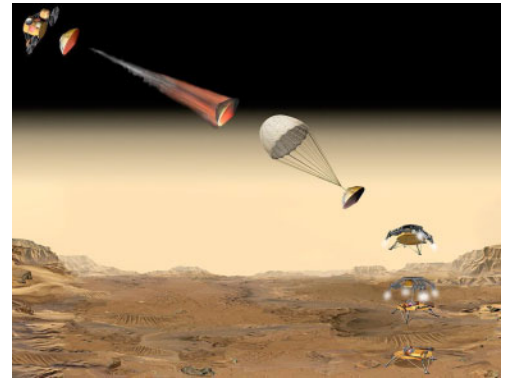


# Chapter 2

## Vectors ( $\triangleq \vec{a} + \vec{b} \quad -\vec{b} \quad \angle(\vec{a}, \vec{b}) \quad \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} \quad \vec{a} \times \vec{b}$ )

Examples in Hw 1, 2, 3



In 1881-1903, Gibbs developed **vectors** as a useful combination of magnitude and direction. Vectors are a very important **geometrical tool** (for surveying, motion, optics, graphics, CAD, FEA, etc.).

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



### 2.1 Examples of scalars vectors and dyadics

- A **scalar** is a number, possibly with units (e.g.,  $7 \frac{m}{s}$  or 9 kg), such as

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



- A **vector** is a quantity with magnitude and **one** associated direction (e.g.,  $7\hat{u}$ ). For example, a **velocity vector** has 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	translational momentum
torque	angular velocity	angular acceleration	angular momentum

In 1884, Gibbs re-defined **vectors** and taught them with **90** lectures.

- A **dyad** is a quantity with magnitude and **two** associated directions (e.g.,  $8\hat{i}\hat{j}$ ). For example, **stress** associates with area and force (both regarded as vectors). A **dyadic** is the **sum of dyads** (Chapter 13), e.g., 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**.<sup>a</sup>

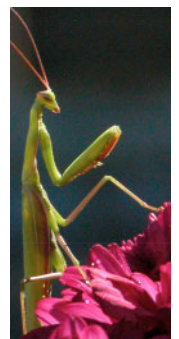
Vectors are represented pictorially with straight or curved arrows (examples below).

Vectors are typeset with **bold font** and an **arrow** or **hat** (e.g.,  $\vec{v}$  denotes a vector).



Certain vectors have additional properties, e.g., a **position vector**  $\vec{r}$  has two associated points and units of length (e.g., meters) and a **unit vector** has magnitude 1 (no units).

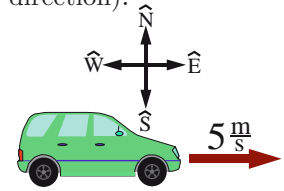
<sup>a</sup> A vector's **magnitude** is a real non-negative scalar (e.g., 7 m/s). A vector's **direction** is its **orientation** and **sense**. A vector is similar to a **ray** in direction, but a vector has finite magnitude. A vector is similar to a



Courtesy Bro. Claude Rheume. LaSalette.

**line segment** in magnitude and orientation, but a vector also has a **sense** (a fully defined 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 scalar denoted  $|\vec{v}|$  (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  $-5 \hat{\text{East}}$  reverses vector  $\vec{v}$ ’s direction whereas  $\vec{v}$ ’s magnitude is  $|\vec{v}| = |-5 \hat{\text{East}}| = 5 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}}$ .

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

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

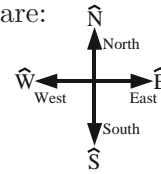
Addition with $\vec{0}$	$\text{anyVector} + \vec{0} = \text{anyVector}$	
Dot product with $\vec{0}$	$\text{anyVector} \cdot \vec{0} = 0$ (2)	$\vec{0}$ is <b>perpendicular</b> to all vectors.
Cross product with $\vec{0}$	$\text{anyVector} \times \vec{0} = \vec{0}$ (5)	$\vec{0}$ is <b>parallel</b> to all vectors.

