

Orthonormal Polynomials, Related Orthonormal Functions and the Hilbert Spaces they Span

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1 Orthogonal Polynomials

Let $w(x)$ be a non-negative Borel measurable real-valued function on \mathbb{R} satisfying

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x|^k w(x) dx \in (0, \infty) \text{ for } k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

where the integral involved is the Lebesgue integral. Without loss of generality we may assume that w is a density function. Let

$$p_k(x|w) = \sum_{j=0}^k \alpha_{k,j} x^j, \quad \alpha_{k,k} = 1, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \quad (1)$$

be a sequence of polynomials in $x \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_k(x|w) p_m(x|w) w(x) dx = 0 \text{ if } k \neq m. \quad (2)$$

In words, the polynomials $p_k(x|w)$ are *orthogonal* with respect to the weight function $w(x)$.

Defining

$$\bar{p}_k(x|w) = \frac{p_k(x|w)}{\sqrt{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_k(y|w)^2 w(y) dy}} \quad (3)$$

yields a sequence of *orthonormal* polynomials w.r.t. $w(x)$:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \bar{p}_k(x|w)\bar{p}_m(x|w)w(x)dx = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } k \neq m, \\ 1 & \text{if } k = m. \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

This sequence is uniquely determined by $w(x)$, except for signs. In other words, $|\bar{p}_k(x|w)|$ is unique. To show this, suppose that there exists another sequence $\bar{p}_k^*(x|w)$ of orthonormal polynomials w.r.t. $w(x)$. Since $\bar{p}_k^*(x|w)$ is a polynomial of order k , we can write $\bar{p}_k^*(x|w) = \sum_{m=0}^k \beta_{m,k} \bar{p}_m(x|w)$. Similarly, we can write $\bar{p}_k(x|w) = \sum_{m=0}^k \alpha_{m,k} \bar{p}_m^*(x|w)$. Then for $j < k$,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \bar{p}_k^*(x|w)\bar{p}_j(x|w)w(x)dx &= \sum_{m=0}^j \alpha_{m,j} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \bar{p}_k^*(x|w)\bar{p}_m^*(x|w)w(x)dx \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \bar{p}_k^*(x|w)\bar{p}_j(x|w)w(x)dx &= \sum_{m=0}^k \beta_{m,k} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \bar{p}_m(x|w)\bar{p}_j(x|w)w(x)dx \\ &= \beta_{j,k} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \bar{p}_j(x|w)^2 w(x)dx = \beta_{j,k}, \end{aligned}$$

hence $\beta_{j,k} = 0$ for $j < k$ and thus

$$\bar{p}_k^*(x|w) = \beta_{k,k} \bar{p}_k(x|w).$$

Moreover, by normality,

$$1 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \bar{p}_k^*(x|w)^2 w(x)dx = \beta_{k,k}^2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \bar{p}_k(x|w)^2 w(x)dx = \beta_{k,k}^2,$$

so that $\bar{p}_k^*(x|w) = \pm \bar{p}_k(x|w)$. Consequently, $|\bar{p}_k(x|w)|$ is unique.

2 The Hilbert Space Spanned by Orthonormal Polynomials

The reason for considering orthonormal polynomials is the following.

Theorem 1. Let $w(x)$ be a density function with support (a, b) , $-\infty \leq a < b \leq \infty$, satisfying the moment conditions

$$\int_a^b |x|^k w(x) dx < \infty \quad (5)$$

for $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$. Let $L_w^2(a, b)$ be the Hilbert space of Borel measurable real functions f on (a, b) satisfying $\int_a^b f(x)^2 w(x) dx < \infty$, with inner product $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x)g(x)w(x)dx$ and associated norm $\|f\| = \sqrt{\langle f, f \rangle}$ and metric $\|f - g\|$. For an arbitrary function $f \in L_w^2(a, b)$, let

$$f_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \gamma_k \bar{p}_k(x|w), \quad n \in \mathbb{N},$$

where for $k \in \mathbb{N}$,¹

$$\gamma_k = \langle f, \bar{p}_k \rangle = \int_a^b f(x) \bar{p}_k(x|w) w(x) dx \quad (6)$$

Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|f - f_n\| = 0. \quad (7)$$

This result implies that every function $f \in L_w^2(a, b)$ can be written as

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma_k \bar{p}_k(x|w) \text{ a.e. on } (a, b). \quad (8)$$

Proof: Appendix.

Note that condition (5) holds trivially if the support of $w(x)$ is bounded: $\max(|a|, |b|) < \infty$. However, as is well-known, condition (5) also holds for the standard normal density, the exponential density and more generally the density of the Gamma distribution, for example.

Since for every density $w(x)$ with support (a, b) , $\int_a^b f(x)^2 dx < \infty$ implies that $f(x)/\sqrt{w(x)} \in L_w^2(a, b)$, the following corollary of Theorem 1 holds trivially.

¹ $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$.

Corollary 1. Let $L^2(a, b)$ be the Hilbert space of square integrable Borel measurable real functions on (a, b) , with inner product $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx$ and associated norm and metric. Every function $f \in L^2(a, b)$ can be written as

$$f(x) = \sqrt{w(x)} \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma_k \bar{p}_k(x) \right) \text{ a.e. on } (a, b),$$

where $w \in \mathcal{M}(a, b)$, the $\bar{p}_k(x)$'s are the orthonormal polynomials generated by $w(x)$ and the γ_k 's are the Fourier coefficients of $f(x)/\sqrt{w(x)}$, i.e.,

$$\gamma_k = \int_a^b f(x) \bar{p}_k(x) \sqrt{w(x)} dx.$$

This result implies that the functions

$$\psi_k(x|w) = \bar{p}_k(x|w) \sqrt{w(x)}, \quad w \in \mathcal{M}(a, b), \quad k \in \mathbb{N},$$

form a complete orthonormal sequence² in $L^2(a, b)$.

Of course, the $\psi_k(x|w)$'s are no longer polynomials.

