# USE OF POISSON'S INTEGRAL IN CALCULATING HIGHER VERTICAL DERIVATIVES OF HARMONIC FUNCTIONS – PART 1

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Summary: The higher vertical derivatives of harmonic functions, expressed by Poisson's integral, are calculated for an infinite plane. The properties of the higher derivatives of the kernel of the integral are investigated and a method of calculation is proposed, which partly eliminates the negative effect caused by their "oscillation".

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

In recent years considerable attention has been devoted to the analytical continuation of harmonic functions into regions where the solution of boundary problems cannot be applied. Regions in which the harmonicness of the functions can no longer be guaranteed and the problem stops being unique, are usually involved. The solution is then more or less formal and need not correspond to reality. Nevertheless, it is useful to deal with this problem. One of the possible approaches to the solution is the use of a Taylor series which yields a unique solution in the interval where it converges. In this paper we shall deal with the conditions for determining the terms of this series, in particular with calculating the vertical derivatives of harmonic functions.

# 2. INTRODUCTION OF FUNCTIONS $Q_{\nu}$

The solution of the external Dirichlet problem for a sphere, radius R, is Poisson's integral  $\lceil 1 \rceil$ 

$$T(\varrho,\vartheta_0,\lambda_0)=R(4\pi)^{-1}\iint_{\Omega}T(R,\vartheta,\lambda)\,r^{-3}(\varrho^2-R^2)\,\mathrm{d}\omega,\,\varrho>R\;,$$

where T is a function harmonic in the interval  $\varrho \ge R$ ;  $\varrho$ ,  $\vartheta_0$ ,  $\lambda_0$  and R,  $\vartheta$ ,  $\lambda$  are spherical co-ordinates (origin at the centre of the sphere) of the investigated and variable point, respectively, and r is their distance;  $d\omega$  is an element of the unit sphere.

By applying the limit  $R \to \infty$  we arrive at the Poisson integral for the infinite plane z = 0:

(1) 
$$T(x_0, y_0, z) = (2\pi)^{-1} \int_0^\infty \int_0^{2\pi} z l r^{-3} T(x_0 + l \cos \alpha, y_0 + l \sin \alpha, 0) dl d\alpha,$$
  
 $r^2 = l^2 + z^2,$ 

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where l and  $\alpha$  are the polar co-ordinates of the variable point in plane z = 0 with the origin at point  $(x_0, y_0, 0)$ , T is a function harmonic in the halfspace  $z \ge 0$  and r is the distance of the investigated and variable point.

The k-th derivative of function T with respect to z at point  $(x_0, y_0, v)$  is obtained by differentiating the kernel  $zl/r^3$  of integral (1) k-times. We shall denote this function by  $k! Q_k$ :

(2) 
$$k! \ Q_k(z, l) = \frac{\partial^k}{\partial z^k} \left(\frac{z}{r^3}\right) l = -\frac{\partial^{k+1}}{\partial z^{k+1}} \left(\frac{1}{r}\right) l.$$

It is easy to see that

1! 
$$Q_1 = r^{-3}(1 - 3\varkappa^2) l$$
,  
2!  $Q_2 = -r^{-4} 3\varkappa(3 - 5\varkappa^2) l$ ,  
3!  $Q_3 = -r^{-5} 3(3 - 30\varkappa^2 + 35\varkappa^4) l$ ,

and, in general,

(3) 
$$k! \ Q_k = a_0^{(k)} l r^{-(k+2)} \sum_{j=1}^{(k+3)/2} a_j^{(k)} \varkappa^{2(j-1)}, \ k = 1, 3, 5, \dots;$$
$$k! \ Q_k = a_0^{(k)} l \varkappa r^{-(k+2)} \sum_{j=1}^{(k+2)/2} a_j^{(k)} \varkappa^{2(j-1)}, \ k = 2, 4, 6, \dots, \quad \varkappa = v/r.$$

Table 1 gives the coefficients  $a_j^{(k)}$  for k=1,2,...,12. The sums  $\sum_j a_j^{(k)} \kappa^{2(j-1)}$  are polynomials in terms of  $\kappa^2$  and, therefore, they have  $\frac{1}{2}(k+1)$  (for k odd) or  $\frac{1}{2}k$  (for k even) positive roots. It can be proved that all roots lie within the interval  $\kappa^2 \in (0,1)$ ,

Table 1.

