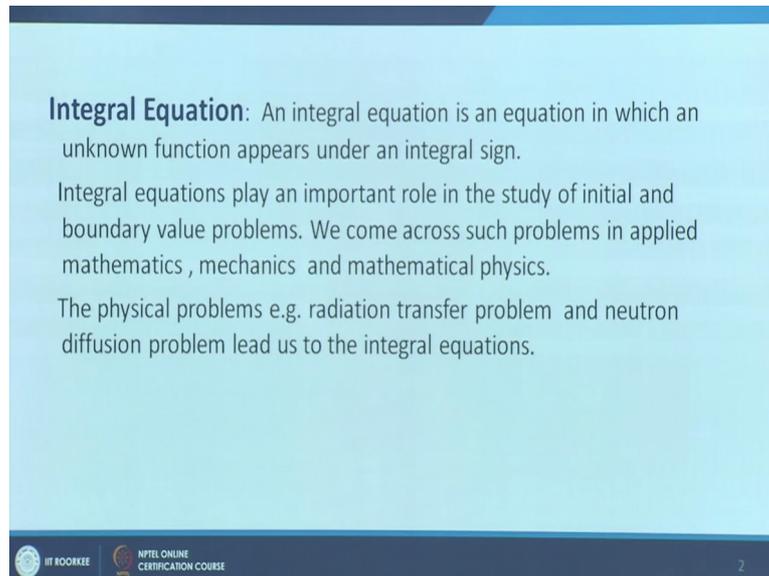


Integral Equations, Calculus of Variations and their Applications
Dr. P.N. Agarwal
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Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee
Lecture No 1
Definition and classification of linear integral equations

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Integral Equation: An integral equation is an equation in which an unknown function appears under an integral sign.

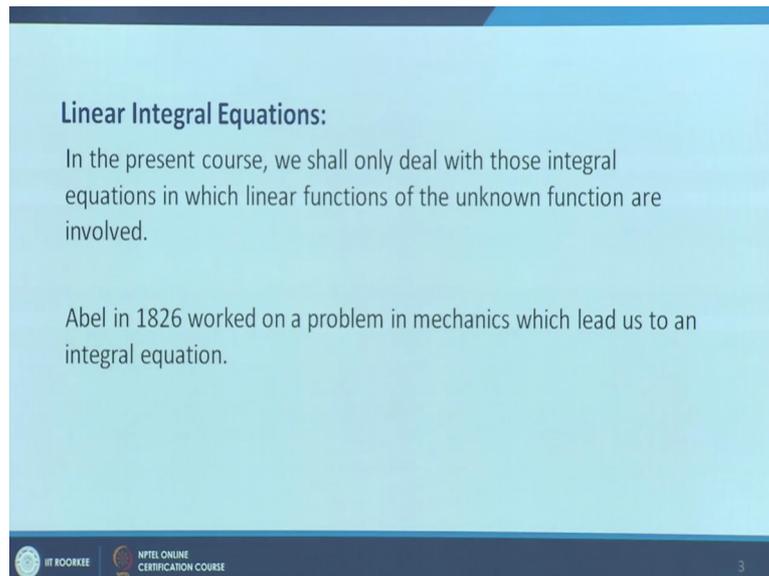
Integral equations play an important role in the study of initial and boundary value problems. We come across such problems in applied mathematics, mechanics and mathematical physics.

The physical problems e.g. radiation transfer problem and neutron diffusion problem lead us to the integral equations.

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Hello friends I welcome you all to the course on integral equations, calculus of variations and their applications. We shall first discuss the definitions and then we shall discuss the classification of linear integral equation. Let us see what do we mean by an integral equation. An integral equation is an equation in which an unknown function appears under an integral sign. The integral equation play an important role in the study of initial and boundary value problems such problems occur in applied mathematics, mechanics and mathematical physics. The physical problem namely radiation transfer problem and neutron diffusion problems lead us to integral equations. In the present course we shall only the deal with those integral equation in which linear functions of the unknown function are involved.

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Linear Integral Equations:

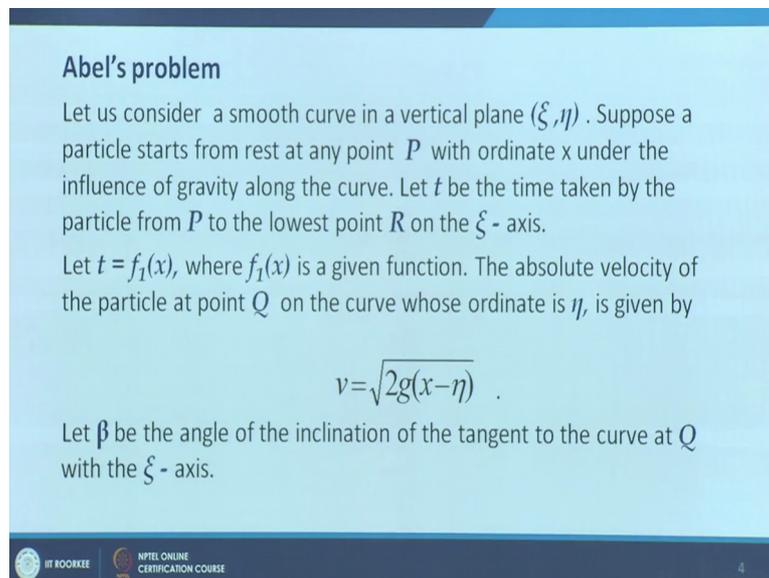
In the present course, we shall only deal with those integral equations in which linear functions of the unknown function are involved.

Abel in 1826 worked on a problem in mechanics which lead us to an integral equation.

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So that means we shall be dealing with only the linear integral equations. Now let us see how the integral equations actually the study of integral equation begin, Abel in 1826 worked on problem in mechanics which lead us to an integral equation.

