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# Spectral Theory of Orthogonal Polynomials

Periodic and Ergodic Spectral Problems

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Lecture 1: Introduction and Overview



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- Lecture 7: Chebyshev Polynomials, I
- Lecture 8: Chebyshev Polynomials, II



# References

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[OPUC2] B. Simon, *Orthogonal Polynomials on the Unit Circle, Part 2: Spectral Theory*, AMS Colloquium Series, **54.2**, American Mathematical Society, Providence, RI, 2005.

[SzThm] B. Simon, *Szegő's Theorem and Its Descendants: Spectral Theory for  $L^2$  Perturbations of Orthogonal Polynomials*, M. B. Porter Lectures, Princeton University Press, Princeton, NJ, 2011.

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# What is spectral theory?

Spectral theory is the general theory of the relation of the fundamental parameters of an object and its “spectral” characteristics.

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Spectral characteristics means eigenvalues or scattering data or, more generally, spectral measures.

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- Can you hear the shape of a drum ?

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Examples include

- Can you hear the shape of a drum ?
- Computer tomography
- Isospectral manifold for the harmonic oscillator

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# What is spectral theory?

The *direct problem* goes from the object to spectra.

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# What is spectral theory?

The *direct problem* goes from the object to spectra.

The *inverse problem* goes backwards.

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# What is spectral theory?

The *direct problem* goes from the object to spectra.

The *inverse problem* goes backwards.

The direct problem is typically easy while the inverse problem is typically hard.

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# What is spectral theory?

The *direct problem* goes from the object to spectra.

The *inverse problem* goes backwards.

The direct problem is typically easy while the inverse problem is typically hard.

For example, the domain of definition of the harmonic oscillator isospectral “manifold” is unknown. It is not even known if it is connected!

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# OPs

Orthogonal polynomials on the real line (OPRL) and on the unit circle (OPUC) are particularly useful because the inverse problems are easy—indeed the inverse problem is the OP definition as we'll see.

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# OPs

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OPs also enter in many application—both specific polynomials and the general theory. Indeed, my own interest came from studying discrete Schrödinger operators on  $\ell^2(\mathbb{Z})$

$$(Hu)_n = u_{n+1} + u_{n-1} + Vu_n$$

and the realization that when restricted to  $\mathbb{Z}_+$ , one had a special case of OPRL.

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# OPRL basics

$\mu$  will be a probability measure on  $\mathbb{R}$ . We'll always suppose that  $\mu$  has bounded support  $[a, b]$  which is not a finite set of points. (We then say that  $\mu$  is non-trivial.) This implies that  $1, x, x^2, \dots$  are independent since  $\int |P(x)|^2 d\mu = 0 \Rightarrow \mu$  is supported on the zeroes of  $P$ .

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Apply Gram Schmidt to  $1, x, \dots$  and get monic polynomials

$$P_j(x) = x^j + \alpha_{j,1}x^{j-1} + \dots$$

and orthonormal (ON) polynomials

$$p_j = P_j / \|P_j\|$$

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# OPRL basics

More generally we can do the same for any probability measure of bounded support on  $\mathbb{C}$ .

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# OPRL basics

More generally we can do the same for any probability measure of bounded support on  $\mathbb{C}$ .

One difference from the case of  $\mathbb{R}$ , the linear combination of  $\{x^j\}_{j=0}^{\infty}$  are dense in  $L^2(\mathbb{R}, d\mu)$  by Weierstrass. This may or may not be true if  $\text{supp}(d\mu) \not\subset \mathbb{R}$ .

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If  $d\mu = d\theta/2\pi$  on  $\partial\mathbb{D}$ , the span of  $\{z^j\}_{j=0}^{\infty}$  is not dense in  $L^2$  (but is only  $H^2$ ). Perhaps, surprisingly, we'll see later that there are measures  $d\mu$  on  $\partial\mathbb{D}$  for which they are dense (e.g.,  $\mu$  purely singular).

