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# Analogs of the $m$ -function in the theory of orthogonal polynomials on the unit circle

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Dedicated to Norrie Everitt, on his 80th birthday, a bouquet to the master of the  $m$ -function

## Abstract

We show that the multitude of applications of the Weyl–Titchmarsh  $m$ -function leads to a multitude of different functions in the theory of orthogonal polynomials on the unit circle that serve as analogs of the  $m$ -function.

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## 1. Introduction

Use of the Weyl–Titchmarsh  $m$ -function has been a constant theme in Norrie Everitt’s opus, so I decided a discussion of the analogs of these ideas in the theory of orthogonal polynomials on the unit circle (OPUC) was appropriate. Interestingly enough, the uses of the  $m$ -functions are so numerous that OPUC has multiple analogs of the  $m$ -function!

$m$ -functions are associated to solutions of

$$-u'' + qu = zu \tag{1.1}$$

with  $q$  a real function on  $[0, \infty)$  and  $z$  a parameter in  $\mathbb{C}_+ = \{z | \text{Im } z > 0\}$ . The most fundamental aspect of the  $m$ -function is its relation to the spectral measure,  $\rho$ , for (1.1) by

$$m(z) = c + \int d\rho(x) \left[ \frac{1}{x-z} - \frac{x}{1+x^2} \right], \tag{1.2}$$

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where  $c$  is determined by (see [3,13]):

$$m(z) = \sqrt{-z} + o(1) \quad \text{as } z \rightarrow i\infty. \quad (1.3)$$

Eqs. (1.2) plus (1.3) allow you to compute  $m$  given  $d\rho$ , and  $d\rho$  is determined by  $m$  via

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \downarrow 0} \frac{1}{\pi} \int_a^b m(x + i\varepsilon) dx = \frac{1}{2}[\rho((a, b)) + \rho([a, b])]. \quad (1.4)$$

Of course, I have not told you what  $m$  or  $\rho$  is. This is done by defining  $m$ , in which case  $\rho$  is defined by (1.4). Under weak conditions on  $q$  at  $\infty$ , for  $z \in \mathbb{C}_+$ , (1.1) has a solution  $u(x, z)$  which is  $L^2$  at infinity, and it is unique up to a constant multiple. Then,  $m$  is defined by

$$m(z) = \frac{u'(0, z)}{u(0, z)}. \quad (1.5)$$

With this definition,  $d\rho$  is a spectral measure for  $u \mapsto -u'' + qu = Hu$  in the sense that  $H$  is unitarily equivalent to multiplication by  $\lambda$  on  $L^2(\mathbb{R}, d\rho)$ . (1.5) is often written in the equivalent form,

$$\psi(x, z) + m(z)\varphi(x, z) \in L^2,$$

where  $\varphi, \psi$  solve (1.1) with initial conditions  $\varphi(0) = 0, \varphi'(0) = 1, \psi(0) = 1, \psi'(0) = 0$ .

Note that if one defines

$$m(x; z) = \frac{u'(x, z)}{u(x, z)}, \quad (1.6)$$

the  $m$ -function for  $q_x(\cdot) = q(\cdot + x)$ , then  $m$  obeys the Riccati equation

$$m' = q - z - m^2. \quad (1.7)$$

It could be said that this is backwards: definition (1.5) should come first, before (1.2). I put it in this order because it is (1.2) that makes  $m$  such an important object both in classical results [2,5,7–9,16,23,33] and very recent work [4,10,21,25,27,31].

To describe the third role of the  $m$ -function, it will pay to switch to the case of Jacobi matrices. We now have, instead of  $q$ , two sequences  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^\infty, \{b_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  with  $a_n > 0, b_n \in \mathbb{R}$  which we will suppose uniformly bounded. Define an infinite matrix

$$J = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 & a_1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ a_1 & b_2 & a_2 & 0 & \cdots \\ 0 & a_2 & b_3 & a_3 & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix} \quad (1.8)$$

which is a bounded self-adjoint operator. One defines

$$m(z) = \langle \delta_1, (J - z)^{-1} \delta_1 \rangle. \quad (1.9)$$

In terms of the spectral measure,  $\mu$ , for  $\delta_1$  for  $J$ ,

$$m(z) = \int \frac{d\mu(x)}{x - z}. \quad (1.10)$$

If  $u_n$  is the  $\ell^2$  solution of  $a_{n-1}u_{n-1} + (b_{n-z})u_n + a_nu_{n+1} = 0$  with  $\text{Im } z > 0$ , one has the analog of (1.5)

