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Rank one perturbations of self-adjoint operators

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Rank One Perturbations of Self-Adjoint Operators

By

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Honors Thesis

In

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RANK ONE PERTURBATIONS OF SELF-ADJOINT OPERATORS

HAOXUAN ZHENG

1. INTRODUCTION

A linear operator T on a Hilbert space \mathcal{H} , with inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$, is said to be cyclic if there exists a vector $v \in \mathcal{H}$, a cyclic vector for T, so that the linear span of $\{v, Tv, T^2v, T^3v, \cdots\}$ is all of H. The operator T is self-adjoint if $\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, Ty \rangle$ for all $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$. Two examples of cyclic self-adjoint operators are (1) the operator

$$
T: \mathbb{C}^n \to \mathbb{C}^n, \quad Tx = Ax,
$$

where $A^* = A$ is a self-adjoint $n \times n$ matrix with distinct eigenvalues and (2) the operator

$$
T: L^2[0,1] \to L^2[0,1], \quad (Tf)(x) = xf(x).
$$

Note that in (1) the inner product on \mathbb{C}^n is

$$
\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{n} v_i \overline{w_i},
$$

while the inner product for (2) is

$$
\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^1 f(x) \overline{g(x)} dx.
$$

The spectral theorem for cyclic-self adjoint operators T says that there is a measure μ_T on $\mathbb R$ so that T is unitarily equivalent to the operator

$$
M^{\mu}: L^{2}(\mu) \to L^{2}(\mu), \quad (M^{\mu}f)(x) = xf(x).
$$

In this thesis, I will discuss the details of the work of Simon and Wolff [1, 2] which deals with the properties of the spectral measures of rank-one perturbations of operators. In particular, I will deal with the following problem: Given a cyclic self-adjoint operator T on H with cyclic vector v , form the family of operators

$$
T_{\lambda} = T + \lambda (v \otimes v),
$$

where $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ and $(v \otimes v)(w) = \langle w, v \rangle v$. These operators turn out to be cyclic and self-adjoint (see the details in the thesis) and so, by the spectral theorem, there is a family of measures $\{\mu_{\lambda} : \lambda \in \mathbb{R}\}$ associated with the family $\{T_{\lambda} : \lambda \in \mathbb{R}\}.$

I will focus on this, almost magical, property of these measures:

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\int f(x) d\mu_{\lambda}(x) \right) d\lambda = \int f(x) dx.
$$

This theorem was shown by Simon[1] but the details in their paper are a bit vague. In this thesis, we will prove this theorem in its full detail. We will also work out some specific examples this theorem in two main cases (1) self-adjoint matrices and (2) multiplication by x on $L^2[0,1]$.

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In Section 2 of this thesis, we prove the spectral theorem (as stated above) for cyclic-self adjoint matrices. In Section 3, we prove the Simon-Wolff formula which requires an elaborate approximation argument using harmonic functions and the Hahn-Banach separation theorem. In Section 4 we work out some specific examples of the Simon-Wolff formula for self-adjoint matrices – proving some interesting integration formulas along the way. In section 5, we compute the family of spectral measures for multiplication by x on $L^2[0,1]$.

2. The Spectral Theorem

We will need the spectral theorem stated in terms of $L^2(\mu)$, where μ is a measure on R. But before we discuss the spectral theorem, we would like to review some basic linear algebra.

Definition 2.1.

- (i) An $n \times n$ matrix T of complex numbers is *self-adjoint* if $T^* = T$, where T^* is the conjugate transpose of T .
- (ii) A matrix T is cyclic if there exists a vector **v** such that $\text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}, T\mathbf{v}, T^2\mathbf{v} \dots\}$ \mathbb{C}^n .
- (iii) A matrix T is unitary if $T^*T = I$.

Theorem 2.2 (The Spectral Theorem). Given any self-adjoint $n \times n$ matrix T, there exists a unitary matrix P such that

$$
T = PDP^*,
$$

where $D = diag\{\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n\}$ and $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ are eigenvalues of T.

Proof. From linear algebra, we know that for a self-adjoint $n \times n$ matrix T, there exists an orthonormal basis for \mathbb{C}^n , each vector of which is an eigenvector for T. Let $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ be such a basis, and $\{\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n\}$ be the corresponding eigenvalues. We then construct

$$
P = [\mathbf{v_1} | \cdots | \mathbf{v_n}],
$$

and D a diagonal matrix with $\{\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n\}$ as diagonal entries. Given P and D we have

$$
TP = [T\mathbf{v}_1 | \cdots |T\mathbf{v}_n]
$$

= $[\lambda_1\mathbf{v}_1 | \cdots | \lambda_n\mathbf{v}_n]$
= PD .

Since the columns of P form an orthonormal basis for \mathbb{C}^n , we get

$$
(PP^*)_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} P_{ik} \overline{P_{jk}} = \langle \mathbf{v_i v_j} \rangle = 0
$$

for $i \neq j$. Thus P is unitary. Therfore we have

$$
T = PDP^{-1} = PDP^*.
$$

 \Box

Corollary 2.3. A self-adjoint matrix T can be written in the form

$$
T = \lambda_1 P_1 + \cdots + \lambda_n P_n,
$$

where $\{P_i : i = 1, \ldots, n\}$ form a set of orthogonal projections onto the eigenspace of T according to the λ_i 's.

Proof. Let $P_i = PI_i P^*$, where P is defined as in Theorem 2.2, and I_i is an $n \times n$ matrix with all zero entries except for a 1 at the ith diagonal entry. Then the desired equality comes easily from the equality in Theorem 2.2. Also it is easy to see that $P_i P_j = \delta_{ij} P_i$. .

As an example to the above corollary, consider the self-adjoint matrix

$$
T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2i \\ -2i & 1 \end{bmatrix}.
$$

It is easy to obtain the eigenvalues $\lambda_1 = 3, \lambda_2 = -1$, and the corresponding normalized eigenvectors

$$
\mathbf{v_1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{v_2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} i \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}.
$$

$$
P = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} i & i \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } D = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}.
$$

Thus

Then we have

$$
T = \lambda_1 P_1 + \lambda_2 P_2
$$

= $\lambda_1 P \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} P^* + \lambda_2 P \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} P^*$
= $3 \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{i}{2} \\ -\frac{i}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} - 1 \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{i}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}$

Corollary 2.4. A self-adjoint matrix T has only real eigenvalues.

Proof. From Theorem 2.2, we take conjugate transpose and get

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$$
T^* = (PDP^*)^* = PD^*P^*.
$$

Since $T = T^*$, we have $D = D^*$. Therefore T has only real eigenvalues.

Theorem 2.5. A self-adjoint operator $T : \mathbb{C}^n \to \mathbb{C}^n$ is cyclic iff T has n distinct eigenvalues.

Proof. We will identify T with its matrix representation. If T is self-adjoint and has distinct eigenvalues, then we can write T as

$$
T = PDP^{-1},
$$

where $P^{-1} = P^*$, and D is a diagonal matrix with entries being the distinct eigenvalues $\{\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n\}$ of T. Let

$$
\mathbf{v} = P \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix},
$$

then we have

$$
T^i \mathbf{v} = P D^i P^{-1} \mathbf{v} = P \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^i \\ \lambda_2^i \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_n^i \end{bmatrix}.
$$

We want to show that $\{T^i \mathbf{v} : i = 0, 1, \ldots, n-1\}$ are linearly independent. Assume that there exists a vector $\mathbf{c} = (c_0, c_1, \dots, c_{n-1})$ such that

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} c_i T^i \mathbf{v} = 0,
$$

which means

$$
P\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^i \\ \lambda_2^i \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_n^i \end{bmatrix} c_i = 0.
$$

Now, since P^{-1} exists, we have

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^i \\ \lambda_2^i \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_n^i \end{bmatrix} c_i = 0.
$$

Notice that the above is equivalent to

$$
\begin{bmatrix}\n1 & \lambda_1 & \cdots & \lambda_1^{n-1} \\
1 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & \lambda_2^{n-1} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
1 & \lambda_n & \cdots & \lambda_n^{n-1}\n\end{bmatrix} \mathbf{c} = 0,
$$

and that the Vandermonde matrix has

$$
\det\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \lambda_1 & \cdots & \lambda_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & \lambda_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \lambda_n & \cdots & \lambda_n^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = \prod_{1 \le i \le j \le n} (\lambda_j - \lambda_i) \neq 0.
$$

