

A 'pedestrian derivation' of the

Legendre polynomials

Consider the differential equation

$$(1-x^2)y'' - 2xy' + l(l+1)y = 0 \quad (1)$$

Where $y: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $y(x)$; $y' = \frac{dy}{dx}$; $y'' = \frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$,
 $l \in \mathbb{R}$ but we want to know whether a solution exists $\forall l$.

This is a second-order linear ODE. We can solve this equation with a series solution $y(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$,

such that

$$\begin{aligned} y &= a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + a_3 x^3 + a_4 x^4 + \dots + a_n x^n + \dots \\ y' &= a_1 + 2a_2 x + 3a_3 x^2 + 4a_4 x^3 + \dots + n a_n x^{n-1} + \dots \\ y'' &= 2a_2 + 6a_3 x + 12a_4 x^2 + \dots + n(n-1) a_n x^{n-2} + \dots \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Example: $-x^2 y'' =$

Substituting (2) in each term of (1) and collecting the coefficients of each power,

	x^0	x^1	x^2	$\dots x^n \dots$
y''	$2a_2$	$6a_3$	$12a_4$	$(n+2)(n+1)a_{n+2}$
$-x^2 y''$			$-2a_2$	$-n(n-1)a_n$
$-2xy'$		$-2a_1$	$-4a_2$	$-2na_n$
$l(l+1)y$	$l(l+1)a_0$	$l(l+1)a_1$	$l(l+1)a_2$	$l(l+1)a_n$

we can find them with a change of variable of the n th derivative of y .

according to (1), for each power

$$\begin{aligned} &= 0 \\ &2a_2 + l(l+1)a_0 = 0 \Rightarrow a_2 = -\frac{l(l+1)}{2} a_0 \\ &6a_3 - 2a_1 + l(l+1)a_1 = 0 \Rightarrow a_3 = -\frac{(l-1)(l+2)}{6} a_1 = -\frac{1}{3!} a_1 \\ &12a_4 - 2a_2 - 4a_2 + l(l+1)a_2 = 0 \Rightarrow a_4 = -\frac{(l-2)(l+3)}{12} a_2 \\ &= \frac{l(l+1)(l-2)(l+3)}{4!} a_0 \end{aligned}$$

For the n^{th} term, we find

$$a_{n+2} = - \frac{(l-n)(l+n+1)}{(n+2)(n+1)} a_n$$

← Recursion equation for the coefficients

The general solution of (1) is then

$$y = a_0 \left[1 - \frac{l(l+1)}{2!} x^2 + \frac{l(l+1)(l-2)(l+3)}{4!} x^4 - \dots \right] + a_1 \left[x - \frac{(l-1)(l+2)}{3!} x^3 + \dots \right]$$

constants of integration

Now, the question is: does this series converge?

- For x small, it does (higher order terms are even smaller).
Use the ratio convergence criterion for series

- For $l=0$, $x=1$, for example

$$y = a_0 [1] + a_1 \left[1 + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} + \dots \right]$$

harmonic series → divergent.

use recursion equation

- For $l=1$, $x=1$, for example

$$y = a_0 \left[1 - \frac{1 \cdot 2}{2} + \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot -1 \cdot 4}{4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2} - \dots \right] + a_1 x$$

$$= a_0 \left[1 - 1 - \frac{1}{3} + \dots \right] + a_1 x$$

harmonic series → divergent

- For $l=2$, $x=1$, for example

$$y = a_0 \left[1 - \frac{2 \cdot 3}{2} x^2 + \frac{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 0 \cdot 5}{4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2} + \dots \right] + a_1 \left[1 - \frac{1 \cdot 4}{6} + \dots \right]$$

all other terms contain $(l-2)$

divergent

We are interested in solutions for $x \leq 1$ such that $x = \cos \theta$, $0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$.
We obtain solutions for $l \in \mathbb{N}_0$ if the a_0, a_1 are switched off appropriately.
If we impose $y(1) = 1$, then the problematic coefficients vanish
and we obtain the Legendre polynomials:

$$P_0(x) = 1$$

$$P_1(x) = x$$

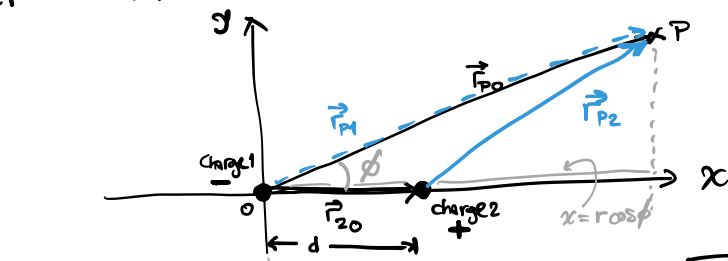
$$P_2(x) = \frac{1}{2}(3x^2 - 1)$$

$$P_l(x) \text{ in general.}$$

Legendre polynomials are orthogonal
in the interval $x \in [-1, 1]$.

Derivation of the Legendre polynomials from the expansion of a potential

Let's calculate the electrostatic potential of a dipole at a point P.



The charges are separated by a distance d .
All the points are in the xy plane.

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{r}_{10} &= \vec{0} \\ \vec{r}_{20} &= d \vec{e}_x \\ \vec{r}_{P0} &= x \vec{e}_x + y \vec{e}_y \end{aligned} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \\ \end{array} \right\} \text{ then, } \begin{aligned} \vec{r}_{P1} &= \vec{r}_{P0} \Rightarrow r_{P1} = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = r \\ \vec{r}_{P2} &= \vec{r}_{P0} - \vec{r}_{20} = (x-d) \vec{e}_x + y \vec{e}_y \\ &\Rightarrow r_{P2} = \sqrt{(x-d)^2 + y^2} \\ &= \sqrt{x^2 - 2xd + d^2 + y^2} \\ &= \sqrt{r^2 + d^2 - 2rd \cos \phi} \end{aligned}$$

The potential is then

$$\begin{aligned} V &= V_1 + V_2 \\ &= \frac{-K}{r} + \frac{K}{\sqrt{r^2 + d^2 - 2rd \cos \phi}} \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

Where K absorbs the charges and constants.

Let's focus on $V_2 = \frac{K}{\sqrt{r^2 + d^2 - 2rd \cos \phi}}$. Let's force r out of the square root:

$$V_2 = \frac{K}{r \sqrt{1 - 2\left(\frac{d}{r}\right) \cos \phi + \left(\frac{d}{r}\right)^2}}$$

But then,

$$V = \frac{K}{r} \left[-1 + \underbrace{\left(1 - 2\left(\frac{d}{r}\right) \cos \phi + \left(\frac{d}{r}\right)^2 \right)^{-1/2}}_{:=f} \right]$$

Changing variables to $\frac{d}{r} := h$ and $\xi = \cos \phi$, we obtain for the term f

$$f = (1 - 2h\xi + h^2)^{-1/2}$$

For $h \ll 1$ (large distances in comparison to the dipole separation), we can make a series expansion in h .

Taylor series expansion of $f(h) = (1 - 2h\xi + h^2)^{-1/2}$ around zero:

$$f(h) = f(0) + \frac{f'(0)}{1!} h + \frac{f''(0)}{2!} h^2 + \dots = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(l)}(0)}{l!} h^l$$

where $' \equiv d/dh$

$$f(0) = 1$$

$$f'(0) = -\frac{1}{2} (1 - 2h\xi + h^2)^{-3/2} \cdot (-2\xi + 2h) \Big|_{h=0} = -\frac{1}{2} \cdot -2\xi = \xi$$

$$\begin{aligned} f''(0) &= -\frac{d}{dh} \left((1 - 2h\xi + h^2)^{-3/2} \cdot (h - \xi) \right) \Big|_{h=0} \\ &= +\frac{3}{2} (1 - 2h\xi + h^2)^{-5/2} \cdot 2 \cdot (h - \xi)^2 - (1 - 2h\xi + h^2)^{-3/2} \cdot 1 \Big|_{h=0} \\ &= 3(-\xi)^2 - 1 = 3\xi^2 - 1 \end{aligned}$$

etc. So, the first terms of the series are

$$f(h) = \underbrace{1}_{P_0(\xi)} + \underbrace{\xi}_{P_1(\xi)} h + \underbrace{\frac{3\xi^2 - 1}{2}}_{P_2(\xi)} h^2 + \dots = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} P_l(\xi) h^l$$

The function $f(h) = (1 - 2h\xi + h^2)^{-1/2}$ is called generating function.

