Research Article

A Note on Finite Quadrature Rules with a Kind of Freud Weight Function

Kamal Aghigh and M. Masjed-Jamei

Department of Mathematics, K.N. Toosi University of Technology, P.O. Box 1618, Tehran 16315-1618, Iran

Correspondence should be addressed to M. Masjed-Jamei, mmjamei@kntu.ac.ir

Received 17 December 2008; Accepted 23 April 2009

Recommended by Slimane Adjerid

We introduce a finite class of weighted quadrature rules with the weight function $|x|^{-2a} \exp(-1/x^2)$ on $(-\infty, \infty)$ as $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x|^{-2a} \exp(-1/x^2) f(x) dx = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i f(x_i) + R_n[f]$, where x_i are the zeros of polynomials orthogonal with respect to the introduced weight function, w_i are the corresponding coefficients, and $R_n[f]$ is the error value. We show that the above formula is valid only for the finite values of n . In other words, the condition $a \geq \{\max n\} + 1/2$ must always be satisfied in order that one can apply the above quadrature rule. In this sense, some numerical and analytic examples are also given and compared.

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1. Introduction

Recently in [1] the differential equation

$$x^2(px^2 + q)\Phi_n''(x) + x(rx^2 + s)\Phi_n'(x) - \left(n(r + (n-1)p)x^2 + \frac{(1 - (-1)^n)s}{2}\right)\Phi_n(x) = 0 \quad (1.1)$$

is introduced, and its explicit solution is shown by

$$\begin{aligned} S_n \left(\begin{array}{cc|c} r & s & x \\ p & q & \end{array} \right) \\ = \sum_{k=0}^{[n/2]} \binom{[n/2]}{k} \left(\prod_{i=0}^{[n/2]-(k+1)} \frac{(2i + (-1)^{n+1} + 2[n/2])p + r}{(2i + (-1)^{n+1} + 2)q + s} \right) x^{n-2k}. \end{aligned} \quad (1.2)$$

It is also called the generic equation of classical symmetric orthogonal polynomials [1, 2]. If this equation is written in a self-adjoint form then the first-order equation

$$x \frac{d}{dx} \left((px^2 + q)W(x) \right) = (rx^2 + s)W(x) \quad (1.3)$$

is derived. The solution of (1.3) is known as an analogue of Pearson distributions family and can be indicated as

$$W \left(\begin{matrix} r & s \\ p & q \end{matrix} \middle| x \right) = \exp \left(\int \frac{(r - 2p)x^2 + s}{x(px^2 + q)} dx \right). \quad (1.4)$$

In general, there are four main subclasses of distributions family (1.4) (as subsolutions of (1.3)) whose explicit probability density functions are, respectively,

$$K_1 W \left(\begin{matrix} -2a - 2b - 2, & 2a \\ -1, & 1 \end{matrix} \middle| x \right) = \frac{\Gamma(a + b + 3/2)}{\Gamma(a + 1/2)\Gamma(b + 1)} x^{2a} (1 - x^2)^b, \quad (1.5)$$

$$-1 \leq x \leq 1, \quad a + \frac{1}{2} > 0, \quad b + 1 > 0,$$

$$K_2 W \left(\begin{matrix} -2, & 2a \\ 0, & 1 \end{matrix} \middle| x \right) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(a + 1/2)} x^{2a} \exp(-x^2), \quad -\infty < x < \infty, \quad a + \frac{1}{2} > 0, \quad (1.6)$$

$$K_3 W \left(\begin{matrix} -2a - 2b + 2, & -2a \\ 1, & 1 \end{matrix} \middle| x \right) = \frac{\Gamma(b)}{\Gamma(b + a - 1/2)\Gamma(-a + 1/2)} \frac{x^{-2a}}{(1 + x^2)^b}, \quad (1.7)$$

$$-\infty < x < \infty, \quad b > 0, \quad a < \frac{1}{2}, \quad b + a > \frac{1}{2},$$

$$K_4 W \left(\begin{matrix} -2a + 2, & 2 \\ 1, & 0 \end{matrix} \middle| x \right) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(a - 1/2)} x^{-2a} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{x^2}\right), \quad -\infty < x < \infty, \quad a > \frac{1}{2}. \quad (1.8)$$

The values $K_i; i = 1, 2, 3, 4$ play the normalizing constant role in these distributions. Moreover, the value of distribution vanishes at $x = 0$ in each four cases, that is, $W(0; p, q, r, s) = 0$ for $s \neq 0$. Hence, (1.4) is called in [1] "The dual symmetric distributions family."

