



# Fourier transforms, Generalised functions and Greens functions

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# Motivation

– A big part of this course concerns waves, oscillators, damping/growth

- Plane waves:

$$f(\mathbf{x}, t) = \hat{f} \exp[i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x} - i\omega t]$$

- Example for a growing/damped wave:

$$f(\mathbf{x}, t) = \hat{f} \exp[i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x} - i\omega t \pm \gamma t]$$

- NOTE: growing and damped waves become infinity when  $t \rightarrow \pm\infty$

– Fourier transforms may be used to describing plane waves

- But it require special care (explained later)!

– For damped and growing waves Fourier transforms may not exist!

- Instead Laplace transforms can sometimes be used

– In this lecture we will...

- Study Fourier and Laplace transforms for waves and oscillators

# Outline

- Fourier transforms
  - Fourier's integral theorem
  - Truncations and generalised functions
  - Plemej formula
- Laplace transforms and complex frequencies
  - Theorem of residues
  - Causal functions
  - Relations between Laplace and Fourier transforms
- Greens functions
  - Poisson equation
  - d' Alemberts equation
  - Wave equations in temporal gauge
- Self-study: linear algebra and tensors

# What functions can be Fourier transformed?

- The Fourier integral theorem:
  - $f(t)$  is sectionally continuous over  $-\infty < t < \infty$
  - $f(t)$  is defined as  $f(t) = \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{2} [f(t + \delta) + f(t - \delta)]$
  - $f(t)$  is *amplitude integrable*, that is,  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(t)| dt < \infty$

Then the following identity holds:

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(z) e^{\pm iy(z-t)} dz dy$$

- For which of the following functions does the above theorem hold?

$$f(t) = 1$$

$$f(t) = \cos(t)$$

$$f(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & t < 0 \\ 1, & t \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$f(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & t \text{ is a rational number} \\ \exp(-t^2), & t \text{ is an irrational number} \end{cases}$$

# What functions can be Fourier transformed?

Many commonly used functions are not amplitude integrable, e.g.  $f(t)=\cos(t)$ ,  $f(t)=\exp(it)$  and  $f(t)=1$ .

**Solution:** Use approximations of  $\cos(t)$  that converge asymptotically to  $\cos(t)$  – details comes later on

- The asymptotic limits of functions like  $\cos(t)$  will be used to define generalised functions, e.g. Dirac  $\delta$ -function.

# Dirac $\delta$ -function

- Dirac's generalised function can be defined as:

$$\delta(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x \neq 0 \\ \infty, & x = 0 \end{cases} \quad \& \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x) dx = 1$$

Alternative definitions, as limits of well behaving functions, are shown shortly

- Important example:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(f(t)) dt = \sum_{i: f(t_i)=0} \frac{1}{f'(t_i)}$$

**Proof:** Whenever  $|f(t)| > 0$  the contribution is zero. For each  $t = t_i$  where  $f(t_i) = 0$ , perform the integral over a small region  $t_i - \varepsilon < t < t_i + \varepsilon$  (where  $\varepsilon$  is small such  $f(t) \approx (t - t_i) f'(t_i)$ ). Next, use variable substitution to perform the integration in  $x = f(t)$ , then  $dt = dx / f'(t_i)$  :

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(f(t)) dt = \sum_{i: f(t_i)=0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{f'(t_i)} \delta(x) dx = \sum_{i: f(t_i)=0} \frac{1}{f'(t_i)}$$

# Truncations and Generalised functions

- To approximate the Fourier transform of  $f(t)=1$ , use *truncation*.

