

**1.11 The Gamma Function**

The gamma function  $\Gamma(x)$  is a special function that will be needed in the solution of Bessel's ODE.  $\Gamma(x)$  is a generalisation of the factorial function  $n!$  from positive integers to most real numbers. For any positive integer  $n$ ,  $n! = n \times (n-1) \times (n-2) \times \dots \times 3 \times 2 \times 1$  (with  $0!$  defined to be 1)

When  $x$  is a positive integer  $n$ ,  $\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$

We know that  $n! = n \times (n-1)!$

The gamma function has a similar recurrence relationship:  $\Gamma(x+1) = x \cdot \Gamma(x)$

This allows  $\Gamma(x)$  to be defined for non-integer negative  $x$ , using  $\Gamma(x) = \frac{\Gamma(x+1)}{x}$

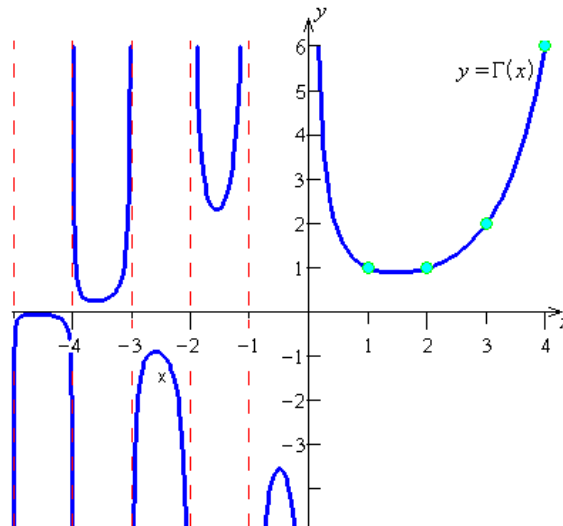
For example,

it can be shown that  $\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}) = \sqrt{\pi}$

$$\Rightarrow \Gamma(-\frac{1}{2}) = \frac{\Gamma(+\frac{1}{2})}{-\frac{1}{2}} = -2\sqrt{\pi} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \Gamma(-\frac{3}{2}) = \frac{\Gamma(-\frac{1}{2})}{-\frac{3}{2}} = +\frac{4\sqrt{\pi}}{3}, \text{ etc.}$$

$\Gamma(x)$  is infinite when  $x$  is a negative integer or zero. It is well defined for all other real numbers  $x$ .

In this graph of  $y = \Gamma(x)$ , values of the factorial function (at positive integer values of  $x$ ) are highlighted.



There are several ways to define the gamma function, such as

$$\Gamma(x) = \int_0^{\infty} t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt \quad (x > 0)$$

and

$$\Gamma(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n! n^x}{x(x+1)\dots(x+n)}$$

A related special function is the **beta function**:

$$B(m, n) = \int_0^1 t^{m-1} (1-t)^{n-1} dt = 2 \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{2m-1} \theta \cos^{2n-1} \theta d\theta = \frac{\Gamma(m)\Gamma(n)}{\Gamma(m+n)}$$


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Among the many results involving the gamma function are:

For the closed region  $V$  in the first octant, bounded by the coordinate planes and the

surface  $\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)^\alpha + \left(\frac{y}{b}\right)^\beta + \left(\frac{z}{c}\right)^\gamma = 1$ , with all constants positive,

$$I = \iiint_V x^{p-1} y^{q-1} z^{r-1} dx dy dz = \frac{a^p b^q c^r}{\alpha \beta \gamma} \cdot \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{p}{\alpha}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{q}{\beta}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{r}{\gamma}\right)}{\Gamma\left(1 + \frac{p}{\alpha} + \frac{q}{\beta} + \frac{r}{\gamma}\right)}$$

For the closed area  $A$  in the first quadrant, bounded by the coordinate axes and the curve

$\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)^\alpha + \left(\frac{y}{b}\right)^\beta = 1$ , with all constants positive,

$$I = \iint_A x^{p-1} y^{q-1} dx dy = \frac{a^p b^q}{\alpha \beta} \cdot \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{p}{\alpha}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{q}{\beta}\right)}{\Gamma\left(1 + \frac{p}{\alpha} + \frac{q}{\beta}\right)}$$


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### Example 1.11.1

Establish the formula for the area enclosed by an ellipse.

