Lecture 15 Tue. 10.14.2014

Complex Variables, Series, and Field Coordinates I.

(Ch. 10 of Unit 1)

- 1. The Story of e (A Tale of Great \$Interest\$)
 - How good are those power series?

Taylor-Maclaurin series, imaginary interest, and complex exponentials

Lecture 14 Tue. 10.15

- 2. What good are complex exponentials?
 - Easy trig
 - Easy 2D vector analysis
 - Easy oscillator phase analysis
 - Easy rotation and "dot" or "cross" products
- 3. Easy 2D vector calculus
 - Easy 2D vector derivatives
 - Easy 2D source-free field theory
 - Easy 2D vector field-potential theory
- 4. Riemann-Cauchy relations (What's analytic? What's not?)
 - Easy 2D curvilinear coordinate discovery
 - Easy 2D circulation and flux integrals
 - Easy 2D monopole, dipole, and 2^n -pole analysis
 - Easy 2^n -multipole field and potential expansion
 - Easy stereo-projection visualization
 - Cauchy integrals, Laurent-Maclaurin series
- 5. Mapping and Non-analytic 2D source field analysis

- 1. Complex numbers provide "automatic trigonometry"
- 2. Complex numbers add like vectors.
- 3. Complex exponentials Ae^{-iot} track position and velocity using Phasor Clock.
- 4. Complex products provide 2D rotation operations.
- 5. Complex products provide 2D "dot"(•) and "cross"(x) products.
- 6. Complex derivative contains "divergence" ($\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}$) and "curl" ($\nabla \mathbf{x} \mathbf{F}$) of 2D vector field
- 7. Invent source-free 2D vector fields [$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = 0$ and $\nabla \mathbf{x} \mathbf{F} = 0$]
- 8. Complex potential ϕ contains "scalar"($\mathbf{F} = \nabla \Phi$) and "vector"($\mathbf{F} = \nabla x \mathbf{A}$) potentials The half-n'-half results: (Riemann-Cauchy Derivative Relations)
- 9. Complex potentials define 2D Orthogonal Curvilinear Coordinates (OCC) of field
- 10. Complex integrals $\int f(z)dz$ count 2D "circulation" ($\int \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$) and "flux" ($\int \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$)
- 11. Complex integrals define 2D monopole fields and potentials
- 12. Complex derivatives give 2D dipole fields
- 13. More derivatives give 2D 2^N-pole fields...
- 14. ...and 2^N-pole multipole expansions of fields and potentials...
- 15. ...and Laurent Series...
- 16. ...and non-analytic source analysis.

Simple *interest* at some rate r based on a 1 year period.

You gave a principal p(0) to the bank and some time t later they would pay you $p(t)=(1+r\cdot t)p(0)$.

\$1.00 at rate r=1 (like Israel and Brazil that once had 100% interest.) gives \$2.00 at t=1 year.

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Trimester compounded interest gives $p(\frac{t}{3}) = (1+r\cdot\frac{t}{3})p(0)$ at the $1/3^{rd}$ -period $\frac{t}{3}$ or 1^{st} trimester and then use that to figure the 2^{nd} trimester and so on. Now \$1.00 at rate r=1 earns \$2.37.

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So if you compound interest more and more frequently, do you approach INFININTEREST?

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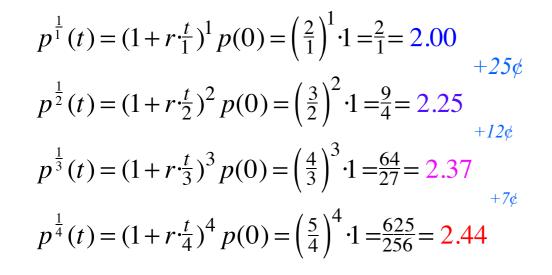
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So if you compound interest more and more frequently, do you approach INFININTEREST?

$$p^{\frac{1}{1}}(t) = (1 + r \cdot \frac{t}{1})^{1} p(0) = \left(\frac{2}{1}\right)^{1} \cdot 1 = \frac{2}{1} = 2.00$$

$$+25\phi$$

$$p^{\frac{1}{2}}(t) = (1 + r \cdot \frac{t}{2})^{2} p(0) = \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^{2} \cdot 1 = \frac{9}{4} = 2.25$$

$$+12\phi$$

$$p^{\frac{1}{3}}(t) = (1 + r \cdot \frac{t}{3})^{3} p(0) = \left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{3} \cdot 1 = \frac{64}{27} = 2.37$$

$$+7\phi$$

$$p^{\frac{1}{4}}(t) = (1 + r \cdot \frac{t}{4})^{4} p(0) = \left(\frac{5}{4}\right)^{4} \cdot 1 = \frac{625}{256} = 2.44$$

Monthly:
$$p^{\frac{1}{12}}(t) = (1 + r \cdot \frac{t}{12})^{12} p(0) = \left(\frac{13}{12}\right)^{12} \cdot 1 = 2.613$$

Weekly:
$$p^{\frac{1}{52}}(t) = (1 + r \cdot \frac{t}{52})^{52} p(0) = \left(\frac{53}{52}\right)^{52} \cdot 1 = 2.693$$

Daily:
$$p^{\frac{1}{365}}(t) = (1 + r \cdot \frac{t}{365})^{365} p(0) = \left(\frac{366}{365}\right)^{365} \cdot 1 = 2.7145$$

Hrly:
$$p^{\frac{1}{8760}}(t) = (1 + r \cdot \frac{t}{8760})^{8760} p(0) = \left(\frac{8761}{8760}\right)^{8760} \cdot 1 = 2.7181$$

$$p^{1/m}(1) = (1 + \frac{1}{m})^m \xrightarrow[m \to \infty]{} \underbrace{2.718281828459}. \quad p^{1/m}(1) = 2.7169239322 \qquad for \ m = 1,000 \qquad for \ m = 100,000 \qquad for \ m = 1,000,000 \qquad for \ m = 100,000,000 \qquad for \ m = 100,000,000 \qquad for \ m = 100,000,000 \qquad for \ m = 1,000,000,000 \qquad for \ m = 1,000,000,0$$

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Can improve computational efficiency using binomial theorem:

$$(x+y)^n = x^n + n \cdot x^{n-1}y + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!}x^{n-2}y^2 + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{3!}x^{n-3}y^3 + \dots + n \cdot xy^{n-1} + y^n$$

$$(1+\frac{r \cdot t}{n})^n = 1 + n \cdot \left(\frac{r \cdot t}{n}\right) + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!}\left(\frac{r \cdot t}{n}\right)^2 + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{3!}\left(\frac{r \cdot t}{n}\right)^3 + \dots$$
Define: Factorials(!):
$$0! = 1 = 1!, \quad 2! = 1 \cdot 2, \quad 3! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3, \dots$$

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$$e^{r \cdot t} = 1 + r \cdot t + \frac{1}{2!}(r \cdot t)^{2} + \frac{1}{3!}(r \cdot t)^{3} + \dots = \sum_{p=0}^{o} \frac{(r \cdot t)^{p}}{p!}$$

$$n(n-1) \rightarrow n^{2},$$

$$n(n-1)(n-2) \rightarrow n^{3}, etc.$$

$$p^{1/m}(1) = (1 + \frac{1}{m})^m \xrightarrow[m \to \infty]{2.718281828459}.$$

$$p^{1/m}(1) = 2.7181459268$$

$$p^{1/m}(1) = 2.7182682372$$

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$$p^{1/m}(1) = 2.7182804693$$

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$$(o = 1) - e - series = 2.00000 = 1 + 1$$

$$(o = 2) - e - series = 2.50000 = 1 + 1 + 1/2$$

$$(o = 3) - e - series = 2.50000 = 1 + 1 + 1/2 + 1/6$$

$$(o = 4) - e - series = 2.70833 = 1 + 1 + 1/2 + 1/6 + 1/24$$

$$(o = 5) - e - series = 2.71667 = 1 + 1 + 1/2 + 1/6 + 1/24 + 1/120$$

$$(o = 6) - e - series = 2.71805 = 1 + 1 + 1/2 + 1/6 + 1/24 + 1/120 + 1/720$$

$$(o = 7) - e - series = 2.71825$$

$$(o = 8) - e - series = 2.71828$$
About 12 summed quotients for 6-figure precision (A lot better!)

Start with a general power series with constant coefficients c_0 , c_1 , etc.

Set
$$t=0$$
 to get $c_0 = x(0)$.

$$x(t) = c_0 + c_1 t + c_2 t^2 + c_3 t^3 + c_4 t^4 + c_5 t^5 + \dots + c_n t^n + \dots$$

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Rate of change of position x(t) is velocity v(t).

Set
$$t=0$$
 to get $c_1 = v(0)$.

$$v(t) = \frac{d}{dt}x(t) = 0 + c_1 + 2c_2t + 3c_3t^2 + 4c_4t^3 + 5c_5t^4 + \dots + nc_nt^{n-1} + 1$$

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Change of velocity v(t) is acceleration a(t).

Set
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 to get $c_2 = \frac{1}{2}a(0)$.

$$a(t) = \frac{d}{dt}v(t) = 0 + 2c_2 + 2\cdot3c_3t + 3\cdot4c_4t^2 + 4\cdot5c_5t^3 + \dots + n(n-1)c_nt^{n-2} + \dots$$

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Change of acceleration a(t) is jerk j(t). (Jerk is NASA term.)

Set
$$t=0$$
 to get $c_3 = \frac{1}{3!}j(0)$.

$$j(t) = \frac{d}{dt}a(t) = 0 + 2\cdot3c_3 + 2\cdot3\cdot4c_4t + 3\cdot4\cdot5c_5t^2 + \dots + n(n-1)(n-2)c_nt^{n-3} + \dots + n(n-1)(n-2)c_nt^{n-$$

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Change of jerk j(t) is *inauguration* i(t). (Be silly like NASA!)

Set t=0 to get $c_4 = \frac{1}{4!} i(0)$.

Start with a general power series with constant coefficients c_0 , c_1 , etc.

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Set t=0 to get $c_3 = \frac{1}{3!}j(0)$.

$$j(t) = \frac{d}{dt}a(t) = 0 + 2\cdot3c_3 + 2\cdot3\cdot4c_4t + 3\cdot4\cdot5c_5t^2 + \dots + n(n-1)(n-2)c_nt^{n-3} + \dots$$

Change of jerk j(t) is *inauguration* i(t). (Be silly like NASA!)

Set t=0 to get $c_4 = \frac{1}{4!}i(0)$.

Gives Maclaurin (or Taylor) power series

$$x(t) = x(0) + v(0)t + \frac{1}{2!}a(0)t^{2} + \frac{1}{3!}j(0)t^{3} + \frac{1}{4!}i(0)t^{4} + \frac{1}{5!}r(0)t^{5} + \dots + \frac{1}{n!}x^{(n)}t^{n} + \dots + \frac{1}{n!}x^{(n)}t^{n}$$

Start with a general power series with constant coefficients c_0 , c_1 , etc.

Set t=0 to get $c_0 = x(0)$.

$$x(t) = c_0 + c_1 t + c_2 t^2 + c_3 t^3 + c_4 t^4 + c_5 t^5 + \dots + c_n t^n + \dots$$

Rate of change of position x(t) is velocity v(t).

Set t=0 to get $c_1 = v(0)$.

$$v(t) = \frac{d}{dt}x(t) = 0 + c_1 + 2c_2t + 3c_3t^2 + 4c_4t^3 + 5c_5t^4 + \dots + nc_nt^{n-1} + 1$$

Change of velocity v(t) is acceleration a(t).

Set t=0 to get $c_2 = \frac{1}{2}a(0)$.

$$a(t) = \frac{d}{dt}v(t) = 0 + 2c_2 + 2\cdot3c_3t + 3\cdot4c_4t^2 + 4\cdot5c_5t^3 + \dots + n(n-1)c_nt^{n-2} + \dots$$

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Góod old UP I formula!

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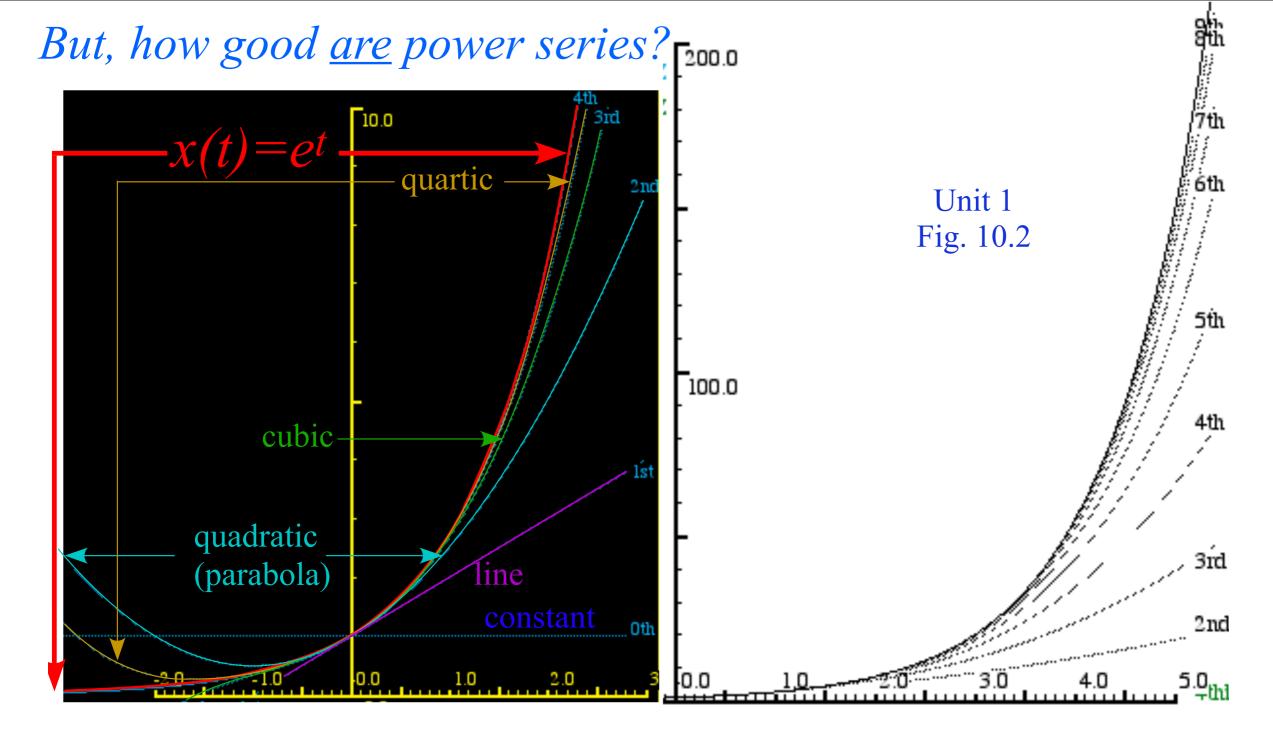
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Setting all initial values to I = x(0) = v(0) = a(0) = j(0) = i(0) = ...

