Wed. 10/2 Fri. 10/4	<ul><li>3.2 Images T4 Relaxation Method</li><li>3.4.14.2 Multipole Expansion</li></ul>	
Mon. 10/7 Wed. 10/9 Thurs 10/10	<b>3.4.34.4</b> Multipole Expansion ( <i>C 17</i> ) <b>12.1.11.2</b> Lorentz Force Law: fields and forces	HW4

Materials Corner mirror (demonstrate Pr. 19) Announcements

#### Last Times

#### This Time

*Using* the Image Charge technique Another approach all together – Relaxation Begin Multi-Pole Expansion

#### **Summary**

#### Methods of Finding Solutions

We are going to discuss three methods of solving Laplace's equation:

- (1) *Method of Images* replace a problem with a simpler equivalent one (based on corollary of the first uniqueness theorem)
- (2) *Relaxation Method* a computational method based on the potential at a point being the average of the values at the same distance (more about Next Time).
- (3) *Multipole Expansion* a method for getting approximate answers for *V* far from a charge distribution

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Method of Images.

# Examples/Exercises:

What is the equivalent image charge configuration? (a hemispherical bump on a plane)



## Summary

## Multipole Expansion

Maybe the place to begin this discussion is with the irrefutable mathematical statement

$$\frac{1}{\mathbf{r}} = \frac{1}{r} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{r'}{r}\right)^n P_n(\cos\theta')$$

Where 
$$P_n$$
 is the n<sup>th</sup> Legendre polynomial.

$$P_{0} = 1$$
  

$$P_{1}(u) = u$$
  

$$P_{2}(u) = (3u^{2} - 1)/2$$

Griffiths demonstrated that this was the case; we'll pick up from there.

So, what the heck is that good for? Well,

a) The potential due to a set of point charges involves terms with  $\frac{1}{n}$  for each source. So, if

you want the potential due to a series of sources, it's  $\frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_o}\sum_i \frac{q_i}{r_i}$ . So it certainly looks

relevant.

b) As for useful, each  $\mathbf{u} = \sqrt{r^2 + r'^2 - 2rr'\cos\theta_{r \to r'}}$ . So, they all have something in common, that *r* (vector pointing to the observation location) and it would be nice to be able to 'factor' that out, but it's kind of locked inside the sqrt. *This* expression allows you to factor it out.

a. 
$$V(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_o} \sum_i \frac{q_i}{\eta_i} = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_o} \sum_i \frac{q_i}{r} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{r'_i}{r}\right)^n P_n \operatorname{Cos}\theta'_i = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_o} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r^{-(n+1)} \sum_i r''_i P_n \operatorname{Cos}\theta'_i g_i$$

b. Or for a continuous distribution, we're looking at the integral

$$V(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_o} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r^{-(n+1)} \left( \int r_i^n P_n \left( \cos \theta_i' \right) \left( \int \tau' \right) \right)$$

c) I know, you're saying, 'that doesn't look like much of a *simplification* to me!' But, much like a Taylor Series, you seldom use the whole darn sum, instead, you use only enough terms to get an answer that's 'good enough.' In particular, such series are handy when the variable of expansion is very small so you only need the first few terms. In this case,

the variable of expansion is (mostly)  $\frac{r_i}{r}$ .

- a. When the distance (from the origin) to the observation location is much greater than the distance (from the origin) to any of the sources, then you only need to hold the first few terms.
- b. Warning relative to the origin. Pay special attention to the parenthetical (from the origin). Mathematically speaking, you have to watch out for that. The different terms in the series will evaluate to different values depending on where your origin is.
- c. Useful origin. Often, these expansions are used to answer the question of 'how does this charge distribution look from very far away.' What we usually mean by that is 'when the distance *from the charges* to the observation location is much greater than *the distance between the charges*. To answer that question, you want the origin to be *inside the charge distribution*.

## The first four Terms

Analogy to Taylor Expansion. When you approximate a mathematical function with a Taylor Series,

$$F(x) = F(x_o) + \frac{dF}{dx}\Big|_o (x - x_o) + \frac{1}{2}\frac{d^2F}{dx^2}\Big|_o (x - x_o)^2 + \frac{1}{6}\frac{d^3F}{dx^3}\Big|_o (x - x_o)^3 + \dots$$

You say 'if the point of evaluation is close enough to xo, then the function's value is just that at  $x_0 - it$ 's a constant; but if you back out a little, then it's like that constant plus a little stretch up a line; you back out a little further still, it's like that constant plus a stretch along the line plus a little arc up a parabola,...

Now for the Multipole Expansion. Similarly, if you're quite far from the sources, you say, it's like a point charge way out there; if you get a little closer, you can see that there's some slight polarization – a little more charge on this end than the other – so it's like a point charge + a dipole; you get a little closer and you an resolve 'it's like a point charge + a dipole + a quadrupole,... Just like the first few terms of a Taylor Series Expansion are graphically simple building blocks, the first few terms of a Multipole Series Expansion are like (differential forms of) reasonably simple charge distributions: The monopole, the Dipole, the Quadrupole, the Octopole.

