Lecture 14 Revised 12.22.12 from 10.09.2012

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. 10.09 starts here

- 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
- 5. 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 Lecture 15 Thur. 10.11
- 13. More derivatives give 2D 2^N-pole fields...
- starts here
- 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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$$p^{\frac{1}{1}}(t) = (1 + r \cdot \frac{t}{1})^{1} p(0) = \left(\frac{2}{1}\right)^{1} \cdot 1 = \frac{2}{1} = 2.00$$

$$+25 \phi$$

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

$$+12 \phi$$

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

$$+7 \phi$$

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



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

Interest product formula is <u>really</u> inefficient: 10⁶ products for 6-figures! ... 10⁹ products for 9 ...

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Interest product formula is <u>really</u> inefficient: 10⁶ products for 6-figures! ... 10⁹ products for 9 ...

$$p^{1/m}(1) = (1 + \frac{1}{m})^m \xrightarrow[m \to \infty]{} \underbrace{2.718281828459}. \quad p^{1/m}(1) = 2.7169239322 \qquad for \ m = 1,000 \qquad for \ m = 10,000 \qquad for \ m = 100,000 \qquad for \ m = 1,000,000 \qquad for \ m = 100,000,000 \qquad for \ m = 100,000,000 \qquad for \ m = 100,000,000 \qquad for \ m = 1,000,000,000 \qquad for \ m = 1,000,000,00$$

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

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

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

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for $m = 1,000$
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$$e^{r \cdot t} = 1 + r \cdot t + \frac{1}{2!}(r \cdot t)^{2} + \frac{1}{3!}(r \cdot t)^{3} + \dots = \sum_{p=0}^{o} \frac{(r \cdot t)^{p}}{p!}$$

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

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

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

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$$n(n-1) \to n^2,$$
Precision order:
$$(o=1) - e - series = 2.00000 = 1 + 1$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$(o=8) - e - series = 2.71828$$
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 $c_1 = v(0)$.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Gives Maclaurin (or Taylor) power series

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

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Góod old UP I formula!

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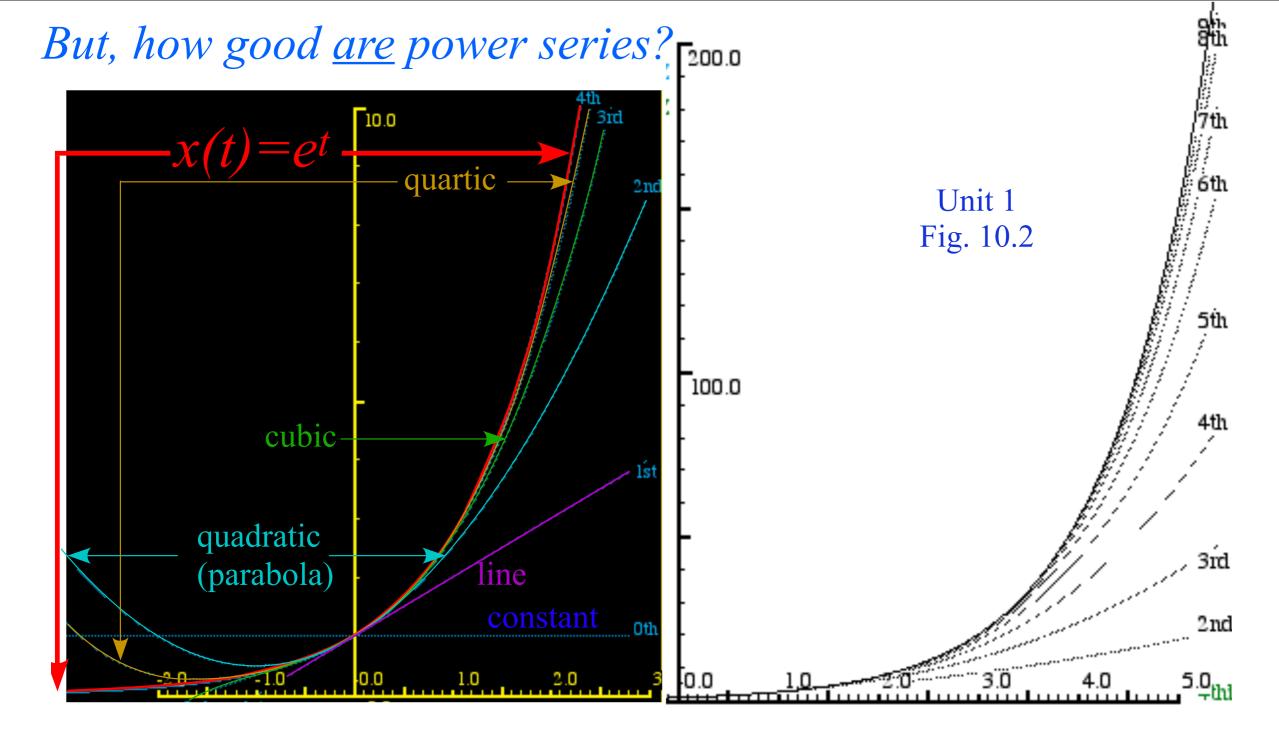
Gives Maclaurin (or Taylor) power series

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Setting all initial values to $I = x(0) = v(0) = a(0) = j(0) = i(0) = \dots$

Góod old UP I formula!

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



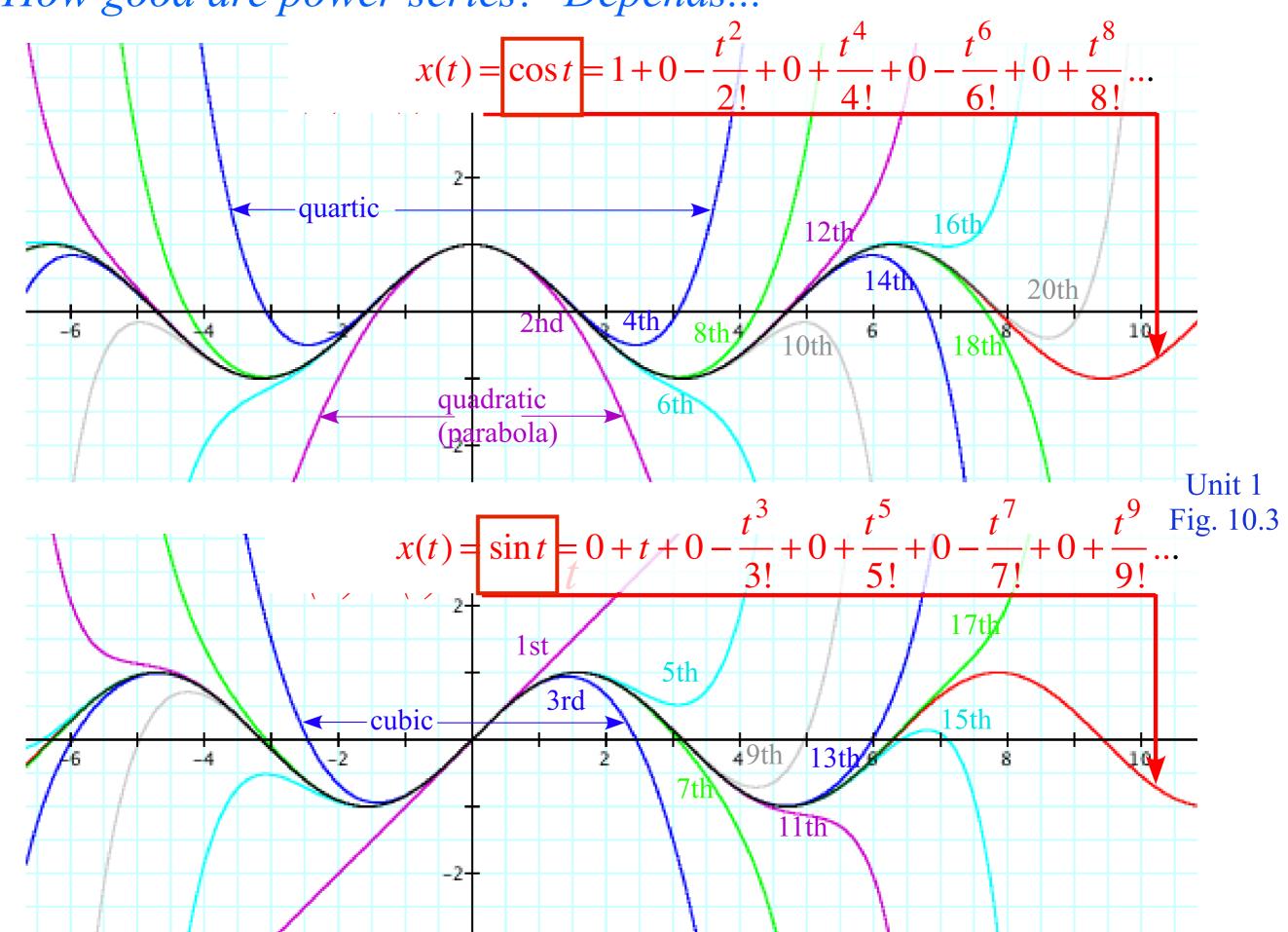
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How good are power series? Depends...