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The Cartesian equation of a standard ellipse is  $\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{y}{b}\right)^2 = 1$ .

Set  $\alpha = \beta = 2$  and  $p = q = 1$ , then

$$A = 4I = 4 \iint_A 1 dx dy = 4 \frac{a^1 b^1}{2 \times 2} \cdot \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)}{\Gamma\left(1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\right)} = ab \cdot \frac{\left(\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right)^2}{\Gamma(2)} = ab \frac{(\sqrt{\pi})^2}{1!} = \pi ab$$


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## 1.12 Bessel and Legendre ODEs

### Frobenius Series Solution of an ODE

If the ODE

$$P(x)y'' + Q(x)y' + R(x)y = F(x)$$

is such that  $P(x_0) = 0$ , but  $(x-x_0)\frac{Q(x)}{P(x)}$ ,  $(x-x_0)^2\frac{R(x)}{P(x)}$  and  $\frac{F(x)}{P(x)}$  are all analytic at  $x_0$ , then  $x = x_0$  is a **regular singular point** of the ODE.

A Frobenius series solution of the ODE about  $x = x_0$  exists:

$$y(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-x_0)^{n+r}$$

for some real number(s)  $r$  and for some set of values  $\{c_n\}$ .

#### Example 1.12.1

Find a solution of Bessel's ordinary differential equation of order  $\nu$ , ( $\nu \geq 0$ ),

$$x^2 y'' + x y' + (x^2 - \nu^2) y = 0$$

$P(0) = 0 \Rightarrow x_0 = 0$  is a singular point.

$$(x-x_0)\frac{Q(x)}{P(x)} = x\frac{x}{x^2} = 1, \quad (x-x_0)^2\frac{R(x)}{P(x)} = x^2\frac{(x^2-\nu^2)}{x^2} = x^2 - \nu^2$$

$$\text{and } \frac{F(x)}{P(x)} = 0$$

Therefore  $x_0 = 0$  is a regular singular point of Bessel's equation.

Substitute the Frobenius series  $y(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^{n+r}$  into the ODE:

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n+r)(n+r-1)c_n x^{n+r-2+2} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n+r)c_n x^{n+r-1+1} \\ & + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^{n+r+2} - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \nu^2 c_n x^{n+r} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Example 1.12.1 (continued)

Adjust the index on the third summation so that the exponents of  $x$  match:

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n \left[ (n+r)(n+r-1+1) - v^2 \right] x^{n+r} + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} c_{n-2} x^{n+r} = 0$$

The summations can be combined for  $n = 2$  onwards:

$$(r^2 - v^2) c_0 x^r + \left[ (r+1)^2 - v^2 \right] c_1 x^{r+1} + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \left[ \left( (n+r)^2 - v^2 \right) c_n + c_{n-2} \right] x^{n+r} = 0$$

Setting the coefficient of  $x^r$  (the lowest exponent present) to zero generates the **indicial equation**  $r^2 - v^2 = 0 \Rightarrow r = \pm v$ .