As a special case of $W(x; p, q, r, s)$, let us choose the values $p = 1, q = 0, r = -2a + 2$, and $s = 2$ corresponding to distribution (1.8) here and replace them in (1.1) to get

$$x^4 \Phi_n''(x) + 2x \left((1 - a)x^2 + 1 \right) \Phi_n'(x) - \left(n(n + 1 - 2a)x^2 + 1 - (-1)^n \right) \Phi_n(x) = 0. \quad (1.9)$$

If (1.9) is solved, the polynomial solution of monic type

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{S}_n \left(\begin{array}{cc} -2a+2 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array} \middle| x \right) &= \prod_{i=0}^{[n/2]-1} \frac{2}{2i+2[n/2]+(-1)^{n+1}+2-2a} \\ &\times \sum_{k=0}^{[n/2]} \binom{[n/2]}{k} \left(\prod_{i=0}^{[n/2]-(k+1)} \frac{2i+2[n/2]+(-1)^{n+1}+2-2a}{2} \right) x^{n-2k} \end{aligned} \quad (1.10)$$

is obtained. According to [1], these polynomials are finitely orthogonal with respect to a special kind of Freud weight function, that is, $x^{-2a} \exp(-1/x^2)$, on the real line $(-\infty, \infty)$ if and only if $a \geq \{\max\{m, n\} + 1/2\}$; see also [3, 4]. In other words, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x|^{-2a} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{x^2}\right) \bar{S}_n \left(\begin{array}{cc} -2a+2 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array} \middle| x \right) \bar{S}_m \left(\begin{array}{cc} -2a+2 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array} \middle| x \right) dx \\ = \left(\prod_{i=1}^n \frac{2(-1)^i(i-a)+2a}{(2i-2a+1)(2i-2a-1)} \right) \Gamma\left(a - \frac{1}{2}\right) \delta_{n,m}, \end{aligned} \quad (1.11)$$

if and only if $m, n = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N = \max\{m, n\} \leq a - 1/2$, $(-1)^{2a} = 1$ and

$$\delta_{n,m} = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } n \neq m, \\ 1, & \text{if } n = m. \end{cases} \quad (1.12)$$

Furthermore, the polynomials (1.10) also satisfy a three-term recurrence relation as

$$\bar{S}_{n+1}(x) = x \bar{S}_n(x) - \frac{2(-1)^n(n-a)+2a}{(2n-2a+1)(2n-2a-1)} \bar{S}_{n-1}(x), \quad \bar{S}_0(x) = 1, \quad \bar{S}_1(x) = x, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}. \quad (1.13)$$

But the polynomials $\bar{S}_n(x; 1, 0, -2a+2, 2)$ are suitable tool to finitely approximate arbitrary functions, which satisfy the Dirichlet conditions (see, e.g., [5]). For example, suppose that $N = \max\{m, n\} = 3$ and $a > 7/2$ in (1.10). Then, the function $f(x)$ can finitely be approximated as

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &\cong C_0 \bar{S}_0(x; 1, 0, -2a+2, 2) + C_1 \bar{S}_1(x; 1, 0, -2a+2, 2) \\ &+ C_2 \bar{S}_2(x; 1, 0, -2a+2, 2) + C_3 \bar{S}_3(x; 1, 0, -2a+2, 2), \end{aligned} \quad (1.14)$$

where

$$C_m = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{|x|^{-2a} \exp(-1/x^2) \bar{S}_m \left(\begin{array}{cc} -2a+2 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array} \middle| x \right) f(x) dx}{\left(\prod_{i=1}^m \left(\frac{2(-1)^i(i-a)+2a}{(2i-2a+1)(2i-2a-1)} \right) \Gamma(a-1/2) \right)}, \quad (1.15)$$

for $m = 0, 1, 2, 3$.

