

10th International Conference CMMSE

On a degenerate version of Favard's theorem

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The example: Askey-Wilson polynomials

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- Proof of Favard's theorem

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The example:
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- Consider the polynomials $(p_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}_0}$ generated by the TTRR

$$xp_n(x) = p_{n+1}(x) + \beta_n p_n(x) + \gamma_n p_{n-1}(x),$$

with initial conditions $p_{-1}(x) \equiv 0, p_0(x) = 1$.

Theorem (Favard) If $\gamma_n \neq 0 \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ then there exists a linear $\mathcal{L}_0 : \mathbb{P}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ so that

$$\mathcal{L}_0(p_n p_m) = r_n \delta_{n,m}$$

(r_n a non-vanishing normalization factor)

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$\mathcal{L}_0?$

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$$\mathcal{L}_0(p_n) := \delta_{0,n}$$

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Hypothesis: $x p_n(x) = p_{n+1}(x) + \beta_n p_n(x) + \gamma_n p_{n-1}(x)$,
 $\mathcal{L}_0(p_n) := \delta_{n,0}$, $\gamma_n \neq 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

- If $m < n$ then $\mathcal{L}_0(x^m p_n) = \sum_{j=m-n}^{m+n} a_j \mathcal{L}_0(p_j) = 0$

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• If $m = n$ then

$$\mathcal{L}_0(x^n p_n) = \sum_{j=0}^{2n} a_j \mathcal{L}_0(p_j) = a_0 \mathcal{L}_0(p_0) = \gamma_n \gamma_{n-1} \cdots \gamma_1$$

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But with the assumption $\gamma_N = 0$

- If $m \neq n$ then $\mathcal{L}_0(p_m p_n) = 0$

Polynomials are orthogonal with respect to \mathcal{L}_0

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Polynomials are orthogonal with respect to \mathcal{L}_0

- $\mathcal{L}_0(p_N p_N) = 0$

Orthogonality with respect to \mathcal{L}_0 Polynomials are orthogonal with respect to \mathcal{L}_0 does not characterize the polynomials since $p_{N+1} + \alpha p_N \perp \langle p_0, \dots, p_N \rangle$.

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Let $\mathcal{T}_1 : \mathbb{P}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{P}[x]$ be a linear operator such that

- $\deg \mathcal{T}_1(p) = \deg p - 1$

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- The **monic** polynomials $p_{n,1}$ defined by

$p_{n,1} := \text{const.} \cdot \mathcal{T}_1(p_{n+1})$ fulfill the TTRR

$$xp_{n,1}(x) = p_{n+1,1}(x) + \beta_{n,1}p_{n,1}(x) + \gamma_{n,1}p_{n-1,1}(x)$$

so that there exists $\lambda : \{\gamma_{n,1} = 0\} \rightarrow \{\gamma_n = 0\}$ strictly increasing with $\lambda(n) > n$

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Many times we get $\gamma_{n,1} = 0 \iff \gamma_{n+1} = 0$

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so that there exists $\lambda : \{\gamma_{n,1} = 0\} \rightarrow \{\gamma_n = 0\}$ strictly increasing with $\lambda(n) > n$

Many times we get $\gamma_{n,1} = 0 \iff \gamma_{n+1} = 0$

Consequence: $(p_{n,1})$ are orthogonal with respect to some \mathcal{L}_1 , and the first n such that $\gamma_{n,1} = 0$ verifies $n < N$.

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- $p_{n,k} := \text{const.} \mathcal{I}_k(p_{n+1,k-1}) = \dots = \text{const.} \mathcal{I}^{(k)}(p_{n+k})$

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- $x p_{n,k}(x) = p_{n+1,k}(x) + \beta_{n,k} p_{n,k}(x) + \gamma_{n,k} p_{n-1,k}(x)$
- $\mathcal{L}_k(p_{m,k} p_{n,k}) = 0$ for $n \neq m$

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- $\mathcal{L}_k(p_{m,k} p_{n,k}) = 0$ for $n \neq m$
- The first n such that $\gamma_{n,k} = 0$ (if it exists) verifies $n < N - k$.