Thus $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{0}$ and $\{T^i \mathbf{v} : i = 0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ are linearly independent. Therefore T is cyclic with cyclic vector

$$
\mathbf{v} = P \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.
$$

To prove the other direction, we assume for the sake of contradiction that T is cyclic and does not have distinct eigenvalues. Without loss of generality, we assume that $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda$, so

$$
T = P \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & & & \\ & \lambda & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} P^*,
$$

and

$$
T^i = P \begin{bmatrix} \lambda^i & & \\ & \lambda^i & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda^i_n \end{bmatrix} P^*, i \in \mathbb{N}.
$$

Let **v** be a cyclic vector of T and $\mathbf{w} = P^* \mathbf{v}$, then any vector in Span $\{\mathbf{v}, T\mathbf{v}, T^2\mathbf{v}, \ldots\}$ will be of the form $q(T)\mathbf{v}$ where q is a polynomial, and hence of the form

$$
q(T)\mathbf{v} = P\begin{bmatrix} w_1q(\lambda) \\ w_2q(\lambda) \\ \vdots \\ w_nq(\lambda_n) \end{bmatrix}.
$$

Let $\mathbf{x} = (-w_2, w_1, 0, \ldots, 0)$. It is obvious that $\mathbf{x} \perp \text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}, T\mathbf{v}, T^2\mathbf{v}, \ldots\}$, so $\text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}, T\mathbf{v}, T^2\mathbf{v}, ...\} \neq \mathbb{C}^n$. This contradicts the fact that \mathbf{v} is a cyclic vector for T.

 \Box

Definition 2.6. We define $L^2(\mu) = \{f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{C}, \int |f(x)|^2 d\mu(x) < \infty\}$, which is a Hilbert space with inner product

$$
\langle f, g \rangle = \int f \bar{g} d\mu.
$$

Theorem 2.7. Given any cyclic self-adjoint operator $T: \mathbb{C}^n \to \mathbb{C}^n$, there exists a measure μ on $\mathbb R$ and a unitary operator $U: \mathbb C^n \to L^2(\mu)$ such that

$$
UTU^{-1} = M,
$$

where $(Mf)(x) = xf(x)$ on $L^2(\mu)$.

Proof. By Corollary 2.3 we can write T in terms of its distinct eigenvalues λ_i and orthogonal projections P_i :

$$
T = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i P_i.
$$

Let \bf{v} be a cyclic vector of T, and we define a discrete measure

$$
\mu=\sum_{i=1}^n \|P_i\mathbf{v}\|^2\delta_{\lambda_i}
$$

on $\mathbb R$ and the resulting $L^2(\mu) = \{f : \{\lambda_i, i = 1, ..., n\} \to \mathbb C\}.$

Now we want to show that there exists a unitary operator $U: \mathbb{C}^n \to L^2(\mu)$, such that $UTU^* = M$. Since $\{P_i v : i = 1...n\}$ forms a basis for \mathbb{C}^n , for any $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ we have $\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i P_i \mathbf{v}$ for some c_i 's. We then define $U: \mathbb{C}^n \to L^2(\mu)$ by

$$
U\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \chi_{\{\lambda_i\}},
$$

where for a set A we define $\chi_A(x)$ as

$$
\chi_A(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in A \\ 0 & \text{if } x \notin A. \end{cases}
$$

Then we have

$$
UT\mathbf{w} = U \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i P_i \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} c_j P_j \mathbf{v} \right)
$$

=
$$
U \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i c_i P_i \mathbf{v}
$$

=
$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i c_i \chi_{\{\lambda_i\}}.
$$

On the other hand,

$$
MUw = M \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \chi_{\{\lambda_i\}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i c_i \chi_{\{\lambda_i\}},
$$

so we have $UT = MU$, and we want to show U is unitary, meaning that U is norm preserving and onto.

For norm preserving, given any arbitrary $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{C}^n$,

$$
||U\mathbf{w}||^2 = \int \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \chi_{\{\lambda_i\}} \overline{\sum_{j=1}^n c_j \chi_{\{\lambda_j\}}} d\mu(x)
$$

=
$$
\sum_{i=1}^n |c_i|^2 ||P_i \mathbf{v}||^2
$$

=
$$
||\mathbf{w}||^2.
$$

To show onto, we need to show that for every element $f \in L^2(\mu)$, there exists a $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ such that $U\mathbf{w} = f$. Since any $f \in L^2$ P $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ such that $U\mathbf{w} = f$. Since any $f \in L^2(\mu)$ can be written in the form $\sum_{i=1}^n c_i \chi_{\{\lambda_i\}}$, we can always find the desired $\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i P_i \mathbf{v}$.

 \Box

3. The Disintegration Theorem

As we have shown in Section 2, for each cyclic, self-adjoint $T: \mathbb{C}^n \to \mathbb{C}^n$, there is a corresponding measure μ as prescribed in Therorem 2.7. Now we would like to describe one-dimentional perturbations to T as the following:

$$
T_{\lambda}=T+\lambda\mathbf{v}\otimes\mathbf{v},
$$

where $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ and **v** is a cyclic vector for T, and **v** \otimes **v** is defined as the following:

Definition 3.1. We define the operation ⊗ that maps an ordered pair of ndimentional vectors $\{v, w\}$ to an $n \times n$ operator as

$$
(\mathbf{v} \otimes \mathbf{w}) \mathbf{u} = \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w} \rangle \mathbf{v},
$$

where \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} , and \mathbf{w} are any *n*-dimentional vectors.

Lemma 3.2. $T_{\lambda} = T_{\lambda}^*$.

Proof. We can show that T_{λ} is also self-adjoint by showing that $\mathbf{v} \otimes \mathbf{v}$ is self-adjoint. For any $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{C}^n$,

$$
\langle (\mathbf{v} \otimes \mathbf{v})\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \langle \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle
$$

$$
= \sum_{i} \left(\sum_{k} u_{k} \overline{v_{k}} \right) v_{i} \overline{w_{i}}
$$

$$
= \sum_{i} \sum_{k} u_{k} \overline{v_{k}} v_{i} \overline{w_{i}}.
$$

Similarly,

$$
\langle \mathbf{u}, (\mathbf{v} \otimes \mathbf{v}) \mathbf{w} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{u}, \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \mathbf{v} \rangle
$$

\n
$$
= \sum_{i} u_i \overline{\left(\sum_{k} w_k \overline{v_k}\right)} v_i
$$

\n
$$
= \sum_{i} \sum_{k} u_i \overline{w_k} v_k \overline{v_i}
$$

\n
$$
= \sum_{i} \sum_{k} u_k \overline{w_i} v_i \overline{v_k} \quad \text{(switched dummy indices } i \text{ and } k)
$$

\n
$$
= \langle (\mathbf{v} \otimes \mathbf{v}) \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w} \rangle.
$$

Therefore T_{λ} is self-adjoint.

Lemma 3.3. T_{λ} is cyclic with the same cyclic vector **v** as T .

Proof. We will show that $\text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}, T_\lambda \mathbf{v}, \dots, T_\lambda^n \mathbf{v}\} = \mathbb{C}^n$. First notice that

$$
T_{\lambda} \mathbf{v} = T \mathbf{v} + \lambda (\mathbf{v} \otimes \mathbf{v}) \mathbf{v}
$$

= $T \mathbf{v} + \lambda ||\mathbf{v}|| \mathbf{v}$.

Since $\lambda \|\mathbf{v}\| \in \mathbb{R}$, $T\mathbf{v} \in \text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}, T_\lambda \mathbf{v}\}\$ and $T_\lambda \mathbf{v} = q_1(T)\mathbf{v}$, where q_i is a polynomial of order $i \in \mathbb{N}$. Now we will proceed to prove the induction statement: for all $k > 1, T^k \mathbf{v} \in \text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}, T_\lambda \mathbf{v}, \dots, T_\lambda^k \mathbf{v}\}$ and $T_\lambda^k \mathbf{v} = q_k(T) \mathbf{v}$ if $\mathbf{v}, T\mathbf{v}, \dots, T^{k-1} \mathbf{v} \in$ Span $\{v, T_\lambda v, \ldots, T_\lambda^{k-1} v\}$ and $T_\lambda^{k-1} v = q_{k-1}(T)v$.

