## Integrable Differential Equations in

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## Integrable DEs and Determinants

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Figure 1: E. Ivar Fredholm, 1866-1927.


Figure 2: Paul Painlevé, 1863-1933.


Figure 3: Tai Tsun Wu, 1933-.


Figure 4: Harold Widom, 1932-, with brother Ben, 1927-

## §1. Some Historical Remarks

2D Ising Model: First connection between
Toeplitz and Fredholm Dets $\rightsquigarrow$ Painlevé
Wu, McCoy, Tracy, \& Barouch (1973-77) [61]:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \lim _{\substack{T \rightarrow T_{c}^{ \pm}, R^{2}=M^{2}+N^{2} \rightarrow \infty \\
r=R \xi \xi(T) \text { fixed }}} \mathbb{E}\left(\sigma_{00} \sigma_{M N}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{c}
\sinh \frac{1}{2} \psi(r) \\
\cosh \frac{1}{2} \psi(r)
\end{array}\right\} \times \\
& \exp \left(-\frac{1}{4} \int_{r}^{\infty}\left(\frac{d \psi}{d y}\right)^{2}-\sinh ^{2} \psi(y) d y\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
\frac{d^{2} \psi}{d r^{2}}+\frac{1}{r} \frac{d \psi}{d r}=\frac{1}{2} \sinh (2 \psi), \psi(r) \sim \frac{2}{\pi} K_{0}(r), x \rightarrow \infty .
$$

Note: $y(x)=\mathrm{e}^{-\psi(x)}$ is a particular Painlevé III transcendent. (See also Widom [60].)

Next, Sato, Miwa \& Jimbo, 1977-1980, (see [32] and references therein) introduced the notion of
$\tau$-functions and holonomic quantum fields,
a class of field theories that include the scaling limit of the Ising model and for which the expression of correlation functions in terms of solutions to holonomic differential equations is a general feature. A book length account of these developments can be found in Palmer [45].

These developments led Jimbo-Miwa-MôRi-Sato [35] to consider, in 1980, the Fredholm determinant and Fredholm minors of the operator whose kernel is the familiar sine kernel

$$
\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{\sin \pi(x-y)}{x-y}
$$

on the domain

$$
\mathbb{J}=\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right) \cup\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right) \cup \cdots \cup\left(a_{n}, b_{n}\right)
$$

Their main interest was the density matrix of the impenetrable Bose gas, and only incidentally, random matrices.

For $\mathbb{J}=(0, s)$, the $\mathbf{J M M S}$ result is

$$
\operatorname{det}\left(I-\lambda K_{\text {sine }}\right)=\exp \left(-\int_{0}^{\pi s} \frac{\sigma(x ; \lambda)}{x} d x\right)
$$

where

$$
\left(x \sigma^{\prime \prime}\right)^{2}+4\left(x \sigma^{\prime}-\sigma\right)\left(x \sigma^{\prime}-\sigma+\left(\sigma^{\prime}\right)^{2}\right)=0
$$

with boundary condition

$$
\sigma(x, \lambda)=-\frac{\lambda}{\pi} x+\mathrm{O}\left(x^{2}\right), x \rightarrow 0
$$

Remarks:

- $\sigma$ is expressible in terms of Painlevé V. An example of the $\sigma$-form for Painlevé equations [34].
- For general $\mathbb{J}$, JMMS [35] obtains a compatible system of nonautonomous Hamiltonian equations generated by Poisson commuting Hamiltonians where the independent variables are the $a_{j}, b_{j}$-i.e. the endpoints of the intervals. (See also Harnad [27].)
- A simplified derivation of the JMMS equations can be found in TW [50]. See Gangardt [26] for recent developments on the impenetrable Bose gas.
- Connections with quantum inverse scattering were developed by Its, Izergin, Korepin, Slavnov and others. (See, e.g., [30, 40].)


