

Lecture Notes

Orthogonal Polynomials

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Peter Junghanns

Remark: The present lecture notes contain only a framework of the contents of the lectures. The lectures themselves present detailed expositions, proofs and examples.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Orthogonality

By $\mathbb{K}[x]$ we denote the linear space of all polynomials of the form

$$p(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0, \quad (1.1)$$

where $a_k \in \mathbb{K}$ are from a field (for example, \mathbb{C} or \mathbb{R}) and $n \in \mathbb{N}_0 = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$. hence, the elements of $\mathbb{C}[x]$ are polynomials with complex coefficients, which we also consider as maps $p: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, $x \mapsto p(x)$ from the set of real numbers into the set of complex numbers. Thus, the independent variable x sei also eine beliebige reelle Zahl. If a_n in (1.1) is different from zero, then $\deg p = n$ is called **degree of the polynomial** $p(x)$ and a_n the **leading coefficient** of this polynomial. The linear subspace of $\mathbb{C}[x]$ of all polynomials of degree less than n will be denoted by $\mathbb{C}_n[x]$, $n \in \mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, \dots\}$.

For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the system $M_k(x) = x^k$, $k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$, forms a basis in $\mathbb{C}_n[x]$, which means that the representation of $p(x)$ from $\mathbb{C}_{n+1}[x]$ in (1.1) is unique. This also means that each finite subsystem of the system $(M_n)_{n=0}^\infty$ is linearly independent, because of which we also call this infinite system linearly independent. As an example, let us define on $\mathbb{C}[x]$ a **scalar product**, also called **inner product**,

$$\langle p, q \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 p(x) \overline{q(x)} dx, \quad p, q \in \mathbb{C}[x]. \quad (1.2)$$

If we apply the well known Schmidt's orthogonalization method to the system $(M_n)_{n=0}^\infty$, then we get a system $(P_n)_{n=0}^\infty$ of polynomials $P_n(x)$ with the properties $\deg P_n = n$,

$$\text{span} \{P_0, \dots, P_{n-1}\} = \mathbb{C}_n[x], \quad n \in \mathbb{N},$$

and

$$\langle P_k, P_j \rangle = \delta_{jk} = \begin{cases} 0 & : j \neq k \\ 1 & : j = k \end{cases}, \quad j, k \in \mathbb{N}_0. \quad (1.3)$$

With $\text{span} \{P_0, \dots, P_{n-1}\}$ we refer to the set of all linear combinations of the polynomials P_j , $j = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$. Since this set is equal to $\text{span} \{M_0, \dots, M_{n-1}\}$, it is easily seen that, for $k \neq j$, the orthogonality relations (1.3) are equivalent to

$$\langle M_k, P_n \rangle = 0, \quad k = 0, \dots, n-1, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}. \quad (1.4)$$

Consider the polynomials $f_n(x) = (1 - x^2)^n$ und $Q_n(x) = f_n^{(n)}(x)$. Using partial integration leads to

$$\langle M_k, Q_n \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 x^k \frac{d^n}{dx^n} (1 - x^2)^n dx = -k \int_{-1}^1 x^{k-1} \frac{d^{n-1}}{dx^{n-1}} (1 - x^2)^n dx,$$

where $n \in \mathbb{N}$ und $0 < k \leq n$. Repeating this yields

$$\langle M_k, Q_n \rangle = (-1)^k k! \int_{-1}^1 \frac{d^{n-k}}{dx^{n-k}} (1 - x^2)^n dx = \begin{cases} 0 & : k = 0, \dots, n-1, \\ (-1)^n n! \kappa_n & : k = n, \end{cases}$$

with $\kappa_n = \int_{-1}^1 (1 - x^2)^n dx$. Again by partial integration we get, for $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\kappa_n = \kappa_{n-1} - \int_{-1}^1 [(1 - x^2)^{n-1} x] x dx = \kappa_{n-1} - \frac{1}{2n} \kappa_n$$

and consequently, since $\kappa_0 = 2$,¹

$$\kappa_n = \frac{2n}{2n+1} \kappa_{n-1} = \dots = \frac{2^n n!}{(2n+1)!!} \kappa_0 = \frac{2^{n+1} n!}{(2n+1)!!}.$$

Now we normalize $Q_n(x)$ in order to satisfy the condition $\langle P_n, P_n \rangle = 1$. To this end, we make the ansatz $P_n(x) = \delta_n Q_n(x)$ and require (for definiteness), that the leading coefficient of $P_n(x)$ is positive. The leading coefficient of $Q_n(x) = \frac{d^n}{dx^n} [(-1)^n x^{2n} + \dots + 1]$ equals $(-1)^n \frac{(2n)!}{n!}$. Because of

$$\delta_n^2 \int_{-1}^1 [Q_n(x)]^2 dx = \delta_n^2 (-1)^n \frac{(2n)!}{n!} \int_{-1}^1 x^n Q_n(x) dx = \delta_n^2 (2n)! \kappa_n = \delta_n^2 \frac{2(2^n n!)^2}{2n+1}$$

we get that, for

$$\delta_n = c_n \frac{(-1)^n}{2^n n!} \quad \text{mit} \quad c_n = \sqrt{\frac{2n+1}{2}},$$

the condition $\langle P_n, P_n \rangle = 1$ is fulfilled. Now, for the leading coefficient of the polynomial $P_n(x) = \gamma_n x^n + \dots$ we get $\gamma_n = \frac{c_n}{2^n} \binom{2n}{n}$. The polynomial

$$L_n(x) = \frac{(-1)^n}{2^n n!} \frac{d^n}{dx^n} (1 - x^2)^n \tag{1.5}$$

is called n th **Legendre polynomial**. Up to the constant c_n this polynomial is the n th polynomial in **orthonormal system of polynomials** $(P_n)_{n=0}^\infty$ w.r.t. the inner product defined in (1.2). The formula (1.5) is due to **Rodrigues**.

The sequence $(P_n)_{n=0}^\infty$ of polynomials is a solution of the following **moment problem**:

Given is a sequence $(\mu_n)_{n=0}^\infty$ of numbers $\mu_n = \int_{-1}^1 x^n dx = \frac{1 - (-1)^{n+1}}{n+1}$. On the linear set $\mathbb{C}[x]$ of polynomials of the form (1.1) define a linear functional \mathcal{L} by

$$\mathcal{L}[p] = a_n \mu_n + a_{n-1} \mu_{n-1} + \dots + a_1 \mu_1 + a_0 \mu_0.$$

¹ $(2n+1)!! = 1 \cdot 3 \cdot \dots \cdot (2n+1)$

Find a system of polynomials $P_n(x)$ with $\deg P_n = n$, $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$, such that the orthogonality relations

$$\mathcal{L}[P_m P_n] = 0 \quad \text{for } m \neq n$$

are fulfilled. If the polynomials $P_n(x)$ also satisfy

$$\mathcal{L}[P_n^2] \neq 0, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0,$$

then the sequence $(P_n(x))_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is called **orthogonal polynomial system** (OPS) w.r.t. the **moment functional** \mathcal{L} . In the following chapter we will answer the question under which conditions on the moment sequence $(\mu_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ such an OPS exists.

Another OPS we can find in the following way:

Using the trigonometric relation

$$2 \cos m\theta \cos n\theta = \cos(m+n)\theta + \cos(m-n)\theta \quad (1.6)$$

one get

$$\int_0^\pi \cos m\theta \cos n\theta d\theta = \begin{cases} 0 & , \quad m \neq n, \\ \pi & , \quad m = n = 0, \\ \frac{\pi}{2} & , \quad m = n \in \mathbb{N}. \end{cases} \quad (1.7)$$

With $x = \cos \theta$ and $T_n(x) = \cos n\theta$, $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$, from (1.6) for $m = 1$ we obtain

$$2x T_n(x) = T_{n+1}(x) + T_{n-1}(x) \quad (1.8)$$

or

$$T_{n+1}(x) = 2x T_n(x) - T_{n-1}(x), \quad n \in \mathbb{N} \quad (1.9)$$

Since $T_0(x) = 1$ and $T_1(x) = x$ the recursive relation (1.9) shows, that $T_n(x)$ is a polynomial of degree n with leading coefficient 2^{n-1} for $n \in \mathbb{N}$. From (1.7) it follows

$$\int_{-1}^1 T_m(x) T_n(x) \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} = \begin{cases} 0 & , \quad m \neq n, \\ \pi & , \quad m = n = 0, \\ \frac{\pi}{2} & , \quad m = n \in \mathbb{N}. \end{cases} \quad (1.10)$$

$T_n(x)$ is called **Chebyshev polynomial of first kind** and of degree n , the function $(1-x^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ **Chebyshec weight of first kind**.

Considering the polynomials $xP_n(x) = M_1(x)P_n(x)$ and using the orthogonality relations (1.4) we can obtain a recursion formula for the polynomials $P_n(x)$ analogous to (1.8). Indeed, we have the representation

$$M_1 P_n = \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} \varepsilon_{nk} P_k,$$

where $\varepsilon_{nk} = \langle M_1 P_n, P_k \rangle = \langle P_n, M_1 P_k \rangle = 0$ for $k = 0, \dots, n-2$. Since $x[P_n(x)]^2$ is an odd function, we also get $\varepsilon_{nn} = 0$. For the remaining tw coefficients we obtain $\varepsilon_{n,n+1} = \gamma_n \langle M_{n+1}, P_{n+1} \rangle = \gamma_n \gamma_{n+1}^{-1} \langle P_{n+1}, P_{n+1} \rangle = \gamma_n \gamma_{n+1}^{-1}$ and $\varepsilon_{n,n-1} = \gamma_{n-1} \langle P_n, M_n \rangle = \gamma_{n-1} \gamma_n^{-1}$. Hence,

$$\rho_{n+1} P_{n+1}(x) = x P_n(x) - \rho_n P_{n-1}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0, \quad (1.11)$$

with $\rho_n = \gamma_{n-1}\gamma_n^{-1}$ is proved, where we set $P_{-1}(x) \equiv 0$. We will see that such a three term recurrence relation is a typical property of orthogonal polynomial systems. Moreover, such a relation enables us to compute interesting numerical parameters of orthogonal polynomials. For example, the zeros of orthogonal polynomials are eigenvalues of tridiagonal matrices. Indeed, writing down the relation (1.11) for $n = 0, 1, \dots, m-1$ in matrix language gives

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \rho_1 & & & 0 \\ \rho_1 & 0 & \rho_2 & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & \rho_{m-2} & 0 & \rho_{m-1} \\ 0 & & & \rho_{m-1} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} P_0(x) \\ P_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ P_{m-2}(x) \\ P_{m-1}(x) \end{bmatrix} = x \begin{bmatrix} P_0(x) \\ P_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ P_{m-2}(x) \\ P_{m-1}(x) \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ \rho_m P_m(x) \end{bmatrix}, \quad (1.12)$$

and it is easily seen that a zero of the m th orthogonal polynomial $P_m(x)$ is an eigenvalue of the matrix in (1.12).

