SOME BASIC *d*-ORTHOGONAL POLYNOMIAL SETS

ALI ZAGHOUANI

Abstract. The purpose of this paper is to study the class of polynomial sets which are at the same time *d*-orthogonal and *q*-Appell. By a linear change of variable, the resulting set reduces to *q*-Al-Salam–Carlitz polynomials, for d = 1. Various properties of the obtained polynomials are singled out: a generating function, a recurrence relation of order d + 1. We also explicitly express a *d*-dimensional functional for which the d-orthogonality holds.

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1. INTRODUCTION AND PRELIMINARIES

During the past few years, there has been a growing interest in multiple orthogonal polynomials (see, for instance, [4], [5], [6], [13], [27], [28]). However, it is only recently that examples of multiple orthogonal polynomials have appeared in the literature. A convenient framework to discuss such examples consists in considering a subclass of multiple orthogonal polynomials known as d-orthogonal polynomials (see, for instance, [8–12], [14–18], [24], [29]). Many of these papers generalized some known characterization theorems for orthogonal polynomials [2] to the d-orthogonality, especially, for continuous and discrete cases. As far as we know, the basic polynomials are not considered. So, it is significant to study this case. In this paper, we investigate some d-orthogonal polynomials related to the q-difference operator (1.4).

Next, we present some basic definitions which we need below.

Let \mathcal{P} be the vector space of polynomials with coefficients in \mathbb{C} , the set of complex numbers, and let \mathcal{P}' be its dual. We denote by $\langle u, f \rangle$ the effect of a functional $u \in \mathcal{P}'$ on a polynomial $f \in \mathcal{P}$. Let $\{P_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ be a sequence of polynomials in \mathcal{P} such that deg $P_n(x) = n$ for all n. In this case, we also call $\{P_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ a polynomial set. The corresponding monic polynomial sequence $\{\widehat{P}_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ is given by $P_n = \lambda_n \widehat{P}_n, n \geq 0$, where λ_n is the normalization coefficient and its dual sequence $\{u_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ is defined by $\langle u_n, \widehat{P}_m \rangle = \delta_{n,m}, n, m \geq 0$.

Definition 1.1. Let d be an arbitrary positive integer. A polynomial sequence $\{P_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ is called a d-orthogonal polynomial sequence (d-OPS, shortly) with respect to a d-dimensional functional $\mathcal{U} = {}^t(u_0, \ldots, u_{d-1})$ if it satisfies [24], [29]

$$\begin{cases} \langle u_k, P_m P_n \rangle = 0, & m > dn + k , n \ge 0, \\ \langle u_k, P_n P_{dn+k} \rangle \neq 0, & n \ge 0, \end{cases}$$
(1.1)

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for each integer k belonging to $\{0, 1, \ldots, d-1\}$.

The orthogonality conditions (1.1) are equivalent to the fact that the sequence $\{P_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ satisfies a (d+1)-order recurrence relation [29] which we write in the *monic* form as

$$\widehat{P}_{m+d+1}(x) = (x - \beta_{m+d})\widehat{P}_{m+d}(x) - \sum_{\nu=0}^{d-1} \gamma_{m+d-\nu}^{d-1-\nu} \widehat{P}_{m+d-1-\nu}(x), \quad m \ge 0, \quad (1.2)$$

with the initial conditions

$$\begin{cases} \widehat{P}_0(x) = 1, \quad \widehat{P}_1(x) = x - \beta_0 \quad \text{and} \quad \text{if} \quad d \ge 2, \\ \widehat{P}_n(x) = (x - \beta_{n-1})\widehat{P}_{n-1}(x) - \sum_{\nu=0}^{n-2} \gamma_{n-1-\nu}^{d-1-\nu} \widehat{P}_{n-2-\nu}(x), \ 2 \le n \le d, \end{cases}$$
(1.3)

and the regularity conditions

$$\gamma_{n+1}^0 \neq 0 , \quad n \ge 0.$$

When d = 1, recurrence (1.2) with (1.3) is the well-known second-order recurrence relation

$$\begin{cases} \widehat{P}_{n+2}(x) = (x - \beta_{n+1})\widehat{P}_{n+1}(x) - \gamma_{n+1}\widehat{P}_n(x), \ n \ge 0, \\ \widehat{P}_0(x) = 1, \ \widehat{P}_1(x) = x - \beta_0. \end{cases}$$

In the remainder of this paper, all the polynomial sets are assumed monic.

