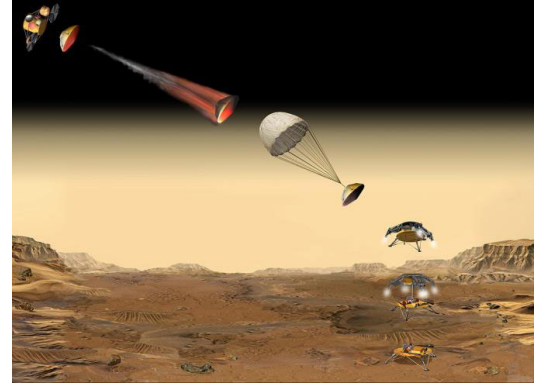


Chapter 2

Vectors



Courtesy NASA/JPL-Caltech

Summary (see examples in Hw 1, 2, 3)

In 1881-1903, Gibbs developed **vectors** as a useful combination of magnitude and direction. Vectors are an important **geometrical tool** [useful for surveying, motion analysis, lasers, optics, computer graphics, animation, CAD/CAE (computer aided drawing/engineering), FEA(finite element analysis), ...].

Symbol	Description	Details
$\vec{0}$, \hat{u}	Zero vector and unit vector.	Sections 2.3, 2.4
$+$ $-$ $*$	Vector addition, negation, subtraction, and multiplication/division with a scalar.	Sections 2.6 - 2.8
\cdot \times	Vector dot product and cross product.	Sections 2.9, 2.10
$\frac{F}{dt}$	Vector differentiation.	Chapters 6, 7



2.1 Examples of scalars, vectors, and dyadics

- A **scalar** is a non-directional quantity (e.g., a real number). Examples include:

time	density	volume	mass	potential energy	work
distance	speed	angle	weight	kinetic energy	temperature

- A **vector** is a quantity that has magnitude and **one** associated direction. For example, a **velocity vector** has both speed (how fast something moves) and direction (which way it is going). A **force vector** has magnitude (how hard something is pushed) and direction (which way it is shoved). Examples include:

force	velocity	acceleration	linear momentum
torque	angular velocity	angular acceleration	angular momentum

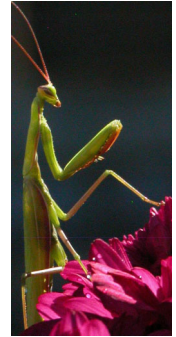
- A **dyad** is a quantity with magnitude and **two** associated directions. For example, **stress** associates with area and force (both regarded as vectors). A **dyadic** is the **sum of dyads**. For example, an **inertia dyadic** (Chapter 14) is the sum of dyads associated with moments and products of inertia.

2.2 Definition of a vector

A *vector* is defined as a quantity having *magnitude* and *direction*.^a

Vectors are represented pictorially with straight or curved arrows (examples below).

Vectors are typeset with an arrow and bold-faced font, e.g., \vec{v} denotes a vector.



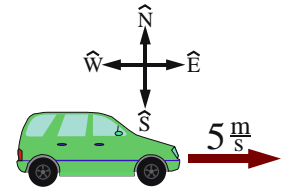
Courtesy Bro. Claude Rheaume LaSalette.

Certain vectors have additional special properties. For example, a *position vector* \vec{r} is associated with two points and has units of length (e.g., meters).

^aA vector's *magnitude* is a real non-negative number. A vector's *direction* can be resolved into *orientation* and *sense*. For example, a highway has an orientation (e.g., east-west) and a vehicle traveling east has a sense. Knowing both the orientation of a line and the sense on the line gives direction. Changing a vector's orientation or sense changes its direction.

Example of a vector: Consider the statement “the car is moving East at $5 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}}$ ”.

It is convenient to represent the car's speed and direction with the velocity vector $\vec{v} = 5 \hat{\text{East}}$ (a hat designates the direction $\hat{\text{East}}$ as a *unit vector*). The car's speed is always a real non-negative number equal to $|\vec{v}|$ (the *magnitude* of \vec{v}). The combination of *magnitude* and *direction* is a *vector*.



The velocity of a car with speed $5 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}}$ moving West can also be written as $\vec{v} = -5 \hat{\text{East}}$. The negative sign in $-5 \hat{\text{East}}$ is associated with the vector's direction whereas the magnitude of \vec{v} is $|\vec{v}| = |-5 \hat{\text{East}}| = 5 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}}$.

