

Sudan University of Science and Technology

College of Science

Department of Mathematics

Introduction to Tensors Calculus with some applications

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For a bachelor degree in Mathematics

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صدق الله العظيم

التوبه "105"

Dedication

To the fountain of patience and optimism and hope

To each of the following in the presence of God

And his messenger, our mothers dear

To those who have demonstrated to us what is

the most beautiful of our brothers' life

to the big heart of our fathers

To the people who paved our way of science and

knowledge

All our teachers Distinguished

Especially Dr.Emad El din Abdel Rahim

To the taste of the most beautiful moments with

Our friends.

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who provides us the strength and determination
to complete the stages of our project
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our supervisor Dr.Emad El din Abd el Rahim
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for their unlimited support
all our friends
colleagues and relatives who
assisted us in one way or another.**

Abstract

The fundamental idea in Tensors calculus is the transformation of variables, In this research we studied some of this concepts. This work is divided in three chapters as follows :-

Firstly, we illustrate the coordinates,

Tensors and curvilinear coordinates via discussing of Cartesian Tensors, Tensors Derivatives and Tensor invariance, Also we presented some physical components of Tensors with some example.

In chapter Two, we presented some special Tensors, and we express their structures in curvilinear, cylindrical, Cartesian and Spherical Coordinates with some applications and examples.

Finally, we discuss the physical covariant and contravariant components of various coordinates System. Also we Studies the Linear, Bilinear and Multilinear forms with some examples.

الخلاصة

الفكرة الأساسية في حساب الممتدات هي تحويل المتغيرات. في هذا البحث قمنا بدراسة بعض هذه المفاهيم. تم تقسيم هذا العمل إلى ثلاث أبواب على النحو التالي:-

أولاً, قمنا بتوضيح الإحداثيات, الممتدات والإحداثيات الإنحنائية من خلال مناقشة الممتدات الكارتيزيه, مشتقات الممتدات والممتدات اللامتغيره, أيضاً قدمنا بعض مركبات الممتدات الفيزيائية مع بعض الأمثلة.

في الباب الثاني, قدمنا بعض الممتدات الخاصة, ووضحنا تركيبها في الإحداثيات الإنحنائية, الإحداثيات الاسطوانية, الإحداثيات الكارتيزيه والإحداثيات الكروية, مع بعض التطبيقات والأمثلة.

أخيراً, ناقشنا المركبات المتغيرة المصاحبه واللامتغيره الفيزيائية بالنسبه لمتجه وقمنا بإعطاء بعض الأمثلة لتمثيلاتها في أنظمه إحداثيات متنوعه أيضاً درسنا الصيغ الخطيه, الصيغ ثنائيه الخطيه والصيغ متعدده الخطيه مع بعض الامثله.

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Chapter One

Section (1-1): Coordinates and Tensors

Consider a space of real numbers of dimension R^n , and a single real time, t . Continuum properties in this space can be described by arrays of different dimensions, m , such as scalars ($m = 0$), vectors ($m = 1$), matrices ($m = 2$), and general multi-dimensional arrays. In this space we shall introduce a coordinate system, $x^i, i = 1, \dots, n$, as a way of assigning n real numbers for every point of space. There can be a variety of possible coordinate systems. A general transformation rule between the coordinate systems is

$$\tilde{x}^i = \tilde{x}^i(x^1 \dots x^n) \quad (1.1)$$

Consider a small displacement dx^i . Then it can be transformed from coordinate system x^i to a new coordinate system \tilde{x}^i using the partial differentiation rules applied to (1.1):

$$d\tilde{x}^i = \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^i}{\partial x^j} dx^j \quad (1.2)$$

This transformation rule can be generalized to a set of vectors that we shall call contra variant vectors:

$$\tilde{A}^i = \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^i}{\partial x^j} A^j \quad (1.3)$$

That is, a contravariant vector is defined as a vector which transforms to a new coordinate system according to (1.3). We can also introduce the transformation matrix as:

$$a_j^i \equiv \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^i}{\partial x^j} \quad (1.4)$$

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Chapter One

Section (1-1): Coordinates and Tensors

Consider a space of real numbers of dimension R^n , and a single real time, t . Continuum properties in this space can be described by arrays of different dimensions, m , such as scalars ($m = 0$), vectors ($m = 1$), matrices ($m = 2$), and general multi-dimensional arrays. In this space we shall introduce a coordinate system, $x^i, i = 1, \dots, n$, as a way of assigning n real numbers for every point of space. There can be a variety of possible coordinate systems. A general transformation rule between the coordinate systems is

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That is, a contravariant vector is defined as a vector which transforms to a new coordinate system according to (1.3).

We can also introduce the transformation matrix as:

$$a_j^i \equiv \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^i}{\partial x^j} \quad (1.4)$$

With which (1.3) can be rewritten as

$$A^i = a_j^i A^j \quad (1.5)$$

Transformation rule (1.3) will not apply to all the vectors in our space. For example, a partial derivative $\partial/\partial x_i$ will transform as:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \tilde{x}^i} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \tilde{x}^i} \frac{\partial x^j}{\partial x^j} = \frac{\partial x^j}{\partial \tilde{x}^i} \quad (1.6)$$

that is, the transformation coefficients are the other way up compared to (1.2). Now we can generalize this transformation rule, so that each vector that transforms according to (1.6) will be called a Covariant vector

$$\tilde{A}_i = \frac{\partial x^j}{\partial \tilde{x}^i} A_j \quad (1.7)$$

This provides the reason for using lower and upper indexes in general tensor notation.

Definition (1.1.1) : Tensor

Tensor of order m is a set of n^m numbers identified by integer indexes. For example, a 3rd order tensor A can be denoted as A_{ijk} and a 2nd order tensor can be denoted as A_{i_1, \dots, i_m} . Each index of a tensor changes between 1 and n . For example, in a 3-dimensional space ($n = 3$) a second order tensor will be represented by $3^2 = 9$ components.

Each index of a tensor should comply to one of the two transformation rules:

(1.3) or (1.7). An index that complies to the rule (1.7) is called a **covariant index** and is denoted as a sub-index, and an index complying to the transformation rule (1.3) is called a **contravariant index** and is denoted as a super-index.

Each index of a tensor can be covariant or contravariant, thus tensor A^k is a 2-covariant, 1-contravariant tensor of third order.

Tensors are usually functions of space and time:

$$A_{i_1, \dots, i_m} = A_{i_1, \dots, i_m}(x^1 \dots x^n, t)$$

which defines a tensor field, i.e. for every point x^i and time t there are a set of m^n numbers A_{i_1, \dots, i_m} .

Remark (1.1.2): Tensor character of coordinate vectors

Note, that the coordinates x^i are not tensors, since generally, they are not transformed as (1.5). Transformation law for the coordinates is actually given by (1.1). Nevertheless, we shall use the upper (contravariant) indexes for the coordinates.

Definition (1.1.3): Kronecker delta tensor

Second order delta tensor, δ_{ij} is defined as

$$i = j \Rightarrow \delta_{ij} = 1, \quad i \neq j \Rightarrow \delta_{ij} = 0 \quad (1.8)$$

From this definition and since coordinates x^i are independent of each other it follows that:

$$\frac{\partial x^i}{\partial x^j} = \delta_{ij} \quad (1.9)$$

Corollary (1.1.4) Delta product

From the definition (1.3) and the summation convention (21), follows that

$$\delta_{ij} A_j = A_i \quad (1.10)$$

Assume that there exists the transformation inverse to (1.5), which we call b^i :

$$x^i = b_j^i d\tilde{x}^j \quad (1.11)$$

Then by analogy to (1.4) can be defined as:

$$b_j^i = \frac{\partial x^i}{\partial \tilde{x}^j} \quad (1.12)$$

From this relation and the independence of coordinates (1.9)

It follows that $a_j^i b_k^j = b_j^i a_k^j = \delta_{ik}$, namely:

$$a_i^k a_j^k = \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^k}{\partial x^i} \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^j}{\partial \tilde{x}^k} = \frac{\partial x^j}{\partial x^i} \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^i}{\partial \tilde{x}^k} = \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^i}{\partial \tilde{x}^k} = \delta_{ik} \quad (1.13)$$

Definition (1.1.5): Cartesian Tensors

Cartesian tensors are a subset of general tensors for which the transformation matrix (1.4) satisfies the following relation:

$$a_i^k a_j^k = \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^k}{\partial x^i} \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^k}{\partial x^j} = \delta_{ij} \quad (1.14)$$

For Cartesian tensors we have:

$$\frac{\partial \tilde{x}^i}{\partial x^k} = \frac{\partial x^k}{\partial \tilde{x}^i} \quad (1.15)$$

which means that both (1.5) and (1.6) are transformed with the same matrix a^i . This in turn means that the difference between the covariant and contravariant indexes vanishes for the Cartesian tensors. Considering this we shall only use the sub-indexes whenever we deal with Cartesian tensors.

Definition (1.1.6): Tensor Notation

Tensor notation simplifies writing complex equations involving multidimensional objects. This notation is based on a set of tensor rules. The rules introduced in this section represent a complete set of rules for Cartesian tensors. The importance of tensor rules is given by the following general remark:

Remark (1.1.7): Tensor rule

Tensor rules guarantee that if an expression follows these rules it represents a tensor according to Definition (1.1). Thus, following tensor rules, one can build tensor expressions that will preserve tensor properties of coordinate transformations (Definition (1.1)) and coordinate invariance.

Tensor rules are based on the following definitions and propositions.

Definition (1.1.8) Tensor terms

A tensor term is a product of tensors for example:

$$A_{ijk}B_{jk}C_{pq}E_qF_p \quad (1.16)$$

Definition(1.1.9) Tensor expression

Tensor expression is a sum of tensor terms. For example:

$$A_{ijk}B_{jk} + C_iD_{pq}E_qF_p \quad (1.17)$$

Generally the terms in the expression may come with plus or minus sign.

Proposition (1.1.10): Allowed operations

The only allowed algebraic operations in tensor expressions are the addition, subtraction and multiplication. Divisions are only allowed for constants, like

$1/c$. If a tensor index appears in a denominator, such term should be redefined,

so as not to have tensor indexes in a denominator. For example, $1/A_i$ should be

redefined as: $B_i \equiv 1/A_i$

Definition(1.1.11): Tensor equality

Tensor equality is an equality of two tensor expressions.

Forexample:-(1.1.12)

$$A_{ij}B_j = C_{ikp}D_kE_p + E_jC_{jki}B_k \quad (1.18)$$

Definition(1.1.13): Free indexes

A free index is any index that occurs only once in a tensor term. For example, index i is a free index in the term (1.16).

Proposition(1.1.14): Free index restriction

Every term in a tensor equality should have the same set of free indexes. For example, if index i is a free index in any term of a tensor equality, such as (1.18), it should be the free index in all other terms.

Forexample

$$A_{ij}B_j = C_jD_j$$

is not a valid tensor equality since index i is a free index in the term on the RHS but not in the LHS.

Definition (1.1.15): Rank of a term

A rank of a tensor term is equal to the number of its free indexes. For example, the rank of the term $A_{ijk}B_jC_k$ is equal to 1.

It follows from (1.1.14) that rank of all the terms in a valid tensor expression should be the same. Note, that the difference between the order and the rank is that the order is equal to the number of indexes of a tensor, and the rank is equal to the number of free indexes in a tensor term.

Proposition (1.1.16): Renaming of free indexes

Any free index in a tensor expression can be named by any symbol as long as this symbol does not already occur in the tensor expression.

For example, the equality

$$A_{ij}B_j = C_iD_jE_j \tag{1.19}$$

is equivalent to

$$A_{kj}B_j = C_kD_jE_j \tag{1.20}$$

Here we replaced the free index i with k .

Definition (1.1.17): Dummy indexes

A dummy index is any index that occurs twice in a tensor term.

For example, indexes j, k, p, q in (1.16) are dummy indexes.

Proposition (1.1.18): Summation rule

Any dummy index implies summation, i.e.

$$A_i B_i = \sum_i^n A_i B_i \quad (1.21)$$

Proposition(1.1.19):Summationruleexception

If there should be no summation over the repeated indices, it can be indicated by enclosing such indices in parentheses.

For example, expression:

$$C_{(i)} A_{(i)} B_{(j)} = D_{ij}$$

does not imply summation over i .

Corollary(1.1.20):Scalarproduct

A scalar product notation from vector algebra: $(A \cdot B)$ is expressed in tensor notation as $A_i B_i$.

The scalar product operation is also called a *contraction of indexes*.

Proposition(1.1.21):Dummyindexrestriction

No index can occur more than twice in any tensor term.

Remark(1.1.22):Repeatedindexes

In case if an index occurs more than twice in a term this term should be redefined so as not to contain more than two occurrences of the same index. For example, term $A_{ik} B_{jk} C_k$ should be rewritten as $A_{ik} D_{jk}$, where D_{jk} is defined as $D_{jk} \equiv B_{j(k)} C_{(k)}$ with no summation over k in the last term.

Proposition(1.1.23):Renamingofdummysymbols

Any dummy index in a tensor term can be renamed to any symbol as long as this symbol does not already occur in this term.

For example, term $A_i B_i$ is equivalent to $A_j B_j$, and so are terms $A_{ijk} B_j C_k$ and $A_{ibq} B_p C_q$.

Remark(1.1.24):Renamingrules

Note that while the dummy index renaming rule (2.16) is applied to each

tensor term separately, the free index naming rule (2.9) should apply to the whole tensor expression. For example, the equality (1.19) above $A_{ij}B_j = C_iD_jE_j$ can also be rewritten as:

$$A_{kp}B_p = C_kD_jE_j \quad (1.22)$$

without changing its meaning.

Definition (1.1.25): Permutation tensor

The components of a third order permutation tensor ε_{ijk} are defined to be equal to 0 when any index is equal to any other index; equal to 1 when the set of indexes can be obtained by cyclic permutation of 123; and -1 when the indexes can be obtained by cyclic permutation from 132. In a mathematical language it can be expressed as:

$$i = j \cup i = k \cup j = k \Rightarrow \varepsilon_{ijk} = 0$$

$$ijk \in PG(123) \Rightarrow \varepsilon_{ijk} = 1$$

$$ijk \in PG(132) \Rightarrow \varepsilon_{ijk} = -1 \quad (1.23)$$

where $PG(abc)$ is a permutation group of a triple of indexes abc , i.e.

$$PG(abc) = \{abc, bca, cab\}.$$

For example, the permutation group of 123 will consist of three combinations: 123, 231 and 312, and the permutation group of 132 consists of 132, 321 and 213.

Corollary (1.1.26): Permutation of the permutation tensor indexes

From the definition of the permutation tensor it follows that the permutation of any of its two indexes changes its sign:

$$\varepsilon_{ijk} = -\varepsilon_{ikj} \quad (1.24)$$

A tensor with this property is called *skew-symmetric*.

Corollary (1.1.27): Vector product

A vector product (cross-product) of two vectors in vector notation is expressed as

$$\vec{A} = \vec{B} \times \vec{C} \quad (1.25)$$

which in tensor notation can be expressed as

$$A_i = \varepsilon_{ijk} B_j C_k \quad (1.26)$$

Remark (1.1.28): Cross product

Tensor expression (1.26) is more accurate than its vector counterpart (1.25), since it explicitly shows how to compute each component of a vector product.

Theorem (1.1.29): Symmetric identity

If A_{ij} is a symmetric tensor, then the following identity is true:

$$\varepsilon_{ijk} A_{jk} = 0 \quad (1.27)$$

Proof:

From the symmetry of A_{ij} we have:

$$\varepsilon_{ijk} A_{jk} = \varepsilon_{ijk} A_{kj} \quad (1.28)$$

Let's rename index j into k and k into j in the RHS of this expression, according to rule (1.1.23):

$$\varepsilon_{ijk} A_{kj} = \varepsilon_{ikj} A_{jk}$$

Using (1.24) we finally obtain:

$$\varepsilon_{ikj} A_{jk} = -\varepsilon_{ijk} A_{jk}$$

Comparing the RHS of this expression to the LHS of (1.28) we have:

$$\varepsilon_{ijk} A_{jk} = -\varepsilon_{ijk} A_{jk}$$

from which we conclude that (1.27) is true.

Theorem (1.1.30): Tensor identity

The following tensor identity is true:

$$\varepsilon_{ijk} \varepsilon_{ipq} = \delta_{jp} \delta_{kq} - \delta_{jq} \delta_{kp} \quad (1.29)$$

Proof:

This identity can be proved by examining the components of equality (1.29) component-by-component.

Corollary (1.1.31): Vector identity

Using the tensor identity (1.29) it is possible to prove the following important vector identity:

$$\vec{A} \times (\vec{B} \times \vec{C}) = \vec{B}(\vec{A} \cdot \vec{C}) - \vec{C}(\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B}) \quad (1.30)$$

Definition (1.1.32): Tensor Derivatives

For Cartesian tensors derivatives introduce the following notation.

Definition (1.1.33): Time derivative of a tensor

A partial derivative of a tensor over time is designated as

$$\dot{A} \equiv \frac{\partial A}{\partial t}$$

Definition (1.1.34): Spatial derivative of a tensor

A partial derivative of a tensor A over one of its spatial components is denoted as $A_{,i}$:

$$A_{,i} \equiv \frac{\partial A}{\partial x_i} \quad (1.31)$$

that is, the index of the spatial component that the derivation is done over is delimited by a comma (',') from other indexes. For example, $A_{,ijk}$ is a derivative of a second order tensor A_{ij} .

Definition (1.1.35): Nabla

Nabla operator acting on a tensor A is defined as

$$\nabla_i A \equiv A_{,i} \quad (1.32)$$

Even though the notation in (1.31) is sufficient to define the derivative, in some instances it is convenient to introduce the nabla operator as defined above.

Remark (1.1.36): Tensor derivative

In a more general context of non-Cartesian tensors the coordinate independent derivative will have a different form from (1.31).

Remark(1.1.37): Rank of a tensor derivative

The derivative of a zero order tensor (scalar) as given by (1.31) forms a first order tensor (vector). Generally, the derivative of an n -order tensor forms an $n+1$ order tensor. However, if the derivation index is a dummy index, then the rank of the derivative will be lower than that of the original tensor. For example, the rank of the derivative $A_{ij,j}$ is one, since there is only one free index in this term.

