# Laguerre Polynomials Generalized to a Certain Discrete Sobolev Inner Product Space 

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We are concerned with the set of polynomials $\left\{S_{n}^{M, N}\right\}$ which are orthogonal with respect to the discrete Sobolev inner product

$$
\langle f, g\rangle=\int_{0}^{x} u^{\prime}(x) f(x) g(x) d x+M f(0) g(0)+N f^{\prime}(0) g^{\prime}(0)
$$

where $w$ is a weight function, $M \geqslant 0, N \geqslant 0$. We show that these polynomials can be described as a linear combination of standard polynomials which are orthogonal with respect to the weight functions $w(x), x^{2} w(x)$, and $x^{4} w(x)$. The location of the zeros of $S_{n}^{M, .4}$ is given in relation to the position of the zeros of the standard polynomials. 1 1993 Academic Press. Inc.

## 1. Introduction

Several authors generalize the concept of standard orthogonal polynomials to orthogonal polynomials in a Sobolev inner product space. We mention here Althammer [1], Brenner [3], Cohen [5], and more recently Bavinck, Meijer [2], Koekoek [7], Marcellan, Ronveaux [10], and Iserles, Koch, Nørsett, Sanz-Serna [6].

In the present paper we investigate the polynomials $\left\{S_{n}^{M, N}\right\}$ which are orthogonal with respect to the inner product

$$
\langle f, g\rangle=\int_{0}^{x} w(x) f(x) g(x) d x+M f(0) g(0)+N f^{\prime}(0) g^{\prime}(0)
$$

where $w$ is a weight function, $M \geqslant 0, N \geqslant 0$.
We show that these polynomials can be expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{n}^{M+N}(x)=B_{1} K_{n}(x)+B_{2} x K_{n}^{(2)}(x)+B_{3} x^{2} K_{n}^{(4)}(x), \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

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where $\left\{K_{n}\right\},\left\{K_{n}^{(2)}\right\}$ and $\left\{K_{n}^{(4)}\right\}$ are the sets of standard orthogonal polynomials ( $M=N=0$ ) with respect to the weight functions $w(x)$, respectively, $x^{2} w(x)$ and $x^{4} w^{\prime}(x)$.

Furthermore we describe the position of the zeros of $S_{n}^{M, N}(x)$ in relation to the zeros of $K_{n \prime}(x)$ and $K_{n}^{(2)}{ }_{1}(x)$.

In Section 2 we recall some well-known results on the standard polynomials and derive some simple relations between $K_{n}, K_{n}^{(2)}$, and $K_{n}^{(4)}$. In Section 3 we define the polynomials $S_{n}^{M, N}$ and prove relation (1.1). In Section 4 the coefficients $B_{1}, B_{2}$, and $B_{3}$ in (1.1) are studied in more detail.

Section 5 contains some simple results on the zeros of $S_{n}^{M+N}$. Finally in Section 6 the location of the zeros of $S_{n}^{M, N}$ in relation to the zeros of $K_{n}$ and $K_{n}^{(2)}{ }_{1}$ is derived.

Some results in this paper are direct generalizations of results in [9], where the weight function is the Laguerre weight $w(x)=x^{x} e^{x}(\alpha>-1)$; the results in Section 6, however, are completely new.

## 2. The Standari) Polynomials

Let $w$ denote a weight function on $(0, \infty)$, i.e., $w(x) \geqslant 0$, all moments

$$
c_{n}=\int_{0}^{x} w(x) x^{n} d x, \quad n=0,1,2, \ldots
$$

exist and $c_{0} \neq 0$.
The support of $w$, i.e., the closure of the set $\{x \mid w(x)>0\}$ may be a real subset of $[0, \infty)$; the point $x=0$ may be outside or on the boundary of the support of $w$.

Consider the inner product

$$
\begin{equation*}
(f, g)=\int_{0}^{\infty} w(x) f(x) g(x) d x \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Define the set of standard polynomials $\left\{K_{n}\right\}$ by

$$
\begin{align*}
& K_{0}(x) \equiv 1, \\
& K_{n}(x)=\left|\begin{array}{ccccc}
c_{0} & c_{1} & c_{2} & \cdots & c_{n} \\
c_{1} & c_{2} & c_{3} & \cdots & c_{n+1} \\
c_{2} & c_{3} & c_{4} & \cdots & c_{n+2} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\
c_{n} & 1 & c_{n} & c_{n+1} & \cdots \\
1 & c_{2 n}, \\
1 & x^{2} & \cdots & x^{n}
\end{array}\right| \quad \text { for } n \geqslant 1 . \tag{2.2}
\end{align*}
$$

Then we have, for $0 \leqslant i \leqslant n-1$, that $\left(x^{i}, K_{n}\right)=0$, showing that $\left\{K_{n}\right\}$ is an orthogonal set with respect to the inner product (2.1).

Let $a_{n}$ denote the leading coefficient of $K_{n}(x)$, then we have

$$
\left(x^{n}, K_{n}\right)=a_{n+1} \quad \text { for } \quad n \geqslant 0 .
$$

Then $\left(a_{n} x^{n}, K_{n}\right)=a_{n} a_{n+1}$. On the other hand, $a_{n} x^{n}=K_{n}(x)+p_{n} \quad$, $(x)$, for some polynomial $p_{n}$, of degree $\leqslant n-1$. Then $\left(a_{n} x^{\prime \prime}, K_{n}\right)=\left(K_{n}, K_{n}\right)>0$. This implies $a_{n} a_{n+1}>0$ for $n \geqslant 0$. Since $a_{0}=1$ all leading coefficients $a_{n}$ are positive.

In the same way we can describe the sets of polynomials $\left\{K_{n}^{12\}}\right\}$ and $\left\{K_{n}^{(4)}\right\}$ which are orthogonal with respect to the weight functions $w(x) . x^{2}$ and $w(x) x^{4}$ respectively. They are defined for $n \geqslant 1$ by the determinant (2.2) with $c_{i}$ replaced by $c_{i+2}$, respectively $c_{i+4}$. For $n=0$ we define $K_{0}^{\prime 2)}(x)=K_{0}^{(4)}(x) \equiv 1$.

