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CONCRETE EXAMPLES OF $\mathcal{H}(b)$ SPACES

EMMANUEL FRICAIN, ANDREAS HARTMANN, AND WILLIAM T. ROSS

ABSTRACT. In this paper we give an explicit description of de Branges-Rovnyak spaces $\mathcal{H}(b)$ when b is of the form q^r , where q is a rational outer function in the closed unit ball of H^{∞} and r is a positive number.

1. Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to explicitly describe the elements of the de Branges-Rovnyak space $\mathcal{H}(b)$ for certain $b \in \mathbf{b}(H^{\infty})$. Here H^{∞} is the algebra of bounded analytic functions on the open unit disk \mathbb{D} normed by

$$||f||_{\infty} := \sup_{z \in \mathbb{D}} |f(z)|,$$

and

$$\mathbf{b}(H^{\infty}) := \{ g \in H^{\infty} : ||g||_{\infty} \leqslant 1 \}$$

is the closed unit ball in H^{∞} and, for $b \in \mathbf{b}(H^{\infty})$, the de Branges-Rovnyak space $\mathscr{H}(b)$ is the reproducing kernel Hilbert space of analytic functions on \mathbb{D} whose kernel is

$$k_{\lambda}^{b}(z) := \frac{1 - \overline{b(\lambda)}b(z)}{1 - \overline{\lambda}z}, \qquad \lambda, z \in \mathbb{D}.$$

The spaces $\mathcal{H}(b)$, and their vector-valued analogues, are the setting for the operator model theory of de Branges and Rovnyak [3, 4]. Besides possessing a fascinating internal structure, it also became clear that $\mathcal{H}(b)$ spaces have a key role to play in several questions in function theory and operator theory, most importantly, in the model theory for many types of contraction operators.

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Nevertheless, the elements of $\mathcal{H}(b)$ are rather opaque and besides the kernel functions k_{λ}^{b} , $\lambda \in \mathbb{D}$ (whose linear span is indeed dense in $\mathcal{H}(b)$), the exact contents of $\mathcal{H}(b)$ is mysterious.

In this paper, we give a precise description of the elements of $\mathcal{H}(b)$ for certain relatively simple b, namely roots of rational outer functions. Our description needs the following set up. If $b \in \mathbf{b}(H^{\infty})$ satisfies

$$\int_{\mathbb{T}} \log(1-|b|)dm > -\infty,$$

(such functions are called non-extreme elements of the unit ball in H^{∞}) where $\mathbb{T}:=\{\zeta\in\mathbb{C}:|\zeta|=1\}$ and m Lebesgue measure on \mathbb{T} normalized so that $m(\mathbb{T})=1$, then there exists a unique outer function $a\in\mathbf{b}(H^{\infty})$, called the $Pythagorean\ mate$ for b, such that a(0)>0 and $|a|^2+|b|^2=1$ almost everywhere on \mathbb{T} . The pair (a,b) is said to be a $Pythagorean\ pair$. By means of the Fejer-Riesz theorem (we give a proof of this in Section 5), one can prove that if b is a rational (or polynomial) function then so is a. In this case, also notice that for $\zeta\in\mathbb{T}$, we have $|b(\zeta)|=1$ if and only if $a(\zeta)=0$.

Our first observation is that in certain situations $\mathcal{H}(b^r)$ does not depend on r > 0.

Theorem 1.1. Suppose $b \in \mathbf{b}(H^{\infty})$ is outer and non extreme with Pythagorean mate a. If (a,b) is a corona pair, i.e.,

$$\inf\{|a(z)| + |b(z)| : z \in \mathbb{D}\} > 0,$$

then for any r > 0 we have $\mathcal{H}(b^r) = \mathcal{H}(b)$.

Note that since b is outer it has no zeros on \mathbb{D} and we can define b^r by taking any logarithm of b.

In the special situation when b is a rational outer function, or any positive power of a rational function, we get the following complete description of $\mathcal{H}(b)$. In order to state the result, we also need derivatives of kernels. When $b = q^r$, where q is outer and rational and r > 0, we set

$$v_{r,\lambda}^{\ell}(z) := \frac{d^{\ell}}{d\overline{\lambda}^{\ell}} k_{\lambda}^{q^{r}}(z) = \frac{d^{\ell}}{d\overline{\lambda}^{\ell}} \left(\frac{1 - \overline{q^{r}(\lambda)} q^{r}(z)}{1 - \overline{\lambda} z} \right),$$

for any $z \in \mathbb{D}$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{D}^-$, and $\ell = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

We let H^2 denote the classical Hardy space in \mathbb{D} [6].

