

# Approximate solution of a class of singular integral equations of second kind

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## Abstract

A simple method based on polynomial approximation of a function is employed to obtain approximate solution of a class of singular integral equations of the second kind. For a hypersingular integral equation of the second kind, this method avoids the complex function-theoretic method and produces the known exact solution to Prandtl's integral equation as a special case. For a particular singular integro-differential equation of the second kind, this also produces an approximate solution which compares favourably with numerical results obtained by various Galerkin methods. The convergence of the method for both the equations is also established.

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## 1. Introduction

A hypersingular integral equation of the second kind, over a finite interval, as given by

$$\phi(x) - \frac{\alpha(1-x^2)^{1/2}}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{\phi(t)}{(t-x)^2} dt = f(x), \quad -1 < x < 1, \quad (1.1)$$

with  $\phi(\pm 1) = 0$ , is a generalisation of the elliptic wing case of Prandtl's equation. Here  $\alpha (> 0)$  is a known constant and  $f(x)$  is a known function. The integral in (1.1) is understood in the sense of Hadamard finite part and is hypersingular. The exact solution of Eq. (1.1) was obtained earlier in [2] in principle by reducing it into a differential Riemann-Hilbert problem on the slit  $(-1, 1)$ . However, the final result involves evaluation of an integral which may not be straightforward for a general  $f(x)$ . Again, the Cauchy-type singular integro-differential equation

$$2 \frac{d\phi}{dx} - \lambda \int_{-1}^1 \frac{\phi(t)}{(t-x)} dt = f(x), \quad -1 < x < 1, \quad \lambda > 0, \quad (1.2)$$

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with the usual understanding of the Cauchy principal value integral, was solved approximately in [1], with end conditions  $\phi(\pm 1) = 0$ , for a special forcing function  $f(x) = -x/2$ , employing three methods which are essentially based on Galerkin's method after recasting Eq. (1.2) into another one where the derivative occurs inside the integral. This equation with  $f(x) = -x/2$  arises in the study of a problem concerning heat conduction and radiation and in a number of other situations involving solution of two-dimensional Laplace's equation in a half plane, under special types of mixed boundary conditions. In this paper both Eqs. (1.1) and (1.2) are solved approximately by using a polynomial approximation, which appears to be simple and straightforward in comparison with the reduction to a differential Riemann–Hilbert problem for Eq. (1.1) used in [2] and the Galerkin methods for Eq. (1.2) used in [1].

## 2. Method of solution

The unknown function  $\phi(x)$  of the hypersingular integral equation (1.1) and Cauchy integro-differential equation (1.2) with  $\phi(\pm 1) = 0$  can be represented in the form

$$\phi(x) = (1 - x^2)^{1/2} \psi(x), \quad -1 \leq x \leq 1, \quad (2.1)$$

where  $\psi(x)$  is a well-behaved unknown function of  $x$  in the interval  $-1 < x < 1$ . We approximate the unknown function  $\psi(x)$  by means of a polynomial of degree  $n$ , as given by

$$\psi(x) \approx \sum_{j=0}^n a_j x^j, \quad (2.2)$$

where  $a_j$ 's ( $j = 0, 1, \dots, n$ ) are unknown constants, then the original integral equation (1.1) reduces to

$$\sum_{j=0}^n a_j \left[ x^j - \frac{\alpha}{\pi} A'_j(x) \right] = F(x), \quad -1 < x < 1, \quad (2.3)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} A_0(x) &= \int_{-1}^1 \frac{(1-t^2)^{1/2}}{(t-x)} dt = -\pi x, \\ A_j(x) &= \int_{-1}^1 \frac{(1-t^2)^{1/2} t^j}{(t-x)} dt = -\pi x^{j+1} + \sum_{i=0}^{j-1} \frac{1+(-1)^i}{4} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2})\Gamma((i+1)/2)}{\Gamma((i+4)/2)} x^{j-1-i}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots \end{aligned} \quad (2.4)$$

and

$$F(x) = \frac{f(x)}{(1-x^2)^{1/2}}, \quad -1 < x < 1, \quad (2.5)$$

with  $A'_j(x)$  denoting the derivative of  $A_j(x)$ . Eq. (2.3) can be written as

