

# FREDHOLM INTEGRAL EQUATIONS AND SCHAUDER BASES

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**Abstract.** In this work we present a new numerical method to solve the linear Fredholm integral equation of the second kind which is based on the use of Schauder bases and the geometric series theorem.

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## §1. Preliminaries

The aim of this work is to show a new numerical method to approximate the solution of the linear Fredholm integral equation of the second kind

$$\lambda u(x) - \int_a^b k(x, y)u(y) dy = f(x), \quad (a \leq x \leq b),$$

where  $k : [a, b] \times [a, b] \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $f : [a, b] \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are continuous functions and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ . We propose a method which makes use of the classical Schauder basis for a suitable Banach space and the geometric series theorem. It provides us a sequence of continuous functions which approximates the solution of the equation.

Let us denote  $C([a, b])$  (respectively  $C([a, b]^2)$ ) for the Banach space of all continuous and real-valued functions defined on  $[a, b]$  (respectively  $[a, b] \times [a, b]$ ), endowed with its usual sup norm  $\|\cdot\|_\infty$  (respectively its usual sup norm  $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ ). We shall also write  $C^1([a, b])$  (respectively  $C^1([a, b]^2)$ ) for the space of all functions of  $C^1$  class on  $[a, b]$  (respectively  $[a, b] \times [a, b]$ ).

Let  $(X, \|\cdot\|)$  be a Banach space. We will use the notation  $\mathcal{L}(X)$  for the Banach space of all the continuous linear operators from  $X$  to  $X$  with the usual operator norm, i.e., given  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X)$ ,

$$\|T\| = \sup_{x \in X, \|x\| \leq 1} \|Tx\|.$$

Let us consider the linear integral operator

$$K : C([a, b]) \longrightarrow C([a, b])$$

defined by

$$Ku(x) := \int_a^b k(x, y)u(y) dy, \quad (u \in C([a, b]), a \leq x \leq b).$$

Then we can write the linear Fredholm integral equation of the second kind as

$$(\lambda I - K)u = f.$$

To assure that there exists a unique solution of this integral equation, we make use of the geometric series theorem (see [1]): let  $X$  be a Banach space,  $L \in \mathcal{L}(X)$  and assume that  $\|L\| < 1$ . Then  $I - L$  is a bijection on  $X$ , its inverse is a bounded linear operator and

$$(I - L)^{-1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} L^n.$$

Consequently, let us write the integral equation in the following equivalent way:

$$(I - L)u = g,$$

where

$$L = \frac{K}{\lambda}, \quad g = \frac{f}{\lambda}.$$

So if we assume (for the rest of this work) that  $\|L\| < 1$ , i.e.,

$$\|K\| = \max_{a \leq x \leq b} \int_a^b |k(x, y)| dy < |\lambda|,$$

then the integral equation has a unique solution which is given by

$$u = (I - L)^{-1}g = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} L^n g.$$

Therefore, if we consider the sequence  $\{u_n\}_{n \geq 1}$  of partial sums of this series, whose general term is  $u_n = \sum_{k=0}^n L^k g$ , then the solution  $u$  is the limit of that sequence. However, for  $n \geq 1$ , the expression of  $L^n g$  is

$$L^n g(t_1) = \frac{1}{\lambda^n} \int_a^b \cdots \int_a^b k(t_1, t_2)k(t_2, t_3) \cdots k(t_n, t_{n+1})g(t_{n+1}) dt_{n+1} \cdots dt_2, \quad (t_1 \in [a, b]),$$

which is quite difficult to obtain explicitly. To solve this problem we proceed as follows: we equivalently write the sequence  $\{u_n\}$  as

$$\begin{cases} u_0 = g \\ u_n = g + Lu_{n-1} = g(\cdot) + \frac{1}{\lambda} \int_a^b k(\cdot, y)u_{n-1}(y) dy, \quad n \geq 1 \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

The integrand in the expression of  $u_n$  is a function in  $C([a, b]^2)$ . This function can be written as an infinite series using an appropriate Schauder basis for that Banach space. After that, we consider an approximation of  $u_n$  truncating the previous series.