Note: When \vec{v} is written as $\vec{v} = \hat{x} \hat{\text{East}}$ where \hat{x} is a scalar that can be **positive** or **zero** or **negative**, \hat{x} is called the $\hat{\text{East}}$ *measure* of the vector \vec{v} . The magnitude of \vec{v} is $|\vec{v}| = \text{abs}(\hat{x})$ is inherently non-negative.

2.3 Zero vector $\vec{0}$, a vector whose magnitude is zero

Addition with a zero vector:	$\text{any } \vec{\text{vector}} + \vec{0} = \text{any } \vec{\text{vector}}$	
Dot product with a zero vector:	$\text{any } \vec{\text{vector}} \cdot \vec{0} = 0$ (2)	$\vec{0}$ is <i>perpendicular</i> to all vectors
Cross product with a zero vector:	$\text{any } \vec{\text{vector}} \times \vec{0} = \vec{0}$ (5)	$\vec{0}$ is <i>parallel</i> to all vectors
Derivative of the <i>zero vector</i> :	$\frac{F d \vec{0}}{dt} = \vec{0}$	F is any reference frame

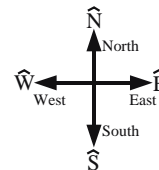
Vectors \vec{a} and \vec{b} are said to be “*perpendicular*” if $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 0$ whereas \vec{a} and \vec{b} are “*parallel*” if $\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = \vec{0}$.

Note: Some say \vec{a} and \vec{b} are “*parallel*” only if \vec{a} and \vec{b} have the same direction and “*anti-parallel*” if \vec{a} and \vec{b} have opposite directions.¹

2.4 Unit \hat{v} vectors, a vector whose magnitude is 1 (typeset with a special hat)

Unit vectors are “*sign posts*” (e.g., unit vectors $\hat{\text{N}}, \hat{\text{S}}, \hat{\text{W}}, \hat{\text{E}}$ for local Earth directions) chosen to simplify communication and calculations. Other useful “sign posts” are:

- Unit vector directed from one point to another point
- Unit vector directed locally vertical
- Unit vector tangent to a curve or perpendicular to a surface



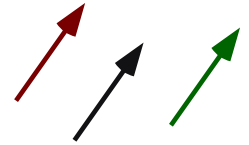
¹The direction of a *zero vector* $\vec{0}$ is arbitrary and may be regarded as having **any** direction so that $\vec{0}$ is *parallel* to all vectors, $\vec{0}$ is *perpendicular* to all vectors, all zero vectors are equal, and one may use the definite pronoun “the” instead of the indefinite “a” e.g., “the zero vector”. It is improper to say the *zero vector* has no direction as a vector is **defined** to have both magnitude and direction. It is also improper to say a *zero vector* has all directions as a vector is defined to have a magnitude and **a** direction.

A unit vector can be defined so it has the same direction as an arbitrary non-zero vector \vec{v} by dividing \vec{v} by $|\vec{v}|$ (the magnitude of \vec{v}). To avoid divide-by-zero problems during numerical computation, approximate the unit vector with a “small” positive real number ϵ in the denominator.

$$\text{unit}\hat{\mathbf{v}}\text{ector} = \frac{\vec{v}}{|\vec{v}|} \approx \frac{\vec{v}}{|\vec{v}| + \epsilon} \quad (1)$$

2.5 Equal vectors (=) vectors with the same magnitude and direction

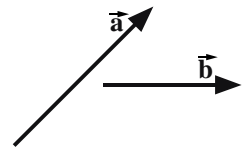
Shown right are three *equal vectors*. Although each has a different location, the vectors are equal because they have the same magnitude and direction.



Some vectors have additional properties. For example, a position vector is associated with two points. Two position vectors are *equal position vectors* when they have the same magnitude, same direction, and are associated with the same points. Two force vectors are *equal force vectors* when they have the same magnitude, direction, and point of application.

2.6 Vector addition (+)

As graphically shown right, adding two vectors $\vec{a} + \vec{b}$ produces a vector. First, vector \vec{b} is translated^a so its tail is at the tip of \vec{a} . Next, the vector $\vec{a} + \vec{b}$ is drawn from the tail of \vec{a} to the tip of the translated \vec{b} .

