

Weights whose Biorthogonal Polynomials admit a Rodrigues Formula

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Abstract

Let $\alpha > 0$ and $\psi(x) = x^\alpha$. Let w be a nonnegative integrable function on an interval I . Let P_n be a polynomial of degree n determined by the biorthogonality conditions

$$\int_I P_n \psi^j w = 0, j = 0, 1, \dots, n-1.$$

We determine for which weights w , P_n admits an analogue of the classical Rodrigues formula for orthogonal polynomials, and present the formula whenever it exists. We also provide generating functions and fairly explicit representations for P_n .

1 ¹Introduction and Results

Let I be a real interval and $\psi : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a strictly increasing continuous function. Let w be a function non-negative and positive a.e. on I for which all the modified moments

$$\omega_{j,k} = \int_I \psi(x)^j x^k w(x) dx, j, k = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (1)$$

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exist. Then we may try determine a polynomial P_n of degree n by the biorthogonality conditions

$$\int_I P_n(x) \psi(x)^j w(x) dx = \begin{cases} 0, & j = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1, \\ I_n \neq 0, & j = n \end{cases}. \quad (2)$$

The fact that ψ is increasing forces P_n to have n simple zeros in I . In turn that easily implies the uniqueness of P_n up to a multiplicative constant. One representation for P_n is a determinantal one:

$$P_n(x) = \frac{\det \begin{bmatrix} \omega_{0,0} & \omega_{0,1} & \omega_{0,2} & \dots & \omega_{0,n} \\ \omega_{1,0} & \omega_{1,1} & \omega_{1,2} & \dots & \omega_{1,n} \\ \omega_{2,0} & \omega_{2,1} & \omega_{2,2} & \dots & \omega_{2,n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \omega_{n-1,0} & \omega_{n-1,1} & \omega_{n-1,2} & \dots & \omega_{n-1,n} \\ 1 & x & x^2 & \dots & x^n \end{bmatrix}}{\det \begin{bmatrix} \omega_{0,0} & \omega_{0,1} & \omega_{0,2} & \dots & \omega_{0,n-1} \\ \omega_{1,0} & \omega_{1,1} & \omega_{1,2} & \dots & \omega_{1,n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \omega_{n-1,0} & \omega_{n-1,1} & \omega_{n-1,2} & \dots & \omega_{n-1,n-1} \end{bmatrix}},$$

provided the denominator determinant is non-0. Non-vanishing of that determinant is necessary and sufficient for the existence of P_n [3, p. 2ff.]. In our case, we can prove the non-vanishing by contradiction. For if the determinant vanished, we can find real numbers $\{c_k\}_{k=0}^{n-1}$ not all 0 such that for $Q(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} c_k x^k$,

$$\int_I Q \psi^j w = 0, 0 \leq j \leq n-1.$$

Choosing P to be a polynomial in x of degree $\leq n-1$ such that $P \circ \psi$ has sign changes where Q does gives

$$0 < \int_I Q P w = 0,$$

a contradiction. Biorthogonal polynomials of a more general form have been studied in several contexts - see [3].

It was A. Sidi who first considered biorthogonal polynomials of this type, for the weight $w = 1$, the interval $I = (0, 1)$, and the special function

$$\psi(x) = \log x,$$

He constructed what are now called the *Sidi polynomials*, in problems of quadrature and convergence acceleration [4], [5], [9], [10], [11]. Sidi's polynomials admit the Rodrigues type formula

$$P_n(e^u) = e^{-u} \left(\frac{d}{du} \right)^n [e^u (1 - e^u)^n] \quad (3)$$

and are explicitly given as

$$P_n(x) := \sum_{j=0}^n \binom{n}{j} (j+1)^n (-x)^j,$$

Their asymptotic behavior as $n \rightarrow \infty$ was investigated in [5]. The zero distribution of more general biorthogonal polynomials has been investigated in [7].

In a recent paper, Herbert Stahl and the first author [6] derived a Rodrigues type formula, and an explicit expression for $P_n(x)$ when $I = (0, 1)$, $w = 1$, and $\psi(x) = x^\alpha$, any $\alpha > 0$. These have the form

$$P_n(u^{1/\alpha}) = u^{1-1/\alpha} \left(\frac{d}{du} \right)^n \left[u^{n-1+1/\alpha} (1 - u^{1/\alpha})^n \right] \quad (4)$$

and

$$P_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n \binom{n}{j} \left[\prod_{k=0}^{n-1} \left(k + \frac{j+1}{\alpha} \right) \right] (-x)^j. \quad (5)$$

It then seems interesting, in the spirit of classical orthogonal polynomials, to determine for which weights w , there is some type of Rodrigues formula. It is well known that the only weights whose orthogonal polynomials admit Rodrigues formulae are the Jacobi, Laguerre, and Hermite weights. Tricomi [14, pp. 129-133] gives a very readable account of this (in German). A survey of characterizations of classical orthogonal polynomials was given by Al-Salam [1], while the Rodrigues formulae are discussed in [2], [8], [13].