Góod old UP I formula!

gives exponential:
$$e^t = 1 + t + \frac{1}{2!}t^2 + \frac{1}{3!}t^3 + \frac{1}{4!}t^4 + \frac{1}{5!}t^5 + \dots + \frac{1}{n!}t^n + \dots$$



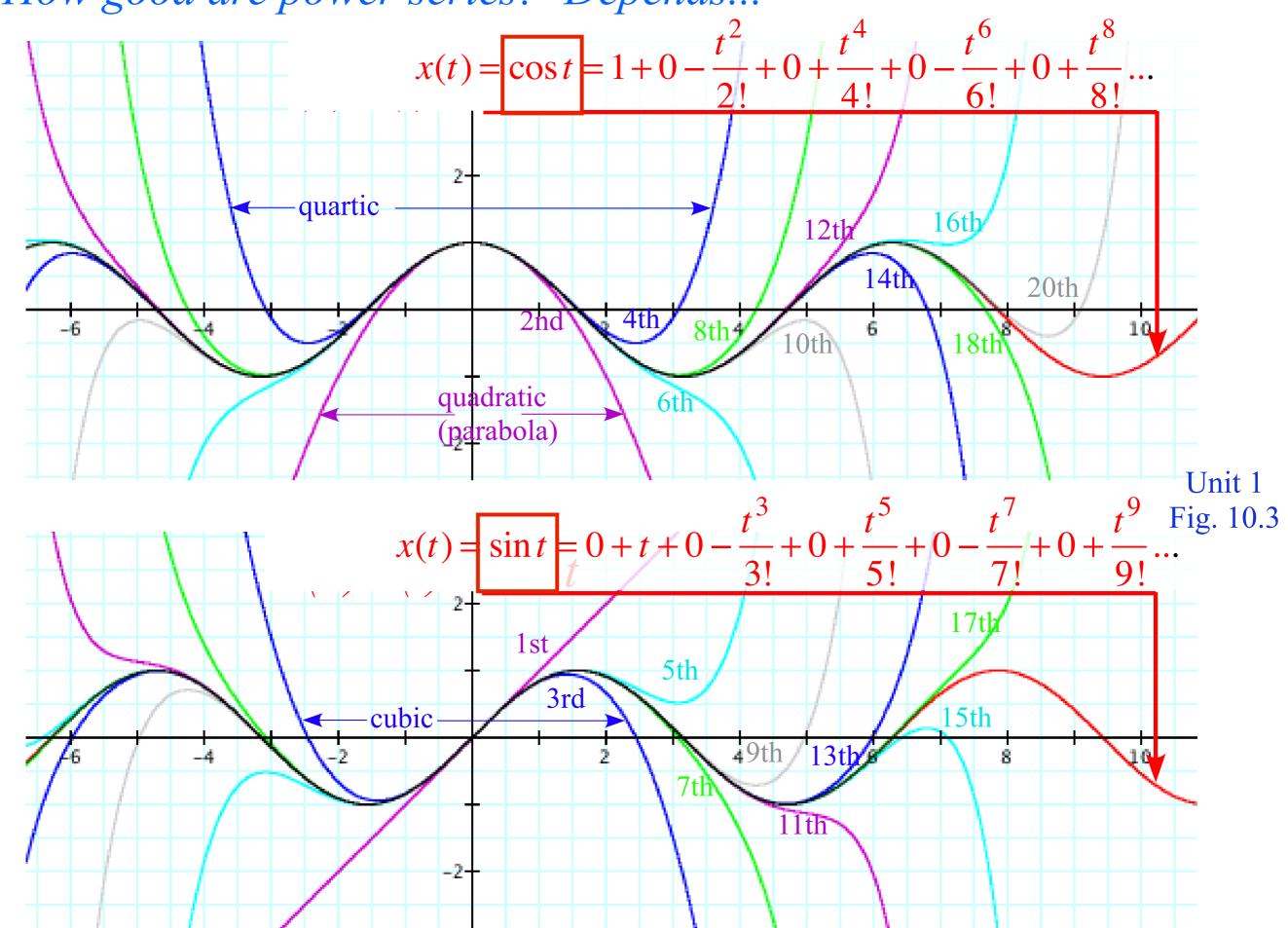
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How good are power series? Depends...



How good are those power series? Taylor-Maclaurin series,



imaginary interest, and complex exponentials

Suppose the fancy bankers really went bonkers and made interest rate r an *imaginary number* $r=i\theta$.

Imaginary number $i = \sqrt{-1}$ powers have repeat-after-4-pattern: $i^0 = 1$, $i^1 = i$, $i^2 = -1$, $i^3 = -i$, $i^4 = 1$, etc...

$$e^{i\theta} = 1 + i\theta + \frac{(i\theta)^2}{2!} + \frac{(i\theta)^3}{3!} + \frac{(i\theta)^4}{4!} + \frac{(i\theta)^5}{5!} + \dots$$
 (From exponential series)
$$= 1 + i\theta - \frac{\theta^2}{2!} - i\frac{\theta^3}{3!} + \frac{\theta^4}{4!} + i\frac{\theta^5}{5!} - \dots$$
 ($i = \sqrt{-1}$ imples: $i^1 = i, i^2 = -1, i^3 = -i, i^4 = +1, i^5 = i, \dots$)
$$= \left(1 - \frac{\theta^2}{2!} + \frac{\theta^4}{4!} - \dots\right) + \left(i\theta - i\frac{\theta^3}{3!} + i\frac{\theta^5}{5!} - \dots\right)$$

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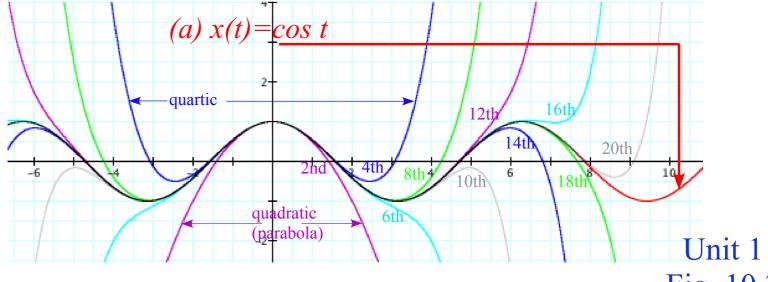
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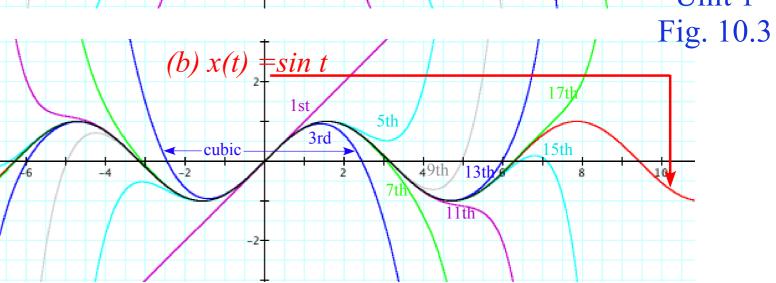
$$= \left(1 - \frac{\theta^2}{2!} + \frac{\theta^4}{4!} - \dots\right) + \left(i\theta - i\frac{\theta^3}{3!} + i\frac{\theta^5}{5!} - \dots\right)$$

 $= \left(1 - \frac{\theta^2}{2!} + \frac{\theta^4}{4!} - \dots\right) + \left(i\theta - i\frac{\theta^3}{3!} + i\frac{\theta^5}{5!} - \dots\right)$ To match series for $\begin{cases} cosine : cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots \\ sine : sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots \end{cases}$

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta$$

Euler-DeMoivre Theorem





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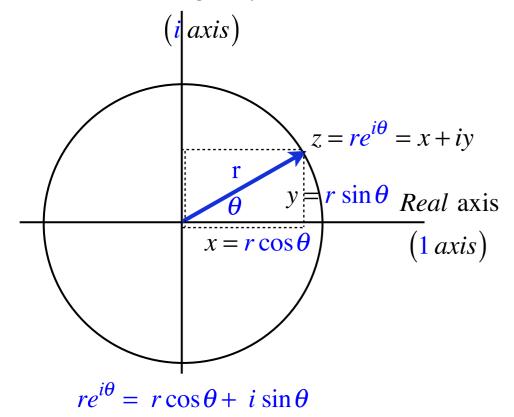
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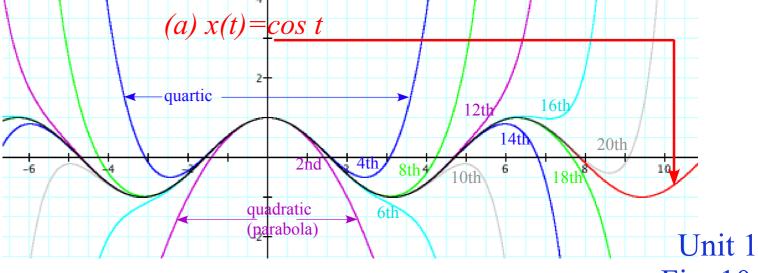
$$(i = \sqrt{-1} \text{ imples: } i^{+} = i, i^{-} = -1, i^{-} = -i, i^{-} = +1, i^{-} = i,...)$$

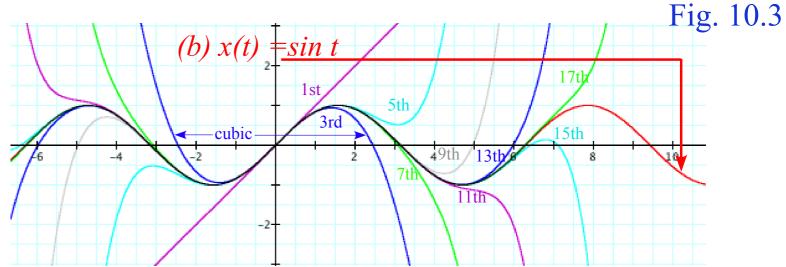
$$e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta$$

Euler-DeMoivre Theorem

Imaginary axis







2. What Good Are Complex Exponentials?

Easy trig

Easy 2D vector analysis

Easy oscillator phase analysis

Easy rotation and "dot" or "cross" products

What Good Are Complex Exponentials?

1. Complex numbers provide "automatic trigonometry"

Can't remember is $\cos(a+b)$ or $\sin(a+b)$? Just factor $e^{i(a+b)} = e^{ia}e^{ib}...$

$$e^{i(a+b)} = e^{ia} \qquad e^{ib}$$

$$\cos(a+b) + i\sin(a+b) = (\cos a + i\sin a) (\cos b + i\sin b)$$

$$\cos(a+b) + i\sin(a+b) = [\cos a\cos b - \sin a\sin b] + i[\sin a\cos b + \cos a\sin b]$$

What Good Are Complex Exponentials?

1. Complex numbers provide "automatic trigonometry"

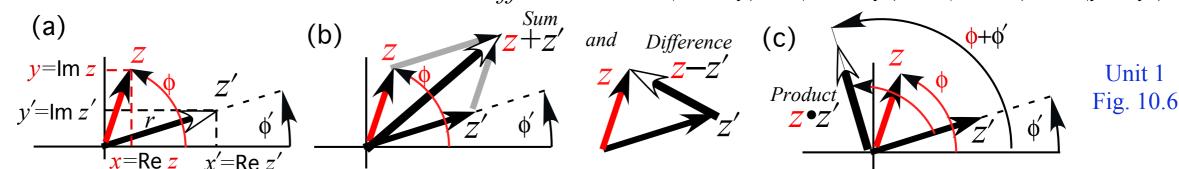
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2. Complex numbers add like vectors. $z_{sum} = z + z' = (x + iy) + (x' + iy') = (x + x') + i(y + y')$ $z_{diff} = z - z' = (x + iy) - (x' + iy') = (x - x') + i(y - y')$

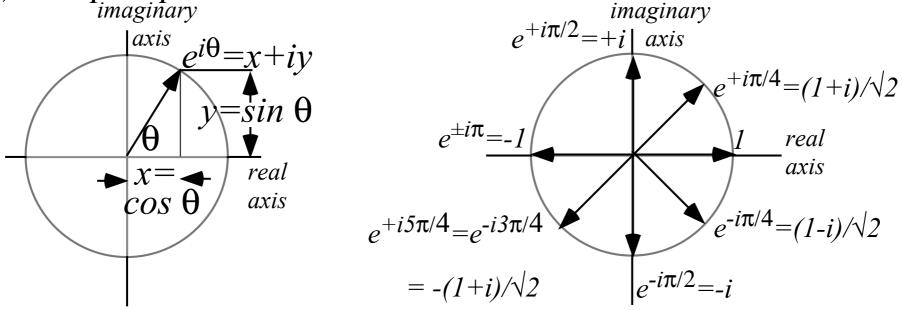


$$|z_{SUM}| = \sqrt{(z+z')^*(z+z')} = \sqrt{(re^{i\phi} + r'e^{i\phi'})^*(re^{i\phi} + r'e^{i\phi'})} = \sqrt{(re^{-i\phi} + r'e^{-i\phi'})(re^{i\phi} + r'e^{i\phi'})}$$

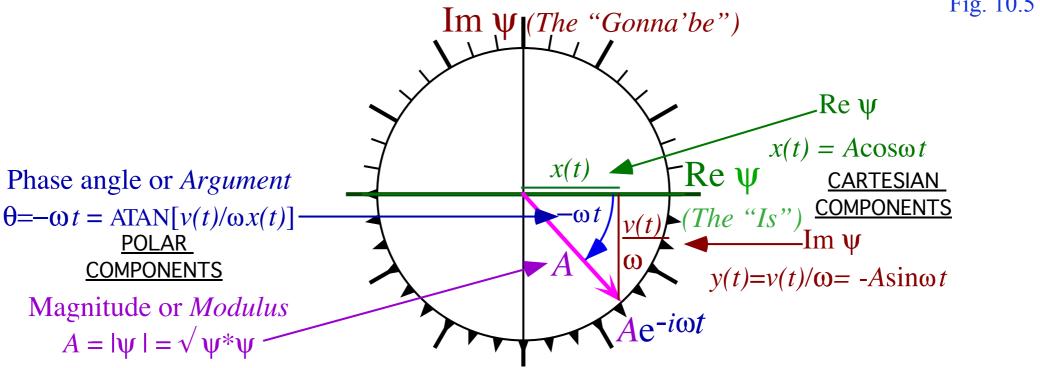
$$= \sqrt{r^2 + r'^2 + rr'(e^{i(\phi-\phi')} + e^{-i(\phi-\phi')})} = \sqrt{r^2 + r'^2 + 2rr'\cos(\phi-\phi')} \qquad (quick \ derivation \ of \ Cosine \ Law)$$

3.Complex exponentials Ae-iot track position and velocity using Phasor Clock.

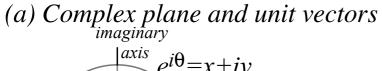
(a) Complex plane and unit vectors

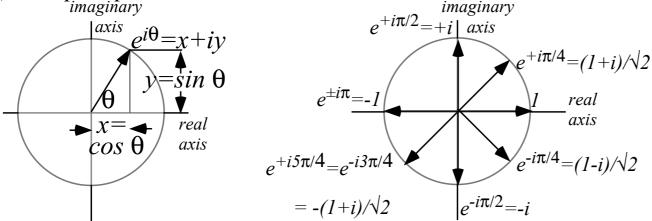


(b) Quantum Phasor Clock $\psi = Ae^{-i\omega t} = A\cos\omega t - i A\sin\omega t = x + iy$ Unit 1 Fig. 10.5

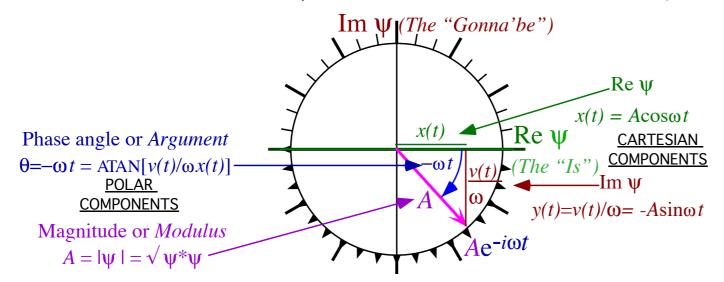


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(b) Quantum Phasor Clock $\psi = Ae^{-i\omega t} = A\cos\omega t - i A\sin\omega t = x + iy$



Unit 1 Fig. 10.5

Some Rect-vs-Polar relations worth remembering

Cartesian
$$\begin{cases} \psi_x = \operatorname{Re} \psi(t) = x(t) = A \cos \omega t = \frac{\psi + \psi^*}{2} \\ \psi_y = \operatorname{Im} \psi(t) = \frac{v(t)}{\omega} = -A \sin \omega t = \frac{\psi - \psi^*}{2i} \end{cases}$$

$$\psi = re^{+i\theta} = re^{-i\omega t} = r(\cos \omega t - i \sin \omega t)$$

$$\psi^* = re^{-i\theta} = re^{+i\omega t} = r(\cos \omega t + i \sin \omega t)$$

$$\begin{cases}
r = A = |\psi| = \sqrt{\psi_x^2 + \psi_y^2} = \sqrt{\psi^* \psi} \\
\theta = -\omega t = \arctan(\psi_y/\psi_x)
\end{cases}$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{1}{2}(e^{+i\theta} + e^{-i\theta}) \qquad \operatorname{Re} \psi = \frac{\psi + \psi^*}{2}$$

$$\sin \theta = \frac{1}{2i}(e^{+i\theta} - e^{-i\theta}) \qquad \operatorname{Im} \psi = \frac{\psi - \psi^*}{2i}$$

2. What Good Are Complex Exponentials?

Easy trig

Easy 2D vector analysis

Easy oscillator phase analysis

Easy rotation and "dot" or "cross" products

4. Complex products provide 2D rotation operations.

$$e^{i\phi} \cdot z = (\cos\phi + i\sin\phi) \cdot (x + iy) = x \cos\phi - y \sin\phi + i (x \sin\phi + y \cos\phi)$$

$$\mathbf{R}_{+\phi} \cdot \mathbf{r} = (x \cos\phi - y \sin\phi) \hat{\mathbf{e}}_x + (x \sin\phi + y \cos\phi) \hat{\mathbf{e}}_y$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos\phi & -\sin\phi \\ \sin\phi & \cos\phi \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \cos\phi - y \sin\phi \\ x \sin\phi + y \cos\phi \end{pmatrix}$$

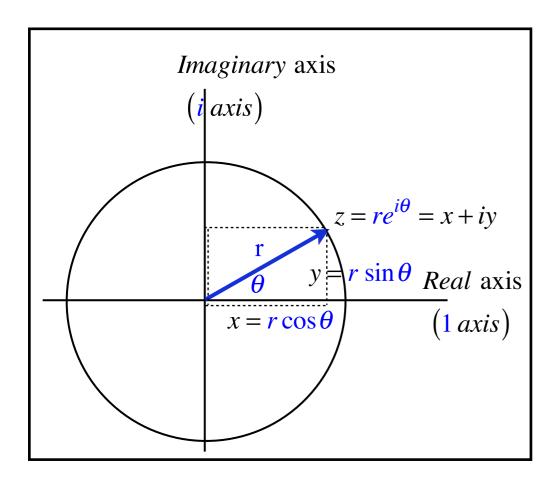
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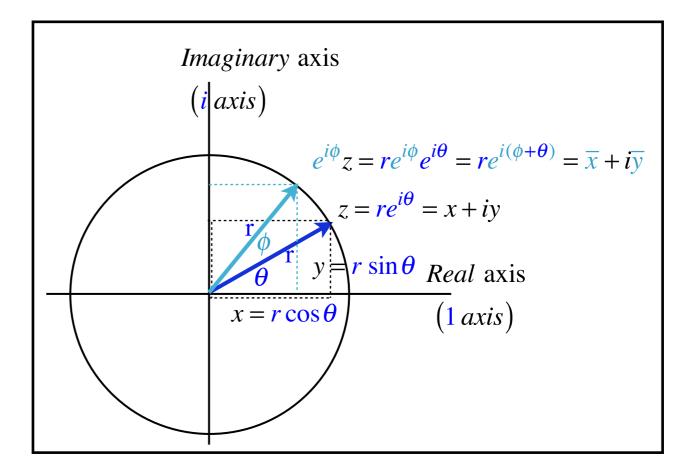
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 $e^{i\phi}$ acts on this: $z = re^{i\theta}$



to give this: $e^{i\phi} e^{i\phi} z = re^{i\phi} e^{i\theta}$



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5. Complex products provide 2D "dot"(•) and "cross"(x) products.