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- The first n such that $\gamma_{n,k} = 0$ (if it exists) verifies $n < N - k$.

Theorem: Suppose that only $\gamma_N = 0$, then (p_n) is a MOPS with respect to

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \mathcal{L}_0(fg) + \mathcal{L}_N(\mathcal{T}^{(N)}(f) \mathcal{T}^{(N)}(g)).$$

Notice $\gamma_{n,N} \neq 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$

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Proof:

- $\langle p_m, p_n \rangle = 0$ by construction

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Proof:

- $\langle p_m, p_n \rangle = 0$ by construction
- If $n < N$ then

$$\langle p_n, p_n \rangle = \mathcal{L}_0(p_n p_n) = \gamma_1 \gamma_2 \cdots \gamma_n \neq 0.$$

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$$\langle p_n, p_n \rangle = \mathcal{L}_0(p_n p_n) = \gamma_1 \gamma_2 \cdots \gamma_n \neq 0.$$

- If $n \geq N$ then

$$\begin{aligned} \langle p_n, p_n \rangle &= \text{const.} \mathcal{L}_N(p_{n-N} p_{n-N}) = \\ &= \text{const.} \gamma_{n-N, N} \gamma_{n-N-1, N} \cdots \gamma_{1, N} \neq 0. \end{aligned}$$

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Corollary: If $\Lambda = \{n : \gamma_n = 0\}$, then (p_n) is a MOPS with respect to

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \mathcal{L}_0(fg) + \sum_{j \in \mathcal{A}} \mathcal{L}_j(\mathcal{T}^{(j)}(f) \mathcal{T}^{(j)}(g)),$$

being $\mathcal{A} = \{N_0, N_1, \dots\}$ with
 $N_{j+1} = N_j + \min\{n : \gamma_{n, N_j} = 0\}$.

The operator \mathcal{I}

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Among all the possible choices the linear operator \mathcal{I} can be chosen as

- The “Associating operator”

$$\mathcal{I}(p)(x) = \mathcal{L}_0 \left(\frac{p(x) - p(t)}{x - t} \right)$$

(\mathcal{L}_0 acts on the variable t)

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- If (p_n) is classical, then \mathcal{I} is
 - the derivative, or
 - a difference operator.

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- \mathcal{T} the derivative:

- Litlejohn, Kwon (1990): Laguerre L_n^{-k} with a bilinear form instead of \mathcal{L}_0

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- \mathcal{T} a difference operator:
 - R. Costas-Santos, J. Sánchez-Lara (2009): Racah, Hahn, Dual Hahn, Krawtchouk

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- \mathcal{T} the q -difference operator:
 - S.G. Moreno, E. García-Caballero (2009):

big q -Jacobi and little q -Jacobi

but

- with a bilinear form (not too much explicit) instead of \mathcal{L}_0 .
- they do not use the relation between big q -Jacobi and q -Hahn.

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- R. Costas-Santos, J. Sánchez-Lara (2010):

Askey-Wilson, Big q -Jacobi, q -Racah, q -Hahn, etc

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- Orthogonality of AW polynomials for $|q| < 1$
- The 3 key cases
- Case I:
 $a^2 = q^{-M}$
- Case II:
 $ab = q^{-N+1}$
- Case III
- Orthogonality of AW polynomials for $|q| \geq 1$
- The scheme
- What is this?

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- **Monic Askey-Wilson polynomials**

- Orthogonality of AW polynomials for $|q| < 1$

- The 3 key cases

- Case I: $a^2 = q^{-M}$

- Case II: $ab = q^{-N+1}$

- Case III

- Orthogonality of AW polynomials for $|q| \geq 1$

- The scheme

- What is this?

