

Lecture 8 - Integral Equations

①

1. Introductory Examples

Ex 1:

$$(a) \quad y(x) = x - \int_0^x (x-\xi) y(\xi) d\xi,$$

$$(b) \quad y(x) = f(x) + \lambda \int_0^x k(x-\xi) y(\xi) d\xi$$

($f(x)$ and $k(x)$ are fixed functions),

$$(c) \quad y(x) = \lambda \int_0^x k(x,t) y(t) dt, \text{ where}$$

$$k(x,t) = \begin{cases} x(1-t), & x \leq t \leq 1, \\ t(1-x), & 0 \leq t \leq x. \end{cases}$$

$$(d) \quad y(x) = \lambda \int_0^1 (1-3x\xi) y(\xi) d\xi,$$

$$(e) \quad y(x) = f(x) + \lambda \int_0^1 (1-3x\xi) y(\xi) d\xi.$$

Ex 2: "Fredholm's equation",

$$\int_a^b k(x,\xi) y(\xi) d\xi + a(x) y(x) = f(x).$$

First Kind $\leftrightarrow a(x) \equiv 0$

Second Kind $\leftrightarrow a(x) \neq 0$

(Ivar Fredholm)
1866-1927

$k(x,\xi)$ = kernel
$f(x)$ = outer force term
$y(x)$ = "outsignal"

EX3: "Volterra's equation".

(2)

$$\int_a^x k(x, \xi) y(\xi) d\xi + a(x) y(x) = f(x).$$

First kind $\Leftrightarrow a(x) \equiv 0$

Second kind $\Leftrightarrow a(x) \not\equiv 0$

(Vito Volterra 1860 - 1940)

EX4: "Salesman control problem".

a = amount of "goods" at time $t=0$.

$k(t)$ = remaining percentage of goods after time t .

$U(t)$ = rate to buy new goods (goods/time)

$U(\tau) \Delta \tau$ = amount of good bought in time $\Delta \tau$.

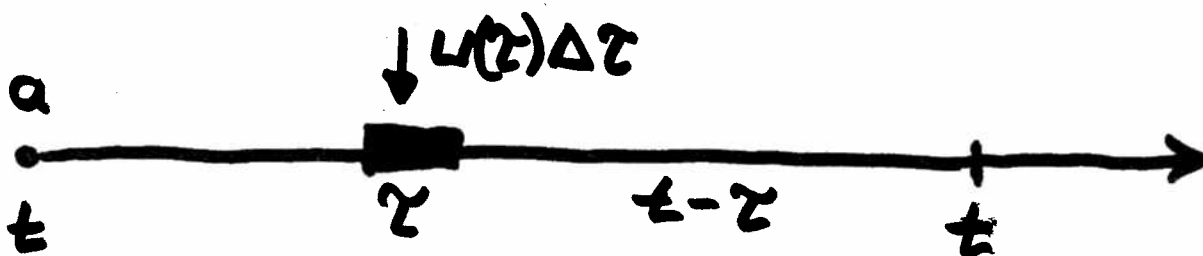
Total amount of "goods" in the shop

at time t

$$a k(t) + \int_a^t k(t-\tau) U(\tau) d\tau$$

The salesman can have a constant amount of goods if

$$(*) \quad a k(t) + \int_0^t k(t-\tau) U(\tau) d\tau = C_0.$$

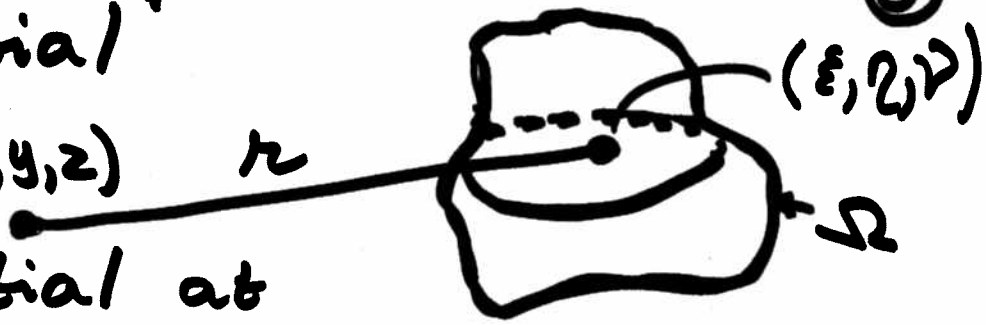


EX 5: "Potential"