Remark(1.1.38): Gradient

Expression (1.31) represents a gradient, which in a vector notation is ∇A :

$$\nabla A \rightarrow A_{,i}$$

Corollary(1.1.39): Derivative of a coordinate

From (1.9) it follows that:

$$x_{i,j} = \delta_{ij} \quad (1.33)$$

In particular, the following identity is true:

$$x_{i,j} = x_{1,1} + x_{2,2} + x_{3,3} = 1 + 1 + 1 = 3 \quad (1.34)$$

Remark(1.1.40): Divergence operator

A divergence operator in a vector notation is represented in a tensor notation as $A_{,ii}$:

$$(\nabla \cdot \vec{A}) \rightarrow A_{,ii}$$

Remark(1.1.41): Laplace operator

The Laplace operator in a vector notation is represented in a tensor notation as $A_{,ii}$:

$$\Delta A \rightarrow A_{,ii}$$

Remark(1.1.42): Tensor notation

Examples(2.30),(2.32)and(2.33)clearlyshowthattensornotationismore concise and accurate than vector notation, since it explicitly shows how each component should be computed. It is also more general since it covers cases that don't have representation in vector notation, for example: A_{ikkj} .

Section (1.2) :Curvilinear coordinates

In this section we introduce the idea of *tensor invariance* and introduce the rules for constructing *invariant forms*

.Definition(1.2.1): Tensor invariance

The distance between the material points in a Cartesian coordinate system is

computed as

$$dl^2 =$$

$dx_i dx_i$. The metric tensor, g_{ij} is introduced to generalize the notion of distance (1.39) to curvilinear coordinates

Definition(1.2.2):Metric tensor

The distance element in curvilinear coordinates system is computed as:

$$dl^2 = g_{ij} dx^i dx^j \quad (1.35)$$

where g_{ij} is called the metric tensor.

Thus, if we know the metric tensor in a given curvilinear coordinates system then the distance element is computed by (1.35). The metric tensor is defined as a tensor since we need to preserve the invariance of distance in different coordinate systems, that is, the distance should be independent of the coordinate system, thus:

$$dl^2 = g_{ij} dx^i dx^j = \tilde{g}_{ij} d\tilde{x}^i d\tilde{x}^j \quad (1.36)$$

The metric tensor is symmetric, which can be shown by rewriting (1.35) as follows:

$$g_{ij} dx^i dx^j = g_{ij} dx^j dx^i = g_{ji} dx^i dx^j$$

where we first swapped places of dx^i and dx^j and then renamed index i into j and j into i . We can rewrite the equality above as:

$$g_{ij} dx^i dx^j - g_{ji} dx^i dx^j = (g_{ij} - g_{ji}) dx^i dx^j = 0$$

Since the equality above should hold for any $dx^i dx^j$, we get:

$$g_{ij} = g_{ji} \quad (1.37)$$

The metric tensor is also called the *fundamental tensor*. The inverse of the metric tensor is also called the *conjugate metric tensor*, g^{ij} , which satisfies the relation:

$$g^{ik} g_{kj} = \delta_{ij} \quad (1.38)$$

Let x^i be a Cartesian coordinate system, and \tilde{x}^j the new curvilinear coordinate system. Both systems are related by transformation rules (1.5) and (1.11). Then from (1.36) we get:

$$dl^2 = dx^i dx^i = \frac{\partial x^i}{\partial \tilde{x}^j} d\tilde{x}^j \frac{\partial x^i}{\partial \tilde{x}^k} d\tilde{x}^k = \frac{\partial x^i}{\partial \tilde{x}^j} \frac{\partial x^i}{\partial \tilde{x}^k} d\tilde{x}^j d\tilde{x}^k \quad (1.39)$$

When we transform from a Cartesian to curvilinear coordinate system, the metric tensor in curvilinear coordinates system, \tilde{g}_{ij} can be determined by comparing relations (1.39) and (1.35):

$$\tilde{g}_{ij} = \frac{\partial x^k}{\partial \tilde{x}^i} \frac{\partial x^k}{\partial \tilde{x}^j} \quad (1.40)$$

Using (1.38) we can also find its inverse as:

$$\tilde{g}^{ij} = \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^i}{\partial x^k} \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^j}{\partial x^k} \quad (1.41)$$

Using these expressions one can compute g_{ij} and g^{ij} in various curvilinear coordinate systems

Definition(1.2.3): Conjugate tensors

For each index of a tensor we introduce the conjugate tensor where this index is transferred to its counterpart (covariant/contravariant) using the relation:

$$A^i = g^{ij} A_j \quad (1.42)$$

$$A_i = g_{ij} A^j \quad (1.43)$$

Conjugate tensor is also called the *associate tensor*.

Relations (1.42), (1.43) are also called as operations of *raising/lowering of indices*.

Remark(1.2.4): Tensor invariance

Since the transformation rules defined by (1.11) have a simple multiplicative character, any tensor expressions should retain its original form under transform

ation into a new coordinate system. Thus if an expression is given in a tensor form it will be invariant under coordinate transformations.

Not all the expressions constructed from tensor terms in curvilinear coordinates will be tensors themselves. For example, if vectors A_i and B_i are tensors, then $A_i B_i$ is not generally a tensor. However, if we consider the same operation on a contravariant tensor A^i and a covariant tensor B_i then the product will form an invariant:

$$\bar{A}^i \bar{B}_i = A^i B_i \quad (1.44)$$

Thus in curvilinear coordinates we have to refine the definition of the scalar product (Corollary 1.1.27) or the index contraction operation to make it invariant.

Definition(1.2.5): Invariant Scalar Product

The invariant form of the scalar product between two covariant vectors A_i and B_i is $g^{ij} A_i B_j$. Similarly, the invariant form of a scalar product between two contravariant vectors A^i and B^i is $g_{ij} A^i B^j$, where g_{ij} is the metric tensor (1.40) and g^{ij} is its conjugate (1.38).

Corollary(1.2.6): Two forms of a scalar product

According to (1.42), (1.43) the scalar product can be represented by two invariant forms : $A^i B_i$ and $A_i B^i$. It can be easily shown that these two forms have the same values.

Corollary(1.2.7): Rules of invariant expressions

To build invariant tensor expressions we add two more rules to Cartesian tensor rules outlined in chapter (2):

1. Each free index should keep its vertical position in every term, i.e. if the index is covariant in one term it should be covariant in every other term, and vice versa.

2. Every pair of dummy indexes should be complementary, that is one should be covariant, and another contravariant.

For example, a Cartesian formulation of a momentum equation for an incompressible viscous fluid is

$$\dot{u}_i + u_k u_{i,k} = -\frac{P_{,i}}{\rho} + \nu \tau_{ik,k}$$

The invariant form of this equation is:

$$\dot{u}_i + u^k u_{i,k} = -\frac{P_{,i}}{\rho} + \nu \tau_{i,k}^k \quad (1.45)$$

where the rising of indexes was done using relation (1.42):

$$u^k = g^{kj} u_j, \text{ and } \tau^k = g^{kj} \tau_{ij}$$

definition (1.2.8): Covariant differentiation

A simple scalar value, S , is invariant under coordinate transformations.

A partial derivative of an invariant is a first order covariant tensor (vector):

However, a partial derivative of a tensor of the order one and greater is not generally an invariant under coordinate transformations of type (1.7) and (1.3).

In a curvilinear coordinate system we should use more complex differentiation rules to preserve the invariance of the derivative. These rules are called the rules of *covariant differentiation* and they guarantee that the derivative itself is a tensor.

According to these rules the derivatives for covariant and contravariant indices will be slightly different.

They are expressed as follows:

$$A_{i,j} \equiv \frac{\partial A_i}{\partial x^j} - \left\{ \begin{matrix} k \\ ij \end{matrix} \right\} A_k \quad (1.46)$$

$$A^i_{,j} \equiv \frac{\partial A^i}{\partial x^j} + \left\{ \begin{matrix} i \\ kj \end{matrix} \right\} A^k \quad (1.47)$$

where the construct $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} k \\ ij \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ is defined as:

$$\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} k \\ ij \end{smallmatrix} \right\} = \frac{1}{2} g^{kj} \left(\frac{\partial g_{il}}{\partial x^j} + \frac{\partial g_{jl}}{\partial x^i} - \frac{\partial g_{ij}}{\partial x^l} \right)$$

and is also known in tensor calculus as *Christoffel's symbol of the second kind*. Tensor g^{ij} represents the inverse of the metric tensor g_{ij} (1.38). As can be seen differentiation of a single component of a vector will involve all other components of this vector.

In differentiating

higher order tensors each index should be treated independently. Thus differentiating a second order tensor, A^{ij} , should be performed as:

$$A_{ij,k} = \frac{\partial A_{ij}}{\partial x^k} - \left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} m \\ ik \end{smallmatrix} \right\} A_{mj} - \left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} m \\ jk \end{smallmatrix} \right\} A_{im}$$

and as can be seen also involves all the components of this tensor. Likewise for the contravariant second order tensor A^{ij} , we have:

$$A_{,k}^{ij} = \frac{\partial A^{ij}}{\partial x^k} + \left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} i \\ mk \end{smallmatrix} \right\} A^{mj} + \left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} j \\ mk \end{smallmatrix} \right\} A^{im} \quad (1.48)$$

And for a general n -covariant, m -contravariant tensor we have:

$$\begin{aligned} A_{i_1 \dots i_n}^{j_1 \dots j_m} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x^p} A_{i_1 \dots i_n}^{j_1 \dots j_m} \\ &+ \left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} j_1 \\ qp \end{smallmatrix} \right\} A_{i_1 \dots i_n}^{j_2 \dots j_m} + \dots + \left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} j_m \\ qp \end{smallmatrix} \right\} A_{i_1 \dots i_n}^{j_1 \dots j_{m-1} q} \\ &+ \left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} q \\ i_1 p \end{smallmatrix} \right\} A_{q i_2 \dots i_n}^{j_1 \dots j_m} + \dots + \left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} q \\ i_{n-1} p \end{smallmatrix} \right\} A_{i_1 \dots i_{n-1} q}^{j_1 \dots j_m} \quad (1.49) \end{aligned}$$

Despite their seeming complexity, the relations of covariant differentiation can be easily implemented algorithmically and used in numerical solutions on arbitrary curved computational grids.

Remark(1.2.9): Rules of invariant expressions

As was pointed out in Corollary (3.6), the rule to build invariant expressions involves raising or lowering indexes (1.42), (1.43).

However, since we did not intro-

duce the notation for contravariant derivative, the only way to raise the index of a covariant derivative, say A_i , is to use the relation (1.42) directly, that is: $g^{ij} A_j$.

For example, we can re-formulate the momentum equation (1.45) in terms of contravariant free indexes :

$$\dot{u}^i + u^k u_{,k}^i = -\frac{g^{ik} P_{,k}}{\rho} + v \tau_{,k}^{ik} \quad (1.50)$$

where the index of the pressure term was raised by means of (1.42).

Using the invariance of the scalar product one can construct two important differential operators in

curvilinear coordinates: *divergence* of a vector $div A \equiv A_i^i$ (1.51) and

Laplacian, $\Delta A \equiv g^{ik} A_{ki}$ (1.55).

Definition (1.2.10): Divergence

Divergence of a vector is defined as A_i^i :

$$div A \equiv A_i^i \quad (1.51)$$

From this definition and the rule of covariant differentiation (47) we have:

$$A_{,i}^i = \frac{\partial A^i}{\partial x^i} + \left\{ \begin{matrix} i \\ ki \end{matrix} \right\} A^k \quad (1.52)$$

this can be shown [2] to be equal to:

$$A_{,i}^i = \frac{\partial A^i}{\partial x^i} + \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{g}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \sqrt{g} \right) A^i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{g}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} (\sqrt{g} A^i) \quad (1.53)$$

where g is the determinant of the metric tensor g_{ij} .

The divergence of a covariant vector A_i is defined as a divergence of its conjugate contravariant tensor (1.42):

$$A^i_{,i} = g^{ij} A_{j,i} \quad (1.54)$$

Definition(1.2.11): Laplacian

A LaplaceoperatororaLaplacianofascalarAisdefinedas

$$\Delta A \equiv g^{ik} A_{,ki} \quad (1.55)$$

The definitions(3.8),(3.9)ofdifferentialoperatorsare invariantundercoordinatetransformations.Theycanbeprogrammedusingasy mbolicmanipulation packages andusedtoderiveexpressionsindifferentcurvilinearcoordinatesystems

Definition(1.2.12) Orthogonalcoordinates

Unitvectorsandstretchingfactors

Thecoordinatesystemis*orthogonal*ifthetangential vectorstocoordinatelines areorthogonaleverypoint.

Considerthreeunitvectors, a^i, b^i, c^i ,eachdirectedalongoneofthecoordinatea xis(tangentialunitvectors),thatis:

$$a^i = \{a^1, 0, 0\} \quad (1.56)$$

$$b^i = \{0, b^2, 0\} \quad (1.57)$$

$$c^i = \{0, 0, c^3\} \quad (1.58)$$

Theconditionforthogonality meansthatthescalarproductbetweenany twooftheseunitvectorsshouldbezero.According tothedefinition ofascalar product.itshouldbewritteninform(1.44),thatis,ascalarproduct betweenvectors a_i and b_i canbewrittenas: $(a^i b_i \text{ or } a_i b^i)$.Let'susethefirstfor mfor definiteness.

Then,applyingtheoperationofrisingindexes(1.42),wecanexpress thescalarproductincontravariantcomponentsonly:

$$0 = a^i b_i = g_{ij} a^i b^j =$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& g_{11}a^1 0 + g_{12}a^1 b^2 + g_{13}00 \\
& g_{21}a^2 b^2 + g_{22}0b^2 + g_{23}00 \\
& g_{31}a^3 0 + g_{32}0b^2 + g_{33}00 \\
& = (g_{12} + g_{21})a^1 b^2 = 2g_{12}a^1 b^2 = 0 \quad (1.59)
\end{aligned}$$

where we used the symmetry of g_{ij} , (1.37). Since vectors a^1 and b^2 were chosen to be non-zero, we have: $g_{12} = 0$. Applying the same reasoning for scalar products of other vectors, we conclude that the metric tensor has only diagonal components non-zero:

$$g_{ij} = \delta_{ij} g_{(ii)} \quad (1.60)$$

Let's introduce stretching factors, h_i , as the square roots of these diagonal components of g_{ij} :

$$h_1 \equiv (g_{11})^{1/2}; h_2 \equiv (g_{22})^{1/2}; h_3 \equiv (g_{33})^{1/2} \quad (1.61)$$

Now, consider the scalar product of each of the unit vectors (1.56)-(1.58) with itself. Since all vectors are unit, the scalar product of each with itself should be one:

$$a^i a_i = b^i b_i = c^i c_i = 1$$

Or, expressed in contravariant components only the condition of unity is:

$$g_{ij} a^i a^j = g_{ij} b^i b^j = g_{ij} c^i c^j = 1$$

Now, consider the first term above and substitute the components of a from (1.56). The only non-zero term will be:

$$g_{11} a^1 a^1 = (h_1)^2 (a^1)^2 = 1$$

and consequently:

$$a^1 = \pm \frac{1}{h_1} \quad (1.62)$$

where the negative solution identifies a vector directed into the opposite direction, and we can neglect it for definiteness. Applying the same reasoning for each of the three unit vectors a_i, b_i, c_i , we can rewrite (1.56), (1.57) and (1.58) as:

$$a^i = \left\{ \frac{1}{h_1}, 0, 0 \right\} \quad (1.63)$$

$$b^i = \left\{ 0, \frac{1}{h_2}, 0 \right\} \quad (1.64)$$

$$c^i = \left\{ 0, 0, \frac{1}{h_3} \right\} \quad (1.65)$$

which means that the components of unit vectors in a curved space should be scaled with coefficients h_i . It follows from this that the expression for the element of length in curvilinear coordinates, (1.35), can be written as:

$$dl^2 = g_{ij} d\tilde{x}^i d\tilde{x}^j = h_i^2 (d\tilde{x}^i)^2 \quad (1.66)$$

Similarly, we introduce the h^i coefficients for the conjugate metric tensor (1.38):

$$g^{ij} = \delta_{ij} (h^{(i)})^2 \quad (1.67)$$

Combining the latter with (1.38), we obtain: $\delta_{ij} h_{(i)} h^i = \delta_{ij}$, from which it follows that

$$h_{(i)} = 1/h^{(i)} \quad (1.68)$$

Definition(1.2.1 3) Physical componentsofensors

Consider a direction in space determined by a unit vector e_i .

Then the *physical component* of a vector A_i in the direction e_i is given by a scalar product between A_i and e_i , namely:

$$A(e) = g^{ij} A_i e_j$$

According to Corollary (3.5) the above can also be rewritten as:

$$A(e) = A_i e^i = A^i e_i \quad (1.69)$$

Suppose the unit vector is directed along one of the axis: $e^i = \{e^1, 0, 0\}$. From (1.63) it follows that:

$$e^1 = 1/h_1$$

Where h_1 is defined by (1.61).

Thus according to (1.69) the physical component of vector A_i in direction 1 in orthogonal coordinates system is equal to:

$$A(1) = A/h_1$$

or, repeating the argument for other components, we have for the physical components of a covariant vector:

$$A_1/h_1, A_2/h_2, A_3/h_3 \quad (1.70)$$

Following the same reasoning, for the contravariant vector A^i , we have:

$$h_1 A^1, h_2 A^2, h_3 A^3$$

General rules of covariant differentiation introduced simplify considerably in orthogonal coordinate systems.

In particular, we can define the *nabla* operator by the physical components of a covariant vector composed of partial differentials:

$$\nabla_i = \frac{1}{h_{(i)}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \quad (1.71)$$

where the parentheses indicate that there's no summation with respect to index i .

