



Subnormality of Bergman-like weighted shifts

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Abstract

For $a, b, c, d \geq 0$ with $ad - bc > 0$, we consider the unilateral weighted shift $S(a, b, c, d)$ with weights $\alpha_n := \sqrt{\frac{an+b}{cn+d}}$ ($n \geq 0$). Using Schur product techniques, we prove that $S(a, b, c, d)$ is always subnormal; more generally, we establish that for every $p \geq 1$, all p -subshifts of $S(a, b, c, d)$ are subnormal. As a consequence, we show that all Bergman-like weighted shifts are subnormal.

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1. Introduction

Let \mathcal{H} be a complex Hilbert space and let $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ denote the algebra of bounded linear operators on \mathcal{H} . We say that $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ is *normal* if $T^*T = TT^*$, *subnormal* if $T = N|_{\mathcal{H}}$, where N is normal and $N(\mathcal{H}) \subseteq \mathcal{H}$, and *hyponormal* if $T^*T \geq TT^*$. For $k \geq 1$, T is *k -hyponormal* if (I, T, \dots, T^k) is (jointly) hyponormal. Additionally, T is *weakly k -hyponormal* if $p(T)$ is hyponormal for every polynomial p of degree at most k . Thus

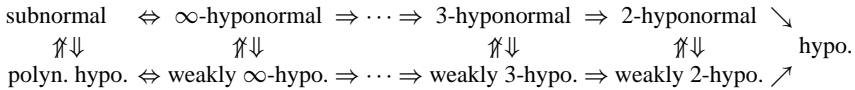
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k -hyponormal \Rightarrow weakly k -hyponormal, and “hyponormal,” “1-hyponormal” and “weakly 1-hyponormal” are identical notions [1]. On the other hand, results in [5,9,12] show that weakly 2-hyponormal operators (also called *quadratically hyponormal* operators) are not necessarily 2-hyponormal. The Bram–Halmos characterization of subnormality [3, III.1.9] can be paraphrased as follows: T is subnormal if and only if T is k -hyponormal for every $k \geq 1$ [9, Proposition 1.9]. In particular, each subnormal operator is *polynomially hyponormal* (i.e., weakly k -hyponormal for every $k \geq 1$). The converse implication, whether T polynomially hyponormal $\Rightarrow T$ subnormal, was settled in the negative in [10]; indeed, it was shown that there exists a polynomially hyponormal operator which is not 2-hyponormal. Previously, S. McCullough and V. Paulsen had established [12] that one can find a non-subnormal polynomially hyponormal operator if and only if one can find a unilateral weighted shift with the same property. Thus, although the existence proof in [10] is abstract, by combining the results in [10,12], we now know that there exists a polynomially hyponormal unilateral weighted shift which is not subnormal. The following diagram gives a simple representation of the above mentioned relations:



For $\alpha \equiv \{\alpha_n\}_{n=0}^\infty$ a bounded sequence of positive real numbers (called *weights*), let $W_\alpha : \ell^2(\mathbb{Z}_+) \rightarrow \ell^2(\mathbb{Z}_+)$ be the associated *unilateral weighted shift*, defined by $W_\alpha e_n := \alpha_n e_{n+1}$ (all $n \geq 0$), where $\{e_n\}_{n=0}^\infty$ is the canonical orthonormal basis in $\ell^2(\mathbb{Z}_+)$. The *moments* of α are given as

$$\gamma_k \equiv \gamma_k(\alpha) := \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } k = 0, \\ \alpha_0^2 \cdots \alpha_{k-1}^2, & \text{if } k > 0. \end{cases}$$

It is easy to see that W_α is never normal, and that it is hyponormal if and only if $\alpha_0 \leq \alpha_1 \leq \cdots$.

