

Sobolev Orthogonal Polynomials with a Small Number of Real Zeros

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Let $\{S_n^\lambda\}$ denote a set of polynomials orthogonal with respect to the Sobolev inner product

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{-1}^3 f(x) g(x) dx + \lambda \int_{-1}^1 f'(x) g'(x) dx + \int_1^3 f'(x) g'(x) dx,$$

where $\lambda \geq 0$. If n is odd and λ sufficiently large, then S_n^λ has exactly one real zero. If n is even, $n \geq 2$, and λ sufficiently large, then S_n^λ has exactly two real zeros. This result can be generalized to a more general inner product. © 1994 Academic Press, Inc.

1. INTRODUCTION

Recently several authors studied polynomials orthogonal with respect to a discrete Sobolev inner product of the form

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x) g(x) d\psi(x) + \lambda f'(c) g'(c), \tag{1.1}$$

where $\lambda \geq 0$, $c \in \mathbb{R}$. For a survey of the results and a complete list of references, see [5]. Let $\{S_n^\lambda\}$ denote a set of polynomials (normalized in some way) orthogonal with respect to (1.1). It has been proved that S_n^λ has at least $n - 2$ different real zeros in (a, b) ; if $n \geq 3$ it is possible to choose a $c \in (a, b)$ such that S_n^λ for sufficiently large λ has 2 complex zeros [6].

Results on the zeros of polynomials orthogonal with respect to a non-discrete Sobolev inner product of the form

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x) g(x) d\psi_0(x) + \int_a^b f'(x) g'(x) d\psi_1(x)$$

are only known for special choices of ψ_0 and ψ_1 from the papers of Althammer [1], Brenner [2], and Cohen [3].

Althammer considered the case

$$(a, b) = (-1, 1), \quad d\psi_0(x) = dx, \quad d\psi_1(x) = \lambda dx \quad (\lambda \geq 0).$$

Let again $\{S_n^\lambda\}$ denotes the corresponding set of orthogonal polynomials. Althammer proved that S_n^λ has n different, real zeros in $(-1, 1)$. Cohen gave a more precise description for this situation: if $\lambda \geq 2/n$, then the zeros of S_n^λ interlace with the zeros of P_{n-1} , the Legendre polynomial of degree $n-1$. Brenner proved a result similar to that of Althammer for

$$(a, b) = (0, \infty), \quad d\psi_0(x) = e^{-x} dx, \quad d\psi_1(x) = \lambda e^{-x} dx \quad (\lambda \geq 0).$$

If $\{S_n^\lambda\}$ is the set of corresponding orthogonal polynomials, then S_n^λ has n different zeros in $(0, \infty)$. Furthermore, Althammer made a remark: if

$$(a, b) = (-1, 1), \quad d\psi_0(x) = dx, \quad d\psi_1(x) = \begin{cases} 10dx, & -1 \leq x < 0, \\ dx, & 0 \leq x \leq 1, \end{cases}$$

then the polynomial of degree 2 has a zero in -1.08 , i.e., outside the interval of orthogonality. Althammer did not give a result for polynomials of degree $n > 2$ in this situation. Brenner made a similar remark, also only for $n = 2$.

It is the aim of this paper to generalize the last mentioned remark of Althammer. In order to simplify the calculations we take the interval $[-1, 3]$ instead of $[-1, 1]$. In Section 2 we consider the inner product

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{-1}^3 f(x) g(x) dx + \lambda \int_{-1}^1 f'(x) g'(x) dx + \int_1^3 f'(x) g'(x) dx,$$

where $\lambda \geq 0$. As before let $\{S_n^\lambda\}$ denote the set of polynomials orthogonal with respect to this inner product. We prove:

if n is even, $n \geq 2$, and λ sufficiently large, then S_n^λ has exactly two real zeros: one in $(1, 3)$ and one in $(-3, -1)$;

if n is odd, $n \geq 3$, and λ sufficiently large, then S_n^λ has exactly one real zero: the zero is in $(1, 3)$.