In orthogonal coordinates system the general expressions for divergence (1.53)

and Laplacian (1.55) operators can be expressed in terms of stretching factors on y :

$$A_{,i}^i = \frac{1}{H} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left(\frac{H}{h_{(i)}} A_i \right)$$

$$\Delta A = \frac{1}{H} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left(\frac{H}{h_{(i)}} \frac{\partial A}{\partial x_i} \right) \quad (1.72)$$

$$H \equiv \prod_{i=1}^n h_i$$

Important examples of orthogonal coordinate systems are spherical and cylindrical coordinate systems. Consider the example of a cylindrical coordinate system: $X_i = \{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$ and $\tilde{x}_i = \{r, \theta, z\}$

$$x_1 = r \cos \theta$$

$$x_2 = r \sin \theta$$

$$x_3 = z$$

According to (1.40) only few components of the metric tensor will survive.

Then we can compute the divergence and Laplacian operators according to (1.71), (1.52) and (1.55), or using simplified relations (1.72)-(1.73):

$$\nabla = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial r}, \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}, \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right)$$

$$\text{div} A = \frac{\partial A_1}{\partial \tilde{x}^1} + \frac{1}{\tilde{x}^1} \frac{\partial A_2}{\partial \tilde{x}^2} + \frac{\partial A_3}{\partial \tilde{x}^3} + \frac{1}{\tilde{x}^1} A_1$$

$$= \frac{\partial A_r}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial A_\theta}{\partial \theta} + \frac{\partial A_z}{\partial z} + \frac{1}{r} A_r$$

Note, that instead of using the contravariant components as implied by the general definition of the divergence operator (1.51) we are using the covariant components as dictated by relation (1.70). The expression of the Laplacian becomes:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta A &= \frac{\partial^2 A}{(\partial \tilde{x}_1)^2} + \frac{1}{\tilde{x}_1^2} \frac{\partial^2 A}{(\tilde{x}_2)^2} + \frac{\partial^2 A}{(\partial \tilde{x}_3)^2} + \frac{1}{\tilde{x}_1} \frac{\partial A}{\partial \tilde{x}_1} \\ &= \frac{\partial^2 A}{(\partial r)^2} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 A}{(\partial \theta)^2} + \frac{\partial^2 A}{(\partial z)^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial A}{\partial r} \end{aligned}$$

Chapter Two

Special Tensors

Knowing how tensors are defined and recognizing a tensor when it pops up

in front of you are two different things. Some quantities, which are tensors, frequently arise in applied problems and you should learn to recognize these special tensors when they occur. In this section some important tensor quantities are defined.

We also consider how these special tensors can in turn be used to define other tensors.

Definition (2.1): Metric Tensor

Define $y^i, =$

$1, \dots, N$ as independent coordinates in an N -dimensional orthogonal Cartesian coordinate system. The distance squared between two points y^i and $y^i + dy^i, i = 1, \dots, N$ is defined by the expression

$$ds^2 = dy^m dy^m = (dy^1)^2 + (dy^2)^2 + \dots + (dy^N)^2 \quad (2.1)$$

Assume that the coordinates y^i are related to a set of independent generalized coordinates $x^i, i = 1, \dots, N$ by a set of transformation equations

$$y^i = y^i(x^1, x^2, \dots, x^N), i = 1, \dots, N \quad (2.2)$$

To emphasize that each y^i depends upon the coordinates we sometimes use the notation $y^i = y^i(x),$ for $i = 1, \dots, N.$ The differential of each coordinate can be written as

$$dy^m = \frac{dy^m}{dx^j} dx^j, m = 1, \dots, n \quad (2.3)$$

And consequently in the x -generalized coordinates the distance squared, found from the equation (2.1), becomes a quadratic form. Substituting equation (2.3) into equation (2.1) we find:

$$ds^2 = \frac{dy^m}{dx^i} \frac{dy^m}{dx^i} dx^i dx^j = g_{ij} dx^i dx^j \quad (2.4)$$

where

$$g_{ij} = \frac{dy^m}{dx^i} \frac{dy^m}{dx^j}, i, j = 1, \dots, N \quad (2.5)$$

are called the metrics of the space defined by the coordinates $x^i, i = 1, \dots, N.$

Here the g_{ij} are functions of the x coordinates and is sometimes written as $g_{ij} = g_{ij}(x)$. Further, the metrics g_{ij} are symmetric in the indices i and j so that $g_{ij} = g_{ji}$ for all values of i and j over the range of the indices. If we transform to another coordinate system, say $x^i, i = 1, \dots, N$, then the element of arc length squared is expressed in terms of the barred coordinates and $ds^2 = g_{ij} dx^i dx^j$, where $g_{ij} = g_{ij}(x)$ is a function of the barred coordinates. The following example demonstrates that these metrics are second order covariant tensors.

Example (2.2)

Show the metric components g_{ij} are covariant tensors of the second order.

Solution:

In a coordinate system $x^i, i = 1, \dots, N$ the element of arc length squared is $ds^2 = g_{ij} dx^i dx^j$ (2.6)

while in a coordinate system $x^i, i = 1, \dots, N$ the element of arc length squared is represented in the form

$$ds^2 = g_{mn} dx^m dx^n \tag{2.7}$$

The element of arc length squared is to be an invariant and so we require that

$$g_{mn} dx^m dx^n = g_{ij} dx^i dx^j \tag{2.8}$$

Here it is assumed that there exists a coordinate transformation, which relates the barred and unbarred coordinates.

In general, if $x^i = x^i(x)$, then for $x^i, i = 1, \dots, N$ we have

$$dx^i = \frac{\partial x^i}{\partial \bar{x}^m} d\bar{x}^m \text{ and } dx^j = \frac{\partial x^j}{\partial \bar{x}^n} d\bar{x}^n \tag{2.9}$$

Substituting these differentials in equation (2.8) gives us the result

$$g_{mn} dx^m dx^n = g_{ij} \frac{\partial x^i}{\partial x^m} \frac{\partial x^j}{\partial x^n} dx^m dx^n \text{ or}$$

$$\left(g_{mn} - g_{ij} \frac{\partial x^i}{\partial x^m} \frac{\partial x^j}{\partial x^n} \right) dx^m dx^n = 0$$

For arbitrary changes in $d\bar{x}^m$ this equation implies that $g_{mn} = g_{ij} \frac{\partial x^i}{\partial x^m} \frac{\partial x^j}{\partial x^n}$ and consequently g_{ij} transforms as a second order absolute covariant tensor

Example (2.3): Curvilinear coordinates

Consider a set of general transformation equations from rectangular coordinates (x, y, z) to curvilinear coordinates (u, v, w) . These transformation equations and the corresponding inverse transformations are represented

$$\begin{aligned} x &= x(u, v, w) & u &= u(x, y, z) \\ y &= y(u, v, w) & v &= v(x, y, z) \\ z &= z(u, v, w) & w &= w(x, y, z) \end{aligned} \quad (2.10)$$

Here $y^1 = x, y^2 = y, y^3 = z$ and $x^1 = u, x^2 = v, x^3 = w$ are the Cartesian and generalized coordinates and $N=3$. The intersection of the coordinate surfaces $u = c_1, v = c_2, w = c_3$ define coordinate curves of the curvilinear coordinate system. The substitution of the given transformation equations (2.10) into the position vector $\vec{r} = x\hat{e}_1 + y\hat{e}_2 + z\hat{e}_3$ produces the position vector which is a function of the generalized coordinates and

$$\vec{r} = \vec{r}(u, v, w) = x(u, v, w)\hat{e}_1 + y(u, v, w)\hat{e}_2 + z(u, v, w)\hat{e}_3$$

and consequently $d\vec{r} = \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial u} du + \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial v} dv + \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial w} dw$ where

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{E}_1 &= \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial u} = \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} \hat{e}_1 + \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} \hat{e}_2 + \frac{\partial z}{\partial u} \hat{e}_3 \\ \vec{E}_2 &= \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial v} = \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \hat{e}_1 + \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \hat{e}_2 + \frac{\partial z}{\partial v} \hat{e}_3 \end{aligned}$$

$$\vec{E}_3 = \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial w} = \frac{\partial x}{\partial w} \hat{e}_1 + \frac{\partial y}{\partial w} \hat{e}_2 + \frac{\partial z}{\partial w} \hat{e}_3 \quad (2.11)$$

Are tangent vectors to the coordinate curve.

The element of arc length in the curvilinear coordinates is

$$ds^2 = d\vec{r} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial u} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial u} du du + \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial u} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial v} du dv + \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial u} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial w} du dw + \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial v} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial u} dv du \\ &+ \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial v} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial v} dv dv + \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial v} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial w} dv dw + \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial w} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial u} dw du \\ &+ \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial w} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial v} dw dv + \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial w} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial w} dw dw \end{aligned} \quad (2.12)$$

Utilizing the summation convention, the above can be expressed in the index notation. Define the quantities

$$\begin{aligned} g_{11} &= \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial u} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial u} & g_{12} &= \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial u} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial v} & g_{13} &= \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial u} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial w} \\ g_{21} &= \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial v} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial u} & g_{22} &= \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial v} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial v} & g_{23} &= \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial v} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial w} \\ g_{31} &= \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial w} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial u} & g_{32} &= \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial w} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial v} & g_{33} &= \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial w} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial w} \end{aligned}$$

And let $x^1 = u, x^2 = v, x^3 = w$. Then the above element of arc length can be expressed as

$$ds^2 = \vec{E}_i \cdot \vec{E}_j dx^i dx^j = g_{ij} dx^i dx^j \quad i, j = 1, 2, 3$$

Where

$$g_{ij} = \vec{E}_i \cdot \vec{E}_j = \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial x^i} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial x^j} = \frac{\partial y^m}{\partial x^i} \cdot \frac{\partial y^m}{\partial x^j} \quad i, j \text{ free indices} \quad (2.13)$$

are called the metric component of the curvilinear coordinate system.

The metric component may be thought of as the elements of symmetric matrix, since $g_{ij} = g_{ji}$. In the rectangular coordinate system x, y, z , the element of arc length squared is $ds^2 = dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2$.

In this space the metric components are

$$g_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Example (2.4): cylindrical coordinates (r, θ, z)

The transformation equations from rectangular coordinate to cylindrical coordinates can be expressed as $x = r \cos \theta$, $y = r \sin \theta$, $z = z$. Here $x^1 = x$, $x^2 = y$, $x^3 = z$ and $x^1 = r$, $x^2 = \theta$, $x^3 = z$ and the position vector can be expressed

$$\vec{r} = \vec{r}(r, \theta, z) = r \cos \theta \hat{e}_1 + r \sin \theta \hat{e}_2 + z \hat{e}_3$$

The derivatives of this position vector are calculated and we find

$$\vec{E}_1 = \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial r} = \cos \theta \hat{e}_1 + \sin \theta \hat{e}_2, \vec{E}_2 = \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial \theta} = -\sin \theta \hat{e}_1 + r \cos \theta \hat{e}_2, \vec{E}_3 = \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial z} = \hat{e}_3$$

From the results in equation (2.13), the metric components of this space are

$$g_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & r^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

We note that since $g_{ij} = 0$ when $i \neq j$, the coordinate system is orthogonal.

Given a set of transformations of the form found in equation (2.10), one can readily determine the metric components associated with the generalized coordinates.

For future reference we list several different coordinate systems together with their metric components. Each of the listed coordinate systems

are orthogonal

and so $g_{ij} = 0$ for $i \neq j$.

The metric components of these orthogonal systems have the form

$$g_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} h_1^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & h_2^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & h_3^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

and the element of arc length squared is

$$ds^2 = h_1^2(dx^1)^2 + h_2^2(dx^2)^2 + h_3^2(dx^3)^2$$

1. Cartesian coordinates (x, y, z)

$$x = x \quad h_1 = 1$$

$$y = y \quad h_2 = 1$$

$$z = z \quad h_3 = 1$$

The coordinate curves are formed by the intersection of the coordinate surfaces $x = \text{Constant}$, $y = \text{Constant}$ and $z = \text{Constant}$.

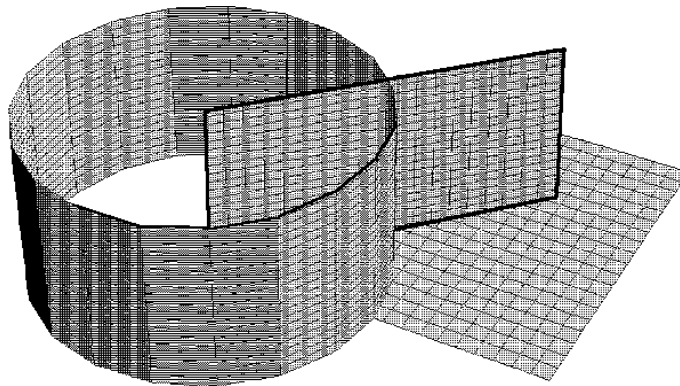


Figure (2.1) Cylindrical coordinates.

2. Cylindrical coordinates (r, θ, z)

$$x = r \cos \theta \quad r \geq 0 \quad h_1 = 1$$

$$y = r \sin \theta \quad 0 \leq \theta < 2\pi \quad h_2 = r$$

$$z = z \quad -\infty < z < \infty \quad h_3 = 1$$

The coordinate curves, illustrated in the figure (2.1), are formed by the

intersectionofthecoordinatesurfaces

$$\begin{array}{ll} x^2 + y^2 = r^2 & \text{cylinders} \\ y/x = \tan \theta & \text{planes} \\ z = \text{constant} & \text{planes} \end{array}$$

3. Spherical coordinates(ρ, θ, φ)

$$\begin{array}{lll} x = \rho \sin \theta \cos \varphi & \rho \geq 0 & h_1 = 1 \\ y = \rho \sin \theta \sin \varphi & 0 \leq \theta \leq \pi & h_2 = \rho \\ z = \rho \cos \theta & 0 \leq \varphi \leq 2\pi & h_3 = \rho \sin \theta \end{array}$$

The coordinatecurves, illustratedinthe figure(2.2),areformedbythe intersectionofthecoordinatesurfaces

$$\begin{array}{ll} x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = \rho^2 & \text{spheres} \\ x^2 + y^2 = \tan^2 \theta z^2 & \text{cones} \\ y = x \tan \varphi & \text{plane} \end{array}$$

4. Parabolic cylindrical coordinates (ξ, η, z)

$$\begin{array}{lll} x = \xi\eta & -\infty < \xi < \infty & h_1 = \sqrt{\xi^2 + \eta^2} \\ y = \frac{1}{2}(\xi^2 - \eta^2) & -\infty < z < \infty & h_2 = \sqrt{\xi^2 + \eta^2} \end{array}$$

$$z = z \qquad \eta \geq 0 \qquad h_3 = 1$$

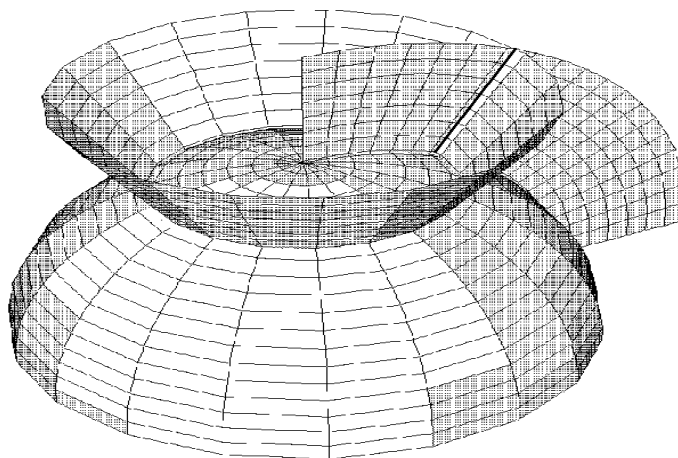


Figure (2.2)Spherical coordinates.

The coordinatecurves, illustratedinthe figure(2.3),areformedbythe

intersection of the coordinate surfaces

$$x^2 = -2\xi^2 \left(y - \frac{\xi^2}{2} \right) \quad \text{parabolic cylinders}$$

$$x^2 = 2\eta^2 \left(y + \frac{\eta^2}{2} \right) \quad \text{parabolic cylinders}$$

$$z = \text{constant} \quad \text{plane}$$

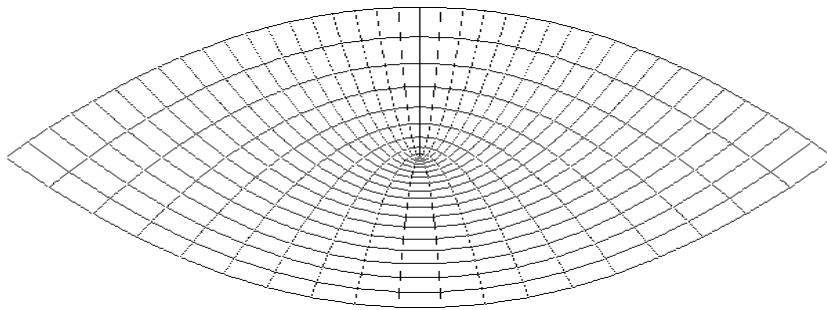


Figure (2.3) Parabolic cylindrical coordinates in plane $z=0$.