Since

$$
T_{\lambda}^{k-1} \mathbf{v} = q_{k-1}(T) \mathbf{v},
$$

$$
T_{\lambda}^{k-1} \mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} a_i T^i \mathbf{v}, \text{ for some } a_i \in \mathbb{C}, a_{k-1} \neq 0.
$$

Then

$$
T_{\lambda}^{k} \mathbf{v} = T_{\lambda} \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} a_{i} T^{i} \mathbf{v}
$$

= $(T + \lambda \mathbf{v} \otimes \mathbf{v}) \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} a_{i} T^{i} \mathbf{v}$
= $\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_{i-1} T^{i} \mathbf{v} + \lambda \langle \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} a_{i} T^{i} \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \mathbf{v}$
= $q_{k}(T) \mathbf{v}.$

Since $\mathbf{v}, T\mathbf{v}, \ldots, T^{k-1}\mathbf{v} \in \text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}, T_{\lambda}\mathbf{v}, \ldots, T_{\lambda}^{k-1}\mathbf{v}\},\$ we have T^k **v** \in Span $\{$ **v**, T_λ **v**, \ldots, T_λ^k **v** $\}.$

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Induction complete. Thus, $\text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}, T\mathbf{v}, \ldots, T^k - \mathbf{v}\} = \mathbb{C}^n \subseteq \text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}, T_\lambda \mathbf{v}, \ldots, T_\lambda^k \mathbf{v}\},$ which implies that

$$
\mathbb{C}^n = \mathrm{Span}\{\mathbf{v}, T_\lambda \mathbf{v}, \dots, T_\lambda^{\;k} \mathbf{v}\}.
$$

Therefore T_{λ} is cyclic with cyclic vector **v**.

With the above lemma, we can assign each T_{λ} its spectral measure μ_{λ} in a similar fashion as we did for T. Now we are ready to present the following disintegration theorem of Simon [1]. For the rest of this section, μ_{λ} is spectral measure for T_{λ} . Note that each μ_{λ} is of the form

$$
\mu_\lambda=\sum_{i=1}^n c_j^{(\lambda)}\delta_{\lambda_j(\lambda)}
$$

Theorem 3.4. For $f \in C(\mathbb{R}) \ni f(x) \in \mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{x^2})$ as $x \to \pm \infty$,

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\int f(t) d\mu_{\lambda}(t) \right) d\lambda = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) dt
$$

We first show two lemmas that prove the above equality for a special family of functions:

Lemma 3.5. Let

 $F(z) = \int \frac{d\mu(t)}{dt}$ $t - z$

Then

and

$$
F_{\lambda}(z) = \int \frac{d\mu_{\lambda}(z)}{t - z}.
$$

$$
F_{\lambda}(z) = \frac{1}{F(z)^{-1} + \lambda}.
$$

 $F_{\lambda}(z) = \int \frac{d\mu_{\lambda}(t)}{t}$

Proof. For any self-adjoint operator $T: \mathbb{C}^N \to \mathbb{C}^N$ we have

$$
T = \sum_{j=1}^{N} \lambda_j P_j,
$$

and for any polynomial $q(x)$, we have

$$
q(T) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} q(\lambda_j) P_j.
$$

Thus

$$
(T - zI)^{-1} = \sum_{j=1}^{N} \frac{1}{\lambda_j - z} P_j,
$$

and so

$$
\langle (T-zI)^{-1}\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^{N} \frac{1}{\lambda_j - z} \langle P_j \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle,
$$

where

$$
\langle P_j \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \langle P_j^2 \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \langle P_j \mathbf{v}, P_j \mathbf{v} \rangle = ||P_j \mathbf{v}||^2.
$$

Hence

$$
\langle (T-zI)^{-1} \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^{N} \frac{1}{\lambda_j - z} ||P_j \mathbf{v}||^2 = \int \frac{d\mu_T(t)}{t - z},
$$

FIGURE 1. The upper hemisphere ${\cal C}_R$ and the closed path ${\cal D}_R$

where $d\mu_T$ is the spectral measure for $T.$ Thus

$$
F_{\lambda}(z) = \langle (T_{\lambda} - zI)^{-1} \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle.
$$

On the other hand, for any $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{C}^n$,

$$
((T_{\lambda} - zI)^{-1} - (T - zI)^{-1})\mathbf{w} = (T - zI)^{-1}(T - zI - (T_{\lambda} - zI))(T_{\lambda} - zI)^{-1}\mathbf{w}
$$

\n
$$
= -(T - zI)^{-1}(\lambda \mathbf{v} \otimes \mathbf{v})(T_{\lambda} - zI)^{-1}\mathbf{w}
$$

\n
$$
= -\lambda (T - zI)^{-1}\langle (T_{\lambda} - zI)^{-1}\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \mathbf{v}
$$

\n
$$
= -\lambda \langle \mathbf{w}, (T_{\lambda} - \bar{z}I)^{-1}\mathbf{v} \rangle ((T - zI)^{-1}\mathbf{v})
$$

\n
$$
= -\lambda ((T - zI)^{-1}\mathbf{v}) \otimes ((T_{\lambda} - \bar{z}I)^{-1}\mathbf{v})\mathbf{w}.
$$

Thus

$$
F_{\lambda}(z) - F(z) = \langle ((T_{\lambda} - zI)^{-1} - (T - zI)^{-1})\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle
$$

= $-\lambda \langle ((T - zI)^{-1}\mathbf{v}) \otimes ((T_{\lambda} - \bar{z}I)^{-1}\mathbf{v})\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$
= $-\lambda \langle (T_{\lambda} - zI)^{-1}\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \langle (T - zI)^{-1}\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$
= $-\lambda F_{\lambda}(z)F(z).$

Therefore

$$
F_{\lambda}(z) = \frac{1}{F(z)^{-1} + \lambda}.\quad \Box
$$

The first class of functions that we will prove Theorem 3.4 for is the following:

Lemma 3.6. For $f_z(t) = (t - z)^{-1} - (t + i)^{-1}, z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{R}$, $\int \left(\int f_z(t) d\mu_\lambda(t) \right) d\lambda = \int f_z(t) dt.$

Proof. For RHS, we want to show:

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_z(t)dt = \begin{cases} 2\pi i & \text{if } \Im z > 0\\ 0 & \text{if } \Im z < 0 \end{cases}
$$

Let C_R be an open path of the upper hemisphere of radius R , and D_R the closed path of C_R and the diameter, as shown in Figure 1, then

$$
\lim_{R \to \infty} \left| \int_{C_R} f_z(t)dt \right| = \lim_{R \to \infty} \left| \int_{C_R} \left((t-z)^{-1} - (t+i)^{-1} \right) dt \right|
$$
\n
$$
= \lim_{R \to \infty} \left| \int_{C_R} \frac{z+i}{(t-z)(t+i)} dt \right|
$$
\n
$$
= |z+i| \lim_{R \to \infty} \int_{C_R} \frac{1}{|t-z||t+i|} |dt|
$$
\n
$$
\leq |z+i| \lim_{R \to \infty} \int_{C_R} \frac{1}{(|t|-|z|)(|t|-|i|)} |dt|
$$
\n
$$
= |z+i| \lim_{R \to \infty} \frac{1}{(R-|z|)(R-|i|)} \int_{C_R} |dt|
$$
\n
$$
= |z+i| \lim_{R \to \infty} \frac{2\pi R}{(R-|z|)(R-|i|)}
$$
\n
$$
= 0.
$$

Thus

$$
\lim_{R \to \infty} \int_{C_R} f_z(t)dt = 0,
$$

and therefore

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_z(t)dt = \lim_{R \to \infty} \int_{-R}^{R} f_z(t)dt
$$

\n
$$
= \lim_{R \to \infty} \int_{-R}^{R} f_z(t)dt + \lim_{R \to \infty} \int_{C_R} f_z(t)dt
$$

\n
$$
= \lim_{R \to \infty} \oint_{D_R} f_z(t)dt
$$

\n
$$
= \lim_{R \to \infty} \left(\oint_{D_R} (t-z)^{-1}dt - \oint_{D_R} (t+i)^{-1}dt \right).
$$

Now, we will show that for each R large enough,

$$
\oint_{D_R} (t - c)^{-1} dt = \begin{cases} 2\pi i & \text{if } \Im c > 0\\ 0 & \text{if } \Im c < 0, \end{cases}
$$
\n(3.7)

so for RHS

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_z(t)dt = \lim_{R \to \infty} \left(\oint_{D_R} (t-z)^{-1} dt - \oint_{D_R} (t+i)^{-1} dt \right)
$$

$$
= \begin{cases} 2\pi i & \text{if } \Im z > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } \Im z < 0. \end{cases}
$$

Definition 3.8. A function is analytic on an open set $D \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ if for all $x_0 \in D$, $f(x)$ is infinitely differentiable at x_0 , and the Taylor series of f at x in a neighborhood of x_0 converges to $f(x)$.

