

**Integral Equations, Calculus of Variations and their Applications**  
**Professor Doctor P N Agrawal**  
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**Mod 06 Lecture Number 24**  
**Method of successive approximations**

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Hello friends I welcome you to my lecture on the method of successive approximation Let us consider a Volterra integral equation of the second

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**The method of successive approximation**

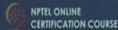
Consider a Volterra type integral equation of the second kind

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

Let us assume that  $f(x)$  is continuous in  $[a, b]$  and the kernel  $K(x, t)$  is continuous for  $a \leq x \leq b, a \leq t \leq x$ .

We start with some  $y_0(x)$  continuous in  $[a, b]$  and put it into the right hand side of (1) in place of  $y(x)$ , we get

$$y_1(x) = f(x) + \lambda \int_a^x K(x,t)y_0(t)dt.$$



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kind  $y(x)$  equal to  $f(x)$  plus  $\lambda$  times integral  $a$  to  $x$   $K(x, t)y(t)dt$  and let us assume the conditions that  $f(x)$  is continuous on the closed interval  $a$  to  $b$  and the kernel  $K(x, t)$  is continuous for  $a \leq x \leq b$  and  $a \leq t \leq x$

less than or equal to  $x$  in that region Now what we will do here is that we shall start with some  $y_0(x)$  initial approximation to the solution  $y(x)$  of the given differential equation

So we shall start with some  $y_0(x)$  as the initial approximation which we will take as continuous function in  $[a, b]$  and put into the right hand side of the equation (1) in place of  $y(t)$  In place of  $y(x)$  when we put this then we will get  $y_1(x)$  equal to  $f(x)$  the first approximation to the solution  $y(x)$  we get as  $y_1(x)$  is equal to  $f(x)$  plus  $\lambda$  times  $\int_a^x K(x, t) y_0(t) dt$  Now after we have found  $y_1(x)$  here we then put  $y_1(x)$  again in the equation (1) to get the next approximation that is  $y_2(x)$

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The function  $y_1(x)$  is also continuous in  $[a, b]$ . Now, we put  $y_1(x)$  in place of  $y(x)$  into the right hand side of (1) we get

$$y_2(x) = f(x) + \lambda \int_a^x K(x, t) y_1(t) dt.$$

Continuing this process, we obtain a sequence of functions  $y_0(x), y_1(x), y_2(x), \dots, y_n(x), \dots$

where

$$y_n(x) = f(x) + \lambda \int_a^x K(x, t) y_{n-1}(t) dt ,$$

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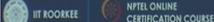
So since  $y_1(x)$  is continuous in the closed interval  $[a, b]$  we can put  $y_1(x)$  in place of  $y(x)$  in the right hand side of equation (1) and obtain the second approximation  $y_2(x)$  to the solution  $y(x)$  of the given integral equation So  $y_2(x)$  is  $f(x)$  plus  $\lambda$  times  $\int_a^x K(x, t) y_1(t) dt$  Now we can continue this process and then continuing this process we shall obtain a sequence of functions  $y_0(x), y_1(x), y_2(x), \dots, y_n(x)$  and so on There the expression for  $y_n(x)$  will be given by  $y_n(x)$  equal to  $f(x)$  plus  $\lambda$  times  $\int_a^x K(x, t) y_{n-1}(t) dt$

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In view of the continuity of  $f(x)$  and  $K(x, t)$ , the sequence  $\{y_n(x)\}$  converges as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , to the solution  $y(x)$  of the integral equation (1).

A suitable choice of the 'zero' approximation  $y_0(x)$  can lead to a rapid convergence of the sequence  $\{y_n(x)\}$  to the solution of the integral equation.

**Example:** Consider  $y(x) = 1 + \int_0^x y(t) dt$ , where  $y_0(x) = 0$ .



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Since we have assumed  $K(x, t)$  to be continuous  $f(x)$  to be continuous and  $K(x, t)$  to be continuous in the region  $a \leq x \leq b$  and  $a \leq t \leq x$  we it tells out that the sequence  $y_n(x)$  converges as  $n$  goes to infinity to the solution  $y(x)$  of the integral equation given integral equation

Now a suitable choice of the initial approximation which we call as zero approximation  $y_0(x)$  can lead to a rapid convergence of the sequence So if we suitably choose the zero approximation  $y_0(x)$  the we can reach the solution of the integral equation faster So that is very essential how to choose the zero approximation  $y_0(x)$  Now let me show you how we apply this method to a given integral equation  $y(x) = 1 + \int_0^x y(t) dt$  let us consider  $y(x) = 1 + \int_0^x y(t) dt$  and let us assume  $y_0(x)$  to be the equal to zero that is we are assuming zero solution to the given integral equation So what we will do to obtain the first approximation

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**Solution:** Here  $y_0(x)=0$ , we have

$$y_1(x) = 1 + \int_0^x y_0(t) dt = 1$$
$$y_2(x) = 1 + \int_0^x 1 dt = 1 + x$$
$$y_3(x) = 1 + \int_0^x (1+t) dt = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2}$$
$$y_4(x) = 1 + \int_0^x \left(1+t + \frac{t^2}{2}\right) dt = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!}$$

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So let us put  $y_0(x)$  equal to zero in the right hand side of the

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In view of the continuity of  $f(x)$  and  $K(x, t)$ , the sequence  $\{y_n(x)\}$  converges as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , to the solution  $y(x)$  of the integral equation (1).

A suitable choice of the 'zero' approximation  $y_0(x)$  can lead to a rapid convergence of the sequence  $\{y_n(x)\}$  to the solution of the integral equation.

**Example:** Consider  $y(x) = 1 + \int_0^x y(t) dt$ , where  $y_0(x)=0$ .

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So here we put  $y_0(x)$  equal to zero in the right hand side of the given integral equation. So  $y_1(x)$  will be  $1 + \int_0^x 0 dt$  and  $y_2(x)$  will be  $1 + \int_0^x 1 dt$  and  $y_3(x)$  will be  $1 + \int_0^x (1+t) dt$  and so on.

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Solution: Here  $y_0(x)=0$ , we have

$$y_1(x) = 1 + \int_0^x y_0(t) dt = 1$$

$$y_2(x) = 1 + \int_0^x 1 dt = 1 + x$$

$$y_3(x) = 1 + \int_0^x (1+t) dt = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2}$$

$$y_4(x) = 1 + \int_0^x \left(1+t + \frac{t^2}{2}\right) dt = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!}$$

equal to 1 And then we put  $y = 1 + x$  in the right hand side of the given integral equation to obtain  $y_2(x)$   $y_2(x)$  is then  $1 + \int_0^x 1 dt$  so this is  $1 + x$  Then  $y_2(x)$  is put in the right hand side of the given differential equation to obtain  $y_3(x)$  and  $y_3(x)$  is  $1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2}$  which is again put on the right hand side of the given integral equation to obtain  $y_4(x)$   $y_4(x)$  is then  $1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{6}$  We can write  $\frac{x^2}{2}$  as  $\frac{x^2}{2!}$  and we also have the  $\frac{x^3}{6}$  as  $\frac{x^3}{3!}$

So this way when we carry on

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Similarly,

$$y_n(x) = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{x^{n-1}}{(n-1)!}$$

Thus,  $y_n(x)$  is the  $n$ -th partial sum of the series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = e^x$ .

Therefore as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $y_n(x) \rightarrow e^x$ . So,  $y(x) = e^x$ .

We can verify that  $y(x) = e^x$  is a solution of the given equation.

so similarly  $y_n(x)$  is equal to  $1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{x^{n-1}}{(n-1)!}$  and so on  $x$  to the power  $n - 1$  over  $(n - 1)!$  Thus we notice that  $y_n(x)$  is the  $n$ th partial sum of the Maclaurin series for  $e^x$  The Maclaurin series for  $e^x$  is

power  $x$  is given by  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$ . And hence as  $n$  goes to infinity  $y_n(x)$  the  $n$ th partial sum converges to the sum of the series that is  $e^x$ . And so we can say that  $y(x)$  is equal to  $e^x$ . And we can also verify that  $y(x) = e^x$  is a solution of the given integral equation. You can see that

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In view of the continuity of  $f(x)$  and  $K(x, t)$ , the sequence  $\{y_n(x)\}$  converges as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , to the solution  $y(x)$  of the integral equation (1).

