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Generalized q-Legendre polynomials

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Abstract

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This article gives a q-version of the generalized Legendre polynomials recently introduced by the author. The generalization makes use of the little q-Jacobi polynomials. In conclusion some open problems are posed.

Keywords: Orthogonal polynomials: Legendre polynomials

1. Introduction

In an earlier paper [4] we considered the problem of finding all polynomials f_n in the variable n such that the recursion formula

$$(n+1)u_{n+1} - f_n u_n + n u_{n-1} = 0$$
, for $n \ge 0$,

has an integral solution (u) with $u_{-1} = 0$ and $u_0 = 1$. With a slight change of notation the main result obtained was the following.

Theorem 1.1. Let $(x) = (x_0, x_1, ..., x_j, ...)$ be a sequence of complex numbers. Let

$$f_n(x) = (2n+1) \left(1 - 2 \sum_{j=0}^{n} {n \choose j} {n+j \choose j} x_j \right), \tag{1}$$

and consider sequences $(u) = (u_0, u_1, \dots, u_n, \dots)$ satisfying the recursion formula

$$(n+1)u_{n+1} - f_n u_n + n u_{n-1} = 0, \quad \text{for } n \geqslant 1.$$
 (2)

Then (2) has two independent solutions (p) and (q) as follows. The element p_n is represented as

$$p_{n} = \sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^{k} {n \choose k} {n+k \choose k} c_{k}, \tag{3}$$

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where

$$c_{0} = 1,$$

$$c_{k+1} = \sum_{i=0}^{k} (-1)^{k-i} \sum_{j=k-i}^{k} {i+j \choose k} {k \choose i} {k \choose j} x_{j} c_{i}, \quad \text{for } k \ge 0.$$
(4)

The element q_n is represented as

$$q_{n} = \sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^{k} {n \choose k} {n+k \choose k} d_{k}, \tag{5}$$

where

$$d_{0} = 0,$$

$$d_{k+1} = \sum_{i=0}^{k} (-1)^{k-i} \sum_{j=k-i}^{k} {i+j \choose k} {k \choose i} {k \choose j} x_{j} d_{i} + \frac{1}{k+1}, \quad \text{for } k \ge 0.$$
(6)

As a corollary of this theorem, formula (1) will provide a solution to the problem when $(x) = (x_0, x_1, ..., x_N, 0, 0, ...)$ and $x_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ for $0 \le i \le N$.

The purpose of the present paper is to give a q-version of this theorem, and to pose some open problems.

2. Notation and preliminary results

In the sequel, q is a fixed real number in]0, 1[, and f, g, etc. are complex polynomials in one variable.

To fix the notation we recall a number of definitions and results (see in particular [1,3]). For $a \in \mathbb{C}$ the *q-shifted factorial* is defined by

$$(a; q)_n = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n = 0, \\ (1-a)(1-aq)\cdots(1-aq^{n-1}), & \text{if } n \in \mathbb{N}, \\ ((1-aq^{-1})(1-aq^{-2})\cdots(1-aq^n))^{-1}, & \text{if } -n \in \mathbb{N}. \end{cases}$$

We need the elementary formula

$$(a^{-1}; q)_n = \left(-\frac{1}{a}\right)^n q^{\binom{n}{2}} (aq^{1-n}; q)_n, \quad \text{for } a \neq 0, \ n \in \mathbb{N}_0.$$
 (7)

The Gaussian polynomial or q-binomial coefficient is defined by

$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ m \end{bmatrix}_q = \frac{(q^{\alpha - m + 1}; q)_m}{(q; q)_m}, \text{ for } \alpha \in \mathbb{R}, m \in \mathbb{N}_0.$$

The Heine (or basic) series $_{r+1}\phi_r$ is defined by

$$_{r+1}\phi_{r}(a_{0},\ldots,a_{r};\,b_{1},\ldots,b_{r};\,q,\,x)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\frac{(a_{0};\,q)_{n}\cdots(a_{r};\,q)_{n}}{(q;\,q)_{n}(b_{1};\,q)_{n}\cdots(b_{r};\,q)_{n}}x^{n},$$

for a_i , $b_i \in \mathbb{C}$, |x| < 1.