To this end, let us recall (see [3]) that a Schauder basis in a Banach space  $X$  is a sequence  $\{s_n\}_{n \geq 1}$  in  $X$  satisfying that for all  $x \in X$  there exists a unique sequence  $\{a_n\}_{n \geq 1}$  of scalars such that

$$x = \sum_{n \geq 1} a_n s_n.$$

For such a basis and for each positive integer  $k$ , the  $k^{\text{th}}$  biorthogonal functional  $s_k^*$  associated to  $\{s_n\}_{n \geq 1}$  is the continuous linear functional from  $X$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  that provides us the  $k^{\text{th}}$  coefficient of the series, i.e.,

$$s_k^* \left( \sum_{n \geq 1} a_n s_n \right) = a_k$$

and the  $k^{\text{th}}$  natural projection  $P_k$  associated to  $\{s_n\}_{n \geq 1}$  is the continuous linear operator from  $X$  to  $X$  that gives us the  $k^{\text{th}}$  partial sum of the series, i.e.,

$$P_k \left( \sum_{n \geq 1} a_n s_n \right) = \sum_{n=1}^k a_n s_n.$$

Now let  $\{t_i : i \geq 1\}$  be a dense subset of distinct points in  $[a, b]$ , with  $t_1 = a$  and  $t_2 = b$ . Then the classical Schauder basis  $\{b_n\}_{n \geq 1}$  for  $C([a, b])$  associated with such points is given in the following way:

$$b_1(t) = 1, \quad \forall t \in [a, b]$$

and for  $j \geq 2$ ,  $b_j$  is the function from  $[a, b]$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  whose graph is the polygonal passing through the points  $(t_1, 0), \dots, (t_{j-1}, 0), (t_j, 1)$ .

Finally, the classical Schauder basis  $\{B_n\}_{n \geq 1}$  for the Banach space  $C([a, b]^2)$  is given by the following expression (see [2] and [4]):

$$B_n(x, y) = b_{\tau_1(n)}(x) b_{\tau_2(n)}(y), \quad (x, y \in [a, b]),$$

where  $\tau = (\tau_1, \tau_2) : \mathbb{N} \longrightarrow \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$  is the bijective mapping defined by

$$\tau(n) := \begin{cases} (\sqrt{n}, \sqrt{n}), & \text{if } [\sqrt{n}] = \sqrt{n} \\ (n - [\sqrt{n}]^2, [\sqrt{n}] + 1), & \text{if } 0 < n - [\sqrt{n}]^2 \leq [\sqrt{n}] \\ ([\sqrt{n}] + 1, n - [\sqrt{n}]^2 - [\sqrt{n}]), & \text{if } [\sqrt{n}] < n - [\sqrt{n}]^2 \end{cases}$$

being  $[x] = \max\{k \in \mathbb{Z} : k \leq x\}$ , ( $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ).

If we define

$$\Phi(x, y) := k(x, y)v(y), \quad (x, y \in [a, b], v \in C([a, b])),$$

then

$$\Phi(x, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n^*(\Phi) B_n(x, y). \quad (2)$$

Therefore, the image of a continuous function  $v$  under the integral operator  $L$  is easily obtained (using (2), the uniform convergence of the previous series and the linearity of the integral) as

follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
(Lv)(x) &= \frac{1}{\lambda} \int_a^b \Phi(x, y) dy = \\
&= \frac{1}{\lambda} \int_a^b \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n^*(\Phi) B_n(x, y) \right) dy = \\
&= \frac{1}{\lambda} \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n^*(\Phi) \int_a^b B_n(x, y) dy \right) = \\
&= \frac{1}{\lambda} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( B_n^*(\Phi) b_{\tau_1(n)}(x) \int_a^b b_{\tau_2(n)}(y) dy \right).
\end{aligned}$$

In the following,  $\{P_n\}_{n \geq 1}$  will denote the sequence of natural projections associated to the basis  $\{B_n\}_{n \geq 1}$ .

The next result, consequence of some elementary properties of the basis  $\{B_n\}_{n \geq 1}$  and the mean value theorem, estimates the difference of a function and its  $n^{\text{th}}$  natural projection.

**Proposition 1.** *Let  $\varphi \in C^1([a, b]^2)$  and*

$$M := \max \left\{ \left\| \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial x} \right\|_{\infty}, \left\| \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial y} \right\|_{\infty} \right\}.$$

*Suppose that  $M \neq 0$  (otherwise the statement is trivially satisfied). Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\{t_i\}_{i \geq 1}$  a dense subset of distinct points in  $[a, b]$ , for all  $n \geq 2$ , we note  $\Delta_n := \{a = x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_{n-1} < x_n = b\}$  the points  $\{t_1, \dots, t_n\}$  ordered in an increasing way and assume that*

$$\max_{i=2, \dots, n} (x_i - x_{i-1}) < \frac{\varepsilon}{4M},$$

*then*

$$\|\varphi - P_{n^2}(\varphi)\|_{\infty} \leq \varepsilon.$$

## §2. Numerical method

The geometric series theorem provides us the sequence  $\{u_n\}_{n \geq 1}$  which converges uniformly on  $[a, b]$  to the solution  $u$  of the linear Fredholm integral equation of the second kind. In the next theorem we present an approximation of the function  $u_n$ , using for that purpose the sequence of natural projections  $\{P_n\}_{n \geq 1}$ .