Examining the positive root, the series now becomes

$$0 + \left[ (v+1)^2 - v^2 \right] c_1 x^{r+1} + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \left[ \left( (n+v)^2 - v^2 \right) c_n + c_{n-2} \right] x^{n+r} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (2v+1) c_1 x^{r+1} + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \left[ (2nv + n^2) c_n + c_{n-2} \right] x^{n+r} = 0$$

$$\text{But } v \geq 0 \Rightarrow 2v+1 \neq 0 \Rightarrow c_1 = 0$$

$$\text{For } n \geq 2, \quad c_n = \frac{-c_{n-2}}{n(n+2v)}$$

It then follows that this series must be even:  $0 = c_1 = c_3 = c_5 = \dots$  or  $c_{2k-1} = 0 \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{N}$

For the even order terms, replace the index  $n$  by the even index  $2k$  (where  $k$  is any natural number) and pursue the recurrence relation down to  $c_0$ :

$$\begin{aligned} c_{2k} &= \frac{-c_{2k-2}}{2k(2k+2v)} = \frac{(-1)}{2^2 k(k+v)} c_{2(k-1)} = \frac{(-1)}{2^2 k(k+v)} \cdot \frac{(-1)}{2^2 (k-1)(k-1+v)} c_{2(k-2)} \\ &= \frac{(-1)}{2^2 k(k+v)} \cdot \frac{(-1)}{2^2 (k-1)(k-1+v)} \cdot \frac{(-1)}{2^2 (k-2)(k-2+v)} c_{2(k-3)} = \dots \\ &= \frac{(-1)^k}{2^{2k} k(k-1)(k-2) \dots (k-[k-1]) \cdot (k+v)(k-1+v)(k-2+v) \dots (k-[k-1]+v)} c_{2(k-k)} \\ &\Rightarrow c_{2k} = \frac{(-1)^k}{2^{2k} k!(v+k)(v+k-1) \dots (v+1)} c_0 \\ &\Rightarrow c_{2k} = \frac{(-1)^k}{2^{2k} k!(v+k)(v+k-1) \dots (v+1)} \cdot \frac{\Gamma(v+1)}{\Gamma(v+1)} c_0 \\ &\Rightarrow c_{2k} = \frac{(-1)^k}{2^{2k} k! \Gamma(v+k+1)} \cdot \Gamma(v+1) c_0 \quad \left( = \frac{(-1)^k}{2^{2k} k!(v+k)!} \cdot v! c_0 \text{ if } v=0,1,2,\dots \right) \end{aligned}$$

Example 1.12.1 (continued)

One Frobenius solution of Bessel's equation of order  $\nu$  is therefore

$$y(x) = c_0 \Gamma(\nu+1) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{2^{2k} k! \Gamma(\nu+k+1)} x^{2k+\nu} = c_0 \Gamma(\nu+1) J_{\nu}(x)$$

where  $J_{\nu}(x)$  is the **Bessel function of the first kind of order  $\nu$** .

It turns out that the Frobenius series found by setting  $r = -\nu$  generates a second linearly independent solution  $J_{-\nu}(x)$  of the Bessel equation only if  $\nu$  is not an integer.

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The Bessel ODE in standard form,