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Abel's problem

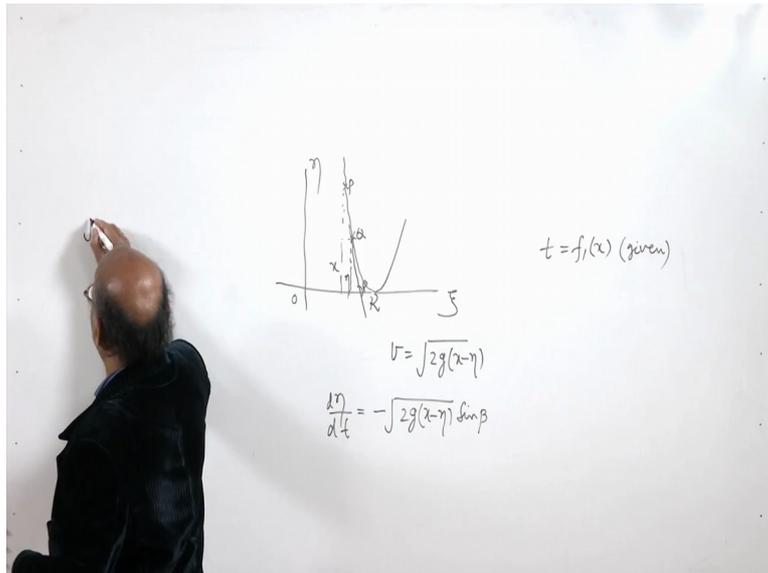
Let us consider a smooth curve in a vertical plane (ξ, η) . Suppose a particle starts from rest at any point P with ordinate x under the influence of gravity along the curve. Let t be the time taken by the particle from P to the lowest point R on the ξ -axis.

Let $t = f_1(x)$, where $f_1(x)$ is a given function. The absolute velocity of the particle at point Q on the curve whose ordinate is η , is given by

$$v = \sqrt{2g(x-\eta)} .$$

Let β be the angle of the inclination of the tangent to the curve at Q with the ξ -axis.

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So let us discuss the Abel's problem, let us consider a smooth curve in a vertical plane $\xi \eta$, let us consider a smooth curve in a vertical plane $\xi \eta$, suppose a particle starts from rest from any point P with ordinate x , let us say the ordinate of the point P on the curve be x under the influence of gravity along the curve and let t be the time taken by the particle from P to the lowest point R on the ξ axis and let us assume that t is a function of x say $t = f_1(x)$, where $f_1(x)$ is a given function.

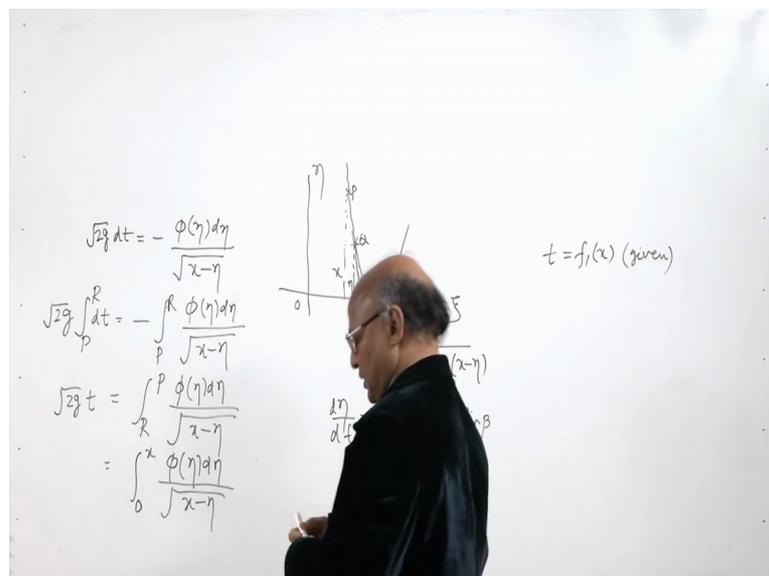
The absolute velocity of the particle at point Q on the curve, the absolute velocity of the particle at point Q on the curve whose ordinate is η let us say the ordinate of Q point η , then the vertical height PQ will be x minus η , so the absolute velocity of the particle at the point Q will then be given by $v = \sqrt{2g(x-\eta)}$ that is $2g$ times x minus η . Now let us say β be the angle of inclination of the tangent to the curve at the point Q then with the ξ axis, then what do we have? The velocity along the η axis $d\eta/dt$ will be minus under root $2g(x-\eta)$ into $\sin \beta$.

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then
$$\frac{d\eta}{dt} = -\sqrt{2g(x-\eta)} \sin \beta$$

or
$$dt = -\frac{d\eta}{\sin \beta \sqrt{2g(x-\eta)}}$$

Now, let $\frac{1}{\sin \beta} = \phi(\eta)$ then

$$\sqrt{2g} dt = -\frac{\phi(\eta) d\eta}{\sqrt{(x-\eta)}}$$


Now we can also write this equation $\frac{d\eta}{dt} = -\sqrt{2g(x-\eta)} \sin \beta$ as $dt = -\frac{d\eta}{\sin \beta \sqrt{2g(x-\eta)}}$. Now let us assume that $\frac{1}{\sin \beta} = \phi(\eta)$ then we can write $\sqrt{2g} dt = -\frac{\phi(\eta) d\eta}{\sqrt{x-\eta}}$ and integrating okay integrating this equation let us see we have $\sqrt{2g} t = -\int \frac{\phi(\eta) d\eta}{\sqrt{x-\eta}}$. Now we have assumed that t is the time taken by the particle to slide from the point P to the point R on the X axis the lowest point.

So we have to integrate from p to r , from p to r , when we integrate from p to r , we get this okay. Now from p to r the time taken is t so $\sqrt{2g} t = -\int_p^r \frac{\phi(\eta) d\eta}{\sqrt{x-\eta}}$. Now because of this negative sign it can also write it from r to p , so we shall have $\int_r^p \frac{\phi(\eta) d\eta}{\sqrt{x-\eta}}$

over under root x minus eta. Now the ordinate of the point r is zero and the ordinate at the point p is x so we have integral 0 to ex, phi eta d eta divided by under root x minus eta.

