# New Characterizations of Discrete Classical Orthogonal Polynomials

K. H. Kwon, D. W. Lee, and S. B. Park

Department of Mathematics, Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology, 373-1 Kusong-dong, Yusong-ku, Taejon 305-701, Korea E-mail: khkwon@jacobi.kaist.ac.kr

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We prove that if both  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  and  $\{\nabla^r P_n(x)\}_{n=r}^{\infty}$  are orthogonal polynomials for any fixed integer  $r \ge 1$ , then  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  must be discrete classical orthogonal polynomials. This result is a discrete version of the classical Hahn's theorem stating that if both  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  and  $\{(d/dx)^r P_n(x)\}_{n=r}^{\infty}$  are orthogonal polynomials, then  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  are classical orthogonal polynomials. We also obtain several other characterizations of discrete classical orthogonal polynomials. © 1997 Academic Press

### 1. INTRODUCTION

Consider a sequence of polynomials that arise as eigenfunctions of the second-order difference equation of hypergeometric type

$$L_2[y](x) = \ell_2(x) \, \varDelta \nabla y(x) + \ell_1(x) \, \varDelta y(x) = \lambda_n y(x), \tag{1.1}$$

where  $\ell_2(x) = \ell_{22}x^2 + \ell_{21}x + \ell_{20} \ (\neq 0)$  and  $\ell_1(x) = \ell_{11}x + \ell_{10}$  are polynomials independent of *n* and

$$\lambda_n = n(n-1) \ell_{22} + n\ell_{11}, \qquad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots.$$
(1.2)

Orthogonal polynomials satisfying (1.1) are known as discrete classical orthogonal polynomials and they are well studied [6, 13, 15, 16, 19, 23]. Like classical orthogonal polynomials satisfying second-order differential equations of hypergeometric type, discrete classical orthogonal polynomials can be characterized in many different ways (see [1–5, 7, 8, 10, 14, 18]). In particular, it is well known that classical orthogonal polynomials (respectively, discrete classical orthogonal polynomials) are the only orthogonal polynomials  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  such that  $\{P'_n(x)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  (respectively,  $\{\nabla P_n(x)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ ) is also orthogonal (see [4, 11, 12, 14, 17, 21, 22]). Later, Hahn [8] (see also [7, 9]) showed that the only orthogonal polynomials

whose derivatives of any fixed order are also orthogonal are the classical orthogonal polynomials.

In this work, we obtain a discrete version of Hahn's theorem by showing that discrete classical orthogonal polynomials are the only orthogonal polynomials  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  such that  $\{\nabla^r P_n(x)\}_{n=r}^{\infty}$  (or  $\{\Delta^r P_n(x)\}_{n=r}^{\infty}$ ) is quasi-orthogonal (see Definition 2.1) for any fixed integer  $r \ge 1$ .

## 2. PRELIMINARIES

All polynomials in this work are assumed to be real polynomials of a real variable x and we let  $\mathscr{P}$  be the space of all polynomials. We denote the degree of a polynomial  $\psi(x)$  by  $\deg(\psi)$  with the convention that  $\deg(0) = -1$ .

By a polynomial system (PS), we mean a sequence of polynomials  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  with deg $(P_n) = n$ ,  $n \ge 0$ . We call any linear functional  $\sigma$  on  $\mathscr{P}$  a moment functional and denote its action on a polynomial  $\psi(x)$  by  $\langle \sigma, \psi \rangle$ . In particular, we call  $\{\langle \sigma, x^n \rangle\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  the moments of  $\sigma$ .

Any PS  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  determines a unique sequence of moment functionals  $\{u_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ , called the dual sequence of  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  (cf. [18]), by the conditions

$$\langle u_n, P_m \rangle = \delta_{mn} \qquad (m \text{ and } n \ge 0),$$
 (2.1)

where  $\delta_{mn}$  is the Kronecker delta function. In particular, we call  $u_0$  the canonical moment functional of  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ .

DEFINITION 2.1. We call a PS  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  a quasi-orthogonal polynomial system (QOPS) (respectively, an orthogonal polynomial system (OPS)) if there is a non-zero moment functional  $\sigma$  such that

$$\langle \sigma, P_m P_n \rangle = K_n \delta_{mn} \qquad (m \text{ and } n \ge 0),$$
 (2.2)

where  $K_n$  are real (respectively, non-zero real) constants. In this case, we say that  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is a QOPS or an OPS relative to  $\sigma$  and call  $\sigma$  an orthogonalizing moment functional of  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ .

Note that if  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is a QOPS relative to  $\sigma$ , then  $\langle \sigma, P_0^2 \rangle \neq 0$  but  $\langle \sigma, P_n^2 \rangle$  for  $n \ge 1$  may or may not be 0 and  $\sigma$  must be a non-zero constant multiple of the canonical moment functional  $u_0$  of the PS  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ .

We say that a moment functional  $\sigma$  is regular (respectively, positivedefinite) if its moments  $\{\langle \sigma, x^n \rangle\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  satisfy the Hamburger condition

$$\Delta_n(\sigma) := \det[\langle \sigma, x^{i+j} \rangle]_{i,j=0}^n \neq 0 \qquad (\text{respectively}, \Delta_n(\sigma) > 0) \qquad (2.3)$$

for every  $n \ge 0$ . It is well known (see Chapter 1 in Chihara [5]) that a moment functional  $\sigma$  is regular if and only if there is an OPS relative to  $\sigma$ .