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  $\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = \vec{0}$ . Some say  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$  are **parallel** if  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$  have the same direction and **anti-parallel** if  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$  have opposite directions. The direction of  $\vec{0}$  is arbitrary and may be regarded as having **any** direction, hence  $\vec{0}$  is **perpendicular** to all vectors,  $\vec{0}$  is **parallel** and **anti-parallel** to all vectors, and all zero vectors are equal. It is improper to say  $\vec{0}$  has no direction as a vector is **defined** to have both magnitude **and** direction. The **zero scalar** 0 has 0 magnitude and **no** direction, whereas the **zero vector**  $\vec{0}$  has a direction (albeit undefined).

## 2.4 Unit vectors: Vectors with magnitude 1 and no units (typeset with a hat)

Unit vectors are “**sign posts**” (e.g., unit vectors  $\hat{\text{N}}, \hat{\text{S}}, \hat{\text{W}}, \hat{\text{E}}$  **up** for local Earth directions) that 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

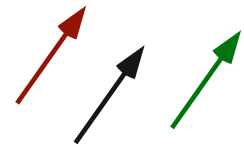


A unit vector can be defined so it has the same direction as an arbitrary non-zero vector  $\vec{v}$  by dividing  $\vec{v}$  by  $|\vec{v}|$  (the magnitude of  $\vec{v}$ ). To avoid divide-by-zero problems in numerical computation, approximate the unit vector with a “small” positive real number  $\epsilon$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

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

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

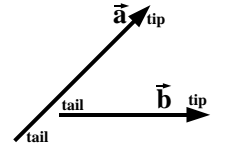
Shown right are three **equal vectors**. Although each has a different location, the vectors are equal because they have the same magnitude and direction.



Some vectors have additional properties. For example, a position vector has 2 associated points. Two position vectors are **equal position vectors** if they have the same magnitude, same direction, **and** same 2 associated points. Two force vectors are **equal force vectors** if they have the same magnitude, direction, **and** same point of application.

## 2.6 Vector addition (+)

As shown right, adding vectors  $\vec{a} + \vec{b}$  produces a vector. First  $\vec{b}$  is translated so its **tail** is at the **tip** of  $\vec{a}$ . Next,  $\vec{a} + \vec{b}$  is drawn from the **tail** of  $\vec{a}$  to the **tip** of the translated  $\vec{b}$ . Translating  $\vec{b}$  does **not** change  $\vec{b}$ 's magnitude or direction, and so produces an equal  $\vec{b}$ .



### 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:  $\vec{a} + \vec{0} = \vec{a}$

Vectors with different units do **not** add. Do **not** add a position vector (units of meters) with a force vector (units of Newtons). Note: A scalar cannot be added to a vector, e.g.,  $5 + \vec{v}$  does not make sense.

### Example: Vector addition (+)

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

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



$\vec{v} = x\hat{n}_x + y\hat{n}_y$	Special names for parts of the generic vector $\vec{v}$ .	$x$ is called the $\hat{n}_x$ <i>measure</i> (or <i>scalar component</i> ) of $\vec{v}$ .
$\vec{v} = x\hat{n}_x + y\hat{n}_y$		$y$ is called the $\hat{n}_y$ <i>measure</i> (or <i>scalar component</i> ) of $\vec{v}$ .
<b>vector component</b>	<b>vector component</b>	

## 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:  $s_1 \vec{a} = \vec{a} s_1$

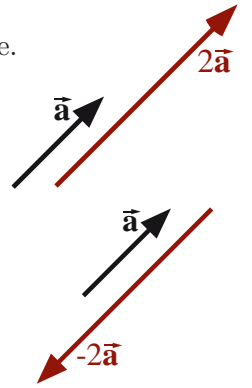
Associative property:  $s_1 (s_2 \vec{a}) = (s_1 s_2) \vec{a} = s_2 (s_1 \vec{a}) = s_1 s_2 \vec{a}$

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  $-\vec{v} = -3.5\hat{n}_x - 2.5\hat{n}_y - 2\hat{n}_z$   
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.

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

Note: In most/all mathematics, subtraction is defined as negation and addition.

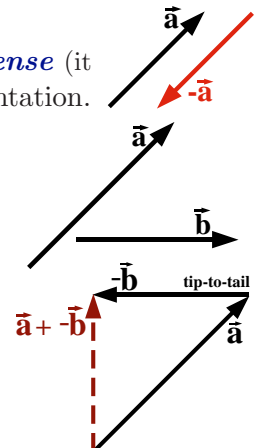
After negating vector  $\vec{b}$ , it is translated so the **tail** of  $-\vec{b}$  is at the **tip** of  $\vec{a}$ .

