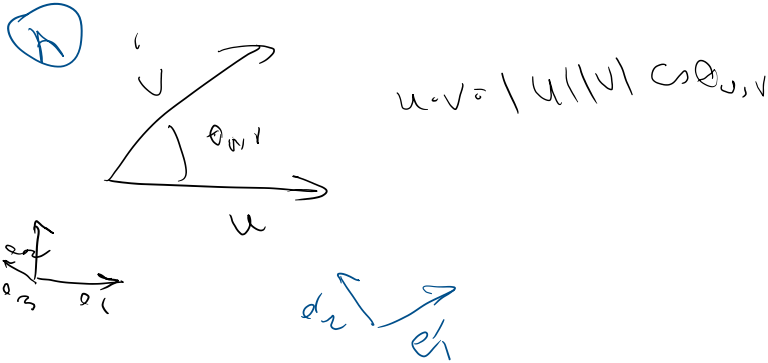
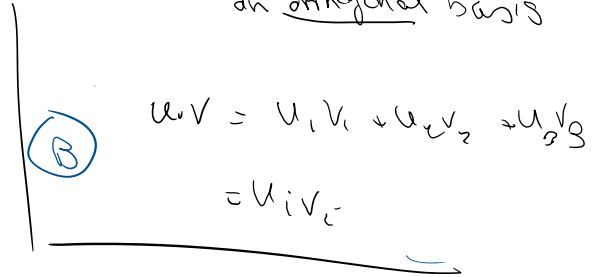


I'll show that for an orthogonal basis

Inner product: Indicial representation



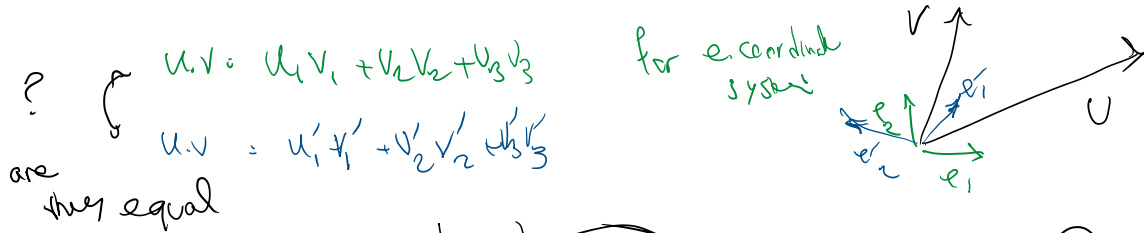
$$u \cdot v = |u||v| \cos \theta_{u,v}$$



$$u \cdot v = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 = u_3 v_3 = u_i v_i$$

- Definition A is ideal in that it does not need a coordinate system so clearly that value of inner product number is INDEPENDENT of coordinate system => scalar
- Definition B uses a coordinate system and to show that the value of $u \cdot v$ is independent of coordinate system choice, we need to prove that it's value does not change from one coordinate system to another (not the best approach)
- **Whenever possible, make the definitions independent of a coordinate system -> we automatically deal with tensors.**

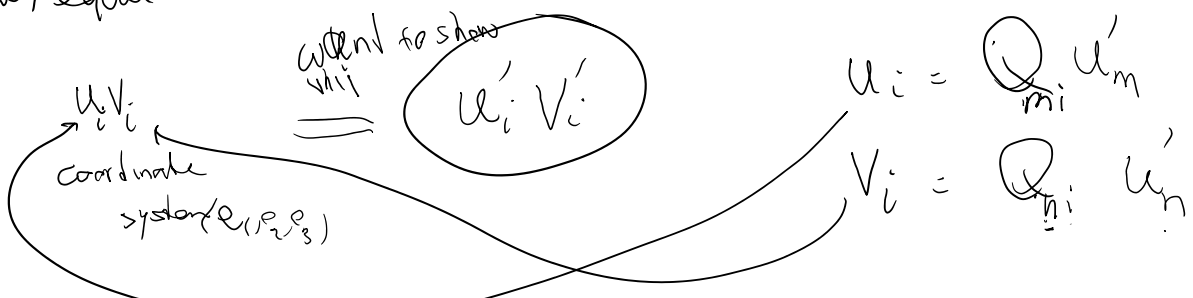
Assume we had used def B for inner product => need to prove that it's a scalar



$$u \cdot v = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + u_3 v_3$$

$$u \cdot v = u'_1 v'_1 + u'_2 v'_2 + u'_3 v'_3$$

are they equal?



