## A CERTAIN CLASS OF POLYNOMIALS.\*

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1. The remarkable properties which a sequence of polynomials

$$Y_0(x), Y_1(x), Y_2(x), \dots$$

of degrees  $0, 1, 2, \cdots$  in x possesses when the two functional equations

$$\frac{d Y_n(x)}{d x} = Y_{n-1}(x), \qquad Y_n(-x-1) = (-1)^n Y_n(x)$$

are satisfied have been systematically developed by N. Nielsen.† It is of some interest to consider sequences of polynomials satisfying the more general equations

(1) 
$$\frac{d Y_n(x)}{d x} = Y_{n-1}(x),$$
(2) 
$$Y_n(ax+b) = \tau_n Y_n(x),$$
  $(n = 0, 1, 2, \dots)$ 

where a, b are any complex numbers. Such a sequence we call a regular

sequence. The main properties of regular sequences are as follows:

2. If a is not a root of unity, there is only one regular sequence; namely

$$Y_n(x) = \frac{c}{n!} \left( x + \frac{b}{a-1} \right)^n, \quad \tau_n = a^n \quad (n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots).$$

If however, a is a root of unity, say a primitive  $\pi$ th root, there exist an infinite number of regular sequences. Let

$$(k_0 + k_1 t + k_2 t^2 + \cdots) e^{xt} = K_0(x) + K_1(x) t + K_2(x) t^2 + \cdots$$

<sup>\*</sup> Received February 4, 1929.

<sup>†</sup> Traité Élémentaire des Nombres de Bernoulli, Paris 1923.

be the generating function of any such sequence. Then if  $r\pi \leq n < (r+1)\pi$ ,  $k_n$  may be expressed as a linear function of  $k_0, k_\pi, k_{2\pi}, \dots, k_{r\pi}$ 

$$k_n = \sum_{s=0}^{r} k_{s\pi} H'_{n-s\pi},$$

where  $H'_0$ ,  $H'_1$ ,  $H'_2$ ,  $\cdots$  depend only on a and b and are independent of the particular regular sequence  $[K_n(x)]$  we have selected. Moreover, if a is a given  $\pi$ th root of unity, all possible solutions (1) and (2) are obtained by giving  $k_0$ ,  $k_{\pi}$ ,  $k_{2\pi}$ ,  $\cdots$  the proper values.

3. We now proceed to the proof of these results. A sequence of polynomials

$$H_0(x), H_1(x), H_2(x), \cdots$$

of degrees  $0, 1, 2, \cdots$  in x which satisfies (1) is said to be harmonic.\* The following properties of harmonic sequences are easily proved.\*

(i) If  $[H_n(x)]$  is a harmonic sequence, there exists a sequence of constants

$$[h_n]: h_0, h_1, h_2, \dots, h_n, \dots,$$

such that for all values of n,

$$H_n(x) = \frac{h_0 x^n}{n!} + \frac{h_1 x^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} + \frac{h_2 x^{n-2}}{(n-2)!} + \cdots + h_n, \quad H_n(0) = h_n.$$

We denote such a sequence by  $[H_n(x), h_n]$ .

(ii) Ift

$$H(x, t) = H_0(x) + H_1(x) t + H_2(x) t^2 + \cdots,$$
  
$$h(t) = h_0 + h_1 t + h_2 t^2 + \cdots$$

are the generating functions of the sequences  $[H_n(x)]$ ,  $[h_n]$ 

$$H(x, t) = e^{xt} h(t).$$

(iii) If b is any constant,

$$H_n(x+b) = H_n(b) + \frac{xH_{n-1}(b)}{1!} + \frac{x^3H_{n-2}(b)}{2!} + \cdots + \frac{x^nH_0(b)}{n!}.$$

(iv) Let  $[K_n(x), k_n]$  be a second harmonic sequence. Then there exists a unique ordinary sequence  $[\alpha_n]$  such that for all values of n

$$K_n(x) = \alpha_0 H_n(x) + \alpha_1 H_{n-1}(x) + \cdots + \alpha_n H_0(x).$$

<sup>\*</sup> Nielsen, l. c., chap. III, section XI.

<sup>†</sup>This property of harmonic sequences is substantially due to Appell: Annales de l'École Normale, (2) 10 (1880), 119-120.