Relation (1.8) written in matrix language gives

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & & & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & & & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} T_0(x) \\ T_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ T_{m-2}(x) \\ T_{m-1}(x) \end{bmatrix} = 2x \begin{bmatrix} T_0(x) \\ T_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ T_{m-2}(x) \\ T_{m-1}(x) \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ T_m(x) \end{bmatrix}.$$

hence, the eigenvalues of the $m \times m$ matrix on the left-hand side of this equation are just the numbers

$$2 \cos \frac{(2k-1)\pi}{2m}, \quad k = 1, \dots, m.$$

If we normalize the polynomials $T_n(x)$ by $\widehat{T}_n(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} T_n(x)$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$ und $\widehat{T}_0(x) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\pi}}$, relation (1.9) can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2} \widehat{T}_{n+1}(x) &= x \widehat{T}_n(x) - \frac{1}{2} \widehat{T}_{n-1}(x), \quad n = 2, 3, \dots, \\ \frac{1}{2} \widehat{T}_2(x) &= x \widehat{T}_1(x) - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \widehat{T}_0(x), \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \widehat{T}_1(x) &= x \widehat{T}_0(x). \end{aligned}$$

Consequently, the numbers $\cos \frac{2k-1}{2m}$, $k = 1, \dots, m$ are the eigenvalues of the symmetric tridiagonal matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & & & 0 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & & & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

associated to these last recursion formulas.

1.2 Generating function

Consider the following function of two variables ($a \neq 0$)

$$G(x, w) = e^{-aw}(1+w)^x = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-a)^m w^m}{m!} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{x}{n} w^n. \quad (1.13)$$

The Cauchy product of the two series in (1.13) is equal to

$$G(x, w) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_n(x) w^n \quad (1.14)$$

with

$$P_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{x}{k} \frac{(-a)^{n-k}}{(n-k)!}. \quad (1.15)$$

Due to $\binom{x}{k} = \frac{x(x-1)\cdots(x-k+1)}{k!}$ the function $P_n(x)$ is a polynomial of degree n . The function $G(x, w)$ is called **generating function** of the polynomials $P_n(x)$, the so-called **Charlier polynomials**. Relation (1.13) implies

$$a^x G(x, v)G(x, w) = e^{-a(v+w)}[a(1+v)(1+w)]^x$$

and, consequently,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{a^k G(k, v)G(k, w)}{k!} &= e^{-a(v+w)} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{[a(1+v)(1+w)]^k}{k!} \\ &= e^{-a(v+w)} e^{a(1+v)(1+w)} = e^a e^{avw} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^a a^n (vw)^n}{n!}. \end{aligned} \quad (1.16)$$

Using (1.14) we get

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{a^k G(k, v)G(k, w)}{k!} &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{a^k}{k!} \sum_{m,n=0}^{\infty} P_m(k)P_n(k)v^m w^n \\ &= \sum_{m,n=0}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_m(k)P_n(k) \frac{a^k}{k!} \right) v^m w^n. \end{aligned} \quad (1.17)$$

A comparison of the coefficients in (1.16) and (1.17) leads to

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_m(k)P_n(k) \frac{a^k}{k!} = \begin{cases} 0 & , \quad m \neq n, \\ \frac{e^a a^n}{n!} & , \quad m = n. \end{cases} \quad (1.18)$$

If we define

$$\mu_n = \mathcal{L}[M_n] = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k^n \frac{a^k}{k!},$$

then, due to (1.18), it follows

$$\mathcal{L}[P_m P_n] = \frac{e^a a^n}{n!} \delta_{mn}, \quad \delta_{mn} := \begin{cases} 0 & , \quad m \neq n, \\ 1 & , \quad m = n. \end{cases}$$

1.3 Birth and death process

We model a birth and death process (a special Markov process the state space of which is the set \mathbb{N}_0 of the nonnegative integers). By $p_{mn}(t)$, $m, n \in \mathbb{N}_0$, $t \geq 0$, we denote the so called transition probabilities. This means that $p_{mn}(t)$ is the probability that the system (for example, the size of a population) changes from the state m to the state n during the time period t . The matrix $P(t) = [p_{mn}(t)]_{m,n=0}^{\infty}$ is called transition matrix. Here, $p_{mn}(t)$ really depends only on m, n, t and does not depend on how the system reached the state m (stationary process). This is equivalent to the relation

$$P(s+t) = P(s)P(t). \quad (1.19)$$

For $t \rightarrow +0$ we assume that the transition probabilities satisfy ²

$$p_{mn}(t) = \begin{cases} \lambda_m t + o(t) & : n = m + 1, \\ 1 - \lambda_m t - \eta_m t + o(t) & : n = m, \\ \eta_m t + o(t) & : n = m - 1 \end{cases} \quad (1.20)$$

and

$$\sum_{n=0}^{m-2} p_{mn}(t) + \sum_{n=m+2}^{\infty} p_{mn}(t) = o(t). \quad (1.21)$$

The coefficients λ_m and η_m are called birth and death rate at state m , respectively, and are assumed to have the properties

$$\lambda_m > 0, \eta_{m+1} > 0, m \in \mathbb{N}_0, \eta_0 \geq 0. \quad (1.22)$$

Now, let $\Delta t > 0$. The condition (1.19) leads to $P(t + \Delta t) = P(t)P(\Delta t)$, i.e., in view of (1.20),

$$\begin{aligned} p_{mn}(t + \Delta t) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} p_{mk}(t)p_{kn}(\Delta t) \\ &= p_{m,n-1}(t)\lambda_{n-1}\Delta t + p_{m,n+1}(t)\eta_{n+1}\Delta t \\ &\quad + p_{mn}(t)[1 - (\lambda_n + \eta_n)\Delta t] + o(\Delta t). \end{aligned}$$

(Quantities with negative indices are assumed to be zero.) It follows

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{p_{mn}(t + \Delta t) - p_{mn}(t)}{\Delta t} &= \lambda_{n-1}p_{m,n-1}(t) + \eta_{n+1}p_{m,n+1}(t) \\ &\quad - (\lambda_n + \eta_n)p_{mn}(t) + \frac{o(\Delta t)}{\Delta t}, \end{aligned}$$

and, for $\Delta t \rightarrow +0$,

$$p'_{mn}(t) = \lambda_{n-1}p_{m,n-1}(t) + \eta_{n+1}p_{m,n+1}(t) - (\lambda_n + \eta_n)p_{mn}(t).$$

Analogously, using the relation $P(t + \Delta t) = P(\Delta t)P(t)$ leads to

$$p'_{mn}(t) = \lambda_m p_{m+1,n}(t) + \eta_m p_{m-1,n}(t) - (\lambda_m + \eta_m)p_{mn}(t).$$

²By $o(t)$ we denote quantities satisfying $\lim_{t \rightarrow +0} o(t)/t = 0$

the last two equations are called **backward** and **forward Chapman-Kolmogorov equations**, respectively. Taking the separation ansatz $p_{mn}(t) = f(t)Q_m F_n$, from the backward Chapman-Kolmogorov equations we get

$$\frac{f'(t)}{f(t)} = \frac{\lambda_{n-1}F_{n-1} + \eta_{n+1}F_{n+1} - (\lambda_n + \eta_n)F_n}{F_n} =: -x.$$

hence, up to a multiplicative constant $f(t) = e^{-xt}$. Obviously, the F_n 's depend on x and we write $F_n(x)$. With the agreement $F_{-1}(x) \equiv 0$ we get

$$\eta_{n+1}F_{n+1}(x) = (\lambda_n + \eta_n - x)F_n(x) - \lambda_{n-1}F_{n-1}(x), \quad (1.23)$$

$n \in \mathbb{N}_0$. The function $F_0(x)$ can be chosen arbitrarily. Hence, the functions $F_n(x)$ are uniquely determined by, for example, the initial conditions $F_{-1}(x) \equiv 0$, $F_0(x) \equiv 1$. Analogously, the functions $Q_n(x)$ are determined uniquely by the initial conditions $Q_{-1}(x) \equiv 0$, $Q_0(x) \equiv 1$ and by the recursive relation

$$\lambda_n Q_{n+1}(x) = (\lambda_n + \eta_n - x)Q_n(x) - \eta_n Q_{n-1}(x),$$

$n \in \mathbb{N}_0$. The polynomial system $(\varepsilon_n Q_n)_{n=0}^\infty$ with

$$\varepsilon_0 = 1 \quad \text{und} \quad \varepsilon_n = \frac{\lambda_0 \cdots \lambda_{n-1}}{\eta_1 \cdots \eta_n}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N},$$

satisfies the same initial conditions and recurrence relation as the polynomial system $(F_n)_{n=0}^\infty$. Thus, our separation ansatz leads to

$$p_{mn}(t) = \frac{1}{\varepsilon_m} e^{-xt} F_m(x) F_n(x),$$

where $x \geq 0$ in order to guarantee that $p_{mn}(t)$ remains bounded for $t \rightarrow +\infty$. Remark that we again arrive at a system of polynomials which fulfills a recurrence relation analogous to (1.11) (cf. (1.23)). We will see that such a recursion formula implies the existence of a moment sequence $(\mu_n)_{n=0}^\infty$, w.r.t. which the system $(F_n)_{n=0}^\infty$ is an OPS, and that a respective distribution function $\Omega(x)$ with the property

$$\mu_n = \int_0^\infty x^n d\Omega(x), \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0$$

exists.