If $\max(|a|, |b|) < \infty$ then there is another way to construct a complete orthonormal sequence in $L^2(a, b)$, as follows. Let $W(x)$ be the distribution function of a density w with bounded support (a, b) . Then

$$G(x) = a + (b - a)W(x)$$

is a one-to-one mapping of (a, b) onto (a, b) , with inverse

$$G^{-1}(y) = W^{-1}((y - a)/(b - a))$$

where W^{-1} is the inverse of $W(x)$. For every $f \in L^2(a, b)$,

$$(b - a) \int_a^b f(G(x))^2 w(x) dx = \int_a^b f(G(x))^2 dG(x) = \int_a^b f(x)^2 dx < \infty.$$

Hence $f(G(x)) \in L^2(w)$ and thus by Theorem 1,

$$f(G(x)) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma_k \bar{p}_k(x) \text{ a.e. on } (a, b)$$

²See for example Young (1988) for the definition of complete orthonormal sequences.

where

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma_k &= \int_a^b f(G(x)) \bar{p}_k(x|w) w(x) dx = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(G(x)) \bar{p}_k(x|w) dG(x) \\ &= \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) \bar{p}_k(G^{-1}(x)|w) dx\end{aligned}$$

Consequently

$$f(x) = f(G(G^{-1}(x))) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma_k \bar{p}_k(G^{-1}(x)) \text{ a.e. on } (a, b)$$

Note that $dG^{-1}(x)/dx = dG^{-1}(x)/dG(G^{-1}(x)) = 1/G'(G^{-1}(x))$, so that

$$\begin{aligned}& \int_a^b \bar{p}_k(G^{-1}(x)|w) \bar{p}_m(G^{-1}(x)|w) dx \\ &= \int_a^b \bar{p}_k(G^{-1}(x)|w) \bar{p}_m(G^{-1}(x)|w) G'(G^{-1}(x)) dG^{-1}(x) \\ &= \int_a^b \bar{p}_k(x|w) \bar{p}_m(x|w) G'(x) dx \\ &= (b-a) \int_a^b \bar{p}_k(x|w) \bar{p}_m(x|w) w(x) dx = (b-a) I(k=m)\end{aligned}$$

Thus,

Corollary 2. *Let w be a density with bounded support (a, b) . Let W be the c.d.f. of a density w , with inverse W^{-1} . Then the functions*

$$\psi_k(x|w) = \bar{p}_k(W^{-1}((x-a)/(b-a)|w) / \sqrt{(b-a)}), \quad k \in \mathbb{N},$$

form a complete orthonormal sequence in $L^2(a, b)$, i.e., every $f \in L^2(a, b)$ can be written as $f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \alpha_k \psi_k(x|w)$ a.e. on (a, b) , where $\alpha_k = \int_a^b f(x) \psi_k(x|w) dx$.

3 The Three-Term Recurrence Relation

It follows from (1) that $p_0(x|w) \equiv 1$, and it follows from (2) that $p_1(x|w) = \alpha_{1,0} + x$ can be constructed by solving $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (\alpha_{1,0} + x) w(x) dx = \alpha_{1,0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} w(x)$

$dx + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x.w(x)dx = 0$, hence

$$\alpha_{1,0} = - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x.w(x)dx \Big/ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} w(x)dx.$$

The question now arises how to construct these orthogonal polynomials further for $k \geq 2$.

The answer is the following.

Theorem 2. *Every sequence of polynomials $p_k(x|w) = \sum_{j=0}^k \alpha_{k,j}x^j$, with $\alpha_{k,k} = 1$, satisfying the orthogonality condition (2), can be generated recursively by the three-term recurrence relation (hereafter referred to as TTRR)*

$$p_{k+1}(x|w) + (b_k - x)p_k(x|w) + c_k p_{k-1}(x|w) = 0, \quad k \geq 1, \quad (9)$$

where

$$b_k = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x.p_k(x|w)^2 w(x)dx}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_k(x|w)^2 w(x)dx} \quad (10)$$

and

$$c_k = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_k(x|w)^2 w(x)dx}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_{k-1}(x|w)^2 w(x)dx} \quad (11)$$

Proof: Appendix.

Note that b_k is invariant for the normalization $\alpha_{k,k} = 1$, but c_k is not. In the case

$$\underline{p}_k(x|w) = \sum_{j=0}^k \alpha_{k,j}x^j, \quad \alpha_{k,k} \neq 0,$$

$$\int \underline{p}_k(x|w)\underline{p}_m(x|w)w(x)dx = 0 \text{ for } k \neq m$$

we have $p_k(x|w) = \underline{p}_k(x|w)/\alpha_{k,k}$, so that

$$\underline{c}_k = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \underline{p}_k(x|w)^2 w(x)dx}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \underline{p}_{k-1}(x|w)^2 w(x)dx} = \frac{\alpha_{k,k}^2}{\alpha_{k-1,k-1}^2} c_k$$

The TTRR for $\underline{p}_k(x|w)$ now becomes

$$a_k \underline{p}_{k+1}(x|w) + (b_k - x)\underline{p}_k(x|w) + \underline{c}_k \cdot a_{k-1} \underline{p}_{k-1}(x|w) = 0, \quad k \geq 1,$$

where $a_k = \alpha_{k1,k}/\alpha_{k+1,k+1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x \cdot \underline{p}_k(x|w)/\underline{p}_{k+1}(x|w)$. Thus,

Theorem 3. *Without the normalization $\alpha_{k,k} = 1$ in (1) the TTRR for $p_k(x|w)$ becomes*

$$a_k p_{k+1}(x|w) + (b_k - x) p_k(x|w) + c_k p_{k-1}(x|w) = 0, \quad k \geq 1, \quad (12)$$

where

$$a_k = \lim_{|x| \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x \cdot p_k(x|w)}{p_{k+1}(x|w)}, \quad b_k = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot p_k(x|w)^2 w(x) dx}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_k(x|w)^2 w(x) dx}$$

and

$$c_k = a_{k-1} \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_k(x|w)^2 w(x) dx}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_{k-1}(x|w)^2 w(x) dx}.$$

It follows now from Theorem 3 that:

Theorem 4. *Every sequence $\bar{p}_k(x|w)$ of orthonormal polynomials with respect to a weight function $w(x)$ can be generated recursively by the TTRR*

$$a_{k+1} \cdot \bar{p}_{k+1}(x|w) + (b_k - x) \bar{p}_k(x|w) + a_k \cdot \bar{p}_{k-1}(x|w) = 0, \quad k \geq 1. \quad (13)$$

where

$$a_k = \left| \lim_{|x| \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x \cdot \bar{p}_{k-1}(x|w)}{\bar{p}_k(x|w)} \right| \quad (14)$$

and

$$b_k = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot \bar{p}_k(x|w)^2 w(x) dx. \quad (15)$$

Proof: Appendix.