To show Equation (3.7), we first consider the case $\Im c > 0$. We deform the contour D to a circle of radius $r = \Im c/2$. Clearly $(t - c)^{-1}$ is analytic in the region between D and the circle. By the Cauchy Deformation Theorem,

$$
\lim_{R \to \infty} \oint_{D_R} (t - c)^{-1} dt = \oint_{\odot(r)} (t - c)^{-1} dt
$$

=
$$
\int_0^{2\pi} (c + re^{it'} - c)^{-1}ire^{it'} dt' \quad (t = c + re^{it'})
$$

=
$$
2\pi i.
$$

In the case $\Im c < 0$, c is outside the contour D, so $(t-c)^{-1}$ is clearly analytic in D.By Green's Theorem,

$$
\lim_{R \to \infty} \oint_{D_R} (t - c)^{-1} dt = 0.
$$

This establishes the RHS of (3.4) for $f_z(t)$. Now given Lemma 3.5, the LHS of (3.4) with $f_z(t)$ then becomes

$$
\int \left(\int f_z(t) d\mu_\lambda(t) \right) d\lambda = \int \left(\int (t-z)^{-1} d\mu_\lambda(t) - \int (t+i)^{-1} d\mu_\lambda(t) \right) d\lambda
$$

$$
= \int (F_\lambda(z) - F_\lambda(-i)) d\lambda
$$

$$
= \int \left((\lambda - (-F(z)^{-1}))^{-1} - (\lambda - (-F(-i)^{-1}))^{-1} \right) d\lambda.
$$

Due to Equation (3.7), if we can show that $\Im z \cdot \Im(-F(z)^{-1}) \geq 0$, then similar to that on RHS, we have on LHS

$$
\int \int f_z(t) d\mu_\lambda(t) d\lambda = \begin{cases} 2\pi i & \text{if } \Im z > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } \Im z < 0 \end{cases}.
$$

To show $\Im z \cdot \Im(-F(z)^{-1}) \geq 0$, first we show $\Im F(z) \cdot \Im(-F(z)^{-1}) \geq 0$: let $F(z) = x + iy, x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$$
\Im(-F(z)^{-1}) = \Im\left(\frac{iy - x}{x^2 + y^2}\right) = \frac{y}{x^2 + y^2},
$$

which has the same sign as $y = \Im F(z)$. Now recall that

$$
F(z) = \int \frac{d\mu(t)}{t - z} = \sum_j c_j \frac{1}{t_j - z},
$$

where $c_i \in \mathbb{R}^+$. Similar to what we just showed for $\Im F(z)$, $\Im \left(\frac{1}{t_i-z} \right)$ shares the same sign as $\Im(z - t_i) = \Im z$ for all *i*. Thus

$$
\Im(F(z)) = \sum_j c_j \Im\left(\frac{1}{t_j - z}\right)
$$

shares the same sign as $\Im z$. Therefore $\Im z \cdot \Im(-F(z)^{-1}) \geq 0$.

Thus, Theorem 3.4 is proved for $f_z(t)$ as a lemma. Now we want to show that the theorem works for all functions $f \in C(\mathbb{R})$ and $f \in \mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{1+x^2})$. To do this, we need a few tools.

Definition 3.9. We define the Poisson kernel:

$$
P_{x+iy}(t) = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{y}{(x-t)^2 + y^2}, x \in \mathbb{R}, y \in \mathbb{R}^+.
$$

It is easy to show that $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P_{x+iy}(t) f(t) dt$ is harmonic on the upper-half plane, and that

$$
\lim_{y \to 0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P_{x+iy}(t) f(t) dt = f(x), \tag{3.10}
$$

for suitably smooth functions f. Now let μ be a measure on $\mathbb R$ with $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}$ $d\mu(t)$ $\frac{a\mu(t)}{1+t^2}<\infty,$ then similarly $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P_{x+iy}(t) d\mu(t)$ is harmonic on \mathbb{C}^+ .

Theorem 3.11. Let $g \in C_c(\mathbb{R})$ and $d\mu = \sum_{j=1}^n c_j \delta_{\lambda_j}$, then

$$
\lim_{y \to 0^+} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P_{x+iy}(t) d\mu(t) \right) g(x) dx \to \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t) d\mu(t).
$$

Proof. Since we have integration over $d\mu(t)$ on both sides, due to linearity of the discrete measure, it suffices to show that the result holds for $d\mu(t) = \delta_c(x)$ for some $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

RHS is obviously $g(c)$. Since

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{y}{(x-c)^2 + y^2} = \pi, \text{ for } y > 0,
$$

we write RHS as

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{y}{(x-c)^2 + y^2} \right) g(c) dx,
$$

and need to show that RHS = LHS. Since

$$
\lim_{y \to 0^+} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P_{x+iy}(t) d\mu(t) \right) g(x) dx = \lim_{y \to 0^+} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{y}{(x-c)^2 + y^2} \right) g(x) dx,
$$

we have

we have

LHS - RHS =
$$
\lim_{y \to 0^+} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{y}{(x - c)^2 + y^2} \right) (g(x) - g(c)) dx.
$$

Because $g(x)$ is continuous at c, there exists a $\delta > 0$ for each $\epsilon > 0$ such that for all $|x - c| < \delta, |g(x) - g(c)| < \epsilon$. Thus

$$
\lim_{y \to 0^{+}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{y}{(x - c)^{2} + y^{2}} \right) (g(x) - g(c)) dx
$$
\n
$$
= \lim_{y \to 0^{+}} \int_{|x - c| > \delta} \left(\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{y}{(x - c)^{2} + y^{2}} \right) (g(x) - g(c)) dx
$$
\n
$$
+ \lim_{y \to 0^{+}} \int_{|x - c| < \delta} \left(\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{y}{(x - c)^{2} + y^{2}} \right) (g(x) - g(c)) dx
$$
\n
$$
= 0 + \lim_{y \to 0^{+}} \int_{|x - c| < \delta} \left(\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{y}{(x - c)^{2} + y^{2}} \right) (g(x) - g(c)) dx
$$
\n
$$
\leq \lim_{y \to 0^{+}} \int_{|x - c| < \delta} \left(\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{y}{(x - c)^{2} + y^{2}} \right) |g(x) - g(c)| dx
$$
\n
$$
\leq \epsilon \lim_{y \to 0^{+}} \int_{|x - c| < \delta} \left(\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{y}{(x - c)^{2} + y^{2}} \right) dx
$$

$$
= \epsilon \lim_{y \to 0^+} \frac{2}{\pi} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\delta}{y} \right) dx
$$

= ϵ .

Therefore $LHS = RHS$.

Corollary 3.12. If $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P_{x+iy}(t) d\mu(t) = 0$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, then $\mu \equiv 0$

Proof. From Theorem 3.11, if $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P_{x+iy}(t) d\mu(t) = 0$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$$
\lim_{y \to 0^+} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P_{x+iy}(t) d\mu(t) \right) g(x) dx \to 0, \text{ for all } g,
$$

which means that

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t) d\mu(t) = 0
$$
, for all g.

This can only be true if $\mu \equiv 0$.

Let $\widehat{\mathbb{R}} = \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$ and define a norm in $C(\widehat{\mathbb{R}})$ by

$$
||f||_{C(\widehat{\mathbb{R}})} = \sup\{|f(x)|, x \in C(\widehat{\mathbb{R}})\}.
$$

One can show that $C(\widehat{\mathbb{R}})$, with this norm, is a Banach space (a complete normed linear space).