1.4 Exercises

1. Define³

$$\tilde{T}_n(x) = \frac{(-1)^n \sqrt{1-x^2}}{(2n-1)!!} \mathbf{D}^n (1-x^2)^{n-\frac{1}{2}}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}, \quad \mathbf{D} = \frac{d}{dx}, \quad \tilde{T}_0(x) = 1.$$

(a) Prove that

$$T_n(x) = \tilde{T}_n(x), \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0,$$

holds true.

(b) Use this representation of $T_n(x)$ to prove the respective orthogonality relations (1.10).

³ $(2n-1)!! = 1 \cdot 3 \cdots (2n-1)$

2. The **Chebyshev polynomials** $U_n(x)$ of second kind can be defined by

$$U_n(x) = \frac{\sin[(n+1)\vartheta]}{\sin \vartheta}, \quad x = \cos \vartheta, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0.$$

(a) Show that $U_n(x)$ is a polynomial of degree n and that

$$\int_{-1}^1 U_m(x)U_n(x)\sqrt{1-x^2} dx = \frac{\pi}{2}\delta_{mn}. \quad (1.24)$$

(b) Prove the formula

$$U_n(x) = \frac{(-1)^n(n+1)}{(2n+1)!!\sqrt{1-x^2}} \mathbf{D}^n(1-x^2)^{n+\frac{1}{2}}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0,$$

and use this formula to prove the orthogonality relations (1.24).

3. For $x = \cos \vartheta$, define

$$R_n(x) = \frac{\cos[(n+\frac{1}{2})\vartheta]}{\cos \frac{\vartheta}{2}}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0.$$

Prove

$$(a) \quad R_n(x) = \frac{T_n(x) + T_{n+1}(x)}{1+x}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0,$$

$$(b) \quad R_0(x) = 1, \quad R_1(x) = 2x - 1, \\ R_{n+1}(x) = 2xR_n(x) - R_{n-1}(x), \quad n \in \mathbb{N},$$

$$(c) \quad \int_{-1}^1 R_m(x)R_n(x)\sqrt{\frac{1+x}{1-x}} dx = \pi\delta_{mn}.$$

4. Let $F(x, w) = e^{-(x-w)^2}$. Show that

$$(a) \quad H_n(x) = e^{x^2} \frac{\partial^n}{\partial w^n} F(x, 0) = e^{x^2} (-1)^n \mathbf{D}^n e^{-x^2}$$

is a polynomial of degree n ,

$$(b) \quad G(x, w) := e^{2xw-w^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} H_n(x) \frac{w^n}{n!},$$

$$(c) \quad \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} G(x, v)G(x, w)e^{-x^2} dx = \sqrt{\pi} e^{2vw}, \quad (\text{Hint: } \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-x^2} dx = \sqrt{\pi},)$$

$$(d) \quad \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} H_m(x)H_n(x)e^{-x^2} dx = \sqrt{\pi} 2^n n! \delta_{mn} \text{ .right)}$$

$H_n(x)$ is the so-called **Hermite polynomial** of degree n .

Chapter 2

Basic Theory of Orthogonal Polynomials

2.1 Moment functionals.

Existence of orthogonal systems of polynomials

Definition 2.1 For a given sequence $(\mu_n)_{n=0}^{\infty} \subset \mathbb{C}$ of numbers we define the respective **moment functional** \mathcal{L} on the linear space $\mathbb{C}[x]$ of all (algebraic) polynomials in x by

$$\mathcal{L}[M_n] = \mu_n, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0, \quad M_n(x) = x^n,$$

and

$$\mathcal{L}[\alpha_1\pi_1 + \alpha_2\pi_2] = \alpha_1\mathcal{L}[\pi_1] + \alpha_2\mathcal{L}[\pi_2], \quad \alpha_j \in \mathbb{C}, \quad \pi_j \in \mathbb{C}[x].$$

The number μ_n is called **moment** of *n*th-order.

The coefficients of the polynomials are in general complex numbers, but the independent variable will be considered here as real.

Definition 2.2 A sequence $(P_n)_{n=0}^{\infty} \subset \mathbb{C}[x]$ is called **orthogonal polynomial system (OPS)** w.r.t. the moment functional \mathcal{L} , if $\forall m, n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ the following conditions are satisfied:

1. $\deg P_n = n$,
2. $\mathcal{L}[P_m P_n] = k_n \delta_{mn}$, $k_n \neq 0$.

In case $k_n = 1$, $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$, the system $(P_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is a **orthonormal polynomial system (ONPS)**.

It is easy to see that an OPS does not exist for all sequences $(\mu_n)_{n=0}^{\infty} \subset \mathbb{C}$, for example if $\mu_0 = 0$. But, for example, also in case $\mu_0 = \mu_1 = \mu_2 = 1$ there does not exist an OPS, since otherwise for $P_0(x) = a$ and $P_1(x) = bx + c$ we have

$$0 = \mathcal{L}[P_0 P_1] = a(b + c), \quad \text{d.h. } c = -b,$$

which implies

$$\mathcal{L}[P_1^2] = \mathcal{L}[b^2(x - 1)^2] = b^2(\mu_2 - 2\mu_1 + \mu_0) = 0.$$

Proposition 2.3 Let \mathcal{L} be a moment functional and $(P_n)_{n=0}^\infty \subset \mathbb{C}[x]$ be a sequence of polynomials with $\deg P_n = n$. Then the following statements are equivalent:

(a) $(P_n)_{n=0}^\infty$ is an OPS w.r.t. \mathcal{L} .

(b) For all $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$,

$$\mathcal{L}[\pi P_n] = 0 \quad \forall \pi \in \mathbb{C}_n[x]$$

and

$$\mathcal{L}[\pi P_n] \neq 0 \quad \forall \pi \in \mathbb{C}[x] \text{ with } \deg \pi = n.$$

(c) For all $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$,

$$\mathcal{L}[M_m P_n] = \tilde{k}_n \delta_{mn}, \quad m = 0, 1, \dots, n, \quad \tilde{k}_n \neq 0.$$

Remark 2.4 Let $(P_n)_{n=0}^\infty$ be an OPS w.r.t. the moment functional \mathcal{L} .

(a) If $\pi = \sum_{k=0}^n \gamma_k P_k \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ then $\gamma_k = \frac{\mathcal{L}[\pi P_k]}{\mathcal{L}[P_k^2]}$, $k = 0, 1, \dots, n$.

(b) If $(Q_n)_{n=0}^\infty$ is a further OPS w.r.t. \mathcal{L} , then, due to (a) and Prop. 2.3, (b),

$$Q_n = \delta_n P_n, \quad \delta_n \neq 0, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0.$$

(c) If all $P_n(x)$ are monic, i.e. $P_n(x) = x^n + \dots$, then $(P_n)_{n=0}^\infty$ is called **monic OPS**.

(d) The polynomial system $(p_n)_{n=0}^\infty$ with

$$p_n(x) = (\mathcal{L}[P_n^2])^{-\frac{1}{2}} P_n(x), \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0,$$

is an ONPS w.r.t. \mathcal{L} , where by $(\mathcal{L}[P_n^2])^{\frac{1}{2}}$ we refer to one solution of $z^2 = \mathcal{L}[P_n^2]$.

For a given moment sequence $(\mu_n)_{n=0}^\infty$, we define

$$\Delta_n = \det \left[\mu_{j+k} \right]_{j,k=0}^n = \begin{vmatrix} \mu_0 & \mu_1 & \cdots & \mu_n \\ \mu_1 & \mu_2 & \cdots & \mu_{n+1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mu_n & \mu_{n+1} & \cdots & \mu_{2n} \end{vmatrix}.$$

Proposition 2.5 Let \mathcal{L} be a moment functional with the moment sequence $(\mu_n)_{n=0}^\infty$. Then, there exists an OPS w.r.t. \mathcal{L} if and only if

$$\Delta_n \neq 0 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}_0.$$

Proof. Let $(P_n)_{n=0}^\infty$ be an OPS w.r.t. \mathcal{L} , $P_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \gamma_{nk} x^k$. Prop. 2.3, (c) leads to

$$\mathcal{L}[M_m P_n] = \sum_{k=0}^n \gamma_{nk} \mu_{k+m} = \tilde{k}_n \delta_{mn}, \quad m \leq n, \quad \tilde{k}_n \neq 0,$$

i.e.

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mu_0 & \mu_1 & \cdots & \mu_n \\ \mu_1 & \mu_2 & \cdots & \mu_{n+1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mu_{n-1} & \mu_n & \cdots & \mu_{2n-1} \\ \mu_n & \mu_{n+1} & \cdots & \mu_{2n} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_{n0} \\ \gamma_{n1} \\ \vdots \\ \gamma_{n,n-1} \\ \gamma_{nn} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ \tilde{k}_n \end{bmatrix}. \quad (2.1)$$

Remark 2.4,(a),(b) implies, that $P_n(x)$ is uniquely determined if \tilde{k}_n is given, which yields the unique solvability of the linear system (2.1). If, vice versa, $\Delta_n \neq 0$, then (2.1) is uniquely solvable, which means that $P_n(x)$ exists, where

$$\gamma_{nn} = \frac{\tilde{k}_n \Delta_{n-1}}{\Delta_n} \neq 0, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0, \quad (2.2)$$

($\Delta_{-1} := 1$). □

Let $(P_n)_{n=0}^\infty$ be an OPS w.r.t. \mathcal{L} and $\pi_n \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ be a polynomial of degree n with the leading coefficient α_n , i.e. $\pi_n(x) = \alpha_n x^n + \cdots$. Then, due to (2.2),

$$\mathcal{L}[\pi_n P_n] = \alpha_n \tilde{k}_n = \frac{\alpha_n \gamma_n \Delta_n}{\Delta_{n-1}}, \quad (2.3)$$

where γ_n denotes the leading coefficient of $P_n(x)$.

Definition 2.6 A moment functional \mathcal{L} is called **positive definite**, if $\mathcal{L}[\pi] > 0$ for all polynomials $\pi \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ with $\pi(x) \geq 0$, $x \in \mathbb{R}$, and $\pi(x) \not\equiv 0$.