A suitable choice of the 'zero' approximation  $y_0(x)$  can lead to a rapid convergence of the sequence  $\{y_n(x)\}$  to the solution of the integral equation.

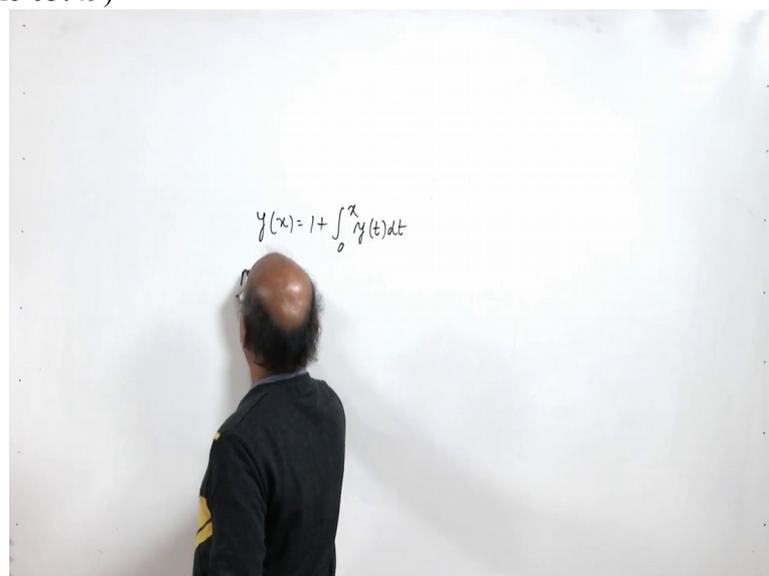
**Example:** Consider  $y(x) = 1 + \int_0^x y(t) dt$ , where  $y_0(x) = 0$ .



so here you put  $y(x)$  let us see. We have  $y(x) = 1 + \int_0^x y(t) dt$

Let us verify that  $y(x) = e^x$  is a solution of this. So now let's take

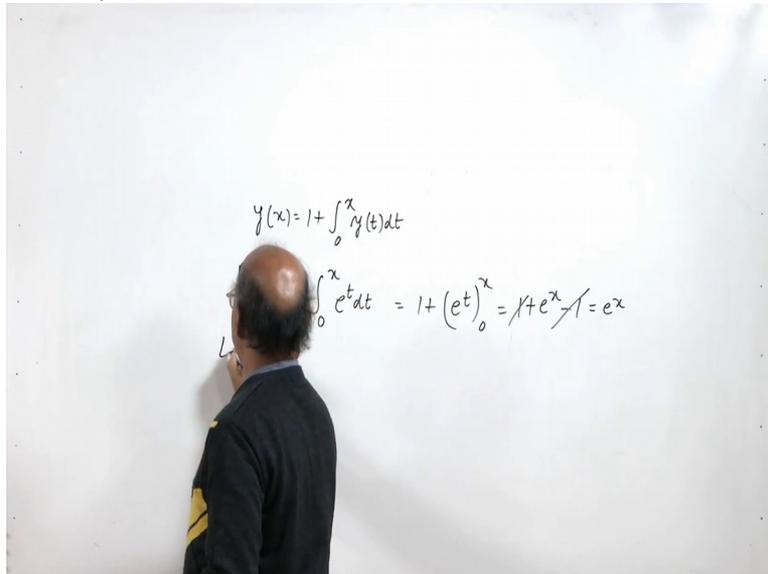
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the right hand side. This is  $1 + \int_0^x y(t) dt$ . Let us put  $y(t) = e^t$ . So we get  $1 + \int_0^x e^t dt$  which is  $1 + e^x - 1 = e^x$ .

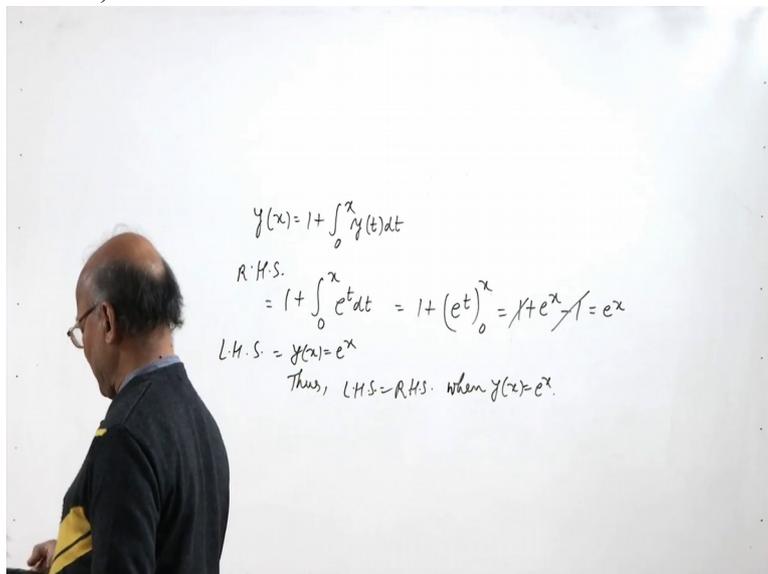
minus 1 So what we get is e to power x So left hand side in the left hand side y x is e to the power x so the left hand side and right hand side are both equal Ok

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L H S is equal to y x equal to e to power x so thus L H S is equal to R H S when y x is equal to e to the power x So e to the power x is the solution of the integral equation

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y x plus y x equal to 1 plus integral zero to x y t d t

Now let's take one more example So we have y x equal to 1 plus integral

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**Example:** Let  $y(x) = 1 + \int_0^x (x-t)y(t)dt$ ,  $y_0(x) = 1$ .

**Solution:** We have

$$y_1(x) = 1 + \int_0^x (x-t)dt = 1 + \frac{x^2}{2}$$

$$y_2(x) = 1 + \int_0^x (x-t) \left( 1 + \frac{t^2}{2} \right) dt = 1 + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!}$$

$$y_3(x) = 1 + \int_0^x (x-t) \left( 1 + \frac{t^2}{2} + \frac{t^4}{24} \right) dt = 1 + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \frac{x^6}{6!}$$



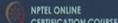
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0 to x x minus t y t d t where we are given the zero approximation y naught x as equal to 1 So for all values of x over the range of values of x we are assuming y naught to be equal to 1 So here y 1 x the first approximation y 1 x is given by 1 plus integral zero to x y naught t d t and y naught t will be equal to x minus t into y naught t d t y naught t is equal to 1 so we get after integration we get 1 plus x square by 2 And then we put y 1 x in the given integral equation For y t we put y 1 t in the right side to get y 2 x y 2 x is 1 plus integral 0 to x x minus t into 1 plus t square by 2 d t So after integration and simplification we get 1 plus x square by 2 factorial plus x 4 by 4 factorial We can again continue this and we can find y 3 x by putting y 2 t in place of y t here So y 3 x will come out to be 1 plus x square by 2 factorial plus x 4 by 4 factorial plus x 6 by 6 factorial

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$$y_n(x) = 1 + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots + \frac{x^{2n}}{2n!}$$

$$\text{As } n \rightarrow \infty, y_n(x) \rightarrow y(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n}}{2n!} = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2} = \cosh x .$$



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And generalizing we get  $y_n(x) = 1 + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots + \frac{x^{2n}}{2n!}$  and so on  $x$  to the power  $2n$  by  $2n$  factorial. As  $n$  goes to infinity  $y_n(x)$  goes to  $y(x)$  which is  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n}}{2n!}$ . And it is known that this is nothing but  $e^x + e^{-x}$  by 2 and we know that  $e^x + e^{-x}$  by 2 is the cosh  $x$ . So the solution of the integral equation

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Example: Let  $y(x) = 1 + \int_0^x (x-t)y(t)dt$ ,  $y_0(x) = 1$ .

