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(with color commentary by Zoidberg)



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Beyond Kadison-Singer: paving and consequences (AIM)

Hot Topics: Kadison-Singer, Interlacing Polynomials, and Beyond (MSRI)



Outline

Introduction

Polynomial Convolutions

- The issue with the characteristic map
- The issue with maximum roots

3 Free probability

The Intersection

- General ideas
- Connecting polynomials and free probability

Application: Restricted Invertibility

Recently, I have been interested in self-adjoint linear operators.

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Algebraically, think: real, square, symmetric, matrices.

Geometrically, think: image of the unit ball is an ellipse.



The λ are called *eigenvalues* and the ν their associated *eigenvectors*.

Eigenvalues

Theorem (Spectral Decomposition)

Any $d \times d$ real symmetric matrix A can be decomposed as

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^{d} \lambda_i v_i v_i^{T}$$

where the v_i are orthonormal and each pair (λ_i, v_i) is an eigenpair.

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where the v_i are orthonormal and each pair (λ_i, v_i) is an eigenpair.

In particular, if λ_{max} is the largest eigenvalue (in absolute value), then

 $\max_{x:\|x\|=1} \|Ax\| = \lambda_{\max}$

and if λ_{min} is the smallest (in absolute value)

$$\min_{x:\|x\|=1} \|Ax\| = \lambda_{\min}$$

Introduction

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Example

If $\widehat{u}^{\mathcal{T}} \in \{[1,0],[1,1]\}$ and $\widehat{v}^{\mathcal{T}} \in \{[0,1],[1,1]\}$ with independent uniform distributions, then

$$\widehat{u}\widehat{u}^{T} + \widehat{v}\widehat{v}^{T} \in \left\{ \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \right), \left(\begin{array}{cc} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{array} \right), \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{array} \right), \left(\begin{array}{cc} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{array} \right) \right\}$$

each with probability 1/4.

Known tools

Well-known techniques exist for bounding eigenvalues of random frames.

Theorem (Matrix Chernoff)

Let $\hat{v}_1, \ldots, \hat{v}_n$ be independent random vectors with $\|\hat{v}_i\| \leq 1$ and $\sum_i \hat{v}_i \hat{v}_i^T = \hat{V}$. Then

$$\mathbb{P}\left[\lambda_{\max}(\widehat{V}) \leq \theta\right] \geq 1 - d \cdot e^{-nD(\theta \|\lambda_{\max}(\mathbb{E}\widehat{V}))}$$

Similar inequalities by Rudelson (1999), Ahlswede-Winter (2002).

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All such inequalities have two things in common:

- They give results with high probability
- The bounds depend on the dimension

This will *always* be true — tight concentration (in this respect) depends on the dimension (consider n/d copies of basis vectors).

Introduction

New method

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Theorem (MSS; 13)

Let $\widehat{V} = \sum_{i} \widehat{v}_{i} \widehat{v}_{i}^{T}$ be a random frame where all \widehat{v}_{i} have finite support and are mutually independent. Now let

$$p(x) = \mathbb{E}\left\{\det\left[xI - \widehat{V}\right]\right\}$$

be its expected characteristic polynomial.

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be its expected characteristic polynomial. Then

- *p* has all real roots $r_1 \leq \cdots \leq r_m$,
- 2 For all $0 \le k \le m$, we have

$$\mathbb{P}\left[\lambda_k(\widehat{V}) \leq r_k
ight] > 0 \qquad and \qquad \mathbb{P}\left[\lambda_k(\widehat{V}) \geq r_k
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And it works

By trading "high probability" for "nonzero probability", the method is able to prove bounds *independent* of dimension.

