

Bounds for extreme zeros of some classical orthogonal polynomials

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Abstract

We use mixed three term recurrence relations typically satisfied by classical orthogonal polynomials from sequences corresponding to different parameters to derive upper (lower) bounds for the smallest (largest) zeros of Jacobi, Laguerre and Gegenbauer polynomials.

Keywords: Bounds for zeros; interlacing of zeros; common zeros of orthogonal polynomials.

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1. Introduction

If $\{p_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is a sequence of orthogonal polynomials, the zeros of p_n are real and simple and each open interval with endpoints at successive zeros of p_n contains exactly one zero of p_{n-1} ; a property called the interlacing of zeros. Stieltjes (cf. [15], Theorem 3.3.3) extended this interlacing property by proving that if $m < n - 1$, provided p_m and p_n have no common zeros, there exist m open intervals, with endpoints at successive zeros of p_n , each of which contains exactly one zero of p_m . Beardon (cf. [3], Theorem 5) proved that one can say more, namely, for each $m < n - 1$, if p_m and p_n are co-prime, there exists a real polynomial S_{n-m} of degree $n - m - 1$ whose real simple zeros, together with those of p_m , interlace with the zeros of p_n . The polynomials S_{n-m} are the dual polynomials introduced by de Boor and Saff in [5] or, equivalently, the associated polynomials analysed by Vinet and Zhedanov in [17]. We prove that constraints on the location of common zeros of two polynomials that satisfy a three term recurrence relation of the type associated with orthogonal polynomials together with a Stieltjes interlacing property lead to lower (upper) bounds for the largest (smallest) zero of Jacobi, Gegenbauer and Laguerre polynomials.

2. Laguerre, Jacobi and Gegenbauer polynomials

A special case of the following theorem was proved in [10].

Theorem 2.1. *Let $\{p_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ be a sequence of polynomials orthogonal on the (finite or infinite) interval (c, d) . Fix $k, n \in \mathbb{N}$ with $k < n - 1$ and suppose g_{n-k} is a polynomial of degree $n - k - 1$ that satisfies*

$$f(x)g_{n-k}(x) = G_k(x)p_{n-1}(x) + H(x)p_n(x) \quad (1)$$

where $f(x) \neq 0$ for $x \in (c, d)$ and $H(x)$, $G_k(x)$ are polynomials with $\deg(G_k) = k$. Then

- (i) the $n - 1$ real, simple zeros of $G_k g_{n-k}$ interlace with the zeros of p_n if g_{n-k} and p_n are co-prime;
- (ii) if g_{n-k} and p_n are not co-prime and have r common zeros counting multiplicity, then
 - a) $r \leq \min \{k, n - k - 1\}$;

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- b) these r common zeros are simple zeros of G_k ;
- c) no two successive zeros of p_n , nor its largest or smallest zero, can also be zeros of g_{n-k} ;
- d) the $n - 2r - 1$ zeros of $G_k g_{n-k}$, none of which is also a zero of p_n , together with the r common zeros of g_{n-k} and p_n , interlace with the $n - r$ remaining (non-common) zeros of p_n .

Proof of Theorem 2.1. Let $w_n < \dots < w_1$ denote the zeros of p_n .

- (i) From (1), provided $p_n(x) \neq 0$, we have

$$\frac{f(x)g_{n-k}(x)}{p_n(x)} = H(x) + \frac{G_k(x)p_{n-1}(x)}{p_n(x)}. \quad (2)$$

Further,

$$\frac{p_{n-1}(x)}{p_n(x)} = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{A_j}{x - w_j}$$

where $A_j > 0$ for every $j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ (cf. [15, Theorem 3.3.5]). Therefore (2) can be written as

$$\frac{f(x)g_{n-k}(x)}{p_n(x)} = H(x) + \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{G_k(x)A_j}{x - w_j}, \quad x \neq w_j. \quad (3)$$

Since p_{n-1} and p_n are always co-prime while p_n and g_{n-k} are co-prime by assumption, it follows from (1) that $G_k(w_j) \neq 0$ for every $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. Suppose that G_k does not change sign in an interval $I_j = (w_{j+1}, w_j)$ where $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$. Since $A_j > 0$ and the polynomial H is bounded on I_j while the right hand side of (3) takes arbitrarily large positive and negative values on I_j , it follows that g_{n-k} must have an odd number of zeros in every interval in which G_k does not change sign. Since G_k is of degree k , there are at least $n - k - 1$ intervals (w_{j+1}, w_j) , $j \in \{1, \dots, n-1\}$ in which G_k does not change sign and so each of these intervals must contain exactly one of the $n - k - 1$ real, simple zeros of g_{n-k} . We deduce that the k zeros of G_k are real and simple and, together with the $n - k - 1$ zeros of g_{n-k} , interlace with the n zeros of p_n .