We now recall a well-known characterization of subnormality for single variable weighted shifts, due to C. Berger (cf. [3, III.8.16]): W_α is subnormal if and only if there exists a probability measure ξ supported in $[0, \|W_\alpha\|^2]$ (called the *Berger measure* of W_α) such that $\gamma_n(\alpha) := \alpha_0^2 \cdots \alpha_{n-1}^2 = \int t^n d\xi(t)$ ($n \geq 1$). If W_α is subnormal, and if for $h \geq 1$ we let $\mathcal{M}_h := \vee\{e_n : n \geq h\}$ denote the invariant subspace obtained by removing the first h vectors in the canonical orthonormal basis of $\ell^2(\mathbb{Z}_+)$, then the Berger measure of $W_\alpha|_{\mathcal{M}_h}$ is $\frac{1}{\gamma_h} t^h d\xi(t)$.

We will often write $\text{shift}(\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots)$ to denote the weighted shift with weight sequence $\{\alpha_n\}_{n=0}^\infty$. We also denote by $U_+ := \text{shift}(1, 1, 1, \dots)$ the (unweighted) unilateral shift, and for $0 < a < 1$ we let $S_a := \text{shift}(a, 1, 1, \dots)$.

2. Main results

For matrices $A, B \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$, we let $A \circ B$ denote their *Schur product*, i.e., $(A \circ B)_{ij} := A_{ij} B_{ij}$ ($1 \leq i, j \leq n$). The following result is well-known: if $A \geq 0$ and $B \geq 0$, then $A \circ B \geq 0$ [14].

We are now ready to introduce the class of Bergman-like weighted shifts.

Definition 2.1 [11]. For $\ell \geq 1$ and $n \geq 0$, let $\alpha_n^{(\ell)} := \sqrt{\ell - \frac{1}{n+2}}$ and let $B_+^{(\ell)} := \text{shift}(\alpha_0^{(\ell)}, \alpha_1^{(\ell)}, \alpha_2^{(\ell)}, \dots)$. In particular, $B_+^{(1)} \equiv B_+ := \text{shift}(\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}, \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}, \sqrt{\frac{3}{4}}, \dots)$. Each $B_+^{(\ell)}$ is called a Bergman-like weighted shift.

Remark 2.2.

- (i) B_+ is subnormal with Berger measure $d\xi(s) := ds$ on $[0, 1]$.
- (ii) [11] $B_+^{(2)}$ is subnormal with Berger measure $d\xi(s) := \frac{sds}{\pi\sqrt{2s-s^2}}$ on $[0, 1]$.

Lemma 2.3 [4,5]. Let $W_\alpha e_i = \alpha_i e_{i+1}$ ($i \geq 0$) be a hyponormal weighted shift, and let $k \geq 1$. The following statements are equivalent:

- (i) W_α is k -hyponormal.
- (ii) The matrix

$$(([W_\alpha^{*j}, W_\alpha^i] e_{n+j}, e_{n+i}))_{i,j=1}^k$$

is positive semi-definite for all $n \geq -1$.

- (iii) The matrix

$$(\gamma_n \gamma_{n+i+j} - \gamma_{n+i} \gamma_{n+j})_{i,j=1}^k$$

is positive semi-definite for all $n \geq 0$, where as usual $\gamma_0 = 1$, $\gamma_n = \alpha_0^2 \cdots \alpha_{n-1}^2$ ($n \geq 1$).

- (iv) The Hankel matrix

$$H(k; n) := (\gamma_{n+i+j-2})_{i,j=1}^{k+1}$$

is positive semi-definite for all $n \geq 0$.

Symbolic manipulation easily [16] implies the following result.

Theorem 2.4. All Bergman-like shifts $B_+^{(\ell)}$ (all $\ell \geq 1$) are 4-hyponormal.

Proof. By Lemma 2.3, to check k -hyponormality it suffices to prove that the determinant of the Hankel matrix $H(k; n)$ in Lemma 2.3(iv) is positive for all $n \geq 0$.