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Applications have included:

- Ramanujan graphs:
 - Of all degrees, using 2-lifts (MSS; 13)
 - Of all degrees, using k-lifts (Hall, Puder, Sawin; 14)
 - Of all degrees and sizes, using matchings (MSS; 15)
- In Functional Analysis:
 - Kadison–Singer (and equivalents) (MSS; 13)
 - Lyapunov theorems (Akemann, Weaver; 14)
- Approximation algorithms:
 - Asymmetric Traveling Salesman (Anari, Oveis-Gharan; 15)

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Numerous applications of Kadison-Singer and paving bounds as well.

Introduction

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Big question

Inquiring minds want to know:

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Finally, is there some way to know when the "method of interlacing polynomials" could work?

This talk: introduce a new theory that answers these questions (and more).

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Expected characteristic polynomials

"Prior to the work of [MSS], I think it is safe to say that the conventional wisdom in random matrix theory was that the representation

 $\|A\|_{op} = \max \operatorname{root} \left(\det \left[xI - A\right]\right)$

was not particularly useful, due to the highly non-linear nature of both the characteristic polynomial map $A \mapsto \det [xI - A]$ and the maximum root map $p \mapsto \max(p)$."

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"For instance, a fact as basic as the triangle inequality

 $\|A + B\|_{op} \le \|A\|_{op} + \|B\|_{op}$

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Both are legitimate problems, but for different reasons.

Polynomial Convolutions

The characteristic map

The problem with $A \mapsto \det [xI - A]$ is that it loses information (the rotation of A).

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So instead consider a rotation invariant operation:

Definition

For $m \times m$ symmetric matrices A and B with characteristic polynomials

$$p(x) = \det [xI - A]$$
 and $q(x) = \det [xI - B]$,

the symmetric additive convolution of p and q is defined as

$$[p \boxplus_m q](x) = \mathbb{E}_Q \Big\{ \det \Big[xI - A - QBQ^T \Big] \Big\}$$

where the expectation is taken over orthonormal matrices Q distributed uniformly (via the Haar measure).

Some properties

For degree m polynomials p, q, we have

$$[p \boxplus_m q](x+y) = \sum_{i=0}^m p^{(i)}(x)q^{(m-i)}(y).$$

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So symmetric and linear!

For any linear differential operator $R = \sum_i \alpha_i \partial^i$, we have

 $R\{[p\boxplus_m q]\} = [R\{p\}\boxplus_m q] = [p\boxplus_m R\{q\}]$

So the algebra $(\mathbb{C}_{\leq m}[x], \boxplus_m)$ is isomorphic to $(\mathbb{C}[\partial] \mod [\partial^{m+1}], \times)$.
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So the algebra $(\mathbb{C}_{\leq m}[x], \boxplus_m)$ is isomorphic to $(\mathbb{C}[\partial] \mod [\partial^{m+1}], \times)$.

Lemma (Borcea, Brändén)

If p and q have all real roots, then $[p \boxplus_m q]$ has all real roots.

So (when real rooted), we get an easy triangle inequality.

Polynomial Convolutions

The second issue is the maximum root — this time the problem lies in stability.

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 $\max (p) = \max (q) = 1.$

The second issue is the maximum root — this time the problem lies in stability.

Let
$$p(x) = x^{m-1}(x-1)$$
 and $q(x) = x(x-1)^{m-1}$. So
maxroot $(p) = maxroot (q) = 1$.

But then

• maxroot
$$([p \boxplus_m p]) = 1 + \sqrt{1/m}$$

② maxroot $([p ⊞_m q]) = 1 + \sqrt{1 - 1/m}$



The triangle inequality says it can be at most 2.

Solution: use smoother version of the maxroot () function.

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So $\alpha = 0$ is the usual maxroot () function (and grows with α).

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Can we understand the $\alpha \max()$ function?

Brief aside

If you recall the barrier function of Batson, Spielman, Srivastava.

$$\Phi_p(x) = \partial \log p(x) = \frac{p'(x)}{p(x)}$$

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$$\alpha \max(p) = x \iff \max \operatorname{root} (p - \alpha p') = x$$
$$\iff p(x) - \alpha p'(x) = 0$$
$$\iff \frac{p'(x)}{p(x)} = \frac{1}{\alpha}$$
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That is, we are implicitly studying the barrier function.

