

Today's Outline

I Vectors & Dual Vectors

~~II Tensors~~

Lecture 22

April 10th, 2012

I Vectors & Dual Vectors ^{P1/6}

Recall our previous discussion of vectors:

- (i) How does a local observer talk about (i.e. measure) vectors?
- (ii) Where do vectors live?
- (iii) Does this mean that vectors based at different points of our space live in diff. tangent spaces?

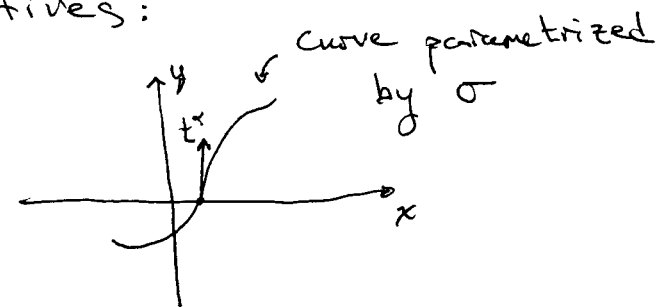
Last time we discussed (i) I relatively informally said: The key is to separate directions & magnitudes. Directions are accessible locally and then we impose linearity i.e.

$$\alpha(\underline{a} + \underline{b}) = \alpha \underline{a} + \alpha \underline{b}$$

to build up larger magnitude vectors.

We turn now to a careful definition of directions and locally.

The definition of directions is, at first, unexpected and later awesome; we use directional derivatives:



Consider $f(x^\mu(\sigma))$ then the derivative of f in the direction of the curve is:

$$\frac{df}{d\sigma} = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \left[\frac{f(x^\alpha(\sigma + \epsilon)) - f(x^\alpha(\sigma))}{\epsilon} \right] \leftarrow$$

$$= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^\alpha} \frac{dx^\alpha}{d\sigma}$$

The part

$$\frac{dx^\alpha}{d\sigma} = t^\alpha$$

is a vector tangent to the curve at σ .
Specifying the tangent vector specifies the directional derivative,

$$\frac{d}{d\sigma} = t^\alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\alpha} = \frac{dx^\alpha}{d\sigma} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\alpha}$$

measures changes in the x^1 -direction and indeed

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^1} = (0, 1, 0, 0)^\alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\alpha}$$

$$= (\underline{e}_1)^\alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\alpha}$$

So this is correct! ~~Also~~

Q: More generally what derivative is associated to \underline{e}_α ? Same idea, it's $\frac{\partial}{\partial x^\alpha}$, which we write also as,

$$\underline{e}_\alpha = (\underline{e}_\alpha)^\beta \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\beta} = \delta_\alpha^\beta \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\beta} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\alpha}!$$

and visa versa, as we've seen in the definition of $\frac{df}{d\sigma}$ above. This also explains what I meant by locally — the whole ~~the~~ construction takes place in the limit $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$. P2/6

Q: What derivative is associated with $\hat{x} = \underline{e}_\alpha$?

The derivative $\frac{\partial}{\partial x^\alpha} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^1}$ is a natural guess because it

Q: what does a general vector \underline{a} become as a derivative?

From the last ~~part~~ question

$$\underline{a} = a^\alpha \underline{e}_\alpha = a^\alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\alpha}.$$

The tangent space is the linear space of directional derivatives.

A recurring question for us has been "how do objects change when we change coordinates?"

Transformation of vectors:

$$\underline{a} = a^\alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\alpha} = a^\alpha \frac{\partial x'^\beta}{\partial x^\alpha} \frac{\partial}{\partial x'^\beta}$$

$$\equiv a'^\beta \frac{\partial}{\partial x'^\beta}$$

So the components in the new coordinates are,

$$a'^\beta = \frac{\partial x'^\beta}{\partial x^\alpha} a^\alpha$$

Similarly

$$a'^\alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial x'^\alpha} = a'^\alpha \frac{\partial x^\beta}{\partial x'^\alpha} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\beta} \equiv a^\beta \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\beta}$$

is a tight restriction, most general such map is

$$\omega(\underline{a}) = \omega_\alpha a^\alpha$$

with numbers ω_α , called components.

Physics example: Momentum eats velocity and returns twice the kinetic energy:

$$P(\underline{v}) = \cancel{p} = \cancel{M v^\alpha v^\alpha} = M v_i v^i = 2 \text{ K.E.}$$

Notice that momentum is naturally dual

so,
$$a^\beta = \frac{\partial x^\beta}{\partial x'^\alpha} a^\alpha$$

Dual Vectors

"Sophisticated" definition: "Dual vectors eat vectors and return numbers." or "A dual vector $\underline{\omega}$ is a linear map from vectors to real numbers."