Let q be a real number, Hahn [21] defined a linear operator L_q by

$$L_q(f)(x) = \frac{f(qx) - f(x)}{(q-1)x}, \qquad |q| \neq 1,$$
(1.4)

where f is a suitable function for which the second member of this equality exists. This operator tends to the derivative operator D as $q \rightarrow 1$.

Let $\{P_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ be a *d*-OPS. Put $Q_n(x) = L_q P_{n+1}(x)$, $n \geq 0$. According to Hahn's property [21], if the sequence $\{Q_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ is also *d*-orthogonal, the sequence $\{P_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ is called L_q -classical *d*-OPS.

Throughout this paper, we shall use the following notation, definitions and formulas related to the q-theory. For details the reader is referred to [19] or [23]. If n, k are positive integers, we use the notation

$$(a;q)_n := \prod_{k=0}^{n-1} (1 - aq^k), \tag{1.5}$$

$$[n] := [n]_q := \frac{q^n - 1}{q - 1}, \quad [n]_q! := [n][n - 1] \cdots [1], [0]! = 1.$$
(1.6)

We define the Gaussian polynomial or the q-binomial coefficient by

$$\begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q := \frac{(q;q)_n}{(q;q)_k(q;q)_{n-k}} = \frac{(q^n - 1)\cdots(q^{n-k+1} - 1)}{(q^k - 1)\cdots(q - 1)}.$$
 (1.7)

 So

$$\begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_{q} = \begin{bmatrix} n \\ n-k \end{bmatrix}_{q} = \frac{[n][n-1]\cdots[n-k+1]}{[k]!} = \frac{[n]!}{[k]![n-k]!} .$$
(1.8)

It is clear that when $q \longrightarrow 1$, $\binom{n}{j} \longrightarrow \binom{n}{j}$ and $[n]_q \longrightarrow n$.

For positive integers m_1, \ldots, m_r , we define the Gaussian multinomial coefficient or the q-multinomial coefficient by

$$\begin{bmatrix} m_1 + m_2 + \dots + m_r \\ m_1, m_2, \dots, m_r \end{bmatrix}_q := \frac{(q;q)_{m_1 + m_2 + \dots + m_r}}{(q;q)_{m_1}(q;q)_{m_2} \cdots (q;q)_{m_r}}.$$
 (1.9)

A q-analogue of the exponential function is defined by

$$e_q(t) := \sum_{n \ge 0} \frac{t^n}{[n]!} = e((1-q)t)$$
(1.10)

with

$$e(t) = e(q, t) = \sum_{n \ge 0} \frac{t^n}{(q; q)_n} = \begin{cases} \prod_{m=0}^{\infty} (1 - tq^m)^{-1} & \text{if } |q| < 1, \\ \prod_{m=1}^{\infty} (1 - tq^{-m}) & \text{if } |q| > 1, \end{cases}$$
(1.11)

$$e(t)^{-1} = \sum_{n \ge 0} (-1)^n q^{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}} \frac{t^n}{(q;q)_n} \,. \tag{1.12}$$

One easily verifies that

$$L_q e_q(xt) = x e_q(xt) \tag{1.13}$$

for a fixed real x and

$$e_q(t) \longrightarrow e^t \quad if \quad (q \longrightarrow 1).$$
 (1.14)

For given two functions f and g, we have:

$$L_q^n(f)(0) := L_q(L_q^{n-1})(f)(0) = \frac{[n]!}{n!} f^{(n)}(0).$$
(1.15)

$$L_q(fg)(t) = g(t)L_q(f)(t) + f(qt)L_q(g)(t).$$
(1.16)

A polynomial sequence $\{P_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ is called an Appell polynomial set if $DP_{n+1}(x) = (n+1)P_n(x), n \geq 0$. A natural generalization of this definition with the operator L_q is given by the following

Definition 1.2. A polynomial set $\{P_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ is called a L_q -Appell or a q-Appell polynomial set if

$$L_q P_{n+1}(x) = [n+1]_q P_n(x), \quad n \ge 0.$$
(1.17)

When $q \rightarrow 1$, we deal with the Appell polynomials.

Now, let us consider the following problem:

P: Find all polynomial sets which are at the same time d-OPS and q-Appell.