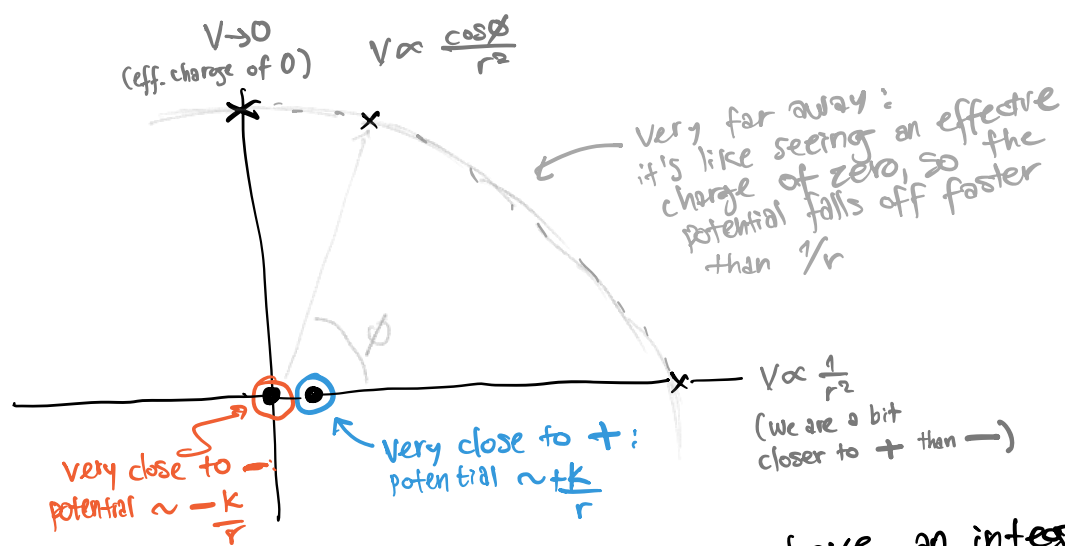
The potential is then

$$V = \frac{K}{r} \left[-1 + \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} P_l(\cos\phi) \left(\frac{d}{r}\right)^l \right] = \frac{K}{r} \left[\sum_{l=0}^{\infty} P_l(\cos\phi) \left(\frac{d}{r}\right)^l \right]$$

For $d \ll r$, the first term is

$$V = \frac{K}{r^2} \cdot \cos\phi \cdot d$$

The interpretation is simple: the potential falls off faster due to the reduced "effective charge" at large distances. See the figure in the next page



For a continuous distribution of mass/charge, we have an integral. The series decomposition of the potential is then called a **multipole expansion**.

Recurrence Formulae

For the generating function (that now we rename to $G(x, t)$ for convenience) we have

$$G(x, t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-2xt+t^2}} = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} t^l P_l(x)$$

$$G(x, t): \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$0 \leq x \leq 1, t \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$l \in \mathbb{N}_0$$

Differentiating w.r. to t ,

$$\frac{\partial G}{\partial t} = \frac{-1}{2} \cdot (1-2xt+t^2)^{-3/2} \cdot (-2x+2t) = \frac{x-t}{(1-2xt+t^2)^{3/2}}$$

but we can write this as

$$(1-2xt+t^2) \frac{\partial G}{\partial t} = (x-t) \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-2xt+t^2}} \cdot$$

$:= G(x, t)$

Now, we substitute

$$G(x, t) = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} t^l P_l(x)$$

$$\frac{\partial G(x, t)}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} t^k P_k(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k t^{k-1} P_k(x)$$

From now on,
 $P_k := P_k(x)$, $G := G(x, t)$

$$-2xt \frac{\partial G}{\partial t} = - \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2x k t^k P_k$$

$$t^2 \frac{\partial G}{\partial t} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k t^{k+1} P_k$$

$$+ \left\{ \begin{array}{l} -xG = -\sum_{l=0}^{\infty} x t^l P_l \\ +tG = +\sum_{l=0}^{\infty} t^{l+1} P_l \end{array} \right. = 0$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k t^{k-1} P_k - \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2xk t^k P_k + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k t^{k+1} P_k - \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} x t^l P_l + \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} t^{l+1} P_l = 0$$

We want to group all sums such that we can read out the coeff. of t^l .

