# New Characterizations of Discrete Classical Orthogonal Polynomials 

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Received May 23, 1995; accepted in revised form February 27, 1996

We prove that if both $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ and $\left\{\nabla^{r} P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=r}^{\infty}$ are orthogonal polynomials for any fixed integer $r \geqslant 1$, then $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ must be discrete classical orthogonal polynomials. This result is a discrete version of the classical Hahn's theorem stating that if both $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ and $\left\{(d / d x)^{r} P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=r}^{\infty}$ are orthogonal polynomials, then $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ 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

$$
\begin{equation*}
L_{2}[y](x)=\ell_{2}(x) \Delta \nabla y(x)+\ell_{1}(x) \Delta y(x)=\lambda_{n} y(x), \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\ell_{2}(x)=\ell_{22} x^{2}+\ell_{21} x+\ell_{20}(\not \equiv 0)$ and $\ell_{1}(x)=\ell_{11} x+\ell_{10}$ are polynomials independent of $n$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{n}=n(n-1) \ell_{22}+n \ell_{11}, \quad n=0,1,2, \ldots . \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

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 $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ such that $\left\{P_{n}^{\prime}(x)\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ (respectively, $\left\{\nabla P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ ) 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 $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ such that $\left\{\nabla^{r} P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=r}^{\infty}$ (or $\left\{\Delta^{r} P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=r}^{\infty}$ ) is quasi-orthogonal (see Definition 2.1) for any fixed integer $r \geqslant 1$.

## 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 $\operatorname{deg}(\psi)$ with the convention that $\operatorname{deg}(0)=-1$.

By a polynomial system (PS), we mean a sequence of polynomials $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ with $\operatorname{deg}\left(P_{n}\right)=n, n \geqslant 0$. 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 $\left\{\left\langle\sigma, x^{n}\right\rangle\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ the moments of $\sigma$.

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\langle u_{n}, P_{m}\right\rangle=\delta_{m n} \quad(m \text { and } n \geqslant 0) \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\delta_{m n}$ is the Kronecker delta function. In particular, we call $u_{0}$ the canonical moment functional of $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$.

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\langle\sigma, P_{m} P_{n}\right\rangle=K_{n} \delta_{m n} \quad(m \text { and } n \geqslant 0), \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

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

Note that if $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is a QOPS relative to $\sigma$, then $\left\langle\sigma, P_{0}^{2}\right\rangle \neq 0$ but $\left\langle\sigma, P_{n}^{2}\right\rangle$ for $n \geqslant 1$ 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 $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$.

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta_{n}(\sigma):=\operatorname{det}\left[\left\langle\sigma, x^{i+j}\right\rangle\right]_{i, j=0}^{n} \neq 0 \quad\left(\text { respectively, } \Delta_{n}(\sigma)>0\right) \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for every $n \geqslant 0$. 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

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

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:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta(\phi \sigma)=\phi(x+1) \Delta \sigma+\Delta(\phi) \sigma, \quad \nabla(\phi \sigma)=\phi(x-1) \nabla \sigma+\nabla(\phi) \sigma, \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

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 $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ 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 $k \geqslant 0$, $\left\langle\tau, P_{n}\right\rangle=0$ for $n>k$ if and only if $\tau=\psi(x) \sigma$ for some polynomial $\psi(x)$ of degree $\leqslant k$.

In this case, $\operatorname{deg}(\psi)=k_{0}\left(0 \leqslant k_{0} \leqslant k\right)$ is the largest integer such that $\left\langle\tau, P_{n}\right\rangle=0$ for $n>k_{0}$ and $\left\langle\tau, P_{k_{0}}\right\rangle \neq 0$.

