

## Introduction

Any body in space has a gravitational force, and hence potential, associated with it. If we imagine a body,  $D$ , of mass  $m$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , then at any point in space outside of  $D$  there exists a gravitational field vector,  $-\nabla u$ , and gravitational potential,  $u$ , due to  $D$ .  $D$  creates a vector field in 3-space according to  $\int \frac{q}{r^2}$  ( $q$  = mass of element,  $r$  = distance to element).

## ILLUSTRATION

A vector field in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

What can this vector field tell us about  $D$ ?

The newtonian potential,  $u(\vec{x})$ , obeys Poisson's equation:

$$\Delta u = -4\pi \rho(\vec{x}) \chi(D)$$

where  $\rho(\vec{x})$  is the density of  $D$  and  $\chi(D)$  is the characteristic function of the point set  $D$ . If we assume constant density, the inverse problem is to determine the function  $\chi(D)$  from the known solution to the above equation. More specifically, if we measure  $u$  at a finite number of points on a surface outside of  $D$ , how can we find  $D$ ? This is the inverse problem of the theory of potential.

In this paper, I discuss the two-dimensional, discrete version of the gravitational problem.  $u$  is measured at a finite number of points on the boundary of an  $(n \times n)$  grid on which  $D$  lies.

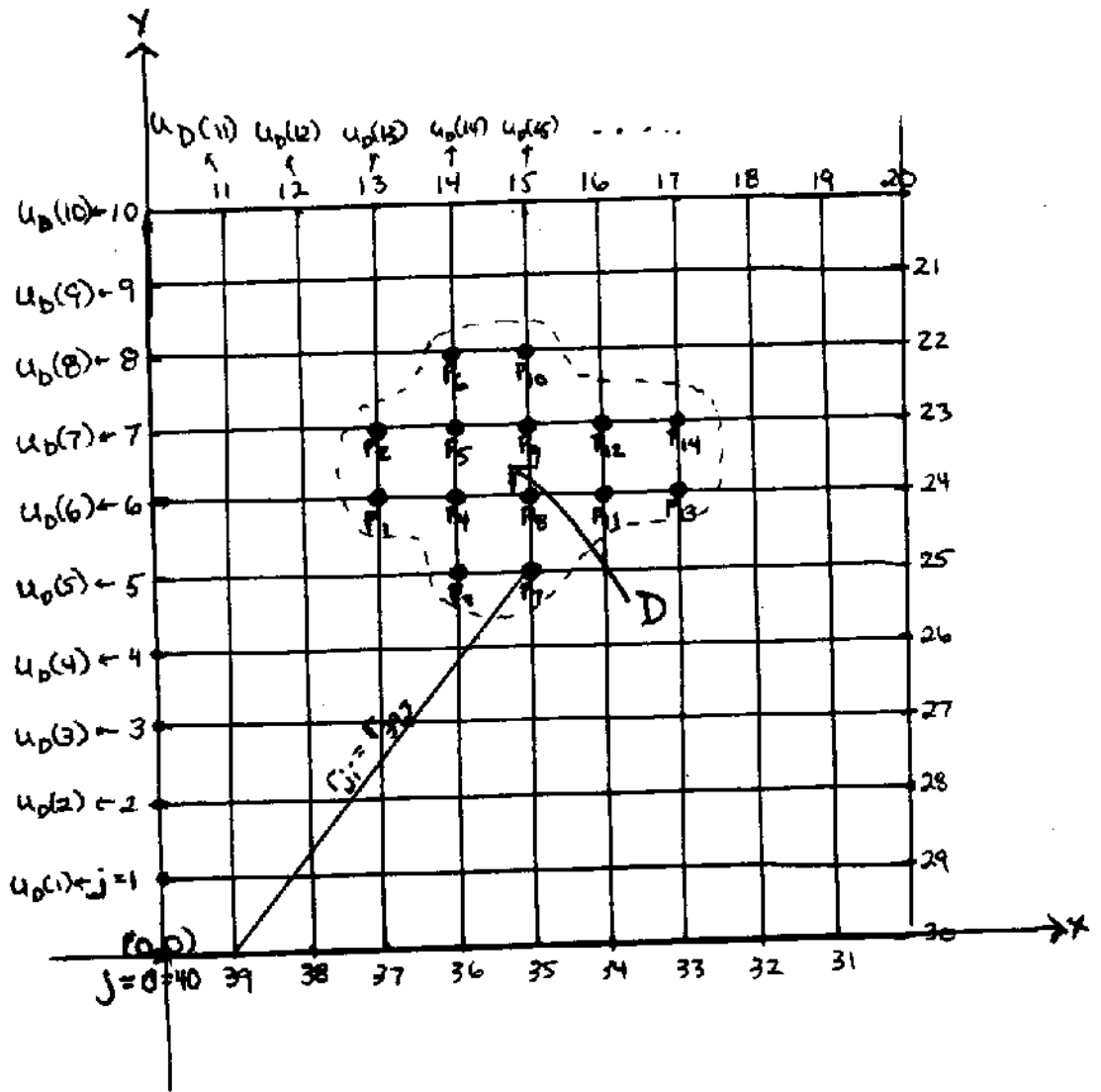
