

Formulas for recurrence coefficients of orthogonal polynomials related to Lorentzian-like weights.

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Abstract. One considers the recurrence relation of orthogonal polynomials related to weights $|t|^A(1+t^{2r}/c^{2r})^{-B}$ on the whole real line, for various integer exponents $2r$.

1. Introduction.

We consider a set of polynomials p_k of degree k for each $k = 0, 1, \dots$ and all of which are mutually orthogonal over the weight function w :

$$\int_a^b w(x)p_k(x)p_m(x)dx = 0 \quad \text{if } k \neq m. \quad (1)$$

Monic orthogonal polynomials can be generated from the general recurrence relation

$$p_{-1}(x) = 0 \quad (2)$$

$$p_0(x) = 1 \quad (2)$$

$$p_{k+1}(x) = (x - \alpha_k)p_k(x) - \beta_k p_{k-1}(x) \quad k = 0, 1, \dots \quad (3)$$

where α_k and β_k are inductively given by:

$$\alpha_k = \frac{\int_a^b x p_k^2(x) w(x) dx}{\int_a^b p_k^2(x) w(x) dx} \quad k = 0, 1, \dots \quad (4)$$

$$\beta_k = \frac{\int_a^b p_k^2(x) w(x) dx}{\int_a^b p_{k-1}^2(x) w(x) dx} \quad k = 1, 2, \dots \quad (5)$$

A Lorentz weight

$$w(t) = |t|^A(1+t^2/C)^{-B} \quad (6)$$

has simple known recurrence coefficients (see further on) if the weight is considered on the whole real line. Remark also that, if $B = C$ is large, we are close to the Hermite weight $|t|^A e^{-t^2}$.

However, many applications ask for Gaussian integration formulas associated to particular weight functions only on the positive half of the real line. A typical example is the Maxwell distribution $x^2 e^{-x^2}$ needed on $x > 0$. Some authors [15,16,18] work with 'kappa' distributions $x^2(1+x^2/\kappa)^{-\kappa-1}$ which look like the Maxwell's distribution for small x , but decay much slower for large x .

2. Recurrence coefficients.

We proceed with general identities which will be needed here, and which can be found in any general textbook on orthogonal polynomials, such as [5,9,21], also books on formal orthogonal polynomials [4]

We only consider even weight functions on symmetric intervals $(-a, a)$, so that $\alpha_k = 0$. Then, $p_{2k}(\sqrt{x})$ are the orthogonal polynomials related to $w(\sqrt{x})/\sqrt{x}$ on $(0, a^2)$ [5,].

So, the weight functions $x^2 e^{-x^2}$ and $x^2(1+x^2/\kappa)^{-\kappa-1}$ on the positive half-line are related to $|t|^5 e^{-t^4}$ and $|t|^2(1+t^4/\kappa)^{-\kappa-1}$ on $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

We consider here the Lorentz-like weight

$$w(t) = |t|^A(1+t^{2r}/c^{2r})^{-B} \quad (7)$$

on the whole real line $-\infty < t < \infty$.

With these definitions, the first coefficients can be calculated analytically: the moments of (7) are

$$\begin{aligned}
m_{2n} &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |t|^{A+2n} (1 + t^{2r}/c^{2r})^{-B} dt \\
&= \frac{c^{A+2n+1}}{r} \int_0^1 u^{B-1-(A+2n+1)/(2r)} (1-u)^{(A+2n+1)/(2r)-1} du \\
&= \frac{c^{A+2n+1}}{r} \frac{\Gamma\left(B - \frac{A+2n+1}{2r}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{A+2n+1}{2r}\right)}{\Gamma(B)},
\end{aligned}$$

using $u = 1/[1 + t^{2r}/c^{2r}]$. Of course, these moments are finite only while $n < (2rB - A - 1)/2$.

