Pólya frequency sequences: analysis meets algebra

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Totally positive matrices and Pólya frequency sequences Pólya frequency sequences and algebraic combinatorics Definitions and examples Finite and infinite one-sided PF sequences

Totally positive/nonnegative matrices

Definition. A rectangular matrix is *totally positive (TP)* if all minors are positive. (Similarly, totally non-negative (TN).)

Thus all entries > 0, all 2×2 minors $> 0, \ldots$

These matrices occur widely in mathematics:

Totally positive matrices in mathematics

TP and TN matrices occur in

- analysis and differential equations (Aissen, Edrei, Schoenberg, Pólya, Loewner, Whitney)
- probability and statistics (Efron, Karlin, Pitman, Proschan, Rinott)
- interpolation theory and splines (Curry, Schoenberg)
- Gabor analysis (Gröchenig, Stöckler)
- interacting particle systems (Gantmacher, Krein)
- matrix theory (Ando, Cryer, Fallat, Garloff, Johnson, Pinkus, Sokal)
- representation theory (Lusztig, Postnikov)
- cluster algebras (Berenstein, Fomin, Zelevinsky)
- integrable systems (Kodama, Williams)
- quadratic algebras (Borger, Davydov, Grinberg, Hô Hai)
- combinatorics (Brenti, Lindström-Gessel-Viennot, Skandera, Sturmfels)

:

Examples of TP/TN matrices

- The lower-triangular matrix $A = (\mathbf{1}_{j \ge k})_{j,k=1}^n$ is TN.
- Generalized Vandermonde matrices are TP: if 0 < x₁ < ··· < x_n and y₁ < y₂ < ··· < y_n are real, then

$$\det(x_j^{y_k})_{j,k=1}^n > 0.$$

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(Pólya:) The Gaussian kernel is TP: given $\sigma > 0$ and scalars

$$x_1 < x_2 < \cdots < x_n, \qquad y_1 < y_2 < \cdots < y_n,$$

the matrix $G[\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{y}] := (e^{-\sigma(x_j - y_k)^2})_{j,k=1}^n$ is TP.

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Proof: It suffices to show $\det G[\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{y}] > 0$. Now factorize:

$$G[\mathbf{x};\mathbf{y}] = \operatorname{diag}(e^{-\sigma x_j^2})_{j=1}^n \cdot ((e^{2\sigma x_j})^{y_k})_{j,k=1}^n \cdot \operatorname{diag}(e^{-\sigma y_k^2})_{k=1}^n.$$

The middle matrix is a generalized Vandermonde matrix, so all three factors have positive determinants.

Pólya frequency sequences

The above notions of 'finite' matrices can be generalized to (bi-)infinite ones. A real sequence $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is a *Pólya frequency sequence* if for any integers

 $l_1 < l_2 < \cdots < l_n, \qquad m_1 < m_2 < \cdots < m_n,$

the determinant $\det(a_{l_j-m_k})_{j,k=1}^n \ge 0$.

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In other words, these are bi-infinite Toeplitz matrices

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	a_0	a_{-1}	a_{-2}	a_{-3}	
	a_1	a_0	a_{-1}	a_{-2}	
	a_2	a_1	a_0	a_{-1}	
	a_3	a_2	a_1	a_0	
	÷	:	:	:	·.)

which are totally non-negative.

• Example: Gaussians. For $q \in (0, 1)$, the sequence $(q^{n^2})_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is not just a TN sequence, but TP. (Why? Set $q = e^{-\sigma}$.)

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Focus on two kinds of examples: finite and one-sided infinite.

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Generating functions of Pólya frequency sequences

- Two remarkable results (1950s) say that finite and one-sided Pólya frequency sequences are simply products of 'atoms'!
- The 'atoms' are explained next. For now: why products?

