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On Symmetries of the Feinberg-Zee Random Hopping Matrix

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Dedicated to Roland Duduchava on the occasion of his 70th birthday

Abstract. In this paper we study the spectrum of the infinite Feinberg-Zee random hopping matrix, a tridiagonal matrix with zeros on the main diagonal and random ± 1 's on the first sub- and super-diagonals; the study of this non-selfadjoint random matrix was initiated in Feinberg and Zee (Phys. Rev. E 59 (1999), 6433{6443). Recently Hagger (arXiv:1412.1937, to appear in Random Matrices: Theory and Applications) has shown that the so-called periodic part of σ_{ess} , conjectured to be the whole of σ_{ess} and known to include the unit disk, satisfies $p^{-1}(S) \subset \sigma_{\text{ess}}$ for an infinite class S of monic polynomials p . In this paper we make very explicit the membership of S , in particular showing that it includes $P_m(x) = U_{m-1}(x)$ ($m \geq 2$), for $m \geq 2$, where $U_n(x)$ is the Chebychev polynomial of the second kind of degree n . We also explore implications of these inverse polynomial mappings, for example showing that σ_{ess} is the closure of its interior, and contains the filled Julia sets of infinitely many $p \in S$, including those of P_m , this partially answering a conjecture of the second author.

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1. Introduction

In this paper we study spectral properties of infinite matrices of the form

$$A_c = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & & & 1 \\ & \ddots & & & \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & \ddots \\ & & & & & \ddots \\ c_0 & \boxed{0} & 1 & & & \\ c_1 & 0 & & \ddots & & \\ & & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & & \ddots \end{pmatrix}; \quad (1.1)$$

where $c_2 := (c_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is an infinite sequence of 1 's, and the box marks the entry at $(0; 0)$. Let ℓ^2 denote the linear space of those complex-valued sequences $(c_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ for which $\|c\|_{\ell^2} := \left(\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} |c_n|^2 \right)^{1/2} < \infty$, a Hilbert space equipped with the norm $\|\cdot\|_{\ell^2}$. Then to each matrix A_c with $c \in \ell^2$ corresponds a bounded linear mapping $\ell^2 \rightarrow \ell^2$, which we denote again by A_c , given by the rule

$$(A_c \ell)_k :=$$

$(\cdot; \cdot)$ is the inner product on ℓ^2 , is given by

$$W(A_c) = \{x + iy : x, y \in \mathbb{R}; |x| + |y| < 2g\} \quad (1.3)$$

This gives the upper bound that $\overline{W(A_c)}$, the closure of $W(A_c)$. Other, sharper upper bounds on $\sigma(A_c)$ are discussed in Section 2 below.

This current paper is related to the problem of computing lower bounds for $\sigma(A_c)$ via (1.2). If $b \in \ell^\infty$ is constant then A_b is a Laurent matrix and $\text{spec} A_b = [-2; 2]$ if $b_n = 1$, while $\text{spec} A_b = i[-2; 2]$ if $b_n = i$; thus, by (1.2), $\sigma_1 := [-2; 2] \cup i[-2; 2]$. Generalising this, if $b \in \ell^\infty$ is periodic with period n then $\text{spec} A_b$ is the union of a finite number of analytic arcs which can be computed by calculating eigenvalues of $n \times n$ matrices (see Lemma 2.2 below). And, by (1.2), $\sigma_n = \bigcup_{b \text{ periodic with period } n} \text{spec} A_b$, where σ_n is the union of $\text{spec} A_b$ over all b with period n . This implies, since σ is closed, that

$$\sigma = \overline{\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \sigma_n}; \quad (1.4)$$

where $\sigma_1 := \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \sigma_n$.

We will call σ_1 the periodic part of σ , noting that [3] conjectures that equality holds in (1.4), i.e. that σ_1 is dense in σ and $\sigma = \overline{\sigma_1}$. Whether or not this holds is an open problem, but it has been shown in [5] that σ_1 is dense in the open unit disk $D := \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| < 1\}$, so that

$$\overline{D} \subset \sigma_1. \quad (1.5)$$

For a polynomial p and $S \subset \mathbb{C}$, we define, as usual, $p(S) := \{p(z) : z \in S\}$ and $p^{-1}(S) := \{z \in \mathbb{C} : p(z) \in S\}$. (We will use throughout that if S is open then $p^{-1}(S)$ is open (p is continuous) and, if p is non-constant, then $p(S)$ is also open, e.g., [22, Theorem 10.32].) The proof of (1.5) in [5] depends on the result, in the case $p(z) = z^2$, that

$$p^{-1}(\sigma_1) \subset \sigma_1; \text{ so that also } p^{-1}(\sigma) \subset \sigma. \quad (1.6)$$

This implies that $\sigma_n \subset \sigma_1$, for $n = 0, 1, \dots$, where $\sigma_0 := [-2; 2]$ and $\sigma_n := p^{-1}(\sigma_{n-1})$, for $n \geq 1$. Thus $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \sigma_n$, which is dense in $\overline{D}$, is also in σ_1 , giving (1.5).