Two complex numbers $A = A_x + iA_y$ and $B = B_x + iB_y$ and their "star" (*)-product A *B.

$$A * B = (A_x + iA_y)^* (B_x + iB_y) = (A_x - iA_y)(B_x + iB_y)$$

= $(A_x B_x + A_y B_y) + i(A_x B_y - A_y B_x) = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} + i \mid \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} \mid_{Z \perp (x,y)}$

Real part is scalar or "dot" (•) product A•B.

Imaginary part is vector or "cross"(\times) product, but <u>just</u> the Z-component <u>normal</u> to xy-plane.

Rewrite A*B in polar form.

$$A * B = (|A|e^{i\theta_A})^* (|B|e^{i\theta_B}) = |A|e^{-i\theta_A} |B|e^{i\theta_B} = |A||B|e^{i(\theta_B - \theta_A)}$$
$$= |A||B|\cos(\theta_B - \theta_A) + i|A||B|\sin(\theta_B - \theta_A) = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} + i|\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}|_{Z\perp(x,y)}$$

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Rewrite A*B in polar form.

What Good are complex variables?

Easy 2D vector calculus

Easy 2D vector derivatives

Easy 2D source-free field theory

Easy 2D vector field-potential theory

6. Complex derivative contains "divergence" $(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F})$ and "curl" $(\nabla \times \mathbf{F})$ of 2D vector field

Relation of (z,z^*) to (x=Rez,y=Imz) defines a z-derivative $\frac{df}{dz}$ and "star" z^* -derivative. $\frac{df}{dz^*}$

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7. Invent source-free 2D vector fields $[\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = 0]$ and $\nabla \mathbf{x} \mathbf{F} = 0$

We can invent *source-free 2D vector fields* that are both *zero-divergence* and *zero-curl*. Take any function f(z), conjugate it (change all i's to -i) to give $f^*(z^*)$ for which $\frac{df^*}{dz} = 0$.

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For example: if $f(z)=a\cdot z$ then $f^*(z^*)=a\cdot z^*=a(x-iy)$ is not function of z so it has zero z-derivative.

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$$\nabla \bullet \mathbf{F} = \frac{\partial F_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial (ax)}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial F(-ay)}{\partial y} = 0$$

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$$A DFL \text{ field } \mathbf{F} \text{ (Divergence-Free-Laminar)}$$

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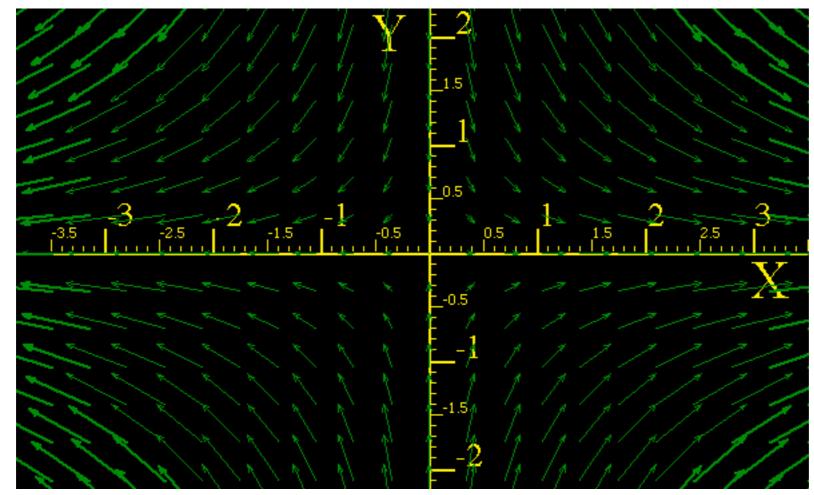
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 $\mathbf{F} = (f_{x}^{*}, f_{y}^{*}) = (a \cdot x, -a \cdot y)$ is a divergence-free laminar (DFL) field.

Monday, October 13, 2014

precursor to Unit 1 Fig. 10.7

What Good are complex variables?

Easy 2D vector calculus

Easy 2D vector derivatives

Easy 2D source-free field theory

Easy 2D vector field-potential theory

8. Complex potential ϕ contains "scalar" ($\mathbf{F} = \nabla \Phi$) and "vector" ($\mathbf{F} = \nabla x \mathbf{A}$) potentials

Any *DFL* field **F** is a gradient of a scalar potential field Φ or a curl of a vector potential field **A**. $\mathbf{F} = \nabla \Phi$ $\mathbf{F} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A}$

A *complex potential* $\phi(z) = \Phi(x,y) + iA(x,y)$ exists whose z-derivative is $f(z) = d\phi/dz$.

Its complex conjugate $\phi^*(z^*) = \Phi(x,y) - iA(x,y)$ has z^* -derivative $f^*(z^*) = d\phi^*/dz^*$ giving *DFL* field **F**.

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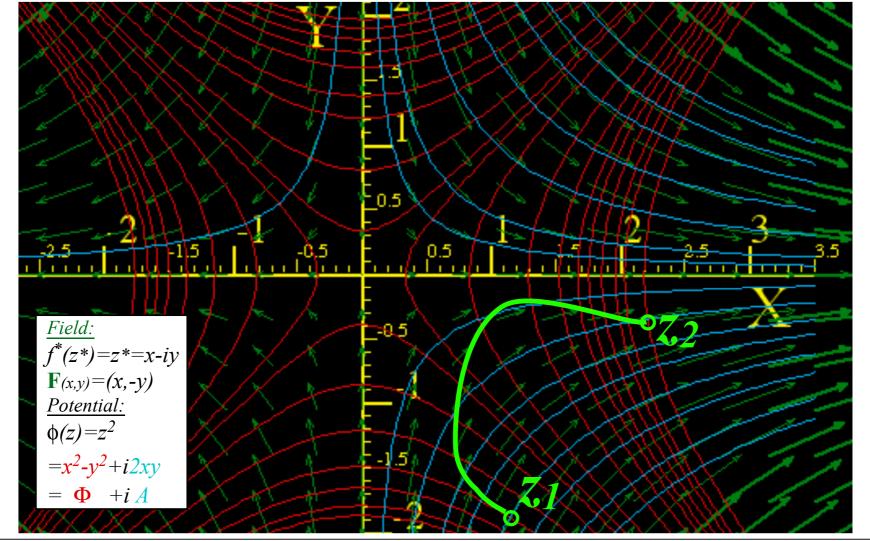
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Unit 1 Fig. 10.7

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A complex potential $\phi(z) = \Phi(x,y) + iA(x,y)$ exists whose z-derivative is $f(z) = d\phi/dz$.

Its complex conjugate $\phi^*(z^*) = \Phi(x,y) - iA(x,y)$ has z^* -derivative $f^*(z^*) = d\phi^*/dz^*$ giving *DFL* field **F**.

To find $\phi = \Phi + i\mathbf{A}$ integrate $f(z) = a \cdot z$ to get ϕ and isolate real (Re $\phi = \Phi$) and imaginary (Im $\phi = \mathbf{A}$) parts.

$$f(z) = \frac{d\phi}{dz} \implies \phi = \underbrace{\Phi}_{=\frac{1}{2}} + i \underbrace{A}_{=\frac{1}{2}} = \int f \cdot dz = \int az \cdot dz = \frac{1}{2} az^2 = \frac{1}{2} a(x + iy)^2$$

$$= \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} a(x^2 - y^2)}_{=\frac{1}{2}} + i \underbrace{axy}_{=\frac{1}{2}}$$

BONUS! Get a free coordinate system!

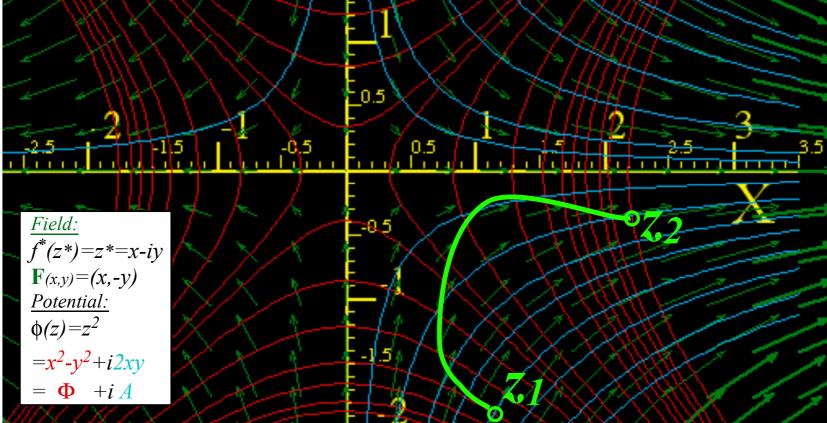
The (Φ, A) grid is a GCC coordinate system*:

$$q^{l} = \Phi = (x^{2}-y^{2})/2 = const.$$

$$q^{2} = A = (xy) = const.$$

*Actually it's OCC.





What Good are complex variables?

Easy 2D vector calculus

Easy 2D vector derivatives

Easy 2D source-free field theory

Easy 2D vector field-potential theory

The half-n'-half results: (Riemann-Cauchy Derivative Relations)

8. (contd.) Complex potential ϕ contains "scalar"($\mathbf{F} = \nabla \Phi$) and "vector"($\mathbf{F} = \nabla x \mathbf{A}$) potentials ...and either one (or half-n'-half!) works just as well.

Derivative
$$\frac{d\phi^*}{dz^*}$$
 has 2D gradient $\nabla \Phi = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix}$ of scalar Φ and curl $\nabla \times \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix}$ of vector \mathbf{A} (and they're equal!)
$$\frac{d}{dz^*} \phi^* = \frac{d}{dz^*} (\Phi - i\mathbf{A}) = \frac{1}{2} (\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + i\frac{\partial}{\partial y})(\Phi - i\mathbf{A}) = \frac{1}{2} (\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} + i\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial y}) + \frac{1}{2} (\frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial y} - i\frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial x}) = \frac{1}{2} \nabla \Phi + \frac{1}{2} \nabla \times \mathbf{A}$$

$$\frac{d}{dz} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \frac{i}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial y}$$

$$\frac{d}{dz^*} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \frac{i}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial y}$$

8. (contd.) Complex potential ϕ contains "scalar"($\mathbf{F} = \nabla \Phi$) and "vector"($\mathbf{F} = \nabla x \mathbf{A}$) potentials ...and either one (or half-n'-half!) works just as well.

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$$\frac{d}{dz^*} \phi^* = \frac{d}{dz^*} (\Phi - i\mathbf{A}) = \frac{1}{2} (\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + i\frac{\partial}{\partial y})(\Phi - i\mathbf{A}) = \frac{1}{2} (\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} + i\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial y}) + \frac{1}{2} (\frac{\partial A}{\partial y} - i\frac{\partial A}{\partial x}) = \frac{1}{2} \nabla_{\Phi} + \frac{1}{2} \nabla$$

Note, mathematician definition of force field $\mathbf{F} = +\nabla \Phi$ replaces usual physicist's definition $\mathbf{F} = -\nabla \Phi$

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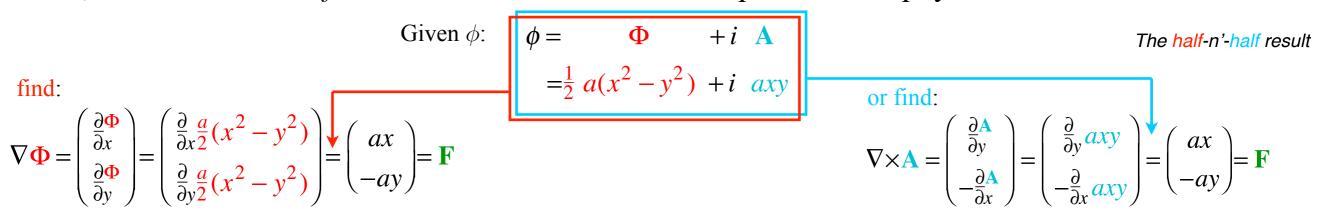
Derivative
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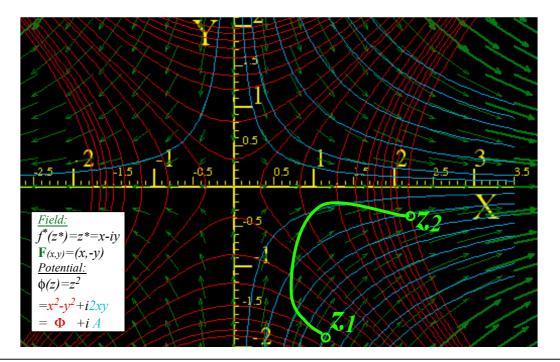
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Scalar static potential lines Φ =const. and vector flux potential lines \mathbf{A} =const. define DFL field-net.