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Hence

$$t\sqrt{2g} = -\int_P^R \frac{\phi(\eta)d\eta}{\sqrt{x-\eta}}$$

$$= \int_0^x \frac{\phi(\eta)d\eta}{\sqrt{x-\eta}}$$

or

$$\sqrt{2g} f_1(x) = \int_0^x \frac{\phi(\eta)d\eta}{\sqrt{x-\eta}}$$

or

$$f(x) = \int_0^x \frac{\phi(\eta)d\eta}{\sqrt{x-\eta}}.$$

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where $f(x) = f_1(x)\sqrt{2g}$ is known and $\phi(\eta)$ is the unknown function.

After finding $\phi(\eta)$, we obtain the equation of the curve as follows:

We have

$$\phi(\eta) = \frac{1}{\sin \beta}$$

$$\Rightarrow \eta = \Phi(\beta).$$

Since

$$\frac{d\eta}{d\xi} = \tan \beta$$

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So we get so we get under root t times under root 2g equal to integral 0 to x phi eta, d eta divided by e under root x minus eta. Now t we have assumed to be equal to f 1 x, so we get under root 2g f 1 x equal to integral 0 to x phi eta d eta over under root x minus eta. Let us assumed that under root 2g f 1 x is another function say fx okay so fx we can write as integral 0 to x, phi eta d eta over under root x minus eta and since f 1 x is a known function, so fx equal to f 1 x into root 2 g is also known and phi eta is the unknown function. Now so from the equation fx equal to fx equal to integral 0 to x, phi eta d eta over under root x minus eta.

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$$\sqrt{2g} dt = - \frac{\phi(\eta) d\eta}{\sqrt{x-\eta}}$$

$$\sqrt{2g} \int_P^R dt = - \int_P^R \frac{\phi(\eta) d\eta}{\sqrt{x-\eta}}$$

$$\sqrt{2g} t = \int_R^P \frac{\phi(\eta) d\eta}{\sqrt{x-\eta}}$$

$$= \int_0^x \frac{\phi(\eta) d\eta}{\sqrt{x-\eta}}$$

$$v = \sqrt{2g(x-\eta)}$$

$$\frac{d\eta}{dt} = -\sqrt{2g(x-\eta)} \sin \beta$$

$t = f_1(x) \text{ (given)}$

$$f_1(x) = \int_0^x \frac{\phi(\eta) d\eta}{\sqrt{x-\eta}}$$

where $f(x) = f_1(x) \sqrt{2g}$ is known and $\phi(\eta)$ is the unknown function.

After finding $\phi(\eta)$, we obtain the equation of the curve as follows:

We have

$$\phi(\eta) = \frac{1}{\sin \beta}$$

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Since

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$$\sqrt{2g} dt = - \frac{\phi(\eta) d\eta}{\sqrt{x-\eta}}$$

$$\sqrt{2g} \int_P^R dt = - \int_P^R \frac{\phi(\eta) d\eta}{\sqrt{x-\eta}}$$

$$\sqrt{2g} t = \int_R^P \frac{\phi(\eta) d\eta}{\sqrt{x-\eta}}$$

$$= \int_0^x \frac{\phi(\eta) d\eta}{\sqrt{x-\eta}}$$

$$v = \sqrt{2g(x-\eta)}$$

$$\frac{d\eta}{dt} = -\sqrt{2g(x-\eta)} \sin \beta$$

$t = f_1(x) \text{ (given)}$

$$f_1(x) = \int_0^x \frac{\phi(\eta) d\eta}{\sqrt{x-\eta}}$$

we have $\phi(\eta) = (\tan \beta)^{-1}$

We notice that $f(x)$ is the known function while $\phi(\eta)$ is an unknown function, so it is an integral equation and we shall see later on when we discuss the classification of integral equations, we shall see that this is that Volterra integral equation of first kind. So after finding this $\phi(\eta)$ this unknown function $\phi(\eta)$, we can write the equation of the curve in the parametric form we have $\phi(\eta)$ equal to $1/\sin \beta$, so $\phi(\eta)$ equal to...we have assumed $\phi(\eta)$ to be equal to $1/\sin \beta$, so we can say that η is a function of β .

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where $f(x) = f_1(x)\sqrt{2g}$ is known and $\phi(\eta)$ is the unknown function.

After finding $\phi(\eta)$, we obtain the equation of the curve as follows:

We have

$$\phi(\eta) = \frac{1}{\sin \beta}$$

$$\Rightarrow \eta = \Phi(\beta).$$

Since

$$\frac{d\eta}{d\xi} = \tan \beta$$


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or

$$\frac{\Phi'(\beta)d\beta}{d\xi} = \tan \beta$$

$$\Rightarrow \xi = \int \frac{\Phi'(\beta)}{\tan \beta} d\beta = \Phi_1(\beta).$$

Thus, the required curve is given in the parametric form as

$$\xi = \Phi_1(\beta), \eta = \Phi(\beta).$$


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And now β is the angle made by the tangent at the point Q with the ξ axis, so we can say that $d\eta/d\xi$, $d\eta/d\xi$ is equal to $\tan \beta$ and we can say that $d\eta$ from the equation $\eta = \phi(\beta)$ you can say that $d\eta$ is $\phi'(\beta)d\beta$, so we can write $\phi'(\beta)d\beta/d\xi = \tan \beta$ are integrating this equation we shall be

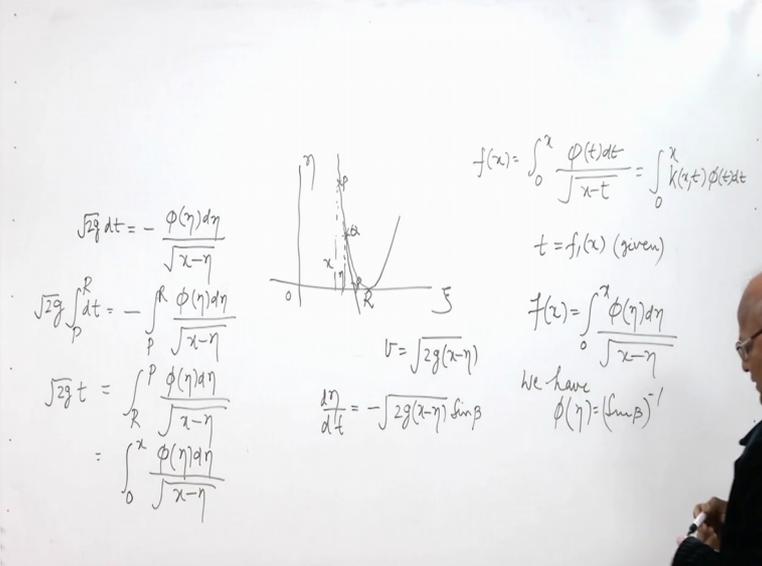
getting is X_i equal to integral of ϕ dash beta d beta upon tan beta. Now this will be another function of beta which we can write as capital phi 1 beta so we can thus we get the required curve, the path followed by the particle we can write in the parametric form which is X_i equal to phi 1 beta and eta equal to eta equal to phi eta.