Then,

$$\beta_1 = \frac{m_2}{m_0} = c^2 \frac{\Gamma\left(B - \frac{A+3}{2r}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{A+3}{2r}\right)}{\Gamma\left(B - \frac{A+1}{2r}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{A+1}{2r}\right)}, \beta_2 = \frac{m_4}{m_2} - \frac{m_2}{m_0},$$

etc. Further recurrence coefficients may be computed through the *qd* scheme (rhombus rules, see [10, p. 527], see also Brezinski [4, p. 166] for a relation with the ε -algorithm), as shown in the following small matlab/octave program [17]:

```

% lor2006.m: moments and recurrence coeff for
%
% |t|^A (1+(t/c)^(2r))^-B on -infy, +infy
%
clear;rABc=input(' enter r A B c between [ ] ');
r=rABc(1);A=rABc(2);B=rABc(3);c=rABc(4);
nmx=floor(r*B-(A+1)/2);if nmx>r*B-(A+1)/2, nmx=nmx-1;end;n=0:nmx;
% moments
mom=beta(B-(A+2*n+1)/(2*r),(A+2*n+1)/(2*r));
% qd
e=zeros(1,nmx);
q=c^2*mom(2:nmx+1)./mom(1:nmx);[1,q(1:min(nmx,5))],
for k=2:2:nmx,
    eaux=q(2:nmx-k+2)-q(1:nmx-k+1)+e(2:nmx-k+2);[k,eaux(1:min(nmx-k+1,5))],
    if k<nmx,q=(eaux(2:nmx-k+1)./eaux(1:nmx-k)).*q(2:nmx-k+1);
        [k+1,q(1:min(nmx-k,5))], end;
    e(1:nmx-k+1)=eaux(1:nmx-k+1);
end;

```

The first column of the output is made of the recurrence coefficients β_1, β_2, \dots related to the weight $w(t)$; the second, third, etc. columns are related to the weights $t^2w(t), t^4w(t)$, etc.

Elegant as it may be, this algorithm is unsatisfactory in finite precision.

We will often need expansions of products $t^s p_k(t)$ in the basis $\{p_0, p_1, \dots\}$. We only have to iterate (3) in the form $t p_k(t) = p_{k+1}(t) + \beta_k p_{k-1}(t)$:

$$t \mathbf{p}(t) = \mathbf{M} \mathbf{p}(t) : \quad t \begin{bmatrix} p_0(t) \\ p_1(t) \\ p_2(t) \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & & & \\ \beta_1 & 0 & 1 & & \\ & \beta_2 & 0 & 1 & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} p_0(t) \\ p_1(t) \\ p_2(t) \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} \quad (8)$$

then, $t^s \mathbf{p}(t) = \mathbf{M}^s \mathbf{p}(t)$, so that $M_{i,j}^s$ is the coefficient of $p_j(t)$ in the expansion of $t^s p_i(t)$ (the indexes start at 0).

First instances:

$$\begin{array}{cccccccc}
& p_{i-3}(t) & p_{i-2}(t) & p_{i-1}(t) & p_i(t) & p_{i+1}(t) & p_{i+2}(t) & p_{i+3}(t) \\
tp_i(t) & & & \beta_i & 0 & 1 & & \\
t^2p_i(t) & & \beta_i\beta_{i-1} & 0 & \beta_i + \beta_{i+1} & 0 & 1 & \\
t^3p_i(t) & \beta_i\beta_{i-1}\beta_{i-2} & 0 & \beta_i(\beta_{i-1} + \beta_i + \beta_{i+1}) & 0 & \beta_i + \beta_{i+1} + \beta_{i+2} & 0 & 1
\end{array} \tag{9}$$

For t^4 , $t^4p_i(t) = \beta_i\beta_{i-1}\beta_{i-2}\beta_{i-3}p_{i-4}(t) + \beta_i\beta_{i-1}(\beta_{i-2} + \beta_{i-1} + \beta_i + \beta_{i+1})p_{i-2}(t) + (\beta_i\beta_{i-1} + \beta_i^2 + 2\beta_i\beta_{i+1} + \beta_{i+1}^2 + \beta_{i+1}\beta_{i+2})p_i(t) + (\beta_i + \beta_{i+1} + \beta_{i+2} + \beta_{i+3})p_{i+2}(t) + p_{i+4}(t)$