Lemma 2.2 [18]. Let $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ be a PS and $\left\{u_{n}\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ the dual sequence of $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$. Then for any moment functional $\tau$ and any integer $k \geqslant 0$, the following two statements are equivalent.
(i) $\left\langle\tau, P_{k}\right\rangle \neq 0$ and $\left\langle\tau, P_{n}\right\rangle=0$ for $n>k$.
(ii) There exist real constants $\left\{e_{j}\right\}_{j=0}^{k}$ such that $e_{k} \neq 0$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tau=\sum_{j=0}^{k} e_{j} u_{j} . \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Lemma 2.3. Let $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ be a PS and $\left\{u_{n}\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ and $\left\{v_{n}\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ the dual sequences of PS's $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ and $\left\{Q_{n}(x):=(1 /(n+1)) \nabla P_{n+1}^{\infty}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$, respectively. Then, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta v_{n}=-(n+1) u_{n+1} \quad(n \geqslant 0) . \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Since $\left\langle\Delta v_{n}, P_{m}\right\rangle=-\left\langle v_{n}, \nabla P_{m}\right\rangle=-m\left\langle v_{n}, Q_{m-1}\right\rangle=-m \delta_{n, m-1}$ for $n$ and $m \geqslant 0\left(Q_{-1}(x) \equiv 0\right)$, we have (2.6) by Lemma 2.2.

Lemma 2.4 [18]. Let $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ be a PS and $\left\{u_{n}\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ the dual sequence of $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$. Then the following two statements are equivalent.
(i) $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is an OPS.
(ii) For each $n \geqslant 0$, there is a non-zero real constant $C_{n}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
u_{n}=C_{n} P_{n}(x) u_{0} \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

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

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

Proposition 2.5. Let $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ be an OPS relative to a regular moment functional $\sigma$. Then, the following statements are all equivalent.
(i) $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is discrete classical OPS relative to $\sigma$.
(ii) $\left\{\nabla P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is an OPS.
(iii) $\left\{\nabla P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a QOPS.
(iv) There are polynomials $\ell_{2}(x)(\not \equiv 0)$ of degree $\leqslant 2$ and $\ell_{1}(x)$ of degree 1 such that $\sigma$ satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta\left(\ell_{2} \sigma\right)=\ell_{1} \sigma \tag{2.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. It is well known $([6,19])$ that (i) is equivalent to (iv).
(i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii): Assume that $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is an OPS relative to $\sigma$ satisfying the difference equation (1.1). At first we prove that $\lambda_{n} \neq 0$ for all $n \geqslant 1$. Assume $\lambda_{n}=0$ for some $n \geqslant 1$. Then we have by (2.8)

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =\lambda_{n} P_{n} \sigma=\left[\ell_{2} \Delta \nabla P_{n}+\ell_{1} \Delta P_{n}\right] \sigma \\
& =\ell_{2}\left[\Delta \nabla P_{n}\right] \sigma+\Delta P_{n} \Delta\left(\ell_{2} \sigma\right) \\
& =\Delta\left[\left(\nabla P_{n}\right) \ell_{2} \sigma\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

so that $\left(\nabla P_{n}(x)\right) \ell_{2}(x) \sigma=0$. Hence $\left(\nabla P_{n}(x)\right) \ell_{2} \equiv 0$ by Lemma 2.1(i) and so $\nabla P_{n}(x) \equiv 0$ since $\ell_{2}(x) \not \equiv 0$, which implies $n=0$ contradicting the fact that $n \geqslant 1$. Since (i) is equivalent to (iv), we have

$$
\lambda_{n} P_{n} \sigma=\ell_{2} \Delta \nabla P_{n} \sigma+\ell_{1} \Delta P_{n} \sigma=\Delta\left[\left(\nabla P_{n}\right) \ell_{2} \sigma\right] .
$$

Hence,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\langle\ell_{2} \sigma, \nabla P_{m+1} \nabla P_{n+1}\right\rangle & =-\left\langle\Delta\left[\left(\nabla P_{n+1}\right) \ell_{2} \sigma\right], P_{m+1}\right\rangle \\
& =-\lambda_{n+1}\left\langle\sigma, P_{m+1} P_{n+1}\right\rangle .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore, $\left\{\nabla P_{n+1}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is an OPS relative to $\ell_{2}(x) \sigma$ since $\lambda_{n+1} \neq 0$, $n \geqslant 0$ and $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ 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 $\left\{\nabla P_{n+1}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is a QOPS relative to $\tau$ $(\not \equiv 0)$ so that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\langle\tau, \nabla P_{m+1} \nabla P_{n+1}\right\rangle=0 \quad \text { for } \quad m \neq n, \quad m \text { and } n \geqslant 0 \tag{2.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

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

$$
0=\left\langle\tau, \nabla P_{1} \nabla P_{n+1}\right\rangle=-\nabla P_{1}\left\langle\Delta \tau, P_{n+1}\right\rangle
$$