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Suppose $\mathbf{a} = (\dots, 0, 0, a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots)$ is one-sided. Its generating function is

$$\Psi_{\mathbf{a}}(x) := a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + a_3 x^3 + \cdots, \qquad a_0 \neq 0.$$

Now if \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} are one-sided PF sequences, then their Toeplitz 'matrices' are TN:

$$T_{\mathbf{a}} := \begin{pmatrix} a_0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ a_1 & a_0 & 0 & \cdots \\ a_2 & a_1 & a_0 & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix} \qquad T_{\mathbf{b}} := \begin{pmatrix} b_0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ b_1 & b_0 & 0 & \cdots \\ b_2 & b_1 & b_0 & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$$

By the Cauchy–Binet formula, so also is $T_{\mathbf{a}}T_{\mathbf{b}} \rightsquigarrow$ Toeplitz matrix.

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This product matrix corresponds to the coefficients of the power series $\Psi_{\mathbf{a}}(x)\Psi_{\mathbf{b}}(x)$. This gives new examples of PF sequences from old ones.

Finite Pólya frequency sequences – and real-rootedness

'Atomic' finite PF sequences:

• The sequence $(\ldots, 0, 0, a_0, 0, 0, \ldots)$ and $(\ldots, 0, 0, 1, \alpha, 0, 0, \ldots)$ are PF sequences if $a_0, \alpha > 0$.

Indeed, every 'square submatrix' drawn from these sequences either has a zero row/column, or is triangular with positive diagonal entries.

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- The 'atom' $(\ldots, 0, 0, 1, \alpha, 0, 0, \ldots)$ corresponds to $\Psi_{\mathbf{a}}(x) = 1 + \alpha x$.
- By previous slide, a₀(1 + α₁x)(1 + α₂x) · · · (1 + α_mx) generates a PF sequence a_m, when all α_j > 0.

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- By previous slide, a₀(1 + α₁x)(1 + α₂x) · · · (1 + α_mx) generates a PF sequence a_m, when all α_j > 0. In fact, these are all finite PF sequences:

Theorem (Aissen–Schoenberg–Whitney and Edrei, 1950s)

Suppose $a_0, \ldots, a_m > 0$. The following are equivalent.

- **1** $\mathbf{a} = (\dots, 0, 0, a_0, \dots, a_m, 0, 0, \dots)$ is a PF sequence.
- **3** The generating function $\Psi_{\mathbf{a}}(x)$ has *m* negative real roots (i.e., the above form).
- **3** The generating function $\Psi_{\mathbf{a}}(x)$ has m real roots.

Connection to combinatorics

<u>'Finite-order' PF sequences</u>: A real sequence $(a_n)_{n\in\mathbb{Z}}$ is PF_r for $r\geq 1$ if for any size $1\leq n\leq r$ and integers

 $l_1 < l_2 < \cdots < l_n, \qquad m_1 < m_2 < \cdots < m_n,$

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PF and related sequences are well-known to combinatorialists:

- A PF₁ sequence (a₀,..., a_m) is simply a non-negative sequence. (Brenti: the only ones in combinatorics that are "meaningful".)
- A positive tuple (a₀,..., a_m) is a PF₂ sequence if and only if it is log-concave: a_j² ≥ a_{j-1}a_{j+1} for 0 < j < m.

Connection to combinatorics (cont.)

Proposition

Fix a positive tuple (padded by zeros) $\mathbf{a} = (\dots, 0, 0, a_0, \dots, a_m, 0, 0, \dots)$. Then each of the following parts implies the next.

- **1 a** is a PF sequence i.e., the polynomial $\Psi_{\mathbf{a}}(x)$ is real-rooted.
- 2 (a_0, \ldots, a_m) is strongly log-concave: $(a_j / {m \choose j})_{j=0}^m$ is log-concave.
- **3** The tuple (a_0, \ldots, a_m) is log-concave.
- The tuple (a_0, \ldots, a_m) is unimodal.

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Well-studied in combinatorics. E.g. Stirling numbers of second kind:

$$E_n(x) = \sum_{k=1}^n k! S(n,k) x^k, \qquad \sum_{k=1}^n S(n,k) x^k$$

are real-rooted polynomials. For more on these connections to combinatorics:

- R.P. Stanley, Graph theory and its applications, 1989.
- F. Brenti, Mem. Amer. Math. Soc., 1989.
- P. Brändén, Handbook of Enumerative Combinatorics, 2014.