$$\sum_{j=0}^n a_j C_j(x) = F(x), \quad -1 < x < 1, \quad (2.6)$$

where

$$C_j(x) = x^j - \frac{\alpha}{\pi} A'_j(x). \quad (2.7)$$

The unknown constants  $a_j$  ( $j = 0, 1, \dots, n$ ) are now obtained by putting  $x = x_i$  ( $i = 0, 1, \dots, n$ ) in (2.6), where  $x_i$ 's are distinct and  $-1 < x_i < 1$  and are to be chosen suitably. Thus, we obtain a system of  $(n+1)$  linear equations, given by

$$\sum_{j=0}^n a_j C_{ji} = F_i, \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, n, \quad (2.8)$$

where

$$C_{jl} = C_j(x_l), \quad F_l = \dots \quad (2.9)$$

This determines the unknowns  $a_j (j = 0, 1, \dots, n)$  in principle.

Using a similar approximation for  $\phi(x)$ , the Cauchy integro-differential equation (1.2) becomes

$$\sum_{j=0}^n a_j B_j(x) = G(x), \quad -1 < x < 1, \quad (2.10)$$

where

$$B_0(x) = - \left\{ \frac{x}{(1-x^2)^{1/2}} + \frac{\lambda \pi x}{2} \right\},$$

$$B_j(x) = \left\{ \frac{jx^{j-1} - (j+1)x^{j+1}}{(1-x^2)^{1/2}} \right\} + \frac{\lambda}{2} A_j(x), \quad j = 1, 2, \dots \quad (2.11)$$

and

$$G(x) = \frac{f(x)}{2}. \quad (2.12)$$

The unknown constants  $a_j (j = 0, 1, \dots, n)$  are now obtained by putting  $x = x_l (l = 0, 1, \dots, n)$  in (2.10) where  $x_l$ 's are distinct and  $-1 < x_l < 1$ . Thus, we obtain a system of  $(n+1)$  linear equations given by

$$\sum_{j=0}^n a_j B_{jl} = G_l, \quad l = 0, 1, \dots, n, \quad (2.13)$$

where

$$B_{jl} = B_j(x_l), \quad G_l = G(x_l). \quad (2.14)$$

We now illustrate the method for some special forms of  $f(x)$  in (1.1) and (1.2).

### 3. Illustrative examples

The hypersingular integral equation (1.1) reduces to Prandtl's equation for

$$\alpha = \frac{\pi}{2\beta}, \quad \beta > 0 \quad (3.1)$$

and

$$f(x) = \frac{2\pi k}{\beta} (1-x^2)^{1/2}, \quad (3.2)$$

where  $\beta$  and  $k$  are constants. Thus,

$$F(x) = \frac{2\pi k}{\beta} \quad (3.3)$$

and

$$C_j(x) = x^j - \frac{1}{2\beta} A'_j(x), \quad j = 0, 1, \dots \quad (3.4)$$

Table 1  
Value of  $\phi(x)$  at  $x_k$

$x_k$	0.0	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.0
$\phi(x_k)$						
Present method	0.070	0.068	0.061	0.048	0.029	0
Method of [1]	0.069	0.067	0.060	0.047	0.028	0

Substituting (3.3) and (3.4) in (2.6) and comparing the coefficients of like powers of  $x$  from both sides of relation (2.6), we obtain

$$a_0 = \frac{4k}{1 + 2\beta/\pi}, \quad a_1 = a_2 = \dots = 0 \quad (3.5)$$

so that

$$\phi(x) = \frac{4k}{1 + 2\beta/\pi} (1 - x^2)^{1/2}. \quad (3.6)$$

This agrees completely with the result quoted in [2] (with a trivial correction). It may be noted that the collocation method to obtain the unknown constants  $a_i$  ( $i = 0, 1, \dots, n$ ) in (2.2) for this problem can be used. For simplicity we choose for (3.3)  $F(x) = 2\pi$  (choosing  $k = 1, \beta = 1$ ). Choosing  $n = 10$  in expansion (2.2), the unknown constants  $a_j$  ( $j = 0, 1, \dots, 10$ ) are determined from the linear system

$$\sum_{j=0}^{10} a_j C_{ji} = F_i, \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, 10. \quad (3.7)$$

If we choose the collocation points as  $x_i = \pm(\frac{2}{11})i, i = 0, 1, \dots, 5$ , then the linear equations (3.7) produce

$$a_0 = 2.44406, \quad a_1 = a_2 = \dots = a_{10} = 0 \quad (3.8)$$

so that (2.1) reduces to

$$\phi(x) = 2.44406(1 - x^2)^{1/2} \quad (3.9)$$

which is the same as (3.6) for  $k = 1, \beta = 1$ .