Let ν be a finite measure on $\widehat{\mathbb{R}} = \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$, and let $\ell : C(\widehat{\mathbb{R}}) \to \mathbb{C}$ be defined by

$$
\ell(f) = \int f(t)d\nu(t).
$$

Then ℓ is clearly a linear transformation. We know that

$$
|\ell(f)| = \left| \int f(t) d\nu(t) \right| \leq \int |f(t)| |d\nu(t)| \leq ||f||_{C(\widehat{\mathbb{R}})} ||\nu(\widehat{\mathbb{R}})||.
$$

This says that ℓ is continuous.

Definition 3.13. Given a Banach space \mathcal{X} , the dual space \mathcal{X}^* is the space of all $\ell : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{C}$, where ℓ is linear and continuous.

Following the definition, $C(\widehat{\mathbb{R}})^*$ is the set of all continuous functions from $C(\widehat{\mathbb{R}})^*$ to C. We know the following theorem:

Theorem 3.14 (Riesz representation theorem). For any $\ell \in C(\widehat{\mathbb{R}})^*$, there exists a measure ν on $\widehat{\mathbb{R}}$ such that

$$
\ell(f) = \int f(t)d\nu(t).
$$

Theorem 3.15 (Hahn-Banach seperation theorem). Let M be a closed subspace of a Banach space $\mathcal{X}, M \subsetneq \mathcal{X},$ and $f_0 \notin M$. Then there exists a function $\ell \in \mathcal{X}^*$ such that

$$
\ell(f) = 0 \,\forall f \in M,
$$

$$
\ell(f_0) = 1.
$$

Combining Theorem 3.14 and Theorem 3.15, the following corollary is immediate:

Corollary 3.16. Let M be a closed subspace of $C(\widehat{\mathbb{R}})$, $M \subsetneq C(\widehat{\mathbb{R}})$, and $f_0 \notin M$. Then there exists a finite measure ν on $\widehat{\mathbb{R}}$ such that

$$
\int f(t)d\nu(t) = 0 \,\forall f \in M,
$$

$$
\int f_0(t)d\nu(t) = 1.
$$

A lemma then follows:

Lemma 3.17.

$$
M = Clos(Span\{(1+t^2)P_{x+iy}(t) : x \in \mathbb{R}, y > 0\}) = C(\widehat{\mathbb{R}}).
$$

Proof. Suppose that there exists $f_0 \in C(\widehat{\mathbb{R}})\backslash M$, then by Corollary 3.16, there exists a measure ν such that $\int f_0(t)d\nu(t) = 1$, and that $\int f(t)d\nu(t) = 0$ for all $f \in M$. This implies that

$$
\int (1+t^2)P_{x+iy}(t)d\nu(t) = 0.
$$

Let $d\mu(t) = (1+t^2)d\nu(t)$ and apply Corollary 3.12, we get $\mu = 0$, and thus $\nu = 0$. This contradicts with the fact that $\int f_0(t)d\nu(t) = 1$. Therefore $C(\widehat{\mathbb{R}}) \setminus M = \emptyset$. \square

Now, back to the proof that Theorem 3.4 works for all f such that $f \in C(\mathbb{R})$ and $f \in \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right)$. Since

$$
\left(\frac{1}{t-z} + \frac{1}{t+i}\right) - \left(\frac{1}{t-\overline{z}} + \frac{1}{t+i}\right) = 2iP_{x+iy}(t),
$$

the theorem works for all $P_{x+iy}(t)$ with $x \in \mathbb{R}, y > 0$, i.e.

$$
\int \left(\int P_{x+iy}(t) d\mu_{\lambda}(t) \right) d\lambda = \int P_{x+iy}(t) dt.
$$

According to Lemma 3.17, for all f such that $f \in C(\mathbb{R})$ and $f \in \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right)$, and any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a $g(t) \in \text{Span}\{P_{x+iy}(t) : x \in \mathbb{R}, y > 0\}$ such that

$$
|g(t)(1+t^2) - f(t)(1+t^2)| \le \frac{\epsilon}{2\pi}.
$$

Then

$$
\left| \int \left(\int f(t) d\mu_{\lambda}(t) \right) d\lambda - \int f(\lambda) d\lambda \right|
$$

=
$$
\left| \int \left(\int (f(t) - g(t)) d\mu_{\lambda}(t) \right) d\lambda + \int \left(\int g(t) d\mu_{\lambda}(t) \right) d\lambda
$$

-
$$
\int (f(\lambda) - g(\lambda)) d\lambda - \int g(\lambda) d\lambda \right|.
$$

Since $g \in \text{Span}\{P_{x+iy}(t): x \in \mathbb{R}, y > 0\}$, and we have proved Theorem 3.4 for the Poisson kernels, we know that

$$
\int \left(\int g(t) d\mu_{\lambda}(t) \right) d\lambda = \int g(\lambda) d\lambda.
$$

Thus the above equation reduces to

$$
\left| \int \left(\int (f(t) - g(t)) d\mu_{\lambda}(t) \right) d\lambda - \int (f(\lambda) - g(\lambda)) d\lambda \right|
$$

$$
\leq \int \left(\int |f(t) - g(t)| d\mu_{\lambda}(t) \right) d\lambda + \int |f(\lambda) - g(\lambda)| d\lambda
$$

Now, since

$$
\int \left(\int |f(t) - g(t)| d\mu_{\lambda}(t) \right) d\lambda \le \frac{\epsilon}{2\pi} \int \left(\int \frac{1}{1 + t^2} d\mu_{\lambda}(t) \right) d\lambda
$$

$$
= \frac{\epsilon}{2\pi} \int \left(\int P_{0+1i}(t) d\mu_{\lambda}(t) \right) d\lambda
$$

$$
= \frac{\epsilon}{2\pi} \int P_{0+1i}(\lambda) d\lambda
$$

$$
= \frac{\epsilon}{2\pi} \int \frac{1}{1 + \lambda^2} d\lambda
$$

$$
= \frac{\epsilon}{2\pi} \pi
$$

$$
= \frac{\epsilon}{2},
$$

and

$$
\int |f(\lambda) - g(\lambda)| d\lambda \le \frac{\epsilon}{2\pi} \int \frac{1}{1 + \lambda^2} d\lambda = \frac{\epsilon}{2},
$$

we have

$$
\left| \int \left(\int f(t) d\mu_{\lambda}(t) \right) d\lambda - \int f(\lambda) d\lambda \right|
$$

\n
$$
\leq \int \left(\int |f(t) - g(t)| d\mu_{\lambda}(t) \right) d\lambda + \int |f(\lambda) - g(\lambda)| d\lambda
$$

\n
$$
\leq \epsilon,
$$

for any $\epsilon > 0.$ Therefore Theorem 3.4 is proved.

4. Some Matrix Examples

We will now compute some specific examples of the disintegration formula for $A_{\lambda} = A + \lambda \mathbf{v} \otimes \mathbf{v}$, where

$$
A = \begin{bmatrix} a & c \\ c & b \end{bmatrix},
$$

 $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}, a \neq b$. Note that for any vector

$$
\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} d \\ 1 \end{bmatrix},
$$

$$
A\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} ad + c \\ cd + b \end{bmatrix},
$$

then

$$
\det [\mathbf{v}|A\mathbf{v}] = cd^2 + bd - ad - c.
$$

Let $\delta = b - a$, then the roots for

$$
\det [\mathbf{v}|A\mathbf{v}] = cd^2 + \delta d - c
$$

would be

$$
d = \begin{cases} \frac{-\delta \pm \sqrt{\delta^2 + 4c^2}}{2c} & c \neq 0\\ 0 & c = 0. \end{cases}
$$

Thus, for values of d that does not meet the above roots, \bf{v} would be an cyclic vector for A, as well as for $A + \lambda v \otimes v$.