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Recall, the lower-triangular matrix $A = (\mathbf{1}_{j \geq k})_{j,k=1}^n$ is TN (direct proof). Hence $\mathbf{a}_1 := (\dots, 0, 0, 1, 1, \dots)$ is a one-sided PF sequence, with generating function:

$$\Psi_{\mathbf{a}_1}(x) = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots = \frac{1}{1 - x}$$

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Claim: The function $\mathbf{a}_c := (\dots, 0, 0, 1, c, c^2, \dots)$ is a PF sequence for c > 0. *Proof:* Given increasing tuples of integers $(l_j), (m_k)$ for $1 \le j, k \le n$,

$$((\mathbf{a}_{c})_{l_{j}-m_{k}}) = \operatorname{diag}(c^{l_{j}})_{j=1}^{n} \cdot (\mathbf{1}_{l_{j} \ge m_{k}})_{j,k=1}^{n} \cdot \operatorname{diag}(c^{-m_{k}})_{k=1}^{n},$$

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- Therefore $(1 \beta x)^{-1}$ is a PF sequence for $\beta > 0$.
- Limits: If a_m are PF sequences, converging 'pointwise' to a, then a is a PF sequence.
- *Example:* Since $(1 + \delta x/m)^m$ generates a PF sequence for $\delta \ge 0$ and all $m \ge 1$, so does $e^{\delta x}$. (E.g., $(\ldots, 0, 0, 1, \frac{1}{1!}, \frac{1}{2!}, \ldots)$ is a PF sequence.)

• More examples: if $\alpha_j, \beta_j \ge 0$ for all $j \ge 0$ are summable, then

$$\prod_{j=1}^{\infty} (1+\alpha_j x), \qquad \prod_{j=1}^{\infty} (1-\beta_j x)^{-1}$$

both generate PF sequences.

• Hence so does their product:

$$e^{\delta x} \frac{\prod_{j=1}^{\infty} (1+\alpha_j x)}{\prod_{j=1}^{\infty} (1-\beta_j x)}.$$

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Remarkably, these are all of the PF sequences!

Theorem (Aissen–Schoenberg–Whitney and Edrei, 1950s)

A one-sided sequence $\mathbf{a} = (\dots, 0, 0, a_0 = 1, a_1, \dots)$ is a PF sequence if and only if it is of the above form.

(Uses Hadamard's thesis (1892) and Nevanlinna's refinement (1929) of Picard's theorem.)

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From Pólya–Schur multipliers to Ramanujan graphs

What if $\Psi_{\mathbf{a}}(x)$ is an entire function? It must be $e^{\delta x} \prod_{j>1} (1 + \alpha_j x)$.

Theorem (Pólya–Schur, Crelle, 1914)

An entire function $\Psi(x) = \sum_{n\geq 0} a_n x^n$ with $\Psi(0) = 1$ generates a one-sided PF sequence, if and only if the sequence $n!a_n$ is a multiplier sequence of the first kind.

In other words, if $\sum_{j>0} c_j x^j$ is a real-rooted *polynomial*, so is $\sum_{j>0} j! a_j c_j x^j$.

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 This circle of ideas – and classification of Pólya–Schur type multiplier sequences – has found far-reaching generalizations in work of Borcea and Brändén (late 2000s).

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- This circle of ideas and classification of Pólya–Schur type multiplier sequences – has found far-reaching generalizations in work of Borcea and Brändén (late 2000s).
- Taken forward by Marcus–Spielman–Srivastava (2010s):
 - Kadison–Singer conjecture.
 - Existence of bipartite Ramanujan (expander) graphs of every degree and every order.