Solution: We have

$$y_1(x) = 1 + \int_0^x (x-t)dt = 1 + \frac{x^2}{2}$$

$$y_2(x) = 1 + \int_0^x (x-t) \left(1 + \frac{t^2}{2}\right) dt = 1 + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!}$$

$$y_3(x) = 1 + \int_0^x (x-t) \left(1 + \frac{t^2}{2} + \frac{t^4}{24}\right) dt = 1 + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \frac{x^6}{6!}$$

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given integral equation is  $y(x) = \cosh x$

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$$y_n(x) = 1 + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots + \frac{x^{2n}}{2n!}$$

As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $y_n(x) \rightarrow y(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n}}{2n!} = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2} = \cosh x$ .

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So this is how we apply this method

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**Volterra integral equation of the first kind**

**Theorem:** Volterra integral equation of the first kind can be converted to the Volterra integral equation of the second kind.

**Proof:** Let the Volterra integral equation of the first kind be given by

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

where  $y(x)$  is the unknown function .

Suppose that the kernel  $K(x,t)$  and  $\frac{\partial K(x,t)}{\partial x}$  be continuous for  $a \leq x \leq b$ ,  $a \leq t \leq x$ .

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Now let us consider Volterra integral equation of the first kind

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We shall see that Volterra integral equation of the first kind can be converted into Volterra integral equation of the second kind and we can obtain the solution there And that solution will also satisfy Volterra integral equation of the first kind So Volterra integral equation of the

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first kind can be written as integral a to x K x t y t d t equal to f x where y x is the unknown function Let us assume that the kernel K x t and its partial derivative with respect to x are continuous in the range in the region g a less than or equal to x less than or equal to b and a less than or equal to t less than or equal to x

Then

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Then it is clear from the given equation that the condition  $f(a)=0$  is necessary for (2) to possess a continuous solution.

Differentiating both sides of equation (2) w. r. t. x, we get

$$\int_a^x K'_x(x,t)y(t)dt + K(x,x)y(x) \frac{d}{dx} x - K(x,a)y(a) \frac{d}{dx} a = f'(x)$$

$$\int_a^x K'_x(x,t)y(t)dt + K(x,x)y(x) = f'(x) \quad \dots(3)$$


from the given first order

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**Volterra integral equation of the first kind**

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Suppose that the kernel  $K(x,t)$  and  $\frac{\partial K(x,t)}{\partial x}$  be continuous for  $a \leq x \leq b$ ,  $a \leq t \leq x$ .

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Volterra integral equation of the first kind it is clear that when  $x$  is equal to  $a$   $f$  must be equal to zero

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Then it is clear from the given equation that the condition  $f(a)=0$  is necessary for (2) to possess a continuous solution.

Differentiating both sides of equation (2) w. r. t.  $x$ , we get

$$\int_a^x K'_x(x,t)y(t)dt + K(x,x)y(x) \frac{d}{dx}x - K(x,a)y(a) \frac{d}{dx}a = f'(x)$$
$$\int_a^x K'_x(x,t)y(t)dt + K(x,x)y(x) = f'(x) \quad \dots(3)$$

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So it is clear from the given equation that the condition  $f(a)$  is equal to zero is necessary for the

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**Volterra integral equation of the first kind**

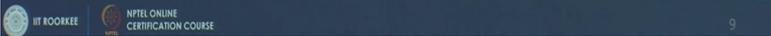
**Theorem:** Volterra integral equation of the first kind can be converted to the Volterra integral equation of the second kind.

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where  $y(x)$  is the unknown function .

Suppose that the kernel  $K(x,t)$  and  $\frac{\partial K(x,t)}{\partial x}$  be continuous for  $a \leq x \leq b$ ,  $a \leq t \leq x$ .



equation to possess a continuous solution

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Then it is clear from the given equation that the condition  $f(a)=0$  is necessary for (2) to possess a continuous solution.

Differentiating both sides of equation (2) w. r. t.  $x$ , we get

$$\int_a^x K'_x(x,t)y(t)dt + K(x,x)y(x) \frac{d}{dx}x - K(x,a)y(a) \frac{d}{dx}a = f'(x)$$

$$\int_a^x K'_x(x,t)y(t)dt + K(x,x)y(x) = f'(x) \quad \dots(3)$$


Now differentiating both sides of this equation 2 what we get is using the Leibniz rule for differentiation under sign of integration we will get integral a to x derivative of K x t with respect to x into y t d t then we put t in place of t we put x the upper limit So we get K x x into y x and then d over d x of x And then in the minus in the integrand we put t equal to a the lower limit So we get K x a into y a and then derivative of a with respect to x And right hand side will become f prime x Now since a is a constant d a by d x will be zero

So this equation will reduce to integral a to x K x dash x t into y t d t plus K x x into y x equal to f dash x because derivative of x with respect to x is 1 So now

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Let  $K(x, x) \neq 0$  at any point in  $[a, b]$  then from (3), we get

$$y(x) = \frac{f'(x)}{K(x, x)} - \int_a^x \frac{K'_x(x, t)}{K(x, x)} y(t) dt,$$

which is a Volterra integral equation of the second kind.  
 Now, if  $K(x, x) \equiv 0$  in  $[a, b]$  then from equation (3),

$$f'(x) = \int_a^x K'_x(x, t) y(t) dt, \quad \dots(4)$$

Assuming that  $\frac{\partial^2 K(x, t)}{\partial x^2}$  is continuous in  $a \leq x \leq b, a \leq t \leq x$ ,



so let us assume that  $K_{xx}$  does not vanish at any point in the interval  $a$  to  $b$  then from equation 3 then from equation 3

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Then it is clear from the given equation that the condition  $f(a)=0$  is necessary for (2) to possess a continuous solution.

Differentiating both sides of equation (2) w. r. t.  $x$ , we get

$$\int_a^x K'_x(x, t) y(t) dt + K(x, x) y(x) \frac{d}{dx} x - K(x, a) y(a) \frac{d}{dx} a = f'(x)$$

$$\int_a^x K'_x(x, t) y(t) dt + K(x, x) y(x) = f'(x) \quad \dots(3)$$


by on dividing by  $K_{xx}$  both the sides we will have

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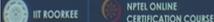
Let  $K(x, x) \neq 0$  at any point in  $[a, b]$  then from (3), we get

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which is a Volterra integral equation of the second kind.  
 Now, if  $K(x, x) \equiv 0$  in  $[a, b]$  then from equation (3),

$$f'(x) = \int_a^x K'_x(x, t) y(t) dt, \quad \dots(4)$$

Assuming that  $\frac{\partial^2 K(x, t)}{\partial x^2}$  is continuous in  $a \leq x \leq b, a \leq t \leq x$ ,



$y(x)$  is equal to  $f'(x)$  over  $K(x, x)$  minus integral from  $a$  to  $x$  of  $K'_x(x, t) y(t)$  over  $K(x, x)$  into  $y(t) dt$ . We are you can remember that  $K'_x(x, t)$  is the partial derivative of  $K(x, t)$  with respect to  $x$ . And it is a since  $K(x, t)$  function is known  $f'(x)$  function is known so  $f'(x)$  over  $K(x, x)$  is known and  $K'_x(x, t) y(t)$  over  $K(x, x)$  is also known. So it is a Volterra integral equation of the second kind where we can take  $\lambda$  to be minus 1. Now if it happens that  $K(x, x)$  is zero in the interval  $a, b$  then this equation this equation

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Then it is clear from the given equation that the condition  $f(a)=0$  is necessary for (2) to possess a continuous solution.

Differentiating both sides of equation (2) w. r. t.  $x$ , we get

$$\int_a^x K'_x(x, t) y(t) dt + K(x, x) y(x) \frac{d}{dx} x - K(x, a) y(a) \frac{d}{dx} a = f'(x)$$

$$\int_a^x K'_x(x, t) y(t) dt + K(x, x) y(x) = f'(x) \quad \dots(3)$$


will reduce to integral from  $a$  to  $x$  of  $K'_x(x, t) y(t) dt$  equal to  $f'(x)$ . So if  $K(x, x)$  is zero for all values of  $x$  in the interval  $a, b$  then we again get the Volterra integral equation of the first kind.