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta \tau=\ell_{1}(x) \sigma \tag{2.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =\left\langle\tau, \nabla P_{2} \nabla P_{n+1}\right\rangle=-\left\langle\Delta\left[\left(\nabla P_{2}\right) \tau\right], P_{n+1}\right\rangle \\
& =-\left\langle\left[\Delta \nabla P_{2}\right] \tau, P_{n+1}\right\rangle-\left\langle\Delta P_{2} \Delta \tau, P_{n+1}\right\rangle \\
& =-\left[\Delta \nabla P_{2}\right]\left\langle\tau, P_{n+1}\right\rangle-\left\langle\Delta \tau,\left[\Delta P_{2}\right] P_{n+1}\right\rangle \\
& =-\left[\Delta \nabla P_{2}\right]\left\langle\tau, P_{n+1}\right\rangle-\left\langle\sigma, \ell_{1}\left[\Delta P_{2}\right] P_{n+1}\right\rangle .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\left\langle\sigma, \ell_{1}\left[\Delta P_{2}\right] P_{n+1}\right\rangle=0$ for $n>1$ and $\nabla \Delta P_{2}(x) \not \equiv 0,\left\langle\tau, P_{n+1}(x)\right\rangle=0$ for $n>1$ so that by Lemma 2.1(ii),

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tau=\ell_{2}(x) \sigma \tag{2.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some polynomial $\ell_{2}(x)$ of degree $\leqslant 2$. The equation (2.8) follows from (2.10) and (2.11) and $\ell_{1}(x) \not \equiv 0, \ell_{2}(x) \not \equiv 0$ since $\tau \neq 0$. If $\ell_{1}(x)=c, c$ a non-zero constant, then

$$
\langle\sigma, 1\rangle=\frac{1}{c}\left\langle\Delta\left(\ell_{2} \sigma\right), 1\right\rangle=0,
$$

which is impossible since $\sigma$ is regular. Hence, $\operatorname{deg}\left(\ell_{1}\right)=1$.
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

$$
L f(x)=\frac{f(q x+w)-f(x)}{(q-1) x+w}
$$

where $q$ and $w$ are given constants, and then characterized all OPS's $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ such that $\left\{L P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ 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 $q \rightarrow 1, L$ becomes $d / d x$.

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

$$
\ell_{2}(x-1) \Delta \nabla y(x)+\left(\nabla \ell_{2}(x)+\ell_{1}(x)\right) \Delta y(x)=\left(\lambda_{n}-\nabla \ell_{1}(x)\right) y(x) .
$$

By induction, for any integer $r \geqslant 1,\left\{\nabla^{r} P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=r}^{\infty}$ 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 $\phi(x) \not \equiv 0$ and $\psi(x)$ of degree $\geqslant 1$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta(\phi \sigma)=\psi \sigma . \tag{2.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

For any discrete semi-classical moment functional $\sigma$, we call $s:=$ $\min \{\max (\operatorname{deg}(\phi)-2, \operatorname{deg}(\psi)-1\}$ 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 $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ 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

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\Delta\left(\phi_{1} \sigma\right)=\psi_{1} \sigma & \left(s_{1}:=\max \left(t_{1}-2, p_{1}-1\right)\right)  \tag{2.13}\\
\Delta\left(\phi_{2} \sigma\right)=\psi_{2} \sigma & \left(s_{2}:=\max \left(t_{2}-2, p_{2}-1\right)\right),
\end{array}
$$

where $t_{j}=\operatorname{deg}\left(\phi_{j}\right)$ and $p_{j}=\operatorname{deg}\left(\psi_{j}\right), j=1,2$. 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 $s:=\max (\operatorname{deg}(\phi)-2, \operatorname{deg}(\psi)-1)=s_{1}-t_{1}+\operatorname{deg}(\phi)=s_{2}-t_{2}+\operatorname{deg}(\phi)$.