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Hence, the Abel's problem reduces to a solution of the Volterra integral equation of the first kind

$$f(x) = \int_0^x K(x,t)\phi(t)dt,$$

where $\phi(x)$ is an unknown function, $K(x,t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x-t}}$ and $f(x)$ are given functions.

$\sqrt{2g} dt = -\frac{\phi(\eta)d\eta}{\sqrt{x-\eta}}$
 $\sqrt{2g} \int_p^R dt = -\int_p^R \frac{\phi(\eta)d\eta}{\sqrt{x-\eta}}$
 $\sqrt{2g} t = \int_R^p \frac{\phi(\eta)d\eta}{\sqrt{x-\eta}}$
 $= \int_0^x \frac{\phi(\eta)d\eta}{\sqrt{x-\eta}}$

$f(x) = \int_0^x \frac{\phi(t)dt}{\sqrt{x-t}} = \int_0^x K(x,t)\phi(t)dt$
 $t = f_1(x)$ (given)
 $f(x) = \int_0^x \frac{\phi(\eta)d\eta}{\sqrt{x-\eta}}$
 We have $\phi(\eta) = (\sin \beta)'$

$v = \sqrt{2g(x-\eta)}$
 $\frac{d\eta}{dt} = -\sqrt{2g(x-\eta)} \sin \beta$

Now this so Abel's problem this Abel's problem which where we are finding the curve followed by the particle can be expressed in the standard form where if you define one over under root x minus t we can write it as also as $f(x)$ equal to integral 0 to x phi t dt in the parameter t let us write so under root x minus t then this is nothing but integral 0 to x $K(x,t)$ into phi t dt, where $K(x,t)$ is equal to 1 over under root x minus t, so $K(x,t)$ is known to us and $f(x)$ is also known to us and phi x is an unknown function, so we get a Volterra integral equation

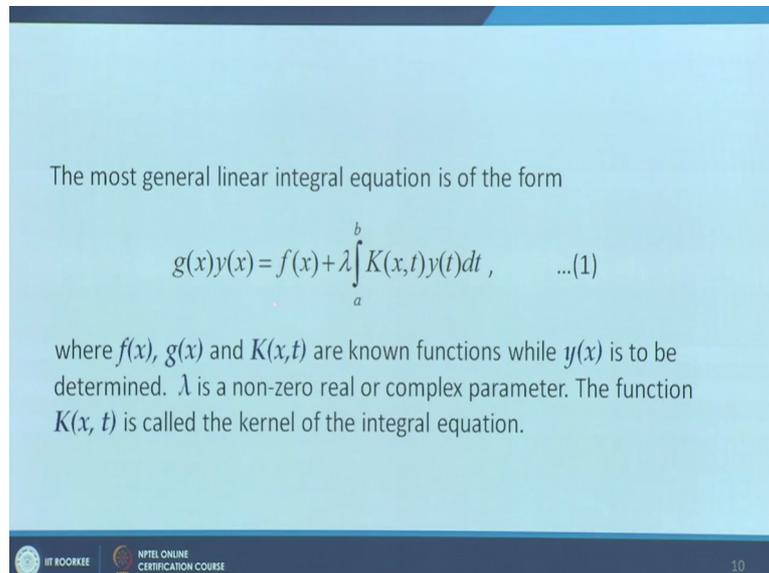
of the first kind where $K(x,t)$ and $f(x)$ are known and $y(x)$ is an unknown function. So this is how the integral equations occurred while solving problem in mechanics.

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The most general linear integral equation is of the form

$$g(x)y(x) = f(x) + \lambda \int_a^b K(x,t)y(t)dt, \quad \dots(1)$$

where $f(x)$, $g(x)$ and $K(x,t)$ are known functions while $y(x)$ is to be determined. λ is a non-zero real or complex parameter. The function $K(x, t)$ is called the kernel of the integral equation.



The slide features a light blue background with a dark blue header and footer. The text is centered and includes a mathematical equation (1) with a double integral. The footer contains the IIT ROORKEE and NPTEL ONLINE CERTIFICATION COURSE logos, along with the slide number 10.

Now let us discuss the most general linear integral equation, the most general linear integral equation is $g(x)y(x) = f(x) + \lambda \int_a^b K(x,t)y(t)dt$ where $f(x)$, $g(x)$ and $K(x,t)$ are known functions of x and t while $y(x)$ is to be determined. So $y(x)$ is an unknown function, λ here is a non-zero real or complex parameter. The function $K(x,t)$ which occurs inside the integral is called the kernel of integral equation. now if it so happens that the limits of integration, in the limits of integration a is a constant while b is equal to x , so then the integral equation will be called as Volterra integral equation.