If \mathcal{L} is positive definite, then $\mu_{2n} = \mathcal{L}[M_{2n}] > 0$, $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$, and, since

$$0 < \mathcal{L}[(x+1)^{2n}] = \sum_{k=0}^{2n} \binom{2n}{k} \mu_k,$$

also $\mu_{2n-1} \in \mathbb{R}$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Moreover, by $\langle p, q \rangle := \mathcal{L}[p\bar{q}]$ there is defined a (positive definite) inner product on $\mathbb{C}[x]$. Schmidt's orthogonalization procedure applied to the system $\{M_0, M_1, M_2, \dots\}$ yields an ONPS $(p_n)_{n=0}^\infty$ with $p_n \in \mathbb{R}[x]$.

Lemma 2.7 Let $\pi \in \mathbb{C}[x]$. Then $\pi(x) \geq 0$, $x \in \mathbb{R}$, if and only if there exist polynomials $p, q \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ such that $\pi(x) = [p(x)]^2 + [q(x)]^2$.

Proposition 2.8 A moment functional \mathcal{L} is positive definite, if and only if all moments are real and $\Delta_n > 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$.

Corollary 2.9 The proof of Prop. 2.8 shows, that a moment functional \mathcal{L} is positive definite if an OPS $(P_n)_{n=0}^\infty \subset \mathbb{R}[x]$ exists with $\mathcal{L}[P_n^2] > 0$, $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$.

Definition 2.10 A moment functional \mathcal{L} is called **quasi-definite**, if $\Delta_n \neq 0$, $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$.

2.2 Exercises

1. Assume that $\mathcal{L}[M_n] = a^n$, $n \geq 0$, where $a \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$. Show that there exists **no** OPS w.r.t. \mathcal{L} .
2. Show that there is **no** moment functional w.r.t. which $(M_n)_{n=0}^\infty$ is an OPS.
3. Let \mathcal{L} be a moment functional, for which an OPS exists and let $\{c_n\}$ be a sequence of numbers different from 0. Show that each of the following conditions defines uniquely an OPS $(P_n(x))_{n=0}^\infty$ w.r.t. \mathcal{L} :
 - (a) $\mathcal{L}[M_n P_n] = c_n$, $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$,
 - (b) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^n P_n(1/x) = c_n$, $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$.
4. Use known OPS's to determine polynomial systems $(P_n(x))_{n=0}^\infty$ satisfying the following conditions:
 - (a) $\int_0^1 P_m(x) P_n(x) (1-x)^{-\frac{1}{2}} x^{-\frac{1}{2}} dx = k_n \delta_{mn}$, $k_0 = \pi$, $k_n = \frac{\pi}{2}$, $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$,
 - (b) $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} P_m(x) P_n(x) e^{-x^2/2} dx = \sqrt{2\pi} n! \delta_{mn}$,
 - (c) $\int_0^1 P_m(x) P_n(x) dx = \frac{1}{2n+1} \delta_{mn}$.
5. Let \mathcal{L} be a quasi-definite moment functional with the moment sequence $\{\mu_n\}$. Prove that $\{(\Delta_{n-1})^{-1} D_n(x)\}$ with

$$D_n(x) = \det \begin{bmatrix} \mu_0 & \mu_1 & \cdots & \mu_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \mu_{n-1} & \mu_n & \cdots & \mu_{2n-1} \\ 1 & x & \cdots & x^n \end{bmatrix}$$

is the monic OPS w.r.t. \mathcal{L} . Determine an ONPS w.r.t. \mathcal{L} .

6. Let \mathcal{L} be a quasi-definite moment functional. Prove: If $\deg \pi_n = n$, $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$, and $\mathcal{L}[\pi_m \pi_n] = 0$ for $m \neq n$, then $(\pi_n)_{n=0}^\infty$ is an OPS w.r.t. \mathcal{L} .
7. Let \mathcal{L} be a quasi-definite moment functional. Show that $\pi \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ and $\mathcal{L}[\pi M_n] = 0$, $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$, implies $\pi(x) \equiv 0$.
8. Let \mathcal{L} be positive definite and $(P_n)_{n=0}^\infty$ the monic OPS w.r.t. \mathcal{L} . Prove that the inequality $\mathcal{L}[P_n^2] < \mathcal{L}[|\pi|^2]$ holds for all monic polynomials $\pi(x) \not\equiv P_n(x)$ with $\deg \pi(x) = n$.

2.3 Recursion formulas and the formula of Christoffel-Darboux

Proposition 2.11 *If the moment functional \mathcal{L} is quasi-definite and $(P_n)_{n=0}^\infty$ is the respective monic OPS, then there exists numbers $\alpha_n, \beta_n \in \mathbb{C}$ with $\beta_n \neq 0$ and*

$$P_{n+1}(x) = (x - \alpha_n)P_n(x) - \beta_n P_{n-1}(x), \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0, \quad (2.4)$$

where $P_{-1}(x) \equiv 0$, $P_0(x) \equiv 1$ and β_0 is arbitrary. In case of a positive definite moment functional \mathcal{L} we have $\alpha_n \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\beta_n > 0$.

Corollary 2.12 *From (2.4) and from the proof of Prop. 2.11 we get the following relations:*

1. It holds

$$\beta_n = \frac{\Delta_{n-2}\Delta_n}{\Delta_{n-1}^2} = \frac{\mathcal{L}[P_n^2]}{\mathcal{L}[P_{n-1}^2]}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

2. If we agree that $\beta_0 = \mu_0 = \Delta_0$, then

$$\mathcal{L}[P_n^2] = \beta_0\beta_1 \cdots \beta_n, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0.$$

3. We have

$$\alpha_n = \frac{\mathcal{L}[M_1 P_n^2]}{\mathcal{L}[P_n^2]}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0.$$

4. The n th monic orthogonal polynomial admits the representation

$$P_n(x) = x^n - (\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 + \cdots + \alpha_{n-1})x^{n-1} + \cdots,$$

since, for $P_{n+1}(x) = x^{n+1} + d_n x^n + \cdots$, we get $d_n = d_{n-1} - \alpha_n$ from (2.4).

Example 2.13 *The monic OPS $(\widehat{T}_n(x))_{n=0}^\infty$ w.r.t. the Chebyshev weight of first kind is given by*

$$\widehat{T}_0(x) = T_0(x) \quad \text{und} \quad \widehat{T}_n(x) = 2^{1-n}T_n(x), \quad n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Using (1.9) we get

$$\widehat{T}_1(x) = x\widehat{T}_0(x), \quad \widehat{T}_2(x) = x\widehat{T}_1(x) - \frac{1}{2}\widehat{T}_0(x)$$

and

$$\widehat{T}_{n+1}(x) = x\widehat{T}_n(x) - \frac{1}{4}\widehat{T}_{n-1}(x), \quad n = 2, 3, \dots,$$

so that in this case $\alpha_n = 0$ for $n \geq 0$ and $\beta_1 = \frac{1}{2}$ as well as $\beta_n = \frac{1}{4}$ for $n \geq 2$.

Proposition 2.14 (Favard/Shohat/Natanson) *For arbitrary sequences $(\alpha_n)_{n=0}^\infty$, $(\beta_n)_{n=0}^\infty$ of complex numbers and a polynomial system $\{P_n\}_{n=-1}^\infty$ with $P_{-1}(x) \equiv 0$ and $P_0(x) \equiv 1$, satisfying (2.4), there exists exactly one moment functional \mathcal{L} with the properties*

$$\mathcal{L}[P_0] = \beta_0 \quad \text{und} \quad \mathcal{L}[P_m P_n] = 0, \quad m \neq n.$$

This moment functional \mathcal{L} is quasi-definite if and only if $\beta_n \neq 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ and positive definite if and only if $(\alpha_n)_{n=0}^\infty \subset \mathbb{R}$ and $\beta_n > 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$.

Proposition 2.15 (Christoffel/Darboux) *If the polynomial system $\{P_n\}_{n=-1}^\infty$ satisfies the recursion formula (2.4) with $\beta_n \neq 0$, $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$, then*

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \frac{P_k(x)P_k(t)}{\beta_0 \cdots \beta_k} = \frac{1}{\beta_0 \cdots \beta_n} \frac{P_{n+1}(x)P_n(t) - P_n(x)P_{n+1}(t)}{x-t}. \quad (2.5)$$

From a monic OPS $(P_n(x))_{n=0}^\infty$ w.r.t. a positive definite moment functional we get a respective ONPS $(\tilde{p}_n(x))_{n=0}^\infty$ via the formula

$$\tilde{p}_n(x) = k_n P_n(x), \quad k_n = (\beta_0 \cdots \beta_n)^{-\frac{1}{2}}.$$

From (2.4) it follows

$$\sqrt{\beta_{n+1}} \tilde{p}_{n+1}(x) = (x - \alpha_n) \tilde{p}_n(x) - \sqrt{\beta_n} \tilde{p}_{n-1}(x), \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0 \quad (2.6)$$

and by (2.5)

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \tilde{p}_k(x) \tilde{p}_k(t) = \frac{k_n}{k_{n+1}} \frac{\tilde{p}_{n+1}(x) \tilde{p}_n(t) - \tilde{p}_n(x) \tilde{p}_{n+1}(t)}{x - t}. \quad (2.7)$$

Moreover, from (2.5) we get for $t \rightarrow x$

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \frac{[P_k(x)]^2}{\beta_0 \cdots \beta_k} = \frac{P'_{n+1}(x) P_n(x) - P'_n(x) P_{n+1}(x)}{\beta_0 \cdots \beta_n}. \quad (2.8)$$

Consequently, in case of a positive definite moment functional,

$$P'_{n+1}(x) P_n(x) - P'_n(x) P_{n+1}(x) > 0. \quad (2.9)$$

2.4 On the zeros of orthogonal polynomials. Gaussian quadrature rule

Definition 2.16 We say that $E \subset \mathbb{R}$ is a **supporting set** of \mathcal{L} , if $P(x) \geq 0$ on E and $P(x) \not\equiv 0$ on E implies $\mathcal{L}[P] > 0$. In this case \mathcal{L} is called **positive definite on E** .

In what follows \mathcal{L} is assumed to be positive definite and $(P_n)_{n=0}^\infty$ to be the respective monic OPS.

