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Approximate Solutions of Nonlinear Integral Equations Using the Cubic B-Spline Scaling Method

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Abstract:

This paper examines a category of general nonlinear integral equations. These equations also include many special cases, such as functional equations and nonlinear integral equations of the Volterra type. In order to approximate the solutions to numerous physical, chemical, and biological issues, we implemented an approach that incorporates the fixed-point method and semi-vertical cubic scaling functions. We also obtain a numerical solution to the integral equation. Numerical examples illustrate the accuracy and validity of this method.

Keywords: Fixed Point Method, Non-Linear Fredholm Integral Equation, Cubic B-Spline Wavelets, Scaling Functions, Darbo Condition.

B الحلول التقريبية للمعادلات التكاملية غير الخطية باستخدام طريقة قياس الشريحة المكعبة

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الخلاصة

تتناول هذه الورقة فئة من المعادلات التكاملية غير الخطية العامة. تتضمن هذه المعادلات أيضًا العديد من الحالات الخاصة، مثل المعادلات الوظيفية والمعادلات التكاملية غير الخطية من نوع فولتيرا. من أجل تقريب الحلول للعديد من القضايا الفيزيائية والكيميائية والبيولوجية، قمنا بتنفيذ نهج يتضمن طريقة النقطة الثابتة ودوال التحجيم التكعيبي شبه العمودية، نحن نحصل أيضًا على حل عدي للمعادلة التكاملية. توضح الأمثلة العددية دقة وصلاحية هذه الطريقة.

الكلمات المفتاحية: طريقة النقطة الثابتة؛ معادلة فريدهولم التكاملية غير الخطية؛ الموجات المكعبة ذات شكل متعرج ؛ وظيفة القياس، شرط داربو.

1. Introduction:

An integral equation is an equation with an unknown function, x(s), under the integral sign [1-4]. The conventional form of this Equation in x(s) is as follows.

$$x(t) = f(t) + \lambda \int_{g(t)}^{f(t)} k(t,s)u(s) \, ds,$$
 (1)

k(t,s) is a function that consists of two variables and is referred to as the kernel of the Equation, while λ is a constant parameter. The limits of integration are $\beta(t)$ and g(t). The function x(s) appears, defined under the integral sign, as well as the interior and exterior of the sign. The functions f(t) and k(t,s) have been given previously, and the limits of integration g(t) and f(t) can be constants, variables, or a combination of a constant and a variable. Integral equations have multiple forms, and there are two ways to distinguish the Equation, which depend on the limits of integration.

1- If the limits of integration are constant, the Equation is referred to as the Fredholm equation and is expressed in the following representation.

$$x(t) = f(t) + \lambda \int_a^b k(t,s)u(s) ds$$
 (2)

2- When one of the limits of integration is a constant, and the other is a variable, the equation is considered a Volterra equation and is expressed in the following manner.

$$x(t) = f(t) + \lambda \int_{a}^{x} k(t,s)u(s) ds,$$
(3)

Additionally, two varieties of equations are contingent upon the form of the function x(s), which is defined as follows:

- 1- The integral Equation is referred to as a Volterra or Fredholm equation of the first kind if the unknown function x(s) is present exclusively within the integral sign.
- 2- A Volterra or Fredholm equation of the second kind is defined as an equation in which

The unknown function u(s) is present both within and outside the integral sign. Suppose the Function f(s) equals zero in Volterra or Fredholm equations. The integral Equation is referred to as a homogeneous equation. The Fredholm integral equation of the second kind is called nonlinear if the function x(s) that appears under the integral sign is nonlinear. Additionally, it is expressed in the subsequent manner $(e^{-cos^2(\frac{1}{2})} \cdot sin^2(x)....)$, etc. Accordingly, the Equation has been formulated as follows.

$$x(t) = f(t) + \lambda \int_{g(t)}^{f(t)} k(t,s) F(u(s)) ds,$$
(4)

We want to clarify in this introduction that Fredholm's integral equations can be derived from boundary value problems, and it is essential to remember Eric Fredholm's work on integral equations and the applied theory from the year (1866-1927). The Swedish scientist developed the theory of integral equations, and his research paper, presented in 1903 in the Acta Mathematica, played a fundamental role in establishing operator theory. Integral equations play a prominent role in applied mathematics, and non-linear integral equations have significant practical importance, as shown by numerous studies in the field of knowledge, encompassing biology, traffic theory, optimal control theory, economics, and other engineering sciences [5-8]. Numerous sources have examined functional integral equations' existence and analytical behaviour [5, 9, 10] using non-compactness measure techniques and fixed-point theories. In references [10], scholars Jalilian and Aghanjani presented numerous results related to the existence and unified universal gravity and the local gravity of solutions to the functional integral Equation.

$$x(t) = (Kx)(t) = f\left(t, x, (\alpha(t)), \int_0^{\beta(t)} u(t, s, x(\gamma(s))) ds\right), \qquad t \in [0, \infty]$$
(5)

These results were presented through the measure of non-compactness. These results were reached by the scientists Jalilian and Aghanjani, who worked to improve and expand upon the findings that emerged in other studies. Most functional integral equations are not amenable to analytical solutions; therefore, numerical methods are indispensable. Consequently, numerical methods are implemented to ascertain an Approximately calculated solution. The numerical solution of integral equations can be approached using projection, iterative, and Nystrom methods [11-12]; the references include the definitions of the collocation approaches [13, 14-17]. Galerkin methods are used to find numerical solutions for Fredholm integral equations, as outlined in the references [13, 14, 17-21] Spline functions, wavelets, product integration,

