrow \infty$, let $\phi(x, k)$, $\psi(x, k)$ be the solutions with the asymptotic behavior

$$\begin{array}{ccc} e^{-ikx} & \xleftarrow{\phi} & A(k)e^{-ikx} + B(k)e^{ikx} \\ & \xleftarrow{\psi} & e^{-ikx} \end{array}$$

Thus

$$\underbrace{\frac{1}{A(k)} e^{-ikx}}_{T(k)} \longleftrightarrow e^{-ikx} + \underbrace{\frac{B(k)}{A(k)} e^{ikx}}_{R(k)}$$

or $T(k)\phi(x, k) = \psi(x, -k) + R(k) \boxed{\phi(x, k)}$

(Digress to derive Marchenko equation: One knows that

$$\phi(x, k) = e^{-ikx} + \int_{y \leq x} e^{-iky} v(x, y) dy$$

or

$$e^{ikx} \phi(x, k) \in I + H_+$$

Assuming no bound states one also knows that

$T(k) \in I + H_+$, hence putting

(weaker is bounded analytic for $\text{Im } k > 0$) $m(x, k) = e^{-ikx} \psi(x, k) \in I + H_+$

we get the equation

$$\boxed{m(x, -k) + R(k) e^{2ikx} m(x, k)} \in I + H_+^*$$

which upon taking F.T. gives Marchenko's equation. 271

Next form the Green's function

$$G_2(x, y) = \frac{\phi(x, k) \psi(y, k)}{W(\phi, \psi)} = \frac{\phi(x, k) \psi(y, k)}{A(k)}$$

which is the kernel representing $(\lambda - L)^{-1}$, $\lambda = -u'' + g(x)$.
 Here $\lambda \in \mathbb{C} - R_{\geq 0}$ and $k = \sqrt{\lambda}$, $\text{Im } k > 0$. The asymptotic behavior of $G_2(x, y)$ for large $|k|$ can be calculated in terms of g . Use WKB which is valid thru $\frac{1}{k^2}$ terms:

$$\begin{aligned}\psi(x, k) &= \left(1 - \frac{g}{k^2}\right)^{-1/4} e^{\int \sqrt{g - k^2}} \\ &= \left(1 + \frac{g}{4k^2}\right) e^{ikx \sqrt{1 - \frac{g}{k^2}}} \\ &= \left(1 + \frac{g}{4k^2}\right) e^{ikx + \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{g}{2ik}} + o\left(\frac{1}{k^2}\right) e^{ikx}\end{aligned}$$

$$\phi(x, k) = \left(1 + \frac{g}{4k^2}\right) e^{-ikx - \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{g}{2ik}} + o\left(\frac{1}{k^2}\right) e^{-ikx}$$

$$A(k) = e^{-\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{g}{2ik}}$$

$$G_k(x, x) = \frac{\phi(x, k) \psi(x, k)}{A(k)} = \left(1 + \frac{g}{4k^2}\right)^2 = 1 + \frac{g(x)}{2k^2} + o\left(\frac{1}{k^2}\right)$$

Now from this follows

$$\begin{aligned}\cancel{\frac{2i}{\pi} \int k (G_k(x, x) - 1) dk} &\stackrel{\text{as } a \rightarrow \infty}{=} \frac{2i}{\pi} \int \frac{g(x)}{2k} dk = g(x) \\ &\quad \cancel{\text{as } a \rightarrow \infty} \quad \frac{(2i)(-\pi i)}{\pi}\end{aligned}$$

Because no bound states we get this is

$$g(x) = \lim_{a \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2i}{\pi} \int_{-a}^a k(G_k(x, x) - 1) dk$$

$$= \frac{2i}{\pi} \int_{-a}^a k \left[\psi(+x, k) + R(k) \psi(x, k) \right] \psi(x, k) dk - 1 \}$$

$$\boxed{g(x) = \frac{2i}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} k R(k) \psi(x, k)^2 dk}$$

because $k \psi(+x, k) \psi(x, k)$ is an odd function of k .

Problems: Can you derive this formula from your theory of the Dirac equation? Key long-range question: Is there a good theory of the Dirac equation with bound states — one that explains arbitrary $R(k)$ not subject to the condition $\overline{R(k)} = R(-k)$

October 24, 1978

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Marchenko equation with bound states,

$$G_\lambda(x, y) = \frac{\phi(x, k) \psi(y, k)}{W}$$

$$e^{-ikx} \xleftarrow{\phi(x, k)} A(k)e^{-ikx} + B(k)e^{ikx}$$
$$\xrightarrow{\psi(x, k)} e^{ikx}$$

$$\therefore W = A(k) 2ik$$

One has

$$\delta(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint G_\lambda(x, y) d\lambda$$

Each bound state with $\lambda = -\beta^2$ contributes a simple pole to δ with residue

$$c_\beta \psi(x, i\beta) \psi(y, i\beta)$$

where $c_\beta = \|\psi(\cdot, i\beta)\|^{-2}$. Hence  deforming the contour to



and letting $k^2 = \lambda$ to evaluate the continuous part gives the completeness relation

$$\delta(x, y) = \sum_{\beta} c_\beta \psi(x, i\beta) \psi(y, i\beta) + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [\psi(x, -k) + R(k)] \psi(x, k) dk / 2\pi$$

Since $\psi(x, k) = e^{ikx} + \int_x^\infty v_x(z) e^{ikz} dz$, one gets for $y > x$

the relation

$$0 = \sum_{\beta} C_{\beta} \psi(x, i\beta) e^{-\beta y} + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \{ \psi(x, -k) + R(k) \psi(x, k) \} e^{iky} dk / 2\pi$$

$$\psi(x, i\beta) e^{-\beta y} = \left(e^{-\beta x} + \int_{z>x} e^{-\beta z} v_x(z) dz \right) e^{-\beta y}$$

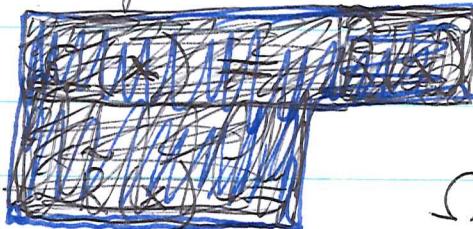
$$= e^{\beta(-x-y)} + \int_{z>x} e^{\beta(-z-y)} v_x(z) dz$$

$$\int R(k) \psi(x, k) e^{iky} dk / 2\pi = \int dk / 2\pi \int_{z>x}^{iky} e^{ikz} R(u) du \left(e^{ikx} + \int_{z>x} e^{ikz} v_z(x) dz \right) e^{iky}$$

$$= \hat{R}(-x-y) + \int_{z>x} \hat{R}(-z-y) v_z(x) dz$$

$$\int \psi(x, -k) e^{iky} dk / 2\pi = \int_{z>x} \int e^{-ikz} v_x(z) dz e^{iky} dk / 2\pi = v_x(y)$$

So if you put



$$\Omega(x) = \hat{R}(-x) + \sum_{\beta} C_{\beta} e^{-\beta x}$$

Then we get the Marchenko equation:

$$v_x(y) + \Omega(x+y) + \int_{z>x} v_x(z) \Omega(z+y) dz = 0 \quad y > x$$

Curious - this is a standard integral equation for v_x without any conjugations. One uses the identity $\overline{\psi(x, k)} = \psi(x, -k)$ to get rid of conjugation.