For a moment functional  $\sigma$  and a polynomial  $\phi(x)$ , we let  $\Delta \sigma$ ,  $\nabla \sigma$  and  $\phi \sigma$ , be the moment functionals defined by

$$\begin{split} \langle \Delta \sigma, \psi \rangle &= -\langle \sigma, \nabla \psi \rangle, \qquad \langle \nabla \sigma, \psi \rangle = -\langle \sigma, \Delta \psi \rangle, \\ \langle \phi \sigma, \psi \rangle &= \langle \sigma, \phi \psi \rangle \qquad (\psi \in \mathscr{P}), \end{split}$$

where  $\Delta \psi(x) = \psi(x+1) - \psi(x)$  and  $\nabla \psi(x) = \psi(x) - \psi(x-1)$ . Then we have the following Leibniz rule:

$$\Delta(\phi\sigma) = \phi(x+1) \ \Delta\sigma + \Delta(\phi) \ \sigma, \qquad \nabla(\phi\sigma) = \phi(x-1) \ \nabla\sigma + \nabla(\phi) \ \sigma, \qquad (2.4)$$

and  $\Delta \sigma = 0$  (or  $\nabla \sigma = 0$ ) if and only if  $\sigma = 0$ .

LEMMA 2.1 [14]. Let  $\sigma$  be a regular moment functional and  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  an OPS relative to  $\sigma$ . Then we have

(i) for any polynomial  $\phi(x)$ ,  $\phi(x) \sigma = 0$  if and only if  $\phi(x) \equiv 0$ .

(ii) for any moment functional  $\tau \ (\neq 0)$  and any integer  $k \ge 0$ ,  $\langle \tau, P_n \rangle = 0$  for n > k if and only if  $\tau = \psi(x) \sigma$  for some polynomial  $\psi(x)$  of degree  $\leq k$ .

In this case,  $\deg(\psi) = k_0$   $(0 \le k_0 \le k)$  is the largest integer such that  $\langle \tau, P_n \rangle = 0$  for  $n > k_0$  and  $\langle \tau, P_{k_0} \rangle \neq 0$ .

LEMMA 2.2 [18]. Let  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  be a PS and  $\{u_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  the dual sequence of  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ . Then for any moment functional  $\tau$  and any integer  $k \ge 0$ , the following two statements are equivalent.

- (i)  $\langle \tau, P_k \rangle \neq 0$  and  $\langle \tau, P_n \rangle = 0$  for n > k.
- (ii) There exist real constants  $\{e_i\}_{i=0}^k$  such that  $e_k \neq 0$  and

$$\tau = \sum_{j=0}^{k} e_j u_j. \tag{2.5}$$

LEMMA 2.3. Let  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  be a PS and  $\{u_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  and  $\{v_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  the dual sequences of PS's  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  and  $\{Q_n(x) := (1/(n+1)) \nabla P_{n+1}(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ , respectively. Then, we have

$$\Delta v_n = -(n+1) u_{n+1} \qquad (n \ge 0). \tag{2.6}$$

*Proof.* Since  $\langle \Delta v_n, P_m \rangle = -\langle v_n, \nabla P_m \rangle = -m \langle v_n, Q_{m-1} \rangle = -m \delta_{n,m-1}$  for *n* and  $m \ge 0$  ( $Q_{-1}(x) \equiv 0$ ), we have (2.6) by Lemma 2.2.

LEMMA 2.4 [18]. Let  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  be a PS and  $\{u_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  the dual sequence of  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ . Then the following two statements are equivalent.

- (i)  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is an OPS.
- (ii) For each  $n \ge 0$ , there is a non-zero real constant  $C_n$  such that

$$u_n = C_n P_n(x) \, u_0. \tag{2.7}$$

Note that Lemma 2.1 is an easy consequence of Lemma 2.3 and Lemma 2.4.

DEFINITION 2.2. An OPS  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is called a discrete classical OPS if for each  $n \ge 0$ ,  $P_n(x)$  satisfies the second order difference equation (1.1).

**PROPOSITION 2.5.** Let  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  be an OPS relative to a regular moment functional  $\sigma$ . Then, the following statements are all equivalent.

- (i)  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is discrete classical OPS relative to  $\sigma$ .
- (ii)  $\{\nabla P_n(x)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is an OPS.
- (iii)  $\{\nabla P_n(x)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a QOPS.

(iv) There are polynomials  $\ell_2(x)$  ( $\neq 0$ ) of degree  $\leq 2$  and  $\ell_1(x)$  of degree 1 such that  $\sigma$  satisfies

$$\Delta(\ell_2 \sigma) = \ell_1 \sigma. \tag{2.8}$$

*Proof.* It is well known ([6, 19]) that (i) is equivalent to (iv).

(i)  $\Rightarrow$  (ii): Assume that  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is an OPS relative to  $\sigma$  satisfying the difference equation (1.1). At first we prove that  $\lambda_n \neq 0$  for all  $n \ge 1$ . Assume  $\lambda_n = 0$  for some  $n \ge 1$ . Then we have by (2.8)

$$0 = \lambda_n P_n \sigma = \left[ \ell_2 \Delta \nabla P_n + \ell_1 \Delta P_n \right] \sigma$$
$$= \ell_2 \left[ \Delta \nabla P_n \right] \sigma + \Delta P_n \Delta (\ell_2 \sigma)$$
$$= \Delta \left[ \left( \nabla P_n \right) \ell_2 \sigma \right]$$

so that  $(\nabla P_n(x)) \ell_2(x) \sigma = 0$ . Hence  $(\nabla P_n(x)) \ell_2 \equiv 0$  by Lemma 2.1(i) and so  $\nabla P_n(x) \equiv 0$  since  $\ell_2(x) \neq 0$ , which implies n = 0 contradicting the fact that  $n \ge 1$ . Since (i) is equivalent to (iv), we have

$$\lambda_n P_n \sigma = \ell_2 \varDelta \nabla P_n \sigma + \ell_1 \varDelta P_n \sigma = \varDelta [(\nabla P_n) \ell_2 \sigma].$$

Hence,

$$\langle \ell_2 \sigma, \nabla P_{m+1} \nabla P_{n+1} \rangle = - \langle \Delta [(\nabla P_{n+1}) \ell_2 \sigma], P_{m+1} \rangle$$
$$= -\lambda_{n+1} \langle \sigma, P_{m+1} P_{n+1} \rangle.$$

Therefore,  $\{\nabla P_{n+1}(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is an OPS relative to  $\ell_2(x) \sigma$  since  $\lambda_{n+1} \neq 0$ ,  $n \ge 0$  and  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is an OPS relative to  $\sigma$ .