(Refer Slide Time 12:10)

Let  $K(x, x) \neq 0$  at any point in  $[a, b]$  then from (3), we get

$$y(x) = \frac{f'(x)}{K(x, x)} - \int_a^x \frac{K'_x(x, t)}{K(x, x)} y(t) dt,$$

which is a Volterra integral equation of the second kind.

Now, if  $K(x, x) \equiv 0$  in  $[a, b]$  then from equation (3),

$$f'(x) = \int_a^x K'(x, t) y(t) dt, \quad \dots(4)$$

Assuming that  $\frac{\partial^2 K(x, t)}{\partial x^2}$  is continuous in  $a \leq x \leq b, a \leq t \leq x$ ,



So what we will do is now let us assume that this second derivative of  $K$  with respect to  $x$  is continuous in the domain  $a \leq x \leq b, a \leq t \leq x$  then

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from (4), we get

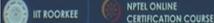
$$\int_a^x K''_x(x, t) y(t) dt + K'_x(x, x) y(x) \frac{d}{dx} x - K'_x(x, a) y(a) \frac{d}{dx} a = f''(x)$$

$$\int_a^x K''_x(x, t) y(t) dt + K'_x(x, x) y(x) = f''(x).$$

As before, if  $K'_x(x, x) \neq 0$  for any  $x$  in  $[a, b]$ , then we have

$$y(x) = \frac{f''(x)}{K'_x(x, x)} - \int_a^x \frac{K''_x(x, t)}{K'_x(x, x)} y(t) dt,$$

which is a Volterra integral equation of the second kind.



we differentiate again with respect to  $x$  while using Leibniz rule so we shall have integral  $a$  to  $x$  second order partial derivative of  $K$  with respect to  $x$  into  $y(t) dt$  plus  $K(x, x)$  into  $y(x) \frac{d}{dx} x$  minus  $K(x, a)$  into  $\frac{d}{dx} a$  by  $\frac{d}{dx}$  equal to  $f''(x)$  Now  $a$  is a constant So  $\frac{d}{dx} a$  will be zero and for this equation will reduce to integral  $a$  to  $x$   $K''(x, t) y(t) dt$  plus  $K'_x(x, x) y(x)$  equal to  $f''(x)$  Now as before if the first order partial derivative of  $K$  with respect to  $x$  at  $t$  equal to  $x$  is non-zero for any  $x$  in the closed interval  $a, b$  then we can divide this equation by  $K'_x(x, x)$  and arrive at Volterra

integral equation of the second kind  $y(x) = f(x) - \int_a^x K(x,t)y(t)dt$

And we can solve it by the methods of solving Volterra integral equation of the second kind Now

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If  $K'_x(x,x) \equiv 0$ , then we shall use the same procedure again.  
 Continuing this procedure  
 if  $K^{(p)}(x,t)$  is continuous then  $f^{(p)}(x)$  is also continuous and so we shall have

$$\int_a^x K_x^{(p)}(x,t)y(t)dt + K_x^{(p-1)}(x,x)y(x) = f^{(p)}(x).$$

If  $K_x^{(p-1)}(x,x) \neq 0$ , then we have

$$y(x) = \frac{f^{(p)}(x)}{K_x^{(p-1)}(x,x)} - \int_a^x \frac{K_x^{(p)}(x,t)}{K_x^{(p-1)}(x,x)} y(t)dt, \quad \dots (5)$$


if again if  $K(x,x)$  is identically zero Then we shall use the same procedure So if it so happens that we have to continue this procedure and the  $p$ th derivative of  $K(x,t)$  is continuous the  $p$ th derivative of  $K(x,t)$  with respect to  $x$  is continuous in the domain  $a \leq x \leq b$ ,  $a \leq t \leq x$  then  $f^{(p)}(x)$  is also continuous and so we shall have  $\int_a^x K_x^{(p)}(x,t)y(t)dt + K_x^{(p-1)}(x,x)y(x) = f^{(p)}(x)$   
 Now when  $K_x^{(p-1)}(x,x)$  is not zero for any  $x$  in the closed interval  $a, b$  we shall dividing this equation by  $K_x^{(p-1)}(x,x)$  And arrive at the Volterra integral equation of the second kind

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which is a Volterra integral equation of second kind.

Now, (5) has a unique solution. The solution so obtained satisfies all the intermediate equations as well as (2).

Example: Solve  $\int_0^x e^{(x-t)} y(t) dt = \sin x$ .

Solution: Differentiating both sides w. r. t.  $x$ , we have

$$\int_0^x e^{(x-t)} y(t) dt + e^{(x-x)} y(x) \frac{dx}{dx} - e^{(x-0)} y(0) \frac{d0}{dx} = \cos x$$

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So this equation has

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If  $K'_x(x, x) \equiv 0$ , then we shall use the same procedure again.

Continuing this procedure

if  $K^{(p)}(x, t)$  is continuous then  $f^{(p)}(x)$  is also continuous and so we shall have

$$\int_a^x K_x^{(p)}(x, t) y(t) dt + K_x^{(p-1)}(x, x) y(x) = f^{(p)}(x).$$

If  $K_x^{(p-1)}(x, x) \neq 0$ , then we have

$$y(x) = \frac{f^{(p)}(x)}{K_x^{(p-1)}(x, x)} - \int_a^x \frac{K_x^{(p)}(x, t)}{K_x^{(p-1)}(x, x)} y(t) dt, \quad \dots (5)$$

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a unique solution equation 5 and

(Refer Slide Time 14:42)

which is a Volterra integral equation of second kind.

Now, (5) has a unique solution. The solution so obtained satisfies all the intermediate equations as well as (2).

Example: Solve  $\int_0^x e^{(x-t)} y(t) dt = \sin x$ .

Solution: Differentiating both sides w. r. t.  $x$ , we have

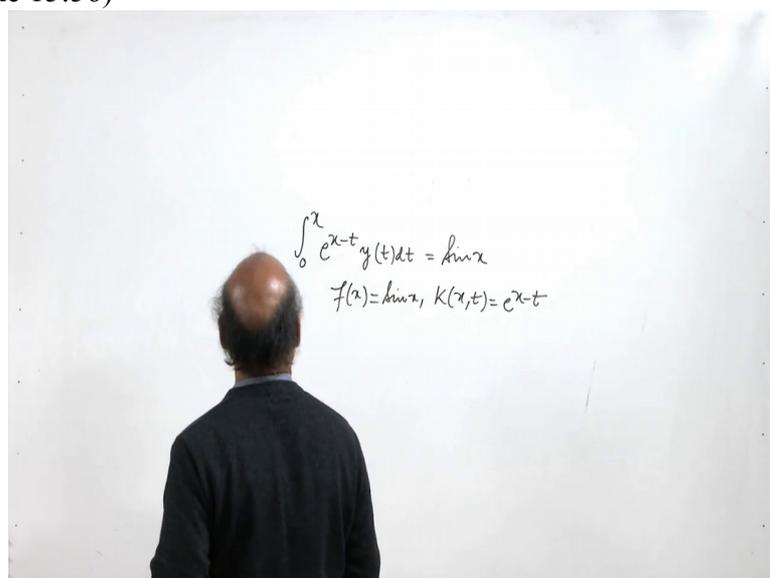
$$\int_0^x e^{(x-t)} y(t) dt + e^{(x-x)} y(x) \frac{dx}{dx} - e^{(x-0)} y(0) \frac{d0}{dx} = \cos x$$

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the solution so obtained satisfies all the intermediate equations which we have got as well as the given integral equation that is equation number 2 Now so this is how we apply use this method So let us see how we can solve Volterra integral equation of the first kind Suppose we have this Volterra integral equation of the first kind

