# A NOTE ON THE UNIFICATION OF THE CLASSICAL ORTHOGONAL POLYNOMIALS

by A. K. RAJAGOPAL, Department of Physics, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore

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#### ABSTRACT

In this note, a condition is deduced under which a polynomial  $p_{\pi}(x)$  having the Rodrigues formula  $p_{\pi}(x) = \frac{1}{k_{\pi}w(x)} \left(\frac{d}{dx}\right)^n \left\{w(x) \times \left[X(x)\right]^n\right\}$  satisfies the second order differential equation

$$A(x)y'' + B(x)y' + C(x)y = 0.$$

When X(x) is a quadratic expression in x, all the classical polynomials are included in  $p_{\pi}(x)$ .

1. Tricomi \* has defined the orthogonal polynomials  $p_n(x)$ , which satisfy a differential equation of the form

$$A(x)y'' + B(x)y' + \lambda_n y = 0 \qquad \dots \qquad \dots \qquad \dots \qquad \dots \qquad \dots$$

where A(x), B(x) are independent of n, and  $\lambda_n$  is independent of x, having the Rodrigues formula

$$p_{\pi}(x) = \frac{1}{k_{\pi}\omega(x)} \left(\frac{d}{dx}\right)^{\pi} \left[\omega(x) \left\{X(x)\right\}^{\pi}\right] \qquad .$$
 (2)

where  $K_n$  is a constant and X is a polynomial in x of degree k whose coefficients are independent of n.

In the present note we have derived a condition under which the polynomials having the Rodrigues formula (2) should satisfy a differential equation (1), where now  $\lambda_{\pi}$  is also a function of x; unlike in the work of Tricomi, A(x), B(x) may contain n.

We have discussed in full the case when X is quadratic, which includes the Bessel polynomial in addition to the polynomials of Legendre, Gegenbauer, Tchebycheff, Jacobi, Hermite and Laguerre; and at the end we mention the case when X is a cubic polynomial.

2. We shall prove the following theorems:

**Theorem** (a). † The condition that the polynomials defined by

$$p_{\mathbf{m}}(n, x) = \frac{1}{k_{\mathbf{m}}w(x)} \left(\frac{d}{dx}\right)^{\mathbf{m}} (w(x)X^{\mathbf{n}}) \qquad . \tag{3}$$

<sup>\*</sup> I am grateful to Prof. Erdélyi for bringing Tricomi's (1955) work to my notice.

<sup>†</sup> I am indebted to Dr. M. Venkataraman of the University of Madras and Prof. C. T. Rajagopal of the Ramanujan Institute of Mathematics, Madras, for restating the original lemma in this convenient form, when the author was at Madras.

[(m, n)] are positive integers may have a second order differential equation is

$$X^{(iv)} + \left(nX^{(i)} + \frac{\omega^{(i)}}{\omega}X\right)^{(iii)} = 0 \qquad \dots \qquad \dots \qquad (4)$$

The numerals appearing here (and henceforward) as superscripts denote the orders of differentiation; X is a polynomial of degree k in x ( $k \le m$ ) and

$$\log \omega = -\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{h(t)}{X(t)} dt \qquad . . \qquad . .$$

where h(t) is a polynomial of degree (k-1).

**PROOF.** Let  $y = w \cdot X^n$ ;

then

$$Xy^{(i)} = \left(nX^{(i)} + \frac{\omega^{(i)}}{\omega}X\right)y.$$

Differentiating this (m+1) times and equating the coefficients of  $y^{(m-1)}, \ldots, y$  to zero, in order to get a second order differential equation in  $y^{(m)} = \left(\frac{d}{dx}\right)^m$   $[w(x)X^n]$ , we get the set of conditions:

$$(m+2-r)X^{(r)}-r\left(nX^{(i)}+\frac{\omega^{(i)}}{\omega}X\right)^{(r-1)}=0 \qquad ... (6)$$

for  $r = 3, 4, \ldots, (m+1)$ . Changing r into r-1 we obtain

$$(m+3-r) X^{(r-1)} - (r-1) \left( nX^{(i)} + \frac{\omega^{(i)}}{\omega} X \right)^{(n-2)} = 0 \dots (6')$$

Differentiating (6') and subtracting from (6) we get

$$X^{(n)} + \left(nX^{(i)} + \frac{\omega^{(i)}}{\omega}X\right)^{(n-1)} = 0 \qquad .. \qquad .. \qquad (7)$$

This procedure can be repeated for every adjacent pair of (6), and (7) holds for  $r = 4, 5, \ldots, (m+1).$ From (7) we have for r = (m+1)

$$X^{(\mathbf{m}+1)} + \left(nX^{(i)} + \frac{\omega^{(i)}}{\omega}X\right)^{(\mathbf{m})} = 0.$$

Putting this in

$$X^{(m+1)} - (m+1) \left( nX^{(i)} + \frac{\omega^{(i)}}{\omega} X \right)^{(m)} = 0$$

obtained from (6) with r = (m+1), we find

$$X^{(m+1)} = 0$$
, and  $\left(X \frac{\omega^{(i)}}{\omega}\right)^{(m)} = 0$ 

implying thereby that X can at most be a polynomial of degree m; and  $X = \frac{w^{(i)}}{v^{(i)}}$ -h, a polynomial of degree one less than that of g.