Hagger [17] makes a large generalisation of the results of [5], showing the existence of an infinite family, $\mathcal{S}$, containing monic polynomials of arbitrarily high degree, for which (1.6) holds. For each of these polynomials let

$$U(p) := \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} p^{-n}(D); \quad (1.7)$$

(Here $p^{-2}(S) := p^{-1}(p^{-1}(S))$, $p^{-3}(S) := p^{-1}(p^{-2}(S))$, etc.) Hagger [17] observes

sequence $(p^n(x))_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, the orbit of x , is bounded. Further, the boundary of $K(p)$, $J(p) := \partial K(p) \cap K(p)$, is the Julia set of p .)

The definition of the set S in [17], while constructive, is rather indirect. The first contribution of this paper (Section 3) is to make explicit the membership of S . As a consequence we show, in particular, that $P_m \in S$, for $m = 2, 3, \dots$, where $P_m(x) := U_{m-1}(x)$ ($= 2$), and U_n is the Chebychev polynomial of the second kind of degree n [1].

The second contribution of this paper (Section 4) is to say more about the interior points of S . Previous calculations of large subsets of S , precisely calculations of S_n for n as large as 30 [3, 4], suggest that S fills most of the square $[-1, 1] \times [-1, 1]$, but $\text{int}(S)$ (the interior of S), is known only to contain $\emptyset$. Using that the whole family $\{T_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of Chebychev polynomials of the first kind is a family of functions on $[-1, 1]$ which are bounded by 1, and that $T_n(x) = \cos(n \arccos(x))$, we show that $\text{int}(S)$ is non-empty. Using that the whole family $\{T_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of Chebychev polynomials of the first kind is a family of functions on $[-1, 1]$ which are bounded by 1, and that $T_n(x) = \cos(n \arccos(x))$, we show that $\text{int}(S)$ is non-empty.

this last equation obtained using (2.3). The following lemma, proved using these representations, makes clear that many different vectors k correspond to the same polynomial p_k .

Lemma 2.6. If $k = (k_1; \dots; k_n) \in \mathbb{Z}^n$, for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and $\sigma = k^0$ or σ is a cyclic permutation of k , then $p_k = p_\sigma$. If $\sigma = \sigma^k$ then $p(\sigma(i)) = i^{-n} p_k(i)$.

Proof. Using (2.6) and (2.3) we see that

$$\begin{aligned} p(\sigma(i)) - p_k(i) &= q_{(1:n-1)}(i) - q_{k(1:n-1)}(i) + k_n q_{k(2:n)}(i) - \sigma_n q_{(2:n)}(i) \\ &= q_{(2:n-1)}(i) - q_{k(1:n-2)}(i) - \sigma_1 q_{(3:n-1)}(i) \\ &\quad + k_{n-1} q_{k(1:n-3)}(i) + k_n q_{k(2:n-2)}(i) - \sigma_n q_{(2:n-2)}(i): \end{aligned}$$

If σ is a cyclic shift of k , i.e., $\sigma_j = k_{j-1}$, $j = 2; \dots; n$, and $\sigma_1 = k_n$, then this last line is identically zero. Thus $p_\sigma = p_k$ if σ is a cyclic permutation of k .

If $\sigma = k^0$ then that $p_k = p_\sigma$ follows from (2.7) and Lemma 2.4. If $\sigma = \sigma^k$ then that $p(\sigma(i)) = i^{-n} p_k(i)$ follows from (2.6) and Lemma 2.4.

Call $k \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ even if $\sum_{j=1}^n k_j = 1$, and odd if $\sum_{j=1}^n k_j = -1$. Then [17, Corollary 5], it is immediate from Lemmas 2.2 and 2.5 that

$$\text{spec} A_k^{\text{per}} = p_k^{-1}([-2; 2]); \text{ if } k \text{ is even, } \text{spec} A_k^{\text{per}} = p_k^{-1}(i[-2; 2]); \text{ if } k \text{ is odd.} \quad (2.8)$$

Complex dynamics. In Section 5 below we show that filled Julia sets, $K(p)$, of particular polynomials p , are contained in the periodic part of the almost sure spectrum of the Feinberg-Zee random hopping matrix. To articulate and prove these results we will need terminology and results from complex dynamics.

Throughout this section p denotes a polynomial of degree ≥ 2 . We have defined above the compact set that is the filled Julia set $K(p)$, the Julia set $J(p) = \partial K(p)$, the Fatou set

If w is an attracting periodic point we denote by $A_p(w)$ the basin of attraction of the cycle $C = \{z_0, \dots, z_{n-1}\}$ of z , by which we mean $A_p(w) := \{z \in \mathbb{C} : d(p^n(z); C) \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty\}$. Here, for $S \subset \mathbb{C}$ and $z \in \mathbb{C}$, $d(z; S) := \inf_w$

fate under iterations of p of the components of the Fatou set it is helpful to understand the possible behaviours of a periodic component. This is achieved in the classification theorem (e.g. [2]). To state this theorem we introduce further terminology. Let us call a fixed component U of $F(p)$ a parabolic component if there exists a neutral fixed point $w \in U$ with multiplier 1 such that the orbit of every $z \in U$ converges to w . Call a fixed component U of $F(p)$ a Siegel disk if it is conjugate to an irrational rotation on $\mathbb{D}$, which means that there exists a conformal mapping $\phi : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow U$

and so $p^n(z) \in S$ for some n . In the case that the orbit of z is eventually in a Siegel disk then also $p^n(z) \in S$ for some n for, if the orbit of every critical point $w \in K(p)$ is eventually in T , it follows that the boundary of every Siegel disk is in T , and (as S is simply connected) that every Siegel disk is in S .