The monic ones are $p_n(x; a, b, c, d; q) \equiv p_n(x)$

$$p_{n+1}(x) = (x - \beta_n)p_n(x) - \gamma_n p_n(x),$$

with

$$\frac{\gamma_n}{1 - q^n} = \frac{(1 - abq^{n-1})(1 - acq^{n-1})(1 - adq^{n-1})(1 - bcq^{n-1})(1 - bdq^{n-1})(1 - cdq^{n-1})}{4(1 - abcdq^{2n-3})(1 - abcdq^{2n-2})^2(1 - abcdq^{2n-1})}$$

Case $abcd \in \{q^{-k} : k \in \mathbb{N}_0\}$ are not considered since they are not normal.

They are symmetric with respect to any rearrangement of the parameters a, b, c, d .

$$\{n \in \mathbb{N} : \gamma_n = 0\} \neq \emptyset \iff ab, ac, \dots, cd \in \{q^{-k} : k \in \mathbb{N}_0\}$$

\iff they are q -Racah (until now considered as a finite family).

Orthogonality of AW polynomials for $|q| < 1$

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- Orthogonality of AW polynomials for $|q| < 1$

- The 3 key cases

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- Case III

- Orthogonality of AW polynomials for $|q| \geq 1$

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- What is this?

$$\int_C p_n \left(\frac{z + z^{-1}}{2} \right) p_m \left(\frac{z + z^{-1}}{2} \right) W(z) dz = d_n \delta_{n,m}$$

where

- W is analytic in \mathbb{C} except at the poles 0,

$$aq^k, bq^k, cq^k, dq^k \quad k \in \mathbb{N}_0 \quad (\text{the convergent poles})$$

$$(aq)^{-k}, (bq)^{-k}, (cq)^{-k}, (dq)^{-k} \quad k \in \mathbb{N}_0 \quad (\text{the divergent poles})$$

Orthogonality of AW polynomials for $|q| < 1$

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- The example: Askey-Wilson polynomials

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- The 3 key cases

- Case I:
 $a^2 = q^{-M}$

- Case II:
 $ab = q^{-N+1}$

- Case III

- Orthogonality of AW polynomials for $|q| \geq 1$

- The scheme

- What is this?

$$\int_C p_n \left(\frac{z + z^{-1}}{2} \right) p_m \left(\frac{z + z^{-1}}{2} \right) W(z) dz = d_n \delta_{n,m}$$

where

- W is analytic in \mathbb{C} except at the poles 0,

$$aq^k, bq^k, cq^k, dq^k \quad k \in \mathbb{N}_0 \quad (\text{the convergent poles})$$

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- C is the unit circle deformed to separate the convergent from the divergent poles.

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- C is the unit circle deformed to separate the convergent from the divergent poles.

- $a^2, b^2, c^2, d^2 \notin \{q^{-k} : k \in \mathbb{N}_0\}$ ($\gamma_n \neq 0$ for all n)

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- C is the unit circle deformed to separate the convergent from the divergent poles.

- $a^2, b^2, c^2, d^2 \notin \{q^{-k} : k \in \mathbb{N}_0\}$ ($\gamma_n \neq 0$ for all n)
- $ab, ac, ad, bc, bd, cd \in \{q^{-k} : k \in \mathbb{N}_0\}$ (some $\gamma_N = 0$)

The 3 key cases

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• Orthogonality of AW polynomials for $|q| < 1$

- **The 3 key cases**

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- Orthogonality of AW polynomials for $|q| \geq 1$

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- Case I: $a^2 = q^{-N+1}$ and

$$b^2, c^2, d^2, ab, ac, ad, bc, bd, cd \notin \{q^{-k} : k \in \mathbb{N}_0\}$$

- Case II: $ab = q^{-N+1}$ and

$$a^2, b^2, c^2, d^2, ac, ad, bc, bd, cd \notin \{q^{-k} : k \in \mathbb{N}_0\}$$

- Case III: $ab = q^{-N+1}$, $a^2 = q^{-M}$ with
 $M \in \{0, 1, \dots, N-2\}$ and

$$b^2, c^2, d^2, ac, ad, bc, bd, cd \notin \{q^{-k} : k \in \mathbb{N}_0\}$$

Case I: $a^2 = q^{-M}$

Since $\gamma_n \neq 0$ for all n , the orthogonality is given only by \mathcal{L}_0 .