$V(x, y, z)$

(x, y, z)

r



is the potential at the point (x, y, z) due to a mass distribution $\rho(\xi, \eta, \zeta)$ in Ω . Then

$$\bullet \quad V(x, y, z) = -G \iiint_{\Omega} \frac{\rho(\xi, \eta, \zeta)}{r} d\xi d\eta d\zeta.$$

The inverse problem is to determine ρ from a given potential V . This is described by the integral equation

$$\nabla^2 V = 4\pi G \rho,$$

i.e. Poisson's equation.

2. Integral equations of convolution

type:

$$y(x) = f(x) + \underbrace{\int_0^x k(x-t) y(t) dt}_{k * y(x)} \quad (*)$$

$k * y(x) =$ convolution between $k(x)$ and $y(x)$

Main technique to solve (*):

Use Laplace transforms!

EX6: Solve

$$(*) \quad y(x) = x - \int_0^x (x-t)y(t)dt.$$

Sol: This equation is of convolution type with $f(x) = x$ and $k(x) = x$. We note that $\mathcal{L}(x) = \frac{1}{s^2}$ and Laplace transformation of (*) gives

$$\mathcal{L}(y) = \frac{1}{s^2} - \frac{1}{s^2} \mathcal{L}(y), \text{ i.e.,}$$

$$\mathcal{L}(y) = \frac{1}{1+s^2}.$$

$$\text{Thus } \underline{y(x)} = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{1+s^2}\right) = \underline{\underline{\sin x}}.$$

EX7: Solve

$$y(x) = f(x) + \lambda \int_0^x k(x-t)y(t)dt$$

($f(x)$ and $k(x)$ are fixed functions).

Sol: Laplace transformation gives that

$$\mathcal{L}(y) = \mathcal{L}(f) + \lambda \mathcal{L}(k) \mathcal{L}(y), \text{ i.e.,}$$

$$\mathcal{L}(y) = \frac{\mathcal{L}(f)}{1 - \lambda \mathcal{L}(k)} \quad \text{so that}$$

$$\underline{\underline{y(x)}} = \underline{\underline{\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left(\frac{\mathcal{L}(f)}{1 - \lambda \mathcal{L}(k)}\right)}}.$$

3. Relationship between Differential (5) and Integral equations (first order)

EX 8: Consider the ODE

$$(1) \quad y' = f(x, y), \quad y(x_0) = y_0.$$

By integrating from x_0 to x we find that

$$(2) \quad \int_{x_0}^x y'(t) dt = \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y(t)) dt, \text{ i.e.,}$$

$$y(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y(t)) dt.$$

On the other hand, if the IE (2) holds, then we see that $y(x_0) = y_0$ and, by differentiating,

$$y'(x) = f(x, y(x)),$$

which means that (1) holds!

■ In fact, it is possible to reformulate many initial and boundary problems as integral equations and vice versa.

In general,

Initial problems
dynamical systems } \longleftrightarrow Volterra Eq.

Boundary value
problems } \longleftrightarrow Fredholm Eq.

4. Picard's method

Problem: Solve

$$(*) \quad y' = f(x, y), \quad y(x_0) = A.$$

Write (*) as an integral equation

$$y(x) = A + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y(t)) dt.$$

Choose an initial approximation

$y(x) = y_0(x)$ and calculate

$$y_1(x) = A + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y_0(t)) dt,$$

$$y_2(x) = A + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y_1(t)) dt,$$

⋮

$$y_n(x) = A + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y_{n-1}(t)) dt$$