**Truncation of a function  $f(t)$ :**

$$f_T(t) = \begin{cases} f(t), & |t| < T \\ 0 & , |t| > T \end{cases}, \text{ such that } f(t) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} f_T(t)$$

- Then for  $f(t)=1$

$$\mathbf{F}\{f_T(t)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_T(t)e^{-i\omega t} dt = \int_{-T}^T 1e^{-i\omega t} dt = \frac{\sin(\omega t / 2)}{\omega / 2}$$

- When  $T \rightarrow \infty$  then this function is zero everywhere except at  $\omega=0$  and its integral is  $2\pi$ , i.e.

$$\mathbf{F}\{1\} = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sin(\omega T / 2)}{\omega / 2} = 2\pi\delta(\omega)$$

- Note:  $\mathbf{F}\{1\}$  exists *only* as an asymptotic of an ordinary function, i.e. a *generalised function*.

## More generalised function

- An alternative to truncation is *exponential decay*

$$f_\eta(t) = f(t)e^{-\eta|t|}, \text{ such that } f(t) = \lim_{\eta \rightarrow 0} f_\eta(t)$$

- Three important examples:

- $f(t)=1$  (alternative definition of  $\delta$ -function)

$$\mathbf{F}\{f_\eta(t)\} = \frac{2\pi\eta}{\omega^2 + \eta^2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{F}\{1\} = \lim_{\eta \rightarrow 0} \frac{2\pi\eta}{\omega^2 + \eta^2} = 2\pi\delta(\omega)$$

- The sign function  $\text{sgn}(t)$ :  $\mathbf{F}\{\text{sgn}(t)\} = \lim_{\eta \rightarrow 0} \mathbf{F}\{e^{-\eta|t|} \text{sgn}(t)\} = \lim_{\eta \rightarrow 0} \frac{2i\omega}{\omega^2 + \eta^2} = 2i \wp \left[ \frac{1}{\omega} \right]$

The generalised function is the *Cauchy principal value function*:

$$\wp \frac{1}{\omega} := \lim_{\eta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\omega}{\omega^2 + \eta^2} = \begin{cases} 1/\omega, & \text{for } \omega \neq 0 \\ 0 & , \text{for } \omega = 0 \end{cases}$$

- Heaviside function  $f(t)=H(t)$ :  $\mathbf{F}\{H(t)\} = \lim_{\eta \rightarrow 0} \frac{i}{\omega + i\eta}$

This generalised function is often written as:  $\frac{1}{\omega + i0} := \lim_{\eta \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\omega + i\eta}$



# Plemelj formula

- Relation between  $H(t)$  and  $\text{sgn}(t)$ :

$$2H(t) = 1 + \text{sgn}(t)$$

with the Fourier transform:

$$\frac{1}{\omega + i0} = \wp \frac{1}{\omega} - i\pi\delta(\omega)$$

This is known as the *Plemelj formula*

- We will use the Plemelj formula when describing resonant wave damping (see later lectures)

## Driven oscillator with dissipation

- Example illustrating the Plemelj formula: a driven oscillator with eigenfrequency  $\Omega$ :

$$\frac{\partial^2 f(t)}{\partial t^2} + \Omega^2 f(t) = E(t)$$

with dissipation coefficient  $\nu$ : 
$$\frac{\partial^2 f(t)}{\partial t^2} + 2\nu \frac{\partial f(t)}{\partial t} + \Omega^2 f(t) = E(t)$$

- Fourier transform:  $(-\omega^2 - i2\nu\omega + \Omega^2)f(\omega) = E(\omega)$

- Solution: 
$$f(\omega) = \frac{E(\omega)}{-\omega^2 - i2\nu\omega + \Omega^2} = \frac{E(\omega)}{2\hat{\Omega}} \left[ \frac{1}{\omega - \hat{\Omega} + i\nu} - \frac{1}{\omega + \hat{\Omega} + i\nu} \right]$$

where  $\hat{\Omega} = \sqrt{\Omega^2 - \nu^2}$

- Take limit when damping  $\nu$  goes to zero:

$$f(\omega) = \frac{E(\omega)}{2\Omega} \left[ \frac{1}{\omega - \Omega + i0} - \frac{1}{\omega + \Omega + i0} \right]$$

use Plemelj formula

$$f(\omega) = \frac{E(\omega)}{2\Omega} \left[ \wp \left( \frac{1}{\omega - \Omega} \right) - \wp \left( \frac{1}{\omega + \Omega} \right) - i\pi\delta(\omega - \Omega) + i\pi\delta(\omega + \Omega) \right]$$