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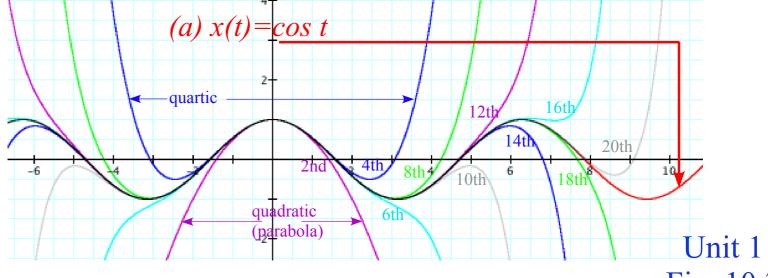
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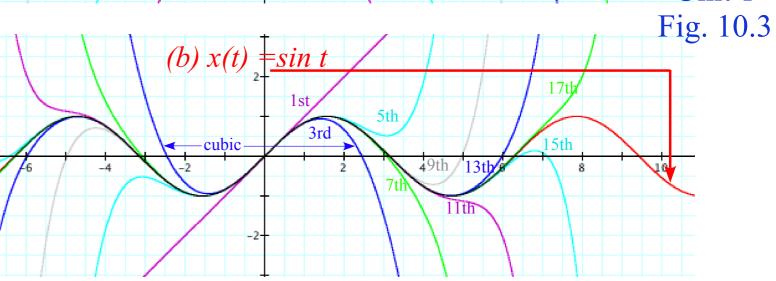
$$= \left(1 - \frac{\theta^2}{2!} + \frac{\theta^4}{4!} - \dots\right) + \left(i\theta - i\frac{\theta^3}{3!} + i\frac{\theta^5}{5!} - \dots\right)$$

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

Euler-DeMoivre Theorem





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 ($i = \sqrt{-1}$ imples: $i^1 = i$, $i^2 = \sqrt{-1}$

$$=1+i\theta-\frac{\theta^2}{2!}-i\frac{\theta^3}{3!}+\frac{\theta^4}{4!}+i\frac{\theta^5}{5!}-... (i=\sqrt{-1} \text{ imples: } i^1=i, i^2=-1, i^3=-i, i^4=+1, i^5=i,...)$$

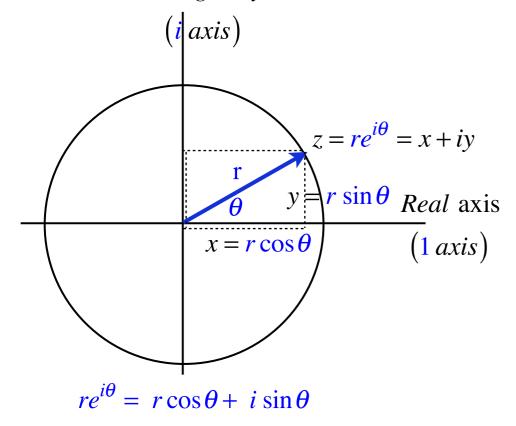
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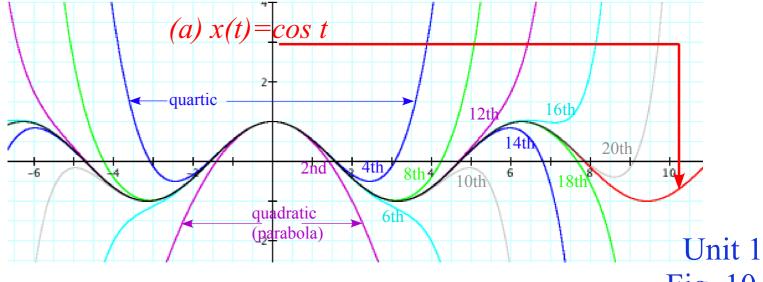
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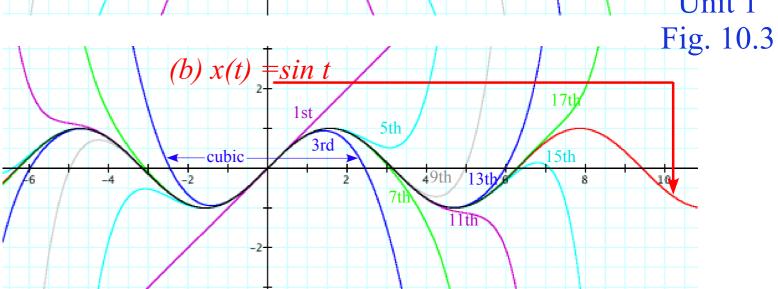
$$e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta$$

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"

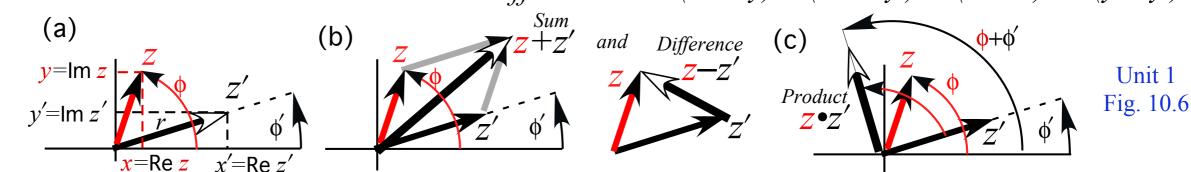
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2. Complex numbers add like vectors. $z_{sum} = z + z' = (x + iy) + (x' + iy') = (x + x') + i(y + y')$ $z_{diff} = z - z' = (x + iy) - (x' + iy') = (x - x') + i(y - y')$

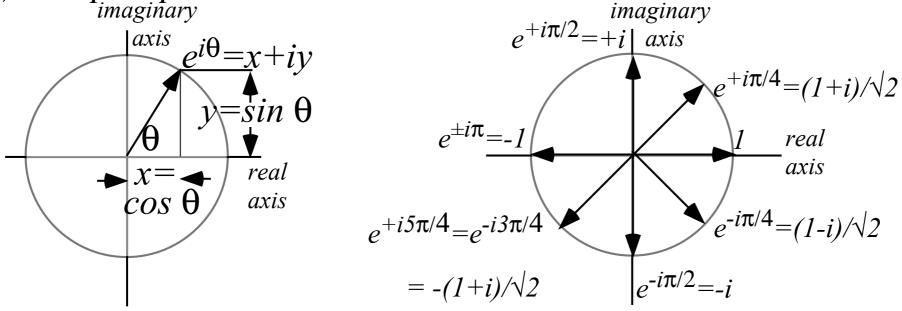


$$|z_{SUM}| = \sqrt{(z+z')^*(z+z')} = \sqrt{(re^{i\phi} + r'e^{i\phi'})^*(re^{i\phi} + r'e^{i\phi'})} = \sqrt{(re^{-i\phi} + r'e^{-i\phi'})(re^{i\phi} + r'e^{i\phi'})}$$

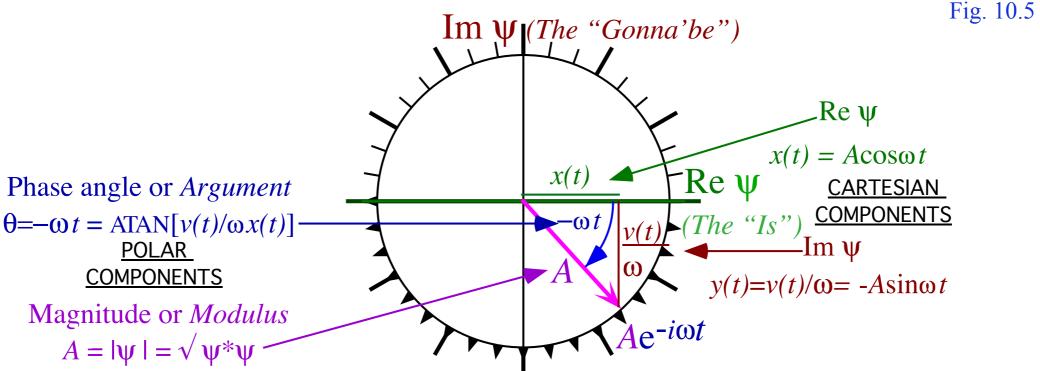
$$= \sqrt{r^2 + r'^2 + rr'(e^{i(\phi - \phi')} + e^{-i(\phi - \phi')})} = \sqrt{r^2 + r'^2 + 2rr'\cos(\phi - \phi')} \qquad (quick \ derivation \ of \ Cosine \ Law)$$

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

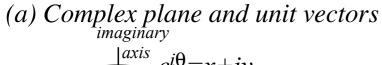
(a) Complex plane and unit vectors

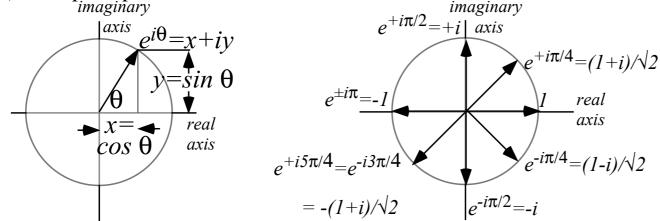


(b) Quantum Phasor Clock $\psi = Ae^{-i\omega t} = A\cos\omega t - i A\sin\omega t = x + iy$ Unit 1