Theorem 1.2. Suppose $q \in \mathbf{b}(H^{\infty})$ is a rational outer function and r is a positive real number. Then

- (1) $\mathcal{H}(q^r) = \mathcal{H}(q)$.
- (2) If a is the Pythagorean mate for q and a has distinct zeros ζ_1, \ldots, ζ_n on \mathbb{T} with corresponding multiplicities m_1, \ldots, m_n , then
 - (a) the functions $v_{r,j}^{\ell} := v_{r,\zeta_j}^{\ell}$ are well-defined and belong to $\mathcal{H}(q^r)$ for $1 \leqslant j \leqslant n$ and $0 \leqslant \ell \leqslant m_j 1$. Moreover, they are orthogonal to

$$aH^2 = \left(\prod_{j=1}^n (z - \zeta_j)^{m_j}\right) H^2.$$

(b) $\mathcal{H}(q^r)$ is equal to

$$\left(\prod_{j=1}^{n} (z-\zeta_j)^{m_j}\right) H^2 \oplus \bigvee \left\{v_{r,j}^{\ell} : 0 \leqslant \ell \leqslant m_j - 1, 1 \leqslant j \leqslant n\right\},\,$$

where the orthogonal decomposition is in terms of the inner product in $\mathcal{H}(q^r)$.

Writing $v_j^{\ell} = v_{1,j}^{\ell}$, the theorem above implies that $\mathscr{H}(q^r)$ is equal to

$$\left(\prod_{j=1}^{n} (z-\zeta_j)^{m_j}\right) H^2 \dotplus \bigvee \left\{v_j^{\ell}(z) : 0 \leqslant \ell \leqslant m_j - 1, 1 \leqslant j \leqslant n\right\},\,$$

where the sum is no longer necessarily orthogonal.

It was shown in [2], and rediscovered in [1], that

(1.3)
$$\mathscr{H}(q) = \left(\prod_{j=1}^{n} (z - \zeta_j)^{m_j}\right) H^2 \dotplus \mathscr{P}_{n-1},$$

where \mathscr{P}_{n-1} is the *n*-dimensional space of polynomials of degree at most n-1 and the sum is an algebraic direct sum (not necessarily an orthogonal one). The novelty here is that we can precisely identify the orthogonal complement of $aH^2 = \left(\prod_{j=1}^n (z-\zeta_j)^{m_j}\right)H^2$ in $\mathscr{H}(q)$ without using (1.3).

A key ingredient in showing statement (1) of Theorem 1.2, and an added bonus to our result, is that if a_r is the Pythagorean mate for q^r then the co-analytic Toeplitz operators $T_{\overline{a}}$ and $T_{\overline{a_r}}$ on the Hardy space H^2 have the same range and this range can be precisely identified as $\mathcal{H}(q)$.

2. Preliminaries

There are several equivalent definitions of the de Branges-Rovnyak space $\mathcal{H}(b)$ for $b \in \mathbf{b}(H^{\infty})$. We can for instance define it in the standard way (see [7]) as the reproducing kernel Hilbert space associated with the (positive definite) reproducing kernel

$$k_{\lambda}^{b}(z) := \frac{1 - \overline{b(\lambda)}b(z)}{1 - \overline{\lambda}z}, \qquad \lambda, z \in \mathbb{D}.$$

By definition,

$$f(\lambda) = \langle f, k_{\lambda}^b \rangle_b, \qquad f \in \mathcal{H}(b), \lambda \in \mathbb{D},$$

where $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_b$ stands for the scalar product in $\mathcal{H}(b)$.

The space $\mathscr{H}(b)$ can also be defined as the range space $(I - T_b T_{\overline{b}})^{1/2} H^2$ equipped with the norm making $(I - T_b T_{\overline{b}})^{1/2}$ a partial isometry. Here T_{φ} is the Toeplitz operator on H^2 with symbol $\varphi \in L^{\infty}(\mathbb{T})$ defined by

$$T_{\varphi}f = P_{+}(\varphi f), \qquad f \in H^2,$$

where P_+ is the orthogonal projection of $L^2(\mathbb{T})$ onto H^2 . The book [8] is the classic reference for $\mathcal{H}(b)$ spaces.

When $||b||_{\infty} < 1$, $\mathcal{H}(b)$ turns out to be a reformed version of H^2 while, on the other extreme, if b is an inner function, then $\mathcal{H}(b)$ turns out to be one of the classical and well-studied model spaces $H^2 \ominus bH^2$.

When b is non-extreme, two important (not necessarily closed) vector spaces of functions in $\mathcal{H}(b)$ are

$$\mathcal{M}(a) := T_a H^2$$
 and $\mathcal{M}(\overline{a}) := T_{\overline{a}} H^2$.

It is known (see [8, page 24]) that

$$\mathcal{M}(a) \subset \mathcal{M}(\overline{a}) \subset \mathcal{H}(b).$$

3. Corona pairs

This following lemma is well-known but we record it here along with a proof for the sake of completeness and for the discussion of the examples in Section 5.