Since (ii) implies (iii) by definition, it suffices to show that (iii) implies (iv).

(iii)  $\Rightarrow$  (iv): Assume that  $\{\nabla P_{n+1}(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is a QOPS relative to  $\tau$  ( $\neq 0$ ) so that

$$\langle \tau, \nabla P_{m+1} \nabla P_{n+1} \rangle = 0$$
 for  $m \neq n$ ,  $m \text{ and } n \ge 0$ . (2.9)

Set m = 0 in (2.9). Then we have for every n > 0

$$0 = \langle \tau, \nabla P_1 \nabla P_{n+1} \rangle = -\nabla P_1 \langle \varDelta \tau, P_{n+1} \rangle$$

so that  $\langle \Delta \tau, P_{n+1}(x) \rangle = 0$ . Hence Lemma 2.1(ii) implies

$$\Delta \tau = \ell_1(x) \,\sigma \tag{2.10}$$

for some polynomial  $\ell_1(x)$  of degree  $\leq 1$ . Set m = 1 in (2.9). Then for every n > 1, we have

$$\begin{split} 0 &= \langle \tau, \nabla P_2 \nabla P_{n+1} \rangle = -\langle \Delta [(\nabla P_2) \tau], P_{n+1} \rangle \\ &= -\langle [\Delta \nabla P_2] \tau, P_{n+1} \rangle - \langle \Delta P_2 \Delta \tau, P_{n+1} \rangle \\ &= -[\Delta \nabla P_2] \langle \tau, P_{n+1} \rangle - \langle \Delta \tau, [\Delta P_2] P_{n+1} \rangle \\ &= -[\Delta \nabla P_2] \langle \tau, P_{n+1} \rangle - \langle \sigma, \ell_1 [\Delta P_2] P_{n+1} \rangle. \end{split}$$

Since  $\langle \sigma, \ell_1[\Delta P_2] P_{n+1} \rangle = 0$  for n > 1 and  $\nabla \Delta P_2(x) \neq 0$ ,  $\langle \tau, P_{n+1}(x) \rangle = 0$  for n > 1 so that by Lemma 2.1(ii),

$$\tau = \ell_2(x) \,\sigma \tag{2.11}$$

for some polynomial  $\ell_2(x)$  of degree  $\leq 2$ . The equation (2.8) follows from (2.10) and (2.11) and  $\ell_1(x) \neq 0$ ,  $\ell_2(x) \neq 0$  since  $\tau \neq 0$ . If  $\ell_1(x) = c$ , c a non-zero constant, then

$$\langle \sigma, 1 \rangle = \frac{1}{c} \langle \varDelta(\ell_2 \sigma), 1 \rangle = 0,$$

which is impossible since  $\sigma$  is regular. Hence,  $deg(\ell_1) = 1$ .

*Remark* 2.1. In fact, Hahn ([9]) proved the equivalence of the statements (i) and (ii) in Proposition 2.5 in more general setting. He first introduced a linear operator

$$Lf(x) = \frac{f(qx+w) - f(x)}{(q-1)x + w},$$

where q and w are given constants, and then characterized all OPS's  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  such that  $\{LP_n(x)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is also an OPS. Note that when q=1 and w=1 or -1, L becomes  $\Delta$  or  $\nabla$  respectively and when w=0 and  $q \to 1$ , L becomes d/dx.

As an immediate consequence of Proposition 2.5, we obtain: if  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is a discrete classical OPS satisfying the difference equation (1.1), then  $\{\nabla P_n(x)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is also a discrete classical OPS satisfying the difference equation

$$\ell_2(x-1) \, \varDelta \nabla y(x) + (\nabla \ell_2(x) + \ell_1(x)) \, \varDelta y(x) = (\lambda_n - \nabla \ell_1(x)) \, y(x).$$

By induction, for any integer  $r \ge 1$ ,  $\{\nabla^r P_n(x)\}_{n=r}^{\infty}$  is also a discrete classical OPS.

DEFINITION 2.3 [20]. A moment functional  $\sigma$  is called discrete semiclassical if  $\sigma$  is regular and there are polynomials  $\phi(x) \neq 0$  and  $\psi(x)$  of degree  $\geq 1$  such that

$$\Delta(\phi\sigma) = \psi\sigma. \tag{2.12}$$

For any discrete semi-classical moment functional  $\sigma$ , we call  $s := \min\{\max(\deg(\phi) - 2, \deg(\psi) - 1\}$  the class number of  $\sigma$ , where the minimum is taken over all pairs of polynomials  $(\phi, \psi)$  satisfying the equation (2.12). In this case, we call  $\sigma$  a discrete semi-classical moment functional of class s and an OPS  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  relative to  $\sigma$  is called a discrete semi-classical OPS of class s.

We can restate the equivalence of the statements (i) and (iv) in Proposition 2.5 as: an OPS is a discrete classical OPS if and only if it is a discrete semi-classical OPS of class 0.

LEMMA 2.6. Let  $\sigma$  be a discrete semi-classical moment functional satisfying

$$\begin{aligned}
\Delta(\phi_1 \sigma) &= \psi_1 \sigma & (s_1 := \max(t_1 - 2, p_1 - 1)) \\
\Delta(\phi_2 \sigma) &= \psi_2 \sigma & (s_2 := \max(t_2 - 2, p_2 - 1)),
\end{aligned}$$
(2.13)

where  $t_j = \deg(\phi_j)$  and  $p_j = \deg(\psi_j)$ , j = 1, 2. Let  $\phi(x)$  be a common factor of  $\phi_1(x)$  and  $\phi_2(x)$  of the highest degree. Then, there is a polynomial  $\psi(x)$  such that

$$\Delta(\phi\sigma) = \psi\sigma,$$

where  $s := \max(\deg(\phi) - 2, \deg(\psi) - 1) = s_1 - t_1 + \deg(\phi) = s_2 - t_2 + \deg(\phi)$ .