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More significantly, the argument we'll give for our recursion relation fails if  $\text{supp}(d\mu) \not\subset \mathbb{R}$ .

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# OPRL basics

Since  $P_k$  is monic and  $\{P_j\}_{j=0}^{k+1}$  span polynomials of degree at most  $k+1$ , we have

$$xP_k = P_{k+1} + \sum_{j=0}^k B_{k,j} P_j$$

Clearly

$$B_{k,j} = \langle P_j, xP_k \rangle / \|P_j\|^2$$

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Clearly

$$B_{k,j} = \langle P_j, xP_k \rangle / \|P_j\|^2$$

Now we use

$$\langle P_j, xP_k \rangle = \langle xP_j, P_k \rangle$$

(need  $d\mu$  on  $\mathbb{R}!!$ )

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Now we use

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(need  $d\mu$  on  $\mathbb{R}$ !!)

If  $j < k-1$ , this is zero.

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(need  $d\mu$  on  $\mathbb{R}$ !!)

If  $j < k-1$ , this is zero.

If  $j = k-1$ ,  $\langle P_{k-1}, xP_k \rangle = \langle xP_{k-1}, P_k \rangle = \|P_k\|^2$ .

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# OPRL basics

Thus ( $P_{-1} \equiv 0$ );  $\{a_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$ ,  $\{b_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$  : *Jacobi recursion*

$$xP_N = P_{N+1} + b_{N+1}P_N + a_N^2P_{N-1}$$

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$$xP_N = P_{N+1} + b_{N+1}P_N + a_N^2P_{N-1}$$

$$b_N \in \mathbb{R}, \quad a_N = \|P_N\|/\|P_{N-1}\|$$

These are called *Jacobi parameters*.

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Thus ( $P_{-1} \equiv 0$ );  $\{a_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}, \{b_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty} : \textit{Jacobi recursion}$

$$xP_N = P_{N+1} + b_{N+1}P_N + a_N^2P_{N-1}$$

$$b_N \in \mathbb{R}, \quad a_N = \|P_N\|/\|P_{N-1}\|$$

These are called *Jacobi parameters*. This implies  $\|P_N\| = a_N a_{N-1} \dots a_1$  (since  $\|P_0\| = 1$ ).

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These are called *Jacobi parameters*. This implies  $\|P_N\| = a_N a_{N-1} \dots a_1$  (since  $\|P_0\| = 1$ ).

This, in turn, implies  $p_n = P_n/a_1 \dots a_n$  obeys

$$xp_n = a_{n+1}p_{n+1} + b_{n+1}p_n + a_n p_{n-1}$$

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# OPRL basics

We have thus solved the inverse problem, i.e.,  $\mu$  is the spectral data and  $\{a_n, b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  are the descriptors of the object.

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In the orthonormal basis  $\{p_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ , multiplication by  $x$  has the matrix

$$J = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 & a_1 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ a_1 & b_2 & a_2 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & a_2 & b_3 & a_3 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$$

called a *Jacobi matrix*.

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# Favard's Theorem

Since

$$b_n = \int x p_{n-1}^2(x) d\mu, \quad a_n = \int x p_{n-1}(x) p_n(x) d\mu$$

$$\text{supp}(\mu) \subset [-R, R] \Rightarrow |b_n| \leq R, |a_n| \leq R.$$

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$\text{supp}(\mu) \subset [-R, R] \Rightarrow |b_n| \leq R, |a_n| \leq R.$

Conversely, if  $\sup_n (|a_n| + |b_n|) = \alpha < \infty$ ,  $J$  is a bounded matrix of norm at most  $3\alpha$ . In that case, the spectral theorem implies there is a measure  $d\mu$  so that

$$\langle (1, 0, \dots)^t, J^\ell (1, 0, \dots)^t \rangle = \int x^\ell d\mu(x)$$

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Conversely, if  $\sup_n (|a_n| + |b_n|) = \alpha < \infty$ ,  $J$  is a bounded matrix of norm at most  $3\alpha$ . In that case, the spectral theorem implies there is a measure  $d\mu$  so that

$$\langle (1, 0, \dots)^t, J^\ell (1, 0, \dots)^t \rangle = \int x^\ell d\mu(x)$$

If one uses Gram-Schmidt to orthonormalize  $\{J^\ell (1, 0, \dots)^t\}_{\ell=0}^\infty$ , one finds  $\mu$  has Jacobi matrix exactly given by  $J$ .