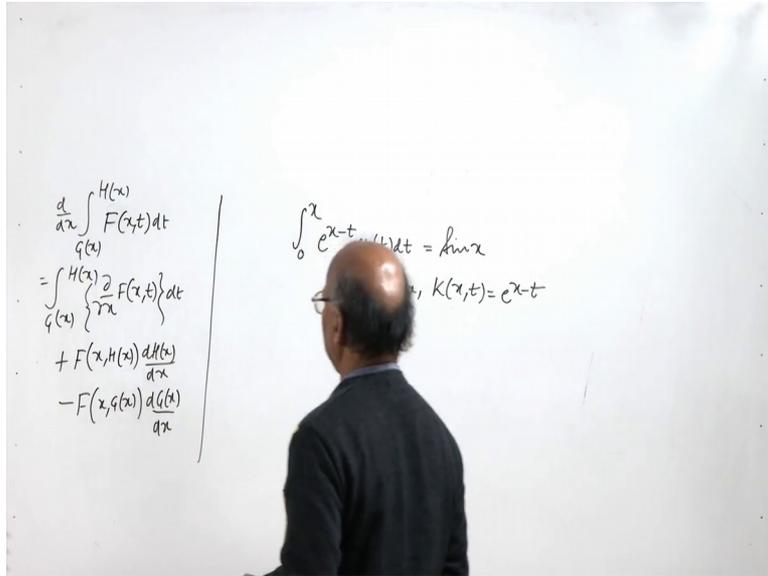
So we have  $y \int_0^x e^{(x-t)} y(t) dt = \sin x$  we can see here that  $f(x)$  is equal to  $\sin x$  and  $K(x,t)$  is equal to  $e^{(x-t)}$  So  $f(x)$  is a continuous function and  $K(x,t)$  is also a continuous function Now let us differentiate this equation with respect

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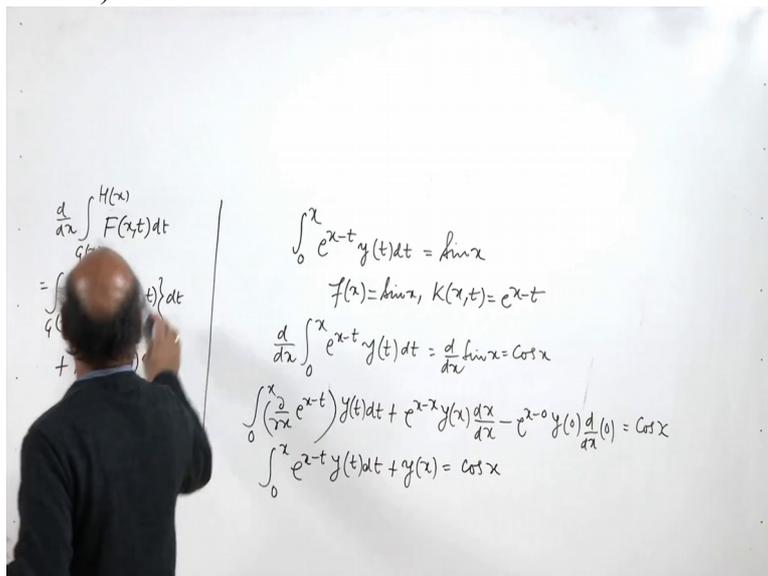
to  $x$  by using Leibniz rule So let us recall the Leibniz rule  $\frac{d}{dx}$  over  $\int_{g(x)}^{h(x)} f(x,t) dt$  let us say capital  $F(x,t)$  where we can take this is integral  $\int_{g(x)}^{h(x)} f(x,t) dt$  partial derivative plus  $F(x,h(x)) \frac{dh(x)}{dx} - F(x,g(x)) \frac{dg(x)}{dx}$  and then instead of  $x$  we have  $h(x)$  minus  $F$  So this is the formula So let's apply

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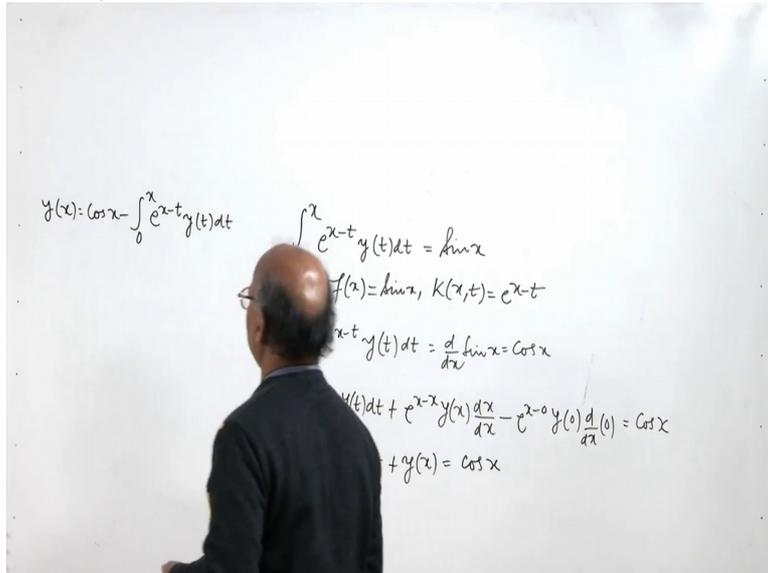
here so when we differentiate with respect to  $x$  we have which is  $\cos x$  Ok Now let's apply Leibniz rule So this is integral zero to  $x$  we put the upper limit we get this So this gives you zero to  $x$  partial derivative with respect to  $x$  gives  $e$  to the power  $x$  minus  $t$   $y(t) dt$  And here we get  $y(x)$  equal to  $\cos x$  And which can written as

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so you can see that the coefficient of  $y(x)$  is 1 which is not zero Of so we can write it as  $y(x)$  equal to  $\cos x$  minus integral zero to  $x$   $e$  to the power  $x$  minus  $t$  into  $y(t) dt$  which is a Volterra integral

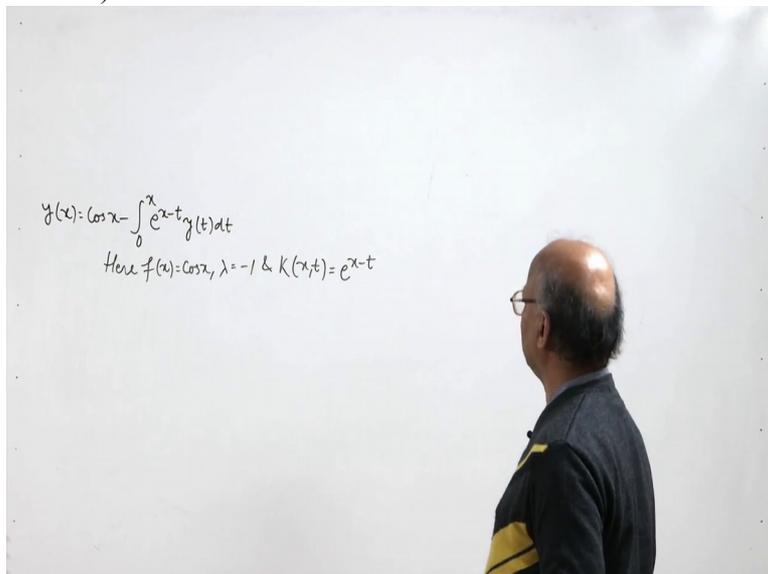
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equation of the second kind