Such a characterization takes into account the fact that polynomial sets which are obtainable from one another by a linear change of variable are assumed equivalent.

Note that the polynomial sets obtained as solutions of this problem must be L_q -classical *d*-OPS according to (1.17) and Hahn's property [21].

This problem, for the limiting case (d,q) = (1,1), was solved by many authors. The obtained solution is the Hermite polynomial set. It should be mentioned that Hahn, Al-Salam, Carlitz and Chihara are among the authors who treated the case d = 1 for arbitrary q. The obtained q-Al-Salam–Carlitz polynomials are a unique solution [1], [2], [3]. Later, Douak [14] treated the limiting case $(q \rightarrow 1)$ for a general positive integer d and obtained certain generalizations of the Hermite polynomials, containing among others the Gould–Hopper polynomials [20]. In connection with this problem, Khériji and Maroni [23] discussed the L_q classical orthogonal polynomials. In this paper, we solve the problem when d is a positive integer. The main result is

Theorem 1.1. The only polynomial sets which are at the same time d-OPS and q-Appell are given by

$$\sum_{n \ge 0} P_n(q; x) \frac{t^n}{[n]!} = \frac{e_q(xt)}{e_q(x_0 t)e_q(x_1 t)\cdots e_q(x_d t)},$$
(1.18)

where $x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_d \in \mathbb{C}^* := \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}.$

The outline of the paper is as follows. In Section 2, we give some properties of q-Appell polynomials, we recall a characterization of these polynomials by means of a generating function from which a recurrence relation is deduced. In Section 3, we prove Theorem 1.1 and derive other results related to the particular case: $q \rightarrow 1$.

In Section 4, we explicitly express the *d*-dimensional functional $\mathcal{U} = {}^{t}(u_0, \cdots, u_{d-1})$ for which we have the *d*-orthogonality.

2. q-Appell Polynomial Sets

At first, we mention that the polynomial set $\{x^n\}_{n\geq 0}$ is a $q\text{-}\mathrm{Appell}$ polynomial set since

$$L_q(x^{n+1}) = [n+1]_q x^n$$

Such a polynomial set is generated by

$$e_q(xt) = \sum_{n \ge 0} \frac{x^n t^n}{[n]!} \,. \tag{2.1}$$

The polynomial set defined by (2.1) can be used to characterize all q-Appell polynomial sets. We have in fact

Theorem 2.1 ([25]). Let $\{P_n(q;.)\}_{n\geq 0}$ be a polynomial set. The following assertions are equivalent:

(i) $\{P_n(q;.)\}_{n\geq 0}$ is a q-Appell polynomial set.

(ii) There exists a sequence $(a_k)_{k>0}$, independent of n; $a_0 = 1$, such that

$$P_n(q;x) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \frac{[n]!}{[n-k]!} x^{n-k}$$

(iii) $\{P_n(q; \cdot)\}_{n\geq 0}$ is generated by

$$A(t)e_q(xt) = \sum_{n \ge 0} P_n(q; x) \frac{t^n}{[n]!}, \qquad (2.2)$$

where

$$A(t) = \sum_{k \ge 0} a_k t^k, \quad a_0 = 1.$$

Theorem 2.1 allows us to recognize some well known polynomial sets as q-Appell. For instance, the polynomial set $\{H_n(x)\}_{n>0}$, generated by

$$\sum_{n \ge 0} H_n(x) \frac{t^n}{[n]!} = e_q(t) e_q(xt),$$
(2.3)

is q-Appell. Szegö [26] proved that this set is orthogonal over the unit circle with respect to the weight function: $f(\alpha) = \sum_{-\infty}^{+\infty} q^{\frac{n^2}{2}} e^{in\alpha}$, |q| < 1. Another example of a *q*-Appell polynomial set is *q*-Al-Salam and Carlitz

polynomials denoted by $\{U_n^{(a)}(x)\}_{n\geq 0}$ and generated by

$$\sum_{n \ge 0} U_n^{(a)}(x) \frac{t^n}{[n]!} = \frac{e_q(xt)}{e_q(t)e_q(at)} \,. \tag{2.4}$$

As shown in [3], $\{U_n^{(a)}(x)\}_{n\geq 0}$ are orthogonal over the real line.