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# Favard's Theorem

We have thus proven Favard's Theorem (his paper was in 1935; really due to Stieltjes in 1894 or to Stone in 1932).

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We have thus proven Favard's Theorem (his paper was in 1935; really due to Stieltjes in 1894 or to Stone in 1932).

**Favard's Theorem.** *There is a one–one correspondence between bounded Jacobi parameters*

$$\{a_n, b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \in [(0, \infty) \times \mathbb{R}]^{\infty}$$

*and non-trivial probability measures,  $\mu$ , of bounded support via:*

$$\mu \Rightarrow \{a_n, b_n\} \quad (\text{OP recursion})$$

$$\{a_n, b_n\} \Rightarrow \mu \quad (\text{Spectral Theorem})$$

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*and non-trivial probability measures,  $\mu$ , of bounded support via:*

$$\mu \Rightarrow \{a_n, b_n\} \quad (\text{OP recursion})$$

$$\{a_n, b_n\} \Rightarrow \mu \quad (\text{Spectral Theorem})$$

There are also results for  $\mu$ 's with unbounded support so long as  $\int x^n d\mu < \infty$ . In this case,  $\{a_n, b_n\} \Rightarrow \mu$  may not be unique because  $J$  may not be essentially self-adjoint on vectors of finite support.

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# OPUC basics

Let  $d\mu$  be a non-trivial probability measure on  $\partial\mathbb{D}$ . As in the OPRL case, we use Gram-Schmidt to define monic OPs,  $\Phi_n(z)$  and ON OP's  $\varphi_n(z)$ .

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In the OPRL case, if  $z$  is multiplication by the underlying variable,  $z^* = z$ . This is replaced by  $z^*z = 1$ .

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In the OPRL case, if  $z$  is multiplication by the underlying variable,  $z^* = z$ . This is replaced by  $z^*z = 1$ .

In the OPRL case,  $P_{n+1} - xP_n \perp \{1, x_1, \dots, x_{n-2}\}$ .

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# OPUC basics

In the OPUC case,  $\Phi_{n+1} - z\Phi_n \perp \{z, \dots, z^n\}$ , since

$$\langle z\Phi, z^j \rangle = \langle \Phi, z^{j-1} \rangle$$

if  $j \geq 1$ .

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if  $j \geq 1$ .

In the OPRL case, we used  $\deg P = n$  and  $P \perp \{1, x, \dots, x^{n-2}\} \Rightarrow P = c_1 P_n + c_2 P_{n-1}$ .

In the OPUC case, we want to characterize  $\deg P = n$ ,  $P \perp \{z, z^2, \dots, z^n\}$ .

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# OPUC basics

Define  $*$  on degree  $n$  polynomials to themselves by

$$Q^*(z) = z^n \overline{Q\left(\frac{1}{\bar{z}}\right)}$$

(bad but standard notation!) or

$$Q(z) = \sum_{j=0}^n c_j z^j \Rightarrow Q^*(z) = \sum_{j=0}^n \bar{c}_{n-j} z^j$$

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Then,  $*$  is unitary and so for  $\deg Q = n$

$$Q \perp \{1, \dots, z^{n-1}\} \Leftrightarrow Q = c \Phi_n$$

is equivalent to

$$Q \perp \{z, \dots, z^n\} \Leftrightarrow Q = c \Phi_n^*$$

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# Szegő recursion and Verblunsky coefficients