For the linear system (2.8), the choice of the collocation points are somewhat arbitrary except that these are distinct. Equispaced collocation points is chosen for convenience. Non-equispaced collocation points can also be chosen to solve this problem. It is verified that use of non-equispaced points produce almost the same result given by (3.9).

For the linear system (2.13), we again choose  $n = 10$ , and the collocation points as  $x_0 = -0.924, x_1 = -0.807, x_2 = -0.665, x_3 = -0.408, x_4 = -0.223, x_5 = 0, x_6 = 0.209, x_7 = 0.388, x_8 = 0.545, x_9 = 0.702, x_{10} = 0.961$  and  $\lambda = 1$ . As in [1], we choose  $f(x) = -x/2$  in (1.2) so that  $G(x) = -x/4$ . The system of linear equations (2.13) now produces  $a_0 = 0.070, a_1 = 0.000, a_2 = -0.024, a_3 = 0.000, a_4 = -0.004, a_5 = -0.003, a_6 = -0.035, a_7 = 0.011, a_8 = 0.061, a_9 = -0.011, a_{10} = -0.052$ . Using these coefficients, the value of  $\phi(x)$  at  $x = (0.2)k, k = 0, 1, \dots, 5$ , are presented in Table 1. The values of  $\phi(x)$  obtained in [1] at these points are also given for comparison. It is obvious that the results obtained by the present method compares favourably with the results obtained in [1]. The present choice of collocation points which are not equispaced helps in casting the original problem of integro-differential equation (1.2) with  $f(x) = -x/2$  into a system of algebraic equations where appearance of ill-conditioned matrices have been avoided altogether.

## 4. Error analysis

### 4.1. For the hypersingular integral equation (1.1)

Substitution of  $\phi(x)$  in terms of  $\psi(x)$  given by (2.1) into Eq. (1.1) produces an equation for  $\psi(x)$ , which can be written in the operator form

$$(I - \alpha H)\psi(x) = g(x), \quad -1 < x < 1, \quad (4.1)$$

where  $I$  is the identity operator and  $H$  is the operator defined by

$$Hu(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{d}{dx} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{(1-t^2)^{1/2}}{t-x} u(t) dt, \quad -1 < x < 1. \quad (4.2)$$

Let  $U_n(x) = \sin(n+1)\theta/\sin\theta$  with  $x = \cos\theta$  be the Chebyshev polynomial of the second kind. Then

$$HU_n = -(n+1)U_n, \quad n \geq 0. \quad (4.3)$$

Relation (4.3) shows that the operator  $H$  can be extended as a bounded linear operator from  $L_1(\rho)$  to  $L(\rho)$ , where  $L_1(\rho)$  is the space of functions square integrable with respect to the weight function  $\rho(x) = (1-x^2)^{1/2}$  and  $L_1(\rho)$  is the subspace of functions  $u \in L(\rho)$  satisfying

$$\|u\|_1^2 = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (k+1) \langle u, \phi_k \rangle_{\rho}^2 < \infty, \quad (4.4)$$

where

$$\phi_k = \left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right)^{1/2} U_k \quad (4.5)$$

and

$$\langle u, v \rangle_{\rho} = \int_{-1}^1 \rho(t) u(t) v(t) dt. \quad (4.6)$$

Again, the identity operator  $I$  is obviously a bounded linear operator from  $L_1(\rho)$  to  $L(\rho)$ . Thus, if we assume that  $g \in L(\rho)$ , then (4.1) possesses a unique solution  $\psi \in L_1(\rho)$  for each  $g \in L(\rho)$ .

