

**MA/M.Sc. (SEMESTER-IV)**  
**(Orthogonal Polynomials)**

### Determinacy of $\int x^k q(x)$ in the Bounded Case

#### Definition

A polynomial  $q(x)$ , not identically zero, is called *quasi-orthogonal polynomial of order  $n+1$*  if and only if it is of degree at most  $n+1$  and

$$\int x^k q(x) = 0 \quad \text{for } k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1.$$

Note that according to this definition  $P_n(x)$  and  $P_{n+1}(x)$  are both quasi-orthogonal polynomial of order  $n+1$ .

#### Theorem

- (i)  $q(x)$  is a quasi-orthogonal polynomial of order  $n+1$  if and only if there are constants  $A$  and  $B$ , not both zero, such that

$$q(x) = AP_{n+1}(x) + BP_n(x)$$

- (ii) For each number  $z_0$ , there is a quasi-orthogonal polynomial of order  $n+1$ ,  $q(x)$ , such that  $q(z_0) = 0$ . This  $q(x)$  is uniquely determined up to an arbitrary non-zero factor, and its degree is  $n+1$  if and only if  $P_n(z_0) \neq 0$ .

#### Proof

Let

$$q(x) = AP_{n+1}(x) + BP_n(x)$$

then

$$\int x^k q(x) = \int [Ax^k P_{n+1}(x) + Bx^k P_n(x)], \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$$

$$= A \int x^k P_{n+1}(x) + B \int x^k P_n(x)$$

$$= 0 \quad \text{if } |A| + |B| \neq 0$$

Hence  $q(x)$  is a quasi-orthogonal polynomial of order  $n+1$ .

Conversely, let  $q(x)$  is a quasi-orthogonal polynomial of order  $n+1$ , so we can write

$$q(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} c_k P_k(x)$$

where  $c_k = \left\{ \int [P_k^2(x)] \right\}^{-1} \int [q(x)P_k(x)] = 0$  for  $0 \leq k \leq n-1$ .

Hence

$$q(x) = AP_{n+1}(x) + BP_n(x).$$

(ii) Let  $z_0$  be a zero of  $P_n(x)$  or  $P_{n+1}(x)$ . Now

$$q(x) = AP_{n+1}(x) + BP_n(x) \quad \text{where } A \text{ and } B \text{ are not both zero.}$$

If  $P_n(z_0) = 0$  choose constant  $A = 0, B \neq 0$ .

Then  $q(z_0) = 0$ .

Similarly for if  $P_{n+1}(z_0) = 0$ .

If  $P_n(z_0) \neq 0 \Rightarrow B = 0, A \neq 0$ .

So  $q(x) = AP_{n+1}(x)$

Hence  $q(x)$  is a polynomial of degree  $n+1$ .

Since  $q(z_0) = 0 \Rightarrow P_{n+1}(z_0) = 0$ . So  $z_0$  is a zero of  $P_{n+1}(x)$

Hence it cannot be a zero  $P_n(x)$  i.e.  $P_n(z_0) \neq 0$ .

### Theorem

The zeros of a real quasi-orthogonal are all real and simple. At most one of these lies outside the open interval,  $(\xi_1, \eta_1)$ .

### Proof

If  $q(x)$  is an orthogonal polynomial there is nothing to prove. Let  $q(x) = AP_{n+1}(x) + BP_n(x)$  where  $A$  and  $B$  are real and different from zero.

Let  $x_{n+1,i}$  ,  $i = 1, \dots, n+1$ , be the zeros of  $P_{n+1}(x)$ . Then

$$q(x_{n+1,i}) = BP_n(x_{n+1,i})$$

As  $i$  will vary from  $i = 1, \dots, n+1$   $P_n(x)$  will change sign, so  $q(x)$  will change sign as  $i$  varies from 1 to  $n+1$ . So  $q(x)$  has  $n$  real zeros separating the  $n+1$  zeros of  $P_{n+1}(x)$ . Since  $q(x)$  is real, its remaining one zero must be real and must lie outside  $[x_{n+1,1}, x_{n+1,n+1}]$

### Theorem

Let  $x_0$  be any real number which is not a zero of  $P_n(x)$ . Let  $q(x)$  denote a real quasi-orthogonal polynomial of order and degree  $n+1$  which vanishes at  $x_0$ . If  $\Lambda_{n0}$  denotes the quadrature coefficient which corresponds to  $\pi(x_0) = 1$ .

$$\Lambda_{n0} = \min_{\pi} \int \pi(x)^2$$

where the minimum is computed as  $\pi(x)$  ranges over all polynomials of degree at most  $n$  such that  $\pi(x_0) = 1$ .

### Proof

Suppose  $y_{np} = x_0$  and write  $B_{np} = \Lambda_{n0}$ . If  $\pi(x)$  has degree not exceeding  $n$  and  $\pi(x_0) = 1$ , then

$$\int \pi(x)^2 \geq B_{np} | \pi(x_0) |^2 = \Lambda_{n0}.$$

Hence  $\Lambda_{n0} = \min_{\pi} \int \pi(x)^2$ .