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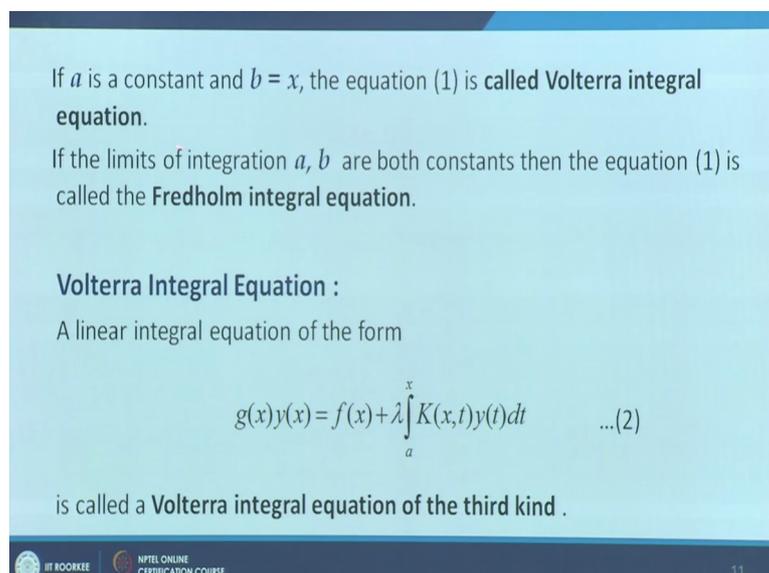
If a is a constant and $b = x$, the equation (1) is called **Volterra integral equation**.

If the limits of integration a, b are both constants then the equation (1) is called the **Fredholm integral equation**.

Volterra Integral Equation :
A linear integral equation of the form

$$g(x)y(x) = f(x) + \lambda \int_a^x K(x,t)y(t)dt \quad \dots(2)$$

is called a **Volterra integral equation of the third kind**.



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If both the limits of integration a and b are constants then the equation will be called as Fredholm integral equation, so there are 2 kinds of integral equations one is Volterra integral equation another one is Fredholm integral equation. In the case of Volterra integral equation the lower limit is constant while the upper limit is a variable x and in the case of Fredholm integral equation both the limits of integration are constants. Now we will discuss the various kind of Volterra integral equation, so Volterra a linear integral equation of the form $g(x)y(x) = f(x) + \lambda \int_a^x K(x,t)y(t)dt$ is called as a Volterra integral equation of the third kind.

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If $g(x) \equiv 0$, then equation (2) takes the form

$$f(x) + \lambda \int_a^x K(x,t)y(t)dt = 0,$$

and is called the **Volterra integral equation of the first kind**.

On the other hand, if $g(x) = 1$ then the integral equation

$$y(x) = f(x) + \lambda \int_a^x K(x,t)y(t)dt \quad \dots(3)$$

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If a is a constant and $b = x$, the equation (1) is called **Volterra integral equation**.

If the limits of integration a, b are both constants then the equation (1) is called the **Fredholm integral equation**.

Volterra Integral Equation :
A linear integral equation of the form

$$g(x)y(x) = f(x) + \lambda \int_a^x K(x,t)y(t)dt \quad \dots(2)$$

is called a **Volterra integral equation of the third kind**.

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Now in particular suppose $g(x)$ is equal to 0, $g(x)$ is identically 0 that is $g(x) = 0$ over the domain of g then the equation this equation 2 will take the form $f(x) + \lambda \int_a^x K(x,t)y(t)dt = 0$

dt equal to 0. Such an equation is called as the Volterra integral equation of the first kind. fx plus lambda you can also write it as fx equal to minus lambda integral a to x $K(x,t)y(t)dt$. The avail problem is of this type and where you can say that lambda is equal to minus 1. So this is Volterra integral equation of the first kind.

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If a is a constant and $b = x$, the equation (1) is called **Volterra integral equation**.

If the limits of integration a, b are both constants then the equation (1) is called the **Fredholm integral equation**.

Volterra Integral Equation :
A linear integral equation of the form

$$g(x)y(x) = f(x) + \lambda \int_a^x K(x,t)y(t)dt \quad \dots(2)$$

is called a **Volterra integral equation of the third kind**.

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If $g(x) \equiv 0$, then equation (2) takes the form

$$f(x) + \lambda \int_a^x K(x,t)y(t)dt = 0,$$

and is called the **Volterra integral equation of the first kind**.

On the other hand, if $g(x) = 1$ then the integral equation

$$y(x) = f(x) + \lambda \int_a^x K(x,t)y(t)dt \quad \dots(3)$$

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is known as the **Volterra integral equation of the second kind**.
 In particular, if $f(x) \equiv 0$ in (3), then the integral equation

$$y(x) = \lambda \int_a^x K(x,t)y(t)dt ,$$

is called the homogeneous **Volterra integral equation of the second kind**.

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Now on the other hand if $g(x)$ is equal to 1, if $g(x)$ is equal to 1 here then we will get $Y(x)$ equal to $f(x)$ plus λ integral a to x $K(x,t)y(t)dt$. Such an equation is called as Volterra integral equation of the second kind. If $f(x)$ is identically 0 $f(x)$ is 0 for all the values of x in the domain of f then what we will get $y(x)$ is equal to λ integral a to x $K(x,t)y(t)dt$. Such an equation is called as homogeneous Volterra integration equation of the second kind.

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Singular integral equation:
 A linear integral equation is called singular integral equation when one or both the limits of the integration are infinite or when the kernel becomes infinite over the range of integration.

For example:

$$y(x) = f(x) + \lambda \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-|x-t|} y(t) dt$$

and

$$f(x) = \int_0^x \frac{1}{(x-t)^\alpha} y(t) dt, \quad 0 < \alpha < 1.$$

are singular integral equations.

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Okay now there occurred similar integral equation also in the literature. A linear integral equation will be called a singular integral equation when 1r both the limits of integration a and b are infinite are when the kernel $K(x,t)$ becomes infinite over the range of integration for example let us consider $y(x)$ equal to $f(x)$ plus λ integral over minus infinity into infinity E to the power minus mode of x minus t by tdt .

Here you can see that both the limits of integration are infinite, so it is singular integral equation and in this case the other example we can consider where the limits of integration are finite 0 and x but the integrand one over x minus t to the power alpha okay this becomes in finite over the range of integration kernel one over x minus t to the power alpha becomes in finite when t becomes equal to x. So $\int_0^x \frac{1}{x-t} dt$ where alpha is between 0 and 1 are both singular integral equations.

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Leibnitz rule of differentiation under integral sign:
 Let $F(x, t)$ and $\frac{\partial F}{\partial x}$ be continuous functions of both x and t and let the first order derivatives of $G(x)$ and $H(x)$ be continuous.

