## **III.4 Classical Orthogonal Polynomials**

Classical orthogonal polynomials are special families of orthogonal polynomials with a number of beautiful properties, for example

- 1. Their derivatives are also OPs
- 2. They are eigenfunctions of simple differential operators

As stated above orthogonal polynomials are uniquely defined by the weight w(x) and the constant  $k_n$ . The classical orthogonal polynomials are:

- 1. Chebyshev polynomials (1st kind)  $T_n(x)$ :  $w(x) = 1/\sqrt{1-x^2}$  on [-1,1].
- 2. Chebyshev polynomials (2nd kind)  $U_n(x)$ :  $\sqrt{1-x^2}$  on [-1,1].
- 3. Legendre polynomials  $P_n(x)$ : w(x) = 1 on [-1, 1].
- 4. Ultrapsherical polynomials (my fav!):  $C_n^{(\lambda)}(x)$ :  $w(x)=(1-x^2)^{\lambda-1/2}$  on [-1,1],  $\lambda \neq 0$ ,  $\lambda > -1/2$ .
- 5. Jacobi polynomials:  $P_n^{(a,b)}(x)$ :  $w(x) = (1-x)^a (1+x)^b$  on [-1,1], a,b>-1.
- 6. Laguerre polynomials:  $L_n(x)$ :  $w(x) = \exp(-x)$  on  $[0, \infty)$ .
- 7. Hermite polynomials  $H_n(x)$ :  $w(x) = \exp(-x^2)$  on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ .

In the notes we will discuss:

- 1. Chebyshev polynomials: These are closely linked to Fourier series and are one of the most powerful tools in numerics.
- 2. Legendre polynomials: These have no simple closed-form expression but can be defined in terms of a Rodriguez formula, a feature that

applies to all other classical families.

# 1. Chebyshev

**Definition 1 (Chebyshev polynomials, 1st kind)**  $T_n(x)$  are orthogonal with respect to  $1/\sqrt{1-x^2}$  and satisfy:

$$T_0(x) = 1,$$
  
 $T_n(x) = 2^{n-1}x^n + O(x^{n-1})$ 

**Definition 2 (Chebyshev polynomials, 2nd kind)**  $U_n(x)$  are orthogonal with respect to  $\sqrt{1-x^2}$ .

$$U_n(x)=2^nx^n+O(x^{n-1})$$

Theorem 1 (Chebyshev T are cos) For  $-1 \le x \le 1$ 

$$T_n(x) = \cos n \cos x.$$

In other words

$$T_n(\cos\theta) = \cos n\theta.$$

#### **Proof**

We need to show that  $p_n(x) := \cos n a \cos x$  are

- 1. graded polynomials
- 2. orthogonal w.r.t.  $1/\sqrt{1-x^2}$  on [-1,1], and
- 3. have the right normalisation constant  $k_n=2^{n-1}$  for  $n=2,\ldots$

Property (2) follows under a change of variables:

$$\int_{-1}^{1} \frac{p_n(x)p_m(x)}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \mathrm{d}x = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{\cos(n\theta)\cos(m\theta)}{\sqrt{1-\cos^2\theta}} \sin\theta \mathrm{d}\theta = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos(n\theta)\cos(m\theta) \mathrm{d}x = 0$$

if  $n \neq m$ .

To see that they are graded we use the fact that

$$xp_n(x)=\cos heta\cos n heta=rac{\cos(n-1) heta+\cos(n+1) heta}{2}=rac{p_{n-1}(x)+p_{n+1}(x)}{2}$$

In other words  $p_{n+1}(x)=2xp_n(x)-p_{n-1}(x).$  Since each time we multiply by 2x and  $p_0(x)=1$  we have

$$p_n(x) = (2x)^n + O(x^{n-1})$$

which completes the proof.

Buried in the proof is the 3-term recurrence:

### **Corollary 1 (Chebyshev 3-term recurrence)**

$$xT_0(x) = rac{xT_0(x) = T_1(x)}{2}$$

Chebyshev polynomials are particularly powerful as their expansions are cosine series in disguise: for

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_k T_k(x)$$

we have

$$f(\cos heta) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_k \cos k heta.$$

Thus the coefficients can be recovered fast using FFT-based techniques as discussed in the problem sheet.

In the problem sheet we will also show the following:

Theorem 2 (Chebyshev U are sin) For  $x = \cos \theta$ ,

$$U_n(x) = rac{\sin(n+1) heta}{\sin heta}$$

which satisfy:

$$xU_0(x) = U_1(x)/2 \ xU_n(x) = rac{U_{n-1}(x)}{2} + rac{U_{n+1}(x)}{2}.$$

## 2. Legendre

**Definition 3 (Legendre)** Legendre polynomials  $P_n(x)$  are orthogonal polynomials with respect to w(x)=1 on [-1,1], with

$$k_n = rac{1}{2^n} \left( rac{2n}{n} 
ight) = rac{(2n)!}{2^n (n!)^2}$$

The reason for this complicated normalisation constant is both historical and that it leads to simpler formulae for recurrence relationships.