We first investigate a specific cyclic vector

$$
\mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.
$$

It is easy to verify that **v** will never make det $[\mathbf{v}|A\mathbf{v}] = 0$, so it is always a cyclic vector for A. A standard matrix calculation shows that the eigenvalues for A_{λ} are

$$
\lambda_1 = \frac{1}{2} \left(a + b + \lambda - \sqrt{(a - b)^2 + (2c + \lambda)^2} \right),
$$

$$
\lambda_2 = \frac{1}{2} \left(a + b + \lambda + \sqrt{(a - b)^2 + (2c + \lambda)^2} \right),
$$

and following the procedure described in Thereom 2.7, we have the spectral measure for A_{λ} :

$$
\mu_{\lambda} = \frac{-2c - \lambda + \sqrt{(a-b)^2 + (2c+\lambda)^2}}{2\sqrt{(a-b)^2 + (2c+\lambda)^2}} \delta_{\lambda_1} + \frac{2c + \lambda + \sqrt{(a-b)^2 + (2c+\lambda)^2}}{2\sqrt{(a-b)^2 + (2c+\lambda)^2}} \delta_{\lambda_2}.
$$

Then by Theorem 3.4, for $f \in C(\mathbb{R}) \ni f(x) \in \mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{x^2})$ as $x \to \pm \infty$,

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\int f(t) d\mu_{\lambda}(t) \right) d\lambda
$$

=
$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\frac{-2c - \lambda + \sqrt{(a-b)^2 + (2c+\lambda)^2}}{2\sqrt{(a-b)^2 + (2c+\lambda)^2}} f(\lambda_1) + \frac{2c + \lambda + \sqrt{(a-b)^2 + (2c+\lambda)^2}}{2\sqrt{(a-b)^2 + (2c+\lambda)^2}} f(\lambda_2) \right) d\lambda
$$

=
$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) dt
$$

Example 4.1. Let $f(t) = e^{-t^2}$, then we have

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2\sqrt{(a-b)^2 + (2c+\lambda)^2}} \times
$$
\n
$$
\left((\sqrt{(a-b)^2 + (2c+\lambda)^2} - 2c - \lambda) \exp\left(-\frac{1}{4} (-\sqrt{(a-b)^2 + (2c+\lambda)^2} + a + b + \lambda)^2 \right) + (\sqrt{(a-b)^2 + (2c+\lambda)^2} + 2c + \lambda) \exp\left(-\frac{1}{4} (\sqrt{(a-b)^2 + (2c+\lambda)^2} + a + b + \lambda)^2 \right) \right) d\lambda
$$
\n
$$
= \sqrt{\pi}.
$$

Example 4.2. Let $f(t) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$, then we have

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{A\lambda^2 + B\lambda + C} \right) d\lambda = \pi,
$$

where A, B, C are constants independent of λ :

$$
A = \frac{a^2 - 4c(a+b) + 2ab + b^2 + 4c^2 + 4}{2(a^2 + b^2 + 2) - 4c(a+b) + 4c^2},
$$

\n
$$
B = \frac{-2c^2(a+b) + c(4 - 4ab) + 2(a(b(a+b) + 1) + b) + 4c^3}{a^2 - 2c(a+b) + b^2 + 2c^2 + 2},
$$

$$
C = \frac{2(a^2+1)(b^2+1) + c^2(4-4ab) + 2c^4}{a^2 - 2c(a+b) + b^2 + 2c^2 + 2}.
$$

If we now set $b = 0, c = 0$, and $a \neq 0$, we have

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\frac{a^2 + 2}{\left(\frac{a^2}{2} + 2\right)\lambda^2 + 2a\lambda + 2(a^2 + 1)} \right) d\lambda = \pi.
$$

We can take derivatives with respect to a on both sides, and obtain

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\frac{(a+\lambda)(a\lambda-2)}{(a^2(\lambda^2+4)+4a\lambda+4\lambda^2+4)^2} \right) d\lambda = 0.
$$

Example 4.3. Let $a = 1, b = 0, c = 0$, and $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^p}$, where p is a positive even number. Then

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1 - \lambda/\sqrt{\lambda^2 + 1}}{\left(-\sqrt{\lambda^2 + 1} + \lambda + 1\right)^p + 2^p} + \frac{1 + \lambda/\sqrt{\lambda^2 + 1}}{\left(\sqrt{\lambda^2 + 1} + \lambda + 1\right)^p + 2^p} \right) d\lambda = \frac{\pi \csc\left(\frac{\pi}{p}\right)}{2^{p-2}p}.
$$

In addition to functions that are nonzero on $(-\infty, \infty)$, we would like to study step functions of the form

$$
f(x) = g(x)(\theta_{m_1}(x) - \theta_{m_2}(x)),
$$

where g is integrable on (m_1, m_2) and $\theta_m(x)$ is the Heaviside function:

Definition 4.4. For $m \in \mathbb{R}$, the function $\theta_m : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is defined as

$$
\theta_m(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \le m \\ 1 & \text{if } x > m \end{cases}
$$

.

Applying Theorem 3.4 to these step functions then yields

$$
\int_{m_1 \le \lambda_1 \le m_2} \left(\frac{-2c - \lambda + \sqrt{(a-b)^2 + (2c+\lambda)^2}}{2\sqrt{(a-b)^2 + (2c+\lambda)^2}} f(\lambda_1) \right) d\lambda
$$

$$
+ \int_{m_1 \le \lambda_2 \le m_2} \left(\frac{2c + \lambda + \sqrt{(a-b)^2 + (2c+\lambda)^2}}{2\sqrt{(a-b)^2 + (2c+\lambda)^2}} f(\lambda_2) \right) d\lambda
$$

$$
= \int_{m_1 \le \lambda_1 \le m_2} f_1(\lambda) d\lambda + \int_{m_1 \le \lambda_2 \le m_2} f_2(\lambda) d\lambda
$$

$$
(f_1 \text{ and } f_2 \text{ are just the terms above in parentheses as a}
$$

parentheses as a function of λ) $=$ \int^{m_2} $m₁$ $g(t)dt$.

To simplify the above equation, we would like to find out the ranges for λ corresponding to $m_1 \leq \lambda_1 \leq m_2$ and $m_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq m_2$. We take derivative of λ_1 with respect to λ :

$$
\frac{d\lambda_1}{d\lambda} = \frac{d}{d\lambda} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(a + b + \lambda - \sqrt{(a - b)^2 + (2c + \lambda)^2} \right) \right)
$$

 \sim

$$
= \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \frac{2c + \lambda}{\sqrt{(a - b)^2 + (2c + \lambda)^2}} \right)
$$

\n
$$
\geq 0.
$$

Since λ_1 is monotonically increasing with respect to λ , we calculate the limits as λ approaches $\pm\infty$:

$$
\lim_{\lambda \to -\infty} \frac{1}{2} \left(a + b + \lambda - \sqrt{(a - b)^2 + (2c + \lambda)^2} \right) = -\infty
$$

$$
\lim_{\lambda \to \infty} \frac{1}{2} \left(a + b + \lambda - \sqrt{(a - b)^2 + (2c + \lambda)^2} \right) = \frac{1}{2} (a + b - 2c).
$$

Thus, we only need to solve for λ from $\lambda_1(\lambda) = m$ for $m = m_1$ and $m = m_2$ respectively. The solution only exists for $m < \frac{1}{2}(a+b-2c)$ and is calculated to be

$$
\Lambda(m) = -\frac{2\left(ab - c^2\right) + 2m(-a - b) + 2m^2}{a + b - 2c - 2m}.
$$

Similarly,

$$
\frac{d\lambda_2}{d\lambda} \ge 0,
$$

$$
\lambda_2 \in \left(\frac{1}{2}(a+b-2c), \infty\right)
$$

,

and the solution only exists for $m > \frac{1}{2}(a+b-2c)$ in the same form $\Lambda(m)$.

Therefore, our integration formula for a step function then becomes

$$
\int_{m_1}^{m_2} g(t)dt = \begin{cases}\n\int_{\Lambda(m_1)}^{\Lambda(m_2)} f_1(\lambda) d\lambda & \text{if } m_2 \le \frac{1}{2}(a+b-2c) \\
\int_{\Lambda(m_1)}^{\infty} f_1(\lambda) d\lambda + \int_{-\infty}^{\Lambda(m_2)} f_2(\lambda) d\lambda & \text{if } m_1 < \frac{1}{2}(a+b-2c) < m_2 \\
\int_{\Lambda(m_1)}^{\Lambda(m_2)} f_2(\lambda) d\lambda & \text{if } \frac{1}{2}(a+b-2c) \le m_1\n\end{cases}
$$

Example 4.5. Let $a = 1, b = 0, c = 0$, and $f(x) = \theta_0(x) - \theta_1(x)$. Since $\frac{1}{2}(a + b 2c) = \frac{1}{2} \in (m1, m2) = (0, 1)$, we have

$$
\int_{m_1}^{m_2} g(t)dt = 1
$$

=
$$
\int_0^{\infty} \left(\frac{-\lambda + \sqrt{1 + \lambda^2}}{2\sqrt{1 + \lambda^2}}\right) d\lambda + \int_{-\infty}^0 \left(\frac{\lambda + \sqrt{1 + \lambda^2}}{2\sqrt{1 + \lambda^2}}\right) d\lambda
$$

=
$$
\int_0^{\infty} \left(\frac{-\lambda + \sqrt{1 + \lambda^2}}{\sqrt{1 + \lambda^2}}\right) d\lambda
$$
 (change of variable for the second integral)

This is verifiable through classical calculation.