For $k = 2$, and all $n \geq 0$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \det H(2; n) &= \gamma_n^3 \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \alpha_n^2 & \alpha_n^2 \alpha_{n+1}^2 \\ \alpha_n^2 & \alpha_n^2 \alpha_{n+1}^2 & \alpha_n^2 \alpha_{n+1}^2 \alpha_{n+2}^2 \\ \alpha_n^2 \alpha_{n+1}^2 & \alpha_n^2 \alpha_{n+1}^2 \alpha_{n+2}^2 & \alpha_n^2 \alpha_{n+1}^2 \alpha_{n+2}^2 \alpha_{n+3}^2 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \gamma_n^3 \frac{2(\ell + 1)((n + 2)\ell - 1)^2((n + 3)\ell - 1)}{(n + 2)^3(n + 3)^3(n + 4)^2(n + 5)} > 0. \end{aligned}$$

When $k = 3$,

$$\det H(3; n) = \gamma_n^4 \frac{12(\ell + 1)^2(2\ell + 1)((n + 2)\ell - 1)^3((n + 3)\ell - 1)^2((n + 4)\ell - 1)}{(n + 2)^4(n + 3)^4(n + 4)^4(n + 5)^3(n + 6)^2(n + 7)} > 0.$$

Finally, if $k = 4$, we see that

$$\det H(4; n) = \gamma_n^5 \frac{288(\ell + 1)^3(2\ell + 1)^2(3\ell + 1)(n + 2)\ell - 1)^4((n + 3)\ell - 1)^3((n + 4)\ell - 1)^2((n + 5)\ell - 1)}{(n + 2)^5(n + 3)^5(n + 4)^5(n + 5)^5(n + 6)^4(n + 7)^3(n + 8)^2(n + 9)} > 0.$$

It follows that $H(4; n) \geq 0$ for all $n \geq 0$, as desired. \square

For $k \geq 1$, we observe that

$$\det H(k; n) = \gamma_n^{k+1} \alpha_n^{2k} \alpha_{n+1}^{2k-2} \cdots \alpha_{n+k-1}^2 \times \det \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{n+1}^2 - \alpha_n^2 & \alpha_{n+2}^2 - \alpha_{n+1}^2 & \cdots & \alpha_{n+k}^2 - \alpha_{n+k-1}^2 \\ \alpha_{n+1}^2(\alpha_{n+2}^2 - \alpha_n^2) & \alpha_{n+2}^2(\alpha_{n+3}^2 - \alpha_{n+1}^2) & \cdots & \alpha_{n+k}^2(\alpha_{n+k+1}^2 - \alpha_{n+k-1}^2) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ (\prod_{i=n+1}^{n+k-1} \alpha_i^2)(\alpha_{n+k}^2 - \alpha_n^2) & (\prod_{i=n+2}^{n+k} \alpha_i^2)(\alpha_{n+k+1}^2 - \alpha_{n+1}^2) & \cdots & (\prod_{i=n+k-2}^{n+k} \alpha_i^2)(\alpha_{n+2k-1}^2 - \alpha_{n+k-1}^2) \end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus, to check the positivity of $\det H(k; n)$ is generally quite complicated. Also, it appears that $\det H(k; n)$ is related to the determinant of the Hilbert matrix (after performing column operations and substituting α_n^2 by $\ell - \frac{1}{n+2}$). We conclude that a new idea is needed, to bypass the use of nested determinants [2], which we now present.

We introduce a new class of weighted shifts that includes the class of Bergman-like weighted shifts.

Definition 2.5. Let $a, b, c, d \geq 0$ satisfy $ad - bc > 0$. Let $S(a, b, c, d) := \text{shift}(\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots)$, where $\alpha_n := \sqrt{\frac{an+b}{cn+d}}$ ($n \geq 0$).

Remark 2.6. Note that for a Bergman-like weighted shift $B_+^{(\ell)}$, we have

$$\alpha_n = \sqrt{\ell - \frac{1}{n+2}} = \sqrt{\frac{\ell n + (2\ell - 1)}{n+2}} \quad (n \geq 0).$$

Therefore, $B_+^{(\ell)} = S(\ell, 2\ell - 1, 1, 2)$ and $ad - bc = 1$.

Theorem 2.7. Let $a, b, c, d \geq 0$ satisfy $ad - bc > 0$. Then $S(a, b, c, d)$ is subnormal.