4. We pass now to regular sequences. If in (2), a = 0 or 1, the sequences are trivial, so that we shall exclude these cases in all that follows. It is clear that for any sequence  $[L_n(x)]$  satisfying (2)

(3) 
$$\tau_n = a^n, \ L_n(b) = a^n L_n(0) \quad (n = 0, 1, 2, \cdots).$$

Now suppose  $[H_n(x)]$  is a harmonic sequence for which

$$H_n(b) = a^n H_n(0)$$
  $(n = 0, 1, 2, \cdots).$ 

Then by (iii) and our hypothesis

$$H_n(ax+b) = \sum_{s=0}^n H_{n-s}(b) \ a^s \frac{x^s}{s!} = \sum_{s=0}^n a^{n-s} H_{n-s}(0) \ a^s \frac{x^s}{s!},$$

$$H_n(ax+b) = a^n H_n(x)$$

by (i). Hence we have proved

THEOREM 1. The necessary and sufficient condition that a harmonic sequence  $[H_n(x), h_n]$  be regular is that

(4) 
$$H_n(b) = a^n H_n(0) \qquad (n = 0, 1, 2, \cdots).$$

5. If we expand the left side of (4) by (i), we obtain

(5) 
$$\sum_{r=0}^{n} \frac{h_{n-r}b^{r}}{r!} = a^{n} h_{n} \qquad (n = 0, 1, 2, \cdots),$$
so that
$$h_{0} = h_{0},$$

$$\frac{b h_{0}}{1!} + h_{1} = a h_{1},$$

$$\frac{b^{2} h_{0}}{2!} + \frac{b h_{1}}{1!} + h_{2} = a^{2} h_{2},$$

$$\frac{b^{3} h_{0}}{3!} + \frac{b^{2} h_{1}}{2!} + \frac{b h_{2}}{1!} + h_{8} = a^{3} h_{3},$$

$$\vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad \vdots$$

$$\frac{b^{r} h_{0}}{r!} + \frac{b^{r-1} h_{1}}{(r-1)!} + \frac{b^{r-2} h_{2}}{(r-2)!} + \frac{b^{r-3} h_{3}}{(r-3)!} + \cdots + \frac{b h_{r}}{1!} + h_{r} = a^{r} h_{r},$$

If we assume  $a^k \neq 1$   $(1 \leq k \leq r)$  we can solve the first r+1 of these equations for  $h_r$  in terms of  $h_0$ , a, b by determinants. We thus obtain after a few simplifications

(6) 
$$h_r = \frac{h_0 b^r \Delta_r(a)}{(a-1)(a^2-1)\cdots(a^r-1)},$$

where  $\Delta_r(a)$  is given by

$$\frac{1}{1!} \quad 1-a \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad \cdots \quad 0 \quad 0$$

$$\frac{1}{2!} \quad \frac{1}{1!} \quad 1-a^2 \quad 0 \quad \cdots \quad 0 \quad 0$$

$$\frac{1}{3!} \quad \frac{1}{2!} \quad \frac{1}{1!} \quad 1-a^3 \quad \cdots \quad 0 \quad 0$$

$$\cdots \quad \cdots \quad \cdots \quad \cdots \quad \cdots \quad \cdots \quad \cdots \quad \cdots$$

$$\cdots \quad \cdots \quad \cdots \quad \cdots \quad \cdots \quad \cdots \quad \cdots$$

$$\cdots \quad \cdots \quad \cdots \quad \cdots \quad \cdots \quad \cdots \quad \cdots$$

$$\frac{1}{r!} \quad \frac{1}{(r-1)!} \quad \frac{1}{(r-2)!} \quad \frac{1}{(r-3)!} \quad \cdots \quad \frac{1}{2!} \quad \frac{1}{1!}$$

Moreover this value of  $h_r$  is unique. We find by solving for  $h_0$ ,  $h_1$  and  $h_2$ , provided  $a^2 \neq 1$ 

$$h_0 = \frac{h_0 \lambda^0}{0!}, \quad h_1 = \frac{h_0 \lambda^1}{1!}, \quad h_2 = \frac{h_0 \lambda^2}{2!}$$

where

$$\lambda = \frac{b}{a-1}.$$

Hence let us assume

(8) 
$$h_r = \frac{h_0 \lambda^r}{r!}, \quad \alpha^{r+1} \neq 1 \qquad (0 \leq r \leq k).$$

From (5) and our hypothesis

$$(a^{k+1}-1)h_{k+1}=\sum_{r=0}^k\frac{h_r\,b^{k+1-r}}{(k+1-r)!}=h_0\,b^{k+1}\sum_{r=0}^k\frac{1}{r!\,(k+1-r)!\,(a-1)^r}.$$