So the structure of the zeros is quite different from the situation in the discrete case.

In Section 3 we show that the result of Section 2 can easily be generalized to an inner product of the form

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f, g \rangle = & \int_{-1}^a f(x) g(x) d\psi_0(x) + \lambda \int_{-1}^1 f'(x) g'(x) d\psi_1(x) \\ & + \int_1^a f'(x) g'(x) d\psi_1(x), \end{aligned}$$

where $1 < a \leq \infty, \lambda \geq 0$. We prove that there exists an n_0 , such that if $n \geq n_0$ for S_n^λ the assertion of Section 2 holds.

2. THE ALTHAMMER CASE

Consider the inner product

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{-1}^3 f(x) g(x) dx + \lambda \int_{-1}^{+1} f'(x) g'(x) dx + \int_1^3 f'(x) g'(x) dx, \quad (2.1)$$

where $\lambda \geq 0$. We want to study the zeros of a set of polynomials $\{S_n^\lambda\}$ orthogonal with respect to this inner product. Since the zeros do not depend on the normalization, we may choose a normalization which simplifies the calculations. We put

$$a_{i,j} = \langle x^i, x^j \rangle, \quad (2.2a)$$

and define

$$S_0^\lambda(x) \equiv 1, \quad (2.2b)$$

$$S_n^\lambda(x) = \begin{vmatrix} a_{0,0} & a_{0,1} & \cdots & a_{0,n} \\ a_{1,0} & a_{1,1} & \cdots & a_{1,n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{n-1,0} & a_{n-1,1} & \cdots & a_{n-1,n} \\ 1 & x & \cdots & x^n \end{vmatrix} \quad \text{if } n \geq 1. \quad (2.2c)$$

Then $\{S_n^\lambda(x)\}$ is a set of polynomials orthogonal with respect to the inner product (2.1). Obviously the elements in the first row and in the first column of the determinant are independent of λ . For $i \geq 1, j \geq 1$, however, $a_{i,j}$ is linear in λ . Hence S_n^λ is a polynomial in λ of degree (at most) $n - 1$.

Define

$$Q_n(x) = \lim_{\lambda \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\lambda^{n-1}} S_n^\lambda(x) \quad \text{for } n \geq 2. \quad (2.3)$$

Then for large λ the zeros of S_n^λ are determined by those of Q_n . We have

$$Q_n(x) = \begin{vmatrix} a_{0,0} & a_{0,1} & \cdots & a_{0,n} \\ 0 & b_{1,1} & \cdots & b_{1,n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & b_{n-1,1} & \cdots & b_{n-1,n} \\ 1 & x & \cdots & x^n \end{vmatrix} \quad \text{if } n \geq 2, \quad (2.4)$$

where $b_{i,j} = ij \int_{-1}^{+1} x^{i+j-2} dx$. Observe that the leading coefficient of Q_n is positive. From (2.4) it follows

$$\int_{-1}^3 Q_n(x) dx = 0 \quad (n \geq 2), \quad (2.5)$$

$$\int_{-1}^{+1} Q'_n(x) x^i dx = 0, \quad i \in \{0, 1, \dots, n-2\}, \quad (n \geq 2). \quad (2.6)$$

Relation (2.6) implies

$$Q'_n(x) = \text{const. } P_{n-1}(x) \quad \text{if } n \geq 2.$$

Then Q_n has $n-1$ extremata in the zeros of P_{n-1} in $(-1, 1)$; outside $(-1, 1)$ Q_n is monotonic.