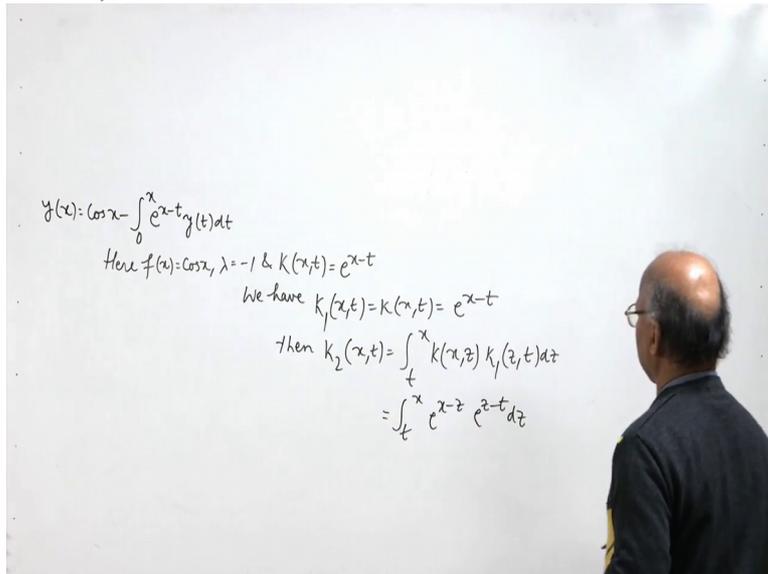
Now we shall solve it by the method of finding the resolvent kernel So here we notice that here  $f(x)$  is equal to  $\cos x$   $\lambda$  is equal to  $-1$  and  $K(x,t)$  is equal to  $e^{x-t}$  So let us find the iterated kernels

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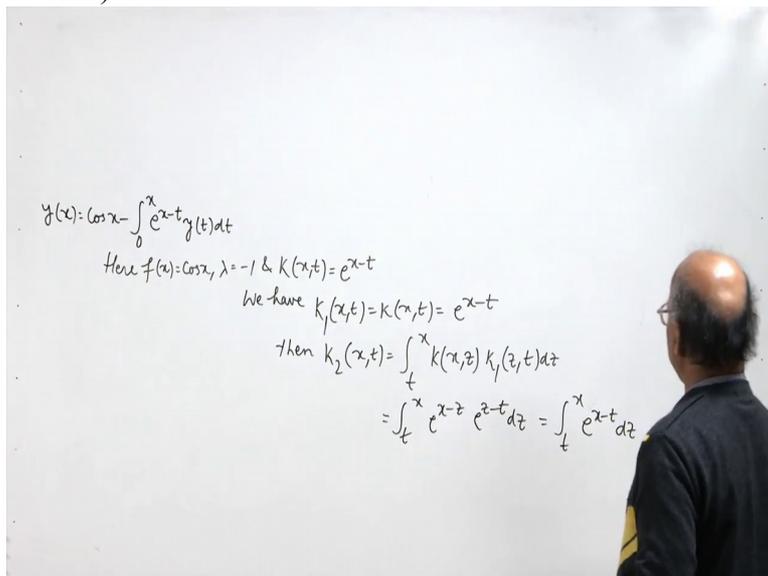
first So we have  $K_1(x,t)$  is equal to  $K(x,t)$  is equal to  $e^{x-t}$  then  $K_2(x,t)$  is equal to  $\int_t^x K(x,z) K_1(z,t) dz$  Ok So this is equal to  $\int_t^x e^{x-z} e^{z-t} dz$  is equal to  $\int_t^x e^{x-t} dz$  and then  $K_1(z,t)$  is same as  $K(z,t)$  but  $K(z,t)$  will be equal to  $e^{z-t}$   $\int_t^x e^{x-z} e^{z-t} dz = e^{x-t} \int_t^x dz = e^{x-t} (x-t)$

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z minus t is e to power x minus t So integral t to x Ok now e to power x minus

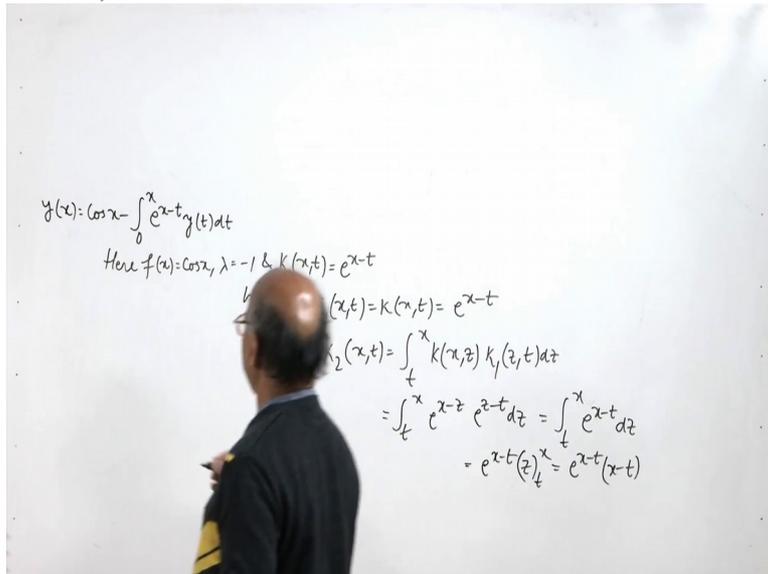
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t is independent of z so I can write it outside and then we integrate and find the value of K 2 x t as e to the power x minus t into x minus t

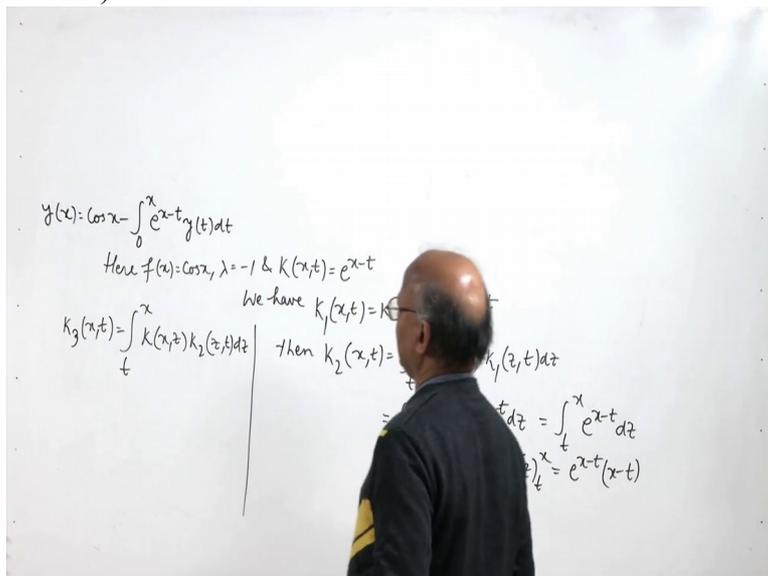
Now let's find

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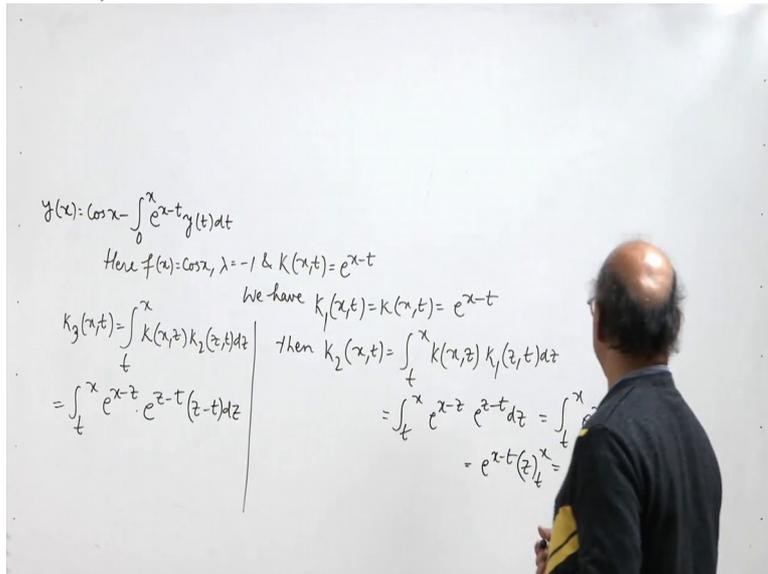
K 3 x t So