⋮

$$y(x) \approx y_n(x)$$

"Hopefully:

$$y(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n(x)"$$

Ex 9: Solve

$$y' = 2x(1+y), \quad y(0) = 0.$$

Sol: (via Picard's method)

$$y(x) = \int_0^x 2t(1+y(t)) dt$$

Choose $y_0 = 0$. Then

$$y_1(x) = \int_0^x 2t(1+0) dt = x^2,$$

$$y_2(x) = \int_0^x 2t(1+t^2) dt = t^2 + \frac{t^4}{4},$$

$$y_3(x) = \int_0^x 2t(1+t^2 + \frac{t^4}{4}) dt = x^2 + \frac{x^4}{2} + \frac{x^6}{2 \cdot 3}, \quad (7)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$y_n(x) = x^2 + \frac{x^4}{2} + \frac{x^6}{3!} + \dots + \frac{x^{2n}}{n!}.$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n(x) = e^{x^2} - 1$$

Remark: Note that $y(x) = e^{x^2} - 1$ is the exact solution of \blacksquare . (Prove that!)

5. Two Lemmas

Lemma 1: $\int_a^x \int_a^s f(y) dy ds = \int_a^x f(y)(x-y) dy,$

whenever f is continuous for $x \geq a$.

Proof: Let $F(s) = \int_a^s f(y) dy$. Then, by using

integration by parts, we have

$$\int_a^x \int_a^s f(y) dy ds = \int_a^x F(s) ds = \int_a^x 1 \cdot F(s) ds =$$

$$[s F(s)]_a^x - \int_a^x s F'(s) ds = x F(x) - a F(a)$$

$$- \int_a^x s F'(s) ds = x \int_a^x f(y) dy - \int_a^x s f(s) ds =$$

$$\int_a^x x f(y) dy - \int_a^x y f(y) dy = \int_a^x (x-y) f(y) dy.$$

(8)

Lemma 2: "Leibniz formula".

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\int_{a(t)}^{b(t)} U(x, t) dx \right) = \int_{a(t)}^{b(t)} U'_t(x, t) dx +$$

$$+ U(b(t), t) b'(t) - U(a(t), t) a'(t).$$

Proof: Consider $G(t, a, b) = \int_a^b U(x, t) dt$,

where

$$\begin{cases} a = a(t) \\ b = b(t) \end{cases}.$$

The chain rule gives

$$\frac{d}{dt} G(t, a, b) = G'_t(t, a, b) + G'_a(t, a, b) a'(t) +$$

$$+ G'_b(t, a, b) b'(t) = \int_a^b U'_t(x, t) dt$$

$$- U(a(t), t) a'(t) + U(b(t), t) b'(t).$$

Ex 10: $F(t) = \int_{\sqrt{t}}^{t^2} \sin xt \, dx$. Then

$$F'(t) = \int_{\sqrt{t}}^{t^2} x \cos xt \, dt + \sin t^3 \cdot 2t -$$

$$- \sin t^{3/2} \cdot \frac{1}{2\sqrt{t}}.$$

6. Relationship between Differential (9) equations and Integral equations (second order)

Ex 11:
$$\begin{cases} U'' + q(x)U = f(x) & (*) \\ U(a) = U_0, U'(a) = U_1. \end{cases}$$

We integrate and find that

$$U'(x) - U_1 = \int_a^x (f(y) - q(y)U(y)) dy.$$

Integrate once more!

$$\int_a^x U'(s) ds = \int_a^x U_1 ds + \int_a^x \int_a^s (f(y) - q(y)U(y)) dy ds.$$

Thus, by Lemma 1,

$$U(x) - U_0 = U_1(x-a) + \int_a^x (f(y) - q(y)U(y))(x-y) dy,$$

which can be rewritten as

$$U(x) = \underbrace{U_0 + U_1(x-a) + \int_a^x f(y)(x-y) dy}_{F(x)} + \int_a^x \underbrace{q(y)(x-y)}_{k(x,y)} U(y) dy.$$

This means that (*) in fact can be rewritten as the Volterra equation

$$U(x) = F(x) + \int_a^x k(x,y)U(y) dy.$$

Remark: Ex 11 shows how an initial value problem (i.e. a differential equation equipped with initial values) can be transformed to a (Volterra type) integral equation. In the next example we will show that an integral equation can be transformed to a differential equation.