We will often use the following result: all zeros of $K_{n}, K_{n}^{(2)}$ and $K_{n}^{(4)}$ are real, simple and lie in $(0, \infty)$.

Especially this implies, since the leading coefficients are positive,

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\operatorname{sgn} K_{n}(0)=\operatorname{sgn} K_{n}^{(2)}(0)=\operatorname{sgn} K_{n}^{(4)}(0)=(-1)^{n} & \text { for } n \geqslant 0, \\
\operatorname{sgn} K_{n}^{\prime}(0)=\operatorname{sgn} K_{n}^{(2)}(0)=\operatorname{sgn} K_{n}^{(4)}(0)=(-1)^{n} \quad \text { for } & n \geqslant 1 . \tag{2.4}
\end{array}
$$

Lemma 2.1. The following relations hold:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \int_{0}^{x} w(x) K_{n}^{(2)}(x) d x=K_{n+1}^{\prime}(0) \quad \text { for } n \geqslant 0 .  \tag{2.5}\\
& \int_{0}^{x} n(x) x K_{n}^{(2)}(x) d x=-K_{n+1}(0) \text { for } n \geqslant 0 \text {. }  \tag{2.6}\\
& \int_{0}^{x} w(x) x^{2} K_{n}^{(2)}(x) d x= \begin{cases}0 & \text { for } n \geqslant 1 \\
c_{2} & \text { for } n=0 .\end{cases}  \tag{2.7}\\
& \int_{0}^{x} w(x) x^{2} K_{n}^{(4)}(x) d x=K_{n+1}^{(2)}(0) \text { for } n \geqslant 0 \text {. }  \tag{2.8}\\
& \int_{0}^{x} w(x) \cdot x^{3} K_{n}^{(4)}(x) d x=-K_{n+1}^{(2)}(0) \text { for } n \geqslant 0 \text {. } \tag{2.9}
\end{align*}
$$

Proof. For $n \geqslant 1$ relations (2.5) and (2.6) follow from the determinantal representation (2.2). Relation (2.7) for $n \geqslant 1$ is a direct consequence of the orthogonality. For $n=0$ we observe $K_{n}^{(2)}(x) \equiv 1$ and $K_{1}(x)=c_{0} x-c_{1}$ and (2.5), (2.6), and (2.7) follow for $n=0$.

Relation (2.8) and (2.9) are a direct consequence of (2.5), respectively (2.6).

## 3. The Polynomials $S_{n}$

Consider the inner product

$$
\begin{equation*}
\langle f, g\rangle=\int_{0}^{x} w(x) f(x) g(x) d x+M f(0) g(0)+N f^{\prime}(0) g^{\prime}(0), \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $M \geqslant 0, N \geqslant 0$. Then

$$
\left\langle x^{i}, x^{\prime}\right\rangle=c_{i+j}+ \begin{cases}M & \text { if } \quad i=j=0, \\ N & \text { if } \quad i=j=1, \\ 0 & \text { otherwise } .\end{cases}
$$

Define the set of polynomials $\left\{S_{n}^{M, N}\right\}$ by

$$
\begin{gather*}
S_{0}^{M, N}(x) \equiv 1, S_{1}^{M, N}(x)=\left|\begin{array}{cccc}
c_{0}+M & c_{1} \\
1 & x
\end{array}\right|, \\
S_{n}^{M, N}(x)=\left|\begin{array}{ccccc}
c_{0}+M & c_{1} & c_{2} & \cdots & c_{n} \\
c_{1} & c_{2}+N & c_{3} & \cdots & c_{n+1} \\
c_{2} & c_{3} & c_{4} & \cdots & c_{n+2} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\
c_{n} & c_{n} & c_{n+1} & \cdots & c_{2 n}, \\
1 & x & x^{2} & \cdots & x^{n}
\end{array}\right| \text { for } n \geqslant 2 . \tag{3.2}
\end{gather*}
$$

We often write $S_{n}(x)$ instead of $S_{n}^{M, N}(x)$. For $0 \leqslant i \leqslant n-1$ we have $\left\langle x^{i}, S_{n}\right\rangle=0$. Let $\tilde{a}_{n}$ denote the leading coefficient of $S_{n}$, then for $n \geqslant 2$

$$
\left\langle x^{n}, S_{n}\right\rangle=\tilde{a}_{n+1} .
$$

For $n=0$ we obtain $\left\langle 1, S_{0}\right\rangle=c_{0}+M=\tilde{a}_{1}$ and for $n=1$,

$$
\left\langle x, S_{1}\right\rangle=\left|\begin{array}{cc}
c_{0}+M & c_{1} \\
c_{1} & c_{2}
\end{array}\right|+N\left(c_{0}+M\right)=\tilde{a}_{2} .
$$

Hence $\left\langle x^{n}, S_{n}\right\rangle=\tilde{a}_{n+1}$ for $n \geqslant 0$. Then $0<\left\langle S_{n}, S_{n}\right\rangle=\tilde{a}_{n}\left\langle x^{n}, S_{n}\right\rangle=$ $\tilde{a}_{n} \tilde{a}_{n+1}$ for $n \geqslant 0$. Since $\tilde{a}_{0}=1$, all leading coefficients are positive. We have found that $\left\{S_{n}\right\}$ is a set of orthogonal polynomials on $(0, \infty)$ with respect to the inner product (3.1).