## Basic Terminology

Let  $\Omega$  be an  $(n \times n)$  grid on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . (That is,  $\Omega$  is made up of the line segments:  $x=0, x=1, x=2, \dots, x=n$  where  $y=0 \rightarrow n$ , and  $y=0, y=1, \dots, y=n, x=0 \rightarrow n$ .)  $D$  is a set of particles (masses, fixed electromagnetic charge sources, etc.), located in a subset of the interior lattice points of  $\Omega$ . (Legal subsets described below.) The size of  $D$  is  $m$ , (indicating the mass), so that  $D = \bigcup_{i=1}^m p_i$  where each  $p_i$  is located at point in  $\mathbb{R}^2, (x'_i, y'_i)$ . (Because  $p_i$  is on a lattice point of the grid,  $x'_i$  and  $y'_i$  are integers such that  $0 < x'_i, y'_i < n$ , for each  $i$ .) The  $p_i$  are labelled from bottom to top, then left to right.  $u$  is measured at the set of points labelled  $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, 4n\}$  which lie on the boundary of  $\Omega$ . A point in this set will be referred to as  $j$ , and  $j = (x_j, y_j)$ . (This is to be consistent with textbook theory notation which measures potential from a particle located at  $(x', y')$  at a point in space  $(x, y)$ .)  $x_j$  and  $y_j$  are integers such that  $0 < x_j, y_j < n$ , for each  $j$ . Let  $j_0 = (0, 0) = j_{4n}$ . These points are then labelled clockwise around  $\Omega$  starting at  $j$ .

# LAYTECH GRAPHIC I

Set up for  $n=10$  case.

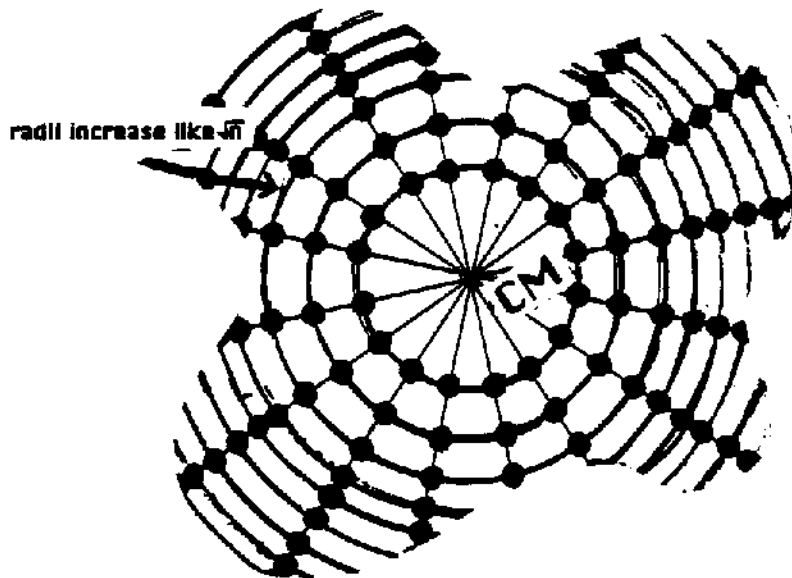
# Sketch of Laytech Graphic 1



$u_i(j)$  is the potential measured at  $j$  due to  $p_i$ .  $r_{ij}$  is the distance from  $j$  to  $p_i$ ; that is,  $r_{ij} = [(x_i - x_j)^2 + (y_i - y_j)^2]^{1/2}$ .  $u_D(j)$  represents the potential at  $j$  due to the whole distribution  $D$ .