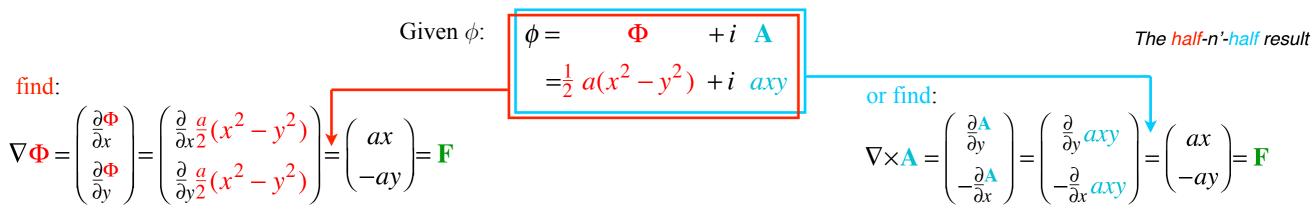


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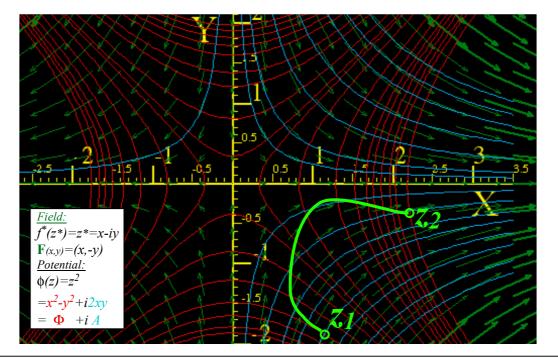
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$$\frac{d\phi^*}{dz^*}$$
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The half-n'-half result
$$\frac{d}{dz^*}\phi^* = \frac{d}{dz^*}(\Phi - i\mathbf{A}) = \frac{1}{2}(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + i\frac{\partial}{\partial y})(\Phi - i\mathbf{A}) = \frac{1}{2}(\frac{\partial\Phi}{\partial x} + i\frac{\partial\Phi}{\partial y}) + \frac{1}{2}(\frac{\partial\mathbf{A}}{\partial y} - i\frac{\partial\mathbf{A}}{\partial x}) = \frac{1}{2}\nabla\Phi + \frac{1}{2}\nabla\times\mathbf{A}$$

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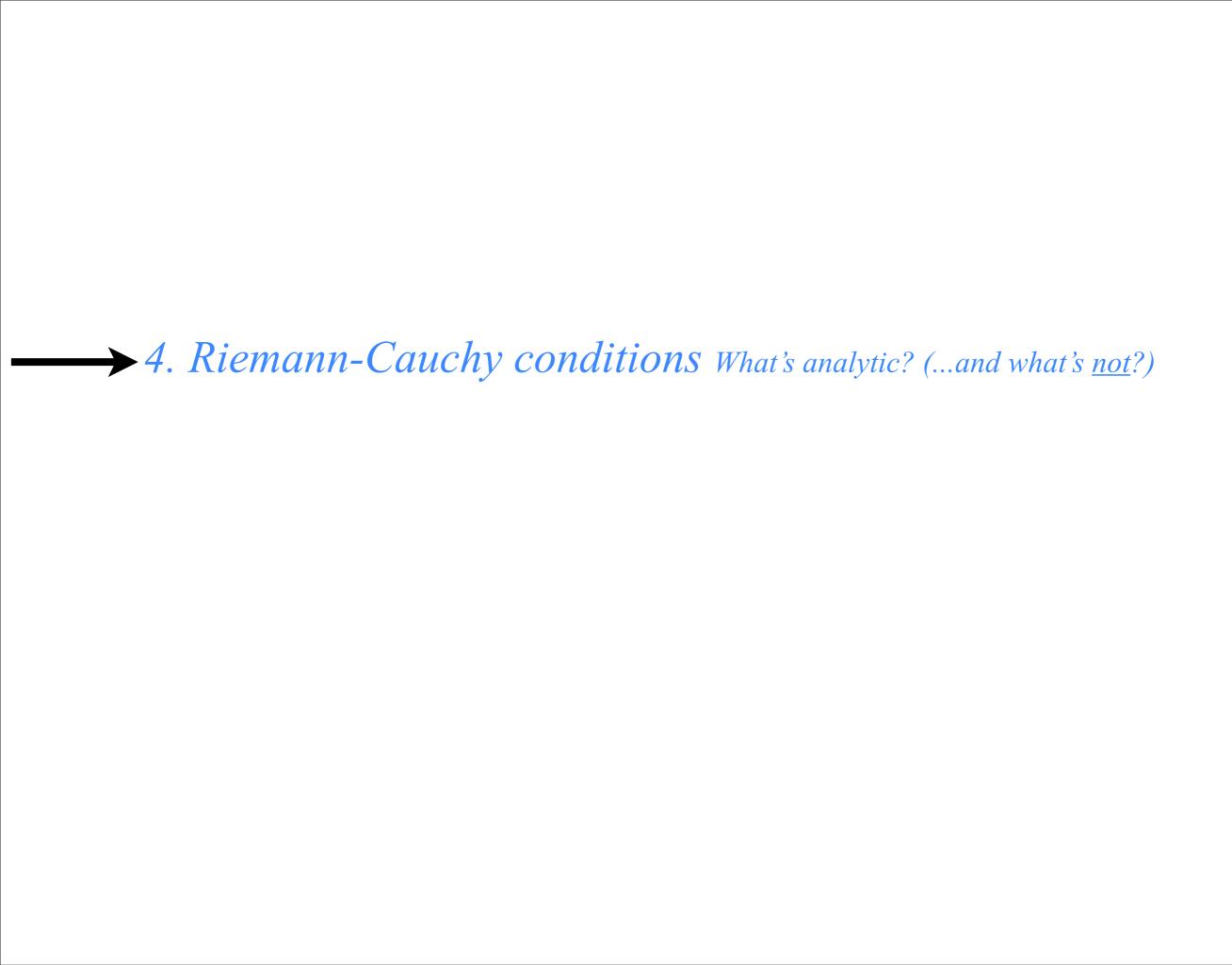
The half-n'-half results

are called

Riemann-Cauchy

Derivative Relations

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{\Phi}}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial y} \quad \text{is:} \quad \frac{\partial \mathbf{Re}f(z)}{\partial x} = \quad \frac{\partial \mathbf{Im}f(z)}{\partial y}$$
$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{\Phi}}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial x} \quad \text{is:} \quad \frac{\partial \mathbf{Re}f(z)}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{Im}f(z)}{\partial x}$$



Review (z,z^*) to (x,y) transformation relations

$$z = x + iy \qquad x = \frac{1}{2} (z + z^*) \qquad \frac{df}{dz} = \frac{\partial x}{\partial z} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial z} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{2i} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - i \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) f$$

$$z^* = x - iy \qquad y = \frac{1}{2i} (z - z^*) \qquad \frac{df}{dz^*} = \frac{\partial x}{\partial z^*} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial z^*} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{2i} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) f$$

Criteria for a field function $f = f_x(x,y) + i f_y(x,y)$ to be an **analytic function f(z)** of z = x + iy:

First, f(z) must <u>not</u> be a function of $z^*=x-iy$, that is: $\frac{df}{dz^*}=0$

This implies f(z) satisfies differential equations known as the Riemann-Cauchy conditions

$$\frac{df}{dz^*} = 0 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) (f_x + i f_y) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial f_x}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial f_y}{\partial y} \right) + \frac{i}{2} \left(\frac{\partial f_y}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f_x}{\partial y} \right) implies : \left(\frac{\partial f_x}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f_y}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial f_y}{\partial y} \right) implies : \left(\frac{\partial f_x}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f_y}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial f_y}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial f_y}{\partial y} \right) implies : \left(\frac{\partial f_x}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial f_y}{\partial y} - \frac$$

$$\frac{df}{dz} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - i \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) (f_x + i f_y) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial f_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f_y}{\partial y} \right) + \frac{i}{2} \left(\frac{\partial f_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial f_x}{\partial y} \right) = \frac{\partial f_x}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial f_y}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f_y}{\partial y} - i \frac{\partial f_x}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (f_x + i f_y) = \frac{\partial}{\partial i y} (f_x + i f_y)$$

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First, $f(z^*)$ must <u>not</u> be a function of z=x+iy, that is: $\frac{df}{dz}=0$

This implies f(z*) satisfies differential equations we call Anti-Riemann-Cauchy conditions

$$\frac{df}{dz} = 0 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - i \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) (f_x + i f_y) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial f_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f_y}{\partial y} \right) + \frac{i}{2} \left(\frac{\partial f_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial f_x}{\partial y} \right) = implies : \frac{\partial f_x}{\partial x} = -\frac{\partial f_y}{\partial y} \quad and : \frac{\partial f_y}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f_x}{\partial y}$$

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Example: Is f(x,y) = 2x + iy an analytic function of z=z+iy?

Example: Q: Is f(x,y) = 2x + i4y an analytic function of z=z+iy?

Well, test it using definitions: z = x + iy and: $z^* = x - iy$ or: $x = (z+z^*)/2$ and: $y = -i(z-z^*)/2$

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Example 2: Q: Is $r(x,y) = x^2 + y^2$ an analytic function of z=z+iy?

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Example: Q: Is f(x,y) = 2x + i4y an analytic function of z=z+iy?

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Example 3: Q: Is $s(x,y) = x^2-y^2 + 2ixy$ an analytic function of z=z+iy?

A: YES! $s(xy)=(x+iy)^2=z^2$ is analytic function of z. (Yay!)

4. Riemann-Cauchy conditions What's analytic? (...and what's not?)

Easy 2D circulation and flux integrals

Easy 2D curvilinear coordinate discovery

Easy 2D monopole, dipole, and 2ⁿ-pole analysis

Easy 2ⁿ-multipole field and potential expansion

Easy stereo-projection visualization

9. Complex integrals ∫ f(z)dz count 2D "circulation"(∫F•dr) and "flux"(∫Fxdr)

Integral of f(z) between point z_1 and point z_2 is potential difference $\Delta \phi = \phi(z_2) - \phi(z_1)$

$$\Delta \phi = \phi(z_2) - \phi(z_1) = \int_{z_1}^{z_2} f(z)dz = \Phi(x_2, y_2) - \Phi(x_1, y_1) + i[A(x_2, y_2) - A(x_1, y_1)]$$

$$\Delta \phi = \Delta \Phi + i \Delta A$$

In *DFL*-field **F**, $\Delta \phi$ is independent of the integration path z(t) connecting z_1 and z_2 .

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In *DFL*-field **F**, $\Delta \phi$ is independent of the integration path z(t) connecting z_1 and z_2 .

$$\int f(z)dz = \int (f^*(z^*))^* dz = \int (f^*(z^*))^* (dx + i dy) = \int (f_x^* + i f_y^*)^* (dx + i dy) = \int (f_x^* - i f_y^*) (dx + i dy)$$

$$= \int (f_x^* dx + f_y^* dy) + i \int (f_x^* dy - f_y^* dx)$$

$$= \int \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} + i \int \mathbf{F} \times d\mathbf{r} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{e}}_Z$$

$$= \int \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} + i \int \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} \times \hat{\mathbf{e}}_Z$$

$$= \int \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} + i \int \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} \quad \text{where:} \quad d\mathbf{S} = d\mathbf{r} \times \hat{\mathbf{e}}_Z$$

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$$\Delta \phi = \phi(z_2) - \phi(z_1) = \int_{z_1}^{z_2} f(z)dz = \Phi(x_2, y_2) - \Phi(x_1, y_1) + i[A(x_2, y_2) - A(x_1, y_1)]$$

$$\Delta \phi = \Delta \Phi + i \Delta A$$

In *DFL*-field **F**, $\Delta \phi$ is independent of the integration path z(t) connecting z_1 and z_2 .

$$\int f(z)dz = \int \left(f^*(z^*)\right)^* dz = \int \left(f^*(z^*)\right)^* \left(dx + i \, dy\right) = \int \left(f_x^* + i \, f_y^*\right)^* \left(dx + i \, dy\right) = \int \left(f_x^* - i \, f_y^*\right) \left(dx + i \, dy\right)$$

$$= \int \left(f_x^* dx + f_y^* dy\right) + i \int \left(f_x^* dy - f_y^* dx\right)$$

$$= \int \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} + i \int \mathbf{F} \times d\mathbf{r} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{e}}_Z$$

$$= \int \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} + i \int \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} \times \hat{\mathbf{e}}_Z$$

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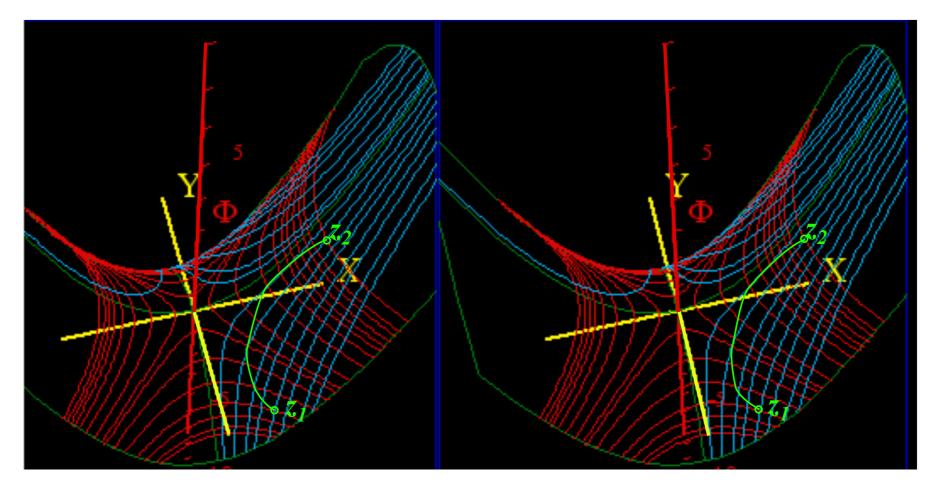
F dr
Big F•dr

Real part $\int_1^2 \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \Delta \Phi$ sums \mathbf{F} projections *along* path $d\mathbf{r}$ that is, *circulation* on path to get $\Delta \Phi$.

Imaginary part $\int_{1}^{2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \Delta \mathbf{A}$ sums \mathbf{F} projection *across* path $d\mathbf{r}$ that is, *flux* thru surface

elements $dS=dr\times e_Z$ normal to dr to get ΔA .

Here the scalar potential $\Phi = (x^2 - y^2)/2$ is stereo-plotted vs. (x,y)The $\Phi = (x^2 - y^2)/2 = const.$ curves are topography lines The A = (xy) = const. curves are streamlines normal to topography lines



4. Riemann-Cauchy conditions What's analytic? (...and what's not?)

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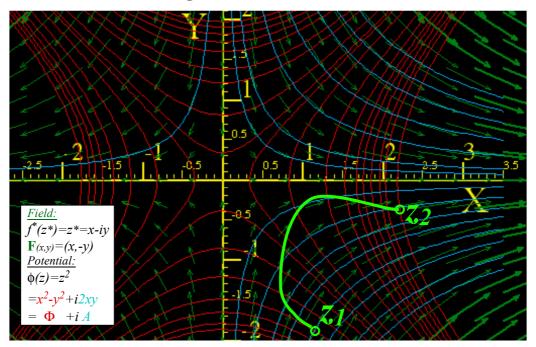
10. Complex potentials define 2D Orthogonal Curvilinear Coordinates (OCC) of field

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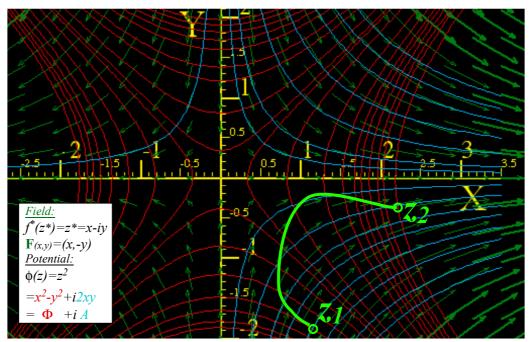
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$$\uparrow \qquad \uparrow \qquad \uparrow$$

$$\mathbf{E}_{\Phi} \quad \mathbf{E}_{\Phi} \quad$$

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$$The half-n'-half results assure$$

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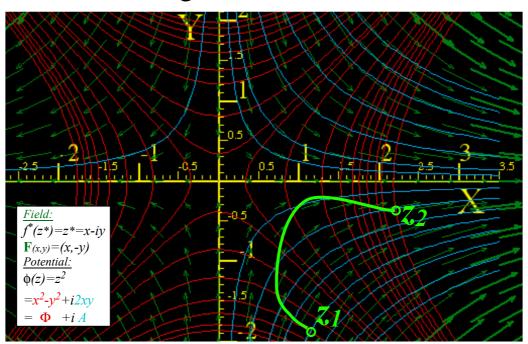
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Zero divergence requirement: $0 = \frac{\partial f_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f_y}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial y^2} = 0$ potential Φ obeys Laplace equation

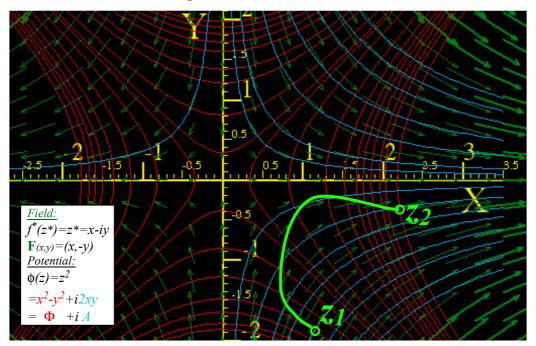
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or Riemann-Cauchy

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and so does A

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11. Complex integrals define 2D monopole fields and potentials

Of all power-law fields $f(z)=az^n$ one lacks a power-law potential $\phi(z)=\frac{a}{n+1}z^{n+1}$. It is the n=-1 case.

Unit monopole field:
$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z} = z^{-1}$$
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It has a *logarithmic potential* $\phi(z) = a \cdot \ln(z) = a \cdot \ln(x + iy)$.