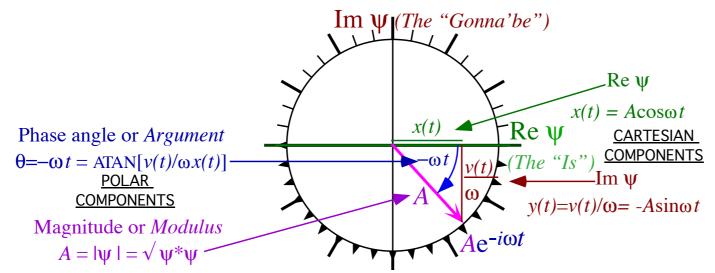


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(b) Quantum Phasor Clock $\psi = Ae^{-i\omega t} = A\cos\omega t - i A\sin\omega t = x + iy$



Unit 1 Fig. 10.5

Some Rect-vs-Polar relations worth remembering

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

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

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

$$r = A = |\psi| = \sqrt{\psi_x^2 + \psi_y^2} = \sqrt{\psi^* \psi}$$

$$form \begin{cases} \theta = -\omega t = \arctan(\psi_y/\psi_x) \\ \cos \theta = \frac{1}{2}(e^{+i\theta} + e^{-i\theta}) \end{cases}$$

$$Re\psi = \frac{\psi + \psi^*}{2}$$

$$\sin \theta = \frac{1}{2i}(e^{+i\theta} - e^{-i\theta})$$

$$Im\psi = \frac{\psi - \psi^*}{2i}$$

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.

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

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

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

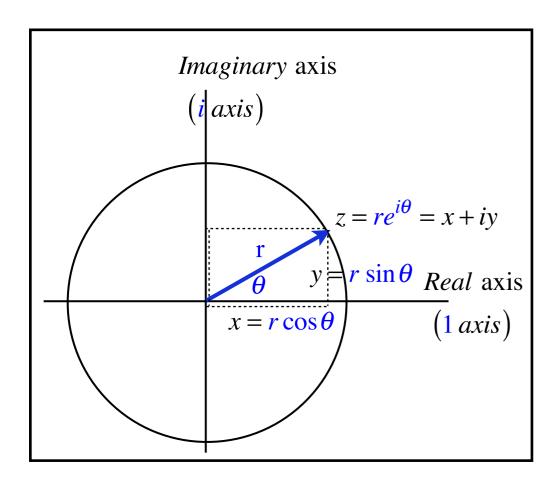
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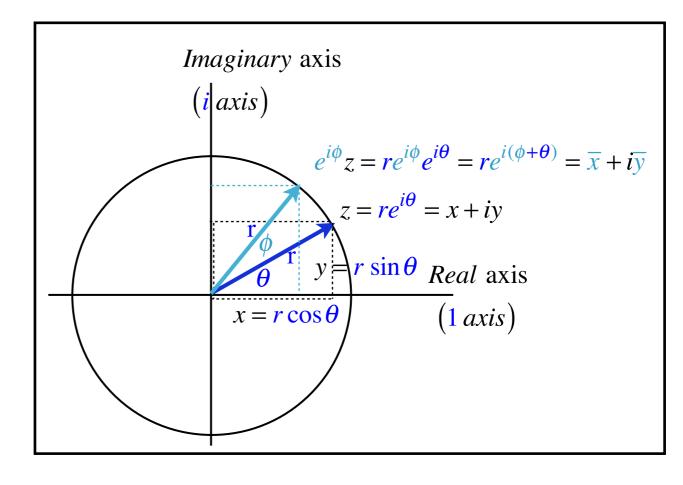
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 $e^{i\phi}$ acts on this: $z = re^{i\theta}$



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



4. Complex products provide 2D rotation operations.

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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 just the Z-component <u>normal</u> to xy-plane.

Rewrite A*B in polar form.

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

4. Complex products provide 2D rotation operations.

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

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

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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$$= |A|\cos\theta_{A}|B|\cos\theta_{B} + |A|\sin\theta_{A}|B|\sin\theta_{B}$$

$$= |A|\cos\theta_{A}|B|\sin\theta_{B} - |A|\sin\theta_{A}|B|\cos\theta_{B}$$

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$$= |A|xB_{x} + |A|xB_{y} - |A|xB_{x}$$

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. $\frac{df}{dz^*}$

$$z = x + iy \qquad x = \frac{1}{2} (z + z^*)$$

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

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

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

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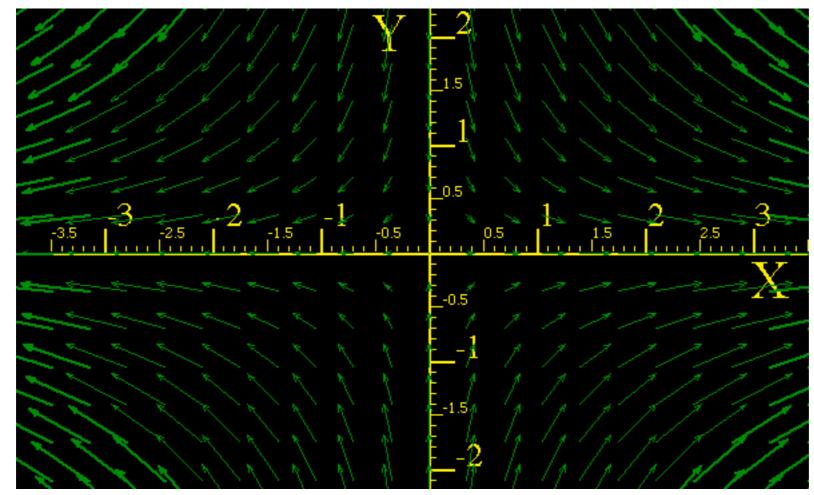
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 $\mathbf{F} = (f_{x}^{*}, f_{y}^{*}) = (a \cdot x, -a \cdot y)$ is a divergence-free laminar (DFL) field.

Unit 1
Fig. 10.7

precursor to

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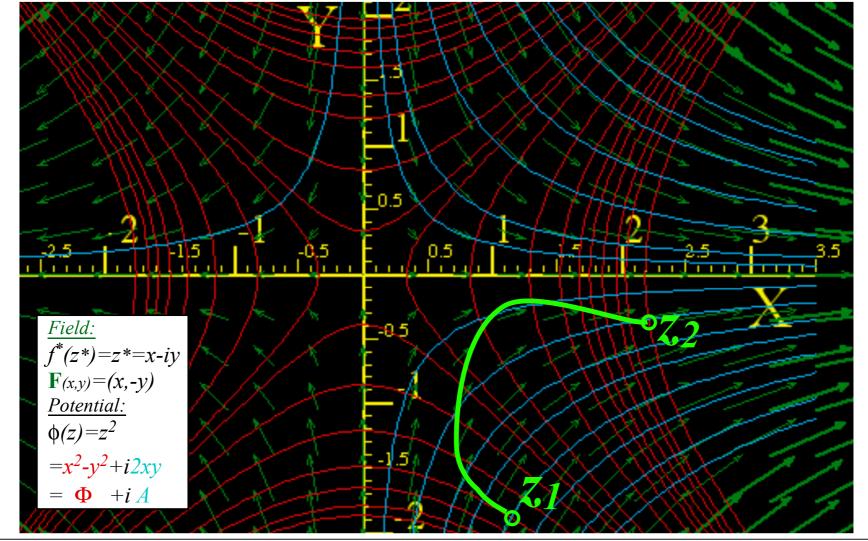
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Unit 1 Fig. 10.7

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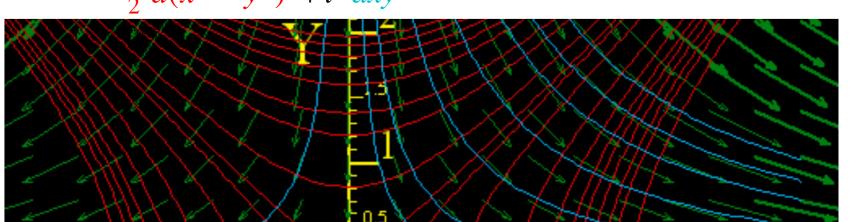
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BONUS!
Get a free
coordinate
system!



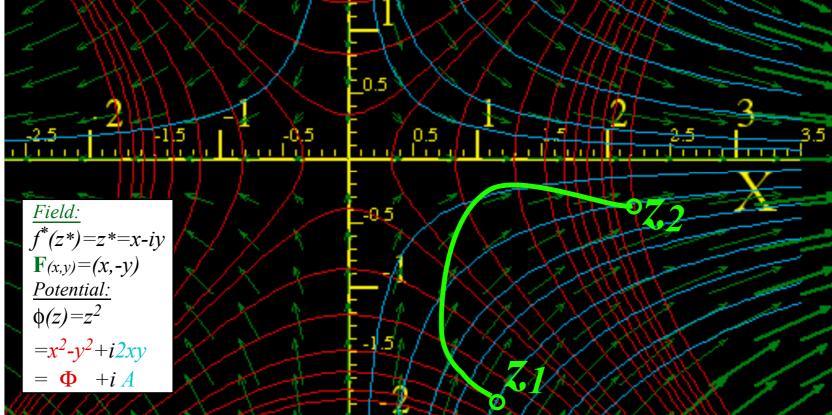
The (Φ, A) grid is a GCC coordinate system*:

$$q^{1} = \Phi = (x^{2}-y^{2})/2 = const.$$

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

*Actually it's OCC.