Want to show $u_i v_i$

$$u_i = Q_{mi} u'_m$$

$$v_i = Q_{ni} v'_n$$

$$u_i v_i = (Q_{mi} u'_m) (Q_{ni} v'_n) = (Q_{mi} Q_{ni}) u'_m v'_n$$

$$(Q_{mi} Q_{ni}) u'_m v'_n = (Q Q^T)_{mn} u'_m v'_n$$

for orthonormal coordinate systems we use now $Q Q^T = I$

$$A = BC$$

$$A_{mn} = B_{mi} C_{in}$$

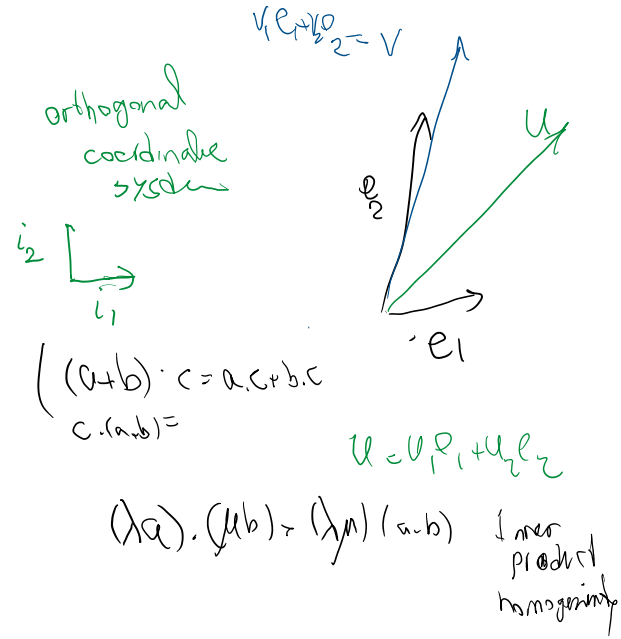
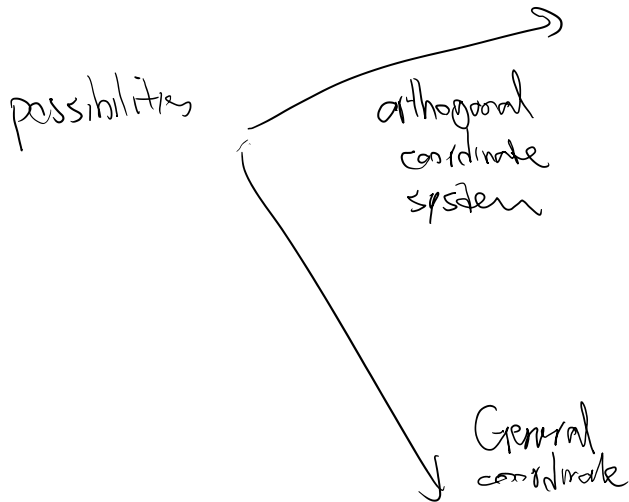
$$\sum_{mn} u'_m v'_n = u'_n v'_n = u'_i v'_i$$

$$\sum_{m,n} u_m u_n' = u_n u_n' = u_i v_i'$$

I proved $v_i v_i' = u_i' v_i'$

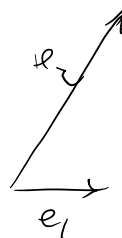
BTW, why the value of inner product $u \cdot v$ is equal to $u_i v_i$?

