A Note on applications of q-Theory

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Abstract: This paper deals with describing application of q-theory in different fields of mathematics and future areas where its use can be extended. **Keywords:** q-analogue, q-function, q-hypergeometric function

I. Introduction

Basic hypergeometric series are called q-analogues (basic analogues or q-extensions) of hypergeometric series.

q-hypergeometric series, are q-analog generalizations of generalized hypergeometric series, and are in turn generalized by elliptic hypergeometric series. A series x_n is called hypergeometric if the ratio of successive terms x_{n+1}/x_n is a rational function of n. If the ratio of successive terms is a rational function of q^n , then the series is called a basic hypergeometric series. The number q is called the base or parameter which lies between 0 and 1.Value of q determines accuracy of analogue of any classical function.

1.1 Basic Differentiation operator

$D_{q,x} f(x) = \frac{f(qx) - f(x)}{x(q-1)}$	(1)
1.2 q-Integration	
$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dqx = (1-q) \{ b \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} q^{r} f(q^{r}b) - a \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} q^{r} f(q^{r}a) \}$	(2)
1.3 q-exponential function	
A whole family of q exponential function can be defined as	
$E(q,\beta;x) = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} x^r q^{\beta r(r-1)} / [r;q]!$	(3)

 $E(q,\beta;x) = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} x^r q^{\beta r(r-1)} / [r;q]!$ depending upon value of β i.e. $\beta = 0$, $\beta = 1/2$ and $\beta = 1/4$ repectively.

II. q-analogue of some statistical functions

2.1 Forward Differences

If $y_0, y_1, y_2, ..., y_n$ denote a set of values of y, where y=f(z), then $y_1-y_0, y_2-y_1, ..., y_n-y_{n-1}$ are called differences of y, where Δ is called forward difference operator and ∇ is called backward difference operator and as 0 < q < 1, f(z) > f(qz).

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta f(z) &= f(z) - f(qz) \\ \Delta^2 f(z) &= \Delta f(z) - \Delta f(qz) = f(q^2 z) - 2f(qz) + f(z) \end{aligned} \tag{4} \\ \Delta^3 f(z) &= f(q^3 z) - 3f(q^2 z) + 3f(qz) - f(z) \\ \Delta^4 f(z) &= f(q^4 z) - 4f(q^3 z) + 6f(q^2 z) - 4f(qz) + f(z) \end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

2.2 Backward Differences

 $\nabla f(qz) = f(qz) - f(z) \tag{8}$ $\nabla f(q^2z) = f(q^2z) - f(qz) \tag{9}$

$$\nabla^2 f(q^2 z) = \nabla f(q^2 z) - \nabla f(q z) = f(q^2 z) - 2f(q z) + f(z)$$

$$\nabla^3 f(q^3 z) = f(q^3 z) - 3f(q^2 z) + 3f(q z) - f(z)$$
(10)
(11)

2.3 q -analogue of Moment Generating Function

Let X be a random variable.

Then $EXPEC\left(E_q(tx)\right) = EXPEC\left(\sum \frac{(tx)^r}{[r;q]!}\right) = 1 + t\mu_1 + \frac{t^2}{[2;q]!}\mu_2 + \dots + \frac{t^r}{[r;q]!}\mu_r,$ (12) where EXPEC is expected value.

The coefficient of $\frac{t^r}{[r;q]!}$ in the expression is μ_r , the rth moment of X about origin.

(13)

MGF for discrete random variable with probability distribution

X:	x1	x2xn
P(x):	p1	p2pn

$$M(t) = EXPEC(E(q, tx)) = \sum E_q(tX)p_i$$

MGF for a Continuous Random Variable

Let X be a continuous random variable with probability density function f(x), $-\infty < x < \infty$

$$M(t) = Expec(E(q,tx)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} E(q,tx)f(x)d(qx)$$
(14)

Expec(E(q,tx)) is mgf about origin. Expec(E(q,t(x-a)) is mgf about point a. Expec(E(q, t($x - \overline{x}$)) is mgf about origin.