Proof. Recall that for $n \geq 0$, $\alpha_n := \sqrt{\frac{an+b}{cn+d}}$. Then the moments of α are $\gamma_0 = 1$ and $\gamma_n = \alpha_0^2 \cdots \alpha_{n-1}^2$ ($n \geq 1$). By the Bram–Halmos characterization of subnormality [9, Proposition 1.9] and Lemma 2.3(i) \Leftrightarrow (iv), we only need to show that the Hankel matrix $(\gamma_{n+i+j-2})_{i,j=1}^{k+1}$ is positive semi-definite for all $n \geq 0$ and $k \geq 1$. For $n \geq 0$ and $k \geq 1$, let $\beta_k^n := \frac{\gamma_{n+k}}{\gamma_n}$ and $L(k; n) := (\beta_{i+j-2}^n)_{i,j=1}^{k+1}$. Since $H(k; n) = \gamma_n L(k; n)$, it suffices to show that $L(k; n)$ is positive semi-definite for all $n \geq 0$ and $k \geq 1$. We prove this by induction on $k \geq 1$. For $k = 1$, $L(1; n) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \alpha_n^2 \\ \alpha_n^2 & \alpha_{n+1}^2 \end{pmatrix}$. Since

$$\det L(1; n) = \frac{(an + b)(ad - bc)}{(c(n + 1) + d)(cn + d)^2} > 0,$$

it follows that $L(1; n)$ is positive semi-definite. For $k > 1$, let

$$Q(k; n) := \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -\alpha_n^2 & & & \\ & 1 & -\alpha_{n+1}^2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & 1 & -\alpha_{n+k-1}^2 \\ & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then $Q(k; n)^T L(k; n) Q(k; n) = 1 \oplus [L(k - 1; n) \circ B(k; n)]$, where $B(k; n) := (b_{ij})_{i,j=1}^k$, with

$$b_{ij} := \alpha_{n+i+j-2}^2 (\alpha_{n+i+j-1}^2 - \alpha_{n+j-1}^2) - \alpha_{n+i-1}^2 (\alpha_{n+i+j-2}^2 - \alpha_{n+j-1}^2).$$

Note that the (i, j) entry of $B(k; n)$ corresponds to the $(i + 1, j + 1)$ entry of $Q(k; n)^T \times L(k; n) Q(k; n)$. Since by induction hypothesis we know that $L(k - 1; n)$ is positive semi-definite, it remains to show that $B(k; n)$ is positive semi-definite for all $k, n \geq 1$. By direct computation, we have

$$b_{ij} = [(c(n + i - 1) + d)(c(n + j - 1) + d)(c(n + i + j - 2) + d) \times (c(n + i + j - 1) + d)]^{-1} [(ad - bc)((a - b)(c - d) + (bc + ad - 2ac)n + acn^2 + (acn + bc - ac)(i + j) + (ac - bc + ad)ij)].$$

Therefore, we can write

$$B(k; n) = (ad - bc)D \times \left((c_{ij}) \circ \left(\frac{1}{c(n + i + j - 2) + d} \right) \circ \left(\frac{1}{c(n + i + j - 1) + d} \right) \right) D, \tag{2.1}$$

where D is the diagonal matrix with diagonal entry $(\frac{1}{c(n+i-1)+d})$ and

$$c_{ij} := (a - b)(c - d) + (bc + ad - 2ac)n + acn^2 + (acn + bc - ac)(i + j) + (ac - bc + ad)ij.$$

Now observe that $(\frac{1}{c(n+i+j-2)+d})_{i,j=1}^{k+1} \geq 0$ (by [13, Example 18.A2]), since $c(n + i + j - 2) + d = x_i + x_j$, where $x_i := c(\frac{n}{2} + i - 1) + \frac{d}{2}$ is positive and increasing in i . Similarly, $(\frac{1}{c(n+i+j-1)+d})_{i,j=1}^{k+1} \geq 0$.