Evaluating the determinant (3.2) it follows that $S_{n}$ can be written as $S_{n}(x)=K_{n}(x)+M x K_{n-1}^{(2)}(x)+M N x^{2} K_{n}^{(4)}(x)+N q_{n}(x)$, for some polynomial $q_{n}$ of degree $\leqslant n$. Here the polynomials $K_{n}(x), x K_{n}^{(2)},(x)$, and $x^{2} K_{n}^{(4)}{ }_{2}(x)$ occur. We observe that for $2 \leqslant i \leqslant n-1$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\langle x^{i}, K_{n}(x)\right\rangle=0, \\
& \left\langle x^{i}, x K_{n}^{(2)}(x)\right\rangle=\int_{0}^{x} w(x) x^{2} x^{i-1} K_{n-1}^{(2)}(x) d x=0, \\
& \left\langle x^{i}, x^{2} K_{n}^{(4)}{ }_{2}(x)\right\rangle=\int_{0}^{x} w(x) x^{4} x^{i}{ }^{2} K_{n}^{(4)}{ }_{2}(x) d x=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $S_{n}$ can be written as

$$
S_{n}(x)=B_{1} K_{n}(x)+B_{2} x K_{n}^{(2)}(x)+B_{3} x^{2} K_{n}^{(4)}{ }_{2}(x)
$$

if the constants $B_{1}, B_{2}$, and $B_{3}$ are chosen in such a way that

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\left\langle 1, S_{n}\right\rangle=0 & \text { for } & n \geqslant 1 . \\
\left\langle x, S_{n}\right\rangle=0 & \text { for } & n \geqslant 2 \tag{3.4}
\end{array}
$$

[As usual we define $K_{1}^{(2)}(x)=K_{1}^{(4)}(x)=K_{-2}^{(4)}(x) \equiv 0$.] Using (3.1), (2.6), (2.8), and (2.9) we conclude that $B_{1}, B_{2}$, and $B_{3}$ had to satisfy the equations

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
B_{1} M K_{n}(0)-B_{2} K_{n}(0)+B_{3} K_{n-1}^{(2)}(0)=0 & \text { for } n \geqslant 1, \\
B_{1} N K_{n}^{\prime}(0)+B_{2} N K_{n-1}^{(2)}(0)-B_{3} K_{n-1}^{(2)}(0)=0 & \text { for } n \geqslant 2 .
\end{array}
$$

We take

$$
B_{1}=1-\frac{K_{n}^{(2)}(0)}{K_{n}(0)} N \quad \text { for } n \geqslant 0
$$

Then we find, using Cramer's rule for $n \geqslant 2$

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
B_{2}=M+\frac{K_{n}^{\prime}(0)}{K_{n}(0)} \frac{K_{n}^{(2)}(0)}{K_{n}^{\prime 2!}(0)} N & \text { for } n \geqslant 1, \\
B_{3}=M N+\frac{K_{n}^{\prime}(0)}{K_{n-1}^{(2)}(0)} N & \text { for } n \geqslant 2 .
\end{array}
$$

We have obtained the following result.
Theorem 3.1. For $n \geqslant 0$ the polynomial $S_{n}^{M+N}$ can be written as

$$
S_{n}^{M, N}(x)=B_{1} K_{n}(x)+B_{2} x K_{n}^{(2)}{ }_{1}(x)+B_{3} x^{2} K_{n}^{(4)}{ }_{2}(x),
$$

where

$$
B_{1}=1-\alpha_{n} N, \quad B_{2}=M+\alpha_{n} \beta_{n} N, \quad B_{3}=M N+\beta_{n} N,
$$

with
$\alpha_{n}=\frac{K_{n}^{(2)_{1}}(0)}{K_{n}(0)} \quad$ for $n \geqslant 0, \quad \beta_{n}=\frac{K_{n}^{\prime}(0)}{K_{n}^{\prime 2)}(0)} \quad$ for $n \geqslant 1$.
Remark 3.1. It follows from (2.3) and (2.4) that $\alpha_{n} \geqslant 0, \beta_{n}>0$, thus $B_{2} \geqslant 0, B_{3} \geqslant 0$. On the other hand, $B_{1}$ may be negative.

Remark 3.2. The theorem implies

$$
\begin{align*}
& S_{n}(0)=K_{n}(0)\left(1-\alpha_{n} N\right)  \tag{3.6}\\
& S_{n}^{\prime}(0)=K_{n}^{\prime}(0)+M K_{n}^{(2)}(0) . \tag{3.7}
\end{align*}
$$

Then $S_{n}(0)$ is independent of $M$ and $S_{n}^{\prime}(0)$ is independent of $N$. This can also directly be concluded from the determinant (3.2). We observe that $S_{n \prime}^{\prime}(0)$ always has the same sign as $K_{n}^{\prime}(0)$, i.ee, $(-1)^{n}{ }^{\prime}$. On the other hand, $S_{n}(0)$ and $K_{n}(0)$ have different signs if $B_{1}=1-\alpha_{n} N$ is negative. We will use this fact in the discussion on the zeros of $S_{n}$.

## 4. Monotonicity of $\alpha_{n}$ and $\beta_{n}$

In this section we prove that the sequences $\left\{\alpha_{n}\right\}$ and $\left\{\beta_{n}\right\}$ defined in (3.5) are monotonic.

We start with the well-known relation of Christoffel Darboux for the polynomials $\left\{K_{n}^{(2)}\right\}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
(x-u) \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{K_{i}^{(2)}(x) K_{i}^{(2)}(u)}{b_{i} b_{i+1}}=\frac{1}{b_{n+1}^{2}}\left\{K_{n+1}^{(2)}(x) K_{n}^{(2)}(u)-K_{n}^{(2)}(x) K_{n+1}^{(2)}(u)_{i}^{\}}\right. \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $b_{n}$ denotes the leading coefficient of $K_{n}^{(2)}(x)$.
Theorem 4.1. The sequence $\left\{\beta_{n}\right\}$ is decreasing.
Proof. Multiply (4.1) by $w(u)$ and integrate over ( $0, \infty$ ). Then (2.5) and (2.6) give