# Physics interpretation of Plemelj formula

- For oscillating systems:  
eigenfrequency  $\Omega$  will appear as *resonant denominator*

$$f(\omega) \sim \frac{1}{\omega \pm \Omega} \Leftrightarrow f(t) \sim e^{\pm i\Omega t}$$

Including infinitely small dissipation and applying Plemelj formula

$$\frac{1}{\omega - \Omega + i0} = \wp \frac{1}{\omega - \Omega} - i\pi\delta(\omega - \Omega)$$

- Later lectures on the dielectric response of plasma:  
When the dissipation goes to zero there is still a wave damping called *Landau damping*, a “collisionless” damping, which comes from the  $\delta$ -function

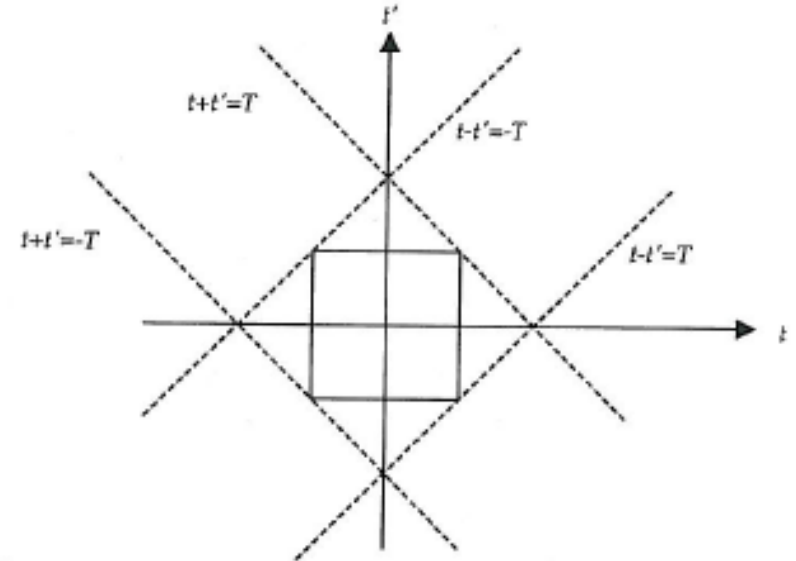
$$\text{"damping"} \sim i\pi\delta(\omega - \Omega)$$

# Square of $\delta$ -function



- To evaluate square of  $\delta$ -function

$$\begin{aligned} [2\pi\delta(\omega)]^2 &= \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} dt e^{i\omega t} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} dt' e^{i\omega t'} \\ &= \int_{-T}^T d(t-t') \int_{-T}^T d(t+t') e^{i\omega(t+t')} \\ &= T 2\pi\delta(\omega) \end{aligned}$$



- Thus also the integral of the  $\delta^2$  goes to infinity as  $T \rightarrow \infty$  !
- Luckily, in practice you usually find  $\delta^2$  in the form  $\delta^2 / T$ , which is integrable!

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# Laplace transforms and complex frequencies (Chapter 8)

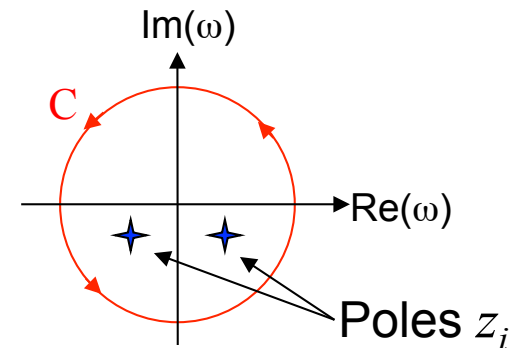
- Fourier transform is restricted to handling real frequencies, i.e. not optimal for damped or growing modes
  - For this purpose we need the Laplace transforms, which allow us to study complex frequencies.
- To understand better the relation between Fourier and Laplace transforms we will first study the **residual theorem** and see it applied to the Fourier transform of **causal functions**.