Linearity, i.e. $\omega(\alpha \underline{a} + \beta \underline{b}) = \alpha \omega(\underline{a}) + \beta \omega(\underline{b})$,

from its def.:

$$P_i = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}^i} \leftarrow \text{lower index.}$$

Math example: The Gradient of $f_{\underline{x}}$ is a dual vector because,

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x^\alpha} t^\alpha = \text{number,}$$

it takes \underline{t} to a number, we often write it as

$$\nabla_{\underline{m}} f$$

Dual vectors are linear maps

and so we can also introduce a basis for dual vectors, call it $\{e^{\alpha}\}$ $\alpha=0,1,2,3$. This allows us to decompose,

$$\underline{\omega} = \omega_{\alpha} e^{\alpha}$$

The dual basis vectors e^{α} are also maps, they're defined by,

$$e^{\alpha}(e_{\beta}) \equiv \delta^{\alpha}_{\beta} \equiv \begin{cases} 1 & \alpha = \beta \\ 0 & \alpha \neq \beta \end{cases}$$

Consistency check:

But this means \underline{a} can be thought of as a dual vector! How?

$$a(\underline{b}) = a_{\alpha} b^{\alpha} = \underline{a} \cdot \underline{b} = g_{\beta\alpha} a^{\beta} b^{\alpha} = (g_{\alpha\beta} a^{\beta}) b^{\alpha}$$

So,
$$a_{\alpha} \equiv g_{\alpha\beta} a^{\beta}$$

Any vector (e.g. \underline{a}) can be converted into a dual vector by using the

$$\begin{aligned} \omega(\underline{a}) &= \omega_{\alpha} e^{\alpha}(a^{\beta} e_{\beta}) \\ &= \omega_{\alpha} a^{\beta} e^{\alpha}(e_{\beta}) \\ &= \omega_{\alpha} a^{\beta} \delta^{\alpha}_{\beta} = \omega_{\alpha} a^{\alpha} \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

The secret of the metric revealed:

We already have a linear map of vectors defined by \underline{a}
 $a(\underline{b}) = \underline{a} \cdot \underline{b}$

metric to lower an index.

Recall our definition of the inverse metric

$$g^{\alpha\gamma} g_{\gamma\beta} = \delta^{\alpha}_{\beta}$$

We can use the ~~dual~~ inverse metric to raise indices, i.e. Convert dual vectors to vectors:

$$a^{\alpha} = g^{\alpha\beta} a_{\beta}$$

Because of these conversion processes physicists often identify vectors and dual vectors and just speak about the ^(upper) Contra- and ^(lower) Co-variant components of a "vector" (co is down low).

Q: If a vector \underline{a} has orthonormal components $a^{\hat{\alpha}}$ what are its lower components? (in same basis).

When we first encountered orthonormal bases, the conversion btwn bases seemed obscure. Now, it's much more obvious,

$$a^{\alpha} = \underline{e}^{\alpha} \cdot \underline{a}, \quad a_{\alpha} = \underline{e}_{\alpha} \cdot \underline{a}$$

E.g.

$$a^{\hat{\alpha}} = \underline{e}^{\hat{\alpha}} \cdot \underline{a} = \underline{e}^{\hat{\alpha}} \cdot (a^{\beta} \underline{e}_{\beta})$$

$$= a^{\beta} \underline{e}^{\hat{\alpha}} \cdot \underline{e}_{\beta} = a^{\beta} (\underline{e}^{\hat{\alpha}})_{\beta}$$

A: $a_{\hat{\alpha}} = \eta_{\hat{\alpha}\hat{\beta}} a^{\hat{\beta}}$

$\Rightarrow a_{\hat{0}} = -a^{\hat{0}}, \quad a_{\hat{1}} = a^{\hat{1}}$ etc

Q: How many ways can we write $\underline{a} \cdot \underline{b}$?

$$\underline{a} \cdot \underline{b} = g_{\alpha\beta} a^{\alpha} b^{\beta} = a_{\beta} b^{\beta} = a^{\alpha} b_{\alpha}$$

$$= g^{\alpha\beta} a_{\alpha} b_{\beta}$$

Another nice Example: Normal Vectors

Suppose a 3-surface is defined by

$$f(x^{\gamma}) = \text{const.}$$

The gradient of f is normal to this surface,

$$n_{\alpha} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^{\alpha}}$$

This is because, a small displacement $\underline{\delta x}$ in the surface doesn't change the value of f ,

$$\delta f = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x^a} \right) \delta x^a = 0$$

But then,

$$\underline{n}_a \delta x^a = \underline{n} \cdot \underline{\delta x} = 0$$

So \underline{n} is normal to the surface.

E.g. A sphere $\overset{f(x,y,z)}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} = \text{const.} = R^2$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i} = (2x, 2y, 2z)$$

which is indeed a radial vector. ✓