Next, vector  $\vec{a} + (-\vec{b})$  is drawn from the **tail** of  $\vec{a}$  to the **tip** of the translated  $-\vec{b}$ .

### Example: Vector subtraction ( $\vec{v} - \vec{w}$ )

It is easy to subtract vectors that are expressed in terms of orthogonal unit vectors  $\hat{n}_x, \hat{n}_y, \hat{n}_z$ .

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



## 2.9 Vector dot product ( $\cdot$ )

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

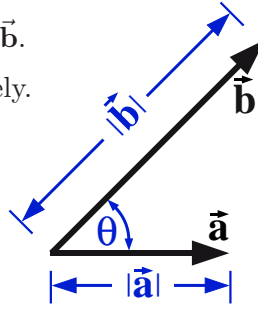
- $|\vec{a}|$  and  $|\vec{b}|$  are the magnitudes of  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$ , respectively.
- $\theta$  is the smallest angle between  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$  ( $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$ )

To visualize  $\theta$ , draw  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$  as **tail-to-tail**.

Equation (3) is a rearrangement of equation (2) that is useful for calculating the angle  $\theta$  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  $\theta$ .

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 ( $\cdot$ )

Dot product with a zero vector	$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{0} = 0$
Dot product of <b>perpendicular</b> 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 [34, pgs. 23-24, 32-34].

### 2.9.2 Uses for the dot-product ( $\cdot$ )

- Determining the **angle** between two vectors [see equation (3) and example in Section 3.3].
- 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 3.3].
- 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)]

**Projection** of a vector  $\vec{v}$  in the direction of  $\vec{b}$ , defined as:

- See Section 4.2 for **projections**, **measures**, **coefficients**, **components**.
- See Section 3.3 for a distance measure from a point to a plane.

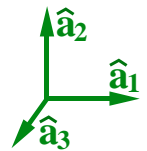
$$\text{unit Vector} \stackrel{(1)}{=} \frac{\vec{v}}{|\vec{v}|}$$

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

### 2.9.3 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.,

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



### 2.9.4 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)

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



### 2.9.5 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  $\hat{n}_x, \hat{n}_y, \hat{n}_z$ .



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

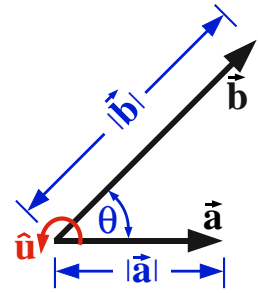
$$\vec{w} = 2\hat{n}_x + 3\hat{n}_y + 2\hat{n}_z$$

$\hat{n}_x$ measure of $\vec{v}$	$\vec{v} \cdot \hat{n}_x = 7$ ( <b>measures</b> 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 $\vec{w}$ :	$\frac{\vec{w}}{ \vec{w} } = \frac{2\hat{n}_x + 3\hat{n}_y + 2\hat{n}_z}{\sqrt{17}} \approx 0.485\hat{n}_x + 0.728\hat{n}_y + 0.485\hat{n}_z$
$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = 7*2 + 5*3 + 4*2 = 37$	$\angle(\vec{v}, \vec{w}) = \text{acos}\left(\frac{37}{\sqrt{90}\sqrt{17}}\right) \approx 0.33 \text{ rad} \approx 18.93^\circ$

### 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
- $\theta$  is the smallest angle between  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$  ( $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$ ).  
To visualize  $\theta$ , draw  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$  as **tail-to-tail**.



- $\hat{u}$  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.

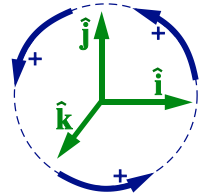
Note:  $|\vec{a}||\vec{b}|\sin(\theta)$  [the coefficient of  $\hat{u}$  in equation (5)] is inherently non-negative because  $\sin(\theta) \geq 0$  since  $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$ . Hence,  $|\vec{a} \times \vec{b}| = |\vec{a}||\vec{b}|\sin(\theta)$ .

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

$\vec{a} \times \vec{b}$  is  $\perp$  to both  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$ .