# The Theorem of Residues

- Expand  $f(z)$  around singularity,  $z=z_i$ :  $f(z) \approx \frac{R_i}{(z - z_i)} + c_0 + c_1(z - z_i) + \dots$ 
  - the point  $z=z_i$  is called a *pole*
  - the numerator  $R_i$  is the *residue*
- The integral along closed contour in the complex plane can be solved using *the theorem of residues*

$$\int_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum_i R_i$$

$$R_i = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_i} (z - z_i) f(z)$$



- where the sum is over all poles  $z_i$  inside the contour

- Example:**  $f(z)=1/z$  and  $C$  encircling a poles at  $z=0$

$$\int_C f(z) dz = \int_C \frac{1}{z} dz = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{re^{i\theta}} ire^{i\theta} d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi} i d\theta = 2\pi i$$

where  $z = re^{i\theta}$   $dz = ire^{i\theta} d\theta$

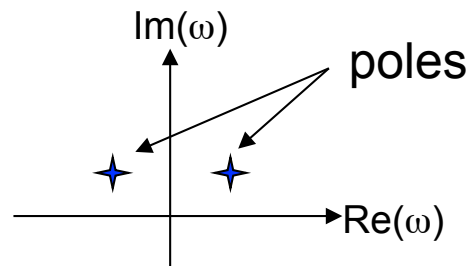
# Causal functions

- **Causal functions:**  
functions  $f_c$  that “start” at  $t=0$ , i.e.  $f_c(t)=0$  for  $t<0$ .

- **Example:** causal damped oscillation  $f_c(t) = e^{-\gamma t} \cos(\Omega t)$ , for  $t>0$

$$\mathbf{F}\{f_c(t)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-i\omega t} e^{-\gamma t} \cos(\Omega t) dt = \frac{i}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{\omega - \Omega - i\gamma/2} + \frac{1}{\omega + \Omega - i\gamma/2} \right]$$

- The two denominators are poles in the complex  $\omega$  plane
- Both poles are in the upper half of the complex plane  $\text{Im}(\omega)<0$



- Causal functions are suitable for Laplace transformations
  - to better understand the relation between Laplace and Fourier transforms;  
study the *inverse* Fourier transform of the causal damped oscillator



# Causal functions and contour integration

- Use Residual analysis for inverse Fourier transform of the causal damped oscillation

$$\mathbf{F}^{-1}\{f_c(t)\} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int d\omega e^{i\omega t} \left\{ \frac{i}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{\omega - \Omega - i\gamma/2} + \frac{1}{\omega + \Omega - i\gamma/2} \right] \right\}$$

- For  $t > 0$ :

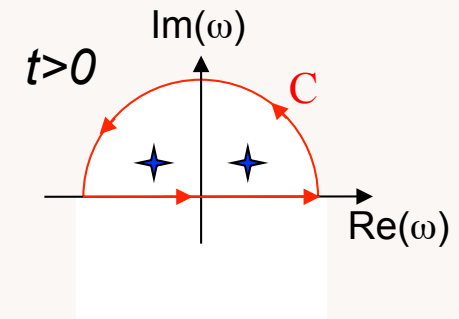
- $e^{i\omega t} \rightarrow 0$ , for  $\text{Im}(\omega) \rightarrow \infty$  &  $\lim_{|\omega| \rightarrow \infty} \tilde{f}_c(\omega) \sim 1/\omega \rightarrow 0$

close contour with half circle  $\text{Im}(\omega) > 0$

- Inverse Fourier transform is sum of *residues* from poles

$$f_c(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_C e^{i\omega t} \frac{i}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{\omega - \Omega + i\gamma/2} + \frac{1}{\omega + \Omega + i\gamma/2} \right] d\omega$$

$$= -\sum_i iR_i = -i\frac{i}{2} \left[ e^{(i\Omega - \gamma/2)t} + e^{(-i\Omega - \gamma/2)t} \right]$$