$$\begin{aligned} u \cdot v &= (u_1 e_1 + u_2 e_2) \cdot (v_1 e_1 + v_2 e_2) \\ &= (u_1 e_1) \cdot (v_1 e_1) + (u_2 e_2) \cdot (v_1 e_1) \\ &\quad + (u_1 e_1) \cdot (v_2 e_2) + (u_2 e_2) \cdot (v_2 e_2) \\ &= u_1 v_1 \mathbf{e_1 \cdot e_1} + u_2 v_1 \mathbf{e_2 \cdot e_1} + \\ &\quad u_1 v_2 \mathbf{e_1 \cdot e_2} + u_2 v_2 \mathbf{e_2 \cdot e_2} \end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned} e_i \cdot e_j &= \delta_{ij} \\ u \cdot v &= u_1 v_1 (1) + u_2 v_1 (0) + u_1 v_2 (0) + u_2 v_2 (1) \\ &= u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 = u_i v_i \end{aligned}$$


$$u \cdot v = u_i g_{ij} v_j$$



$$g_{ij} = e_i \cdot e_j$$

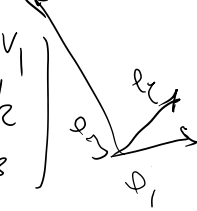
g is called metric matrix

Summary

$$u \cdot v = u_i v_i = [u_1 \ u_2 \ u_3] \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix}$$


orthogonal

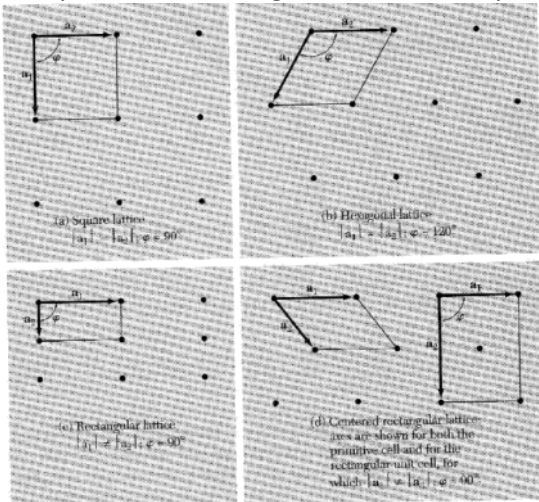
9)

$$u \cdot v = u_i g_{ij} v_j = [u_1 \ u_2 \ u_3] \begin{pmatrix} g_{11} & g_{12} & g_{13} \\ g_{21} & - & - \\ - & - & g_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix}$$


Non orthogonal system

$$g_{ij} = e_i \cdot e_j$$

Kittel Charles-IntroductionToSolidStatePhysics8ThEd.pdf
 Examples of non-orthogonal coordinate systems for solid lattices



2nd order tensors = Linear operators

Assume that V and W are two vector spaces and the function L takes vectors from v in V to W

$$V \xrightarrow{L(V)} W$$

it must satisfy

$$1) \quad \forall v_1, v_2 \in V \quad L(v_1 + v_2) = L(v_1) + L(v_2)$$

$$2) \quad \forall \lambda \in \mathbb{R} \text{ or } \mathbb{C} \text{ and } v \in V \quad L(\lambda v) = \lambda L(v)$$

or in short

$$L(\alpha u + v) = \alpha L(u) + L(v)$$

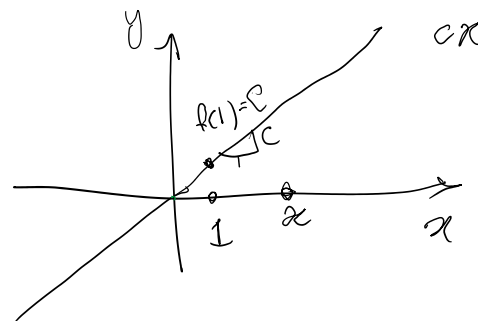
(2)