3. Differential relations.

3.1. Orthogonal polynomials satisfying differential relations and equations.

We now come to a special class of weight functions allowing remarkable relations for the recurrence coefficients:

Lemma. *If the logarithmic derivative w'/w is a rational function, the recurrence coefficients satisfy exactly computable equations*

$$F_k(\alpha_0, \beta_1, \dots, \alpha_{k+d-1}, \beta_{k+d}) = 0, \quad G_k(\alpha_0, \beta_1, \dots, \alpha_{k+d-1}, \beta_{k+d}, \alpha_{k+d}) = 0,$$

for $k = 1, 2, \dots$, where d depends on the degree of the rational function w'/w . Moreover, the orthogonal polynomials satisfy differential relations and equations of the form

$$Pp'_k = Q_k p_k + R_k p_{k-1}, \quad PR_k p''_k + U_k p'_k + V_k p_k = 0,$$

where P, Q_k, R_k, U_k , and V_k are polynomials of fixed degree.

This statement has been discovered and rediscovered in various forms, see [14, 20]. Most authors are interested in the differential formulas for p_k , but the computationnaly interesting items are the F_k and G_k 's.

3.2. The making of the equations.

We give here only a part of the proof for an even weight w on $|u| < a$, then $G_k = 0$. Suppose we have $w'(t)/w(t) = q(t)/p(t)$, where we also manage to have $\lim p(t)w(t) = 0$ when $t \rightarrow \pm a$. Then, by integration by parts,

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_{-a}^a p(t)p_{k-1}(t)p'_k(t)w(t)dt &= - \int_{-a}^a p_k(t)[p(t)p_{k-1}(t)w(t)]'dt \\
&= - \int_{-a}^a p_k(t)p'(t)p_{k-1}(t)w(t)dt \\
&\quad - \int_{-a}^a p_k(t)p(t)p'_{k-1}(t)w(t)dt \\
&\quad - \int_{-a}^a p_k(t)p_{k-1}(t)p(t)w'(t)dt
\end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

The first and the third of these three latter integrals involve the product of p_k and the polynomial of fixed degree $p' + q$ (after replacement of pw' by qw). By the rules of (9), the product is a linear combination of, say, $p_{k+d}, p_{k+d-1}, \dots$ with coefficients $[(p' + q)(\mathbf{M})]_{k,j}, j = k + d, k + d - 1, \dots$ which are simple polynomials in $\beta_{k+d}, \dots, \beta_{k-d}$. Then, by orthogonality of the p_k s with respect to w , the value of the two integrals comes out as the coefficient of p_{k-1} times $\|p_{k-1}\|^2$.

The left-hand side and the second of the three latter integrals are estimated in a similar way, after having written the derivative of a p polynomial in its own basis:

$$p'_k(t) = kp_{k-1}(t) + \delta_k p_{k-3}(t) + \epsilon_k p_{k-5}(t) + \dots, \tag{11}$$

so that the left-hand side of (10) is

$$k[p(\mathbf{M})]_{k-1,k-1}\|p_{k-1}\|^2 + \delta_k[p(\mathbf{M})]_{k-3,k-1}\|p_{k-1}\|^2 + \epsilon_k[p(\mathbf{M})]_{k-5,k-1}\|p_{k-1}\|^2 + \dots$$

and the right-hand side is

$$-(k-1)[p(\mathbf{M})]_{k-2,k}\|p_k\|^2 - \delta_{k-1}[p(\mathbf{M})]_{k-4,k}\|p_k\|^2 - \epsilon_{k-1}[p(\mathbf{M})]_{k-6,k}\|p_k\|^2 + \dots - [(p' + q)(\mathbf{M})]_{k,k-1}\|p_{k-1}\|^2,$$

and the final equation is found after dividing by $\|p_{k-1}\|^2$, reminding that $\|p_k\|^2/\|p_{k-1}\|^2 = \beta_k$,

$$F_k(\beta_1, \dots, \beta_{k+d}) = -[(p' + q)(\mathbf{M})]_{k,k-1} - k[p(\mathbf{M})]_{k-1,k-1} - \delta_k[p(\mathbf{M})]_{k-3,k-1} - \epsilon_k[p(\mathbf{M})]_{k-5,k-1} - \dots \\ - \beta_k\{(k-1)[p(\mathbf{M})]_{k-2,k} + \delta_{k-1}[p(\mathbf{M})]_{k-4,k} + \dots\} = 0, \quad (12)$$

for $k = 1, 2, \dots$. One needs a number of terms of the expansion in δ, ϵ, \dots which depends on the width of the bandmatrix $p(\mathbf{M})$.