Classical orthogonal polynomials have *Rodriguez formulae*, defining orthogonal polynomials as high order derivatives of simple functions. In this case we have:

### Lemma 1 (Legendre Rodriguez formula)

$$P_n(x) = rac{1}{(-2)^n n!} rac{{
m d}^n}{{
m d} x^n} (1-x^2)^n$$

Proof We need to verify:

- 1. graded polynomials
- 2. orthogonal to all lower degree polynomials on [-1,1], and
- 3. have the right normalisation constant  $k_n=rac{1}{2^n}\left(rac{2n}{n}
  ight)$  .
- (1) follows since its a degree n polynomial (the n-th derivative of a degree 2n polynomial). (2) follows by integration by parts. Note that  $(1-x^2)^n$  and its first n-1 derivatives vanish at  $\pm 1$ . If  $r_m$  is a degree m < n polynomial we have:

$$\int_{-1}^{1}rac{\mathrm{d}^{n}}{\mathrm{d}x^{n}}(1-x^{2})^{n}r_{m}(x)\mathrm{d}x = -\int_{-1}^{1}rac{\mathrm{d}^{n-1}}{\mathrm{d}x^{n-1}}(1-x^{2})^{n}r'_{m}(x)\mathrm{d}x = \cdots = (-)^{n} \ \int_{-1}^{1}(1-x^{2})^{n}r_{m}^{(n)}(x)\mathrm{d}x = 0.$$

(3) follows since:

$$\begin{split} \frac{\mathrm{d}^n}{\mathrm{d}x^n}[(-)^nx^{2n} + O(x^{2n-1})] &= (-)^n2n\frac{\mathrm{d}^{n-1}}{\mathrm{d}x^{n-1}}x^{2n-1} + O(x^{2n-1})] \\ &= (-)^n2n(2n-1)\frac{\mathrm{d}^{n-2}}{\mathrm{d}x^{n-2}}x^{2n-2} + O(x^{2n-2})] = \cdots \\ &= (-)^n2n(2n-1)\cdots(n+1)x^n + O(x^{n-1}) = (-)^n\frac{(2n)!}{n!} \end{split}$$

This allows us to determine the coefficients  $k_n^{(\lambda)}$  which are useful in proofs. In particular we will use  $k_n^{(2)}$ :

### Lemma 2 (Legendre monomial coefficients)

$$egin{align} P_0(x) &= 1 \ P_1(x) &= x \ P_n(x) &= \underbrace{rac{(2n)!}{2^n(n!)^2}}_{k_n} x^n - \underbrace{rac{(2n-2)!}{2^n(n-2)!(n-1)!}}_{k_n^{(2)}} x^{n-2} + O(x^{n-4}) \ \end{array}$$

(Here the  $O(x^{n-4})$  is as  $x\to\infty$ , which implies that the term is a polynomial of degree  $\le n-4$ . For n=2,3 the  $O(x^{n-4})$  term is therefore precisely zero.)

#### **Proof**

The n=0 and 1 case are immediate. For the other case we expand  $(1-x^2)^n$  to get:

$$(-)^nrac{\mathrm{d}^n}{\mathrm{d}x^n}(1-x^2)^n = rac{\mathrm{d}^n}{\mathrm{d}x^n}[x^{2n}-nx^{2n-2}+O(x^{2n-4})] \ = (2n)\cdots(2n-n+1)x^n-n(2n-2)\cdots(2n-2-n+1)x^{n-2} \ = rac{(2n)!}{n!}x^n-rac{n(2n-2)!}{(n-2)!}x^{n-2}+O(x^{n-4})$$

Multiplying through by  $\frac{1}{2^n(n!)}$  completes the derivation.

#### Theorem 3 (Legendre 3-term recurrence)

$$xP_0(x) = P_1(x) \ (2n+1)xP_n(x) = nP_{n-1}(x) + (n+1)P_{n+1}(x)$$

**Proof** The n=0 case is immediate (since w(x)=w(-x)  $a_n=0$ , from PS8). For the other cases we match terms:

$$egin{aligned} (2n+1)xP_n(x) - nP_{n-1}(x) - (n+1)P_{n+1}(x) &= [(2n+1)k_n - (n+1)k_{n+1}]x^{n+1} \ &+ [(2n+1)k_n^{(2)} - nk_{n-1} - (n+1)k_{n+1}^{(2)}]x^{n-1} + O(x^{n-3}) \end{aligned}$$

Using the expressions for  $k_n$  and  $k_n^{(2)}$  above we have (leaving the manipulations as an exercise):

$$(2n+1)k_n - (n+1)k_{n+1} = rac{(2n+1)!}{2^n(n!)^2} - (n+1)rac{(2n+2)!}{2^{n+1}((n+1)!)^2} \ (2n+1)k_n^{(2)} - nk_{n-1} - (n+1)k_{n+1}^{(2)} = -(2n+1)rac{(2n-2)!}{2^n(n-2)!(n-1)!} - nrac{(2n-2)!}{2^{n-1}((n-1)!)} \ + (n+1)rac{(2n)!}{2^{n+1}(n-1)!n!} = 0$$

Thus

$$(2n+1)xP_n(x) - nP_{n-1}(x) - (n+1)P_{n+1}(x) = O(x^{n-3})$$

But as it is orthogonal to  $P_k(x)$  for  $0 \leq k \leq n-3$  it must be zero. lacktriangle