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

$$
\begin{align*}
& \tilde{\phi}_{1}(x+1) \Delta(\phi \sigma)=\left(\psi_{1}-\phi \Delta \tilde{\phi}_{1}\right) \sigma,  \tag{2.14}\\
& \tilde{\phi}_{2}(x+1) \Delta(\phi \sigma)=\left(\psi_{2}-\phi \Delta \tilde{\phi}_{2}\right) \sigma . \tag{2.15}
\end{align*}
$$

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

$$
\left(\psi_{1}-\phi \Delta \tilde{\phi}_{1}\right) \tilde{\phi}_{2}(x+1)=\left(\psi_{2}-\phi \Delta \tilde{\phi}_{2}\right) \tilde{\phi}_{1}(x+1) .
$$

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 $\psi_{2}-\phi \Delta \widetilde{\phi}_{2}$ and $\psi_{1}-\phi \Delta \widetilde{\phi}_{1}$ are divisible by $\tilde{\phi}_{2}(x+1)$ and $\tilde{\phi}_{1}(x+1)$ respectively so that there exists a polynomial $\psi$ such that

$$
\psi_{2}-\phi \Delta \tilde{\phi}_{2}=\psi \tilde{\phi}_{2}(x+1) \quad \text { and } \quad \psi_{1}-\phi \Delta \tilde{\phi}_{1}=\psi \tilde{\phi}_{1}(x+1) .
$$

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

$$
\tilde{\phi}_{2}(x+1)[\Delta(\phi \sigma)-\psi \sigma]=0 \quad \text { and } \quad \tilde{\phi}_{1}(x+1)[\Delta(\phi \sigma)-\psi \sigma]=0 .
$$

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 $s=\max (\operatorname{deg}(\phi)-2, \operatorname{deg}(\psi)-1)$. If $\sigma$ satisfies the equation (2.12) with another pair of polynomials $\left(\phi_{1}, \psi_{1}\right) \neq$ $(0,0)$, 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 $s_{0}:=\max (\operatorname{deg}(\alpha)-2, \operatorname{deg}(\beta)-1)=s-\operatorname{deg}(\phi)+\operatorname{deg}(\alpha)$. Since $s_{0} \geqslant s$, $\operatorname{deg}(\alpha) \geqslant \operatorname{deg}(\phi)$ 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 $\operatorname{OPS}\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ relative to a regular moment functional $\sigma$ and an integer $r \geqslant 1$, the following statements are all equivalent.
(i) $\left\{\nabla^{r} P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=r}^{\infty}$ is a QOPS.
(ii) There are $r+1$ polynomials $\left\{a_{k}(x)\right\}_{r}^{2 r}$ with $a_{2 r}(x) \not \equiv 0, \operatorname{deg}\left(a_{k}\right) \leqslant k$, $k=r, r+1, \ldots, 2 r$, and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta\left(a_{k} \sigma\right)=a_{k-1} \sigma, \quad k=r+1, \ldots, 2 r . \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

(iii) There are moment functional $\tau(\neq 0)$ and $r+1$ polynomials $\left\{a_{k}(x)\right\}_{r}^{2 r}$ with $\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{k}\right) \leqslant k, k=r, r+1, \ldots, 2 r$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta^{2 r-k} \tau=a_{k}(x) \sigma, \quad k=r, r+1, \ldots, 2 r . \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

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

$$
\left\langle\tau, \nabla^{r} P_{r}\right\rangle \neq 0 \quad \text { and } \quad\left\langle\tau, \nabla^{r} P_{m} \nabla^{r} P_{n}\right\rangle=0 \quad \text { for all } \quad m \neq n .
$$

For $m=r$, we have $\left\langle\tau, \nabla^{r} P_{n}\right\rangle=(-1)^{r}\left\langle\Delta^{r} \tau, P_{n}\right\rangle=0$ for all $n \geqslant r+1$ so that by Lemma 2.1(ii),

$$
\Delta^{r} \tau=a_{r}(x) \sigma \quad \text { with } \quad \operatorname{deg}\left(a_{r}\right) \leqslant r .
$$

In fact, $\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{r}\right)=r$ since $\left\langle\Delta^{r} \tau, P_{r}\right\rangle \neq 0$. For $m=r+1$, we have for any $n \geqslant r+2$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =\left\langle\tau, \nabla^{r} P_{r+1} \nabla^{r} P_{n}\right\rangle=(-1)^{r}\left\langle\Delta^{r}\left[\left(\nabla^{r} P_{r+1}\right) \tau\right], P_{n}\right\rangle \\
& =(-1)^{r}\left\langle\Delta^{r-1}\left[\nabla^{r} P_{r+1}(x+1) \Delta \tau+\left(\Delta \nabla^{r} P_{r+1}\right) \tau\right], P_{n}\right\rangle \\
& =(-1)^{r}\left\langle\Delta^{r} P_{r+1} \Delta^{r} \tau+c(r) \Delta^{r-1} \tau, P_{n}\right\rangle,
\end{aligned}
$$

