# MATH4822E FOURIER ANALYSIS AND ITS APPLICATIONS

### 9. The Fourier Bessel series

9.1. Bessel functions. Let  $\nu$  be a complex number. We call the differential equation

(9.1) 
$$z^{2} \frac{d^{2}y}{dz^{2}} + z \frac{dy}{dz} + (z^{2} - \nu^{2})y = 0.$$

the Bessel equation of order  $\nu$ . This equation has a regular singular point at z = 0. It is known that via the work of Frobenius that one can have power series of the form

$$y(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k z^{\alpha+k},$$

where  $\alpha$  is a parameter and  $c_k$  are coefficients to be determined. Substituting the above series into the Bessel equation

(9.2) 
$$z^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dz^2} + x \frac{dy}{dz} + (z^2 - \nu^2) y = 0.$$

and separating the coefficients yields:

$$0 = z^{2} \frac{d^{2}y}{dz^{2}} + x \frac{dy}{dz} + (z^{2} - \nu^{2}) y$$
  
=  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_{k}(\alpha + k)(\alpha + k - 1)z^{\alpha + k} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_{k}(\alpha + k)z^{\alpha + k}$   
+  $(z^{2} - \nu^{2}) \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_{k}z^{\alpha + k}$   
=  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_{k}[(\alpha + k) - \nu^{2}]z^{\alpha + k} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_{k}z^{\alpha + k + 2}$   
=  $c_{0}(\alpha^{2} - \nu^{2})z^{\alpha} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \{c_{k}[(\alpha + k)^{2} - \nu^{2}] + c_{k-2}\}z^{\alpha + k}$ 

The first term on the right side of the above expression is

$$c_0(\alpha^2 - \nu^2)z^\alpha$$

and the remaining are

$$c_{1}[(\alpha + 1)^{2} - \nu^{2}] + 0 = 0$$

$$c_{2}[(\alpha + 2)^{2} - \nu^{2}] + c_{0} = 0$$

$$c_{3}[(\alpha + 3)^{2} - \nu^{2}] + c_{1} = 0$$
....
$$(9.3)$$

$$c_{k}[(\alpha + k)^{2} - \nu^{2}] + c_{k-2} = 0$$

$$(9.4)$$
....

Hence a series solution could exist only if  $\alpha = \pm \nu$ . Hence a series solution could exist only if  $\alpha = \pm \nu$ . When k > 1, then we require

$$c_k[(\alpha + k)^2 - \nu^2] + c_{k-2} = 0,$$

and this determines  $c_k$  in terms of  $c_{k-2}$  unless  $\alpha - \nu = -2\nu$  or  $\alpha + \nu = 2\nu$  is an integer. Suppose we discard these exceptional cases for the moment, then it follows from (9.3) that

$$c_1 = c_3 = c_5 = \dots = c_{2k+1} = \dots = 0.$$

Thus we could express the coefficients  $c_{2k}$  in terms of

$$c_{2k} = \frac{(-1)^k c_0}{(\alpha - \nu + 2)(\alpha - \nu + 4) \cdots (\alpha - \nu + 2k) \cdot (\alpha + \nu + 2)(\alpha + \nu + 4) \cdots (\alpha + \nu + 2k)}$$

If we now choose  $\alpha = \nu$ , then we obtain

(9.5) 
$$c_0 z^{\nu} \Big[ 1 + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k (\frac{1}{2}z)^{2k}}{k! (\nu+1)(\nu+2) \cdots (\nu+k)} \Big]$$

Alternatively, if we choose  $\alpha = -\nu$ , then we obtain

(9.6) 
$$c'_0 z^{-\nu} \left[ 1 + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k (\frac{1}{2}z)^{2k}}{k! (-\nu+1)(-\nu+2)\cdots(-\nu+k)} \right]$$

#### 9.2. Gamma function. We recall that

(9.7) 
$$k! = k \times (k-1) \times \cdots \times 3 \times 2 \times 1.$$

Euler was able to give a correct definition to k! when k is not a positive integer. He invented the Euler-Gamma function in the year 1729 that solved the *interpolation problem* of finding a function that equals to k! for every positive integer k but has meaning elsewhere. That is,

(9.8) 
$$\Gamma(x) = \int_0^\infty t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt, \qquad x > 0.$$