5. Parabolic coordinates (ξ, η, φ)

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \xi\eta \cos \varphi & \xi &\geq 0 & h_1 &= \sqrt{\xi^2 + \eta^2} \\ y &= \xi\eta \sin \varphi & \eta &\geq 0 & h_2 &= \sqrt{\xi^2 + \eta^2} \\ z &= \frac{1}{2}(\xi^2 - \eta^2) & 0 < \varphi < 2\pi & h_3 &= \xi\eta \end{aligned}$$

The coordinate curves, illustrated in the figure (2.4), are formed by the intersection of the coordinate surfaces

$$x^2 + y^2 = -2\xi^2 \left(z - \frac{\xi^2}{2} \right) \quad \text{paraboloids}$$

$$x^2 + y^2 = 2\eta^2 \left(z + \frac{\eta^2}{2} \right) \quad \text{paraboloids}$$

$$y = x \tan \varphi \quad \text{plane}$$

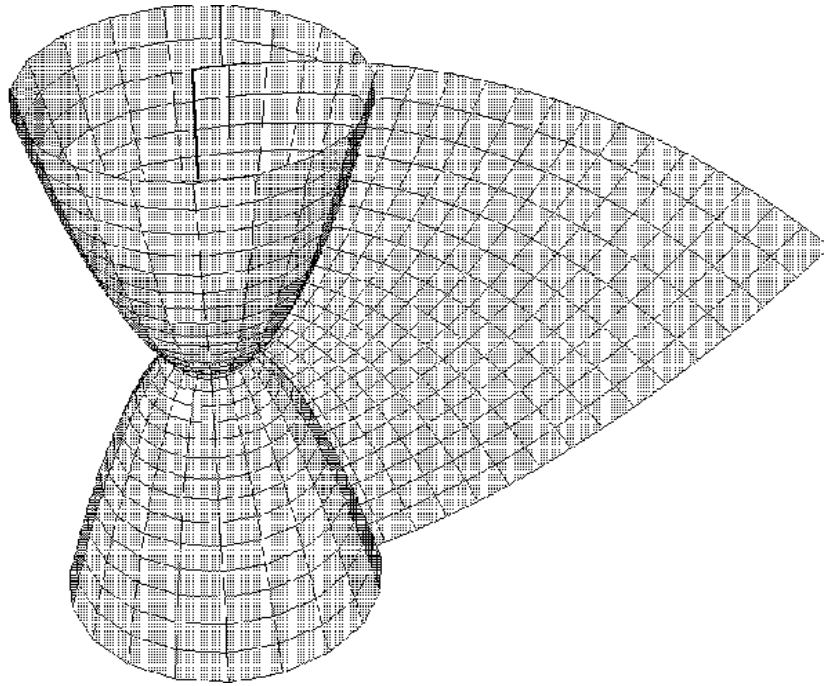


Figure (2.4) Parabolic coordinates, $\varphi = \pi/4$.

6. Elliptic cylindrical coordinates (ξ, η, z)

$$\begin{aligned}
 x &= \cosh \xi \cos \eta \quad \xi \geq 0 & h_1 &= \sqrt{\sinh^2 \xi + \sin^2 \eta} \\
 y &= \sinh \xi \sin \eta & 0 \leq \eta &\leq 2\pi & h_2 &= \sqrt{\sinh^2 \xi + \sin^2 \eta} \\
 z &= z & -\infty < z < \infty & & h_3 &= 1
 \end{aligned}$$

The coordinate curves, illustrated in the figure (2.5), are formed by the intersection of the coordinate surfaces

$$\frac{x^2}{\cosh^2 \xi} + \frac{y^2}{\sinh^2 \xi} = 1 \quad \text{Elliptical cylinders}$$

$$\frac{x^2}{\cos^2 \eta} - \frac{y^2}{\sin^2 \eta} = 1 \quad \text{Hyperbolic cylinders}$$

$$z = \text{constant} \quad \text{planes}$$

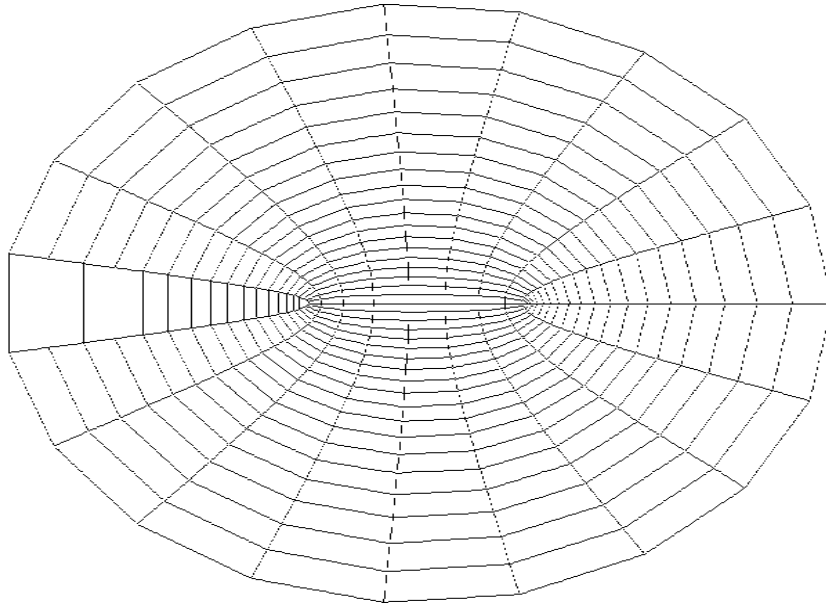


Figure (2.5) Elliptic cylindrical coordinates in the plane $z=0$.

7. Elliptic coordinates (ξ, η, φ)

$$x = \sqrt{(1 - \eta^2)(\xi^2 - 1)} \cos \varphi \quad 1 \leq \xi \leq \infty \quad h_1 = \sqrt{\frac{\xi^2 - \eta^2}{\xi^2 - 1}}$$

$$y = \sqrt{(1 - \eta^2)(\xi^2 - 1)} \sin \varphi \quad -1 \leq \eta \leq 1 \quad h_2 = \sqrt{\frac{\xi^2 - \eta^2}{1 - \eta^2}}$$

$$z = \xi \eta \quad 0 \leq \varphi \leq 2\pi \quad h_3$$

$$= \sqrt{(1 - \eta^2)(\xi^2 - 1)}$$

The coordinate curves, illustrated in the figure (2.6), are formed by the intersection of the coordinate surfaces

$$\frac{x^2}{\xi^2 - 1} + \frac{y^2}{\xi^2 - 1} + \frac{z^2}{\xi^2} = 1 \quad \textit{prolate ellipsoid}$$

$$\frac{z^2}{\eta^2} - \frac{x^2}{1 - \eta^2} - \frac{y^2}{1 - \eta^2} = 1 \quad \textit{two-sheeted hyperboloid}$$

$$y = x \tan \varphi \quad \textit{planes}$$

8. Bipolar coordinates(u,v,z)

$$x = \frac{a \sinh v}{\cosh v - \cos u}, \quad 0 \leq u < 2\pi \quad h_1^2 = h_2^2$$

$$y = \frac{a \sin u}{\cosh v - \cos u}, \quad -\infty < v < \infty \quad h_2^2 = \frac{a^2}{(\cosh v - \cos u)^2}$$

$$z = z \quad -\infty < v < \infty \quad h_3^2 = 1$$

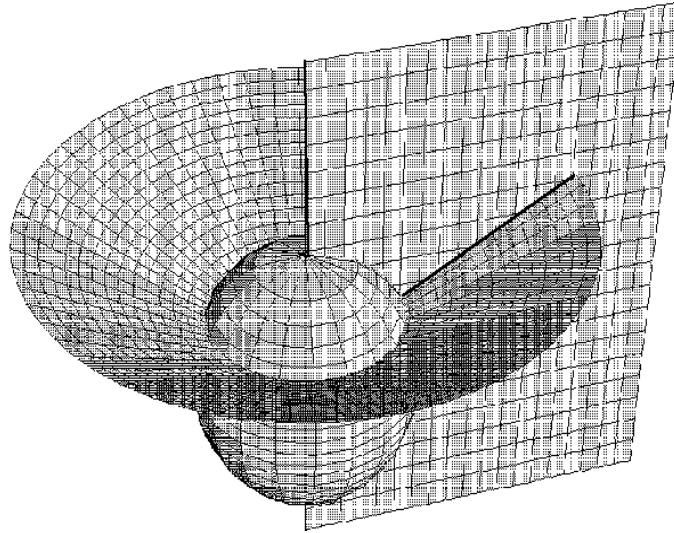


Figure (2.6) Elliptic coordinates $\phi = \pi/4$.

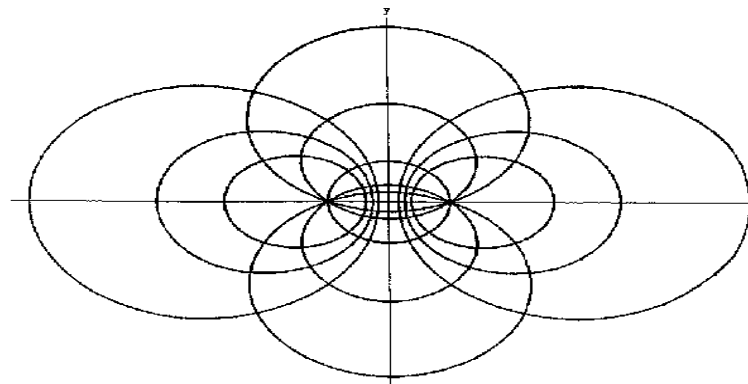


Figure (2.7) Bipolar coordinates.

The coordinate curves, illustrated in the figure (2.7), are formed by the intersection of the coordinate surfaces

$$(x - a \coth v)^2 + y^2 = \frac{a^2}{\sinh^2 v} \quad \text{cylinders}$$

$$x^2 + (y - a \cot u)^2 = \frac{a^2}{\sin^2 u} \quad \text{cylinders}$$

$$z = \text{constant} \quad \text{planes}$$

9. Conical coordinates (u, v, w)

$$x = \frac{uvw}{ab}, \quad b^2 > u^2 > a^2 > w^2, u \geq 0 \quad h_1^2 = 1$$

$$y = \frac{u}{a} \sqrt{\frac{(v^2 - a^2)(w^2 - a^2)}{a^2 - b^2}} h_2^2 = \frac{u^2(v^2 - w^2)}{(v^2 - a^2)(b^2 - v^2)}$$

$$z = \frac{u}{b} \sqrt{\frac{(v^2 - b^2)(w^2 - b^2)}{b^2 - a^2}} h_3^2 = \frac{u^2(v^2 - w^2)}{(w^2 - a^2)(w^2 - b^2)}$$

The coordinate curves, illustrated in the figure (2.8), are formed by the intersection of the coordinate surfaces

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = u^2 \quad \text{spheres}$$

$$\frac{x^2}{v^2} + \frac{y^2}{v^2 - a^2} + \frac{z^2}{v^2 - b^2} = 0, \quad \text{cones}$$

$$\frac{x^2}{w^2} + \frac{y^2}{w^2 - a^2} + \frac{z^2}{w^2 - b^2} = 0, \quad \text{cones}$$

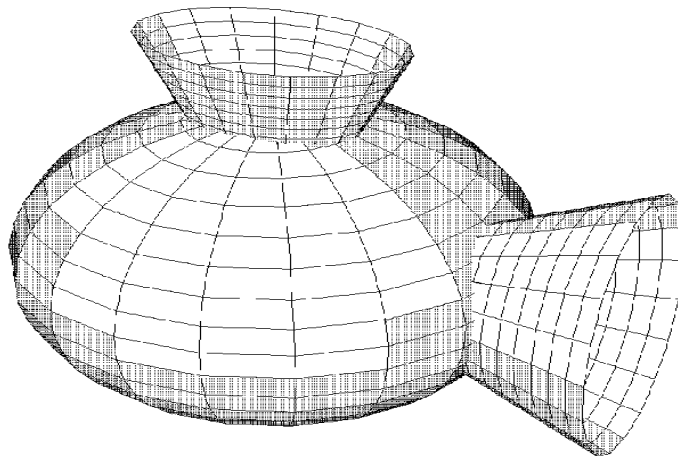


Figure (2.8) Conical coordinates.

10. Prolatespheroidal coordinates (u, v, φ)

$$x = a \sinh u \sin v \cos \varphi, \quad u \geq 0 \quad h_1^2 = h_2^2$$

$$y = a \sinh u \sin v \sin \varphi, \quad 0 \leq v \leq \pi \quad h_2^2 = a^2(\sinh^2 u + \sin^2 v)$$

$$z = a \cosh u \cos v, \quad 0 \leq \varphi < 2\pi \quad h_3^2 = a^2 \sinh^2 u \sin^2 v$$

The coordinate curves, illustrated in the figure (2.9), are formed by the intersection of the coordinate surfaces

$$\frac{x^2}{(a \sinh u)^2} + \frac{y^2}{(a \sinh u)^2} + \frac{z^2}{(a \cosh u)^2} = 1, \quad \text{prolate ellipsoids}$$

$$\frac{z^2}{(a \cos v)^2} - \frac{x^2}{(a \sin v)^2} - \frac{y^2}{(a \sin v)^2} = 1, \quad \text{Two-sheeted hyperboloid}$$

$$y = x \tan \varphi, \quad \text{planes}$$

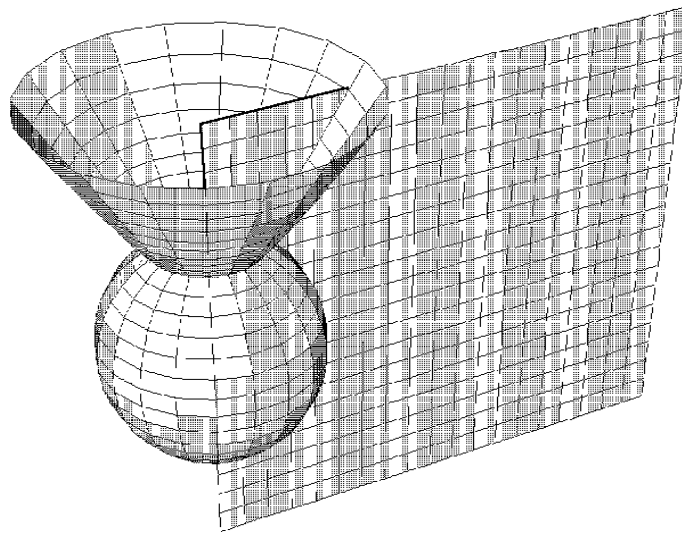


Figure (2.9) Prolate spheroidal coordinates

11. Oblate spheroidal coordinates (ξ, η, φ)

$$x = a \cosh \xi \cos \eta \cos \varphi, \quad \xi \geq 0 \quad h_1^2 = h_2^2$$

$$y = a \cosh \xi \cos \eta \sin \varphi, \quad -\frac{\pi}{2} \leq \eta \leq \frac{\pi}{2} \quad h_2^2 = a^2 (\sinh^2 \xi + \sin^2 \eta)$$

$$z = a \sinh \xi \sin \eta, \quad 0 \leq \varphi \leq 2\pi \quad h_3^2 = a^2 \cosh^2 \xi \cos^2 \eta$$

The coordinate curves, illustrated in the figure (2.10), are formed by the intersection of the coordinate surfaces

$$\frac{x^2}{(a \cosh \xi)^2} + \frac{y^2}{(a \cosh \xi)^2} + \frac{z^2}{(a \sinh \xi)^2} = 1, \quad \text{oblate ellipsoids}$$

$$\frac{x^2}{(a \cos \eta)^2} + \frac{y^2}{(a \cos \eta)^2} - \frac{z^2}{(a \sin \eta)^2} = 1, \quad \text{one-sheet hyperboloids}$$

$$y = x \tan \varphi, \quad \text{planes}$$

12. Toroidal coordinates (u, v, φ)

$$x = \frac{a \sinh v \cos \varphi}{\cosh v - \cos u}, \quad 0 \leq u < 2\pi \quad h_1^2 = h_2^2$$

$$y = \frac{a \sinh v \sin \varphi}{\cosh v - \cos u}, \quad -\infty \leq v < \infty \quad h_2^2 = \frac{a^2}{(\cosh v - \cos u)^2}$$

$$z = \frac{a \sin u}{\cosh v - \cos u}, \quad 0 \leq \varphi < 2\pi \quad h_3^2 = \frac{a^2 \sinh^2 v}{(\cosh v - \cos u)^2}$$

The coordinate curves, illustrated in the figure (2.11), are formed by the intersection of the coordinate surfaces

$$x^2 + y^2 + \left(z - \frac{a \cos u}{\sin u}\right)^2 = \frac{a^2}{\sin^2 u} \quad \text{spheres}$$

$$\left(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} - a \frac{\cosh v}{\sinh v}\right)^2 + z^2 = \frac{a^2}{\sinh^2 v} \quad \text{Torus}$$

$$y = x \tan \varphi \quad \text{planes}$$

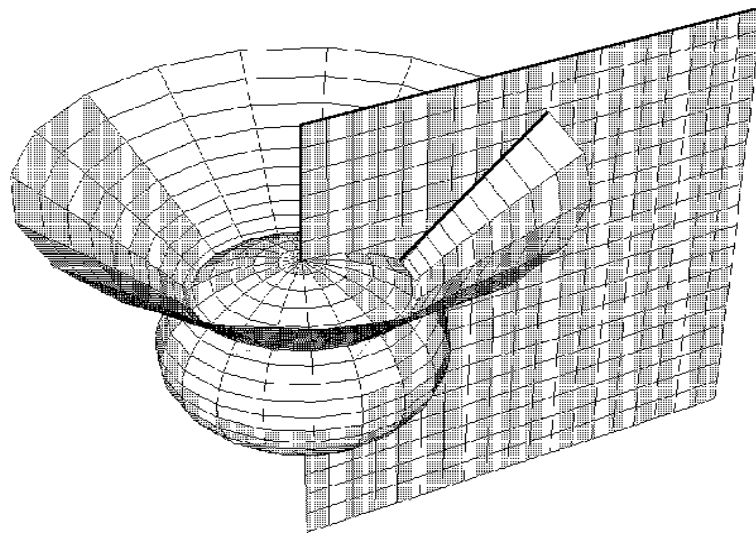


Figure (2.10) Oblate spheroidal coordinates

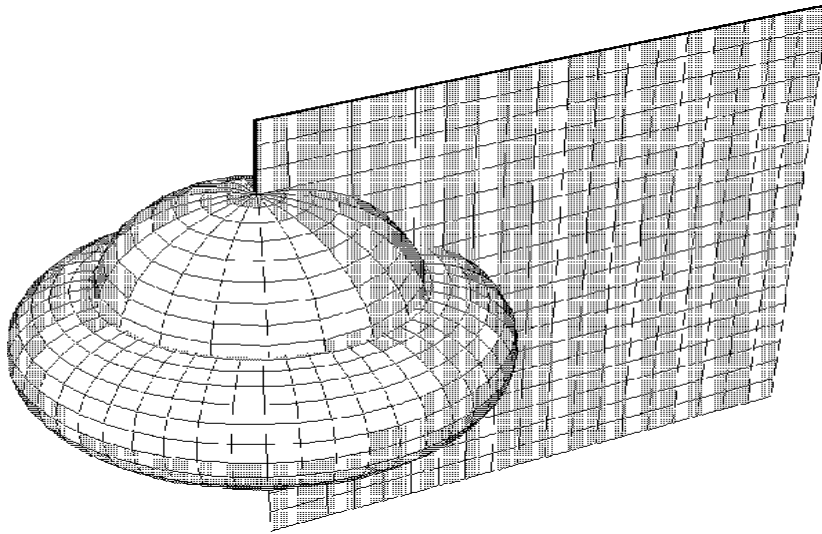


Figure (2.11) Toroidal coordinates

Example (2.5):

Show the Kronecker delta δ_j^i is a mixed second order tensor.