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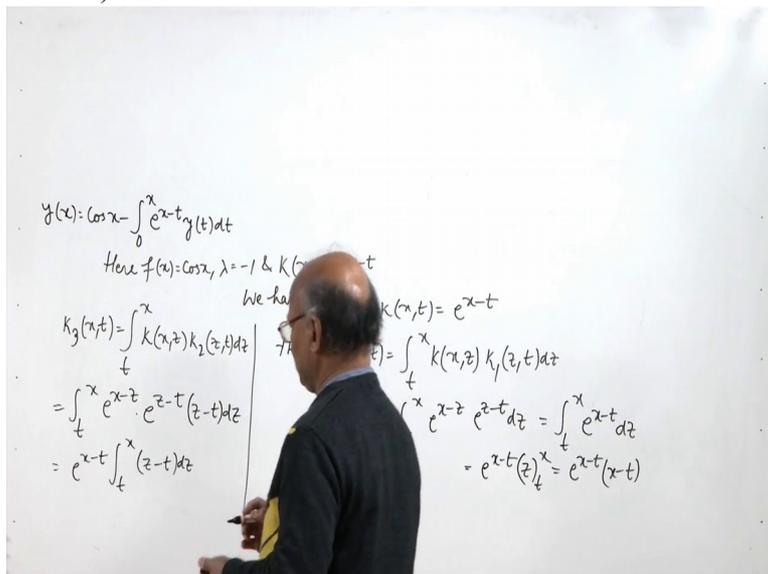
K 3 x t is integral t to x K x z K 2 z t d z which is equal to K 2 z t will be equal to

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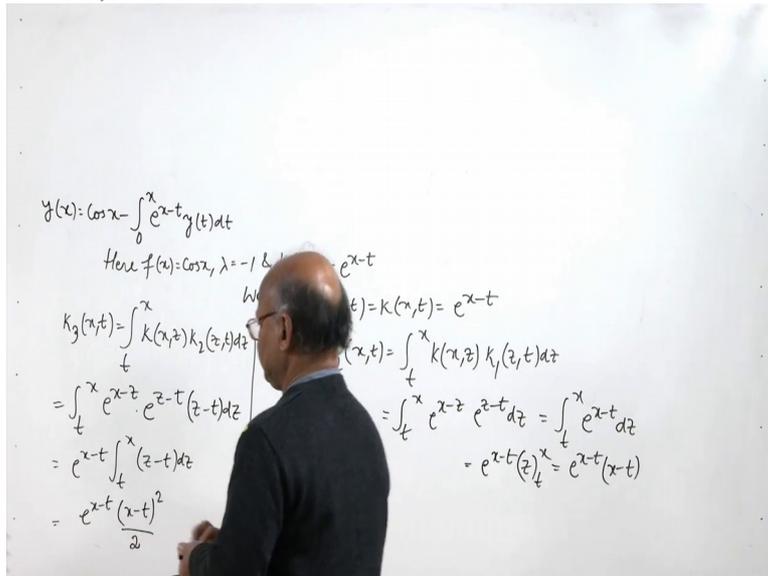
e to the power z minus t into z minus t And this is now e to the power x minus t integral t to x and z minus t d z When you

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integrate this and substitute the limits what you get is e to power x minus t into x minus t whole square by 2 Now

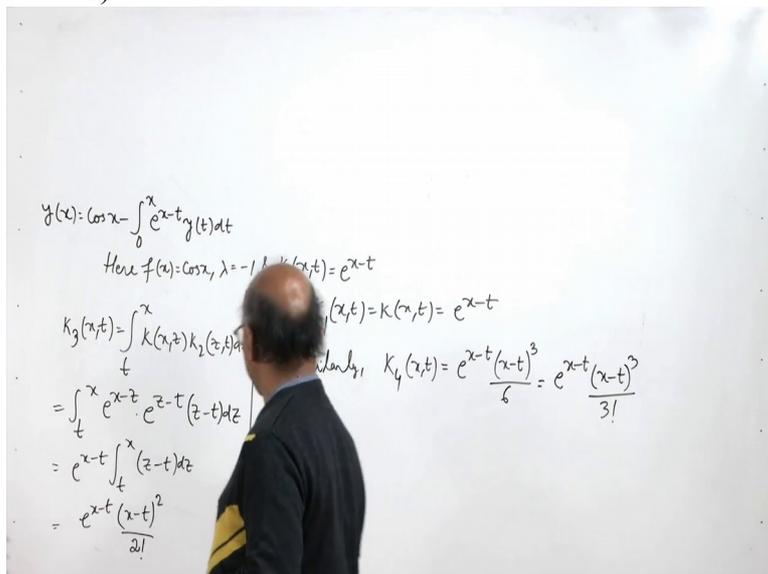
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if we find  $K_3(x,t)$  will come out to be so similarly it will come out to be  $e$  to the power  $x$  minus  $t$  into  $x$  minus  $t$  whole to the power 3 divided by 6 which can be interpreted as  $e$  to the power  $x$  minus  $t$  into it is  $K_4$  not  $K_3$ .  $K_3$  we have already found So  $e$  to power  $x$  minus  $t$   $x$  minus  $t$  raised to the power 3 divided by 3 factorial And this 2 we can interpret as 2 factorial

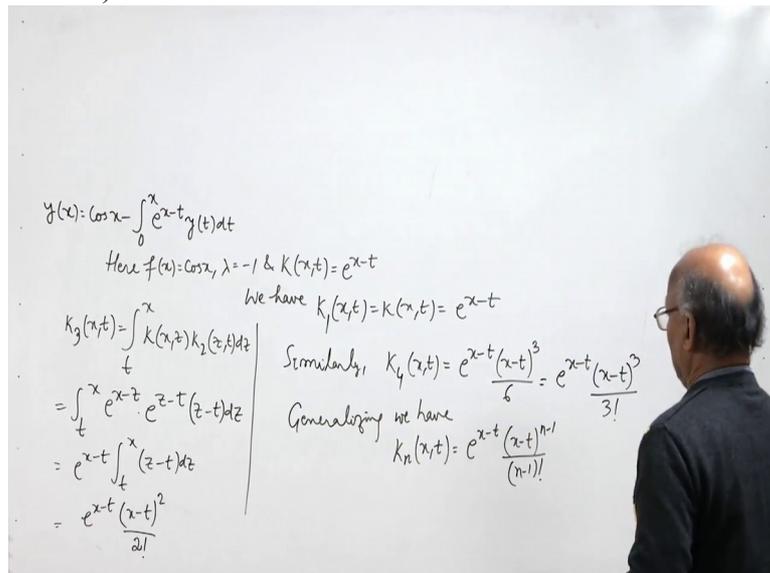
So generalizing we have

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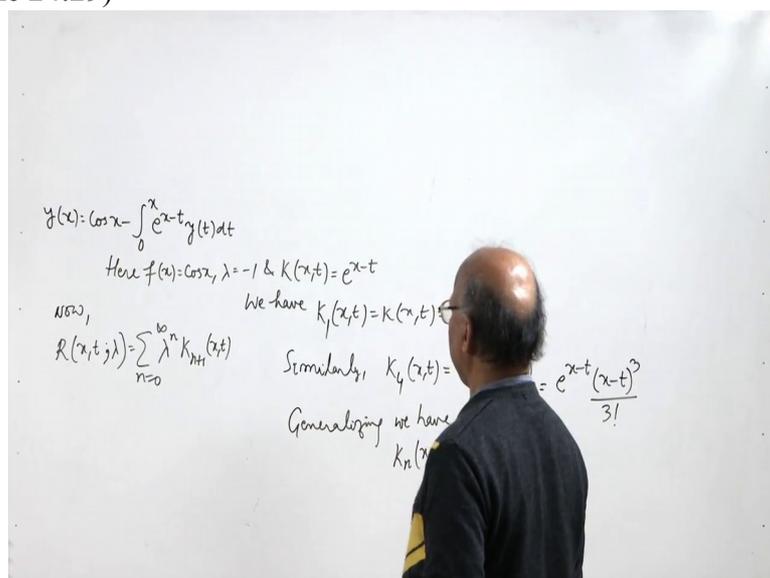
$K_n(x,t)$  equal to  $e$  to the power  $x$  minus  $t$   $x$  minus  $t$  raised to the power  $n$  minus 1 over  $n$  minus 1 factorial Ok