- (ii) If r is the total number of common zeros of p_n and g_{n-k} counting multiplicity then each of these r zeros is a simple zero of p_n and it follows from (1) that any common zero of g_{n-k} and p_n is also a zero of G_k since p_n and p_{n-1} are co-prime. Therefore, $r \leq \min\{k, n - k - 1\}$ and there must be at least $(n - 2r - 1)$ open intervals of the form $I_j = (w_{j+1}, w_j)$, $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$, with endpoints at successive zeros of p_n where neither w_{j+1} nor w_j is a zero of g_{n-k} or $G_k(x)$. If G_k does not change sign in an interval $I_j = (w_{j+1}, w_j)$, it follows from (3), since $A_j > 0$ for every $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, and H is bounded while the right hand side takes arbitrarily large positive and negative values for $x \in I_j$, that g_{n-k} must have an odd number of zeros in that interval. Therefore, in at least $(n - 2r - 1)$ intervals I_j either g_{n-k} or G_k , but not both, must have an odd number of zeros counting multiplicity. On the other hand, g_{n-k} and G_k have at most $(n - k - 1 - r)$ and $(k - r)$ real zeros respectively that are not zeros of p_n . We deduce that there must be at most $(n - 2r - 1)$ intervals $I_j = (w_{j+1}, w_j)$ with endpoints at successive zeros w_{j+1} and w_j of p_n neither of which is a zero of g_{n-k} . It is straightforward to check that if the number of intervals $I_j = (w_{j+1}, w_j)$ with endpoints at successive zeros of p_n neither of which is a zero of g_{n-k} is equal to $n - 2r - 1$, this is only possible if no pair of consecutive zeros of p_n , nor the largest or smallest zero of p_n , are also zeros of g_{n-k} . This proves a) to c) while d) follows from c).

Corollary 2.2. Suppose (1) holds for $k, n \in \mathbb{N}$ fixed and $k < n - 1$. The largest (smallest) zero of G_k is a strict lower (upper) bound for the largest (smallest) zero of p_n .

Mixed three term recurrence relations involving polynomials with the largest possible parameter difference, or alternatively, with no parameter difference but the largest possible degree difference, that satisfy interlacing properties of their zeros, are useful in deriving good bounds for largest (smallest) zeros of p_n . We denote the zeros of the polynomial p_n by $w_n < \dots < w_1$.

2.1. Laguerre polynomials

For $\alpha > -1$, the Laguerre polynomials L_n^α satisfy the mixed three term recurrence relation

$$x^5 L_{n-3}^{\alpha+5}(x) = (n+\alpha) \left((\alpha+1)_4 - (\alpha+2)_2(3n+2\alpha+2)x + (n+\alpha+1)_2 x^2 \right) L_{n-1}^\alpha(x) + H(x) L_n^\alpha(x) \quad (4)$$

that follows from [9, eqn. (13)], [9, eqn. (4)] and the three term recurrence relation for Laguerre polynomials (cf. [15]) where $(\alpha)_k = \alpha(\alpha+1)\dots(\alpha+k-1)$, $k \in \mathbb{N}$, is Pochhammer's symbol. The smallest zero of the polynomial coefficient of L_{n-1}^α in (4) is

$$\frac{(\alpha+2)_2(3n+2\alpha+2) - \sqrt{(\alpha+2)_2(-4(\alpha+1)^2(\alpha+2) + 4n(\alpha+1)(\alpha^2+4\alpha+6) + (5\alpha^2+25\alpha+38)n^2)}}{2(n+\alpha+1)_2} \quad (5)$$

which provides a strict upper bound for the smallest zero of L_n^α . Numerical calculations indicate that (5) compares favourably with the upper bound $\frac{(\alpha+1)(\alpha+2)(\alpha+4)(2n+\alpha+1)}{(\alpha+1)^2(\alpha+2) + (5\alpha+11)n(n+\alpha+1)}$ obtained by Gupta and Muldoon in [11, eqn. (2.11)] although the Gupta-Muldoon bound is sharper for n large. Iterating the three term recurrence relation for Laguerre polynomials (cf. [15]) we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} & (\alpha+n-2)_2 L_{n-3}^\alpha(x) \\ &= (x^2 - 2(2n+\alpha-2)x + 3n^2 + 3\alpha n + \alpha^2 - 6n - 3\alpha - 1) L_{n-1}^\alpha(x) - n(2n+\alpha-3-x) + H(x) L_n^\alpha(x) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