*Proof.* We may assume that  $\phi_1 = \tilde{\phi}_1 \phi$  and  $\phi_2 = \tilde{\phi}_2 \phi$ , where  $\tilde{\phi}_1$  and  $\tilde{\phi}_2$  are co-prime polynomials. From the equation (2.13), we have

$$\tilde{\phi}_1(x+1) \,\varDelta(\phi\sigma) = (\psi_1 - \phi \varDelta \tilde{\phi}_1) \,\sigma, \tag{2.14}$$

$$\tilde{\phi}_2(x+1) \,\varDelta(\phi\sigma) = (\psi_2 - \phi \varDelta \tilde{\phi}_2) \,\sigma. \tag{2.15}$$

Multiplying (2.14) by  $\tilde{\phi}_2(x+1)$  and (2.15) by  $\tilde{\phi}_1(x+1)$  and substracting the resulting two equations, we have

$$(\psi_1 - \phi \varDelta \tilde{\phi}_1) \, \tilde{\phi}_2(x+1) = (\psi_2 - \phi \varDelta \tilde{\phi}_2) \, \tilde{\phi}_1(x+1).$$

Since  $\tilde{\phi}_1$  and  $\tilde{\phi}_2$  are co-prime,  $\tilde{\phi}_1(x+1)$  and  $\tilde{\phi}_2(x+1)$  are also co-prime. Hence  $\psi_2 - \phi \Delta \tilde{\phi}_2$  and  $\psi_1 - \phi \Delta \tilde{\phi}_1$  are divisible by  $\tilde{\phi}_2(x+1)$  and  $\tilde{\phi}_1(x+1)$  respectively so that there exists a polynomial  $\psi$  such that

$$\psi_2 - \phi \Delta \tilde{\phi}_2 = \psi \tilde{\phi}_2(x+1)$$
 and  $\psi_1 - \phi \Delta \tilde{\phi}_1 = \psi \tilde{\phi}_1(x+1)$ .

From the equation (2.14) and (2.15), we have

$$\tilde{\phi}_2(x+1)[\varDelta(\phi\sigma)-\psi\sigma]=0$$
 and  $\tilde{\phi}_1(x+1)[\varDelta(\phi\sigma)-\psi\sigma]=0.$ 

Since  $\tilde{\phi}_1(x+1)$  and  $\tilde{\phi}_2(x+1)$  are co-prime, we have another equation of the form (2.12):

$$\Delta(\phi\sigma) - \psi\sigma = 0.$$

The class number follows from just counting degrees of  $\phi(x)$  and  $\psi(x)$ .

**PROPOSITION 2.7.** Let  $\sigma$  be a discrete semi-classical moment functional of class s satisfying the equation (2.12) with  $s = \max(\deg(\phi) - 2, \deg(\psi) - 1)$ . If  $\sigma$  satisfies the equation (2.12) with another pair of polynomials  $(\phi_1, \psi_1) \neq (0, 0)$ , then  $\phi_1(x)$  is divisible by  $\phi(x)$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\alpha(x)$  be the greatest common divisor of  $\phi(x)$  and  $\phi_1(x)$ . Then by Lemma 2.6, there is a polynomial  $\beta(x)$  such that

$$\Delta(\alpha\sigma) = \beta\sigma$$

and  $s_0 := \max(\deg(\alpha) - 2, \deg(\beta) - 1) = s - \deg(\phi) + \deg(\alpha)$ . Since  $s_0 \ge s$ ,  $\deg(\alpha) \ge \deg(\phi)$  so that  $\alpha(x) = c\phi(x)$  for some non-zero constant *c*. Hence,  $\phi(x)$  must divide  $\phi_1(x)$ .

*Remark* 2.2. The continuous versions of Lemma 2.6 and Proposition 2.7 are proved in [18] and [14] respectively.

## 3. MAIN THEOREMS.

We start with a theorem.

THEOREM 3.1. For an OPS  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  relative to a regular moment functional  $\sigma$  and an integer  $r \ge 1$ , the following statements are all equivalent.

(i)  $\{\nabla^r P_n(x)\}_{n=r}^{\infty}$  is a QOPS.

(ii) There are r + 1 polynomials  $\{a_k(x)\}_r^{2r}$  with  $a_{2r}(x) \neq 0$ , deg $(a_k) \leq k$ , k = r, r + 1, ..., 2r, and

$$\Delta(a_k\sigma) = a_{k-1}\sigma, \qquad k = r+1, ..., 2r.$$
(3.1)

(iii) There are moment functional  $\tau \ (\neq 0)$  and r+1 polynomials  $\{a_k(x)\}_r^{2r}$  with  $\deg(a_k) \leq k, \ k = r, r+1, ..., 2r$  and

$$\Delta^{2r-k}\tau = a_k(x) \,\sigma, \qquad k = r, r+1, ..., 2r.$$
(3.2)

*Proof.* (i)  $\Rightarrow$  (iii): Assume that  $\{\nabla^r P_n(x)\}_{n=r}^{\infty}$  is a QOPS relative to  $\tau \ (\neq 0)$ . Then,

$$\langle \tau, \nabla^r P_r \rangle \neq 0$$
 and  $\langle \tau, \nabla^r P_m \nabla^r P_n \rangle = 0$  for all  $m \neq n$ .

For m = r, we have  $\langle \tau, \nabla^r P_n \rangle = (-1)^r \langle \Delta^r \tau, P_n \rangle = 0$  for all  $n \ge r+1$  so that by Lemma 2.1(ii),

$$\Delta^r \tau = a_r(x) \sigma$$
 with  $\deg(a_r) \leq r$ .