Polynomial Convolutions

Some max root results

If p is a degree m, real rooted polynomial, μ_p the average of its roots:

Lemma

$$1 \leq \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} lpha \max\left(p \right) \leq 1 + \frac{m-2}{m+2}$$

Proof uses implicit differentiation and Newton inequalities.

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 $\alpha \max(p') \le \alpha \max(p) - \alpha$

Proof uses concavity of p/p' for $x \ge \max(p)$.

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Proof uses concavity of p/p' for $x \ge \max(p)$.

Corollary

$$\mu_p \leq \alpha \max(p) - m\alpha \leq \max(p)$$

Iterate the previous lemma (m-1) times.

Polynomial Convolutions

Main inequality

Theorem

Let p and q be degree m real rooted polynomials. Then

 $\alpha \max(p \boxplus_m q) \leq \alpha \max(p) + \alpha \max(q) - m\alpha$

with equality if and only if p or q has a single distinct root.

Proof uses previous lemmas, induction on *m*, and "pinching".

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Proof uses previous lemmas, induction on *m*, and "pinching".

Applying this to $p(x) = x^{m-1}(x-1)$ and $q(x) = x(x-1)^{m-1}$ gives

	$maxroot\left(\cdot\right)$	best $lpha$ in Theorem
$[p \boxplus_m p]$	$1 + 1/\sqrt{m}$	$pprox 1+2/\sqrt{m}$
$[p \boxplus_m q]$	$1 + \sqrt{1 - 1/m}$	2

Polynomial Convolutions

We want to be able to work with expected characteristic polynomials, and had three concerns:

- the real rootedness
- 2 the behavior of the map $A \mapsto \det [xI A]$
- **(**) the behavior of the map $p \mapsto \max(p)$.

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We addressed the third by using a smooth version of the maximum root function.

On the other hand, we have more explaining to do:



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Definition

A von Neumann algebra M on a Hilbert space H is a unital subalgebra of the space B(H) of bounded operators so that

 $T \in M \to T^* \in M$

② $T_i \in M, \langle T_i u, v \rangle \rightarrow \langle Tu, v \rangle$ for all u, v implies $T \in M$ (closed on weak operator topology).

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We will designate a linear functional $\tau: M \to \mathbb{C}$ that is

- continuous in the weak operator topology
- 2 unital: $\tau(1) = 1$
- **3** positive: $\tau(T^*T) \ge 0$
- tracial: $\tau(ST) = \tau(TS)$ for all $S, T \in M$.

to be the special trace function (we assume at least one exists).

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Example

•
$$M = L^{\infty}(X, \mu)$$
, with $\tau(T) = \int T d\mu$ (= $\mathbb{E}_{\mu}\{T\}$)

$$M = M_{n \times n} \text{ with } \tau(T) = \frac{1}{n} \operatorname{Tr} [T]$$

Random variables

Each operator $T \in (M, \tau)$ defines a probability distribution μ_T on \mathbb{C} by

 $\mu_T(U) = \tau(\delta_U(T))$

for each Borel set $U \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ (δ_U is a WOT limit of polynomials, so $\delta_U(T) \in M$).

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We will think of T is (some sort of) noncommutative random variable. This generalizes the idea of a (classical) random variable.

Examples

Classic random variables:

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Free probability

Independence is a special joint distribution that allows one to reduce mixed traces to simpler ones.

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Definition T and S are *independent* if T TS = ST $\tau(p(T)q(S)) = \tau(p(T))\tau(q(S))$ for all polynomials p, q

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• $\tau(X^2Y^2) = \tau(X^2)\tau(Y^2)$ • $\tau(XYXY) = \tau(X^2)\tau(Y^2)$

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 $(XYXY) = \tau(X^2)\tau(Y^2)$

What's the point of being noncommutative !?!