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{K_{i}^{(2)}(x)}{b_{i} b_{i+1}} K_{i+1}^{\prime}(0)+\sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{K_{i}^{(2)}(x)}{b_{i} b_{i+1}} K_{i+1}(0) \\
& \quad=\frac{1}{b_{n+1}^{2}}\left\{K_{n+1}^{(2)}(x) K_{n+1}^{\prime}(0)-K_{n}^{(2)}(x) K_{n+2}^{\prime}(0)\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

For $x=0$ we obtain

$$
\frac{1}{b_{n+1}^{2}}\left\{K_{n+1}^{(2)}(0) K_{n+1}^{\prime}(0)-K_{n}^{(2)}(0) K_{n+2}^{\prime}(0)\right\}=\sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{K_{i}^{(2)}(0) K_{i+1}(0)}{h_{i} h_{i+1}}
$$

The right hand term is negative by (2.3). Since $K_{n}^{(2)}(0) K_{n+1}^{(2)}(0)$ is negative too, this implies

$$
\beta_{n+1}=\frac{K_{n+1}^{\prime}(0)}{K_{n}^{\prime 2}(0)}>\frac{K_{n+2}^{\prime}(0)}{K_{n+1}^{(2)}(0)}=\beta_{n+2} .
$$

Thforem 4.2. The sequence $\left\{x_{n}\right\}$ is increasing.
Proof. We now multiply (4.1) by $u w(u)$ and integrate over $(0, x)$. With (2.6) and (2.7) we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
-x & \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{K_{i}^{(2)}(x)}{b_{i} b_{i+1}} K_{i+1}(0)-1 \\
& =\frac{1}{b_{n+1}^{2}}\left\{-K_{n+1}^{(2)}(x) K_{n+1}(0)+K_{n}^{(2)}(x) K_{n+2}(0)\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Differentiating this relation and substituting $x=0$ we obtain

$$
-\sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{K_{i}^{(2)}(0) K_{i+1}(0)}{b_{i} b_{i+1}}=\frac{1}{b_{n+1}^{2}}\left\{-K_{n+1}^{(2)}(0) K_{n+1}(0)+K_{n}^{(2)}(0) K_{n+2}(0)\right\}
$$

The left hand side is positive. Since $K_{n+1}(0) K_{n+2}(0)$ is negative this implies

$$
\alpha_{n+2}=\frac{K_{n+1}^{(2)}(0)}{K_{n+2}(0)}>\frac{K_{n}^{(2)}(0)}{K_{n+1}(0)}=\alpha_{n+1} .
$$

Corollary 4.1. In view of (3.6), Theorem 4.2 implies: if $S_{n}(0)$ and $K_{n}(0)$ have different signs for $n=n_{0}$, then they have different signs for all $n$ with $n>n_{0}$. Remember $\operatorname{sgn} K_{n}(0)=(-1)^{n}$.

Theorem 4.3. The sequence $\left\{\alpha_{n} \beta_{n}\right\}$ is increasing.
Proof. By (3.5) we have

$$
\alpha_{n} \beta_{n}=\frac{K_{n}^{\prime}(0)}{K_{n}(0)} \frac{K_{n \cdot 1}^{(2)^{\prime}}(0)}{K_{n}^{(2)}{ }_{1}(0)} \quad \text { for } n \geqslant 1
$$

Let $x_{1}<x_{2}<\cdots<x_{n}$ denote the zeros of $K_{n}$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\frac{K_{n}^{\prime}(0)}{K_{n}(0)}\right|=\frac{1}{x_{1}}+\frac{1}{x_{2}}+\cdots+\frac{1}{x_{n}} . \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $\eta_{1}<\eta_{2}<\cdots<\eta_{n+1}$ denote the zeros of $K_{n+1}$. It is well known that the zeros of $K_{n}$ and $K_{n+1}$ mutually separate each other, i.e.,

$$
\eta_{i}<x_{i}<\eta_{i+1} \quad \text { for } \quad i=1,2, \ldots, n .
$$

Hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\frac{K_{n+1}^{\prime}(0)}{K_{n+1}(0)}\right|=\frac{1}{\eta_{1}}+\cdots+\frac{1}{\eta_{n+1}}>\frac{1}{\eta_{1}}+\cdots+\frac{1}{\eta_{n}}>\frac{1}{x_{1}}+\cdots+\frac{1}{x_{n}}=\left|\frac{K_{n}^{\prime}(0)}{K_{n}(0)}\right| . \tag{4.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The same result holds for $K_{n}^{(2)}$. This implies that $\left\{\alpha_{n} \beta_{n}\right\}$ is increasing.
Remark 4.1. Suppose that the weight function $w$ is such that $\left|K_{n}^{\prime}(0) / K_{n}(0)\right| \rightarrow \infty$ if $n \rightarrow \infty$. It follows from the proof of Theorem 4.3 that $\alpha_{n} \beta_{n} \rightarrow \infty$. Since, by Theorem 4.1, $\left\{\beta_{n}\right\}$ is decreasing we have $\alpha_{n} \rightarrow \infty$. Then (3.6) implies that $S_{n}(0)$ and $K_{n}(0)$ have different signs if $n$ is sufficiently large.

We mention two situations in which this condition on the weight function $w$ is satisfied.
A. Suppose that the support of $w$ is contained in the finite interval [ $0, a$ ]. Then the zeros of $K_{n}$ are in ( $0, a$ ) and by (4.2)

$$
\left|\frac{K_{n}^{\prime}(0)}{K_{n}(0)}\right|>\frac{n}{a} .
$$

B. Suppose that the weight function $w$ is uniquely determined by the sequence of moments $\left\{c_{n}\right\}$. Suppose moreover that 0 is in the support of $w$. Then it follows from [4, p. 58-60] that the smallest zero $x_{1}$ of $K_{n}$ tends to 0 if $n \rightarrow \infty$. Then (4.2) implies

$$
\left|\frac{K_{n}^{\prime}(0)}{K_{n}(0)}\right| \rightarrow \infty .
$$

On the other hand, Koekoek [8] has given an example of a weight function for which $\left\{x_{n}\right\}$ is bounded. Hence there exists a weight function which does not satisfy the condition $\left|K_{n}^{\prime}(0) / K_{n}(0)\right| \rightarrow \infty$ if $n \rightarrow \infty$.