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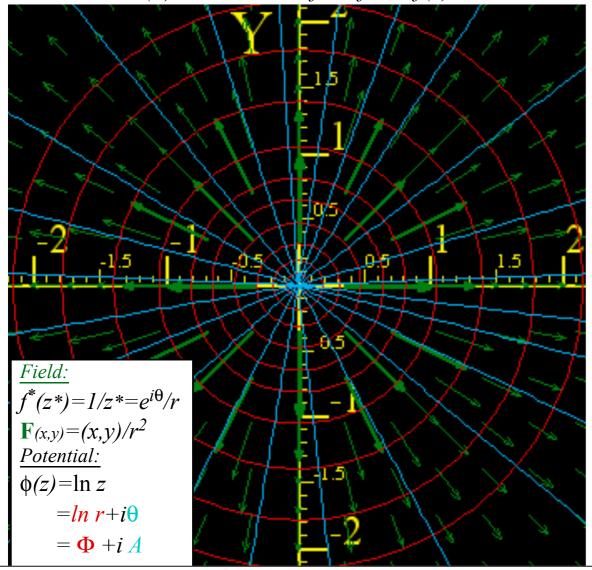
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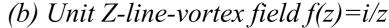
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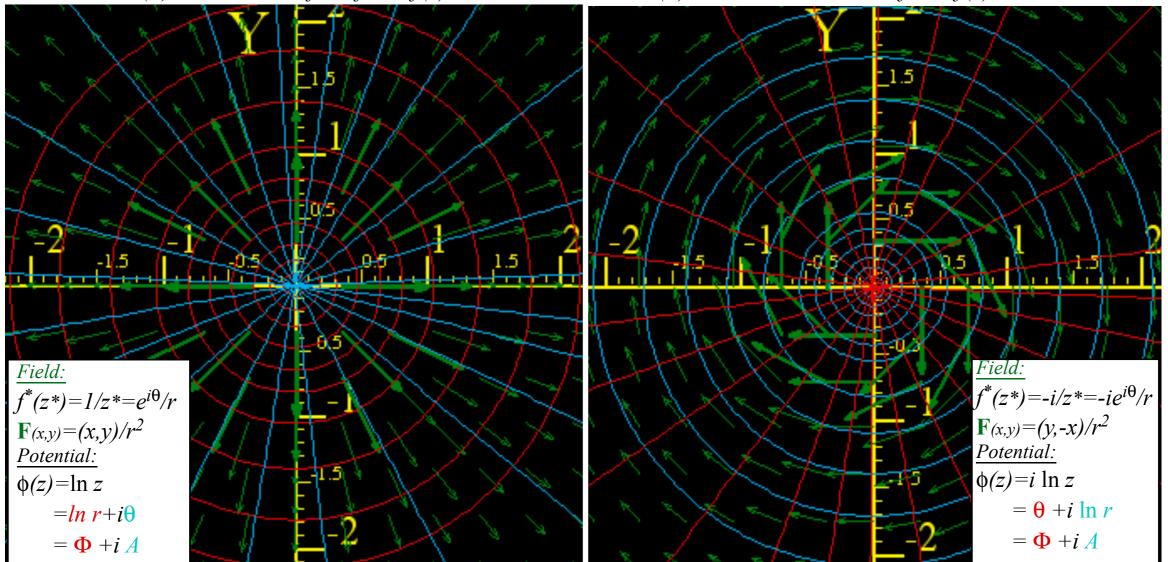
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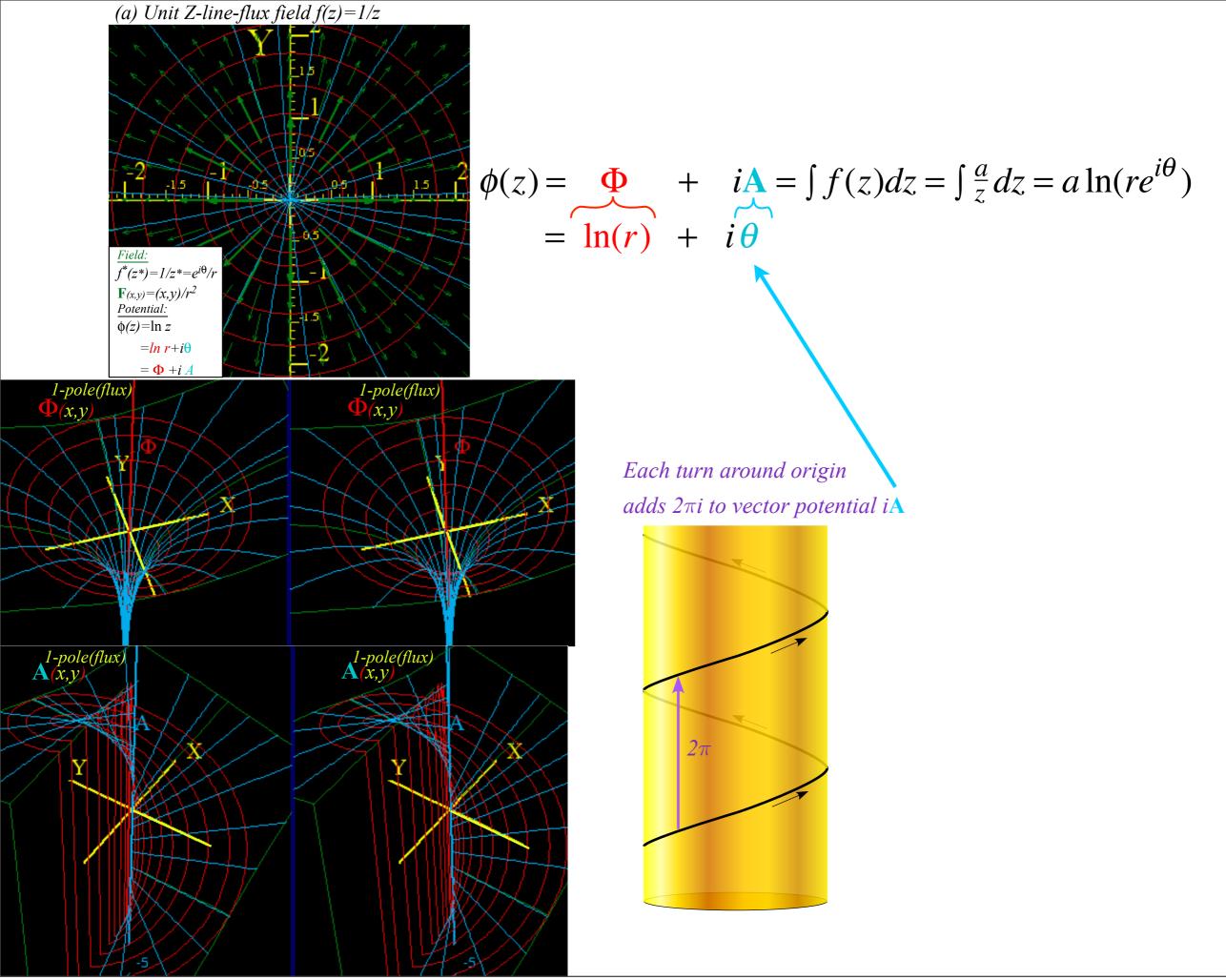
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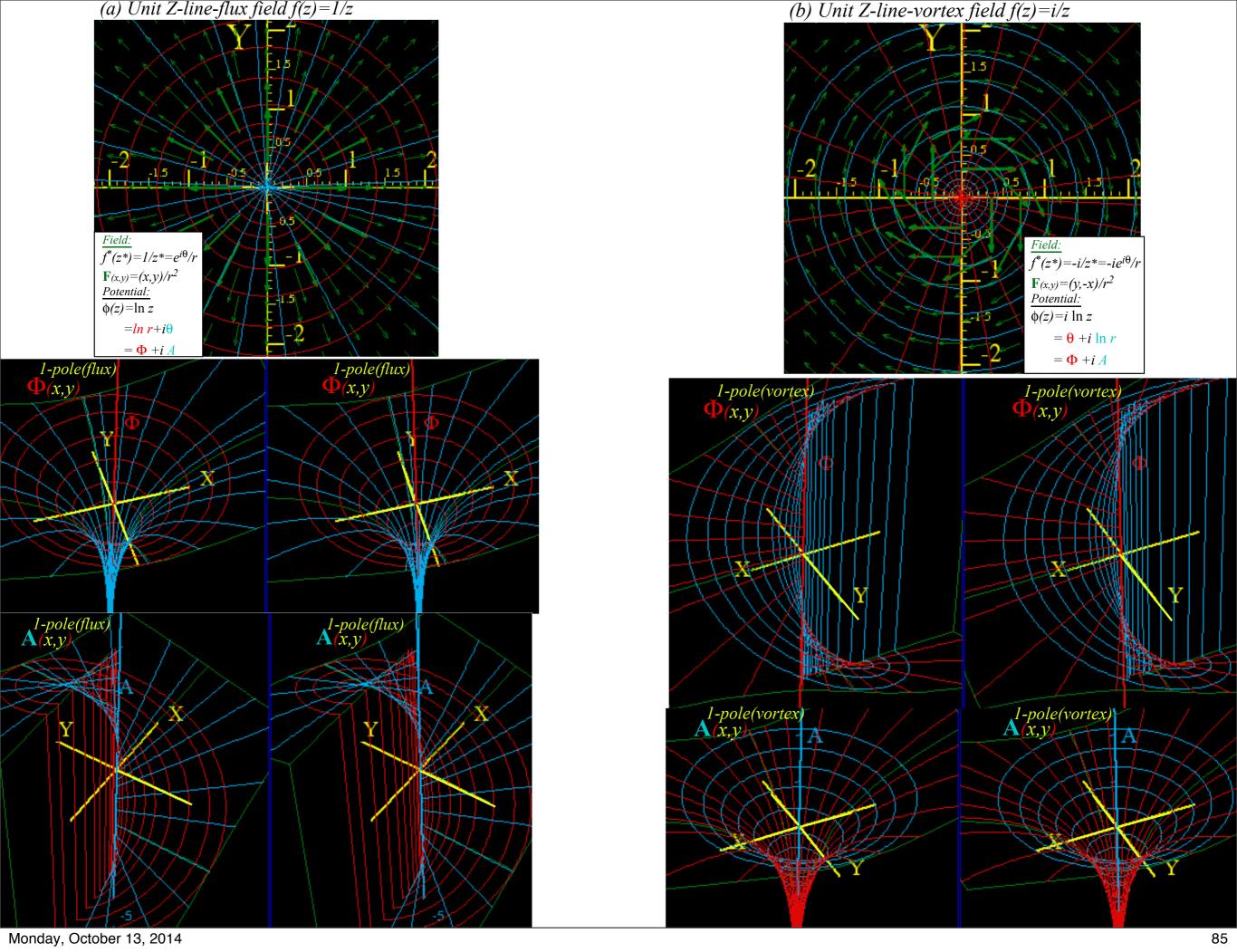
A monopole field is the only power-law field whose integral (potential) depends on path of integration.

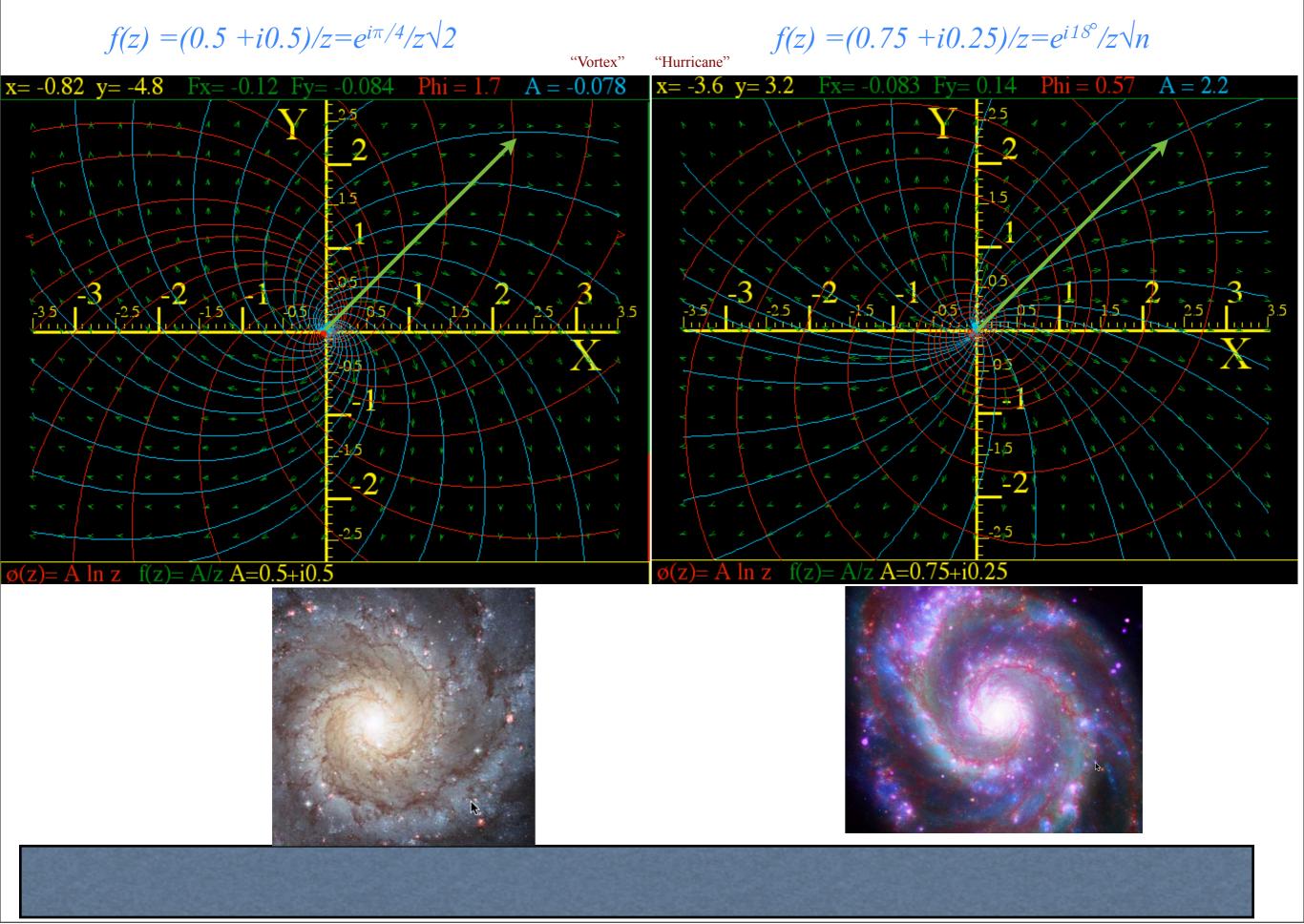
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$$\Delta \phi = \oint f(z)dz = a \oint \frac{dz}{z} = a \int_{\theta=0}^{\theta=2\pi N} \frac{d(Re^{i\theta})}{Re^{i\theta}} = a \int_{\theta=0}^{\theta=2\pi N} id\theta = ai\theta \Big|_{0}^{2\pi N} = 2a\pi iN$$







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12. Complex derivatives give 2D dipole fields

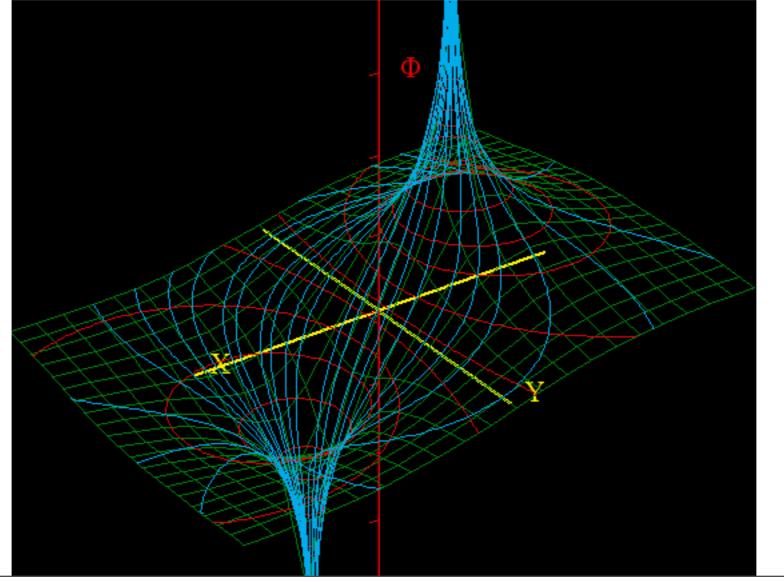
Start with $f(z)=az^{-1}$: 2D line *monopole field* and is its *monopole potential* $\phi(z)=a\ln z$ of source strength a.

$$f^{1-pole}(z) = \frac{a}{z} = \frac{d\phi^{1-pole}}{dz} \qquad \phi^{1-pole}(z) = a \ln z$$

Now let these two line-sources of equal but opposite source constants +a and -a be located at $z=\pm\Delta/2$ separated by a small interval Δ . This sum (actually difference) of f^{l-pole} -fields is called a *dipole field*.

$$f^{dipole}(z) = \frac{a}{z + \frac{\Delta}{2}} - \frac{a}{z - \frac{\Delta}{2}} = \frac{-a \cdot \Delta}{z^2 - \frac{\Delta}{2}}$$

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So-called "physical dipole" has finite Δ

(+)(-) separation

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If interval Δ is tiny and is divided out we get a point-dipole field $f^{2\text{-pole}}$ that is the z-derivative of $f^{1\text{-pole}}$.