homotopy analysis approaches, homotopy perturbation, Adomian decomposition method, interpolation of polynomials methods, suboptimal trajectories, and multigrid methods are all viable alternatives. The Nystrom procedures are mentioned in the references [11-14, 21, 22]. In a few articles, the approximate numerical representation of the solution has been analyzed. Composition techniques are the foundation of Numerical approaches to solving functional integral equations [23-30], homotopy perturbation methods [25,26-32], Lagrange and Chebyshev interpolation methods [27,28,32-38]. The various studies in most numerical methods addressed by previous research transform the integral Equation into a linear or nonlinear algebraic equation system. This paper presents a numerical solution for an integral equation utilizing a hybrid iterative approach that combines the fixed-point method with trapezoidal scaling functions. The method does not rely on any equation-solving system. The objective of employing this method for non-linear functional integral equations is to achieve a more precise solution with less error. We successfully attained favorable outcomes with this strategy and further elaborated on the findings presented in other investigations. The investigation is structured as follows: In the first section, the scholars Jalilian and Aghanjani provide an introduction to integral equations and a definition of equation number (5). The second section of the research provides the definitions necessary for effectively composing this scientific paper. In the third section, we examined several findings that pertain to having existed and the allure of the aforementioned integral Equation. In the fourth section, we introduced the development of cubic B-spline functions within the interval [0.1], as documented in sources [39-42]. In the fifth section, we provide an explanation of the strategy used in this research's solution method and the method by which we approach the genuine solution. Conversely, in the final section, we provided numerical examples to demonstrate the precision of this methodology and contrasted the accuracy of these numerical results with those from prior research.

2. Background Concepts

We provide some definitions and findings in this section relevant to the rest of the paper. $BC(\mathcal{R}_+)$ is a branch with limited space, but operations continue on \mathcal{R}_+ , furnished with a conventional standard. $||z|| = \sup\{|z(t)| : t \in \mathcal{R}_+, \}$. Let E Let be an infinite-dimensional Banach space containing the zero element. element θ and norm $||\cdot||$ Indicate the closed ball with radius r and center at x by writing B(z, r). Closure and convex property of Z, a nonempty subset of E, are shown by the symbols Z and Conv Z, respectively. Let also m_E be all relatively compact combinations: their family and n_E denote the family of all nonempty bounded subsets of E. We employ the concept found in [4] for the non-compactness metric.

Definition 1. When a mapping v: $m_E \to \mathcal{R}_+$ meets specific requirements, it can indicate non-compactness in E.

- 1. a family ker $u = \{X \in m_E : u(x) = 0\}$ is not-empty and ker $x \subset n_E$.
- 2. $X \subset Y \Rightarrow v(X) \le v(Y)$.
- 3. u(Z) = u(Z).
- 4. u(Conv x) = u(x).
- 5. $u(\lambda X + (1 \lambda)Y) \le \lambda u(x) + (1 \lambda)u(Y)$ for $\lambda \in [0, 1]$.
- 6. write an equation of closed originating from sets (Xn) from nE such that $X_{N+1} \subset Xn(n = 1, n)$
- 2, . . .) and if $\lim_{n\to\infty} x(X)=0$ consequently, the intersection emerged. $X_\infty=\bigcap_{n=1}^\infty X_n$ is nonempty. Given the Example of Banas and Goebel, we present a Darbo-type fixed-point theorem.[9]

Theorem (1): I will define E as a closed, convex, limited, and not-empty subset of the Banach space divided into sub-sets C.

Let L: $E \to E$ a constant was present. Mapping presupposes that there is a consistent. $Z \in [0, 1)$ thus, $u(F(X)) \le kw(X)$ before every non-empty sub-group of C that. Subsequently, L contains a fix-point within the set C. For any not empty bounding sub-set X of $BC(\mathbb{R}_+)$, $x \in X$, T > 0 and $E \ge 0$ let

$$w^{T}(x,\epsilon) = \sup\{|x(s) - x(s)| : t, s \in [0,T], |t - s| \le \epsilon\}$$

$$w^{T}(x,\epsilon) = \sup\{u^{T}(x,\epsilon) : x \in X\},$$

$$w^{T}_{0}(x) = \lim_{\epsilon \to \infty} u^{T}_{0}(x,\epsilon),$$

$$w^{T}_{0}(x) = \lim_{T \to \infty} u^{T}_{0}(x),$$

$$X(t) = x(t) : \text{the variables } x \in X\},$$
diam the function $X(t) = \sup\{|x(t) - y(t)| : x, y \in X\}$

And

$$\mu(X) = w_0(x) + \lim_{T \to \infty} \sup \text{ diam the function } X(t)$$
 (6)

Banas has demonstrated in [43] that the function μ measures non-compactness via space. BE(\mathcal{R}_+). The solution to the equation as operative from the BE(\mathcal{R}_+) included in BE (\mathcal{R}_+)

$$(F x)(t) = x(t) \tag{7}$$

We will discuss the introduction: the attractiveness to Eq. (7).

Definition 2: [9] If a ball $B(x_0, r)$ exists in space, then solutions to Eq. (7) are locally attractive. $BC(\mathbb{R}_+)$ so that for Any two solutions that are arbitrary to Eq. (7) that are part of $B(x_0, r) \cap \Omega$ that is in our possession.

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} (x(t) - y(t)) = 0$$
 (8)

Resolving the Eq. (7) is locally alluring at a uniform rate (or, similarly, asymptotic stability) if the limit (4) is consistent concerning $B(x_0,r) \cap \Omega$,

Theorem 2: There is a minimum of one solution to Eq. (5) in BC(\mathcal{R}_+) for all of (5)'s solutions that have uniform local attraction.

Proof: This section presents a summary of the proof necessary for the subsequent sections. Refer to [10] for additional information.