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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.

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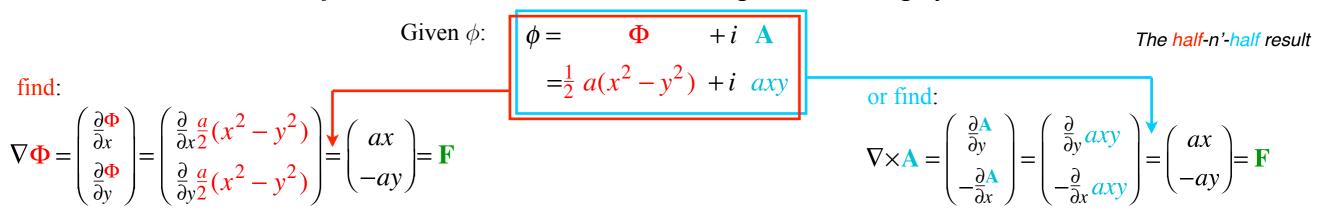
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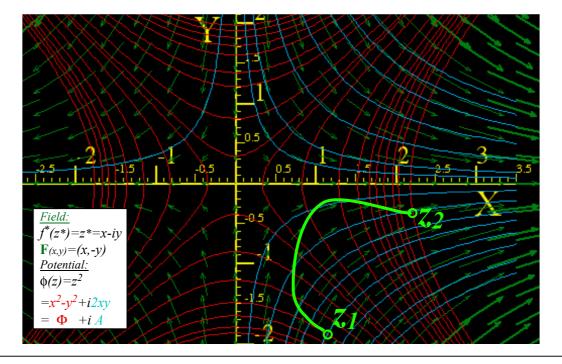
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Scalar static potential lines Φ =const. and vector flux potential lines \mathbf{A} =const. define DFL field-net.

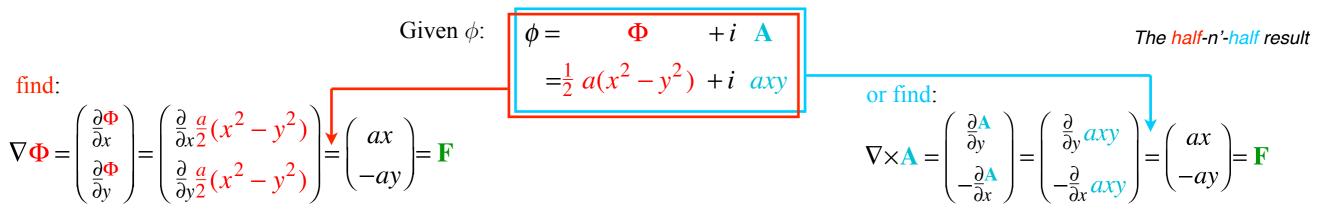


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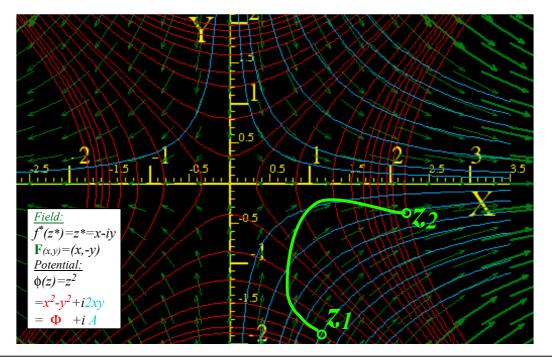
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$$\frac{d}{dz^*}\phi^* = \frac{d}{dz^*}(\Phi - i\mathbf{A}) = \frac{1}{2}(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + i\frac{\partial}{\partial y})(\Phi - i\mathbf{A}) = \frac{1}{2}(\frac{\partial\Phi}{\partial x} + i\frac{\partial\Phi}{\partial y}) + \frac{1}{2}(\frac{\partial\mathbf{A}}{\partial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

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



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



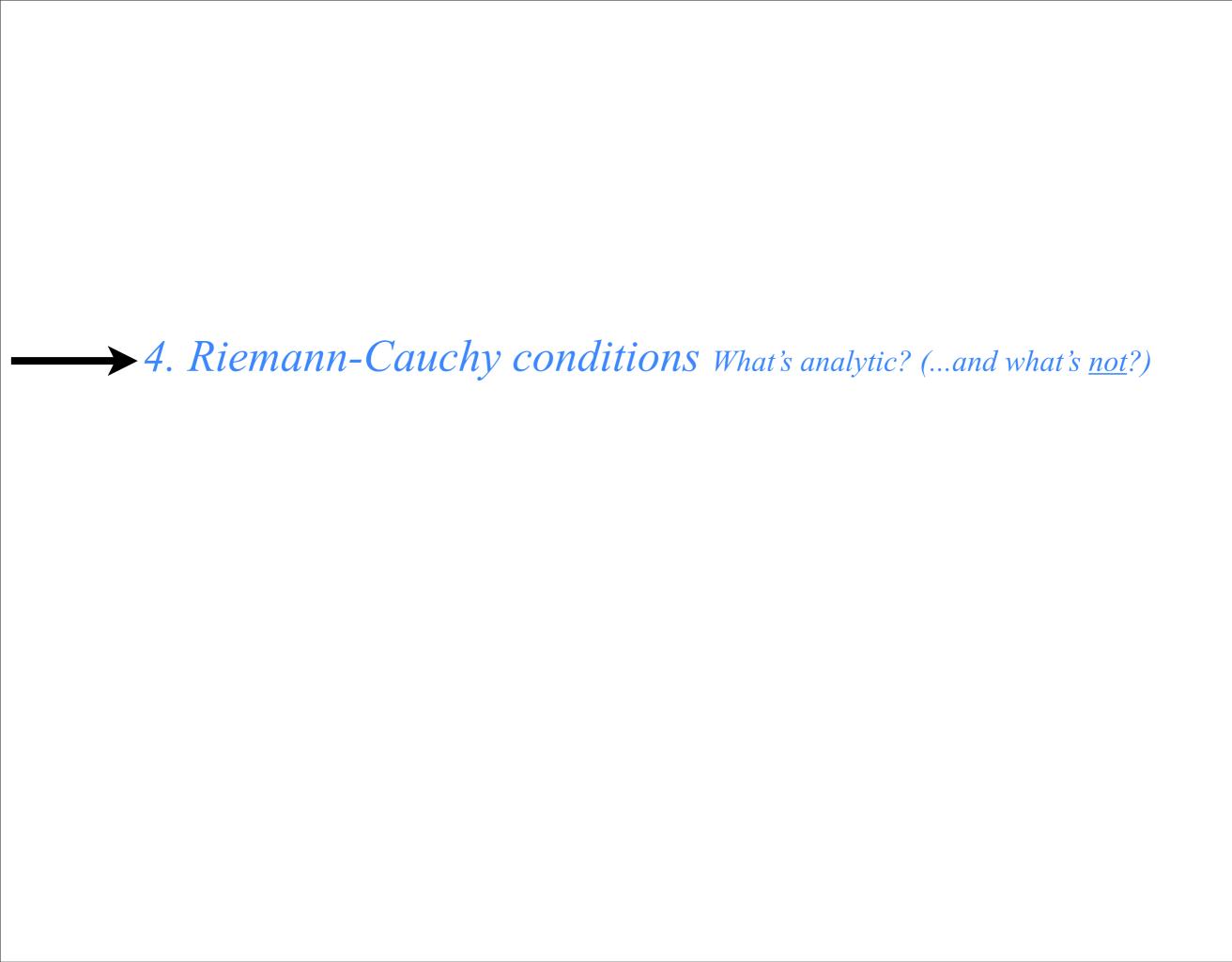
The half-n'-half results

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

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

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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 we call **Anti-Riemann-Cauchy conditions**

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

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

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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A: NO! r(xy)=z*z is a function of z and z* so not analytic for either.

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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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A: NO! r(xy)=z*z is a function of z and z* so not analytic for either.

