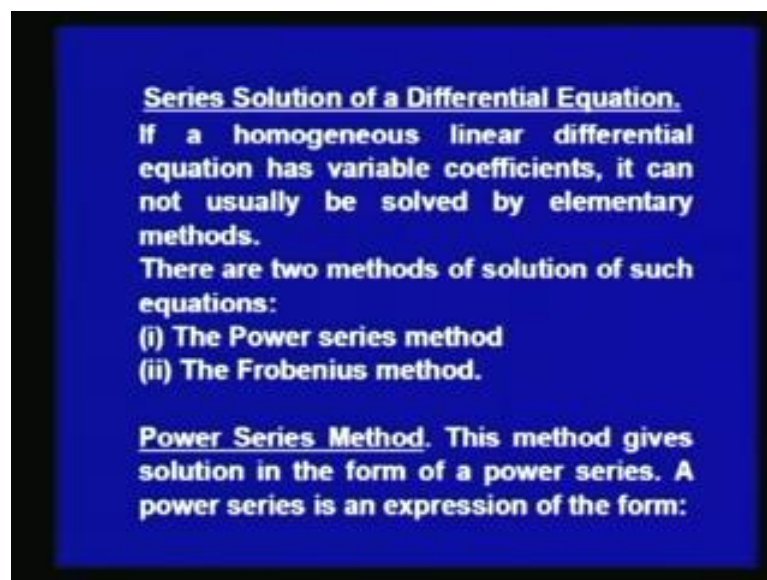


Mathematics III
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Lecture - 4
Series Solution of Homogeneous Linear Differential Equations

Dear viewers, the title of my turn today is Series Solution of Homogeneous Linear Differential Equations. We know that a homogeneous linear differential equation can be solved by elementary methods and its solutions are known functions from calculus like e^x to the power x , $\sin x$, $\cos x$, etcetera. However if such an equation has variable coefficients, then it cannot easily be solved by elementary methods.

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The Legendre's equation, hyper geometric equation and Bessel's equation are very important types of such homogeneous linear differential equations. Since, their quite useful in applied mathematics, we shall discuss the solution of Legendre's equation and Bessel's equation. First we take up the case of Legendre's equation there are two methods of finding solutions of such equations. The first is the power series method and the second one is the extension of the power series method that is the Frobenius method

Let us, first discuss the power series method this method gives the solution of the differential equation in the form of a power series. A power series can be used for computing the values of the solution for exploring its properties and for deriving other

kinds of differentiation of the solution, a power series is an expression of the form $\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} a_m (x - x_0)^m$.

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(1)
$$\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} a_m (x - x_0)^m = a_0 + a_1(x - x_0) + a_2(x - x_0)^2 + \dots$$

where a_0, a_1, \dots are real constants, known as the coefficients of the series, x_0 is a real constant, called the center of the series, and x is a real variable. Some familiar examples are:

$\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} a_m (x - x_0)^m$, which may be expanded as $a_0 + a_1(x - x_0) + a_2(x - x_0)^2 + \dots$. Where a_0, a_1, \dots are real constants known as the coefficients of the series x_0 is a real constant and called the center of the series x is a real variable.

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$$e^x = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^m}{m!} = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots$$

$$\sin x = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^m x^{2m+1}}{(2m+1)!} = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \dots$$

$$\cos x = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^m x^{2m}}{2m!} = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \dots$$

Some familiar examples are e^x , which is $\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^m}{m!}$, we may write it as $1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots$ and so on. Another example is $\sin x$, which is $\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^m x^{2m+1}}{(2m+1)!}$, which when expanded gives us the series $x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \dots$ and so on.

And then we can take the $\cos x$ function which is $\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^m x^{2m}}{(2m)!}$ or we may write it as $1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \dots$ and so on. The n th partial sum of the power series given by equation 1 is defined as $s_n(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n$.

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The n th partial sum of the series (1) is defined as

$$s_n(x) = a_0 + a_1(x - x_0) + \dots + a_n(x - x_0)^n$$

The remainder of (1) after $(n+1)$ th term is defined as

$$R_n(x) = \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} a_{n+r}(x - x_0)^{n+r}$$

The series (1) is called convergent / divergent at x_1 , if the sequence $\langle s_n(x) \rangle$ of partial sums is convergent / divergent at this point x_1 .

The remainder of the power series given by equation 1 after $n + 1$ th term is defined as $R_n(x)$, which is equal to $\sum_{r=1}^{\infty} a_{n+r}(x - x_0)^{n+r}$. That is the first term will be $a_{n+1}(x - x_0)^{n+1}$ then we will have $a_{n+2}(x - x_0)^{n+2}$ and so on. These power series given by equation 1 is said to be convergent or divergent at the point $x = x_1$. If the sequence of partial sums $s_n(x)$ is convergent or divergent at the point $x = x_1$, if the sequence of partial sums $s_n(x)$ is convergent or divergent at the point $x = x_1$.

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From the definitions of $s_n(x)$ and $R_n(x)$, it is clear that for every n ,

$$s(x) = s_n(x) + R_n(x).$$

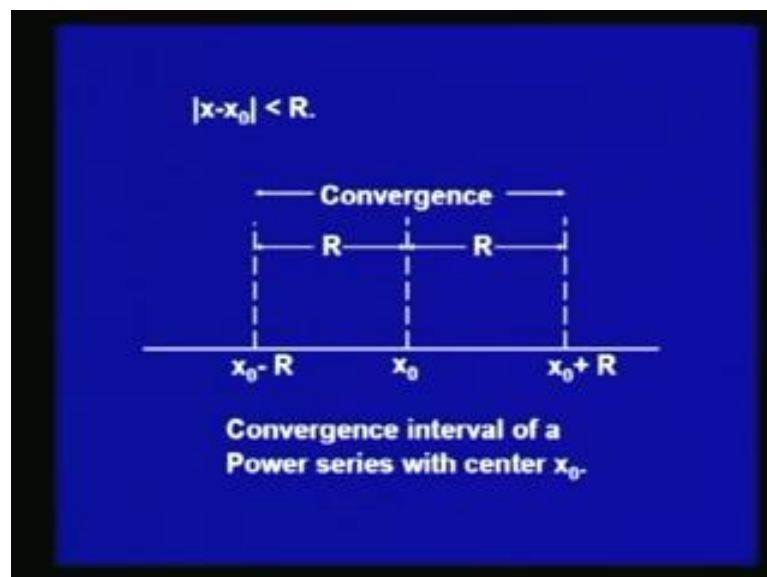
If the series is convergent at x_1 , for any $\epsilon > 0$ there is an $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$|R_n(x_1)| < \epsilon \quad \text{For all } n > n_0.$$

If the set of points where the series converges is a finite interval, then its midpoint is x_0 . Let this interval be

From the definitions of $S_n(x)$ and $R_n(x)$, it is clear that for every n , $s(x)$ is equal to $S_n(x)$ plus $R_n(x)$. If the series is convergent at x_1 , then you can say that for any Epsilon greater than 0 there exist an integer and not belonging to n such that modulus of $R_n(x_1)$ is less than Epsilon for all n greater than n_{naught} . If the set of points, where the series converges is a finite interval, then its midpoint is x_{naught} .

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Let this interval be $|x - x_0| < R$, in this picture we have shown this convergence interval of a power series with center at the x_0 . The interval is x

naught minus R to x naught plus R, where the series converges in midpoint of the interval is at x not.

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The number R is called the radius of convergence of the series (1). The series (1) does not converge outside this interval. R can be obtained from either of the formulas

$$(2) \quad R = \frac{1}{\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{m+1}}{a_m} \right|} \quad \text{or} \quad R = \frac{1}{\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[m]{|a_m|}}$$

provided these limits exist and are not zero.

The number R is called the radius of convergence of the power series given by equation 1. The power series does not converge outside this interval; it may or may not converge for mod of x minus x naught equal to R. The value of R can be obtained from one of these two formulas, that is R equal to 1 over limit m tends to infinity, mod of m plus 1 over m or R equal to 1 over limit m tends to infinity mth root of mod of m provided the limits exist and are not 0. If these limits are 0 then the series converges only at the center, sometimes the series convergence for all values of x that is the value of r comes out to be infinity. So, in such cases the series will converge for all values of x, some times the value of R is finite, then the series will converge in the interval mod of x minus x naught less than R.

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If the limits are infinite, then (1) converges only at the center x_0 .

The convergence interval may sometimes be infinite. In this case the series converges for all values of x .

For each x for which (1) converges, it has a certain value $s(x)$. We say that (1) represents the function $s(x)$ and write

$$s(x) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} a_m (x - x_0)^m$$

So, when the limits will be infinite will have the convergence only at the center, when the limits will be infinite, we will have the series converging for all values of x . And when, the value of r lies between 0 and infinity, we will have the series convergence for mod of x minus x_0 less than R that is in an interval. Now, for each value of x for which the series converges, it has a certain value as $s(x)$ and so we can say that the series (1) represents a function $s(x)$. We may therefore, write $s(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{m=0}^n a_m (x - x_0)^m$.

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EXAMPLE 1. Convergence only at center.

For the series

$$\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} m! x^m = 1 + x + 2x^2 + 6x^3 + \dots$$
$$\frac{a_{m+1}}{a_m} = \frac{(m+1)!}{m!} = m+1 \rightarrow \infty \text{ as } m \rightarrow \infty.$$

Thus, this series converges only at the center $x=0$. Such series are not of much practical use.

Let us study some examples first we take an example of the series which converges only at the center. Let us, take the example of the series $\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^m}{m!}$, we can write it as $1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{6} + \dots$ and so on. Let us find the value of $\frac{m+1}{m}$; it is equal to $1 + \frac{1}{m}$, which we can see goes to infinity as m goes to infinity. And therefore, the series converges only at the center, that is $x = 0$, such series are not of much practical interest. Next, we take an example of the series, which converges in a finite interval, let us take the case of a geometric series.

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EXAMPLE 2. Convergence in a finite interval. Geometric Series.
For the geometric series

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} x^m = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots \quad (|x| < 1).$$

$a_m = 1$ for all m . Therefore, from (2) i.e.

$$R = \frac{1}{\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{m+1}}{a_m} \right|} \quad \text{or} \quad R = \frac{1}{\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[m]{|a_m|}}$$

we obtain $R = 1$. Thus the series converges and represents $1/(1-x)$ for $|x| < 1$.

For the geometric series $1/(1-x)$, which can be expressed as $1 + x + x^2 + \dots$ and so on, it turns out that the region of convergence that is interval of convergence is given by $|x| < 1$, that is open interval -1 to 1 . Because, here a_m is equal to 1 for all values of m and therefore, if we apply the formula $R = 1 / \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} |a_{m+1}/a_m|$ or $R = 1 / \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[m]{|a_m|}$. You find that, R is equal to 1 and therefore, the series converges for all values of x in the interval -1 to 1 and represents the function $1/(1-x)$.

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EXAMPLE 3. Infinite radius of convergence.
Consider the exponential series

$$e^x = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^m}{m!} = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots$$

Here

$$\frac{a_{m+1}}{a_m} = \frac{1/(m+1)!}{1/m!} = \frac{1}{m+1} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } m \rightarrow \infty,$$

Therefore, the series converges for all x .