In Tricomi's presentation, one starts with a weight w on an interval I , with corresponding orthogonal polynomials $\{p_n\}_{n=0}^\infty$, and looks for a Rodrigues formula

$$p_n(x) = \frac{1}{w(x)} \left(\frac{d}{dx} \right)^n [w(x) X(x)^n]. \quad (6)$$

Here X is a polynomial of degree at most 2. While one might look at other forms, it is readily seen that to get a polynomial of degree n from

this, X cannot have degree higher than 2. By examining the case $n = 1$, one determines which weights allow such formulae for their orthogonal polynomials. Three cases arise:

(I) X is a polynomial of degree 2.

After extracting a constant, we can then factorize it as

$$X(x) = (x - a)(x - b).$$

In this case, it turns out that apart from a multiplicative constant, w is a Jacobi weight on (a, b) :

$$w(x) = (x - a)^\alpha (b - x)^\beta$$

with $\alpha, \beta > -1$.

(II) X is a polynomial of degree 1.

After extracting a constant, we can then factorize it as

$$X(x) = x - a.$$

In this case, it turns out that apart from a multiplicative constant, w is a Laguerre weight on (a, ∞) :

$$w(x) = (x - a)^\alpha e^{-cx}$$

with $\alpha > -1, c > 0$.

(III) X is a constant polynomial.

In this case, it turns out that apart from a multiplicative constant, w is a Hermite weight on $(-\infty, \infty)$:

$$w(x) = e^{-cx^2+dx}$$

for some $c > 0, d \in \mathbb{R}$.

The differential equation satisfied by these three classical weights is called a Pearson differential equation [1, p. 8]; it determines when there is a Rodrigues formula.

The main purpose of this paper is to determine which weights w have biorthogonal polynomials that admit Rodrigues type formulae when $\psi(x) = x^\alpha$. Clearly there has to be a modification of (6), and in the search for this, we are guided by (3) and (4). Moreover, for non-integer α , our interval of biorthogonality cannot include the negative real axis. We prove:

Theorem 1

Let $\alpha > 0$ and

$$\psi(x) = x^\alpha.$$

Let I be an open interval on which ψ is well defined, and let $w : I \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ be infinitely differentiable and positive a.e. on I with all moments in (1) finite. Let P_n be a polynomial of degree n determined by the biorthogonality conditions

$$\int_I P_n(x) \psi(x)^j w(x) dx \begin{cases} = 0, & j < n \\ \neq 0, & j = n \end{cases}. \quad (7)$$

(I) If $I = (0, 1)$, then for $n \geq 0$, P_n admits (up to a constant multiple) the representation

$$P_n(u^{1/\alpha}) = \frac{u^{1-1/\alpha}}{w(u^{1/\alpha})} \left(\frac{d}{du} \right)^n \left[u^{1/\alpha-1} w(u^{1/\alpha}) \left(u(1-u^{1/\alpha}) \right)^n \right] \quad (8)$$

iff w is a Jacobi weight

$$w(x) = x^a (1-x)^b \quad (9)$$

for some $a, b > -1$.

(II) If $I = (0, \infty)$, then for $n \geq 0$, P_n admits (up to a constant multiple) the representation

$$P_n(u^{1/\alpha}) = \frac{u^{1-1/\alpha}}{w(u^{1/\alpha})} \left(\frac{d}{du} \right)^n \left[u^{1/\alpha-1} w(u^{1/\alpha}) u^n \right] \quad (10)$$

iff w is a Laguerre weight

$$w(x) = x^a e^{-cx} \quad (11)$$

for some $a > -1$ and $c > 0$.

(III) If $I = (-\infty, \infty)$, then for $n \geq 0$, P_n admits (up to a constant multiple) the representation

$$P_n(u^{1/\alpha}) = \frac{u^{1-1/\alpha}}{w(u^{1/\alpha})} \left(\frac{d}{du} \right)^n \left[u^{1/\alpha-1} w(u^{1/\alpha}) \right] \quad (12)$$

iff $\alpha = 1$ and w is a Hermite weight

$$w(x) = e^{-cx^2+bx} \quad (13)$$

for some $c > 0$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Remarks

- (a) In stating the result, we specified the interval in each of the three cases to simplify the formulation. Perhaps the most curious case is $I = (-\infty, \infty)$, in which only $\alpha = 1$ is permissible, reducing to classical orthogonal polynomials. That α needs to be an integer in this case follows from the requirement that $\psi(x) = x^\alpha$ is real valued. However, it is surprising that $\alpha = 3, 5, 7, \dots$ have biorthogonal polynomials that do not admit Rodrigues type formulae.
- (b) We see that our analogues of the polynomial $X(x)$ of degree ≤ 2 in (6) are $X(x) = x(1 - x^{1/\alpha})$ for $I = (0, 1)$; $X(x) = x$ for $I = (0, \infty)$; and $X(x) = 1$ for $I = \mathbb{R}$.
- (c) In the case $\alpha = 1$, all the Rodrigues formulae above reduce to those for classical orthogonal polynomials.
- (d) There is a dual orthogonal relation to (7), namely

$$\int_I P_n(u^{1/\alpha}) u^j w_1(u) du = 0, 0 \leq j < n,$$

where

$$w_1(u) = w(u^{1/\alpha}) u^{1/\alpha - 1}.$$

(The interval of integration is still I because $\psi(x) = x^\alpha$ maps I onto I in the cases when there is a Rodrigues formula).