The coefficients $\delta_k, \epsilon_k, \dots$ in (11) are polynomials in the β 's too [2]: from $\frac{p_k(t)}{p_{k-1}(t)} = t - \frac{\beta_{k-1}}{t - \frac{\beta_{k-2}}{t - \dots}} = t - \beta_{k-1}t^{-1} -$

$\beta_{k-1}\beta_{k-2}t^{-3} + O(t^{-5})$,

$$\frac{p'_k(t)}{p_k(t)} - \frac{p'_{k-1}(t)}{p_{k-1}(t)} = \frac{d}{dt} \log \left(\frac{p_k(t)}{p_{k-1}(t)} \right) = t^{-1} + 2\beta_{k-1}t^{-3} + [2\beta_{k-1}^2 + 4\beta_{k-1}\beta_{k-2}]t^{-5} + O(t^{-7})$$

whence, by summing,

$$\frac{p'_k(t)}{p_k(t)} = k \frac{p_{k-1}}{p_k} + \delta_k \frac{p_{k-3}}{p_k} + \epsilon_k \frac{p_{k-5}}{p_k} + O(t^{-7}) = kt^{-1} + 2 \sum_1^{k-1} \beta_i t^{-3} + \sum_1^{k-1} [2\beta_i^2 + 4\beta_i\beta_{i-1}]t^{-5} + O(t^{-7}) \quad (13)$$

Comparing the coefficients of t^{-3} and t^{-5} in the expansions:

$$\delta_k = 2 \sum_1^{k-1} \beta_i - k\beta_{k-1} \quad \epsilon_k = 2 \sum_1^{k-1} [\beta_i^2 + 2\beta_i\beta_{i-1}] - k[\beta_{k-1}^2 + \beta_{k-1}\beta_{k-2}] - \delta_k[\beta_{k-1} + \beta_{k-2} + \beta_{k-3}] \quad (14)$$

3.3. Exercise 1: Laguerre and Hermite polynomials.

$$w(t) = |t|^A \exp(-t^2) \text{ on } (-\infty, \infty) : \quad \frac{w'(t)}{w(t)} = \frac{A}{t} - 2t,$$

corresponds to the Laguerre weight $x^{(A-1)/2} \exp(-x)$ on $(0, \infty)$.

The sensible choice seems to be $p(u) = t^2$ (p must be an even polynomial), and $q(u) = At - 2t^3$. As \mathbf{M}^2 is a five-diagonal matrix, the nonzero terms of (12) are

$$-(A+2)[\mathbf{M}]_{k,k-1} + 2[\mathbf{M}^3]_{k,k-1} - k[\mathbf{M}^2]_{k-1,k-1} - \delta_k[\mathbf{M}^2]_{k-3,k-1} - (k-1)\beta_k[\mathbf{M}^2]_{k-2,k} = 0,$$

or

$$-(2A+3)\beta_k + 2\beta_k(\beta_{k-1} + \beta_k + \beta_{k+1}) - k(\beta_{k-1} + \beta_k) - \delta_k - (k-1)\beta_k = -(2A+3)\beta_k + 2\beta_k(\beta_{k-1} + \beta_k + \beta_{k+1}) - (2k-1)\beta_k - 2 \sum_1^{k-1} \beta_i = 0$$