Lemma 3.1. Suppose $q \in \mathbf{b}(H^{\infty})$ is rational and not inner. Then q is non-extreme and if a is the Pythagorean mate for q then a is also rational.

Proof. Since q is rational then $q = p_1/p_2$ where p_1 and p_2 are analytic polynomials and p_2 has no zeros on \mathbb{D}^- . We can of course choose p_2 such that $p_2(0) > 0$. Since $q \in \mathbf{b}(H^{\infty})$ we see that $1 - |q(e^{i\theta})|^2 \ge 0$ for all θ and so $|p_2(e^{i\theta})|^2 - |p_1(e^{i\theta})|^2$ is a non-negative trigonometric polynomial, which, by the Fejer-Riesz theorem, must be equal to $|p(e^{i\theta})|^2$, where p is an analytic polynomial which is zero free in \mathbb{D} and p(0) > 0. Note that $|p_2(e^{i\theta})|^2 - |p_1(e^{i\theta})|^2$ is non zero because q is assumed to be not inner.

Let

$$a = \frac{p}{p_2}.$$

Note that a is rational and zero free in \mathbb{D} , hence outer. Moreover a(0) > 0.

Furthermore, on \mathbb{T} we have

$$|a|^2 = \left|\frac{p}{p_2}\right|^2 = \frac{|p_2|^2 - |p_1|^2}{|p_2|^2} = 1 - \left|\frac{p_1}{p_2}\right|^2 = 1 - |q|^2.$$

This means that (a, q) is a Pythagorean pair which, in particular, implies that q is non-extreme.

Two functions $u, v \in H^{\infty}$ which satisfy

$$\inf_{z \in \mathbb{D}} (|u(z)| + |v(z)|) > 0$$

are said to be a corona pair. Carleson's corona theorem [6] says that if u, v form a corona pair then there are function $\phi, \psi \in H^{\infty}$ such that

$$\phi u + \psi v = 1.$$

Lemma 3.2. Suppose $b \in \mathbf{b}(H^{\infty})$ is outer and r is a positive real number. Then b and b^r are simultaneously non-extreme. Moreover, if a_r is the Pythagorean mate for b^r , the pairs (a,b) and (a_r,b^r) are simultaneously corona.

Proof. Since

(3.3)
$$\frac{1 - x^r}{1 - x} \approx 1, \quad x \in [0, 1],$$

we see that $1-|b|^r \approx 1-|b|$ when $b \in \mathbf{b}(H^{\infty})$. This proves the first part of the Lemma.

Now observe that

$$\frac{|a|^2}{|a_r|^2} = \frac{1 - |b|^2}{1 - |b^2|^r} \approx 1,$$

and since a and a_r are outer, by Smirnov's theorem (which says that if the boundary function of $f \in H^2$ is bounded, then $f \in H^{\infty}$), a/a_r is invertible in H^{∞} . Thus both expressions

$$\inf_{z\in\mathbb{D}}(|a(z)|+|b(z)|)\quad\text{and}\quad\inf_{z\in\mathbb{D}}(|a_r(z)|+|b^r(z)|)$$

are strictly positive simultaneously. Indeed, if there is a sequence $\{z_n\}_{n\geqslant 1}$ in $\mathbb D$ such that one expression goes to 0 then, since both $a(z_n)$ and $b(z_n)$ go to zero, the other expression will go to zero as well. \square

A special situation where b forms a corona pair with its Pythagorean mate is when b is rational, as explained in the following lemma.

Lemma 3.4. Suppose $q \in \mathbf{b}(H^{\infty})$ is rational and not inner. If a is the Pythagorean mate for q, then (a, q) is a corona pair.

Proof. According to the proof of Lemma 3.1, we know that a is rational, $a = p/p_2$, where p and p_2 are polynomials, p_2 has no zeros in \mathbb{D}^- and p is zero free in \mathbb{D} . In particular, a is continuous on \mathbb{D}^- and it has a finite number of zeros on \mathbb{T} , say $\{\zeta_1, \ldots, \zeta_M\}$. Note that, due to the identity $|a|^2 + |q|^2 = 1$ on \mathbb{T} , the zeros of a (on \mathbb{T}) must lie where q is unimodular on \mathbb{T} .

Let D_j be open disjoint disks with center at the zeros ζ_j of a and let

$$F = \mathbb{D}^- \setminus \bigcup_{j=1}^M D_j.$$

By making the disks smaller, one can, by using the continuity of |q| on \mathbb{D}^- , arrange things so that $|q| \geqslant \frac{1}{2}$ on each $D_j \cap \mathbb{D}^-$.

Notice that F is closed and omits all of the zeros of a in \mathbb{D}^- and so

$$\inf_{z \in F} |a(z)| = \delta > 0.$$

Thus

$$\inf_{z \in \mathbb{D}} (|a(z)| + |q(z)|) \geqslant \min(\frac{1}{2}, \delta) > 0$$

concluding the proof.