## Assumptions

Assume  $D$  has constant density. In some potential theory, determining the density of  $D$  is part of the inverse problem, but I don't attempt that here. Constant density can be represented on  $\Omega$  by assigning each  $p_i$  the value 1. If  $D$  were star-shaped and we got measurements on a ball enclosing  $D$ , constant density could be represented in another way:



Additionally, assume that for any subset of points of  $D$  which lie on the same line  $x=c$  (i.e. are in the same column), the  $y$  coordinates of those points form a contiguous set of integers, and for a subset on the same line  $y=c$  (in the same row), the  $x$  coordinates of those points form a contiguous set of integers. This means  $D$  has no holes. Examples of legal configurations of  $D$  are as follows:

m= 5

## LAYTECH GRAPHIC II

(6) and (7) are not legal.

This criterion is the rectangular analogy to "star-shaped", and is assumed to be necessary due to Gauss' law. For if  $D_1$  = a spherical shell of mass  $m$  centered at the same point as  $D_2$  = a solid sphere of mass  $m$ , then  $u_{D_1}(\vec{x}) = u_{D_2}(\vec{x})$  although  $\chi(D_1) \neq \chi(D_2)$ . (The discrete representations of  $D_1$  and  $D_2$  on  $\Omega$  would give similar  $u(j)$ 's, and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} u_{D_1}(j) = u_{D_2}(j)$ .) Other non-star-shaped  $D$ 's may also give the same  $u$ , but it is in general true only for  $D$  with spherical symmetry.

Also, consider that the zero potential occurs consistently, infinitely far from  $D$ .

### The Forward Problem

The field due to a distribution of particles can be regarded as the superposition of the fields from the individual particles. This principle works for  $u$  as well as  $-\vec{\nabla}u$ , therefore we add the individual potentials, i.e. in general

$$u(\vec{x}) = \int_{\text{all sources}} \frac{\rho(x', y', z') dx' dy' dz'}{r}$$

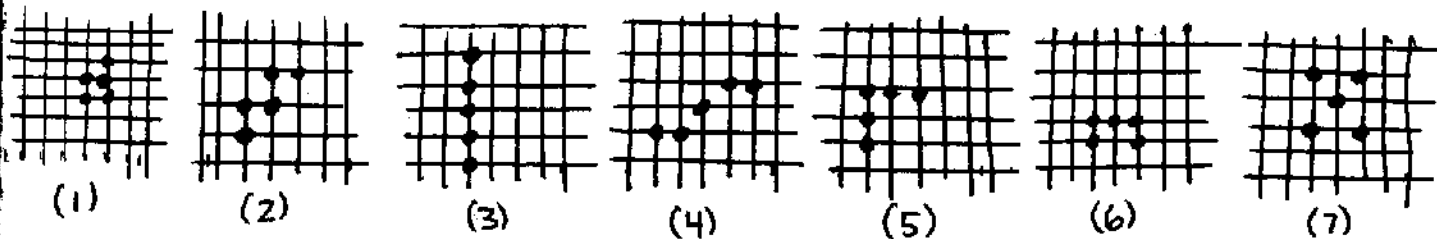
where  $r$  is the distance from element  $dx'dy'dz'$  to  $\vec{x}$  at which  $u$  is evaluated, and  $\rho$  is the density function. With this in mind, we know for  $D$  as defined on  $\Omega$ :

$$u_D(j) = \sum_{i=1}^m \log \left[ \frac{1}{r_{ji}} \right] \quad \text{for each } j.$$

(Logarithms compensate for 2 dimensions).