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 $\Delta \phi = \phi(z_2) - \phi(z_1)$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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$$\int f(z)dz = \int \left(f^{*}(z^{*})\right)^{*} dz = \int \left(f^{*}(z^{*})\right)^{*} \left(dx + i \, dy\right) = \int \left(f_{x}^{*} + i \, f_{y}^{*}\right)^{*} \left(dx + i \, dy\right) = \int \left(f_{x}^{*} - i \, f_{y}^{*}\right) \left(dx + i \, dy\right)$$

$$= \int \left(f_{x}^{*} dx + f_{y}^{*} dy\right) + i \int \left(f_{x}^{*} dy - f_{y}^{*} dx\right)$$

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

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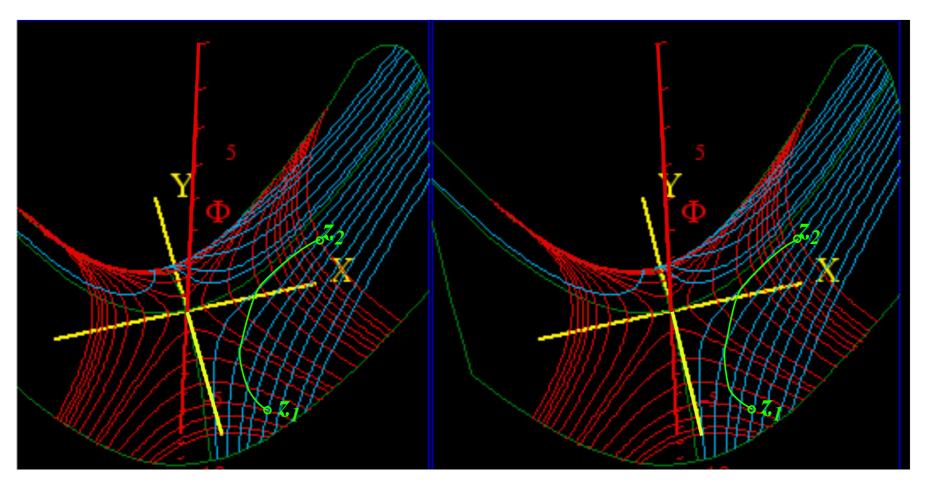
F dr
Big F•dr

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 $\Delta \Phi$.

dr Big F•dS

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 $d\mathbf{S} = d\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{Z}}$ normal to $d\mathbf{r}$ to get $\Delta \mathbf{A}$.

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



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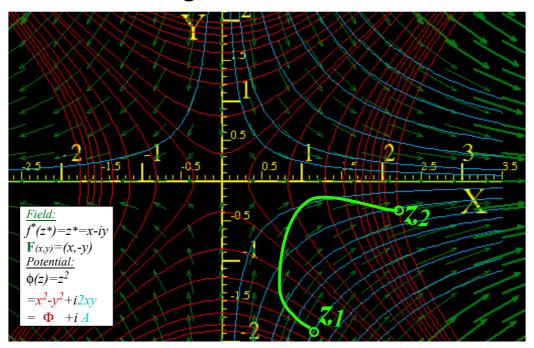
10. Complex potentials define 2D Orthogonal Curvilinear Coordinates (OCC) of field

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

$$q^{1} = \Phi = (x^{2}-y^{2})/2 = const.$$

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

*Actually it's OCC.



 $Metric tensor = \begin{pmatrix} g_{\Phi\Phi} & g_{\Phi A} \\ g_{A\Phi} & g_{AA} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{E}_{\Phi} \cdot \mathbf{E}_{\Phi} & \mathbf{E}_{\Phi} \cdot \mathbf{E}_{A} \\ \mathbf{E}_{A} \cdot \mathbf{E}_{\Phi} & \mathbf{E}_{A} \cdot \mathbf{E}_{A} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} r^{2} & 0 \\ 0 & r^{2} \end{pmatrix} \text{ where: } r^{2} = x^{2} + y^{2}$

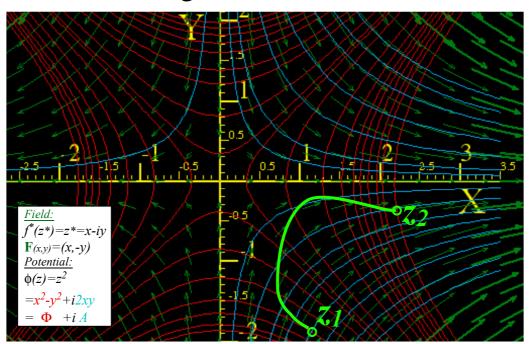
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Riemann-Cauchy Derivative Relations make coordinates orthogonal

$$\nabla \Phi = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{a}{2} (x^2 - y^2) \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \frac{a}{2} (x^2 - y^2) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ax \\ -ay \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{F}$$

$$\mathbf{F}$$

$$\mathbf{E}_{\Phi} \cdot \mathbf{E}_{A} = \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} \frac{\partial A}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial y} \frac{\partial A}{\partial y}$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial y} \\ -\frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial x} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} axy \\ -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} axy \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ax \\ -ay \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{F}$$

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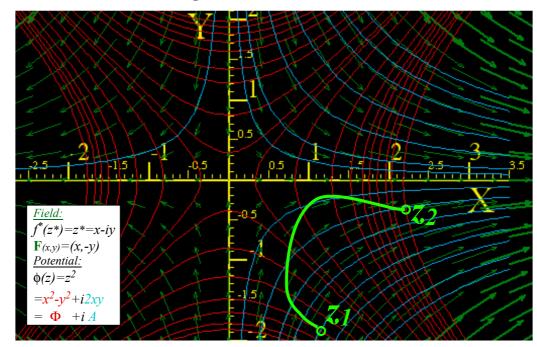
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$$\mathbf{F}_{\Phi} \cdot \mathbf{E}_{A} = \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} \frac{\partial A}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial y} \frac{\partial A}{\partial y}$$

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$$\mathbf{E}_{\Phi} \bullet \mathbf{E}_{A} = \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} \frac{\partial A}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial y} \frac{\partial A}{\partial y}$$
$$= -\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial y} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} = 0$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial y} \\ -\frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial x} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} axy \\ -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} axy \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ax \\ -ay \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{F}$$

or Riemann-Cauchy

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

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:
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 $f(z) = \frac{a}{z} = az^{-1}$ Source-a monopole

It has a *logarithmic potential* $\phi(z) = a \cdot \ln(z) = a \cdot \ln(x + iy)$.