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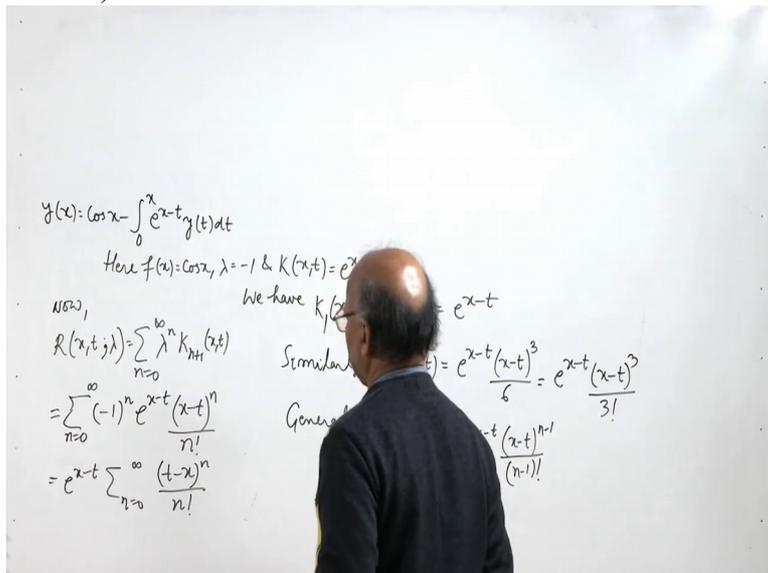
Now let's find  $R(x,t)$  So now  $R(x,t)$  is summation  $n$  equal to zero to infinity  $\lambda^n$  to the power  $n$   $K_{n+1}(x,t)$  So let us put the value of  $\lambda$

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$n$   $K_{n+1}(x,t)$  here and determine the sum of the series So summation  $\lambda^n$  is equal to  $e^{-1}$  So we have  $e^{-1}$  to the power  $n$   $K_{n+1}(x,t)$  is  $e^{x-t}$  into  $(x-t)^n$  divided by  $n!$  I can write it as  $e^{x-t}$  times summation  $n$  equal to zero to infinity  $(x-t)^n$  divided by  $n!$  I can multiply to  $(x-t)^n$  and write  $(x-t)^n$  divided by  $n!$  Now

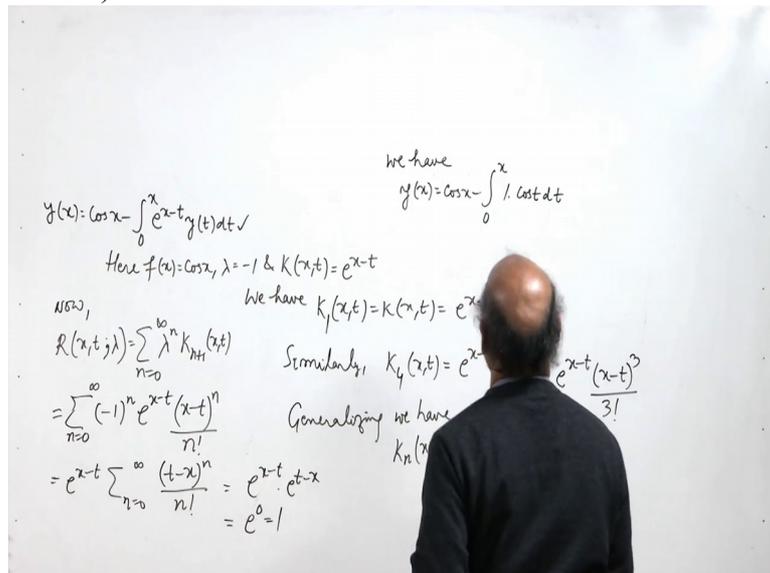
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let's find  $R(x,t;\lambda)$  So now  $R(x,t;\lambda)$  is summation  $n$  equal to zero to infinity  $\lambda^n K_{nH}(x,t)$  to the power  $n$   $K_{nH}(x,t)$  So let us put the value of  $\lambda = -1$  here and determine the sum of the series So summation  $\lambda^n K_{nH}(x,t)$  is equal to  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n e^{x-t} \frac{(x-t)^n}{n!}$  So we have  $e^{x-t} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x-t)^n}{n!}$  I can write it as  $e^{x-t}$  times summation  $n$  equal to zero to infinity  $\frac{(x-t)^n}{n!}$  I can multiply to  $x-t$  to the power  $n$  and write  $t$  minus  $x$  to the power  $n$  divided by  $n$  factorial Now we know the sum of this series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x-t)^n}{n!}$  is equal to  $e^{x-t}$  so  $e^{x-t} \times e^{x-t} = e^{2x-2t}$  So we get  $e^{2x-2t}$  which is equal to 1 So we have found the value of the resolvent kernel  $R(x,t;\lambda)$  which is equal to 1 here Now we can proceed to find the solution of the Volterra integral equation of the second kind

So we have  $y(x) = \cos x - \int_0^x e^{x-t} y(t) dt$   $R(x,t;\lambda)$  is 1 into  $f(t)$  that is  $\cos t$

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So we have cos x minus sin t zero to x

And which will give us cos x minus sin x So y x is equal to cos x minus sin x is the solution of the Volterra integral equation of the second kind y x

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or

$$y(x) = \cos x - \int_0^x e^{x-t} y(t) dt \quad \dots(6)$$

which is a Volterra integral equation of second kind.

Here, we have  $K_n(x,t) = e^{x-t} \frac{(x-t)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!}$ .

Therefore, we have

$$R(x,t;\lambda) = e^{x-t} e^{t-x} = 1.$$

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equal to cos x minus

integral zero to x e to power x minus t y t d t and from the method it follows that it is also the solution of the given integral

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which is a Volterra integral equation of second kind.

Now, (5) has a unique solution. The solution so obtained satisfies all the intermediate equations as well as (2).

Example: Solve  $\int_0^x e^{(x-t)} y(t) dt = \sin x$ .

Solution: Differentiating both sides w. r. t. x, we have

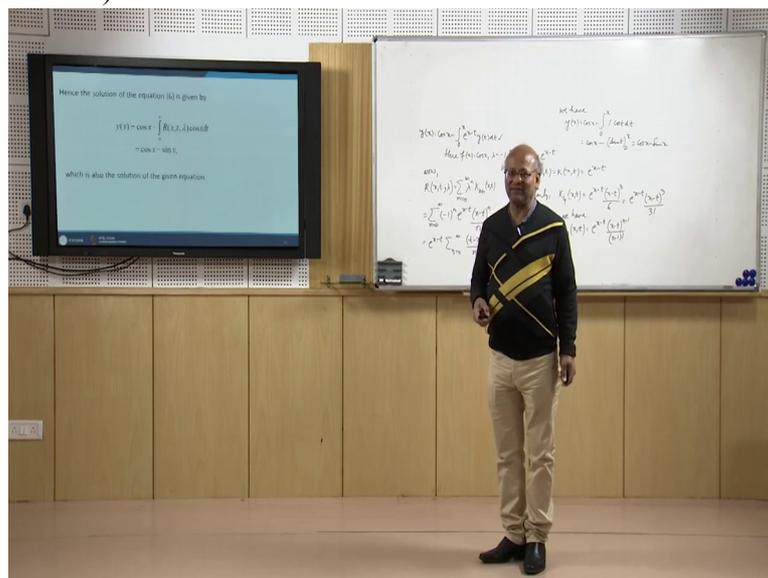
$$\int_0^x e^{(x-t)} y(t) dt + e^{(x-x)} y(x) \frac{dx}{dx} - e^{(x-0)} y(0) \frac{d0}{dx} = \cos x$$





equation Volterra integral equation of the first kind So the solution of this Volterra integral equation of first kind is y x equal to cos x minus sin x That's what I want to say

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thank you very much for your attention.