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The Riemann Hypothesis

Pólya frequency sequences also connect to number theory:

Theorem (Katkova, Comput. Meth. Funct. Th., 2000)

Let $\xi(s) = {s \choose 2} \pi^{-s/2} \Gamma(s/2) \zeta(s)$ be the Riemann xi-function. If

$$\xi_1(s) := \xi(1/2 + \sqrt{s})$$

generates a PF sequence, then the Riemann Hypothesis is true.

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Katkova proved that ξ_1 is PF of order at least 43, and is 'asymptotically PF' of all orders.

Hilbert series and PF sequences

PF sequences also show up in *algebra*. Given a $\mathbb{Z}^{\geq 0}$ -graded vector space $V = \bigoplus_{n \geq 0} V[n]$ over a field \mathbb{F} , its *Hilbert series* is

$$H(V, x) = \sum_{n \ge 0} x^n \dim V[n].$$

If $V \cong \mathbb{F}^m$ for $m \ge 1$, then $H(\wedge^{\bullet}V, x) = (1+x)^m$, $H(\mathbb{S}^{\bullet}V, x) = \frac{1}{(1-x)^m}$,

and from above, these Koszul-dual algebras both generate PF sequences.

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More generally, say $R: V \otimes V \to V \otimes V$ satisfies

- the Yang-Baxter equation $R_{12}R_{23}R_{12} = R_{23}R_{12}R_{23}$, and
- the Iwahori–Hecke relation $(R+1)(R-q) = 0, q \in \mathbb{F}^{\times}$.

Define two graded algebas – the R-exterior algebra and R-symmetric algebra:

 $\wedge^{\bullet}_{R}(V):=T^{\bullet}(V)/(\operatorname{im}(R+\operatorname{Id})),\qquad \mathbb{S}^{\bullet}_{q,R}(V):=T^{\bullet}(V)/(\operatorname{im}(R-q\operatorname{Id})).$

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Theorem (Hô Hai 1999, Davydov 2000)

Suppose \mathbb{F} has characteristic zero, dim $V < \infty$, and either q = 1 or q is not a root of unity. Then the Hilbert series $H(\wedge_{\mathbb{R}}^{\bullet}(V), x)$, $H(\mathbb{S}_{q,\mathbb{R}}^{\bullet}(V), x)$ both generate PF sequences. (Skryabin, 2019)

Elementary symmetric polynomials

Return to the case q = 1 and $R = \tau = \text{flip}$, but now with V having a countable $\mathbb{R}^{\geq 0}$ -graded basis v_j of degree $\alpha_j > 0$. Then the Hilbert series of $\wedge^{\bullet}(V)$ is:

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• The constant, linear, quadratic, ... terms of this power series are

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which are precisely the *elementary symmetric polynomials* in the roots α_j .

• Thus, the corresponding infinite Toeplitz TN matrix is

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where we specialize the variable u_j to equal $\alpha_j \ge 0$.

Elementary symmetric polynomials

Return to the case q = 1 and $R = \tau = \text{flip}$, but now with V having a countable $\mathbb{R}^{\geq 0}$ -graded basis v_j of degree $\alpha_j > 0$. Then the Hilbert series of $\wedge^{\bullet}(V)$ is:

$$H(\wedge^{\bullet}(V), x) = \prod_{j \ge 1} (1 + \alpha_j x),$$

and this generates a PF sequence if $\alpha_j \ge 0$ are summable.

• The constant, linear, quadratic, ... terms of this power series are

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• Every minor is numerically positive. In fact, even more is true!

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Complete homogeneous symmetric polynomials

Similarly, the Hilbert series of $\mathbb{S}^{\bullet}(V)$ is:

$$H(\mathbb{S}^{\bullet}(V), x) = \prod_{j \ge 1} (1 - \alpha_j x)^{-1},$$

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Theorem

All minors of the matrices $(e_{j-k}(\mathbf{u})\mathbf{1}_{j\geq k})_{j,k\geq 0}$ and $(h_{j-k}(\mathbf{u})\mathbf{1}_{j\geq k})_{j,k\geq 0}$ are monomial-positive.

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 → non-negative Z-linear combinations of (skew) Schur polynomials.

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This brings us to Schur polynomials.