Properties of mgf

$$Expec\left(E(q,t(x+y))\right) = Expec(E(q,tx)) + Expec(E(q,ty))$$
(15)

$$Expec\left(E_q(t(x+y))\right) = Expec\left(E_q(tx)\right) + Expec\left(E_q(ty)\right)$$
(16)

 $Expec\left(E_q(t(u+c))\right) = E_q(tu) + Expec(E_q(tc))$ (17)

2.4 q -Distribution Function

If $F_q(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)d(qx) = P(X \le x)$ then the function $F_q(x)$ is the probability that the value of the variable will be less or equal to x. Thus, $F_q(x) = P(X \le x)$ and

 $F_q(b) - F_q(a) = \int_a^b f(x)d(qx) = P(a \le X \le b)$. $F_q(x)$ is called the cumulative distribution function of X or simply distribution function.

Properties

$$F_a(-\infty) = 0 \text{ and } F_a(\infty) = 1 \tag{18}$$

2.5 q- analogue of Differential Equation

Solution of second order linear differential equation with constant coefficients

$D_q^2 y - a_1 D_q^1 y + a_2 = 0$ If auxiliary equation has real and distinct roots m ₁ and m ₂ , general solution is	(19)
$y = A E_q(m_1 \mathbf{x}) + B E_q(m_2 \mathbf{x})$	(20)
or $y = A E(q; m_1 x) + BE(q; m_2 x)$	(21)
or	
$y = A E(1/q; m_1 \sqrt{qx}) + BE(1/q; m_2 \sqrt{qx})$ Real and equal roots	(22)
If m1=m2=m	
y= (Ax+B) $E_q(mx)$ or y= (Ax+B) $E(q;m\sqrt{qx})$ or y= (Ax+B) $E(1/q;m\sqrt{qx})$	(23)
Complex Conjugate Roots	
If α and β be the real and imaginary parts of the roots then general solution will take form	
$y = C1E(q; \alpha \sqrt{qx})\sin(q; (\beta x+C2))$	(24)

2.6 Basic Analogue of Integral Transforms

2.6.1 q-Laplace Transform	
$f(s) = \int_0^\infty F(t)E(q, -st)d(qt)$	(25)

2.6.2 q-Fourier Transform

 $f(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(t)E(q, -ist)d(qt)$ 2.6.3q-MellinTransform (25)

$$f(s) = \int_0^{\infty} F(t)t^{s-1}a(qt)$$
2.6.4 q-HankelTransform
(27)

$$f(s) = \int_0^\infty F(t) t J_n(st) d(qt)$$
⁽²⁸⁾

2.7 Basic Analogue of Newton Cotes Integration

 $I=\int_{a}^{b} w(x)f(x)dqx = \sum_{k=0}^{n} m_{k} f(x_{k}) \text{ where } x_{1}, x_{2}, \dots, x_{n} \text{ are nodes distributed within limits of integration.}$ $R_{n} = (1-q)\{b\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} q^{r} w(q^{r}b)f(q^{r}b) - a\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} q^{r} w(q^{r}a)f(q^{r}a)\} - \sum_{k=0}^{n} m_{k} f(x_{k})$ (29) $R_{n} \text{ is the error term.}$ If w(x) = 1 and nodes x_{k}^{s} are distributed in [a,b] with $x_{0} = a$, $x_{n} = b$ and h = (b-a)/n, $x_{k} = x_{0} + kh$, $k \in n$. $(1-q)\{b\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} q^{r} w(q^{r}b)f(q^{r}b) - a\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} q^{r} w(q^{r}a)f(q^{r}a)\} = \frac{(b-a)[f(a)+f(b)]}{[2;q]!}$ (30)
where $\frac{(b-a)}{[2;q]!} = h$.
By putting w(x)=1, n=1, f(x)=x in $\int_{a}^{b} w(x)f(x)dqx = \sum_{k=0}^{n} m_{k} f(x_{k})$ we get, $m_{0} = m_{1} = \frac{(b-a)}{1+q} = \int_{a}^{b} w(x)f(x)dqx = \frac{(b-a)}{[2;q]!} (f(a) + f(b))$ (31)

which is analogue of Trapezoidal Rule.

$$R_{n} = \frac{-h^{3}}{12} D_{q}^{2} f(\xi)$$

= $\frac{-h^{3}}{12q\xi^{2}(q-1)^{2}} (f(q^{2}\xi) - [2;q]f(q\xi) + qf(\xi)]$ (32)

$$=\frac{-h^3}{12}\frac{[q_2f(q_1^2\xi)+q_1f(q_2^2\xi)-q_1f(q_1q_2\xi)-q_2f(q_1q_2\xi)]}{(q_1-q_2)^2\xi^2}$$

By putting n=2 and n=3 we can easily get analogue for Simpson's 1/3 and Simpsons's 3/8 rule.