Then

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_{G(x)}^{H(x)} F(x, t) dt = \int_{G(x)}^{H(x)} \frac{\partial F(x, t)}{\partial x} dt + F(x, H(x)) \frac{dH}{dx} - F(x, G(x)) \frac{dG}{dx} .$$

In particular, if $G(x)$ and $H(x)$ are constants then

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_{G(x)}^{H(x)} F(x, t) dt = \int_{G(x)}^{H(x)} \frac{\partial F(x, t)}{\partial x} dt .$$

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So now let us discuss Leibnitz rule of differentiation under integral sign, we shall need this result when we discuss the when we convert the integral equation to differential equation. So let us say let $F(x, t)$ and its partial derivative with respect to x be continuous function of both x and t and the first order derivatives of $G(x)$ and $H(x)$ are continuous functions. then $\frac{d}{dx} \int_{G(x)}^{H(x)} F(x, t) dt$ is equal to $\int_{G(x)}^{H(x)} \frac{\partial F(x, t)}{\partial x} dt$ and then $F(x, H(x)) \frac{dH}{dx} - F(x, G(x)) \frac{dG}{dx}$.

So in $F(x, t)$ we put t as $H(x)$ the upper limit and differentiate the upper limit with respect to x to get $\frac{dH}{dx}$ and then subtract $F(x, t)$ at the lower limit t is equal to $G(x)$ into the derivative of G with respect to x . So this is a well-known formula the Leibnitz rule it is called Leibnitz rule of differentiation under integral sign. Now in particular if $G(x)$ and $H(x)$ are constant functions so then what will happen $\frac{dH}{dx}$ and $\frac{dG}{dx}$ will be equal to 0 so this formula will then reduce to the derivative of $\int_{G(x)}^{H(x)} f(x, t) dt$ with respect to x is equal to $\int_{G(x)}^{H(x)} \frac{\partial f(x, t)}{\partial x} dt$.

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Important result for converting a multiple integral into a single integral :

We have

$$\int_{x_0}^x \int_{x_0}^x \dots \int_{x_0}^x y(x) dx = \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \int_{x_0}^x (x-t)^{n-1} y(t) dt ,$$

where n is a positive integer and x_0 is a constant.

Proof: Let

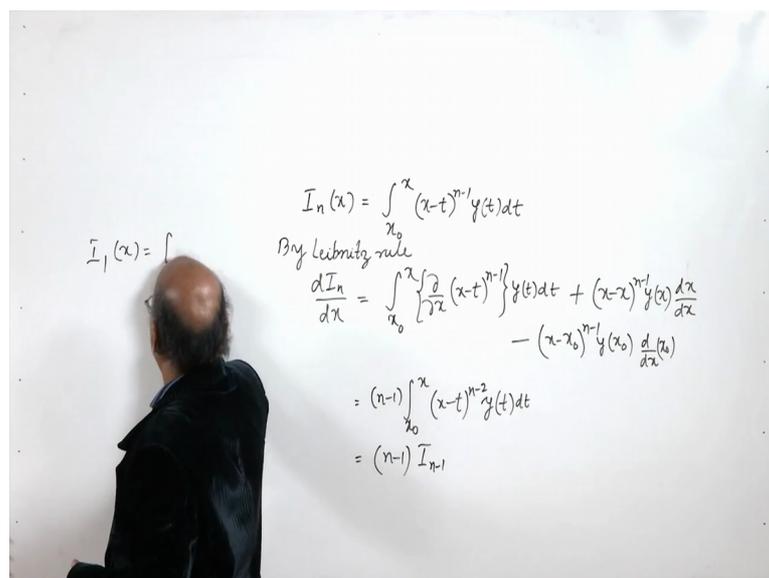
$$I_n(x) = \int_{x_0}^x (x-t)^{n-1} y(t) dt \quad \dots(1)$$



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Okay so now we are going to discuss an important result of by using this result we can convert a multiple integral into a single integrals so you can see here that we have n integrals here, the limits of integration are x naught 2x and we are integrating a function of x which is y x, so when you integrate y x end times with respect to x what you do is you get a 1 over n minus 1 factorial integral x naught 2x x minus t raise to the power n minus 1 yt dt. So the n integrals can be converted into a single integral. Now here n is a positive integer and x naught is a constant. So what you do we let us discuss the proof of this let us consider $I_n(x)$ equal to integral x naught 2x x minus t to the power n minus 1 yt dt.

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$$I_n(x) = \int_{x_0}^x (x-t)^{n-1} y(t) dt$$

By Leibnitz rule

$$\frac{dI_n}{dx} = \int_{x_0}^x \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (x-t)^{n-1} \right] y(t) dt + (x-x)^{n-1} y(x) \frac{dx}{dx} - (x-x_0)^{n-1} y(x_0) \frac{dx}{dx}$$

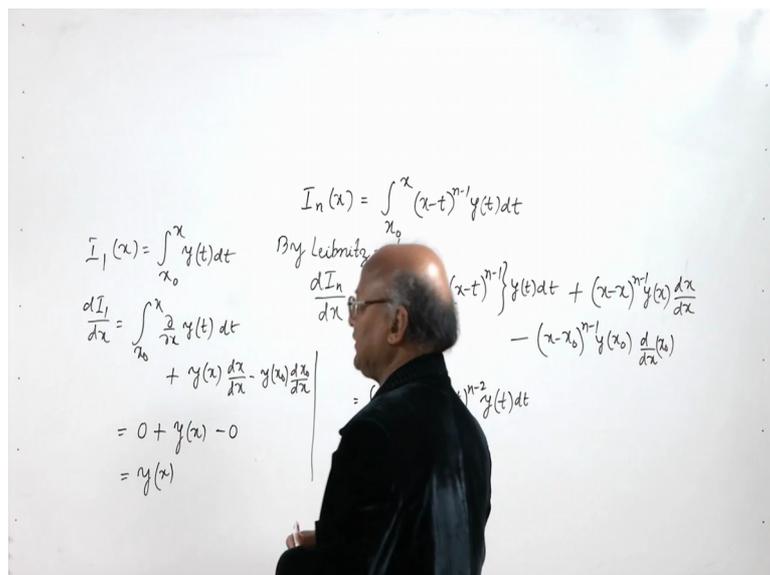
$$= (n-1) \int_{x_0}^x (x-t)^{n-2} y(t) dt$$