Two interesting properties of q-Appell polynomial sets are given by

Theorem 2.2. Let $\{P_n(q;)\}_{n\geq 0}$ be a q-Appell polynomial set generated by (2.2). Put

$$\frac{L_q A(t)}{A(qt)} = \sum_{n \ge 0} \alpha_n t^n.$$
(2.5)

Then we have:

(i) The polynomial set $\{P_n(q; \cdot)\}_{n\geq 1}$ satisfies the recurrence relation

$$P_{n+1}(x) = (x + \alpha_0 q^n) P_n(x) + \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k q^{n-k} \frac{[n]!}{[n-k]!} P_{n-k}(x).$$
(2.6)

(ii) The polynomial set $\{P_n(q; \cdot)\}_{n\geq 2}$ satisfies the q-difference equation

$$\left(\sum_{k=2}^{n} \alpha_{k-1} q^{n-k} L_q^k + (x + \alpha_0 q^{n-1}) L_q - [n]_q\right) P_n(x) = 0.$$
 (2.7)

Proof. (i) According to (1.13) and (1.16), if we apply L_q to the two members of (2.2) viewed as functions of the variable t, we obtain

$$\sum_{n \ge 0} P_{n+1}(x) \frac{t^n}{[n]!} = L_q A(t) e_q(qxt) + x A(t) e_q(xt), \qquad (2.8)$$

which, according to (2.5), may be rewritten as

$$\sum_{n\geq 0} P_{n+1}(x) \frac{t^n}{[n]!} = A(qt)e_q(qxt) \sum_{n\geq 0} \alpha_n t^n + x \sum_{n\geq 0} P_n(x) \frac{t^n}{[n]!}$$

$$= \sum_{n\geq 0} q^n P_n(x) \frac{t^n}{[n]!} \sum_{n\geq 0} \alpha_n t^n + x \sum_{n\geq 0} P_n(x) \frac{t^n}{[n]!}.$$
 (2.9)

Finally, by comparing the coefficients of $\frac{t^n}{[n]!}$ in (2.9), we obtain (2.6).

(ii) By shifting $n \to n-1$ and multiplying both sides of (2.6) by $[n]_q$, we can deduce that $\{P_n(x)\}_{n\geq 2}$ satisfies (2.7) since $L_q^k P_n(x) = \frac{[n]!}{[n-k]!} P_{n-k}$.

Remark. When $q \longrightarrow 1$, we have the He-Ricci result [22]: Appell polynomials $\{P_n(x)\}_{n\geq 0}$ generated by $A(t)e^{xt}$ satisfy the differential equation

$$\left(\sum_{k=2}^{n} \alpha_{k-1} D^{k} + (x + \alpha_{0}) D - n\right) P_{n}(x) = 0.$$

3. d-Orthogonal q-Appell Polynomial Sets

In order to characterize all d-OPS and q-Appell polynomials, we first state the following lemma.

Lemma 3.1. The polynomial sequence $\{P_n(q;.)\}_{n\geq 0}$ generated by (2.2) is a *d*-OPS if and only if the coefficients $(\alpha_k)_{k\geq 0}$; given by (2.5) satisfy the conditions

$$\alpha_k = 0 \quad for \quad k \ge d+1 \quad and \quad \alpha_d \ne 0. \tag{3.1}$$

Proof. According to Definition 1.1, the polynomial set generated by (2.2) is a d-OPS if and only if these polynomials satisfy a recurrence relation of type (1.2) - (1.3). Such conditions, by virtue of Theorem 2.2, are equivalent to the fact that the coefficients $(\alpha_k)_{k>0}$, given by (2.5) satisfy conditions (3.1).

Proof of Theorem 1.1. Let $\{P_n(q,.)\}_{n\geq 0}$ be a polynomial set generated by (2.2). If $\{P_n(q,.)\}_{n\geq 0}$ is *d*-orthogonal, then by using Lemma 3.1, condition (2.5) becomes

$$\frac{L_q A(t)}{A(qt)} = \sum_{k=0}^d \alpha_k t^k = P(t), \qquad \alpha_d \neq 0.$$
(3.2)

Therefore, taking into account that deg P = d and $L_q A(t) = \frac{1}{(q-1)t} (A(qt) - A(t))$, we deduce from (3.2) that there exist d+1 complex numbers $x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_d \in \mathbb{C}^*$ such that

$$A(t) = (1 - (1 - q)x_0t)(1 - (1 - q)x_1t)\cdots(1 - (1 - q)x_dt)A(qt).$$
(3.3)

Iterate relation (3.3) m times for |q| < 1 and let $m \longrightarrow \infty$ to obtain

$$A(t) = \frac{1}{e_q(x_0 t) \cdots e_q(x_d t)}.$$
 (3.4)

Notice that the same result holds when |q| > 1.