$$x^2 y'' + x y' + (x^2 - \nu^2) y = 0$$

has the general solution

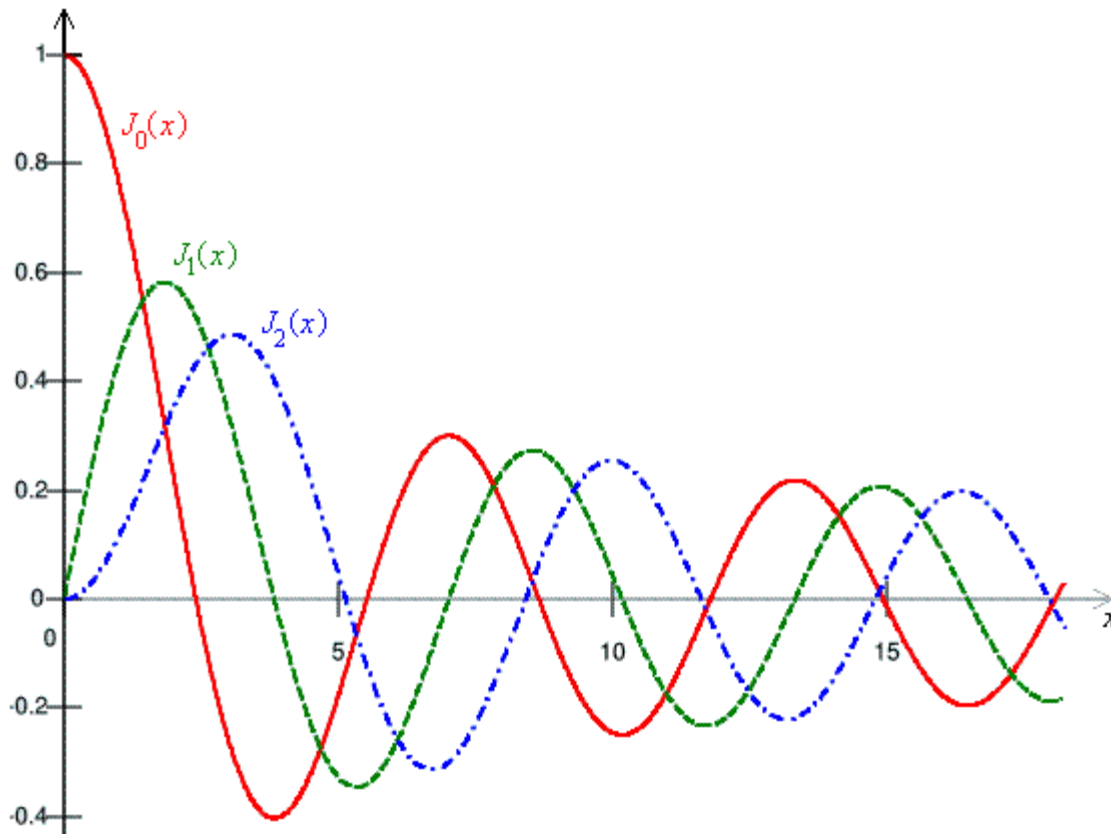
$$y(x) = A J_\nu(x) + B Y_\nu(x)$$

unless  $\nu$  is not an integer, in which case  $Y_\nu(x)$  can be replaced by  $J_{-\nu}(x)$ .

$Y_\nu(x)$  is the Bessel function of the second kind.

When  $\nu$  is an integer,  $J_{-\nu}(x) = (-1)^\nu J_\nu(x)$ .

Graphs of Bessel functions of the first kind, for  $\nu = 0, 1, 2$ :



The series expression for the Bessel function of the first kind is

$$J_\nu(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{k! \Gamma(k + \nu + 1)} \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^{2k + \nu}$$

This function has a simpler form when  $\nu$  is an odd half-integer. For example,

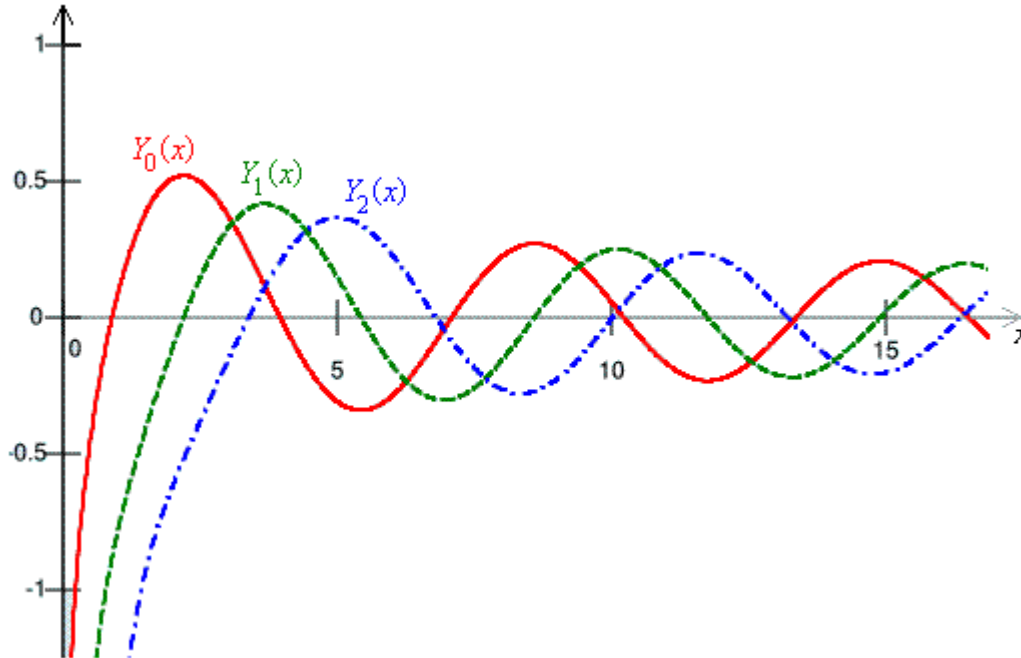
$$J_{1/2}(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi x}} \sin x, \quad J_{-1/2}(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi x}} \cos x$$

