# SMOOTH SOLUTION OF PARTIAL INTEGRO-DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS USING RADIAL BASIS FUNCTIONS 

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#### Abstract

In this work, we present the method based on radial basis functions to solve partial integro-differential equations. We focus on the parabolic type of integro-differential equations as the most common forms including the "memory" of the systems. We propose to apply the collocation scheme using radial basis functions to approximate the solutions of partial integrodifferential equations. Due to the presented technique, system of linear or nonlinear equations is made instead of primary problem. The method is efficient because the rate of convergence of collocation method based on radial basis functions is exponential. Some numerical examples and investigation of the experimental results show the applicability and accuracy of the method.


Keywords Partial integro-differential equations, radial basis functions, collocation scheme, integration method.

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## 1. Introduction

Many different fields of engineering and science include the system mixed of a partial differential equation and the integral terms involving the unknown function $[1,4$, $18,44,53]$. Such terms appear when we must consider the effects of the "memory" of the system. Corresponding to the partial differential equations, there are many different types of these equations such as parabolic and hyperbolic forms [2,3,52].

These class of equations called partial integro-differential equations (PIDE) can describe some phenomena in compression of poro-viscoelastic media [22], reactiondiffusion problems [17] and nuclear reactor dynamics [41-43], geophysics [19], plasma physics [21], electromagnetic theory [10].

Although these equations are solved by using some different methods [20, 32, $33,35,51,52$ ], there are some new research to find much more fast and efficient method through the new methods $[2,3,25,45,54]$. In this paper, we apply radial basis functions to approximate solution which lead to the continuous solutions.

The radial basis function (RBF) methodology was introduced by Hardy [23] and became popular in multivariate interpolation [5-9, 26, 38-40]. In 1990, Kansa introduced a way to use it for solving parabolic, hyperbolic and elliptic partial differential

[^0]equations [30]. After that, radial basis functions have been widely discussed $[5,15]$ and applied in numerous fields. In this study, we propose using RBFs for solving the parabolic partial integro-differential equations.

As Kansa proposed the radial basis functions technique based on collocation scheme [30], RBFs have been coupled with some other techniques [12-14, 27, 48-50].

Here, we use the collocation method based on radial basis functions to solve the PIDE problems. The most privileges of the method are making a continuous solution and exponentially convergence.

This work is organized as follows. In Section 2, we introduce the parabolic partial integro-differential equations as the most common operators. In Section 3, we apply the radial basis functions as the effective tool to approximate the solution. This section is devoted to describing the collocation method applied for solving partial integro-differential equations. In Section 4, some illustrative examples and numerical results are shown. Also, we investigate the validity of the method by analysis of the experimental results. An error analysis for the proposed method is introduced in Section 5. Finally, we review some important points of the numerical findings in Section 6.

## 2. Parabolic partial integro-differential equation

As mentioned before, partial integro-differential equations appear in many different types. Here, we focus only on parabolic partial integro-differential equation which is one of the most important types.

Consider the following partial integro-differential equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
u_{t}(x, t)=g(x, t)+u_{x x}(x, t)+\int_{0}^{t} k(x, t, s, u(x, s)) d s, a \leq x \leq b, 0 \leq t \leq T \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

with the following initial and boundary conditions

$$
\begin{align*}
u(x, 0) & =f(x), & & x \in[a, b]  \tag{2.2}\\
u(a, t) & =h(t), u(b, t)=l(t), & & t \in[0, T] \tag{2.3}
\end{align*}
$$

where $u_{t}=\frac{\partial u}{\partial t}$ and $u_{x x}=\frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial x^{2}}$. The functions $g$ and $k$ are continuous on $\Omega=$ $\left\{(x, t) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}: x \in I, t \in J\right\}$ and $I \times S \times \mathbb{R}$, respectively, with $I=[a, b], J=[0, T]$ and $S=\{(t, s) \in J \times J: s \leq t\}$.

In the general form, we can write these operators as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{L}(u(\mathbf{x}))=\lambda(\mathbf{x}), \quad \text { in } \Omega \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\mathbf{x}=(x, t)$, with the following initial and boundary conditions

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{B}(u(\mathbf{x}))=\mu(\mathbf{x}), \quad \text { in } \partial \Omega \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

However, such equations can handle describing of some physical phenomena in the real world, they are heavy and complex in computation.