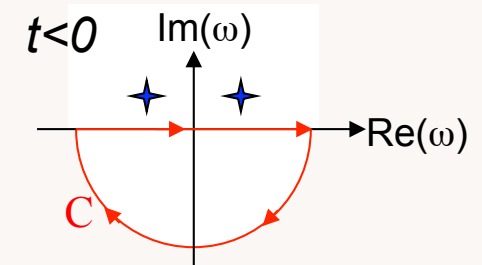


- For  $t < 0$ :

- $e^{i\omega t} \rightarrow 0$ , for  $\text{Im}(\omega) \rightarrow -\infty$ ;

close contour with half circle  $\text{Im}(\omega) < 0$

- No poles inside contour:  $f(t) = 0$  for  $t < 0$



# Laplace transform

- Laplace transform of function  $f(t)$  is

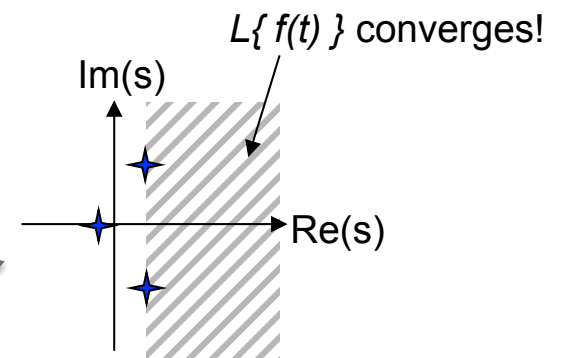
$$F(s) = L\{f(t)\} = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\varepsilon}^{\infty} e^{-st} f(t) dt$$

- Like a Fourier transform for a causal function, but  $i\omega \rightarrow s$ .
- Region of convergence:
  - Note: For  $\text{Re}(s) < 0$  the integral may not converge since the factor  $e^{-st}$  diverges
  - Consider function  $f(t) = e^{\nu t} \Rightarrow F(s) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{(\nu-s)t} dt$

$F(s)$  is integrable only if  $\text{Re}(s) > \text{Re}(\nu)$

Thus, the Laplace transform is only valid for  
 $\text{Re}(s) > \text{Re}(\nu)$

Note:  $f(t) = e^{\nu t}$  means pole at  $s = \nu$ ,  
i.e. all poles to the right of *region of convergence*



- Laplace transform allows studies of unstable modes;  $e^{\gamma t}$  !

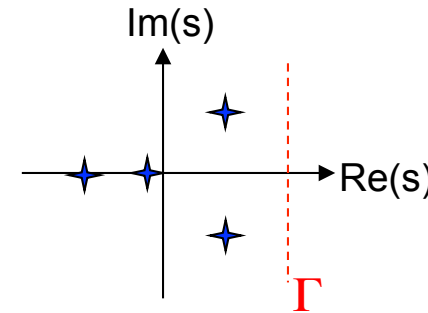
# Laplace transform

- Laplace transform

$$F(s) = L\{f(t)\} = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\varepsilon}^{\infty} e^{-st} f(t) dt$$

- For causal function the inverse transform is:

$$f(t) = L^{-1}\{F(s)\} = \int_{\Gamma-i\infty}^{\Gamma+i\infty} e^{st} F(s) dt$$



- Here the parameter  $\Gamma$  should be in the **region of convergence**, i.e. chosen such that all poles lie to the **right** of the integral contour  $\text{Re}(s)=\Gamma$ .