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

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

where $\operatorname{deg}\left(\phi_{r+1}\right) \leqslant r+1$. Hence, $\Delta^{r-1} \tau=a_{r+1} \sigma$ with $\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{r+1}\right)=$ $\operatorname{deg}\left(\phi_{r+1}-\Delta^{r} P_{r+1} a_{r}\right) \leqslant r+1$. Continuing the same process for $m=r+2, r+3, \ldots, 2 r$, we obtain (iii).
(ii) $\Leftrightarrow$ (iii): It immediately follows by taking $\tau=a_{2 r}(x) \sigma$.
(iii) $\Rightarrow$ (i): Assume that the condition (iii) holds. Then we have for $r \leqslant m<n$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\langle\tau, \nabla^{r} P_{m} \nabla^{r} P_{n}\right\rangle & =(-1)^{r}\left\langle\Delta^{r}\left[\left(\nabla^{r} P_{m}\right) \tau\right], P_{n}\right\rangle \\
& =(-1)^{r}\left\langle\Delta^{r-1}\left[\left(\Delta \nabla^{r} P_{m}\right) \tau+\left(\Delta \nabla^{r-1} P_{m}\right) \Delta \tau\right], P_{n}\right\rangle \\
& =(-1)^{r}\left\langle\sum_{k=0}^{r}\binom{r}{k}\left(\Delta^{r} \nabla^{r-k} P_{m}\right) \Delta^{k} \tau, P_{n}\right\rangle \\
& =(-1)^{r} \sum_{k=0}^{r}\binom{r}{k}\left\langle\Delta^{k} \tau,\left(\Delta^{r} \nabla^{r-k} P_{m}\right) P_{n}\right\rangle \\
& =(-1)^{r} \sum_{k=0}^{r}\binom{r}{k}\left\langle\sigma, a_{2 r-k}\left(\Delta^{r} \nabla^{r-k} P_{m}\right) P_{n}\right\rangle \\
& =0,
\end{aligned}
$$

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

Remark 3.1. For arbitrary constant $a(\neq 0)$ and $b$, we have that $\left\{P_{n}(a x+b)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is also an OPS if $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is an OPS. Hence, the condition (i) in Theorem 3.1 is equivalent to that $\left\{\Delta^{r} P_{n}(x)=\right.$ $\left.\nabla^{r} P_{n}(x+r)\right\}_{n=r}^{\infty}$ 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 $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ be a monic OPS relative to a regular moment functional $\sigma$. For an integer $r \geqslant 1$, let $\left\{Q_{n}(x):=(1 /(P(n+r-1, r-1))) \nabla^{r-1} P_{n+r-1}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \quad$ and $\quad\left\{R_{n}(x):=\right.$ $\left.(1 /(n+1)) \nabla Q_{n+1}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$. If $\left\{R_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is a QOPS relative to $\tau$, then $\left\{Q_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ satisfy the following recurrence relation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{n+1}(x)=\left(x-\beta_{n}\right) Q_{n}(x)-\gamma_{n} Q_{n-1}(x)-\sum_{j=0}^{n-2} \delta_{n}^{j} Q_{j}(x), \quad n \geqslant 1, \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\beta_{n}, \gamma_{n}$, and $\delta_{n}^{j}$ are real constants with $\delta_{1}^{0}=\delta_{1}^{-1}=0$ and $\delta_{n}^{1}=0, n \geqslant 1$.
Proof. Since $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is an OPS, $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ satisfy a three-term recurrence relation

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n+1}(x)=\left(x-b_{n}\right) P_{n}(x)-c_{n} P_{n-1}(x), \quad n \geqslant 1, \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