Clearly (1.14) is valid only when the general function $x^m|x|^{-2a}\exp(-1/x^2)f(x)$ in (1.15) is integrable for any $m = 0, 1, 2, 3$. This means that the finite set $\{\bar{S}_i(x; 1, 0, -2a + 2, 2)\}_{i=0}^3$ is a basis space for all polynomials of degree at most three. So if $f(x) = a_3x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_1x + a_0$, the approximation (1.14) is exact. By noting this, here is a good position to express an application of the mentioned polynomials in weighted quadrature rules [6, 7] by a straightforward example. Let us consider a two-point approximation as

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x|^{-2a} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{x^2}\right) f(x) dx \cong w_1 f(x_1) + w_2 f(x_2), \quad (1.16)$$

provided that $a > 5/2$. According to the described themes, (1.16) must be exact for all elements of the basis $f(x) = \{x^3, x^2, x, 1\}$ if and only if x_1, x_2 are two roots of $\bar{S}_2(x; 1, 0, -2a + 2, 2)$. For instance, if $a = 3 > 5/2$ then (1.16) should be changed to

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{-6} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{x^2}\right) f(x) dx \cong w_1 f\left(\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}\right) + w_2 f\left(-\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}\right), \quad (1.17)$$

in which $\sqrt{2/3}$ and $-\sqrt{2/3}$ are zeros of $\bar{S}_2(x; 1, 0, -4, 2)$, and w_1, w_2 are computed by solving the linear system

$$w_1 + w_2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{-6} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{x^2}\right) dx = \frac{3}{4}\sqrt{\pi}, \quad \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}(w_1 - w_2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{-5} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{x^2}\right) dx = 0. \quad (1.18)$$

Hence, after solving (1.18) the final form of (1.16) is known as

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{-6} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{x^2}\right) f(x) dx \cong \frac{3}{8}\sqrt{\pi} \left(f\left(\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}\right) + f\left(-\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}\right) \right). \quad (1.19)$$

This approximation is exact for all arbitrary polynomials of degree at most 3.

2. Application of Polynomials (1.10) in Weighted Quadrature Rules: General Case

As we know, the general form of weighted quadrature rules is given by

$$\int_a^\beta w(x) f(x) dx = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i f(x_i) + R_n[f], \quad (2.1)$$

in which the weights $\{w_i\}_{i=1}^n$ and the nodes $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$ are unknown values, $w(x)$ is a positive function, and $[\alpha, \beta]$ is an arbitrary interval; see, for example, [6, 7]. Moreover the residue $R_n[f]$ is determined (see, e.g., [7]) by

$$R_n[f] = \frac{f^{(2n)}(\xi)}{(2n)!} \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} w(x) \prod_{i=1}^n (x - x_i)^2 dx, \quad \alpha < \xi < \beta. \quad (2.2)$$

It can be proved in (2.1) that $R_n[f] = 0$ for any linear combination of the sequence $\{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^{2n-1}\}$ if and only if $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$ are the roots of orthogonal polynomials of degree n with respect to the weight function $w(x)$ on the interval $[\alpha, \beta]$. For more details, see [6]. Also, it is proved that to derive $\{w_i\}_{i=1}^n$ in (2.1), it is not required to solve the following linear system of order $n \times n$:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i^j = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} w(x) x^j dx \quad \text{for } j = 0, 1, \dots, 2n-1, \quad (2.3)$$

rather, one can directly use the relation

$$\frac{1}{w_i} = \hat{P}_0^2(x_i) + \hat{P}_1^2(x_i) + \dots + \hat{P}_{n-1}^2(x_i) \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, \dots, n, \quad (2.4)$$

where $\hat{P}_i(x)$ are orthonormal polynomials of $P_i(x)$ defined as

$$\hat{P}_i(x) = \left(\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} w(x) P_i^2(x) dx \right)^{-1/2} P_i(x). \quad (2.5)$$