Proposition 2.17 Let (a, b) be a supporting set of \mathcal{L} and $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then all zeros of $P_n(x)$ are real, simple and in (a, b) .

Provided that the assumptions of Prop. 2.17 are fulfilled, we denote the zeros of $P_n(x)$ by x_{nk} , where $x_{nn} < x_{n,n-1} < \cdots < x_{n1}$. It follows $\text{sgn } P_n(x) = 1$ for $x > x_{n1}$ and $\text{sgn } P_n(x) = (-1)^n$ for $x < x_{nn}$. The polynomial $P'_n(x)$ possesses exactly one zero in the interval $(x_{nk}, x_{n,k-1})$, $k = 2, \dots, n$, which implies

$$\text{sgn } P'_n(x_{nk}) = (-1)^{k-1}. \quad (2.10)$$

Proposition 2.18 We have $x_{n+1,k+1} < x_{nk} < x_{n+1,k}$, $k = 1, \dots, n$.

Corollary 2.19 For every $k \geq 1$, the sequence $\{x_{nk}\}_{n=k}^\infty$ is monotone increasing and the sequence $\{x_{n,n-k+1}\}_{n=k}^\infty$ is monotone decreasing. Consequently, the limits

$$\xi_k := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{nk} \quad \text{und} \quad \eta_k := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{n,n-k+1}$$

exist ($\xi_k = +\infty$ or/and $\eta_k = -\infty$ is possible).

Definition 2.20 The interval (η_1, ξ_1) is named **support** of the moment functional \mathcal{L} .

By $\ell_{nk}(x)$ we denote the k th **Lagrange fundamental polynomial**

$$\ell_{nk}(x) = \prod_{j=1, j \neq k}^n \frac{x - x_{nj}}{x_{nk} - x_{nj}} = \frac{P_n(x)}{(x - x_{nk})P'_n(x_{nk})}, \quad k = 1, \dots, n.$$

Obviously, $\ell_{nk}(x_{nj}) = \delta_{jk}$. For a continuous function $f : (\eta_1, \xi_1) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, i.e. $f \in \mathbf{C}(\eta_1, \xi_1)$, we define the Lagrange **interpolation polynomial**

$$(L_n f)(x) = \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_{nk}) \ell_{nk}(x)$$

and the functional, the so-called **Gaussian quadrature rule**,

$$\mathcal{L}_n[f] = \mathcal{L}[L_n f] = \sum_{k=1}^n A_{nk} f(x_{nk}) \quad \text{with} \quad A_{nk} = \mathcal{L}[\ell_{nk}].$$

Proposition 2.21 We have

$$\mathcal{L}_n[P] = \mathcal{L}[P] \quad \forall P \in \mathbb{C}_{2n}[x].$$

Corollary 2.22 It holds

$$\sum_{k=1}^n A_{nk} = \mu_0 \quad \text{und} \quad A_{nk} > 0, \quad k = 1, \dots, n.$$

Corollary 2.23 By Corollary 2.22 and $L_n p = p$ for $p \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ and for all $n \geq n_0(p)$ we get that (η_1, ξ_1) is a supporting set of \mathcal{L} .

Now, in case $-\infty < \eta_1 < \xi_1 < \infty$ we are able to define $\mathcal{L}[f]$ for each $f \in \mathbf{C}[\eta_1, \xi_1]$ via

$$\mathcal{L}[f] = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{L}[p_n],$$

where $p_n \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|f - p_n\|_\infty = 0$, $\|f\|_\infty = \|f\|_{\infty, [\eta_1, \xi_1]} = \max \{|f(x)| : \eta_1 \leq x \leq \xi_1\}$. This definition is correct. Moreover, $\mathcal{L}[f_1] \leq \mathcal{L}[f_2]$ if $f_1(x) \leq f_2(x)$, $x \in [\eta_1, \xi_1]$.

Proposition 2.24 If $-\infty < \eta_1 < \xi_1 < +\infty$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{L}_n[f] = \mathcal{L}[f] \quad \forall f \in \mathbf{C}[\eta_1, \xi_1]$.

Proposition 2.25 For $-\infty < \eta_1 < \xi_1 < \infty$ and $f \in \mathbf{C}[\eta_1, \xi_1]$, we have $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{L}[|f - L_n f|^2] = 0$.

For $z \in \mathbb{C}$, we define

$$\mathcal{L}_z^*[M_n] = \mathcal{L}[(x - z)x^n] = \mu_{n+1} - z\mu_n$$

and

$$P_n^z(x) = \frac{1}{x - z} \left[P_{n+1}(x) - \frac{P_{n+1}(z)}{P_n(z)} P_n(x) \right],$$

where we suppose that $P_n(z) \neq 0$ for all $n \geq 1$. Taking into account (2.5) and Corollary 2.12, 2, we conclude

$$P_n^z(x) = \frac{\beta_0 \beta_1 \cdots \beta_n}{P_n(z)} \sum_{k=0}^n \tilde{p}_k(x) \tilde{p}_k(z). \quad (2.11)$$

Proposition 2.26 *The moment functional \mathcal{L}_z^* is quasi-definite and $(P_n^z)_{n=0}^\infty$ is the respective monic OPS. The moment functional \mathcal{L}_z^* is positive definite if and only if $z \leq \eta_1$.*

In view of (2.11) it holds

$$K_n(z, x) := \frac{1}{\beta_0 \beta_1 \cdots \beta_n} P_n(z) P_n^z(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \tilde{p}_k(x) \tilde{p}_k(z), \quad x, z \in \mathbb{R}.$$

For $w, z \in \mathbb{C}$, we define

$$K_n(z, w) = \sum_{k=0}^n \tilde{p}_k(w) \overline{\tilde{p}_k(z)}.$$

Proposition 2.27 *For all $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$,*

$$\frac{1}{K_n(z_0, z_0)} = \min \{ \mathcal{L}[|\pi|^2] : \pi \in \mathbb{C}_{n+1}[x], \pi(z_0) = 1 \}$$

and

$$A_{nk} = \frac{1}{K_{n-1}(x_{nk}, x_{nk})} = \frac{1}{K_n(x_{nk}, x_{nk})}.$$

2.5 The Jacobi polynomials

Let $\alpha > -1$, $\beta > -1$. For $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$, the **Jacobi polynomials** can be defined by **Rodrigues' formula** (cf. also Section 1.4, Exercise 1)

$$P_n^{\alpha, \beta}(x) = \frac{(1-x)^{-\alpha}(1+x)^{-\beta}}{(-2)^n n!} \frac{d^n}{dx^n} \left[(1-x)^{n+\alpha}(1+x)^{n+\beta} \right]. \quad (2.12)$$

Lemma 2.28 *It holds*

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n+\alpha}{n-k} \binom{n+\beta}{k} = \binom{2n+\alpha+\beta}{n}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0$$

Proof. Using

$$(1+z)^\alpha = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \binom{\alpha}{j} z^j$$

we get

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \binom{2n+\alpha+\beta}{j} z^j = (1+z)^{n+\alpha}(1+z)^{n+\beta} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k=0}^j \binom{n+\alpha}{j-k} \binom{n+\beta}{k} z^j.$$

Comparing the coefficients at z^n proves the lemma. □

From (2.12) and

$$\frac{d^n}{dx^n} \left[(1-x)^{n+\alpha}(1+x)^{n+\beta} \right]$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \left[\frac{d^{n-k}}{dx^{n-k}} (1-x)^{n+\alpha} \right] \left[\frac{d^k}{dx^k} (1+x)^{n+\beta} \right] \\
&= (1-x)^\alpha (1+x)^\beta \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} (-1)^{n-k} (n+\alpha) \cdots (k+\alpha+1) (1-x)^k \cdot \\
&\quad \cdot (n+\beta) \cdots (n+\beta-k+1) (1+x)^{n-k} \\
&= (-1)^n (1-x)^\alpha (1+x)^\beta n! \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n+\alpha}{n-k} \binom{n+\beta}{k} (x-1)^k (x+1)^{n-k}
\end{aligned}$$

it follows

$$P_n^{\alpha,\beta}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n+\alpha}{n-k} \binom{n+\beta}{k} \left(\frac{x-1}{2}\right)^k \left(\frac{x+1}{2}\right)^{n-k}. \quad (2.13)$$

In view of Lemma 2.28, $P_n^{\alpha,\beta}(x)$ has the leading coefficient

$$k_n^{\alpha,\beta} = 2^{-n} \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n+\alpha}{n-k} \binom{n+\beta}{k} = 2^{-n} \binom{2n+\alpha+\beta}{n}. \quad (2.14)$$

The monic Jacobi polynomials we denote by $\widehat{P}_n^{\alpha,\beta}(x)$, i.e.

$$\widehat{P}_n^{\alpha,\beta}(x) = \frac{1}{k_n^{\alpha,\beta}} P_n^{\alpha,\beta}(x).$$

With the help of partial integration one can prove the following Lemma.