Example 4.6. Let $a = 1, b = -1, c = 0$, and $f(x) = x^p(\theta_0(x) - \theta_1(x))$, $p \in \mathbb{N}$. Since $\frac{1}{2}(a + b - 2c) = 0 = m_1$, we have

$$
\int_{m_1}^{m_2} g(t)dt = \frac{1}{p+1}
$$

$$
= \int_{-\infty}^0 \left(\frac{(\lambda + \sqrt{4 + \lambda^2})^{p+1}}{2^{p+1}\sqrt{4 + \lambda^2}} \right) d\lambda
$$

$$
=\int_0^\infty \left(\frac{(-\lambda+\sqrt{4+\lambda^2})^{p+1}}{2^{p+1}\sqrt{4+\lambda^2}}\right)d\lambda
$$

5. Computing the Point Masses

In the work of Simon and Wolff [2], they present a direct way to compute the μ_{λ} measure in terms of the spectral measure μ_0 for a given T via the following theorem:

Definition 5.1. We define function

$$
B(x) = \left(\int (x - y)^{-2} d\mu_0(y) \right)^{-1}
$$

with the convention that $\infty^{-1} = 0$.

Theorem 5.2 (Simon-Wolff). Fix $\lambda \neq 0$. Then $d\mu_{\lambda}$ has an atom at $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$, i.e. $\mu_{\lambda}(\lbrace x_0 \rbrace) > 0$ iff

$$
\lim_{\epsilon \to 0^+} F_0(x_0 + i\epsilon) = -\lambda^{-1}
$$
\n(5.3)

and

$$
B(x_0) \neq 0. \tag{5.4}
$$

Moreover, $\lambda^{-2}B(x_0)$ is precisely the μ_{λ} measure of $\{x_0\}$.

Proof. From

$$
F_{\lambda}(x_0 + i\epsilon) = \int \frac{d\mu_{\lambda}(t)}{t - (x_0 + i\epsilon)}
$$

=
$$
\int \frac{(t - x_0 + i\epsilon)d\mu_{\lambda}(t)}{(t - x_0)^2 + \epsilon^2},
$$

we have

$$
\Im F_{\lambda}(x_0 + i\epsilon) = \epsilon \int \frac{d\mu_{\lambda}(t)}{(t - x_0)^2 + \epsilon^2},
$$

$$
\Re F_{\lambda}(x_0 + i\epsilon) = \int \frac{(t - x_0)d\mu_{\lambda}(t)}{(t - x_0)^2 + \epsilon^2}.
$$

Then, since

$$
\lim_{\epsilon \to 0^+} \frac{\epsilon^2}{(t - x_0)^2 + \epsilon^2} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } t = x_0 \\ 0 & \text{if } t \neq x_0 \end{cases}
$$

by dominated convergence theorem, which allows us to push the limit through the integral, we have

$$
\lim_{\epsilon \to 0^+} \epsilon \Im F_{\lambda}(x_0 + i\epsilon) = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0^+} \int \frac{\epsilon^2}{(t - x_0)^2 + \epsilon^2} d\mu_{\lambda}(t) = \mu_{\lambda}(\{x_0\}),
$$

and similarly

$$
\lim_{\epsilon \to 0^+} \epsilon \Re F_{\lambda}(x_0 + i\epsilon) = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0^+} \int \frac{\epsilon(t - x_0)}{(t - x_0)^2 + \epsilon^2} d\mu_{\lambda}(t) = 0.
$$

Therefore,

$$
\lim_{\epsilon \to 0^+} \epsilon F_{\lambda}(x_0 + i\epsilon) = \mu_{\lambda}(\{x_0\})i.
$$

Now, if $\mu_{\lambda}(\{x_0\}) \neq 0$, then $|F_{\lambda}(x_0 + i\epsilon)| \to \infty$. Together with the fact from Lemma 3.5 that

$$
F_0(z) = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{F_{\lambda}(z)} - \lambda},
$$

we have

$$
\lim_{\epsilon \to 0^+} F_0(x_0 + i\epsilon) = -\lambda^{-1}.
$$

This proves condition (5.3).

Moreover, by the monotone convergence theorem, which again allows us to push the limit through the integral,

$$
\lim_{\epsilon \to 0^+} \epsilon^{-1} \Im F_0(x_0 + i\epsilon) = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0^+} \int \frac{d\mu_\lambda(t)}{(t - x_0)^2 + \epsilon^2} = B(x_0)^{-1}.
$$

Now, if

$$
\lim_{\epsilon \to 0^+} F_0(x_0 + i\epsilon) = -\lambda^{-1},
$$

then

$$
\lim_{\epsilon \to 0^+} \Im \left(\frac{F_0(x_0 + i\epsilon)}{\epsilon F_\lambda(x_0 + i\epsilon)} \right) = \Im \left(-\frac{\lambda^{-1}}{\mu_\lambda(\{x_0\})i} \right) = (\lambda \mu_\lambda(\{x_0\}))^{-1}.
$$

On the other hand, due to Lemma 3.5,

$$
\lim_{\epsilon \to 0^+} \Im \left(\frac{F_0(x_0 + i\epsilon)}{\epsilon F_\lambda(x_0 + i\epsilon)} \right) = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0^+} \Im \left(\epsilon^{-1} (\lambda F_0 + 1) \right) = \lambda \lim_{\epsilon \to 0^+} \Im \epsilon^{-1} F_0 = \lambda B(x_0)^{-1}.
$$

Thus, we have

$$
\lambda^2 \mu_\lambda(\{x_0\}) = B(x_0),
$$

which also proves condition (5.4) .

Conversely, if conditions (5.3) and (5.4) hold, then in particular, the above discussion shows that condition (5.3) implies

$$
\lambda^2 \mu_\lambda(\{x_0\}) = B(x_0).
$$

Thus if $B(x_0) \neq 0$, i.e., condition (5.4), then $\mu_\lambda(\lbrace x_0 \rbrace) \neq 0$.

Example 5.5. Let $A =$ $\sqrt{ }$ $\overline{1}$ 1 0 0 0 2 0 0 0 3 1 , then we can easily calculate

$$
\lim_{\epsilon \to 0^{+}} F_{0}(x + i\epsilon) = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0^{+}} \int \frac{d\mu_{0}(t)}{t - (x_{0} + i\epsilon)}
$$
\n
$$
= \lim_{\epsilon \to 0^{+}} \left(\frac{1}{3} \frac{1}{1 - (x_{0} + i\epsilon)} + \frac{1}{3} \frac{1}{2 - (x_{0} + i\epsilon)} + \frac{1}{3} \frac{1}{3 - (x_{0} + i\epsilon)} \right)
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{1}{1 - x_{0}} + \frac{1}{2 - x_{0}} + \frac{1}{3 - x_{0}} \right).
$$

Thus the atoms for μ_{λ} would be the x_0 's that satisfy the equation

$$
\frac{1}{3}\left(\frac{1}{1-x_0} + \frac{1}{2-x_0} + \frac{1}{3-x_0}\right) = -\frac{1}{\lambda},
$$

and the corresponding weight for each x_0 is

$$
\lambda^{-2}B(x_0) = \lambda^{-2} \left(\int (x_0 - y)^{-2} d\mu_0(y) \right)^{-1}
$$

FIGURE 2. The blue curve is the graph of $F_0(x)$. The purple curve is a fixed value of $\lambda = 0.4$. The red dots, point masses of μ_{λ} , are the solutions to $F_0(x) = -\frac{1}{\lambda}$.

$$
= \lambda^{-2} \left(\frac{1}{3(x_0 - 1)^2} + \frac{1}{3(x_0 - 2)^2} + \frac{1}{3(x_0 - 3)^2} \right)^{-1}.
$$

See Figure 2 for a drawing which helps explain the computation.