In this way, as it is shown in [8, 9], $\hat{P}_i(x)$ satisfies a particular type of three-term recurrence as

$$x \hat{P}_{n-1}(x) = \alpha_n \hat{P}_n(x) + \beta_n \hat{P}_{n-1}(x) + \alpha_{n-1} \hat{P}_{n-2}(x). \quad (2.6)$$

Now, by noting these comments and the fact that the symmetric polynomials $\bar{S}_n(x; 1, 0, -2a + 2, 2)$ are finitely orthogonal with respect to the weight function $W(x, a) = |x|^{-2a} \exp(-1/x^2)$ on the real line, we can define a finite class of quadrature rules as

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x|^{-2a} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{x^2}\right) f(x) dx = \sum_{j=1}^n w_j f(x_j) + R_n[f], \quad (2.7)$$

in which x_j are the roots of $\bar{S}_n(x; 1, 0, -2a + 2, 2)$ and w_j are computed by

$$\frac{1}{w_j} = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \left(\bar{S}_i^*(1, 0, -2a + 2, 2; x_j) \right)^2, \quad \text{for } j = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n. \quad (2.8)$$

Moreover, for the residue value we have

$$R_n[f] = \frac{f^{(2n)}(\xi)}{(2n)!} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x|^{-2a} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{x^2}\right) \prod_{j=1}^n (x - x_j)^2 dx, \quad \xi \in \mathbb{R}. \quad (2.9)$$

2.1. An Important Remark

It is important to note that by applying the change of variable $1/x^2 = t$ in the left-hand side of (2.7) the orthogonality interval $(-\infty, \infty)$ changes to $[0, \infty)$ and subsequently

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x|^{-2a} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{x^2}\right) f(x) dx = \int_0^{\infty} t^{a-3/2} e^{-t} f\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{t}}\right) dt. \quad (2.10)$$

As it is observed, the right-hand integral of (2.10) contains the well-known Laguerre weight function $x^u e^{-x}$ for $u = a - 3/2$. Hence, one can use Gauss-Laguerre quadrature rules [8, 9] with the special parameter $u = a - 3/2$. This process changes (2.7) in the form

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x|^{-2a} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{x^2}\right) f(x) dx = \sum_{j=1}^n w_j^{(a-3/2)} f\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{x_j^{(a-3/2)}}}\right) + R_n\left[f\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}\right)\right], \quad (2.11)$$

in which $x_j^{(a-3/2)}$ are the zeros of Laguerre polynomials $L_n^{(a-3/2)}(x)$. But, there is a large disadvantage for formula (2.11). According to (2.2) or (2.9), the residue of integration rules generally depends on $f^{(2n)}(\xi)$; $\alpha < \xi < \beta$. Thus, by noting (2.11) we should have

$$\frac{d^{2n} f(1/\sqrt{x})}{dx^{2n}} = \sum_{i=0}^{2n} \phi_i(x) f^{(i)}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}\right), \quad (2.12)$$

where $\phi_i(x)$ are real functions to be computed and $f^{(i)}$, $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, 2n$, are the successive derivatives of function $f(x)$.

As we observe in (2.12), $f(x)$ cannot be in the form of an arbitrary polynomial function in order that the right-hand side of (2.12) is equal to zero. In other words, (2.11) is not exact for the basis space $f(x) = x^j$, $j = 0, 1, 2, \dots, 2n - 1$. This is the main disadvantage of using (2.11), as the examples of next section support this claim.

3. Examples

Example 3.1. Since a 2-point formula was presented in (1.19), in this example we consider a 3-point integration formula. For this purpose, we should first note that according to (1.11) the condition $a > 7/2$ is necessary. Hence, let us, for instance, assume that $a = 4$. After some computations the related quadrature rule would take the form