## §2. RMM with Unitary Symmetry

Many RMM with unitary symmetry come down to the evaluation of Fredholm determinants $\operatorname{det}(I-\lambda K)$ where $K$ has kernel of the form

$$
\frac{\varphi(x) \psi(y)-\psi(x) \varphi(y)}{x-y} \chi_{\mathbb{J}}(y)
$$

where

$$
\mathbb{J}=\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right) \cup\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right) \cup \cdots \cup\left(a_{n}, b_{n}\right)
$$

Examples:

- Sine kernel: $\varphi(x)=\sin \pi x, \psi(x)=\cos \pi x$.
- Airy kernel: $\varphi(x)=\operatorname{Ai}(x), \psi(x)=\operatorname{Ai}^{\prime}(x)$.
- Bessel kernel: $\varphi(x)=J_{\alpha}(\sqrt{x}), \psi(x)=x \varphi^{\prime}(x)$.
- Hermite kernel: $\varphi(x)=\left(\frac{N}{2}\right)^{1 / 4} \varphi_{N}(x), \psi(x)=\left(\frac{N}{2}\right)^{1 / 4} \varphi_{N-1}(x)$ where $\varphi_{k}(x)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{k} k!\pi^{1 / 2}}} \mathrm{e}^{-x^{2} / 2} H_{k}(x)$.

A general theory of such Fredholm determinants was developed in TW [52] under the additional hypothesis that

$$
m(x) \frac{d}{d x}\binom{\varphi}{\psi}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A(x) & B(x) \\
-C(x) & -A(x)
\end{array}\right)\binom{\varphi}{\psi}
$$

where $m, A, B$ and $C$ are polynomials. For example, for the Airy kernel

$$
m(x)=1, A(x)=0, B(x)=1, C(x)=-x
$$

The basic objects of the theory are

$$
Q_{j}(x ; \mathbb{J})=(I-K)^{-1} x^{j} \varphi(x), \quad P_{j}(x ; \mathbb{J})=(I-K)^{-1} x^{j} \psi(x),
$$

and

$$
u_{j}=\left(Q_{j}, \varphi\right), v_{j}=\left(P_{j}, \varphi\right), \tilde{v}_{j}=\left(Q_{j}, \psi\right), w_{j}=\left(P_{j}, \psi\right)
$$

where $(\cdot, \cdot)$ denotes the inner product. The independent variables are the endpoints $a_{j}$ and $b_{j}$ making up J.

There are two types of differential equations:

- Universal equations, i.e. equations that hold independently of the differential equations for $\varphi$ and $\psi$.
- Equations that depend upon $m, A, B$ and $C$.

For $K=K_{\text {Airy }}$ with $\mathbb{J}=(s, \infty), q(s):=Q_{0}(s, \mathbb{J}), p(s):=P_{0}(s, \mathbb{J})$, $u=u_{0}, v=v_{0}$, the general theory reduces to the differential equations

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{d q}{d s}=p-q u, \quad \frac{d p}{d s}=s q-2 q v+p u, \\
& \frac{d u}{d s}=-q^{2}, \quad \frac{d v}{d s}=-p q,
\end{aligned}
$$

together with

$$
\frac{d}{d s} R(s, s)=-q^{2}, \quad \frac{d}{d s} \log \operatorname{det}(I-K)=-R(s, s)
$$

where $R(x, y)$ is the resolvent kernel of $K$.

Using the first integral $u^{2}-2 v=q^{2}$, one easily derives that $q$ satisfies the Painlevé II equation

$$
\frac{d^{2} q}{d s^{2}}=s q+2 q^{3}
$$

- Key features of the proof are simple expressions for $(m(x) \equiv 1)$

$$
\left[D,(I-K)^{-1}\right] \text { and }\left[M^{k},(I-K)^{-1}\right]
$$

where $D$ is differentiation with respect to the independent variable and $M$ is multiplication by the independent variable. For example, when $K=K_{\text {Airy }}$ with $\mathbb{J}=(s, \infty)$ we have

$$
\left[D,(I-K)^{-1}\right] \doteq-Q(x) Q(y)+R(x, s) \rho(s, y)
$$

- Palmer [44] and Harnad \& Its [28] have given an isomondromic deformation approach to these type of kernels.
- Adler, Shiota, \& van Moerbeke's [1] Virasoro algebra approach gives directly equations for the resolvent kernel $R(s, s)$. The connection between these two approaches has been clarified by Harnad [27].
- After one has the differential equations, e.g., Painlevé II, one is faced with the asymptotic analysis of the solutions. This generally involves finding connection formulae.
Integral Equation Approach: Using, e.g., inverse scattering methods, one associates to an integrable DE, e.g. Painlevé II, a linear integral equation. An asymptotics analysis of these linear equations then leads to nonlinear connection formulae. Some of the early work here is $[10,29,41]$. These methods are now generally recognized as less powerful than Riemann-Hilbert methods. However, they still, on occasion, produce some delicate new results [54].