- Causality: since all poles lie right of integral contour,  $L^{-1}\{f(\omega)\}(t)=0$ , for  $t < 0$ .

- Proof: see inverse Fourier transform fo causal damped harmonic oscillator (Hint: close contour with semicircle  $\text{Re}(s) > 0$  )

- Thus, only for causal function is there an inverse  $f(t) = L^{-1}\{L\{f(t)\}\}$

- Again: Laplace transform allows studies of unstable modes;  $e^{\gamma t}$  !

# Complex frequencies

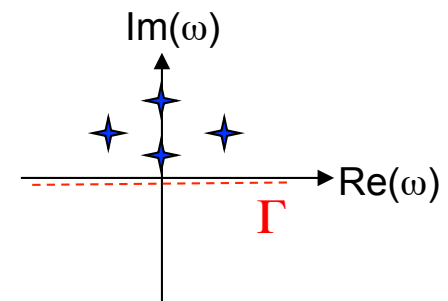
- Formulas for Laplace and Fourier transform very similar
  - Laplace transform for *complex* growth rate  $s$  / Fourier for *real* frequencies  $\omega$
  - For causal function, Laplace transform is more powerful
  - For causal function, Fourier transforms can often be treated like a Laplace transform
- Let  $s=i\omega$ , provide alternative formulation of the Laplace transform

$$\hat{F}(\omega) = L\{f(t)\} = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\varepsilon}^{+\infty} e^{-i\omega t} f(t) dt = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-i\omega t} f(t) dt$$

- Here  $\omega$  is a *complex frequency*
- The inverse transform for causal functions is

$$f(t) = L^{-1}\{\hat{F}(\omega)\} = \int_{-i\Gamma-\infty}^{-i\Gamma+\infty} e^{i\omega t} \hat{F}(\omega) dt$$

- for decaying modes all poles are above the real axis and  $\Gamma=0$ .
- Thus, the Laplace and Fourier transforms are the same for amplitude integrable causal function, but only the Laplace transform is defined for complex frequencies.



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- Greens functions
  - Poisson equation
  - d'Alembert's equation
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## Greens functions (Chapter 5)

- **Greens functions:** technique to solve *inhomogeneous* equations
- Linear differential equation for  $f$  given source  $S$ :

$$L(z)f(z) = S(z)$$

- Where the differential operator  $L$  is of the form:

$$L = A_n \frac{d^n}{dz^n} + A_{n-1} \frac{d^{n-1}}{dz^{n-1}} + \dots A_0$$

- Define Greens function  $G$  to solve:

$$L(z)G(z, z') = \delta(z - z')$$

- the response from a point source – e.g. the fields from a particle!

- **Ansatz:** given the Greens function, then there is a solution:

$$F(z) = \int G(z, z')S(z')dz'$$

- **Proof:**

$$L(z)F(z) = \int L(z)G(z, z')S(z')dz' = \int \delta(z - z')S(z')dz' = S(z)$$

# How to calculate Greens functions?

- For differential equations without explicit dependence on  $z$ , then

$$L(z) = L(z - z')$$

- we may rewrite  $G$  as:

$$G(z, z') \rightarrow G(z - z')$$

- Fourier transform from  $z-z'$  to  $k$ :

$$L(z - z')G(z - z') = \delta(z - z')$$



$$L(ik)G(k) = 1$$



$$G(k) = \frac{1}{L(ik)}$$

- Inverse Fourier transform

$$G(z - z') = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G(k) e^{-ik(z-z')} dk = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{L(ik)} e^{-ik(z-z')} dk$$

Solve integral!