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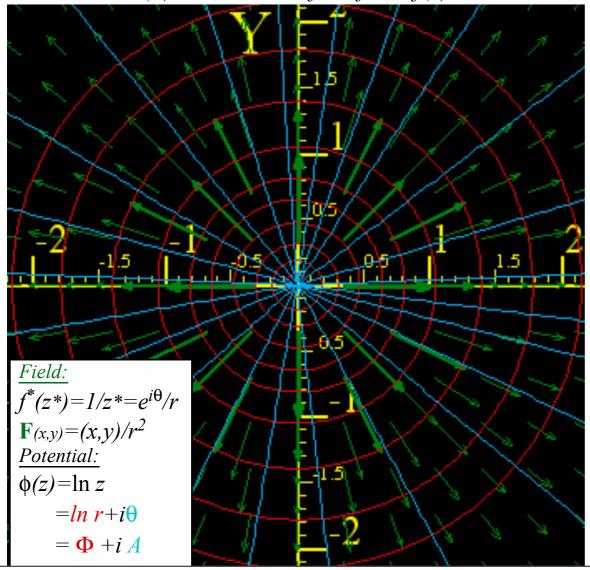
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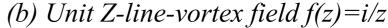
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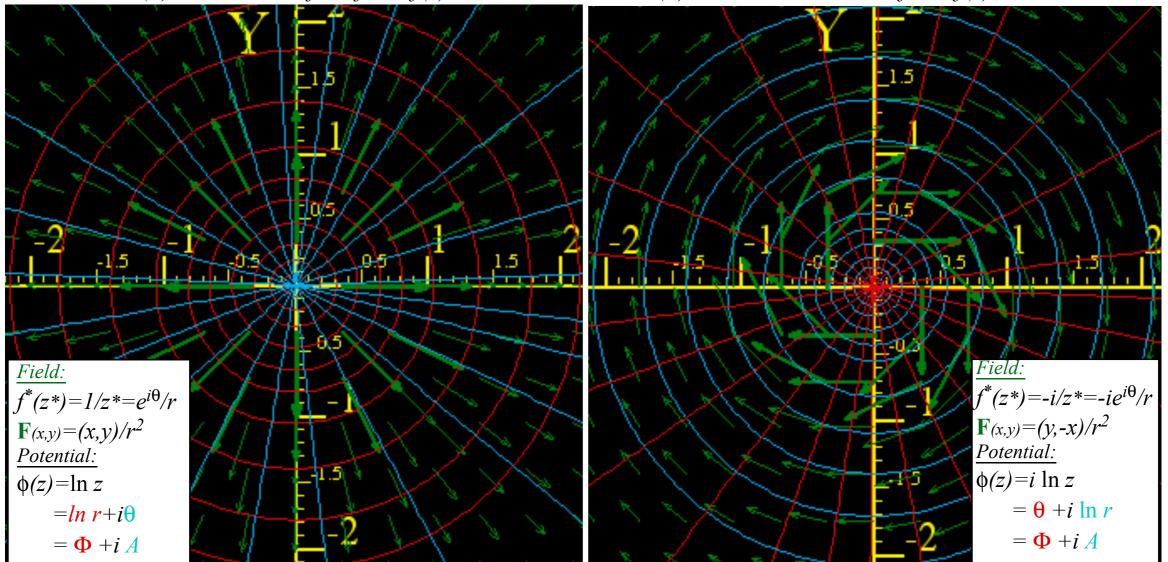
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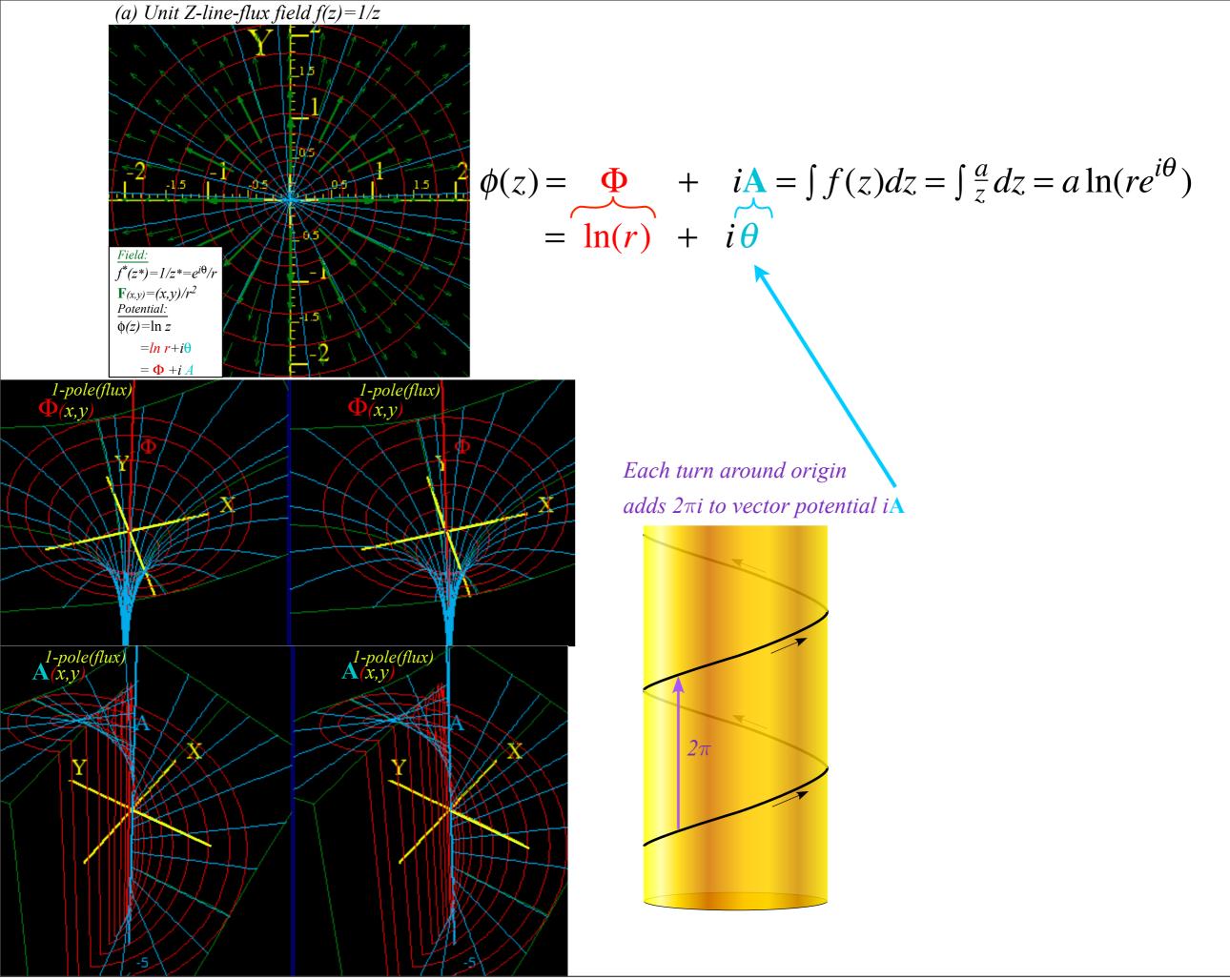
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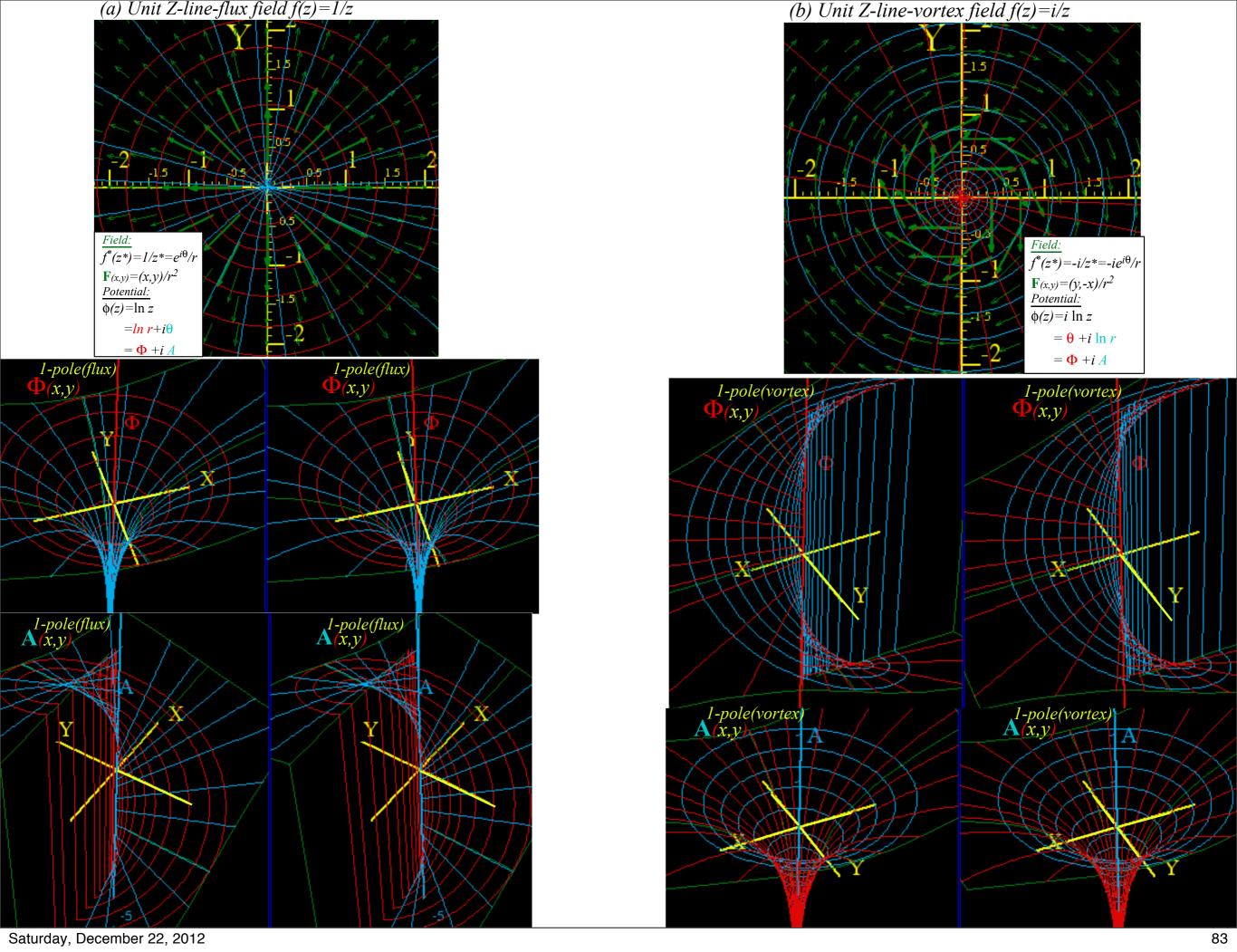
A monopole field is the only power-law field whose integral (potential) depends on path of integration.