$$m(z) = \frac{u_1(z)}{u_0(z)}. \tag{1.11}$$

This process of going from  $a$  and  $b$  to  $m$  and then to  $\mu$  can be reversed. One way is by iterating (1.5) below, which lets one go from  $\mu$  to  $m$  (by (1.10)) and then gets the  $a$ 's and  $b$ 's as coefficients in a continued fraction expansion of  $m$ . From our point of view, an even more important way of going backwards uses orthogonal polynomials on the real line (OPRL). Given  $\mu$  (of bounded support), one forms the monic orthogonal polynomials  $P_n(x)$  for  $d\mu$  and shows they obey a recursion relation

$$P_{n+1}(x) = (x - b_{n+1})P_n(x) - a_n^2P_{n-1}(x) \tag{1.12}$$

which yields the Jacobi parameters  $a$  and  $b$ . The orthonormal polynomials,  $p_n(x)$ , are related to  $P_n$  by

$$p_n(x) = (a_1 \dots a_n)^{-1}P_n(x) \tag{1.13}$$

and obey

$$a_{n+1}p_{n+1}(x) = (x - b_{n+1})p_n(x) - a_n p_{n-1}(x). \tag{1.14}$$

Eq. (1.7) has the analog

$$m(z; J) = (b_1 - z - a_1^2 m(z; J^{(1)}))^{-1}, \tag{1.15}$$

where  $J^{(1)}$  is the Jacobi matrix with parameters  $\tilde{a}_m = a_{m+1}, \tilde{b}_m = b_{m+1}$  (i.e., the top row and left column are removed).

If  $m(x + i\varepsilon; J)$  has a limit as  $\varepsilon \downarrow 0$ , (1.15) says that  $m(x + i\varepsilon; J^{(1)})$  has a limit, and by (1.15),

$$\frac{\text{Im } m(x; J)}{\text{Im } m(x; J^{(1)})} = |a_1 m(x; J)|^2. \tag{1.16}$$

$\text{Im } m$  is important because if  $\mu$  is given by (1.10), then

$$d\mu_{ac} = \frac{1}{\pi} \text{Im } m(x + i0) dx. \tag{1.17}$$

This property of  $m$ , that its energy is the ratio of  $\text{Im}$ 's, is a critical element of recent work on sum rules for spectral theory [6,19,28–30].

The interesting point is that, for OPUC, the analogs of the functions obeying (1.2), (1.5), and (1.16) are different! In Section 2, we will give a quick summary of OPUC. In Section 3, we discuss (1.2); in Section 4, we discuss (1.16); and finally, in Section 5, the analog of (1.5).

Happy 80th, Norrie. I hope you enjoy this bouquet.

## 2. Overview of OPUC

We want to discuss here the basics of OPUC, although we will only scratch the surface of a rich and beautiful subject [29]. The theory reverses the usual passage from differential/difference equations to measures, and instead follows the discussion of OPRL in Section 1.  $\mu$  is now a probability measure on  $\partial\mathbb{D} = \{z \mid |z| = 1\}$ . We suppose  $\mu$  is nontrivial, that is, not supported on a finite set. One can then

form, by the Gram–Schmidt procedure, the monic orthogonal polynomials  $\Phi_n(z)$  and the orthonormal polynomials,  $\varphi_n(z) = \Phi_n(z)/\|\Phi_n\|$  where  $\|\cdot\|$  is the  $L^2(\partial\mathbb{D}, d\mu)$  norm.

Given fixed  $n \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ , we define an anti-unitary operator on  $L^2(\partial\mathbb{D}, d\mu)$  by

$$f^*(z) = z^n \overline{f(z)}. \quad (2.1)$$

The use of a symbol without “ $n$ ” is terrible notation, but it is standard! If  $Q_n$  is a polynomial of degree  $n$ ,  $Q_n^*$  is also a polynomial of degree  $n$ . Indeed,

$$Q_n^*(z) = z^n \overline{Q_n(1/\bar{z})}$$

so if  $Q_n(z) = a_n z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \dots + a_0$ , then  $Q_n^*(z) = \bar{a}_0 z^n + \bar{a}_1 z^{n-1} + \dots + \bar{a}_n$ .