In fact, deg $(a_r) = r$  since  $\langle \Delta^r \tau, P_r \rangle \neq 0$ . For m = r + 1, we have for any  $n \ge r + 2$ ,

$$\begin{split} 0 &= \langle \tau, \nabla^r P_{r+1} \nabla^r P_n \rangle = (-1)^r \langle \varDelta^r [(\nabla^r P_{r+1}) \tau], P_n \rangle \\ &= (-1)^r \langle \varDelta^{r-1} [\nabla^r P_{r+1}(x+1) \varDelta \tau + (\varDelta \nabla^r P_{r+1}) \tau], P_n \rangle \\ &= (-1)^r \langle \varDelta^r P_{r+1} \varDelta^r \tau + c(r) \varDelta^{r-1} \tau, P_n \rangle, \end{split}$$

where the constant  $c(r) = \Delta^{r+1} [P_{r+1}(x-r+1) + P_{r+1}(x-r+2) + \dots + P_{r+1}(x)] = r(r+1)!$ . Hence, we have by Lemma 2.1(ii)

$$\Delta^r P_{r+1} \Delta^r \tau + c(r) \, \Delta^{r-1} \tau = \phi_{r+1} \sigma_s$$

where  $\deg(\phi_{r+1}) \leq r+1$ . Hence,  $\Delta^{r-1}\tau = a_{r+1}\sigma$  with  $\deg(a_{r+1}) = \deg(\phi_{r+1} - \Delta^r P_{r+1}a_r) \leq r+1$ . Continuing the same process for m = r+2, r+3, ..., 2r, we obtain (iii).

(ii)  $\Leftrightarrow$  (iii): It immediately follows by taking  $\tau = a_{2r}(x)\sigma$ .

(iii)  $\Rightarrow$  (i): Assume that the condition (iii) holds. Then we have for  $r \leq m < n$ 

$$\langle \tau, \mathbf{V}^{r} P_{m} \mathbf{V}^{r} P_{n} \rangle = (-1)^{r} \langle \mathcal{\Delta}^{r} [(\mathbf{V}^{r} P_{m}) \tau], P_{n} \rangle$$

$$= (-1)^{r} \langle \mathcal{\Delta}^{r-1} [(\mathcal{\Delta} \nabla^{r} P_{m}) \tau + (\mathcal{\Delta} \nabla^{r-1} P_{m}) \mathcal{\Delta} \tau], P_{n} \rangle$$

$$= (-1)^{r} \langle \sum_{k=0}^{r} {r \choose k} (\mathcal{\Delta}^{r} \nabla^{r-k} P_{m}) \mathcal{\Delta}^{k} \tau, P_{n} \rangle$$

$$= (-1)^{r} \sum_{k=0}^{r} {r \choose k} \langle \mathcal{\Delta}^{k} \tau, (\mathcal{\Delta}^{r} \nabla^{r-k} P_{m}) P_{n} \rangle$$

$$= (-1)^{r} \sum_{k=0}^{r} {r \choose k} \langle \sigma, a_{2r-k} (\mathcal{\Delta}^{r} \nabla^{r-k} P_{m}) P_{n} \rangle$$

$$= 0,$$

since deg $(a_{2r-k}[\Delta^r \nabla^{r-k} P_m]) \leq m$ . Hence  $\{\nabla^r P_n(x)\}_{n=r}^{\infty}$  is a QOPS relative to  $\tau$ .

*Remark* 3.1. For arbitrary constant  $a \ (\neq 0)$  and b, we have that  $\{P_n(ax+b)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is also an OPS if  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is an OPS. Hence, the condition (i) in Theorem 3.1 is equivalent to that  $\{\Delta^r P_n(x) = \nabla^r P_n(x+r)\}_{n=r}^{\infty}$  is a QOPS. In fact, we have the same results even though  $\Delta$  or  $\nabla$  in Proposition 2.5 and in Theorem 3.1 are replaced by  $\nabla$  or  $\Delta$  respectively.

LEMMA 3.2 (cf. Lemma 3.4 in [14]). Let  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  be a monic OPS relative to a regular moment functional  $\sigma$ . For an integer  $r \ge 1$ , let  $\{Q_n(x) := (1/(P(n+r-1,r-1))) \nabla^{r-1}P_{n+r-1}(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  and  $\{R_n(x) := (1/(n+1)) \nabla Q_{n+1}(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ . If  $\{R_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is a QOPS relative to  $\tau$ , then  $\{Q_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  satisfy the following recurrence relation:

$$Q_{n+1}(x) = (x - \beta_n) Q_n(x) - \gamma_n Q_{n-1}(x) - \sum_{j=0}^{n-2} \delta_n^j Q_j(x), \qquad n \ge 1, \quad (3.3)$$

where  $\beta_n$ ,  $\gamma_n$ , and  $\delta_n^j$  are real constants with  $\delta_1^0 = \delta_1^{-1} = 0$  and  $\delta_n^1 = 0$ ,  $n \ge 1$ .