Free probability

Free Independence

Definition

T and S are called *freely independent* if

 $\tau(p_1(T)q_1(S)p_2(T)q_2(S)\ldots p_m(T)q_m(S))=0$

whenever $\tau(p_j(T)) = \tau(q_j(S)) = 0$ for all *j*.

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For S, T freely independent,

$$\tau(T^2S^2) = \tau(T^2)\tau(S^2)$$

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For S, T freely independent,

2 $\tau(TSTS) = \tau(T^2)\tau(S)^2 + \tau(S^2)\tau(T)^2 - \tau(S)^2\tau(T)^2$

Proof:

Let $S_0 = S - \tau(S)\mathbb{1}$ and $T_0 = T - \tau(T)\mathbb{1}$, so $\tau(S_0) = \tau(T_0) = 0$.

Free probability
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2 $\tau(TSTS) = \tau(T^2)\tau(S)^2 + \tau(S^2)\tau(T)^2 - \tau(S)^2\tau(T)^2$

Proof:

Let $S_0 = S - \tau(S)\mathbb{1}$ and $T_0 = T - \tau(T)\mathbb{1}$, so $\tau(S_0) = \tau(T_0) = 0$.

By free independence, $\tau(T_0S_0T_0S_0) = 0$, now substitute and use linearity.

Convolutions

Given r.v. $A \sim \mu_A$ and $B \sim \mu_B$, what is distribution of A + B?

III defined question (regardless of commutativity)!

Requires knowing the joint distribution!

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Requires knowing the joint distribution!

However, we know two "special" joint distributions:

Definition

Let μ and ρ be probability distributions with $X \sim \mu$ and $Y \sim \rho$. The

- additive convolution $\mu \oplus \rho$ is the distribution of X + Y in the case that X, Y are independent.
- free additive convolution $\mu \boxplus \rho$ is the distribution of X + Y in the case that X, Y are freely independent.

Now how can we compute such things?

To compute the (classical) additive convolution, one uses the *moment* generating function

$$M_{\mu}(t) = \mathbb{E}_{X \sim \mu} \Big\{ e^{tX} \Big\}$$

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$$M_{\mu\oplus
ho}(t)=e^{K_{\mu\oplus
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Only computable up to moments!

To compute the free additive convolution, one uses the Cauchy transform

$$\mathcal{G}_{\mu_A}(t) = \int \frac{\mu_A(x)}{t-x} dx = \tau \left((t\mathbb{1} - A)^{-1} \right)$$

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$$\mathcal{G}_{\mu_A}(t) = \int rac{\mu_A(x)}{t-x} dx = au((t\mathbbm{1}-A)^{-1})$$

to form the *R*-transform

$$\mathcal{R}_{\mu_{\mathcal{A}}}\left(t
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and reverses.

Note $\frac{1}{t} = \mathcal{G}_{\mu_0}^{-1}(t)$.

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Furthermore, he showed a link between classical and free independence.

Theorem

Let $\{A_n\}$ and $\{B_n\}$ be sequences of $n \times n$ random matrices where each entry in each matrix is drawn independently from a standard normal distribution. Then there exist operators A and B such that

 $\mu_{A_n} \to \mu_{\mathcal{A}}$ and $\mu_{B_n} \to \mu_{\mathcal{B}}$ and $\mu_{A_n+B_n} \to \mu_{\mathcal{A}} \boxplus \mu_{\mathcal{B}}$

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The sequences $\{A_n\}$ and $\{B_n\}$ are called *asymptotically free*.

Many examples of random matrices now known to be asymptotically free.

Quick Review

In free probability, one thinks of probability distributions μ_A and μ_B living on the spectrum of self adjoint operators A and B.

Then one wants to try to understand μ_{A+B} (for example).

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In particular, functions of freely independent random variables are rotation independent!!

This captures "Dysonian" behavior — independence on entries (often) translates to freeness in the spectrum.

Hence it can then be applied to random matrices, but only asymptotically.