Since  $\Phi_n$  is monic,  $\Phi_n^*(0) = 1$ , and thus,  $N(z) \equiv (\Phi_{n+1}^*(z) - \Phi_n^*(z))/z$  is a polynomial of degree  $n$ . Since  $*$  is anti-unitary,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle z^m, N(z) \rangle &= \langle z^{m+1}, \Phi_{n+1}^* - \Phi_n^* \rangle \\ &= \langle \Phi_{n+1}, z^{n+1-(m+1)} \rangle - \langle \Phi_n, z^{n-m-1} \rangle \\ &= 0, \end{aligned}$$

for  $m = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$ . Thus  $N(z)$  must be a multiple of  $\Phi_n(z)$ , that is, for some  $\alpha_n \in \mathbb{C}$ ,

$$\Phi_{n+1}^*(z) = \Phi_n^*(z) - \alpha_n z \Phi_n(z) \quad (2.2)$$

and its  $*$ ,

$$\Phi_{n+1}(z) = z \Phi_n(z) - \bar{\alpha}_n \Phi_n^*(z). \quad (2.3)$$

(2.2)/(2.3) are the *Szegő recursion formulae* ([32]); the  $\alpha_n$ 's are the Verblunsky coefficients (after [34]). The derivation I have just given is that of Atkinson [2].

Since  $\Phi_n^* \perp \Phi_{n+1}$ , (2.3) implies

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

Since  $\|\Phi_n^*\| = \|z\Phi_n\| = \|\Phi_n\|$ , we have

$$\|\Phi_{n+1}\| = (1 - |\alpha_n|^2)^{1/2} \|\Phi_n\|. \quad (2.4)$$

This implies first of all that

$$|\alpha_n| < 1 \quad (2.5)$$

and if

$$\rho_n \equiv (1 - |\alpha_n|^2)^{1/2}, \quad (2.6)$$

then

$$\|\Phi\|_n = \rho_0 \rho_1 \dots \rho_{n-1} \quad (2.7)$$

so

$$\varphi_n = (\rho_0 \dots \rho_{n-1})^{-1} \Phi_n \quad (2.8)$$

and (2.2), (2.3) becomes

$$z\varphi_n = \rho_n\varphi_{n+1} + \bar{\alpha}_n\varphi_n^*, \tag{2.9}$$

$$\varphi_n^* = \rho_n, \varphi_{n+1}^* + \alpha_n z\varphi_n. \tag{2.10}$$

The  $\alpha_n$ 's not only lie in  $\mathbb{D}$ , but it is a theorem of Verblunsky [34] that as  $\mu$  runs through all nontrivial measures, the set of  $\alpha$ 's runs through all of  $\times_{n=0}^\infty \mathbb{D}$ . The  $\alpha$ 's are the analogs of the  $a$ 's and  $b$ 's in the Jacobi case or of  $V$  in the Schrödinger case.

We will later have reason to consider Szegő's theorem in Verblunsky's form [35].

**Theorem 2.1.** *Let*

$$d\mu = w \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} + d\mu_s. \tag{2.11}$$

Then

$$\prod_{j=0}^\infty (1 - |\alpha_j|^2) = \exp\left(\int \log(w(\theta)) \frac{d\theta}{2\pi}\right). \tag{2.12}$$

**Remark.** The log integral can diverge to  $-\infty$ . The theorem says the integral is  $-\infty$  if and only if the product on the left is 0, that is, if and only if  $\sum |\alpha_j|^2 = \infty$ .

If

$$\sum_{j=0}^\infty |\alpha_j|^2 < \infty, \tag{2.13}$$

we say the Szegő condition holds. This happens if and only if

$$\int |\log(w(\theta))| \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} < \infty. \tag{2.14}$$

In that case, we define the Szegő function on  $\mathbb{D}$  by

$$D(z) = \exp\left(\int \frac{e^{i\theta} + z}{e^{i\theta} - z} \log(w(\theta)) \frac{d\theta}{4\pi}\right). \tag{2.15}$$

### 3. The Carathéodory and Schur functions

Given (1.10) (and (1.2)), the natural “ $m$ -function” for OPUC is the Carathéodory function,  $F(z)$ ,

$$F(z) = \int \frac{e^{i\theta} + z}{e^{i\theta} - z} d\mu(\theta). \tag{3.1}$$

The Cauchy kernel  $(e^{i\theta} + z)/(e^{i\theta} - z)$  has the Poisson kernel

$$\operatorname{Re}\left(\frac{e^{i\theta} + z}{e^{i\theta} - z}\right)\Bigg|_{z=re^{i\varphi}} = \frac{1 - r^2}{1 + r^2 - 2\cos(\theta - \varphi)} \tag{3.2}$$

as its real part, and this is positive, so

$$\operatorname{Re} F(z) > 0 \quad \text{for } z \in \mathbb{D}, \quad F(0) = 1. \quad (3.3)$$

This replaces  $\operatorname{Im} m > 0$  if  $\operatorname{Im} z > 0$ .