**Theorem 2.** Let  $k \in C([a, b]^2)$ ,  $g \in C([a, b])$ ,  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$  and the corresponding Fredholm integral operator  $L$ . Let us consider  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $n_1, \dots, n_m \in \mathbb{N}$  and for  $i = 1, \dots, m$  we inductively define the functions

$$\tilde{u}_i(x) := g(x) + \frac{1}{\lambda} \int_a^b P_{n_i}(k(x, y)\tilde{u}_{i-1}(y)) dy, \quad (x \in [a, b]),$$

where  $\tilde{u}_0 = g$ . For all  $i = 1, \dots, m$ , let  $\varepsilon_i > 0$  and assume that

$$\|(g + L\tilde{u}_{i-1}) - \tilde{u}_i\|_\infty < \varepsilon_i.$$

Then

$$\|u - \tilde{u}_m\|_\infty \leq \|g\|_\infty \frac{\|L\|^{m+1}}{1 - \|L\|} + \sum_{i=1}^m \varepsilon_i,$$

where  $u$  is the solution of the Fredholm integral equation.

*Proof.* Using the triangular inequality, we obtain

$$\|u - \tilde{u}_m\|_\infty \leq \|u - u_m\|_\infty + \|u_m - \tilde{u}_m\|_\infty. \quad (3)$$

On the one hand,

$$\begin{aligned} \|u - u_m\|_\infty &= \left\| \sum_{j \geq 0} L^j g - \sum_{j=0}^m L^j g \right\|_\infty = \left\| \sum_{j \geq m+1} L^j g \right\|_\infty \leq \sum_{j \geq m+1} \|L^j g\|_\infty \leq \\ &\leq \sum_{j \geq m+1} \|L\|^j \|g\|_\infty = \|g\|_\infty \left( \sum_{j \geq m+1} \|L\|^j \right) = \|g\|_\infty \frac{\|L\|^{m+1}}{1 - \|L\|}. \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

And on the other hand,

$$\begin{aligned} \|u_m - \tilde{u}_m\|_\infty &\leq \|u_m - (g + L\tilde{u}_{m-1})\|_\infty + \|(g + L\tilde{u}_{m-1}) - \tilde{u}_m\|_\infty \leq \\ &\leq \|g + Lu_{m-1} - g - L\tilde{u}_{m-1}\|_\infty + \varepsilon_m = \\ &= \|L(u_{m-1} - \tilde{u}_{m-1})\|_\infty + \varepsilon_m < \\ &< \|u_{m-1} - \tilde{u}_{m-1}\|_\infty + \varepsilon_m. \end{aligned}$$

If we recurrently repeat the previous process, we have that

$$\|u_m - \tilde{u}_m\|_\infty \leq \sum_{i=1}^m \varepsilon_i. \quad (5)$$

Now, substituting the upper bounds (4) and (5) in (3), we conclude the proof.  $\square$

Finally, with the next proposition we pretend to complete the previous theorem in order to determine which natural numbers  $n_1, \dots, n_m$  must be taken.

**Proposition 3.** *Let us consider  $k \in C^1([a, b]^2)$ ,  $g \in C^1([a, b])$ ,  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$  and the functions  $\{\tilde{u}_n\}_{n \geq 1}$  defined in Theorem 2. We assume that for  $p \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $M_p \neq 0$ , where*

$$M_p := \max \left\{ \left\| \frac{\partial k}{\partial x} \right\|_{\infty} \|\tilde{u}_{p-1}\|_{\infty}, \left\| \frac{\partial k}{\partial y} \right\|_{\infty} \|\tilde{u}_{p-1}\|_{\infty} + \|k\|_{\infty} \|\tilde{u}'_{p-1}\|_{\infty} \right\}.$$

Given  $\varepsilon_p > 0$ , fix  $n_p \geq 2$  and suppose that  $\Delta_{n_p} = \{a = x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_{n_p-1} < x_{n_p} = b\}$  satisfies that

$$\max_{i=2, \dots, n_p} (x_i - x_{i-1}) < \frac{\varepsilon_p |\lambda|}{4M_p(b-a)}.$$

Then

$$\|(g + L\tilde{u}_{p-1}) - \tilde{u}_p\|_{\infty} \leq \varepsilon_p.$$

*Proof.* Since

$$\frac{\partial(k(x, y)\tilde{u}_{p-1}(y))}{\partial x}(x, y) = \frac{\partial k}{\partial x}(x, y)\tilde{u}_{p-1}(y)$$

and

$$\frac{\partial(k(x, y)\tilde{u}_{p-1}(y))}{\partial y}(x, y) = \frac{\partial k}{\partial y}(x, y)\tilde{u}_{p-1}(y) + k(x, y)\tilde{u}'_{p-1}(y),$$

then

$$\max \left\{ \left\| \frac{\partial(k(x, y)\tilde{u}_{p-1}(y))}{\partial x} \right\|_{\infty}, \left\| \frac{\partial(k(x, y)\tilde{u}_{p-1}(y))}{\partial y} \right\|_{\infty} \right\} \leq M_p.$$