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k t^{k-1} P_k - \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2xk t^k P_k + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k t^{k+1} P_k - \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} x t^l P_l + \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} t^{l+1} P_l = 0$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k t^{k-1} P_k - \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (2k+1)x t^k P_k + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k t^{k-1} P_k = 0$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (k+1) t^{k+1} P_k - \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (2k+1)x t^k P_k + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k t^{k-1} P_k = 0$$

$$\downarrow l := k$$

1st term = 0 $\Rightarrow$ k starts at 1
let $l = k-1$. $k=1 \Rightarrow l=0$

Let $l = k+1$. $k=0 \Rightarrow l=1$

$$\sum_{l=1}^{\infty} l t^l P_{l-1} - \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} (2l+1)x t^l P_l + \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} (l+1) t^l P_{l+1} = 0$$

Comparing coefficients for $l \geq 1$:

$$l P_{l-1} - (2l+1)x P_l + (l+1) P_{l+1} = 0$$

I Recurrence relation

Example: Knowing $P_0(x)=1$, $P_1(x)=x$, generate $P_2(x)$ with the I recurrence rel.

$$P_0 - 3x P_1 + 2P_2 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 - 3x^2 + 2P_2(x) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow P_2(x) = \frac{1}{2} (3x^2 - 1)$$

Rodrigues' Formula

For the Legendre polynomials

The Legendre polynomials can be generated from derivatives of $(x^2-1)^l$:

$$P_l(x) = \frac{1}{2^l l!} \frac{d^l}{dx^l} (x^2-1)^l$$

(Partial) Proof. Let's define $v = (x^2-1)^l$. Let's prove that $\frac{d^l v}{dx^l}$ is a solution of Legendre's equation.

$$\begin{aligned} \bullet (x^2-1) \frac{dv}{dx} &= (x^2-1) l(x^2-1)^{l-1} \cdot 2x \\ &= \underbrace{(x^2-1)^l}_{v} \cdot 2xl = 2xl v \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow (x^2-1) \frac{dv}{dx} = 2xl v$$

• Differentiating $l+1$ times (Leibniz's rule)

$$\frac{d^{l+1}}{dx^{l+1}} [(x^2-1) \cdot \frac{dv}{dx}] = \frac{d^{l+1}}{dx^{l+1}} (2xl v)$$

$$(x^2-1) \frac{d^{l+2} v}{dx^{l+2}} + (l+1)(2x) \frac{d^{l+1} v}{dx^{l+1}} + \frac{(l+1)l}{2!} \cdot 2 \cdot \frac{d^l v}{dx^l} = 2lx \frac{d^{l+1} v}{dx^{l+1}} + 2l(l+1) \frac{d^l v}{dx^l}$$

Simplifying,

$$(1-x^2) \underbrace{\left(\frac{d^l v}{dx^l} \right)^l}_{P_l(x)} - 2x \underbrace{\left(\frac{d^l v}{dx^l} \right)^l}_{P_l'(x)} + l(l+1) \underbrace{\frac{d^l v}{dx^l}}_{P_l(x)} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (1-x^2) P_l''(x) - 2x P_l'(x) + l(l+1) P_l(x) = 0$$

Which is the Legendre equation. We have proven that the eqn. is satisfied up to a factor. We won't prove the constant, but it's technically necessary to fully prove Rodrigues' formula.

Leibniz's rule for product differentiation

$$\frac{d^n}{dx^n} (f(x)g(x)) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \frac{d^{n-k} f}{dx^{n-k}} \frac{d^k g}{dx^k}$$

where

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

That is,

$$\frac{d^n}{dx^n} (fg) = \underbrace{(D_f + D_g)^n}_{\text{binomial expansion}} (fg)$$

where $D_f(fg) = g \frac{df}{dx}$, etc.

Reminder:

$$(1-x^2) P_l''(x) - 2x P_l'(x) + l(l+1) P_l(x) = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} f &= dv/dx & g &= x^2-1 \\ (fg)^{(l+n)} &= (D_f + D_g)^{(l+n)} (fg) \\ &= D_f^{(l+n)} fg + \frac{(l+n)!}{l!} D_f^l D_g^2 (fg) \\ &\quad + \frac{(l+n)!}{2!(l-n)!} D_f^{l-1} D_g^2 (fg) \\ &\text{but higher order deriv of } g = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Proof of the Orthogonality of Legendre's polynomials

① Orthogonality

We want to prove that $\langle P_\ell(x), P_m(x) \rangle = 0$ for $\ell \neq m$, $-1 \leq x \leq 1$.

that is, $\int_{-1}^1 P_\ell(x) P_m(x) dx = 0$, $\ell \neq m$.