One might think the “correct” analog of  $m$  is

$$R(z) = \int \frac{1}{e^{i\theta} - z} d\mu(\theta). \quad (3.4)$$

$R$  and  $F$  are related by

$$R(z) = (2z)^{-1}(F(z) - 1). \quad (3.5)$$

If one rotates  $d\mu$  and  $z$  (i.e.,  $d\mu(\theta) \rightarrow d\mu(\theta - \varphi)$ ,  $z \rightarrow e^{i\varphi}z$ ),  $F$  is unchanged but  $R$  is multiplied by  $e^{-i\varphi}$ , so the set of values  $R$  can take are essentially arbitrary—which shows  $F$ , which obeys  $\operatorname{Re} F(z) > 0$ , is a nicer object to take. That said, we will see  $R$  again in Section 5.

$F$  has some important analogs of  $m$ :

- (1)  $\lim_{r \uparrow 1} F(re^{i\theta})$  exists for a.e.  $\theta$ , and if (2.11) defines  $w$ , then

$$w(\theta) = \operatorname{Re} F(e^{i\theta}). \quad (3.6)$$

- (2)  $\theta_0$  is a pure point of  $\mu$  if and only if  $\lim_{r \uparrow 1} (1-r)\operatorname{Re} F(re^{i\theta_0}) \neq 0$  and, in general,

$$\lim_{r \uparrow 1} (1-r)\operatorname{Re} F(re^{i\theta_0}) = \mu(\{\theta_0\}).$$

- (3)  $d\mu_s$  is supported on  $\{\theta | \lim_{r \uparrow 1} F(re^{i\theta}) = \infty\}$ .

In fact, the proof of the analogs of these facts for  $m$  proceeds by mapping  $\mathbb{C}_+$  to  $\mathbb{D}$  and using these facts for  $F$ !

These properties provide a strong analogy, but one can note a loss of “symmetry” relative to the ODE case. The  $m$ -function maps  $\mathbb{C}_+$  to  $\mathbb{C}_+$ .  $F$  though maps  $\mathbb{D}$  to  $-i\mathbb{C}_+$ . One might prefer a map of  $\mathbb{D}$  to  $\mathbb{D}$ . In fact, one defines the Schur function,  $f$ , of  $\mu$  via

$$F(z) = \frac{1 + zf(z)}{1 - zf(z)}, \quad (3.7)$$

then  $f$  maps  $\mathbb{D}$  to  $\mathbb{D}$  and (3.7) sets up a one-one correspondence between  $F$ 's with  $\operatorname{Re} F > 0$  on  $\mathbb{D}$  and  $F(0) = 1$  and  $f$  mapping  $\mathbb{D}$  to  $\mathbb{D}$  (this fact relies on the Schwarz lemma that  $f$  maps  $\mathbb{D}$  to  $\mathbb{D}$  with  $f(0) = 0$  if and only if  $f = zg$  where  $g$  maps  $\mathbb{D}$  to  $\mathbb{D}$ ).

For at least some purposes,  $f$  is a “better” analog of  $m$  than  $F$ , for example, in regard to its analog of the recursion (1.10). If  $f$  is the Schur function associated to Verblunsky coefficients  $\{\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots\}$  and  $f_n$  is the Schur function associated to  $\{\alpha_n, \alpha_{n+1}, \dots\}$ , then

$$f = \frac{\alpha_0 + zf_1}{1 + \bar{\alpha}_0 z f_1}, \quad (3.8)$$

a result of Geronimus (see [29] for lots of proofs of this fact).

Interestingly enough, Schur, not knowing of the connection to OPUC, discussed (3.8) for  $\alpha_0 = f(0)$  as a map of  $f \rightarrow (\alpha_0, f_1)$  and, by iteration, to a parametrization of functions of  $\mathbb{D}$  to  $\mathbb{D}$  by parameters

$\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_n, \dots$ . There is, of course, a formula relating  $F$  to  $F_1$  that can be obtained from (3.7) and (3.8) or directly [22], but it is more complicated than (3.8).