(d) For the Jacobi and Laguerre case, we can give some explicit representations and also a generating function. We start with the former case. Recall the Pochhammer symbol

$$(c)_n = c(c+1)(c+2)\dots(c+n-1).$$

Corollary 2

Let $\alpha > 0$ and $n \geq 1$. Let w be a Jacobi weight (9) and P_n be given by (8).

(a) Let $S_{n,j}$, $-1 \leq j \leq n-1$, be determined by the relations $S_{n,-1}(x) = \frac{1}{x}$; $S_{n,0}(x) = -\frac{b+n}{\alpha}$ and for $j \geq 1$,

$$S_{n,j}(x) = S_{n,j-1}(x) \left\{ \frac{1}{\alpha} - j + x \left[-\frac{b+n-j}{\alpha} + j - \frac{1}{\alpha} \right] \right\} + \frac{1}{\alpha} x(1-x) S'_{n,j-1}(x). \tag{14}$$

Then

$$P_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n \binom{n}{j} \frac{\left(\frac{\alpha+1}{\alpha}\right)_n}{\left(\frac{\alpha+1}{\alpha}\right)_j} (1-x)^{n-j} x S_{n,j-1}(x). \tag{15}$$

(b) The leading coefficient of P_n is

$$\sum_{j=0}^n \binom{n}{j} \frac{\left(\frac{a+1}{\alpha}\right)_n}{\left(\frac{a+1}{\alpha}\right)_j} (-1)^{n-j} \left(-\frac{b+n}{\alpha}\right)_j.$$

(c) Let $u \in \mathbb{C} \setminus ((-\infty, 0] \cup [1, \infty))$ and Γ be a positively oriented circle center u^α , of small enough radius. Then for $|z|$ sufficiently small, with all branches taken as principal ones,

$$\frac{w(u)}{u^{1-\alpha}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{P_n(u) z^n}{n!} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} \frac{t^{1/\alpha-1} w(t^{1/\alpha})}{t(1-z(1-t^{1/\alpha})) - u^\alpha} dt. \quad (16)$$

We note that for small enough $|z|$, there is exactly one simple pole of the integrand in (16) inside Γ . It is located at

$$t = u^\alpha (1 + z(1-u)) + O(z^2).$$

However, it seems impossible to explicitly compute the location of the residue (except in the classical case $\alpha = 1$) and hence deduce an explicit generating function from this contour integral. For the Laguerre case, we can obtain a more explicit generating function:

Corollary 3

Let $\alpha > 0$ and $n \geq 1$. Let w be a Laguerre weight (11) with $c = 1$ and P_n be given by (12).

(a) Let $R_{n,j}$, $1 \leq j \leq n$, be polynomials determined by the relations

$$R_{n,1}(x) = \frac{a+1}{\alpha} - 1 + n - \frac{x}{\alpha}$$

and for $j \geq 1$,

$$R_{n,j+1}(x) = \left[\frac{a+1}{\alpha} - 1 + n - j - \frac{x}{\alpha} \right] R_{n,j}(x) + \frac{x}{\alpha} R'_{n,j}(x). \quad (17)$$

Then

$$P_n(x) = R_{n,n}(x). \quad (18)$$

(b) The leading coefficient of P_n is $(-1/\alpha)^n$.

(c) For $v \in \mathbb{C}$ and $|z| < 1$,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{P_n(v) z^n}{n!} = (1-z)^{-\frac{a+1}{\alpha}} \exp\left(v \left[1 - (1-z)^{-1/\alpha}\right]\right). \quad (19)$$

Note that for $\alpha = 1$, the generating function becomes a classical one for Laguerre polynomials, taking account of the different normalization of the Laguerre polynomial L_n [8, p. 202, eqn. (4)].

We prove the results for Jacobi weights, namely Theorem 1(I) and Corollary 2 in Section 2; the results for Laguerre weights, namely Theorem 1(II) and Corollary 3 in Section 3; and the Hermite case is considered in Section 4.

2 *The Jacobi Case*

In this section, we prove Theorem 1 (I) and Corollary 2. We begin with the necessity that w is a Jacobi weight for a Rodrigues formula to hold:

Proof of Necessity that w is a Jacobi weight

Assume that (8) holds. Then for $n = 1$ this gives

$$\begin{aligned} P_1(u^{1/\alpha}) &= \frac{u^{1-1/\alpha}}{w(u^{1/\alpha})} \left(\frac{d}{du} \right) \left[u^{1/\alpha-1} w(u^{1/\alpha}) \left(u(1-u^{1/\alpha}) \right) \right] \\ &= \frac{w'}{w}(u^{1/\alpha}) \frac{1}{\alpha} u^{1/\alpha} (1-u^{1/\alpha}) + \frac{1}{\alpha} - \frac{2}{\alpha} u^{1/\alpha}. \end{aligned}$$

Set $x = u^{1/\alpha}$ and use that P_1 is a linear polynomial. We obtain for some constants A and B ,

$$A + Bx = \frac{w'}{w}(x) x(1-x).$$

Dividing by $x(1-x)$ and using partial fractions gives for some constants a and b ,

$$\frac{a}{x} + \frac{b}{1-x} = \frac{w'}{w}(x).$$

Integrating shows that w is a Jacobi weight (9), apart from a multiplicative constant. The fact that $a, b > -1$ follows from integrability of w . ■

We turn to the sufficiency part of Theorem 1 (I). We must prove that when w is a Jacobi weight, then P_n given by (8) firstly satisfies the orthogonality conditions, and secondly is a polynomial of degree n .