The first statement of our main theorem (Theorem 1.2) $\mathcal{H}(q) = \mathcal{H}(q^r)$ depends of the following two results. The first is from Sarason's book [8, p. 62].

Proposition 3.5. For $b \in \mathbf{b}(H^{\infty})$ and non-extreme, the following are equivalent:

- (1) (a,b) is a corona pair;
- (2) $\mathcal{H}(b) = \mathcal{M}(\overline{a})$.

The second is the following.

Proposition 3.6. If $a, a_1 \in H^{\infty}$ are two outer functions such that a/a_1 and a_1/a belong to L^{∞} , then $\mathcal{M}(\overline{a}) = \mathcal{M}(\overline{a_1})$.

Proof. Again, by Smirnov's theorem, we know that a/a_1 and a_1/a belong to H^{∞} , so that T_{a/a_1} and hence $T_{\overline{a/a_1}}$ are invertible. Then we get

$$\mathcal{M}(\overline{a}) = T_{\overline{a}}H^2 = T_{\overline{a_1}}T_{\overline{a/a_1}}H^2 = T_{\overline{a_1}}H^2 = \mathcal{M}(\overline{a_1}). \quad \Box$$

We are now in a position to prove Theorem 1.1.

Proof of Theorem 1.1. By Lemma 3.2 we know that since (a, b) is a corona pair, then so is (a_r, b^r) . Thus from Proposition 3.5 we see that $\mathcal{H}(b) = \mathcal{M}(\overline{a})$ and $\mathcal{H}(b^r) = \mathcal{M}(\overline{a_r})$. As in the proof of Lemma 3.2 a/a_r and a_r/a are in H^{∞} so that by Proposition 3.6, we get $\mathcal{M}(\overline{a}) = \mathcal{M}(\overline{a_r})$ which concludes the proof.

4. Proof of the main theorem 1.2

Statement (1) of the theorem follows from Lemma 3.4 and Theorem 1.1.

Let us consider statement (2).

In [5] it was shown that if $\zeta \in \mathbb{T}$ and

(4.1)
$$\int_{\mathbb{T}} \frac{|\log|b(w)||}{|w-\zeta|^{2n+2}} dm(w) < \infty,$$

then every function in $\mathcal{H}(b)$, as well as their derivatives up to order n, has a finite non-tangential limit at ζ .

Recalling the notation $v_{r,\lambda}^{\ell}$ for the ℓ -th derivative in the variable $\overline{\lambda}$ of the reproducing kernel in $\mathscr{H}(q^r)$, under (4.1), we have $v_{r,\zeta}^{\ell} \in \mathscr{H}(q^r)$, $0 \leq \ell \leq n$, and

$$f^{(\ell)}(\zeta) = \langle f, v_{r,\zeta}^{\ell} \rangle_{q^r}, \quad f \in \mathcal{H}(q^r), \ 0 \leqslant \ell \leqslant n.$$

Remark 4.2. In the above, we are using $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_b$ to denote the inner product in the space $\mathcal{H}(b)$. Note that $\mathcal{H}(0) = H^2$ with the integral inner product

 $\langle f, g \rangle_0 = \int_{\mathbb{T}} f(\zeta) \overline{g(\zeta)} dm(\zeta).$

When the contact is clear, we will drop the subscript b from the inner product.

Let us check condition (4.1) for our situation. Since q is rational then its Pythagorean mate a is also rational and can be written as

(4.3)
$$a(z) = s(z) \prod_{j=1}^{n} (z - \zeta_j)^{m_j},$$

where s is a rational function whose poles and zeros lie on the complement of \mathbb{D}^- . Pick $w=e^{it}$ near one of the zeros $\zeta_j=e^{i\theta_j}$ of a, then

$$|\log |q^r(e^{it})|| \approx |\log |q(e^{it})|^2| = |\log(1 - |a(e^{it})|^2)|$$

 $\approx |a(e^{it})|^2 \approx |e^{it} - e^{i\theta_j}|^{2m_j}$

This means that for t near θ_j we have

$$\frac{|\log|q^r(e^{it})||}{|e^{it} - e^{i\theta_j}|^{2(m_j - 1) + 2}} \approx 1$$

and so, by (4.1),

$$v_{r,\zeta_j}^{\ell} \in \mathcal{H}(q^r), \qquad 0 \leqslant \ell \leqslant m_j - 1.$$

So far we know that

(4.4)

$$\mathcal{H}(q^r) = \mathcal{M}(\overline{a_r}) = \mathcal{M}(\overline{a}) \supset \mathcal{M}(a) + \bigvee \{v_{r,\zeta_j}^{\ell} : 1 \leqslant j \leqslant n, 0 \leqslant \ell \leqslant m_j - 1\}.$$