*Proof.* Since  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is an OPS,  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  satisfy a three-term recurrence relation

$$P_{n+1}(x) = (x - b_n) P_n(x) - c_n P_{n-1}(x), \qquad n \ge 1,$$
(3.4)

where  $b_n$  and  $c_n$  are real constants with  $c_n \neq 0$ ,  $n \ge 1$ . Replacing *n* by n+r-1 in (3.4) and then acting  $\nabla^{r-1}$  and  $\nabla^r$  on both sides, we obtain for  $n \ge 0$ 

$$\nabla^{r-1}P_{n+r}(x) = (x-r+1-b_{n+r-1})\nabla^{r-1}P_{n+r-1}(x)$$

$$-c_{n+r-1}\nabla^{r-1}P_{n+r-2}(x) + (r-1)\nabla^{r-2}P_{n+r-1}(x), \quad (3.5)$$

$$\nabla^{r}P_{n+r}(x) = (x-r-b_{n+r-1})\nabla^{r}P_{n+r-1}(x)$$

$$-c_{n+r-1}\nabla^{r}P_{n+r-2}(x) + r\nabla^{r-1}P_{n+r-1}(x). \quad (3.6)$$

On the other hand, as a monic PS,  $\{R_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  satisfy

$$R_{n+1}(x) = (x - \tilde{b}_n) R_n(x) - \tilde{c}_n R_{n-1}(x) - \sum_{j=0}^{n-2} \tilde{\delta}_n^j R_j(x), \qquad n \ge 1, \qquad (3.7)$$

where  $\tilde{b}_n$ ,  $\tilde{c}_n$ , and  $\tilde{\delta}_n^j$  are real constants with  $\tilde{\delta}_1^0 = \tilde{\delta}_1^{-1} = 0$  and  $R_{-1}(x) \equiv 0$ . Applying  $\tau$  to (3.7) and using the quasi-orthogonality of  $\{R_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  relative to  $\tau$ , we obtain  $\tilde{\delta}_n^0 = 0$ ,  $n \ge 2$  so that (3.7) reduces to

$$R_{n+1}(x) = (x - \tilde{b}_n) R_n(x) - \tilde{c}_n R_{n-1}(x) - \sum_{j=1}^{n-2} \tilde{\delta}_n^j R_j(x), \qquad n \ge 2 \quad (\tilde{\delta}_2^1 = 0).$$
(3.8)

From (3.8) with *n* replaced by n+r-1 and (3.6), we obtain

$$\begin{split} r\nabla^{r-1}P_{n+r-1} &= \left[\frac{r}{n}x + r + b_{n+r-1} - \tilde{b}_{n-1}\frac{n+r}{n}\right]\nabla^{r}P_{n+r-1} \\ &+ \left[c_{n+r-1} - \tilde{c}_{n-1}\frac{(n+r)(n+r-1)}{n(n-1)}\right]\nabla^{r}P_{n+r-1} \\ &- \sum_{j=1}^{n-3}\tilde{\delta}_{n-1}^{j}\frac{(n+1)_{r}}{(j+1)_{r}}\nabla^{r}P_{j+r}, \\ &= \nabla\left[\left(\frac{r}{n}x + r + b_{n+r-1} - \tilde{b}_{n-1}\frac{n+r}{n}\right)\nabla^{r-1}P_{n+r-1}\right] \\ &+ \frac{r}{n}\nabla^{r}P_{n+r-1} - \frac{r}{n}\nabla^{r-1}P_{n+r-1} \\ &+ \left[c_{n+r-1} - \tilde{c}_{n-1}\frac{(n+r)(n+r-1)}{n(n-1)}\right]\nabla^{r}P_{n+r-2} \\ &- \sum_{j=1}^{n-3}\tilde{\delta}_{n-1}^{j}\frac{(n+1)_{r}}{(j+1)_{r}}\nabla^{r}P_{j+r}, \quad n \ge 3. \end{split}$$

Since, for any polynomials f(x) and g(x),  $\nabla g(x) = \nabla f(x)$  if and only if f(x) = g(x) + c with arbitrary constant c, we have

$$\nabla^{r-2} P_{n+r-1} = \left(\frac{x}{n+1} + \frac{nb_{n+r-1}}{r(n+1)} - \frac{(n+r)\tilde{b}_{n-1}}{r(n+1)} - \frac{n+r}{n+1}\right) \nabla^{r-1} P_{n+r-1} + \left(\frac{nc_{n+r-1}}{r(n+1)} - \frac{(n+r)(n+r-1)\tilde{c}_{n-1}}{r(n-1)(n+1)}\right) \nabla^{r-1} P_{n+r-2} - \sum_{j=1}^{n-3} \tilde{\delta}_{n-1}^{j} \frac{n}{r(n+1)} \frac{(n+1)_{r}}{(j+1)_{r}} \nabla^{r-1} P_{j+r} + d_{n},$$
(3.9)

where  $d_n$  is a constant. Substituting (3.9) into (3.5) yields

$$\begin{split} \nabla^{r-1} P_{n+r} = & \left( \frac{-\left(n+r\right) c_{n+r-1}}{\left(n+1\right) r} - \frac{\left(r-1\right) \left(n+r\right) \left(n+r-1\right) \tilde{c}_{n-1}}{r(n-1)(n+1)} \right) \\ & \times \nabla^{r-1} P_{n+r-2} + \frac{n+r}{r(n+1)} \\ & \times \left( rx - b_{n+r-1} - \left(r-1\right) \tilde{b}_{n-1} + \frac{r(1-r)(n+r+1)}{n+r} \right) \\ & \times \nabla^{r-1} P_{n+r-1} - \sum_{j=1}^{n-3} \frac{\left(r-1\right) n}{r(n+1)} \frac{\left(n+1\right)_r}{(j+1)_r} \\ & \times \nabla^{r-1} P_{j+r} + \left(r-1\right) d_n, \qquad n \ge 3. \end{split}$$

This last equation can be rewritten into the equation (3.3) by the definition of  $Q_n(x)$  for  $n \ge 3$ . The equation (3.3) for n = 1 or 2 is trivial.