## Example:

$$\left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} + \Omega^2 \right) G(t - t') = \delta(t - t')$$



$$(-\omega^2 + \Omega^2)G(\omega) = 2\pi$$



$$G(\omega) = -\frac{2\pi}{\omega^2 - \Omega^2}$$

# Greens function for the Poisson's Eq. for static fields

- Poisson's equation

$$\epsilon_0 \nabla^2 \phi(\mathbf{x}) = -\rho(\mathbf{x})$$

- Green's function  $-\epsilon_0 \nabla^2 G(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}') = \delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}')$

$$-|\mathbf{k}|^2 G(\mathbf{k}) = \frac{-1}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$G(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0 (2\pi)^3} \int \frac{1}{|\mathbf{k}|^2} e^{-i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{x}} d^3\mathbf{k}$$

$$G(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |\mathbf{x}|}$$

- Thus, we obtain the familiar solution; a sum over all sources

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int d^3\mathbf{x}' \frac{\rho(\mathbf{x}')}{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'|}$$



## Greens Function for d'Alembert's Eq. (time dependent field)

- D'Alembert's Eq. has a Green function  $G(t, \mathbf{x})$

$$\left( \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \nabla^2 \right) G(t - t', \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}') = \mu_0 \delta(t - t') \delta^3(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}')$$

- Fourier transform  $(t - t', \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}') \rightarrow (\omega, \mathbf{k})$  gives

$$\left( \frac{\omega^2}{c^2} - |\mathbf{k}|^2 \right) G(\omega, \mathbf{k}) = \mu_0$$

$$G(\omega, \mathbf{k}) = \frac{-\mu_0}{\omega^2/c^2 - |\mathbf{k}|^2}$$

$$G(t - t', \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}') = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'|} \delta(t - t' - |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'|/c)$$

- Information is propagating radially away from the source at the speed of light

# Greens Function for the Temporal Gauge

- Temporal gauge gives different form of wave equation

$$\frac{\omega^2}{c^2} \mathbf{A}(\omega, \mathbf{k}) + \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{A}(\omega, \mathbf{k}) = -\mu_0 \mathbf{J}(\omega, \mathbf{k})$$

$$\left[ \left( \frac{\omega^2}{c^2} - |\mathbf{k}|^2 \right) \delta_{ij} + k_i k_j \right] A_j(\omega, \mathbf{k}) = -\mu_0 J_i(\omega, \mathbf{k})$$

– Different response in *longitudinal* :  $\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{A}(\omega, \mathbf{k}) = -\frac{\mu_0 c^2}{\omega^2} \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{J}(\omega, \mathbf{k})$

- and *transverse* directions:

$$\mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{A}(\omega, \mathbf{k}) = -\frac{\mu_0}{\omega^2/c^2 - |\mathbf{k}|^2} \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{J}(\omega, \mathbf{k})$$

- To separate the longitudinal and transverse parts the Greens function become a 2-tensor  $G_{ij}$

$$\left[ \left( \frac{\omega^2}{c^2} - |\mathbf{k}|^2 \right) \delta_{ij} + k_i k_j \right] G_{jl}(\omega, \mathbf{k}) = -\mu_0 \delta_{il}$$

- Solution has poles  $\omega = \pm |\mathbf{k}| c$  :

$$G_{ij}(\omega, \mathbf{k}) = -\frac{-\mu_0}{\omega^2/c^2 - |\mathbf{k}|^2} \left( \delta_{ij} + \frac{\omega^2}{c^2} k_i k_j \right)$$

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# Self-study: Linear algebra

- The inner product

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix} = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 + a_3 b_3 = \sum_{j=1}^3 a_j b_j \equiv a_j b_j$$

- The repeated indexed are called “dummy” indexes

Einstein's summation convention:  
"always sum over repeated indexes"

- The outer product

$$\mathbf{b} \otimes \mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 b_1 & a_2 b_1 & a_3 b_1 \\ a_1 b_2 & a_2 b_2 & a_3 b_2 \\ a_1 b_3 & a_2 b_3 & a_3 b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Express  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  in a basis  $[\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_3]$

$$\mathbf{b} \otimes \mathbf{a} = \sum_{i=1}^3 a_i \mathbf{e}_i \otimes \sum_{j=1}^3 b_j \mathbf{e}_j = b_j a_i [\mathbf{e}_i \otimes \mathbf{e}_j] \quad \leftarrow \text{Note: 9 terms}$$