► We write Legendre's equation as

$$\frac{d}{dx}[(1-x^2)P_\ell'] + \ell(\ell+1)P_\ell = 0$$

For the future:
this is the
Sturm-Liouville form
of the Legendre diff.
equation

Now we multiply $P_m(x)$:

$$P_m \frac{d}{dx}[(1-x^2)P_\ell'] + \ell(\ell+1)P_m P_\ell = 0 \quad (1)$$

And do the same exchanging $m \leftrightarrow \ell$

$$P_\ell \frac{d}{dx}[(1-x^2)P_m'] + m(m+1)P_\ell P_m = 0 \quad (2)$$

Now we do (1) - (2):

$$P_m \frac{d}{dx}[(1-x^2)P_\ell'] - P_\ell \frac{d}{dx}[(1-x^2)P_m'] + [\ell(\ell+1) - m(m+1)]P_m P_\ell = 0$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx}[(1-x^2)(P_m P_\ell' - P_\ell P_m')] + [\ell(\ell+1) - m(m+1)]P_m P_\ell = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dx}[(1-x^2)(P_m P_\ell' - P_\ell P_m')] + [\ell(\ell+1) - m(m+1)]P_m P_\ell = 0$$

Now let's form the inner product by integrating

$$\int_{-1}^1 \frac{d}{dx}[(1-x^2)(P_m P_\ell' - P_\ell P_m')] dx + [\ell(\ell+1) - m(m+1)] \int_{-1}^1 P_m P_\ell dx = 0$$

$$\cancel{(1-x^2)(P_m P_\ell' - P_\ell P_m')} \Big|_{-1}^1 + [\ell(\ell+1) - m(m+1)] \langle P_m, P_\ell \rangle = 0$$

Then, since $\ell \neq m$,

$$\langle P_m, P_\ell \rangle \stackrel{!}{=} 0.$$

② Normalization constant (N^2)

We compute

$$\int_{-1}^1 (P_\ell(x))^2 dx = N^2 = \langle P_\ell, P_\ell \rangle.$$

For this, we use the recursion formula

$$\ell P_\ell(x) = x P'_\ell(x) - P'_{\ell-1}(x)$$

and the inner product

$$\ell \langle P_\ell, P_\ell \rangle = \langle x P_\ell, P'_\ell \rangle - \langle P_\ell, P'_{\ell-1} \rangle$$

← Can be proven from the generating function $(\partial G / \partial x)$ and combination with the other formula (from $\partial G / \partial t$) + algebra.

integral by parts

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-1}^1 x P_\ell(x) P'_\ell(x) dx &= \frac{x}{2} [P_\ell(x)]^2 \Big|_{-1}^1 - \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^1 [P_\ell(x)]^2 dx \\ &= 1 - \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^1 [P_\ell(x)]^2 dx \end{aligned}$$

$$\int_{-1}^1 P_\ell P'_{\ell-1} dx = 0$$

Explanation: $P'_{\ell-1}$ is a polynomial with a degree lower than ℓ . Because Legendre polynomials are a base of a vector space, any polynomial of degree n can be written as a linear combination of Legendre polynomials up to the degree n . So,

$$\langle P_\ell, P'_{\ell-1} \rangle = \sum_{k=0}^n c_k \langle P_\ell, P_k \rangle$$

But since $n < \ell$, the polynomials are orthogonal.

$$\Rightarrow \ell \langle P_\ell, P_\ell \rangle = 1 - \frac{1}{2} \langle P_\ell, P_\ell \rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow (2\ell + 1) \langle P_\ell, P_\ell \rangle = 2$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle P_\ell, P_\ell \rangle = \frac{2}{2\ell + 1}$$

⚠ The Legendre polynomials aren't orthonormal, so $\langle P_\ell, P_\ell \rangle \neq 1$.

In general, we write

$$\langle P_m(x), P_\ell(x) \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 P_m(x) P_\ell(x) dx = \frac{2}{2\ell + 1} \delta_{m\ell}.$$