4 Examples of Orthonormal Polynomials

4.1 Hermite Polynomials

If $w(x)$ is the density of the standard normal distribution, the orthonormal polynomials involved satisfy the TTRR

$$\sqrt{k+1} \bar{p}_{k+1}(x|w) - \frac{1}{\sqrt{k+1}} x \cdot \bar{p}_k(x|w) + \sqrt{k} \bar{p}_{k-1}(x|w) = 0, \quad k \geq 1,$$

starting from $\bar{p}_0(x|w) = 1$, $\bar{p}_1(x|w) = x$. Thus in this case $a_k = \sqrt{k}$ and $b_k = 0$ in (13). These polynomials are known as Hermite³ polynomials.

It follows from Theorem 1 that the Hermite polynomials span the Hilbert space $L_w^2(\mathbb{R})$, where $w(x) = \exp(-x^2/2)/\sqrt{2\pi}$. Consequently, any density $f(x)$ on \mathbb{R} can be represented by

$$f(x) = w(x) \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma_k \bar{p}_k(x|w) \right)^2$$

where $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma_k^2 = 1$.

Gallant and Nychka (1987) propose to use these polynomials to generalize the standard normal density to a semi-nonparametric (SNP) density function

$$f_n(x) = w(x) \left(\sum_{k=0}^n \gamma_{k,n} \bar{p}_k(x|w) \right)^2,$$

where $\sum_{k=0}^n \gamma_{k,n}^2 = 1$.

4.2 Laguerre Polynomials

The standard exponential density function

$$w(x) = I(x \geq 0) \exp(-x),$$

where $I(\cdot)$ is the indicator function, gives rise to the orthonormal Laguerre⁴ polynomials, with TTRR

$$(k+1)\bar{p}_{k+1}(x|w) + (2k+1-x)\bar{p}_k(x|w) + k\bar{p}_{k-1}(x|w) = 0, \quad k \geq 1,$$

starting from $\bar{p}_0(x|w) = 1$, $\bar{p}_1(x|w) = x - 1$. Thus in this case $a_k = k$ and $b_k = 2k + 1$.

4.3 Legendre Polynomials

The uniform density on $[-1, 1]$,

$$w(x) = \frac{1}{2} I(|x| \leq 1),$$

³Charles Hermite (1822-1901).

⁴Edmund Nicolas Laguerre (1834-1886)

generates the orthonormal Legendre⁵ polynomials on $(-1, 1)$, with TTRR

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{k+1}{\sqrt{2k+3}\sqrt{2k+1}}\bar{p}_{k+1}(x|w) - x\bar{p}_k(x|w) \\ & + \frac{k}{\sqrt{2k+1}\sqrt{2k-1}}\bar{p}_{k-1}(x|w) = 0, k \geq 1, \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

starting from $\bar{p}_0(x|w) = 1$, $\bar{p}_1(x|w) = \sqrt{3}x$.

4.4 Shifted Legendre polynomials

Note that the orthonormal Legendre polynomials $\bar{p}_k(x|w)$ satisfy

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_0^1 \bar{p}_k(2u-1|w)\bar{p}_m(2u-1|w)du \\ & = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 \bar{p}_k(2u-1|w)\bar{p}_m(2u-1|w)d(2u-1) \\ & = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^1 \bar{p}_k(x|w)\bar{p}_m(x|w)dx = I(k=m) \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\rho_k(u) = \bar{p}_k(2u-1|w), \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots,$$

is a sequence of orthonormal polynomials w.r.t. the uniform density on $[0, 1]$,

$$w(u) = I(0 \leq u \leq 1)$$

The $\rho_k(u)$'s are known as the shifted Legendre polynomials, also called the orthonormal Legendre polynomials on the unit interval $[0, 1]$. Substituting $x = 2u - 1$ and $\bar{p}_k(x) = \rho_k(u)$ in (16) yields the TTRR

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{(k+1)/2}{\sqrt{2k+3}\sqrt{2k+1}}\rho_{k+1}(u) + (0.5-u)\rho_k(u) \\ & + \frac{k/2}{\sqrt{2k+1}\sqrt{2k-1}}\rho_{k-1}(u) = 0, \quad k \geq 1, \end{aligned}$$

starting from $\rho_0(u) = 1$, $\rho_1(u) = \sqrt{3}(2u-1)$.

⁵Adrien-Marie Legendre (1752-1833)

These Legendre polynomials have been used by Bierens (2007) and Bierens and Carvalho (2007) to model semi-nonparametrically the unobserved heterogeneity of interval-censored mixed proportional hazard models and bivariate mixed proportional hazard models, respectively.

In particular, the conditional survival function of a mixed proportional hazard model, proposed by Lancaster(1979), takes the form

$$S(t|X) = P[T > t|X] = E [\exp (-V.\varphi (X) \Lambda(t)) | X]$$

where T is a duration, X is a vector of covariates, $\varphi (X) > 0$ is the systematic hazard possibly depending on parameters,⁶ $\Lambda(t) = \int_0^t \lambda(\tau)d\tau$ is the integrated baseline hazard, with $\lambda(t) \geq 0$ the baseline hazard, and $V > 0$ represents the unobserved heterogeneity, which is assumed to be independent of X .