First, the authors designed operator K in [2]; hence, for any $x \in BC(R+)$

$$(\mathrm{H}x)(t) = f\left(t, x(\alpha(t)), \int_0^{\beta(t)} u\left(t, s, x(\gamma(s))\right) ds\right),$$

(Hx) is clearly continuous on \mathbb{R}_+ . Next, for each arbitrarily fixed $t \in \mathbb{R}_+$

$$|(Mx)(t)| \leq n |x(\alpha(t))| + M_0$$

Where

$$M_0 = \sup\{|f(t, 0, 0)| : t \in \mathbb{R}^+\} + \psi(2D),$$

$$r = \frac{M_0}{1 - n}.$$

Subsequently, they demonstrated that given A set that is not vacant $X \subset (Br)$, $\mu(HX) < n\mu(X)$, with $n \in U(0,1)$. Accordingly, the Eq. (1) of functional integration is at least one solution in British Columbia. ($\mathcal{R}+$), and(x) has a fixed--point in (Br) for the operator H. based on Theorem 1. Every solution to Eq. (5) contained within the A member of the Ker μ group is ball Br

Corollary 1. If f (t, s, 0) is constrained by additional Constraints 1–4, then the solutions to the integration of the formula (5) are as follows: are generally attractive, as stated in Theory 2. Sufficient evidence. See [27].

3- Cubic B-Aspline Scaling and Wavelet Function on [0.1]

In L2(R), you can utilize scaling functions to increase the size of any function. Extending these functions outside the integration domain is possible because they are specified across the natural line. This article considers B-spline scaling functions with compact support built for the bounded interval [0,1]. When using order m semi-orthogonal B-spline scaling functions, the requirement.

$$2^{J_0} \geq g$$

Has to be met for there to be one full inner scaling function. $\omega_{4,k}^{(j)}(x)$ represents these scaling functions. We'll employ scaling functions for cubic B-splines (cardinal B-splines of order g = 4). As a cubic spline, its scaling is denoted.

$$A_4(x) = \omega_4(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{6}x^3 & 0 \le x < 1 \\ \frac{1}{6}(-3x^3 + 12x^2 - 12x + 24) & 1 \le x < 2 \\ \frac{1}{6}(3x^3 - 12x^2 + 60x - 44) & 2 \le x < 3 \\ \frac{1}{6}(4 - x)^3 & 3 \le x < 4 \end{cases}$$
 otherwise

Furthermore, the shape of its two-scale relation is

$$\omega_4(x) = \frac{1}{8}\omega_4(2x) + \frac{4}{8}\omega_4(2x - 1) + \frac{6}{8}\omega_4(2x - 2) + \frac{4}{8}\omega_4(2x - 3) + \frac{1}{8}\omega_4(2x - 4)$$

$$(1 - 8x)^3$$

$$0 \le x \le \frac{1}{8}$$

$$\omega_{4,-3}^{(3)}(x) = \begin{cases} (1-8x)^3 & 0 \le x < \frac{1}{8} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

With boundary scale, for example, the scaling factors used for $j_0 = j = 3$ and m = 4 are enumerated below.

$$\omega_{4,-2}^{(3)}(x) = \begin{cases} 896x^3 - 288x^2 + 24x & 0 \le x < \frac{1}{8} \\ 2(1-4x)^3 & \frac{1}{8} \le x < \frac{2}{8} \end{cases}$$

$$0 \text{ otherwise}$$

$$0 \le x < \frac{1}{8}$$

otherwise

$$\omega_{4,-1}^{(j)}(x) = \omega_{4,k}^{(3)}(2^{j-3}x), k = -3, -2, -1 \quad j = 3, 4 \dots \dots$$

$$\omega_{4.5}^{(3)}(x) = \omega_{4.-1}^{(3)}(1-x),$$

$$\omega_{4.6}^{(3)}(x) = \omega_{4.2}^{(3)}(1-x)$$

$$\omega_{4.7}^{(3)}(x) = \omega_{4.-3}^{(3)}(1-x)$$

$$\omega_{4,k}^{(j)}(x) = \omega_{4,2^{j}-k-4}^{(3)}(1-2^{j-3}x), \quad k=2^{j}-3,\dots,2^{j}-1, \quad j=3,4\dots\dots$$

Inner scaling:

$$\omega_{4,0}^{(3)}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{256}{3}x^3 & 0 \le x < \frac{1}{8} \\ -256x^3 - 128x^2 - 16x + \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{8} \le x < \frac{2}{8} \\ 256x^3 - 256x^2 + 80x - \frac{22}{3} & \frac{2}{8} \le x < \frac{3}{8} \\ \frac{3^2}{3}(1 - 2x)^3 & \frac{3}{8} \le x < \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\omega_{4,1}^{(3)}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{6}(8x - 1)^3 & \frac{1}{8} \le x < \frac{2}{8} \\ -256x^3 + 224x^2 - 60x + \frac{31}{6} & \frac{2}{8} \le x < \frac{3}{8} \\ 256x^3 - 352x^2 + 156x - \frac{131}{6} & \frac{3}{8} \le x < \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{6}(5 - 8x)^3 & \frac{1}{2} \le x < \frac{5}{8} \\ 0 & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\omega_{4,2}^{(3)}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{4}{3}(4x - 1)^3 & \frac{2}{6} \le x < \frac{3}{8} \le x < \frac{1}{2} \\ 256x^3 + 320x^2 - 128x + \frac{50}{3} & \frac{3}{8} \le x < \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{6}(6 - 8x)^3 & \frac{5}{8} \le x < \frac{3}{4} \\ 0 & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\omega_{4,3}^{(3)}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{6}(8x - 3)^3 & \frac{3}{8} \le x < \frac{1}{2} \\ 256x^3 + 416x^2 - 220x + \frac{229}{6} & \frac{1}{2} \le x < \frac{5}{8} \\ \frac{1}{6}(7 - 8x)^3 & \frac{3}{4} \le x < \frac{7}{8} \end{cases}$$

$$0 & \text{Otherwise}$$

$$\omega_{4,3}^{(3)}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{6}(8x - 4)^3 & \frac{3}{4} \le x < \frac{7}{8} \\ -256x^3 + 416x^2 - 220x + \frac{229}{6} & \frac{5}{8} \le x < \frac{3}{4} \\ \frac{1}{6}(7 - 8x)^3 & \frac{1}{2} \le x < \frac{5}{8} \end{cases}$$