## 5. The Zeros of $S_{n}$ : Introduction

Let the support of $w$ be contained in the interval [0,a), where $a$ may be finite or infinite.

Theorem 5.1. The polynomial $S_{n}$ has $n$ real, simple zeros; at most one of them is outside $(0, a)$. If $S_{n}$ has a zero outside $(0, a)$, then the zero is in $(-x, 0]$.

Proof. Let $v_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, v_{k}$ denote the zeros of $S_{n}$ in $(0, a)$ of odd multiplicity. Put

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varphi(x)=\left(x-v_{1}\right)\left(x-v_{2}\right) \cdots\left(x-v_{k}\right) . \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Remark that for $k \geqslant 1, \varphi(0)$, and $\varphi^{\prime}(0)$ have opposite sign. Then $\varphi(x) S_{n}(x)$ does not change sign on $[0, a)$. Suppose degree $\varphi \leqslant n-1$. Then $\left\langle\varphi, S_{n}\right\rangle=0$, i.e.,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{0}^{x} w(x) \varphi(x) S_{n}(x) d x+M \varphi(0) S_{n}(0)+N \varphi^{\prime}(0) S_{n}^{\prime}(0)=0 \tag{5.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $N=0$ this is obviously impossible. Hence for $N=0$ we have degree $\varphi=n$. If $N>0$ relation (5.1) does not lead to a contradiction. Suppose now that, for $N>0$, degree $\varphi<n-2$. Then also $\left\langle x \varphi, S_{n}\right\rangle=0$, i.e.,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{0}^{x} n(x) x \varphi(x) S_{n}(x) d x+N \varphi(0) S_{n}^{\prime}(0)=0 \tag{5.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

It follows from (5.2) and (5.3) that $\varphi^{\prime}(0) S_{n}^{\prime}(0)$ and $\varphi(0) S_{n}^{\prime}(0)$ should have the same sign. This is a contradiction. Hence, for $N>0$, degree $\varphi=n$ or $n-1$ and the first part of the theorem follows.

Suppose now that degree $\varphi=n-1$. Then there is one zero $v_{n}$ of $S_{n}$ outside $(0, a)$. Relation (5.2) still holds. If $S_{n}(0)=0$ then $v_{n}=0$ is the last zero of $S_{n}$. If $S_{n}(0) \neq 0$ then (5.2) implies that $\varphi(0) S_{n}(0)$ and $\varphi^{\prime}(0) S_{n}^{\prime}(0)$ should have opposite sign. Since $\varphi(0)$ and $\varphi^{\prime}(0)$ have opposite sign, we conclude that $S_{n}(0)$ and $S_{n}^{\prime}(0)$ have the same sign. But then the last zero $v_{n}$ cannot lie in $[a, \infty)$. Hence $r_{n} \in(-\infty, 0)$.

Corollary 5.1. Concerning the position of the zeros of $S_{n}$ there are two different possible situations.

1. All $n$ zeros $\xi_{1}<\xi_{2}<\cdots<\xi_{n}$ lie in $(0, a) \subset(0, \infty)$. Since the leading coefficient $\tilde{a}_{n}$ of $S_{n}$ is positive, then $\operatorname{sgn} S_{n}(0)=(-1)^{n}$, $\operatorname{sgn} S_{n}^{\prime}(0)=(-1)^{n-1}$.
2. There are $n-1$ zeros $\xi_{2}<\xi_{3}<\cdots<\xi_{n}$ of $S_{n}$ in $(0, a) \subset(0, \infty)$ and there is one zero $\xi_{1} \in(-\infty, 0]$. In this case we write $\xi_{1}=-\rho, \rho \geqslant 0$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{n}(x)=\tilde{a}_{n}(x+\rho)\left(x-\xi_{2}\right) \cdots\left(x-\xi_{n}\right) . \tag{5.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $\rho \neq 0$, then $\operatorname{sgn} S_{n}(0)=(-1)^{n}$. It is stated in the proof of Theorem 5.1
that in this case $S_{1}(0)$ and $S_{n}^{\prime}(0)$ should have the same sign. Hence $\operatorname{sgn} S_{n}^{\prime}(0)=(-1)^{\prime \prime}$.

It follows from Remark 3.2, recall (2.3): $\operatorname{sgn} K_{n}(0)=(-1)^{\prime \prime}$, that the first situation occurs when $0 \leqslant \alpha_{n} N<1$ and the second one when $\alpha_{n} N \geqslant 1$.

Theorem 5.2. If $S_{n}$ has a zero in $(-\infty, 0]$ for $n=n_{0}$, then $S_{n}$ has a zero in $(-\infty, 0)$ for all $n$ with $n>n_{0}$.

Proof. This statement is a direct consequence of Corollaries 4.1 and 5.1.
Finally we derive some simple estimates for the negative zero $-\rho$ of $S_{n}$.
Theorem 5.3. Suppose that $S_{n}$ has a zero $-\rho \in(-\infty, 0)$. Then
(a) $\rho<\xi_{2}$, where $\xi_{2}$ denotes the smallest positive zero of $S_{n}$,
(b) if the support of $w$ is contained in the finite interval $[0, a)$, then $\rho<a /(n-1)$,
(c) if $M \neq 0$, then $\rho<\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{N / M}$.