Schur polynomials

Given a decreasing N-tuple $n_{N-1} > n_{N-2} > \cdots > n_0 \ge 0$, the corresponding Schur polynomial over a field \mathbb{F} is the unique polynomial extension to \mathbb{F}^N of

$$s_{(n_{N-1},\dots,n_0)}(u_1,\dots,u_N) := \frac{\det(u_j^{n_{k-1}})}{\det(u_j^{k-1})}$$

for pairwise distinct $u_j \in \mathbb{F}$.

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Example: If N = 2 and $\mathbf{n} = (m < n)$, then

$$s_{\mathbf{n}}(u_1, u_2) = \frac{u_1^n u_2^m - u_1^m u_2^n}{u_1 - u_2} = (u_1 u_2)^m (u_1^{n-m-1} + u_1^{n-m-2} u_2 + \dots + u_2^{n-m-1}).$$

- Basis of homogeneous symmetric polynomials in u_1, \ldots, u_N .
- Characters of irreducible polynomial representations of $GL_N(\mathbb{C})$.

Schur polynomials via semi-standard Young tableaux

Schur polynomials are also defined using semi-standard Young tableaux:

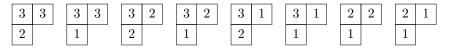
Example 1: Suppose N = 3 and $\mathbf{m} := (0, 2, 4)$. The tableaux are:

3	3	3	3	3	2	3	2	3	1	3	1	2	2	2	1]
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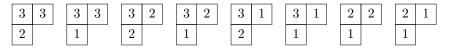


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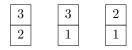
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Example 2: Suppose N = 3 and $\mathbf{n} = (0, 2, 3)$:



Then $s_{(0,2,3)}(u_1, u_2, u_3) = u_1u_2 + u_2u_3 + u_3u_1$.

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Schur Monotonicity Lemma

Example: Continuing from the previous slide,

$$f(u_1, u_2, u_3) = \frac{(u_1 + u_2)(u_2 + u_3)(u_3 + u_1)}{u_1 u_2 + u_2 u_3 + u_3 u_1}, \qquad u_1, u_2, u_3 > 0.$$

Note: both numerator and denominator are monomial-positive (in fact Schur-positive, obviously) – hence non-decreasing in each coordinate.

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Theorem (K.–Tao, Amer. J. Math., in press)

For integer tuples $0 \le n_0 < \cdots < n_{N-1}$ and $0 \le m_0 < \cdots < m_{N-1}$ such that $n_j \le m_j \ \forall j$, the function

$$f: (0,\infty)^N \to \mathbb{R}, \qquad f(\mathbf{u}) := \frac{s_{\mathbf{m}}(\mathbf{u})}{s_{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{u})}$$

is non-decreasing in each coordinate.

(In fact we show Schur-positivity.)

(Recent example of numerical positivity ~> monomial-pos. ~> Schur-positivity.)

Schur Monotonicity Lemma (cont.)

Claim: The ratio
$$f(u_1, u_2, u_3) = \frac{(u_1 + u_2)(u_2 + u_3)(u_3 + u_1)}{u_1 u_2 + u_2 u_3 + u_3 u_1}$$

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(Why?) Applying the quotient rule of differentiation to f,

 $s_{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{u})\partial_{u_3}s_{\mathbf{m}}(\mathbf{u}) - s_{\mathbf{m}}(\mathbf{u})\partial_{u_3}s_{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{u}) = (u_1 + u_2)(u_1u_3 + 2u_1u_2 + u_2u_3)u_3,$ and this is monomial-positive.