$$0 & \text{Otherwise}$$

$$\omega_{4,4}^{(3)}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{6}(8x - 4)^3 & \frac{1}{2} \le x < \frac{5}{8} \\ -256x^3 + 416x^2 - 220x + \frac{229}{6} & \frac{5}{8} \le x < \frac{3}{4} \\ \frac{1}{6}(7 - 8x)^3 & \frac{1}{2} \le x < \frac{5}{8} \end{cases}$$

$$0 & \text{Otherwise}$$

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Otherwise

$$\omega_{4,k}^{(j)}(x) = \omega_{4,k}^{(3)}(2^{j-3}x - k), \quad k = 0,1,\dots, 2^j - 4 \quad j = 3,4\dots\dots$$

$$\begin{split} \psi_4(x) &= \frac{1}{8!} \, \omega_4(2x) + \frac{124}{8!} \, \omega_4(2x-1) + \frac{1677}{8!} \, \omega_4(2x-2) + \frac{7904}{8!} \, \omega_4(2x-3) \\ &\quad + \frac{18482}{8!} \, \omega_4(2x-4) - \frac{24264}{8!} \, \omega_4(2x-5) + \frac{18482}{8!} \, \omega_4(2x-6) \\ &\quad - \frac{7904}{8!} \, \omega_4(2x-7) + \frac{1677}{8!} \, \omega_4(2x-8) - \frac{124}{8!} \, \omega_4(2x-9) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{8!} \, \omega_4(2x-10) \end{split}$$

Cubic B-spline wavelet $\psi_4(x)$ is shown in Fig.3. The system's inner and border wavelet analysis is obtained through the application of [8, 11].

4. Functional Approximation

A function f (x) specified in the interval [0,1] can be rendered in the cubic B-spline scale field FJ_0

For any fixed positive integer J_0 as

$$g(x) = \sum_{i=-3}^{2^{j_0-1}} c_{j_0.i} \varphi_{4.i}^{(3)}(x) + \sum_{i=3}^{j_0} \sum_{k=-3}^{2^{i}-4} d_{i.k} \Psi_{4.k}^{(i)}(x) = C^T \Psi(x)$$
(9)

Where $\varphi_{4,i}^{(j_0)}$ and $\Psi_{4,k}^{(i)}$ are wavelet and scaling functions should eq (9)'s infinite series be shortened, respectively. And for j=3, it can be expressed as follows:

$$g(x) = \sum_{i=-3}^{7} c_{i_0,i} \varphi_{A,i}^{(j_0)}(x) + \sum_{i=3}^{j_0} \sum_{k=-3}^{2^{i}-4} d_{i,k} \Psi_{A,k}^{(i)}(x) = C^T \Psi_{\cdot}(x)$$
 (10)

Where C and $\Psi(x)$ are $(2^{j_0+1}+5)x1$ vectors given bye

$$C="[c_{-3,...,c_{7,n}}d_{3,-3,...}d_{3,4,...}d_{j_{0,-3}}d_{j_{2}^{j_{-4}},]}.^{T}"$$
(11)

$$\Psi = [\varphi_{4,-3}^{(3)} \dots \varphi_{4,-3}^{(3)}, \Psi_{4,-3}^{(3)} \dots \Psi_{4,-3}^{(3)} \dots \Psi_{4,4}^{(3)} \dots \Psi_{i,2,j-3}^{(3)}]^T$$
(12)

With

$$C_1 = \int_0^1 f(x)\varphi_{4,1}^{(3)}(x) dx, \dots i = -3, \dots ... 7.$$
(13)

$$d_{j,k} = \int_0^1 f(x)\psi_{4,1}^{(j)}(x) dx, \dots j = 3, \dots J_0. k = -3 \dots 2^{J_0} - 4,$$
(14)

Where $\varphi_{4.1}^{(3)}$ and $\psi_{4.k}^{(j)}$ have dual purposes. of $\varphi_{4.1}^{(3)}i = -3, \dots, 7$ and $\psi_{4.k}^{(j)} = j = 3, \dots, J_0$

According to. By using linear combinations, these can be obtained. Of

 $\varphi_{4,1}^{(3)}$ and $\psi_{4,k}^{(j)}$

$$\varphi = [\varphi_{4,-3}^{(3)}, (x)\varphi_{4,-2}^{(3)}(x) \dots \varphi_{4,-7}^{(3)}(x)]^{T}$$
(15)

$$\Psi = [\Psi_{4,-3}^{(3)}(x) \dots \Psi_{4,4}^{(3)}(x) \dots \dots \Psi_{4,2j-4}^{(3)}(x)]^{T}$$
(16)

Using(9)-(13),(15,16) We obtain

$$\int_{0}^{1} \phi(x)\phi^{T}(x) dx = L_{1}$$
 (17)

L is $[11 \times 11]$.

Assume $\phi(x)$ serves dual functions. Of $\phi(x)$ as presented in the Equation

$$\varphi = [\varphi_{4.-3}^{(3)},(x)\varphi_{4.-2}^{(3)}(x)\dots\dots\varphi_{4.-7}^{(3)}(x)]^{T}$$

Using (8) (9) (11)

$$\int_{0}^{1} \phi(x)\phi^{T}(x) dx = K11$$

where the identity matrix is $[11 \times 11]$. Consequently, we obtain

$$\ddot{\mathbf{w}} = \boldsymbol{\phi}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\omega} \tag{18}$$

Theorem 3: Let $e_j(x)$ denote the approximate errors of f in (9) using cubic B-spline scaling function within space Vj; therefore, $\| = Oe_j(x) (2^{-4j})$.