Next, we take an example of the series, which has an infinity radius of convergence that is it converges for all values of x . Let us, take the example of the function e to the power x , which can be written as 1 plus x plus x square by 2 factorial and so on, if you find here m plus 1 over m it turns out to be 1 over m plus 1 which we see goes to 0 as m goes to infinity. And therefore, r is equal to infinity in this case and so the series converges for all values of x .

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Some Properties of Power Series.

(a) A power series may be differentiated term by term. If the series (1) converges for $|x-x_0| < R$, where $R > 0$, then the series obtained by differentiating term by term also converges for those x i.e. for $|x-x_0| < R$.

Therefore, the series (1) gives the following series after differentiation

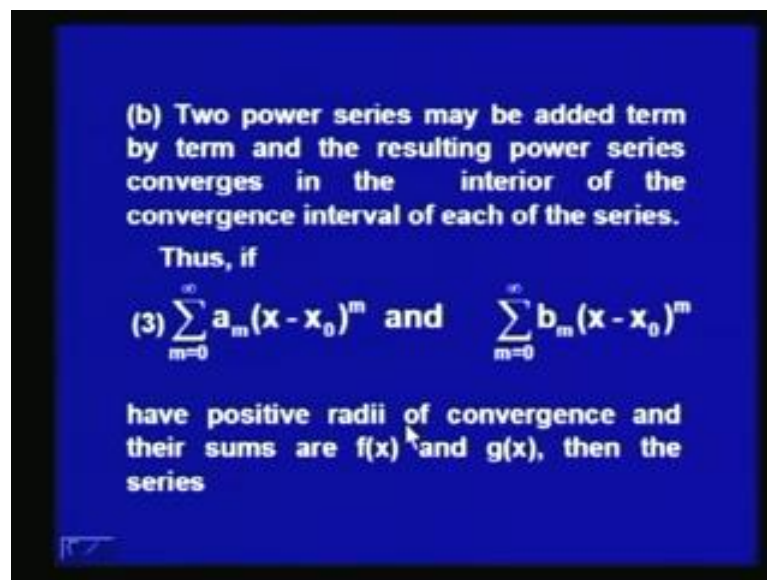
$$y'(x) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} m a_m (x - x_0)^{m-1}$$

for $|x-x_0| < R$.

Now, let us study some properties of the power series, a power series may be differentiated term by term, that is if the series $\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} a_m (x - x_0)^m$ converges for $|x - x_0| < R$, where R is greater than 0. Then, the series obtained by differentiating term by term, also converges for those values of x that is for $|x - x_0| < R$.

And, you can see that when you differentiate the series given by 1, you get the series $\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} m a_m (x - x_0)^{m-1}$, which is $y' = x$. And the series converges for $|x - x_0| < R$, the region of convergence of the original power series.

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Next, we study when we get two power series, so two power series may be added term by term and the relative power series converges in the interior of the convergence interval of each of the series. Thus, if $\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} a_m (x - x_0)^m$ and $\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} b_m (x - x_0)^m$ have positive radii of convergence and their sums are $f(x)$ and $g(x)$.

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$$\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} (a_m + b_m)(x - x_0)^m$$

converges and represents $f(x)+g(x)$ for each x that lies in the interior of the convergence intervals of each of the given series.

(c) Two power series may be multiplied term by term. The interval of convergence is the same domain as in the addition of the series.

Then, the series $\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} (a_m + b_m)(x - x_0)^m$ converges and represents $f(x) + g(x)$, for each x that lies in the interior of the convergence intervals of each of the given series. The third property is the two power series may be multiplied term by term; the interval of convergence is the same domain as in the case of the addition of the series, that is the interval of convergence is the interior of the convergence intervals of each of the given series.

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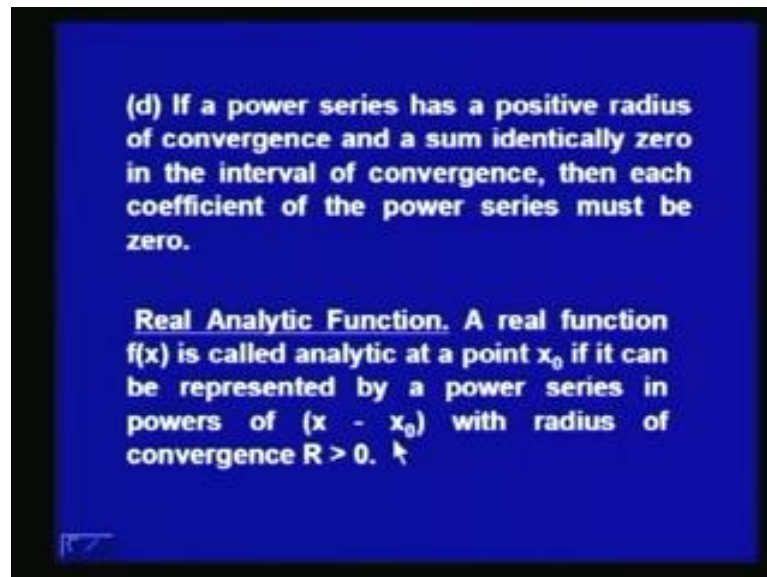
The series obtained by multiplying the two series in (3) is obtained by multiplying each term of one series by each term of another series. Thus we get the product as

$$\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} (a_0 b_m + a_1 b_{m-1} + \dots + a_m b_0)(x - x_0)^m$$

which converges and represents $f(x)g(x)$.

The series obtained by multiplying the two series in 3 is obtained by multiplying each term of one series by each term of the other series. And thus, we get the product as $\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} a_m b_m + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} (a_{m-1} b_m + a_m b_{m+1}) x + \sum_{m=2}^{\infty} (a_{m-2} b_m + a_{m-1} b_{m+1} + a_m b_{m+2}) x^2 + \dots$, which converges and represents $f(x)g(x)$.

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Now, lastly we discuss, if a power series has a positive radius of convergence and sum identically 0, in the interval of convergence, then each coefficient of the power series must be 0. Now, define a real analytic function a real function $f(x)$ is called analytic at a point $x = x_0$, if it can be represented by a power series in the powers of $x - x_0$ with radius of convergence $R > 0$. So, that is to say that we will call a real valued function $f(x)$ to be an analytic function at a point $x = x_0$ if it can be represented by a power series in the powers of $x - x_0$ with the positive radius of convergence. We next discuss, when can be finding a power series solution of a homogeneous linear of a homo linear differential equation.

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Existence of Power Series Solution.
Let us consider the differential equation
(4) $y'' + p(x)y' + q(x)y = r(x)$.

If p , q and r are analytic at $x = x_0$, then every solution of (4) is analytic at x_0 and can be represented by a power series in powers of $(x - x_0)$ with radius of convergence $R > 0$.

Let us, consider the differential equation $y'' + p(x)y' + q(x)y = r(x)$. If p , q and r are analytic at $x = x_0$, then every solution of the differential equation (4) is also analytic at $x = x_0$ and can be represented by a power series in the powers of $x - x_0$ with a positive radius of convergence.

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Method of Construction of Power Series.
Consider the differential equation:

(5) $y'' + p(x)y' + q(x)y = 0$

We represent $p(x)$ and $q(x)$ by power series in powers of x or $(x - a)$ if the solution in powers of $(x - a)$ is wanted. Next, we assume a solution of the form:

Let us, consider the differential equation $y'' + p(x)y' + q(x)y = 0$. So, here in this differential equation, we are taking $r(x)$ equal to 0, because

the Legendre's equation and the Bessel's equation, that we shall be studying later on or homogeneous linear differential equations. So, their equations of this type the functions $p(x)$ and $q(x)$ are represented in the powers of x or $x - a$, if the solution in the powers of $x - a$ is wanted.

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(6) $y = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} a_m x^m = a_0 + a_1 x^1 + a_2 x^2 + \dots$

If term by term differentiation is valid, we get

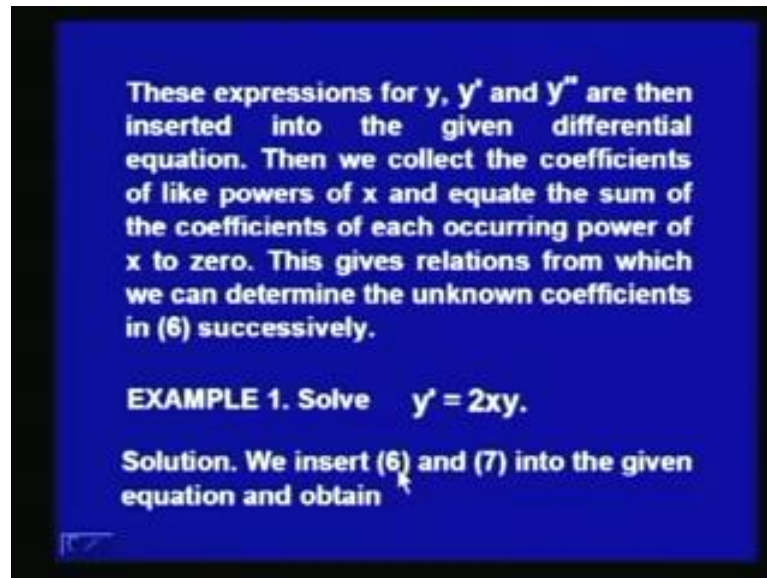
(7) $y' = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} m a_m x^{m-1} = a_1 + 2a_2 x + 3a_3 x^2 + \dots$

and

(8) $y'' = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} m(m-1) a_m x^{m-2} = 2a_2 + 3 \cdot 2 a_3 x + \dots$

Now, let us assume a solution of this differential equation of the form y equal to $\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} a_m x^m$, that is a constant plus $a_1 x$ plus $a_2 x^2$ and so on. If, we assume that this series can be differentiated term by term, then we get y' equal to $\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} m a_m x^{m-1}$, that is $a_1 + 2 a_2 x + 3 a_3 x^2$ and so on. And, the second derivative y'' is equal to $\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} m(m-1) a_m x^{m-2}$, which is $2 a_2 + 3 \cdot 2 a_3 x$ and so on.

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These expressions for y , y' and y'' are then inserted into the given differential equation. Then we collect the coefficients of like powers of x and equate the sum of the coefficients of each occurring power of x to zero. This gives relations from which we can determine the unknown coefficients in (6) successively.

EXAMPLE 1. Solve $y' = 2xy$.

Solution. We insert (6) and (7) into the given equation and obtain

Now, when we put these values of y , y' and y'' , these expressions for y , y' and y'' are then inserted in the given differential equation. We then collect the coefficients of like powers of x and equate the sum of the coefficients of each occurring power of x to 0. This will give us relations from which we can determine the unknown coefficients, which occur in the equation 6 successively. Say, let us take an example say $y' = 2xy$, so in this equation we will need the value of y and y' is equal to $\sum_m x^m$ given by equation 6 and y' is given by equation 7. So, we insert the value of y and y' given by equation 6 and 7 into the given equation.