Previous upper bounds on ρ . We have noted above that, if $c \in \mathbb{C}$ is pseudo-ergodic, then $\rho = \text{spec } A_c = \overline{W(A_c)}$, given by (1.3). Similarly, the spectrum of A_c^2 is contained in the closure of its numerical range, so that²

$$\rho = \overline{\{ \langle A_c^2 z, z \rangle : z \in \text{spec}(A_c^2) \}} \quad N_2 := \overline{\{ \langle A_c^2 z, z \rangle : z \in \overline{W(A_c^2)} \}}. \quad (2.12)$$

Clearly, $f_n : n \in \mathbb{N}$ is a convergent family of upper bounds for $\mathcal{E}$ that is in principle computable; deciding whether $\mathcal{E} \subset \mathcal{E}_n$ requires only computation of smallest singular values of $n \times n$ matrices (see [4, (39)]). Explicitly $\mathcal{E}_1 = 2\overline{D}$, and $\mathcal{E}_n$ is plotted for $n = 6; 12; 18$ in [4]. But for these values $\mathcal{E}_n$, and computing $\mathcal{E}_n$ for larger n is challenging, requiring computation of the smallest singular value of 2^{n-1} matrices of order n to decide whether a particular $\lambda \in \mathcal{E}_n$. Substantial numerical calculations in [4] established that $15 + 0.5i \notin \mathcal{E}_{34}$, providing the first proof that $\mathcal{E}$ is a strict subset of $\overline{\mathcal{E}}$, this confirmed now by the simple explicit bound (2.12) and (2.13).

3. Lower Bounds on $\mathcal{E}$ and Symmetries of $\mathcal{E}$ and $\mathcal{E}_n$

Complementing the upper bounds on $\mathcal{E}$ that we have just discussed, lower bounds on $\mathcal{E}$ have been obtained by two methods of argument. The first is that (1.2) tells us that $\text{spec} A_b \subset \mathcal{E}$ for every $b \in \mathbb{C}$. In particular this holds in the case when b is periodic, when the spectrum of A_b is given explicitly by Lemmas 2.2 and 2.5, so that, as observed in the introduction,

$$\mathcal{E}_n := \bigcup_{k=2f-1g^n} \text{spec} A_k^{\text{per}} : \quad (3.1)$$

Explicitly [4, Lemma 2.6], in particular,

$$\mathcal{E}_1 = [-2; 2] \cup i[-2; 2] \text{ and } \mathcal{E}_2 = \mathcal{E}_1 \cup \{f(x) + ix : 1 \leq x \leq 1g\} \quad (3.1)$$

In the introduction we have defined $\mathcal{E}_1 := \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{E}_n$ and have termed $\mathcal{E}_1 := \overline{\mathcal{E}_1}$, also a subset of $\mathcal{E}$ since $\mathcal{E}$ is closed, the periodic part of $\mathcal{E}$. We have also recalled the conjecture of [3] that $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E}_1$. Let

$$\mathcal{E}_n := \bigcup_{m=1}^n \mathcal{E}_m \quad (3.2)$$

Then it follows from Lemma 2.1 that

$$\mathcal{E}_n \subset \mathcal{E} \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty \quad (3.2)$$

If, as conjectured, $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E}_1$, then (3.2) complements (2.16); together they sandwich $\mathcal{E}$ by convergent sequences of upper ($\mathcal{E}_n$) and lower ($\mathcal{E}_n$) bounds that can both be computed by calculating eigenvalues of $n \times n$ matrices. Figures 2 and 3 include visualisations of $\mathcal{E}_{30}$, indistinguishable by eye from $\mathcal{E}_{30}$, but note that the solid appearance of $\mathcal{E}_{30}$, which is the union of a large but finite number of analytic arcs, is illusory. See [3, 4] for visualisations of $\mathcal{E}_n$ for a range of n , suggestive that the convergence (3.2) is approximately achieved by $n = 30$.

The same method of argument (1.2) to obtain lower bounds was used in [3], where a special sequence $\mathcal{E}_2$ was constructed with the property that $\text{spec} A_b \subset \mathcal{E}_2$, so that, by (1.2), $\mathcal{E}_2 \subset \mathcal{E}$. The stronger result (1.5), that this new lower bound on $\mathcal{E}$ is in fact also a subset of $\mathcal{E}$, was shown in [5], via a second method of argument for constructing lower bounds, based on surprising symmetries of $\mathcal{E}$ and

. We will spell out in a moment these symmetries (one of these described first in [5], the whole infinite family in [17]), which will be both a main subject of study and a main tool for argument in this paper. But first we note more straightforward but important symmetries. In this lemma and throughout $\bar{}$ denotes the complex conjugate of $ \in \mathbb{C}$.

Lemma 3.1. [4, Lemma 3.4] (and see [19], [5, Lemma 4]). All of $\mathcal{P}_n$, $\mathcal{P}_{n-1}$, and $\mathcal{P}_{n-2}$ are invariant with respect to the maps $\mathcal{P} \mapsto \mathcal{P}^*$ and $\mathcal{P} \mapsto \mathcal{P}^\dagger$, and so are invariant under the dihedral symmetry group D_2 generated by these two maps.