Proof. Corollary 5.1.2 implies

$$
0<\frac{S_{n}^{\prime}(0)}{S_{n}(0)}=\frac{1}{\rho}-\frac{1}{\xi_{2}}-\frac{1}{\xi_{3}} \cdots-\frac{1}{\xi_{n}} .
$$

Hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{\rho}>\frac{1}{\xi_{2}}+\frac{1}{\xi_{3}}+\cdots+\frac{1}{\xi_{n}} \tag{5.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $1 / \rho>1 / \xi_{2}$, i.e., $\rho<\xi_{2}$.
If $a$ is finite, then $\xi_{2}<\xi_{3}<\cdots<\xi_{n}<a$. Then (5.5) gives

$$
\frac{1}{\rho}>\frac{n-1}{a}
$$

Hence $\rho<a /(n-1)$. In order to prove (c) we remark that by (5.1) and (5.4), $S_{n}$ can be written as

$$
S_{n}(x)=\tilde{a}_{n}(x+\rho) \varphi(x)
$$

Then $\varphi(x) S_{n}(x)$ is non-negative on $[0, \infty)$ and (5.2) implies

$$
M \varphi(0) S_{n}(0)+N \varphi^{\prime}(0) S_{n}^{\prime}(0)<0
$$

or

$$
M \rho \varphi(0)^{2}+N \varphi^{\prime}(0)\left\{\varphi^{\prime}(0)+\rho \varphi(0)\right\}<0 .
$$

We obtain

$$
\rho\left\{M \varphi(0)^{2}+N \varphi^{\prime}(0)^{2}\right\}<-N \varphi^{\prime}(0) \varphi(0)=N\left|\varphi^{\prime}(0) \varphi(0)\right| .
$$

On the other hand,

$$
M \varphi(0)^{2}+N \varphi^{\prime}(0)^{2} \geqslant 2 \sqrt{M N}\left|\varphi(0) \varphi^{\prime}(0)\right| .
$$

Hence $\rho<\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{N / M}$.

## 6. Location of the Zeros of $S_{n}$

The following observation is due to Christoffel (see [11, p. 30]). Put

$$
x^{2} Q_{n} \quad 1(x)=\left|\begin{array}{llll}
K_{n} & 1(x) & K_{n}(x) & K_{n+1}(x)  \tag{6.1}\\
K_{n} & 1(0) & K_{n}(0) & K_{n+1}(0) \\
K_{n-1}^{\prime}(0) & K_{n}^{\prime}(0) & K_{n+1}^{\prime}(0)
\end{array}\right| \quad \text { for } n \geqslant 1
$$

Then obviously $Q_{n}$, is a polynomial of degree $n-1$ with leading coefficient, $\quad a_{n+1}\left\{K_{n, 1}(0) K_{n}^{\prime}(0)-K_{n}(0) K_{n}^{\prime} \quad(0)\right\} \neq 0 \quad$ (compare (4.3)). Moreover

$$
\int_{0}^{\infty} w(x) x^{i} x^{2} Q_{n},(x) d x=0 \quad \text { for } \quad i=0,1, \ldots, n-2
$$

Hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{n} \quad(x)=\mathrm{const} K_{n}^{(2)},(x) \tag{6.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Lemma 6.1. Between two consecutive zeros of $K_{n}$ there is exactly one zero of $K_{n}^{(2)}{ }_{1}$.

Proof. Using (6.1), (6.2), and the recurrence relation we may write

$$
x^{2} K_{n}^{(2)}(x)=\left(d_{1} x+d_{2}\right) K_{n}(x)+d_{3} K_{n \cdot 1}(x)
$$

for some constants $d_{1}, d_{2}, d_{3}$. Since $K_{n}(0) \neq 0$ we have $d_{3} \neq 0$. Let $x_{i}$ and $x_{i+1}$ denote two consecutive zeros of $K_{n}$. It is well known that $K_{n}$, has exactly one zero in $\left(x_{i}, x_{i+1}\right)$. Hence $K_{n},\left(x_{i}\right)$ and $K_{n},\left(x_{i+1}\right)$ have opposite sign. Then also $K_{n-1}^{(2)}\left(x_{i}\right)$ and $K_{n}^{(2)}\left(x_{i+1}\right)$ have opposite sign. This implies that $K_{n}^{(2)}$, has at least one zero in $\left(x_{i}, x_{i+1}\right)$. Since this holds for $i=1,2, \ldots, n-1$ we conclude that $K_{n}^{(2)}$, has exactly one zero in $\left(x_{i}, x_{i+1}\right)$.

Corollary 6.1. Since the zeros of $K_{\text {, }}$ and $K_{n}^{(2)}$, mutually separate each other we can also state that hetween two consecutive zeros of $K_{n}^{(2)}$, there is exactly one zero of $K_{n}$. Reading Lemma 6.1 with the weight function w replaced hy $x^{2} w(x)$ we ohtain that henween two consecutwe zeros of $K_{n}^{(2)}$ there is exactly one zero of $K_{n}^{(4)}{ }_{2}$.

Lemma 6.2. Let $y_{1}<y_{2}<\cdots<y_{n}$, denote the zeros of $K_{n}^{(2)}{ }_{1}$. Then $K_{n}\left(y_{i}\right)$ and $K_{n}^{(4)}{ }_{2}\left(y_{i}\right)$ have opposite sign. The sign of $K_{n}^{(4)}{ }_{2}\left(y_{i}\right)$ is $(-1)^{n} \quad$ i .

Proof. Let $x_{n}$ denote the largest zero of $K_{n}$ and $z_{n} z_{2}$ the largest zero of $K_{n}^{(4)}{ }_{2}$. Lemma 6.1 implies $z_{n} \quad<y_{n} \quad 1<x_{n}$. Since all leading coefficients are positive we have

$$
K_{n}\left(y_{n} \quad 1\right)<0<K_{n}^{(4)}\left(\begin{array}{ll}
y_{n} & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

and the lemma is proved for $i=n-1$.
Running from $y_{n}$, to $y_{n} \quad 2$ we pass exactly one zero of $K_{n}$ and exactly one zero of $K_{n}^{(4)}{ }_{2}$. Then in $y_{n}{ }_{2}$ we conclude that $K_{n}\left(y_{n} 2_{2}\right)$ and $K_{n}^{\prime 4)}{ }_{2}\left(y_{n} 2_{2}\right)$ have again different sign. Moreover the sign of the latter is -1 . Hence the lemma is proved for $i=n-2$. Proceeding in this way we prove the lemma for $i=n-1, n-2, n-3, \ldots, 1$.