So the integral will "converge" for all positive real x. Since

(9.9) 
$$\Gamma(1) = \int_0^\infty e^{-t} dt = 1.$$

In fact, the integral

(9.10) 
$$\Gamma(z) = \int_0^\infty t^{z-1} e^{-t} dt, \qquad \Re(z) > 0,$$

converges for all complex x with  $\Re(x) > 0$ . In fact, it can be shown that it is an analytic function in  $\Re(x) > 0$ . One the other hand, an integration-by-parts yields

$$\Gamma(x+1) = \int_0^\infty t^x \, e^{-t} \, dt = -t^x e^{-t} \Big|_0^\infty + x \int_0^\infty t^{x-1} \, e^{-t} \, dt = x \, \Gamma(x)$$

since x > 0. So one has

(9.11) 
$$\Gamma(x+1) = x \,\Gamma(x),$$

and so for each positive integer n

(9.12) 
$$\Gamma(n+1) = n \Gamma n = n(n-1)\Gamma(n-1) = n(n-1) \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \cdot \Gamma(1) = n!.$$

Euler worked out that

(9.13) 
$$\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)! = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\pi}.$$

 $\operatorname{So}$ 

(9.14) 
$$\left(5\frac{1}{2}\right)! = \frac{11}{2} \cdot \frac{9}{2} \cdot \frac{7}{2} \cdot \frac{5}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)!.$$

In fact, the infinite integral will not only "converge" for all positive real x. That is, it is not just continuous and (real) differentiable function for all positive x, the integral

(9.15) 
$$\Gamma(z) = \int_0^\infty t^{z-1} e^{-t} dt, \qquad \Re(z) > 0,$$

converges for all complex x with  $\Re(x) > 0$ . In fact, it can be shown that it is an analytic function in  $\Re(x) > 0$ .

We can now use the recursion formula (9.11) to "analytically continue" the  $\Gamma(x)$  into the  $\Re(x) > -1$ , and then again to  $\Re(x) > -2$ , etc, and eventually into whole complex plane  $\mathbb{C}$  except on the negative integers, since, for example,

$$(-5)! = \Gamma(-4) = (-4+1)(-4+2)(-4+3)(-4+4)\Gamma(0) = (-3)(-2)(-1)(0)\Gamma(0)$$

meaning that  $\Gamma(0)$  would need to be infinity if the left side is to have a meaning. In fact,  $\Gamma(x)$  is analytic in  $\mathbb{C}$  except at the negative integers including 0 which are simple poles. So it is a *meromorphic function*.

One can even compute negative factorial:

(9.16) 
$$\Gamma(1/2) = (-1/2) (-3/2) (-5/2) (-19/2) (-11/2) \Gamma(-11/2).$$

We mention that the Euler-Gamma function as an example of the *Mellin transform* defined by

$$M(f)(z) = \int_0^\infty t^{z-1} f(t) dt.$$

That is, the Gamma function is the Mellin transform of the  $f(x) = e^x$ .

9.3. Bessel functions of first kind. We recall that we have assumed that  $\nu$  is not an integer. Since  $c_0$  and  $c'_0$  are arbitrary, so we choose them to be

(9.17) 
$$c_0 = \frac{1}{2^{\nu}\Gamma(\nu+1)}, \quad c'_0 = \frac{1}{2^{-\nu}\Gamma(-\nu+1)}$$

so that the two series (9.5) and (9.6) can be written in the forms:

(9.18) 
$$J_{\nu}(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k} (\frac{1}{2}z)^{\nu+2k}}{\Gamma(\nu+k+1) \, k!}, \qquad J_{-\nu}(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k} (\frac{1}{2}z)^{-\nu+2k}}{\Gamma(-\nu+k+1) \, k!}$$

and both are called the Bessel function of order  $\nu$  and  $-\nu$  and both are of the first kind. In this case, we have  $\{J_{\nu}, J_{-\nu}\}$  forms a fundamental set of the Bessel equation. That is,

$$y(x) = AJ_{\nu}(x) + BJ_{-\nu}(x)$$

is the general solution to the Bessel equation. More precisely, it can be shown that the Wronskian of  $J_{\nu}$  and  $J_{-\nu}$  is given by (G. N. Watson "A Treatise On The Theory Of Bessel Functions", pp. 42–43):

(9.19) 
$$W(J_{\nu}, J_{-\nu}) = -\frac{2\sin\nu\pi}{\pi z},$$

which is non-zero provided that  $\nu$  is not equal to an integer and  $z \neq 0$ . This shows that the  $J_{\nu}$  and  $J_{-\nu}$  forms a fundamental set of solutions. One can also see that when  $\nu$  is not an integer, then

$$J_{\nu}(x) = C J_{-\nu}(x)$$

would not hold for all x for any constant C. Just take  $s \to 0$ . In fact, when  $\nu = n$  is an integer, then we can easily check that