Now, applying Proposition 1 for  $x \in [a, b]$ , we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} |(g + L\tilde{u}_{p-1})(x) - \tilde{u}_p(x)| &= \left| \frac{1}{\lambda} \int_a^b (k(x, y)\tilde{u}_{p-1}(y) - P_{n_p}(k(x, y)\tilde{u}_{p-1}(y))) dy \right| \leq \\ &\leq \frac{b-a}{|\lambda|} \|k(x, \cdot)\tilde{u}_{p-1}(\cdot) - P_{n_p}(k(x, \cdot)\tilde{u}_{p-1}(\cdot))\|_{\infty} \leq \frac{b-a}{|\lambda|} \frac{|\lambda|}{b-a} \varepsilon_p = \varepsilon_p. \end{aligned}$$

Finally, since  $x$  is arbitrary in  $[a, b]$ ,

$$\|(g + L\tilde{u}_{p-1}) - \tilde{u}_p\|_{\infty} \leq \varepsilon_p,$$

as required. □

### §3. Numerical example

In this section we approximate the solution of the integral equation

$$5u(x) - \int_0^1 e^{xy}u(y) dy = f(x), \quad (0 \leq x \leq 1) \quad (6)$$

using our method and compare our results with those one given by the classical collocation method (see [1]).

First of all, we note that this integral equation has a unique solution because of

$$\|K\| = e - 1 < 5 = |\lambda|.$$

Let us consider the functions

$$u^{(1)}(x) = e^{-x} \cos x, \quad u^{(2)}(x) = \sqrt{x}, \quad (0 \leq x \leq 1)$$

as exact solutions of the equation (6) and obtain  $f(x)$  accordingly. For  $i = 1, 2$ , we denote

$$E_n^{(i)} = \max_{1 \leq j \leq n+1} |u^{(i)}(x_j) - u_n^{(i)}(x_j)|,$$

where  $u_n^{(i)}(x)$  is the approximation of the exact solution  $u^{(i)}(x)$  given by the collocation method and  $\{x_j\}_{j=1}^{n+1}$  are the nodes of this method.

To compare these results with those one obtained by our method, we proceed as follows: in the definition of the classical Schauder basis for  $C([0, 1])$  we consider the dense subset

$$\left\{0, 1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{3}{4}, \dots, \frac{1}{2^k}, \frac{3}{2^k}, \dots, \frac{2^k - 1}{2^k}, \dots\right\}.$$

Fixed  $k$ , the set

$$\left\{0, 1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{3}{4}, \dots, \frac{1}{2^k}, \frac{3}{2^k}, \dots, \frac{2^k - 1}{2^k}\right\}$$

coincides with the nodes of the collocation method for  $n = 2^k$ , and the cardinal of this set is  $n + 1$ . We take the values  $n_1, \dots, n_m$  in Theorem 2 as  $n_1 = \dots = n_m = n + 1$ . We also denote  $\tilde{u}_{n,p}^{(i)}(x)$  for the approximation, obtained by our numerical method, of the exact solution  $u^{(i)}(x)$ . The natural number  $p$  specifies the number of iterations for each fixed  $n$ . For each iteration we denote

$$F_{n,p}^{(i)} = \max_{1 \leq j \leq n+1} |u^{(i)}(x_j) - \tilde{u}_{n,p}^{(i)}(x_j)|.$$

To determine this number  $p$ , we have established the criterion of choosing  $p$  such that

$$\frac{F_{n,p}^{(i)}}{F_{n,p+1}^{(i)}} < 1 + 10^{-2}.$$

The results we have obtained when programming both methods are presented in the following tables:

$n$	$p$	$E_n^{(1)}$	$F_{n,p}^{(1)}$
$n = 8$	$p = 9$	$3.27 \times 10^{-4}$	$2.55 \times 10^{-4}$
$n = 16$	$p = 10$	$8.18 \times 10^{-5}$	$6.36 \times 10^{-5}$
$n = 32$	$p = 11$	$2.04 \times 10^{-5}$	$1.58 \times 10^{-5}$

$n$	$p$	$E_n^{(2)}$	$F_{n,p}^{(2)}$
$n = 8$	$p = 7$	$2.75 \times 10^{-3}$	$2.09 \times 10^{-3}$
$n = 16$	$p = 8$	$9.65 \times 10^{-4}$	$7.62 \times 10^{-4}$
$n = 32$	$p = 9$	$3.40 \times 10^{-4}$	$2.76 \times 10^{-4}$

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