Hence

$$\log \omega = -\int_{-}^{x} \frac{h(t)}{X(t)} dt.$$

If X is of degree k, then r = k+1 in (7), and proceeding as above, we can show that h is of degree (k-1). Hence the theorem.

Cor. 1: If X is of degree k,  $p_m(n, x)$  is of degree (nk-m).

Cor. 2: The differential equation which (3) satisfies under these conditions is

$$Xv^{(ii)} + \left[ (m-n+1) X^{(i)} - h \right] v^{(i)} + \left[ (m+1) \left( \frac{1}{2}m - n \right) X^{(ii)} + nh^{(i)} - (m-n)(\log \omega)^{(ii)} X \right] v = 0 \qquad . . (8)$$

From now on, we consider the case m = n.

**Theorem** (b). The least degree of X which makes  $\{p_n(x)\}\$  an orthogonal set is 2.

**PROOF.** Let X be of degree k and let all the derivatives up to and including (n-1)th of  $(wX^n)$  vanish at  $(\alpha, \beta)$ . Consider the scalar product

$$\langle p_n, p_m \rangle = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \omega(x) p_n(x) p_m(x) dx$$

$$= \frac{(-1)^m}{k_m} \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \omega X^m \left(\frac{d}{dx}\right)^m [p_n(x)] dx$$

$$= 0 \text{ if } m > n \cdot (k-1),$$

for by Cor. 1, Theorem (a),  $p_n(x)$  is of degree  $n \cdot (k-1)$ . Similarly  $\langle p_n, p_n = 0 \rangle$  if  $n > m \cdot (k-1)$ .

Therefore the simplest case in which the sequence  $\{p_n(x)\}$  forms an orthogonal set is when k=2.

## 3. The classification of the classical orthogonal polynomials

From theorem (b) we see that the simplest of all forms of X is a quadratic, and therefore let

$$X = ax^2 + bx + c$$

$$\log w = -\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{pt+q}{at^2+bt+c} dt.$$

Hence 
$$p_{\pi}(x) = \frac{1}{K_{\pi}} e^{\int_{-x}^{x} \frac{pt+q}{at^{2}+bt+c} dt} \left(\frac{d}{dx}\right)^{\pi} \left[ e^{-\int_{-x}^{x} \frac{pt+q}{at^{2}+bt+c} dt} (ax^{2}+bx+c)^{\pi} \right]$$
 .. (9)

This, from Theorem (a), Cor. 2, satisfies the differential equation

$$(ax^{2}+bx+c)y^{(ii)}+[(2a-p)x+b-q]y^{(i)}+n[p-(n+1)a]y=0 \qquad .. (10)$$

By Theorem (a), Cor. 1,  $p_n(x)$  is of exact degree n and by Theorem (b)  $\{p_n(x)\}$  forms an orthogonal set.

It is curious to note that Gauss was the first to study a differential equation of the form (10) and its connections with the hypergeometric equation; the polynomial solution of (10), namely (9), may justly be christened 'Gauss Polynomial'.

We give below the connection of (9) with all the classical orthogonal polynomials; the notations employed here are as in Erdelyi (1953). This suggests  $p_n(x)$  to be termed 'Hold-all Polynomial'.

In this manner one arrives at an extension of Jacobi's polynomial. We may note that the above list exhausts all the orthogonal polynomials which can be obtained by taking k = 2, i.e., X, a quadratic.

# 4. Discussion of the case when $X = ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d$

We give below two non-orthogonal polynomials, which may be of interest, derived by taking a cubic polynomial for  $\hat{X}$ .

If we take  $X = ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d$ ,

then

$$\log w = -\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{pt^2 + qt + r}{at^3 + bt^2 + ct + d} dt \qquad . . \qquad . . \tag{11}$$

The condition (6), with r=3, shows that

$$p = (2n+1)a \quad \dots \qquad \dots \qquad \dots \qquad \dots \qquad \dots \qquad \dots \qquad \dots$$

The polynomials thus defined are of degree 2n, and satisfy the differential equation

$$(ax^{3}+bx^{2}+cx+d)y^{(ii)}+[-2(n-1)ax^{2}+(2b-q)x+(c-r)]y^{(i)} +n[(n-1)ax+q-(n+1)b]y=0 \qquad . . (13)$$

(a) Let us choose q = 0 = b = c = d, a = 1, r = -2 so that we have

$$\Lambda_{n}(x) = e^{\frac{1}{x^{2}}} x^{2n-1} \left(\frac{d}{dx}\right)^{n} \left(e^{-\frac{1}{x^{2}}} x^{n-1}\right) \dots \dots (14)$$

satisfying the differential equation

$$x^{3}v^{(ii)} - 2\left[(n+1)x^{2} - 1\right]v^{(i)} + n(n-1)xv = 0 \qquad . . \qquad . . \tag{15}$$

(b) Let a = -b = r = 1; c = d = q = 0. Then

$$S_n(x) = e^{\frac{1}{x}} x^{2n} (x-1) \left( \frac{d}{dx} \right)^n \left( e^{-\frac{1}{x}} (x-1)^{n-x} \right) \qquad . \tag{16}$$

satisfying the differential equation

$$x^{2}(x-1)y^{(i)} - [2(n-1)x^{2} + 2n+1]y^{(i)} + xn(n-1)y = 0 .. (17)$$

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