Then

$$(k+1)! (a-1)^{k+1} (a^{k+1}-1) h_{k+1} = h_0 b^{k+1} \sum_{r=0}^{k} {k+1 \choose r} (a-1)^{k+1-r}$$
  
=  $h_0 b^{k+1} (a^{k+1}-1),$ 

so that by (7) and (8)

$$h_{k+1} = \frac{h_0 \lambda^{k+1}}{(k+1)!}.$$

Thus by induction (6) holds for all values of r, provided a is not a root of unity. On comparing (6) and (8) we deduce

THEOREM 2. The determinant  $\Delta_r(a)$  has the value

$$\Delta_r(a) = (1+a)(1+a+a^2)\cdots(1+a+a^2+\cdots+a^r)/r!$$

Moreover  $\Delta_r(1) = 1$ ,  $\Delta_r(0) = 1/r$ , and  $\Delta_r(a)$  vanishes if a is any primitive  $\pi$ th root of unity  $(2 \le \pi \le r)$ .

6. From (8) and (i) it follows that

(9) 
$$H_n(x) = \sum_{r=0}^n \frac{h_0}{r! (n-r)!} \lambda^{n-r} x^r = \frac{h_0}{n!} (x+\lambda)^n.$$

If (9) holds,

$$\frac{dH_n(x)}{dx} = H_{n-1}(x), \quad H_n(ax+b) = \frac{h_0}{n!} \left( ax+b + \frac{b}{a-1} \right)^n = a^n H_n(x),$$

so that (9) is a regular sequence whether or not a is a root of unity. On collecting these results, we have

THEOREM 3. A sequence  $[H_n(x)]$  satisfying the two functional equations

(1) 
$$\frac{d Y_n(x)}{dx} = Y_{n-1}(x),$$
(2) 
$$Y_n(ax+b) = a^n Y_n(x),$$
(a \div 0, 1),

is always given by

$$h_n = \frac{h_0 \lambda^n}{n!},$$

(9) 
$$H_n(x) = \frac{h_0(x+\lambda)^n}{n!},$$

where ho is an arbitrary constant, and

$$\lambda = \frac{b}{a-1}.$$

Moreover if a is not a root of unity, this solution of (1) and (2) is unique. 7. The first result stated in section 2 is now proved. The regular sequences for which a is a root of unity are of much greater interest. It will be convenient in studying them to define  $H_n(x)$  to mean the polynomial  $\frac{(x+\lambda)^n}{n!}$  which gives the simplest regular sequence and to define a cyclic sequence of order  $\pi$  to mean any solution of (1) and (2) for which a is a primitive  $\pi$ th root of unity. Then

$$a^r = 1$$

when and only when  $r \equiv 0 \mod \pi$ .

THEOREM 4. If  $[K_n(x), k_n]$  is a cyclic sequence of order  $\pi$  then  $K_n(x)$  may be uniquely represented in the form

(11) 
$$K_n(x) = \alpha_0 H_n(x) + \alpha_n H_{n\pi}(x) + \cdots + \alpha_{r\pi} H_{n-r\pi}(x)$$

where  $\alpha_0, \alpha_{\pi}, \dots, \alpha_{r\pi}$  are constants, and  $r\pi \leq n < (r+1)\pi$ . Moreover every sequence of the form (11) is a cyclic sequence of order  $\pi$ .

For since  $[K_n(x)]$  and  $[H_n(x)]$  are both harmonic sequences, there exists by (iv) a unique ordinary sequence  $[\alpha_n]$  such that

$$K_n(x) = \alpha_0 H_n(x) + \alpha_1 H_{n-1}(x) + \cdots + \alpha_n H_0(x).$$

Hence the first part of the theorem will be proved if we can show  $a_r = 0$ ,  $r \not\equiv 0 \mod \pi$ . Now

$$K_n(ax+b) = \sum_{r=0}^n H_{n-r}(ax+b) = \sum_{r=0}^n \alpha_r a^{n-r} H_{n-r}(x),$$

$$K_n(ax+b) = a^n K_n(x) = \sum_{r=0}^n \alpha_r a^n H_{n-r}(x).$$

Write  $x + \lambda = y$  so that  $H_{n-r}(x) = \frac{y^{n-r}}{(n-r)!}$ . Then we have identically in y

$$\sum_{r=0}^{n} \frac{\alpha_r \, a^{n-r}}{(n-r)!} \, y^{n-r} = \sum_{r=0}^{n} \frac{\alpha_r \, a^n \, y^{n-r}}{(n-r)!}$$

so that by equating coefficients of corresponding powers of y,

$$\alpha_r(a^r-1)=0$$
  $(r=0,1,2,\dots,n).$ 

(11) now follows from (10). The last part of the theorem is obvious from (9) and (10).