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

$$
\begin{align*}
\nabla^{r-1} P_{n+r}(x)= & \left(x-r+1-b_{n+r-1}\right) \nabla^{r-1} P_{n+r-1}(x) \\
& -c_{n+r-1} \nabla^{r-1} P_{n+r-2}(x)+(r-1) \nabla^{r-2} P_{n+r-1}(x) \tag{3.5}
\end{align*}
$$

$$
\begin{align*}
\nabla^{r} P_{n+r}(x)= & \left(x-r-b_{n+r-1}\right) \nabla^{r} P_{n+r-1}(x) \\
& -c_{n+r-1} \nabla^{r} P_{n+r-2}(x)+r \nabla^{r-1} P_{n+r-1}(x) . \tag{3.6}
\end{align*}
$$

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
R_{n+1}(x)=\left(x-\tilde{b}_{n}\right) R_{n}(x)-\tilde{c}_{n} R_{n-1}(x)-\sum_{j=0}^{n-2} \tilde{\delta}_{n}^{j} R_{j}(x), \quad n \geqslant 1, \tag{3.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

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 $\left\{R_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ relative to $\tau$, we obtain $\widetilde{\delta}_{n}^{0}=0, n \geqslant 2$ so that (3.7) reduces to

$$
\begin{equation*}
R_{n+1}(x)=\left(x-\tilde{b}_{n}\right) R_{n}(x)-\tilde{c}_{n} R_{n-1}(x)-\sum_{j=1}^{n-2} \tilde{\delta}_{n}^{j} R_{j}(x), \quad n \geqslant 2 \quad\left(\tilde{\delta}_{2}^{1}=0\right) \tag{3.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

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

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

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

$$
\begin{align*}
\nabla^{r-2} P_{n+r-1}= & \left(\frac{x}{n+1}+\frac{n b_{n+r-1}}{r(n+1)}-\frac{(n+r) \tilde{b}_{n-1}}{r(n+1)}-\frac{n+r}{n+1}\right) \nabla^{r-1} P_{n+r-1} \\
& +\left(\frac{n c_{n+r-1}}{r(n+1)}-\frac{(n+r)(n+r-1) \tilde{c}_{n-1}}{r(n-1)(n+1)}\right) \nabla^{r-1} P_{n+r-2} \\
& -\sum_{j=1}^{n-3} \tilde{\delta}_{n-1}^{j} \frac{n}{r(n+1)} \frac{(n+1)_{r}}{(j+1)_{r}} \nabla^{r-1} P_{j+r}+d_{n} \tag{3.9}
\end{align*}
$$

where $d_{n}$ is a constant. Substituting (3.9) into (3.5) yields

$$
\begin{aligned}
\nabla^{r-1} P_{n+r}= & \left(\frac{-(n+r) c_{n+r-1}}{(n+1) r}-\frac{(r-1)(n+r)(n+r-1) \tilde{c}_{n-1}}{r(n-1)(n+1)}\right) \\
& \times \nabla^{r-1} P_{n+r-2}+\frac{n+r}{r(n+1)} \\
& \times\left(r x-b_{n+r-1}-(r-1) \tilde{b}_{n-1}+\frac{r(1-r)(n+r+1)}{n+r}\right) \\
& \times \nabla^{r-1} P_{n+r-1}-\sum_{j=1}^{n-3} \frac{(r-1) n}{r(n+1)} \frac{(n+1)_{r}}{(j+1)_{r}} \\
& \times \nabla^{r-1} P_{j+r}+(r-1) d_{n}, \quad n \geqslant 3 .
\end{aligned}
$$

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

Lemma 3.3 (cf. Lemma 3.5 in [14]). Let $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty},\left\{Q_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$, and $\left\{R_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ be the same as in Lemma 3.2. Let $\left\{u_{n}\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty},\left\{v_{n}\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$, and $\left\{w_{n}\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ be the dual sequences of $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}, \quad\left\{Q_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$, and $\left\{R_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ respectively. If $\left\{R_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is a QOPS, then
(i) there are $r+1$ polynomials $\left\{a_{k}(x)\right\}_{r}^{2 r}$ with $a_{2 r}(x) \not \equiv 0, \operatorname{deg}\left(a_{k}\right) \leqslant k$, $k=r, \ldots, 2 r$, and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta^{2 r-k} w_{0}=a_{k}(x) u_{0}, \quad k=r, \ldots, 2 r \tag{3.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

and
(ii) there are $r$ polynomials $\left\{h_{k}(x)\right\}_{r+1}^{2 r}$ with $h_{2 r}(x) \not \equiv 0, \operatorname{deg}\left(h_{k}\right) \leqslant k$, $k=r+1, \ldots, 2 r$, and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta^{2 r-k} v_{0}=h_{k}(x) u_{0}, \quad k=r+1, \ldots, 2 r . \tag{3.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