The Bessel function of the second kind is

$$Y_\nu(x) = \frac{J_\nu(x)\cos(\nu\pi) - J_{-\nu}(x)}{\sin(\nu\pi)}$$

$Y_\nu(x)$  is unbounded as  $x \rightarrow 0$ :  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} Y_\nu(x) = -\infty$

Bessel functions of the second kind (all of which have a singularity at  $x = 0$ ):



Bessel functions arise frequently in situations where cylindrical or spherical polar coordinates are used.

A generalised Bessel ODE is

$$x^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + (1-2a)x \frac{dy}{dx} + (b^2 c^2 x^{2c} + (a^2 - c^2 \nu^2))y = 0$$

whose general solution is

$$y(x) = x^a (A J_\nu(bx^c) + B Y_\nu(bx^c))$$

For a generalised Bessel ODE with  $a \geq 0$ , whenever the solution must remain bounded as  $x \rightarrow 0$ , the general solution simplifies to  $y(x) = A x^a J_\nu(bx^c)$ .

Example 1.12.2

Find a Maclaurin series solution to Legendre's ODE

$$(1-x^2)\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 2x\frac{dy}{dx} + p(p+1)y = 0$$

in the case when  $p$  is a non-negative integer.

$P(x) = 1 - x^2 \Rightarrow P(0) = 1 \neq 0 \Rightarrow x = 0$  is a regular point of the ODE.

Let the general solution be  $y(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$ .

Then  $y'(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n a_n x^{n-1}$  and  $y''(x) = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n(n-1) a_n x^{n-2}$ .

Substitute into the ODE:

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n(n-1) a_n (x^{n-2} - x^n) - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 2n a_n x^n + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p(p+1) a_n x^n = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n(n-1) a_n x^{n-2} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-n(n-1) - 2n + p(p+1)) a_n x^n = 0$$

But the first two terms ( $n = 0$  and  $n = 1$ ) of the first series are both zero.

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n(n-1) a_n x^{n-2} = 0 + 0 + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n(n-1) a_n x^{n-2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n+2)(n+1) a_{n+2} x^n$$

after a shift in indices. Returning to the full ODE,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n+2)(n+1) a_{n+2} x^n + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-n^2 + n - 2n + p^2 + p) a_n x^n = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( (n+2)(n+1) a_{n+2} + \left( -(n^2 - p^2) - (n-p) \right) a_n \right) x^n = 0$$

Matching coefficients of  $x^n$ , ( $n \geq 0$ ):

$$(n+2)(n+1) a_{n+2} = (n^2 - p^2 + n - p) a_n \Rightarrow a_{n+2} = \frac{(n-p)(n+p+1)}{(n+2)(n+1)} a_n$$

Shifting indices,  $a_n = \frac{(n+p-1)(n-p-2)}{n(n-1)} a_{n-2}$  ( $n \geq 2$ ), with  $a_0$  and  $a_1$  arbitrary.