Riemann-Hilbert Approach: The modern Riemann-Hilbert approach, which has its origins in the isomondromy deformation method of Flaschka \& Newell [23] and Jimbo, Miwa \& Ueno [33] in 1980s, began with the work of Deift \& Zhou [15] when they proposed a nonlinear version of the classical steepest descent method for oscillatory Riemann-Hilbert problems. The Deift-Zhou approach has the advantage of not using any prior information about the solutions of the Painlevé equations. For Painlevé II consult [15] and [31].

- A recent achievement [14] of the RH approach is a proof that as $s \rightarrow-\infty$,

$$
\log \operatorname{det}\left(I-K_{\text {Airy }}\right)=-\frac{s^{3}}{12}-\frac{1}{8} \log s+\kappa+\mathrm{O}\left(s^{-3 / 2}\right)
$$

where

$$
\kappa=\frac{1}{24} \log 2+\zeta^{\prime}(-1)
$$

and $\zeta(s)$ is the Riemann zeta function.
Remark: The first two terms follows from the
Hastings-McLeod [29] solution of Painlevé II as was shown in TW [51]. The constant $\kappa$ was conjectured [51] to be as above, but a proof only came recently in the work of DEIFT, Its \& Krasovsky [14] using RH methods.

- Choup [9] has given explicit Painlevé representations for corrections to edge scaling for both finite $n$ GUE and LUE.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{P}^{\mathrm{GUE}, \mathrm{LUE}}\left(\lambda_{\max }<t\right)= & F_{2}(s)\left\{1+c_{1}^{G, L} E_{1}(s) n^{-1 / 3}+\right. \\
& \left.c_{2}^{G, L} E_{2}(s) n^{-2 / 3}+\mathrm{O}\left(n^{-1}\right)\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $t$ and $s$ are related by explicit norming and centering constants.

## §3. RMM with Orthogonal Symmetry

The added difficulty with RMM with orthogonal symmetry is that the kernels are matrix kernels [20, 42, 53, 55, 59]. For example, for finite $N$ GOE the operator is

$$
K_{1}=\chi\left(\begin{array}{ll}
K_{2}+\psi \otimes \varepsilon \varphi & K_{2} D-\psi \otimes \varphi \\
\varepsilon K_{2}-\varepsilon+\varepsilon \psi \otimes \varepsilon \varphi & K_{2}+\varepsilon \varphi \otimes \psi
\end{array}\right) \chi
$$

where

$$
K_{2} \doteq \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \varphi_{n}(x) \varphi_{n}(y)
$$

$\varepsilon$ is the operator with kernel $\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{sgn}(x-y), D$ is the differentiation operator, and $\chi$ is the indicator function for the domain $\mathbb{J}$.
Notation: $A \otimes B \doteq A(x) B(y)$.

The idea of the proof in TW [53] is to factor out the GUE part

$$
\left(I-K_{2} \chi\right)
$$

and through various determinant manipulations show that the remaining part is a finite rank perturbation. Thus one ends up with formulas like

$$
\operatorname{det}\left(I-K_{1}\right)=\operatorname{det}\left(I-K_{2} \chi\right) \operatorname{det}\left(I-\sum_{j=1}^{k} \alpha_{j} \otimes \beta_{j}\right)
$$

For the case $\mathbb{J}=(s, \infty)$, an asymptotic analysis shows that as $N \rightarrow \infty$ the distribution of the scaled largest eigenvalue in GOE is expressible in terms of the same Painlevé II function appearing in GUE. (Similar remarks for the symplectic ensemble.)

- The edge scaling limit is more subtle for GOE than for GUE or GSE. For GUE and GSE we have convergence in trace norm to limiting operators $K_{2, \text { Airy }}$ and $K_{4, \text { Airy }}$, but for GOE the convergence is to a regularized determinant, i.e. det ${ }_{2}$. This extra subtleness is due to the presence of the $\varepsilon$. This lack of trace norm convergence is basically explains why the limit $N \rightarrow \infty$ was taken at the end in [53]. The pointwise limit of finite $N K_{1}$ was worked out by Ferrari [21] and by Forrester, Nagao \& Honner [24]. The convergence at the operator level is in TW [57].
- Recently Ferrari \& Spohn [22] gave a different determinantal expression for edge scaling in GOE. It would be interesting to explore further their approach.