Define

$$R_n(x) = \int_{-1}^x P_{n-1}(t) dt \quad \text{if } n \geq 1, \quad (2.7)$$

then there exist $A_n > 0$ and B_n such that

$$A_n Q_n(x) = R_n(x) + B_n \quad (n \geq 2). \quad (2.8)$$

By (2.5) we have

$$-4B_n = \int_{-1}^3 R_n(x) dx. \quad (2.9)$$

It is well-known (see, e.g., Szegő [7, (4.7.29)]) that

$$R_n(x) = \frac{P_n(x) - P_{n-2}(x)}{2n-1} \quad \text{if } n \geq 2. \quad (2.10)$$

Moreover, $|P_n(x)| < 1$ if $x \in [-1, 1]$. Hence

$$|R_n(x)| \leq \frac{2}{2n-1} \leq \frac{2}{5} \quad \text{if } n \geq 3, \quad x \in [-1, 1]. \quad (2.11)$$

In order to estimate $R_n(x)$ on $[1, 3]$ we remark $R_n(1) = 0$ if $n \geq 2$, $R_n^{(k+1)}(1) = P_{n-1}^{(k)}(1) \geq 0$ for all $k \geq 0$. By Taylor expansion around $x = 1$, we obtain

$$R_n(x) \geq R'_n(1)(x-1) = (x-1) \quad \text{if } n \geq 2, \quad x \in [1, 3].$$

If $n \geq 3$, we have, using (2.9) and (2.10),

$$-4B_n = \int_1^3 R_n(x) dx \geq \int_1^3 (x-1) dx = 2.$$

Then

$$B_n \leq -\frac{1}{2} \quad \text{if } n \geq 3. \quad (2.12)$$

Now suppose $n \geq 3$. From (2.8), (2.11), and (2.12) it follows that

$$Q_n(x) < 0 \quad \text{if } x \in [-1, 1] \text{ and } n \geq 3. \quad (2.13)$$

Since $Q'_n(x) = A_n^{-1}P_{n-1}(x) > 0$ if $x \geq 1$, the function Q_n is strictly increasing on $[1, \infty]$. Then (2.5) and (2.13) imply that $Q_n(3) > 0$. Hence Q_n has exactly one zero in $(1, 3)$.

To complete the discussion for $n \geq 3$, we remark that, using $Q'_n = A_n^{-1}P_{n-1}$, Q_n is monotonic on $(-\infty, -1)$. If n is even, (2.7) and (2.8) imply that Q_n is even. Then Q_n also has a zero in $(-3, -1)$. If n is odd, Q_n has only one real zero, i.e., the zero in $(1, 3)$. Direct calculation from (2.4) gives $Q_2(x) = \text{const.} (x^2 - 7/3)$, so Q_2 has one zero in $(1, 3)$ and one zero in $(-3, -1)$.

We have proved the following result.

THEOREM. *Let $\{S_n^\lambda\}$ denote a set of polynomials orthogonal with respect to (2.1). Let $n \geq 2$.*

If n is odd and λ sufficiently large, then S_n^λ has exactly one real zero: the zero is in $(1, 3)$.

If n is even and λ sufficiently large, then S_n^λ has exactly two real zeros: one zero in $(1, 3)$ and one zero in $(-3, -1)$.

Remark. We remark that for $n \geq 1$ and every $\lambda \geq 0$, we have

$$\int_{-1}^3 S_n^\lambda(x) dx = \langle 1, S_n^\lambda \rangle = 0,$$

so S_n^λ always has at least one zero in $(-1, 3)$.

3. GENERALIZATION

We generalize the results of the preceding section to the inner product

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f, g \rangle = & \int_{-1}^a f(x) g(x) d\psi_0(x) + \lambda \int_{-1}^{+1} f'(x) g'(x) d\psi_1(x) \\ & + \int_1^a f'(x) g'(x) d\psi_1(x), \end{aligned} \quad (3.1)$$

where $1 < a \leq \infty$, $\lambda \geq 0$, ψ_0 and ψ_1 are distribution functions on $[-1, a]$ such that polynomials are absolutely integrable with respect to them; we suppose that ψ_0 has at least one point of increase in $(1, a]$ and that ψ_1' exists on $(-1, 1)$ with $\psi_1'(x) \geq \mu > 0$ on $(-1, 1)$.