Proof of the Orthogonality Condition (7)

Let w be a Jacobi weight (9), and P_n be given by (8). Let

$$\begin{aligned} I_j &= \int_0^1 P_n(x) (x^\alpha)^j w(x) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\alpha} \int_0^1 P_n(u^{1/\alpha}) u^j w(u^{1/\alpha}) u^{1/\alpha-1} du \\ &= \frac{1}{\alpha} \int_0^1 w^j \left(\frac{d}{du} \right)^n \left[u^{1/\alpha-1} w(u^{1/\alpha}) \left[u(1-u^{1/\alpha}) \right]^n \right] du. \end{aligned}$$

Observe that $u^{1/\alpha-1} w(u^{1/\alpha}) \left[u(1-u^{1/\alpha}) \right]^n$ has a zero at 0 of multiplicity $\frac{1}{\alpha} - 1 + \frac{a}{\alpha} + n > n-1$. Moreover the multiplicity of the zero at 1 is $b+n > n-1$. We integrate by parts j times to obtain

$$I_j = \frac{1}{\alpha} (-1)^j j! \int_0^1 \left(\frac{d}{du} \right)^{n-j} \left[u^{1/\alpha-1} w(u^{1/\alpha}) \left[u(1-u^{1/\alpha}) \right]^n \right] du = 0,$$

if $j < n$. When $j = n$, we obtain instead

$$I_n = \frac{1}{\alpha} (-1)^n n! \int_0^1 u^{1/\alpha-1} w(u^{1/\alpha}) \left[u(1-u^{1/\alpha}) \right]^n du \neq 0,$$

as the integrand is positive in $(0, 1)$. ■

Remark

After a substitution, we see that

$$\begin{aligned} I_n &= (-1)^n n! \int_0^1 x^{a+n\alpha} (1-x)^{b+n} dx \\ &= (-1)^n n! \frac{\Gamma(a+n\alpha+1) \Gamma(b+n+1)}{\Gamma(a+b+2+n+n\alpha)}. \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

The most complicated part of the proof is showing that P_n is indeed a polynomial of degree n . This requires:

Lemma 2.1

For $j \geq 1$,

$$\left(\frac{d}{du} \right)^j \left(1 - u^{1/\alpha} \right)^{b+n} = \left(1 - u^{1/\alpha} \right)^{b+n-j} u^{1/\alpha-j} S_{n,j-1} \left(u^{1/\alpha} \right), \quad (21)$$

where $S_{n,j-1}$ is a polynomial of degree $j-1$, determined by the recursion

$$S_{n,0}(x) = -\frac{b+n}{\alpha}$$

and for $j \geq 1$,

$$S_{n,j}(x) = S_{n,j-1}(x) \left\{ \frac{1}{\alpha} - j + \left(-\frac{b+n-j}{\alpha} + j - \frac{1}{\alpha} \right) x \right\} + \frac{1}{\alpha} x(1-x) S'_{n,j-1}(x). \quad (22)$$

The leading coefficient of $S_{n,j}$ is

$$\left(-\frac{b+n}{\alpha} \right)_{j+1}. \quad (23)$$

Proof

We use induction on j : first for $j = 1$,

$$\frac{d}{du} \left(1 - u^{1/\alpha} \right)^{b+n} = (b+n) \left(1 - u^{1/\alpha} \right)^{b+n-1} u^{1/\alpha-1} \left(-\frac{1}{\alpha} \right),$$

so we can take

$$S_{n,0} \left(u^{1/\alpha} \right) = -\frac{b+n}{\alpha}. \quad (24)$$

Now assume that (21) is true for j . We shall prove it for $j+1$. Differentiating (21) gives

$$\begin{aligned} & \left(\frac{d}{du} \right)^{j+1} \left(1 - u^{1/\alpha} \right)^{b+n} \\ &= \frac{d}{du} \left[\left(1 - u^{1/\alpha} \right)^{b+n-j} u^{1/\alpha-j} S_{n,j-1} \left(u^{1/\alpha} \right) \right] \\ &= \left(1 - u^{1/\alpha} \right)^{b+n-(j+1)} u^{1/\alpha-(j+1)} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} -\frac{b+n-j}{\alpha} u^{1/\alpha} S_{n,j-1} \left(u^{1/\alpha} \right) \\ + \left(1 - u^{1/\alpha} \right) \left(\frac{1}{\alpha} - j \right) S_{n,j-1} \left(u^{1/\alpha} \right) \\ + \frac{1}{\alpha} \left(1 - u^{1/\alpha} \right) u^{1/\alpha} S'_{n,j-1} \left(u^{1/\alpha} \right) \end{array} \right\} \\ &= \left(1 - u^{1/\alpha} \right)^{b+n-(j+1)} u^{1/\alpha-(j+1)} S_{n,j} \left(u^{1/\alpha} \right), \end{aligned} \quad (25)$$

where $S_{n,j}(x)$ is a polynomial of degree at most j in x determined by the recursion (22). By induction, (21) is true for all $j \geq 1$. Finally, if d_j is the leading coefficient of $S_{n,j}$, we see that $d_0 = -\frac{b+n}{\alpha}$ and for $j \geq 1$,

$$d_j = d_{j-1} \left(-\frac{b+n}{\alpha} + j \right).$$

Iterating this gives (23). ■

The result of the lemma remains true for $j = 0$ if we adopt the convention

$$S_{n,-1}(x) \equiv \frac{1}{x}. \quad (26)$$

We can now complete the sufficiency part of Theorem 1(I):