First we show that

$$v_{r,\ell_i}^{\ell} \perp \mathcal{M}(a), \qquad 1 \leqslant j \leqslant n, \ 0 \leqslant \ell \leqslant m_j - 1.$$

Indeed, for each $f \in \mathcal{H}(q^r)$ the radial limits $f^{(\ell)}(t\zeta_j)$ exist as $t \to 1^-$. Since

$$f^{(\ell)}(t\zeta_j) = \langle f, v_{r,t\zeta_j}^{\ell} \rangle_{q^r},$$

we can apply the principle of uniform boundedness to see that $\|v_{r,t\zeta_j}^\ell\|_{q^r}$ is uniformly bounded as $t \to 1^-$. Since $v_{r,t\zeta_j}^\ell$ converges pointwise to v_{r,ζ_j}^ℓ as $t \to 1^-$ we see that $v_{r,t\zeta_j}^\ell$ converges weakly to v_{r,ζ_j}^ℓ . Thus, since $v_{r,t\zeta_j}^\ell$

reproduces the ℓ -th derivative of $\mathcal{H}(q^r)$ -functions at point $t\zeta_j$, for any $g \in H^2$, we have

$$\langle ag, v_{r,\zeta_j}^{\ell} \rangle_{q^r} = \lim_{t \to 1^-} \langle ag, v_{r,t\zeta_j}^{\ell} \rangle_{q^r} = \lim_{t \to 1} (ag)^{(\ell)} (t\zeta_j)$$
$$= \lim_{t \to 1} \sum_{p=0}^{\ell} {\ell \choose p} a^{(p)} (t\zeta_j) g^{(\ell-p)} (t\zeta_j).$$

Using the estimate

$$|a^{(p)}(t\zeta_j)| \lesssim (1-t)^{m_j-p}$$

along with the following standard H^2 estimate on the growth of the derivative of an H^2 function

$$|g^{(\ell-p)}(t\zeta_j)| \lesssim \frac{1}{(1-t)^{(\ell-p)+1/2}},$$

we see that

$$|a^{(p)}(t\zeta_j)g^{(\ell-p)}(t\zeta_j)| \lesssim (1-t)^{m_j-p-((\ell-p)+1/2)}.$$

But since $0 \le \ell \le m_i - 1$ we see that

$$m_j - p - ((\ell - p) + 1/2) = m_j - \ell - \frac{1}{2} \geqslant \frac{1}{2}$$

and so

$$\lim_{t \to 1^{-}} |a^{(p)}(t\zeta_j)g^{(\ell-p)}(t\zeta_j)| = 0.$$

Thus $\langle ag, v_{r,\zeta_i}^{\ell} \rangle_{q^r} = 0$ and $v_{r,\zeta_i}^{\ell} \perp \mathcal{M}(a)$ in $\mathcal{H}(q^r)$, for all $0 \leqslant \ell \leqslant m_j - 1$.

This upgrades (4.4) to

(4.5)
$$\mathcal{H}(q^r) = \mathcal{M}(\overline{a}) \supset \mathcal{M}(a) \oplus \bigvee \{v_{r,\zeta_j}^{\ell} : 1 \leqslant j \leqslant n, 0 \leqslant \ell \leqslant m_j - 1\},$$

and orthogonality is with respect to $\mathcal{H}(q^r)$.

To show equality in (4.5), our second step is to show that if $f \in \mathcal{M}(\overline{a})$ and $f \perp v_{r,\zeta_j}^{\ell}$ for all $1 \leqslant j \leqslant n, 0 \leqslant \ell \leqslant m_j - 1$ then $f \in \mathcal{M}(a)$. Since $\mathcal{M}(\overline{a}) = T_{\overline{a}}H^2$ this is equivalent to proving that if $g \in H^2$ and

$$0 = (T_{\overline{a}}g)^{(\ell)}(\zeta_j) = \lim_{t \to 1^-} (T_{\overline{a}}g)^{(\ell)}(t\zeta_j)$$

for all $1 \leq j \leq n, 0 \leq \ell \leq m_j - 1$ then $T_{\overline{a}}g \in \mathcal{M}(a)$. To simplify matters a bit, let us recall the formula for a from (4.3). Since s is a rational function with zeros and poles outside \mathbb{D}^- then certainly the Toeplitz operators $T_{1/s}$ and $T_{\overline{1/s}}$ are invertible, so that $\mathcal{M}(\overline{a}) = \mathcal{M}(\overline{a/s})$. We can thus assume that

$$a(z) = \prod_{j=1}^{n} (z - \zeta_j)^{m_j}.$$

A preliminary step towards proving what we want is to show it for a special case. Indeed we will show that if $a(z) = (z-1)^m$ and $g \in H^2$ then

$$(4.6) (T_{\overline{a}}g)^{(\ell)}(1) = 0, \ 0 \leqslant \ell \leqslant m - 1 \implies T_{\overline{a}}g \in aH^2.$$