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$$a_1 + 2a_2x + 3a_3x^2 + \dots$$
$$= 2x(a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots)$$

From this we see that

$$a_1 = 0, \quad 2a_2 = 2a_0, \quad 3a_3 = 2a_1, \quad 4a_4 = 2a_2, \dots$$

Hence, we get

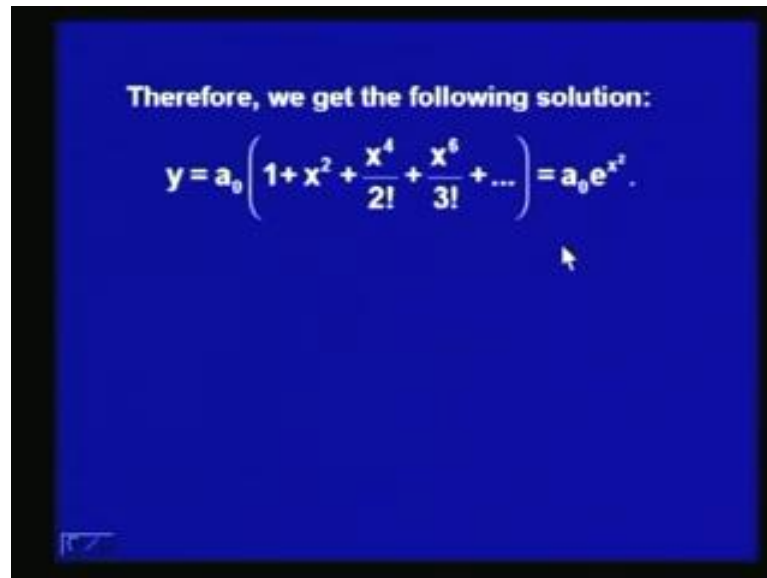
$$a_2 = a_0, \quad a_4 = \frac{a_0}{2!}, \quad a_6 = \frac{a_0}{3!}, \dots$$

and $a_1 = a_3 = \dots = a_k = 0$.

And, obtain a 1 plus 2 a 2 x plus 3 a 3 x square plus and so on equal to 2 x into a naught plus a 1 x plus a 2 x square and so on. We can then compare the coefficients of like powers of x on the two sides and see that a the must be on the lower cap a 1 plus 2 a 2 x plus 3 a 3 x square plus and so on equal to 2 x into a naught plus a 1 x plus a 2 x square and so on.

And, from this equation when we compare the coefficients of the like powers of x, we see that a 1 tells out to be 0, 2 a 2 is equal to 2 a naught, 3 a 3 is equal to 2 a 1 and then 4 a 4 is equal to 2 a 2 and so on. And thus, we get the values of a 2, a 4, a 6 as a naught a naught by 2 factorial a naught by 3 factorial and so on, while a 1 a 3 a 5 and so on, they are all 0s.

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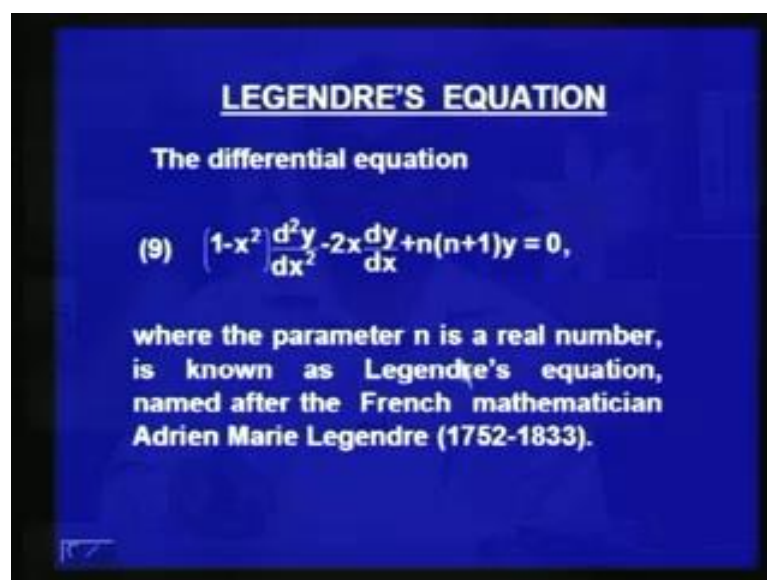


Therefore, we get the following solution:

$$y = a_0 \left(1 + x^2 + \frac{x^4}{2!} + \frac{x^6}{3!} + \dots \right) = a_0 e^{x^2}.$$

Thus, we get the solution of the differential equation as y equal to a naught into 1 plus x square plus x to the power 4 over 2 factorial plus x to the power 6 over 3 factorial and so on. And we can see that the series inside the brackets is the expression of differentiation e to the power x square and so we can write the right hand side as a naught into e to the power x square.

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LEGENDRE'S EQUATION

The differential equation

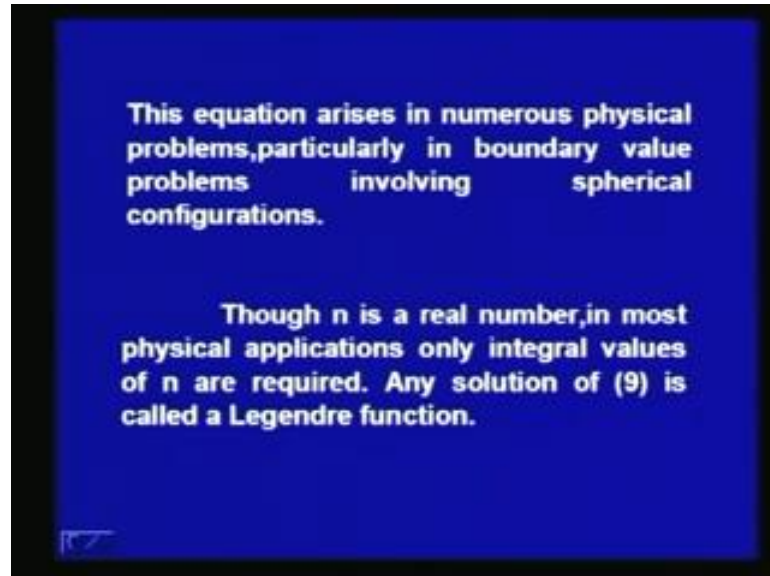
(9) $(1-x^2) \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 2x \frac{dy}{dx} + n(n+1)y = 0,$

where the parameter n is a real number, is known as Legendre's equation, named after the French mathematician Adrien Marie Legendre (1752-1833).

Now, next we study the Legendre's equation the differential equation 1 minus x square into d square y over $d x$ square minus $2 x d y$ by $d x$ plus n into n plus $1 y$ equal to 0 ,

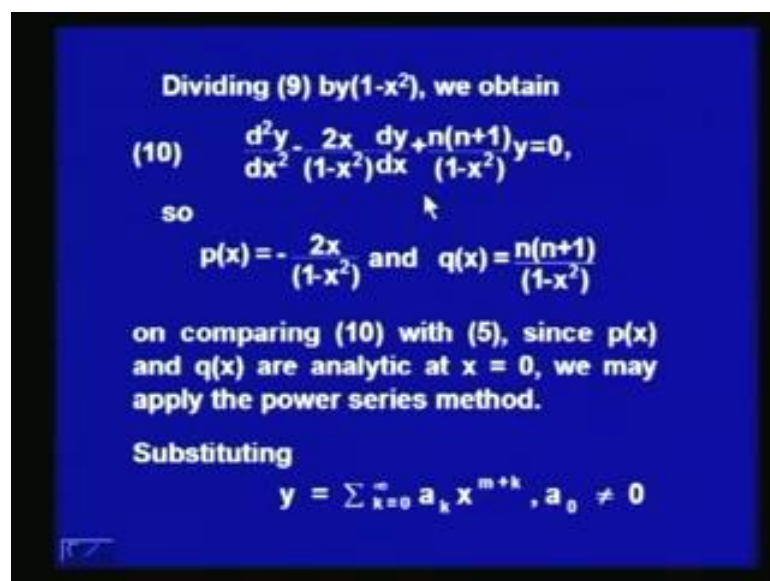
where the parameter n is a real number is known as Legendre's equation. It is named after the French mathematician Adrian Marie Legendre from 1752 to 1833.

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This equation arises in numerous physical problems, particularly in boundary value problems involving a spherical configurations, here though n is a real number in most physical applications. Only integral values of n are required, any solution of the Legendre's equation is called as a Legendre function.

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If we divide the Legendre's equation, that is equation number 9 by $1 - x^2$, we will obtain $\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + \frac{2x}{1-x^2} \frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{n(n+1)}{1-x^2} y = 0$. So, here start it tells out that $p(x)$ is equal to $\frac{2x}{1-x^2}$ and $q(x)$ is equal to $\frac{n(n+1)}{1-x^2}$, when we compare the equation number 10 with the equation number 5.

Now, let us note that the functions $p(x)$ and $q(x)$ are analytic at the point $x = 0$, because they are rational functions of x and the denominator in the functions $p(x)$ and $q(x)$ is not equal to 0 at $x = 0$. When, we say that $x = \pm 1$, so they are analytic at $x = 0$ and therefore, we can apply the power series method. Let us put $y = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k x^{m+k}$, where we assume that $a_0 \neq 0$ in the equation number 9 and the values of the derivatives of y .

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and its derivatives into (9), we have

$$(1-x^2) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (m+k)(m+k-1)a_k x^{m+k-2} - 2x \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (m+k)a_k x^{m+k-1} + n(n+1) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k x^{m+k} = 0$$

Equating to zero, the coefficient of x^{m-2} we get the indicial equation $m(m-1)a_0 = 0$ which yields $m = 0$ or 1 .

Next, equating to zero, the coefficient of x^{m-1} , we obtain

$$(11) \quad (m+1)ma_1 = 0$$

In the equation number 9, we will have $(1-x^2) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (m+k)(m+k-1)a_k x^{m+k-2} - 2x \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (m+k)a_k x^{m+k-1} + n(n+1) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k x^{m+k} = 0$. When, we equate the coefficient of x^{m-2} that is the lowest power of x , which occurs in this equation.

We will get the equation m into m minus 1 a not equal to 0, this equation is known as the indicial equation, this equation tells us that the values of m are 0 and 1. Since, we have assumed that a_0 is not equal to 0, when we equate to 0 the coefficient of next higher power of x , that is x to the power m minus 1. We can see that the coefficient of x to the power m minus 1 will be available only in the first term, when we take k equal to 1.

The indicial equation we had obtained from the first term also itself that by taking k equal to 0, when we take k equal to 1 in the first term, we get the coefficient of x to the power m minus 1 and it will be m plus 1 into m into a_1 , so let us put that equal to 0. Now, we put the coefficient of x to the power the coefficient of x to the power m and higher powers are available in the first, second, and third terms.

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The coefficient of x^{m+k} equated to zero gives

$$(m+k+2)(m+k+1)a_{k+2} - [(m+k)(m+k+1) - n(n+1)]a_k = 0$$

or, $a_{k+2} = \frac{(m+k-n)(m+k+n+1)}{(m+k+1)(m+k+2)} a_k$. (12)

For $m=0$, this leads us to

$$a_{k+2} = \frac{(k-n)(k+n+1)}{(k+1)(k+2)} a_k, k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

So, what we will do now is that, we will consider the coefficient of x to the power m plus k , where k can take values 0, 1, 2, 3 and so on and put that equal to 0. So, when we find the coefficient of x to the power m plus k in the first term, it will turn out to be m plus k plus 2 into m plus k plus 1 into a_{k+2} . And from the second and third terms it will turn out that the coefficient of x to the power m plus k is m plus k into m plus k plus 1 minus n into n plus 1 a_k .

So let us, put it equal to 0 and we get the recurrence relation a_{k+2} equal to m plus k minus n into m plus k plus 1, m plus k plus n plus 1 over m plus k plus 1 into m plus k

plus 2. The numerator that is m plus k minus n, m plus k plus n plus 1 comes out from here, which this part can be written as m plus k whole square plus m plus k minus n square minus n and so m plus k whole square minus n square can be factorized into m plus k minus n into m plus k plus n. And then we can take m plus k minus n common the remaining thing will be m plus k plus n plus 1.