Solution:

Assume we have a coordinate transformation $x^i = x^i(\bar{x})$, $i = 1, \dots, n$ of the form (1.2.30) and

possessing an inverse transformation of the form (1.2.32). Let $\bar{\delta}_j^i$ and δ_j^i denote the Kronecker delta in the barred and unbarred system

of coordinates. By definition the Kronecker delta is defined $\bar{\delta}_j^i = \delta_j^i =$

$$\begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } i \neq j \\ 1, & \text{if } j = i \end{cases}$$

Employing the chain rule we write

$$\frac{\partial \bar{x}^m}{\partial \bar{x}^n} = \frac{\partial \bar{x}^m}{\partial x^i} \frac{\partial x^i}{\partial \bar{x}^n} = \frac{\partial \bar{x}^m}{\partial x^i} \frac{\partial x^k}{\partial \bar{x}^n} \delta_k^i \quad (2.14)$$

by hypothesis the \bar{x}^i , $i = 1, \dots, n$ are independent coordinates and there for we have

$$\frac{\partial \bar{x}^m}{\partial \bar{x}^n} = \delta_n^m \quad \text{and} \quad (2.14) \quad \text{simplifies to} \quad \delta_n^m = \delta_k^i \frac{\partial \bar{x}^m}{\partial x^i} \frac{\partial x^k}{\partial \bar{x}^n} \quad \text{Therefore,}$$

the Kronecker delta transforms as a mixed second order tensor.

Definition (2.6) : Conjugate Metric Tensor

Let g denote the determinant of the matrix having the metric tensor g_{ij} , $i, j = 1, \dots, n$ as its elements. In our study of cofactors of a matrix we have shown that

$$\text{cof}(g_{1j})g_{1k} + \text{cof}(g_{2j})g_{2k} + \dots + \text{cof}(g_{nj})g_{nk} = g\delta_k^j \quad (2.15)$$

We can use this fact to find the elements in the inverse matrix associated with the matrix having the components g_{ij} . The elements of this inverse matrix are

$$g^{ij} = \frac{1}{g} \text{cof}(g_{ij}) \quad (2.16)$$

and are called the conjugate metric components. We examine the summation $g^{ij}g_{ik}$ and find:

$$g^{ij}g_{ik} = g^{1j}g_{1k} + g^{2j}g_{2k} + \dots + g^{nj}g_{nk} = \frac{1}{g} [\text{cof}(g_{1j})g_{1k} + \text{cof}(g_{2j})g_{2k} + \dots + \text{cof}(g_{nj})g_{nk}] = \frac{1}{g} [g\delta_k^j] = \delta_k^j$$

The equation:

$$g^{ij}g_{ik} = \delta_k^j \quad (2.17)$$

is an example where we can use the quotient law to show g^{ij} is a second order contravariant tensor. Because of the symmetry of g^{ij} and g_{ij} the equation (2.17) can be represented in other forms.

Example (2.7)

Let A_i and A^i denote respectively the covariant and contravariant components of a vector \tilde{A} . Show these components are related by the equations

$$A_i = g_{ij}A^j \quad (2.18)$$

$$A^k = g^{jk}A_j \quad (2.19)$$

Where g_{ij} and g^{ij} are the metric and conjugate metric components of the space.

Solution:

We multiply the equation (2.18) by g^{im} (inner product) and use equation (2.17) to simplify the results. This produces the equation $g^{im} A_i = g^{im} g_{ij} A^j = \delta^m A^j = A^m$. Changing indices produces the result given in equation (2.19). Conversely, if we start with equation (2.19) and multiply by g_{km} (inner product) we obtain $g_{km} A^k = g_{km} g^{jk} A_j = \delta^j A_j = A_m$ which is another form of the equation (2.18) with the indices changed.

Notice the consequences of what the equations (2.18) and (2.19) imply when we are in an orthogonal Cartesian coordinate system where

$$g_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad g^{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

In this special case, we have

$$A_1 = g_{11} A^1 + g_{12} A^2 + g_{13} A^3 = A^1$$

$$A_2 = g_{21} A^1 + g_{22} A^2 + g_{23} A^3 = A^2$$

$$A_3 = g_{31} A^1 + g_{32} A^2 + g_{33} A^3 = A^3$$

These equations tell us that in a Cartesian coordinate system the contravariant and covariant components are identically the same.

Example (2.8)

We have previously shown that if A_i is a covariant tensor of rank 1 its components in a barred system of coordinates are

$$\bar{A}_i = A_j \frac{\partial x^j}{\partial x^i} \quad (2.20)$$

Solve for the A_j in terms of the \bar{A}_i . (i.e. find the inverse transformation).

Solution :

Multiply equation (2.20) by $\frac{\partial \bar{x}^i}{\partial x^m}$ (inner product) and obtain

$$\bar{A}_i \frac{\partial \bar{x}^i}{\partial x^m} = A_j \frac{\partial x^j}{\partial \bar{x}^i} \frac{\partial \bar{x}^i}{\partial x^m} \tag{2.21}$$

In the above product we have $\frac{\partial x^j}{\partial \bar{x}^i} \frac{\partial \bar{x}^i}{\partial x^m} = \frac{\partial x^j}{\partial x^m} = \delta_m^j$ since x^i and x^m are assumed to be independent coordinate. this reduces equation (2.21) to form

$$\bar{A}_i \frac{\partial \bar{x}^i}{\partial x^m} = A_j \delta_m^j = A_m \tag{2.22}$$

which is the desired inverse transformation.

This result can be obtained in another way. Examine
the transformation equation (2.20) and ask the question,

When we have two coordinate system
systems, say a barred and an unbarred system, does it matter which system
we call the barred system.

With some thought it should be obvious that it doesn't matter which system
system you label as the barred system. Therefore,

we can interchange the barred and unbarred symbols in equation (2.20) and obtain the result $A_i = \bar{A}_j \frac{\partial \bar{x}^j}{\partial x^i}$ which is the same form as equation (2.22), but with a different set of indices.

Definition (2.9) : Associated Tensors

Any tensor constructed by multiplying (inner product) a given tensor with metric or conjugate metric tensor is called an associated tensor.

Associated tensors are different ways of representing a tensor. The multiplication of a tensor by the metric or conjugate metric tensor has the effect of lowering or raising indices.

For example the covariant and contravariant components of a vector are different representations of the same vector in different forms.

These forms are associated with one another by way of the metric and conjugate metric tensor and

$$g^{ij} A_i = A^j g_{ij} A^j = A_i$$

Example(2.10)

The following are some examples of associated tensors

$$A^j = g^{ij} A_i A_j = g_{ij} A^i$$

$$A^m_{.jk} = g^{mi} A_{ijk} A_m^{i.k} = g_{mj} A^{ijk}$$

$$A^{nm}_{i..} = g^{mk} g^{nj} A_{ijk} A_{mjk} = g_{im} A^i_{.jk}$$

Sometimes 'dots' are used as indices in order to represent the location of the index that was raised or lowered. If a tensor is symmetric, the position of the index is immaterial and so a dot is not needed. For example,

if A_{mn} is a symmetric tensor, then it is easy to show that A^n_m and A^n_m are equal and therefore can be written as A^n_m

Higher order tensors are similarly related. For example, if we find a fourth order covariant tensor T_{ijklm} we can then construct the fourth order contravariant tensor T^{pqrs} from the relation

$$T^{pqrs} = g^{pi} g^{qj} g^{rk} g^{sm} T_{ijklm}$$

This fourth order tensor can also be expressed as a mixed tensor. Some mixed tensors associated with the given fourth order covariant tensor are

$$T^p_{.jkm} = g^{pi} T_{ijklm}, \quad T^{pq}_{..km} = g^{qi} T^p_{.jkm}$$

Definition (2.11): Riemann Space V_N

A Riemannian space V_N is said to exist if the element of arc length squared has the form

$$ds^2 = g_{ij} dx^i dx^j \quad (2.23)$$

where the metrics $g_{ij} = g_{ij}(x^1, x^2, \dots, x^N)$ are continuous functions of the coordinates and are different from constants. In the special case $g_{ij} = \delta_{ij}$ the Riemannian space V_N reduces to a Euclidean space E_N . The element of arc length squared defined by equation (2.23) is called the Riemannian metric and any geometry which results by using this metric is called a Riemannian geometry. A space V_N is called flat if it is possible to find a coordinate transformation where the element of arc length squared is $ds^2 = \sum_i (dx^i)^2$ where each i is either +1 or -1. A space which is not flat is called curved.

Definition (2.12): Geometry in V_N

Given two vectors $\vec{A} = A^i \vec{E}_i$ and $\vec{B} = B^j \vec{E}_j$

then their dot product can be represented

$$\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = A^i B^j \vec{E}_i \cdot \vec{E}_j = g_{ij} A^i B^j = A_j B^j = g^{ij} A_j B_i = |\vec{A}| |\vec{B}| \cos \theta \quad (2.24)$$

Consequently, in an N dimensional Riemannian space V_N the dot or inner product of two vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} is defined:

$$g_{ij} A^i B^j = A_j B^j = A^i B_i = g^{ij} A_j B_i = AB \cos \theta. \quad (2.25)$$

In this definition

A is the magnitude of the vector A^i , the quantity B is the magnitude of the vector B_i and θ is the angle between the vectors when their origins are made to coincide.

In the special case that $\theta=90^\circ$ we have $g_{ij}A^iB^j = 0$ as the condition that must be satisfied in order that the given vectors A^i and B^i are orthogonal to one another. Consider also the special case of equation (2.25) when $A^i = B^i$ and $\theta=0$. In this case the equations (2.25) inform us that

$$g^{in}A_nA_i = A^iA_i = g_{in}A^iA^n = (A)^2 \quad (2.26)$$

From this equation one can determine the magnitude of the vector A^i . The magnitudes A and B can be written $A = (g_{in}A^iA^n)^{1/2}$ and $B = (g_{pq}B^pB^q)^{1/2}$ and so we can express equation (2.24) in the form

$$\cos \theta = \frac{g_{ij}A^iB^j}{(g_{mn}A^m A^n)^{1/2} (g_{pq}B^p B^q)^{1/2}} \quad (2.27)$$

An important application of the above concepts arises in the dynamics of rigid body motion. Note that if a vector A^i has constant magnitude and the magnitude of $\frac{dA^i}{dt}$ is different from zero, then the vectors A^i and $\frac{dA^i}{dt}$ must be orthogonal to one another due to the fact that $g_{ij}A^i \frac{dA^j}{dt} = 0$. As an example consider the unit vectors $\hat{e}_1, \hat{e}_2, \text{ and } \hat{e}_3$ on the rotating system of Cartesian axes. We have for constants $C_i, i = 1, \dots, 6$ that

$$\frac{d\hat{e}_1}{dt} = C_1\hat{e}_2 + C_2\hat{e}_3, \quad \frac{d\hat{e}_2}{dt} = C_3\hat{e}_3 + C_4\hat{e}_1, \quad \frac{d\hat{e}_3}{dt} = C_5\hat{e}_1 + C_6\hat{e}_2$$

Because the derivative of any \hat{e}_i (i fixed) constant vectors \hat{e}_i and \hat{e}_x ($j \neq i, k \neq i, \text{ and } j \neq k$), since any vector in this planr must be perpendicular to \hat{e}_i . the above definition of a dot product in V_N can be used to define unit vectors in V_N .

Definition (2.13) : Unit vector

When ever the magnitude of a vector A^i is unity, the vector is called

a unit vector. In this case we have

$$g_{ij}A^iA^j = 1 \quad (2.28)$$

Example (2.14): Unit Vector

In V_N the element of arc length squared is expressed $ds^2 = g_{ij}dx^i dx^j$ which can be expressed in the form $1 = g_{ij} \frac{dx^i}{ds} \frac{dx^j}{ds}$. This equation states that the vector $\frac{dx^i}{ds}, i = 1, \dots, N$ is a unit vector. One application of this equation is to consider a particle moving along a curve in V_N which is described by the parametric equation $x^i = x^i(t)$ for $i = 1, \dots, N$. The vector $V^i = \frac{dx^i}{dt}, i = 1, \dots, N$ represents a velocity vector of the particle. By chain rule differentiation we have

$$V^i = \frac{dx^i}{dt} = \frac{dx^i}{ds} \frac{ds}{dt} = V \frac{dx^i}{ds} \quad (2.29)$$

Where $v = \frac{ds}{dt}$ is the scalar speed of the particle and $\frac{dx^i}{ds}$ is unit tangent vector to the curve. The equation (2.29) shows that the velocity is directed along the tangent to the curve and has a magnitude V . that is

$$\left(\frac{ds}{dt}\right)^2 = (V)^2 = g_{ij}V^iV^j$$

Example (2.15): Curvilinear Coordinates

Find an expression for the cosine of the angles between the coordinate curves associated with the transformation equations

$$x = x(u, v, w), \quad y = y(u, v, w), \quad z = z(u, v, w).$$

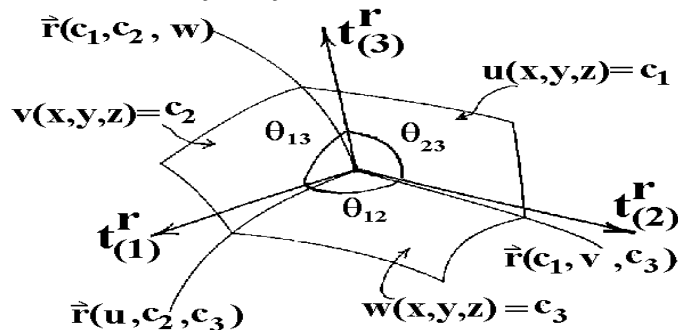


Figure (2.12) Angles between curvilinear coordinates.

Solution :

Let $y^1 = x, y^2 = y, y^3 = z$ denote the Cartesian and curvilinear coordinates respectively. With

reference to the figure (2.12) we can interpret the intersection of the surfaces

$v = c_2$ and $w = c_3$ as the curve $\vec{r} = \vec{r}(u, c_2, c_3)$ which is a function of

parametric U . by moving only a long this curve we have $d\vec{r} = \frac{d\vec{r}}{du}$ and consequently

$$ds^2 = \vec{dr} \cdot \vec{dr} = \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial u} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial u} du du = g_{11} (dx^1)^2, \text{ or } 1 = \frac{d\vec{r}}{ds} \cdot \frac{d\vec{r}}{ds} g_{11} \frac{(dx^1)^2}{ds}$$

This equation shows that the vector $\frac{dx^1}{ds} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{g_{11}}}$ is a limit vector a long

this curve. this tangent vector can be represented by $t_{(1)}^r = \frac{1}{\sqrt{g_{11}}} S_1^r$.

The curve which is defined by the intersection of the surfaces $u = c_1$ and $w = c_3$ has the limit tangent vector $t_{(2)}^r = \frac{1}{\sqrt{g_{22}}} S_2^r$. similarly, the

curve which is defined as the intersection of the surfaces $u = c_1$ and $v = c_2$ has the limit tangent vector $t_{(3)}^r = \frac{1}{\sqrt{g_{33}}} S_3^r$. the cosine of the angle

between the unit vectors $t_{(1)}^r$ and $t_{(2)}^r$ is obtained from the result of the equation (2.25). we find

$$\cos \theta_{12} = g_{pq} t_{(1)}^p t_{(2)}^q = g_{pq} \frac{1}{\sqrt{g_{11}}} = \delta_1^p \frac{1}{\sqrt{g_{22}}} \delta_2^q = \frac{g_{12}}{\sqrt{g_{11}} \sqrt{g_{22}}}$$

For θ_{13} the angle between the direction $t_{(1)}^i$ and $t_{(3)}^i$ we find $\cos \theta_{13} =$

$\frac{g_{13}}{\sqrt{g_{11}} \sqrt{g_{33}}}$. finally for θ_{23} the angle between the direction $t_{(2)}^i$ and $t_{(3)}^i$ we

find $\cos \theta_{23} = \frac{g_{23}}{\sqrt{g_{22}} \sqrt{g_{33}}}$

When $\theta_{13} = \theta_{12} = \theta_{23} = 90^\circ$, we have $g_{12} = g_{13} = g_{23} = 0$ and

the coordinate curves which make up the curvilinear coordinate system are orthogonal to one another.

In an orthogonal coordinate system we adopt the notation

$$g_{11} = (h_1)^2, \quad g_{22} = (h_2)^2, \quad g_{33} = (h_3)^2 \quad \text{and} \quad g_{ij} = 0, \quad i \neq j$$

Epsilon permutation symbol:

Associated with the permutation symbol there are the epsilon permutation symbols defined by the relation

$$\epsilon_{ijk} = \sqrt{g} e_{ijk} \quad \text{and} \quad \epsilon^{ijk} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{g}} e^{ijk} \quad (2.30)$$

Where g is determinant of the metrics g_{ij} .

It can be demonstrated that the e_{ijk} permutation symbol is a relative tensor of weight -1 whereas the ϵ_{ijk} permutation symbol is an absolute tensor. Similarly, the e^{ijk} permutation symbol is a relative tensor of weight $+1$ and the corresponding ϵ^{ijk} permutation symbol is an absolute tensor.