Notice that

$$\overline{a(\zeta)} = (-1)^m \overline{\zeta}^m a(\zeta), \qquad \zeta \in \mathbb{T},$$

and thus

$$T_{\overline{a}}g = (-1)^m P_+(a\overline{\zeta}^m g).$$

We claim that

(4.7)
$$\widehat{g}(0) = \widehat{g}(1) = \dots = \widehat{g}(m-1) = 0.$$

This will show that $\overline{\zeta}^m g \in H^2$ and so

$$T_{\overline{a}}g = (-1)^m P_+(a\overline{\zeta}^m g) \in aH^2.$$

We prove the claim (4.7) as follows. Consider the kernels

$$k_{\lambda,\ell}(z) = c_{\ell} \frac{z^{\ell}}{(1 - \overline{\lambda}z)^{\ell+1}},$$

where c_{ℓ} is adapted so that these are the reproducing kernels for ℓ -th derivatives at point $\lambda \in \mathbb{D}$ in the Hardy space H^2 , that is to say,

$$f^{(\ell)}(\lambda) = \langle f, k_{\lambda,\ell} \rangle_2, \qquad f \in H^2.$$

Observe that for $0 \le \ell \le m-1$

$$a(z)k_{t,\ell}(z) = c_{\ell} \frac{z^{\ell}(1-z)^m}{(1-tz)^{\ell+1}}$$

$$= c_{\ell} z^{\ell} (1-z)^{m-(\ell+1)} \left(\frac{1-z}{1-tz}\right)^{\ell+1}$$

$$= c_{\ell} z^{\ell} (1-z)^{m-(\ell+1)} \left(1+z\frac{t-1}{1-tz}\right)^{\ell+1}.$$

One can see that $ak_{t,\ell}$ converges pointwise to $c_{\ell}z^{\ell}(1-z)^{m-\ell-1}$ as $t \to 1^-$ and is uniformly bounded on \mathbb{T} . Thus by the dominated convergence theorem, $ak_{t,\ell} \to c_{\ell}z^{\ell}(1-z)^{m-\ell-1}$ in the norm of H^2 . Now pick a function $f = T_{\overline{a}}g \in \mathcal{M}(\overline{a}) = \mathcal{H}(q^r)$ with $T_{\overline{a}}g^{(\ell)}(1) = 0$ for all $0 \leq \ell \leq$

m-1, then

$$0 = (T_{\overline{a}}g)^{(\ell)}(1) = \lim_{t \to 1^{-}} (T_{\overline{a}}g)^{(\ell)}(t) = \lim_{t \to 1^{-}} \langle T_{\overline{a}}g, k_{t,\ell} \rangle_{0} = \lim_{t \to 1^{-}} \langle g, ak_{t,\ell} \rangle_{0}$$

$$= \overline{c_{\ell}} \langle g, z^{\ell} (1 - z)^{m - \ell - 1} \rangle_{0}$$

$$= \overline{c_{\ell}} \left\langle g, \sum_{j=0}^{m - \ell - 1} {m - \ell - 1 \choose j} (-1)^{j} z^{j + \ell} \right\rangle_{0}$$

$$= \overline{c_{\ell}} \sum_{j=0}^{m - \ell - 1} {m - \ell - 1 \choose j} (-1)^{j} \widehat{g}(j + k)$$

$$= \sum_{p=\ell}^{m-1} {m - \ell - 1 \choose p - \ell} (-1)^{p-\ell} \widehat{g}(p).$$

If

$$A_{i,j} = {m-i-1 \choose j-i} (-1)^{j-i},$$

then $A = (A_{i,j})_{0 \le i,j \le m-1}$ is an upper triangular invertible matrix and hence the above system of equations can be written as

$$A(\widehat{g}(0), \widehat{g}(1), \dots, \widehat{g}(m-1))^T = (0, \dots, 0),$$

which proves (4.7) and thus (4.6).

We finish the proof by establishing the following claim. If

$$a(z) = \prod_{j=1}^{n} (z - \zeta_j)^{m_j},$$

and $g \in H^2$ is such that, for any $1 \leq j \leq n$, and any $0 \leq \ell \leq m_j - 1$, we have

$$(4.8) (T_{\bar{a}}g)^{\ell}(\zeta_j) = 0,$$

then $T_{\bar{a}}g \in aH^2$.

We argue by induction on n. If n = 1, then we can of course assume without loss of generality that $\zeta_1 = 1$ and then, the proof of the claim is given by (4.6).