To expand on the brief discussion in the introduction, [17] proves the existence of an infinite set S of monic polynomials of degree ≥ 2 , this set defined constructively in the following theorem, such that the elements $p \in S$ are symmetries of $\mathcal{P}_1$ and $\mathcal{P}_2$ in the sense that (3.3) below holds.

Theorem 3.2. [17] Let S denote the set of those polynomials p_k , defined by (2.5), with $k = (k_1; \dots; k_n) \in \mathbb{N}^n$ for some $n \geq 2$, for which it holds that: (i) $k_{n-1} = 1$ and $k_n = 1$; (ii) $p_k = p_{\tilde{k}}$, where $\tilde{k} \in \mathbb{N}^n$ is the vector identical to k but with the last two entries interchanged, so that $\tilde{k}_{n-1} = 1$ and $\tilde{k}_n = 1$. Then

$$p(\cdot) \text{ and } p^{-1}(\cdot) \subset \mathcal{P}_1; \quad (3.3)$$

for all $p \in S$.

We will call S Hagger's set of polynomial symmetries for $\mathcal{P}_1$.

We remark that if $p \in S$ then it follows from (3.3), by taking closures and recalling that p is continuous, that also

$$p^{-1}(\cdot) \subset \mathcal{P}_2 \text{ and } p^{-1}(\text{int}(\cdot)) \subset \text{int}(\cdot); \quad (3.4)$$

We note also that $p^{-1}(\cdot) \subset \mathcal{P}_1$ implies that $\mathcal{P}_1 \subset p(\cdot)$, but not vice versa, and that $p(\cdot) \subset \mathcal{P}_1$

$$p^{-1}(f \setminus g) \setminus \mathcal{P}_1; \text{ for all } f, g \in \mathcal{P}_1.$$

Further, we note that it was shown earlier in [5] that (3.3) holds for the particular case $p(\cdot) = \cdot^2$ (this the only element of S of degree 2, see Table 1); in [5] it was also shown, as an immediate consequence of (3.3) and Lemma 3.1, that

$$p^{-1}(\cdot) \subset \mathcal{P}_1;$$

for $p(\cdot) = \cdot^2$. Whether this last inclusion holds in fact for all $p \in S$ is an open problem.

Our first result is a much more explicit characterisation of S .

Proposition 3.3. The set S is given by $S = \{p_k : k \in K\}$, where K consists of those vectors $k = (k_1; \dots; k_n) \in \mathbb{N}^n$ with $n \geq 2$, for which: (i) $k_{n-1} = 1$ and $k_n = 1$; and (ii) $n = 2$, or $n \geq 3$ and $k_j = k_{n-j+1}$, for $1 \leq j \leq n-2$, so that $(k_1; \dots; k_{n-2})$ is a palindrome. Moreover, if $k \in K$, then

$$p_k(\cdot) = q_{k(1:n-2)}(\cdot); \quad (3.5)$$

Proof. It is clear from Theorem 3.2 that what we have to prove is that, if $k \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ with $n \geq 2$ and $k_{n-1} = -1$, $k_n = 1$, then $p_k = p_{\bar{k}}$ if $n = 2$ or 3 ; further, if $n \geq 4$, then $p_k = p_{\bar{k}}$ if $(k_1, \dots, k_{n-2})$ is a palindrome.

If $k \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ with $n \geq 2$ and $k_{n-1} = -1$, $k_n = 1$, then, from (2.6) and (2.3),

$$\begin{aligned} p_k(\lambda) &= q_{k(1:n-1)}(\lambda) - k_n q_{k(2:n-2)}(\lambda) \\ &= q_{k(1:n-2)}(\lambda) - k_{n-1} q_{k(1:n-3)}(\lambda) - k_n q_{k(2:n-2)}(\lambda) \\ &= q_{k(1:n-2)}(\lambda); \end{aligned}$$

since $q_{k(1:n-3)}(\lambda) = q_{k(2:n-2)}(\lambda)$, this is a consequence of the definitions (2.2) in the cases $n = 2$ and 3 , of Lemma 2.4 in the case $n \geq 4$.

Proof. This follows easily by induction from (3.5) and (2.3).

We note that, using the standard trigonometric representations for the Chebyshev polynomials [1], for $m \geq 2$, N ,

$$P_m(2 \cos \theta) = 2 \cos U_{m-1}(\cos \theta) = 2 \cot \theta \sin m \theta =: r_m(\theta); \quad (3.6)$$

A similar representation in terms of hyperbolic functions can be given for the polynomial p_k when k has length $2m-1$ and $k_j = (-1)^j$; we denote this polynomial by Q_m . Clearly, for $m \geq 2$, $Q_m \in S$ by Proposition 3.3, and Q_m is an odd function by Lemma 2.5. The proof of the following lemma, like that of Lemma 3.5, is a straightforward induction that we leave to the reader.