Now the polynomial

$$\rho(x) = \frac{q(x)}{(x - x_0)q'(x_0)}$$

is of degree  $n$  and  $\rho(x)$  will vanish at  $y_{ni}$  for  $i \neq p$  and  $\rho(x_0) = 1$ .

That is,

$$\int \rho^2(x) = \Lambda_{n0}.$$

### Corollary

$$\Lambda_{n0} = \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^n p_k^2(x_0) \right\}^{-1}$$

where  $p_k(x)$  denotes the  $k$ th orthonormal polynomial.

**Proof**

$$\begin{aligned}
\Lambda_{n0} = [K_n(x_0, x_0)]^{-1} &= \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^n \overline{p_k(x_0)} p_k(x_0) \right\}^{-1} \\
&= \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^n p_k(\overline{x_0}) p_k(x_0) \right\}^{-1} \\
&= \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^n p_k^2(x_0) \right\}^{-1}.
\end{aligned}$$

**Theorem**

Let  $\phi$  be any representative of  $\mathfrak{L}$ . Then for any real number  $x_0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
\phi(x_0) - \phi(-\infty) &\leq \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} p_k^2(x_0) \right\}^{-1} && \text{if } -\infty < x_0 \leq \xi_1 \\
\phi(+\infty) - \phi(x_0) &\leq \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} p_k^2(x_0) \right\}^{-1} && \text{if } \eta_1 < x_0 \leq +\infty
\end{aligned}$$

**Proof**

Suppose that  $-\infty < x_0 \leq \xi_1$  and let  $q(x)$  be a real quasi-orthogonal polynomial of order and degree  $n+1$  that has  $x_0$  as a zero. Now

$$\Lambda_{n0} = \mathfrak{L}[\rho^2(x)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \rho^2(x) d\varphi(x) \geq \int_{-\infty}^{x_0} \rho^2(x) d\varphi(x)$$

Since  $q(x)$  has no zero smaller than  $\xi_1$  other than  $x_0$ . It follows that

$$\rho^2(x) > \rho^2(x_0) = 1 \text{ for } x < x_0,$$

hence

$$\Lambda_{n0} \geq \int_{-\infty}^{x_0} d\varphi(x) = \varphi(x_0) - \varphi(-\infty).$$

Since  $\Lambda_{n0} = \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^n p_k^2(x_0) \right\}^{-1}$ , we have

$$\varphi(x_0) - \varphi(-\infty) \leq \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^n p_k^2(x_0) \right\}^{-1} \quad \text{for } x_0 \leq \xi_1.$$

The remaining case is proved in the same way.

### Theorem

Let  $[a, b]$  be a compact interval and let  $\phi_1$  and  $\phi_2$  be functions of bounded variation on  $[a, b]$  such that

$$\int_a^b x^n d\phi_1(x) = \int_a^b x^n d\phi_2(x), \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Then there exist a constant  $C$  such that  $\phi_1(x) - \phi_2(x) = C$  at all  $x \in [a, b]$  at which both are continuous.

### Proof

Let

$$\phi(x) = \phi_1(x) - \phi_2(x)$$

So that  $\phi$  is of bounded variation on  $[a, b]$  and

$$\int_a^b x^n d\phi(x) = \int_a^b x^n d\phi_1(x) - \int_a^b x^n d\phi_2(x) = 0.$$

Hence

$$\int_a^b \pi(x) d\phi(x) = 0 \quad \text{for every polynomial } \pi(x).$$

Now if  $f$  is any continuous function on  $[a, b]$ , then by Weierstrass approximation theorem  $f$  can be approximated by polynomials. Hence we have

$$\int_a^b f(x)d\phi(x) = 0 .$$

Taking  $f(x) = 1$  , we have  $\phi(b) - \phi(a) = 0$  .

Now for any  $t$  ,  $a < t < b$  which is point of continuity of  $\phi$  , define

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & a \leq x \leq t \\ t & t < x \leq b \end{cases}$$

Then  $f$  is continuous on  $[a,b]$  and we have

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \int_a^b f d\phi(x) = \int_a^t x d\phi(x) + \int_t^b t d\phi(x) \\ &= t\phi(t) - a\phi(a) - \int_a^t \phi(x) dx + t\phi(b) - t\phi(t) \\ &= (t-a)\phi(a) - \int_a^t \phi(x) dx . \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\Phi(t) = \int_a^t \phi(x) dx = (t-a)\phi(a)$$

Since  $\phi$  is continuous at  $t$  ,  $\Phi'(t)$  exist and we have

$$\Phi'(t) = \phi(t) = \phi(a)$$

so

$$\phi_1(t) - \phi_2(t) = \phi(a) .$$

Note : These notes were taught and given to the students in the class.