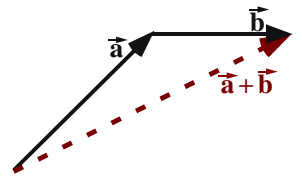


Properties of vector addition

Commutative property: $\vec{a} + \vec{b} = \vec{b} + \vec{a}$

Associative property: $(\vec{a} + \vec{b}) + \vec{c} = \vec{a} + (\vec{b} + \vec{c}) = \vec{a} + \vec{b} + \vec{c}$

Addition of zero vector: $\vec{a} + \vec{0} = \vec{a}$

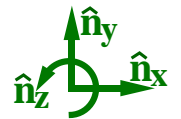


^aTranslating \vec{b} does *not* change the magnitude or direction of \vec{b} , and so produces an equal \vec{b} . Note: It is nonsensical to add vectors with different units, e.g., do not add a position vector with units of meters with a force vector with units of Newtons.

Example: Vector addition (+) algebra

Shown to the right is an example of how to add vector \vec{w} to vector \vec{v} , each which is expressed in terms of orthogonal unit vectors $\hat{n}_x, \hat{n}_y, \hat{n}_z$.

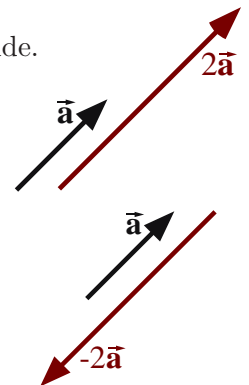
$$\begin{aligned} \vec{v} &= 7\hat{n}_x + 5\hat{n}_y + 4\hat{n}_z \\ + \vec{w} &= 2\hat{n}_x + 3\hat{n}_y + 2\hat{n}_z \\ \hline \vec{v} + \vec{w} &= 9\hat{n}_x + 8\hat{n}_y + 6\hat{n}_z \end{aligned}$$



$\vec{v} = \underbrace{x\hat{n}_x}_{\text{vector component}} + \underbrace{y\hat{n}_y}_{\text{vector component}}$	Special names for parts of the generic vector \vec{v} .	x is called the \hat{n}_x <i>scalar component (measure)</i> of \vec{v} . y is called the \hat{n}_y <i>scalar component (measure)</i> of \vec{v} .
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2.7 Vector multiplied or divided by a scalar (* or /)

- Multiplying a vector by a **positive** number (other than 1) changes the vector’s magnitude.
- Multiplying a vector by a **negative** number changes the vector’s magnitude **and** reverses the *sense* of the vector.
- Dividing a vector \vec{a} by a scalar s is defined as $\frac{\vec{a}}{s} \triangleq \frac{1}{s} * \vec{a}$.



Properties of multiplication of a vector by a scalar s_1 or s_2

Commutative property: $s_1 \vec{a} = \vec{a} s_1$

Associative property: $s_1 (s_2 \vec{a}) = (s_1 s_2) \vec{a} = s_2 (s_1 \vec{a}) = s_1 s_2 \vec{a}$

Distributive property: $(s_1 + s_2) \vec{a} = s_1 \vec{a} + s_2 \vec{a}$ $s_1 (\vec{a} + \vec{b}) = s_1 \vec{a} + s_1 \vec{b}$

Multiplication by zero: $0 * \vec{a} = \vec{0}$

Example: Vector scalar multiplication and division (* and /)

Given: $\vec{v} = 7\hat{n}_x + 5\hat{n}_y + 4\hat{n}_z$ and $\frac{\vec{v}}{-2} = -3.5\hat{n}_x - 2.5\hat{n}_y - 2\hat{n}_z$
 then: $5\vec{v} = 35\hat{n}_x + 25\hat{n}_y + 20\hat{n}_z$



2.8 Vector negation and subtraction (-)

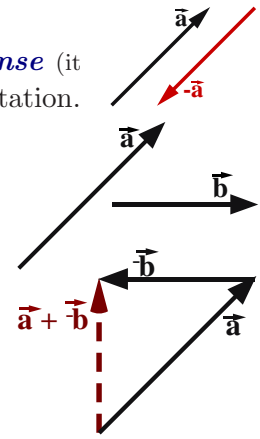
Negation: As shown right, negating a vector (multiplying by -1) reverses the vector's *sense* (it points in the opposite direction). Negation does not change the vector's magnitude or orientation.