EX 12: (*) $y(x) = \lambda \int_0^1 k(x,t) y(t) dt$, where (10)

$$k(x,t) = \begin{cases} x(1-t), & x \leq t \leq 1, \\ t(1-x), & 0 \leq t \leq x. \end{cases}$$

$$\therefore y(x) = \lambda \int_0^x t(1-x) y(t) dt + \lambda \int_x^1 x(1-t) y(t) dt$$

Hence, by Lemma 2,

$$y'(x) = \lambda \int_0^x -t y(t) dt + \lambda x(1-x) y(x) + \lambda \int_x^1 (1-t) y(t) dt - \lambda x(1-x) y(x).$$

By using Lemma 2 once more we find that

$$y''(x) = -\lambda x y(x) - \lambda(1-x) y(x) = -\lambda y(x).$$

Moreover, we see that $y(0) = y(1) = 0$.

Thus, (*) can equivalently be rewritten as the boundary value problem

$$\begin{cases} y''(x) + \lambda y(x) = 0 \\ y(0) = y(1) = 0. \end{cases}$$

(Remark: This boundary value we remember was very important in the Fourier theory in "the method of separation of variables")

7. A general technique to solve Fredholm's integral equation with separable kernel.

(11)

(1) $y(x) = f(x) + \lambda \int_a^b k(x, \xi) y(\xi) d\xi$,
 where

$$k(x, \xi) = \sum_1^n \alpha_n(x) \beta_n(\xi).$$

Separable kernel!

Then

(2) $y(x) = f(x) + \lambda \sum_1^n \underbrace{\int_a^b \beta_n(\xi) y(\xi) d\xi}_{C_n} \alpha_n(x)$

Remark: (2) is a solution of (1) if we know the numbers C_n , so the question is:

- How to find the numbers C_n ?

- We multiply by $\beta_j(x)$, integrate and find that

(3) $\underbrace{\int_a^b y(x) \beta_j(x) dx}_{C_j} = \underbrace{\int_a^b f(x) \beta_j(x) dx}_{f_j} + \lambda \sum_1^n C_n \underbrace{\int_a^b \alpha_n(x) \beta_j(x) dx}_{a_{ji}}$

($j = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$).

- This is just a linear system of n equations and n unknown!

In matrix form this system can be written as

$$I\bar{c} = \bar{f} + \lambda A\bar{c}, \text{ i.e.,}$$

$$(I - \lambda A)\bar{c} = \bar{f},$$

where

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \bar{f} = \begin{pmatrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \\ \vdots \\ f_n \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \bar{c} = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

• Some well-known facts from the basis course in linear algebra:

$$B\bar{c} = \bar{f}$$

1. $\begin{cases} \bar{b} = \bar{0}, \det B \neq 0 \Rightarrow \bar{c} = \bar{0} \\ \bar{b} = \bar{0}, \det B = 0 \Rightarrow \infty \text{ many solutions} \end{cases}$

2. $\begin{cases} \bar{b} \neq \bar{0}, \det B \neq 0 \Rightarrow 1 \text{ solution} \\ \bar{b} \neq \bar{0}, \det B = 0 \Rightarrow 0 \text{ or } \infty \text{ many solutions.} \end{cases}$

• The famous Fredholm's alternative theorem is just a reformulation of these facts (with $B = I - \lambda A$)

EX 13: Solve

$$(*) \quad y(x) = \lambda \int_0^1 (1 - 3x\xi) y(\xi) d\xi.$$

Note that $1 - 3x\xi = 1 \cdot 1 + (-3x)\xi$

Here we can put

$$\begin{cases} \alpha_1(x) = 1, & \alpha_2(x) = -3x \\ \beta_1(\xi) = 1 & \beta_2(\xi) = \xi \end{cases}$$

we have

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \int_0^1 \beta_1 \alpha_1 dx & \int_0^1 \beta_1 \alpha_2 dx \\ \int_0^1 \beta_2 \alpha_1 dx & \int_0^1 \beta_2 \alpha_2 dx \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \int_0^1 1 \cdot 1 dx & \int_0^1 1(-3x) dx \\ \int_0^1 x \cdot 1 dx & \int_0^1 x(-3x) dx \end{pmatrix} \quad (13)$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -3/2 \\ 1/2 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\det(I - \lambda A) = \det \begin{pmatrix} 1-\lambda & 3/2 \lambda \\ -\lambda/2 & 1+\lambda \end{pmatrix} = 1 - \frac{\lambda^2}{4} = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \lambda = \pm 2.$$