We keep the degree of p as low as possible, so to avoid big bandmatrices in (12): with $p = 1$, q is not a polynomial, but a polynomial divided by t , and (12) has a strange term with \mathbf{M}^{-1} :

$$-A[\mathbf{M}^{-1}]_{k,k-1} + 2[\mathbf{M}]_{k,k-1} - k = 0.$$

But $[f(\mathbf{M})]_{i,j}$ is a shorthand for the integral of $f(u)p_i(u)p_j(u)w(u)$ divided by $\|p_j\|^2$. There is nothing wrong with $u^{-1}p_k(u)p_{k-1}(u)$, as $p_k p_{k-1}$ is an *odd* polynomial! The result is 0 if k is even, and 1 if k is odd. One then gets immediately

$$\beta_k = \frac{k + A[1 - (-1)^k]/2}{2}.$$

3.4. Exercise 2: Maxwellian weight.

$$x^{(A-1)/2} \exp(-x^2) dx = 2w(t) dt = 2|t|^A \exp(-t^4) dt : \quad \frac{w'(t)}{w(t)} = \frac{A}{t} - 4t^3 \quad (15)$$

on the whole real line for t .

$$F_k = -A[\mathbf{M}^{-1}]_{k,k-1} + 4[\mathbf{M}^3]_{k,k-1} - k = 0.$$

the sought relation is

$$F_k = -A[1 - (-1)^k]/2 + 4\beta_k(\beta_{k+1} + \beta_k + \beta_{k-1}) - k = 0, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots \quad (16)$$

established by various authors through history [3, 8, 12, 14, 20, ...]!

This remarkably simple relation seems to allow the computation of any sequence $\{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_N\}$ from the knowledge of the single β_1 ! However, the obvious repetition of $\beta_{i+1} = [i + A(1 - (-1)^i)/2 - \beta_i - \beta_{i-1}]/(4B\beta_i)$ soon turns into a numerical nightmare. Any numerical error in β_1 is strongly amplified in the subsequent β_i 's. This is a consequence of unicity of positive solution [22].

Instead of considering (16) as an initial value problem, we have to consider it as a nonlinear boundary value problem for β_1, \dots , given $\beta_0 = 0$, and knowing that $\beta_i > 0$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots$. A numerically valuable use of (16) consists in correcting a whole positive sequence $\beta_{1,\text{old}}, \dots$, by seeing each instance of (16) as an algebraic equation for β_i :

$$\beta_{i,\text{new}} = -\frac{\beta_{i+1,\text{old}} + \beta_{i-1,\text{old}}}{2} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{\beta_{i+1,\text{old}} + \beta_{i-1,\text{old}}}{2}\right)^2 + \frac{i + (2A + 1)(1 - (-1)^i)/2}{4B}}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots \quad (17)$$

which sends positive sequences on positive sequences, may be shown to be contractive, and has interesting by-products, such as to allow a formal proof of the asymptotic behaviour

$$\beta_i = \sqrt{\frac{i}{12B}} + o(i^{1/2}) \quad (18)$$

when $i \rightarrow \infty$, [8, 14]. One sees then how to build a satisfactory finite sequence β_1, \dots, β_N by putting the boundary value $\beta_{N+1} = \sqrt{(N+1)/(12B)}$ for a large N . Asymptotic behaviour is also used by Kolb [11], and by Clarke & Shizgal [6].

Much more efficient Newton-Raphson iteration: see [12]

4. Lorentzian weight.

4.1. General power r .

Now, from (7), one has

$$\frac{w'(t)}{w(t)} = \frac{A}{t} - \frac{2Br t^{2r-1}}{c^{2r} + t^{2r}} \quad (19)$$

on the whole real line for t .

So,

$$p(t) = c^{2r} + t^{2r}, \quad q(t) = \frac{Ac^{2r}}{t} + (A - 2Br)t^{2r-1}, \quad p'(t) + q(t) = \frac{Ac^{2r}}{t} + (A - 2(B-1)r)t^{2r-1}.$$