Thus, we see, there are parameters  $\{\alpha_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  (called Verblunsky coefficients) so that

$$\Phi_{n+1}(z) = z\Phi_n - \bar{\alpha}_n\Phi_n^*(z)$$

This is the Szegő Recursion (History: Szegő and Geronimus in 1939; Verblunsky in 1935–36)

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Applying  $*$  for deg  $n + 1$  polynomials to this yields

$$\Phi_{n+1}^*(z) = \Phi_n^*(z) - \alpha_n z \Phi_n$$

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The strange looking  $-\bar{\alpha}_n$  rather than say  $+\alpha_n$  is to have the  $\alpha_n$  be the Schur parameter of the Schur function of  $\mu$  (Geronimus); also the Verblunsky parameterization then agrees with  $\alpha_n$ . These are discussed in [OPUC1].

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# Szegő recursion and Verblunsky coefficients

$\Phi_n$  monic  $\Rightarrow$  constant term in  $\Phi_n^*$  is 1  $\Rightarrow \Phi_n^*(0) = 1$ .

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# Szegő recursion and Verblunsky coefficients

$\Phi_n$  monic  $\Rightarrow$  constant term in  $\Phi_n^*$  is 1  $\Rightarrow \Phi_n^*(0) = 1$ .

This plus  $\Phi_{n+1} = z\Phi_n - \bar{\alpha}_n\Phi_n^*(z)$  implies

$$-\overline{\Phi_{n+1}(0)} = \alpha_n$$

i.e.,  $\Phi_n$  determines  $\alpha_{n-1}$ .

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# Szegő recursion and Verblunsky coefficients

For OPRL, we saw  $\|P_{n+1}\|/\|P_n\| = a_{n+1}$ . We are looking for the analog for OPUC.

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# Szegő recursion and Verblunsky coefficients

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$$\text{Szegő Recursion} \Rightarrow \Phi_{n+1} + \bar{\alpha}_n \Phi_n^* = z \Phi_n$$

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Szegő Recursion  $\Rightarrow \Phi_{n+1} + \bar{\alpha}_n \Phi_n^* = z\Phi_n$

$$\Phi_{n+1} \perp \Phi_n^* \Rightarrow \|\Phi_{n+1}\|^2 + |\alpha_n|^2 \|\Phi_n^*\|^2 = \|z\Phi_n\|^2$$

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$$\Phi_{n+1} \perp \Phi_n^* \Rightarrow \|\Phi_{n+1}\|^2 + |\alpha_n|^2 \|\Phi_n^*\|^2 = \|z\Phi_n\|^2$$

Multiplication by  $z$  unitary plus  $*$  antiunitary  $\Rightarrow$

$$\|\Phi_{n+1}\|^2 = \rho_n^2 \|\Phi_n\|^2; \quad \rho_n^2 = 1 - |\alpha_n|^2$$

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$$\|\Phi_{n+1}\|^2 = \rho_n^2 \|\Phi_n\|^2; \quad \rho_n^2 = 1 - |\alpha_n|^2$$

which implies  $|\alpha_n| < 1$  (i.e.,  $\alpha_n \in \mathbb{D}$ ) and

$$\|\Phi_n\| = \rho_{n-1} \cdots \rho_0$$

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$$\begin{pmatrix} \varphi_{n+1} \\ \varphi_{n+1}^* \end{pmatrix} = A_n(z) \begin{pmatrix} \varphi_n \\ \varphi_n^* \end{pmatrix} x; \quad A_n = \rho_n^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} z & -\bar{\alpha}_n \\ -\alpha_n z & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



# Szegő recursion and Verblunsky coefficients

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$\det A_n \neq 0$  if  $z \neq 0$ , so we can get  $\varphi_n$  ( $\Phi_n$ ) from  $\varphi_{n+1}$  ( $\Phi_{n+1}$ ) by

