# The Distribution of the Zeros of Certain Orthogonal Polynomials 

A. McD. Mercer<br>Department of Mathematics and Statistics, University of Guelih, Guelph, Ontario, Canada N1G 2 Wl<br>Communicated br V. Totik<br>Received May 2. 1988

If $x_{n} \in R, \beta_{n}>0, p_{-1}=0$, and $p_{0}=1$, let $\left\{p_{n}\right\}_{0}^{x}$ be a sequence of monic polynomials satisfying

$$
\begin{equation*}
p_{n+1}(x)=\left(x-\alpha_{n}\right) p_{n}(x)-\beta_{n} p_{n-1}(x) \quad(n=0,1,2, \ldots) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

According to a theorem of Favard [1], there will exist a distribution function w on $(-\infty,+x)$ such that

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} p_{m}(x) p_{n}(x) d w(x)=0 \quad(m \neq n)
$$

The zeros of $p_{n}(x)$ are known to be real and distinct and to lie in the smallest closed interval containing the support of dw. We will enumerate them as

$$
x_{1}^{n}<x_{2}^{n}<\cdots<x_{n}^{n} .
$$

Now suppose that $x_{n}$ and $\beta_{n}$ are constant $\left(\alpha_{n}=\alpha, \beta_{n}=\beta>0\right.$, say $)$ and that $f$ is a continuous function. The constant-coefficient difference equation (1) is easily solved and the $x_{v}^{n}$ found. It is then a simple matter to verify that

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f\left(x_{i}^{n}\right)=\int_{-x}^{+\infty} f(t) d \phi(t)
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi(t)=\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-x}^{t} \frac{\Phi(\alpha-2 \sqrt{\beta}, \alpha+2 \sqrt{\beta})}{\left[4 \beta-(u-\alpha)^{2}\right]^{1 / 2}} d u . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here $\Phi(a, b)$ denotes the characteristic function of the interval $(a, b)$. Note that the support of $d \phi$ is $[\alpha-2 \sqrt{\beta}, \alpha+2 \sqrt{\beta}]$ and that all of the $x_{i}^{n}$ lie in this interval,'so that the result could be stated equivalently using a function of the type

$$
\psi_{x}(t)=1(t \leqslant x):=0 \quad(t>x)
$$

in place of the continuous $f$.
If, instead of supposing that $\alpha_{n}=\alpha, \beta_{n}=\beta>0$ for all $n$, we relax this condition of constancy to $\alpha_{n} \rightarrow \alpha, \beta_{n} \rightarrow \beta>0$ it turns out that the result (2) continues to hold. This result is not elementary and several proofs have been given [2-5].

In the present note it is our purpose to show that the condition of constancy of the sequences $\left\{\alpha_{n}\right\}_{0}^{x}$ and $\left\{\beta_{n}\right\}_{0}^{x}$ can be relaxed in yet another fashion when, once again the result (2) is obtained. We will need the following definition:

Definition. A sequence $\left\{\alpha_{n}\right\}_{0}^{\infty}$ will be called nearly constant if a constant $\alpha$ exists such that

$$
\#\left\{\alpha_{k}: 0 \leqslant k \leqslant n: \alpha_{k} \neq \alpha\right\}=o(n) \quad \text { as } \quad n \rightarrow \infty .
$$

Our object, then, is to prove the following result:
THEOREM. If in (1) the sequences $\left\{\alpha_{n}\right\}_{0}^{\infty}$ and $\left\{\beta_{n}\right\}_{0}^{\infty}$ are nearly constant, these constants being $\alpha$ and $\beta>0$, respectively, then (2) holds provided $f \in C(-\infty,+\infty)$ and the limits $\lim _{x \rightarrow \pm \infty} f(x)$ exist.

Proof of the Theorem. We will denote by $p_{n}(x)$ the polynomials arising from the nearly constant sequences $\left\{\alpha_{n}\right\}_{0}^{\infty}$ and $\left\{\beta_{n}\right\}_{0}^{\infty}$ and by $q_{n}(x)$ the polynomials corresponding to $\alpha_{n}=\alpha, \beta_{n}=\beta$ for all $n$. Also, we will work with the function $\psi_{x}(t)$ rather than with a continuous $f(t)$. The general case will follow from this.

We introduce two infinite, tridiagonal, symmetric matrices $A$ and $B$ as follows:

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
\alpha_{0} & \gamma_{0} & & \\
\gamma_{0} & \alpha_{1} & \gamma_{1} & \\
& \gamma_{1} & \alpha_{2} & \gamma_{2} \\
& & & \ddots \\
& & &
\end{array}\right], \quad B=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
\alpha & \gamma & & \\
\gamma & \alpha & \gamma & \\
& \gamma & \alpha & \gamma \\
& & & \ddots \\
& & & \\
& & &
\end{array}\right]
$$

in which $\gamma_{k}=\sqrt{\beta_{k}}, \eta=\sqrt{\beta}$. The principal $n \times n$ section of $A$, for example. will be denoted by $A_{n}$. Then it is well known that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{det}\left(A_{n}-x I_{n}\right)=(-1)^{n} p_{n}(x) \\
& \operatorname{det}\left(B_{n}-x I_{n}\right)=(-1)^{n} q_{n}(x)
\end{aligned}
$$

so that the zeros of $p_{n}(x)$ and $q_{n}(x)$ are, respectively, the eigenvalues of $A_{n}$ and of $B_{n}$. We denote these by

$$
a_{1}^{n}<a_{2}^{n}<\cdots<a_{n}^{n}
$$

and

$$
\dot{b}_{1}^{n}<b_{2}^{n}<\cdots<b_{n}^{n} .
$$

We see at once that

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \psi_{x}\left(b_{i}^{n}\right)=\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \psi_{x}(t) d \phi(t) \quad\left(=L\left(\psi_{x}\right) \text {, say }\right) .
$$