There is nothing wrong in considering the Lorentzian weight $w(t) = |t|^A (1 + t^{2r}/c^{2r})^{-B}$, $A > -1, B > 0$, on $(-\infty, \infty)$, as long as the integrals in (??) only involve functions decreasing faster than $|t|^{-1}$ when $|t| \rightarrow \infty$. So, β_k still exists if $\|p_k\| < \infty$, i.e., $2k + A - 2Br < -1$, or

$$k < Br - (A + 1)/2. \quad (20)$$

Equation (12) is now

$$F_k = -Ac^{2r}[1 - (-1)^k]/2 + (2(B-1)r - A)[M^{2r-1}]_{k,k-1} - kc^{2r} - k[M^{2r}]_{k-1,k-1} - \delta_k[M^{2r}]_{k-3,k-1} - \epsilon_k[M^{2r}]_{k-5,k-1} - \dots - \beta_k\{(k-1)[M^{2r}]_{k-2,k} + \delta_{k-1}[M^{2r}]_{k-4,k} + \dots\} = 0, \quad (21)$$

which is practically untractable, unless if $r = 1$ or $r = 2$, this latter one being our example of interest anyhow. The first case is taken as exercise:

4.2. Exercise $r = 1$: Romanovski, Lesky.

$$F_k(\beta_1, \dots, \beta_k) = -Ac^2[1 - (-1)^k]/2 + (2B - 2 - A)[M]_{k,k-1} - kc^2 - k[M^2]_{k-1,k-1} - \delta_k[M^2]_{k-3,k-1} - \beta_k(k-1)[M^2]_{k-2,k} = -Ac^2[1 - (-1)^k]/2 + (2B - A - 1 - 2k)\beta_k - kc^2 - 2 \sum_1^{k-1} \beta_i = 0,$$

which receives the explicit solution

$$\beta_k = c^2 \frac{(k + A[1 - (-1)^k]/2)(2B - k - A[1 - (-1)^k]/2)}{(2B - A - 2k - 1)(2B - A - 2k + 1)}, \beta_1 + \beta_2 + \dots + \beta_k = c^2 \frac{(k + A[1 - (-1)^k]/2)(A + k + [1 - (-1)^k]/2)}{2B - A - 2k - 1}, \quad (22)$$

a special case of pseudo-Jacobi polynomials [13].

4.3. Lorentz case, $r = 2$.

Now,

$$F_k(\beta_1, \dots, \beta_k, \beta_{k+1}) = 2(2\beta - A - 2 - k)\beta_k\beta_{k+1} + \rho_k = 0, \quad (23)$$

where ρ_k is the sum of terms in F_k not involving β_{k+1} :

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_k &= -(A + 1/2)[1 - (-1)^k] + (4\beta - 2A - 2)\beta_k(\beta_{k-1} + \beta_k) \\ &\quad - k[1 + \beta_{k-1}\beta_{k-2} + \beta_{k-1}^2 + 2\beta_{k-1}\beta_k + \beta_k^2] - \delta_k(\beta_{k-3} + \beta_{k-2} + \beta_{k-1} + \beta_k) - \epsilon_k \\ &\quad - (k - 1)\beta_k(\beta_{k-2} + \beta_{k-1} + \beta_k) - \delta_{k-1}\beta_k \\ &= -(A + 1/2)[1 - (-1)^k] + 2(2\beta - A - 2 - k)\beta_k(\beta_{k-1} + \beta_k) \\ &\quad - k - 4\beta_k \sum_{i=0}^{k-2} \beta_i - 2\beta_k\beta_{k-1} - 2 \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} [\beta_i^2 + 2\beta_i\beta_{i-1}], \end{aligned} \quad (24)$$

which we may as well compute, while $k < 2B - A - 2$, directly for β_{k+1} , although in high precision:

$$\beta_{k+1} = -\frac{\rho_k}{4B - A - 2k - 3}\beta_k,$$

as in the following matlab/octave program [17]:

```
%
% lor2005.m Lorentz
% w(x) = x^(A-1/2) (1+x^2/c)^(-B) on (0,infy)
%
% monic pol. : Q_{n+1}(x) = (x-\alpha_n)Q_n(x) - \beta_n Q_{n-1}(x)
%
% intermediate orthog. pol. R_n w.r.t.
% |t|^A (1+t^4/c)^(-B) on (-\infy, \infy)
%
% R_{2n}(t)=Q_n(t^2) let R_{n+1}(t)=tR_n(y)-\gamma_n R_{n-1}(t)
%
% then \alpha_n = \gamma_{2n}+\gamma_{2n+1}
% \beta_n = \gamma_{2n} \gamma_{2n-1}
%
%
clear;ABc=input(' enter A B c between [ ] ');
A=ABc(1);B=ABc(2);c=ABc(3);
nmx=floor(2*B-(A+1)/2);if nmx>=2*B-(A+1)/2, nmx=nmx-1;end;
norm0=c^((A+1)/4)* gamma(B-(A+1)/4)*gamma((A+1)/4) / (2*gamma(B));
norm1=c^((A+3)/4)* gamma(B-(A+3)/4)*gamma((A+3)/4) / (2*gamma(B));
d=norm1/norm0; d1=0;
ioddn=1;
[1,d], % gamma1
sum1=0;sum2=0;
for n=1:nmx-1,
% relation gam(1) ... gam(n+1)
coefn=2*B-(A+3)/2;
coefdp1=2*(coefn-n)*d ;
rho= -A*c*ioddn+2*(coefn-n)*(d+d1)*d -n*c -2*d*sum1-2*sum2;
```

```

if abs(coefdp1)<0.00001 , fprintf(1," ! \n ");coefdp1=d ;end;
dp1=-rho/coefdp1;
norm1=norm1*dp1;
sum1=sum1+d+d1 ; sum2=sum2+d*(d+2*d1);
[n+1,dp1,sum1,sum2],
ioddn=1-ioddn;
d1=d ;d=dp1 ;
end;

```

but numerical instability soon settles in if β is large.

Sensible way is again to compute the β_n 's from the two boundary values $\beta_0 = 0$, and some β_N with N not far from $rB - A$, should such a value be available. . .

This can be done for special values of A and B . Here is a formula when $A = 0$:

4.4. Particular values.

Proposition. When r and B are positive integers, and when $A = 0$,

$$\beta_{rB-1} = c^2 \left[\frac{\sin(\pi/(2r))}{3 \sin(3\pi/(2r))} + \frac{B^2}{3 \sin^2(\pi/(2r))} \right] \quad (25)$$

Indeed, we have to consider orthogonal polynomials with respect to $w(t) = (1 + t^{2r}/c^{2r})^{-B}$ on $(-\infty, \infty)$. The two last ones are

$$p_{rB-1}(t) = \frac{R(t)^B - (-1)^{rB} R(-t)^B}{2iBc/\sin(\pi/(2r))}, p_{rB}(t) = \frac{R(t)^B + (-1)^{rB} R(-t)^B}{2},$$

where $R(t)R(-t) = (-1)^r(t^{2r} + c^{2r})$ is the factorization of $(-1)^r(t^{2r} + c^{2r})$, where R is a monic polynomial of degree r with zeros of negative imaginary part:

$$\begin{aligned} R(t) &= \prod_{k=1}^r [t + ic \exp(i\pi(2k - r - 1)/(2r))] \\ &= t^r + \frac{ict^{r-1}}{\sin(\pi/(2r))} + \frac{c^2 t^{r-2}}{2} \left[\delta_{r,1} - \frac{1}{\sin^2(\pi/(2r))} \right] + ic^3 t^{r-3} \left[\frac{\delta_{r,1}}{2 \sin(\pi/(2r))} + \frac{1}{3 \sin(3\pi/(2r))} - \frac{1}{6 \sin^3(\pi/(2r))} \right] + \dots \\ R(t)^B &= t^{rB} + \frac{icBt^{rB-1}}{\sin(\pi/(2r))} + \frac{c^2 t^{rB-2}}{2} \left[B\delta_{r,1} - \frac{B^2}{\sin^2(\pi/(2r))} \right] + ic^3 t^{rB-3} \left[\frac{B^2 \delta_{r,1}}{2 \sin(\pi/(2r))} + \frac{B}{3 \sin(3\pi/(2r))} - \frac{B^3}{6 \sin^3(\pi/(2r))} \right] + \dots \end{aligned} \quad (26)$$

Remark that the polynomial p_{rB} has a meaning despite its infinite norm, as we only have to check orthogonality with powers of same evenness up to t^{rB-2} . To prove this orthogonality, as $(-1)^r(c^{2r} + t^{2r})^B$ is the product of $R(t)^B$ and $R(-t)^B$, we must check that the integrals of $t^k/R(\pm t)^B$ on $(-\infty, \infty)$ all vanish for $k = 0, 1, \dots, rB - 2$. And that appears by making a contour integral by adding a big semicircle in the upper or the lower half complex plane, so as to avoid the poles (which have imaginary part of the same sign).