k	$a_0^{(k)}$	$a_1^{(k)}$	$a_2^{(k)}$	$a_3^{(k)}$	$a_4^{(k)}$	$a_5^{(k)}$	$a_6^{(k)}$	$a_7^{(k)}$
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	1 -3 -3 15 45 -315 -315 2835 14175 -155925 -467775 6081075	1 3 3 15 5 35 35 315 63 693 231 3003	-3 -5 -30 -70 -105 -315 -1260 -4620 -3465 -15015 -18018 -90090	35 63 315 693 6930 18018 30030 90090 225225 765765	42912012257409009021879010210202771340	6435 12155 109395 230945 2078505 4849845	46189 88179 1939938 4056234	679039 1300075

i.e.  $|l| \in (0, \infty)$  and that they differ from one another. Therefore, if  $l \ge 0$ , the function  $Q_k$  has  $\frac{1}{2}(k+3)$  or  $\frac{1}{2}(k+2)$  roots which differ from one another. Table 2 gives the roots of functions  $Q_k$  for v=1 and k=1,2,...,12. It can be proved that

(4), (5) 
$$Q_k(v, l) = v^{-(k+1)} Q_k(1, t); \quad t = l/v.$$

k $x_1$  $x_2$  $x_3$  $x_4$  $x_5$  $x_6$ 1 1.4142 2 0.8165 3 0.59042.7662 0.4667 4 1.5649 5 0.3874 1.1325 4.07196 0.33180.90482.2520 7 0.29050.75871.6181 5.3590 8 0.2585 0.6563 1.28762.91749 0.23300.5799 1.07992.07956.6423 10 0.21210.52040.93591.64653.5728 11 0.19480.47260.82881.37802.52807.92220.180012 0.43320.7459 1.1932 1.99294.2224

Table 2.

This is convenient because we are able to investigate the functions Q(1, t) only, and proceed from them to the functions Q(v, l) using Eq. (4) and substitution (5). We shall put

(6) 
$$b_k(v) = \int_0^\infty \overline{T}(l) \ Q(v, l) \ dl, \quad k = 1, 2, ...,$$

where  $\overline{T}(l) = (2\pi)^{-1} \int_0^{2\pi} T(x_0 + l \cos \alpha, y_0 + l \sin \alpha, 0) d\alpha$ . Function  $b_k(v)$  is thus equal to the k-th derivative of function T with respect to z at point  $(x_0, y_0, v)$ , divided by k!.

# 3. INTRODUCTION OF FUNCTIONS $f_k$ AND $\alpha_k$

Due to their "oscillations" functions  $Q_k$  are not suitable for calculating the derivatives of  $b_k$ . This can be seen in Fig. 1, in which functions  $Q_1$ ,  $Q_6$  and  $Q_9$  are shown for v=1. If k is roughly larger than 5, the small quantity (6) can be obtained as the difference of several areas, which may be as much as several orders of magnitude larger than  $b_k$  itself, and thus the relative error of the caclulated derivative  $b_k$  will become several orders of magnitude larger than the relative error of function  $\overline{T}$ .

From investigating functions  $Q_k$  we can see that two successive functions  $Q_k$  and  $Q_{k+1}$  become increasingly similar (with the exception of the sign) with increasing

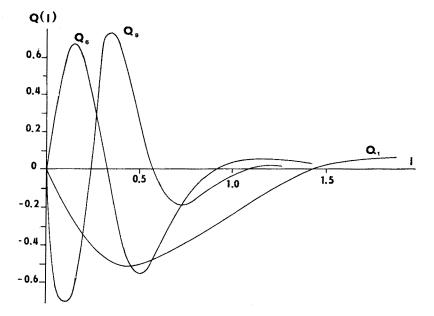


Fig. 1.

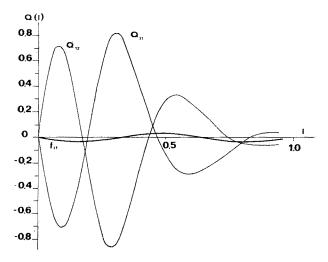


Fig. 2.

k (see functions  $Q_{11}$  and  $Q_{12}$  in Fig. 2); we are, therefore, offered the idea of creating combinations of the type

(7) 
$$\sum_{j=1}^{M_k} v^{-1} \lambda_k^{(j)} Q_k(v_k^{(j)}, l) + Q_{k+1}(v, l), \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, M_k = 1, 2, \dots,$$

where the difference  $\Delta v_k^{(j)} = v - v_k^{(j)}$  is a small number ( $|\Delta v| \ll 1$ ). We shall restrict

ourselves just to the case of  $M_k = 1$ , i.e. to combinations which we shall denote  $f_k$ :