Proof. By using (9) and (10). We get

$$e_j(x) = \sum_{i=j}^{\infty} \sum_{k=-3}^{2^{i}-4} d_{i,k} \Psi_{4,k}^{(i)}(x)$$

By putting

$$c_j = max\{|\psi^1(x)|; k = -3, \dots, 2^i - 4\}$$
 We obtain

And

$$\sum_{k=-3}^{2^{i}-4} \left| d_{i,k} \Psi_{4,k}^{(i)}(x) \right| \le \alpha \beta c_i \frac{2^{-4!}}{4!}$$

As a result,

$$\left|e_j(x)\right| \leq \frac{1}{4!} \alpha \beta \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c_i 2^{-4!}$$

The current inequality allows us to get

$$|e_j(x)| = O(2^{-4!})$$
 (19)

The order of error depends on the level j. as ()demonstrates. The approximation error will decrease with increasing degree of j.

5. Method of Solvation

This part outlines our primary approach, which combines the fixed point with the cub-spline scale function. Next, we consider the method's convergence.

5.1 The New Numerical Method's Description: When considering the integral Eq. (5). To streamline this procedure, assume that each value of t is confined to the interval where the maximum level of $\beta(t)$ is constant. assume $t \in [0, a]$ without losing generality. Allow me to

$$0 = t_0 \le t_1 \le t_m = a$$
.,

By G locations in [0, a].

That are evenly separated. By the proof, K is a continuous operator on (Br) and had a fix-point x in the Br—theorem 2. Eq. (1) has at least one solution in Br under the assumptions 1–4. Additionally, evenly locally appealing solutions for problems (1). This section provides a concise overview of the evidence required in the subsequent sections. For additional information, please refer to [6].

Initially, parameter G was defined by the creators in [6]. in a way that ensures that for any $x \in Br$,

$$x(t) = (Kx)(t) = f \cdot \left(t, x(\alpha(t)), \int_0^{\beta(t)} u(t, s, x(\gamma(s))) ds\right) ,$$

$$x_{k+1}(t_i) = (H_k)(t_i) = f \cdot \left(t_{i,x_k}(\alpha(t)), \int_0^{\beta(t)} u(t_i, s, x_k(\gamma(s))) ds\right) K = 0,1,.$$
 (20)

The integral is to be approximated. Numerically inside the intervals $[0, \beta(t_i)]$ in (21) and $x_{N+1}(t)$, we apply A Simpson rule that is composite and applies to equally distant L points. Today, we utilize cub-spline scaling methods as the foundation for our estimations. $x_{N+1}(t)$ to get ready for the following iteration. $x_{N+1}(t)$ We can immediately calculate using the coefficients of the scaling functions (5)–(14) from the previous section without having to solve any systems of algebraic equations as

$$z_i = \int_0^1 x_{k+1}(t) \overline{\omega}_{4,I}^{(3)}(t) dt$$
, $J = -3, \dots...7$

where, as previously stated

$$[\varpi_{4.-3}^{(3)}(t),\varpi_{4.-2}^{(3)}(t),\ldots,\varpi_{4.7}^{(3)}(t)]^T=P^{-1}\left[\omega_{4.-3}^{(3)}(t),\ldots\ldots\omega_{4.7}^{(3)}(t)\right]^T$$

Given the values of xk+1(ti) (i = 1,..., H), we compute cj. By employing the composite Simpson rule, we arrive at the following;

$$x_{k+1}(t) \approx \sum_{i=-3}^{7} c_i \, \varphi_4^{(3)}(t)$$
 (21)

We repeat the iterations until the difference between subsequent iterations, $x_k(t)$, is as small as we need for the appropriate level of precision. The end values of $x_{k+1}(t)$ correspond to an operator's M fixed point k at that level of precision. Consequently, we make an approximation of Equation (5). The following briefly describes the numerical approach.

5.2 There is a Relationship Between Teachers K and G: The teacher k represents the number of iterations within the fixed-point method, while G, according to the assumptions of Theory (2), are distant and central points within the interval [0. a]. Through the practical application of numerical examples, we continue with the iterations until we achieve a small difference between consecutive iterations. These small differences are essential for achieving high accuracy, ensuring that the terminal parameters x(t) converge to a stationary point for operator Z. Therefore, we are approaching an accurate solution to the Eq. (5). We observe the accuracy of the method used through the numerical examples in examples [7] and [8], comparing them with the methods used in previous studies. We notice that an increase in k and G leads to an increase in accuracy and a decrease in the absolute error rate. The iterations keep increasing until the approximate solutions get closer to the exact solutions.

6- Results:

This article illustrates the method's accuracy by presenting numerical illustrations for the integral equation eq(5). We utilized the symbol k to represent the number of iterations in the fixed-point method. And K to Represent the approximate value x(t) in the iteration X(t), which is based. On this, we can calculate the absolute error ratio to x(t) in iteration k as follows: is represented with $x_{K(t_i)}$

$$|(X(t)) - x_{K+1}(t)|$$

Hence, it is possible to determine the most significant (absolute error in iteration K as an

$$||x - x_K|| = max |x(t_{i)} - x_K(t_{i)}|$$

Furthermore, one can compute the discrepancy located between the approximate at K and K+1 as

$$\left| x_{K+1}(t) - x_{K}(t) \right|.$$

As a result, we acquire

$$||x - x_K|| = max |x_{K+1}(t) - x_K(t_i)|$$

We used different values of k and G to solve the following numerical examples. In these examples, we applied the formulas in the articles above (17) and (18) to derive approximate numerical solutions. The calculations and results were carried out using Mathematics 8.