Fredholm's alternative theorem now gives the following possibilities

- $\lambda \neq \pm 2$. (*) has only the trivial solution

$$y(x) \equiv 0.$$

- $\lambda = 2$. Then the system $(I - \lambda A)\bar{c} = \bar{0}$ reads:

$$\begin{cases} -c_1 + 3c_2 = 0 \\ -c_1 + 3c_2 = 0 \end{cases}$$

with solutions $c_2 = A$, $c_1 = 3A$ (A is any constant). Therefore, according to (2),

$$y(x) = 0 + 2(3A \cdot 1 + A(-3x)) = 6A(1-x) = B(1-x)$$

∴ $y(x) = B(1-x)$ are the solutions of (*) when $\lambda = 2$.

- $\lambda = -2$. Then the system $(I - \lambda A)\vec{c} = \vec{0}$ (14) reads:

$$\begin{cases} 3c_1 - 3c_2 = 0 \\ c_1 - c_2 = 0 \end{cases}$$

with solutions $c_2 = A$ and $c_1 = A$.

Therefore, again by (2),

$$y(x) = 0 - 2(A \cdot 1 + A(-3x)) = B(1 - 3x)$$

$y(x) = B(1 - 3x)$ are the solutions of (*) when $\lambda = -2$.

EX 14: Solve

$$(**) \quad y(x) = f(x) + \lambda \int_0^1 (1 - 3x\xi) y(\xi) d\xi.$$

Again we note that

$$\det(I - \lambda A) = 0 \iff \lambda \neq \pm 2.$$

Fredholm's alternative theorem now gives all the following possibilities:

1. Assume that $b_1 = \int_0^1 f(x) \cdot 1 dx \neq 0$ or $b_2 = \int_0^1 f(x) \cdot x dx \neq 0$. $\lambda \neq \pm 2$

Then (**) has the unique solution

$$y(x) = f(x) + \lambda (c_1 \cdot 1 + c_2(-3x)) = f(x) + \lambda (c_1 - 3c_2 x),$$

where c_1 and c_2 is the unique solution of the system

$$\begin{cases} (1-\lambda)c_1 + \frac{3}{2}\lambda c_2 = \int_0^1 f(x) dx \\ -\frac{1}{2}\lambda c_1 + (1+\lambda)c_2 = \int_0^1 x f(x) dx \end{cases}$$

2. Assume that $\int_0^1 f(x) \cdot 1 dx \neq 0$ or $\int_0^1 f(x) x dx \neq 0$ and $\lambda = -2$.

We have to consider the system

$$\begin{cases} 3c_1 - 3c_2 = \int_0^1 f(x) dx, \\ c_1 - c_2 = \int_0^1 x f(x) dx, \end{cases}$$

which has

- no solution if $\int_0^1 f(x) dx \neq 3 \int_0^1 x f(x) dx$.

- ∞ many solutions if $\int_0^1 f(x) dx = 3 \int_0^1 x f(x) dx$.

Put $3c_2 = A \Rightarrow 3c_1 = A + \int_0^1 f(x) dx$.

\therefore According to (2) we see that the solutions of (***) in this case are

$$\begin{aligned} y(x) &= f(x) - 2 [c_1 \cdot 1 + c_2 (-3x)] = \\ &= f(x) - 2 \left[\left(\frac{A}{3} + \frac{1}{3} \int_0^1 f(x) dx \right) + \frac{A}{3} (-3x) \right] = \\ &= f(x) - \frac{2}{3} \int_0^1 f(x) dx + A \left(2x - \frac{2}{3} \right). \end{aligned}$$

3. Assume that $\int_0^1 f(x) dx \neq 0$ or $\int_0^1 f(x) x dx \neq 0$ and $\lambda = 2$.

We have to consider the system

$$\begin{cases} -c_1 + 3c_2 = \int_0^1 f(x) dx, \\ -c_1 + 3c_2 = \int_0^1 x f(x) dx, \end{cases}$$

which has

- no solution if $\int_0^1 f(x) dx \neq \int_0^1 x f(x) dx$.