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Since $\gamma_n \neq 0$ for all n , the orthogonality is given only by \mathcal{L}_0 .
Poles:

$$\dots, \pm q^{-M/2-1}, \pm q^{-M/2}, \pm q^{-M/2+1}, \dots, \pm q^{M/2-1}, \pm q^{M/2}, \pm q^{M/2+1}, \dots$$

Case I: $a^2 = q^{-M}$

Since $\gamma_n \neq 0$ for all n , the orthogonality is given only by \mathcal{L}_0 .

$$\mathcal{L}_0(p; a, b, c, d) = \lim_{\alpha \rightarrow a} \mathcal{L}_0(p; \alpha, b, c, d) = \lim_{\alpha \rightarrow a} \int_C p(z)W(z)dz$$

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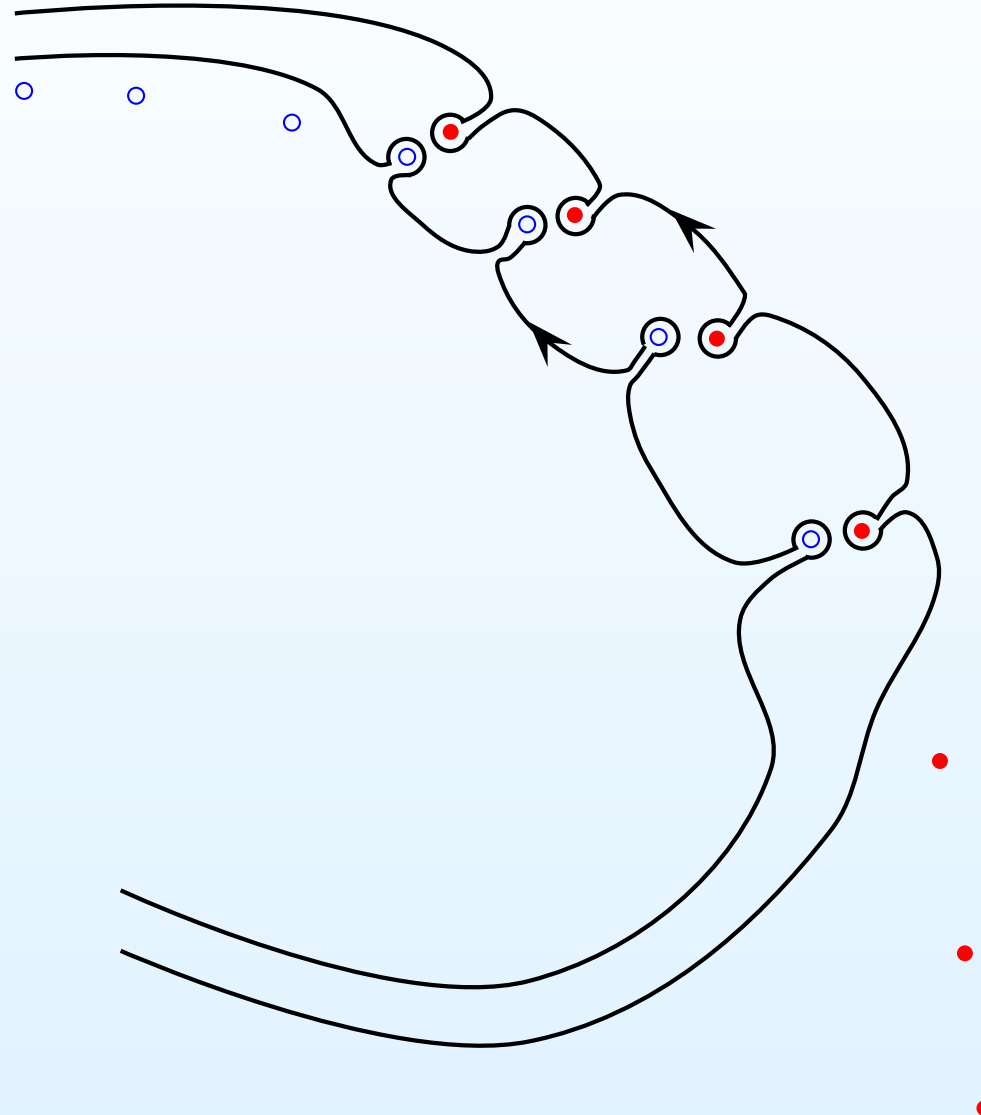
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- Orthogonality of AW polynomials for $|q| \geq 1$