Subtraction: As the drawing to the right shows, subtracting a vector \vec{b} from a vector \vec{a} is simply addition and negation.^a

$$\vec{a} - \vec{b} \triangleq \vec{a} + -\vec{b}$$

After negating vector \vec{b} , it is translated so the tail of $-\vec{b}$ is at the tip of \vec{a} . Next, vector $\vec{a} + -\vec{b}$ is drawn from the tail of \vec{a} to the tip of the translated $-\vec{b}$.

^aIn most/all mathematics, subtraction is defined as negation and addition.



Example: Vector subtraction (-)

Shown right is an example of how to subtract vector \vec{w} from vector \vec{v} , when each is expressed in terms of orthogonal unit vectors \hat{n}_x , \hat{n}_y , \hat{n}_z .

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{v} &= 7\hat{n}_x + 5\hat{n}_y + 4\hat{n}_z \\ -\vec{w} &= 2\hat{n}_x + 3\hat{n}_y + 2\hat{n}_z \\ \hline \vec{v} - \vec{w} &= 5\hat{n}_x + 2\hat{n}_y + 2\hat{n}_z \end{aligned}$$



2.9 Vector dot product (·)

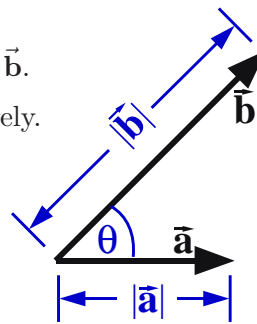
Equation (2) defines the *dot product* of vectors \vec{a} and \vec{b} .

- $|\vec{a}|$ and $|\vec{b}|$ are the magnitudes of \vec{a} and \vec{b} , respectively.
- θ is the smallest angle between \vec{a} and \vec{b} ($0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$).

Equation (3) is a rearrangement of equation (2) that is useful for calculating the angle θ between two vectors.

Note: \vec{a} and \vec{b} are “*perpendicular*” when $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 0$.

Note: Dot-products encapsulate the *law of cosines*.



$$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} \triangleq |\vec{a}| |\vec{b}| \cos(\theta) \quad (2)$$

$$\cos(\theta) \stackrel{(2)}{=} \frac{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}}{|\vec{a}| |\vec{b}|} \quad (3)$$

Use **acos** to calculate θ .

Equation (2) shows $\vec{v} \cdot \vec{v} = |\vec{v}|^2$. Hence, the dot product can calculate a vector's *magnitude* as shown for $|\vec{v}|$ in equation (4).

Equation (4) also defines *vector exponentiation* \vec{v}^n (vector \vec{v} raised to scalar power n) as a non-negative scalar.

Example: Kinetic energy $K = \frac{1}{2} m \vec{v}^2 \stackrel{(4)}{=} \frac{1}{2} m \vec{v} \cdot \vec{v}$

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{v}^2 &\triangleq |\vec{v}|^2 = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{v} \\ |\vec{v}| &= +\sqrt{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{v}} \\ \vec{v}^n &\triangleq |\vec{v}|^n = +(\vec{v} \cdot \vec{v})^{\frac{n}{2}} \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

2.9.1 Properties of the dot-product (·)

Dot product with a zero vector	$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{0} = 0$
Dot product of <i>perpendicular</i> vectors	$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 0$ if $\vec{a} \perp \vec{b}$
Dot product of parallel vectors	$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \pm \vec{a} \vec{b} $ if $\vec{a} \parallel \vec{b}$
Dot product with vectors scaled by s_1 and s_2	$s_1 \vec{a} \cdot s_2 \vec{b} = s_1 s_2 (\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b})$
Commutative property	$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \vec{b} \cdot \vec{a}$
Distributive property	$\vec{a} \cdot (\vec{b} + \vec{c}) = \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} + \vec{a} \cdot \vec{c}$
Distributive property	$(\vec{a} + \vec{b}) \cdot (\vec{c} + \vec{d}) = \vec{a} \cdot \vec{c} + \vec{a} \cdot \vec{d} + \vec{b} \cdot \vec{c} + \vec{b} \cdot \vec{d}$

Note: The distributive property for dot-products and cross-products is proved in [33, pgs. 23-24, 32-34].



2.9.2 Uses for the dot-product (\cdot)

- Calculating an *angle* between two vectors [see equation (3) and example in Section 3.2]
- Determining when two vectors are *perpendicular*, e.g., $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 0$.
- Calculating a vector's *magnitude* [see equation (4) and *distance* examples in Sections 3.1 and 3.2].
- Changing a *vector equation* into a *scalar equation* (see Hw 2.29).