Proof that P_n given by (8) is a polynomial of degree n

We use Leibniz's formula on (8):

$$\begin{aligned} P_n(u^{1/\alpha}) &= \frac{u^{1-1/\alpha}}{w(u^{1/\alpha})} \sum_{j=0}^n \binom{n}{j} \left(\frac{d}{du}\right)^j (1-u^{1/\alpha})^{b+n} \\ &\quad \times \left(\frac{d}{du}\right)^{n-j} \left(u^{n-1+\frac{a+1}{\alpha}}\right) \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^n \binom{n}{j} (1-u^{1/\alpha})^{n-j} S_{n,j-1}(u^{1/\alpha}) u^{1/\alpha} \\ &\quad \times \left(n-1+\frac{a+1}{\alpha}\right) \left(n-2+\frac{a+1}{\alpha}\right) \dots \left(j+\frac{a+1}{\alpha}\right), \end{aligned}$$

by Lemma 2.1, and with the convention (26). Setting $x = u^{1/\alpha}$ gives

$$P_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n \binom{n}{j} \frac{\left(\frac{a+1}{\alpha}\right)_n}{\left(\frac{a+1}{\alpha}\right)_j} (1-x)^{n-j} x S_{n,j-1}(x), \quad (27)$$

a polynomial of degree at most n . To show that P_n must have degree n we use the biorthogonality relations (7). Firstly, those relations imply that P_n has at least n simple zeros in $(0, 1)$. For else, we can construct a polynomial Q of degree at most $n-1$ such that $Q \circ \psi$ has sign changes in $(0, 1)$ exactly where P_n does, so that (after multiplying Q by ± 1) $P_n Q \circ \psi > 0$ a.e. in $(0, 1)$. Then

$$0 < \int_0^1 P_n(x) Q \circ \psi(x) w(x) dx = 0,$$

by (7). This contradiction shows that P_n either has degree n or is identically 0. That the former must be true follows from the second relation in (7). ■

Proof of Corollary 2

(a), (b) These follow readily from (27) and Lemma 2.1.

(c) Let $u \in (0, 1)$ and Γ be a positively oriented circle center u of small radius. By Cauchy's integral formula for derivatives, with all branches principal,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{w(u^{1/\alpha})}{u^{1-1/\alpha}} P_n(u^{1/\alpha}) &= \left(\frac{d}{du} \right)^n \left[u^{1/\alpha-1} w(u^{1/\alpha}) \left(u(1-u^{1/\alpha}) \right)^n \right] \\ &= \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} \frac{t^{1/\alpha-1} w(t^{1/\alpha}) [t(1-t^{1/\alpha})]^n}{(t-u)^{n+1}} dt. \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{w(u^{1/\alpha})}{u^{1-1/\alpha}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{P_n(u^{1/\alpha}) z^n}{n!} &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} \frac{t^{1/\alpha-1} w(t^{1/\alpha})}{t-u} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{t(1-t^{1/\alpha}) z}{t-u} \right)^n dt \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} \frac{t^{1/\alpha-1} w(t^{1/\alpha})}{t-u-t(1-t^{1/\alpha})z} dt. \end{aligned}$$

The interchange of series and integral and summation of the geometric series is justified by uniform convergence (for $|z|$ sufficiently small). Replacing u by $u^\alpha \in (0, 1)$ then yields (16) for such u . The left-hand side of (16) is an analytic function of $u \in \mathbb{C} \setminus ((-\infty, 0] \cup [1, \infty))$, with principal choice of branches, provided $|z|$ is sufficiently small. We can see this by using the first contour integral above to bound $\left| \frac{w(u)}{u^{\alpha-1}} \frac{P_n(u)}{n!} \right|$ by C^n uniformly in n and for u in a given compact subset of $\mathbb{C} \setminus ((-\infty, 0] \cup [1, \infty))$. The right-hand side is also analytic in that region. In fact we can use analytic continuation and finitely many shifts of the center of Γ , while keeping the radius constant to move the contour from a point in $(0, 1)$ to any fixed point in $\mathbb{C} \setminus ((-\infty, 0] \cup [1, \infty))$. Then (16) follows throughout this region. ■

3 The Laguerre Case

In this section, we prove Theorem 1(II) and Corollary 3. We begin with the necessity that w is a Laguerre weight when there is a Rodrigues formula:

Proof of Necessity that w is a Laguerre weight

Assume that (10) holds. Then for $n = 1$ this gives

$$\begin{aligned} P_1(u^{1/\alpha}) &= \frac{u^{1-1/\alpha}}{w(u^{1/\alpha})} \left(\frac{d}{du} \right) \left[u^{1/\alpha-1} w(u^{1/\alpha}) u \right] \\ &= \frac{w'}{w}(u^{1/\alpha}) \frac{1}{\alpha} u^{1/\alpha} + \frac{1}{\alpha}. \end{aligned}$$

Set $x = u^{1/\alpha}$ and use that P_1 is a linear polynomial. We obtain for some constants A and B ,

$$A + Bx = \frac{w'}{w}(x)x$$

and hence

$$\frac{A}{x} + B = \frac{w'}{w}(x).$$

Integrating shows that w is a Laguerre weight

$$w(x) = x^A e^{Bx},$$

apart from a constant factor. The fact that $A > -1, B < 0$ follows from integrability of w . ■

We turn to the sufficiency part of Theorem 1 (II). We must prove that when w is a Laguerre weight, then P_n given by (10) firstly satisfies the orthogonality conditions, and secondly is a polynomial of degree n .

Proof of the Orthogonality Condition (7)

Let w be a Laguerre weight (11), and P_n be given by (10). Let

$$\begin{aligned} I_j &= \int_0^\infty P_n(x) (x^\alpha)^j w(x) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\alpha} \int_0^\infty P_n(u^{1/\alpha}) u^j w(u^{1/\alpha}) u^{1/\alpha-1} du \\ &= \frac{1}{\alpha} \int_0^\infty u^j \left(\frac{d}{du}\right)^n \left[u^{1/\alpha-1} w(u^{1/\alpha}) u^n \right] du. \end{aligned}$$

Observe that $u^{1/\alpha-1} w(u^{1/\alpha}) u^n$ has a zero at 0 of multiplicity $\frac{1}{\alpha} - 1 + \frac{n}{\alpha} + n > n - 1$. Moreover $u^{1/\alpha-1} w(u^{1/\alpha}) u^n$ decays at ∞ faster than any negative power of u . We integrate by parts j times to obtain

$$I_j = \frac{1}{\alpha} (-1)^j j! \int_0^\infty \left(\frac{d}{du}\right)^{n-j} \left[u^{1/\alpha-1} w(u^{1/\alpha}) u^n \right] du = 0,$$

if $j \leq n - 1$. When $j = n$, we obtain instead

$$I_n = \frac{1}{\alpha} (-1)^n n! \int_0^\infty u^{1/\alpha-1} w(u^{1/\alpha}) u^n du \neq 0,$$

as the integrand is positive. ■

If we assume that $c = 1$ in (11), then after a substitution, we see that

$$\begin{aligned} I_n &= (-1)^n n! \int_0^\infty x^{a+n\alpha} e^{-x} dx \\ &= (-1)^n n! \Gamma(a + n\alpha + 1). \end{aligned} \quad (28)$$

To show that P_n is indeed a polynomial of degree n , we need:

Lemma 3.1

Let $\Delta \in \mathbb{R}$. For $j \geq 1$,

$$\left(\frac{d}{du}\right)^j \left[u^{\Delta+n} e^{-cu^{1/\alpha}} \right] = u^{\Delta+n-j} e^{-cu^{1/\alpha}} R_{n,j} \left(u^{1/\alpha} \right), \quad (29)$$

where

$$R_{n,1}(x) = \Delta + n - \frac{c}{\alpha} x \quad (30)$$

and for $j \geq 1$, $R_{n,j+1}$ is a polynomial of degree $j + 1$ determined by the recursion

$$R_{n,j+1}(x) = R_{n,j}(x) \left\{ \Delta + n - j - \frac{c}{\alpha} x \right\} + \frac{x}{\alpha} R'_{n,j}(x). \quad (31)$$

The leading coefficient of $R_{n,j}$ is $\left(-\frac{c}{\alpha}\right)^j$.

Proof

We use induction on j : first for $j = 1$,

$$\begin{aligned} &\frac{d}{du} \left[u^{\Delta+n} e^{-cu^{1/\alpha}} \right] \\ &= u^{\Delta+n-1} e^{-cu^{1/\alpha}} \left[\Delta + n - \frac{c}{\alpha} u^{1/\alpha} \right] \\ &= u^{\Delta+n-1} e^{-cu^{1/\alpha}} R_{n,1} \left(u^{1/\alpha} \right), \end{aligned}$$

where $R_{n,1}$ is a polynomial of degree 1 given by (30). Now assume that (29) is true for j . We shall prove it for $j + 1$. Differentiating (29) gives

$$\begin{aligned} &\left(\frac{d}{du}\right)^{j+1} \left[u^{\Delta+n} e^{-cu^{1/\alpha}} \right] \\ &= \frac{d}{du} \left[u^{\Delta+n-j} e^{-cu^{1/\alpha}} R_{n,j} \left(u^{1/\alpha} \right) \right] \\ &= u^{\Delta+n-(j+1)} e^{-cu^{1/\alpha}} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (\Delta + n - j) R_{n,j} \left(u^{1/\alpha} \right) \\ - \frac{c}{\alpha} u^{1/\alpha} R_{n,j} \left(u^{1/\alpha} \right) \\ + \frac{1}{\alpha} u^{1/\alpha} R'_{n,j} \left(u^{1/\alpha} \right) \end{array} \right\} \\ &= u^{\Delta+n-(j+1)} e^{-cu^{1/\alpha}} R_{n,j+1} \left(u^{1/\alpha} \right), \end{aligned}$$

where $R_{n,j+1}(x)$ is a polynomial of degree $j + 1$ in x determined by the recursion (31). By induction, (29) is true for all $j \geq 1$. ■