So, which the numerator here is m plus k minus n into m plus k plus n plus 1, this is the recurrence relation who connects a k plus 2 with a k. So, if we know the value of a k we can find the value of a k plus 2, when we take m equal to 0, here we get a k plus 2 equal to k minus n into k plus n plus 1 over k plus 1, k plus 2 into a k, where k takes values 0, 1, 2, 3, and so on.

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Hence

$$a_2 = -\frac{n(n+1)}{2!} a_0,$$

$$a_3 = -\frac{(n-1)(n+2)}{3!} a_1,$$

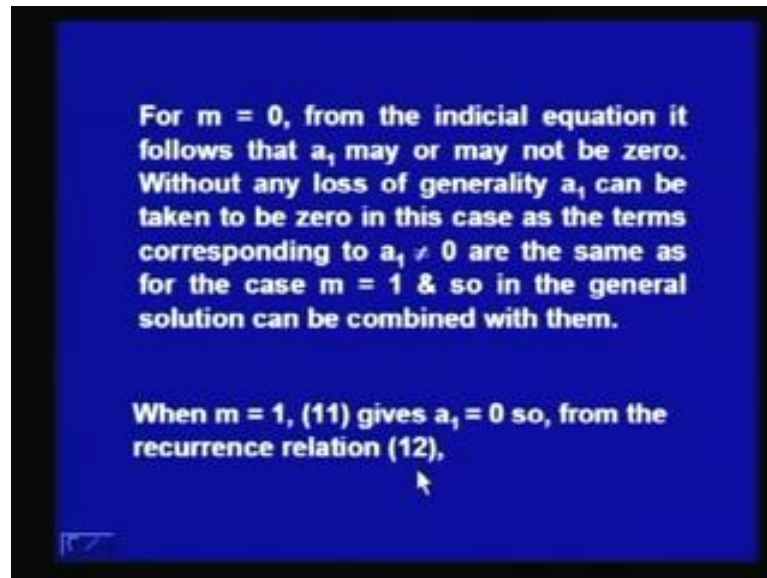
$$a_4 = \frac{(n-2)n(n+1)(n+3)}{4!} a_0,$$

and $a_5 = \frac{(n-3)(n-1)(n+2)(n+4)}{5!} a_1$ etc.

And therefore, we can find the values of a 2, a 3, a 4 and so on, a 2 is minus n into n plus 1 by 2 factorial a naught, a 3 is minus n minus 1 into n plus 2 over 3 factorial into a 1, a 4, after we put the value of a naught, after we put the value of a 2, we get a 4 equal to n minus 2 into n into n plus 1, n plus 3 up on 4 factorial into a naught. The value of an a 2 we have all ready found here, so we can make use of that to obtain a 4 in terms of a not.

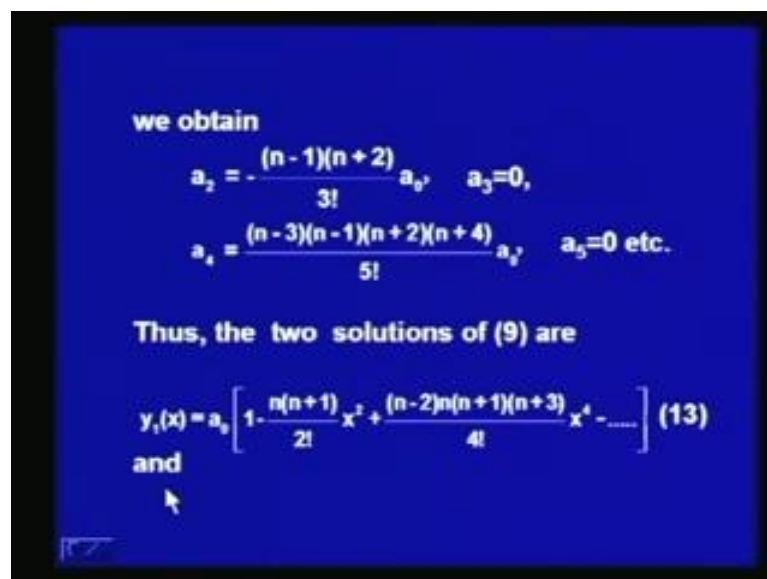
Similarly, we can find a 5, a 5 is equal to n minus 3 into n minus 1 into n plus 2 into n plus 4 by 5 factorial into a 1, where we have made use of the value of a 3 in terms of a 1. To write a 5 in terms of a 1, for m equal to 0 from the indicial equation, it follows that 0 is equal to 0, so there a 1 may or may not be 0.

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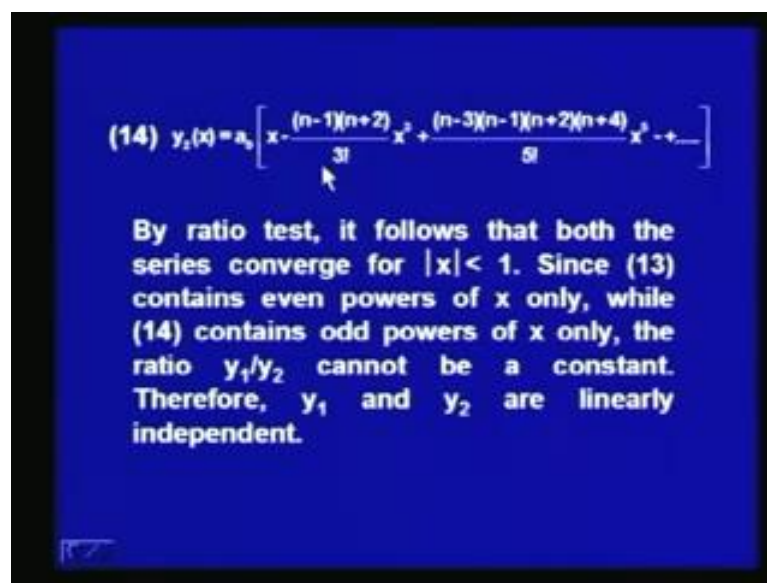
Now, without any loss of generality, we can assume that a_1 is equal to 0, in this case also. Because, the terms that correspond to the case where a_1 is not 0, they can be observed in the terms, which will get for the case m equal to 1, because they are the same case terms. So, they can be observed there and so the general solution will not be affected. And therefore, in the case m equal to 0. We can without any loss of generality we can assume that a_1 is equal to 0 and when m is equal to 1, the equation m into m plus 1 equal to 0 gives you a_1 equal to 0.

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And, so from the recurrence relation 12, it follows that a_2 is equal to $-\frac{n}{n+2} a_0$, a_3 is equal to 0. Because, a_1 is 0, a_4 is $-\frac{3}{n+4} a_2$, a_5 is 0, because a_3 is 0. So, thus we can say that a_k is 0 for all odd k integers and hence we get the 2 solutions of the Legendre's equation for the values of m equal to 0 and m equal to 1. For m equal to 0 we get $y_1 = x$. The solution $y_2 = x$, we call as $y_2 = x$ equal to a_0 times $1 - \frac{n}{n+2} x^2 + \frac{n(n-2)}{n+4} x^4 - \dots$

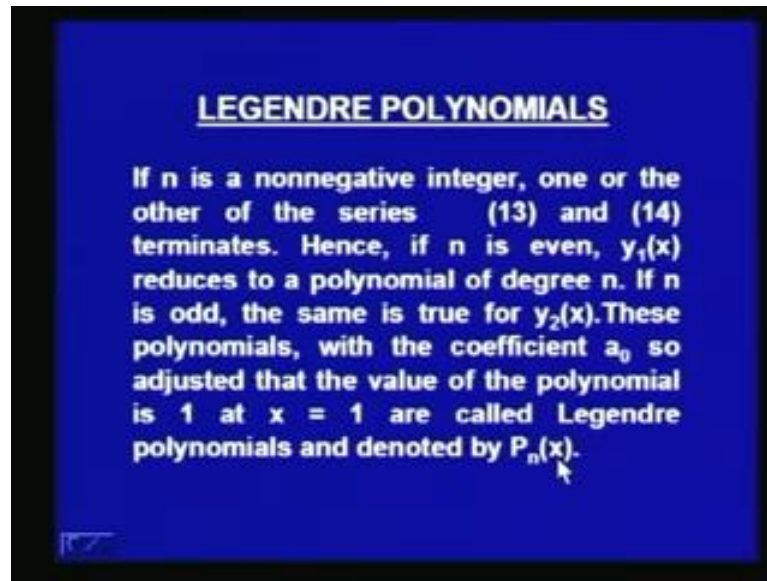
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And, for m equal to 1 we get the solution $y_2 = x$ as a_0 into $x - \frac{n}{n+2} x^3 + \frac{n(n-2)}{n+4} x^5 - \dots$. Now, when we apply ratio test to this infinite series, it follows that they converge for $|x| < 1$. Now, the series that occurs in the function $y_1 = x$, it that series contains only even powers of x , while the series that occurs in the expression for $y_2 = x$ in 14 contains only odd powers of x .

Therefore, if we find the ratio y_1 over y_2 , it cannot be a constant and therefore, y_1 is not a scalar multiple of y_2 and so we can say that y_1, y_2 are linearly independent functions. So, a linear combination of the 2, that is we can say that $y = c_1 y_1 + c_2 y_2$ is the general solution of the Legendre's equation.

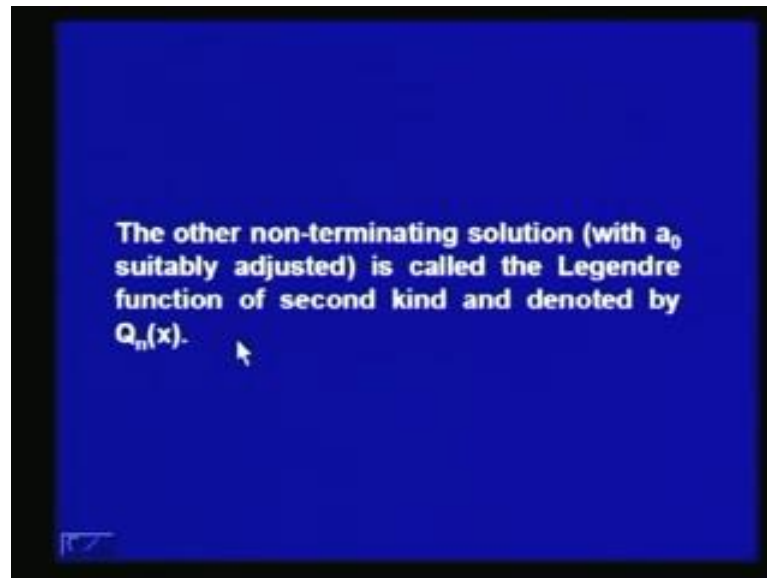
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Now, let us assume that n is a non negative integer in the Legendre's equation, if we make this assumption, then one of the two series that is 13 or 14 will terminate in the 13 th. If n is even, it will terminate and $y_1(x)$ will reduce to a polynomial of degree n , if n is an odd integer, then the series that occurs in the function $y_2(x)$, that will terminate and will again give us a polynomial of degree n .