2.7.1 q-Simpson's 1/3 Rule

By putting w(x)=1, n=2, f(x)=x² in $\int_{a}^{b} w(x) f(x) dqx = \sum_{k=0}^{n} m_{k} f(x_{k})$ (33) we get

$$m_0 = \frac{(b-a)}{[3;q]}, m_1 = \frac{4(b-a)}{[3;q]}, m_2 = \frac{(b-a)}{[3;q]}$$
(34)

2.7.2 q-Simpsons's 3/8 Rule

By putting w(x)=1,n=3,f(x)=x³in $\int_{a}^{b} w(x)f(x)dqx = \sum_{k=0}^{n} m_{k} f(x_{k})$ (35) we get,

$$m_0 = \frac{3(b-a)}{2[4;q]}, m_1 = \frac{9(b-a)}{2[4;q]}, m_2 = \frac{9(b-a)}{2[4;q]}, m_3 = \frac{3(b-a)}{2[4;q]}$$
(36)

For a method of order m

Error =
$$R_n = \frac{c}{[m+1;q]!} D_q^n f(\xi),$$
 (37)
where $a < \xi < b$

Error terms in Trapezoidal Rule, Simpson's 1/3 Rule, Simpson's 3/8Rule

$$E_{trp} = -\frac{h^3}{12} D_q^2 f(\xi), E_{smp\ 1/3} = -\frac{Ch^4}{24} D_q^3 f(\xi), E_{smp\ 3/8} = -\frac{3h^5}{80} D_q^4 f(\xi)$$
(38)

Weights for Newton's Cotes Integration methods when q tends to one.

Ο.	$\boldsymbol{\mathcal{G}}$						
	n	m_0	m1	m_2	m ₃		
	0	1/2	1/2				
	1	1/3	4/3	1/3			
	2	3/8	9/8	9/8	3/8		

2.8 q-analogue of Lobatto Integration

$$\int_{-1}^{1} f(x) dqx = 2(1-q) \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} q^{r} f(q^{r}) = m_{0} f(-1) + m_{n} f(n) + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} m_{k} f(x_{k})$$
(39)

For n=2,
$$\int_{-1}^{1} f(x) dqx = \frac{1}{1+q+q^2} [f(-1) + f(1) + 4f(0)]$$
 (40)

2.9 q- analogue of Radau Integration

$$\int_{-1}^{1} f(x) dqx = 2(1-q) \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} q^{r} f(q^{r}) = m_{0} f(-1) + \sum_{k=1}^{n} m_{k} f(x_{k})$$
(41)

For n=2

$$\int_{-1}^{1} f(x) dqx = \frac{2}{3(1+q+q^2)} f(-1) + \frac{16+\sqrt{6}}{6(1+q+q^2)} f\left(\frac{1-\sqrt{6}}{5}\right) + \frac{16-\sqrt{6}}{6(1+q+q^2)} f\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{6}}{5}\right)$$
(42)

Predictor Correctors Method

2.10 q- analogue of Milne's Method

 $y_{4} = y_{0} + h[4f_{0} + 16\frac{\Delta_{q}f_{0}}{[2;q]} + \frac{32[2;q]-8[3;q]}{[2;q][3;q]}\Delta_{q}^{2}f_{0} + \frac{2}{3}\Delta_{q}^{3}f_{0}\left\{\frac{[2;q][3;q]8^{4} - 3*16^{2}[4;q][2;q]+32[4;q][3;q]}{[4;q][2;q][3;q]}\right\}]$ **2.11 q-analogue of Moultons Method** (43)

$$y_1 = y_0 + h \left[f_0 + \frac{\nabla_q f_0}{[2;q]} + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{[3;q]} + \frac{1}{[2;q]} \right) \nabla_q^2 f_0 + \frac{1}{6} \nabla_q^3 f_0 \left(\frac{1}{[4;q]} + \frac{3}{[3;q]} + \frac{2}{[1;q]} \right) \right]$$
(44)

where,
$$\Delta_q^n \in K$$
. Conrad [4] difference operator
 $\Delta_q^n = \{(E - q^{n-1}) \dots (E - q)(E - 1)\}$
(45)

where E(f(x))=f(x+h)

III. Conclusion

q-analogue of these methods provide an alternate method of solving classical problems where value of q determines the accuracy of result. q-analogue of different transformations can be used in boundary value problems of differential equations as well as in computer problems where parameters play important role.

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