Conversely, assume that the polynomial sequence $\{P_n(q,.)\}_{n\geq 0}$ satisfies (1.18). By virtue of the identity $e_q((1-q)qt) = (1-(1-q)t)e_q(t)$, one can easily verify that

$$A(t) = (1 - (1 - q)x_0t) \cdots (1 - (1 - q)x_dt)A(qt), \qquad (3.5)$$

from which we deduce

$$\frac{L_q A(t)}{A(qt)} = \frac{(1 - (1 - q)x_0 t) \cdots (1 - (1 - q)x_d t) - 1}{(1 - q)t} = P(t), \qquad (3.6)$$

where P(t) is a polynomial of degree d. It follows then, according to Lemma 3.1, that the polynomial set $\{P_n\}_{n>0}$ is d-orthogonal.

As a consequence of this characterization, we mention that a *d*-orthogonal and q-Appell polynomial set $\{P_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ satisfies a (d+1)-order q-difference equation of the type

$$\left(\sum_{k=2}^{d+1} \alpha_{k-1} q^{n-k} L_q^k + (x + \alpha_0 q^{n-1} - [n]_q) L_q\right) P_n(q, x) = 0.$$
(3.7)

Remarks:

1) For the particular case: d = 1, if $\{P_n(q; .)\}_{n \ge 0}$ is an orthogonal and also q-Appell polynomial set generated by (2.2) with (2.5), we have

$$P_{n+1}(x) = (x + \alpha_0 q^n) P_n(x) + \alpha_1 q^{n-1} [n]_q P_{n-1}(x).$$
(3.8)

Note that we can show the existence of two constants c and a in \mathbb{C}^* as solutions of the system

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\alpha_1}{(1-q)c^2} = a, \\ \frac{\alpha_0}{c} = -(1+a) \end{cases}$$

such that $U_n^{(a)}(q;x) = \frac{1}{c^n} P_n(q;cx)$. We again have the result shown by Al-Salam in ([1, Theorem 4.1]): By a linear change of variable, the polynomial set $\{U_n^{(a)}(q;.)\}_{n\geq 0}$ is the only orthogonal polynomial set and also q-Appell.

2) If a < 0 and 0 < q < 1, it is shown in [3] that there exists a distribution function $\alpha(x)$ such that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^k U_n^{(a)}(x) d\alpha(x) = 0 \quad (k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1) \quad \text{with} \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\alpha(x) = 1.$$

The corresponding moments of the distribution function $\alpha(x)$ are given by

$$C_n = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^n d\alpha(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \begin{bmatrix} n\\ k \end{bmatrix} a^k.$$
(3.9)

4. *d*-Dimensional Functionals

We are now interested in determining an d-dimensional functional for which we have the d-orthogonality of a q-Appell polynomial set. It is convenient to adopt the technique used in [7] to express the dual sequence of a given polynomial set. The main result of this section is given in our next theorem.

Theorem 4.1. The q-Appell polynomial set $\{P_n(q;.)\}_{n\geq 0}$ generated by

$$G(x,t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_n(x) \frac{t^n}{[n]!} = \frac{e_q(xt)}{e_q(x_0t)e_q(x_1t)\cdots e_q(x_dt)},$$
(4.1)

is a d-OPS with respect to the d-dimensional functional $\mathcal{U} = {}^{t}(u_0, u_1 \cdots u_{d-1})$ given by

$$\langle u_0, f \rangle = \sum_{m \ge 0} H_m(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_d) \frac{f^{(m)}(0)}{m!}, \qquad f \in \mathcal{P},$$
 (4.2)

$$\langle u_r, f \rangle = \frac{1}{[r]!} \langle u_0, L_q^r f \rangle, \qquad r = 1, \dots, d-1,$$
 (4.3)

where

$$H_m(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_d) = \sum_{(i_0+i_1+\dots+i_d)=m} \begin{bmatrix} m\\ i_0, i_1, \dots, i_d \end{bmatrix} x_0^{i_0} x_1^{i_1} \dots x_d^{i_d}.$$
 (4.4)

To prove Theorem 4.1, we need the following lemma.