## 3. Description of the RBF collocation method

Consider the general partial integro-differential equation (2.1) with the initial and boundary conditions (2.2), (2.3), respectively. As it is illustrated in Fig.1, $\Omega$ is a
rectangle surrounded in $\partial \Omega$. The initial and boundary conditions are defined on three sides of this rectangle which are numbered.


Figure $1 . \Omega$ is a rectangle surrounded in $\partial \Omega$. The initial and boundary conditions are defined on three sides of this rectangle which is numbered $1,2,3$. The first side is correspond to $a \leq x \leq b$ and the second and third sides are correspond to $0 \leq t \leq T$.

Now we use the RBFs for discretization of both time and space variables. Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Omega=\left\{\left(x_{i}, t_{j}\right), a \leq x_{i} \leq b, 0 \leq t_{j} \leq T, i, j=1,2, \cdots, n\right\} \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

be a set of scattered nodes. Then the approximated solution of the problem (2.1)(2.3) is considered as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tilde{u}(x, t)=\sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_{i} \phi_{i}(x, t), \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\phi_{i}(x, t)=\phi\left(\left\|(x, t)-\left(x_{k}, t_{l}\right)\right\|\right), k, l=1,2, \cdots, n, i=1,2, \cdots, N=n^{2}$, for a radial function $\phi$ and $\alpha_{i}, i=1,2, \cdots, N$ are unknown coefficients that must be found. There are many different RBFs can be used as the multiquadratics (MQ) $\varphi(r)=\left(r^{2}+c^{2}\right)^{\frac{\beta}{2}}, \beta \neq 0, \beta \neq 2 \mathbb{N}$, inverse multiquadratics (IMQ) $\varphi(r)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{r^{2}+c^{2}}}$, Gaussians (GA) $\varphi(r)=e^{-c^{2} r^{2}}$ and etc.

The collocation technique is used for finding unknowns $\alpha_{i}, i=1,2, \cdots, N$. Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Omega=\Omega_{1} \cup \Omega_{2} \cup \Omega_{3} \cup \Omega_{4}, \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
1 \text { th side : } & \Omega_{1}=\left\{\left(x_{i}, t_{j}\right), a \leq x_{i} \leq b, t_{j}=0, i, j=1,2, \cdots, n\right\}, \\
2 \text { th side : } & \Omega_{2}=\left\{\left(x_{i}, t_{j}\right), x_{i}=a, 0<t_{j} \leq T, i, j=1,2, \cdots, n\right\}, \\
3 \text { th side : } & \Omega_{3}=\left\{\left(x_{i}, t_{j}\right), x_{i}=b, 0<t_{j} \leq T, i, j=1,2, \cdots, n\right\}, \\
\text { Inner area : } & \Omega_{4}=\left\{\left(x_{i}, t_{j}\right), a<x_{i}<b, 0<t_{j} \leq T, i, j=1,2, \cdots, n\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Also we assume $\Omega_{i} \neq \varnothing$ for $i=1,2,3,4$. Now (2.1)-(2.3) are approximated by using
(3.2). Thus we have

$$
\begin{align*}
& \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_{i} \phi_{i}\left(x_{k}, t_{l}\right)=f\left(x_{k}\right), \quad\left(x_{k}, t_{l}\right) \in \Omega_{1}  \tag{3.4}\\
& \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_{i} \phi_{i}\left(x_{k}, t_{l}\right)=h\left(t_{l}\right), \quad\left(x_{k}, t_{l}\right) \in \Omega_{2}  \tag{3.5}\\
& \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_{i} \phi_{i}\left(x_{k}, t_{l}\right)=l\left(t_{l}\right), \quad\left(x_{k}, t_{l}\right) \in \Omega_{3}  \tag{3.6}\\
& \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_{i}\left[\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \phi_{i}\left(x_{k}, t_{l}\right)-\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x^{2}} \phi_{i}\left(x_{k}, t_{l}\right)\right]-A\left(x_{k}, t_{l}\right)=g\left(x_{k}, t_{l}\right), \quad\left(x_{k}, t_{l}\right) \in \Omega_{4} \tag{3.7}
\end{align*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
A\left(x_{k}, t_{l}\right)=\int_{0}^{t_{l}} k\left(x_{k}, t_{l}, s, \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_{i} \phi_{i}\left(x_{k}, s\right)\right) d s, \quad\left(x_{k}, t_{l}\right) \in \Omega_{4} \tag{3.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