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

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

By Lemma 3.2, $\left\{Q_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ satisfy the recurrence relation (3.3). Applying $v_{1}$ to (3.3), we obtain $\left\langle x v_{1}, Q_{n}\right\rangle=0, n \geqslant 3$ so that by Lemma 2.2

$$
x v_{1}=e_{0} v_{0}+e_{1} v_{1}+e_{2} v_{2},
$$

where $e_{j}=\left\langle x v_{1}, Q_{j}\right\rangle, \quad j=0,1,2$. Since $e_{0}=\left\langle x v_{1}, Q_{0}\right\rangle=\left\langle v_{1}, x\right\rangle=$ $\left\langle v_{1}, Q_{1}\right\rangle=1$, we have by Lemma 2.3

$$
\begin{equation*}
v_{0}=\left(-x+e_{1}\right) \Delta w_{0}+\frac{e_{2}}{2} \Delta w_{1} . \tag{3.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand, applying $w_{0}$ to (3.8), we obtain $\left\langle x w_{0}, R_{n}\right\rangle=0, n \geqslant 2$ so that by Lemma 2.2

$$
x w_{0}=c_{0} w_{0}+c_{1} w_{1},
$$

where $c_{j}=\left\langle x w_{0}, R_{j}\right\rangle, j=0,1$. If $c_{1}=0$, then $\left(x-c_{0}\right) w_{0}=\left(x-c_{0}\right) a_{2 r}(x)$ $u_{0}=0$ by (3.10). It is a contradiction since $u_{0}$ is regular and $a_{2 r}(x) \not \equiv 0$. Hence, $c_{1} \neq 0$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
w_{1}=\frac{x-c_{0}}{c_{1}} w_{0} . \tag{3.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Substituting (3.13) into (3.12), we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
v_{0}=\pi_{2 r}(x) u_{0} \tag{3.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

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

Finally we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\langle\Delta^{r} w_{0}, P_{n}\right\rangle & =(-1)^{r}\left\langle w_{0}, \nabla^{r} P_{n}\right\rangle \\
& = \begin{cases}0 & \text { if } n \neq r \\
(-1)^{r}\left\langle w_{0}, P(n, r) R_{n-r}\right\rangle & \text { if } n=r\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

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 $\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{r}\right)=r$.

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 $\operatorname{deg}\left(h_{r+1}\right)=r-1$.

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

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

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

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

$$
\Delta\left(g_{k} \sigma\right)=g_{k-1} \sigma, \quad k=r, r+1, \ldots, 2 r-2 .
$$

We may assume $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is a monic PS and let $\left\{Q_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$, $\left\{R_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}, \quad\left\{u_{n}\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}, \quad\left\{v_{n}\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$, and $\left\{w_{n}\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ be the same as in Lemma 3.3. Since $\left\{\nabla^{r} P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=r}^{\infty}$ is a QOPS, by Lemma 3.3, we have polynomials $\left\{a_{k}(x)\right\}_{r}^{2 r}$ and $\left\{h_{k}(x)\right\}_{r+1}^{2 r}$ satisfying (3.10) and (3.11). Hence, the moment functional $u_{0}$ satisfies

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\Delta\left(a_{k} u_{0}\right)=a_{k-1} u_{0}, & k=r+1, \ldots, 2 r, \\
\Delta\left(h_{k} u_{0}\right)=h_{k-1} u_{0}, & k=r+2, \ldots, 2 r . \tag{3.16}
\end{array}
$$

Now, let $s(\geqslant 0)$ be the class number of the discrete semi-classical moment functional $u_{0}$ and $(\alpha(x), \beta(x)) \neq(0,0)$ a pair of polynomials satisfying

$$
\Delta\left(\alpha u_{0}\right)=\beta u_{0} \quad \text { with } \quad s=\max (\operatorname{deg}(\alpha)-2, \operatorname{deg}(\beta)-1) .
$$