and the largest zero of the polynomial coefficient of L_{n-1}^α in (6) yields the lower bound

$$w_1 > 2n + \alpha - 2 + \sqrt{n^2 + n(\alpha-2) - (\alpha-2)} \quad (7)$$

for the largest zero of L_n^α which is sharper than the lower bound $2n+\alpha-1$ found by Szegő (cf. [15, eqn.(6.2.14)]). The lower bound $3n-4$ for the largest zero obtained by Neumann in [14] compares favourably with (7) only when α is close to -1 while the lower bound $4n+\alpha-16\sqrt{2n}$ given by Bottema (cf. [4]) is better than (7) for n large.

2.2. Jacobi polynomials

For Jacobi polynomials $P_n^{\alpha,\beta}$, $\alpha, \beta > -1$, it was proved in [10, Thm 2.1(i)(c)] that (1) holds for $k=1$ with

$$g_{n-1} = P_{n-2}^{\alpha+4,\beta}, \quad G_1(x) = x - A_n, \quad A_n = \frac{2(n-1)(n+\alpha+\beta+2) + (\alpha+3)(\beta-\alpha)}{2(n-1)(n+\alpha+\beta+2) + (\alpha+3)(\alpha+\beta+2)} \quad \text{and} \quad p_n = P_n^{\alpha,\beta}$$

for $n > 1$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$. It follows from Corollary 2.2 that for all $\alpha, \beta > -1$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$w_1 > 1 - \frac{2(\alpha+1)(\alpha+3)}{2(n-1)(n+\alpha+\beta+2) + (\alpha+3)(\alpha+\beta+2)} = 1 - O\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right) \quad (8)$$

which is sharper than the lower bound $1 - \frac{2(\alpha+1)}{2n+\alpha+\beta} = 1 - O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$ given by Szegő in [15, eqns. (6.2.11)].

Since $P_n^{\alpha,\beta}(x) = (-1)^n P_n^{\beta,\alpha}(-x)$, we deduce from (8) that

$$w_n < -1 + \frac{2(\beta+1)(\beta+3)}{2(n-1)(n+\alpha+\beta+2) + (\beta+3)(\alpha+\beta+2)}.$$

2.3. Gegenbauer polynomials

For the Gegenbauer polynomials C_n^λ , $\lambda > -\frac{1}{2}$, Szegő gives a lower bound for the largest zero w_1 , namely,

$$w_1^2 \geq 1 - \frac{2\lambda+1}{n+2\lambda} = 1 - O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$$

(cf. [15, eqn. (6.2.13)]). From [8, Theorem 2 (ii)d] and Corollary 2.2, we obtain a sharper bound

$$w_1^2 > 1 - \frac{(2\lambda+1)(2\lambda+3)}{(n-1)(n+2\lambda+1) + (2\lambda+1)(2\lambda+3)} = 1 - O\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right).$$

Another lower bound for the largest zero, namely,

$$w_1 > 1 - \frac{(2\lambda + 1)(2\lambda + 5)}{4(n - 1)(n + 2\lambda + 1) + (2\lambda + 1)(2\lambda + 5)} = 1 - O\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right)$$

follows from (8) with $\alpha = \beta = \lambda - \frac{1}{2}$.

Remarks:

1. Our results may be viewed as complementary to upper (lower) bounds for the largest (smallest) zeros of classical orthogonal polynomials that have been established by several authors using a wide range of approaches. For Laguerre polynomials, good upper (lower) bounds for the largest (smallest) zero can be found in Ismail and Li [12]; Krasikov [13] and Dimitrov and Rafaeli [6] while a comprehensive summary of the Laguerre case is given in [2]. Sharp limits for the zeros of Gegenbauer and Hermite polynomials are proved in [1] while van Doorn in [16], Dimitrov in [2] and Dimitrov and Nikolov in [7] provide bounds for zeros of Jacobi polynomials.

2. Sharper upper (lower) bounds for the smallest (largest) zeros of Laguerre, Jacobi and Gegenbauer polynomials can be obtained from (1) by putting $k = 3, 4, \dots$. The calculations become more complicated as the degree of the coefficient polynomial G_k increases.

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