With $G(v)$ the unknown distribution function of V , $S(t|X)$ takes the form

$$S(t|X) = \int_0^\infty \exp (-v.\varphi (X) \Lambda(t)) dG(v) = H (\exp (-\varphi (X) \Lambda(t)))$$

where

$$H(u) = \int_0^\infty u^v dG(v), \quad u \in [0, 1],$$

is a distribution function on $[0, 1]$, with density

$$h(u) = \int_0^\infty v u^{v-1} dG(v). \quad (17)$$

The corresponding conditional density function of T is

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(t|X) &= -\partial S(t|X)/\partial t \\ &= h (\exp (-\varphi (X) \Lambda(t))) \exp (-\varphi (X) \Lambda(t)) \varphi (X) \lambda(t) \end{aligned}$$

Elbers and Ridder (1982) have shown that under the normalization

$$E[V] = \int_0^\infty v dG(v) = 1 \quad (18)$$

and some mild regularity conditions the MPH model is nonparametrically identified. Note that the condition (18) is equivalent to $h(1) = 1$.

⁶Usually $\varphi (X)$ is parametrized as $\varphi (X) = \exp(\beta'X)$.

Bierens (2007) has proposed to model the density $h(u)$ semi-nonparametrically, using orthonormal Legendre polynomials $\rho_k(u)$ on $[0, 1]$, as

$$h_n(u) = \frac{(1 + \sum_{k=1}^n \delta_k \rho_k(u))^2}{1 + \sum_{k=1}^n \delta_k^2}. \quad (19)$$

This is motivated by the fact that for any density function $h(u)$ on $[0, 1]$ there exists a sequence δ_k satisfying $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \delta_k^2 < \infty$ such that

$$h(u) = \frac{(1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \delta_k \rho_k(u))^2}{1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \delta_k^2}. \quad (20)$$

4.5 Chebyshev Polynomials

Chebyshev polynomials are generated by the weight function

$$w(x) = \frac{1}{\pi \sqrt{1-x^2}} I(|x| < 1).$$

This is a density function on $(-1, 1)$. To see this, let $\theta = \arccos(x)$, so that $x = \cos(\theta)$, and observe that

$$\frac{dx}{d\theta} = -\sin(\theta) = -\sqrt{1 - \cos^2(\theta)} = -\sqrt{1 - x^2},$$

hence

$$\frac{d \arccos(x)}{dx} = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \quad (21)$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{\pi \sqrt{1-x^2}} dx &= -\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 d \arccos(x) \\ &= \frac{\arccos(-1) - \arccos(1)}{\pi} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

because $\arccos(-1) = \pi$ and $\arccos(1) = 0$.

The orthogonal (but not orthonormal) Chebyshev polynomials $p_k(x|w)$ satisfy the TTRR

$$p_{k+1}(x|w) - 2xp_k(x|w) + p_{k-1}(x|w) = 0, \quad k \geq 1, \quad (22)$$

starting from $p_0(x|w) = 1$, $p_1(x|w) = x$, with orthogonality properties

$$\int_{-1}^1 \frac{p_k(x|w)p_m(x|w)}{\pi\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } k \neq m, \\ 1/2 & \text{if } k = m > 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } k = m = 0. \end{cases}$$

An important practical difference with the other polynomials discussed so far is that Chebyshev polynomials have a closed form⁷:

$$p_k(x|w) = \cos(k \cdot \arccos(x)). \quad (23)$$

To see this, observe from (21) and the well-known sine-cosine formulas that

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{-1}^1 \frac{\cos(k \cdot \arccos(x)) \cos(m \cdot \arccos(x))}{\pi\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx \\ &= -\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 \cos(k \cdot \arccos(x)) \cos(m \cdot \arccos(x)) d \arccos(x) \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\pi \cos(k \cdot \theta) \cos(m \cdot \theta) d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^\pi \cos((k+m)\theta) d\theta + \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^\pi \cos((k-m)\theta) d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\sin((k+m)\pi)}{(k+m)\pi} + \frac{\sin((k-m)\pi)}{(k-m)\pi} \right) \\ &= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } k \neq m, \\ 1/2 & \text{if } k = m > 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } k = m = 0. \end{cases} \end{aligned} \quad (24)$$

Moreover, the TTRR (22) follows from

$$\begin{aligned} & \cos((k+1)\theta) - 2\cos(\theta)\cos(k\theta) + \cos((k-1)\theta) \\ &= \cos(k\theta)\cos(\theta) - \sin(k\theta)\sin(\theta) - 2\cos(\theta)\cos(k\theta) \\ &+ \cos(k\theta)\cos(\theta) + \sin(k\theta)\sin(\theta) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the functions (23) satisfy the TTRR (22) and are therefore genuine polynomials.

⁷Note that $\arccos(x) = \text{atan}(-x/\sqrt{1-x^2}) + \frac{1}{2}\pi$, where $\text{atan}(x)$ is the inverse of the tangents function $\tan(\theta) = \sin(\theta)/\cos(\theta)$, $\theta \in (-\pi/2, \pi/2)$. In most programming languages the function $\text{atan}(x)$ is an intrinsic function. For example, in Visual Basic this function is the $\text{ATN}(x)$ function.

In view of (24) we can now define the orthonormal Chebyshev polynomials as

$$C_k(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } k = 0, \\ \sqrt{2} \cos(k \cdot \arccos(x)) & \text{for } k \geq 1. \end{cases}$$

Thus, it follows from Corollary 1 that every function $f \in L^2(-1, 1)$ can be written as

$$f(x) = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma_k C_k(x)}{\pi \sqrt{1-x^2}} \text{ a.e. on } (-1, 1),$$

where

$$\gamma_k = \int_{-1}^1 \frac{f(x) C_k(x)}{\sqrt{\pi \sqrt{1-x^2}}} dx$$

4.6 Shifted Chebyshev polynomials

Similar to the shifted Legendre polynomials, let for $u \in [0, 1]$,

$$\bar{C}_k(u) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } k = 0 \\ \sqrt{2} \cdot \cos(k \cdot \arccos(2u - 1)) & \text{for } k \geq 1 \end{cases} \quad (25)$$

and let

$$w_c(u) = \frac{2}{\pi \sqrt{1 - (2u - 1)^2}} = \frac{1}{\pi \sqrt{u(1-u)}}. \quad (26)$$