We shall make essential use of the q-Pfaff-Saalschütz identity (see [5])

$$_{3}\phi_{2}(q^{-n}, a, b; c, d; q, q) = \frac{(c/a; q)_{n}(c/b; q)_{n}}{(c; q)_{n}(c/ab; q)_{n}}, \text{ if } cd = abq^{1-n}.$$

The Jackson integral J_q and the q-derivative ϑ_q are defined by

$$(J_q f)(x) = \int_0^x f(t) d_q t = x(1-q) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f(xq^n) q^n,$$

$$(\vartheta_q f)(x) = \frac{f(x) - f(qx)}{x(1-q)}.$$

Both J_q and ϑ_q are linear operators on $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ satisfying the following rules:

$$\vartheta_a(J_a(f)) = f, \tag{8}$$

$$J_q(\vartheta_q(f)) = f - f(0), \tag{9}$$

$$\vartheta_q(fg)(x) = f(qx)\vartheta_q(g)(x) + \vartheta_q(f)(x)g(x), \tag{10}$$

$$\vartheta_q^n(fg)(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n {n \brack k}_q \vartheta_q^k(f)(xq^{n-k}) \vartheta_q^{n-k}(g)(x), \quad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{N},$$
 (11)

$$\vartheta_q(x^n) = \begin{bmatrix} n \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}_q x^{n-1}, \quad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{N}, \tag{12}$$

$$\vartheta_q((x; q^{-1})_n) = - {n \brack 1}_q q^{1-n} (x; q^{-1})_{n-1}, \text{ for } n \in \mathbb{N},$$
(13)

$$\mu_n = \int_0^1 x^n \, d_q x = \frac{1 - q}{1 - q^{n+1}}, \quad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{N}_0.$$
 (14)

The little q-Jacobi polynomials introduced by Hahn [3] (see [2]) are given by

$$P_n(x; \alpha, \beta | q) = {}_2\phi_1(q^{-n}, \alpha\beta q^{n+1}; \alpha q; q, qx), \text{ for } \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}.$$

We shall need only the special case $P_n(x \mid q) = P_n(x; 1, 1 \mid q)$ which consequently will be called the *little q-Legendre polynomials*. By means of the *q*-binomial coefficients this can be written as

$$P_n(x \mid q) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^k q^{\binom{k+1}{2} - kn} {n \brack k}_q {n+k \brack k}_q x^k.$$

Some fundamental properties of the little q-Legendre polynomials are the following.

(i) The sequence $u_n = P_n(x \mid q)$ satisfies a three-term recurrence relation

$$q^{n}(1-q^{n+1})(1+q^{n})u_{n+1} - (1-q^{2n+1})(2q^{n} - (1+q^{n})(1+q^{n+1})x)u_{n} + q^{n}(1-q^{n})(1+q^{n+1})u_{n-1} = 0, \text{ for } n \ge 0,$$

with initial conditions $u_{-1} = 0$, $u_0 = 1$.

(ii) They are given by a q-Rodrigues formula

$$P_n(x \mid q) = \frac{(1-q)^n}{(q; q)_n} \vartheta_q^n (x^n(x; q^{-1})_n), \text{ for } n \ge 0.$$

(iii) They satisfy the following orthogonality relations:

$$\int_0^1 P_m(x \mid q) P_n(x \mid q) \, d_q x = \delta_{mn} q^n \frac{1 - q}{1 - q^{2n+1}}, \quad \text{for } m, \, n \geqslant 0.$$

Lemma 2.1. The following identity is valid for $n, i, j \in \mathbb{N}_0$:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} {n \brack k}_q {n+k \brack k}_q {i+j \brack k}_q {k \brack j}_q {k \brack j}_q q^{(n-k)(i+j-k)} = {n+i \brack i}_q {n+j \brack j}_q {n \brack i}_q {n \brack j}_q.$$

Proof. When we apply the q-Pfaff-Saalschütz identity for

$$a=q^{n+1}, \qquad b=q^{-i-j+2\epsilon}, \qquad c=q^{1-i+\epsilon}, \qquad d=q^{1-j+\epsilon},$$

where $0 < \epsilon < \frac{1}{2}$, we get

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{(q^{-n}; q)_k (q^{n+1}; q)_k (q^{-i-j+2\epsilon}; q)_k}{(q; q)_k (q^{1-i+\epsilon}; q)_k (q^{1-j+\epsilon}; q)_k} q^k = \frac{(q^{-i-n+\epsilon}; q)_n (q^{j+1-\epsilon}; q)_n}{(q^{1-i+\epsilon}; q)_n (q^{j-n-\epsilon}; q)_n}.$$