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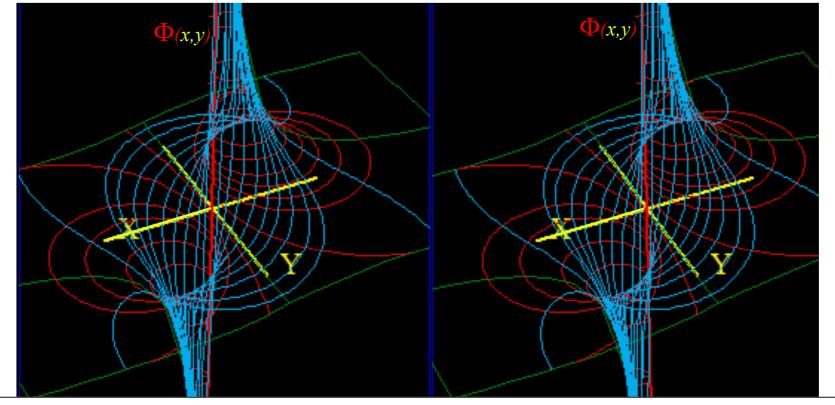
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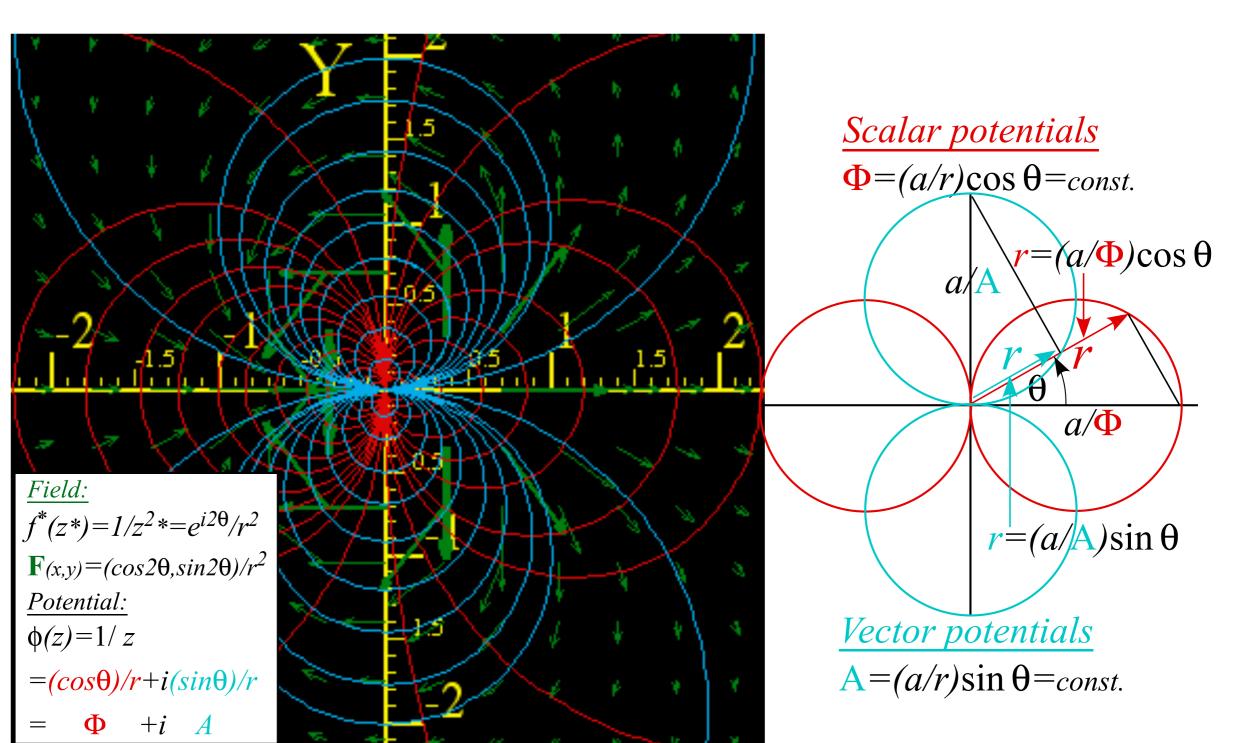
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A *point-dipole potential* $\phi^{2\text{-pole}}$ (whose *z*-derivative is $f^{2\text{-pole}}$) is a *z*-derivative of $\phi^{1\text{-pole}}$.

$$\phi^{2-pole} = \frac{a}{z} = \frac{a}{x+iy} = \frac{a}{x+iy} \frac{x-iy}{x-iy} = \frac{ax}{x^2+y^2} + i\frac{-ay}{x^2+y^2} = \frac{a}{r}\cos\theta - i\frac{a}{r}\sin\theta$$
$$= \Phi^{2-pole} + i\mathbf{A}^{2-pole}$$

A *point-dipole potential* $\phi^{2\text{-pole}}$ (whose z-derivative is $f^{2\text{-pole}}$) is a z-derivative of $\phi^{1\text{-pole}}$.

$$\phi^{2-pole} = \frac{a}{z} = \frac{a}{x+iy} = \frac{a}{x+iy} = \frac{ax}{x-iy} = \frac{ax}{x^2+y^2} + i\frac{-ay}{x^2+y^2} = \frac{a}{r}\cos\theta - i\frac{a}{r}\sin\theta$$
$$= \Phi^{2-pole} + i \Lambda^{2-pole}$$



2^n -pole analysis (quadrupole: 2^2 =4-pole, octapole: 2^3 =8-pole, ..., pole dancer,

What if we put a (-)copy of a 2-pole near its original?

Well, the result is 4-pole or quadrupole field f^{4-pole} and potential ϕ^{4-pole} .

Each a *z*-derivative of $f^{2\text{-pole}}$ and $\phi^{2\text{-pole}}$.

$$f^{4-pole} = \frac{a}{z^3} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{df^{2-pole}}{dz} = \frac{d\phi^{4-pole}}{dz}$$

$$\phi^{4-pole} = -\frac{a}{2z^2} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d\phi^{2-pole}}{dz}$$

2^n -pole analysis (quadrupole: 2^2 =4-pole, octapole: 2^3 =8-pole, ..., pole dancer,

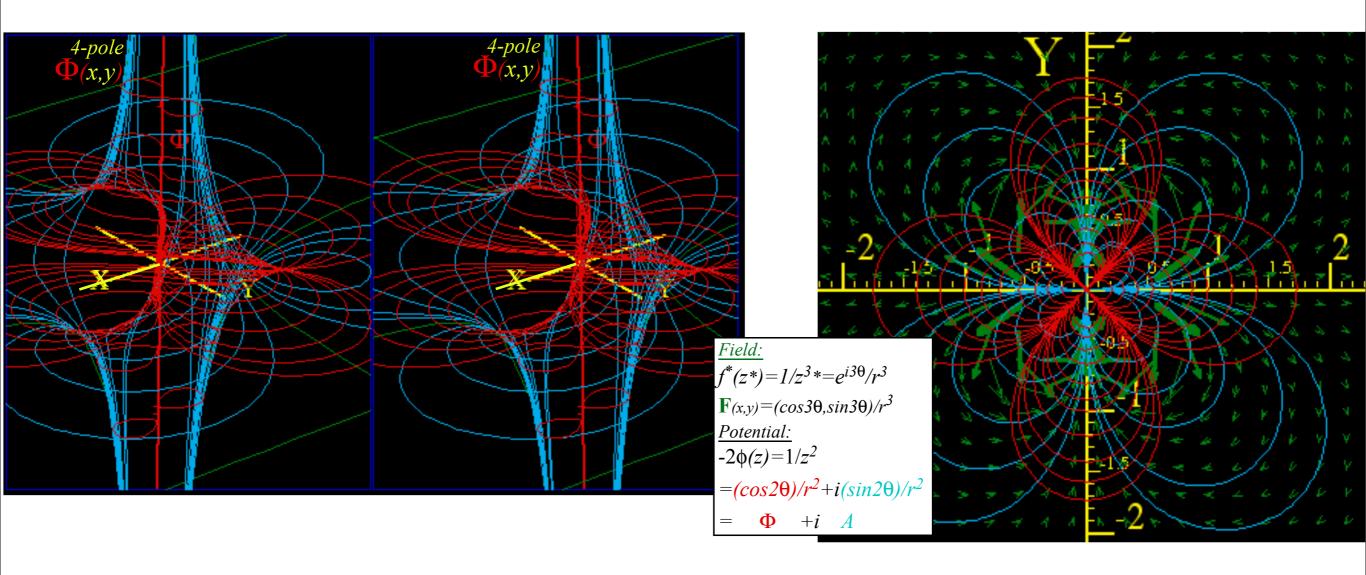
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4. Riemann-Cauchy conditions What's analytic? (...and what's not?)

Easy 2D circulation and flux integrals

Easy 2D curvilinear coordinate discovery

Easy 2D monopole, dipole, and 2ⁿ-pole analysis

Easy 2ⁿ-multipole field and potential expansion

Easy stereo-projection visualization

2ⁿ-pole analysis: Laurent series (Generalization of Maclaurin-Taylor series)

Laurent series or multipole expansion of a given complex field function f(z) around z=0.

$$\frac{d\phi}{dz} = f(z) = \dots a_{-3}z^{-3} + a_{-2}z^{-2} + a_{-1}z^{-1} + a_0 + a_1z + a_2z^2 + a_3z^3 + a_4z^4 + a_5z^5 + \dots$$

$$\dots 2^2 \text{-pole} \quad 2^1 \text{-pole} \quad 2^0 \text{-pole} \quad 2^1 \text{-pole} \quad 2^2 \text{-pole} \quad 2^3 \text{-pole} \quad 2^4 \text{-pole} \quad 2^5 \text{-pole} \quad 2^6 \text{-pole} \dots$$

$$(quadrupole) \quad (dipole) \quad (dipole) \quad (dipole) \quad (quadrupole) \quad (octapole) \quad (hexadecapole) \quad at z = \infty \quad at z = \infty$$

$$1 + a_1 \ln z + a_0z + a_1 \ln z + a_0z + a_1 \ln z + a_2z^2 + a_2 \ln z^3 + a_1 \ln z + a_2 \ln z^4 + a_2 \ln z^5 + a_2 \ln z^6 + \dots$$

All field terms $a_{m-1}z^{m-1}$ except 1-pole $\frac{a}{z}$ have potential term $a_{m-1}z^m/m$ of a 2^m -pole.

These are located at z=0 for m<0 and at $z=\infty$ for m>0.

$$\phi(z) = \dots \frac{a_{-4}}{-3} z^{-3} + \frac{a_{-3}}{-2} z^{-2} + \frac{a_{-2}}{-1} z^{-1} + \frac{a_{-1} \ln z}{2} + \frac{a_{0}z}{2} + \frac{a_{1}}{2} z^{2} + \frac{a_{2}}{3} z^{3} + \dots$$

$$(octapole)_{0} \quad (dipole)_{\infty} \quad (quadrupole)_{\infty} \quad (octapole)_{\infty} \quad (a_{1} + a_{1} + a_{2} + a_{3} + a_{2} + a_{3} + a_{3} + a_{3} + a_{3} + a_{4} + a_{5} + a_{$$

2ⁿ-pole analysis: Laurent series (Generalization of Maclaurin-Taylor series)

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$$(quadrupole) \quad (dipole) \quad (dipole) \quad (dipole) \quad (dipole) \quad (at z = \infty) \quad (at z = \infty)$$

All field terms $a_{m-1}z^{m-1}$ except 1-pole $\frac{a}{z}$ have potential term $a_{m-1}z^m/m$ of a 2^m -pole.

These are located at z=0 for m<0 and at $z=\infty$ for m>0.

$$\phi(z) = \dots \frac{a_{-3}}{-2} z^{-2} + \frac{a_{-3}}{-2} z^{-2} + \frac{a_{-2}}{-1} z^{-1} + a_{-1} \ln z + a_0 z + \frac{a_1}{2} z^2 + \frac{a_2}{3} z^3 + \dots$$

$$\phi(w) = \dots \frac{a_{-4}}{-3} w^{-3} + \frac{a_{-3}}{-2} w^{-2} + \frac{a_{-2}}{-1} w^{-1} + a_{-1} \ln w + a_0 w + \frac{a_1}{2} w^2 + \frac{a_2}{3} w^3 + \dots$$

$$(with z=w^{-1})$$

2^{n} -pole analysis: Laurent series (Generalization of Maclaurin-Taylor series)

Laurent series or multipole expansion of a given complex field function f(z) around z=0.

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All field terms $a_{m-1}z^{m-1}$ except 1-pole $\frac{a}{z}$ have potential term $a_{m-1}z^m/m$ of a 2^m -pole.

These are located at z=0 for m<0 and at $z=\infty$ for m>0.

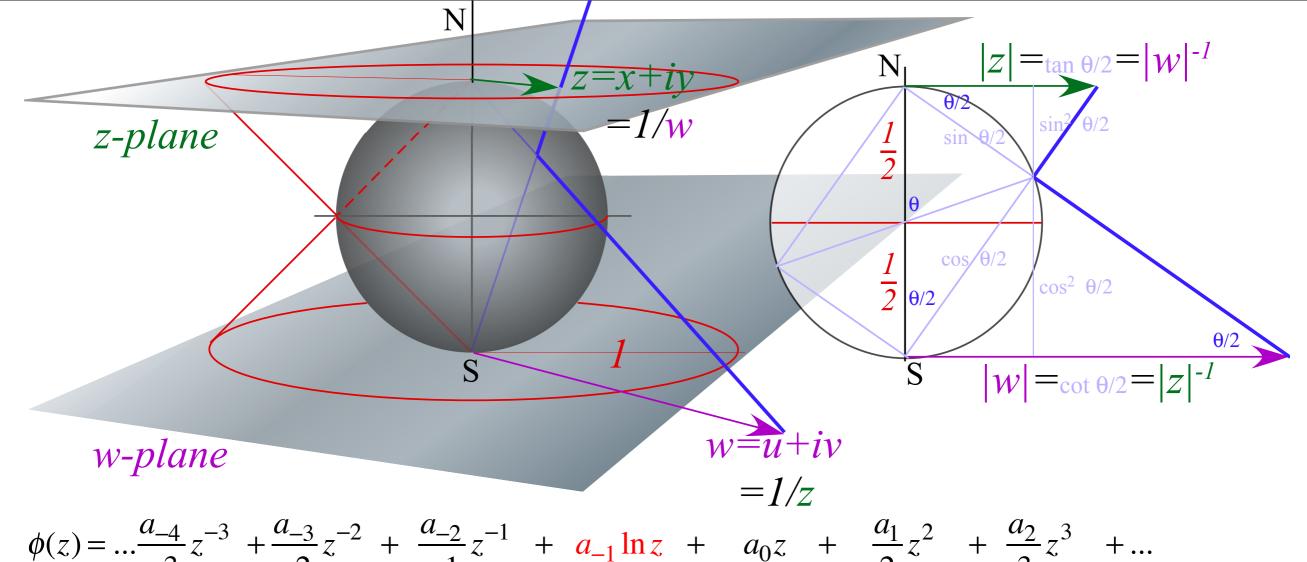
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$$(with z \to w)$$

$$= \dots \frac{a_2}{3} z^{-3} + \frac{a_1}{2} z^{-2} + \frac{a_0 z^{-1}}{2} - \frac{a_{-1} \ln z}{2} + \frac{a_{-2}}{2} z^2 + \frac{a_{-3}}{2} z^2 + \frac{a_{-4}}{2} z^3 + \dots$$