Outline

Introduction

Polynomial Convolutions

- The issue with the characteristic map
- The issue with maximum roots

3 Free probability

The Intersection

- General ideas
- Connecting polynomials and free probability

Application: Restricted Invertibility

Legendre transform

Definition

Let f be a function that is convex on an interval $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. The Legendre transform is

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Recall that the R-transform is achieved by inverting the Cauchy transform.

This allows us to achieve it via a sup.

L^p norm

Definition

The L_p norm of a function f on a measure space (X, μ) is

$$\|f\|_{L^p(X)} = \left(\int_X |f|^p \,\mathrm{d}\mu\right)^{1/p}$$

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This will be our method of convergence.

The Intersection

Fuglede–Kadison determinants

For $n \times n$ positive definite matrix A, recall

 $\det \left[A \right] = \exp \operatorname{Tr} \left[\log A \right].$

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This idea can be extended to von Neumann algebras:

Definition

Given a von Neumann algebra M and trace function τ , the *Fuglede–Kadison determinant* is defined by

$$\Delta(T) = \exp \tau(\log |T|) = \exp \int \log t \, \mathrm{d}\mu_{|T|}$$

where $|T| = (T^*T)^{1/2}$.

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where $|T| = (T^*T)^{1/2}$.

Example

For T positive semidefinite in $M_{n \times n}$, $\Delta(T) = (\det[T])^{1/n}$

The Intersection

U Transform

Let S be a multiset of complex numbers.

Claim: there exists a unique multiset T with |S| = |T| such that

$$\prod_{s_i\in S}(x-s_i)=\frac{1}{|\mathcal{T}|}\sum_{t_i\in \mathcal{T}}(x-t_i)^m.$$

Called the U transform.

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Newton identities: power sums \iff elementary symmetric polynomials

Unique solution by fundamental theorm of algebra.

The Intersection

Finite transforms

Let A be an $m \times m$ real, symmetric matrix with maximum eigenvalue ρ_A .

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Definition

The *m*-finite K-transform of μ_A

$$\mathcal{K}_{\mu_{A}}^{m}(s) = -\frac{\partial}{\partial s} \ln \left\| e^{-xs} \Delta \left(xI - A \right) \right\|_{L^{m}(X)}$$
$$= -\frac{1}{m} \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \ln \int_{X} e^{-mxs} \Delta \left(xI - A \right)^{m} dx$$

where $X = (\rho_A, \infty)$. The *m*-finite *R*-transform is

$$\mathcal{R}_{\mu_{A}}^{m}\left(s
ight)=\mathcal{K}_{\mu_{A}}^{m}\left(s
ight)-\mathcal{K}_{\mu_{0}}^{m}\left(s
ight)$$

where μ_0 is the constant 0 distribution.

The Intersection

The connection

Theorem

For all noncommutative random variables A with compact support, we have

$$\lim_{m\to\infty}\mathcal{R}^m_{\mu_A}(s)=\mathcal{R}_{\mu_A}(s)$$

Proof uses Legendre transform and convergence of L_p norm. Works for other measures?

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Theorem

Let A and B be $m \times m$ real symmetric matrices. Then the following are equivalent:

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$$\mathcal{R}^m_{\mu_A}(s) + \mathcal{R}^m_{\mu_B}(s) \equiv \mathcal{R}^m_{\mu_C}(s) \mod [s^m]$$

 $ext{det} [xI - A] \boxplus_m \det [xI - B] = \det [xI - C]$

Proof uses U transform.

The Intersection
Proof sketch

U transform turns polynomial convolutions into classical probability:

Lemma

If Y and Z are independent random variables, then

 $\mathbb{E}\{(x-Y)^m\} \boxplus_m \mathbb{E}\{(x-Z)^m\} = \mathbb{E}\{(x-Y-Z)^m\}.$

Proof sketch

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So $\mathcal{R}_{\mu_{A}}^{m}(s)$ must become (linear function of) classical CGF.