Lemma 2.29 For $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$,

$$\int_{-1}^1 x^k P_n^{\alpha,\beta}(x) (1-x)^\alpha (1+x)^\beta dx \begin{cases} = 0 & , \quad k = 0, \dots, n-1, \\ > 0 & , \quad k = n. \end{cases}$$

Hence, $(P_n^{\alpha,\beta}(x))_{n=0}^\infty$ is an OPS. Let us look for formulas of the coefficients α_n and β_n in the recursion formula

$$\widehat{P}_{n+1}^{\alpha,\beta}(x) = (x - \alpha_n) \widehat{P}_n^{\alpha,\beta}(x) - \beta_n \widehat{P}_{n-1}^{\alpha,\beta}(x), \quad n = 0, 1, \dots \quad (2.15)$$

of the monic Jacobi polynomials. Define

$$(\alpha)_n := \begin{cases} 1 & , \quad n = 0, \\ \prod_{k=1}^n (k + \alpha) & , \quad n \in \mathbb{N} \end{cases}$$

Relation (2.13) implies

$$P_n^{\alpha,\beta}(1) = \binom{n+\alpha}{n} \quad \text{und} \quad P_n^{\alpha,\beta}(-1) = (-1)^n \binom{n+\beta}{n},$$

so that

$$\widehat{P}_n^{\alpha,\beta}(1) = \frac{2^n \binom{n+\alpha}{n}}{\binom{2n+\alpha+\beta}{n}} = \frac{2^n (\alpha)_n (\alpha+\beta)_n}{(\alpha+\beta)_{2n}}$$

and

$$\widehat{P}_n^{\alpha,\beta}(-1) = \frac{(-2)^n \binom{n+\beta}{n}}{\binom{2n+\alpha+\beta}{n}} = \frac{(-2)^n (\beta)_n (\alpha+\beta)_n}{(\alpha+\beta)_{2n}}.$$

Consequently,

$$1 - \alpha_0 = \widehat{P}_1(1) = \frac{2(1+\alpha)}{2+\alpha+\beta}, \quad \text{d.h.} \quad \alpha_0 = \frac{\beta - \alpha}{2 + \alpha + \beta}.$$

For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we solve the system

$$\begin{aligned} \widehat{P}_{n+1}^{\alpha,\beta}(1) &= (1 - \alpha_n) \widehat{P}_n^{\alpha,\beta}(1) - \beta_n \widehat{P}_{n-1}^{\alpha,\beta}(1), \\ \widehat{P}_{n+1}^{\alpha,\beta}(-1) &= -(1 + \alpha_n) \widehat{P}_n^{\alpha,\beta}(-1) - \beta_n \widehat{P}_{n-1}^{\alpha,\beta}(-1), \end{aligned}$$

which is a consequence of (2.15) for $x = \pm 1$ and which can be written in the form

$$\frac{4(\alpha)_{n+1}(\alpha+\beta)_{n+1}}{(\alpha+\beta)_{2n+2}} = (1 - \alpha_n) \frac{2(\alpha)_n(\alpha+\beta)_n}{(\alpha+\beta)_{2n}} - \beta_n \frac{(\alpha)_{n-1}(\alpha+\beta)_{n-1}}{(\alpha+\beta)_{2n-2}}, \quad (2.16)$$

$$\frac{4(\beta)_{n+1}(\alpha+\beta)_{n+1}}{(\alpha+\beta)_{2n+2}} = (1 + \alpha_n) \frac{2(\beta)_n(\alpha+\beta)_n}{(\alpha+\beta)_{2n}} - \beta_n \frac{(\beta)_{n-1}(\alpha+\beta)_{n-1}}{(\alpha+\beta)_{2n-2}}. \quad (2.17)$$

Multiply equation (2.16) by $(\beta)_{n-1}$, equation (2.17) by $(\alpha)_{n-1}$, and subtract the first from the second one to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} &\frac{2(\alpha)_{n-1}(\beta)_{n-1}(\alpha+\beta)_{n+1}(2n+\alpha+\beta+1)(\beta-\alpha)}{(\alpha+\beta)_{2n+2}} \\ &= \frac{(\alpha)_{n-1}(\beta)_{n-1}(\alpha+\beta)_n[\beta-\alpha+\alpha_n(2n+\alpha+\beta)]}{(\alpha+\beta)_{2n}}, \end{aligned}$$

where we took into account

$$(n+\beta)(n+1+\beta) - (n+\alpha)(n+1+\alpha) = (2n+\alpha+\beta+1)(\beta-\alpha).$$

Thus,

$$\alpha_n = \frac{\beta^2 - \alpha^2}{(2n+\alpha+\beta)(2n+\alpha+\beta+2)}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}$$

Now, we multiply (2.16) by $(\beta)_n$, (2.17) by $(\alpha)_n$ and consider the sum of both equations. It follows

$$\frac{4(\alpha)_n(\beta)_n(\alpha+\beta)_{n+1}}{(\alpha+\beta)_{2n+1}} = \frac{4(\alpha)_n(\beta)_n(\alpha+\beta)_n}{(\alpha+\beta)_{2n}} - \beta_n \frac{(\alpha)_{n-1}(\beta)_{n-1}(\alpha+\beta)_{n-1}(2n+\alpha+\beta)}{(\alpha+\beta)_{2n-2}},$$

so that

$$\beta_n = \begin{cases} \frac{4(1+\alpha)(1+\beta)}{(2+\alpha+\beta)^2(3+\alpha+\beta)}, & n = 1 \\ \frac{4n(n+\alpha)(n+\beta)(n+\alpha+\beta)}{(2n+\alpha+\beta-1)(2n+\alpha+\beta)^2(2n+\alpha+\beta+1)}, & n = 2, 3, \dots \end{cases}$$

2.6 Exercises

In what follows by $(P_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ we denote the monic OPS w.r.t. the quasi-definite moment functional \mathcal{L} with the moment sequence $\{\mu_n\}$ and the respective recursion formula (2.4).

1. Prove that the following assertions are equivalent:

- (a) \mathcal{L} is symmetric, i.e. $\mu_{2n+1} = 0 \forall n \in \mathbb{N}_0$.
- (b) $P_n(-x) = (-1)^n P_n(x) \forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}_0$.
- (c) In the recursion formula (2.4) there holds $\alpha_n = 0 \forall n \in \mathbb{N}_0$.

2. Define $Q_n(x) = a^{-n} P_n(ax + b)$ ($a \neq 0$) and show that

- (a) $Q_{n+1}(x) = \left(x - \frac{\alpha_n - b}{a}\right) Q_n(x) - \frac{\beta_n}{a^2} Q_{n-1}(x)$,
- (b) $(Q_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is OPS w.r.t. the moment sequence $\{\eta_n\}$ with

$$\eta_n = a^{-n} \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} (-b)^{n-k} \mu_k.$$

3. Show that the polynomials $P_n(x)$ in formula (1.15) satisfy the recursion formula

$$Q_{n+1}(x) = (x - n - a) Q_n(x) - a n Q_{n-1}(x), \quad n = 0, 1, \dots, \quad Q_n(x) := n! P_n(x).$$

4. Let $\alpha_n = 0$ and $\beta_n < 0$, $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$. Then $(P_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is OPS w.r.t. a quasi-definite moment functional \mathcal{L} . Define $\mathcal{L}^*[M_n] := \mathbf{i}^{-n} \mathcal{L}[M_n]$ and prove that \mathcal{L}^* is positive definite. Determine the respective monic OPS.

5. Let $\alpha_n = 0$, $\beta_n < 0$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and $\alpha_0 \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$. Define $R_n(x) = \operatorname{Re}[\mathbf{i}^{-n} P_n(\mathbf{i}x)]$ and $I_n(x) = \operatorname{Im}[\mathbf{i}^{-n} P_n(\mathbf{i}x)]$. Show that $(R_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ and $(\alpha_0^{-1} I_{n+1})_{n=0}^{\infty}$ are monic OPS w.r.t. some positive definite moment functionals.

6. Prove that

- (a) $\frac{1 - xw}{1 - 2xw + w^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} T_n(x) w^n$,
- (b) $\frac{1}{1 - 2xw + w^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} U_n(x) w^n$.

7. Show that a monic OPS $(P_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ fulfils a condition of the form

$$P_{n-1}(x) P_n(-x) + P_{n-1}(-x) P_n(x) = a_n \neq 0, \quad n \in \mathbb{N},$$

if and only if $\beta_n \neq 0$, $n > 0$, and $\alpha_n = 0$, $n \geq 1$, $\alpha_0 \neq 0$ in the recursion formula (2.4). Moreover, show that the respective moment functional is positive definite if and only if $(-1)^n a_1 a_n < 0$, $n \geq 1$, and $\beta_0 > 0$.

8. Let $(P_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ be an OPS and \mathcal{M} a moment functional with $\mathcal{M}[P_0] \neq 0$ and $\mathcal{M}[P_n] = 0$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Prove that $\{P_n\}$ is an OPS w.r.t. \mathcal{M} .

9. Show that the weights in the Gaussian rule satisfy $A_{n,n-k+1} = A_{nk}$ if the moment functional is symmetric.

10. Let \mathcal{L} be positive definite and $K_n(z, x)$ be defined as in Section 2.4. Show that $\pi(t) = \mathcal{L}[\pi K_n(\cdot, t)]$ for each polynomial $\pi \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ and $n \geq \deg \pi(x)$.
11. Show, that the normalized Jacobi polynomials $p_n^{\alpha, \beta}(x)$ are given by

$$p_n^{\alpha, \beta}(x) = [h_n^{\alpha, \beta}]^{-1} P_n^{\alpha, \beta}(x) \quad (2.18)$$

with

$$h_n^{\alpha, \beta} = \sqrt{\frac{2^{\alpha+\beta+1} \Gamma(n+\alpha+1) \Gamma(n+\beta+1)}{(2n+\alpha+\beta+1) \Gamma(\alpha+\beta+2)}}$$

(cf. [4, Equation (3.1)]).

12. Prove, that, for $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the formulas

$$\frac{d P_n^{\alpha, \beta}(x)}{dx} = \frac{1}{2}(n+\alpha+\beta+1) P_{n-1}^{\alpha+1, \beta+1}(x), \quad (2.19)$$

$$\frac{d p_n^{\alpha, \beta}(x)}{dx} = \gamma_n^{\alpha, \beta} p_{n-1}^{\alpha+1, \beta+1}(x) \quad (2.20)$$

with $\gamma_n^{\alpha, \beta} = \sqrt{n(n+\alpha+\beta+1)}$ and

$$(1-x)^\alpha (1+x)^\beta p_n^{\alpha, \beta}(x) = -\frac{1}{\gamma_n^{\alpha, \beta}} \frac{d}{dx} \left[(1-x)^{\alpha+1} (1+x)^{\beta+1} p_{n-1}^{\alpha+1, \beta+1}(x) \right] \quad (2.21)$$

(cf. [4, Equation (3.4) and Exercise 3.1]) are valid.

Chapter 3

Singular Integral Operators

3.1 Cauchy singular integral operators

Define

$$(\mathcal{S}u)(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{u(y) dy}{y-x} := \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow +0} \left(\int_{-1}^{x-\varepsilon} + \int_{x+\varepsilon}^1 \right) \frac{u(y) dy}{y-x}, \quad -1 < x < 1, \quad (3.1)$$

where we assume that this Cauchy principal value integral exists.