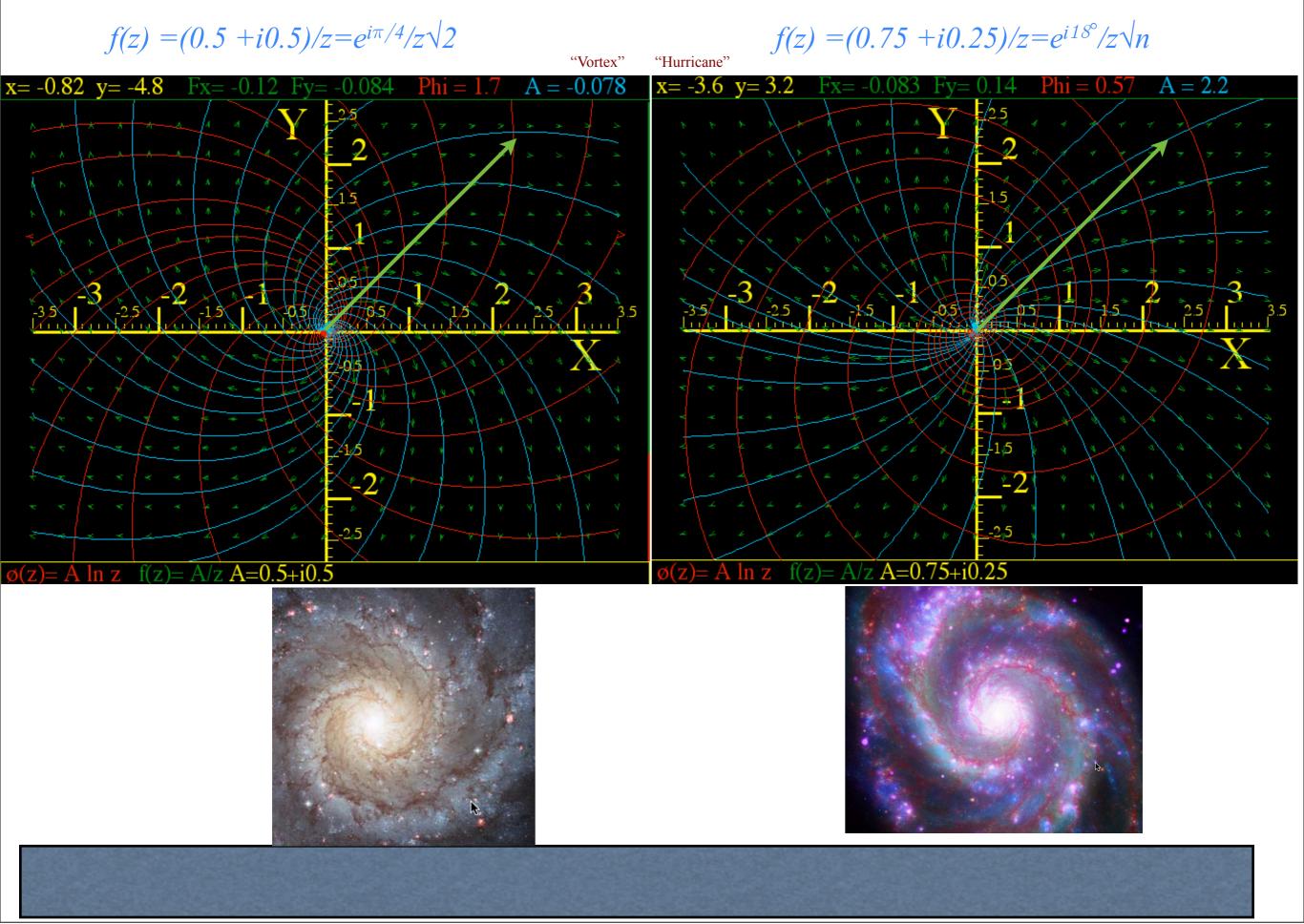
$$z = Re^{i\theta}$$

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







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

Easy 2D circulation and flux integrals

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12. Complex derivatives give 2D dipole fields

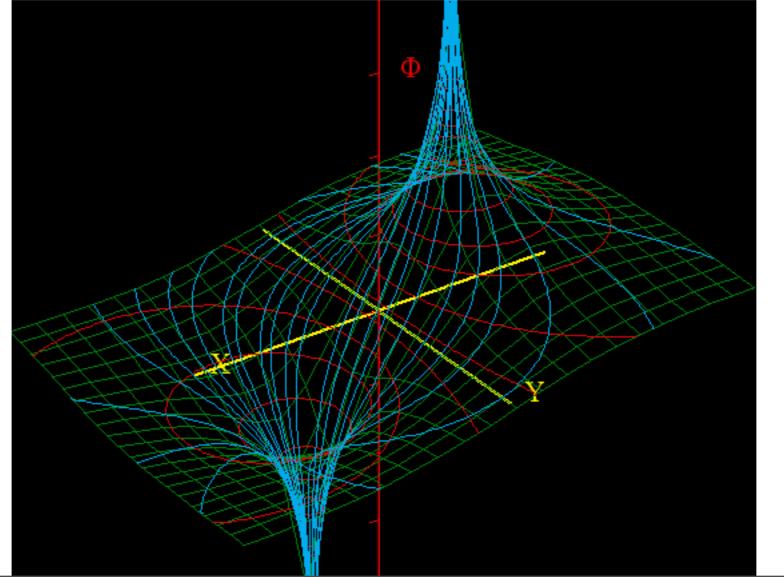
Start with $f(z)=az^{-1}$: 2D line *monopole field* and is its *monopole potential* $\phi(z)=a\ln z$ of source strength a.

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

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*.

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

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



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 $f^{1\text{-pole}}$.

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

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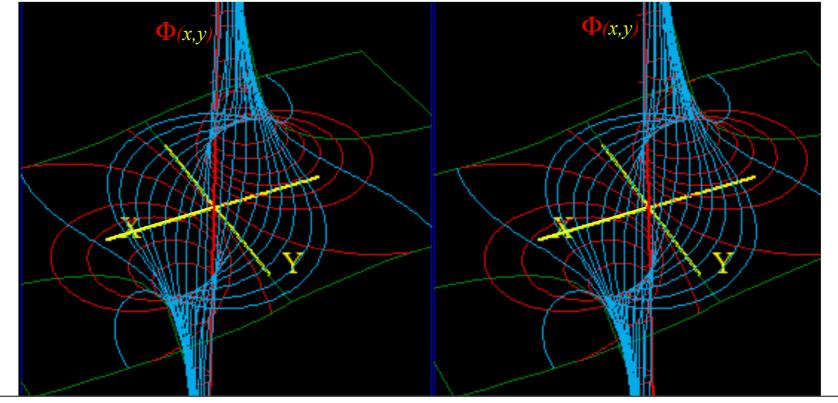
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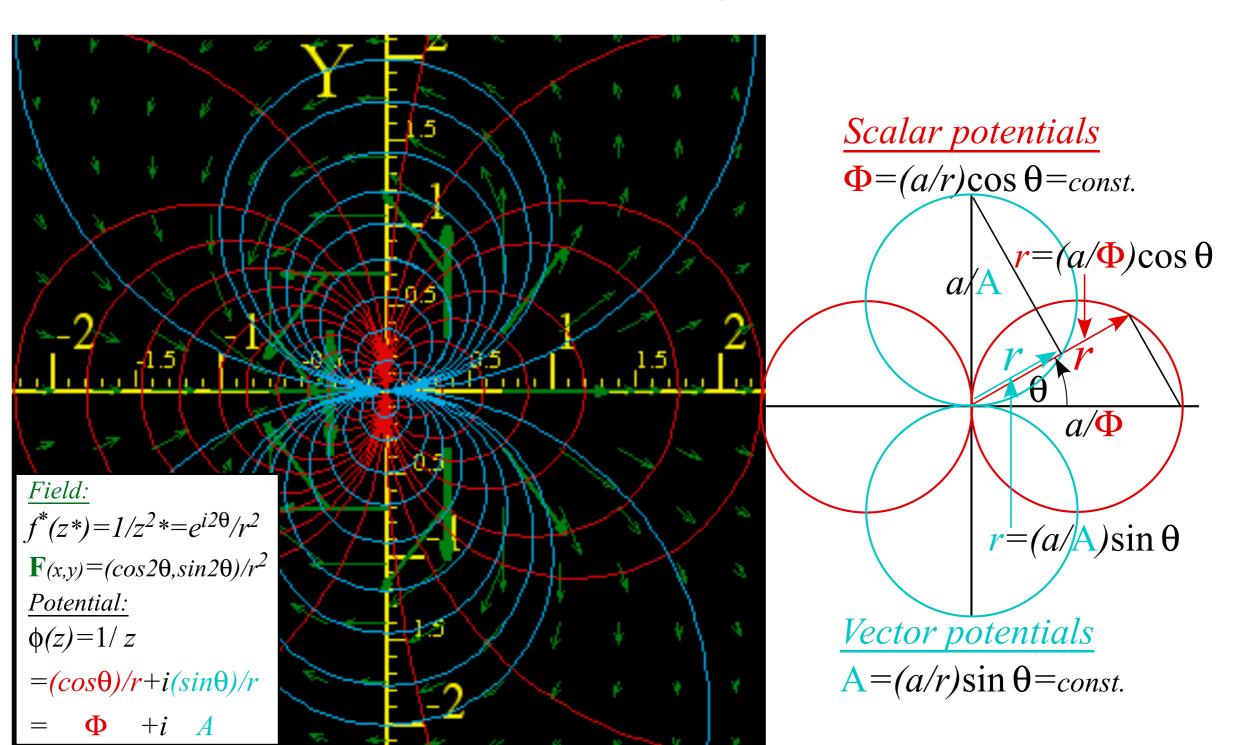
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A *point-dipole potential* $\phi^{2\text{-pole}}$ (whose *z*-derivative is $f^{2\text{-pole}}$) is a *z*-derivative of $\phi^{1\text{-pole}}$.