Given any  $n$  and  $D$ , then,  $u$  can be calculated as follows:

# Sketch of Laytech Graphic II



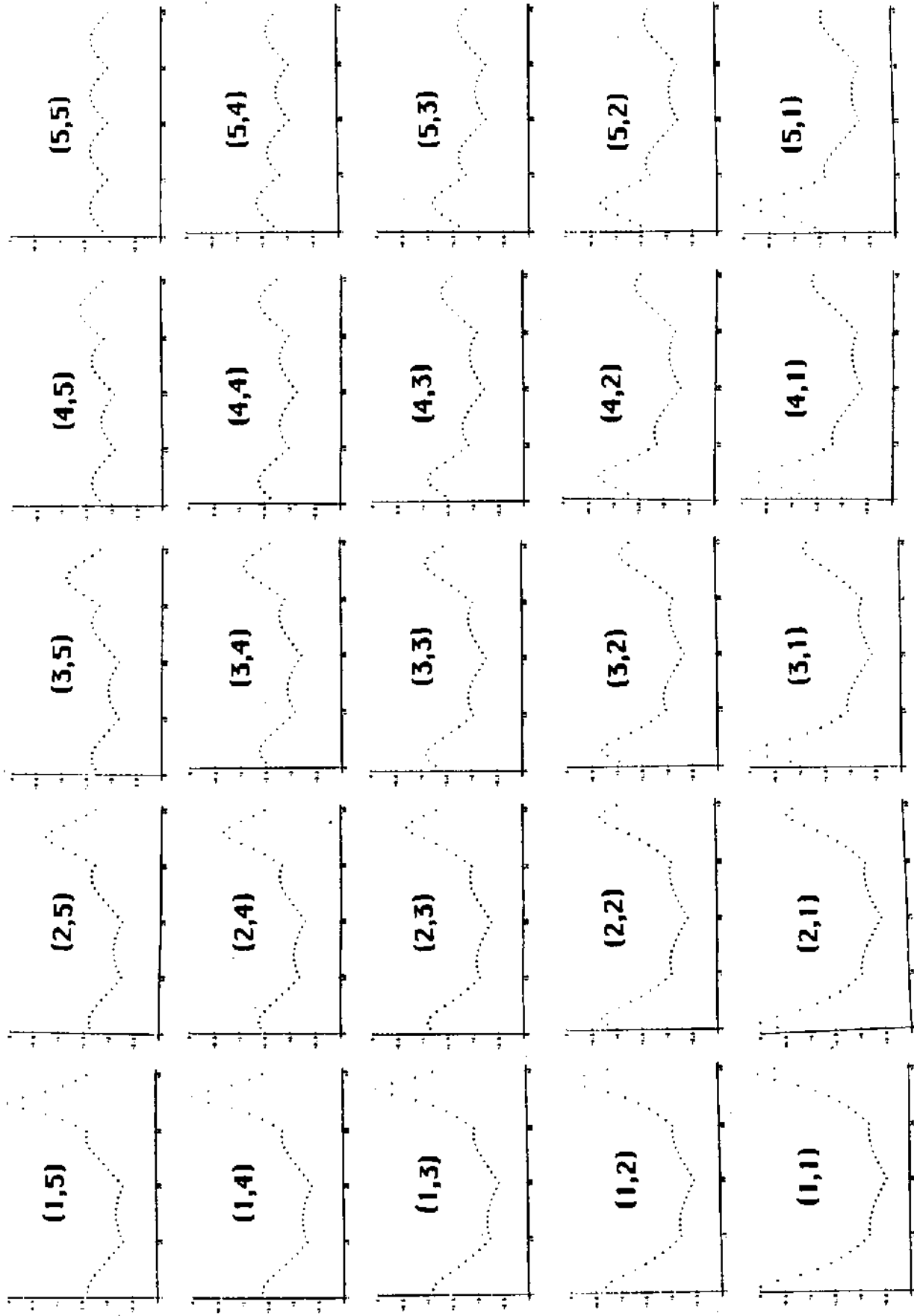
$$u_D(j) = \sum_{i=1}^m \log \left[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{x_i'^2 + (y_i' - j)^2}} \right] \quad \text{for } 0 < j \leq n$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^m \log \left[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{(x_i' + n - j)^2 + (n - y_i')^2}} \right] \quad \text{for } n < j \leq 2n$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^m \log \left[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{(n - x_i')^2 + (y_i' - 3n + j)^2}} \right] \quad \text{for } 2n < j \leq 3n$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^m \log \left[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{(x_i' - 4n + j)^2 + y_i'^2}} \right] \quad \text{for } 3n < j \leq 4n$$

I wrote computer codes which give a numerical table of values for  $u$  at each  $j$ , and graph  $j$  vs.  $u$ , once assigned a  $D$ .



$j$  vs.  $u(j)$  for  $D$  of  $m=1$  located at pt.s on  $(10 \times 10)$  grid as labelled