Example (1): non-linear Fredholm–Hammerstein equation that follows

$$x(t) = \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2}t\right) - 2te^{-t}\ln(3) + e^{-t}\int_{0}^{1} \frac{4ts + \pi t \sin(\pi s)}{x(s)^{2} + s^{2} + 1}ds,$$

Table 1: Absolute errors for Example 1 across various values of K.

t	k=2	k=5	k=10
0	0	0	0
0.1	0.127890×10^{-1}	0.953012×10^{-5}	0.362567×10^{-9}
0.2	0.214093×10^{-1}	0.167951×10^{-4}	0.119137×10^{-8}
0.3	0.227909×10^{-1}	0.197670×10^{-4}	0.139588×10^{-7}
0.4	0.169766×10^{-1}	0.149812×10^{-4}	0.402300×10^{-7}
0.5	0.797177×10^{-2}	0.497886×10^{-4}	0.934621×10^{-7}
0.6	0.384727×10^{-4}	0.334333×10^{-5}	0.378213×10^{-7}
0.7	0.472688×10^{-2}	0.660849×10^{-5}	0.269398×10^{-7}
0.8	0.631157×10^{-2}	0.612657×10^{-5}	0.301620×10^{-7}
0.9	0.572703×10^{-2}	0.453392×10^{-5}	0.464820×10^{-7}
1	0.410323×10^{-2}	0.290023×10^{-5}	0.301723×10^{-8}

Possesses an exclusive, precise resolution

. $x(t) = sin(\frac{\pi}{2}t)$. Functional, the value of $\beta(t)$ is 1, and $\gamma(t)$ is equal to t.

$$f(t,x,y) = \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2}t\right) - 2te^{-t}\ln(3) + e^{-t}y$$

And

$$u(t,s,x)\frac{4ts+\pi t sin(\pi s)}{x^2+s^2+1},$$

Are continuous functions that meet Theorem 2's presumptions. see

$$\phi(t)$$
 Equal t, k Equals 0, $m(t) = e^{-(-t)}$, where $D = 1.24575$

We make a decision
$$x_0(t) = \sin(\frac{\pi}{2}t) - 2te^{-t}\ln(3) \in [-r, r]$$
, where $r = \frac{M_0}{1-n} = 3.82984$.

Table 1 displays the absolute values of defects for (G = 200 and L = 200) mesh points. The errors associated with a single iteration are represented by absolute values in **Table 2**. for varied numbers of mesh points. Furthermore, errors are diminished by conducting additional iterations. Refer to Figure 1. Where the $[\log 10(||x_k - x||) = \log 10 \pmod{|x_k(t_i) - x(t_i)|}]$, to $t_i = i/10$ for any $(i = 0, 1, \ldots, 10)$

Example (2): Examine the subsequent information. Kind (42, 43) of non-linear function integral equation of the Volterra.

$$x(t) = \frac{t}{1+t^2} x(t) + \int_{0}^{t} e^{-t} \frac{sx(s)}{1+|x(s)|} ds$$

Table 2: Absolute Errors within the EX.1 K Equal 10, L Equal 200, many G variables

t	G=50 G=100		G=200
0	0	0	0
0.1	0.170303×10^{-5}	0.449863×10^{-5}	0.362567×10^{-9}
0.2	0.307753×10^{-5}	0.805820×10^{-5}	0.119137×10^{-8}
0.3	0.409215×10^{-5}	0.104431×10^{-4}	0.139588×10^{-7}
0.4	0.478569×10^{-5}	0.117460×10^{-4}	0.402300×10^{-7}
0.5	0.521326×10^{-4}	0.121565×10^{-4}	0.934621×10^{-7}
0.6	0.540250×10^{-4}	0.1200099×10^{-4}	0.378213×10^{-7}
0.7	0.548649×10^{-4}	0.116624×10^{-4}	0.269398×10^{-7}
0.8	0.547760×10^{-4}	0.110637×10^{-4}	0.301620×10^{-7}
0.9	0.542085×10^{-4}	0.105845×10^{-4}	0.464820×10^{-7}
1	0.532832×10^{-4}	0.101492×10^{-4}	0.301723×10^{-7}

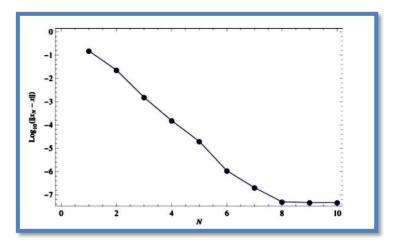


Figure 1: Ex(1) Illustrates the Logarithm of t the Utmost Error Occurring During Every Iteration.

Which has a unique, precise solution. The value of x(t) is zero. The formulas are: $\alpha(t) = \beta(t) = \gamma(t) = t$: We can ascertain t by employing fundamental mathematics. the solution to which is unique and exact x(t) = 0. The functions $\alpha(t)$, $\beta(t)$, and $\gamma(t)$ are all defined as t.

$$f(t,s,x)\frac{tx}{1+t^2}+y,$$

And

$$u(t,s,x) = e^{-t} \frac{sx}{1+|x|}$$

Satisfying the requirements of the second theorem with $\phi(t)$ Equal t, k Equal 1/2, m(t) Equal 1, and D = 0.270671, The procedure is implemented. where $x_0(t)$ Equal 0.5 \in Br, where r = 1.08268. **Table 3** displays the exact error values, while Figure 2 depicts the logarithm of the highest error associated with iterations, especially for G equals 80 and L equals 50 mesh points.

Example (3): We investigate the non-linear Volterra functional integral problem using proportional delay.

$$x(t) = \cos(t) - \sin\left(\frac{e^{-\cos^2(\frac{1}{2})} - e^{-1}}{1 + t^2}\right) + \sin\left(\int_0^{t/2} \frac{\sin(2s)e^{-x^2(s)}}{1 + t^2}ds\right),$$

Table3: Fundamental errors for Example 2 over several levels of K

t	k=5	k=25	k=50
0	0	0	0
0.1	0.462407×10^{-5}	0.808969×10^{-13}	0.306027×10^{-20}
0.2	0.131506×10^{-3}	0.268324×10^{-12}	0.107748×10^{-19}
0.3	0.790865×10^{-3}	0.275392×10^{-12}	0.171832×10^{-19}
0.4	0.243661×10^{-2}	0.300346×10^{-12}	0.114517×10^{-19}
0.5	0.512032×10^{-2}	0.649454×10^{-10}	0.156528×10^{-18}
0.6	$0.0.835707 \times 10^{-2}$	0.635856×10^{-9}	0.148931×10^{-17}
0.7	0.114419×10^{-1}	0.316263×10^{-8}	0.185272×10^{-16}
0.8	0.138099×10^{-1}	0.802217×10^{-8}	0.131274×10^{-15}
0.9	0.151984×10^{-1}	0.129801×10^{-7}	0.334904×10^{-15}
1	0.156251×10^{-1}	0.149012×10^{-7}	0.439281×10^{-15}

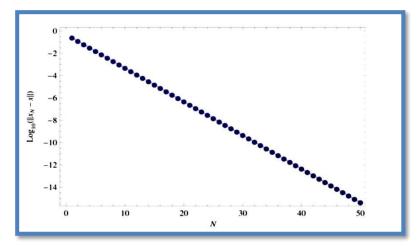


Figure 2: The logarithm of the highest error associated with every iteration in Example 2.