Example (2. 16): ϵ permutation symbol

Show that e_{ijk} is a relative tensor of weight -1 and the corresponding ϵ_{ijk} permutation symbol is an absolute tensor.

Solution :

examine the Jacobian

$$J\left(\frac{x}{\bar{x}}\right) = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x^1}{\partial \bar{x}^1} & \frac{\partial x^1}{\partial \bar{x}^2} & \frac{\partial x^1}{\partial \bar{x}^3} \\ \frac{\partial x^2}{\partial \bar{x}^1} & \frac{\partial x^2}{\partial \bar{x}^2} & \frac{\partial x^2}{\partial \bar{x}^3} \\ \frac{\partial x^3}{\partial \bar{x}^1} & \frac{\partial x^3}{\partial \bar{x}^2} & \frac{\partial x^3}{\partial \bar{x}^3} \end{vmatrix}$$

And make the substitution $\alpha_j^i = \frac{\partial x^i}{\partial \bar{x}^j}$ $i, j = 1, 2, 3$. from this definition of a determinant we may write

$$e_{ijk} \alpha_m^i \alpha_n^j \alpha_p^k = J\left(\frac{X}{\bar{X}}\right) e_{mnp} \quad (2.31)$$

By definition , $\bar{e}_{mnp} = e_{mnp}$ in all coordinate systems and hence equation (2.31) can be expressed in the form

$$\left[J\left(\frac{x}{\bar{x}}\right)\right]^{-1} e_{ijk} \frac{\partial x^i}{\partial \bar{x}^m} \frac{\partial x^j}{\partial \bar{x}^n} \frac{\partial x^k}{\partial \bar{x}^p} = \bar{e}_{mnp} \quad (2.32)$$

which demonstrates that e_{ijk} transforms as a relative tensor of weight -1 .

We have previously shown the metric tensor g_{ij} is a second order covariant tensor and transforms according to the rule $\bar{g}_{ij} = g_{mn} \frac{\partial x^m}{\partial \bar{x}^i} \frac{\partial x^n}{\partial \bar{x}^j}$. taking the determinant of this result we find

$$\bar{g} = |\bar{g}_{ij}| = |g_{mn}| \left| \frac{\partial x^m}{\partial \bar{x}^i} \right|^2 = g \left[J\left(\frac{x}{\bar{x}}\right) \right]^2 \quad (2.33)$$

where g is the determinant of (g_{ij}) and \bar{g} is the determinant of (\bar{g}_{ij}) . This result demonstrates that g is a scalar invariant of weight $+2$. Taking the square root of this result we find that

$$\sqrt{\bar{g}} = \sqrt{g} J\left(\frac{x}{\bar{x}}\right) \quad (2.34)$$

- Consequently, we call \sqrt{g} a scalar invariant of weight $+1$. Now multiply both sides of equation (2.32) by $\sqrt{\bar{g}}$ and use (2.34) to verify the relation

$$\sqrt{g}e_{ijk}\frac{\partial x^i}{\partial \bar{x}^m}\frac{\partial x^j}{\partial \bar{x}^n}\frac{\partial x^k}{\partial \bar{x}^p} = \sqrt{\bar{g}}\bar{e}_{mnp} \quad (2.35)$$

This equation demonstrates that the quantity $\epsilon_{ijk} = \sqrt{g}e_{ijk}$ transforms like an absolute tensor.

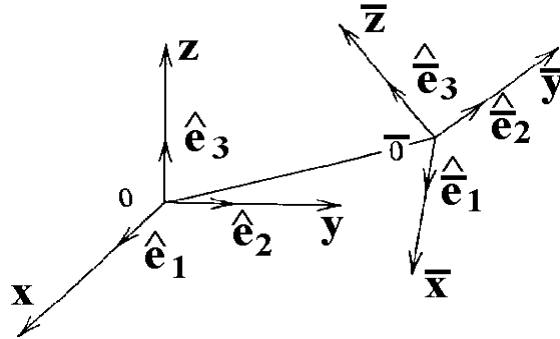


Figure (2.14) Translation followed by rotation of axes

In a similar manner one can show e^{ijk} is a relative tensor of weight +1 and $\epsilon^{ijk} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{g}}e^{ijk}$ is an absolute tensor. This is left as an exercise.

Another exercise found at the end of this section is to show that a generalization of the $e-\delta$ identity is the epsilon identity

$$g^{ij}\epsilon_{ipt}\epsilon_{jrs} = g_{pr}g_{ts} - g_{ps}g_{tr} \quad (2.36)$$

Definition (2.17) : Cartesian Tensors

Consider the motion of a rigid rod in two dimensions. No matter how complicated the movement of the rod is we can describe the motion as a translation followed by a rotation. Consider the rigid rod \overline{AB} illustrated in the figure (2.13).

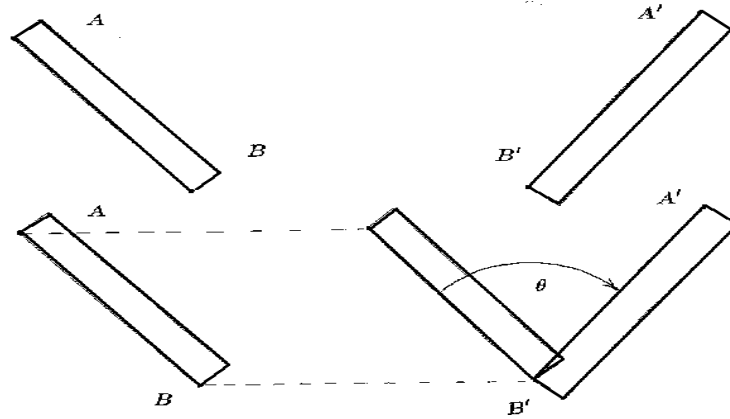


Figure (2.13) Motion of rigid rod

In this figure there is a before and after picture of the rod's position. By moving the point B to B' we have a translation. This is then followed by a rotation holding B fixed.

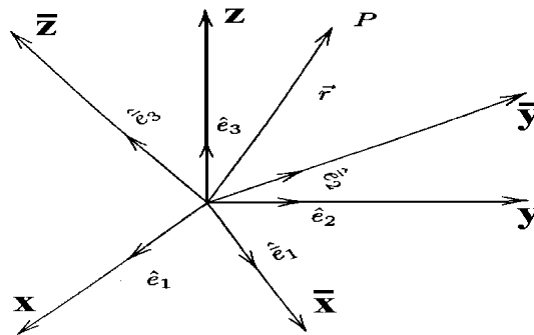


Figure (2.15) Rotation of axes

A similar situation exists in three dimensions. Consider two sets of Cartesian axes, say a barred and an unbarred system as illustrated in the figure (2.14). Let us translate the origin 0 to $\bar{0}$ and then rotate the (x, y, z) axes until they coincide with the $(\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{z})$ axes.

We consider first the rotation of axes when the origins 0 and $\bar{0}$ coincide as the translational distance can be represented by a vector $b^k, k = 1, 2, 3$.

When

the origin 0 is translated to $\bar{0}$ we have the situation illustrated in the figure (2.15), where the barred axes can be thought of as a transformation due to rotation.

Let :

$$\vec{r} = x\hat{e}_1 + y\hat{e}_2 + z\hat{e}_3 \quad (2.37)$$

denote the position vector of a variable point P with coordinates (x, y, z) with respect to the origin 0 and the unit vectors $\hat{e}_1, \hat{e}_2, \hat{e}_3$. This same point, when referenced with respect to the origin $\bar{0}$ and the unit vectors $\hat{\bar{e}}_1, \hat{\bar{e}}_2, \hat{\bar{e}}_3$ has the representation

$$\vec{r} = x\hat{\bar{e}}_1 + y\hat{\bar{e}}_2 + z\hat{\bar{e}}_3 \quad (2.38)$$

By considering the projections of \vec{r} upon the barred and unbarred axes we can construct the transformation equations relating the barred and unbarred axes.

We calculate the projections of \vec{r} onto the x, y and z axes and find:

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{r} \cdot \hat{e}_1 &= x = \bar{x}(\hat{\bar{e}}_1 \cdot \hat{e}_1) + \bar{y}(\hat{\bar{e}}_2 \cdot \hat{e}_1) + \bar{z}(\hat{\bar{e}}_3 \cdot \hat{e}_1) \\ \vec{r} \cdot \hat{e}_2 &= y = \bar{x}(\hat{\bar{e}}_1 \cdot \hat{e}_2) + \bar{y}(\hat{\bar{e}}_2 \cdot \hat{e}_2) + \bar{z}(\hat{\bar{e}}_3 \cdot \hat{e}_2) \\ \vec{r} \cdot \hat{e}_3 &= z = \bar{x}(\hat{\bar{e}}_1 \cdot \hat{e}_3) + \bar{y}(\hat{\bar{e}}_2 \cdot \hat{e}_3) + \bar{z}(\hat{\bar{e}}_3 \cdot \hat{e}_3) \end{aligned} \quad (2.39)$$

We also calculate the projection of \vec{r} on to the $\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{z}$ axes and find :

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{r} \cdot \hat{\bar{e}}_1 &= \bar{x} = x(\hat{e}_1 \cdot \hat{\bar{e}}_1) + y(\hat{e}_2 \cdot \hat{\bar{e}}_1) + z(\hat{e}_3 \cdot \hat{\bar{e}}_1) \\ \vec{r} \cdot \hat{\bar{e}}_2 &= \bar{y} = x(\hat{e}_1 \cdot \hat{\bar{e}}_2) + y(\hat{e}_2 \cdot \hat{\bar{e}}_2) + z(\hat{e}_3 \cdot \hat{\bar{e}}_2) \\ \vec{r} \cdot \hat{\bar{e}}_3 &= \bar{z} = x(\hat{e}_1 \cdot \hat{\bar{e}}_3) + y(\hat{e}_2 \cdot \hat{\bar{e}}_3) + z(\hat{e}_3 \cdot \hat{\bar{e}}_3) \end{aligned} \quad (2.40)$$

By introducing the notation $(y_1, y_2, y_3) = (x, y, z)$

$(\bar{y}_1, \bar{y}_2, \bar{y}_3) = (\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{z})$ and defining θ_{ij} as the angle between the unit vectors \hat{e}_i and $\hat{\bar{e}}_j$ we can represent the above transformation equations in a more concise form. We observe that the direction cosine can be written as :

$$\begin{aligned}
L_{11} &= \hat{e}_1 \cdot \hat{e}_1 = \cos \theta_{11}, L_{12} = \hat{e}_1 \cdot \hat{e}_2 = \cos \theta_{12}, L_{13} = \hat{e}_1 \cdot \hat{e}_3 = \cos \theta_{13} \\
L_{21} &= \hat{e}_2 \cdot \hat{e}_1 = \cos \theta_{21}, L_{22} = \hat{e}_2 \cdot \hat{e}_2 = \cos \theta_{22}, L_{23} = \hat{e}_2 \cdot \hat{e}_3 = \cos \theta_{23} \\
L_{31} &= \hat{e}_3 \cdot \hat{e}_1 = \cos \theta_{31}, L_{32} = \hat{e}_3 \cdot \hat{e}_2 = \cos \theta_{32}, L_{33} = \hat{e}_3 \cdot \hat{e}_3 = \cos \theta_{33}
\end{aligned} \tag{2.41}$$

Which enable us to write the equations (2.39) and (2.40) in the form

$$y_i = L_{ij} \bar{y}_j \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{y}_i = L_{ji} y_j \tag{2.42}$$

Using the index notation we represent the unit vectors as :

$$\hat{e}_r = L_{pr} \hat{e}_p \quad \text{or} \quad \hat{e}_p = L_{pr} \hat{e}_r \tag{2.43}$$

Where L_{pr} are the direction cosines. In both the barred and unbarred system the unit vectors are orthogonal and consequently we must have the dot products

$$\hat{e}_r \cdot \hat{e}_p = \delta_{rp} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{e}_m \cdot \hat{e}_n = \delta_{mn} \tag{2.44}$$

Where δ_{ij} is the Kronecker delta. Substituting equation (2.43) into equation (2.44) we find the direction cosines L_{ij} must satisfy the relations:

$$\hat{e}_r \cdot \hat{e}_s = L_{pr} \hat{e}_p \cdot L_{ms} \hat{e}_m = L_{pr} L_{ms} \hat{e}_p \cdot \hat{e}_m = L_{pr} L_{ms} \delta_{pm} = L_{mr} L_{ms} = \delta_{rs}$$

and

$$\hat{e}_r \cdot \hat{e}_s = L_{mn} \hat{e}_m \cdot L_{sn} \hat{e}_n = L_{mn} L_{sn} \hat{e}_m \cdot \hat{e}_n = L_{rm} L_{sn} \delta_{mn} = L_{rm} L_{sm} = \delta_{rs}$$

The relations

$$L_{mr} L_{ms} = \delta_{rs} \quad \text{and} \quad L_{rm} L_{sm} = \delta_{rs} \tag{2.45}$$

with summation index m , are important relations which are satisfied by the direction cosines associated with a rotation of axes.

Combining the rotation and translation equations we find

$$y_i = \underbrace{L_{ij} \bar{y}_j}_{\text{rotation}} + \underbrace{b_i}_{\text{translation}} \tag{2.46}$$

We multiply this equation by L_{ik} and make use of the relations (2.45) to find the inverse transformation

$$\bar{y}_k = L_{ik}(y_i - b_i) \quad (2.47)$$

These transformations are called linear or affine transformations.

Consider the \bar{x}_i axes are fixed. While the x_i axes are rotating with respect to the \bar{x}_i axes where both sets of axes have a common origin. Let $\vec{A} = A^i \hat{e}_i$ denote a vector fixed in and rotating with \bar{x}_i axes. We denote by $\frac{d\vec{A}}{dt}|_f$ and $\frac{d\vec{A}}{dt}|_r$ the derivatives of \vec{A} with respect to the fixed (f) and rotating (r) axes. We can write, with respect to the fixed axes that $\frac{d\vec{A}}{dt}|_f = \frac{dA^i}{dt} \hat{e}_i + A^i \frac{d\hat{e}_i}{dt}$. Note that $\frac{d\hat{e}_i}{dt}$ is the derivative of vector with constant magnitude.

Therefore there exists constant w_i , $i = 1, \dots, 6$ such that

$$\frac{d\hat{e}_1}{dt} = w_3 \hat{e}_2 - w_2 \hat{e}_3, \quad \frac{d\hat{e}_2}{dt} = w_1 \hat{e}_3 - w_4 \hat{e}_1, \quad \frac{d\hat{e}_3}{dt} = w_5 \hat{e}_1 - w_6 \hat{e}_2$$

From the dot product $\hat{e}_1 \cdot \hat{e}_2 = 0$ we obtain by differentiation $\hat{e}_1 \cdot \frac{d\hat{e}_2}{dt} + \frac{d\hat{e}_1}{dt} \cdot \hat{e}_2 = 0$ which implies $w_4 = w_3$. Similarly from dot products $\hat{e}_1 \cdot \hat{e}_3$ and $\hat{e}_2 \cdot \hat{e}_3$ we obtain by differentiation the additional relations $w_5 = w_2$ and $w_6 = w_1$.

The derivative of \vec{A} with respect to the fixed axes can now be represented

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\vec{A}}{dt}|_f &= \frac{dA^i}{dt} \hat{e}_i + (w_2 A_3 - w_3 A_2) \hat{e}_1 + (w_3 A_1 - w_1 A_3) \hat{e}_2 \\ &\quad + (w_1 A_2 - w_2 A_1) \hat{e}_3 = \frac{d\vec{A}}{dt}|_r + \vec{\omega} \times \vec{A} \end{aligned}$$

Where $\vec{\omega} = w_i \hat{e}_i$ is called an angular velocity vector of the rotating system. The term $\vec{\omega} \times \vec{A}$ represents the velocity of the rotating system

relative to the fixed system and $\frac{d\vec{A}}{dt}|r = \frac{dA^i}{dt} e_i^\wedge$ represents the derivative with respect to the rotating system.

Employing

the special transformation equations (2.46) let us examine how tensor quantities transform when subjected to a translation and rotation of axes.

These are our special transformation laws for Cartesian

tensors. We examine only the transformation

laws for first and second order Cartesian tensors as higher order

transformation laws are easily discerned.

We have previously shown that in general the first and second order tensor quantities satisfy the transformation laws:

$$\vec{A}_i = A_j \frac{\partial y_j}{\partial \bar{y}_i} \quad (2.48)$$

$$\vec{A}^i = A^j \frac{\partial \bar{y}_i}{\partial y_j} \quad (2.49)$$

$$\bar{A}^{mn} = A^{ij} \frac{\partial \bar{y}_m}{\partial y_i} \frac{\partial \bar{y}_n}{\partial y_j} \quad (2.50)$$

$$\bar{A}_{mn} = A_{ij} \frac{\partial y_i}{\partial \bar{y}_m} \frac{\partial y_j}{\partial \bar{y}_n} \quad (2.51)$$

$$\bar{A}_n^m = A_j^i \frac{\partial \bar{y}_m}{\partial y_i} \frac{\partial y_j}{\partial \bar{y}_n} \quad (2.52)$$

For the special case of Cartesian tensors we assume that y_i and $\bar{y}_i, i = 1, 2, 3$ are linearly independent. We

differentiate the equations (2.46) and (2.47) and find

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial y_i}{\partial \bar{y}_k} &= L_{ij} \frac{\partial \bar{y}_j}{\partial \bar{y}_k} = L_{ij} \delta_{jk} = L_{ik} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial \bar{y}_n}{\partial y_m} = L_{ik} \frac{\partial y_i}{\partial y_m} = L_{ik} L_{im} \\ &= L_{ik} = L_{mk} \end{aligned}$$

Substituting these derivatives into the transformation equations (2.48)

through (2.52) we produce the transformation equations

$$\vec{A}_i = A_j L_{ji}$$

$$\vec{A}^i = A^j L_{ji}$$

$$\bar{A}^{mn} = A^{ij} L_{im} L_{jn}$$

$$\bar{A}_{mn} = A_{ij} L_{im} L_{jn}$$

$$\bar{A}_n^m = A_j^i L_{im} L_{jn}$$

Chapter Three

We have previously shown an arbitrary vector \vec{A} can be represented in many forms depending upon the coordinate system and basis vectors selected. For example, consider the figure (2.16) which illustrates a Cartesian coordinate system and curvilinear coordinate system.