$$\text{Rearranging slightly, } a_n = \frac{-(p-(n-2))(p+(n-1))}{n(n-1)} a_{n-2} \quad (n \geq 2)$$



Example 1.12.2 (continued)

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow a_2 &= \frac{-p(p+1)}{2 \times 1} a_0, & a_3 &= \frac{-(p-1)(p+2)}{3 \times 2} a_1, \\ a_4 &= \frac{-(p-2)(p+3)}{4 \times 3} a_2 = \frac{+p(p+1)(p-2)(p+3)}{4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1} a_0, \\ a_5 &= \frac{-(p-3)(p+4)}{5 \times 4} a_3 = \frac{+(p-1)(p+2)(p-3)(p+4)}{5 \times 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1} a_1, \\ a_6 &= \frac{-(p-4)(p+5)}{6 \times 5} a_4 = \frac{-p(p+1)(p-2)(p+3)(p-4)(p+5)}{6 \times 5 \times 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1} a_0, \text{ etc.} \end{aligned}$$

It then follows that the general solution to Legendre's ODE is

$$\begin{aligned} y_p(x) &= a_0 \left( 1 - \frac{p(p+1)}{2!} x^2 + \frac{p(p+1)(p-2)(p+3)}{4!} x^4 \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \frac{p(p+1)(p-2)(p+3)(p-4)(p+5)}{6!} x^6 + \dots \right) \\ &+ a_1 \left( x - \frac{(p-1)(p+2)}{3!} x^3 + \frac{(p-1)(p+2)(p-3)(p+4)}{5!} x^5 \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \frac{(p-1)(p+2)(p-3)(p+4)(p-5)(p+6)}{7!} x^7 + \dots \right) \end{aligned}$$

where  $a_0$  and  $a_1$  are arbitrary constants. This series converges on  $[-1, 1]$ .

These solutions  $y(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  are Legendre functions of order  $p$ .

If  $p$  is a non-negative integer then

$$\begin{aligned} a_{p+2} &= \frac{(p-p)(p+p+1)}{(p+2)(p+1)} a_p = 0 \Rightarrow a_{p+4} = 0 \Rightarrow \dots \\ \Rightarrow a_{p+2k} &= 0 \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{N} \end{aligned}$$

If we set  $a_1 = 0$  when  $p$  is even, then the series solution terminates as a  $p^{\text{th}}$  order polynomial (and therefore converges for all  $x$ ).

If we set  $a_0 = 0$  when  $p$  is odd, then the series solution terminates as a  $p^{\text{th}}$  order polynomial (and therefore converges for all  $x$ ).

With suitable choices of  $a_0$  and  $a_1$ , so that  $P_n(1) = 1$ ,

we have the set of **Legendre polynomials**:

$$\begin{aligned} P_0(x) &= 1, & P_1(x) &= x, & P_2(x) &= \frac{1}{2}(3x^2 - 1), \\ P_3(x) &= \frac{1}{2}(5x^3 - 3x), & P_4(x) &= \frac{1}{8}(35x^4 - 30x^2 + 3), & P_5(x) &= \frac{1}{8}(63x^5 - 70x^3 + 15x), \\ P_6(x) &= \frac{1}{16}(231x^6 - 315x^4 + 105x^2 - 5), \text{ etc.} \end{aligned}$$

Each  $P_n(x)$  is a solution of Legendre's ODE with  $p = n$ .

Rodrigues' formula generates all of the Legendre polynomials:

$$P_n(x) = \frac{1}{2^n n!} \frac{d^n}{dx^n} \left( (x^2 - 1)^n \right)$$

Among the properties of Legendre polynomials is their orthogonality on  $[-1, 1]$ :

$$\int_{-1}^{+1} P_m(x) P_n(x) dx = \begin{cases} 0 & (m \neq n) \\ \frac{2}{2n+1} & (m = n) \end{cases}$$


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[Space for any additional notes]