## Universality Theorems

Though not a part of this survey proper, it's important to mention that these same distribution functions (and hence integrable DEs) arise for a much wider class of models than the Gaussian cases discussed here.

Invariant Measures: $\mathrm{e}^{-\operatorname{Tr}\left(A^{2}\right)} \longrightarrow \mathrm{e}^{-N \operatorname{Tr}(V(A))}$
Unitary:

- BLeher \& Its [8], $V(x)=\frac{1}{2} t x^{2}+\frac{1}{4} g x^{4}, g>0, t<0$.
- Deift, Kriecherbauer, McLaughlin, Venakides, Zhou [12, 13], $V$ real analytic and $V / \log |x| \rightarrow+\infty$ as $|x| \rightarrow \infty$.
Orthogonal \& Symplectic: Deift \& Gioev [11], poly. $V$
Noninvariant Measures:
- Soshnikov [48], Real symmetric and complex Hermitian Wigner matrices.


## Next Largest, Next-Next Largest,

 ... Eigenvalue Distributions$$
\mathbf{D}_{\beta}(\mathbf{s}, \lambda):=\operatorname{det}\left(\mathbf{I}-\lambda \mathbf{K}_{\beta, \text { Airy }}\right), \quad \beta=1,2,4,0 \leq \lambda \leq 1
$$

( $\operatorname{det}_{2}$ for $\beta=1$.) One needs

$$
\left.\frac{\partial^{j} D_{\beta}(s, \lambda)}{\partial \lambda^{j}}\right|_{\lambda=1}
$$

for next largest, next-next largest eigenvalue, etc. distributions.
For $\beta=2,4$ there is a simple answer: Let

$$
q(x) \longrightarrow q(x, \lambda)
$$

in $\lambda=1$ distributions where now $q$ satisifies same Painlevé II equation but with boundary condition

$$
q(x, \lambda) \sim \sqrt{\lambda} \operatorname{Ai}(x), \quad x \rightarrow \infty
$$

## Not So for Orthogonal Symmetry!

DiEng [18] proved (see also [19])

$$
D_{1}(s, \lambda)=D_{2}(s, \tilde{\lambda}) \frac{\lambda-1-\cosh \mu(s, \tilde{\lambda})+\sqrt{\tilde{\lambda}} \sinh \mu(s, \lambda)}{\lambda-2}
$$

with

$$
\mu(s, \lambda)=\int_{s}^{\infty} q(x, \lambda) d x \text { and } \tilde{\lambda}:=2 \lambda-\lambda^{2}
$$

Note evaluation at $\tilde{\lambda}$ in above. For $\lambda=1$ this reduces to TW [53].
From this follows distribution functions for next-largest, next-next largest, etc. for GOE universality class in terms of Painlevé II function $q$ and derivatives

$$
\left.\frac{\partial^{k} q(x, \lambda)}{\partial \lambda^{k}}\right|_{\lambda=1}
$$

Simulations


Figure 5: $10^{4}$ realizations of $10^{3} \times 10^{3}$ GOE matrices

## §4. Wishart Distributions

If

$$
A=X^{T} X
$$

where the $n \times p$ matrix $X$ is $N_{p}\left(0, I_{n} \otimes \Sigma\right), \Sigma>0$, then $A$ is said to have Wishart distribution with $n$ degrees of freedom and covariance $\Sigma$. The Wishart distribution is the multivariate generalization of the $\chi^{2}$-distribution. We will say $A$ is $W_{p}(n, \Sigma)$. The quantity $\frac{1}{n} A$ is also called the sample covariance matrix.

The classic references are Anderson [4] and Muirhead [43] (see also [19]).