The lemma enables us to give a complete description of the position of the zeros of $S_{n}$ if $S_{n}$ has a negative zero.

Theorem 6.1. Let $y_{1}<y_{2}<\cdots<y_{n}$, denote the zeros of $K_{n}^{(2)}$. Suppose that $S_{n}$ has a zero in $(-x, 0]$. Then $S_{n}$ has a zero in $\left(0, y_{1}\right)$ and a zero in every interval $\left(y_{i}, y_{i+1}\right), i=1,2, \ldots, n-2$. The non-positive zero lies in $\left(-y_{1}, 0\right]$.

Proof. By Theorem 3.1 we have

$$
S_{n}\left(y_{i}\right)=\left(1-x_{n} N\right) K_{n}\left(y_{i}\right)+B_{3} y_{i}^{2} K_{n}^{(4)}{ }_{2}\left(y_{i}\right)
$$

where $B_{3}>0$ and $1-x_{n} N \leqslant 0$ (compare Corollary 5.1). Then Lemma 6.2 implies $\operatorname{sgn} S_{n}\left(y_{i}\right)=(-1)^{n} \quad 1 \quad$. Hence every interval $\left(y_{i}, y_{i+1}\right)$, $i=1,2, \ldots, n-2$ contains at least one zero of $S_{n}$.

Moreover Lemma 6.2 implies sgn $S_{n}\left(y_{1}\right)=(-1)^{n}$. Suppose $S_{n}(0) \neq 0$. Then Corollary 5.1 .2 says $\operatorname{sgn} S_{n}(0)=(-1)^{\prime \prime}{ }^{1}$ and there is at least one zero of $S_{n}$ in $\left(0, y_{1}\right)$. If $S_{n}(0)=0$ then, again by Corollary 5.1.2, we have $\operatorname{sgn} S_{n}^{\prime}(0)=(-1)^{n} \quad$ and again there has to be at least one zero of $S_{n}$ in $\left(0, y_{1}\right)$. Since $S_{n}$ has by assumption $n-1$ zeros in $(0, \infty)$ every interval $\left(0, y_{1}\right),\left(y_{i}, y_{i+1}\right), i=1,2, \ldots, n-2$ has exactly one zero of $S_{n}$.

Finally let $-\rho$ denote the non-positive zero of $S_{n}$ and $\zeta_{2}$ the smallest positive zero of $S_{n}$. Then by Theorem 5.3(a), $\rho<\zeta_{2}<y_{1}$.

It is possible to represent $S_{n}$ as a linear combination of $K_{n}(x), x K_{n}^{(2)}{ }_{1}(x)$, and $K_{n}^{(2)}{ }_{1}(x)$. However, the coefficients are more complicated than those in Theorem 3.1.

Theorem 6.2. For $n \geqslant 0$ the polynomials $S_{n}^{M, N}$ can be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{n}^{M, N}(x)=D_{1} K_{n}(x)+D_{2} \cdot x K_{n}^{(2)},(x)+D_{3} K_{n}^{(2)},(x) \tag{6.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
D_{1} & =1-\frac{N}{K_{n}(0)^{2}}\left\{K_{n}^{\prime}(0) K_{n}^{(2)}{ }_{1}(0)+K_{n}(0) K_{n}^{(2)}{ }_{1}(0)\right\}-M N \frac{K_{n}^{(2)}(0)^{2}}{K_{n}(0)^{2}}, \\
D_{2} & =M+N \frac{K_{n}^{\prime}(0)^{2}}{K_{n}(0)^{2}}+\frac{M N}{K_{n}(0)^{2}}\left\{K_{n}^{\prime}(0) K_{n}^{(2)}(0)-K_{n}(0) K_{n}^{(2)}{ }_{1}(0)\right\}_{1}, \\
D_{3} & =N \frac{K_{n}^{\prime}(0)}{K_{n}(0)}+M N \frac{K_{n}^{(2)}(0)}{K_{n}(0)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. We proceed as in the proof of Theorem 3.1. Obviously the righthand member of $(6.3)$ is orthogonal with respect to the inner product (3.1) on $x^{\prime}$ for $2 \leqslant i \leqslant n-1$ for every choice of $D_{1}, D_{2}$, and $D_{3}$. So we have to choose the coefficients in such a way that also $\left\langle 1, S_{n}\right\rangle=0$ and $\left\langle x, S_{n}\right\rangle=0$. This gives the equations

$$
\begin{array}{r}
D_{1} M K_{n}(0)-D_{2} K_{n}(0)+D_{3}\left(K_{n}^{\prime}(0)+M K_{n}^{(2)}{ }_{1}(0)\right)=0, \\
D_{1} N K_{n}^{\prime}(0)-D_{2} N K_{n}^{(2)}{ }_{1}(0)+D_{3}\left(-K_{n}(0)+N K_{n}^{(2)}{ }_{1}(0)\right)=0 .
\end{array}
$$

From this system the coefficients can be derived.
Observe that the coefficients of $N$ and $M N$ in $D_{1}$ are positive, so $D_{1}$ may be zero for suitable choices of $N$ and $M$. If $D_{1}=0$, then $S_{n}(x)=$ $\left(D_{2} x+D_{3}\right) K_{n, 1}^{(2)}(x)$ and all zeros of $K_{n}^{(2)}(x)$ are zeros of $S_{n}$.