Which possesses the precise solutions $x(t) = \cos(t)$. The functions such as $\beta(t) = t - (1 - q)t$ for q = 1/2 and $\gamma(t)$ Equal t can be readily demonstrated to be continuous. Additionally, $\alpha(t)$ may be Any continuous operation that satisfies Condition 1.

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

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

Meet the conditions of Theorem 2, given k = 0, m(t) = 1, $\phi(t) = t$, with D ranging from 0.25. We

Derive
$$r = 1.5$$
 and utilize $x_0(t) = \cos(t) - \sin\left(\frac{e^{-\cos^2(\frac{1}{2})} - e^{-1}}{1 + t^2}\right) \in Br$

And

The preliminary function. Both **Table 4** and the following figure illustrate the absolute errors with the logarithm of the highest Iteration-related absolute errors for L=100 and G=200 centered within the range [0,2].

Table 4: Approximate Errors for the Third Example for Various Values of K

t k=2 k=5

t	k=2	k=5	
0	0	0	
0.2	0.234328×10^{-7}	0.239081×10^{-7}	
0.4	0.146720×10^{-7}	0.360304×10^{-7}	
0.6	0.323011×10^{-6}	0.914190×10^{-7}	
0.8	0.863026×10^{-6}	0.637923×10^{-9}	
1	0.205252×10^{-5}	0.284243×10^{-9}	
1.2	0.539092×10^{-5}	0.878520×10^{-7}	
1.4	0.113864×10^{-4}	0.593672×10^{-7}	
1.6	0.154702×10^{-4}	0.506919×10^{-7}	
1.8	0.252727×10^{-4}	0.231660×10^{-7}	
2	0.852385×10^{-7}	0.116951×10^{-8}	

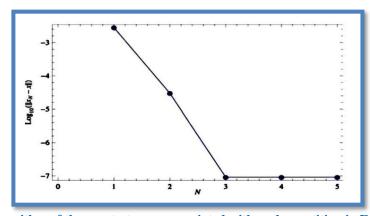


Figure 3. Logarithm of the greatest error associated with each repetition in Example (3).

Example (4): The subsequent non-linear integral Equation for Volterra function

$$x(t) = e^{-t\sqrt{t}} - \frac{t^2(1 + e^{-t\sqrt{t}}x(t))}{2(1 + t^4)} + \left(\frac{t^2}{1 + t^4}\right)e^{-|\int_0^t \sqrt{t}} \frac{2e^{-s}x(\sqrt[3]{s^2})}{(1 + x(\sqrt[3]{s^2})^2)} ds|$$

Contains a precise solution. The value of x(t) is equal to e. The functions to use are $\alpha(t) = t$, $\beta(t) = t$, and $\gamma(t)$ Equal 3.

Comply with the first condition of Theorem 2. Furthermore, functions as well

$$f(t,x,y) = e^{-t\sqrt{t}} - \frac{t^2(1 + e^{-t\sqrt{t}x})}{2(1+t^4)} + \left(\frac{t^2}{1+t^4}\right)e^{-|y|}$$

And

$$u(t,s,x) = \frac{2e^{-t}x}{1+x^2}$$

Fulfilled the criteria of Theorem 2–4 using n=0.111641, $\phi(t)$ Equal t, $G(t)=t^2/(1+t^4)$, D=0.5, and $M_0=2$. Thus, we have r=2.25134 and choose $x_0(t)\in Br$. The extent of errors

Table 5: Absolute Errors of Example 4fore $x_0(t) = 0.5$ and Different Value of K

t	K=2	K=5	K=10
0	0	0	0
0.1	0.116062×10^{-4}	0.302756×10^{-6}	0.302763×10^{-6}
0.2	0.150179×10^{-3}	0.164254×10^{-6}	0.163322×10^{-6}
0.3	0.597392×10^{-3}	0.518220×10^{-6}	0.551065×10^{-6}
0.4	0.139726×10^{-2}	0.963558×10^{-6}	0.626378×10^{-6}
0.5	0.237648×10^{-2}	0.135418×10^{-5}	0.213892×10^{-6}
0.6	0.319742×10^{-2}	0.444057×10^{-5}	0.933230×10^{-7}
0.7	0.356863×10^{-2}	0.811830×10^{-5}	0.411882×10^{-7}
0.8	0.342076×10^{-2}	0.110323×10^{-4}	0.286523×10^{-6}
0.9	0.291232×10^{-2}	0.133351×10^{-4}	0.152142×10^{-6}
1	0.22864×10^{-2}	0.136016×10^{-4}	0.216699×10^{-6}

Table 6:Absolute errors of Example 4for K=5 and different values of $x_0(t)$

t	$x_0(t) = 0.5$	$x_0(t) = 1$	$x_0(t)=2$
0	0	0	0
0.1	0.302756×10^{-6}	0.302762×10^{-6}	0.302777×10^{-6}
0.2	0.164254×10^{-6}	0.163079×10^{-6}	0.161031×10^{-6}
0.3	0.518220×10^{-6}	0.562475×10^{-6}	0.637346×10^{-6}
0.4	0.963558×10^{-6}	0.420642×10^{-6}	0.419744×10^{-6}
0.5	0.135418×10^{-5}	0.165281×10^{-5}	0.595858×10^{-5}
0.6	0.444057×10^{-5}	0.553731×10^{-5}	0.188352×10^{-4}
0.7	0.811830×10^{-5}	0.140381×10^{-4}	0.417234×10^{-4}
0.8	0.110323×10^{-4}	0.251467×10^{-4}	0.680604×10^{-4}
0.9	0.133351×10^{-4}	0.133351×10^{-4}	0.880009×10^{-4}
1	0.136016×10^{-4}	0.397919×10^{-4}	0.991856×10^{-4}

Table 5 provides details of the iterations, which correspond to G = 150 and L = 100 mesh points. **Table 6** displays the maximum inaccuracy values for a single iteration according to various initial locations and a consistent number of mesh points. **Figure 4** illustrates how increasing the number of repetitions reduces mistakes.