Observe from (21) that

$$w_c(u) = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{d(-\arccos(2u - 1))}{du} \quad (27)$$

so that the c.d.f. of $w_c(u)$ is

$$W_c(u) = \int_0^u w_c(x) dx = 1 - \pi^{-1} \arccos(2u - 1). \quad (28)$$

Moreover, it is easy to verify from (24) that

$$\int_0^1 \bar{C}_k(u) \bar{C}_m(u) w_c(u) du = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } k \neq m, \\ 1 & \text{if } k = m. \end{cases}$$

5 Cosine Series Approximation of Functions in $L^2(0, 1)$

5.1 Chebyshev Approximation of Functions in $L^2(0, 1)$

Consider the Hilbert space $L^2_{w_c}(0, 1)$ spanned by the shifted Chebyshev polynomials (25). Recall from Theorem 1 that $L^2_{w_c}(0, 1)$ contains all Borel measurable real functions $f(u)$ on $[0, 1]$ satisfying

$$\int_0^1 f(u)^2 w_c(u) du < \infty \quad (29)$$

where $w_c(u)$ is defined by (26).

The condition (29) is stronger a condition than in the case of the Hilbert space $L^2(0, 1)$ because $\min_{0 \leq u \leq 1} w_c(u) = w_c(1/2) = 2/\pi$, so that (29) implies

$$\int_0^1 f(u)^2 du \leq \frac{\pi}{2} \int_0^1 f(u)^2 w_c(u) du < \infty,$$

but not the other way around. Thus, $L^2_{w_c}(0, 1) \subset L^2(0, 1)$.

On the other hand, it follows from Corollary 1 that every function $f \in L^2(0, 1)$ can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} f(u) &= \sqrt{w_c(u)} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma_k \bar{C}_k(u) \\ &= \sqrt{w_c(u)} \left(\gamma_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \gamma_k \sqrt{2} \cos(k \cdot \arccos(2u - 1)) \right) \end{aligned} \quad (30)$$

a.e. on $(0, 1)$, where

$$\gamma_k = \int_0^1 \left(f(u) / \sqrt{w_c(u)} \right) \bar{C}_k(u) w_c(u) du = \int_0^1 f(u) \bar{C}_k(u) \sqrt{w_c(u)} du.$$

5.2 Cosine Series Representation

It is easy to verify that the c.d.f. $W_c(u)$ defined by (28) has inverse

$$W_c^{-1}(u) = \frac{1}{2} (1 + \cos(\pi(1 - u)))$$

It follows therefore from Corollary 2 that every function $f \in L^2(0, 1)$ can be written as

$$\begin{aligned}
f(u) &= \gamma_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \gamma_k \sqrt{2} \cos(k \cdot \arccos(2W_c^{-1}(u) - 1)) \\
&= \gamma_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \gamma_k \sqrt{2} \cos(k\pi(1-u)) \\
&= \gamma_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \gamma_k (-1)^k \sqrt{2} \cos(k\pi u) \\
&= \alpha_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k \sqrt{2} \cos(k\pi u)
\end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
\alpha_k &= \gamma_k (-1)^k = (-1)^k \int_0^1 f(u) \overline{C}_k \left(\frac{1}{2} (1 + \cos(\pi(1-u))) \right) du \\
&= \begin{cases} \int_0^1 f(u) du & \text{if } k = 0, \\ \int_0^1 f(u) \sqrt{2} \cos(k\pi u) du & \text{if } k \geq 1. \end{cases}
\end{aligned}$$

In other words,

Theorem 5. *The functions*

$$\kappa_k(u) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } k = 0, \\ \sqrt{2} \cos(k\pi u) & \text{if } k \geq 1, \end{cases}$$

form a complete orthonormal sequence in $L^2(0, 1)$. Thus, given a function $f \in L^2(0, 1)$, let

$$f_n(u) = \alpha_0 + \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k \sqrt{2} \cos(k\pi u)$$

be the projection of f on $\kappa_0, \kappa_1, \dots, \kappa_n$. Then $\alpha_k = \int_0^1 f(u) \kappa_k(u) du$, $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \alpha_k^2 < \infty$, and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 (f(u) - f_n(u))^2 du = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \alpha_k^2 = 0.$$

Consequently,⁸ f can be written as

$$f(u) = \alpha_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k \sqrt{2} \cos(k\pi u) \text{ a.e. on } (0, 1).$$

5.3 Comparison with Classical Fourier Analysis

As is well-known⁹, the functions

$$1, \sqrt{2} \cos(k\pi x), \sqrt{2} \sin(k\pi x), \quad k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

form a complete orthonormal sequence in $L^2(-1, 1)$ with respect to the weight function $w(x) = \frac{1}{2}I(|x| \leq 1)$. Thus, for every real function $g \in L^2(-1, 1)$,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-1}^1 (g(x) - g_n(x))^2 dx = 0. \quad (31)$$

where

$$g_n(x) = \alpha_0 + \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k \sqrt{2} \cos(k\pi x) + \sum_{k=1}^n \beta_k \sqrt{2} \sin(k\pi x) \quad (32)$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_0 &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^1 g(x) dx \\ \alpha_k &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^1 \sqrt{2} \cos(k\pi x) g(x) dx \\ \beta_k &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^1 \sqrt{2} \sin(k\pi x) g(x) dx \\ \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k^2 &< \infty, \quad \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \beta_k^2 < \infty. \end{aligned}$$

Let $f(u) \in L^2(0, 1)$ be arbitrary, and let $g(x) = f(|x|)$. Then $g(x) \in L^2(-1, 1)$, with Fourier coefficients

$$\alpha_0 = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^1 f(|x|) dx = \int_0^1 f(u) du$$

⁸Similar to Theorem 1.