The result of the lemma remains true for $j = 0$ if we set

$$R_{n,0}(x) \equiv 1. \quad (32)$$

We can now complete the sufficiency part of Theorem 1(II):

Proof that P_n given by (10) is a polynomial of degree n

We use Lemma 3.1 on P_n given by (10), with w a Laguerre weight as in (11) and $\Delta = \frac{a+1}{\alpha} - 1$:

$$\begin{aligned} P_n(u^{1/\alpha}) &= \frac{u^{1-1/\alpha}}{w(u^{1/\alpha})} \left(\frac{d}{du}\right)^n \left[u^{1/\alpha-1} w(u^{1/\alpha}) u^n \right] \\ &= \frac{u^{1-1/\alpha}}{w(u^{1/\alpha})} \left(\frac{d}{du}\right)^n \left[u^{(a+1)/\alpha-1+n} e^{-cu^{1/\alpha}} \right] \\ &= \frac{u^{1-1/\alpha}}{w(u^{1/\alpha})} u^{(a+1)/\alpha-1} e^{-cu^{1/\alpha}} R_{n,n}(u^{1/\alpha}) = R_{n,n}(u^{1/\alpha}). \end{aligned} \quad (33)$$

That P_n must have degree n follows from $I_n \neq 0$, as in the proof of the Jacobi case. More simply the lemma shows that the leading coefficient of $P_n = R_{n,n}$ is $(-c/\alpha)^n$. ■

Proof of Corollary 3

(a), (b) follow from (33), Lemma 3.1, with $\Delta = \frac{a+1}{\alpha} - 1$ and the fact that we chose $c = 1$.

(c) Let $u \in (0, \infty)$. By Cauchy's integral formula for derivatives,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{w(u^{1/\alpha})}{u^{1-1/\alpha}} P_n(u^{1/\alpha}) &= \left(\frac{d}{du}\right)^n \left[u^{1/\alpha-1} w(u^{1/\alpha}) u^n \right] \\ &= \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} \frac{t^{1/\alpha-1} w(t^{1/\alpha}) t^n}{(t-u)^{n+1}} dt. \end{aligned}$$

Here, as usual, Γ is a circle center u of sufficiently small radius. Then for $|z|$ sufficiently small,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{w(u^{1/\alpha})}{u^{1-1/\alpha}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{P_n(u^{1/\alpha}) z^n}{n!} &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} \frac{t^{1/\alpha-1} w(t^{1/\alpha})}{t-u} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{tz}{t-u}\right)^n dt \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} \frac{t^{1/\alpha-1} w(t^{1/\alpha})}{t-u-tz} dt. \end{aligned}$$

The integrand has a simple pole at $t = u/(1-z)$. By the residue theorem, we continue this as

$$= (1-z)^{-1} \left(\frac{u}{1-z}\right)^{1/\alpha-1} w\left(\left(\frac{u}{1-z}\right)^{1/\alpha}\right).$$

Rearranging this gives

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{P_n(u^{1/\alpha}) z^n}{n!} = (1-z)^{-\frac{a+1}{\alpha}} \exp\left(u^{1/\alpha} \left[1 - (1-z)^{-1/\alpha}\right]\right).$$

All the algebraic manipulations of the multivalued functions are valid for $u \in (0, \infty)$ and $|z|$ small enough. Replacing $u^{1/\alpha}$ by v and noting that the left-hand side is the Maclaurin series in z (for fixed v) of the right-hand side, we obtain for all $v \in (0, \infty)$ and $|z| < 1$,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{P_n(v) z^n}{n!} = (1-z)^{-\frac{a+1}{\alpha}} \exp\left(v \left[1 - (1-z)^{-1/\alpha}\right]\right).$$

To extend this to v off the positive real axis, we observe that

$$P_n(v) = \left(\frac{d}{dz}\right)^n \left\{ (1-z)^{-\frac{a+1}{\alpha}} \exp\left(v \left[1 - (1-z)^{-1/\alpha}\right]\right) \right\}_{|z=0}.$$

By analyticity with respect to v of both sides of this relation, it persists for all complex v . Then (19) also follows for all complex v . ■

4 The Hermite Case

In this section we prove Theorem 1(III). The main thing to be proved is that w must be a Hermite weight and α must equal 1, for a Rodrigues formula to hold. One immediate observation is that α must be an integer. For if α is non-integral, then $\psi(x) = x^\alpha$ is not real valued on the negative real axis.

Of course if α is an even integer, then ψ is not increasing, but we shall show that even allowing for this, there is still no Rodrigues formula. So in the sequel, we assume that α is a positive integer.