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$$z\Phi_n = \rho_n^{-2} [\Phi_{n+1} + \bar{\alpha}_n \Phi_{n+1}^*]$$

$$\Phi_n^* = \rho_n^{-2} [\Phi_{n+1} + \alpha_n \Phi_{n+1}]$$



# Szegő recursion and Verblunsky coefficients

We see that  $\Phi_{n+1}$  determines  $\alpha_n$ , so by induction and inverse recursion,

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# Szegő recursion and Verblunsky coefficients

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**Theorem** (Geronimus-Wendroff Theorem) *If two measures have the same  $\Phi_n$ , they have the same  $\{\Phi_j\}_{j=0}^{n-1}$  and  $\{\alpha_j\}_{j=0}^{n-1}$ .*

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**Theorem** *All zeros of  $\Phi_n$  lie in  $\mathbb{D}$ .*

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$$z p = \Phi_n + z_0 p \text{ and } p \perp \Phi_n \Rightarrow \|p\|^2 = \|\Phi_n\|^2 + |z_0|^2 \|p\|^2 \\ \Rightarrow |z_0| < 1$$

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 $z p = \Phi_n + z_0 p$  and  $p \perp \Phi_n \Rightarrow \|p\|^2 = \|\Phi_n\|^2 + |z_0|^2 \|p\|^2$   
 $\Rightarrow |z_0| < 1$

**Corollary.** *All zeros of  $\Phi_n^*(z)$  lie in  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \overline{\mathbb{D}}$ .*

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# Szegő recursion and Verblunsky coefficients

Here is a second proof that only uses Szegő recursion.

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# Szegő recursion and Verblunsky coefficients

Here is a second proof that only uses Szegő recursion. By induction, suppose that all zeros of  $\Phi_n$  are in  $\mathbb{D}$ . Then, for  $|\beta| < 1$

$$z\Phi_n + \beta\Phi_n^* \neq 0 \text{ on } \partial\mathbb{D}$$

since  $|z\Phi_n(z)| = |\Phi_n^*(z)|$  on  $\partial\mathbb{D}$ . ( $\frac{1}{\bar{z}} = z$ )

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If  $\Phi_{n+1}^{(\beta)} = z\Phi_n + \beta\Phi_n^*$ , then at  $\beta = 0$ , all zeros of  $\Phi_{n+1}^{(\beta)}$  are in  $\mathbb{D}$ .

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If  $\Phi_{n+1}^{(\beta)} = z\Phi_n + \beta\Phi_n^*$ , then at  $\beta = 0$ , all zeros of  $\Phi_{n+1}^{(\beta)}$  are in  $\mathbb{D}$ .

As  $\beta$  varies in  $\mathbb{D}$ , all zeros of  $\Phi_{n+1}^{(\beta)}$  are trapped in  $\mathbb{D}$ . QED.

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# Bernstein–Szegő Approximation

We are heading towards a proof that any  $\{\alpha_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \subset \mathbb{D}$  are the Verblunsky coefficients of a measure on  $\partial\mathbb{D}$  (analog of Favard's Theorem). It will depend on

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**Theorem** (Bernstein–Szegő measures) *Let  $\{\alpha_j^{(0)}\}_{j=0}^{n-1} \in \mathbb{D}^n$ . Let  $\varphi_n(z)$  be the normalized degree  $n$  polynomial obtained by Szegő recursion. Let*

$$d\mu_n(\theta) = \frac{d\theta}{2\pi|\varphi_n(e^{i\theta})|^2}$$

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$$d\mu_n(\theta) = \frac{d\theta}{2\pi|\varphi_n(e^{i\theta})|^2}$$

*Then  $d\mu_n$  has Verblunsky coefficients*

$$\alpha_j(d\mu_n) = \begin{cases} \alpha_j^{(0)} & j = 0, \dots, n-1 \\ 0 & j \geq n \end{cases}$$