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{-8} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{x^2}\right) f(x) dx = \frac{3}{16} \sqrt{\pi} \left(3f\left(\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}\right) + 4f(0) + 3f\left(-\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}\right) \right) + R_3[f], \quad (3.1)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} R_3[f] &= \frac{f^{(6)}(\xi)}{6!} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{-8} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{x^2}\right) \left(\bar{S}_3 \left(\begin{array}{cc|c} -6 & 2 & x \\ 1 & 0 & \end{array} \right) \right)^2 dx \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{1080} f^{(6)}(\xi), \quad \xi \in \mathbf{R}, \end{aligned} \quad (3.2)$$

and $x_1 = \sqrt{2/3}$, $x_2 = 0$, and $x_3 = -\sqrt{2/3}$ are the roots of $\bar{S}_3(x; 1, 0, -6, 2) = x^3 - (2/3)x$. Moreover, w_1, w_2, w_3 can be computed by

$$\frac{1}{w_j} = \sum_{i=0}^2 \left(\bar{S}_i^*(x_j; 1, 0, -6, 2) \right)^2, \quad j = 1, 2, 3, \quad (3.3)$$

in which

$$\bar{S}_i^*(x_j; 1, 0, -6, 2) = \frac{\bar{S}_i(x_j; 1, 0, -6, 2)}{\left\langle \bar{S}_i(x_j; 1, 0, -6, 2), \bar{S}_i(x_j; 1, 0, -6, 2) \right\rangle^{1/2}}. \quad (3.4)$$

Example 3.2. To have a 4-point formula, we should again note that $a > 9/2$ is a necessary condition. In this sense, if, for example, $a = 5$ then we eventually get

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{-10} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{x^2}\right) f(x) dx \\ &= \frac{15}{64} \sqrt{\pi} (7 - 2\sqrt{10}) \left(f\left(\sqrt{\frac{10+2\sqrt{10}}{15}}\right) + f\left(-\sqrt{\frac{10+2\sqrt{10}}{15}}\right) \right) \\ &+ \frac{15}{64} \sqrt{\pi} (7 + 2\sqrt{10}) \left(f\left(\sqrt{\frac{10-2\sqrt{10}}{15}}\right) + f\left(-\sqrt{\frac{10-2\sqrt{10}}{15}}\right) \right) + R_4[f], \end{aligned} \quad (3.5)$$

where

$$R_4[f] = \frac{f^{(8)}(\xi)}{8!} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{-10} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{x^2}\right) \left(\bar{S}_4 \left(\begin{array}{cc|c} -8 & 2 & x \\ 1 & 0 & \end{array} \right) \right)^2 dx = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{75600} f^{(8)}(\xi), \quad \xi \in \mathbf{R}. \quad (3.6)$$

Clearly this formula is exact for the basis elements $f(x) = x^j$, $j = 0, 1, 2, \dots, 7$, and the nodes of quadrature (3.5) are the roots of $\bar{S}_4(x; 1, 0, -8, 2) = x^4 - (4/3)x^2 + 4/15$.

4. Numerical results

In this section, some numerical examples are given and compared. The numerical results related to the 2-point formula (1.19) are presented in Table 1, the results related to 3-point

Table 1: $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x^{-6} \exp(-1/x^2) f(x) dx$.

$f(x)$	Approx. value (2-point)	Exact value	Error
$\cos x$	0.9103037512	0.9382539141	0.0279501629
$\exp(-2/x^2)$	0.0661839608	0.0852772257	0.0190932649
$\exp(-\cos x)$	0.6702559297	0.6812645398	0.0110086101

Table 2: $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x^{-8} \exp(-1/x^2) f(x) dx$.

$f(x)$	Approx. value (3-point)	Exact value	Error
$\exp(-\cos x)$	1.494420894	1.492841821	0.001579073
$\sqrt{1 + \sin x^2}$	3.866024228	3.866700560	0.000676332
$\sqrt{1 + \cos x^2}$	4.544708979	4.561266761	0.016557782

Table 3: $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x^{-10} \exp(-1/x^2) f(x) dx$.

$f(x)$	Approx. value (4-point)	Exact value	Error
$\sqrt{1 + \cos x^2}$	16.21776936	16.21978539	0.002016030
$(1 + x^2)^{-1/2}$	10.30987753	10.31704740	0.007116987
$\exp(-x^2 - 2)$	1.198219038	1.199125136	0.000906098

formula (3.1) are given in Table 2, and finally the results related to 4-point formula (3.5) are presented in Table 3.

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