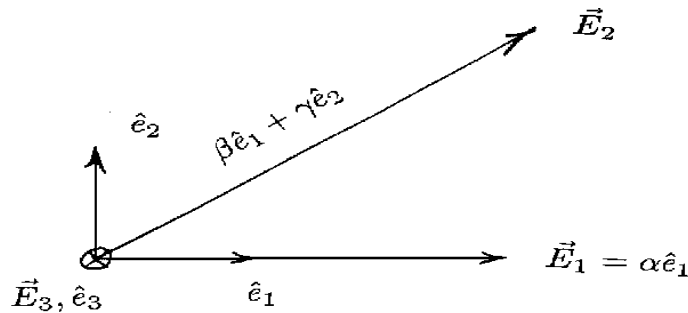


Figure (2.17).physical components

In the Cartesian coordinate system we can represent a vector \vec{A} as:

$$\vec{A} = A_x \hat{e}_1 + A_y \hat{e}_2 + A_z \hat{e}_3$$

Where $(\hat{e}_1, \hat{e}_2, \hat{e}_3)$ are the basic vector.

Consider a coordinate transformation to a more general coordinate system say (x^1, x^2, x^3) . The vector \vec{A} can be represented with contravariant components as

$$\vec{A} = A^1 \vec{E}_1 + A^2 \vec{E}_2 + A^3 \vec{E}_3 \quad (3.1)$$

with respect to the tangential basis vectors $(\vec{E}_1, \vec{E}_2, \vec{E}_3)$. Alternatively, this vector \vec{A} can be represented in the form

$$\vec{A} = A_1\vec{E}^1 + A_2\vec{E}^2 + A_3\vec{E}^3 \quad (3.2)$$

These equations are just different ways of representing the same vector. In the above representation the basis vectors need not be orthogonal and they need not be unit vectors. In general, the physical dimensions of the components A^i and A_j are not the same.

Definition (3.1)

The physical components of the vector \vec{A} in a direction is defined as [The projection of \vec{A}] upon a unit vector in the desired direction. For example, the physical components of \vec{A} in the direction \vec{E}_1 is :-

$$\vec{A} \cdot \frac{\vec{E}_1}{|\vec{E}_1|} = \text{projection of } \vec{A} \text{ on } \vec{E}_1 \quad (3.3)$$

Similarly, the physical component of \vec{A} in the direction \vec{E}^1 is :-

$$\vec{A} \cdot \frac{\vec{E}^1}{|\vec{E}^1|} = \text{projection of } \vec{A} \text{ on } \vec{E}^1 \quad (3.4)$$

Example (3.2): physical components

Let α, β, γ denote non zero positive constants such that the product relation $\alpha\gamma = 1$ is satisfied. Consider the non orthogonal basis vectors

$$\vec{E}_1 = \alpha\hat{e}_1, \quad \vec{E}_2 = \beta\hat{e}_1 + \gamma\hat{e}_2, \quad \vec{E}_3 = \hat{e}_3$$

illustrated in the figure (2.17) It is readily verified that the reciprocal basis

$$\vec{E}^1 = \gamma\hat{e}_1 - \beta\hat{e}_2, \quad \vec{E}^2 = \alpha\hat{e}_2, \quad \vec{E}^3 = \hat{e}_3$$

Consider the problem of representing the vector $\vec{A} = A_x\hat{e}_1 + A_y\hat{e}_2$ in the contravariant vector form:-

$$\vec{A} = A^1\vec{E}_1 + A^2\vec{E}_2 \text{ or tensor form } A^i, i = 1, 2, \dots$$

The vector has the contravariant components

$$A^1 = \vec{A} \cdot \vec{E}^1 = \gamma A_x - \beta A_y \text{ and } A^2 = \vec{A} \cdot \vec{E}^2 = \alpha A_y$$

Alternatively, this same vector can be represented as the covariant vector

$$\vec{A} = A_1 \vec{E}^1 + A_2 \vec{E}^2 \quad \text{which has tensor form } A^i, i = 1, 2, \dots$$

The covariant components are found from the relations

$$A_1 = \vec{A} \cdot \vec{E}_1 = \alpha A_x, \quad A_2 = \vec{A} \cdot \vec{E}_2 = \beta A_x + \gamma A_y$$

The physical components of \vec{A} in the directions \vec{E}^1 and \vec{E}^2 are found to be:

$$\vec{A} \cdot \frac{\vec{E}^1}{|\vec{E}^1|} = \frac{A^1}{|\vec{E}^1|} = \frac{\gamma A_x - \beta A_y}{\sqrt{\gamma^2 + \beta^2}} = A(1)$$

$$\vec{A} \cdot \frac{\vec{E}^2}{|\vec{E}^2|} = \frac{A^2}{|\vec{E}^2|} = \alpha \frac{A_y}{\alpha} = A_y = A(2)$$

For example we can write

$$\vec{A} \cdot \frac{\vec{E}^1}{|\vec{E}^1|} = \frac{A_1(\vec{E}^1 \cdot \vec{E}^1) + A_2(\vec{E}^2 \cdot \vec{E}^1)}{|\vec{E}^1|} = A(1)$$

And

$$\vec{A} \cdot \frac{\vec{E}^2}{|\vec{E}^2|} = \frac{A_1(\vec{E}^1 \cdot \vec{E}^2) + A_2(\vec{E}^2 \cdot \vec{E}^2)}{|\vec{E}^2|} = A(2)$$

In general, the physical components of a vector \vec{A} in a direction of a unit vector λ^i is the generalized

dot product in V_N . This dot product is an invariant and can be expressed:-

$$g_{ij} A^i \lambda^j = A^i \lambda_i = A_i \lambda^i = \text{projection of } \vec{A} \text{ in direction } \lambda^i$$

In the other side we want to show physical components for orthogonal coordinate observe the element of arc length squared V_3 is

$$ds^2 = g_{ij} dx^i dx^j = (h_1)^2 (dx^1)^2 + (h_2)^2 (dx^2)^2 + (h_3)^2 (dx^3)^2$$

Where

$$g_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} (h_1)^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & (h_2)^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & (h_3)^2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.5)$$

In this case the curvilinear coordinates are orthogonal and $h^2_{(i)} = g_{(i)(i)}$, i is not summed and $g_{ij} = 0, i \neq j$. At an arbitrary point in this coordinate system we take $\lambda^i, i = 1, 2, 3$ as a unit vector in the direction of the coordinate x^1 .

We then obtain

$$\lambda^1 = \frac{dx^1}{ds}, \lambda^2 = 0, \lambda^3 = 0.$$

This a unit vector since

$$1 = g_{ij} \lambda^i \lambda^j = g_{11} \lambda^1 \lambda^1 = h_1^2 (\lambda^1)^2 \quad \text{or} \quad \lambda^1 = \frac{1}{h_1}. \text{ Here the curvilinear}$$

coordinate system is orthogonal and in this case the physical component of a vector A^i , in the direction x^i , is the projection of A^i on λ^i in V_3 .

The projection in the x^1 direction is determined from

$$A(1) = g_{ij} A^i \lambda^j = g_{11} A^1 \lambda^1 = h_1^2 A^1 \frac{1}{h_1} = h_1 A_1$$

Similarly, we choose unit vectors M^i and $V^i, i=1, 2, 3$ in the x^2 and x^3 directions. these unit vectors can be represented

$$\mu^1 = 0, \quad \mu^2 = \frac{dx^2}{ds} = \frac{1}{h_2}, \quad \mu^3 = 0$$

$$V^1 = 0, \quad V^2 = 0, \quad V^3 = \frac{dx^3}{ds} = \frac{1}{h_3}$$

and the physical components of the vector A^i in these directions are calculated as

$$A(2) = h_2 A^2 \quad \text{and} \quad A(3) = h_3 A^3.$$

In summary, we can say that in an orthogonal coordinate system the physical components of a contravariant tensor of order one can be determined from the equations

$A^{(i)} = h_{(i)} A^{(i)} = \sqrt{g_{(i)(i)}} A^i, i = 1, 2 \text{ or } 3$ no summation on i .

In an orthogonal coordinate system the non-zero conjugate metric components are

$$g^{(i)(i)} = \frac{1}{g_{(i)(i)}}, i = 1, 2 \text{ or } 3, \text{ no summation on } i.$$

These components are needed to calculate the physical components associated with a covariant tensor of order one. For example, in the x^1 -direction, we have the covariant components

$$\lambda_1 = g_{11} \lambda^1 = h_1^2 \frac{1}{h_1} = h_1, \lambda_2 = 0, \lambda_3 = 0 \quad \text{and consequently}$$

the projection in V_3 can be represented

$$g_{ij} A^i \lambda^j = g_{ij} A^i g^{jm} \lambda_m = A_j g^{jm} \lambda_m = A_1 \lambda_1 g^{11} = A_1 h_1 \frac{1}{h_1^2} = \frac{A_1}{h_1} = A(1)$$

In a similar manner we calculate the relation

$$A(2) = \frac{A_2}{h_2} \quad \text{and} \quad A(3) = \frac{A_3}{h_3}$$

for the other physical components in the directions

x^2 and x^3 . These physical components can be represented in the shorthand notation

$$A^{(i)} = \frac{A_i}{h_i} = \frac{A_i}{\sqrt{g_{(i)(i)}}}, i = 1, 2, \text{ or } 3. \text{ no summation on } i.$$

In an orthogonal coordinate system the physical components associated with both the contravariant and covariant components are the same.

To show this we note that when $A^i g_{ij} = A_j$ is summed on i we obtain $A^1 g_{1j} + A^2 g_{2j} + A^3 g_{3j} = A_j$.

Since $g_{ij} = 0$ for $i = j$ this equation reduces to $A^i g_{(i)(i)} = A(i)$, i is not summed.

Another form for this equation is

$$A(i) = A^{(i)} \sqrt{g_{(i)(i)}} = \frac{A^{(i)}}{\sqrt{g_{(i)(i)}}}, \quad i \text{ is not summed}$$

which demonstrates that the physical components associated with the contravariant and covariant components are identical.

NOTATION: The physical components are sometimes expressed by symbols with subscripts which represent the coordinate curve along which the projection is taken. For example, let H^i denote the contravariant components of a first order tensor. The following are some examples of the representation of the physical components of H^i in various coordinate systems:

System coordinates	components	Coordinate orthogonal	Physical Tensor
general	(x^1, x^2, x^3)	H^i	$H(1), H(2), H(3)$
rectangular	(x, y, z)	H^i	H_x, H_y, H_z
cylindrical	(r, θ, z)	H^i	H_r, H_θ, H_z
spherical	(ρ, θ, ϕ)	H^i	H_ρ, H_θ, H_ϕ
general	(u, v, w)	H^i	H_u, H_v, H_w

Higher Order Tensors:

The physical components associated with higher ordered tensors are defined by projections in V_N just

like the case with first order tensors. For an n th order tensor $T_{ij\dots k}$ we can select n unit vectors $\lambda^i, u^i, \dots, v^i$ and form the inner product (projection)

$$T_{ij\dots k} \lambda^i \mu^j \dots \nu^k.$$

When projecting the tensor components onto the coordinate curves, there are N choices for each of the unit vectors. This produces N^n physical components.

The above inner product represents the physical component of the tensor

$$T_{ij\dots k} \text{ along the directions of the unit vectors } \lambda^i, u^i, \dots, v^i.$$

The selected unit vectors may or may not be orthogonal. In the cases where these selected unit vectors are all orthogonal to one another, the calculation of the physical components is greatly simplified. By relabeling the unit vectors $\lambda^i_{(m)}, \lambda^i_{(n)}, \dots, \lambda^i_{(p)}$ where $(m), (n), \dots, (p)$ represent one of the N directions, the physical components of a general n th order tensor is represented

$$T(m\ n\ \dots\ p) = T_{ij\dots k} \lambda^i_m \lambda^j_n \dots \lambda^k_p$$

Example (3.3) : Physical component

In an orthogonal curvilinear coordinate system V_3 with metric g_{ij} , $i, j = 1, 2, 3$ find the physical components of

(i) the second order tensor A_{ij}

(ii) the second order tensor A^{ij}

(iii) the second order tensor A^i_j

Solution:

The physical components of A_{mn} , $m, n = 1, 2, 3$ along the directions of two unit vectors

λ^i and u^i is defined as the inner product in V_3 . These physical components can be expressed $A_{(ij)} = A_{mn} \lambda^m_{(i)} \lambda^n_{(j)}$, $i, j = 1, 2, 3$.

where the subscripts (i) and (j) represent one of the coordinated directions.

Dropping the subscripts (i) and (j) , we make the observation that in an orthogonal curvilinear coordinate system there are three choices for the direction of the unit vector λ^i and also three choices for the direction of the unit vector u^i .

These three

choices represent the directions along the x^1, x^2 , or x^3 coordinate curves which emanate from a point of the curvilinear coordinate system.

This produces a total of nine possible physical components associated with the tensor A_{mn} .

For example, we can obtain the components of the unit vector $\lambda^i, i = 1, 2, 3$ in the x^1 direction directly from an examination of the element of arc length squared

$$ds^2 = (h_1)^2(dx^1)^2 + h_2^2(dx^2)^2 + (h_3)^2(dx^3)^2$$

By setting $dx^2 = dx^3 = 0$, we find $\frac{dx^1}{ds} = \frac{1}{h_1} = \lambda^1, \lambda^2 = 0, \lambda^3 = 0$

This is the vector $\lambda_{(1)}^i, i = 1, 2, 3$. Similarly, if we choose to select the unit vector $\lambda^i, i = 1, 2, 3$ in the x^2 direction, we set $dx^1 = dx^3 = 0$ in the element of arc length squared and find the components

$$\lambda^1 = 0, \lambda^2 = \frac{dx^2}{ds} = \frac{1}{h_2}, \lambda^3 = 0$$

This is the vector $\lambda_{(2)}^i, i = 1, 2, 3$, if we select $\lambda_{(3)}^i, i =$

$1, 2, 3$ in the x^3 direction, we set $dx^1 = dx^2 = 0$

in the element of arc length squared and determine the unit vector.

$$\lambda^1 = 0, \lambda^2 = 0, \lambda^3 = \frac{dx^3}{ds} = \frac{1}{h_3}$$

this the vector $\lambda_{(3)}^i, i = 1, 2, 3$. Similarly, the unit vector u^i can be selected as one of the above three directions. Examining all nine possible combinations for selecting the unit vectors, we calculate the physical components in an orthogonal coordinate system as:

$$\begin{aligned}
A_{(11)} &= \frac{A_{11}}{h_1 h_1} & , A_{(12)} &= \frac{A_{12}}{h_1 h_2} & , A_{(13)} &= \frac{A_{13}}{h_1 h_3} \\
A_{21} &= \frac{A_{21}}{h_2 h_1} & , A_{(22)} &= \frac{A_{22}}{h_1 h_2} & , A_{(23)} &= \frac{A_{23}}{h_2 h_3} \\
A_{(31)} &= \frac{A_{31}}{h_3 h_1} & , A_{(32)} &= \frac{A_{32}}{h_3 h_2} & , A_{(33)} &= \frac{A_{33}}{h_3 h_3}
\end{aligned}$$

These results can be written in the more compact form

$$A_{ij} = \frac{A_{(i)(j)}}{h_{(i)} h_{(j)}} = \text{no summation on } i \text{ or } j \rightarrow \quad (3.6)$$

For mixed tensors we have

$$A_j^i = g^{im} A_{mj} = g^{i1} A_{1j} + g^{i2} A_{2j} + g^{i3} A_{3j} \rightarrow \quad (3.7)$$

From the fact $g^{ij} = 0$ for $i \neq j$, together with the physical components from equation (2.16), the equation (2.17) reduces to

$$\begin{aligned}
A_{(j)}^{(i)} &= g^{(i)(j)} A_{(i)(j)} = \frac{1}{h_{(i)}^2} \cdot h_{(i)} h_{(j)} A_{(ij)} \text{ no summation on } i, j \\
&= 1, 2, \text{ or } 3
\end{aligned}$$

This can also be written in the form

$$A_{(ij)} = A_j^i \frac{h_i}{h_j} \text{ no summation on } i \text{ or } j \rightarrow \quad (3.8)$$

Hence, the physical components associated with the mixed tensor A_j^i in the an orthogonal coordinate system can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned}
A(11) &= A_1^1 & A(12) &= A_2^1 \frac{h^1}{h_2} & A(13) &= A_3^1 \frac{h^1}{h_3} \\
A(21) &= A_1^2 \frac{h^2}{h_1} & A(22) &= A_2^2 & A(23) &= A_3^2 \frac{h^2}{h_3} \\
A(31) &= A_1^3 \frac{h^3}{h_1} & A(32) &= A_2^3 \frac{h^3}{h_2} & A(33) &= A_3^3
\end{aligned}$$

For second order contravariant tensors we may write

$$A^{ij}g_{im} = A_m^i = A^{i1}g_{1m} + A^{i2}g_{2m} + A^{i3}g_{3m}$$

We use the fact $g_{ij} = 0$ for $i \neq j$ together with the physical components from equation (3.8) to reduce the above equation to the form $A_m^i = A^{(i)(m)}g_{(m)(m)}$ (no summation on m). In terms of physical components we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{h_{(m)}}{h_{(i)}} A^{(i)(m)} &= A^{(i)(m)} h_{(m)}^2 \text{ or } A_{(im)} \\ &= A^{(i)(m)} h_{(i)} h_{(m)}, \text{ no summation on } i, i = i, m \\ &= 1, 2, 3 \quad (3.9) \end{aligned}$$

Examining the results from equation (3.9) we find that the physical components associated with the contravariant tensor A^{ij} , in an orthogonal coordinate system, can be written as:

$$\begin{aligned} A(11) &= A^{11}h_1h_1 & A(12) &= A^{12}h_1h_2 & A(13) &= A^{13}h_1h_{13} \\ A(21) &= A^{21}h_2h_1 & A(22) &= A^{22}h_2h_2 & A(23) &= A^{23}h_2h_{23} \\ A(31) &= A^{31}h_3h_1 & A(32) &= A^{32}h_3h_2 & A(33) &= A^{33}h_3h_{33} \end{aligned}$$

Definition (3.4) Physical Components in General

In an orthogonal curvilinear coordinate system, the physical components associated with the n th order tensor $T_{ij\dots kl}$ along the curvilinear coordinate directions can be represented:

$$T(ij \dots k) = \frac{T_{(i)(j)\dots(k)(l)}}{h_{(i)}h_{(j)} \dots h_{(k)}h_{(l)}} \text{ no summation}$$

These physical components can be related to the various tensors associated with $T_{ij\dots kl}$. For example, in an orthogonal coordinate system, the physical components associated with the mixed tensor can be expressed as:

$$T(ij \dots mn \dots kl) = T_{(n)\dots(k)(l)}^{(i)(j)\dots(m)} \frac{h_{(i)}h_{(j)} \dots h_{(k)}h_{(l)}}{h_{(n)} \dots h_{(k)}h_{(l)}} \quad (3.10)$$

Example(3.5): Physical components

Let $x^i = x^i(t)$, $i = 1, 2, 3$ denote the position vector of a particle which moves as a function of time t . Assume there exists a coordinate transformation $\bar{x}^i = \bar{x}^i(x)$ for $i = 1, 2, 3$. The position of the particle when referenced with respect to the barred system of coordinates can be found by substitution. The generalized velocity of the particle in the unbarred system is a vector with components

$$v^i = \frac{dx^i}{dt}, \quad i = 1, 2, 3.$$

The generalized velocity components of the same particle in the barred system is obtained from the chain rule.