We will now show that $C := (c_{ij})_{i,j=1}^{k+1}$ is positive semi-definite with positive diagonal. Let

$$P := \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & & & \\ & 1 & -1 & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & 1 & -1 \\ & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then $P^T C P$ has $bd + bcn + adn + acn^2$ at the $(1, 1)$ position, $acn + ad$ at $(1, j)$ and $(i, 1)$ positions ($i, j > 1$), and $a(c + d) - bc$ elsewhere. Therefore, C is a positive semi-definite matrix of rank 2. For $i \geq 1$, the i th diagonal entry of C is

$$c_{ii} = (ac - bc + ad)i^2 + 2c(a(n - 1) + b)i + (a(n - 1) + b)(c(n - 1) + d) > 0.$$

By Schur’s theorem [13, Theorem 9.I.5], $C \circ M$ is positive semi-definite for every positive semi-definite matrix M . By using this in (2.1), we conclude that $B(k; n) \geq 0$, as desired. \square

Corollary 2.8. All Bergman-like shifts $B_+^{(\ell)}$ are subnormal.

Definition 2.9. Suppose $\alpha = (\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots)$ and p is a positive integer. A subsequence $\beta = (\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \dots)$ is called a p -subsequence of α if there exists $0 \leq r < p$ such that $\beta_n = \alpha_{pn+r}$. The operator shift $(\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \dots)$ is called a p -subshift of $\text{shift}(\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots)$.

Example 2.10.

- (i) The only 1-subsequence of α is α itself.
- (ii) The 2-subsequences of α are $\alpha_{\text{even}} := \{\alpha_{2n} : n \geq 0\}$ and $\alpha_{\text{odd}} := \{\alpha_{2n+1} : n \geq 0\}$.

The following examples show that a 2-subshift of a subnormal weighted shift may not be subnormal. To this end, we consider *recursively generated weighted shifts* [7,8]. We briefly recall some key facts about these shifts, specifically the case when there are two coefficients of recursion. In [15], J. Stampfli proved that given three positive numbers $\sqrt{a} < \sqrt{b} < \sqrt{c}$, it is always possible to find a subnormal weighted shift, denoted $W_{(\sqrt{a}, \sqrt{b}, \sqrt{c})^\wedge}$, whose first three weights are \sqrt{a} , \sqrt{b} and \sqrt{c} . In this case, the coefficients of recursion (cf. [7, Example 3.12], [8, Section 3], [6, Section 1, p. 81]) are given by

$$\varphi_0 = -\frac{ab(c - b)}{b - a} \quad \text{and} \quad \varphi_1 = \frac{b(c - a)}{b - a}, \tag{2.2}$$

the atoms t_0 and t_1 are the roots of the equation

$$t^2 - (\varphi_0 + \varphi_1 t) = 0, \tag{2.3}$$

and the densities ρ_0 and ρ_1 uniquely solve the 2×2 system of equations

$$\begin{cases} \rho_0 + \rho_1 = 1 \\ \rho_0 t_0 + \rho_1 t_1 = \alpha_0^2. \end{cases} \tag{2.4}$$

Thus, we get $\mu = \rho_0 \delta_{t_0} + \rho_1 \delta_{t_1}$ which is the Berger measure of $W_{(\sqrt{a}, \sqrt{b}, \sqrt{c})^\wedge}$.

Example 2.11. For $a = \frac{1}{4}$, $b = \frac{1}{3}$, $c = \frac{1}{2}$, the Berger measure of $W_{(\sqrt{a}, \sqrt{b}, \sqrt{c})^\wedge}$ is

$$\mu = \frac{2 + \sqrt{3}}{4} \delta_{\frac{1}{2}(1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}})} + \frac{2 - \sqrt{3}}{4} \delta_{\frac{1}{2}(1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}})}.$$

Thus, W_α is subnormal, but $W_{\alpha_{\text{even}}}$ is not subnormal.