⁹See for example Young (1988)

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha_k &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^1 \sqrt{2} \cos(k\pi x) f(|x|) dx = \int_0^1 \sqrt{2} \cos(k\pi u) f(u) du \\ \beta_k &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^1 \sqrt{2} \sin(k\pi x) f(|x|) dx = 0\end{aligned}$$

Hence it follows from (31) that

$$\begin{aligned}& \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 \left(f(u) - \alpha_0 - \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k \sqrt{2} \cos(k\pi u) \right)^2 du \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-1}^1 \left(f(|x|) - \alpha_0 - \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k \sqrt{2} \cos(k\pi x) \right)^2 dx \\ &= 0\end{aligned} \tag{33}$$

Similar to the proof of Theorem 1 it follows now from (33) that

$$f(u) = \alpha_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k \sqrt{2} \cos(k\pi u) \text{ a.e. on } (0, 1),$$

where $\alpha_0 = \int_0^1 f(u) du$ and $\alpha_k = \int_0^1 \sqrt{2} \cos(k\pi u) f(u) du$ for $k \geq 1$, which is just the result in Theorem 5.

6 Trigonometric Representation of Density and Distribution Functions

6.1 Density Functions on the Unit Interval

It follows from Theorem 5 that for any density function $h(u)$ on $[0, 1]$ there exists a sequence $\{\alpha_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$ satisfying $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \alpha_k^2 = 1$ such that

$$h(u) = \left(\alpha_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k \sqrt{2} \cos(k\pi u) \right)^2 \text{ a.e. on } (0, 1). \tag{34}$$

However, similar to Bierens (2007) it follows that the α_k 's in (34) are no longer unique. For example, we can always write $h(u) = f_p(u)^2$ where for arbitrary $p \in [0, 1]$,

$$f_p(u) = (I(u < p) - I(u \geq p)) \sqrt{h(u)}. \tag{35}$$

Then the α_k 's in (34) take the form

$$\alpha_k = \int_0^p \sqrt{h(u)} \kappa_k(u) du - \int_p^1 \sqrt{h(u)} \kappa_k(u) du$$

In particular, we may choose for α_0 any

$$\alpha_0 \in \left[- \int_0^1 \sqrt{h(u)} du, \int_0^1 \sqrt{h(u)} du \right]. \quad (36)$$

If we choose $\alpha_0 \in \left(0, \int_0^1 \sqrt{h(u)} du \right]$ then we can reparametrize the Fourier coefficients α_k as

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_0 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \delta_m^2}} \\ \alpha_k &= \frac{\delta_k}{\sqrt{1 + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \delta_m^2}}, \quad k \geq 1 \end{aligned}$$

where $\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \delta_m^2 < \infty$. Hence,

Theorem 6. *For any density function $h(u)$ on $[0, 1]$ there exists a sequence $\{\delta_m\}_{m=1}^{\infty}$ satisfying $\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \delta_m^2 < \infty$ such that*

$$h(u) = \frac{\left(1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \delta_k \sqrt{2} \cos(k\pi u)\right)^2}{1 + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \delta_m^2} \quad \text{a.e. on } (0, 1). \quad (37)$$

Moreover, the corresponding SNP densities

$$h_n(u) = \frac{\left(1 + \sqrt{2} \sum_{k=1}^n \delta_k \cos(k\pi u)\right)^2}{1 + \sum_{m=1}^n \delta_m^2} \quad (38)$$

satisfy

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 |h(u) - h_n(u)| du = 0. \quad (39)$$

Furthermore, the corresponding SNP distribution function $H_n(u) = \int_0^u h_n(v) dv$ has the closed form expression

$$H_n(u) = u + \frac{1}{1 + \sum_{m=1}^n \delta_m^2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \times \left[2\sqrt{2} \sum_{k=1}^n \delta_k \frac{\sin(k\pi u)}{k\pi} + \sum_{k=1}^n \delta_k^2 \frac{\sin(2k\pi u)}{2k\pi} \right. \\ & \left. + \sum_{m=1}^{n-1} \sum_{k=m+1}^n \delta_m \delta_k \left(\frac{\sin((k+m)\pi u)}{(k+m)\pi} + \frac{\sin((k-m)\pi u)}{(k-m)\pi} \right) \right] \quad (40) \end{aligned}$$

The latter result follows from the well-known sine-cosine formulas, and (39) follows from the corresponding result in Bierens (2007) based on shifted Legendre polynomials.

6.2 General Representation of Density and Distribution Functions

Given a continuous distribution function $G(x)$ with support $\Xi \subset \mathbb{R}$, any distribution function $F(x)$ with support contained in Ξ can be written as $F(x) = H(G(x))$, where $H(u) = F(G^{-1}(u))$ is a distribution function on $[0, 1]$. Moreover, if F and G are absolutely continuous with densities f and g , respectively, then H is absolutely continuous with density $h(u)$, and $f(x) = h(G(x))g(x)$. Therefore, $f(x)$ can be estimated semi-nonparametrically by estimating $h(u)$ semi-nonparametrically. The role of G is twofold. First, G determines the support of f . Second, G acts as an initial guess of the unknown distribution function F . Obviously, in the latter case the initial guess is right if H is the c.d.f. of the uniform distribution on $[0, 1]$.

Therefore, it follows from Theorem 6 that

Theorem 7. *Given an absolutely continuous distribution function $G(x)$ on \mathbb{R} with density $g(x)$, any density function $f(x)$ with support contained in the support of g (i.e., $\{x : f(x) > 0\} \subset \{x : g(x) > 0\}$) can be written as*

$$f(x) = g(x) \frac{\left(1 + \sqrt{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \delta_k \cos(k\pi G(x))\right)^2}{1 + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \delta_m^2} \quad (41)$$

a.e. on $\{x : f(x) > 0\}$. Moreover, the corresponding SNP densities

$$f_n(x) = g(x) \frac{\left(1 + \sqrt{2} \sum_{k=1}^n \delta_k \cos(k\pi G(x))\right)^2}{1 + \sum_{m=1}^n \delta_m^2} \quad (42)$$

satisfy

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(x) - f_n(x)| dx = 0.$$

7 References

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8 Appendix

8.1 Proof of Theorem 1

Let $\bar{f}_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \gamma_k \bar{p}_k(x|w)$, where $\gamma_k = \int_a^b \bar{p}_k(x|w) f(x) w(x) dx$, and observe that due to condition (5), $\bar{f}_n \in L_w^2(a, b)$. Next, observe that

$$\begin{aligned} \|f - \bar{f}_n\|^2 &= \int_a^b \left(f(x) - \sum_{k=0}^n \gamma_k \bar{p}_k(x|w) \right)^2 w(x) dx \\ &= \int_a^b f(x)^2 w(x) dx - 2 \sum_{k=0}^n \gamma_k \int_a^b \bar{p}_k(x|w) f(x) w(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& + \sum_{k_1=0}^n \sum_{k_2=0}^n \gamma_{k_1} \gamma_{k_2} \int_a^b \bar{p}_{k_1}(x|w) \bar{p}_{k_2}(x|w) w(x) dx \\
& = \int_a^b f(x)^2 w(x) dx - \sum_{k=0}^n \gamma_k^2 \geq 0.
\end{aligned} \tag{43}$$