- Calculating a *unit vector* in the direction of a vector \vec{v} [from equation (1)]

$$\text{unit Vector} \stackrel{(1)}{=} \frac{\vec{v}}{|\vec{v}|}$$

- *Projection* of a vector \vec{v} in the direction of \vec{b} , defined as:
See Section 4.2 for *projections, measures, coefficients, components*.

$$\vec{v} \cdot \frac{\vec{b}}{|\vec{b}|}$$

2.9.3 Special case: Dot-products with orthogonal unit vectors

When $\hat{n}_x, \hat{n}_y, \hat{n}_z$ are **orthogonal unit** vectors, it can be shown (see Hw 2.4)

$$(a_x \hat{n}_x + a_y \hat{n}_y + a_z \hat{n}_z) \cdot (b_x \hat{n}_x + b_y \hat{n}_y + b_z \hat{n}_z) = a_x b_x + a_y b_y + a_z b_z$$



2.9.4 Examples: Vector dot-products (\cdot)

Shown below is how to use dot-products when vectors \vec{v} and \vec{w} are expressed in terms of orthogonal unit vectors $\hat{n}_x, \hat{n}_y, \hat{n}_z$.

$$\vec{v} = 7\hat{n}_x + 5\hat{n}_y + 4\hat{n}_z$$

$$\vec{w} = 2\hat{n}_x + 3\hat{n}_y + 2\hat{n}_z$$

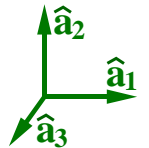


\hat{n}_x measure of \vec{v}	$\vec{v} \cdot \hat{n}_x = 7$ (measures how much of \vec{v} is in the \hat{n}_x direction).
$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{v} = 7^2 + 5^2 + 4^2 = 90$	$ \vec{v} = \sqrt{90} \approx 9.4868$
$\vec{w} \cdot \vec{w} = 2^2 + 3^2 + 2^2 = 17$	$ \vec{w} = \sqrt{17} \approx 4.1231$
Unit vector in the direction of \vec{v} :	$\frac{\vec{v}}{ \vec{v} } = \frac{7\hat{n}_x + 5\hat{n}_y + 4\hat{n}_z}{\sqrt{90}} \approx 0.738\hat{n}_x + 0.527\hat{n}_y + 0.422\hat{n}_z$
Unit vector in the direction of \vec{w} :	$\frac{\vec{w}}{ \vec{w} } = \frac{2\hat{n}_x + 3\hat{n}_y + 2\hat{n}_z}{\sqrt{17}} \approx 0.485\hat{n}_x + 0.728\hat{n}_y + 0.485\hat{n}_z$
$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = 7*2 + 5*3 + 4*2 = 37$	$\angle(\vec{v}, \vec{w}) = \arccos\left(\frac{37}{\sqrt{90}\sqrt{17}}\right) \approx 0.33 \text{ rad} \approx 18.93^\circ$

2.9.5 Dot-products to change vector equations to scalar equations (see Hw 1.29)

One way to form up to three linearly independent scalar equations from the vector equation $\vec{v} = \vec{0}$ is by dot-multiplying $\vec{v} = \vec{0}$ with three orthogonal unit vectors $\hat{a}_1, \hat{a}_2, \hat{a}_3$, i.e.,

$$\text{if } \vec{v} = \vec{0} \Rightarrow \boxed{\vec{v} \cdot \hat{a}_1 = 0 \quad \vec{v} \cdot \hat{a}_2 = 0 \quad \vec{v} \cdot \hat{a}_3 = 0}$$



Section 2.11.2 describes another way to form three *different* scalar equations from $\vec{v} = \vec{0}$.

2.10 Vector cross product (\times)

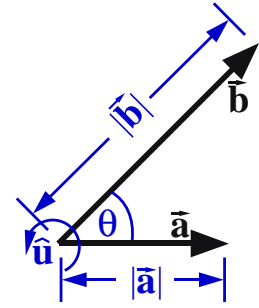
The **cross product** of a vector \vec{a} with a vector \vec{b} is defined in equation (5).