Proof. We have

$$\det H(2; 0) = \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{8} \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{8} & \frac{3}{32} \\ \frac{1}{8} & \frac{3}{32} & \frac{33}{448} \end{pmatrix} = -\frac{1}{3584} < 0.$$

Therefore, $W_{\alpha_{\text{even}}}$ is not 2-hyponormal which implies $W_{\alpha_{\text{even}}}$ is not subnormal. \square

Example 2.12. Let

$$\alpha \equiv \alpha_n := \begin{cases} \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}, & \text{if } n = 0, \\ \sqrt{\frac{2^{n+\frac{1}{2}}}{2^{n+1}}}, & \text{if } n \geq 1. \end{cases}$$

Then W_α is subnormal, but $W_{\alpha_{\text{even}}}$ is not subnormal.

Proof. W_α is subnormal: Consider the 3-atomic measure $\xi := \frac{1}{3}\delta_0 + \frac{1}{3}\delta_{\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{1}{3}\delta_1$. For $n \geq 1$,

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_n &\equiv \alpha_0^2 \alpha_1^2 \alpha_2^2 \cdots \alpha_{n-2}^2 \alpha_{n-1}^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2 + \frac{1}{2}}{2 + 1} \cdot \frac{2^2 + \frac{1}{2}}{2^2 + 1} \cdots \frac{2^{n-2} + \frac{1}{2}}{2^{n-2} + 1} \cdot \frac{2^{n-1} + \frac{1}{2}}{2^{n-1} + 1} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{\frac{2^2+1}{2^2}}{\frac{2+1}{2}} \cdot \frac{\frac{2^3+1}{2^3}}{\frac{2^2+1}{2^2}} \cdots \frac{\frac{2^{n-1}+1}{2^{n-1}}}{\frac{2^{n-2}+1}{2^{n-2}}} \cdot \frac{\frac{2^n+1}{2^n}}{\frac{2^{n-1}+1}{2^{n-1}}} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{3} \cdot (1 + 2^{-n}) = \frac{1}{3}(2^{-n} + 1) = \frac{1}{3} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n + \frac{1}{3} = \int s^n d\xi(s), \end{aligned} \tag{2.5}$$

which shows that ξ is the Berger measure of W_α . Therefore, W_α is subnormal.

W_{β_n} is not subnormal: Let

$$\tilde{\gamma}_n \equiv \beta_0^2 \beta_1^2 \beta_2^2 \cdots \beta_{n-2}^2 \beta_{n-1}^2 \equiv \alpha_0^2 \alpha_2^2 \alpha_4^2 \cdots \alpha_{2n-4}^2 \alpha_{2n-2}^2, \tag{2.6}$$

and consider $\tilde{H}(k; n) := (\tilde{\gamma}_{n+i+j-2})_{i,j=1}^{k+1}$ ($n \geq 0$). For $k = 2$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \det \tilde{H}(2; n) &= \tilde{\gamma}_n^3 \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \alpha_{2n}^2 & \alpha_{2n}^2 \alpha_{2(n+1)}^2 \\ \alpha_{2n}^2 & \alpha_{2n}^2 \alpha_{2(n+1)}^2 & \alpha_{2n}^2 \alpha_{2(n+1)}^2 \alpha_{2(n+2)}^2 \\ \alpha_{2n}^2 \alpha_{2(n+1)}^2 & \alpha_{2n}^2 \alpha_{2(n+1)}^2 \alpha_{2(n+2)}^2 & \alpha_{2n}^2 \alpha_{2(n+1)}^2 \alpha_{2(n+2)}^2 \alpha_{2(n+3)}^2 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \tilde{\gamma}_n^3 \frac{-135 \cdot 2^{6n-1} (1 + 2^{2n+1})^2 (1 + 2^{2n+3})}{(1 + 4^{n+2})^2 (1 + 4^{n+3})(1 + 5 \cdot 4^n + 4^{2n+1})^3} < 0. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, W_β is not 2-hyponormal; hence, W_β is not subnormal. \square

Theorem 2.13. Suppose $a, b, c, d \geq 0$ satisfy $ad - bc > 0$. Then for $p \geq 1$, all p -subshifts of $S(a, b, c, d)$ are subnormal.