Hence $\sum_{k=0}^n \gamma_k^2 \leq \int_a^b f(x)^2 w(x) dx < \infty$ for all $n \geq 0$, and thus

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma_k^2 < \infty. \tag{44}$$

The latter implies that \bar{f}_n is a Cauchy sequence in $L_w^2(a, b)$ because

$$\lim_{\min(n,m) \rightarrow \infty} \|\bar{f}_n - \bar{f}_m\|^2 = \lim_{\min(n,m) \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=\min(n,m)+1}^{\max(n,m)} \gamma_k^2 \leq \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=m}^{\infty} \gamma_k^2 = 0.$$

It follows therefore from the definition of a Hilbert space¹⁰ that there exists a function $\bar{f} \in L_w^2(a, b)$ such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|\bar{f}_n - \bar{f}\| = 0. \tag{45}$$

This limit function \bar{f} can be written as

$$\bar{f}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \gamma_k \bar{p}_k(x|w) + \varepsilon_n(x) \tag{46}$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, where

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b \varepsilon_n(x)^2 w(x) dx = 0. \tag{47}$$

Proof of (7): To prove (7), it suffices to show that

$$\int_a^b \exp(i.t.x) (f(x) - \bar{f}(x)) w(x) dx = 0 \tag{48}$$

for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$, because (48) implies that $f(x) = \bar{f}(x)$ a.e. on (a, b) , due to the uniqueness of the Fourier transform.¹¹

¹⁰In particular the property that every Cauchy sequence in a Hilbert space converges to a limit contained in this Hilbert space.

¹¹See for example Bierens (1994, Theorem 3.1.1, p.50).

It follows from the definition of γ_m and \bar{f} that for $m \leq n$,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_a^b (f(x) - \bar{f}(x)) \bar{p}_m(x|w) w(x) dx \right| &= \left| \int_a^b \varepsilon_n(x) \bar{p}_m(x|w) w(x) dx \right| \\ &\leq \sqrt{\int_a^b \varepsilon_n(x)^2 w(x) dx}, \end{aligned}$$

hence by (47),

$$\int_a^b (f(x) - \bar{f}(x)) \bar{p}_m(x|w) w(x) dx = 0 \quad (49)$$

for all $m \in \mathbb{N}$. This result implies, by induction, that

$$\int_a^b (f(x) - \bar{f}(x)) x^m w(x) dx = 0 \text{ for all } m \in \mathbb{N}. \quad (50)$$

In its turn (50) implies, together with the well-known equality $\exp(i.t.x) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} (i.t.x)^m / m!$, that for $t \in \mathbb{R}$ and all $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\begin{aligned} &\int_a^b \exp(i.t.x) (f(x) - \bar{f}(x)) w(x) dx \\ &= \int_a^b \sum_{m=0}^n \frac{(i.t.x)^m}{m!} (f(x) - \bar{f}(x)) w(x) dx \\ &\quad + \int_a^b \left(\sum_{m=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{(i.t.x)^m}{m!} \right) (f(x) - \bar{f}(x)) w(x) dx \\ &= \int_a^b \left(\sum_{m=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{(i.t.x)^m}{m!} \right) (f(x) - \bar{f}(x)) w(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

If $-\infty < a < b < \infty$ then by dominated convergence,

$$\begin{aligned} &\int_a^b \exp(i.t.x) (f(x) - \bar{f}(x)) w(x) dx \\ &= \int_a^b \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{m=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{(i.t.x)^m}{m!} \right) (f(x) - \bar{f}(x)) w(x) dx = 0 \end{aligned}$$

If $a = -\infty$ and/or $b = \infty$ we can find for arbitrary $\varepsilon > 0$ a finite lower bound $a(\varepsilon) > a$ and a finite upper bound $b(\varepsilon) < b$ such that

$$\left| \int_a^{a(\varepsilon)} \exp(i.t.x) (f(x) - \bar{f}(x)) w(x) dx \right| < \varepsilon/2$$

$$\left| \int_{b(\varepsilon)}^b \exp(i.t.x) (f(x) - \bar{f}(x)) w(x) dx \right| < \varepsilon/2$$

whereas by dominated convergence

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{a(\varepsilon)}^{b(\varepsilon)} \exp(i.t.x) (f(x) - \bar{f}(x)) w(x) dx \\ &= \int_{a(\varepsilon)}^{b(\varepsilon)} \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{m=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{(i.t.x)^m}{m!} \right) (f(x) - \bar{f}(x)) w(x) dx = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Since $\varepsilon > 0$ is arbitrary, we therefore have in either case that (48) holds. It therefore follows from (46) and (47) that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b \left(f(x) - \sum_{k=0}^n \gamma_k \bar{p}_k(x|w) \right)^2 w(x) dx = 0. \quad (51)$$

This completes the proof of (7)

Proof of (8): To prove that (7) implies (8), let X be a random drawing from $w(x)$. Then by Chebyshev's inequality, (51) implies

$$f(X) = p \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^n \gamma_k \bar{p}_k(X|w) \quad (52)$$

As is well-known¹², convergence in probability is equivalent to almost sure (a.s.) convergence along a further subsequence of an arbitrary subsequence of n . Thus it follows from (52) that for any subsequence n_j in \mathbb{N} there exists a further subsequence n_{j_m} such that for $m \rightarrow \infty$,

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n_{j_m}} \gamma_k \bar{p}_k(X|w) \rightarrow f(X) \text{ a.s.} \quad (53)$$

¹²See for example Bierens (2004, Theorem 6.B.3, p.168).