LEMMA 3.3 (cf. Lemma 3.5 in [14]). Let  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ ,  $\{Q_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ , and  $\{R_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  be the same as in Lemma 3.2. Let  $\{u_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ ,  $\{v_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ , and  $\{w_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  be the dual sequences of  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ ,  $\{Q_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ , and  $\{R_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  respectively. If  $\{R_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is a QOPS, then

(i) there are r + 1 polynomials  $\{a_k(x)\}_r^{2r}$  with  $a_{2r}(x) \neq 0$ ,  $\deg(a_k) \leq k$ , k = r, ..., 2r, and

$$\Delta^{2r-k}w_0 = a_k(x) u_0, \qquad k = r, ..., 2r$$
(3.10)

and

(ii) there are r polynomials  $\{h_k(x)\}_{r+1}^{2r}$  with  $h_{2r}(x) \neq 0$ ,  $\deg(h_k) \leq k$ , k = r+1, ..., 2r, and

$$\Delta^{2r-k}v_0 = h_k(x) u_0, \qquad k = r+1, ..., 2r.$$
(3.11)

Moreover, we also have  $\deg(a_r) = r$  and  $\deg(h_{r+1}) = r - 1$ .

*Proof.* Assume that  $\{R_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is a QOPS. Then  $w_0$  is an orthogonalizing moment functional of  $\{R_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ . Hence we have (i) from the equivalence of the statements (i) and (iii) in Theorem 3.1.

By Lemma 3.2,  $\{Q_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  satisfy the recurrence relation (3.3). Applying  $v_1$  to (3.3), we obtain  $\langle xv_1, Q_n \rangle = 0$ ,  $n \ge 3$  so that by Lemma 2.2

$$xv_1 = e_0v_0 + e_1v_1 + e_2v_2,$$

where  $e_j = \langle xv_1, Q_j \rangle$ , j = 0, 1, 2. Since  $e_0 = \langle xv_1, Q_0 \rangle = \langle v_1, x \rangle = \langle v_1, Q_1 \rangle = 1$ , we have by Lemma 2.3

$$v_0 = (-x + e_1) \, \varDelta w_0 + \frac{e_2}{2} \, \varDelta w_1. \tag{3.12}$$

On the other hand, applying  $w_0$  to (3.8), we obtain  $\langle xw_0, R_n \rangle = 0$ ,  $n \ge 2$  so that by Lemma 2.2

$$xw_0 = c_0 w_0 + c_1 w_1,$$

where  $c_j = \langle xw_0, R_j \rangle$ , j = 0, 1. If  $c_1 = 0$ , then  $(x - c_0) w_0 = (x - c_0) a_{2r}(x)$  $u_0 = 0$  by (3.10). It is a contradiction since  $u_0$  is regular and  $a_{2r}(x) \neq 0$ . Hence,  $c_1 \neq 0$  and

$$w_1 = \frac{x - c_0}{c_1} w_0. \tag{3.13}$$

Substituting (3.13) into (3.12), we obtain

$$v_0 = \pi_{2r}(x) \, u_0, \tag{3.14}$$

where  $\pi_{2r}(x)$  is a polynomial of degree  $\leq 2r$ . Acting  $\Delta$  on (3.14) successively, we obtain (3.11) from (3.10).

Finally we have

$$\langle \Delta^r w_0, P_n \rangle = (-1)^r \langle w_0, \nabla^r P_n \rangle$$

$$= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n \neq r \\ (-1)^r \langle w_0, P(n, r) R_{n-r} \rangle & \text{if } n = r \end{cases}$$

so that  $a_r(x) u_0 = \Delta^r w_0 = (-1)^r r! u_r = (-1)^r r! C_r P_r(x) u_0$  by Lemma 2.4. Hence  $\deg(a_r) = r$ .

Similarly we have  $h_{r+1}(x) u_0 = \Delta^{r-1} v_0 = (-1)^{r-1} (r-1)! C_{r-1} P_{r-1}(x) u_0$ so that  $\deg(h_{r+1}) = r-1$ .

Now, we are ready to give our main result which is the discrete version of Hahn's theorem [8].

THEOREM 3.4. Let  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  be an OPS relative to a regular moment functional  $\sigma$  and  $r \ge 1$  an integer. Then any one of the equivalent statements in Theorem 3.1 is also equivalent to

 $(iv){P_n(x)}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is a discrete classical OPS.

*Proof.* Assume that  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is a discrete classical OPS. Then,  $\{\nabla^r P_n(x)\}_{n=r}^{\infty}$  is also a discrete classical OPS for any integer  $r \ge 1$ . Hence, the statement (i) in Theorem 3.1 holds.

Conversely, we assume that the statement (i) in Theorem 3.1 holds. If r=1,  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is a discrete classical OPS by the Proposition 2.5. Hence we assume  $r \ge 2$ . Then, by induction, it suffices to show that  $\{\nabla^{r-1}P_n(x)\}_{r=1}^{\infty}$  is a QOPS or equivalently there exist r-1 polynomials  $\{g_k(x)\}_{r=1}^{2(r-1)}$  with  $g_{2(r-1)}(x) \ne 0$ ,  $\deg(g_k) \le k$ ,  $r-1 \le k \le 2(r-1)$  and

$$\Delta(g_k \sigma) = g_{k-1} \sigma, \qquad k = r, r+1, ..., 2r-2.$$

We may assume  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is a monic PS and let  $\{Q_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ ,  $\{R_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ ,  $\{u_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ ,  $\{v_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ , and  $\{w_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  be the same as in Lemma 3.3. Since  $\{\nabla^r P_n(x)\}_{n=r}^{\infty}$  is a QOPS, by Lemma 3.3, we have polynomials  $\{a_k(x)\}_{r=1}^{2r}$  and  $\{h_k(x)\}_{r+1}^{2r}$  satisfying (3.10) and (3.11). Hence, the moment functional  $u_0$  satisfies

$$\Delta(a_k u_0) = a_{k-1} u_0, \qquad k = r+1, ..., 2r, \tag{3.15}$$

$$\Delta(h_k u_0) = h_{k-1} u_0, \qquad k = r+2, ..., 2r.$$
(3.16)

Now, let  $s \ (\ge 0)$  be the class number of the discrete semi-classical moment functional  $u_0$  and  $(\alpha(x), \beta(x)) \ne (0, 0)$  a pair of polynomials satisfying

$$\Delta(\alpha u_0) = \beta u_0$$
 with  $s = \max(\deg(\alpha) - 2, \deg(\beta) - 1)$ 