Assume the claim is true for n-1 points. Suppose $g \in H^2$ satisfies (4.8). Decompose a as $a=a_1a_2$ where $a_1(z)=(z-\zeta_1)^{m_1}$ and

$$a_2(z) = \prod_{j=2}^{n} (z - \zeta_j)^{m_j}.$$

Since

$$T_{\overline{a}} = T_{\overline{a}_1} T_{\overline{a}_2} = T_{\overline{a}_2} T_{\overline{a}_1}$$

we easily see that the induction hypothesis implies that the function $h := T_{\bar{a}}g$ belongs to $a_1H^2 \cap a_2H^2$. In other words, there exists two functions $\varphi, \psi \in H^2$ such that

$$h = a_1 \varphi = a_2 \psi$$
.

Now note that (a_1, a_2) is a corona pair. Hence, there exists $u, v \in H^{\infty}$ such that

$$a_1u + a_2v = 1.$$

Multiply this equation by ψ gives

$$\psi = a_1 \psi u + a_2 \psi v = a_1 \psi u + a_1 \varphi v = a_1 (\psi u + \varphi v).$$

Therefore, we obtain

$$h = a_2 \psi = a_2 a_1 (\psi u + \varphi v),$$

which shows that $h \in a_1 a_2 H^2 = a H^2$. The claim is established and the proof of Theorem 1.2 is complete.

5. Examples

Example 5.1. Consider the function

$$q(z) = \frac{1}{2}(1+z)$$

and notice that q is outer and $||q||_{\infty} = 1$. One can easily guess the Pythagorean mate for q to be

$$a(z) = \frac{1}{2}(1-z).$$

The function a(z) has one zero of order 1 at z=1 and a computation reveals that

$$v_{1,1}^0(z) = \frac{1 - \overline{q(1)}q(z)}{1 - z} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

In this case

$$\mathcal{H}(q) = (z-1)H^2 \oplus \mathbb{C}$$

and so for any positive real number we get $\mathscr{H}(q^r) = \mathscr{H}(q)$ and

$$\mathcal{H}(q^r) = (z-1)H^2 \dotplus \mathbb{C} = (z-1)H^2 \oplus \mathbb{C} \frac{1 - \left(\frac{1+z}{2}\right)^r}{1-z}.$$

For more general q we need to review the proof of the Fejer-Riesz theorem which says that if

$$w(e^{i\theta}) = \sum_{j=-n}^{n} c_j e^{ij\theta}$$

is a non-zero trigonometric polynomial which assumes non-negative values for all θ , then there is an analytic polynomial

$$p(z) = \sum_{j=0}^{n} a_j z^j$$

so that

$$w(e^{i\theta}) = |p(e^{i\theta})|^2.$$

Since the proof gives us the algorithm for computing p, we give a quick sketch. Indeed, as a function of the complex variable z, we see that if

$$w(z) = \sum_{j=-n}^{n} c_j z^j$$

then $\overline{w(1/\overline{z})} = w(z)$, $z \in \mathbb{T}$. Assuming that $c_{-n} \neq 0$ we see that $s(z) = z^n w(z)$, $z \in \mathbb{C}$, is a polynomial of degree 2n and the roots of s occur in pairs $\alpha, 1/\overline{\alpha}$ of equal multiplicity. It follows that

$$w(z) = c \prod_{j=1}^{n} (z - \alpha_j) (\frac{1}{z} - \overline{\alpha_j})$$

for some positive constant c and where $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$ satisfy $|\alpha_j| \ge 1$ for $1 \le j \le n$. The desired polynomial p is

$$p(z) = \sqrt{c} \prod_{j=1}^{n} (z - \alpha_j).$$

Note that p is zero free in \mathbb{D} and we can multiply p by a unimodular constant so that p(0) > 0.

Recall from the proof of Lemma (3.1) that if $q = p_1/p_2$ is rational then the Pythagorean mate a for q is given by

$$a = \frac{p}{p_2},$$

where p is the analytic polynomial (guaranteed by the Fejer-Riesz theorem) which satisfies $|p(e^{i\theta})|^2 = w(e^{i\theta}) = |p_2(e^{i\theta})|^2 - |p_1(e^{i\theta})|^2 \ge 0$, and p is chosen to that a(0) > 0.

Example 5.2. Consider the function

$$q(z) = \frac{1}{2}(1-z)(1+z)$$

and note that $q \in \mathbf{b}(H^{\infty})$ and is outer. A computation shows that

$$1 - |q(e^{it})|^2 = \frac{1}{4}e^{-2it} + \frac{1}{4}e^{2it} + \frac{1}{2}.$$

Define

$$w(z) = \frac{z^{-2}}{4} + \frac{z^2}{4} + \frac{1}{2}$$

and

$$s(z) = z^2 w(z) = \frac{z^4}{4} + \frac{z^2}{2} + \frac{1}{4}.$$

The polynomial s factors as

$$s(z) = \frac{1}{4}(z-i)^2(z+i)^2.$$

Notice how the zeros occur in pairs $i=1/\overline{i}$ and $-i=1/\overline{-i}$ as guaranteed by the above proof of the Fejer-Riesz theorem. Thus the Pythagorean mate a for q is of the form

$$a(z) = c(z - i)(z + i)$$

for some c adjusted so that a(0) > 0 and $1 - |q(e^{i\theta})|^2 = |a(e^{i\theta})|^2$. One can check by direct calculation that c = 1/2 works and so

$$a(z) = \frac{1}{2}(z-i)(z+i).$$

Of course the exact value of c is not important for our calculations since we only need to identify the zeros of a.