which results in a system of equations that can be solved via Newton's iteration method or other efficient method to obtain the coefficients $\alpha_{i}, i=1,2, \ldots, N[28]$.
Remark 3.1. (Legendre-Gauss nodes and weights) Let $L_{M+1}(\xi)$ be the Legendre polynomial of order $M+1$ on $[-1,1]$. Then the Legendre-Gauss nodes are

$$
\begin{equation*}
-1<\xi_{0}<\xi_{1}<\cdots<\xi_{M}<1 \tag{3.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\left\{\xi_{i}\right\}_{i=0}^{M}$ are the zeros of $L_{M+1}(\xi)$. No explicit formulas are known for the points $\xi_{i}$, and so they are computed numerically using subroutines [11,31]. Also we approximate the integral of $f$ on $[-1,1]$ as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{-1}^{1} f(\xi) d \xi \simeq \sum_{i=0}^{M} w_{i} f\left(\xi_{i}\right) \tag{3.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\xi_{i}$ are Legendre-Guass nodes in (3.9) and the weights $w_{i}$ given in $[11,31]$

$$
\begin{equation*}
w_{i}=\frac{2}{\left(1-\xi_{i}^{2}\right)\left[L_{M+1}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{i}\right)\right]^{2}}, \quad i=0,1, \cdots, M \tag{3.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

As it is mentioned in $[11,31]$, the integration in $(3.10)$ is exact whenever $f(\xi)$ is a polynomial of degree $\leq 2 M+1$.

For obtaining $A\left(x_{k}, t_{l}\right), \quad\left(x_{k}, t_{l}\right) \in \Omega_{4}$, by change of variable $s=\frac{t_{l}}{2}(\xi+1),(3.8)$ can be written as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
A\left(x_{k}, t_{l}\right)=\frac{t_{l}}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} k\left(x_{k}, t_{l}, \frac{t_{l}}{2}(\xi+1), \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_{i} \phi_{i}\left(x_{k}, \frac{t_{l}}{2}(\xi+1)\right)\right) d \xi,\left(x_{k}, t_{l}\right) \in \Omega_{4} \tag{3.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

By applying numerical integration method given in (3.10), we can approximate the integral in (3.12) and we can get:

$$
\begin{equation*}
A\left(x_{k}, t_{l}\right) \simeq \frac{t_{l}}{2} \sum_{j=0}^{M} w_{j} k\left(x_{k}, t_{l}, \frac{t_{l}}{2}\left(\xi_{j}+1\right), \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_{i} \phi_{i}\left(x_{k}, \frac{t_{l}}{2}\left(\xi_{j}+1\right)\right)\right) d \xi,\left(x_{k}, t_{l}\right) \in \Omega_{4} \tag{3.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

In case $\mathcal{L}$ and $\mathcal{B}$ are the linear operators, we have a linear system that can be solved to obtain the coefficient $\alpha_{i}, i=1,2, \ldots, N$.

## 4. Numerical examples

To show the efficiency of the present method on the partial integro-differential equation, we give some computational results to illustrate our theoretical discussion. These experiments are chosen such that the relevant analytical solutions are known. The computations associated with the examples were performed using Matlab 7 software on a Personal Computer.
Example 4.1 ( [25]). We consider the partial integro-differential equation with the initial condition

$$
u(x, 0)=0, \quad-1 \leq x \leq 1,
$$

and boundary conditions

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
u(-1, t) & =0, & & 0 \leq t \leq 1, \\
u(1, t) & =0, & & 0 \leq t \leq 1,
\end{array}
$$

where $k(x, t, s, u)=-\exp (x(t-s)) u$,

$$
g(x, t)=\left(1-x^{2}\right) \cos (t)+\frac{\left(x^{2}-1\right)\left(x \sin (t)-\mathrm{e}^{x t}+\cos (t)\right)}{x^{2}+1}+2 \sin (t),
$$

and $u(x, t)=\left(1-x^{2}\right) \sin (t)$ is the exact solution.
In Figure 2, the exact solution, numerical solution and the corresponding absolute error function $|u-\widetilde{u}|$ are plotted by using GA-RBF with $c=0.1$ and the uniform set of collocation points $x_{i}=-1+(i-1) / 5$ and $t_{i}=(i-1) / 10, i=1,2, \cdots, 11$.