Lemma 3.1 For $0 < \nu < 1$ and $0 < t < \infty$,

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{s^{\nu-1} ds}{s-t} = -\pi t^{\nu-1} \cot(\pi\nu), \quad (3.2)$$

where the integral has to be understood in the sense of a Cauchy principal value integral.

Corollary 3.2 For $\alpha, \beta > -1$, $\alpha + \beta = -1$, and $-1 < x < 1$,

$$\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{v^{\alpha,\beta}(y) dy}{y-x} = -\cot(\pi\beta) v^{\alpha,\beta}(x), \quad (3.3)$$

where $v^{\alpha,\beta}(x) = (1-x)^\alpha (1+x)^\beta$.

For $\alpha, \beta > -1$, define

$$(\mathcal{S}_{\alpha,\beta}u)(x) = \cos(\pi\beta) v^{\alpha,\beta}(x) u(x) + \frac{\sin(\pi\beta)}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{v^{\alpha,\beta}(y) u(y)}{y-x} dy, \quad -1 < x < 1.$$

Proposition 3.3 For $\alpha, \beta > -1$, $\alpha + \beta = -1$, and $-1 < x < 1$,

$$\left(\mathcal{S}_{\alpha,\beta} \widehat{P}_n^{\alpha,\beta} \right) (x) = -\widehat{P}_{n-1}^{-\alpha,-\beta}(x), \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0. \quad (3.4)$$

Remark 3.4 Proposition 3.3 can be generalized in the following sense. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, $a - ib = e^{i\pi\beta_0}$, $\beta_0 \in (0, 1)$, $\lambda, \nu \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $\alpha := \lambda + \beta_0 \in (-1, 1)$ and $\beta := \nu - \beta_0 \in (-1, 1)$. Then, for

$$(\mathcal{A}u)(x) = av^{\alpha,\beta}(x)u(x) + \frac{b}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{v^{\alpha,\beta}(y)u(y)}{y-x} dy, \quad (3.5)$$

we have the relations

$$\left(\mathcal{A}\widehat{P}_n^{\alpha,\beta}\right)(x) = (-1)^\lambda \widehat{P}_{n-\kappa}^{-\alpha,-\beta}(x), \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0, \quad -1 < x < 1,$$

and

$$\left(\mathcal{A}p_n^{\alpha,\beta}\right)(x) = (-1)^\lambda p_{n-\kappa}^{-\alpha,-\beta}(x), \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0, \quad -1 < x < 1, \quad (3.6)$$

where $\kappa = -(\lambda + \nu) = -(\alpha + \beta)$ (cf. [4, Corollary 3.7, Exercises 3.8, 3.9]).

Corollary 3.5 Let $\mathbf{L}_{\alpha,\beta}^2$ denote the Hilbert space of w.r.t. the Jacobi weight $v^{\alpha,\beta}(x)$ square integrable functions $u : (-1, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ equipped with the inner product

$$\langle u, v \rangle_{\alpha,\beta} = \int_{-1}^1 u(x)\overline{v(x)}v^{\alpha,\beta}(x) dx.$$

Then the operator \mathcal{A} defined by (3.5) on all polynomials can be uniquely extended to a bounded linear operator $\mathcal{A} : \mathbf{L}_{\alpha,\beta}^2 \rightarrow \mathbf{L}_{-\alpha,-\beta}^2$. This operator is invertible if $\kappa = 0$, left-sided invertible if $\kappa = -1$, and right-sided invertible if $\kappa = 1$.

For $s \geq 0$, define the weighted Sobolev spaces $\mathbf{L}_{\alpha,\beta}^{2,s}$ as

$$\mathbf{L}_{\alpha,\beta}^{2,s} = \left\{ u \in \mathbf{L}_{\alpha,\beta}^{2,s} : \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (1+n)^{2s} \left| \langle u, p_n^{\alpha,\beta} \rangle_{\alpha,\beta} \right|^2 < \infty \right\}$$

equipped with the norm

$$\|u\|_{\alpha,\beta,s} = \sqrt{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (1+n)^{2s} \left| \langle u, p_n^{\alpha,\beta} \rangle_{\alpha,\beta} \right|^2}.$$

Corollary 3.6 For $s > 0$, the operator $\mathcal{A} : \mathbf{L}_{\alpha,\beta}^2 \rightarrow \mathbf{L}_{-\alpha,-\beta}^2$ defined in Remark 3.4 is also bounded from $\mathbf{L}_{\alpha,\beta}^{2,s}$ into $\mathbf{L}_{-\alpha,-\beta}^{2,s}$.

Remark 3.7 For $s \geq 0$ and $\delta > 0$, the space $\mathbf{L}^{2,s+\delta}_{\alpha,\beta}$ is compactly embedded into the space $\mathbf{L}_{\alpha,\beta}^{2,s}$.

3.2 Singular integro-differential operators

Remark 3.8 ([1, Section 2]) If $r \in \mathbb{N}_0$ then $u \in \mathbf{L}_{\alpha,\beta}^{2,r}$ if and only if $u^{(k)}\varphi^k \in \mathbf{L}_{\alpha,\beta}^2$ for all $k = 0, \dots, r$, where $\varphi(x) = \sqrt{1-x^2}$. Moreover, the norms $\|u\|_{\alpha,\beta,s}$ and $\sum_{k=0}^r \|u^{(k)}\varphi^k\|_{\alpha,\beta}$ are equivalent.

Lemma 3.9 For $s \geq 0$ and $\alpha, \beta > -1$, the operator \mathcal{D} of generalized differentiation is a continuous isomorphism from $\mathbf{L}_{\alpha, \beta}^{2, s+1, 0}$ onto $\mathbf{L}_{\alpha+1, \beta+1}^{2, s}$, where $\mathbf{L}_{\alpha, \beta}^{2, s, 0} = \left\{ u \in \mathbf{L}_{\alpha, \beta}^{2, s} : \langle u, 1 \rangle_{\alpha, \beta} = 0 \right\}$.

With the help of the operator \mathcal{A} given in Remark 3.4 we define $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{D}\mathcal{A}$.

Proposition 3.10 We have

$$\mathcal{B}p_n^{\alpha, \beta} = (-1)^\lambda \sqrt{(n - \kappa)(n + 1)} p_{n - \kappa - 1}^{1 - \alpha, 1 - \beta}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0.$$

Hence, in case $\alpha = \beta = \frac{1}{2}$, i.e. $a = 0$, $b = -1$, $\lambda = 0$, and $\nu = 1$, this leads to

$$-\frac{d}{dx} \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{\sqrt{1 - y^2} U_n(y)}{y - x} dy = (n + 1) U_n(x), \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0, \quad -1 < x < 1.$$

Consequently, the operator $\mathcal{DS} : \mathbf{L}_{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}}^{2, s+1} \longrightarrow \mathbf{L}_{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}}^{2, s}$ is an isometrical isomorphism.

3.3 Weakly singular integral operators

We use the same notations as in Remark 3.4 and define

$$(\mathcal{W}u)(x) = a \int_{-1}^x v^{\alpha, \beta}(y) u(y) dy - \frac{b}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 v^{\alpha, \beta}(y) \ln |y - x| u(y) dy, \quad -1 < x < 1.$$

In case $\alpha + \beta = -1$ we have, due to (2.21),

$$\int_{-1}^x v^{\alpha, \beta}(y) p_n^{\alpha, \beta}(y) dy = -\frac{1}{n} v^{\alpha+1, \beta+1}(x) p_{n-1}^{\alpha+1, \beta+1}(x), \quad n \in \mathbb{N},$$

and, by partial integration,

$$\int_{-1}^1 v^{\alpha, \beta}(y) \ln |y - x| p_n^{\alpha, \beta}(y) dy = \frac{1}{n} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{v^{\alpha+1, \beta+1}(y) p_{n-1}^{\alpha+1, \beta+1}(y)}{y - x} dy, \quad -1 < x < 1, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Hence,

$$\mathcal{W}p_n^{\alpha, \beta} = -\frac{1}{n} p_n^{-\alpha-1, -\beta-1}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Remark 3.11 (cf. [5], Example 3.27) In case $\alpha = \beta = -\frac{1}{2}$ it yields, for $-1 < x < 1$,

$$-\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 \ln |y - x| p_n^{-\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}}(y) \frac{dy}{\sqrt{1 - y^2}} = \begin{cases} \ln 2 p_0^{-\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}}(x) & : n = 0, \\ \frac{1}{n} p_n^{-\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}}(x) & : n \in \mathbb{N}. \end{cases}$$

Further considerations in this direction one find in [4, Section 3.4].

Chapter 4

Continued Fractions and Orthogonal Polynomials

4.1 Basics

By an (infinite) **continued fraction** we refer to a triplel $((a_n)_{n=1}^\infty, (b_n)_{n=0}^\infty, (c_n)_{n=0}^\infty)$ of number sequences, where

$$\begin{aligned}
 c_0 &= b_0 \\
 c_1 &= b_0 + \frac{a_1}{b_1} \\
 c_2 &= b_0 + \frac{a_1}{b_1 + \frac{a_2}{b_2}} \\
 &\vdots \\
 c_n &= b_0 + \frac{a_1}{b_1 + \frac{a_2}{b_2 + \frac{a_3}{b_3 + \frac{a_4}{b_4 + \frac{a_5}{b_5 + \frac{a_6}{b_6 + \frac{a_7}{b_7 + \frac{a_8}{b_8 + \frac{a_9}{b_9 + \frac{a_{10}}{b_{10} + \dots}}}}}}}}}}}} + \frac{a_n}{b_n}
 \end{aligned}$$

The number c_n is called n th **approximant** of the infinite continued fraction

$$b_0 + \frac{a_1}{b_1 + \frac{a_2}{b_2 + \frac{a_3}{b_3 + \frac{a_4}{b_4 + \frac{a_5}{b_5 + \frac{a_6}{b_6 + \frac{a_7}{b_7 + \frac{a_8}{b_8 + \frac{a_9}{b_9 + \frac{a_{10}}{b_{10} + \dots}}}}}}}}}} + \frac{a_n}{b_n} \tag{4.1}$$

In what follows, c_n is written shortly as

$$c_n = b_0 + \frac{a_1|}{|b_1|} + \frac{a_2|}{|b_2|} + \dots + \frac{a_n|}{|b_n|}$$

and (4.1) as

$$b_0 + \frac{a_1|}{|b_1|} + \frac{a_2|}{|b_2|} + \cdots + \frac{a_n|}{|b_n|} + \cdots$$

In case of $a_k = -d_k$, we write $-\frac{d_k|}{|b_k|}$ instead of $+\frac{-d_k|}{|b_k|}$.