(9.20) 
$$J_{-n}(z) = (-1)^n J_n(z).$$

### 9.4. Bessel functions of second kind. We define

(9.21) 
$$Y_{\nu}(z) = \frac{J_{\nu}(z)\cos\nu\pi - J_{-\nu}(z)}{\sin\nu\pi}$$

when  $\nu$  is not an integer. It is easy to check that the wronskian of  $J_{\nu}$  and  $Y_{\nu}$  is non-zero, thus showing that  $\{J_{\nu}, Y_{\nu}\}$  forms a fundamental set of the Bessel equation when when  $\nu$  is not an integer. The case when  $\nu$  is an integer n is defined by

(9.22) 
$$Y_n(z) = \lim_{\nu \to n} \frac{J_\nu(z) \cos \nu \pi - J_{-\nu}(z)}{\sin \nu \pi}.$$

The idea behind is that both the numerator and denominator is undefined as  $\nu$  tends to an integer. So we apply the  $\hat{L}$  Hospital's rule to yields

$$Y_n(x) = \lim_{\nu \to n} \frac{(\partial/\partial\nu) (J_\nu(z) \cos\nu\pi - J_{-\nu}(z))}{(\partial/\partial\nu) \sin\nu\pi}$$
  
= 
$$\lim_{\nu \to n} \frac{\cos\nu\pi (\partial/\partial\nu) J_\nu(z) - \pi J_\nu(z) \sin\nu\pi - (\partial/\partial\nu) J_{-\nu}(z)}{\pi \cos\nu\pi}$$
  
= 
$$\frac{(-1)^\nu (\partial/\partial\nu) J_\nu(z) - (\partial/\partial\nu) J_{-\nu}(z)}{\pi (-1)^\nu} \Big|_{\nu=n}$$

The  $Y_{\nu}$  so defined is linearly independent with  $J_{\nu}$  for *all* values of  $\nu$ .

In particular, we obtain

$$Y_n(x) = \frac{-1}{\pi} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{(n-k-1)!}{k!} \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^{2k-n} + \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k (x/2)^{n+2k}}{k!(n+k)!} \left[2\log\frac{x}{2} - \psi(k+1) - \psi(k+n+1)\right] = \frac{2}{\pi} J_n(x) \left(\log\frac{x}{2} + \gamma\right) - \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{(n-k-1)!}{k!} \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^{-n+2k} - \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k (x/2)^{n+2k}}{k!(n+k)!} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n+k} \frac{1}{j} + \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{1}{j}\right)$$

for  $|\arg x| < \pi$  and  $n = 0, 1, 2, \cdots$  with the understanding that we set the sum to be 0 when n = 0. Here the  $\psi(z) = \Gamma'(x)/\Gamma(x)$ ,  $\gamma = 0.57721566$  is the Euler constant. We note that the function is unbounded when x = 0.

When n = 0, we have

$$Y_0(x) = \frac{2}{\pi} J_0(x) \left( \log \frac{x}{2} + \gamma \right) - \frac{2}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{(k!)^2} \left( \frac{x}{2} \right)^{2k} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{k} \right)$$

9.5. Recurrence Formulae for  $J_{\nu}$ . We consider arbitrary complex  $\nu$ .

(9.23)  
$$\frac{d}{dx}x^{\nu}J_{\nu}(x) = \frac{d}{dx}\frac{(-1)^{k}x^{2\nu+2k}}{2^{\nu+2k}k!\Gamma(\nu+k+1)}$$
$$= \frac{d}{dx}\frac{(-1)^{k}x^{2\nu-1+2k}}{2^{\nu-1+2k}k!\Gamma(\nu+k)}$$
$$= x^{\nu}J_{\nu-1}(x).$$