Example 4.2 ( [25]). In this example, we consider the partial integro-differential equation with the initial condition

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

and boundary conditions

$$
\begin{aligned}
& u(-1, t)=0, \quad 0 \leq t \leq 1, \\
& u(1, t)=0, \quad 0 \leq t \leq 1,
\end{aligned}
$$

where $k(x, t, s, u)=-\frac{1+t-s}{1+x} u$,
$g(x, t)=\frac{\left(2 x^{2}-2\right) t}{\left(t^{2}+1\right)^{2}}+\left(\frac{x-1}{2}\right) \ln \left(t^{2}+1\right)+(-x t+t-x+1) \arctan (t)+\frac{2}{1+t^{2}}$,
and $u(x, t)=\frac{1-x^{2}}{1+t^{2}}$ is the exact solution.
In Figure 3, the exact solution, numerical solution and the corresponding absolute error function $|u-\widetilde{u}|$ are plotted by using GA-RBF with $c=0.1$ and the uniform set of collocation points $x_{i}=-1+2(i-1) / 15$ and $t_{i}=(i-1) / 15, i=1,2, \cdots, 16$.


Figure 2. Exact solution (a), approximated solution (b) and absolute error function $|u-\widetilde{u}|$ for $N=121$ using GA-RBF with $c=0.1$. See Example 4.1.

Example 4.3 ([25]). We consider the partial integro-differential equation with the initial condition

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

and boundary conditions

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
u(-1, t) & =0, \quad 0 \leq t \leq 1 \\
u(1, t) & =0, \quad 0 \leq t \leq 1
\end{array}
$$

where $k(x, t, s, u)=-\sin (x(t-s)) u$,

$$
g(x, t)=\left(1-x^{2}\right) \mathrm{e}^{t}+\frac{\left(x^{2}-1\right)\left(x \cos (x t)+\sin (x t)-x \mathrm{e}^{t}\right)}{x^{2}+1}+2 \mathrm{e}^{t}
$$

and $u(x, t)=\left(1-x^{2}\right) \exp (t)$ is the exact solution.
In Figure 4, the exact solution, numerical solution and the corresponding absolute error function $|u-\widetilde{u}|$ are plotted by using GA-RBF with $c=0.1$ and the uniform set of collocation points $x_{i}=-1+(i-1) / 5$ and $t_{i}=(i-1) / 10, i=1,2, \cdots, 11$.

Example 4.4. We consider the nonlinear partial integro-differential equation with the initial condition

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

and boundary conditions

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
u(0, t)=t^{2}, & & 0 \leq t \leq 1 \\
u(1, t) & =1+t^{2}, & \\
0 \leq t \leq 1
\end{array}
$$



Figure 3. Exact solution (a), approximated solution (b) and absolute error function $|u-\widetilde{u}|$ for $N=256$ using GA-RBF with $c=0.1$. See Example 4.2.
where $k(x, t, s, u)=\sin (x t) u^{2}$,

$$
g(x, t)=2 t-2-\frac{1}{5} \sin (x t) t^{5}-\frac{2}{3} \sin (x t) x^{2} t^{3}-\sin (x t) x^{4} t
$$

and $u(x, t)=x^{2}+t^{2}$ is the exact solution.
In Figure 5, the exact solution, numerical solution and the corresponding absolute error function $|u-\widetilde{u}|$ are plotted by using GA-RBF with $c=0.01$ and the uniform set of collocation points $x_{i}=(i-1) / 4$ and $t_{i}=(i-1) / 4, i=1,2, \cdots, 5$.

## 5. Error Analysis

Madych have proven exponential convergence property of multiquadratic approximation [36]. He has shown that under certain conditions, the interpolation error is $\varepsilon=O\left(\lambda^{\frac{c}{h}}\right)$ where $c$ is the shape parameter, $h$ is the mesh size and $0<\lambda<1$ is a constant. It implies we can improve the approximated solution either by reducing the size of $h$ or by increasing the magnitude of $c$. It means that if $c \rightarrow \infty$ then $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$. Since increasing of $c$ can improve the accuracy exponentially without extra computation $[16,24,36,37]$, it is preferred to decrease error rather than reducing $h$.