Lemma 4.1. The polynomial set $\{P_n\}_{n\geq 0}$, generated by

$$\sum_{n\geq 0} P_n(x) \frac{t^n}{[n]!} = \frac{e_q(xt)}{e_q(x_0t)e_q(x_1t)\cdots e_q(x_dt)}$$

is a d-OPS with respect to the d-dimensional functional $\mathcal{U} = {}^t(u_0, \ldots, u_{d-1})$ given by

$$\langle u_r, f \rangle = \frac{1}{[r]!} B(L_q) L_q^r(f)(0), \qquad r = 1, \dots, d-1, \qquad f \in \mathcal{P},$$
 (4.5)

where

$$B(t) = e(x_0 t) \cdots e(x_d t).$$

Proof. Put $B(t) := \sum_{k \ge 0} b_k t^k$. From the relation $e_q(xt) = B(t)G(x,t)$ we deduce that

$$x^{n} = \sum_{k=0}^{n} b_{k} \frac{[n]!}{[n-k]!} P_{n-k}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} b_{k} L_{q}^{k} P_{n}(x)$$
$$= \left(\sum_{k\geq 0} b_{k} L_{q}^{k}\right) P_{n}(x) = B(L_{q}) P_{n}(x).$$
(4.6)

On the other hand, we have

$$\left[L_{q}^{n}x^{m}\right]_{x=0} = [n]!\,\delta_{mn},\tag{4.7}$$

(4.6) and (4.7) allow us to express the dual sequence $\{u_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ of $\{P_n(q;.)\}_{n\geq 0}$ by

$$\langle u_n, f \rangle = \frac{1}{[n]!} B(L_q) L_q^n(f)(0), \quad f \in \mathcal{P}, \quad n = 0, 1, \dots$$

Proof of Theorem 4.1. Observe that B(t) can be written in the form

$$B(t) = \sum_{m \ge 0} \left(\sum_{(i_0 + \dots + i_d) = m} \begin{bmatrix} m \\ i_0, \dots, i_d \end{bmatrix} x_0^{i_0} x_1^{i_1} \dots x_d^{i_d} \right) \frac{t^m}{[m]!}$$
$$= \sum_{m \ge 0} H_m(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_d) \frac{t^m}{[m]!} .$$
(4.8)

Replacing t by L_q in (4.8) and using (1.15) and (4.5) we derive (4.2).

We remark that equation (4.3) follows directly from (4.5). Next, we consider two examples from Theorem 4.1.

Example 1. Consider the case: d = 1, $B(t) = e_q(t)e_q(at)$, $a \neq 0$. That corresponds to q-Al-Salam-Carlitz polynomials.

For this case, according to (4.2), the moments of u_0 are given by

$$C_n = \langle u_0, x^n \rangle = \sum_{m \ge 0} \frac{H_m(1, a)}{m!} \left[(x^n)^{(m)} \right]_{x=0} = H_n(1, a) = \sum_{k=0}^n {n \brack k} a^k.$$

We again have the result obtained by Al-Salam-Carlitz in [3] as mentioned in (3.9).

Example 2. Consider now the case d = 2. Then the polynomial set $\{P_n\}_{n \ge 0}$ generated by

$$\sum_{n\geq 0} P_n(x) \frac{t^n}{[n]!} = \frac{e_q(xt)}{e_q(t)e_q(at)e_q(bt)}, \quad a, b \in \mathbb{C}^*,$$

is a 2-OPS with respect to the 2-dimensional functional $\mathcal{U} = {}^{t}(u_0, u_1)$, where the moments of u_0 and u_1 are given by

$$\langle u_0, x^n \rangle = H_n(1, a, b) = \sum_{0 \le n_1, n_2 \le n} \begin{bmatrix} n \\ n_1, n_2, n - n_1 - n_2 \end{bmatrix} a^{n_1} b^{n_2}$$

and

$$\begin{cases} \langle u_1, x^n \rangle = \langle u_0, L_q x^n \rangle = [n]_q H_{n-1}(1, a, b) & \text{if } n \ge 1, \\ \langle u_1, 1 \rangle = 0. \end{cases}$$

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Author's address:

Institut préparatoire aux études d'ingénieurs de Bizerte Université de Carthage 7021 Jarzouna, Bizerte Tunisia E-mail: zaghouani_ali@yahoo.fr