Lemma

If A is an $m \times m$ matrix and Y is uniformly distributed over the U transform of $\lambda(A)$, then

$$\mathcal{R}^{m}_{\mu_{A}}(s) \equiv \left(rac{1}{m}rac{\partial}{\partial s}\log \mathbb{E}\left\{e^{mYs}
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The connection, ctd.

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Let A, B, C be $m \times m$ real, symmetric matrices such that

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Then for all w,

 $\mathcal{R}_{\mu_{C}}\left(w
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with equality if and only if A or B is a multiple of the identity.

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Follows from "smoothed" triangle inequality:

$$\mathcal{R}_{\mu_A}\left(\frac{1}{m\alpha}\right) = lpha \max\left(p\right) - m\alpha.$$

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Implies support of finite convolution lies *inside* support of free convolution. The Intersection 40/56 Polynomials and (finite) free probability

A. W. Marcus/Princeton





Polynomials and (finite) free probability

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Expected characteristic polynomials are a finite approximation of an asymptotic approximation of random matrices.

The Intersection



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Similar results for multiplicative convolution.

Other (known) finite analogues:

- Limit theorems (Central, Poisson)
- Oyson Brownian motion
- Sentropy, Fisher information, Cramer-Rao (for one r.v.)

Open directions:

- Bivariate polynomials (second order freeness?)
- 2 Entropy (and friends) for joint distributions

The Intersection

Relation to β -ensembles? Let A, B be $m \times m$ matrices with

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And for β -ensembles, one gets (courtesy of Alan Edelman):

$$\mathbb{E}_{Q}\left\{ \operatorname{tr}\left[(AQ^{T}BQ)^{2} \right] \right\} = (**) - \frac{2m}{(m-1)(m\beta+2)} (a_{2} - a_{1}^{2})(b_{2} - b_{1}^{2})$$

The Intersection

Giving back

Also potential applications:

Onnes embedding conjecture?

Asks how well vN algebras can be approximated by finite matrices.

Likely requires one of the "open directions."

Giving back

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2 Random matrix universality?

Universality can often be achieved by studying the asymptotic distribution of roots of certain polynomials.

Which polynomials? Here is a recipe:

Random matrix

- → free probability
- → free convolutions
- → finite free convolutions
- → polynomial



Outline

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The Intersection

- General ideas
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5 Application: Restricted Invertibility

An application

Example: Restricted invertibility (special case)

Theorem

If $v_1, \ldots, v_n \in \mathbb{C}^m$ are vectors with

$$\|v_i\|^2 = \frac{m}{n}$$
 and $\sum_{i=1}^n v_i v_i^* = I_i$

then for all k < n, there exists a set $S \subset [n]$ with |S| = k such that

$$\lambda_k\left(\sum_{i\in S} v_i v_i^*\right) \ge \left(1 - \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}\right)^2 \left(\frac{m}{n}\right).$$

First proved by Bourgain and Tzafriri (in more generality, worse constants).

Translation

Translate to random matrices:

Given a random $m \times m$ rotation matrix R, and a random set S of size k, what do you expect the eigenvalue distribution of

 $R[S,\cdot]R[S,\cdot]^*$

to look like?

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Similar ensembles are studied in random matrix theory, where they are called *Wishart matrices*.

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Let's see what random matrix theory has to say.

Wishart matrices

Let X be an $M \times N$ random matrix whose entries are i.i.d. with mean 0 and variance σ^2 . Set

$$Y_N = \frac{1}{N}XX^*$$

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If $M, N \to \infty$ in such a way that $M/N \to \lambda \in (0, \infty)$, then the asymptotic eigenvalue distribution of the resulting sequence of matrices has density function

$$\mathrm{d}\nu(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} \frac{\sqrt{(\lambda_+ - x)(x - \lambda_-)}}{\lambda x} \,\mathbf{1}_{[\lambda_-, \lambda_+]} \,\mathrm{d}x$$

where $\lambda_{\pm} = \sigma^2 (1 \pm \sqrt{\lambda})^2$.