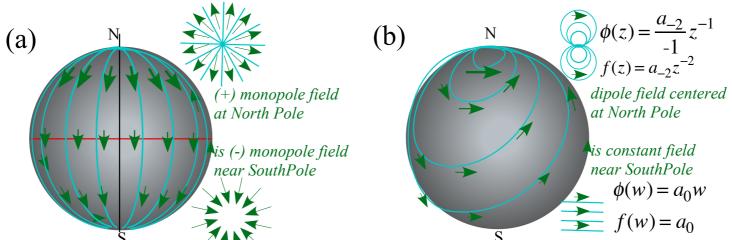
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$$\phi(z) = \dots \frac{a_{-4}}{-3} z^{-3} + \frac{a_{-3}}{-2} z^{-2} + \frac{a_{-2}}{-1} z^{-1} + a_{-1} \ln z + a_0 z + \frac{a_1}{2} z^2 + \frac{a_2}{3} z^3 + \dots$$

$$\begin{array}{c} (octapole)_0 & (quadrupole)_0 & (dipole)_0 \\ (octapole)_0 & (quadrupole)_0 & (dipole)_0 \\ \hline \phi(w) = \dots \frac{a_{-4}}{-3} w^{-3} + \frac{a_{-3}}{-2} w^{-2} + \frac{a_{-2}}{-1} w^{-1} + a_{-1} \ln w + a_0 w + \frac{a_1}{2} w^2 + \frac{a_2}{3} w^3 + \dots \\ \hline (with \ z \rightarrow w) \end{array}$$

$$= \dots \frac{a_2}{3} z^{-2} + \frac{a_1}{2} z^{-2} + a_0 z^{-1} - a_{-1} \ln z + \frac{a_{-2}}{-1} z + \frac{a_{-3}}{-2} z^2 + \frac{a_{-4}}{-3} z^3 + \dots$$
 (with $w = z^{-1}$)



 $\phi(z) = \frac{a_{-3}}{-2} z^{-2}$ $f(z) = a_{-3} z^{-3}$ quadrupole field centered at North Pole
is quadratic field

is quadratic field near South Pole $\phi(w) = a_0 w^2$ $f(w) = a_1 w$

$$f(z) = \dots a_{-3}z^{-3} + a_{-2}z^{-2} + a_{-1}z^{-1} + a_0 + a_1z + a_2z^2 + a_3z^3 + a_4z^4 + a_5z^5 + \dots$$

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$$f(z) = ...a_{-3}z^{-3} + a_{-2}z^{-2} + a_{-1}z^{-1} + a_0 + a_1z + a_2z^2 + a_3z^3 + a_4z^4 + a_5z^5 + ...$$

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This m=1-pole constant- a_{-1} formula is just the first in a series of Laurent coefficient expressions.

$$\cdots a_{-3} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint z^2 f(z) dz \ , \ a_{-2} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint z^1 f(z) dz \ , \ a_{-1} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint f(z) dz \ , \ a_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint \frac{f(z)}{z} dz \ , \ a_1 = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint \frac{f(z)}{z^2} dz \ , \cdots$$

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They hold for any loop about point-a. Function f(z) is just f(a) on a tiny circle around point-a.

(assume tiny circle around z=a)

$$\oint \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz = \oint \frac{f(a)}{z-a} dz = f(a) \oint \frac{1}{z-a} dz = 2\pi i f(a)$$

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$$f(z) = \dots a_{-3}z^{-3} + a_{-2}z^{-2} + a_{-1}z^{-1} + a_0 + a_1z + a_2z^2 + a_3z^3 + a_4z^4 + a_5z^5 + \dots$$

Of all 2^m -pole field terms $a_{m-1}z^{m-1}$, only the m=0 monopole $a_{-1}z^{-1}$ has a non-zero loop integral (10.39).

$$\oint f(z)dz = \oint a_{-1}z^{-1}dz = 2\pi i a_{-1}$$
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$$\frac{df(a)}{da} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^2} dz , \frac{d^2 f(a)}{da^2} = \frac{2}{2\pi i} \oint \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^3} dz , \frac{d^3 f(a)}{da^3} = \frac{3!}{2\pi i} \oint \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^4} dz , \dots, \frac{d^n f(a)}{da^n} = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \oint \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^{n+1}} dz$$

This leads to a general Taylor-Laurent power series expansion of function f(z) around point-a.

$$f(z) = \dots a_{-3}z^{-3} + a_{-2}z^{-2} + a_{-1}z^{-1} + a_0 + a_1z + a_2z^2 + a_3z^3 + a_4z^4 + a_5z^5 + \dots$$

Of all 2^m -pole field terms $a_{m-1}z^{m-1}$, only the m=0 monopole $a_{-1}z^{-1}$ has a non-zero loop integral (10.39).

$$\oint f(z)dz = \oint a_{-1}z^{-1}dz = 2\pi i a_{-1}$$
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$$\cdots a_{-3} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint z^2 f(z) dz , \ a_{-2} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint z^1 f(z) dz , \ a_{-1} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint f(z) dz , \ a_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint \frac{f(z)}{z} dz , \ a_1 = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint \frac{f(z)}{z^2} dz , \cdots$$

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 $(quadrupole)_0$ $(dipole)_0$ (monopole) $(dipole)_\infty$ $(quadrupole)_\infty$ $(octapole)_\infty$ $(hexadecapole)_\infty$...

$$f(z) = \dots a_{-3}z^{-3} + a_{-2}z^{-2} + a_{-1}z^{-1} + a_0 + a_1z + a_2z^2 + a_3z^3 + a_4z^4 + a_5z^5 + \dots$$
moment
moment
moment



are called

Riemann-Cauchy

Derivative Relations

$$\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial y} \quad \text{is:} \quad \frac{\partial \mathbf{Re}\phi(z)}{\partial x} = \quad \frac{\partial \mathbf{Im}\phi(z)}{\partial y} \quad \text{or:} \quad \frac{\partial \mathbf{Re}f(z)}{\partial x} = \quad \frac{\partial \mathbf{Im}f(z)}{\partial y} \quad \text{is:} \quad \frac{\partial f_x(z)}{\partial x} = \quad \frac{\partial f_y(z)}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial x} \quad \text{is:} \quad \frac{\partial \mathbf{Re}\phi(z)}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{Im}\phi(z)}{\partial x} \quad \text{or:} \quad \frac{\partial \mathbf{Re}f(z)}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{Im}f(z)}{\partial x} \quad \text{is:} \quad \frac{\partial f_x(z)}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial f_y(z)}{\partial x}$$

RC applies to analytic potential $\phi(z) = \Phi + iA$ and analytic field $f(z) = f_x + if_y$ and any analytic function

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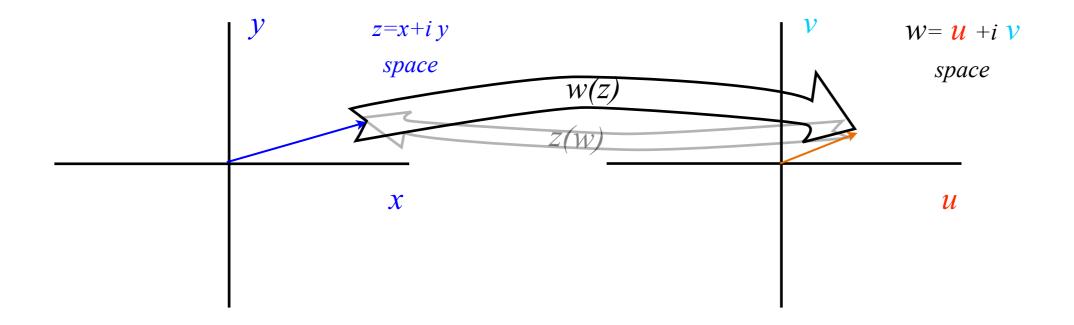
are called

Riemann-Cauchy

Derivative Relations

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RC applies to analytic potential $\phi(z) = \Phi + i A$ and analytic field $f(z) = f_x + i f_y$ and any analytic function Common notation for mapping: w(z) = u + i v



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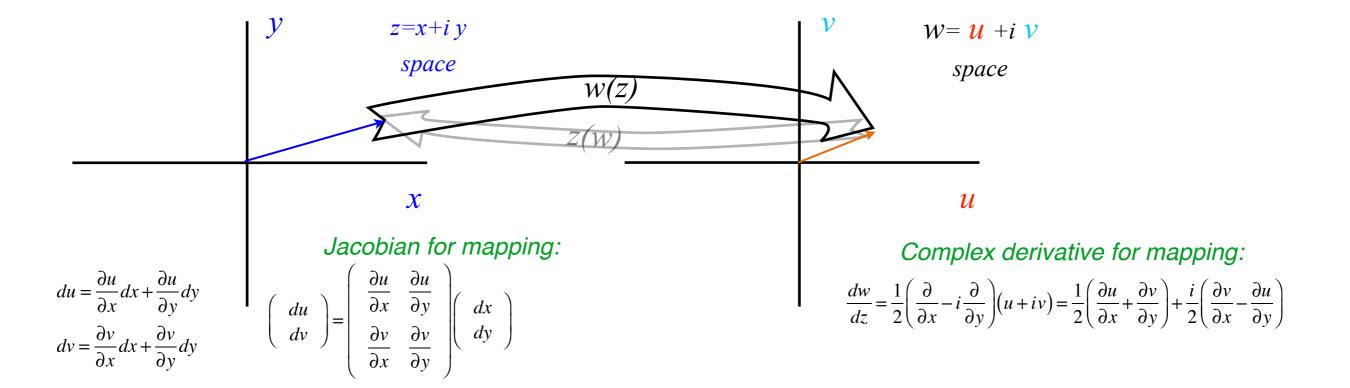
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Riemann-Cauchy

Derivative Relations

$$\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial y} \quad \text{is:} \quad \frac{\partial \mathbf{Re}\phi(z)}{\partial x} = \quad \frac{\partial \mathbf{Im}\phi(z)}{\partial y} \quad \text{or:} \quad \frac{\partial \mathbf{Re}f(z)}{\partial x} = \quad \frac{\partial \mathbf{Im}f(z)}{\partial y} \quad \text{is:} \quad \frac{\partial f_x(z)}{\partial x} = \quad \frac{\partial f_y(z)}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial x} \quad \text{is:} \quad \frac{\partial \mathbf{Re}\phi(z)}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{Im}\phi(z)}{\partial x} \quad \text{or:} \quad \frac{\partial \mathbf{Re}f(z)}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{Im}f(z)}{\partial x} \quad \text{is:} \quad \frac{\partial f_x(z)}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial f_y(z)}{\partial x}$$

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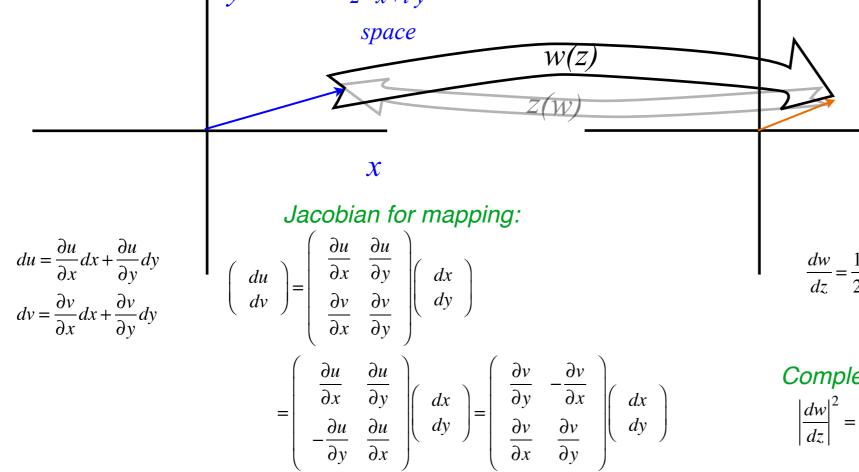
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 \overline{u}

Complex derivative for mapping:

$$\frac{dw}{dz} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - i \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) (u + iv) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right) + \frac{i}{2} \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right)$$
$$= \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \qquad = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$

Complex derivative abs-square:

W = u + i v

space

$$\left| \frac{dw}{dz} \right|^2 = \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right)^2 = \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right)^2$$

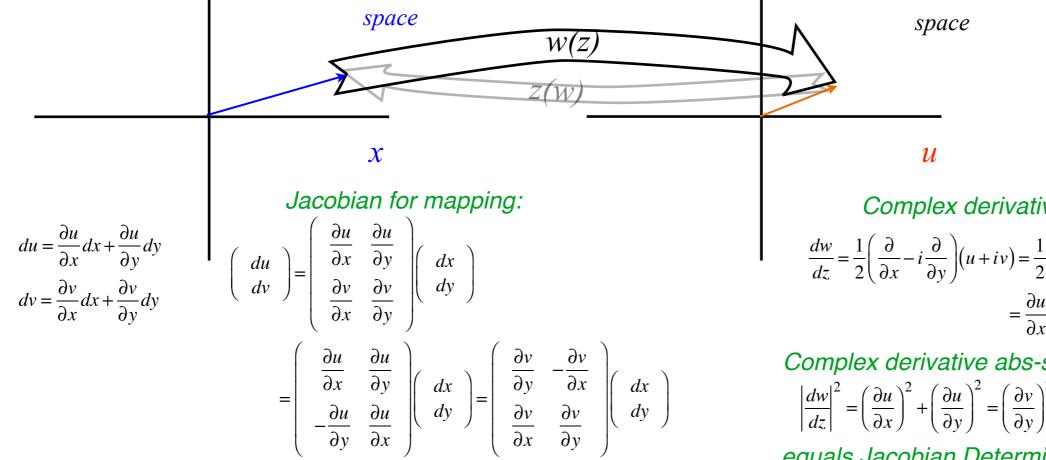
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Complex derivative for mapping:
$$1(\partial u \partial v) i(\partial v \partial v)$$

$$\frac{dw}{dz} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - i \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) (u + iv) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right) + \frac{i}{2} \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right)$$
$$= \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$

Complex derivative abs-square:

W = u + i v

$$\left| \frac{dw}{dz} \right|^2 = \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right)^2 = \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right)^2 = \det |J|$$

...equals Jacobian Determinant

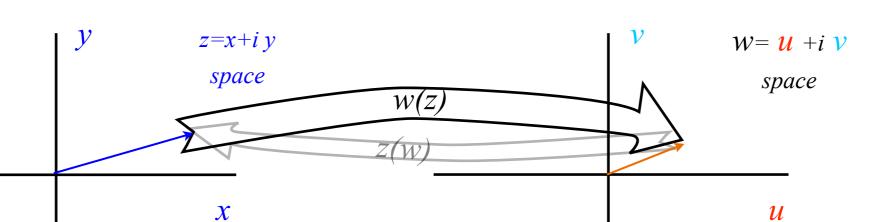
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Important result:

$$w = \frac{u}{v} + i v$$

$$space$$

$$dw = \sqrt{J} \cdot e^{i\theta} \cdot dz$$

$$is scaled rotation of dz$$

Jacobian for mapping is scaled rotation:

Jacobian for mapping is scaled rotation:
$$du = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} dy$$

$$dv = \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} dy$$

$$dv = \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} dy$$

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$$dv = \frac{\partial v}{\partial$$

Complex derivative for mapping:

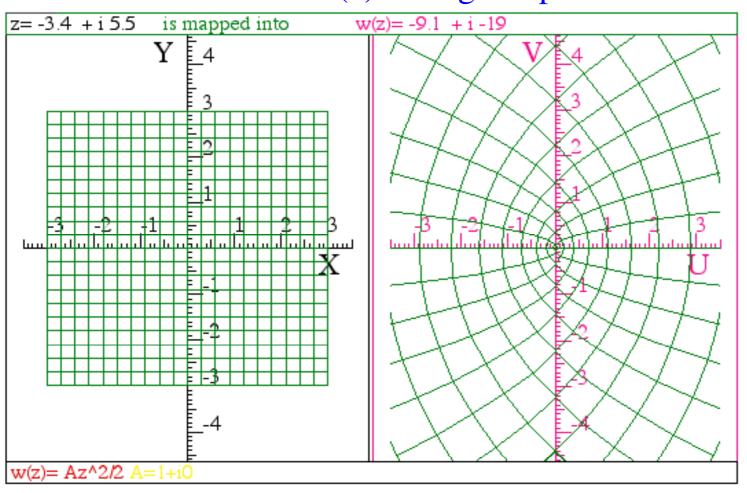
$$\frac{dw}{dz} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - i \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) (u + iv) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right) + \frac{i}{2} \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right)$$
$$= \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \qquad = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$