Then we have from Proposition 2.7

$$a_k(x) = \tilde{a}_k(x) \,\alpha(x), \qquad k = r+1, ..., 2r,$$
(3.17)

$$h_k(x) = \tilde{h}_k(x) \,\alpha(x), \qquad k = r+2, ..., 2r,$$
(3.18)

where  $\tilde{a}_k(x)$  and  $\tilde{h}_k(x)$  are polynomials. Hence we have from (3.15), (3.16), (3.17), and (3.18)

$$\Delta \tilde{a}_k \alpha + \tilde{a}_k (x+1) \beta = a_{k-1}, \qquad k = r+1, ..., 2r;$$
(3.19)

$$\Delta \tilde{h}_k \alpha + \tilde{h}_k (x+1) \beta = h_{k-1}, \qquad k = r+2, ..., 2r.$$
(3.20)

From now on, we divide the proof into two cases:  $s = \deg(\alpha) - 2 \ge \deg(\beta) - 1$  and  $s = \deg(\beta) - 1 > \deg(\alpha) - 2$ .

Case I.  $s = \deg(\alpha) - 2 \ge \deg(\beta) - 1$ . Counting degrees on both sides of the equation (3.19), we have  $\deg(a_{k-1}) + 1 \le \deg(a_k)$ ,  $r+1 \le k \le 2r$  since  $\deg(\alpha) \ge \deg(\beta) + 1$ . Hence we have

$$\deg(a_k) = k, \quad k = r, r+1, ..., 2r$$

since  $\deg(a_r) = r$  and  $\deg(a_k) \leq k$ , k = r, ..., 2r. Similarly, counting degrees on both sides of the equation (3.20), we have  $\deg(h_{k-1}) + 1 \leq \deg(h_k)$ ,  $r + 2 \leq k \leq 2r$ . We now claim that

$$\deg(h_{k-1}) + 1 = \deg(h_k), \qquad k = r+2, ..., 2r.$$
(3.21)

If not, let j be the first integer  $\ge r+2$  such that  $\deg(h_{j-1})+1 < \deg(h_j)$ . Then,  $\deg(h_k) = k-2$ , k = r+1, ..., j-1 and  $j-2 < \deg(h_j) \le j$  since  $\deg(h_{r+1}) = r-1$ . Since  $r+2 \le j \le 2r$ ,  $\deg(h_j) = m = \deg(a_m)$  for some m = r+1, ..., 2r. Let  $A \ (\ne 0)$  and  $B \ (\ne 0)$  be the leading coefficients of  $a_m(x)$  and  $h_j(x)$  respectively. Multiplying the equation (3.19) for k = m by B and the equation (3.20) for k = j by A and subtracting these two equations, we obtain

$$(B\Delta \tilde{a}_m - A\Delta \tilde{h}_j) \alpha + (B\tilde{a}_m(x+1) - A\tilde{h}_j(x+1)) \beta$$
  
=  $Ba_{m-1} - Ah_{j-1}.$  (3.22)

We then have  $\deg(Ba_{m-1} - Ah_{j-1}) = m-1$  since  $\deg(a_{m-1}) = m-1 > j-3 = \deg(h_{j-1})$ . However, the degree of the left hand side of the equation (3.22) is at most m-2 since  $\deg(Ba_m - Ah_j) \leq m-1$  and  $\deg(\beta) \leq \deg(\alpha) - 1$ . It is a contradiction so that we have (3.21).

Since  $deg(h_{r+1}) = r - 1$ , we have from (3.21)

$$\deg(h_k) = k - 2, \qquad k = r + 1, ..., 2r.$$
(3.23)

If we set  $g_k(x) = h_{k+2}(x)$ , k = r - 1, ..., 2(r-1), then  $\{g_k\}_{r-1}^{2(r-1)}$  satisfy the condition (ii) in Theorem 3.1 with *r* replaced by r-1 and  $\sigma$  replaced by  $u_0$  by (3.16) and (3.23). Hence, by Theorem 3.1 and induction hypothesis,  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is a discrete classical OPS relative to  $u_0$ .

*Case* II.  $s = \deg(\beta) - 1 > \deg(\alpha) - 2$ . Counting degrees on both sides of the equation (3.19), we have

$$\deg(a_k) = \deg(a_{k-1}) + \deg(\alpha) - \deg(\beta), \qquad k = r+1, ..., 2r$$

so that

$$deg(a_k) = deg(a_r) + (k - r)(deg(\alpha) - deg(\beta))$$
  
= r + (k - r)(deg(\alpha) - deg(\beta)), k = r + 1, ..., 2r. (3.24)

In particular, we have for k = 2r in (3.24)  $\deg(a_{2r}) = r(\deg(\alpha) - s)$ . Since  $\deg(a_{2r}) \ge \deg(\alpha) \ge 0$ ,  $s \le \deg(\alpha) < s + 2$  so that  $\deg(\alpha)$  is either s or s + 1. If  $\deg(\alpha) = s$ , then s = 0 and so  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is a discrete classical OPS. If  $\deg(\alpha) = s + 1$ , then we have by counting degrees on both sides of the equation (3.20)

$$\deg(h_k) = \deg(h_{k-1}), \qquad k = r+2, ..., 2r$$

so that

$$\deg(h_k) = r - 1, \qquad k = r + 1, ..., 2r. \tag{3.25}$$

If we set  $g_k(x) = h_{k+2}(x)$ , k = r-1, ..., 2(r-1), then  $\{g_k(x)\}_{r=1}^{2(r-1)}$  satisfy the condition (ii) in Theorem 3.1 with *r* replaced by r-1 and  $\sigma$  replaced by  $u_0$  by (3.16) and (3.25). Hence, by Theorem 3.1 and induction hypothesis,  $\{P_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is a discrete classical OPS relative to  $u_0$ .

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