But the left side can be expanded and this yields

(9.24) 
$$xJ'_{\nu}(x) + \nu J_{\nu}(x) = xJ_{\nu-1}(x).$$

Similarly,

(9.25) 
$$\frac{d}{dx}x^{-\nu}J_{\nu}(x) = -x^{-\nu}J_{\nu+1}(x).$$

and this yields

(9.26) 
$$xJ'_{\nu}(x) - \nu J_{\nu}(x) = -xJ_{\nu+1}(x)$$

Subtracting and adding the above recurrence formulae yield

(9.27) 
$$J_{\nu-1}(x) + J_{\nu+1}(x) = \frac{2\nu}{x} J_{\nu}(x)$$

(9.28) 
$$J_{\nu-1}(x) - J_{\nu+1}(x) = 2J'_{\nu}(x).$$

Replacing  $\nu$  by  $-\nu$  in (9.25) yields

(9.29) 
$$\frac{d}{dx}x^{\nu}J_{-\nu}(x) = -x^{\nu}J_{-\nu+1}(x).$$

9.6. Recurrence Formulae for  $Y_{\nu}$ . Suppose  $\nu$  is not an integer. It follows from (9.23) and (9.29) that

$$\frac{d}{dx}x^{\nu}Y_{\nu}(x) = \frac{d}{dx}x^{\nu}\frac{J_{\nu}(x)\cos\nu\pi - J_{-\nu}(x)}{\sin\nu\pi}$$
$$= x^{\nu}\frac{J_{\nu-1}(x)\cos\nu\pi + J_{-\nu+1}(x)}{\sin\nu\pi}$$
$$= -x^{\nu}\frac{J_{\nu-1}(x)\cos\nu\pi + J_{-\nu+1}(x)}{\sin\nu\pi}$$
$$= x^{\nu}\frac{J_{\nu-1}(x)\cos(\nu-1)\pi - J_{-\nu+1}(x)}{\sin(\nu-1)\pi}$$
$$= x^{\nu}Y_{\nu-1}(x).$$

Let us now replace  $\nu$  by  $-\nu$  in (9.23) to obtain

$$\frac{d}{dx}x^{-\nu} J_{\nu}(x) = x^{-\nu} J_{-\nu-1}(x),$$

Combining this together with (9.25), yields, similarly,

$$\frac{d}{dx}x^{-\nu}Y_{\nu}(x) = -x^{-\nu}Y_{\nu+1}(x).$$

## 9.7. Generating Function for $J_n$ . Jacobi in 1836 gave

(9.30) 
$$e^{\frac{1}{2}z(t-\frac{1}{t})} = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} t^k J_k(z).$$

Many of the forumulae derived above can be obtained from this expression.

(9.31) 
$$e^{\frac{1}{2}z(t-\frac{1}{t})} = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} c_k(z)t^k$$

for  $0 < |t| < \infty$ . We multiply the power series

(9.32) 
$$e^{\frac{zt}{2}} = 1 + \frac{(z/2)}{1!}t + \frac{(z/2)^2}{2!}t^2 + \cdots$$

and

(9.33) 
$$e^{-\frac{z}{2t}} = 1 - \frac{(z/2)}{1!}t^{-1} + \frac{(z/2)^2}{2!}t^{-2} - \cdots$$

Multiplying the two series and comparing the coefficients of  $t^k$  yield

(9.34) 
$$c_n(z) = J_n(z), \quad n = 0, 1, \cdots$$

(9.35) 
$$c_n(z) = (-1)^n J_{-n}(z), \quad n = -1, -2, \cdots.$$

Thus

(9.36) 
$$e^{\frac{1}{2}z(t-\frac{1}{t})} = J_0(z) + \sum_{k=1}^{+\infty} [t^k + (-1)^k t^{-k}] J_k(z).$$

## 9.8. Bessel Functions of half-integer Orders. It follows from the definition of Bessel function that

$$J_{1/2}(x) = \frac{\sqrt{x}}{\sqrt{2}\Gamma(\frac{3}{2})} \left( 1 - \frac{x^2}{2 \cdot 3} + \frac{x^4}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5} - \frac{x^6}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5 \cdot 6 \cdot 7} + \cdots \right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2x}\Gamma(\frac{3}{2})} \left( x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \cdots \right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2x}\Gamma(\frac{3}{2})} \sin x$$

On the other hand,

$$\Gamma(3/2) = \frac{1}{2}\Gamma(1/2) = \frac{1}{2}\int_0^\infty e^{-x}\frac{dx}{\sqrt{x}} = \int_0^\infty e^{-t^2}\,dt = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\pi}.$$

Hence

$$J_{\frac{1}{2}}(x) = \left(\frac{2}{\pi x}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin x$$

Similarly, one can check that

(9.37) 
$$J_{-\frac{1}{2}}(x) = \left(\frac{2}{\pi x}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \cos x,$$