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# Bernstein–Szegő Approximation

The first step of the proof is to show that

$$k, \ell, n \text{ with } k < n + \ell \Rightarrow \int_{z=e^{i\theta}} \bar{z}^k z^\ell \varphi_n(z) d\mu_n(\theta) = 0$$

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$$\text{For } z \in \partial\mathbb{D} \Rightarrow \overline{\varphi_n(z)} = \overline{\varphi_n\left(\frac{1}{\bar{z}}\right)} = z^{-n} \varphi_n^*(z).$$

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$$\text{For } z \in \partial\mathbb{D} \Rightarrow \overline{\varphi_n(z)} = \overline{\varphi_n\left(\frac{1}{\bar{z}}\right)} = z^{-n} \varphi_n^*(z).$$

Thus the integral above is

$$\oint \frac{\bar{z}^k z^\ell \varphi_n(z)}{z^{-n} \varphi_n(z) \varphi_n^*(z)} \frac{dz}{2\pi i z} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \oint z^{\ell+n-k-1} \frac{dz}{\varphi_n^*(z)}$$

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# Bernstein–Szegő Approximation

The first step of the proof is to show that

$$k, l, n \text{ with } k < n + l \Rightarrow \int_{z=e^{i\theta}} \bar{z}^k z^l \varphi_n(z) d\mu_n(\theta) = 0$$

$$\text{For } z \in \partial\mathbb{D} \Rightarrow \overline{\varphi_n(z)} = \overline{\varphi_n\left(\frac{1}{\bar{z}}\right)} = z^{-n} \varphi_n^*(z).$$

Thus the integral above is

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is zero since  $[\varphi_n^*(z)]^{-1}$  is analytic on a neighborhood of  $\bar{\mathbb{D}}$  and  $\ell + n - k - 1 \geq 0$ .

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# Bernstein–Szegő Approximation

Thus,  $z^l \varphi_n$  is a multiple of the OP's for  $d\mu_n$ .

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# Bernstein–Szegő Approximation

Thus,  $z^\ell \varphi_n$  is a multiple of the OP's for  $d\mu_n$ .

Since  $\int |z^\ell \varphi_n|^2 d\mu = 1$ , we see that

$$\varphi_{n+k}(z; d\mu) = z^k \varphi_n(z); k > 0.$$

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As we saw,  $\Phi_n$  determines  $\{\alpha_j\}_{j=0}^{n-1}$  and  $\Phi_j$  by inverse Szegő recursion and  $-\overline{\Phi_{j+1}(0)} = \alpha_j$ .

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Since  $\int |z^\ell \varphi_n|^2 d\mu = 1$ , we see that

$$\varphi_{n+k}(z; d\mu) = z^k \varphi_n(z); k > 0.$$

As we saw,  $\Phi_n$  determines  $\{\alpha_j\}_{j=0}^{n-1}$  and  $\Phi_j$  by inverse Szegő recursion and  $-\overline{\Phi_{j+1}(0)} = \alpha_j$ . This shows that

$$\varphi_j(z; d\mu) = \begin{cases} \varphi_j(x) & j = 0, \dots, n \\ z^{j-n} \varphi_n(z) & j = n, n+1, \dots \end{cases}$$

implying the claimed result.

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# Bernstein–Szegő Approximation

Given  $\{\alpha_j\}_{j=0}^{\infty} \subset \mathbb{D}^{\infty}$ , we can form  $d\mu_n$  as above. Via  $\int \Phi_j(e^{i\theta}) d\mu(e^{i\theta}) = 0$ ,  $\{\Phi_j\}_{j=0}^n$  determines  $\{\int z^j d\mu\}_{j=0}^n$  inductively (actually they determine more moments).