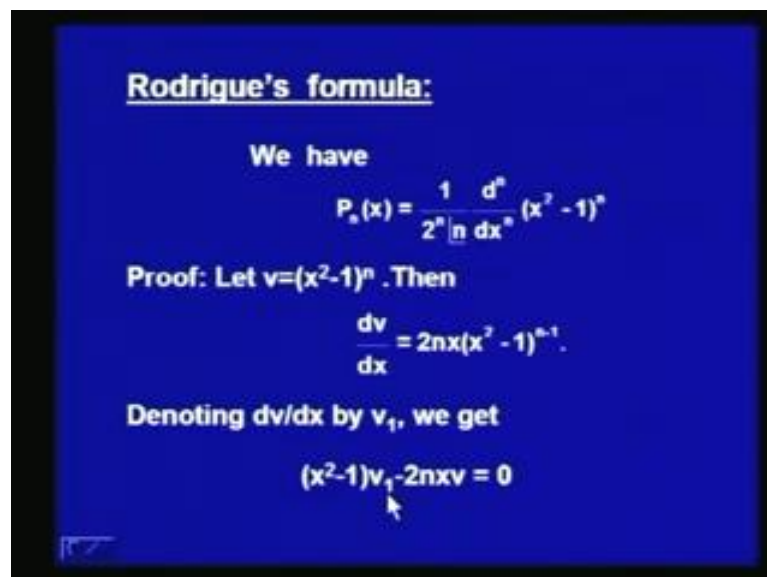
Now a naught the coefficient a_0 that occurs in the functions y_1 and $y_2(x)$ is a tougher choice, so we can make a suitable choice for a_0 . Let us, choose it in such a way that the value of the polynomial, which occurs in y_1 or y_2 as n is even or odd has the value 1 at x equal to 1. Then, the polynomial will be called a Legendre polynomial and it will be denoted by $P_n(x)$.

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The other series or the other solution, which will be a non terminating infinite series, will be then called a Legendre function of second kind and we will denote it by $Q_n(x)$.

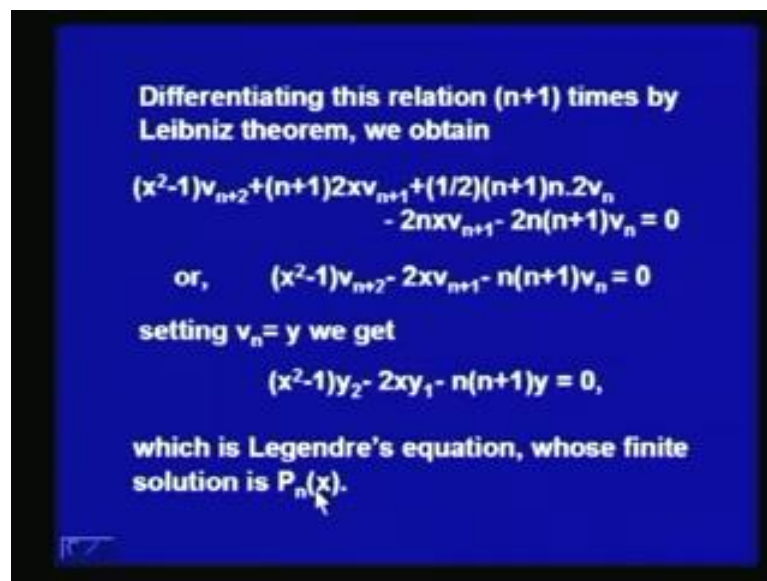
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Now, we shall study the Rodriguez's formula which represents the Legendre's function of first kind that is $P_n(x)$ by this formula that is $\frac{1}{2^n n!} \frac{d^n}{dx^n} (x^2 - 1)^n$. That is the finite series solution of the Legendre's equation for integral values of n can be expressed in a compact form which is given by this equation this known as Rodrigue's formula.

So, in order to prove this, let us assume that v is equal to $x^2 - 1$ to the power n , when we differentiate it with respect to x , we find that $\frac{dv}{dx}$ is $2nx(x^2 - 1)^{n-1}$. Now, let us multiply this both sides of this equation by $x^2 - 1$, we shall have $(x^2 - 1)^n \frac{dv}{dx} = 2nx(x^2 - 1)^{n-1}$. If, we denote $\frac{dv}{dx}$ by v_1 , now we differentiate this equation $n + 1$ times by Leibniz theorem.

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Differentiating this relation $(n+1)$ times by Leibniz theorem, we obtain

$$(x^2-1)v_{n+2} + (n+1)2xv_{n+1} + \frac{1}{2}(n+1)n \cdot 2v_n - 2nxv_{n+1} - 2n(n+1)v_n = 0$$

or, $(x^2-1)v_{n+2} - 2xv_{n+1} - n(n+1)v_n = 0$

setting $v_n = y$ we get

$$(x^2-1)y_2 - 2xy_1 - n(n+1)y = 0,$$

which is Legendre's equation, whose finite solution is $P_n(x)$.

So, when we differentiate it $n + 1$ times by Leibniz theorem, we shall have $(x^2 - 1)^n \frac{dv}{dx} = 2nx(x^2 - 1)^{n-1}$. which after simplification gives us $(x^2 - 1)^n \frac{dv}{dx} = 2nx(x^2 - 1)^{n-1}$.

If, we set here v_n , that is the n th derivative of v with respect to x , $\frac{d^n v}{dx^n}$ as y . Then, we shall have $(x^2 - 1)^n \frac{dv}{dx} = 2nx(x^2 - 1)^{n-1}$ equal to 0, which we can see is nothing but the Legendre's equation, whose finite solution we know is given by $P_n(x)$ and therefore, $P_n(x)$ is a constant multiple of $P_n(x)$.

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Therefore,

$$P_n(x) = cv_n = c \frac{d^n}{dx^n} (x^2 - 1)^n$$

where c is some constant.

For $x=1$, we have

$$P_n(1) = 1 = c \left[\frac{d^n}{dx^n} (x-1)^n (x+1)^n \right]_{x=1}$$

or $1 = c[n!(x+1)^n + \text{terms containing } (x-1) \text{ as a factor}]_{x=1}$

or $1 = c n! 2^n$ or $c = \frac{1}{n! 2^n}$

Because $P_n(x)$ is $\frac{d^n}{dx^n} (x^2 - 1)^n$, so when you differentiate $(x^2 - 1)^n$, which is a polynomial of degree $2n$, n times you will get a polynomial in x of degree n . and $P_n(x)$ is also polynomial in x of degree n . So, there must be a constant multiple of each other. So, we have $P_n(x)$ equal to c times v_n or we can write it as c times $\frac{d^n}{dx^n} (x^2 - 1)^n$, where c is some constant.

The value of this constant c is found out using the fact that $P_n(1)$ is equal to 1, when we add define Legendre's polynomial there, we had assumed that the constant suitable a not is so adjusted that the value of the polynomial is 1 at x equal to 1. So, making use of that we will have $P_n(1)$ equal to 1 equal to c times $\frac{d^n}{dx^n} (x^2 - 1)^n$, v_n is $(x^2 - 1)^n$ 1 to the power n .

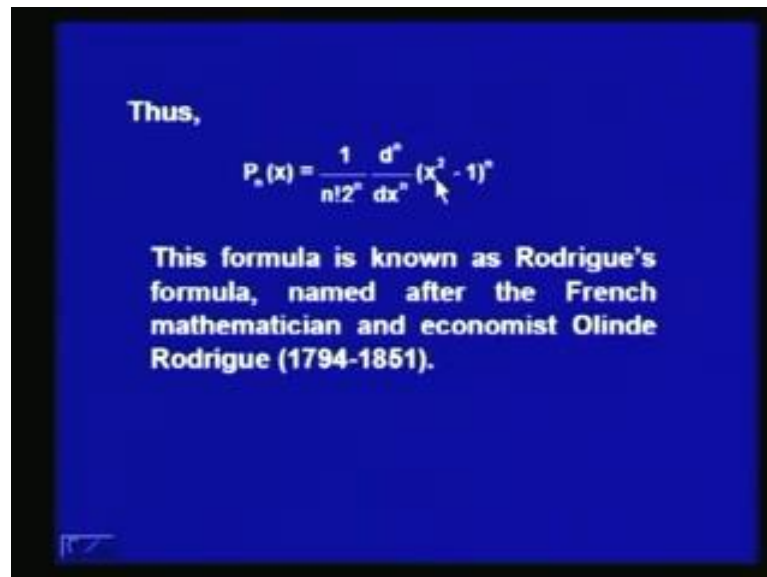
We can factorize it as $(x - 1)^n (x + 1)^n$, when we differentiate it n times and put x equal to 1, we will get v_n at x equal to 1. Now, $P_n(1)$ is equal to 1, right side is c times, now we can differentiate $(x - 1)^n (x + 1)^n$ times.

So, when you differentiate $(x - 1)^n (x + 1)^n$, n times you get $n!$ into $(x + 1)^n$. Then, in the next term you will differentiate making use of the Leibniz theorem, you will differentiate $(x - 1)^{n-1} (x + 1)^n$, once and then multiply by c . So, that term will contain $(x - 1)^{n-1} (x + 1)^n$.

as a factor in the next term you will differentiate $x + 1$ twice, while $x - 1$ to the power n will be differentiated $n - 2$ times, so we get $x - 1$ square as a factor and so on.

So, all the terms starting from second term inside the bracket onwards will have $x - 1$ as a factor therefore, when we evaluate the term inside the bracket at $x = 1$. It will turn out that its value is $2!$ into $n!$ into 2^n and thus we shall have $1 = c \cdot n! \cdot 2^n$ given thus the value of the constant c as $1 / (n! \cdot 2^n)$.

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And thus we have the value of the Legendre's polynomial that is $P_n(x) = 1 / (n! \cdot 2^n) \cdot \frac{d^n}{dx^n} (x^2 - 1)^n$. This formula is known as Rodrigue's formula and it is named after the French mathematician and economist Olinde Rodrigue 1794 to 1851.

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Legendre Polynomials. From Rodrigue formula we get

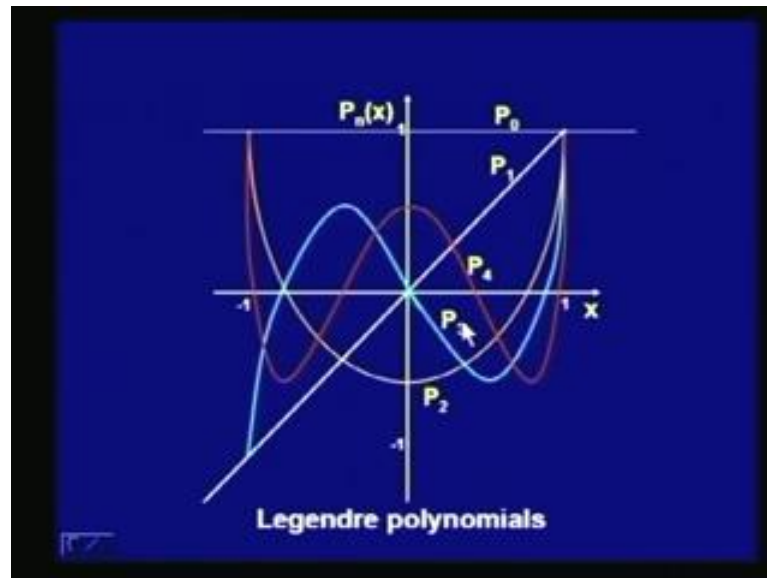
$$P_0(x) = 1, \quad P_1(x) = x,$$
$$P_2(x) = \frac{1}{2}(3x^2 - 1), \quad P_3(x) = \frac{1}{2}(5x^2 - 3x),$$
$$P_4(x) = \frac{1}{8}(35x^4 - 30x^2 + 3), \text{ etc.}$$

We notice that $P_n(x)$ is a polynomial in x of degree n , and is an odd or even function of x according as n is odd or even integer.