By applying (7) twice on each side and rearranging, we get

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{{n \brack k}_{q} {n+k \brack k}_{q} {i+j-2\epsilon \brack k}_{q} (q;q)_{k}^{2}}{(q^{1+\epsilon};q)_{k-i} (q;q)_{i} (q^{1+\epsilon};q)_{k-j} (q;q)_{j}} q^{(n-k)(i+j-k-2\epsilon)}$$

$$= \frac{{n+i-\epsilon \brack n}_{q} {n+j-\epsilon \brack n}_{q} (q;q)_{n}^{2}}{(q^{1+\epsilon};q)_{n-j} (q;q)_{i} (q^{1+\epsilon};q)_{n-j} (q;q)_{j}}.$$

From this the result is obtained by letting $\epsilon \to 0$. \square

Lemma 2.2. For $n \ge 1$ the following identity is valid:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^{k} q^{\binom{n-k}{2}} {n \brack k}_{q} {n+k \brack k}_{q} \frac{1-q}{1-q^{k+1}} = 0.$$

Proof. For the q-Legendre polynomial $P_n(x \mid q)$ we get, by (14),

$$\int_0^1 P_n(x \mid q) \, d_q x = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k q^{\binom{k+1}{2} - kn} {n \brack k}_q {n+k \brack k}_q \frac{1-q}{1-q^{k+1}}.$$

On the other hand, it follows by the q-Rodrigues formula and (9) that

$$\int_0^1 P_n(x \mid q) \, d_q x = \frac{(1-q)^n}{(q;q)_n} (f(1) - f(0)),$$

where

$$f(x) = \vartheta_q^{n-1} (x^n (x; q^{-1})_n).$$

However, it follows by (11)–(13) that f(0) = f(1) = 0, and multiplication by $q^{\binom{n}{2}}$ then ends the proof. \square

3. Solutions of the recursion relation

Theorem 3.1. Let $(x) = (x_0, x_1, ..., x_i, ...)$ be a sequence of complex numbers. Let

$$f_n(x \mid q) = (1 - q^{2n+1}) \left(2q^n - (1 + q^n)(1 + q^{n+1}) \sum_{j=0}^n q^{-jn} \begin{bmatrix} n \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} n+j \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q x_j \right), \tag{15}$$

and consider sequences $(u) = (u_0, u_1, \dots, u_n, \dots)$ satisfying the recursion formula

$$(1-q^{n+1})(1+q^n)u_{n+1}-f_n(x\mid q)u_n+q^{2n-1}(1-q^n)(1+q^{n+1})u_{n-1}=0, \quad for \ n\geqslant 0.$$
(16)

Then (16) has two independent solutions (p) and (q) as follows. The element p_n is represented as

$$p_n = \sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^k q^{\binom{n-k}{2}} {n \brack k}_q {n+k \brack k}_q c_k, \tag{17}$$

where

$$c_{0} = 1,$$

$$c_{k+1} = \sum_{i=0}^{k} (-1)^{k-i} q^{\binom{k-i}{2}} \sum_{j=k-i}^{k} q^{-jk} \begin{bmatrix} i+j \\ k \end{bmatrix}_{q} \begin{bmatrix} k \\ i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} k \\ j \end{bmatrix}_{q} x_{j} c_{i}, \quad \text{for } k \ge 0.$$
(18)

The element q_n is represented as

$$q_n = \sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^k q^{\binom{n-k}{2}} {n \brack k}_q {n+k \brack k}_q d_k, \tag{19}$$

where

$$d_{0} = 0,$$

$$d_{k+1} = \sum_{i=0}^{k} (-1)^{k-i} q^{\binom{k-i}{2}} \sum_{j=k-i}^{k} q^{-jk} \begin{bmatrix} i+j \\ k \end{bmatrix}_{q} \begin{bmatrix} k \\ i \end{bmatrix}_{q} \begin{bmatrix} k \\ j \end{bmatrix}_{q} x_{j} d_{i} + \frac{1-q}{1-q^{k+1}}, \quad for \ k \geqslant 0.$$
(20)

Corollary 3.2. If $x_j \in \mathbb{Z}$ for $j \in \mathbb{N}_0$, then $q^{(n-1)n(2n-1)/6}p_n$, $q^{(n-1)n(2n-1)/6}[1-q, 1-q^2, \ldots, 1-q^n]q_n \in \mathbb{Z}[q]$ for all n, the symbol $[\cdot]$ denoting the least common multiple in $\mathbb{Z}[q]$.

Remark 3.3. It follows immediately that by letting $q \to 1$ (after dividing by 1 - q in (15) and (16)) the previous theorem is obtained.