(8) 
$$v^{-(k+2)} f_k(t) = v^{-(k+2)} [\lambda_k Q_k(\varepsilon_k, t) + Q_{k+1}(1, t)] =$$
$$= v^{-1} \lambda_k Q_k(\varepsilon_k v, l) + Q_{k+1}(v, l), \quad t = l/v, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots.$$

Instead of  $v_k$  we have introduced the parameter  $\varepsilon_k = v_k/v$ ,  $(\varepsilon_k \approx 1)$ . We shall introduce the  $\alpha_k$ -integrals by

$$(9) \quad v \, \alpha_k(v) = v^{-(k+2)} \int_0^\infty \overline{T}(vt) \, f_k(t) \, \mathrm{d}t = \lambda_k \, b_k(\varepsilon_k v) + v b_{k+1}(v) \,, \quad k = 1, 2, \ldots.$$

Given a suitable choice of parameters  $\lambda_k$  and  $\varepsilon_k$ , the kernels of the integrals  $f_k$  are more suitable for numerical integration than the  $Q_k$ -kernels in Eqs (6) (see function  $f_{11}$  in Fig. 2). We shall discuss the choice of parameters  $\lambda_k$  and  $\varepsilon_k$  in Section 5.

# 4. CALCULATION OF THE DERIVATIVES $b_k$

In order to obtain the unknowns  $b_k$  with the aid of the integrals  $\alpha_k$ , we shall create a linear system in terms of  $b_k$  from Eqs (9). Assume that we know  $b_i$  (i = 1, 2, ...). We now write j + 1 equations (9) (j = 1, 2, ...). For the sake of simplicity we shall put  $b_i(v) = b_i$ ,  $\alpha_i(v) = \alpha_i$ :

We shall develop the terms  $b_i(\varepsilon_i v)$ , ...,  $b_{i+j}(\varepsilon_{i+j} v)$  into series in terms of the powers of  $v \Delta \varepsilon = v - \varepsilon v > 0$ :

(11) 
$$v\alpha_{i} = b_{i}\lambda_{i} + b_{i+1}v[1 - (i+1)\lambda_{i}\Delta\varepsilon_{i}] + \lambda_{i}\sum_{l=2}^{\infty}(-1)^{l}\frac{(i+l)!}{i!\ l!}b_{i+l}(v\Delta\varepsilon_{i})^{l},$$

$$v\alpha_{i+1} = b_{i+1}\lambda_{i+1} + b_{i+2}v[1 - (i+2)\lambda_{i+1}\Delta\varepsilon_{i+1}] +$$

$$+ \lambda_{i+1}\sum_{l=2}^{\infty}(-1)^{l}\frac{(i+1+l)!}{(i+1)!\ l!}b_{i+1+l}(v\Delta\varepsilon_{i+1})^{l},$$

$$\begin{split} v\alpha_{i+j} &= b_{i+j}\lambda_{i+j} + b_{i+j+1} \, v \big[ 1 - \big( i+j+1 \big) \, \lambda_{i+j} \, \Delta \varepsilon_{i+j} \big] \, + \\ &+ \, \lambda_{i+j} \sum_{l=2}^{\infty} (-1)^l \, \frac{(i+j+l)!}{(i+j)!} \, b_{i+j+l} (v \, \Delta \varepsilon_{i+j})^l \, . \end{split}$$

For this purpose we have used the equations

which follow immediately from Eqs (2) and (6). We shall use Eq. (12) to derive the equations for the improper integrals

(13) 
$$\int_{v}^{\infty} b_{j}(z) dz = -j^{-1} b_{j-1}(v),$$

$$\int_{v}^{\infty} b_{j}(z) z^{i} dz = -j^{-1} b_{j-1}(v) v^{i} + \frac{i}{j(j+1)} b_{j-2}(v) v^{i-1} - \frac{i(i-1)}{j(j-1)(j-2)} b_{j-3}(v) v^{i-2} + \dots, n = 1, 2, \dots.$$