If we now use the polynomial approximation (2.2) for  $\psi$ , then

$$\psi(x) \approx p_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j x^j. \quad (4.7)$$

Since  $x^j$  ( $j = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$ ) can be expressed in terms of Chebyshev polynomials  $U_l(x)$  ( $l = 0, 1, \dots, j$ ) as (cf. [4])

$$x^j = \frac{1}{2^j} \sum_{k=0}^{[j/2]} \left\{ \binom{j}{k} - \binom{j}{k-1} \right\} U_{j-2k}(x), \quad (4.8)$$

we can express  $p_n(x)$  given by (4.7) as

$$p_n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n b_i U_i(x), \quad (4.9)$$

where the coefficients  $b_i$  ( $i = 0, 1, \dots, n$ ) can be expressed in terms of  $a_j$  ( $j = 0, 1, \dots, i$ ) and vice versa. The right side of (4.9) is now denoted by

$$u_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n c_k \phi_k(x), \quad (4.10)$$

where

$$c_k = \left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)^{1/2} b_k.$$

To determine an error estimate in replacing  $\psi$  by  $p_n$ , we note that

$$\|\psi - p_n\|_1 = \|\psi - u_n\|_1. \quad (4.11)$$

Following the reasoning given in [3, p. 309], it can be shown that, if  $g \in C^r[-1, 1]$ , then

$$\|\psi - u_n\|_1 < \frac{c_0}{n^r}, \quad (4.12)$$

where  $c_0$  is a constant and  $r > 0$ . In our case,  $g(x)$  was taken to be a constant and is therefore a  $C^\infty$  function. Thus,  $r$  in (4.12) can be chosen to be any arbitrary large positive integer, and thus the error decreases very rapidly as  $n$  increases. Hence, the convergence is quite fast. This is also reflected in our numerical computations.

#### 4.2. For the hypersingular integral equation (1.2)

In this case also we use a similar analysis to show that the error in approximating  $\psi(x)$  by a polynomial  $p_n$  decreases very rapidly as  $n$  increases. Here  $\psi(x)$  satisfies the equation

$$\left(D - \frac{\lambda\pi}{2}C\right)\psi = G, \quad -1 < x < 1, \quad (4.13)$$

where  $C, D$ , respectively, denote the operators defined by

$$Cu(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{(1-t)^{1/2}}{t-x} u(t) dt, \quad -1 < x < 1, \quad (4.14)$$

and

$$Du(x) = (1-x^2)^{1/2} \frac{du}{dx} - \frac{x}{(1-x^2)^{1/2}} u, \quad -1 < x < 1. \quad (4.15)$$

Let  $T_n(x) = \cos n\theta$  with  $x = \cos \theta$  be the Chebyshev polynomial of the first kind. Then

$$CU_n = -T_{n+1}, \quad n \geq 0. \quad (4.16)$$

This shows that the operator  $C$  can be extended as a bounded linear operator from  $L_1(\mu)$  to  $L(\mu)$  where  $L_1(\mu)$  is the subspace of functions square integrable with respect to the weight function  $\mu(x) = (1-x^2)^{-1/2}$  and  $L(\mu)$  is the subspace of functions  $u \in L(\mu)$  satisfying

$$\|u\|_1^2 = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (k+1)^2 \langle u, \psi_{k+1} \rangle_\mu^2 < \infty, \quad (4.17)$$

where

$$\psi_k = \left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right)^{1/2} T_k \quad (4.18)$$

and

$$\langle u, v \rangle_\mu = \int_{-1}^1 \mu(t) u(t) v(t) dt. \quad (4.19)$$

Again,

$$Du_n(x) = -\frac{n+1}{(1-x^2)^{1/2}} T_{n+1}(x), \quad n \geq 0. \quad (4.20)$$

This shows that  $D$  can be extended as a bounded linear operator from  $L_1(\mu)$  to  $L(\mu)$ . Assuming  $G \in L(\mu)$ , we find that Eq. (4.13) possesses a unique solution  $\psi \in L_1(\mu)$  for each  $G \in L(\mu)$ .

Following the same arguments as given in Section 4.1, we can prove that the error in approximating  $\psi$  (satisfying (4.13)) by a polynomial  $p_n$  can be estimated as

$$\|\psi - p_n\|_1 < \frac{c_1}{n^r}, \quad (4.21)$$

where  $c_1$  is a constant and  $r$  is such that  $G \in C^r[-1, 1]$ . In our present computation  $G(x)$  is chosen as  $G(x) = -x/4$  and thus is a  $C^\infty$  function. Hence,  $r$  in (4.21) can be chosen very large so that the error becomes negligible as  $n$  increases, and the convergence is quite fast.

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