We then find $\beta_{rB-1}, \beta_{rB-2}, \dots$ from the continued fraction expansion about ∞

$$\frac{p_{rB}(t)}{p_{rB-1}(t)} = \frac{t^{rB} + \frac{c^2 t^{rB-2}}{2} \left[B\delta_{r,1} - \frac{B^2}{\sin^2(\pi/(2r))} \right] + \dots}{t^{rB-1} + c^2 t^{r-3} \left[\frac{B\delta_{r,1}}{2} + \frac{\sin(\pi/(2r))}{3 \sin(3\pi/(2r))} - \frac{B^2}{6 \sin^2(\pi/(2r))} \right] + \dots} = t - \frac{\beta_{rB-1}}{t - \frac{\beta_{rB-2}}{t - \dots}}$$

whence (25) follows. □

Remark also that $\beta_1 + \dots + \beta_{rB-1} = \frac{c^2}{2} \left[-B\delta_{r,1} + \frac{B^2}{\sin^2(\pi/(2r))} \right]$, opposite to the coefficient of t^{rB-2} in $p_{rB}(t)$.

The other β 's are more complicated. To consider only β_{rB-2} , *oneshouldexpand* $\beta_{rB-1} p_{rB-2}(t) = t p_{rB-1}(t) - p_{rB}(t)$, showing that $p_{rB-2}(t)$ is a constant times a sum or a difference of $(t - \varphi)R(t)^B$ and $(t + \varphi)R(-t)^B$, so as to ensure the vanishing of the t^{rB+1} , t^{rB} , and t^{rB-1} terms. This leads to $\varphi = icB/\sin(\pi/(2r))$.

Actually, simpler formulas for β_n are found in the forbidden region $n > rB - 1$. . . Now, $p_{rB+1}(t)$ is again a constant times a sum or a difference of $(t - \psi)R(t)^B$ and $(t + \psi)R(-t)^B$, but where ψ is such that the result is orthogonal to t^{rB-1} , t^{rB-3} . . .

and lower powers of the same evenness. To this end, one extends the scalar product of $f(t)$ and $R(\pm t)^B$ to a contour integral of $f(t)/R(\mp t)^B$ avoiding the zeros of $R(\mp t)$. The value of the integral reduces then to $2\pi i$ times the residue at ∞ , i.e., the coefficient of t^{-1} in the Laurent expansion about ∞ . With $t^{rB-1}(t \pm \psi)/R(\pm t)^B$, the orthogonality condition is again $\psi = icB/\sin(\pi/(2r))!$ The coefficient of t^{rB-1} in $p_{rB+1}(t)$ is then the coefficient of t^{rB-2} in $p_{rB}(t)$ minus ψ^2 , whence finally $\beta_{rB} = -c^2 B^2 / \sin^2(\pi/(2r))$.

Larger even integer A could also be studied through orthogonal polynomials with respect to $w_A(t) = t^A(1 + t^{2r}/c^{2r})^{-B} = t^A w_0(t)$ on $(-\infty, \infty)$. The orthogonal polynomials p_n with respect to this weight is a kernel polynomial built with orthogonal polynomials relative to the weight $w_{A-2}(t) = w_A(t)/t^2$. The formula relating the two families of orthogonal polynomials is

$$p_n(t)_{t^2 w(t)} = \frac{(p_{n+2}(t))_{w(t)} - c_n (p_n(t))_{w(t)}}{t^2},$$

where c_n is such that the numerator is a multiple of t^2 .

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