- $|\vec{a}|$ and $|\vec{b}|$ are the magnitudes of \vec{a} and \vec{b} , respectively
- θ is the smallest angle between \vec{a} and \vec{b} ($0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$).
- \hat{u} is the unit vector **perpendicular** to both \vec{a} and \vec{b} .

The direction of \hat{u} is determined by the **right-hand rule**.

The right-hand rule is a convention like driving on the right-hand side of the road.

Note: $|\vec{a}| |\vec{b}| \sin(\theta)$ [the coefficient of \hat{u} in equation (5)] is inherently non-negative because $\sin(\theta) \geq 0$ since $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$. Hence, $|\vec{a} \times \vec{b}| = |\vec{a}| |\vec{b}| \sin(\theta)$.



$$\vec{a} \times \vec{b} \triangleq |\vec{a}| |\vec{b}| \sin(\theta) \hat{u} \quad (5)$$

Properties of the cross-product (\times)

Cross product with a zero vector $\vec{a} \times \vec{0} = \vec{0}$

Cross product of a vector with itself $\vec{a} \times \vec{a} = \vec{0}$

Cross product of **parallel** vectors $\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = \vec{0}$ if $\vec{a} \parallel \vec{b}$

Cross product of scaled vectors $s_1 \vec{a} \times s_2 \vec{b} = s_1 s_2 (\vec{a} \times \vec{b})$

Distributive property $\vec{a} \times (\vec{b} + \vec{c}) = \vec{a} \times \vec{b} + \vec{a} \times \vec{c}$

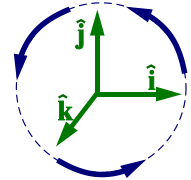
Cross products are **not** associative $\vec{a} \times (\vec{b} \times \vec{c}) \neq (\vec{a} \times \vec{b}) \times \vec{c}$

Cross products are **not** commutative

$$\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = -\vec{b} \times \vec{a} \quad (6)$$

Vector triple cross product (bac-cab)

$$\vec{a} \times (\vec{b} \times \vec{c}) = \vec{b} (\vec{a} \cdot \vec{c}) - \vec{c} (\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}) \quad (7)$$

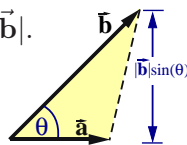


A mnemonic for eqn (7) $\vec{a} \times (\vec{b} \times \vec{c}) = \vec{b} (\vec{a} \cdot \vec{c}) - \vec{c} (\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b})$ is "**back cab**" - as in were you born in the **back** of a **cab**? Many proofs of this formula resolve \vec{a} , \vec{b} , and \vec{c} into orthogonal unit vectors (e.g., \hat{n}_x , \hat{n}_y , \hat{n}_z) and equate components.

2.10.1 Uses for the cross-product (\times) in geometry, statics, motion analysis, ...

- **Moment** of a force, e.g., $\vec{r} \times \vec{F}$
- **Velocity/acceleration** formulas, e.g., $\vec{v} = \vec{\omega} \times \vec{r}$ and $\vec{a} = \vec{\alpha} \times \vec{r} + \vec{\omega} \times (\vec{\omega} \times \vec{r})$
- **Perpendicular** vectors, e.g., $\vec{a} \times \vec{b}$ is perpendicular to both \vec{a} and \vec{b} .
- **Area of a triangle** with sides of length $|\vec{a}|$, $|\vec{b}|$.

Surveying: Hw 2.14 and Section 3.2 show how to use cross-products to calculate area.



$$\begin{aligned} \text{Vector area } \vec{\Delta}(\vec{a}, \vec{b}) &= \frac{1}{2} \vec{a} \times \vec{b} \\ \text{Scalar area } \Delta(\vec{a}, \vec{b}) &= \frac{1}{2} |\vec{a} \times \vec{b}| \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

2.10.2 Determinants and cross-products (with right-handed unit vectors)



When \hat{n}_x , \hat{n}_y , \hat{n}_z are **orthogonal unit** vectors, it can be shown (Hw 2.13) the cross product of two vectors happens to be equal to the **determinant** of an associated matrix.