We shall integrate the second equation of system (11) within the limits  $z \in \langle v, \infty \rangle$ , and the third equation twice, first within the limits  $z \in \langle z_1, \infty \rangle$  and then within the limits  $z_1 \in \langle v, \infty \rangle$ ; the third equation will be integrate three times, etc., and, finally, the (j+1)-st equation j-times. We now take the terms with  $b_i$  over to the l.h.s. and neglect the terms containing  $b_{i+j+2}, \ldots$ . We thus arrive at a system of j+1 equations for j+1 unknowns  $b_{i+1}, \ldots, b_{i+1+j}$ :

$$(14) \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\lambda_{i}} - (i+1) \Delta \varepsilon_{i} S_{i}^{(0)} & c_{i}^{(2)} \Delta \varepsilon_{i}^{2} S_{i}^{(0)} \dots c_{i}^{(j+1)} \Delta \varepsilon_{i}^{j+1} S_{i}^{(0)} \\ \frac{i+1}{i+2} \frac{1}{\lambda_{i+1}} - (i+1) \Delta \varepsilon_{i+1} S_{i}^{(1)} & c_{i}^{(2)} \Delta \varepsilon_{i+1}^{2} S_{i}^{(1)} \dots c_{i}^{(j+1)} \Delta \varepsilon_{i+1}^{j+1} S_{i}^{(1)} \\ \frac{i+1}{i+j+1} \frac{1}{\lambda_{i+j}} - (i+1) \Delta \varepsilon_{i+j} S_{i}^{(j)} & c_{i}^{(2)} \Delta \varepsilon_{i+j}^{2} S_{i}^{(j)} \dots c_{i}^{(j+1)} \Delta \varepsilon_{i+j}^{j+1} S_{i}^{(j)} \end{bmatrix} \times$$

$$\times \begin{bmatrix} vb_{i+1} \\ v^2b_{i+2} \\ \dots \\ v^{j+1}b_{i+j+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I_i^{(0)} \\ I_i^{(1)} \\ \dots \\ I_i^{(j)} \end{bmatrix},$$

(15) 
$$C_i^{(m)} = (-1)^m (i+m)!/(i!m!), \quad m=2,3,...,j+1,$$

 $S_i^{(r)}$  are power series in terms of  $\Delta \varepsilon_{i+r} = 1 - \varepsilon_{i+r}$ , and it can be proved that

(16) 
$$S_i^{(r)} = \varepsilon_{i+r}^{-r}, \quad r = 0, 1, ..., j,$$

(17) 
$$I_{i}^{(r)} = A_{i}^{(r)} - b_{i} \left[ S_{i}^{(r)} - \frac{r}{i+1+r} \frac{1}{\lambda_{i+r}} \right], \quad r = 1, 2, ..., j,$$

$$I_{i}^{(0)} = \lambda_{i}^{-1} \alpha_{i} - b_{i},$$

(18) 
$$A_{i}^{(r)} = (-1)^{r} \frac{(i+r)!}{i!} \frac{1}{\lambda_{i+r}} \int_{v}^{\infty} dz_{r-1} \int_{z_{r-1}}^{\infty} \dots \int_{z_{2}}^{\infty} dz_{1} \int_{z_{1}}^{\infty} \alpha_{i+r}(z) z dz,$$
$$r = 1, 2, \dots, j.$$

The elements of the matrix of system (14)  $e_{kl}$  diminish with increasing l and, therefore, we shall only calculate the first unknown  $b_{i+1}$  (the accuracy of calculating  $b_{i+1}$  deteriorates with increasing l). For i we then substitute m = i + 1, calculate the unknown  $b_{m+1}$ , etc. We shall denote the determinant of system (14) by  $D_i^{(j+1)}$  and the sub-determinants of the elements of the first column  $[D_i^{(j+1)}]_{r,1}$ , r = 1, 2, ..., j + 1. It then holds that

(19) 
$$vb_{i+1} = \sum_{k=1}^{j+1} C_i^{(k)} I_i^{(k-1)},$$

(20) 
$$C_i^{(k)} = (-1)^{1+k} \left[ D_i^{(j+1)} \right]_{k,1} \left[ D_i^{(j+1)} \right]^{-1}, \quad k = 1, 2, ..., j+1.$$

### 5. CHOICE OF THE PARAMETERS $\lambda_k$ AND $\varepsilon_k$

It is evident that the effectiveness of the method proposed in Section 4 depends on the choice of the parameters  $\lambda_k$  and  $\varepsilon_k$ . If we draw only on Section 3, we can, e.g., require that function  $f_k$  satisfy the condition

(21) 
$$\int_0^\infty \left[ \lambda_k \, Q_k(\varepsilon_k, t) + \, Q_{k+1}(1, t) \right]^2 \, \mathrm{d}t = \min.$$