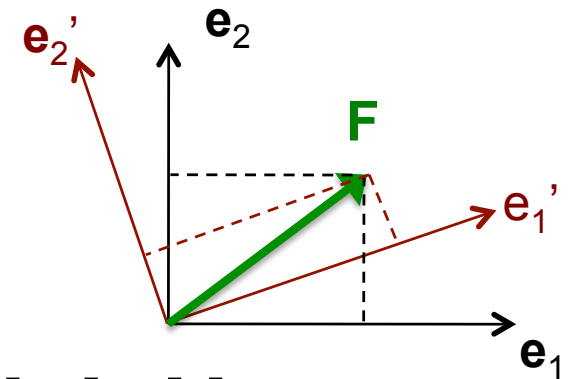
– e.g.

$$[\mathbf{e}_2 \otimes \mathbf{e}_3] = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Self-study: Vectors

- Vectors are defined by a **length** and a **direction**.
  - Note that the **direction is independent** of the coordinate system, thus the **components depend** on the coordinate system

$$\mathbf{F} = F_i \mathbf{e}_i = F'_i \mathbf{e}'_i$$



- thus in the (x, y) systems the components may be:

$$\begin{bmatrix} F_1 \\ F_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- then for 30 degrees between the coordinate systems (u, v) components are:

$$\begin{bmatrix} F'_1 \\ F'_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{1/2} \\ \sqrt{3/2} \end{bmatrix}$$

- The relation between vectors are given by transformation matrixes
  - if transformation is a rotation then transformation matrixes

$$F'_i = R_{ij} F_j \quad ; \quad [\mathbf{R}_{ij}] \equiv \begin{bmatrix} R_{11} & R_{12} \\ R_{21} & R_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\nu) & -\sin(\nu) \\ \sin(\nu) & \cos(\nu) \end{bmatrix}$$

# Self-study: Tensors

- Tensors are also **independent** of coordinate system
- Examples:
  - A **scalar** is a tensor of *order zero*.
  - A **vector** is a tensor of *order one*.
- Tensors of *order two* in 3d space has 3 directions and 3 magnitudes
  - For a given coordinate system a tensor  $\mathbf{T}$  of order two (or a 2-tensor) can be represented by a matrix

$$\mathbf{T} = T_{ij} \mathbf{e}_i \otimes \mathbf{e}_j \equiv T_{ij} \mathbf{e}_i \mathbf{e}_j ; \quad [T_{ij}] \equiv \begin{bmatrix} T_{11} & T_{12} & T_{13} \\ T_{21} & T_{22} & T_{23} \\ T_{31} & T_{32} & T_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Transformation of 2-tensors

- Transformation the basis:  $\mathbf{F} = F_i [R_{ik}] [R_{km}]^{-1} \mathbf{e}_m = F_k' [R_{km}]^{-1} \mathbf{e}_m \equiv F_k' \mathbf{e}_k'$

$$\mathbf{e}_i' \equiv [R_{ln}]^{-1} \mathbf{e}_j ; \quad \mathbf{T} = T_{ij} \mathbf{e}_i \mathbf{e}_j$$

$$= T_{ij} [R_{ik}] [R_{km}]^{-1} \mathbf{e}_m [R_{jl}] [R_{ln}]^{-1} \mathbf{e}_n$$



$$T_{ij}' = R_{ik} T_{ij} R_{jl}$$

$$= [R_{ik}] T_{ij} [R_{jl}] \mathbf{e}_m' \mathbf{e}_n' \equiv T_{ij}' \mathbf{e}_m' \mathbf{e}_n'$$