(a) We will use the Einstein summation convention

$$V = V^{1} e_{1} + V^{2} e_{2} + V^{3} e_{3} = V^{i} e_{i}$$
(B.1)

Here repeated indices are implicitly summed from i = 1...3, where 1, 2, 3 = x, y, z and e_1, e_2, e_3 are the unit vectors in the x, y, z directions.

(b) Under a rotation of coordinates the coordinates change in the following way

$$x^i = R^i_{\ i} x^j \,. \tag{B.2}$$

where R we think of as a rotation matrix, where i labels the rows of R and j labels the columns of R.

(c) Scalars, vectors and tensors are defined by how there components transform

$$S \to \underline{S} = S \,, \tag{B.3}$$

$$V^i \to \underline{V}^i = R^i_{\ i} V^j \,, \tag{B.4}$$

$$T^{ij} \to \underline{T}^{ij} = R^i_{\ell} R^j_m T^{\ell m} \,. \tag{B.5}$$

We think of upper indices (contravariant indices) as row labels, and lower indices (covariant indices) as column labels. Thus V^i is thought of as column vector

$$V^i \leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} V^1 \\ V^2 \\ V^3 \end{pmatrix} \tag{B.6}$$

labelled by V^1 , V^2 , V^3 – the first row entry, the second row entry, the third row entry. Contravariant means "opposite to coordinate vectors" e_i (see next item)

(d) Under a rotation of coordinates the basis vectors also transform with

$$\underline{\boldsymbol{e}}_i \to \underline{\boldsymbol{e}}_i (R^{-1})^i_{\ j} \tag{B.7}$$

This transformation rule is how the lower (or covariant) vectors transform. The covariant components of a vector V_i transform as

$$(\underline{V}_1 \underline{V}_2 \underline{V}_3) = (V_1 V_2 V_3) \left(R^{-1} \right).$$
 (B.8)

covariant means "the same as coordinate vectors", *i.e.* with R^{-1} but as a row.

- (e) Since $R^{-1} = R^T$ there is no need to distinguish covariant and contravariant indices for rotations. This is not the case for more general groups.
- (f) With this notation the vectors and tensors (which are physical objects)

$$\underline{\boldsymbol{V}} = \underline{\boldsymbol{V}}^i \underline{\boldsymbol{e}}_i \quad = \quad \boldsymbol{V}^i \boldsymbol{e}_i = \boldsymbol{V} \tag{B.9}$$

$$\underline{\boldsymbol{T}} = \underline{T}^{ij} \underline{\boldsymbol{e}}_i \underline{\boldsymbol{e}}_j \quad = \quad T^{ij} \boldsymbol{e}_i \boldsymbol{e}_j = \boldsymbol{T}$$
(B.10)

are invariant under rotations, but the components and basis vectors change.

(g) Vector and tensor components can be raised and lowered with δ^{ij} which forms the identity matrix,

$$\delta^{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 1 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \tag{B.11}$$

i.e.

$$V^i = \delta^{ij} V_j \tag{B.12}$$

We note various trivia

$$\delta^{i}_{\ i} = 3 \qquad \delta_{ij}\delta^{ij} = 3 \qquad \delta_{ij}\delta^{jk} = \delta^{k}_{i} \tag{B.13}$$

(h) The epsilon tensor ϵ^{ijk} is

$$\epsilon^{ijk} = \epsilon_{ijk} = \begin{cases} \pm 1 & \text{for } i, j, k \text{ an even/odd permutation of } 1, 2, 3\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(B.14)

For example, $\epsilon^{123} = \epsilon^{312} = \epsilon^{231} = 1 = \epsilon_{123} = 1$ while $\epsilon^{213} = -\epsilon^{123} = -1$.

i) The epsilon tensor is useful for simplifying cross products

$$(\boldsymbol{a} \times \boldsymbol{b})^i = \epsilon^{ijk} a_j b_k \tag{B.15}$$

ii) A useful identity is

$$\epsilon^{ijk}\epsilon^{lmk} = \delta^{il}\delta^{jm} - \delta^{im}\delta^{jl} \tag{B.16}$$

which can be used to deduce the "b(ac) - (ab)c" rule for cross products

$$\boldsymbol{a} \times (\boldsymbol{b} \times \boldsymbol{c}) = \boldsymbol{b}(\boldsymbol{a} \cdot \boldsymbol{c}) - (\boldsymbol{a} \cdot \boldsymbol{b})\boldsymbol{c}$$
(B.17)

iii) The "b(ac) - (ab)c" rule arises a lot in this course and is essential to deriving the wave equation

$$\boldsymbol{\nabla} \times (\boldsymbol{\nabla} \times \boldsymbol{B}) = \boldsymbol{\nabla} (\boldsymbol{\nabla} \cdot \boldsymbol{B}) - \nabla^2 \boldsymbol{B}$$
(B.18)

and to identifying the transverse pieces of a vector. For instance the component of a vector v, transverse to a unit vector n, is

$$-\boldsymbol{n} \times (\boldsymbol{n} \times \boldsymbol{v}) = \boldsymbol{v}_T = -(\boldsymbol{n} \cdot \boldsymbol{v})\boldsymbol{n} + \boldsymbol{v}$$
(B.19)

(i) Derivatives work the same way. $\partial_i \equiv \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}$. With this notation we have

$$\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{E} = \partial_i E^i \tag{B.20}$$

$$(\nabla \times \boldsymbol{E})^i = \epsilon^{ijk} \partial_j E_k \tag{B.21}$$

$$(\nabla\phi)_i = \partial_i \phi \tag{B.22}$$

$$(\nabla^2 \phi) = \partial_i \partial^i \phi \tag{B.23}$$

(B.24)

and expressions like

$$\partial_i x^j = \delta_i^j \qquad \partial_i x^i = d = 3 \tag{B.25}$$

(j) A general second rank tensor T^{ij} is decomposed into its irreducible components as

$$T^{ij} = \mathring{T}^{ij}_S + \epsilon^{ijk} V_k + \frac{1}{3} T^\ell_\ell \delta^{ij}$$
(B.26)

where $\mathring{T}_{S}^{ij} = \frac{1}{2}(T^{ij} + T^{ji} - \frac{2}{3}T_{\ell}^{\ell}\delta^{ij})$ is a symmetric-traceless component of T^{ij} and V_k is a vector associated with the antisymmetric part of T^{ij} , $V_k = \frac{1}{2}\epsilon_{k\ell m}T^{\ell m}$.

(k) We will discussed how to reduce a tensor integral into a set of scalar integrals later in this course, e.g.

$$\int d^3 \boldsymbol{x} \, x^i x^j x^\ell x^m \, f(x) = \left[\frac{4\pi}{15} \int_0^\infty dx \, x^6 f(x)\right] \left(\delta^{ij} \delta^{\ell m} + \delta^{i\ell} \delta^{jm} + \delta^{im} \delta^{j\ell}\right) \tag{B.27}$$

Here $x = |\mathbf{x}|$ denotes the norm of the vector \mathbf{x} . Thus, f(x) denotes a function of the radius, $f(\sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2})$.