Definition 4.1 We say that the continued fraction (4.1) **converges** to K , if at most finitely many approximants c_n are not defined and if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n = K.$$

In this case, we also write

$$b_0 + \frac{a_1|}{|b_1|} + \frac{a_2|}{|b_2|} + \cdots + \frac{a_n|}{|b_n|} + \cdots = K.$$

We write c_n in the form

$$c_n = \frac{A_n}{B_n}, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots,$$

where, for example,

$$A_0 = b_0, \quad B_0 = 1,$$

$$A_1 = b_0b_1 + a_1 \quad B_1 = b_1,$$

$$A_2 = b_0b_1b_2 + b_0a_2 + a_1b_2, \quad B_2 = b_1b_2 + a_2.$$

In general, it is possible to define the sequences $(A_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ and $(B_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ can be defined in such a way that

$$A_n = b_n A_{n-1} + a_n A_{n-2}, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, \quad A_{-1} = 1, \quad A_0 = b_0, \quad (4.2)$$

and

$$B_n = b_n B_{n-1} + a_n B_{n-2}, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, \quad B_{-1} = 0, \quad B_0 = 1. \quad (4.3)$$

A_n and B_n are called the n th **partial numerator** and **denominator** of the continued fraction (4.1), respectively. We have

$$A_n B_{n-1} - B_n A_{n-1} = (-1)^{n+1} a_1 a_2 \cdots a_n, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, \quad (4.4)$$

and

$$\frac{A_n}{B_n} = b_0 + \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{(-1)^{k+1} a_1 a_2 \cdots a_k}{B_{k-1} B_k} \quad (4.5)$$

provided that $B_k \neq 0$, $k = 1, \dots, n$

Lemma 4.2 If $m_0 = 0$, then the n th partial denominator of the continued fraction

$$1 - \frac{1|}{|1|} - \frac{(1 - m_0)m_1|}{|1|} - \frac{(1 - m_1)m_2|}{|1|} - \cdots$$

equals

$$B_n = (1 - m_1) \cdots (1 - m_{n-1}), \quad n = 1, 2, \dots \quad (4.6)$$

Lemma 4.3 Let $a_n = (1 - m_{n-1})m_n$, $m_0 = 0$ and $0 < m_n < 1$, $n = 1, 2, \dots$. Then

$$1 - \frac{a_1}{|1|} - \frac{a_2}{|1|} - \frac{a_3}{|1|} - \dots = \frac{1}{1 + L},$$

where

$$L = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{m_1 m_2 \cdots m_n}{(1 - m_1)(1 - m_2) \cdots (1 - m_n)}.$$

Proposition 4.4 Let $b_n = (1 - g_{n-1})g_n$, $0 \leq g_0 < 1$ and $0 < g_n < 1$, $n = 1, 2, \dots$. Then

$$1 - \frac{b_1}{|1|} - \frac{b_2}{|1|} - \frac{b_3}{|1|} - \dots = g_0 + \frac{1 - g_0}{1 + G}, \quad (4.7)$$

where

$$G = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{g_1 g_2 \cdots g_n}{(1 - g_1)(1 - g_2) \cdots (1 - g_n)}.$$

Example 4.5 If

$$b_0 + \frac{a_1}{|b_1|} + \frac{a_2}{|b_2|} + \frac{a_3}{|b_3|} + \dots = K \neq 0$$

then

$$b_{-1} + \frac{a_0}{|b_0|} + \frac{a_2}{|b_2|} + \frac{a_3}{|b_3|} + \dots = b_{-1} + \frac{a_0}{K}.$$

Example 4.6 Assuming that the continued fraction

$$1 + \frac{1}{|1|} + \frac{1}{|1|} + \frac{1}{|1|} + \dots$$

converges we show that its value is equal to $\frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}$.

4.2 Jacobi fractions and orthogonal polynomials

Let α_n and β_n be given numbers with $\beta_n \neq 0$. Let us denote the n th partial denominator of the so-called **Jacobi fraction**

$$\frac{\beta_0}{|x - \alpha_0|} - \frac{\beta_1}{|x - \alpha_1|} - \frac{\beta_2}{|x - \alpha_2|} - \dots \quad (4.8)$$

by $P_n(x)$. Formula (4.3) gives

$$P_{n+1}(x) = (x - \alpha_n)P_n(x) - \beta_n P_{n-1}(x), \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \quad P_0(x) = 1, \quad P_{-1}(x) = 0. \quad (4.9)$$

The n th partial numerator $A_n(x)$ satisfies the recursion formula

$$A_{n+1}(x) = (x - \alpha_n)A_n(x) - \beta_n A_{n-1}(x) \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, \quad A_1(x) = \beta_0, \quad A_0(x) = 0,$$

where $\beta_0^{-1}A_n(x)$ is a monic polynomial of degree $n - 1$, which is independent of β_0 . For this reason we write $Q_n(x) = \beta_0^{-1}A_{n+1}(x)$, $n = -1, 0, 1, \dots$. Then

$$Q_{n+1}(x) = (x - \alpha_{n+1})Q_n(x) - \beta_{n+1}Q_{n-1}, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \quad (4.10)$$

$Q_0(x) = 1$, $Q_{-1}(x) = 0$. The polynomials $Q_n(x)$ are called **monic numerator polynomials** w.r.t. the polynomial system $(P_n(x))_{n=0}^{\infty}$. From (4.4) we deduce

$$P_{n+1}(x)Q_{n-1}(x) - P_n(x)Q_n(x) = -\beta_1\beta_2 \cdots \beta_n, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots \quad (4.11)$$

Proposition 4.7 *If $\alpha_n \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\beta_n > 0$, then the zeros x_{nk} and y_{nk} of the polynomials $P_n(x)$ and $Q_n(x)$, respectively, fulfil the relations*

$$x_{n+1,k+1} < y_{nk} < x_{n+1,k}.$$

Corollary 4.8 *Let (η_1, ξ_1) and (η_1^1, ξ_1^1) be the supports of the OPS*

$$(P_n(x))_{n=0}^{\infty} \quad \text{und} \quad (Q_n(x))_{n=0}^{\infty},$$

respectively. Then $(\eta_1^1, \xi_1^1) \subset (\eta_1, \xi_1)$. Moreover, if, for example, $\xi_1^1 < \xi_1$, then, for all sufficiently large n , there lies exactly one zero of $P_n(x)$ in the interval (ξ_1^1, ξ_1) .

Proposition 4.9 *If the numbers α_n are real and the numbers β_n are positive, then*

$$\frac{\beta_0 Q_{n-1}(x)}{P_n(x)} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{A_{nk}}{x - x_{nk}}.$$

where the A_{nk} -s denote the weights in the Gaussian quadrature rule w.r.t. the OPS $(P_n(x))_{n=0}^{\infty}$.

Example 4.10 *Die monic Chebyshev polynomials $2^{-n}U_n(x)$, $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ are the numerator polynomials for $2^{1-n}T_n(x)$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $T_0(x)$.*

4.3 Chain sequences

Definition 4.11 *A sequence $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ of the form*

$$a_n = (1 - g_{n-1})g_n \quad \text{mit} \quad 0 \leq g_0 < 1 \quad \text{and} \quad 0 < g_n < 1, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots,$$

*is called **chain sequence**. The sequence $(g_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is named a **parameter sequence** and g_0 a **initial parameter** of the chain sequence $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$.*

Example 4.12 *The constant sequence $\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a chain sequence, where $\left(\frac{n}{2(n+1)}\right)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ as well as the constant sequence $\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ are parameter sequences. The equations*

$$a = \left(1 - \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 - 4a}}{2}\right) \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 - 4a}}{2} = \left(1 - \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 - 4a}}{2}\right) \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 - 4a}}{2}$$

show that each constant sequence $(a)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ with $0 < a \leq \frac{1}{4}$ is a chain sequence.

Lemma 4.13 Let $(g_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ and $(h_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ be parameter sequences of the chain sequence $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$. Then $g_n < h_n$, $n = 1, 2, \dots$, if and only if $g_0 < h_0$.

Lemma 4.14 If a chain sequence $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ possesses the parameter sequence $(g_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ with $g_0 > 0$, then, for each $h_0 \in [0, g_0]$, there exists a parameter sequence $(h_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ of $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$.

Corollary 4.15 Each chain sequence possesses a parameter sequence $(m_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ with $m_0 = 0$. It holds $m_n < g_n$, $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, for each other parameter sequence $(g_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ of this chain sequence. The sequence $(m_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is called **minimal parameter sequence** of the respective chain sequence. A parameter sequence $(M_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$, for which $M_n \geq g_n$, $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, holds for any parameter sequence $(g_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$, is named **maximal parameter sequence** of the respective chain sequence.

Lemma 4.16 To each chain sequence there exists a maximal parameter sequence.

In what follows $(m_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ denotes the minimal parameter sequence and $(M_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ the maximal parameter sequence of the chain sequence $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$.

Proposition 4.17 If $(b_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a chain sequence with the parameter sequence $(h_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ and if $a_n \leq b_n$, $n = 1, 2, \dots$, then

$$m_n \leq h_n \leq M_n, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Lemma 4.18 Let the chain sequence $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be monotonously non-decreasing. Then the minimal parameter sequence $(m_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is monotonously increasing and the maximal parameter sequence $(M_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ monotonously non-increasing.

Corollary 4.19 If $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} = \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ then $(M_n)_{n=0}^{\infty} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)_{n=0}^{\infty}$.

Corollary 4.20 Let $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be a chain sequence. If there exists an index $N \in \mathbb{N}$ with $a_n \geq \frac{1}{4}$, $n = N, N + 1, \dots$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \frac{1}{4}$. Consequently, if $b_n \geq b > \frac{1}{4}$, $n = N, N + 1, \dots$, then $(b_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is **not** a chain sequence.