Proof. Suppose $\beta_n = \alpha_{pn+r}$ for some $0 \leq r < p$. Since

$$\frac{a(pn+r)+b}{c(pn+r)+d} = \frac{(ap)n+(ar+b)}{(cp)n+(cr+d)}$$

and

$$(ap)(cr+d) - (ar+b)(cp) = p(ad-bc) > 0,$$

it follows that $\text{shift}(\beta) = S(ap, ar+b, cp, cr+d)$ is also subnormal. \square

Theorem 2.14. *The 2-subsequences $\{\alpha_{2n}; n \geq 0\}$ and $\{\alpha_{2n+1}; n \geq 0\}$ of B_+ are subnormal with $d\mu(s) = \frac{ds}{\pi\sqrt{s-s^2}}$ and $d\nu(s) = \frac{ds}{2\sqrt{1-s}}$, respectively.*

Proof.

Case 1. Let $W_{\alpha_{2n}} := \text{shift}(\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}, \sqrt{\frac{3}{4}}, \sqrt{\frac{5}{6}}, \sqrt{\frac{7}{8}}, \dots)$ and consider the “ γ ” numbers of $W_{\alpha_{2n}}$, that is, $\gamma_n = \frac{(2n-1)!!}{n!}$ (all $n \geq 1$). Using Berger’s theorem, we want to find the Berger measure of $W_{\alpha_{2n}}$. Let $d\mu_{\alpha_{2n}}(s) := \frac{ds}{\pi\sqrt{s-s^2}}$, $s \neq 0, 1$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 d\mu(s) &= \int_0^1 \frac{ds}{\pi\sqrt{\frac{1}{4} - (s - \frac{1}{2})^2}} = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{dy}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{4} - y^2}} \quad \left(\text{by letting } y := s - \frac{1}{2}\right) \\ &= \frac{2}{\pi} [\sin^{-1} y]_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} = 1. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, μ is a probability measure. Let $s := \sin^2 x$ ($= \frac{1-\cos 2x}{2}$). Then

$$ds = 2 \sin x \cos x dx = \sqrt{1 - (1 - 2s)^2} dx.$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 s^n d\mu(s) &= \int_0^1 s^n \frac{ds}{\pi\sqrt{s-s^2}} = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^1 s^n \frac{ds}{\sqrt{1 - (1 - 2s)^2}} \\ &= \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \sin^{2n} x dx = \frac{(2n-1)!!}{2n!} = \gamma_n. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $W_{\alpha_{2n}}$ is subnormal with $d\mu(s) = \frac{ds}{\pi\sqrt{s-s^2}}$.

Case 2. Let $W_{\alpha_{2n+1}} := \text{shift}(\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}, \sqrt{\frac{4}{5}}, \sqrt{\frac{6}{7}}, \sqrt{\frac{8}{9}}, \dots)$ and consider the “ γ ” numbers of $W_{\alpha_{2n+1}}$, that is, $\gamma_n = \frac{2n!}{(2n+1)!!}$ (all $n \geq 1$). Let $d\nu(s) := \frac{ds}{2\sqrt{1-s}}$ ($s \neq 1$). Then $\int_0^1 d\nu(s) = 1$. Thus, ν is also probability measure. Let $s := \sin^2 x$, then $ds = 2 \sin x \cos x dx$ and $\cos x =$

$\sqrt{1-s}$. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 s^n d\nu(s) &= \int_0^1 s^n \frac{ds}{2\sqrt{1-s}} = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \sin^{2n} x \frac{2 \sin x \cos x dx}{2 \cos x} = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \sin^{2n+1} x dx \\ &= \frac{2n!}{(2n+1)!!} = \gamma_n. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $W_{\alpha_{2n+1}}$ is also subnormal with $d\nu(s) = \frac{ds}{2\sqrt{1-s}}$. \square

We conclude this section with a problem of independent interest.

Problem 2.15. Recall that $B_+^{(\ell)} = S(\ell, 2\ell - 1, 1, 2)$, so Theorem 2.13 guarantees that $B_+^{(\ell)}$ and all of its p -subshifts are subnormal. For $\ell \geq 2$ and $p \geq 1$, find the Berger measure of $B_+^{(\ell)}$ and the Berger measure of its p -subshifts.

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