#### 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 <b>parallel</b> vectors	$\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = \vec{0}$ if $\vec{a} \parallel \vec{b}$
Cross product of scaled vectors	$s_1\vec{a} \times s_2\vec{b} = s_1s_2(\vec{a} \times \vec{b})$
Distributive property	$\vec{a} \times (\vec{b} + \vec{c}) = \vec{a} \times \vec{b} + \vec{a} \times \vec{c}$
Cross products are <b>not</b> associative	$\vec{a} \times (\vec{b} \times \vec{c}) \neq (\vec{a} \times \vec{b}) \times \vec{c}$
Cross products are <b>not</b> commutative.	$\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = -\vec{b} \times \vec{a}$



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

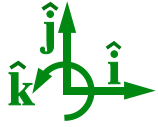
#### 2.10.1 Uses for the cross-product ( $\times$ ) in geometry, statics, motion analysis, ...

- **Moment** of a force such as  $\vec{r} \times \vec{F}$  (details in Section 17.1).
- **Velocity/acceleration** formulas [see eqns (8.3, 8.4)]  $\vec{v} = \vec{\omega} \times \vec{r}$  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  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$  (see Sections 3.2, 3.3 and Hw 2.13).  $\Delta(\vec{a}, \vec{b}) = \frac{1}{2} |\vec{a} \times \vec{b}|$ .



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

When vectors  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$  are expressed in terms of **orthogonal unit** vectors  $\hat{i}, \hat{j}, \hat{k}$ , it can be shown (Hw 2.12) that  $\vec{a} \times \vec{b}$  happens to equal the **determinant** of an associated matrix.



$$\begin{aligned} \vec{a} &= a_x \hat{i} + a_y \hat{j} + a_z \hat{k} \\ \vec{b} &= b_x \hat{i} + b_y \hat{j} + b_z \hat{k} \end{aligned} \quad \vec{a} \times \vec{b} = \det \begin{bmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ a_x & a_y & a_z \\ b_x & b_y & b_z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{aligned} &(a_y b_z - a_z b_y) \hat{i} \\ &- (a_x b_z - a_z b_x) \hat{j} \\ &+ (a_x b_y - a_y b_x) \hat{k} \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

### 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.



$$\begin{aligned} \vec{v} &= 7\hat{i} + 5\hat{j} + 4\hat{k} \\ \vec{w} &= 2\hat{i} + 3\hat{j} + 2\hat{k} \end{aligned} \quad \vec{v} \times \vec{w} = \det \begin{bmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ 7 & 5 & 4 \\ 2 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = -2\hat{i} - 6\hat{j} + 11\hat{k}$$

$$\text{Scalar triple product: } (2\hat{i} + 3\hat{j} + 4\hat{k}) \cdot (\vec{v} \times \vec{w}) = \det \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 7 & 5 & 4 \\ 2 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = 22$$

## 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.

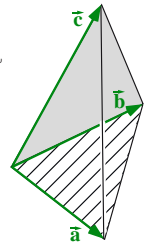
$$\text{ScalarTripleProduct} \triangleq \boxed{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} \times \vec{c} = \vec{a} \times \vec{b} \cdot \vec{c}} = \vec{b} \cdot \vec{c} \times \vec{a} = \vec{b} \times \vec{c} \cdot \vec{a} \quad (9)$$

Although parentheses clarify eqn (9) 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).

Note:  $\vec{a} \cdot (\vec{b} \times \vec{a}) = 0$  since [by eqn (5)]  $\vec{a} \times \vec{b}$  is  $\perp$  to both  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$  and the dot-product of  $\vec{a}$  with a vector  $\perp$  to  $\vec{a}$  is 0.

### 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 of generic 3D shapes (e.g., for highway cut/fill calculations and CAD solid modeling). A tetrahedron's volume is calculated in Section 3.3.

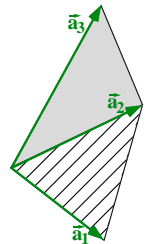


$$\boxed{\text{Tetrahedron Volume} = \frac{1}{6} \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} \times \vec{c} = \frac{1}{6} \vec{a} \times \vec{b} \cdot \vec{c} = \frac{1}{6} \underset{(3.3)}{\Delta}(\vec{a}, \vec{b}) \cdot \vec{c}} \quad (10)$$

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

Section 2.9.3 showed one method to form scalar equations from the vector equation  $\vec{v} = \vec{0}$ . A 2<sup>nd</sup> 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 [proved by directly by substituting  $\vec{v} = \vec{0}$  into eqn (4.2)].

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



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