6. A multiplication operator

So far we have considered only matrix representations of self-adjoint operators for Theorem 3.4. Now we would like to consider operators on $L^2[0,1]$. Let

$$
A=M,
$$

where M is defined in Theorem 2.7, then

$$
d\mu_0(t) = dt.
$$

Obviously 1 is a cyclic vector for M , so we have

$$
A_{\lambda}=M+\lambda{\bf 1}\otimes{\bf 1}
$$

as a measure on [0, 1], and we would like to know what the corresponding μ_{λ} is. Due to some technical details in Simon's paper [1], μ_{λ} has no continuous singular component. Thus we can write $d\mu_{\lambda}$ in the form

$$
d\mu_{\lambda}(t)=g_{\lambda}(t)dt+\sum_{i}c_{i}^{(\lambda)}\delta_{y_{i}^{(\lambda)}},
$$

and our goal is to find out what $g_\lambda(t)$ and $y_i^{(\lambda)}$'s are. Note that the λ in $c_i^{(\lambda)} \delta_{y_i^{(\lambda)}}$ is to denote their dependence on λ , not an exponent.

From Lemma 3.5, we know that for $y \neq 0$,

$$
F_0(x+iy) = \int \frac{d\mu_0(t)}{t - x - iy}
$$

$$
= \int_0^1 \frac{dt}{t - x - iy}
$$

$$
= \int_0^1 \frac{(t - x + iy)dt}{(t - x)^2 + y^2}
$$

$$
= \int_{-x}^{1-x} \frac{(t + iy)dt}{t^2 + y^2}
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{2} \log \left| \frac{(1-x)^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2} \right| + i \left(\arctan \left(\frac{1-x}{y} \right) - \arctan \left(-\frac{x}{y} \right) \right),
$$

and we are able to calculate

$$
F_{\lambda}(x+iy) = \frac{F_0(x+iy)}{1 + \lambda F_0(x+iy)}.
$$
\n(6.1)

On the other hand,

$$
F_{\lambda}(x+iy) = \int \frac{d\mu_{\lambda}(t)}{t-x-iy} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{g_{\lambda}(t)dt}{t-x-iy} + \sum_{i} \frac{c_{i}^{(\lambda)}}{y_{i}^{(\lambda)}-x-iy},
$$

and

$$
\lim_{y \to 0^+} (F_{\lambda}(x+iy) - F_{\lambda}(x-iy))
$$
\n
$$
= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{t - (x+iy)} - \frac{1}{t - (x-iy)} \right) g_{\lambda}(t) dt
$$
\n
$$
= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\frac{2yi}{(t-x)^2 + y^2} \right) g_{\lambda}(t) dt
$$
\n
$$
= 2\pi i \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P_{x+iy}(t) g_{\lambda}(t) dt \quad \text{(from Definition 3.9)}.
$$

Then, by Equation 3.10, we have

$$
g_{\lambda}(x) = \lim_{y \to 0^+} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P_{x+iy}(t) g_{\lambda}(t) dt
$$

=
$$
\frac{1}{2\pi i} \lim_{y \to 0^+} (F_{\lambda}(x+iy) - F_{\lambda}(x-iy)).
$$

Before we plug in Equation 6.1, we would like to simplify it:

$$
F_{\lambda}(x+iy) - F_{\lambda}(x-iy) = \frac{F_0(x+iy)}{1 + \lambda F_0(x+iy)} - \frac{F_0(x-iy)}{1 + \lambda F_0(x-iy)}
$$

$$
= \frac{F_0(x+iy) - F_0(x-iy)}{(1 + \lambda F_0(x+iy))(1 + \lambda F_0(x-iy))}.
$$

Now plug in

$$
F_0(x+iy) = \frac{1}{2}\log\left|\frac{(1-x)^2+y^2}{x^2+y^2}\right| + i\left(\arctan\left(\frac{1-x}{y}\right) - \arctan\left(-\frac{x}{y}\right)\right)
$$

and simplify the equation, we get

$$
F_{\lambda}(x+iy) - F_{\lambda}(x-iy)
$$

=
$$
\frac{2i\left(\arctan\left(\frac{1-x}{y}\right) + \arctan\left(\frac{x}{y}\right)\right)}{\left(1 + \frac{1}{2}\lambda\log\left|\frac{(1-x)^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2}\right|\right)^2 + \lambda^2\left(\arctan\left(\frac{1-x}{y}\right) + \arctan\left(\frac{x}{y}\right)\right)^2}
$$

.

Now consider the limit $y \to 0^+,$

$$
\lim_{y \to 0^{+}} \arctan\left(\frac{1-x}{y}\right) = \begin{cases} \frac{\pi}{2} & \text{if } 1 - x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } 1 - x = 0 \\ -\frac{\pi}{2} & \text{if } 1 - x < 0 \end{cases}
$$

$$
\lim_{y \to 0^+} \arctan\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) = \begin{cases} \frac{\pi}{2} & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \\ -\frac{\pi}{2} & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}
$$

then

$$
\lim_{y \to 0^+} \left(\arctan\left(\frac{1-x}{y}\right) + \arctan\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) \right) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x > 1 \\ \frac{\pi}{2} & \text{if } x = 1 \\ \pi & \text{if } 0 < x < 1 \\ \frac{\pi}{2} & \text{if } x = 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}.
$$

Therefore we have

$$
g_{\lambda}(x) = \frac{\chi_{(0,1)}(x)}{\left(1 + \lambda \log\left(\frac{1-x}{x}\right)\right)^2 + \lambda^2 \pi^2}.
$$

Now we consider the point mass. According to Theorem 5.2, to have a point mass at $y^{(\lambda)}$,

$$
B(y^{(\lambda)}) = \left(\int_0^1 \frac{dt}{(t - y^{(\lambda)})^2}\right)^{-1} = y^{(\lambda)}(y^{(\lambda)} - 1) \neq 0.
$$

The above integral is only defined on $\mathbb{R} \setminus (0,1)$, so the above condition is only satisfied when $y^{(\lambda)} \notin [0, 1]$. In addition, it must satisfy the condition that

$$
\lim_{\epsilon \to 0^+} F_0(y^{(\lambda)} + i\epsilon) = -\lambda^{-1},
$$

$$
\log\left(1 - \frac{1}{y^{(\lambda)}}\right) = -\lambda^{-1},
$$

so

$$
\log\left(1 - \frac{1}{y(\lambda)}\right) = -\lambda^{-1},
$$

$$
y^{(\lambda)} = \left(1 - e^{-\frac{1}{\lambda}}\right)^{-1}.
$$

Note that here the $g_{\lambda}(t)$ part covers [0, 1] while the $y^{(\lambda)}$ covers the complement $\mathbb{R} \setminus [0, 1]$. Putting the pieces together, we have

$$
d\mu_{\lambda}(x) = \frac{\chi_{(0,1)}(x)dx}{\left(1 + \lambda \log\left(\frac{1-x}{x}\right)\right)^2 + \lambda^2 \pi^2} + \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{\lambda}}}{\lambda^2 \left(1 - e^{-\frac{1}{\lambda}}\right)^2} \delta_{\left(1 - e^{-\frac{1}{\lambda}}\right)^{-1}}(x).
$$

7. SCHRÖDINGER OPERATORS

Of great interest in physics, the Schrödinger operator

$$
T = -\frac{d^2}{dx^2} + V(x)
$$

on $L^2(-\infty,\infty)$, where $V(x)$ is a real-valued function, is self-adjoint. The perturbation

$$
T_{\lambda} = T + \lambda \delta_0
$$

is particularly interesting. Simon [1] worked out the spectral theory for these rank one perturbations and, in particular, computed the spectral measures μ_{λ} for these perturbations. Unlike in our previous examples where the support of μ_{λ} was a finite set for the self-adjoint matrices and the support was a bounded set for multiplication by x on $L^2(0,1)$, the supports of μ_λ in the Schrödinger case are unbounded sets. Although some of the technical details are somewhat beyond what we are trying

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to accomplish here, we mention the Schrödinger operator as another example of self-adjoint operator one can consider here.

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