Monopole: far *enough* from a (non-neutral) charge distribution, the voltage looks like that of a point charge

$$V \approx \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{Q}{r},$$

where the total charge is

$$Q = \sum_{i} q_{i} \rightarrow \int \rho(\vec{r}') d\tau'$$

We saw many examples of the electric field going to the limit of what it would be for all of the charge treated like a point charge.

What if Q = 0? A simple example is the physical dipole – equal and opposite charges  $(\pm q)$  separated by a distance *d*. In that case,



QuickTime™ and a TIFF (Uncompressed) decompressor are needed to see this picture.

Different arrangements of charges have potentials that fall off more quickly as the distance gets large.

QuickTime™ and a TIFF (Uncompressed) decompressor are needed to see this picture.

$$V(\vec{r}) = V_{\text{mon}}(\vec{r}) + V_{\text{dip}}(\vec{r}) + V_{\text{quad}}(\vec{r}) + \dots$$

The first two terms are:

$$V_{\text{mon}}(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{Q}{r} = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{1}{r} \sum_i q_i$$
$$V_{\text{dip}}(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{1}{r^2} \sum_i q_i r_i' \cos\theta' = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{\vec{p} \cdot \hat{r}}{r^2}$$

where the dipole moment is defined using the property  $\vec{r}' \cdot \hat{r} = r' \cos \theta'$ :

$$\vec{p} = \sum_{i} q_i \vec{r}_i'.$$

**Warning:** These position vectors are relative to an origin. Just like a "moment of inertia" exactly what you get depends on the point you're measuring against (in that case, the axis of rotation.) For the series to converge the fastest, you want the origin to be in the center of charge, so all *r*'s are as small as they can be.

### Examples/Exercises:

**Problem 3.30(a)** (EXAMPLE): Find the first two terms in the mulitpole expansion for the figure shown below.



The total charge is Q=2q, so

$$V_{\rm mon}(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{2q}{r}.$$

The dipole moment is

$$\vec{p} = \sum_{i} q_i \vec{r}'_i = (-q)(0) + (3q)(a\hat{z}) = 3qa \hat{z},$$

so

$$V_{\rm dip}(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{\vec{p}\cdot\hat{r}}{r^2} = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{3qa}{r^2} \hat{z}\cdot\hat{r} = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{3qa}{r^2} \cos\theta.$$

In the last step, use  $\hat{z} \cdot \hat{r} = \cos\theta$  (draw the vector  $\vec{r}$  in the diagram above).

### Q: What if we move the origin up, half-way between the charges?

As with a Taylor series; though the sum of all terms may be insensitive to where your reference point, the exact contribution of each term is quite sensitive.

**Problem 3.32** (EXERCISE): Find the first two terms in the mulitpole expansion for the figure shown below.



The total charge is Q = -q, so

$$V_{\rm mon}(\vec{r}) = -\frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0}\frac{q}{r}.$$

The dipole moment is

$$\vec{p} = \sum_{i} q_{i} \vec{r}_{i}' = (-q)(-a\hat{y}) + (-q)(a\hat{y}) + q(a\hat{z}) = qa\hat{z},$$

so

$$V_{\rm dip}(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{\vec{p}\cdot\hat{r}}{r^2} = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{qa}{r^2} \hat{z}\cdot\hat{r} = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{qa}{r^2} \cos\theta.$$

## **Relaxation Method**

Go over the handout – download the example from the course webpage Have students do the exercises – bring Python program with solutions (email to self)

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Have students go through exercises on the tutorial about the *relaxation method*.

1. Give hints about how to set NX and NY. For example:

$$NX = \left(\frac{x_{\max} - x_{\min}}{d}\right) + 1$$

because the expression in brackets gives the number of "gaps," but there is one more row or column in the matrix.

- 2. Page 4 gives the lines to produce X and Y grids. Don't forget to put the line: "from pylab import \*" at the beginning of the program.
- 3. This is not essential. It just speeds things up.

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"I didn't understand the exa Also can we talk about the Sam Hide response Pos		
Admin		Flag as
I would also be interested	ed to know more about the dipole moment. Especially	inappropriate
why it is useful to us if v	ve separate it from r and whether or not it is of any	
use to us if we are not u	using it to calculate Vdip.	
Ben Kid		
"I'm having a hard time follo some time discussing this? Spencer Post a response		
Admin		Flag as inappropriate
"Does the dipole moment h succinct def. of potential. A that got me, but was that ca		
Rachael Hach Hide respo Admin	nses Post a response	Flag as inappropriate
Or what I mean is, could	d it apply to a quadrapole or octopole, if, that is in fact	
a real thing?		
Rachael Hach		

I'd also appreciate talking more about the conceptual meaning of section

3.4.2.

Casey McGrath

"It was unclear to me how Griffiths reasoning about how we know that the potential of the different configurations fall off. I get his reasoning for the monopole and the dipole falling off, but I don't get it for the quadrupole or octopole."

<u>Jessica</u> <u>Post a response</u> <u>Admin</u>