Lemma 3.6. $Q_1(\theta) = \theta$, $Q_2(\theta) = \theta^3 + \dots$, and $Q_{m+1}(\theta) = 2Q_m(\theta) + Q_{m-1}(\theta)$, for $m \geq 2$. Moreover, for $m \geq N$ and $\theta \geq 0$,

$$Q_m \left(\frac{p}{2 \sinh \theta} \right) = \begin{cases} \frac{p}{2 \sinh \theta} \frac{\sinh(m\theta) + \cosh((m-1)\theta)}{\cosh \theta}; & \text{if } m \text{ is even,} \\ \frac{p}{2 \sinh \theta} \frac{\cosh(m\theta) + \sinh((m-1)\theta)}{\cosh \theta}; & \text{if } m \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

The following lemma leads, using Lemmas 3.5 and 3.6, to explicit formulae for other polynomials in S . For example, if P_m denotes the polynomial p_k when k has length $m-2$, $k_{m-1} = -1$, $k_m = 1$, and all other entries are 1 's, then, by Lemmas 3.5 and 3.7,

$$P_m(\theta) = i^{-m} P_m(i\theta) = i^{1-m} U_{m-1}(i\theta/2); \quad (3.7)$$

Lemma 3.7. If $k \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ and $p_k \in S$, then $p_{-k} \in S$ and $p_{-k}(\theta) = i^{-n} p_k(i\theta)$.

Proof. Suppose that $k \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ and $p_k \in S$. If $n = 2$, then $k = (k_1, k_2)$ and $p_{-k} = p_k \in S$. If $n \geq 3$, defining $\tilde{k} \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ by $\tilde{k}_1 = -1$, $\tilde{k}_n = 1$, and $\tilde{k}_j = k_j$, for $j = 2, \dots, n-2$, $p_{\tilde{k}} \in S$ by Proposition 3.3, so that $p_{-k} = p_{\tilde{k}} \in S$. That $p_{-k}(\theta) = i^{-n} p_k(i\theta)$ comes from Lemma 2.6.

We note that Proposition 3.3 implies that there are precisely $2^{n/2-1}$ vectors of length n in K , so that there are between 1 and $2^{n/2-1}$ polynomials of degree n in S , as conjectured in [17]. Note, however, that there may be more than one $k \in K$ that induce the same polynomial $p_k \in S$. For example, $p_k(\theta) = \theta^6 - 2\theta^2$ for $k = (1; 1; 1; -1; -1; 1)$, and, defining $\tilde{k} = (1; -1; 1; 1; -1; 1)$ and using Lemma 3.7, also

$$p_{\tilde{k}}(\theta) = p_b(\theta) = p_{-k}(\theta) = p_k(i\theta) = \theta^6 - 2\theta^2;$$

In Table 1 (cf. [17]) we tabulate all the polynomials in S of degree ≤ 6 .

If $p, q \in S$, so that p and q are polynomial symmetries of $\mathbb{H}^n$ in the sense that (3.3) holds, then also the composition $p \circ q$ is a polynomial symmetry of $\mathbb{H}^n$ in the same sense. But note from Table 1 that, while $P_3 \circ P_2 \in S$, none of $P_2 \circ P_2$, $P_2 \circ P_2 \circ P_2$, $Q_2 \circ P_2$, $P_2 \circ P_3$, or $P_2 \circ Q_2$ are in S . Thus S does not contain all polynomial symmetries of $\mathbb{H}^n$, but whether there are polynomial symmetries that are not either in S or else compositions of elements of S is an open question.

k	$p_k(\cdot)$
$(\cdot; 1; 1)$	$^2 = P_2(\cdot)$
$(1; \cdot; 1)$	$^3 = P_3(\cdot)$
$(\cdot; 1; \cdot; 1)$	$^3 + \cdot = Q_2(\cdot) = P_3(\cdot)$
$(1; 1; \cdot; 1)$	$^4 - 2 \cdot^2 = P_4(\cdot)$
$(\cdot; 1; \cdot; 1; 1)$	$^4 + 2 \cdot^2 = P_4(\cdot)$
$(1; 1; 1; \cdot; 1)$	$^5 - 3 \cdot^3 + \cdot = P_5(\cdot)$
$(1; \cdot; 1; 1; 1)$	$^5 - \cdot^3 + \cdot = iQ_3(i \cdot)$
$(\cdot; 1; 1; \cdot; 1; 1)$	$^5 + \cdot^3 + \cdot = Q_3(\cdot)$
$(\cdot; 1; \cdot; 1; 1; 1)$	$^5 + 3 \cdot^3 + \cdot = P_5(\cdot)$
$(1; 1; 1; 1; \cdot; 1)$	$^6 - 4 \cdot^4 + 3 \cdot^2 = P_6(\cdot)$
$(1; \cdot; 1; \cdot; 1; 1)$	$^6 - \cdot^2 = P_3(P_2(\cdot))$
$(\cdot; 1; \cdot; 1; 1; 1; 1)$	$^6 + 4 \cdot^4 + 3 \cdot^2 = P_6(\cdot)$

Table 1. The elements p_k of S of degree ≤ 6 .

We finish this section by showing in subsection 3.1 the surprising result that

S 1

Proposition 3.9. Suppose $a, b, c, d \geq 1$ and $k \geq 1$, for some $n \geq 2$, and let $\mathbf{R} := (k_1, \dots, k_{n-1})$. Then

$$\text{spec} A_k^{(n)} \subseteq \text{spec} A^{\text{per}}; \quad \text{for } \mathbf{R} = (\mathbf{R}^0, a, b, \mathbf{R}; c, d) \geq 1 g^{2n+2}; \quad (3.9)$$

where $\mathbf{R}^0 = \mathbf{R} J_{n-1} = (k_{n-1}, \dots, k_1)$. Further, $\text{spec} A_k^{(n)} \subseteq \mathbb{S}_{2n+2}$.