We find this velocity is represented by

$$\bar{v}^i = \frac{d\bar{x}^i}{dt} = \frac{\partial \bar{x}^i}{\partial x^j} \frac{dx^j}{dt} = \frac{\partial \bar{x}^i}{\partial x^j} v^j$$

This equation implies that the contravariant quantities

$$(v^1, v^2, v^3) = \left(\frac{dx^1}{dt}, \frac{dx^2}{dt}, \frac{dx^3}{dt} \right)$$

are tensor quantities. These quantities are called the components of the generalized velocity. The coordinates x^1, x^2, x^3 are generalized coordinates. This means we can select any set of three independent variables for the representation of the motion.

The variables selected might not have the same dimensions. For example, in cylindrical coordinates we let ($x^1 = r, x^2 = \theta, x^3 = z$).

Here x^1 and x^3 have dimensions of distance but x^2 has dimensions of angular displacement. The generalized velocities are

$$v^1 = \frac{dx^1}{dt} = \frac{dr}{dt}, v^2 = \frac{dx^2}{dt} = \frac{d\theta}{dt}, v^3 = \frac{dx^3}{dt} = \frac{dz}{dt}$$

Here v^1 and v^3 have units of length divided by time while v^2 has the units of angular velocity or angular change divided by time. Clearly, these dimensions are not all the same. Let us examine the physical components of the generalized velocities. We find in cylindrical coordinates $h_1 = 1, h_2 = r, h_3 = 1$ and the physical components of the velocity have the forms:

$$v_r = v(1) = v^1 h_1 = \frac{dr}{dt}, v_\theta = v(2) = v^2 h_2 = r \frac{d\theta}{dt}, v_z = v(3) = v^3 h_3 = \frac{dz}{dt}$$

Now the physical components of the velocity all have the same units of length divided by time. Additional examples of the use of physical components are considered later. For the time being, just remember that when tensor equations are derived, the equations are valid in any generalized coordinate system.

In particular, we are interested in the representation of physical laws which are to be invariant and independent of the

coordinate system used to represent these laws. Once a tensor equation is derived, we can choose any type of generalized coordinates and expand the tensor equations.

Before using any expanded tensor equations we must replace all the tensor components by their corresponding physical components in order that the equations are dimensionally homogeneous. It is these expanded equations, expressed in terms of the physical components, which are used to solve applied problems.

Tensors and Multilinear Forms:

Tensors can be thought of as being created by multilinear forms defined on some vector space V . Let us define on a vector space V a linear form, a bilinear form and a general multilinear form. We can then illustrate how tensors are created from these forms.

Definition (3.6): Linear form

Let V denote a vector space which contains vectors $\vec{x}, \vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_2$. A linear form in \vec{x} , is a scalar function $\varphi(\vec{x})$ having a single vector argument \vec{x} which satisfies the linearity properties:

$$(i) \quad \varphi(\vec{x}_1 + \vec{x}_2) = \varphi(\vec{x}_1) + \varphi(\vec{x}_2)$$

$$(ii) \quad \varphi(\mu\vec{x}_1) = \mu\varphi(\vec{x}_1)$$

for all arbitrary vectors \vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_2 in V and all real numbers μ .

Example (3.7)

$$\varphi(\vec{x}) = \vec{A} \cdot \vec{x}$$

Where

\vec{A}

is a constant vector and \vec{x} is an arbitrary vector belonging to the vector space V .

Note that a linear form in \vec{x} can be expressed in terms of the components of the vector \vec{x} and the base vectors $(\hat{e}_1, \hat{e}_2, \hat{e}_3)$ used to represent \vec{x} . To show this, we write the vector \vec{x} in the component form

$$\vec{x} = x^i \hat{e}_i = x^1 \hat{e}_1 + x^2 \hat{e}_2 + x^3 \hat{e}_3$$

Where $x^i, i, 1, 2, 3$ are the components of \vec{x} with respect to the basis vector $(\hat{e}_1, \hat{e}_2, \hat{e}_3)$. by linearity property of φ we can write

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(\vec{x}) &= \varphi(x^i \hat{e}_i) = \varphi(x^1 \hat{e}_1 + x^2 \hat{e}_2 + x^3 \hat{e}_3) \\ &= \varphi(x^1 \hat{e}_1) + \varphi(x^2 \hat{e}_2) + \varphi(x^3 \hat{e}_3) \\ &= x^1 \varphi(\hat{e}_1) + x^2 \varphi(\hat{e}_2) + x^3 \varphi(\hat{e}_3) + x^i \varphi(\hat{e}_i) \end{aligned}$$

Thus we can write $\varphi(\vec{x}) = x^i \varphi(\hat{e}_i)$ and by the definition the quantity $\varphi(\hat{e}_i) = a_i$ as tensor we obtain $\varphi(\vec{x}) = x^i a_i$.

Note that if we change basis from $(\hat{e}_1, \hat{e}_2, \hat{e}_3)$ to $(\vec{E}_1, \vec{E}_2, \vec{E}_3)$ then the component of \vec{x} must change.

Letting \bar{x}^i denote the component of \vec{x} respect to the new basis, we would have

$$\vec{x} = \bar{x}^i \vec{E}_i \text{ and } \varphi(\vec{x}) = (\bar{x}^i \vec{E}_i) = \bar{x}^i \varphi(\vec{E}_i)$$

The linear form φ defines a new tensor $\bar{a}_i = \varphi(\vec{E}_i)$ so that $\varphi(\vec{x}) = \bar{x}^i \bar{a}_i$.

Whenever there is a definite relation between the basis vectors $(\hat{e}_1, \hat{e}_2, \hat{e}_3)$ and $(\vec{E}_1, \vec{E}_2, \vec{E}_3)$ say

$$\vec{E}_i = \frac{\partial x^j}{\partial \bar{x}^i} \hat{e}_j .$$

then there exists a definite relation between the tensors a_i and \bar{a}_i . This relation is

$$\bar{a}_i = \varphi(\vec{E}_i) = \varphi\left(\frac{\partial x^j}{\partial \bar{x}^i} \hat{e}_j\right) = \frac{\partial x^j}{\partial \bar{x}^i} (\hat{e}_j) = \frac{\partial x^j}{\partial \bar{x}^i} a_j$$

This is the transformation law for an absolute covariant tensor of rank r or order r .

Definition (3.8): Bilinear form

A bilinear form in \vec{x} and \vec{y} is a scalar function $\varphi(\vec{x}, \vec{y})$ with two vector arguments, which satisfies the linearity properties:

$$(i) \quad \varphi(\vec{x}_1 + \vec{x}_2, \vec{y}_1) = \varphi(\vec{x}_1, \vec{y}_1) + \varphi(\vec{x}_2, \vec{y}_1)$$

$$(ii) \quad \varphi(\vec{x}_1, \vec{y}_1 + \vec{y}_2) = \varphi(\vec{x}_1, \vec{y}_1) + \varphi(\vec{x}_1, \vec{y}_2)$$

$$(iii) \quad \varphi(\mu \vec{x}_1, \vec{y}_1) = \mu \varphi(\vec{x}_1, \vec{y}_1)$$

$$(iv) \quad \varphi(\vec{x}_1, \mu \vec{y}_1) = \mu \varphi(\vec{x}_1, \vec{y}_1) \tag{3.11}$$

for arbitrary vectors $\vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_2, \vec{y}_1, \vec{y}_2$ in the vector space V and for all real numbers μ . Note in the definition of a bilinear form that the scalar function φ is linear in both the arguments \vec{x} and \vec{y} .

Example (3.9)

a bilinear form is the dot product relation

$$\varphi(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} \tag{3.12}$$

where both \vec{x} and \vec{y} belong to the same vector space V .

Definition (3.10) : Multilinear forms

A multilinear form of degree

M in the vector arguments

$\vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_2, \dots, \vec{x}_M$ in a scalar function

$\varphi(\vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_2, \dots, \vec{x}_M)$ of M vector arguments which satisfies the property that it is a linear form in each of its arguments. That is, φ must satisfy for each $j = 1, 2, \dots, M$ the properties:

$$(i) \varphi(\vec{x}_1, \dots, \vec{x}_{j-1}, \vec{x}_{j+1}, \dots, \vec{x}_M) \\ = \varphi(\vec{x}_1, \dots, \vec{x}_{j-1}, \mu \vec{x}_j, \dots, \vec{x}_M) + \varphi(\vec{x}_1, \dots, \vec{x}_{j-1}, \vec{x}_j, \dots, \vec{x}_M)$$

$$(ii) \varphi(\vec{x}_1, \dots, \mu \vec{x}_j, \dots, \vec{x}_M) = \mu \varphi(\vec{x}_1, \dots, \vec{x}_j, \dots, \vec{x}_M) \quad (3.13)$$

for all arbitrary vectors $\vec{x}_1, \dots, \vec{x}_M$ in the vector space V and all real numbers μ .

Example (3.11)

The third degree multilinear form or trilinear form is the triple scalar product

$$\varphi(\vec{x}, \vec{y}, \vec{z}) = \vec{x} \cdot (\vec{y} \times \vec{z}) \quad (3.14)$$

Note that multilinear forms are independent of the coordinate system selected and depend only upon the all vectors with respect to this basis set. For example, if $\vec{x}, \vec{y}, \vec{z}$ are three vectors we can represent these vectors in the component forms

$$\vec{x} = x^i \hat{e}_i, \vec{y} = y^j \hat{e}_j, \vec{z} = z^k \hat{e}_k \quad (3.15)$$

where we have employed the summation convention on the repeated indices i, j and k . Substituting equations (3.15) into equation (3.14) we obtain

$$\varphi(x^i \hat{e}_i, y^j \hat{e}_j, z^k \hat{e}_k) = x^i y^j z^k \varphi(\hat{e}_i, \hat{e}_j, \hat{e}_k) \quad (3.16)$$

Since φ is linear in all its arguments. By defining the tensor quantity

$$\varphi(\hat{e}_i, \hat{e}_j, \hat{e}_k) = e_{ijk} \quad (3.17)$$

The trilinear form, given by equation (3.14), with vectors from equations (3.15), can be expressed as

$$\varphi(x^i y^j z^k) = e_{ijk} x^i y^j z^k, \quad i, j, k = 1, 2, 3 \quad (3.18)$$

The coefficients e_{ijk} of the trilinear form is called a third order tensor. It is the familiar permutation symbol considered earlier.

In a multilinear form of degree $M =$

$\varphi(\vec{x}, \vec{y}, \dots, \vec{z})$ the M arguments can be represented in a component form with respect to a set of basis vectors $(\hat{e}_1, \hat{e}_2, \hat{e}_3)$. Let these vectors have components $x^i, y^j, z^k, i = 1, 2, 3$ with respect to these selected basis vectors. We then can write

$$\vec{x} = x^i \hat{e}_i, \quad \vec{y} = y^j \hat{e}_j, \quad \vec{z} = z^k \hat{e}_k$$

Substituting these vectors into the M degree multilinear form produces

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(x^i \hat{e}_i, y^j \hat{e}_j, \dots, x^k \hat{e}_k) \\ = x^i y^j, \dots, z^k \varphi(\hat{e}_i, \hat{e}_j, \dots, \hat{e}_k) \end{aligned} \quad (3.19)$$

Consequently, the multilinear form defines a set of coefficients

$$\bar{a}_{ij\dots k} = (\vec{E}_i, \vec{E}_j, \dots, \vec{E}_k) \quad (3.20)$$

This new tensor has a bar over it to distinguish it from the previous tensor. A definite relation exists between the new and old basis vectors and consequently there exists a definite relation between

the components of the barred and unbarred tensors components. Recall that if we are given a set of transformation equations

$$y^i = y^i(x^1, x^2, x^3), i = 1, 2, 3 \quad (3.21)$$

from rectangular to generalized curvilinear coordinates, we can express the basis vectors in the new system by the equations

$$\vec{E}_i = \frac{\partial y^j}{\partial x^i} \hat{e}_j, i = 1, 2, 3. \quad (3.22)$$

For example, see equations (2.11) with $y^1 = x, y^2 = y, y^3 = z, x^1 = u, x^2 = v, x^3 = w$. Substituting equations (3.22) into equations (3.20) we obtain

$$\bar{a}_{ij\dots k} = \varphi \left(\frac{\partial y^{\alpha\alpha}}{\partial x^i} \hat{e}_{\alpha\alpha}, \frac{\partial y^{\beta\beta}}{\partial x^j} \hat{e}_{\beta\beta}, \frac{\partial y^{\gamma\gamma}}{\partial x^k} \hat{e}_{\gamma\gamma} \right)$$

By the linearity property of φ , this equation is expressible in the form

$$\bar{a}_{ij\dots k} = \frac{\partial y^{\alpha\alpha}}{\partial x^i} \frac{\partial y^{\beta\beta}}{\partial x^j} \dots \frac{\partial y^{\gamma\gamma}}{\partial x^k} \varphi(\hat{e}_{\alpha\alpha}, \hat{e}_{\beta\beta}, \dots, \hat{e}_{\gamma\gamma})$$

$$\bar{a}_{ij\dots k} = \frac{\partial y^{\alpha\alpha}}{\partial x^i} \frac{\partial y^{\beta\beta}}{\partial x^j} \dots \frac{\partial y^{\gamma\gamma}}{\partial x^k} \quad \alpha, \beta, \gamma.$$

This is the familiar transformation law for a covariant tensor of degree M . By selecting reciprocal basis vectors the corresponding transformation laws for contravariant vectors can be determined.

The above examples illustrate that tensors can be considered as quantities derivable from multilinear forms defined on some vector space.

Definition (3.12): Dual Tensors

The ϵ -permutation symbol is often used to generate new tensors from given tensors. For T_{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_m} a skew-symmetric tensor, we define the tensor

$$\hat{T}^{j_1 j_2 \dots j_{n-m}} = \frac{1}{m!} \epsilon^{j_1 j_2 \dots j_{n-m} i_1 i_2 \dots i_m} T_{i_1 i_2 \dots i_m} \quad m \leq n \quad (3.23)$$

as the dual tensor associated with T_{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_m} . Note that the ϵ -permutation symbol or alternating tensor has a weight of +1 and consequently the dual tensor will have a higher weight than the original tensor.

The ϵ -permutation symbol has the following properties

$$\epsilon^{i_1 i_2 \dots i_N} \epsilon_{i_1 i_2 \dots i_N} = N!_{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_N}$$

$$\epsilon^{i_1 i_2 \dots i_N} \epsilon_{i_1 i_2 j_1 j_2 \dots j_N} = \delta_{j_1 j_2 \dots j_N}^{i_1 i_2 \dots i_N}$$

$$\epsilon_{k_1 k_2 \dots k_m i_1 i_2 \dots i_{N-m}} \epsilon^{j_1 j_2 \dots j_m i_1 i_2 i_{N-m}} = (N-m)! \delta_{k_1 k_2 \dots k_m}^{j_1 j_2 \dots j_m}$$

$$\delta_{k_1 k_2 \dots k_m}^{j_1 j_2 \dots j_m} T_{j_1 j_2 \dots j_m} = m! T_{k_1 k_2 \dots k_m} \quad (3.24)$$

Using the above properties we can solve for the skew-symmetric tensor in terms of the dual tensor. We find

$$T_{i_1 i_2 \dots i_m} = \frac{1}{(n-m)!} \epsilon_{i_1 i_2 \dots i_m j_1 j_2 \dots j_{n-m}} \hat{T}^{j_1 j_2 \dots j_{n-m}} \quad (3.25)$$

which is a first order tensor or vector. Note that A_{ij} has the components

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ -A_{12} & 0 & A_{23} \\ -A_{13} & -A_{23} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.26)$$

Note that the vector components have a cyclic order to the

indices which comes from the cyclic properties of the permutation symbol.

As another example, consider the fourth order skew-symmetric tensor $A_{ijkl}, i, j, k, l = 1, \dots, n$. We can associate with this tensor any of the dual tensor quantities

$$v = \frac{1}{4!} e^{ijkl} A_{ijkl}$$

$$v^i = \frac{1}{4!} e^{ijklm} A_{ijklm}$$

$$v^{ij} = \frac{1}{4!} e^{ijklmn} A_{ijklmn}$$

$$v^{ijk} = \frac{1}{4!} e^{ijklmnp} A_{ijklmnp}$$

$$v^{ijkl} = \frac{1}{4!} e^{ijklmnpq} A_{ijklmnpq}$$