Define a set of polynomials $\{S_n^\lambda\}$ orthogonal with respect to the inner product (3.1) as before by (2.2a), (2.2b), and (2.2c). Then S_n^λ again is a polynomial in λ of degree (at most) $n-1$. Define Q_n (for $n \geq 2$) by (2.3); then for Q_n the determinantal representation (2.4) holds with

$$a_{0,j} = \int_{-1}^a x^j d\psi_0(x), \quad b_{i,j} = ij \int_{-1}^{+1} x^{i+j-2} d\psi_1(x).$$

Again the leading coefficient of Q_n is positive. Now Q_n satisfies

$$\int_{-1}^a Q_n(x) d\psi_0(x) = 0 \quad (n \geq 2), \quad (3.2)$$

$$\int_{-1}^{+1} Q_n'(x) x^i d\psi_1(x) = 0, \quad i \in \{0, 1, \dots, n-2\}, \quad (n \geq 2). \quad (3.3)$$

Let $\{\varphi_n\}$ denote the set of polynomials orthonormal with respect to the inner product

$$(f, g) = \int_{-1}^{+1} f(x) g(x) d\psi_1(x), \quad (3.4)$$

where the leading coefficients are positive. Define

$$R_n(x) = \int_{-1}^x \varphi_{n-1}(t) dt \quad \text{if } n \geq 1. \quad (3.5)$$

It follows from (3.3) that there exist $A_n > 0$ and B_n such that

$$A_n Q_n(x) = R_n(x) + B_n \quad (n \geq 2). \quad (3.6)$$

By (3.2), we have

$$-B_n \int_{-1}^a d\psi_0(x) = \int_{-1}^a R_n(x) d\psi_0(x). \quad (3.7)$$

We have, using (3.5) and the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality for $x \in [-1, 1]$,

$$\begin{aligned} |R_n(x)| &\leq \int_{-1}^{+1} |\varphi_{n-1}(t)| dt \leq \sqrt{2} \left\{ \int_{-1}^{+1} \varphi_{n-1}^2(t) dt \right\}^{1/2} \\ &\leq \sqrt{2} \mu^{-1/2} \left\{ \int_{-1}^{+1} \varphi_{n-1}^2(t) d\psi_1(t) \right\}^{1/2}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$|R_n(x)| \leq \sqrt{2} \mu^{-1/2} \quad \text{if } x \in [-1, 1]. \tag{3.8}$$

Since R_n is increasing on $(1, \infty)$, this implies

$$R_n(x) \geq -\sqrt{2} \mu^{-1/2} \quad \text{if } x \geq -1. \tag{3.9}$$

In order to estimate the right-hand side of (3.7) from below, we choose a $c \in (1, a)$ such that $\int_c^a (x - c) d\psi_0(x) \neq 0$. We observe $R_n^{(k+1)}(c) = \varphi_{n-1}^{(k)}(c) \geq 0$ for all $k \geq 0$. Hence, by Taylor expansion around $x = c$, we have

$$R_n(x) \geq R_n(c) + R'_n(c)(x - c) \quad \text{if } x \geq c,$$

and, using (3.9),

$$R_n(x) \geq -\sqrt{2} \mu^{-1/2} + \varphi_{n-1}(c)(x - c), \quad x \geq c.$$

Then it follows from (3.7) that

$$\begin{aligned} -B_n \int_{-1}^a d\psi_0(x) &\geq \int_{-1}^c R_n(x) d\psi_0(x) - \sqrt{2} \mu^{-1/2} \int_c^a d\psi_0(x) \\ &\quad + \varphi_{n-1}(c) \int_c^a (x - c) d\psi_0(x), \end{aligned}$$

and with (3.9) that

$$-B_n \int_{-1}^a d\psi_0(x) \geq -\sqrt{2} \mu^{-1/2} \int_{-1}^a d\psi_0(x) + \varphi_{n-1}(c) \int_c^a (x - c) d\psi_0(x). \tag{3.10}$$