Proof. The proof modifies [4, Theorem 4.1] where the same result is proved for the special case that $a = c = 1$, $b = d = 1$. Following that proof, suppose that λ is an eigenvalue of $A_k^{(n)}$

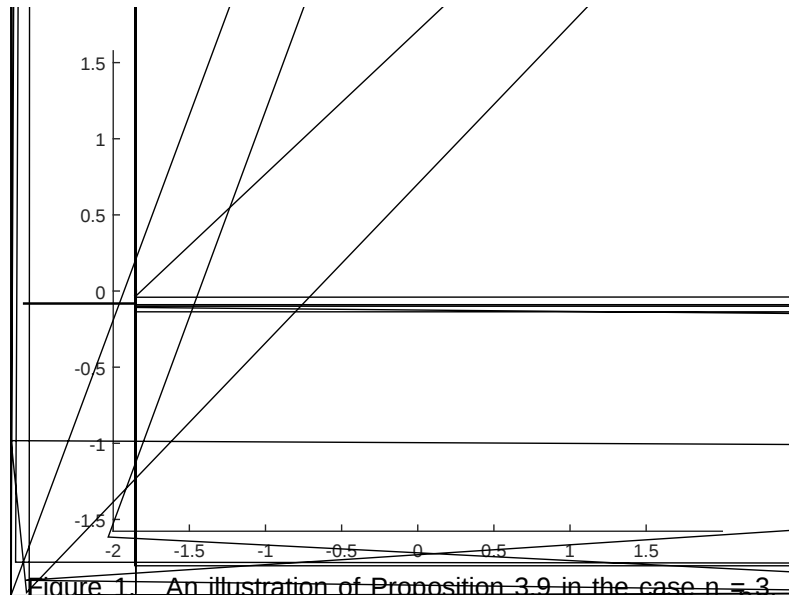


Figure 1. An illustration of Proposition 3.9 in the case $n = 3$, $k_1 = k_2 = 1$. The red circles indicate the eigenvalues, 0 and $\frac{1}{2}$, of $A_k^{(3)}$. The black lines are the spectra of A_k^{per} , for the different choices of $\vec{c}$ defined by (3.9). In this case there are 7 distinct polynomials $p_{\vec{c}}$ and 7 associated distinct spectra $\text{spe} A_k^{per}$, each of which contains the eigenvalues of $A_k^{(3)}$. One cannot see all the spectra as separate curves because some of them overlap.

spectrum $\text{spe} A_k^{per}$. In particular, if $a = b = 1$, then the choices $c = d = 1$ and $c = d = -1$ lead to the same polynomial by Proposition 3.3 and the definition of S . But, if $a \neq b$, again by Proposition 3.3 and the definition of S , the choices $c =$

nite subset of S . Since, by (1.5), D , it follows from (3.3) that all these sets are subsets of .

$$\sum_{m=0}^3 i^m (W_1 \wedge W_2) = E \wedge iE \wedge \overline{p} \wedge \overline{iE} \wedge \text{int}(\quad): \quad (3.12)$$
$$p(\theta) = (e^{i\theta/6})(1 + e^{i\theta/6})(e^{-i\theta/6})(1 + e^{-i\theta/6})$$
$$j p(\cdot) j = (1 + \epsilon)(2 + \epsilon)(2 \sin(\epsilon/6) + \epsilon)(2 \cos(\epsilon/6) + \epsilon) = (1 + \epsilon)^2 (2 + \epsilon)(2 + \epsilon) =: g(\epsilon).$$
$$\exp(i\phi) = \exp(i\phi_0) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2 \phi}{d\tau^2} + \dots \quad (3.13)$$