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# Bernstein–Szegő Approximation

Given  $\{\alpha_j\}_{j=0}^{\infty} \subset \mathbb{D}^{\infty}$ , we can form  $d\mu_n$  as above. Via  $\int \Phi_j(e^{i\theta}) d\mu(e^{i\theta}) = 0$ ,  $\{\Phi_j\}_{j=0}^n$  determines  $\{\int z^j d\mu\}_{j=0}^n$  inductively (actually they determine more moments). Thus

$$\int z^j d\mu_n = \int z^j d\mu_m \quad j \leq \min(n, m)$$

$$\text{and } \int \overline{z^j} d\mu_n = \overline{\left(\int z^j d\mu_n\right)}.$$

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Thus,  $d\mu_n$  has a weak limit  $d\mu_{\infty}$ . Clearly,  $\alpha_j(d\mu_{\infty}) = \alpha_j$ .

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We have thus proven

**Verblunsky's Theorem.**  $\mu \rightarrow \{\alpha_j(\mu)\}_{j=0}^{\infty}$  sets up a 1–1 correspondence between non-trivial probability measures on  $\partial\mathbb{D}$  and  $\mathbb{D}^{\infty}$ .

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While Verblunsky's Theorem is an analog of Favard's theorem, the proofs we've given are very different.

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In 2001, Cantero, Moral and Velázquez had the lovely idea of orthonormalizing  $\{1, z, z^{-1}, z^2, z^{-2}, \dots\}$  which always produces a complete set.

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In 2001, Cantero, Moral and Velázquez had the lovely idea of orthonormalizing  $\{1, z, z^{-1}, z^2, z^{-2}, \dots\}$  which always produces a complete set. Remarkably, they found that this ON basis can be expressed in terms of suitable  $z^\ell \varphi_k$  and  $z^\ell \varphi_k^*$ .

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# CMV Matrices

In terms of this basis, multiplication by  $z$  is given by a 5-diagonal matrix (in fact, each row has at most four non-zero elements)

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In terms of this basis, multiplication by  $z$  is given by a 5-diagonal matrix (in fact, each row has at most four non-zero elements) whose elements are quadratic in  $\{\alpha_j, \rho_j\}_{j=0}^{\infty}$ .

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One can use the CMV matrix for a different proof of Verblunsky’s theorem.

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One can use the CMV matrix for a different proof of Verblunsky’s theorem. Given  $\{\alpha_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$ , one can form the CMV matrix which is unitary and apply the spectral theorem to get a spectral measure which one shows has the right Verblunsky coefficients.

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# Carmona Simon Formula

Simon [CRM Proc. and Lecture Notes **42** (2007), 453–463] has proven an analog of the Bernstein–Szegő approximation for OPRL (the analog for Schrödinger operators is due to Carmona; hence the name):

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Let  $d\rho$  be a probability measure on  $\mathbb{R}$  with  $\int |x|^n d\rho < \infty$  for all  $n$ . Let  $\{p_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  be its orthonormal polynomials and  $\{a_n, b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  its Jacobi parameters. Let

$$d\nu_n(x) = dx / [\pi(a_n^2 p_n^2(x) + p_{n-1}^2(x))]$$

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If the moment problem for  $d\rho$  is determinate, then  $d\nu_n \rightarrow d\rho$  weakly.

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If the moment problem for  $d\rho$  is determinate, then  $d\nu_n \rightarrow d\rho$  weakly.

One strange aspect of this formula is that for  $\ell > 2n - 1$ , the moments of  $d\nu_n$  are infinite!

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One important consequence of this result is

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One important consequence of this result is

**Theorem.** If  $I \subset \mathbb{R}$  is an interval and for all  $x \in I$  and some  $c > 0$ , we have that

$$c \leq a_n^2 p_n^2(x) + p_{n-1}^2(x) \leq c^{-1}$$

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implies  $d\mu \upharpoonright I$  has a.c. part and no singular spectrum.

**Remark.** A much stronger result is known (see e.g., Simon [Proc AMS **124** (1996), 3361-3369]);  $I$  can be any set and  $c$  can be  $x$ -dependent.

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