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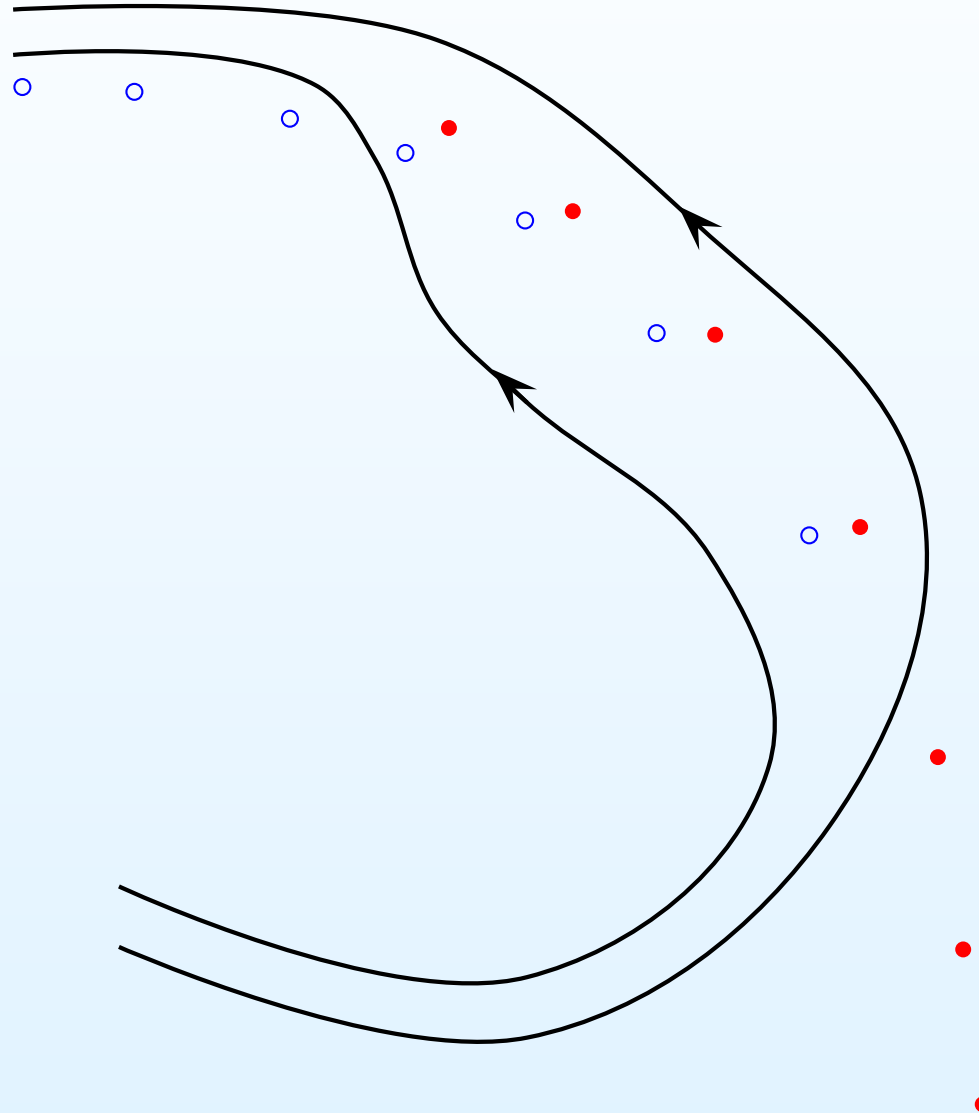
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$$\mathcal{L}_0(p; a, b, c, d) = \left(\int_{C_1} + \int_{C_2} \right) p(z)W(z)dz$$

with C_1 and C_2 separating the divergent poles from the convergent ones but the double poles which stand between C_1 and C_2 .