Since $c > 1$, it holds (see Freud [4, p. 120]) that

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{\varphi_n(c)} \geq c + \sqrt{c^2 - 1} > 1.$$

Then the right-hand side of (3.10) exceeds $\sqrt{2} \mu^{-1/2} \int_{-1}^a d\psi_0(x)$ if n is sufficiently large. Hence

$$B_n < -\sqrt{2} \mu^{-1/2} \quad \text{if } n \text{ is sufficiently large.} \tag{3.11}$$

Suppose now that n is so large that (3.11) holds. Then we can make the following observations. By (3.6), (3.8), and (3.11) we have

$$Q_n(x) < 0 \quad \text{if } x \in [-1, 1].$$

By (3.6) and (3.5), $Q'_n(x) = A_n^{-1} \varphi_{n-1}(x) > 0$ on $(1, \infty)$, hence Q_n is increasing on $(1, \infty)$. Relation (3.2) implies $Q_n(a) > 0$ and Q_n has one zero in $(1, a)$. Since $Q'_n = A_{n-1}^{-1} \varphi_{n-1}$, the function Q_n is monotonic on $(-\infty, -1)$. Then, if n is odd, Q_n has only one real zero; if n is even, Q_n has two real zeros: one in $(1, a)$ and one in $(-\infty, -1)$.

We have proved the following result.

THEOREM. *Let $\{S_n^\lambda\}$ denote a set of polynomials orthogonal with respect to (3.1). Then there exists an n_0 , such that for $n \geq n_0$ the following holds.*

If n is odd and λ sufficiently large, then S_n^λ has exactly one real zero: the zero is in $(1, a)$.

If n is even and λ sufficiently large, then S_n^λ has exactly two real zeros: one zero in $(1, a)$ and one in $(-\infty, -1)$.

Remark. The n_0 in the Theorem depends on ψ_0 and ψ_1 . The next example shows that it is not possible to replace n_0 by an integer independent of ψ_0 and ψ_1 .

Let $d\psi_1(x) = dx$ on $[-1, a]$ as in Section 2. Then

$$R_n(x) = \text{const.} \frac{(x^2 - 1) P_{n-2}^{(1,1)}(x)}{2(n-1)} \quad \text{if } n \geq 2,$$

(compare Cohen [3, (15)]). Take a fixed $n \geq 2$ and define

$$V = \{x \in [-1, a], R_n(x) > 0\}, \quad W = \{x \in [-1, a], R_n(x) < 0\}.$$

Then both V and W are not empty. Put

$$\mu_1 = \int_V R_n(x) dx > 0, \quad \mu_2 = - \int_W R_n(x) dx > 0.$$

Finally, take a distribution function ψ_0 on $[-1, a]$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} d\psi_0(x) &= \mu_1 dx & \text{if } x \in W \\ d\psi_0(x) &= \mu_2 dx & \text{if } x \in V \\ d\psi_0(x) & & \text{is continuous on } [-1, a]. \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\int_{-1}^a R_n(x) d\psi_1(x) = \mu_1 \int_W R_n(x) dx + \mu_2 \int_V R_n(x) dx = 0.$$

Then (3.7) implies $B_n = 0$. Hence, by (3.6), Q_n has the same zeros as R_n , i.e., Q_n has n different real zeros in $[-1, 1]$. We conclude: for every $n \geq 2$, there exist ψ_0 and ψ_1 such that Q_n has n different real zeros in $[-1, 1]$.

Remark. The condition $\psi_1'(x) \geq \mu > 0$ on $(-1, 1)$ can be weakened somewhat. Since $\varphi_{n-1}(c)$ in (3.10) is of exponential growth as $n \rightarrow \infty$, it is sufficient that there exists constants C and k such that

$$|R_n(x)| < Cn^k \quad \text{if } x \in [-1, 1].$$

This holds, for instance, if ψ_1 is a Jacobian measure (compare [7, p. 161]).

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