For each n there exists an m such that $n_{j_{m-1}} \leq n < n_{j_m}$. Hence, there exists a further subsequence j_n of n_{j_m} such that for $n \rightarrow \infty$,

$$\sum_{k=0}^{j_n} \gamma_k \bar{p}_k(X|w) \rightarrow f(X) \text{ a.s.}, \quad (54)$$

and $j_{n-1} \leq n < j_n$. The latter implies that

$$\begin{aligned} E \left[\left(\sum_{k=0}^{j_n} \gamma_k \bar{p}_k(X|w) - \sum_{k=0}^n \gamma_k \bar{p}_k(X|w) \right)^2 \right] &= E \left(\sum_{k=n+1}^{j_n} \gamma_k \bar{p}_k(X|w) \right)^2 \\ &\leq \sum_{k=j_{n-1}+1}^{j_n} \gamma_k^2 \end{aligned}$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} E \left[\left(\sum_{k=0}^{j_n} \gamma_k \bar{p}_k(X|w) - \sum_{k=0}^n \gamma_k \bar{p}_k(X|w) \right)^2 \right] &\leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sum_{k=j_{n-1}+1}^{j_n} \gamma_k^2 \\ &\leq \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma_k^2 < \infty \end{aligned}$$

Then by Chebyshev's inequality,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P \left[\left| \sum_{k=0}^{j_n} \gamma_k \bar{p}_k(X|w) - \sum_{k=0}^n \gamma_k \bar{p}_k(X|w) \right| > \varepsilon \right] < \infty$$

for all $\varepsilon > 0$, which by the Borel-Cantelli lemma¹³ implies that for $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{j_n} \gamma_k \bar{p}_k(X|w) - \sum_{k=0}^n \gamma_k \bar{p}_k(X|w) \rightarrow 0 \text{ a.s.} \quad (55)$$

Combining (54) and (55), it follows that $\sum_{k=0}^n \gamma_k \bar{p}_k(X|w) \rightarrow f(X)$ a.s. as $n \rightarrow \infty$, which is equivalent to (8) because the support of $w(x)$ was assumed to be (a, b) . Q.E.D.

¹³See for example Bierens (2004, Theorem 2.B.2, p. 168).

8.2 Proof of Theorem 2

Due to the normalization $\alpha_{k,k} = 1$ it follows that $p_{k+1}(x|w) - x.p_k(x|w)$ is a polynomial of order k , which can be written as a linear combination of $p_0(x|w), p_1(x|w), \dots, p_k(x|w)$:

$$p_{k+1}(x|w) - x.p_k(x|w) = \sum_{j=0}^k \delta_{j,k} p_j(x|w) \quad (56)$$

for example. Then for $m \leq k$,

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_{k+1}(x|w) p_m(x|w) w(x) dx - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x.p_k(x|w) p_m(x|w) w(x) dx \\ &\quad - \sum_{j=0}^k \delta_{j,k} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_j(x|w) p_m(x|w) w(x) dx \\ &= - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x.p_k(x|w) p_m(x|w) w(x) dx - \delta_{m,k} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_m(x|w)^2 w(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

so that

$$\delta_{m,k} = - \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x.p_k(x|w) p_m(x|w) w(x) dx}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_m(x|w)^2 w(x) dx}$$

Because $x.p_m(x|w)$ is a polynomial of order $m+1$, it follows that for $m \leq k-2$, $x.p_m(x|w)$ is orthogonal to $p_k(x|w)$, hence $\delta_{m,k} = 0$ for $m = 0, 1, \dots, k-2$. Thus it follows from (56) that

$$\begin{aligned} p_{k+1}(x|w) - x.p_k(x|w) &= \delta_{k,k} p_k(x|w) + \delta_{k-1,k} p_{k-1}(x|w) \\ &= -b_k p_k(x|w) - c_k p_{k-1}(x|w) \end{aligned}$$

where

$$b_k = -\delta_{k,k} = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x.p_k(x|w)^2 w(x) dx}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_k(x|w)^2 w(x) dx}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} c_k &= -\delta_{k-1,k} = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x.p_k(x|w) p_{k-1}(x|w) w(x) dx}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_{k-1}(x|w)^2 w(x) dx} \\ &= \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_k(x|w)^2 w(x) dx}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_{k-1}(x|w)^2 w(x) dx} \end{aligned}$$

The last equality is easy to verify.

8.3 Proof of Theorem 4

Denote $d_k = \sqrt{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_k(x|w)^2 w(x) dx}$ and $p_k(x|w) = d_k \bar{p}_k(x|w)$. It follows trivially from (12) that

$$a_k \frac{d_{k+1}}{d_k} \bar{p}_{k+1}(x|w) + (b_k - x) \bar{p}_k(x|w) + c_k \frac{d_{k-1}}{d_k} \bar{p}_{k-1}(x|w) = 0, \quad k \geq 1. \quad (57)$$

However, with a_k and c_k defined in Theorem 3 we have

$$d_k/d_{k-1} = \sqrt{\frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_k(x|w)^2 w(x) dx}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_{k-1}(x|w)^2 w(x) dx}} = \sqrt{\frac{c_k}{a_{k-1}}},$$

so that (57) can be written as

$$\sqrt{c_{k+1} \cdot a_k} \bar{p}_{k+1}(x|w) + (b_k - x) \bar{p}_k(x|w) + \sqrt{c_k \cdot a_{k-1}} \bar{p}_{k-1}(x|w) = 0, \quad k \geq 1.$$

Note that

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{c_{k+1} \cdot a_k} &= \left| \lim_{|x| \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x \cdot p_k(x|w)}{p_{k+1}(x|w)} \right| \sqrt{\frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_{k+1}(x|w)^2 w(x) dx}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_k(x|w)^2 w(x) dx}} \\ &= \left| \lim_{|x| \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x \cdot \bar{p}_k(x|w)}{\bar{p}_{k+1}(x|w)} \right|. \end{aligned}$$

Redefining $\sqrt{c_{k+1} \cdot a_k}$ as the new a_{k+1} in (14), the TTRR (13) follows.