Now from the Rodrigue's formula, if we find the values of $P_n(x)$, it tells out that $P_0(x)$ is 1, $P_1(x)$ is x , $P_2(x)$ is $\frac{1}{2}(3x^2 - 1)$, $P_3(x)$ is $\frac{1}{2}(5x^2 - 3x)$, $P_4(x)$ is $\frac{1}{8}(35x^4 - 30x^2 + 3)$ and so on. Now, let us note that $P_n(x)$ is a polynomial of degree n , $P_1(x)$ is a polynomial of degree 1, $P_2(x)$ is a polynomial of degree 2, $P_3(x)$ is a polynomial of degree 3, $P_4(x)$ is a polynomial of degree 4.

So, $P_n(x)$ in general is a polynomial in x of degree n and is an even or odd function of x , according as n is an odd integer or an even integer, we can see here that, when n is odd that is n is equal to 1 or 3. We have $P_1(x)$ equal to x , which is an odd function, $P_3(x)$ is equal to $\frac{1}{2}(5x^2 - 3x)$, which is again an odd function and so on for $P_5(x)$ also is an odd function and so on. While $P_0(x)$, $P_2(x)$, $P_4(x)$ they are all even functions, so $P_n(x)$ is an odd or even function of x according as n is an odd or even integer.

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In this picture, we see that the $P_n(x)$ is equal to 1, this is the straight line $P_n(x) = 1$ and then we have $P_1(x) = x$, this is the line $P_1(x) = x$. Then, we have $P_2(x)$, this is the parabola given by $P_2(x)$ and then we have $P_3(x)$ is this function which we can see easily that is an odd function of x . And then $P_4(x)$ is this 1, which we can see is an even function of x , so they are the graphs of the Legendre's polynomials for n equal to 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, etcetera.

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In general, we can write

$$P_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^N \frac{(-1)^k (2n-2k)!}{2^n k!(n-k)!(n-2k)!} x^{n-2k},$$

where $N = n/2$ if n is even and $(n-1)/2$ if n is odd.

EXAMPLE. Derive the above result from Rodrigue's formula.

Solution. By the binomial theorem

Now, in general we can write $P_n(x)$ given by the Legendre's given by the Rodrigue's formula as $\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} (x^2)^{n-k}$ to the power k , $2n - 2k$ factorial over 2 to the power n into k factorial into $n - k$ factorial into $n - 2k$ factorial, x to the power $n - 2k$, where this capital N is equal to n by 2 . If n is an even integer and $n - 1$ by 2 if n is an odd integer.

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$$(x^2 - 1)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} (x^2)^{n-k}$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} x^{2n-2k}$$

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

$$= \frac{1}{n! 2^n} \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{(-1)^k n!(2n-2k)!}{k!(n-k)!(n-2k)!} x^{n-2k}$$

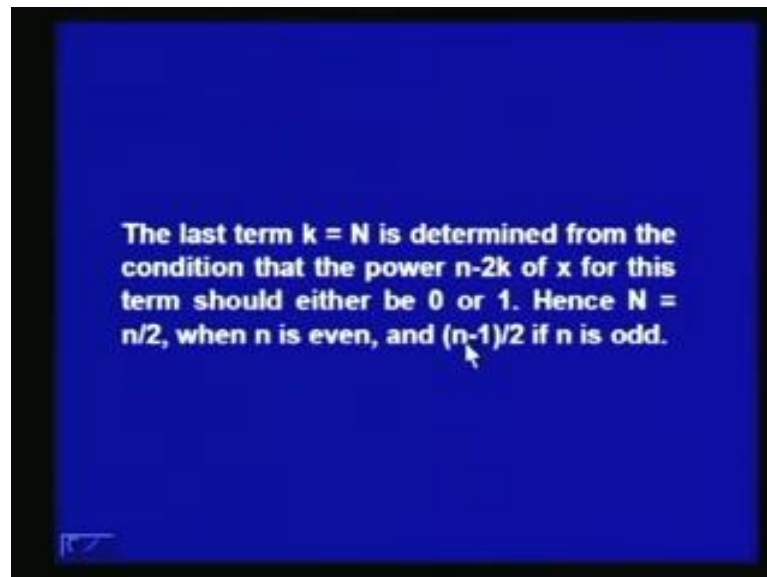
$$= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{(-1)^k (2n-2k)!}{2^n k!(n-k)!(n-2k)!} x^{n-2k}$$

Let us, derive this result by using the Rodrigue's formula by mean by binomial theorem. we can write $x^2 - 1$ to the power n as $\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} (x^2)^{n-k}$, which can be written as $\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (-1)^k \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} x^{2n-2k}$. Now, put this value of $x^2 - 1$ to the power n in the Rodrigue's formula, $P_n(x) = \frac{1}{n! 2^n} \frac{d^n}{dx^n} (x^2 - 1)^n$.

After, differentiating n times with respect to x , the expression for $x^2 - 1$ to the power n , will have 1 over n factorial, 2 to the power n $\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (-1)^k \frac{n!(2n-2k)!}{k!(n-k)!(n-2k)!} x^{n-2k}$. When, you differentiate this with respect to x , n times the power of x , which is $2n - 2k$, will reduce by n and will become $n - 2k$, but the power of x is either 0 or it is 1 .

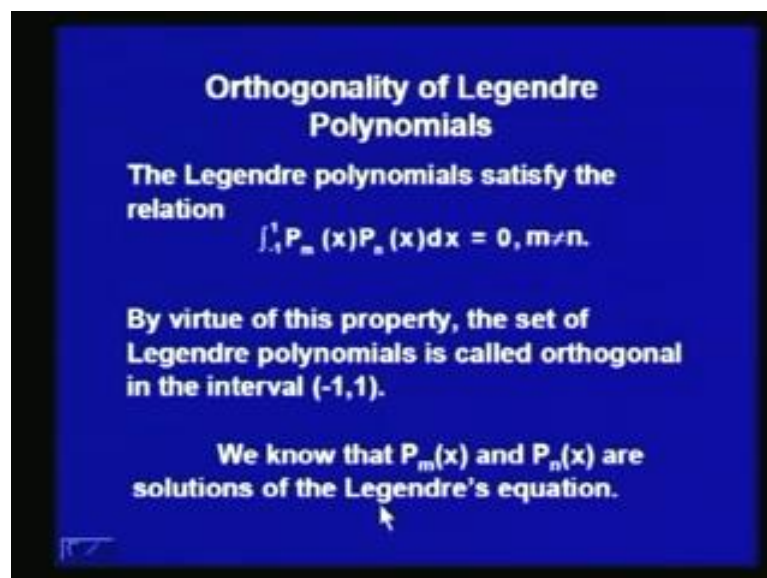
So, when n is an even integer, this n will be equal to n by 2 and when n is an odd integer, this n will be n minus 1 by 2. And thus, we have sigma k equal to 0 to n minus 1 to the power k into 2^{n-2k} factorial n factorial will cancel and we have 2 to the power $n-k$ factorial n minus k factorial n minus $2k$ factorial x to the power $n-2k$.

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The last term is k equal to n depends on n , if it is even integer n will have value n by 2, if it is an odd integer will have value n minus 1 by 2, because the power of x has to be either 0 or 1.

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Next, we discuss the Orthogonality of Legendre's polynomial. Legendre's polynomials satisfy a very important condition, that is, the integral over minus 1 to 1 of $P_m(x)P_n(x)$ is equal to 0, where m and n are integers and m is not equal to n . By virtue of this property, the set of Legendre's polynomials is called orthogonal in the interval minus 1 to 1.

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Hence

$$(15) \quad (1-x^2)P_m'' - 2xP_m' + m(m+1)P_m = 0$$

&

$$(16) \quad (1-x^2)P_n'' - 2xP_n' + n(n+1)P_n = 0$$

Multiplying (15) by P_n and (16) by P_m and subtracting, we get

$$(1-x^2)(P_m''P_n - P_n''P_m) - 2x(P_m'P_n - P_n'P_m) + [m(m+1) - n(n+1)]P_mP_n = 0.$$

We know that $P_m(x)$ and $P_n(x)$ are solutions of the Legendre's equation, $(1-x^2)y'' - 2xy' + n(n+1)y = 0$, because P_m is the solution of the Legendre's equation. So, we can write $(1-x^2)P_m'' - 2xP_m' + m(m+1)P_m = 0$ and $P_n(x)$ is also solution of the Legendre's equation. So, we will have $(1-x^2)P_n'' - 2xP_n' + n(n+1)P_n = 0$.

Well, let us multiply the equation 15 by P_n and 16 by P_m and then subtract, we will have this. $(1-x^2)P_m''P_n - P_n''P_m - 2x(P_m'P_n - P_n'P_m) + m(m+1)P_mP_n - n(n+1)P_mP_n = 0$.

The first two terms, $(1-x^2)(P_m''P_n - P_n''P_m) - 2x(P_m'P_n - P_n'P_m)$ can be combined to give the following. We have $(1-x^2)(P_m''P_n - P_n''P_m) - 2x(P_m'P_n - P_n'P_m) + [m(m+1) - n(n+1)]P_mP_n = 0$.

to give the following $\frac{d}{dx} [(1-x^2)(P'_m P_n - P'_n P_m)] + (m-n)(m+n+1)P_m P_n = 0$.

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or $\frac{d}{dx} [(1-x^2)(P'_m P_n - P'_n P_m)] + (m-n)(m+n+1)P_m P_n = 0$.

Integrating both sides from -1 to 1 , we get

$$(m-n)(m+n+1) \int_{-1}^1 P_m P_n dx = -[(1-x^2)(P'_m P_n - P'_n P_m)]_{-1}^1.$$

Hence,

$$\int_{-1}^1 P_m(x) P_n(x) dx = 0, \text{ if } m \neq n$$

The third term can be factorized to get $m-n$ into $m+n+1$ into P_m into P_n equal to 0. Now, let us integrate both sides over the interval -1 to 1 , we shall get $m-n$ into $m+n+1$, integral over -1 to 1 , P_m into P_n \times dx equal to $-(1-x^2)(P'_m P_n - P'_n P_m)$ evaluated at x equal to 1 .

When, we put x equal to 1 and -1 in the expression inside the bracket, the value of this is 0. So, we shall have $m-n$ into $m+n+1$ integral over -1 to 1 , P_m \times P_n \times dx equal to 0. Now, if we assume that m is not equal to n , then we can divide by $m-n$ into $m+n+1$ and we will have we write integral over -1 to 1 P_m \times P_n \times dx equal to 0; however, when n is equal to m is equal to n .