However, according to 'uncertainty principle' of Schaback [47], as the error becomes smaller, the matrix becomes more ill-conditioned; hence the solution will break down as $c$ becomes too large. The experimental results confirm such behavior of the error values as $c$ becomes larger. The numerical results for Examples


Figure 4. Exact solution (a), approximated solution (b) and absolute error function $|u-\widetilde{u}|$ for $N=121$ using GA-RBF with $c=0.1$. See Example 4.3.
4.1, 4.2 and 4.3 are demonstrated in Figures 6,7 and Tables 1 and 2 which show according to the findings of Madych, the error functions decrease exponentially as $c$ becomes larger in bounded interval. After that according to the research of Schaback the error values decline as $c$ becomes too large. The best $c$ is different for various problems and not the same RBFs.

Table 1. The maximum absolute error by using GA-RBF with different $c$ for Examples 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3.

| $c$ | Example 1 <br> $N=121$ | Example 2 <br> $N=256$ | Example 3 <br> $N=121$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0.001 | $7.45 \times 10^{-8}$ | $1.12 \times 10^{-1}$ | $3.49 \times 10^{-4}$ |
| 0.01 | $8.55 \times 10^{-12}$ | $1.72 \times 10^{-5}$ | $8.51 \times 10^{-12}$ |
| 0.1 | $4.52 \times 10^{-13}$ | $3.11 \times 10^{-8}$ | $9.25 \times 10^{-12}$ |
| 0.5 | $2.51 \times 10^{-7}$ | $1.14 \times 10^{-7}$ | $8.38 \times 10^{-7}$ |
| 1 | $1.19 \times 10^{-4}$ | $6.58 \times 10^{-7}$ | $3.63 \times 10^{-4}$ |
| 1.2 | $4.52 \times 10^{-4}$ | $5.52 \times 10^{-6}$ | $1.59 \times 10^{-3}$ |
| 2 | $8.51 \times 10^{-3}$ | $7.16 \times 10^{-4}$ | $2.82 \times 10^{-2}$ |
| 3 | $2.62 \times 10^{-2}$ | $7.13 \times 10^{-3}$ | $8.55 \times 10^{-2}$ |



Figure 5. Exact solution (a), approximated solution (b) and absolute error function $|u-\widetilde{u}|$ for $N=25$ using GA-RBF with $c=0.01$. See Example 4.4.

## 6. Conclusion

In this work, we apply the radial basis functions method to solve the parabolic partial integro-differential equations. The presented method is flexible to solve the nonlinear problems. The numerical experiments show the applicability and accuracy of method. All experiments are performed within some seconds, running on DELL with 4 Gb RAM 2.4 GHz CPU. This method can be utilized for solving the other types of partial integro-differential equations such as hyperbolic partial integro-differential equations.

Table 2. The maximum absolute error by using MQ-RBF with different $c$ for Examples 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3.

| $c$ | Example 1 | Example 2 | Example 3 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $N=121$ | $N=256$ | $N=121$ |  |
| 0.1 | $5.22 \times 10^{-2}$ | $1.81 \times 10^{-2}$ | $1.31 \times 10^{-1}$ |
| 1 | $2.01 \times 10^{-3}$ | $1.35 \times 10^{-4}$ | $3.16 \times 10^{-3}$ |
| 5 | $6.38 \times 10^{-6}$ | $2.51 \times 10^{-6}$ | $1.82 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| 19 | $5.43 \times 10^{-13}$ | $2.42 \times 10^{-7}$ | $3.75 \times 10^{-11}$ |
| 25 | $1.61 \times 10^{-12}$ | $3.24 \times 10^{-7}$ | $3.31 \times 10^{-11}$ |
| 30 | $1.91 \times 10^{-11}$ | $8.51 \times 10^{-7}$ | $2.54 \times 10^{-11}$ |
| 35 | $2.19 \times 10^{-11}$ | $2.11 \times 10^{-6}$ | $8.01 \times 10^{-11}$ |



Figure 6. Horizontal axis is related to shape parameter (c) with $\log$ mode and vertical axis shows absolute error values with $\log$ mode when the solutions are approximated by using GA-RBF.


Figure 7. Horizontal axis is related to shape parameter (c) with $\log$ mode and vertical axis shows absolute error values with log mode when the solutions are approximated by using MQ-RBF.

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