Proof of Theorem 3.1. Let us denote the left-hand side of (16) by r_n . We shall first show that $r_n = 0$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ when (u) = (p). In r_n we substitute for p_n and f_n the expressions in (17) and

(15). This gives

$$r_{n} = (1 - q^{n+1})(1 + q^{n}) \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} (-1)^{k} q^{\binom{n+\frac{1}{2}-k}{2}} {n+1 \brack k}_{q} {n+k+1 \brack k}_{q} c_{k}$$

$$-(1 - q^{2n+1}) \left(2q^{n} - (1 + q^{n})(1 + q^{n+1}) \sum_{j=0}^{n} q^{-jn} {n \brack j}_{q} {n+j \brack j}_{q} x_{j} \right)$$

$$\times \sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^{k} q^{\binom{n-k}{2}} {n \brack k}_{q} {n+k \brack k}_{q} c_{k}$$

$$+ q^{2n-1} (1 - q^{n})(1 + q^{n+1}) \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (-1)^{k} q^{\binom{n-k-1}{2}} {n-1 \brack k}_{q} {n+k-1 \brack k}_{q} c_{k}.$$

If we collect all terms with c_k and without any explicit x_j and perform some reductions and a shift of index, we obtain

$$r_n = (1 - q^{2n+1})(1 + q^n)(1 + q^{n+1})s_n,$$

where

$$\begin{split} s_n &= -\sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k q^{\binom{n_2-k}{2}} {n \brack k}_q {n+k \brack k}_q c_{k+1} \\ &+ \sum_{j=0}^n q^{-jn} {n \brack j}_q {n+j \brack j}_q x_j \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k q^{\binom{n_2-k}{2}} {n \brack k}_q {n+k \brack k}_q c_k. \end{split}$$

In the first sum we now substitute for c_{k+1} , $0 \le k \le n$, the expression (18). Rearranging the triple sum, we obtain

$$s_{n} = -\sum_{i=0}^{n} \sum_{j=0}^{n} (-1)^{i} c_{i} x_{j} \sum_{k=0}^{n} q^{\binom{n-k}{2} + \binom{k-i}{2} - jk} {n \brack k}_{q} {n+k \brack k}_{q} {i+j \brack k}_{q} {k \brack i}_{q} {k \brack j}_{q}$$

$$+ \sum_{j=0}^{n} q^{-jn} {n \brack j}_{q} {n+j \brack j}_{q} \sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^{k} q^{\binom{n-k}{2}} {n \brack k}_{q} {n+k \brack k}_{q} x_{j} c_{k}.$$

By Lemma 2.1 we finally get

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} q^{\binom{n-k}{2} + \binom{k-1}{2} - jk} {n \brack k}_q {n+k \brack k}_q {i+j \brack k}_q {k \brack i}_q {k \brack j}_q$$

$$= q^{\binom{n-1}{2} - jn} {n+j \brack j}_q {n \brack j}_q {n+i \brack i}_q {n \brack i}_q,$$

so that $s_n = 0$. This proves the first part of the theorem. Proceeding in the same way with (u) = (q), we obtain an additional term in s_n , namely

$$-\sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^{k} q^{\binom{n-k}{2}} {n \brack k}_{q} {n+k \brack k}_{q} \frac{1-q}{1-q^{k+1}} = 0,$$

by Lemma 2.2. This proves the second part of the theorem.

4. Open problems

The first two problems concern the generalized Legendre polynomials, cf. [4].

- (1) Prove that the polynomials f_n in (1) provide all polynomials such that the corresponding sequence (u_n) is integral.
- (2) For $x = (x_0, x_1, ..., x_N, 0, 0, ...)$ find as in the case N = 0 explicit expressions for α in terms of $x_0, x_1, ..., x_N$. This would be very interesting in view of [4, Theorem 3].
 - (3) For r = 2, 3, ... the sequence $a_n = a_n(r)$ given by

$$a_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k}^r \binom{n+k}{k}^r$$

can be written uniquely as

$$a_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \binom{n+k}{k} c_k,$$

where $c_k = c_k(r) \in \mathbb{Q}$ is independent on n. Note that the formula for a_0 determines c_0 , the formula for a_1 then determines c_1 , etc. Show that the sequence (c_k) is integral for all r. For r = 2, (a_n) is the famous Apéry-sequence for $\zeta(3)$.

Added June 1992. Problem (3) (r = 2) was solved independently by Strehl (University of Erlangen-Nürnberg) and myself with

$$c_k(2) = \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{k}{j}^3,$$

shortly after that this formula had been observed numerically by Deuber, Thumser and Voigt (University of Bielefeld). Later Strehl solved the problem for r = 3 with

$$c_k(3) = \sum_{j=0}^k {2j \choose j}^2 {k \choose j}^2 {2j \choose k-j}.$$

The problem remains unsolved for $r \ge 4$.

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