Then we have from Proposition 2.7

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
a_{k}(x)=\tilde{a}_{k}(x) \alpha(x), & k=r+1, \ldots, 2 r, \\
h_{k}(x)=\tilde{h}_{k}(x) \alpha(x), & k=r+2, \ldots, 2 r, \tag{3.18}
\end{array}
$$

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)

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\Delta \tilde{a}_{k} \alpha+\tilde{a}_{k}(x+1) \beta=a_{k-1}, & k=r+1, \ldots, 2 r ; \\
\Delta \tilde{h}_{k} \alpha+\tilde{h}_{k}(x+1) \beta=h_{k-1}, & k=r+2, \ldots, 2 r . \tag{3.20}
\end{array}
$$

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

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

$$
\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{k}\right)=k, \quad k=r, r+1, \ldots, 2 r
$$

since $\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{r}\right)=r$ and $\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{k}\right) \leqslant k, k=r, \ldots, 2 r$. Similarly, counting degrees on both sides of the equation (3.20), we have $\operatorname{deg}\left(h_{k-1}\right)+1 \leqslant \operatorname{deg}\left(h_{k}\right)$, $r+2 \leqslant k \leqslant 2 r$. We now claim that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{deg}\left(h_{k-1}\right)+1=\operatorname{deg}\left(h_{k}\right), \quad k=r+2, \ldots, 2 r . \tag{3.21}
\end{equation*}
$$

If not, let $j$ be the first integer $\geqslant r+2$ such that $\operatorname{deg}\left(h_{j-1}\right)+1<\operatorname{deg}\left(h_{j}\right)$. Then, $\quad \operatorname{deg}\left(h_{k}\right)=k-2, \quad k=r+1, \ldots, j-1$ and $j-2<\operatorname{deg}\left(h_{j}\right) \leqslant j$ since $\operatorname{deg}\left(h_{r+1}\right)=r-1$. Since $r+2 \leqslant j \leqslant 2 r, \operatorname{deg}\left(h_{j}\right)=m=\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{m}\right)$ for some $m=r+1, \ldots, 2 r$. Let $A(\neq 0)$ and $B(\neq 0)$ 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

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left(B \Delta \tilde{a}_{m}-A \Delta \tilde{h}_{j}\right) \alpha+\left(B \tilde{a}_{m}(x+1)-A \tilde{h}_{j}(x+1)\right) \beta \\
& \quad=B a_{m-1}-A h_{j-1} . \tag{3.22}
\end{align*}
$$

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

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{deg}\left(h_{k}\right)=k-2, \quad k=r+1, \ldots, 2 r . \tag{3.23}
\end{equation*}
$$

If we set $g_{k}(x)=h_{k+2}(x), k=r-1, \ldots, 2(r-1)$, then $\left\{g_{k}\right\}_{r-1}^{2(r-1)}$ 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, $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is a discrete classical OPS relative to $u_{0}$.

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

$$
\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{k}\right)=\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{k-1}\right)+\operatorname{deg}(\alpha)-\operatorname{deg}(\beta), \quad k=r+1, \ldots, 2 r
$$

so that

$$
\begin{align*}
\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{k}\right) & =\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{r}\right)+(k-r)(\operatorname{deg}(\alpha)-\operatorname{deg}(\beta)) \\
& =r+(k-r)(\operatorname{deg}(\alpha)-\operatorname{deg}(\beta)), \quad k=r+1, \ldots, 2 r . \tag{3.24}
\end{align*}
$$

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

$$
\operatorname{deg}\left(h_{k}\right)=\operatorname{deg}\left(h_{k-1}\right), \quad k=r+2, \ldots, 2 r
$$

so that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{deg}\left(h_{k}\right)=r-1, \quad k=r+1, \ldots, 2 r . \tag{3.25}
\end{equation*}
$$

If we set $g_{k}(x)=h_{k+2}(x), k=r-1, \ldots, 2(r-1)$, then $\left\{g_{k}(x)\right\}_{r-1}^{2(r-1)}$ 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, $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is a discrete classical OPS relative to $u_{0}$.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work is partially supported by the Center for Applied Math. at KAIST and KOSEF (95-0701-02-01-3). All authors thank the referees for their very careful reading of the manuscript and many valuable comments.

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