- ∞ many solutions if $\int_0^1 f(x) dx = \int_0^1 x f(x) dx$.

Put $c_2 = A \Rightarrow c_1 = 3A - \int_0^1 f(x) dx$.

\therefore According to (2) we find that the solutions of (***) in this case are

$$\begin{aligned} y(x) &= f(x) + 2[c_1 \cdot 1 + c_2(-3x)] = \\ &= f(x) + 2[(3A - \int_0^1 f(x) dx) + A(-3x)] = \\ &= f(x) - 2 \int_0^1 f(x) dx + \underbrace{6A(1-x)}_B. \end{aligned}$$

4. $\int_0^1 f(x) \cdot 1 dx = \int_0^1 f(x) x dx = 0$ and $\lambda \neq \pm 2$.
 (Then $c_1 = c_2 = 0$ is the unique solution).

$\therefore y(x) = f(x)$ is the unique solution of (***)

$$5. \int_0^1 f(x) \cdot 1 dx = \int_0^1 f(x) \cdot x dx = 0 \text{ and } \lambda = -2 \quad (17)$$

$$\begin{cases} 3C_1 - 3C_2 = 0 \\ C_1 - C_2 = 0 \end{cases} \iff C_1 = C_2 = A.$$

(**) has ∞ many solutions namely

$$y(x) = f(x) - 2(A \cdot 1 + A(-3x)) = f(x) + B(1-3x).$$

$$6. \int_0^1 f(x) \cdot 1 dx = \int_0^1 f(x) \cdot x dx = 0 \text{ and } \lambda = 2.$$

$$\begin{cases} -C_1 + 3C_2 = 0 \\ -C_1 + 3C_2 = 0 \end{cases} \iff \begin{cases} C_2 = A \\ C_1 = 3A \end{cases}.$$

(**) has ∞ many solutions, namely

$$y(x) = f(x) + 2(3A \cdot 1 + A(-3x)) = f(x) + B(1-x).$$

8. Integral equations with a symmetric kernel (18)

We consider

$$(*) \quad y(x) = \lambda \int_a^b k(x, \varepsilon) y(\varepsilon) d\varepsilon,$$

where the kernel $k(x, \varepsilon)$ is symmetric, i.e.
 $k(x, \varepsilon) = k(\varepsilon, x)$.

The following important theorem yields:

Theorem 1: Consider $(*)$ with symmetric kernel. Then

(i) λ_n eigenvalue with eigenvector y_n
 λ_m " " " " " " " " y_m

$$\lambda_n \neq \lambda_m \Rightarrow \int_a^b y_m(x) y_n(x) dx = 0. \quad \boxed{y_m \perp y_n}$$

(ii) The eigenvalues are real.

(iii) If the kernel is not separable, then there are infinitely many eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n, \dots$

$$0 < |\lambda_1| \leq |\lambda_2| \leq \dots$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\lambda_n| = \infty.$$

(iv) To each eigenvalue there corresponds at most finitely many independent eigenfunctions.

Remark Because we know about the close connection to differential equations this is not so surprising!

Ex 15: Consider

$$(*) \quad y(x) = \lambda \int_0^1 k(x, \xi) y(\xi) d\xi,$$

where

$$k(x, \xi) = \begin{cases} x(1-\xi), & x \leq \xi \leq 1, \\ \xi(1-x), & 0 \leq \xi < x. \end{cases}$$

According to Ex 12 (*) is equivalent to

$$\begin{cases} y''(x) + \lambda y(x) = 0 \\ y(0) = y(1) = 0 \end{cases} \cdot$$

$\lambda > 0$ $y(x) = C_1 \cos(\sqrt{\lambda}x) + C_2 \sin(\sqrt{\lambda}x)$

$$y(0) = 0 \Rightarrow C_1 = 0$$

$$y(1) = 0 \Rightarrow \sin \sqrt{\lambda} = 0$$

∴ $\lambda = \lambda_n = n^2 \pi^2$ (eigenvalues)

$y_n(x) = \sin n\pi x$ (eigenfunctions)

■ This means that (*) has nontrivial solutions if and only if $\lambda = \lambda_n = n^2 \pi^2$. The untrivial solutions are $a_n \sin n\pi x$.