Examples:

$$ID \rightarrow ID$$

$$f(x) = f(x \cdot 1) = x \overbrace{f(1)}^c$$

property 2 above



$$f(x) = cx$$

In general, linear functions pass through zero:

$$L(0) = 0$$

$$0 + L(0) = L(0 + 0) = L(0) + L(0)$$

property 1 in def 2

$$\Rightarrow L(0) = 0$$

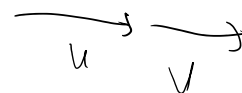
Example 2 $\mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$L(u) = |u|$$

$$\text{def 2-1} \quad L(u+v) \stackrel{?}{=} L(u) + L(v)$$

$$|u+v| \leq |u| + |v|$$

but not equal for all u & v



but not equal for all $u \in V$

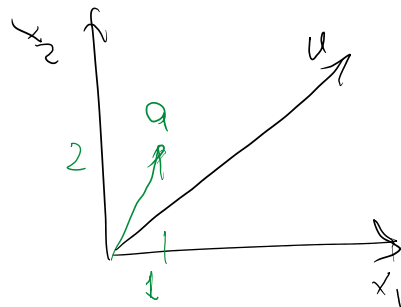
Not a linear function

Example 3

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{R}^2 & \longrightarrow & \mathbb{R} \\ V & & W \end{array}$$

$$a = (1, 2)$$

$$a = (1, 2)$$



$L_a(u) = a \cdot u$
I call this L of a as the function is defined based on a

Is L_a a linear function?

$$L_a(u) = a \cdot u = a_1 u_1 + a_2 u_2 = u_1 + 2u_2$$

(4)

I need to show $L_a(\alpha u + v) = \alpha L_a(u) + L_a(v)$

let's check this

$$L_a(\alpha u + v) = (\alpha u + v)_1 + 2(\alpha u + v)_2$$

$$= \alpha u_1 + v_1 + 2\alpha u_2 + 2v_2$$

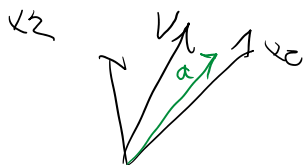
$$= \alpha(u_1 + 2u_2) + (v_1 + 2v_2)$$

(4) again

$$= \alpha L_a(u) + L_a(v)$$

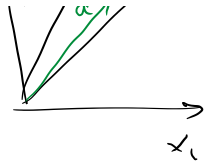
In fact, any linear function from \mathbb{R}^d to \mathbb{R} , can be expressed as an inner product

d dimensional
Euclidean vector space



$L(u)$ is linear $\mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 \Rightarrow there is a vector a such that

$$L(u) = a \cdot u$$



$$L(u) = a \cdot u$$

There is one remaining point to consider before proceeding on to second-order tensors. That is, the inner product allows us to interpret a (Euclidean) vector as a linear operator that maps a vector into a real number (scalar). In fact, this is the defining property of a *first-order tensor*, and vectors are indeed first order tensors. To illuminate this point, let \mathcal{V} be the set of all vectors in some Euclidean point space \mathcal{E} . Now consider a specific vector $\bar{a} \in \mathcal{V}$, where the overbar indicates that we hold \bar{a} fixed. We can define a function $f_{\bar{a}}$ that maps a vector into a scalar by taking the inner product of \bar{a} and any vector $b \in \mathcal{V}$. That is,

$$f_{\bar{a}}(b) \equiv \bar{a} \cdot b.$$

A review of the properties of the inner product shows that $f_{\bar{a}}$ is indeed a linear operator. In fact, the *Riesz representation theorem* states that every linear function on \mathcal{V} to \mathbb{R} can be represented in this fashion (by varying our choice of the fixed vector \bar{a})! We use a similar approach in the next section to define second-order tensors as a special class of linear operators.