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When $m = n$, we have

$$\int_{-1}^1 P_n^2(x) dx = \frac{2}{2n+1}, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Proof. By Rodrigues's formula

$$(n! 2^n)^2 \int_{-1}^1 P_n^2(x) dx = \int_{-1}^1 D^n (x^2 - 1)^n \cdot D^n (x^2 - 1)^n dx.$$

Integrating by parts repeatedly, we have

$$(n! 2^n)^2 \int_{-1}^1 P_n^2(x) dx = (-1)^n \int_{-1}^1 (x^2 - 1)^n D^{2n} (x^2 - 1)^n dx$$

Now, when m is equal to n will not be able to divide by m minus n in the previous equation. Therefore, we will have to find its value separately, it tells out that when m is equal to n , the value of the integral $\int_{-1}^1 P_n^2(x) dx$ that is $\int_{-1}^1 P_n^2(x) dx$ is equal to $\frac{2}{2n+1}$, where n takes values $0, 1, 2, 3$ and so on.

Let us, derive this result by Rodrigues's formula, we know that $2^n n!$ into $P_n(x)$ is equal to n th derivative of $x^2 - 1$ to the power n . So, making use of that $n!$ into 2^n whole square integral over $\int_{-1}^1 P_n^2(x) dx$ is equal to $\int_{-1}^1 D^n (x^2 - 1)^n \cdot D^n (x^2 - 1)^n dx$.

Now, when we integrate the right hand side, by parts if we integrate it once, what will happen is that you will have integral of $D^n (x^2 - 1)^n$, which will give us $D^{n-1} (x^2 - 1)^n$ into $D^n (x^2 - 1)^n$. Then, we will evaluate its value at -1 and 1 it will be 0 , because $D^{n-1} (x^2 - 1)^n$ will contain $x^2 - 1$ as the factor.

So, after integrating it once we will have, its value as $-\int_{-1}^1 D^{n-1} (x^2 - 1)^n \cdot D^n (x^2 - 1)^n dx$. When, we do this integration by parts n times, the right hand side will become $(-1)^n \int_{-1}^1 (x^2 - 1)^n D^{2n} (x^2 - 1)^n dx$. Will have 2^n derivative of $x^2 - 1$

to the power n here and here there will be no derivative of x square minus 1 to the power n, which is equal to minus 1 to the power n integral over minus 1 to 1.

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$$= (-1)^n \int_{-1}^1 (2n)! (x^2 - 1)^n dx$$

$$= 2(2n)! \int_0^1 (1 - x^2)^n dx.$$

Putting $x = \sin \theta$, we obtain

$$\int_{-1}^1 P_n^2(x) dx = \frac{2(2n)!}{(n!2^n)^2} \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^{2n+1} \theta d\theta$$

$$= \frac{2(2n)!}{(n!2^n)^2} \frac{(n+1) \sqrt{1/2}}{2n+3/2}$$

And then d 2 n of x square minus 1 to the power n, will give us 2 n factorial, because x square minus 1 to the power n is a polynomial n x of degree 2 n. So, when we differentiate, it 2 n times, we get 2 n factorial into x square minus 1 to the power n d x. Now, this is equal to 2 times 2 n factorial integral over 0 to 1, 1 minus x square raise to the power n d x.

This is obtained on multiplying x square minus 1 to the power n by minus 1 to the power n, which gives us 1 minus x square to the power n and then since 1 minus x square to the power n is an even function of x. So, using the property of does it integrals, integral over minus 1 to 1 can be written as 2 times integral over 0 to 1, 1 minus x square d x, x square raised to the power n d x.

Now, in this we put x equal to sin theta and then we see that integral over minus 1 to 1, p n square x d x becomes 2 into 2 n factorial, over n factorial into 2 to the power n. Whole square into integral over 0 to pi by 2 will get some integration change from 0 to 1 to 0 to pi by 2 1 minus x square to the power becomes cos theta raise to the power 2 n and d x is cos theta d theta. So, we will have cos theta raise to the power 2 n plus 1 d theta.

Now, we make use of the gamma function, in order to evaluate this integral, here the power of sin theta is 0, where the power of cos theta is 2 n plus 1. So, using the formula integral 0 to pi by 2 cos sin theta raise to the power n, cos theta raise to the power n d theta equal to gamma n plus 1 by 2, over 2 times gamma n plus n plus 2 by 2.

You have evaluated the value of integral 0 to pi by 2 cos theta raise to the power 2 n plus 1, d theta s gamma n plus 1, gamma half over 2 times, gamma n plus 3 by 2. Could you multiply this coefficient 2 into 2 n factorial, over n factorial into 2 to the power n whole square.

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$$= \frac{2n! \sqrt{\pi}}{n! 2^{n-1} (2n+1)(2n-1) \dots 3 \cdot 1 \sqrt{\pi}}$$

$$= \frac{2}{2n+1}$$

Now, it comes out after we expand the gamma functions, it comes out to be equal to 2 n factorial, gamma half is root pi n factorial 2 to the power n minus 1 into 2 n plus 1, 2 n minus 1 and so on. 3, 1 into root pi root pi can be cancelled and then we can expand 2 n 2 n factorial functions and will have 2 over 2 n plus 1 here. Next we consider the generating function, the function we will see that 1 minus 2 x z plus z square raise to the power minus half can be expanded as sigma n equal to 0 to infinity P n X into z to the power n.

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Generating Function. Consider the expansion of $(1 - 2xz + z^2)^{-1/2}$ in powers of z . Since

$$(1 - t)^{-1/2} = 1 + \frac{1}{2}t + \frac{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{2}}{2!}t^2 + \frac{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{5}{2}}{2!}t^3 + \dots$$
$$= 1 + \frac{1}{2}t + \frac{1 \cdot 3}{2!2^2}t^2 + \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5}{3!2^3}t^3 + \dots$$
$$= 1 + \frac{1}{2}t + \frac{4!}{(2!)^2 2^4}t^2 + \frac{6!}{(3!)^2 2^6}t^3 + \dots$$

So, the coefficient of z to the power n in the expansion of $1 - 2xz + z^2$ raised to the power minus half gives us the Legendre polynomial $P_n(x)$ and thus we can call this function as the generating function. When we expand this function in the powers of z the power of z to the power n gives us the Legendre's polynomial $P_n(x)$ or you can say the Legendre's function of first kind, so it may be called as a Legendre's generating function.

Let us consider the expansion of this in the powers of z , let us first write the expansion of $1 - t$ raised to the power minus half by binomial expansion. It can be written as $1 + \frac{1}{2}t + \frac{1 \cdot 3}{2!2^2}t^2 + \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5}{3!2^3}t^3 + \dots$ and so on, where we use binomial theorem here. And then $1 + \frac{1}{2}t + \frac{1 \cdot 3}{2!2^2}t^2 + \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5}{3!2^3}t^3 + \dots$ and so on. We can expand write it like this and which can be further written in a convenient form as $1 + \frac{1}{2}t + \frac{4!}{(2!)^2 2^4}t^2 + \frac{6!}{(3!)^2 2^6}t^3 + \dots$ and so on.

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Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} & \{1 - z(2x - z)\}^{-1/2} \\ &= 1 + \frac{1}{2} z(2x - z) + \frac{4!}{(2!)^2 2^4} z^2 (2x - z)^2 + \dots \\ & \quad + \frac{(2n - 2k)!}{\{(n - k)!\}^2 2^{2n - 2k}} z^{n-k} (2x - z)^{n-k} + \dots \\ & \quad + \frac{(2n)!}{(n!)^2 2^{2n}} z^n (2x - z)^n + \dots \quad (17) \end{aligned}$$

Let us collect the terms in z^n . These will occur only in the term containing $z^n(2x-z)^n$

And therefore, let us put now t equal to z into $2x$ minus z , we will get the expansion of 1 minus $2x$, z plus z square raise to the power minus half as 1 plus half z into $2x$ minus z plus 4 factorial over, 2 factorial square 2 to the power 6 z square $2x$ minus z whole square plus this n minus k plus n th term and then we have this n plus 1 th term here. Let us collect, the coefficient of z to the power, let us collect the terms in z to the power n in this expansion.

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and earlier terms. The term in z^n arising from the $(n-k+1)$ th term of (17) is

$$\frac{(2n - 2k)!}{\{(n - k)!\}^2 2^{2n - 2k}} z^{n-k} \binom{n-k}{k} (-z)^k (2x)^{n-2k},$$

i.e. $\frac{(-1)^k (2n - 2k)!}{2^n k!(n - k)!(n - 2k)!} x^{n-2k} z^n$

Hence the terms in z^n are

Now, the terms in z to the power n , will occur only in the term containing z to the power n , $2x$ minus z to the power n and the previous terms, because after this term we will have the power of z as $n+1$ and the power of $2x$ minus z as $n+1$. So, the least power of z , will be $n+1$, so the coefficients of z to the power n will occur only in this term that is z can the term containing z to the power n into $2x$ minus z to the power n and the previous terms.

The term in z to the power n arising from the term in the second line of equation 12, in this equation, if you find the coefficient of z to the power n , it turns out to be 2^n . Now, that the terms in z to the power n , which arises from the $n-k$ plus 1th term of the equation 17 is given by 2^{n-2k} factorial over $n-k$ factorial square into 2 to the power $2n-2k$ into z to the power $n-k$.

And then $n-k$ into $n-k$ minus z to the power k into $2x$ to the power $n-2k$, which after simplification gives us 2^{n-2k} factorial over $n-k$ factorial into 2^{n-2k} factorial. Then, we have 2^{n-2k} factorial, $n-k$ factorial, $n-2k$ factorial x to the power $n-2k$ into z to the power n .

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$$\sum_{k=0}^N \frac{(-1)^k (2n-2k)!}{2^k k! (n-k)! (n-2k)!} x^{n-2k} z^n$$

i.e. $P_n(x)z^n$.

The expansion (17) may therefore be written as

$$\{1 - z(2x - z)\}^{-1/2}$$

$$= P_0(x)z^0 + P_1(x)z^1 + \dots + P_n(x)z^n + \dots$$

Hence the terms in z to the power n are $\sum_{k=0}^n$ capital N minus 1 to the power k , 2^{n-2k} factorial over 2 to the power n into k factorial, $n-k$ factorial into $n-2k$ factorial, x to the power $n-2k$ into z to the power n . Now, this coefficient of z to the power n , as we have seen earlier is nothing but the legendry's

function of first kind that is Legendre's polynomial $P_n(x)$, so we get $P_n(x)$ into z to the power n .

Here, we may recall that the value of this capital n is small n , y^2 , if n is an even integer and the value of capital n is n minus 1 by 2, if n is an odd integer. And thus, we can see that the expansion $(1-2xz+z^2)^{-1/2}$ may be written as 1 minus z into $2x$ minus z to the power minus half equal to $P_0(x)$ into z to the power 0 plus $P_1(x)$ into z to the power 1 and so on, $P_n(x)$ into z to the power n .

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For this reason $(1-2xz+z^2)^{-1/2}$ is known as the generating function of Legendre polynomials.

EXAMPLE. Prove the recurrence formula

$$nP_n(x) = (2n-1)xP_{n-1}(x) - (n-1)P_{n-2}(x).$$

Solution. On differentiating the relation

$$\{1-z(2x-z)\}^{-1/2} = \sum P_n(x)z^n$$

partially with respect to z , we get

And so on which can be written as $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_n(x)z^n$ and y . For this reason we can call $(1-2xz+z^2)^{-1/2}$ as the generating function of the Legendre's polynomial. Now, let us take an example on this, let us prove the recurrence relation $nP_n(x)$ is equal to $(2n-1)xP_{n-1}(x) - (n-1)P_{n-2}(x)$, this result is known as the recurrence formula. Because, from here if we know the Legendre's polynomial P_{n-1} and P_{n-2} , we can obtain the value of $P_n(x)$.