Proof of (i):

$$y_m(x) = \lambda_m \int_a^b k(x, \xi) y_m(\xi) d\xi,$$

$$y_n(x) = \lambda_n \int_a^b k(x, \xi) y_n(\xi) d\xi$$

$$\int_a^b y_m(x) y_n(x) dx = \lambda_m \int_a^b y_n(x) \int_a^b k(x, \xi) y_m(\xi) d\xi dx =$$

$$= \lambda_m \int_a^b \left(\int_a^b y_n(x) k(x, \xi) dx \right) y_m(\xi) d\xi = \left[\begin{matrix} k(x, \xi) \\ k(\xi, x) \end{matrix} \right] =$$

$$= \lambda_m \int_a^b \left(\int_a^b k(\xi, x) y_n(x) dx \right) y_m(\xi) d\xi =$$

$$\lambda_m \int_a^b \frac{1}{\lambda_n} y_n(\xi) y_m(\xi) d\xi =$$

$$= \frac{\lambda_m}{\lambda_n} \int_a^b y_m(\xi) y_n(\xi) d\xi = \frac{\lambda_m}{\lambda_n} \int_a^b y_m(x) y_n(x) dx.$$

We conclude that

$$\underbrace{\left(1 - \frac{\lambda_m}{\lambda_n}\right)}_{\neq 0} \int_a^b y_m(x) y_n(x) dx = 0,$$

$\neq 0$

so that

$$\int_a^b y_m(x) y_n(x) dx = 0.$$

The proof is complete.

9. Hilbert-Schmidt theory for solving the (Fredholm) integral equation (21)

$$(*) \quad y(x) = f(x) + \lambda \int_a^b k(x,t) y(t) dt$$

Hilbert-Schmidt's lemma: Assume that $g(t)$ is a continuous function on $[a, b]$ and put

$$F(x) = \int_a^b k(x,t) g(t) dt,$$

where $k(x,t)$ is symmetric. Then $F(x)$ can be expanded in Fourier series as

$$F(x) = \sum_1^{\infty} C_n \varphi_n(x),$$

where $\varphi_n(x)$ are the (normalized) eigen functions of

$$(**) \quad y(x) = \lambda \int_a^b k(x,t) y(t) dt.$$

Hilbert-Schmidt's theorem: Let λ be different from all eigenvalues of $(**)$ and let $y(x)$ be the solution of $(*)$. Then

$$y(x) = f(x) + \lambda \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{f_n}{\lambda_n - \lambda} \varphi_n(x),$$

where λ_n and φ_n are the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions of $(**)$ and

$$f_n = \int_a^b f(x) \varphi_n(x) dx.$$

(the Fourier coefficients).

Ex 16: Solve

(22)

$$y(x) = x + \lambda \int_0^1 k(x, \varepsilon) y(\varepsilon) d\varepsilon,$$

where $\lambda \neq n^2 \pi^2$, $n=1, 2, \dots$ and

$$k(x, \varepsilon) = \begin{cases} x(1-\varepsilon), & x \leq \varepsilon \leq 1, \\ \varepsilon(1-x), & 0 \leq \varepsilon < x. \end{cases}$$

Sol: According to Ex 15 we know that the normalized eigenfunctions are $y_n(x) = \sqrt{2} \sin n\pi x$ corresponding to the eigenvalues $\lambda_n = n^2 \pi^2$.