## Eigenvalues of a Wishart Matrix

Theorem: If $A$ is $W_{p}(n, \Sigma), n \geq p$, the joint density function for the eigenvalues $\ell_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{p}$ of $A$ is

$$
\begin{aligned}
c_{p, n, \Sigma} & \prod_{j=1}^{p} \ell_{j}^{(n-p-1) / 2} \prod_{j<k}\left|\ell_{j}-\ell_{k}\right| \times \\
& \int_{\mathcal{O}(p)} \mathrm{e}^{-\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{tr}\left(\Sigma^{-1} Q L Q^{T}\right)} d Q
\end{aligned}
$$

where $L=\operatorname{diag}\left(\ell_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{p}\right)$ and $d Q$ is normalized Haar measure.
Corollary: If $A$ is $W_{p}\left(n, I_{p}\right)$, then the integral over the orthogonal group in the previous theorem is

$$
\mathrm{e}^{-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{j} \ell_{j}}
$$

- One is interested in limit laws as $n, p \rightarrow \infty$. For $\Sigma=I_{p}$, Johnstone [37] proved, using RMT methods, for centering and scaling constants

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mu_{n p}=(\sqrt{n-1}+\sqrt{p})^{2} \\
& \sigma_{n p}=(\sqrt{n-1}+\sqrt{p})\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n-1}}+\frac{1}{\sqrt{p}}\right)^{1 / 3}
\end{aligned}
$$

that

$$
\frac{\ell_{1}-\mu_{n p}}{\sigma_{n p}}
$$

converges in distribution as $n, p \rightarrow \infty, n / p \rightarrow \gamma<\infty$, to the GOE largest eigenvalue distribution TW [53].

- El Karoui [38] has extended the result to $\gamma \leq \infty$. The case $p \gg n$ appears, for example, in microarray data.
- Soshnikov [49] has removed the Gaussian assumption under the additional restriction $n-p=\mathrm{O}\left(p^{1 / 3}\right)$.
- For $\Sigma \neq I_{p}$, the difficulty in establishing limit theorms comes from the integral

$$
\int_{\mathcal{O}(p)} \mathrm{e}^{-\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{tr}\left(\Sigma^{-1} Q \Lambda Q^{T}\right)}(d Q)
$$

Using zonal polynomials, infinite series expansions have been derived for this integral, but these expansions are difficult to analyze and converge slowly. See Muirhead [43].

- For complex Gaussian data matrices $X$ similar density formulas are known for the eigenvalues of $X^{*} X$. Limit theorems for $\Sigma \neq I_{p}$ are known since the analogous group integral, now over the unitary group, is known explicitly-the Harish Chandra-Itzykson-Zuber integral. See the work of Baik, Ben Arous \& Péché [5, 6] and El Karoui [39]. The BBP phase transition.
- These RMT developments have had recent application to the analysis of genetic data; in particular, determining if the samples are from a homogeneous population [46]. The use of integrable DEs together with good software allows Patterson, Price and Reich [46] to write

The complexity of the TW definition is irrelevant to its application to real data. One computes a statistic, and then looks up a $p$-value in tables or through a computational interface. This is little different from how one uses (say) a conventional chi-squared test.

## §5. RMM \& Extended Kernels

Airy Process: The Airy process $\mathcal{A}(\tau)$, introduced by Prähoffer \& Spohn [47] and Johansson [36], is a continuous stochastic process whose distribution functions are given by

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(\mathcal{A}\left(\tau_{1}\right)<a_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{A}\left(\tau_{m}\right)<a_{m}\right)=\operatorname{det}(I-K)
$$

for $\tau_{1}<\cdots<\tau_{m}$. Here $K$ is the operator with $m \times m$ matrix kernel ( $K_{i j}$ ) where

$$
\begin{gathered}
K_{i j}(x, y)=L_{i j}(x, y) \chi_{\left(a_{j}, \infty\right)}(y) \\
L_{i j}(x, y)= \begin{cases}\int_{0}^{\infty} \mathrm{e}^{-z\left(\tau_{i}-\tau_{j}\right)} \operatorname{Ai}(x+z) \operatorname{Ai}(y+z) d z & i \geq j, \\
-\int_{-\infty}^{0} \mathrm{e}^{-z\left(\tau_{i}-\tau_{j}\right)} \operatorname{Ai}(x+z) \operatorname{Ai}(y+z) d x & i<j\end{cases}
\end{gathered}
$$

For $m=1$ this reduces to the Airy kernel (independent of $\tau$ ).

Extended kernels are more difficult than "integrable kernels" in unitary ensembles. Nevertheless, it is possible to find (complicated!) systems of integrable differential equations: See Adler \& van Moerbeke [2, 3] and TW [56, 58].

Much analysis remains to be done on these equations

## Thank you for your attention!

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