If we write in (11) first  $x = -\lambda$  and then x = 0 we obtain Theorem 5. For any cyclic sequence  $[K_n(x)]$  of order  $\pi$ ,

$$K_n(-\lambda) = 0, \qquad n \not\equiv 0 \mod \pi,$$
  
=  $\alpha_n, \qquad n \equiv 0 \mod \pi,$ 

(12) 
$$a^{-n}K_n(b) = K_n(0) = k_n = \frac{\alpha_0 \lambda^n}{n!} + \frac{\alpha_n \lambda^{n-n}}{(n-n)!} + \cdots + \frac{\alpha_{rn} \lambda^{n-rn}}{(n-rn)!}$$

where  $r\pi \leq n < (r+1)\pi$  and  $n = 0, 1, 2, \cdots$ 

We have from (12)

$$k_{0} = \alpha_{0},$$

$$k_{\pi} = \frac{\alpha_{0} \lambda^{n}}{\pi!} + \alpha_{\pi},$$

$$k_{2\pi} = \frac{\alpha_{0} \lambda^{2\pi}}{(2\pi)!} + \frac{\alpha_{\pi} \lambda^{n}}{\pi!} + \alpha_{2\pi},$$

$$k_{8\pi} = \frac{\alpha_{0} \lambda^{8\pi}}{(3\pi)!} + \frac{\alpha_{\pi}}{(2\pi)!} \lambda^{2\pi} + \frac{\alpha_{2\pi}}{\pi!} \lambda^{\pi} + \alpha_{8\pi},$$

Hence  $\alpha_0$ ,  $\alpha_n$ ,  $\alpha_{2n}$  · · · are uniquely determined in terms of  $k_0$ ,  $k_n$ ,  $k_{2n}$ , · · · · Since (12) gives  $k_n$  for all values of n in terms of  $\alpha_0$ ,  $\alpha_n$ ,  $\alpha_{2n}$ , · · · we have proved

THEOREM 6. If  $[K_n(x), k_n]$  is any cyclic sequence of order  $\pi$  and if the values of  $k_0, k_{\pi}, k_{2\pi}, \cdots$  are given, then all the other  $k_n$  are uniquely determined.

8. We shall now give the explicit expression for  $k_n$  as a function of  $k_0$ ,  $k_{\pi}$ ,  $k_{2\pi}$ ,  $\cdots$  proving the last result in section 2. It is convenient to borrow a definition from the calculus of generating functions.

Given any sequence of constants

$$[c_n]:$$
  $c_0, c_1, c_2, \cdots$   $(c_0 \neq 0),$ 

the sequence

$$[c'_n]$$
:  $c'_0, c'_1, c'_2, \cdots$ 

determined by the equations:

$$c'_0 c_0 = 1$$

$$c_0 c'_n + c_1 c'_{n-1} + c_2 c'_{n-2} + \cdots + c_n c'_0 = 0 \quad (n = 1, 2, 3, \cdots)$$

is called the *inverse* of the sequence  $[c_n]$ . It is clear that the generating functions c(t), c'(t) of the two sequences are reciprocals of each other. Assume that  $k_0 \neq 0$ , and consider the expression

$$A(z^{n}) = \frac{k_{0} + k_{\pi}z^{n} + k_{2\pi}z^{2n} + \cdots}{1 + \frac{\lambda^{n}}{\pi!}z^{n} + \frac{\lambda^{2n}}{(2\pi)!}z^{2n} + \cdots} = u_{0} + u_{\pi}z^{n} + u_{2\pi}z^{2n} + \cdots$$

On clearing of fractions, we have the following set of equations to determine  $u_0, u_{\pi}, u_{2\pi}, \cdots$ ,

$$k_0 = u_0,$$
 $k_{\pi} = \frac{u_0 \lambda^{\pi}}{\pi!} + u_{\pi},$ 
 $k_{2\pi} = \frac{u_0 \lambda^{2\pi}}{(2\pi)!} + \frac{u_{\pi} \lambda^{\pi}}{\pi!} + u_{2\pi},$ 