This is the elementary case of (2) mentioned at the outset of this note. Our object is to prove that

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow x} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \psi_{x}\left(a_{i}^{n}\right)=L\left(\psi_{x}\right)
$$

also. The sequence $\left\{\alpha_{n}\right\}_{0}^{\infty}$ is nearly constant $(=\alpha)$ and so we proceed down the main diagonal of the matrix $A_{n}$ and delete any row and column which contains a diagonal element which is not equal to $\alpha$. This process is repeated with the other two diagonals of $A_{n}$, deleting any row and column which contains an element on that diagonal which is not equal to $\%$. The $(n-k) \times(n-k)$ matrix which finally results will be called $C_{n-k}$ and cleariy $k=o(n)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ in view of our definition of "nearly constant."

On examining the form of $C_{n-k}$ it is found to consist of blocks of square matrices whose diagonal elements form the diagonal elements of $C_{n-k}$ and each of these square matrices is a $B_{q}(1 \leqslant q \leqslant n-k)$. The eigenvalues of $C_{n-k}$ will be written as

$$
c_{1}^{n-k} \leqslant c_{2}^{n-k} \leqslant \cdots \leqslant c_{n-k}^{n-k} .
$$

Since $C_{n-k}$ was obtained by deleting $k$ rows and corresponding columns of $A_{n}$ it is classical $[6,7]$ that their eigenvalues are related as follows:

$$
c_{i}^{n-k} \in\left[a_{i}^{n}, a_{i+k}^{n}\right] \quad(i=1,2, \ldots, n-k)
$$

From this it follows that
(The number of eigenvalues of $A_{n} \leqslant x$ )

- (The number of eigenvalues of $\left.C_{n-k} \leqslant x\right)=J_{k}(x)$,
where

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \leqslant J_{k}(x) \leqslant k \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

This can be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \psi_{x}\left(a_{i}^{n}\right)-\sum_{i=1}^{n-k} \psi_{x}\left(c_{i}^{n-k}\right)=J_{k}(x) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

We now examine the eigenvalues $c_{i}^{n-k}$. In view of the form of $C_{n-k}$ (made up of diagonal components $B_{q}$ ) the numbers $c_{i}^{n-k}$ are the eigenvalues of $B_{q}$ for various $q$. Indeed, if $m_{n, q}$ is the number of times the block $B_{q}$ appears in $C_{n-k}$ then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{n-k} \psi_{x}\left(c_{i}^{n-k}\right)=\sum_{q=1}^{n-k} m_{n, q} \sum_{i=1}^{q} \psi_{x}\left(b_{i}^{a}\right) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

We also observe the results

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{q=1}^{n-k} q m_{n, q}=n-k \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
k \geqslant\left(\sum_{q=1}^{n-k} m_{n, q}\right)-1 \geqslant 0
$$

and from the latter it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{n-k} \sum_{q=1}^{n-k} m_{n, q} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text { as } \quad n \rightarrow \infty \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now from (5) and (6) we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \psi_{x}\left(a_{i}^{n}\right)-\frac{n-k}{n}\left\{\frac{1}{n-k} \sum_{q=1}^{n-k} q m_{n, q} L_{q}\left(\psi_{x}\right)\right\}=\frac{J_{k}(x)}{n} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
L_{q}\left(\psi_{x}\right)=\frac{1}{q} \sum_{i=1}^{q} \psi_{x}\left(b_{i}^{q}\right) .
$$

By (4), $J_{k}=o(n)$ so it will suffice to show that the expression in brackets in (9) tends to $L\left(\psi_{x}\right)$ (see (3)) as $n \rightarrow \infty$. That is, using (7), we have to show that

$$
\frac{1}{n-k} \sum_{q=1}^{n-k} q m_{n, q}\left[L_{q}\left(\psi_{x}\right)-L\left(\psi_{x}\right)\right] \rightarrow 0 .
$$

But this is a simple consequence of (7), (8), and the facts that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0 \leqslant L_{q}\left(\psi_{x}\right) \leqslant 1, \quad 0 \leqslant L\left(\psi_{x}\right) \leqslant 1 \\
& L_{q}\left(\psi_{x}\right) \rightarrow L\left(\psi_{x}\right) \quad \text { as } \quad q \rightarrow \infty .
\end{aligned}
$$

This completes the proof of the theorem.
Note. In the theorem above the hypothesis that the limits $\lim _{x \rightarrow \pm x} f(x)$ exist could be replaced by requiring the two sequences $\left\{y_{n}\right\}$ and $\left\{\beta_{n}\right\}$ to be bounded. For in that case, all of the $x_{i}^{n}$ will lie in some compact interval. The proof will be unchanged.

## Acknowledguent

In conclusion, 1 thank one of the editors for pointing out an omission in the statement of the above theorem.

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