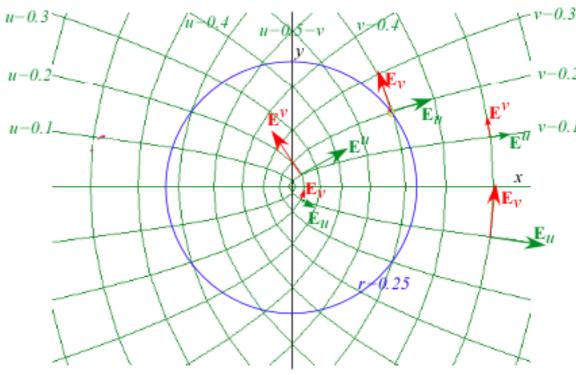
Complex derivative abs-square:

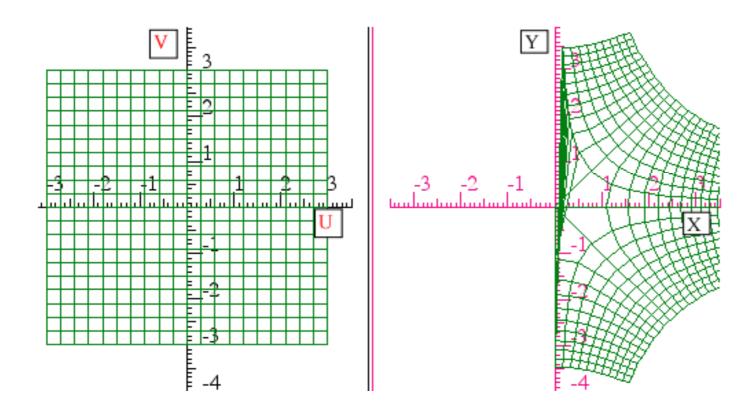
$$\left| \frac{dw}{dz} \right|^2 = \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right)^2 = \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right)^2 = \det |J|$$

...equals Jacobian Determinant

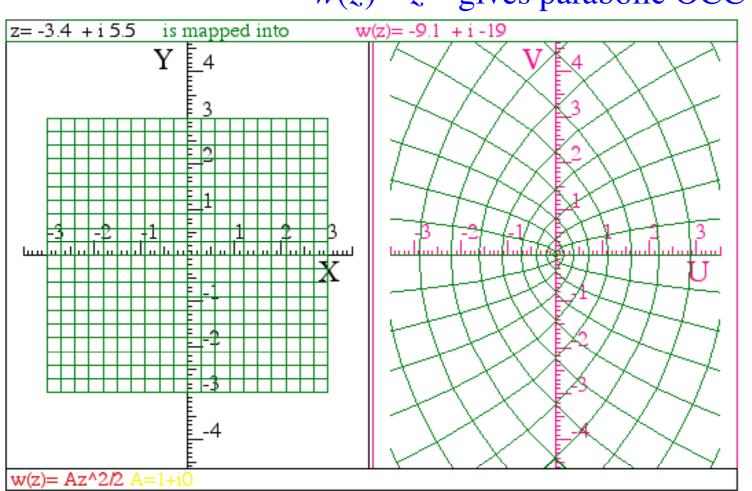
$w(z) = z^2$ gives parabolic OCC

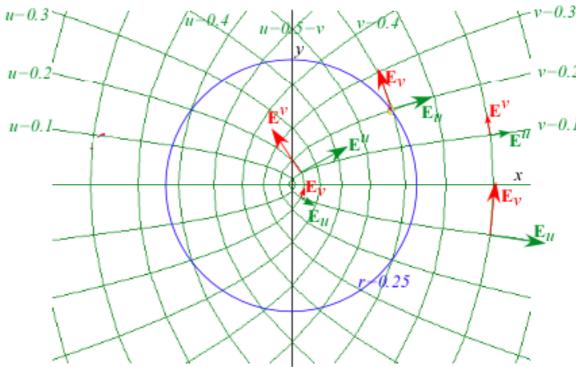




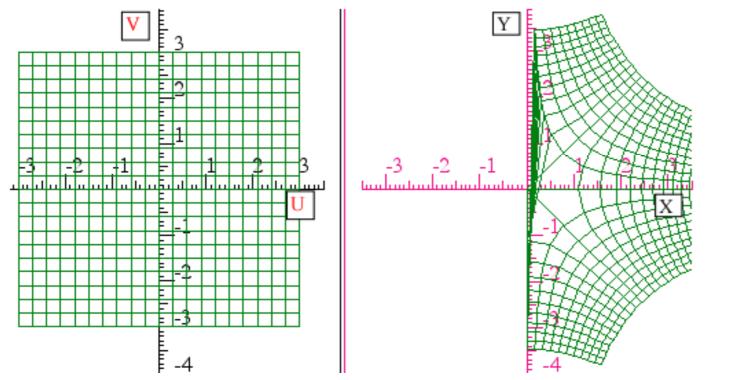


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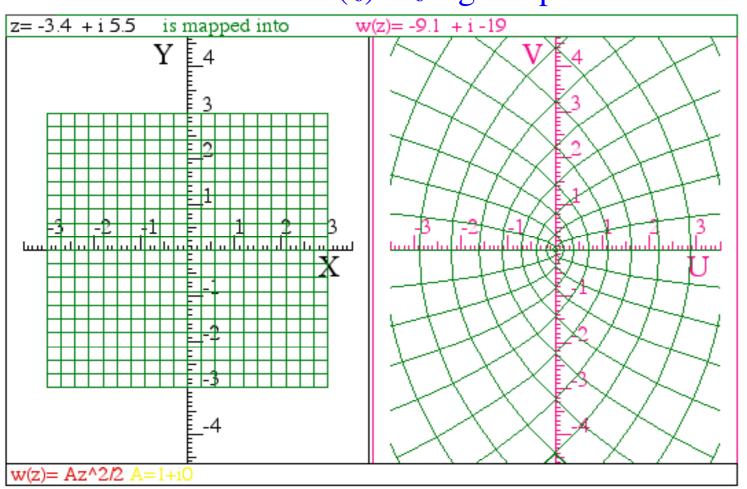


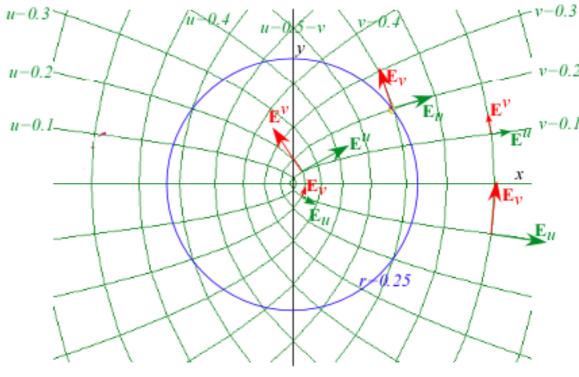


Inverse: $z(w) = w^{1/2}$ gives hyperbolic OCC

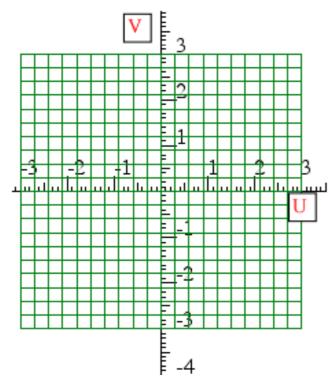


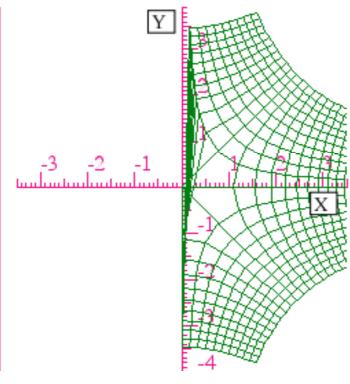
$w(z) = z^2$ gives parabolic OCC





Inverse: $z(w) = w^{1/2}$ gives hyperbolic OCC





 $w = (u + iv) = z^2 = (x + iy)^2$ is analytic function of z and w $u = x^2 - y^2$ and v = 2xy may be solved using $|w| = |z^2| = |z|^2$

Expansion: $|w| = \sqrt{u^2 + v^2} = x^2 + y^2 = |z|^2$ Solution: $x^2 = \frac{u + \sqrt{u^2 + v^2}}{2}$ $y^2 = \frac{-u + \sqrt{u^2 + v^2}}{2}$

$$\begin{bmatrix}
\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \\
\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}
\bar{\mathbf{E}}^{u} \\
\bar{\mathbf{E}}^{v}
\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}
2x & -2y \\
+2y & 2x
\end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix}
\frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\
\frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v}
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}
\bar{\mathbf{E}}_{u} & \bar{\mathbf{E}}_{v}
\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}
2x & +2y \\
-2y & 2x
\end{pmatrix}$$

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \overline{\mathbf{E}}_{u} & \overline{\mathbf{E}}_{v} \end{pmatrix} = \frac{\begin{pmatrix} 2x & +2y \\ -2y & 2x \end{pmatrix}}{4(x^{2} + y^{2})}$$

Non-analytic potential, force, and source field functions

A general 2D complex field may have:

- 1. non-analytic potential field function $\phi(z,z^*)=\Phi(x,y)+iA(x,y)$,
- 2. non-analytic force field function $f(z,z^*) = f_X(x,y) + if_Y(x,y)$,
- 3. non-analytic source distribution function $s(z,z^*) = \rho(x,y) + i I(x,y)$.

Source definitions are made to generalize the f* field equations (10.33) based on relations (10.31) and (10.32).

$$2\frac{df^*}{dz} = s^*(z, z^*)$$

$$2\frac{df}{dz^*} = s(z, z^*)$$

Field equations for the potentials are like (10.33) with an extra factor of 2.

$$2\frac{d\phi}{dz} = f(z, z^*)$$

$$2\frac{d\phi^*}{dz^*} = f^*(z, z^*)$$

Source equations (10.46) expand like (10.32) into a real and imaginary parts of divergence and curl terms.

$$s^{*}(z,z^{*}) = 2\frac{df^{*}}{dz} = \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - i\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right] \left[f_{x}^{*}(x,y) + if_{y}^{*}(x,y)\right] = \rho - iI, \quad \text{where: } f_{x}^{*} = f_{x}, \text{ and: } f_{y}^{*} = -f_{y}$$

$$= \left[\frac{\partial f_{x}^{*}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f_{y}^{*}}{\partial y}\right] + i\left[\frac{\partial f_{y}^{*}}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial f_{x}^{*}}{\partial y}\right] = \left[\nabla \bullet \mathbf{f}^{*}\right] + i\left[\nabla \times \mathbf{f}^{*}\right]_{Z}$$

Real part: Poisson scalar source equation (charge density ρ). Imaginary part: Biot-Savart vector source equation (current density I) $\nabla \bullet \mathbf{f}^* = \rho$ $\nabla \times \mathbf{f}^* = -I$

Field equations (10.47) expand into Re and Im parts; x and y components of grad Φ and $\text{curl} A_Z$ from potential $\phi = \Phi + iA$ or $\phi^* = \Phi - iA$.

$$f^{*}(z,z^{*}) = 2\frac{d\phi^{*}}{dz^{*}} = \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + i\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right] (\Phi - iA) = f_{x}^{*} + if_{y}^{*}$$
$$= \left[\frac{\partial\Phi}{\partial x} + i\frac{\partial\Phi}{\partial y}\right] + \left[\frac{\partial A}{\partial y} - i\frac{\partial A}{\partial x}\right] = \left[\nabla\Phi\right] + \left[\nabla\times\mathbf{A}_{z}\right]$$

Two parts: gradient of scalar potential called the *longitudinal field* $\mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{L}}^*$ and curl of a vector potential called the *transverse field* $\mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{T}}^*$.

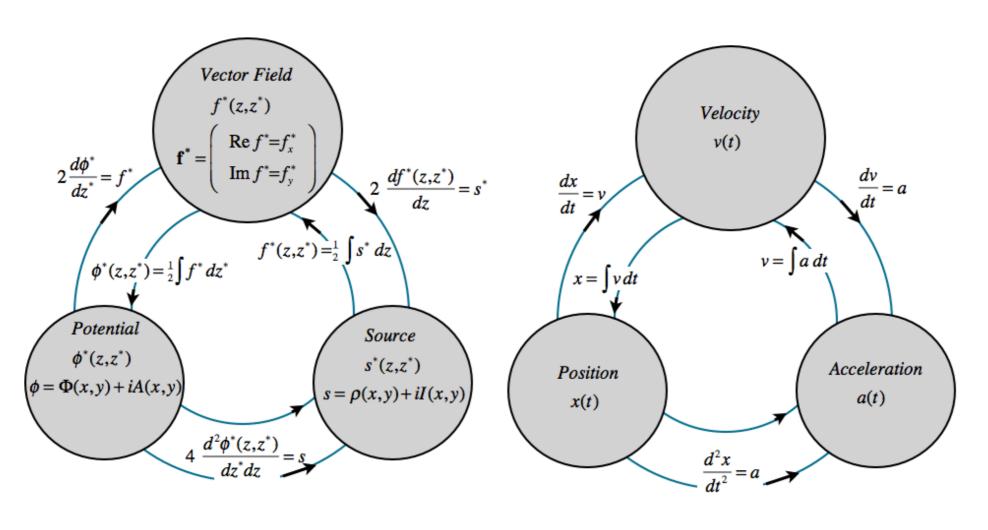
$$\mathbf{f}^* = \mathbf{f}_L^* + \mathbf{f}_T^*$$

$$\mathbf{f}_L^* = \nabla \times \mathbf{A}$$

(For source-free analytic functions these two fields are identical.)

Field equations

Newton equations



Example 1

Consider a non-analytic field $f(z) = (z^*)^2$ or $f^*(z) = z^2$.

The non-analytic potential function follows by integrating

$$s^*(z,z^*) = 2\frac{df^*}{dz} = 4z = 4x + i4y,$$

$$or: \quad \rho = 4x, \quad and: \quad I = -4y.$$

$$\phi(z,z^*) = \frac{1}{2} \int f(z) dz = \frac{1}{2} \int (z^*)^2 dz = \frac{z(z^*)^2}{2} = \frac{(x+iy)(x^2-y^2-i2xy)}{2},$$

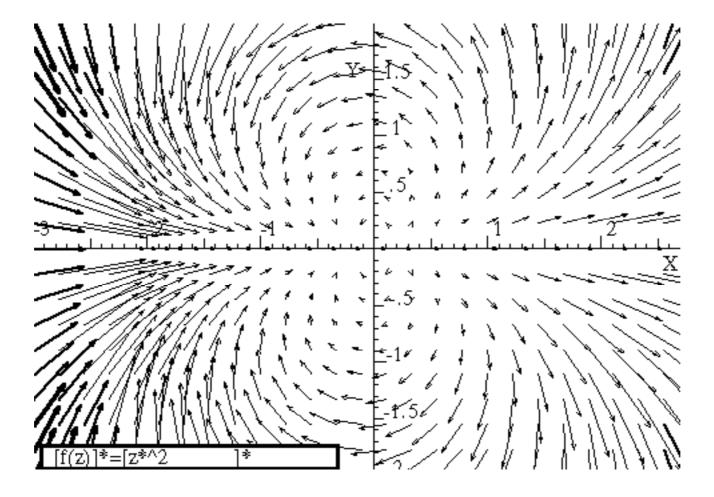
$$or: \quad \Phi = \frac{x^3 + xy^2}{2}, \quad and: \quad A = \frac{-y^3 - yx^2}{2}.$$

The longitudinal field $\mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{L}}^*$ is quite different from the transverse field $\mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{L}}^*$.

$$\mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{L}}^{*} = \nabla \Phi = \nabla \left(\frac{x^{3} + xy^{2}}{2} \right) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{3x^{2} + y^{2}}{2} \\ xy \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{T}}^{*} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A} = \nabla \times \left(\frac{-y^{3} - yx^{2}}{2} \mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{z}} \right) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial A}{\partial y} \\ -\frac{\partial A}{\partial x} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{-3y^{2} - x^{2}}{2} \\ xy \end{pmatrix}.$$

The longitudinal field \mathbf{f}_{L}^{*} has no curl and the transverse field \mathbf{f}_{T}^{*} has no divergence. The sum field has both making a violent storm, indeed, as shown by a plot of in Fig. 10.17.

$$\mathbf{f}^* = \mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{L}}^* + \mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{T}}^* = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{3x^2 + y^2}{2} \\ xy \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \frac{-3y^2 - x^2}{2} \\ xy \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x^2 - y^2 \\ 2xy \end{pmatrix}, \quad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{f}^* = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{L}}^* = 4x = \rho, \quad \nabla \times \mathbf{f}^* = \nabla \times \mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{T}}^* = 4y = -I.$$



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