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Case II: $ab = q^{-N+1}$

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- What is this?

In this case $\gamma_N = 0$ (the unique) \Rightarrow we need $\mathcal{L}_0, \mathcal{L}_N$.

- \mathcal{L}_0 is a quadrature rule.

These AW polynomials are the q -Racah polynomials

$$\mathcal{L}_0(p) = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \frac{(q^{-N+1}, ac, ad, a^2; q)_j}{(q, a^2 q^N, ac^{-1}q, ad^{-1}q; q)_j} \frac{(1 - a^2 q^{2j})}{(cdq^{-N})^j (1 - a^2)^j} p \left(\frac{q^{-j} + a^2 q^{2j}}{2a} \right)$$

Case II: $ab = q^{-N+1}$

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- $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{D}_q$ the Hahn's operator

$$\mathcal{D}_q(f)(z) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{cases} \frac{f(z) - f(qz)}{(1-q)z}, & z \neq 0 \wedge q \neq 1, \\ f'(z), & z = 0 \vee q = 1, \end{cases}$$

$$\mathcal{D}^N p_n(x; a, b, c, d; q) = \text{const.} p_{n-N}(x; aq^{N/2}, bq^{N/2}, cq^{N/2}, dq^{N/2}; q)$$

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Case III

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$ab = q^{-N+1}$ and $a^2 = q^{-M}$, with $M \in \{0, \dots, N-2\}$ with only $\gamma_N = 0 \Rightarrow$ we need $\mathcal{L}_0, \mathcal{L}_N$.

Case III

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Orthogonality in this case whole be the same that in case II

$$\widehat{\mathcal{L}}_0(p) = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \frac{(q^{-N+1}, ac, ad, a^2; q)_j}{(q, a^2 q^N, ac^{-1}q, ad^{-1}q; q)_j} \frac{(1 - a^2 q^{2j})}{(cdq^{-N})^j (1 - a^2)^j} p \left(\frac{q^{-j} + a^2 q^{2j}}{2a} \right)$$

but $\widehat{\mathcal{L}}_0 \equiv 0!$.

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The good one:

$$\mathcal{L}_0(p) = \lim_{\alpha \rightarrow a} \frac{\widehat{\mathcal{L}}_0(p; \alpha, b, c, d)}{\alpha - a} = \frac{d\widehat{\mathcal{L}}_0(p; \alpha, b, c, d)}{d\alpha} \Big|_{\alpha=a}.$$

Case III

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The result is a quadrature rule with simple and double nodes

Orthogonality of AW polynomials for $|q| \geq 1$

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- **Orthogonality of AW polynomials for $|q| \geq 1$**
- The scheme
- What is this?

- $|q| > 1$.

$$p_n(x; a, b, c, d|q^{-1}) = p_n(x; a^{-1}, b^{-1}, c^{-1}, d^{-1}|q)$$

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- Orthogonality of AW polynomials for $|q| \geq 1$

- The scheme

- What is this?

- $|q| > 1$.

$$p_n(x; a, b, c, d|q^{-1}) = p_n(x; a^{-1}, b^{-1}, c^{-1}, d^{-1}|q)$$

- $q = \exp(2M\pi/NI)$. In this case $\gamma_{jN} = 0, j \in \mathbb{N}$.
 - Spiridonov and Zhedanov found \mathcal{L}_0

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- Spiridonov and Zhedanov found \mathcal{L}_0

- For $n > N$

$$\mathcal{D}^N p_n(x; a, b, c, d|q) = p_{n-N}((-1)^M x; a, b, c, d|q)$$

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$$\mathcal{D}^N p_n(x; a, b, c, d|q) = p_{n-N}((-1)^M x; a, b, c, d|q)$$

- $\mathcal{L}_j(p(\cdot)) = \mathcal{L}_0(p((-1)^M \cdot))$

- For the rest of the values of q the result keeps UNKNOWN.