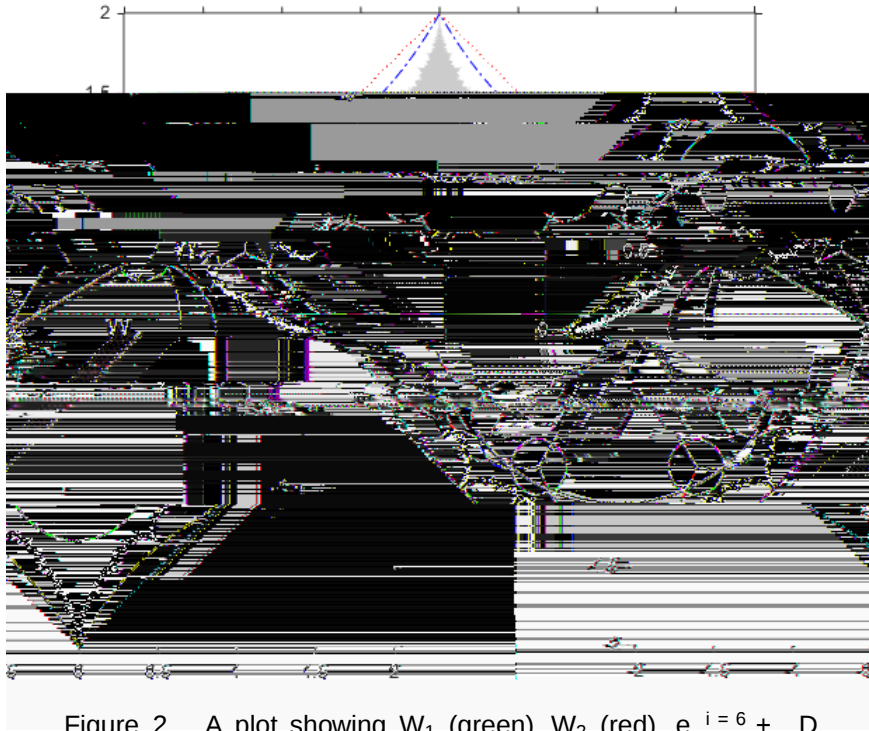


Figure 2. A plot showing W_1 (green), W_2 (red), $e^{i=6+\pi}D$ (blue), and their rotations by multiples of $\pi=2$. The union of the green, red, and blue regions is W , defined by (3.14). W contains $1:\overline{1D}$, indicated by the black circle, see Proposition 3.13. In the background in grey one can see $_{30}$. The dotted and dashed-dotted curves are the boundaries of $\overline{N_2}$ and N_2 , respectively, defined by (1.3) and (2.12), with $\overline{N_2}$.

last inequality holds since $\cos(\pi/24) = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{3}}}} > 0.991$ and $g(0.174) < 1$ so that $\pi > 0.174$.

4. Interior points of

We have just, in Proposition 3.13, extended to a region $W \setminus 1:\overline{1D}$ the part of the complex plane that is known to consist of interior points of $\overline{N_2}$. In this section we explore the relationship between $\overline{N_2}$ and its interior further. We show first of all, using (3.4) and that $P_n \in S$ for every $n \geq 2$, that $[0; 2) \subset \text{int}(\overline{N_2})$. Next we use this result to show that, for every $n \geq 2$, all but finitely many points in S_n are interior points of $\overline{N_2}$. Finally, we prove, using Theorem 3.8, that $\overline{N_2}$ is the closure

of its interior. If indeed it can be shown, as conjectured in [3], that $\bar{I} = I$, then the result will imply the truth of another conjecture in [3], that $\bar{I}$ is the closure of its interior.

Our technique for establishing that $[0; 2) \subset \text{int}(I)$ will be to use that $P_m^{-1}((-\frac{1}{2}; \frac{1}{2})) \subset \text{int}(I)$, for every $m \geq 3$, this a particular instance of (3.4). This requires first a study of the real solutions of the equations $P_m(x) = 1$ and their interlacing properties, which we now undertake.

From (3.6),

$$P_m(2) = 2m; \quad P_m(2 \cos(\pi/m)) = 0; \quad \text{and} \quad P_m(2 \cos(3\pi/(2m))) = -2 \cot(3\pi/(2m)).$$

This implies that the equation $P_m(x) = 1$ has a solution in $(2 \cos(\pi/m); 2)$. Let x_m^+ denote the largest solution in this interval. Further, if $m \geq 5$ then $P_m(x) = 1$ has a solution in $(2 \cos(3\pi/(2m)); 2)$ since $-2 \cot(3\pi/(2m)) < 1$. For $m \geq 4$ let x_m denote the largest solution to $P_m(x) = 1$ in $(0; 2)$, which is in the interval $(2 \cos(3\pi/(2m)); 2)$ if $m \geq 5$, while an explicit calculation gives that $x_4 = 1$.

Throughout the following calculations we use the notation $r_n(x)$ from (3.6).

Lemma 4.1. For $m \geq 4$ it holds that $P_m^0(x) > 0$ for $x_m < x < 2$, that $x_m < x_m^+$, and that $-1 < P_m(x) < 1$ for $x_m < x < x_m^+$.

Proof. Explicitly $P_4(x) = U_3(x/2) = x^4 - 2x^2$, so that $P_4^0(x) = 4(x^3 - 1)$ and these claims are clear for $m = 4$.

Suppose now that $m \geq 5$. We observe first that, by induction, it follows that, for $n \geq 2$, $r_n(x)$ is strictly decreasing on $(0; \pi/n + \pi/n^2)$. For $r_1(x) = 2 \cos x$, so that this is clearly true for $n = 1$, and if it is true for some $n \geq 2$ then

$$r_{n+1}(x) = 2 \cot x \sin((n+1)x) = \cos x (r_n(x) + 2 \cos nx)$$

is strictly decreasing on $(0; \pi/(n+1) + \pi/(n+1)^2)$ $(0; \pi/n)$. We observe next that

$$\begin{aligned} r_m(x) = 2 \cos(\pi/m + \pi/m^2) \sin(\pi/m) &= \sin(\pi/m + \pi/m^2) \\ &< \frac{2m \cos(\pi/5 + \pi/25)}{m+1} < 10 \cos(6\pi/25) = 6 < 1; \end{aligned}$$

where we have used that $\sin a = \sin b > a = b$ for $0 < a < b < \pi$. Since $r_m(x) = P_m(2 \cos x)$, these observations imply that, on $(2 \cos(\pi/m + \pi/m^2); 2)$, $P_m(x)$ is strictly increasing, and that $x_m > 2 \cos(\pi/m + \pi/m^2)$. Thus $P_m^0(x) > 0$ for $x_m < x < x_m^+$.