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Called the Marchenko-Pastur distribution.

Application: Restricted Invertibility

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If this is going to work, it is because the random matrix acts (asymptotically) like a free distribution.

If it acts like a free distribution, it should act like our polynomial convolutions.

To polynomials!

Translate to finite free probability: if

$$p(x) = \det [xI - vv^*] = x^m - \frac{m}{n}x^{m-1}$$

then

$$\underbrace{\left[\underline{p \boxplus_m p \boxplus_m \cdots \boxplus_m p}\right]}_{k \text{ times}} = m!(-n)^{-m}L_m^{k-m}(nx)$$

where $L_m^{(\alpha)}(x)$ is the (very well studied) Laguerre polynomial.
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where $L_m^{(\alpha)}(x)$ is the (very well studied) Laguerre polynomial.

In particular, the smallest nonzero root is (asymptotically)

$$\left(1-\sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}\right)^2\left(\frac{m}{n}\right).$$

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then

$$\underbrace{\left[\underline{p \boxplus_m p \boxplus_m \cdots \boxplus_m p}\right]}_{k \text{ times}} = m! (-n)^{-m} L_m^{k-m} (nx)$$

where $L_m^{(\alpha)}(x)$ is the (very well studied) Laguerre polynomial.

In particular, the smallest nonzero root is (asymptotically)

$$\left(1-\sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}\right)^2\left(\frac{m}{n}\right).$$

Same bound can be calculated using $\alpha \max()$ (and picking optimal α).

Still need to build an interlacing family.

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- Each choice of a vector is independent
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Hence we want to find a (generic) discrete sum that equals the (generic) integral (for some subset of "generic").

Not possible in general, but *is* possible if we restrict to degree m matrices (since integral becomes a fixed degree polynomial).

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Formulas of this type are known as *quadrature rules*.

Quadrature

For special case, choosing uniformly suffices:

Lemma If A is an $m \times m$ matrix and $\{v_i\}_{i=1}^n \subseteq \mathbb{C}^m$ are vectors with $\|v_i\|^2 = \frac{m}{n}$ and $\sum_i v_i v_i^* = l$ then $\frac{1}{n} \sum_i \det [A + v_i v_i^*] = \mathbb{E}_Q \left\{ \det \left[A + Qv_1 v_1^* Q^T\right] \right\}$

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For full Bourgain-Tzafriri result, need to be more clever.

Quadrature in general

Quadrature rules exist for more general sums as well.

The larger the domain of possible integrals, the more nodes required:

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Theorem

For all m \times m matrices A and B,

\mathbb{E}_{P}\left\{\det\left[A + \hat{P}B\hat{P}^{T}\right]\right\} = \mathbb{E}_{Q}\left\{\det\left[A + QBQ^{T}\right]\right\}

where

• Q is an orthogonal matrix, distributed uniformly (via Haar measure)

• \hat{P} is a signed permutation matrix, distributed uniformly (2<sup>n</sup>n! total)
```

More connections

Recall the recipe for understanding random matrix distributions:

Random matrix

- → free probability
- → free convolutions
- \rightarrow finite free convolutions
- \rightarrow polynomial



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- → polynomial



The free probability distribution is the free Poisson distribution.

The polynomials one studies to learn about Marchenko–Pastur distributions is precisely the collection of Laguerre polynomials we found.

Ramanujan Graphs

Application: existence of Ramanujan graphs of any size and degree.

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 $(x-1)^{m/2}(x+1)^{m/2}$

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Ramanujan Graphs

Application: existence of Ramanujan graphs of any size and degree.

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Details are *far* more complicated:

- generalization of characteristic polynomials to *determinant-like* polynomials.
- Special quadrature formula for Laplacian matrices
- Inew convolution for asymmetric matrices

Thanks

Thank you to the organizers for providing me the opportunity to speak to you today.



And thank you for your attention!