Proof of Necessity that w is the Hermite weight

Assume that (12) holds. Then for $n = 1$ this gives

$$\begin{aligned} P_1(u^{1/\alpha}) &= \frac{u^{1-1/\alpha}}{w(u^{1/\alpha})} \left(\frac{d}{du} \right) \left[u^{1/\alpha-1} w(u^{1/\alpha}) \right] \\ &= \frac{w'}{w}(u^{1/\alpha}) \frac{1}{\alpha} u^{1/\alpha-1} + \left(\frac{1}{\alpha} - 1 \right) \frac{1}{u}. \end{aligned} \quad (34)$$

Setting $x = u^{1/\alpha}$ gives

$$P_1(x) = \frac{w'}{w}(x) \frac{1}{\alpha} x^{1-\alpha} + \left(\frac{1}{\alpha} - 1 \right) x^{-\alpha}.$$

Next since P_1 is a linear polynomial, we obtain for some constants A and B ,

$$Ax^{\alpha-1} + Bx^\alpha + \frac{\alpha-1}{x} = \frac{w'}{w}(x). \quad (35)$$

Integrating gives

$$w(x) = |x|^{\alpha-1} \exp\left(\frac{A}{\alpha} x^\alpha + \frac{B}{\alpha+1} x^{\alpha+1} \right).$$

To show that $\alpha = 1$, we use the Rodrigues formula for $n = 2$. First note that differentiating (35) gives

$$\frac{w''}{w}(x) - \left(\frac{w'}{w}(x) \right)^2 = A(\alpha-1)x^{\alpha-2} + B\alpha x^{\alpha-1} - \frac{\alpha-1}{x^2}. \quad (36)$$

Next, (12) gives

$$\begin{aligned} P_2(u^{1/\alpha}) &= \frac{u^{1-1/\alpha}}{w(u^{1/\alpha})} \left(\frac{d}{du} \right)^2 \left[u^{1/\alpha-1} w(u^{1/\alpha}) \right] \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{\alpha} - 1 \right) \left(\frac{1}{\alpha} - 2 \right) u^{-2} + \frac{3}{\alpha} \left(\frac{1}{\alpha} - 1 \right) u^{1/\alpha-2} \frac{w'}{w}(u^{1/\alpha}) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{\alpha^2} \left(u^{1/\alpha-1} \right)^2 \frac{w''}{w}(u^{1/\alpha}). \end{aligned}$$

Setting $x = u^{1/\alpha}$ gives

$$P_2(x) = \left(\frac{1}{\alpha} - 1\right) \left(\frac{1}{\alpha} - 2\right) x^{-2\alpha} + \frac{3}{\alpha} \left(\frac{1}{\alpha} - 1\right) x^{1-2\alpha} \frac{w'}{w}(x) + \frac{1}{\alpha^2} (x^{1-\alpha})^2 \frac{w''}{w}(x).$$

Substituting in (35) and (36) and gathering terms gives

$$\begin{aligned} P_2(x) &= x^{-2\alpha} \left\{ \left(\frac{1}{\alpha} - 1\right) \left(\frac{1}{\alpha} - 2\right) + \frac{3}{\alpha} \left(\frac{1}{\alpha} - 1\right) (\alpha - 1) - \frac{\alpha - 1}{\alpha^2} + \frac{(\alpha - 1)^2}{\alpha^2} \right\} \\ &\quad + x^{-\alpha} \left\{ \frac{3}{\alpha} \left(\frac{1}{\alpha} - 1\right) A + \frac{\alpha - 1}{\alpha^2} A + \frac{2}{\alpha^2} (\alpha - 1) A \right\} \\ &\quad + x^{1-\alpha} \left\{ \frac{3}{\alpha} \left(\frac{1}{\alpha} - 1\right) B + \frac{B}{\alpha} + \frac{2}{\alpha^2} B (\alpha - 1) \right\} \\ &\quad + \left(\frac{A}{\alpha}\right)^2 + \frac{2AB}{\alpha^2} x + \left(\frac{B}{\alpha}\right)^2 x^2. \end{aligned}$$

We continue this as

$$P_2(x) = 0x^{-2\alpha} + 0x^{-\alpha} + \frac{B}{\alpha^2} x^{1-\alpha} + \left(\frac{A}{\alpha}\right)^2 + \frac{2AB}{\alpha^2} x + \left(\frac{B}{\alpha}\right)^2 x^2.$$

Here if $\alpha \neq 1$, then $\alpha \geq 2$, and the condition that P_2 be a polynomial of degree ≤ 2 forces $B = 0$, and then

$$P_2(x) = \left(\frac{A}{\alpha}\right)^2,$$

a constant. Since the orthogonality condition (7) forces P_2 to have at least two zeros, we deduce that $A = 0$. Then

$$w(x) = |x|^{\alpha-1},$$

which is not integrable over the real line. So we need $\alpha = 1$. ■

Proof of sufficiency for w the Hermite weight and $\alpha = 1$

We have to show that for

$$w(x) = \exp(Ax + Bx^2),$$

with $B < 0$,

$$P_n(x) = \frac{1}{w(x)} \left(\frac{d}{dx}\right)^n w(x)$$

is an orthogonal polynomial of degree n . This is of course classical and can be found in Tricomi [14, pp. 129-133] for general A . For the case $A = 0, B = -1$ (which the general case becomes after a linear transformation), the proof is in numerous texts, for example [2], [8], [13]. ■

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