FYI: non-orthogonal coordinate systems and correct way of indexing

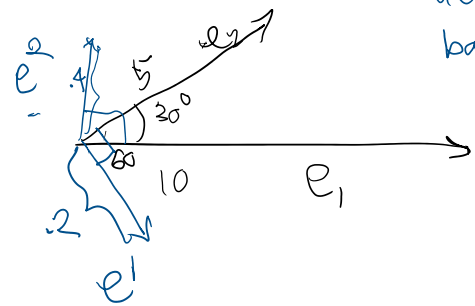
$$L: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

\downarrow
 $d=3$ (3D)
 linear

there is a $a \ni L(u) = u \cdot a$

$$e^i \ni e^i(e^j) = \delta^i_j$$

$\{e_1, e_2\}$
actual basis



linear func from $\mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$e^1(e_1) = 1 \quad e^1(e_2) = 0$$

$$e^2(e_1) = 0 \quad e^2(e_2) = 1$$

$$e^1 \cdot e_1 = 1 \quad e^1 \cdot e_2 = 0$$

$$e^2 \cdot e_1 = 0 \quad e^2 \cdot e_2 = 1$$

from $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

1 to start

2

1 to covectors

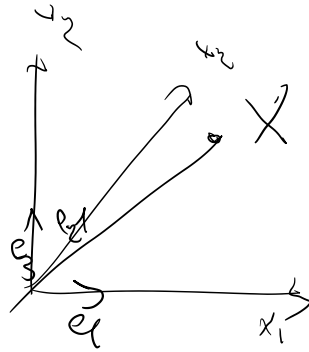
Vectors

velocity $v = v^i e_i$

displacement $u = u^i e_i$

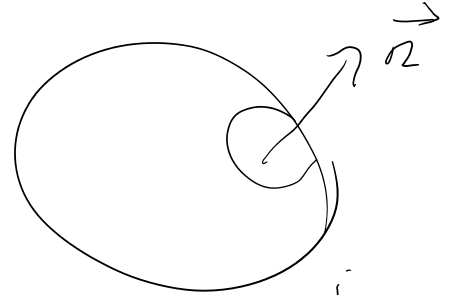
positi: $X = X^i e_i$

components
of vector X



Covectors
basis for that is
(e^1, e^2, e^3)

Covectors in
mechanics



$$n = n_i e^i$$

for example
Chapter 2

F

dx is displaced

$$dx = F dX$$

↙
↓
↘

vector
vector

$$dx^i = F^i_j dX^j$$

another example

stress tensor

chapter 3

$$t = \sigma n$$

↑ traction
↑ stress

vector
vector

$$t^i = \sigma^{ij} n_j$$

↑
↓ covector

Back to tensor

From this point on, we are not going to be careful with up and down indices (not a big deal for orthogonal coordinate systems)

Linear functions form a vector space themselves

if S, T, U are linear functions from space $U \rightarrow W$

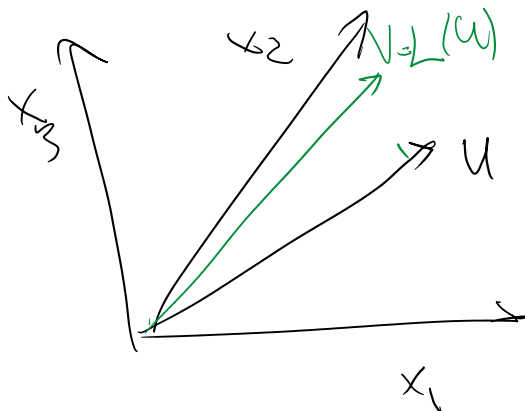
$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} S + T = T + S \\ S + (T + U) = (S + T) + U \\ S + 0 = S \end{array} \right.$$

$$(S + T)(u) := S(u) + T(u)$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (\lambda \mu) S = \lambda (\mu S) \\ \lambda (S + T) = \lambda S + \lambda T \\ (\lambda + \mu) S = \lambda S + \mu S \\ 1S = S \end{array} \right.$$

$$(\lambda S)(u) := \lambda S(u)$$

A linear operator from vectors to vectors



$$\begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} L_{11} & L_{12} & L_{13} \\ L_{21} & L_{22} & L_{23} \\ L_{31} & L_{32} & L_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

matrix
map from vectors to vectors

A second order tensor is basically a linear map that takes vector to vectors and in general higher order tensors map tensors to tensors

$$T = C \otimes \varepsilon$$

\downarrow \downarrow \downarrow
 2nd 4th 2nd
 order order order

↓
2nd
order
tensor

↓
4th
order
tensor

↓
2nd
order
tensor