The zeros of a are at z = i and z = -i and have order one and so

$$\mathscr{H}(q) = (z-i)(z+i)H^2 \oplus \bigvee \{v_{1,i}^0, v_{1,-i}^0\},$$

where the kernels can be computed directly as

$$v_{1,i}^0(z) = \frac{1}{2i}(z+i), \qquad v_{1,-i}^0(z) = \frac{1}{2i}(z-i).$$

Again, as in the previous example, $\mathcal{H}(q^r) = \mathcal{H}(q)$ and so

$$\mathscr{H}(q^r) = (z-i)(z+i)H^2 \dotplus \bigvee \{z+i, z-i\}.$$

Example 5.3. Consider the function

$$q(z) = \frac{1}{4}(z+1)^2$$

and note that q is outer and belongs to $\mathbf{b}(H^{\infty})$. Following our Fejer-Riesz computations as in the previous example, note that

$$1 - |q(e^{it})|^2 = -\frac{e^{-it}}{4} - \frac{e^{it}}{4} - \frac{1}{16}e^{-2it} - \frac{1}{16}e^{2it} + \frac{5}{8}.$$

Define

$$w(z) = -\frac{z^2}{16} - \frac{1}{16z^2} - \frac{z}{4} - \frac{1}{4z} + \frac{5}{8}$$

and

$$s(z) = z^{2}w(z)$$

$$= -\frac{z^{4}}{16} - \frac{z^{3}}{4} + \frac{5z^{2}}{8} - \frac{z}{4} - \frac{1}{16}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{16}(-1+z)^{2}(1+6z+z^{2}).$$

The zeros of s are at $z=-1, z=-1, z=-3-2\sqrt{2}\approx -5.82843, z=-3+2\sqrt{2}\approx -0.171573$. Notice how these roots occur in the pairs $\alpha, 1/\overline{\alpha}$. The function a is then

$$a(z) = c(z-1)(z+3+2\sqrt{2})$$

for some appropriate constant c. There is one zero of a at z=1 of multiplicity one and so

$$\mathscr{H}(q) = (z-1)H^2 \oplus \mathbb{C}v_{1,1}^0(z),$$

where the kernel can be computed to be

$$v_{1,1}^0(z) = \frac{z+3}{4}.$$

As in our previous examples, note that

$$\mathcal{H}(q^r) = (z-1)H^2 \dotplus \mathbb{C}(z+3).$$

Notice that the q from this example is the square of the q from our first example and thus the corresponding spaces should be the same. Indeed a little algebra will show that

$$(z-1)H^2 \dotplus \mathbb{C} = (z-1)H^2 \dotplus \mathbb{C}(z+3).$$

Example 5.4. Reversing the roles of a and q in the preceding example:

$$a(z) = \frac{1}{4}(z+1)^2,$$
 $q(z) = c(z-1)(z+3+2\sqrt{2}),$

with suitable c so that $||q||_{\infty} = 1$ (the maximum modulus on \mathbb{D}^- being attained in -1, one has $c = (4(1 + \sqrt{2}))^{-1}$, and q(-1) = -1 corresponding to the normalization q(0) > 0), we obtain a function a with double zero, and so

$$\mathcal{H}(q) = (z+1)^2 H^2 \oplus \bigvee \{v_{1,-1}^0, v_{1,-1}^1\}$$

where

$$v_{1,-1}^0(z) = \frac{1 - \overline{q(-1)}q(z)}{1 - \overline{(-1)}z} = \frac{1 + q(z)}{1 + z},$$

and using q(-1) = -1 as well as $q'(z) = c(2 + 2\sqrt{2})$ so that q'(-1) = -1/2, we have

$$v_{1,-1}^1(z) = \frac{\frac{1}{2}q(z)(1+z) + z(1+q(z))}{(1+z)^2} = \frac{1}{2}\frac{q(z)(1+3z) + 2z}{(1+z)^2}.$$

Example 5.5. Here is an example of a rational function:

$$q(z) = \frac{3(z+1)}{2(z+2)}.$$

Then, as it turns out,

$$a(z) = c\frac{z-1}{z+2}$$

which has a zero of order one at z = 1. From here we get

$$\mathcal{H}(q) = (z-1)H^2 \oplus \mathbb{C}v_{1,1}^0(z) = (z-1)H^2 \oplus \mathbb{C}\frac{1}{4+2z}.$$

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