So, in order to establish this result, we shall make use of the Legendre generating function of Legendre's polynomial, that is $(1-2xz+z^2)^{-1/2}$. We know that, this is equal to $\sum P_n(x)z^n$, when we differentiate this with respect to z partially we will get $(-1/2)(1-2xz+z^2)^{-3/2}(-2x+2z)$.

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$$\begin{aligned}
 &-\frac{1}{2} \{1-z(2x-z)\}^{-3/2} (-2x+2z) = \sum P_n(x) n z^{n-1} \\
 &(x-z) \{1-z(2x-z)\}^{-1/2} = \{1-z(2x-z)\} \sum n P_n(x) z^{n-1} \\
 &(x-z) \sum P_n(x) z^n = \{1-z(2x-z)\} \sum n P_n(x) z^{n-1}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Equating the coefficient of z^n on the two sides, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
 x P_n(x) - P_{n-1}(x) &= \\
 (n+1) P_{n+1}(x) - 2nx P_n(x) + (n-1) P_{n-1}(x),
 \end{aligned}$$

While, the right hand side will become $\sum P_n(x) n z^{n-1}$, after simplification this equation becomes $(x-z) \{1-z(2x-z)\}^{-1/2} = \{1-z(2x-z)\} \sum n P_n(x) z^{n-1}$. We have multiplied after simplification, this equation by $\{1-z(2x-z)\}$ also to make the power of $\{1-z(2x-z)\}$ as minus half.

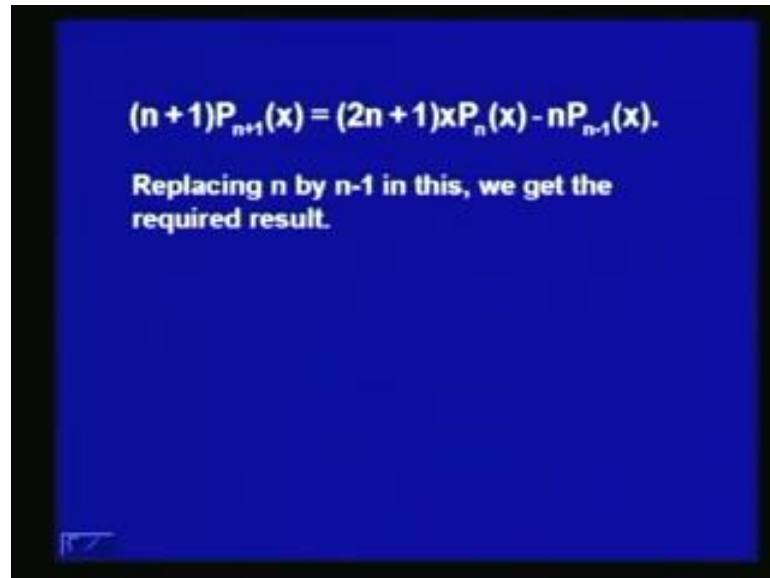
And then we make use of this generating function for Legendre's polynomial, we can write this equation as $(x-z) \sum P_n(x) z^n = \{1-z(2x-z)\} \sum n P_n(x) z^{n-1}$. Now, let us equate the coefficients of z^n on both sides, so left hand side the coefficient of z^n will be $x P_n(x) - P_{n-1}(x)$.

The coefficient of z^n will be $x P_n(x)$ and then on the right side when we take the coefficient of z^n , we will have $n P_n(x) - 2x P_n(x) + (n-1) P_{n-1}(x)$. And here, we shall have the coefficient of z^n will be $(n+1) P_{n+1}(x) - 2nx P_n(x) + (n-1) P_{n-1}(x)$, because when you multiply this by $\{1-z(2x-z)\}$, you get n the coefficient of z^n plus 1 into $P_{n+1}(x)$.

So, we get $(n+1) P_{n+1}(x) - 2nx P_n(x) + (n-1) P_{n-1}(x)$ and left side the coefficient of z^n will be $x P_n(x) - P_{n-1}(x)$ and then here the power of z becomes $n+1$. So, z to the power n coefficient will be $P_{n-1}(x)$. So, we get $x P_n(x) - P_{n-1}(x)$ and $P_{n-1}(x)$ as the right hand side gives us $(n+1) P_{n+1}(x) - 2nx P_n(x) + (n-1) P_{n-1}(x)$.

X, this we get from here minus $2x$ into $n P_n X$ and then z to the power n . The last term is plus z square multiplied to this, so that makes the power of z as n plus 1 . So, the coefficient of z to the power n will be n minus 1 into $p_{n-1} x$.

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$$(n+1)P_{n+1}(x) = (2n+1)xP_n(x) - nP_{n-1}(x).$$

Replacing n by $n-1$ in this, we get the required result.

And, after simplification this gives us $n+1$ into $p_{n+1} x$ equal to $2n+1$ into $x P_n X$ minus n into $p_{n-1} x$. Now, when we replace n by $n-1$ in this equation we will get the required result, now we discuss the associated Legendre's equation, the associated Legendre's equation had applications in potential theory. Let us, see how we arrive at the associated Legendre's equation.

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Associated Legendre Functions. If we differentiate Legendre equation

$$(18) \quad (1-x^2) \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} - 2x \frac{dy}{dx} + n(n+1)y = 0,$$

m times with respect to x and write $u = \frac{d^m y}{dx^m}$, we obtain

$$(1-x^2)u'' - 2(m+1)xu' + (n-m)(n+m+1)u = 0.$$

If we now put $v = (1-x^2)^{m/2} u$ in above, it becomes

If, we differentiate the Legendre's equation $1 - x^2$ into $d^2 y$ over $d x^2$ minus $2x$, $d y$ by $d x$ plus n into $n + 1$ y equal to 0 , m times with respect to x and write u equal to $d^m y$ over $d x^m$, that is m th derivative of y with respect to x . We shall have this equation, $1 - x^2$ u'' minus $2(m+1)x$ u' plus $(n-m)(n+m+1)u$ equal to 0 . We arrive at this differential equation, after we differentiate the equation a team m times by Leibniz theorem and make use of u equal to $d^m y$ over $d x^m$. Now, if we put, v equal to $1 - x^2$ to the power $m/2$ into u in this equation.

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$$(19) \quad (1-x^2) \frac{d^2 v}{dx^2} - 2x \frac{dv}{dx} + \left\{ n(n+1) - \frac{m^2}{1-x^2} \right\} v = 0.$$

This equation is known as associated Legendre's equation. It occurs frequently in potential problems.

we see that

$$v = (1-x^2)^{m/2} \frac{d^m y}{dx^m}.$$

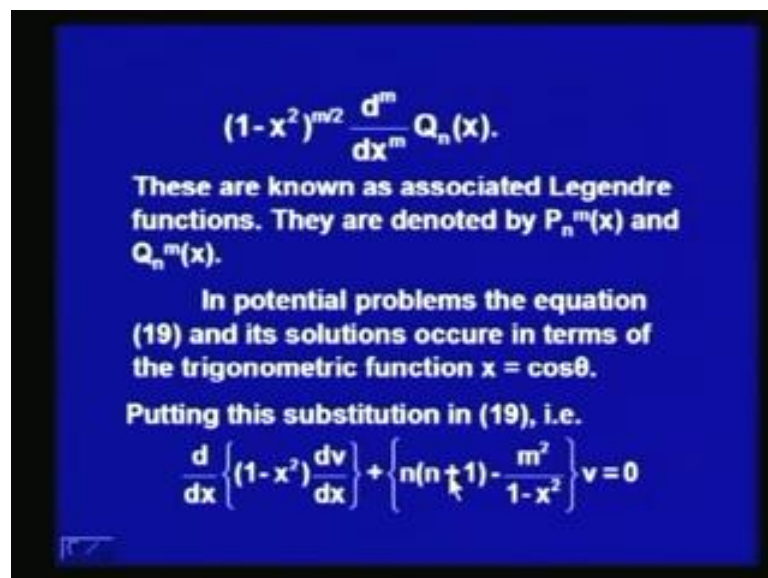
So the solutions of (19) are

$$(1-x^2)^{m/2} \frac{d^m}{dx^m} P_n(x) \text{ and}$$

Then, it becomes the following $(1-x^2)^{m/2} \frac{d^m v}{dx^m} = 0$.
 $x, \frac{dv}{dx} + n(1-x^2)^{-1/2} v = 0$.
 This equation is known as associated Legendre's equation and it has applications in the potential theory, it occurs frequently in potential problems.

And, now we see that v is equal to $(1-x^2)^{m/2} u$, so $\frac{dv}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx} [(1-x^2)^{m/2} u]$, so v is equal to $(1-x^2)^{m/2} u$, $\frac{dv}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx} [(1-x^2)^{m/2} u]$, And therefore, the solutions of the equation (19) are $(1-x^2)^{m/2} P_n^m(x)$ and $(1-x^2)^{m/2} Q_n^m(x)$.

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We know that $P_n^m(x)$ and $Q_n^m(x)$ are the solutions of the Legendre's equation, these are known as associated Legendre's functions they are denoted by $P_n^m(x)$ and $Q_n^m(x)$. In the potential problems the equation (19) and its solutions occur in terms of the trigonometric function $x = \cos\theta$. So, let us put $x = \cos\theta$ in the equation (19), we can write alternately in this form $\frac{d}{dx} [(1-x^2) \frac{dv}{dx}] + [n(n+1) - \frac{m^2}{1-x^2}] v = 0$.

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we get

$$\frac{1}{\sin\theta} \frac{d}{d\theta} \left\{ \sin\theta \frac{dv}{d\theta} \right\} + \left\{ n(n+1) - \frac{m^2}{\sin^2\theta} \right\} v = 0,$$

or

$$(20) \quad \frac{d^2v}{d\theta^2} + \cot\theta \frac{dv}{d\theta} + \{n(n+1) - m^2 \operatorname{cosec}^2\theta\} v = 0.$$

Its solutions are

$$\sin^m\theta \frac{d^m P_n(\cos\theta)}{d(\cos\theta)^m} \quad \text{and} \quad \sin^m\theta \frac{d^m Q_n(\cos\theta)}{d(\cos\theta)^m}$$

On putting $m = 0$ in (20), we get the trigonometric form of Legendre equation

So, now, if we put x equal to $\cos \theta$ in this equation, we shall see that, we get the following $\frac{1}{\sin \theta} \frac{d}{d \theta} \left\{ \sin \theta \frac{dv}{d \theta} \right\} + \left\{ n(n+1) - \frac{m^2}{\sin^2 \theta} \right\} v = 0$ or we will have this, $\frac{d^2 v}{d \theta^2} + \cot \theta \frac{dv}{d \theta} + \{n(n+1) - m^2 \operatorname{cosec}^2 \theta\} v = 0$.

And hence, its solutions are $\sin^m \theta \frac{d^m P_n(\cos \theta)}{d(\cos \theta)^m}$ and $\sin^m \theta \frac{d^m Q_n(\cos \theta)}{d(\cos \theta)^m}$. If we put $m = 0$ in this equation, if we put $m = 0$ in this equation (20), then we shall get the trigonometric form of the Legendre's equation. In our next lecture, we shall discuss the extension of the power series method, that is the Frobenius method and with the help of the Frobenius method. We shall find the solution of the Bessel's equation, which again has lots of applications in the applied mathematics.

Thank you.