Finally, in discussing  $f$ , we note that there is a natural family  $\{d\mu_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \partial\mathbb{D}}$  of measures related to  $d\mu$  (with  $d\mu_{\lambda=1} = d\mu$ ) that corresponds to “varying boundary conditions.” We will discuss those more fully in Section 5, but we note

$$f(z; d\mu_\lambda) = \lambda f(z; d\mu), \tag{3.9}$$

while the formula for  $F(d\mu_\lambda)$  is more involved.

The Schur function and Schur iterates,  $f_n$ , have been used by Khrushchev [14,17,18] as a powerful tool in the analysis of OPUC.

#### 4. The relative Szegő function

As explained in the Introduction, a critical property of  $m$  is (1.16), which is the basis of step-by-step sum rules (see [28]). The left side of (1.16) enters as the ratio of a.c. weights of  $d\mu_f$  and  $d\mu_{f^{(1)}}$ . Thus, we are interested in  $\text{Im} F(e^{i\theta}; \{\alpha_j\}_{j=0}^\infty)$  divided by  $\text{Im} F(e^{i\theta}; \{\alpha_{j+1}\}_{j=0}^\infty)$ , that is,  $\text{Im} F / \text{Im} F_1$  in the language of the last section. Neither  $|F|$  nor  $|f|$  is directly related to this ratio, so we need a different object to get an analog of (1.16). The following was introduced by Simon in [29]:

$$(\delta_0 D)(z) = \frac{1 - \bar{\alpha}_0 f}{\rho_0} \frac{1 - z f_1}{1 - z f}. \tag{4.1}$$

It is called the “relative Szegő function” for reasons that will become clear in a moment.

In (4.1),  $f_1$  is the Schur function for Verblunsky coefficients

$$\alpha_j^{(1)} = \alpha_{j+1}. \tag{4.2}$$

Here is the key fact:

**Theorem 4.1.** *Let  $d\mu$  and  $d\mu^{(1)}$  be measures on  $\partial\mathbb{D}$  with Verblunsky coefficients related by (4.2). Suppose  $d\mu = w(\theta)d\theta/2\pi + d\mu_s$  and  $d\mu^{(1)} = w^{(1)}d\theta/2\pi + d\mu_s$ . Then*

- (1) For a.e.  $\theta$ ,  $\lim_{r \uparrow 1} (\delta_0 D)(re^{i\theta}) \equiv \delta_0 D(e^{i\theta})$  exists.
- (2) If  $w(\theta) \neq 0$ , then (for a.e.  $\theta$  w.r.t.  $d\theta/2\pi$ ),  $w_1(\theta) \neq 0$  and

$$\frac{w(\theta)}{w_1(\theta)} = |(\delta_0 D)(e^{i\theta})|^2. \tag{4.3}$$

**Sketch of Proof.** Each of the functions  $1 - \bar{\alpha}_0 f$ ,  $1 - z f_1$ , and  $1 - z f$  takes values in  $\{w \mid |w - 1| < 1\}$  on  $\mathbb{D}$ , so their arguments lie in  $[-\pi/2, \pi/2]$ , so their logs are in all  $H^p$ ,  $1 < p < \infty$ . That is, they are outer functions, and so  $\delta_0 D$  is an outer function, which means that assertion (1) holds (see Rudin [24] for a pedagogic discussion of outer functions).

To get (4.3), we note that (3.7) implies

$$\text{Re} F(z) = \frac{1 - |f|^2 |z|^2}{|1 - z f|^2},$$

so

$$\frac{\operatorname{Re} F(z)}{\operatorname{Re} F_1(z)} = \left| \frac{1 - zf_1}{1 - zf} \right|^2 \frac{1 - |f|^2 |z|^2}{1 - |f_1|^2 |z|^2}. \quad (4.4)$$

On the other hand, (3.8) implies

$$zf_1 = \frac{f - \alpha_0}{1 - \bar{\alpha}_0 f}, \quad (4.5)$$

which implies

$$1 - |zf_1|^2 = \frac{\rho_0^2 (1 - |f|^2)}{|1 - \bar{\alpha}_0 f|^2} \quad (4.6)$$

so, putting these formulae together,

$$\frac{\operatorname{Re} F(z)}{\operatorname{Re} F_1(z)} = |(\delta_0 D)(z)|^2 \left( \frac{1 - |z|^2 |f|^2}{1 - |f|^2} \right) \quad (4.7)$$

which, as  $|z| \rightarrow 1$ , yields (4.3).  $\square$

In particular, one has the nonlocal step-by-step sum rule that if  $w(\theta) \neq 0$  for a.e.  $\theta$ , then

$$(\delta_0 D)(z) = \exp \left( \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{e^{i\theta} + z}{e^{i\theta} - z} \log \left( \frac{w(\theta)}{w_1(\theta)} \right) \frac{d\theta}{4\pi} \right) \quad (4.8)$$

and, in particular, setting  $z = 0$ ,

$$\rho_0^2 = \exp \left( \int_0^{2\pi} \log \left( \frac{w(\theta)}{w_1(\theta)} \right) \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} \right) \quad (4.9)$$

which is not only consistent with Szegő's theorem (2.11) but, using semicontinuity of the entropy, can be used to prove it (see [19,29]) as follows:

(1) Iterating (4.9) yields

$$(\rho_0 \dots \rho_{n-1})^2 = \exp \left( \int_0^{2\pi} \log \left( \frac{w(\theta)}{w_n(\theta)} \right) \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} \right). \quad (4.10)$$

(2) Since  $\exp \left( \int_0^{2\pi} \log(w_n(\theta)) d\theta / 2\pi \right) \leq \int_0^{2\pi} w_n(\theta) d\theta / 2\pi \leq 1$ , (4.10) implies

$$(\rho_0 \dots \rho_{n-1})^2 \geq \exp \left( \int_0^{2\pi} \log(w(\theta)) \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} \right). \quad (4.11)$$

(3) If  $w^{(n)}$  is the weight associated to the measure with

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

(4.10) proves

$$(\rho_0 \dots \rho_{n-1})^2 = \exp \int_0^{2\pi} \log(w^{(n)}(\theta)) \frac{d\theta}{2\pi}. \quad (4.12)$$

(4)  $d\mu \rightarrow \int_0^{2\pi} \log(w(\theta))d\theta/2\pi$  is an entropy, hence, weakly upper semicontinuous. Since  $w^{(n)}d\theta/2\pi \rightarrow d\mu$  weakly as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , this semicontinuity shows

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\rho_n \dots \rho_{n-1})^2 \leq \exp \left( \int_0^{2\pi} \log(w(\theta)) \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} \right). \tag{4.13}$$

Eqs. (4.11) and (4.13) is Szegő’s theorem.

Two other properties of  $\delta_0 D$  that we should mention are:

(A) If  $\sum_{n=0}^\infty |\alpha_n|^2 < \infty$ , then

$$(\delta_0 D)(z) = \frac{D(z; \alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots)}{D(z; \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \dots)}. \tag{4.14}$$

(B) In general, one has

$$\delta_0 D(z) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\varphi_{n-1}^*(z; \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots)}{\varphi_n^*(z; \alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots)}. \tag{4.15}$$

### 5. Eigenfunction ratios

Finally, we look at the analogs of  $m$  as a function ratio, its initial definition by Weyl and Titchmarsh. The key papers on this point of view are by Geronimo–Teplyaev [11] and Golinskii–Nevai [15]. We will see from one point of view [15] that  $F(z)$  plays this role, but from other points of view [11] that other functions are more natural.

The recursion relations (2.9)/(2.10) can be rewritten as

$$\begin{pmatrix} \varphi_{n+1} \\ \varphi_{n+1}^* \end{pmatrix} = A(\alpha_n, z) \begin{pmatrix} \varphi_n \\ \varphi_n^* \end{pmatrix}, \tag{5.1}$$

where

$$A(\alpha, z) = \rho^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} z & -\bar{\alpha} \\ -\alpha z & 1 \end{pmatrix} \tag{5.2}$$

(with  $\rho = (1 - |\alpha|^2)^{1/2}$ ). From this point of view, the analog of the fundamental differential/difference equation in the real case is

$$\mathcal{E}_n = T_n(z)\mathcal{E}_0 \tag{5.3}$$

with

$$T_n(z) = A(\alpha_{n-1}, z) \dots A(\alpha_0, z). \tag{5.4}$$

The correct boundary conditions for the usual OPUC are  $\mathcal{E}_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ .

One can ask for what other initial conditions the polynomials associated with the top component of  $T_n(z)\mathcal{E}_0$  are OPUC for some measure. Note that

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \lambda \end{pmatrix} = U(\lambda) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \tag{5.5}$$

with

$$U(\lambda) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix} \quad (5.6)$$

and that

$$U(\lambda)^{-1}A(\alpha, z)U(\lambda) = \rho^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} z & -\bar{\alpha}_n \lambda \\ -\alpha_n \lambda^{-1} z & 1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (5.7)$$

We see from this that  $\bar{\lambda} = \lambda^{-1}$ , that is,  $|\lambda| = 1$  will yield  $U(\lambda)^{-1}A(\alpha_1, z)U(\lambda) = A(\bar{\lambda}\alpha, z)$ . Changing  $\lambda$  to  $\bar{\lambda}$ , we see that

**Proposition 5.1.** *Let  $|\lambda| = 1$ . If  $\varphi_n^{(\lambda)}(z)$  are the OPUC for Verblunsky coefficients  $\alpha_n^{(\lambda)} = \lambda\alpha_n$ , then*

$$\begin{pmatrix} \varphi_n^{(\lambda)}(z) \\ \bar{\lambda}\varphi_n^{(\lambda)*}(z) \end{pmatrix} = T_n(z; \{\alpha_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \bar{\lambda} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (5.8)$$

This suggests that one look at the family  $d\mu_\lambda$  or measures with

$$\alpha_j(d\mu_\lambda) = \lambda\alpha_j(d\mu) \quad (5.9)$$

called the family of Aleksandrov measures associated to  $\{\alpha_j\}_{j=0}^{\infty}$  after [1]. The special case  $\lambda = -1$  goes back to Verblunsky [35] and Geronimus [12], and are called the second kind polynomials, denoted  $\psi_n(z)$ . The following goes back to Verblunsky [35].

**Theorem 5.2.** *For  $z \in \mathbb{D}$ , uniformly on compact subsets of  $\mathbb{D}$ ,*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\psi_n^*(z)}{\varphi_n^*(z)} = F(z). \quad (5.10)$$

Clearly related to this is the following result of Golinskii–Nevai [15]:

**Theorem 5.3.** *Let  $z \in \mathbb{D}$ . Then*

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left| \begin{pmatrix} \psi_n(z) \\ -\psi_n^*(z) \end{pmatrix} + \beta \begin{pmatrix} \varphi_n(z) \\ \varphi_n^*(z) \end{pmatrix} \right|^2 < \infty \quad (5.11)$$

if and only if

$$\beta = F(z). \quad (5.12)$$

From this point of view,  $F$  is again the “correct” analog of  $m$ ! Indeed, the Golinskii–Nevai [15] proof uses Weyl limiting circles to prove the theorem (one is always in limit point case!).

But this is not the end of the story. Define

$$u_k = \psi_k + F(z)\varphi_k, \quad u_k^* = -\psi_k^* + F(z)\varphi_k^* \quad (5.13)$$

so  $\begin{pmatrix} u_k \\ u_k^* \end{pmatrix}$  is the unique solution of  $\mathcal{E}_n = T_n(z)\mathcal{E}_0$  which is in  $\ell^2$ . In the OPRL case, the basic vector solution is of the form  $\begin{pmatrix} u_n \\ u_{n+1} \end{pmatrix}$ , so we have the analog of (1.11),

$$\tilde{m}(z) = \frac{u_0^*}{u_0} = \frac{-1 + F}{1 + F} = zf. \tag{5.14}$$

So one analog of the  $m$ -function is  $zf$ .

In particular, (5.14) implies

$$|u_k^*| < |u_k| \tag{5.15}$$

for  $z \in \mathbb{D}$ , and thus the rate of exponential decay of  $\left\| \begin{pmatrix} u_k \\ u_k^* \end{pmatrix} \right\|$  is that of  $u_k$ . If there is such exponential decay in the sense that

$$\gamma_2 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[ \left\| \begin{pmatrix} u_n \\ u_n^* \end{pmatrix} \right\|^{1/n} \right] \tag{5.16}$$

exists, then, by (5.15),

$$\gamma_2 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \log |m_n^+|, \tag{5.17}$$

where

$$m_n^+ = \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n}. \tag{5.18}$$

For  $n = 0, u_1 = \psi_1 + F\varphi_1, u_0 = 1 + F, \psi_1 = \rho_0^{-1}(z + \bar{\alpha}_0), \varphi_1 = \rho_0^{-1}(z - \bar{\alpha}_0)$ , so by a direct calculation,

$$m_0^+(z) = \rho_0^{-1}z(1 - \bar{\alpha}_0 f), \tag{5.19}$$

yet another reasonable choice for an  $m$ -function.

Indeed, if  $\gamma(z) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1/n) \log \|T_n(z)\|$  exists, the fact that  $\det(T_n) = z^n$  implies that  $\gamma = \log |\lambda| - \gamma_2$ , and one finds in the case of stochastic Verblunsky coefficients that [11,29]

$$\mathbb{E}(\log |m_\omega^+(z)|) = \log |z| - \gamma(z), \tag{5.20}$$

an analog of a fundamental formula of Kotani [20,26] that in his case uses  $m$ !