$$= (n-1) I_{n-1}$$

So let us define $I_n(x)$ equal to integral from x_0 to x of $(x-t)^{n-1} y(t) dt$. Now let us use Leibnitz rule to differentiate this, so by Leibnitz rule dI_n/dx that is differentiated with respect to x , so here lower limit is x_0 which is constant upper limit is variable x , so we have we had differentiating with respect to x , so we get x_0 to x partial derivative of $(x-t)^{n-1} y(t)$ with respect to x into dt plus the value of the integrand at the upper limit so we get $(x-x)^{n-1} y(x) \frac{dx}{dx}$ minus the value of the integrand at the lower limit.

So $(x-x)^{n-1} y(x) \frac{dx}{dx}$ minus the value of the integrand at the lower limit $(x_0-x_0)^{n-1} y(x_0) \frac{dx}{dx}$ of x_0 . Now what we get is then when you differentiate $(x-t)^{n-1}$ with respect to x partially you get $(n-1)(x-t)^{n-2}$. So $(n-1)$ being a constant can be written outside and we get $(n-1) \int_{x_0}^x (x-t)^{n-2} y(t) dt$. Now here $(x-x)$ is 0, so this is 0 into $y(x)$ and dx/dx is one, so we get 0 and here we see that x_0 is a constant so its derivative with respect to x is 0, so these 2 terms vanish and we get $(n-1) \int_{x_0}^x (x-t)^{n-2} y(t) dt$. So we can write it as $(n-1) I_{n-1}$ where n is strictly greater than 1. Now from this equation, from the equation $I_n(x) = \int_{x_0}^x (x-t)^{n-1} y(t) dt$.

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If you put n equal to 1 what we get? $I_1(x)$ equal to integral from x_0 to x of $y(t) dt$. So if we again applied the Leibnitz rule here then we will get dI_1/dx equal to integral from x_0 to x of $\frac{\partial}{\partial x} y(t) dt$ plus $y(x) \frac{dx}{dx}$ minus $y(x_0) \frac{dx}{dx}$.

into dx naught over dx. Derivative of x with respect to x is 1 so we get yx here, here y is a function of t only, so when you differentiate it with respect to x partially it is 0, so what we get is 0 plus here we get yx and here the derivative of x naught with respect to x is 0, so we get 0 so we get yx here so when we differentiate when we differentiate even with respect to x what we get is yx.

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Then $\frac{dI_n}{dx} = (n-1)I_{n-1}, n > 1 \quad \dots(2)$

From (1)

$$I_1 = \int_{x_0}^x y(t) dt$$

$$\frac{dI_1}{dx} = y(x)$$

Now, differentiating (2) successively $(k-1)$ times, we get

$$\frac{d^k I_n}{dx^k} = (n-1)(n-2)\dots(n-k)I_{n-k}, n > k. \quad \dots(3)$$

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Now let us differentiate this equation dI_n/dx again with respect to x, so we will get $d^2 I_n/dx^2 = (n-1)dI_{n-1}/dx$ and dI_{n-1}/dx if you use it repeatedly $dI_{n-1}/dx = (n-2)I_{n-2}$ and so on so when we differentiated $k-1$ times what we will get is $d^k I_n/dx^k = (n-1)(n-2)\dots(n-k)I_{n-k}$ where n is greater than k . Now in particular if we put k equal to $n-1$ here we will get $d^{n-1} I_n/dx^{n-1} = (n-1)!$ into I_1 . So this is what we get when we put k equal to $n-1$.

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We get

$$\frac{d^{n-1}I_n}{dx^{n-1}} = (n-1)!I_1 \quad \dots(4)$$

Again, differentiating

$$\frac{d^n I_n}{dx^n} = (n-1)!y(x) \quad \dots(5)$$

From (1), (3) and (4), it follows that $I_n(x)$ and its first $(n-1)$ derivatives vanish at $x = x_0$.



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Important result for converting a multiple integral into a single integral :

We have

$$\int_{x_0}^x dx \int_{x_0}^x dx \dots \int_{x_0}^x y(x) dx = \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \int_{x_0}^x (x-t)^{n-1} y(t) dt ,$$

where n is a positive integer and x_0 is a constant.

Proof: Let

$$I_n(x) = \int_{x_0}^x (x-t)^{n-1} y(t) dt \quad \dots(1)$$


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Then

$$\frac{dI_n}{dx} = (n-1)I_{n-1}, \quad n > 1 \quad \dots(2)$$

From (1)

$$I_1 = \int_{x_0}^x y(t) dt$$

$$\frac{dI_1}{dx} = y(x) .$$

Now, differentiating (2) successively $(k-1)$ times, we get

$$\frac{d^k I_n}{dx^k} = (n-1)(n-2)\dots(n-k)I_{n-k}, \quad n > k. \quad \dots(3)$$


17

Important result for converting a multiple integral into a single integral :

We have

$$\int_{x_0}^x dx \int_{x_0}^x dx \dots \int_{x_0}^x y(x) dx = \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \int_{x_0}^x (x-t)^{n-1} y(t) dt ,$$

where n is a positive integer and x_0 is a constant.

Proof: Let

$$I_n(x) = \int_{x_0}^x (x-t)^{n-1} y(t) dt \quad \dots(1)$$



We get

$$\frac{d^{n-1} I_n}{dx^{n-1}} = (n-1)! I_1 \quad \dots(4)$$

Again, differentiating

$$\frac{d^n I_n}{dx^n} = (n-1)! y(x) \quad \dots(5)$$

From (1), (3) and (4), it follows that $I_n(x)$ and its first $(n-1)$ derivatives vanish at $x = x_0$.