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Now if we write this as $\sum_{j \ge 0} p_j(u_1, u_2)u_3^j$, then each p_j is Schur-positive, i.e. a sum of Schur polynomials:

$$p_{0}(u_{1}, u_{2}) = 0,$$

$$p_{1}(u_{1}, u_{2}) = 2u_{1}u_{2}^{2} + 2u_{1}^{2}u_{2} = 2\underbrace{2 \ 2}_{1} + 2\underbrace{2 \ 1}_{1} = 2s_{(3,1)}(u_{1}, u_{2}),$$

$$p_{2}(u_{1}, u_{2}) = (u_{1} + u_{2})^{2} = \underbrace{2 \ 2}_{1} + \underbrace{2 \ 1}_{1} + \underbrace{1 \ 1}_{1} + \underbrace{2}_{1}$$

$$= s_{(3,0)}(u_{1}, u_{2}) + s_{(2,1)}(u_{1}, u_{2}).$$

The proof for general $\mathbf{m} \geq \mathbf{n}$ is similar:

By symmetry, and the quotient rule of differentiation, it suffices to show that

$$s_{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \partial_{u_N}(s_{\mathbf{m}}) - s_{\mathbf{m}} \cdot \partial_{u_N}(s_{\mathbf{n}})$$

is numerically positive on $(0,\infty)^N$. (Note, the coefficients in $s_n(\mathbf{u})$ of each u_N^j are skew-Schur polynomials in u_1, \ldots, u_{N-1} .)

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Key ingredient: Schur-positivity result by Lam–Postnikov–Pylyavskyy (2007). In turn, this emerged out of Skandera's results (2004) on determinant inequalities for *totally non-negative matrices*.

Weak majorization through Schur polynomials

• Our Schur Monotonicity Lemma implies in particular:

$$\frac{s_{\mathbf{m}}(\mathbf{u})}{s_{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{u})} \ge \frac{s_{\mathbf{m}}(1,\ldots,1)}{s_{\mathbf{n}}(1,\ldots,1)}, \qquad \forall \mathbf{u} \in [1,\infty)^{N}.$$

if ${\bf m}$ dominates ${\bf n}$ coordinatewise.

• Natural to ask: for which other tuples m, n does this inequality hold?

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Given integers $0 \le n_0 < \cdots < n_{N-1}$ and $0 \le m_0 < \cdots < m_{N-1}$, the above inequality holds for all $\mathbf{u} \in [1, \infty)^N$, if and only if \mathbf{m} weakly majorizes \mathbf{n} .

(Recall: this means $m_{N-1} + \cdots + m_j \ge n_{N-1} + \cdots + n_j$ for all j.)

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This problem was studied originally by Skandera and others in 2011, on the entire positive orthant $(0, \infty)^N$:

Cuttler–Greene–Skandera conjecture

Theorem (Cuttler–Greene–Skandera, Eur. J. Comb., 2011)

Given integers $0 \le n_0 < \cdots < n_{N-1}$ and $0 \le m_0 < \cdots < m_{N-1}$ such that

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we have that m majorizes n.

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Theorem (Sra, *Eur. J. Comb.*, 2016)

The Cuttler-Greene-Skandera conjecture is true.

These results provide novel characterizations of (weak) majorization, through Schur polynomials and through proof-techniques originating in total positivity.

Open question: Optimizing over $[-1, 1]^N$?

- Our work with Tao (2017) concerned entrywise operations preserving positive semidefiniteness in a fixed dimension.
- The maximization of s_m(u)/s_n(u) over (0, 1]^N reveals tight bounds on certain classes of polynomial preservers, acting on correlation matrices with non-negative entries. (By homogeneity and continuity, maximize only over the cube-boundary (0, 1]^N ∩ ∂(0, 1]^N.)

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- What about on *all* correlation matrices? Need to bound $s_m(\mathbf{u})/s_n(\mathbf{u})$ over all of $[-1,1]^N \setminus \{0\}$.
- For this, need to ensure s_n(u) does not vanish except at 0. Facts:
 (1) The only such n = (0, 1, ..., N 2, N 1 + 2r) for r ∈ Z^{≥0}.
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Question: Say $m_j \ge j$ for j = 0, 1, ..., N-2, and $m_{N-1} \ge N-1+2r$. Maximize $\frac{s_{\mathbf{m}}(\mathbf{u})}{h_{2r}(\mathbf{u})}$ on $[-1, 1]^N \setminus \{0\}$ – or just on its cube-boundary.

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