Finally, we turn to the connection of  $m$  to whole-line Green's functions. Given  $V$  on  $(-\infty, \infty)$  and  $z \in \mathbb{C}_+$ , it is natural to look at the two solutions of (1.1),  $u_\pm(x, z)$ , which are  $\ell^2$  on  $\pm(0, \infty)$  and the  $m$ -functions,

$$m_\pm(z) = \pm \frac{u'_\pm(0, z)}{u_\pm(0, z)}. \tag{5.21}$$

$m_\pm$  are the  $m$ -functions for  $V(\pm x)[0, \infty)$ . Standard Green's function formulae show that the integral kernel,  $G(x, y; z)$ , of  $(-d^2/dx^2 + V - z)^{-1}$  is

$$G(x, y; z) = \frac{u_-(x_<)u_+(x_>)}{(u_+(0)u'_-(0) - u'_+(0)u_-(0))},$$

where  $x_< = \min(x, y)$  and  $x_> = \max(x, y)$ . In particular,

$$G(0, 0; z) = -(m_+(z) + m_-(z))^{-1}. \tag{5.22}$$

A complete description of the OPUC analog would require too much space, so we sketch the ideas, leaving the details to [29]. Just as the difference equation is associated to a tridiagonal self-adjoint matrix whose spectral measure is the one generating the OPRL, any set of  $\alpha$ 's is associated to a five-diagonal unitary matrix, called the CMV matrix, whose spectral measure is the  $d\mu$  with  $\alpha_j (d\mu) = \alpha_j$ .

The CMV matrix is one-sided, but given  $\{\alpha_j\}_{j=-\infty}^{\infty}$ , one can define a two-sided CMV matrix,  $\mathcal{C}$ , in a natural way. If  $G(z)$  is the 00 matrix element of  $(\mathcal{C} - z)^{-1}$ , then (see [11,17,29])

$$G(z) = \frac{f_+(z)f_-(z)}{1 - zf_+(z)f_-(z)}, \quad (5.23)$$

where  $f_+$  is the Schur function for  $(\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots)$  and  $f_-$  the Schur function for  $(-\bar{\alpha}_{-1}, -\bar{\alpha}_{-2}, \dots)$ . On the basis of the analogy between (5.23) and (5.22), Geronimo–Teplyaev [11] called  $f_+$  and  $zf_-$  the  $m_+$  and  $m_-$  functions.

## 6. Summary

We have thus seen that there are many analogs of the  $m$ -function in the theory of OPUC:

- (1) The Carathéodory function,  $F(z)$ , given by (3.1), an analog of (1.2) and also related to the classic Weyl definition (5.11)/(5.12).
- (2) The Schur function,  $f(z)$ , given by (3.7) with a recursion, (3.8), closer to the recursion (1.15) for the  $m$ -function of OPRL.  $f$  also enters via (5.23).
- (3)  $zf(z)$ , the  $\tilde{m}$ -function of (5.14).
- (4) The relative Szegő function, (4.1), which, via (4.3) and (1.16), is an analog of  $a_1m(z)$ .
- (5) The  $m^+$ -function, (5.19), which plays the role that  $m$  does in Kotani theory.

### Note added in proof

After this paper was processed, while finishing up the preparation of [29], I realized there is yet another OPUC analog of the  $m$ -function. A key property of the  $m$ -function for the Jacobi case is that  $m$  has poles at eigenvalues of  $J$  and zeros at eigenvalues of the Jacobi matrix obtained by removing one  $a$  and one  $b$ . An analogous function for OPUC is

$$M(z) = z(1 + \alpha_0)(1 + F(z)) + (\bar{\alpha}_0 + 1)(1 - F(z)).$$

This has poles at poles of  $F$  and zeros at point masses for  $d\mu_1$ , the measure associated to  $\{\alpha_{j+1}\}_{j=0}^{\infty}$ . There are two exceptions to this statement. It can happen at  $z = (1 + \bar{\alpha}_0)/(1 + \alpha_0)$  that both measures have a pure point, in which case  $M$  has neither a zero nor a pole (this kind of cancellation does not happen for Jacobi matrices because of interlacing of zeros).  $M$  vanishes at  $z = 0$ . This  $M$ -function continued to a hyperelliptic Riemann surface is critical to the analysis of finite gap Verblunsky coefficients; see [29].

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