Now if you differentiate this equation again what you get is the n I_n over dx^n equal to n minus 1 factorial into dI_1 over dx and dI_1 over dx is yx so we will get n^{th} derivative of I_n with x as n minus 1 factorial into yx . Now let us look at the questions 1, 3 and 4 if you look at equation 1 here okay when you put x equal to x naught, the limits of integration are same lower end upper limits so at x equal to x naught $I_n(x)$ is 0 and if you look at equation 3 here, if you look at equation 3 here so this equation $\frac{d^k I_n}{dx^k}$ okay is n minus 1 I_{n-2} , n minus k I_{n-k} .

I_{n-k} will also be 0 by our notation I_{n-k} is integral x naught to x $(x-t)^{n-k-1} y(t) dt$, so I_{n-k} and where n is greater than k I_{n-k} is also 0 at x equal x naught. So the $\frac{d^k I_n}{dx^k}$ will be 0 when n is greater than k at x equal to x naught. This is 3 and then 4 here also $I_1(0)$ equal to x naught so $\frac{d^{n-1} I_n}{dx^{n-1}}$

over dx n minus 1 will be 0. So from 1, 3 and 4 it follows that I n x and its first and minus 1 derivatives vanish at x equal to x naught.

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Hence from

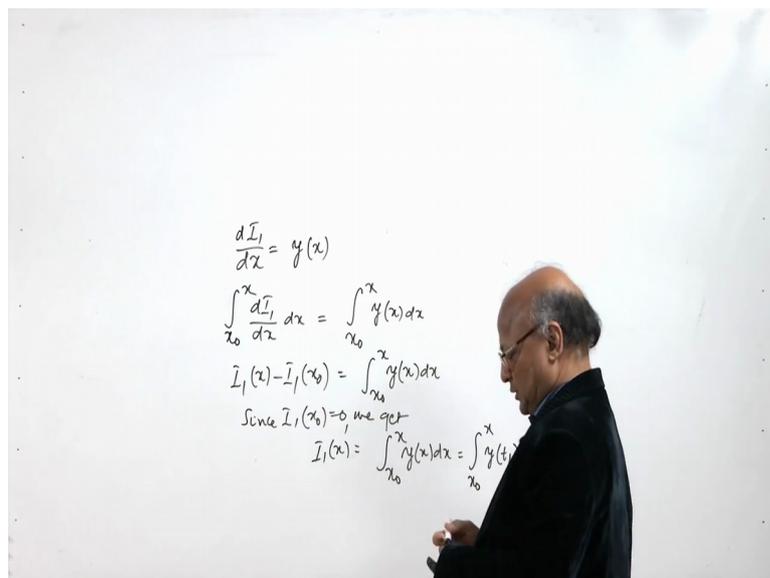
$$\frac{dI_1}{dx} = y(x),$$

we get

$$I_1(x) = \int_{x_0}^x y(t_1) dt_1$$

$$I_2(x) = \int_{x_0}^x I_1(t_2) dt_2 = \int_{x_0}^x \int_{x_0}^{t_2} y(t_1) dt_1 dt_2$$


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So let us now go back to the question dI 1 over dx, so dI 1 over dx we can see when we integrate it with respect to x we get I 1 x equal to integral over x naught 2x yt1 dt 1 this is because at x equal to x naught I 1 x is 0, so we can also see it like this. We have dI 1 over dx equal to yx, so when we integrate over x naught 2x what we get is this okay and dI1 over dx when we integrate we get xI 1 so I 1 x minus I 1 x naught equal to integral x naught 2x yx dx but I 1 at x naught is equal to 0, so since I 1 x naught is equal to 0 we get I 1 x equal to integral x naught 2x yx dx. This can also be written since this is a definite integral we can also write it as x naught 2x y t 1 dt 1. So I 1 x is integral x naught 2x y t 1 dt 1.

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We get

$$\frac{d^{n-1}I_n}{dx^{n-1}} = (n-1)!I_1 \quad \dots(4)$$

Again, differentiating

$$\frac{d^n I_n}{dx^n} = (n-1)!y(x) \quad \dots(5)$$

From (1), (3) and (4), it follows that $I_n(x)$ and its first $(n-1)$ derivatives vanish at $x = x_0$.

Hence from

we get $\frac{dI_1}{dx} = y(x),$

$$I_1(x) = \int_{x_0}^x y(t_1) dt_1$$

$$I_2(x) = \int_{x_0}^x I_1(t_2) dt_2 = \int_{x_0}^x \int_{x_0}^{t_2} y(t_1) dt_1 dt_2$$

Proceeding in this manner, we get

$$I_n(x) = (n-1)! \int_{x_0}^x \int_{x_0}^{t_n} \dots \int_{x_0}^{t_3} \int_{x_0}^{t_2} y(t_1) dt_1 dt_2 \dots dt_n$$

$$\int_{x_0}^x \int_{x_0}^{t_n} \dots \int_{x_0}^{t_3} \int_{x_0}^{t_2} y(t_1) dt_1 dt_2 \dots dt_n = \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \int_{x_0}^x (x-t)^{n-1} y(t) dt.$$

Similarly we can get $I^2 x$ equal to because we see if you look at this we have d^2 , let us put an equal to 2 here so we will get $d^2 I^2$ over dx^2 equal to $n - 1$ by x , so when we integrate it twice we will get I^2 and integrating twice means when we integrate once we get $I^1 x$ when we integrate again we get $I^2 x$ so $I^2 x$ equal to $I^1 x$ naught $2x$ $I^1 t^2 d^2$ which can be written as when you put the value of $I^1 t^2$ from here you get x naught $2x$ x naught to t^2 $yt^1 dt^1 dt^2$ we can proceed in this manner and integrated n times integrate and time so we will get $I^n x$ equal to $n - 1$ factorial x naught $2x$ x naught $2t^n$ x naught $2t^3$ x naught t^2 $yt^1 dt^1 dt^2 dt^n$ so this is equal to 1 over $n - 1$ factorial $I^n x$ we have assumed as x naught $2x$ x minus t raise the power $n - 1$ $yt dt$. So this is how we prove that multiple integral and integral of the function yx can be converted into a single integral so this result we shall be using when we deal with initial value problems, so this is what I have to say in this lecture thank you very much for your attention.