After differentiating this equation with respect to  $\lambda_k$  and  $\varepsilon_k$  and modification, we arrive at an implicit equation for  $\varepsilon_k$ :

(22) 
$$\int_{0}^{\infty} Q'_{k} Q'_{k+1} dt \int_{0}^{\infty} Q'_{k} Q_{k+1} dt - \int_{0}^{\infty} (Q'_{k})^{2} dt \int_{0}^{\infty} Q'_{k+1} Q_{k+1} dt = 0,$$

$$Q_{l} = Q_{l}(1, t), \quad Q'_{l} = Q_{l}(\varepsilon, t),$$

and for  $\lambda_k$ :

(23)
$$-\lambda_{k} = \int_{0}^{\infty} Q'_{k} Q_{k+1} dt \left[ \int_{0}^{\infty} (Q'_{k})^{2} dt \right]^{-1} = \int_{0}^{\infty} Q'_{k+1} Q_{k+1} dt \left[ \int_{0}^{\infty} Q'_{k} Q'_{k+1} dt \right]^{-1}.$$

As an index of "improvement", achieved by introducing functions  $f_k$  instead of  $Q_k$ , we can adopt the ratio  $p_k$  of the standard deviations of both functions:

(24) 
$$p_k^2 = \int_0^\infty Q_k^2 dt \left[ \int_0^\infty f_k^2(t) dt \right]^{-1}.$$

Table 3 gives the parameters  $\lambda_8, ..., \lambda_{11}$  and  $\varepsilon_8, ..., \varepsilon_{11}$ , calculated using Eqs (22) and (23), and the values  $p_8, ..., p_{11}$ , calculated using Eq. (24). These values can be considered optimum only with regard to calculating integrals (9), but not with regard to solving the system (14). We shall not deal with the criterion for selecting the parameters suitable for solving the system (14) in this paper. Very roughly speaking, the parameters  $\lambda_k$  and  $\varepsilon_k$  have to be chosen to render the absolute values of coefficients (20) within the interval (0,  $\delta > 1$ ), where  $\delta$  does not differ much from unity.

Table 3.

n	$\lambda_n$	$\varepsilon_n$	$\Delta arepsilon_n$	$p_n$
8	0.3954	0.8967	0.1033	17.5
9	0.3952	0.9072	0.0928	19-2
10	0.3910	0.9145	0.0855	21.0
11	0.3856	0.9205	0.0795	24.0

However, at the same time the values  $p_k$  have to be as large as possible. By calculating the coefficients  $C_8^{(1)}$ ,  $C_8^{(2)}$ ,  $C_8^{(3)}$ ,  $C_8^{(4)}$  for the parameters  $\lambda_k$  and  $\varepsilon_k$ , given in Tab. 3, we shall find that max  $|C_8^{(i)}| \approx 45$ . This means that the selection of the parameters  $\lambda_k$  and  $\varepsilon_k$ , optimum for calculating the integrals (9), is not optimum for calculating the integrals (6) with the aid of system (14). Table 4 gives the values of the parameters  $\lambda_k$  and  $\varepsilon_k$ , determined by approximative methods. The values of the quantity p and coefficients C are also given.

Table 4.

n	$\lambda_n$	$\varepsilon_n$	$\Delta \varepsilon_n$	$p_n$	r	C <sub>8</sub> <sup>(r)</sup>
8	0.3432	0-8836	0.1164	13.5	1	0.185417
9	0.4375	0.9167	0.0833	16.0	2	3.986088
10	0.3575	0.9081	0.0919	18.0	3	-2.168847
11	0.4210	0.9270	0.0730	20.7	4	-1.565442

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#### 6. CONCLUSION

Introducing the function  $f_k$  as a linear combination of functions  $Q_k(\varepsilon, t)$  and  $Q_{k+1}(1, t)$  improved the conditions of numerical integration expressively and thus will permit the auxiliary plane z = v to approach the initial plane z = 0. From the example in Section 5 (Tab. 4) we can see that a suitable choice of the parameters  $\lambda_k$  and  $\varepsilon_k$  will enable us to achieve very considerable improvement (more accurately speaking,  $b_k$  can be calculated with a relative error several times smaller than by direct computation using Eq. (6)). We shall have to deal more rigorously with the problem of optimizing the selection of the parameters  $\lambda_k$  and  $\varepsilon_k$  with regard to the effectiveness of the proposed method, and to the investigation of the case given by Eq. (7), or possibly of an even more general case.

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