Lemma 4.3. For m

As an example of the above lemma, suppose that $k = (1; 1) \in K_2$. Then (see Table 1) $p_k(\lambda) = \lambda^2$ and, from (2.8), $\text{spec} A_k^{\text{per}} = \{x \in \mathbb{C} : 1 \leq |x| \leq 1\}$. There are precisely four points, $1, i, -1, -i \in \text{spec} A_k^{\text{per}} \cap \text{int}(\mathbb{D})$. These are not interior points of $\mathbb{D}$ since they lie on the boundary of $\mathbb{D}$.

Combining the above lemma with Theorem 3.8, we obtain the last result of this section.

Theorem 4.6. $\overline{\text{int}(\mathbb{D})}$ is the closure of its interior.

Proof. Suppose $\lambda \in \mathbb{D}$. Then, by Theorem 3.8, λ is the limit of a sequence $(\lambda_n)_{n=1}^\infty$, and, by Lemma 4.5, for each n there exists $j_n \in \text{int}(\mathbb{D})$ such that $|\lambda_n - j_n| < \frac{1}{n}$, so that $j_n \rightarrow \lambda$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

5. Filled Julia sets in

It was shown in [17] that, for every polynomial symmetry $p \in S$, the corresponding Julia set $J(p)$ satisfies $J(p) = \overline{U(p)}$, where $U(p)$ is defined by (1.7). (The argument in [17] is that $J(p) = \overline{U(p)}$ by (2.10), and that $\overline{U(p)} = J(p)$ by (3.4).) It was conjectured in [17] that also the filled Julia set $K(p) = \overline{U(p)}$, for every $p \in S$. In this section we will first show by a counterexample that this conjecture is false; we will exhibit a $p \in S$ of degree 18 for which $K(p) \neq \overline{U(p)}$. However, we have no reason to doubt a modified conjecture, that $K(p) = \overline{U(p)}$, for all $p \in S$. And the main result of this section will be to prove that $K(p) = \overline{U(p)}$ for a large class of $p \in S$, including $p = P_m$, for $m \geq 2$.

Our first result is the claimed counterexample.

Lemma 5.1. Let $k = (1; 1; 1; 1; 1; 1; 1; 1; 1; 1; 1; 1; 1; 1; 1; 1; 1; 1)$, so that (by Proposition 3.3) $p_k \in S$, this polynomial given explicitly by

$$p_k(\lambda) = \lambda^{18} - 4\lambda^{16} + 16$$

for $1.215 \leq \alpha \leq 1.216$. But this implies that $\lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} |p_j(\alpha)| = 0$, so that α is an attracting fixed point.

Numerical results suggest that amongst the polynomials $p \in \mathcal{P}_2(S)$ of degree ≤ 20 , there is only one other similar counterexample of a polynomial with an attracting fixed point outside the unit disk, the other example of degree 19.

We turn now to positive results. Part of our argument will be to show, for every $p \in \mathcal{P}_2(S)$, that $f^j(z) \rightarrow 0$ as $j \rightarrow \infty$ for all z in the unit disk.

in Section 2, $J(p) = \partial K(p) = \partial \mathcal{A}(0) = \partial \mathcal{A}(1)$, and, since $K(p)$ has more than one component, $F_B(p)$ has infinitely many components [2, Theorem IV 1.2].

The above example is a particular instance of a more general result. It is straightforward to see that if p is a polynomial with zeros only on the real line, then all the critical points are also on the real line. Since, by Lemma 3.5 $P_m(z) = U_{m-1}(z/2)$, and all the zeros of the polynomial U_{m-1} are real, it follows that all the zeros of P_m are real, so all its critical points are also real, and so the orbits of all the critical points are real. Further, by Corollary 5.3, the orbits of the critical points in $K(p)$ stay in $(-2; 2)$. Likewise, as (see (3.7)) $P_m(z) = i^{-m} P_m(i z)$, all the critical points of P_m lie on $i\mathbb{R}$, and so the orbits of these critical points are real if m is even, pure imaginary if m is odd. Further, by Corollary 5.3, the orbits of the critical points in $K(p)$ stay in $(-2; 2) \cup i(-2; 2)$. Applying Theorem 5.5 we obtain:

Corollary 5.6. $K(P_m) \subset (-2; 2) \cup i(-2; 2)$ and $K(P_m) \subset (-2; 2)$, for $m \geq 2$.

Numerical experiments carried out for the polynomials $p \in \mathcal{S}$ of degree 6 (exhibited in Table 1) appear to confirm that these polynomials satisfy the conditions of Theorem 5.5, i.e., it appears

$(-2; 2) \cup i(-2; 2)$ (Applying [

$\mathbb{D}_1$ and to $\mathbb{D}_2$ and $\mathbb{D}_3$ and their boundaries. Further, [17] has shown that $\mathbb{D}_1$ contains the Julia sets of all polynomials in S , and Proposition 5.5 and Corollary 5.6 show that $\mathbb{D}_1$ contains the filled Julia sets, many of which have fractal boundaries, of the polynomials in an infinite subset of S .

Regarding these polynomial symmetries we make two further conjectures:

5. $K(p) = \mathbb{D}_1$ for all $p \in S$.
6. $p^{-1}(\mathbb{D}_1) \subset \mathbb{D}_1$ for all $p \in S$.

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