Finally we describe the behaviour of the zeros of $S_{n}=S_{n}^{N}$ for fixed $n$ and $M$ and variable $N$. Let, as before, $y_{1}<y_{2}<\cdots<y_{n}$, denote the zeros of $K_{n}^{(2)}$, and $\xi_{1}<\xi_{2}<\cdots<\xi_{n}$ those of $S_{n}^{N}$. If $N=0$, then $S_{n}^{N}=K_{n}$ and by Lemma 6.1 the location of the zeros of $S_{n}$ is as follows:
$\xi_{1}<y_{1}, \quad \xi_{n}>y_{n}, \quad \xi_{i+1} \in\left(y_{i}, y_{i+1}\right) \quad$ for $\quad i=1,2, \ldots, n-2$.
On the other hand, if $N=N_{1}>\alpha_{n}{ }^{1}$ then by Theorem 6.1 the location of the zeros is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\xi_{1}<\xi_{2}<y_{1}, \quad \xi_{i+1} \in\left(y_{i}, y_{i}\right) \quad \text { for } \quad i=2, \ldots, n-1 . \tag{b}
\end{equation*}
$$

The zeros $\xi_{i+1}$ are continuous functions of $N$. If $N$ runs from $N=0$ to
$N=N_{1}$ the situation (a) is continuously transformed in the situation (b). Hence $\xi_{i+1}$ had to pass through $y_{i}(i=1,2, \ldots, n-1)$. By Theorem 6.2,

$$
S_{n}^{N}\left(y_{i}\right)=D_{1} K_{n}\left(y_{i}\right), \quad i=1,2, \ldots, n-1,
$$

where $D_{1}=D_{1}(N)$ is a linear function of $N$. (Recall that $M$ and $n$ are fixed.) Hence there is exactly one value $N_{0} \in\left(0, N_{1}\right)$ such that $D_{1}\left(N_{0}\right)=0$. For this value $N_{0}$ it follows $\xi_{i+1}=y_{i}$ for $i=1,2, \ldots, n-1$.

Now we may conclude that if $N \in\left[0, N_{0}\right)$, then the zeros of $S_{n}^{N}$ are located according to position (a), if $N>N_{0}$, then the zeros of $S_{n}^{N}$ are in position (b).

Corollary 6.2. Either all zeros of $K_{n}^{(2)}$, are zeros of $S_{n}$, or hetween two consecutive zeros of $K_{n}^{(2)}$, there is exactly one zero of $S_{n}$.

Remark 6.1. In general it is not true, that between two consecutive zeros of $K_{n}$, there is a zero of $S_{n}$. Let $x_{1}<x_{2}<\cdots<x_{n}$ denote the zeros of $K_{n}$. By Theorem 6.2,

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{n}\left(x_{i}\right)=\left(D_{2} x_{i}+D_{3}\right) K_{n}^{(2)}{ }_{1}\left(x_{i}\right), \quad i=1,2, \ldots, n \tag{6.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Take $N=M \rightarrow \infty$, then $-D_{3} / D_{2}$ converges to

$$
\tau=\frac{K_{n}^{(2)}{ }_{1}(0) K_{n}(0)}{K_{n}(0) K_{n}^{(2)}{ }_{1}(0)-K_{n}^{\prime}(0) K_{n}^{(2)}{ }_{1}(0)} .
$$

Now

$$
\frac{1}{\tau}=\frac{K_{n}^{(2)}(0)}{K_{n}^{(2)}(0)}-\frac{K_{n}^{\prime}(0)}{K_{n}(0)}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{x_{i}}-\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{y_{i}} .
$$

By Lemma 6.1, $x_{i}<y_{i}<x_{i+1}, i=1,2, \ldots, n-1$. Hence

$$
\frac{1}{x_{n}}<\frac{1}{\tau}<\frac{1}{x_{1}}
$$

i.e., $x_{1}<\tau<x_{n}$.

This implies that we can choose $N$ and $M$ in such a way that the zero $T$ of $D_{1} x+D_{3}$ is between two consecutive zeros, say $x_{j}$ and $x_{j+1}$ of $K_{n}$. Let moreover $N$ be chosen so large that $S_{n}$ has a negative zero. If $i \in\{1,2, \ldots, n-1\}, i \neq j$, then by (6.4) and Lemma 6.1, $S_{n}\left(x_{i}\right)$ and $S_{n}\left(x_{i+1}\right)$ have opposite sign. Hence $S_{n}$ has at least $n-2$ zeros in $\left(x_{1}, x_{n}\right) \backslash\left(x_{i}, x_{i+1}\right)$.

Since $S_{n}$ also has a negative zero, $S_{n}$ has at least $n-1$ zeros outside $\left(x, x_{j+1}\right)$. However, by (6.4), $S_{n}\left(x_{j}\right)$ and $S_{n}\left(x_{j+1}\right)$ have the same sign, so the last zero of $S_{n}$ cannot lie in $\left(x_{j}, x_{i+1}\right)$.

Remark 6.2. Several other representations of $S_{n}$ in standard polynomials can be derived. Obviously we can write

$$
S_{n}(x)=\sum_{i=0}^{n} A_{i} K_{i}^{(2)}(x) .
$$

Then, for $i \in\{0,1, \ldots, n\}$,

$$
A_{i} \int_{0}^{x} w(x) x^{2} K_{i}^{(2)}(x)^{2} d x=\int_{0}^{x} w(x) x^{2} S_{n}(x) K_{i}^{(2)}(x) d x=\left\langle S_{n}, x^{2} K_{i}^{(2)}(x)\right\rangle
$$

The last member is zero for $i \leqslant n-3$. Hence

$$
S_{n}(x)=A_{n} K_{n}^{(2)}(x)+A_{n} \quad{ }_{1} K_{n}^{(2)}{ }_{1}(x)+A_{n} \quad{ }_{2} K_{n}^{(2)}{ }_{2}(x),
$$

where the coefficients $A_{n}, A_{n \cdot 1}, A_{n}{ }_{2}$ depend on $n, N$, and $M$. This means that $S_{n}$ is quasi-orthogonal with respect to $\left\{K_{n}^{(2)}(x)\right\}$ of order 2 . Marcellan and Ronveaux [10] have proved that $x^{2} S_{n}(x)$ is quasi-orthogonal with respect to $\left\{K_{n}\right\}$ of order 4 .

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