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

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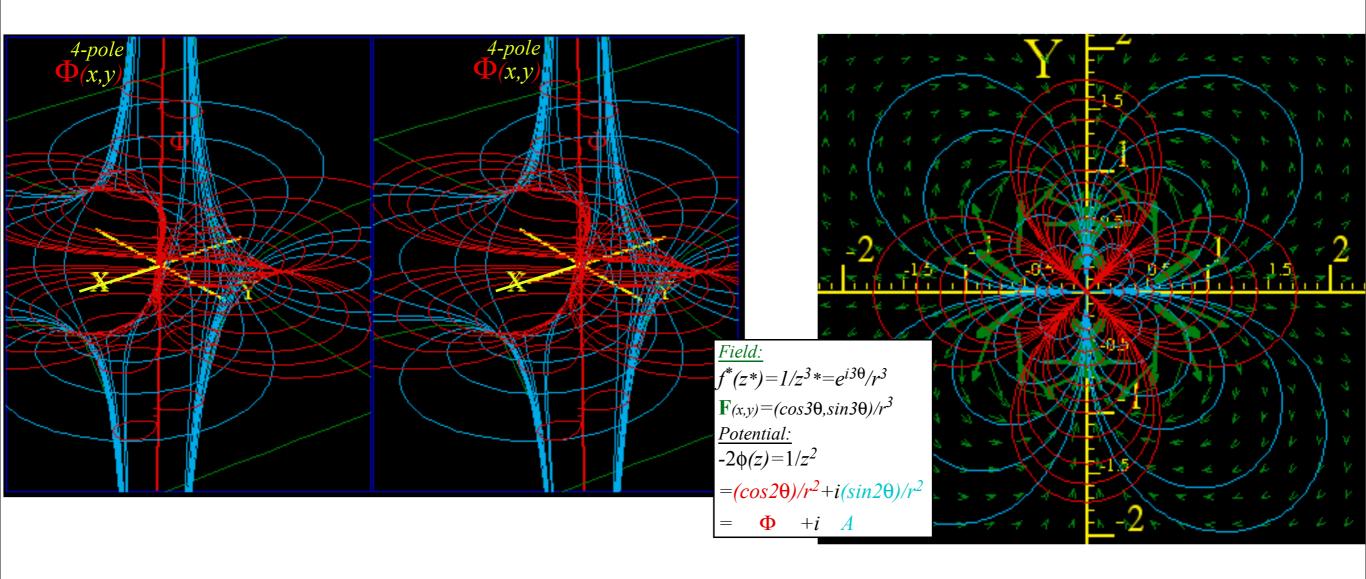
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2^{n} -pole analysis: Laurent series (Generalization of Maclaurin-Taylor series)

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

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

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

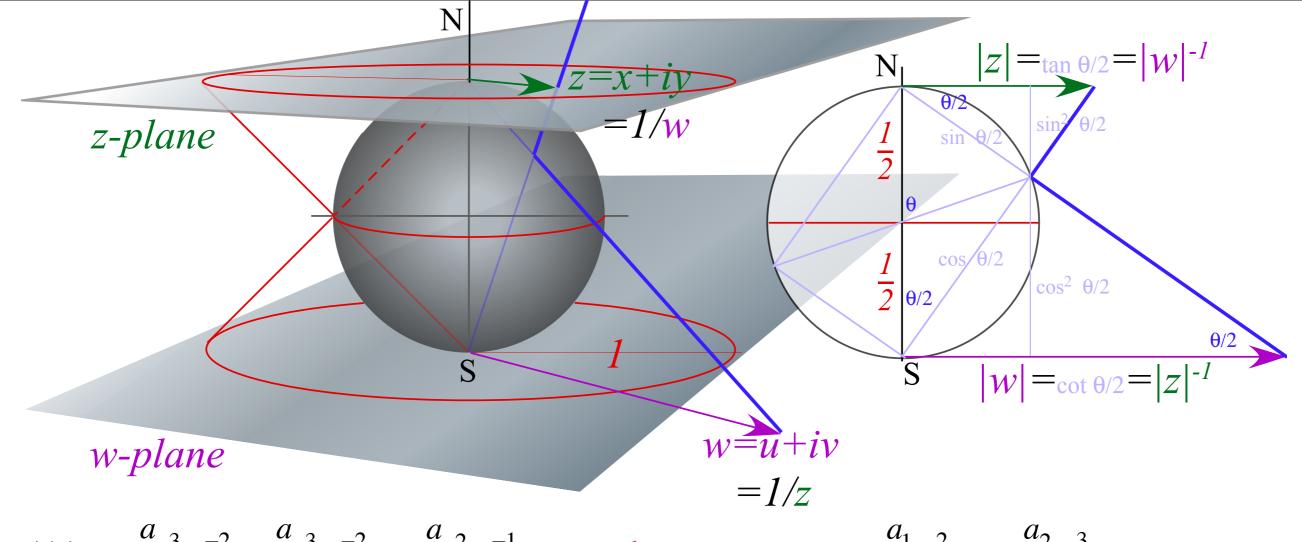
$$\text{at } z = 0 \quad \text{at } z = 0 \quad \text{at } z = \infty \quad \text{at } z = \infty$$

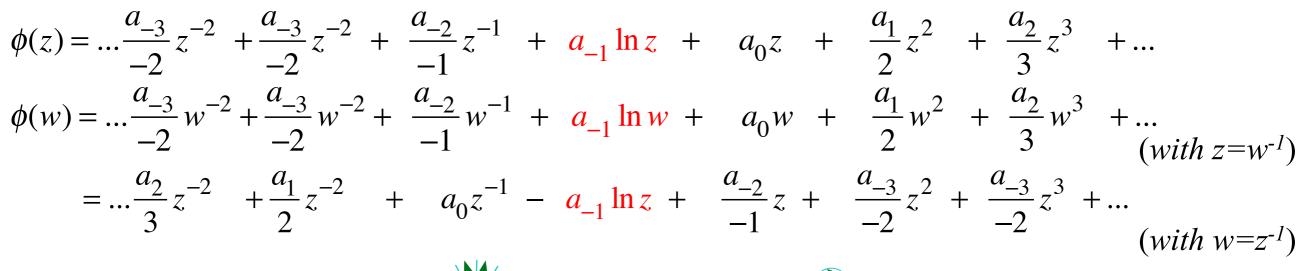
$$\phi(z) = \dots \frac{a_{-3}}{-2}z^{-2} + \frac{a_{-2}}{-1}z^{-1} + a_{-1}\ln z + a_0z + \frac{a_1}{2}z^2 + \frac{a_2}{3}z^3 + \frac{a_3}{4}z^4 + \frac{a_4}{5}z^5 + \frac{a_5}{6}z^6 + \dots$$

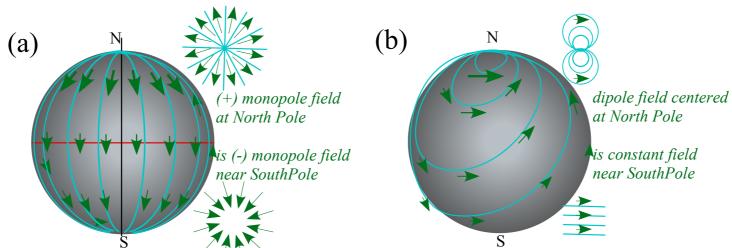
All field terms $a_{m-1}z^{m-1}$ except 1-pole $\frac{a_{-1}}{z}$ have potential term $a_{m-1}z^m/m$ of a 2^m -pole.

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

$$\begin{split} \phi(z) &= \dots \frac{a_{-3}}{-2} z^{-2} + \frac{a_{-3}}{-2} z^{-2} + \frac{a_{-2}}{-1} z^{-1} + a_{-1} \ln z + a_0 z + \frac{a_1}{2} z^2 + \frac{a_2}{3} z^3 + \dots \\ \phi(w) &= \dots \frac{a_{-3}}{-2} w^{-2} + \frac{a_{-3}}{-2} w^{-2} + \frac{a_{-2}}{-1} w^{-1} + a_{-1} \ln w + a_0 w + \frac{a_1}{2} w^2 + \frac{a_2}{3} w^3 + \dots \\ &\qquad \qquad (with \ z = w^{-1}) \\ &= \dots \frac{a_2}{3} z^{-2} + \frac{a_1}{2} z^{-2} + a_0 z^{-1} - a_{-1} \ln z + \frac{a_{-2}}{-1} z + \frac{a_{-3}}{-2} z^2 + \frac{a_{-3}}{-2} z^3 + \dots \\ &\qquad \qquad (with \ w = z^{-1}) \end{split}$$







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).

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

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

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

Source analysis starts with 1-pole loop integrals $\oint z^{-1}dz = 2\pi i$ or, with origin shifted $\oint (z-a)^{-1}dz = 2\pi i$. They hold for any loop about point-a. Function f(z) is just f(a) on a tiny circle around point-a.

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

The f(a) result is called a *Cauchy integral*. Then repeated a-derivatives gives a sequence of them.

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

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

$$f(z) = \sum_{n = -\infty}^{\infty} a_n (z - a)^n \qquad \text{where : } a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint \frac{f(z)}{(z - a)^{n+1}} dz \left(= \frac{1}{n!} \frac{d^n f(a)}{da^n} \quad \text{for : } n \ge 0 \right)$$