Moreover,

(9.38) 
$$J_{n+\frac{1}{2}}(z) = (-1)^n \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} z^{n+\frac{1}{2}} \left(\frac{d}{z \, dz}\right)^n \frac{\sin z}{z}, \qquad n = 0, \, 1, \, 2, \, \cdots.$$

## 9.9. Lommel's Polynomials. Iterating the recurrence formula

(9.39) 
$$J_{\nu+1}(z) = \frac{2\nu}{z} J_{\nu}(z) - J_{\nu-1}$$

with respect to  $\nu$  a number of times give

(9.40) 
$$J_{\nu+k}(x) = P(1/x)J_{\nu}(x) - Q(1/x)J_{\nu-1}(x).$$

Lommel (1871) [See Watson, pp. 294–295] found that

(9.41) 
$$J_{\nu+k}(x) = R_{k,\nu}(x)J_{\nu}(x) - R_{k-1,\nu+1}(x)J_{\nu-1}(x).$$

Hence, in the special case when  $\nu = n + \frac{1}{2}$ , we have

(9.42) 
$$J_{n+\frac{1}{2}}(x) = (-1)^n \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} x^{n+\frac{1}{2}} \left(\frac{d}{x \, dx}\right)^n \frac{\sin x}{x}, \qquad n = 0, \, 1, \, 2, \, \cdots.$$

Thus applying a recurrence formula and using the Lommel polynomials yield

(9.43) 
$$J_{n+\frac{1}{2}}(x) = R_{n,\nu}(x)J_{\frac{1}{2}}(x) - R_{n-1,\nu+1}J_{-\frac{1}{2}}(x)$$

That is, we have

(9.44) 
$$J_{n+\frac{1}{2}}(x) = R_{n,\frac{1}{2}}(x) \left(\frac{2}{\pi x}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin x - R_{n-1,\frac{3}{2}}(x) \left(\frac{2}{\pi x}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \cos x,$$

and similarly,

(9.45) 
$$(-1)^n J_{-n-\frac{1}{2}}(x) = R_{n,\frac{1}{2}}(x) \left(\frac{2}{\pi x}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \cos x + R_{n-1,\frac{3}{2}}(x) \left(\frac{2}{\pi x}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin x.$$

9.10. Some formulae for Lommel's polynomials. For each fixed  $\nu$ , the Lommel polynomials are given by

(9.46) 
$$R_{n\nu}(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} \frac{(-1)^k (n-k)! (\nu)_{n-k}}{k! (n-2k)! (\nu)_k} \left(\frac{2}{z}\right)^{n-2k}$$

where the [x] means the largest integer not exceeding x. Lommel is a German who is one of the main contributors to Bessel functions.

"Pythagoras' Theorem" for Bessel Function. These Lommel polynomials have remarkable properties. Since

(9.47) 
$$J_{-\frac{1}{2}}(z) = \left(\frac{2}{\pi z}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \cos z, \qquad J_{\frac{1}{2}}(z) = \left(\frac{2}{\pi z}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin z$$

and  $\sin^2 x + \cos^2 x = 1$ ; we now have

(9.48) 
$$J_{n+\frac{1}{2}}^{2}(z) + J_{-n-\frac{1}{2}}^{2}(z) = 2(-1)^{n} \frac{R_{2n,\frac{1}{2}-n}(z)}{\pi z}.$$

That is, we have

(9.49) 
$$J_{n+\frac{1}{2}}^{2}(z) + J_{-n-\frac{1}{2}}^{2}(z) = \frac{2}{\pi z} \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{(2z)^{2n-2k}(2n-k)!(2n-2k)!}{[(n-k)!]^{2}k!}.$$

A few special cases are

(1) 
$$J_{\frac{1}{2}}^{2}(z) + J_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{2}(z) = \frac{2}{\pi z};$$
  
(2)  $J_{\frac{3}{2}}^{2}(z) + J_{-\frac{3}{2}}^{2}(z) = \frac{2}{\pi z} \left(1 + \frac{1}{z^{2}}\right);$   
(3)  $J_{\frac{5}{2}}^{2}(z) + J_{-\frac{5}{2}}^{2}(z) = \frac{2}{\pi z} \left(1 + \frac{3}{z^{2}} + \frac{9}{z^{4}}\right);$   
(4)  $J_{\frac{7}{2}}^{2}(z) + J_{-\frac{7}{2}}^{2}(z) = \frac{2}{\pi z} \left(1 + \frac{6}{z^{2}} + \frac{45}{z^{4}} + \frac{225}{z^{6}}\right)$ 

To be continued ...