Since these equations become identical with the equations (12) on replacing u by  $\alpha$  we have proved

THEOREM 7. The generating function of the sequence  $\alpha_0, \alpha_{\pi}, \alpha_{2\pi}, \cdots$  in Theorem 5 is given by

$$A(z^n) = \frac{K(z^n)}{H(z^n)}$$

where

$$K(z^{\pi}) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} k_{n\pi} z^{n\pi},$$
 
$$H(z^{\pi}) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(n\pi)!} \lambda^{n\pi} z^{n\pi} = \frac{1}{\pi} \left\{ e^{a\lambda z} + e^{a^2\lambda z} + \cdots + e^{a^{\pi}\lambda z} \right\}.$$

The reciprocal of  $H(z^{\pi})$  generates the sequence inverse to  $\left[\frac{\lambda^{n\pi}}{(n\pi)!}\right]$  since by (8)

$$h_{n\pi}=\frac{\lambda^{n\pi}}{(n\,\pi)!}$$

we write

(13) 
$$\frac{1}{H(z^n)} = H'(z^n) = h'_0 + h'_n z^n + h'_{2n} z^{2n} + \cdots$$

If  $\pi = 2$ , a = b = -1, the case Nielsen has studied\*,

$$H'(z^{\pi}) = \operatorname{sech} \frac{z}{2} = E_0 + \frac{E_3 z^2}{2^2 2!} + \frac{E_4 z^4}{2^4 4!} + \cdots$$

where  $E_0$ ,  $E_2$ ,  $E_4$ ,  $\cdots$  are Euler's numbers.

Moreover it is clear that

(14) 
$$\alpha_{n\pi} = k_{n\pi} h'_0 + k(n-1)\pi h'_{\pi} + \cdots + k_0 h'_{n\pi}.$$

Let  $[H_n''(x), h_n'']$  denote the cyclic sequence defined by

$$H_n''(x) := \frac{h_0'(x+\lambda)^n}{n!} + \frac{h_n'(x+\lambda)^{n-n}}{(n-n)!} + \frac{h_{2n}'(x+\lambda)^{n-2n}}{(n-2n)!} + \cdots + \frac{h_{rn}'(x+\lambda)^{n-rn}}{(n-rn)!},$$

where as usual  $r\pi \leq n \leq (r+1)\pi$ . Then by (12), if  $[K_n(x), k_n]$  is any cyclic sequence

$$k_n = \sum_{s=0}^{r} \frac{\alpha_{s\pi} \lambda^{n-s\pi}}{(n-s\pi)!} = \sum_{t=0}^{r} \sum_{s=t}^{r} \frac{k_{t\pi} h'_{(s-t)\pi} \lambda^{n-s\pi}}{(n-s\pi)!}$$

on substituting from (14) for  $\alpha_{sn}$  and changing the order of summation. Now

$$\sum_{s=t}^{s=r} \frac{h'_{(s-t)\pi} \lambda^{n-s\pi}}{(n-s\pi)!} = \sum_{u=0}^{u=r-t} \frac{h'_{u\pi} \lambda^{n-t\pi-u\pi}}{(n-t\pi-u\pi)!} = H''_{n-t\pi}(0) = h''_{n-t\pi}.$$

Furthermore if

$$H'(t^n) e^{tx} = H'_0(x) + H'_1(x) t + H'_2(x) t^2 + \cdots$$

<sup>\*</sup> Nielsen, l. c., chapter VI.

Then

$$H'_n(x) = \frac{h'_0 x^n}{n!} + \frac{h'_n x^{n-n}}{(n-n)!} + \cdots + \frac{h'_{rn} x^{n-rn}}{(n-rn)!} = H''_n(x-\lambda).$$

Hence we have proved

THEOREM 8. If  $[K_n(x), k_n]$  is any cyclic sequence of order  $\pi$ 

$$k_n = \sum_{s=0}^r k_{s\pi} H'_{n-s\pi}(\lambda),$$

where  $r\pi \leq n < (r+1)\pi$ ,  $\lambda = \frac{b}{a-1}$  and the generating function of the polynomials  $H_n'(x)$  is

 $\pi e^{tx}[e^{at} + e^{a^2t} + \cdots + e^{a^{\pi}t}]^{-1}.$ 

California Institute, Pasadena, California. October 29, 1928.