The scheme

Legend

- Outline



particular case



limiting case

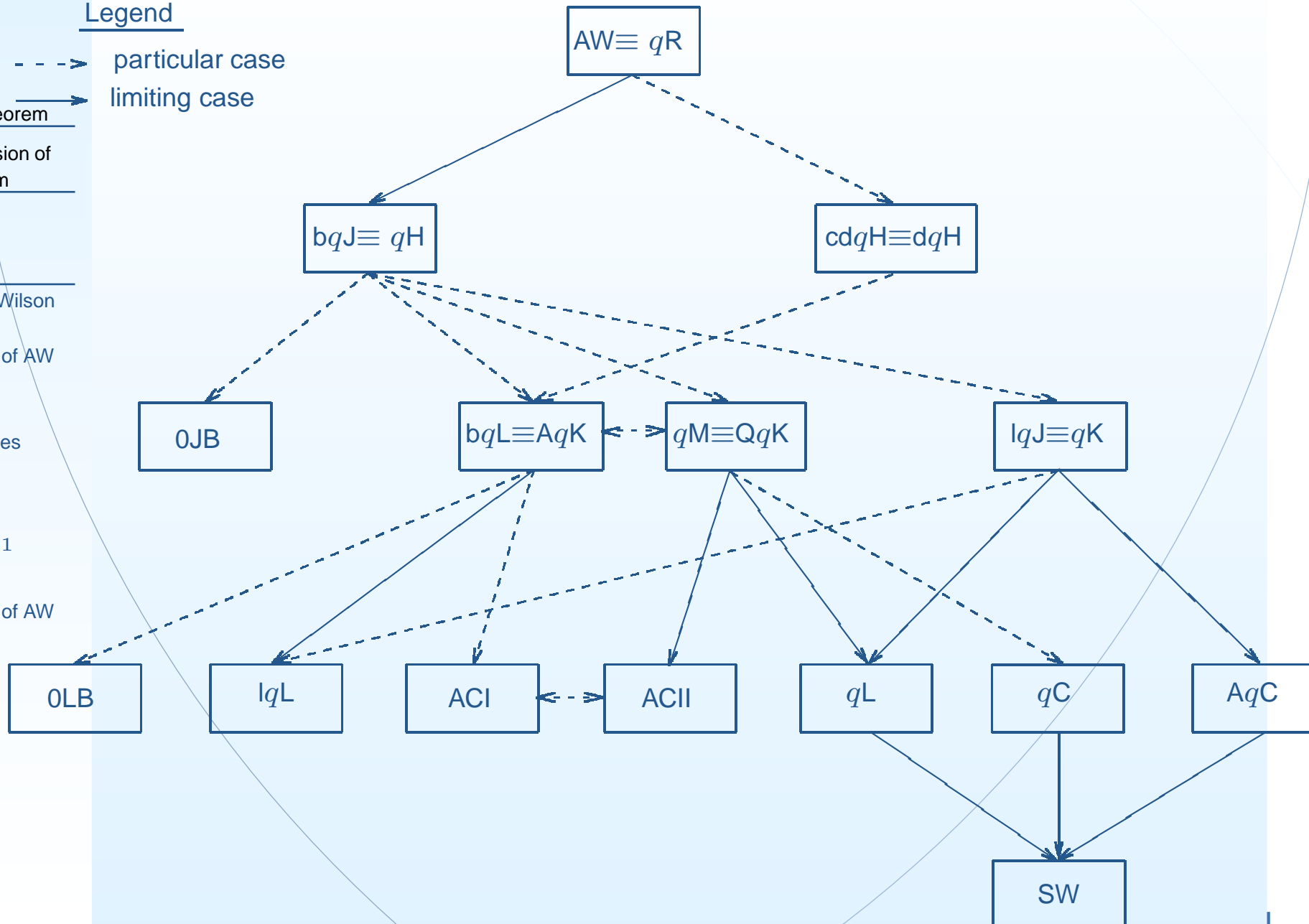
The Favard's theorem

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Finally

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Degenerate version of Favard's theorem

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THANK YOU FOR YOUR ATTENTION !!