Example (5): Examine the integral Equation shown below [10].

$$x(h) = \frac{\sin(hx(\sqrt[3]{h}))}{1+h^2} + \arctan\left(\int_0^{\sqrt{1}} \frac{\sqrt[4]{1+sx^2(s^2)+}}{(1+h^7)} \frac{hs^{11}(1+x^4(x^2))}{(1+x^4(x^2))}\right) ds.$$

Using basic math, we can determine that

$$\propto (h) = \sqrt[3]{t}$$
, $\beta(h) = \sqrt[1]{h}$, $y(t) = h^2$

$$x(h) = \frac{\sin(hx(\sqrt[3]{h}))}{1+h^2}, +\arctan(y)$$

And

$$u(t.s,x) = \frac{\sqrt[4]{1 + sx^2(s^2) + ts^{11}(1 + x^4)}}{(1 + h^7)(1 + x^4)}$$

Fulfill the requirements of Theory 2 accompanied by { D = 1.0184, k = 0.5, m(t) = 1, and $\phi(t) = h$.} As a result, we determine that the beginning function belongs to the ball Br and get(r = 4.07362.) In contrast, since f(t, x, 0) is a function restricted in its range, Corollary 1's requirement are met. As a result, there is at least one solution to the integral Equation, and These solutions possess universal appeal. Upon completing 50 cycles, we ascertain the mistake for (L = 50 and G is equal to 80) mesh points. $||x_{N+1} - x_N|| = \max_i |x_{N+1} - x_N(t_i)| = 2.37155 \times 10 - 8$, where $h_i = i/10$ where i = 0, 1, ..., 10. In the figure, the response is an approximation obtained after 50 iterations. as demonstrated by the explanation that follows x(t) is an element of Br

Example (6): Examine: Kindly assess the presented non-linear Fredholm integral. [44,45]

$$x(t) = 1 + te - \int_{0}^{1} (t+S)e^{X(S)} dS.$$

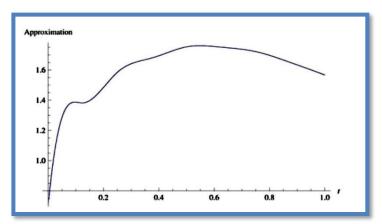


Figure 4: Approximation Solution of Example 5 after 50 Iteration

The precise solution is x(t) = t. This section addresses the solution of the integral Equation utilizing our suggested method and juxtaposes prior results with the new findings delineated in **Table 7** for K = 30, G = 200, and L = 200.

Example (7): The following integral Equation

$$x(t) = \sin(t)^{2} + 1 - \int_{0}^{t} 3\sin(t - s)x(s)^{2} ds$$

Table 7:As shown in Figure 3, the absolute errors are as follows: K=30, G=200, and D=200.

t	Methodology	Methodology	Methodologically presented
	of[44]	[45]	
0	2×10^{-3}	2.58×10^{-6}	8.96539×10^{-10}
0.2	1×10^{-2}	7.35×10^{-6}	7.99324×10^{-9}
0.4	2×10^{-2}	7.93×10^{-6}	4.23015×10^{8}
0.6	1×10^{-2}	2.55×10^{-6}	8.28779×10^{-9}
0.8	0×10^{-3}	3.98×10^{-6}	2.82284×10^{-7}
1	1×10^{-2}	2.64×10^{-6}	5.62541×10^{-8}

Table 8:Contains The Solutions to Example 7: K = 10, G = 250, And D = 200, With Both Exact And Approximate Values

t	Methodology	Methodology	Methodologically presented	PERFECT RESOLUTION
	of[44]	of[45]	0 71	
0	1.0000	1.00000	1.000000000	1.000000000
0.1	0.9952	0.99500	0.995004165	0.995004165
0.2	0.9800	0.98006	0.980066580	0.980066577
0.3	0.9554	0.95533	0.955336485	0.955336489
0.4	0.9210	0.92105	0.921060993	0.921060994
0.5	0.8775	0.87756	0.877582565	0.877582561
0.6	0.8255	0.82531	0.825335614	0.825335614
0.7	0.7648	0.76482	0.764842185	0.764842187
0.8	0.6969	0.69669	0.696706707	0.696706709
0.9	0.6217	0.62159	0.621609968	0.621609968
1	0.5405	0.54028	0.540302303	0.540302305

The exact answer is x(t) Equal cos(t). This Equation fails to satisfy the following criteria: to theory 2, we employ the technique described in this article. Furthermore, the findings of our investigation have been compared with the results [46,47] Table 8.

7. Conclusion

In this research paper, we applied fixed-point technique with cubic B-Spline scaling function to obtain a numerical solution for a set of non-linear integral equations without the need for algebraic systems. Using the numerical examples and the obtained results, as well as equation number (5), we found that the results are highly accurate and closely approximate the exact solution. We compared these results with those obtained from previous studies and observed the accuracy of this method. Since the accuracy of this method depends on using larger values for G and K, we note that the accuracy will improve with larger values. We continue the iterations until we reach a precise solution that approaches the true solution. This method is free from scenarios, problems, or excessive computational costs, and it is applicable to equations with larger and more complex dimensions. This method has no adverse effects on more complex equations.

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