Moreover,

$$f_n = \int_0^1 x \sqrt{2} \sin n\pi x dx = \frac{(-1)^{n+1} \sqrt{2}}{n\pi}.$$

\therefore In view of the Hilbert-Schmidt theorem, the solutions are

$$\underline{y(x)} = x + \frac{\sqrt{2} \lambda}{\pi} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n(n^2 \pi^2 - \lambda)} \sin n\pi x.$$

$$\boxed{\lambda \neq n^2 \pi^2}$$

Proof of Hilbert-Schmidt's theorem: (23)

According to (*) we have

$$(**) \quad y(x) - f(x) = \lambda \int_a^b k(x, \varepsilon) y(\varepsilon) d\varepsilon$$

Therefore, by the Hilbert-Schmidt lemma,

$$y(x) - f(x) = \sum_1^{\infty} C_n y_n(x),$$

where (the Fourier coefficients are)

$$\blacksquare \quad C_n = \int_a^b (y(x) - f(x)) y_n(x) dx = \int_a^b y(x) y_n(x) dx - f_n.$$

By multiplying (**) by $y_n(x)$ and integrating we find that

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b y(x) y_n(x) dx &= f_n + \lambda \int_a^b \left(\int_a^b k(x, \varepsilon) y(\varepsilon) d\varepsilon \right) y_n(x) dx \\ &= [\text{symmetry}] = f_n + \lambda \int_a^b \left(\int_a^b k(\varepsilon, x) y_n(x) dx \right) y(\varepsilon) d\varepsilon \\ &= f_n + \frac{\lambda}{\lambda_n} \int_a^b y_n(\varepsilon) y(\varepsilon) d\varepsilon = f_n + \frac{\lambda}{\lambda_n} \int_a^b y_n(x) y(x) dx. \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \int_a^b y(x) y_n(x) dx = \frac{f_n}{1 - \frac{\lambda}{\lambda_n}} = \frac{f_n \lambda_n}{\lambda_n - \lambda}$$

and we conclude from \blacksquare that

$$C_n = \frac{f_n \lambda_n}{\lambda_n - \lambda} - f_n = \frac{\lambda f_n}{\lambda_n - \lambda}$$

$$\therefore y(x) = f(x) + \sum_1^{\infty} \frac{\lambda f_n}{\lambda_n - \lambda} y_n(x)$$

$$f(x) + \lambda \sum_1^{\infty} \frac{f_n}{\lambda_n - \lambda} y_n(x). \quad \blacksquare$$

Problems - Lecture 8

1.* Use the Laplace transform to solve

$$(a) \quad y(x) = f(x) + \lambda \int_0^x e^{x-t} y(t) dt,$$

$$(b) \quad x = \int_0^x e^{x-t} y(t) dt.$$

2. Prove the Leibniz formula

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_{a(x)}^{b(x)} F(x, y) dy = \int_{a(x)}^{b(x)} F'_x(x, y) dy + F(x, b(x)) b'(x) - F(x, a(x)) a'(x)$$

for differentiating an integral with respect to a variable appearing both in the integrand and the limits of integration.

Hint: Call the integral $g(x, a, b)$, where $a = a(x)$, $b = b(x)$ and use the chain rule.

3. Reformulate the initial value problem

$$u'' - \lambda u = f(x), \quad x > 0, \quad u(0) = 1, \quad u'(0) = 0,$$

as a Volterra integral equation.

4. Reformulate the boundary value problem

$$u'' + \lambda u = 0, \quad 0 < x < l, \quad u(0) = 0, \quad u(l) = 0$$

as a Fredholm integral equation

Hint: Integrate from 0 to x twice.

5.* Solve the integral equations:

$$(a) \quad y(x) = x^2 + \int_0^1 (1-3xt) y(t) dt,$$

$$(b) \quad y(x) = x^2 + \lambda \int_0^1 (1-3xt) y(t) dt$$

for all values of λ where it is possible

6.* (a) Reformulate the integral equation

$$(*) \quad y(x) = \lambda \int_0^1 k(x,t) y(t) dt,$$

where

$$k(x,t) = \begin{cases} x(1-t), & x \leq t \leq 1, \\ t(1-x), & 0 \leq t < x, \end{cases}$$

as a boundary value problem.

(b) Find all eigenvalues and eigenfunctions of (*).

(c) Solve the integral equation

$$y(x) = x + \lambda \int_0^1 k(x,t) y(t) dt,$$

where $k(x,t)$ is defined in (a) and $\lambda \neq n^2 \pi^2, n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$.