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \vec{a} &= a_x \hat{n}_x + a_y \hat{n}_y + a_z \hat{n}_z \\ \vec{b} &= b_x \hat{n}_x + b_y \hat{n}_y + b_z \hat{n}_z \end{aligned} \right\} \quad \vec{a} \times \vec{b} = \det \begin{bmatrix} \hat{n}_x & \hat{n}_y & \hat{n}_z \\ a_x & a_y & a_z \\ b_x & b_y & b_z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{aligned} &(a_y b_z - a_z b_y) \hat{n}_x \\ &- (a_x b_z - a_z b_x) \hat{n}_y \\ &+ (a_x b_y - a_y b_x) \hat{n}_z \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

Examples: Vector cross-products (\times) with determinants.

The following shows how to use cross-products with the vectors \vec{v} and \vec{w} , each which is expressed in terms of the orthogonal unit vectors \hat{n}_x , \hat{n}_y , \hat{n}_z shown to the right.



$$\left. \begin{aligned} \vec{v} &= 7\hat{n}_x + 5\hat{n}_y + 4\hat{n}_z \\ \vec{w} &= 2\hat{n}_x + 3\hat{n}_y + 2\hat{n}_z \end{aligned} \right\} \quad \vec{v} \times \vec{w} = \det \begin{bmatrix} \hat{n}_x & \hat{n}_y & \hat{n}_z \\ 7 & 5 & 4 \\ 2 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = -2\hat{n}_x - 6\hat{n}_y + 11\hat{n}_z$$

Area from vectors \vec{v} and \vec{w} : $\Delta(\vec{v}, \vec{w}) = \frac{1}{2} |\vec{v} \times \vec{w}| = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{(-2)^2 + (-6)^2 + 11^2} = \frac{\sqrt{161}}{2} \approx 6.344$

Scalar triple product: $(2\hat{n}_x + 3\hat{n}_y + 4\hat{n}_z) \cdot (\vec{v} \times \vec{w}) = \det \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 7 & 5 & 4 \\ 2 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = 22$

2.11 Optional: Scalar triple product ($\cdot \times$ or $\times \cdot$)

The *scalar triple product* of vectors \vec{a} , \vec{b} , \vec{c} is the scalar defined in the various ways shown below.

$$\text{ScalarTripleProduct} \triangleq \boxed{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} \times \vec{c} = \vec{a} \times \vec{b} \cdot \vec{c}} = \vec{b} \cdot \vec{c} \times \vec{a} = \vec{b} \times \vec{c} \cdot \vec{a} \quad (10)$$

Although parentheses help clarify equation (10) e.g., $\vec{a} \cdot (\vec{b} \times \vec{c})$ instead of $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} \times \vec{c}$, the parentheses are unnecessary because the cross product $\vec{b} \times \vec{c}$ **must** be performed before the dot product (for a sensible result to be produced).

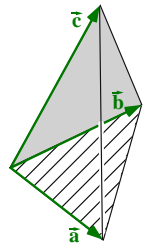
2.11.1 Scalar triple product and the volume of a tetrahedron

For a tetrahedron whose sides are described by the vectors \vec{a} , \vec{b} , \vec{c} (sides of length $|\vec{a}|$, $|\vec{b}|$, $|\vec{c}|$), a geometrical interpretation of $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} \times \vec{c}$ is the *volume of the parallelepiped*.



This formula helps calculate mass and volume (e.g., highway cut/fill calculations).

$$\text{Tetrahedron Volume} = \frac{1}{6} \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} \times \vec{c}$$

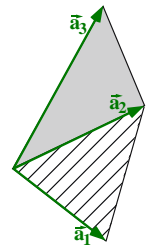


2.11.2 ($\times \cdot$) to change vector equations to scalar equations (see Hw 1.29)

Section 2.9.5 showed one method to form scalar equations from the vector equation $\vec{v} = \vec{0}$. A 2nd method expresses \vec{v} in terms of three non-coplanar (but not necessarily orthogonal or unit) vectors \vec{a}_1 , \vec{a}_2 , \vec{a}_3 , and writes the equally valid (but generally different) set of linearly independent scalar equations shown below.

Method 2: if $\vec{v} = v_1 \vec{a}_1 + v_2 \vec{a}_2 + v_3 \vec{a}_3 = \vec{0} \Rightarrow \boxed{v_1 = 0 \quad v_2 = 0 \quad v_3 = 0}$

Note: The proof that $v_i = 0$ ($i = 1, 2, 3$) follows directly by substituting $\vec{v} = \vec{0}$ into equation (4.2).



Courtesy Accuray Inc.. Vectors are widely useful, e.g., with medical robotics or cut/fill calculations for highway construction.