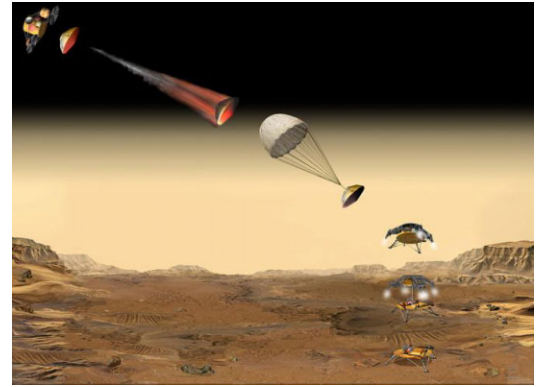


# Chapter 2

## Vectors



Courtesy NASA/JPL-Caltech

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

Circa 1900 A.D., J. Williard Gibbs invented a useful combination of magnitude and direction called **vectors** and their higher-dimensional counterparts **dyadics**, **triadics**, and **polyadics**. Vectors are an important **geometrical tool** e.g., for surveying, motion analysis, lasers, optics, computer graphics, animation, CAD/CAE (computer aided drawing/engineering), and FEA.

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:

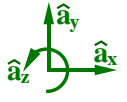
time	density	volume	mass	moment of inertia	temperature
distance	speed	angle	weight	potential energy	kinetic energy

- A **vector** is a quantity that has magnitude and **one** associated direction. For example, a **velocity vector** has speed (how fast something is moving) 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:

position vector	velocity	acceleration	translational momentum	force
impulse	angular velocity	angular acceleration	angular momentum	torque

- 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.

**Words: Vector and column matrices.** Although mathematics uses the word<sup>1</sup> “vector” to describe a column matrix, a column matrix does **not** have direction. To associate direction, attach a basis e.g., as shown below.

$$\hat{a}_x + 2\hat{a}_y + 3\hat{a}_z = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{a}_x & \hat{a}_y & \hat{a}_z \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}_{\hat{a}_{xyz}} \quad \text{where } \hat{a}_x, \hat{a}_y, \hat{a}_z \text{ are orthogonal unit vectors}$$


Note: Although it can be helpful to represent vectors with orthogonal unit vectors (e.g.,  $\hat{x}, \hat{y}, \hat{z}$  or  $\hat{i}, \hat{j}, \hat{k}$ ), it is not always necessary, desirable, or efficient. Postponing resolution of vectors into components allows maximum use of simplifying vector properties and avoids simplifications such as  $\sin^2(\theta) + \cos^2(\theta) = 1$  (see Homework 2.9).

<sup>1</sup>Words have context. Some words are contronyms (opposite meanings) such as “fast” and “bolt” (move quickly or fasten).

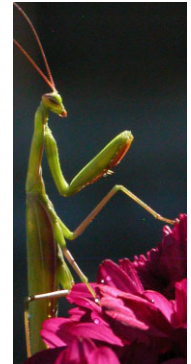
## 2.2 Definition of a vector

A **vector** is defined as a quantity having **magnitude** and **direction**.<sup>a</sup>

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



Certain vectors have additional special properties. For example, a **position vector** is associated with two points and has units of distance. A **bound vector** such as **force** is associated with a point (or line of action).



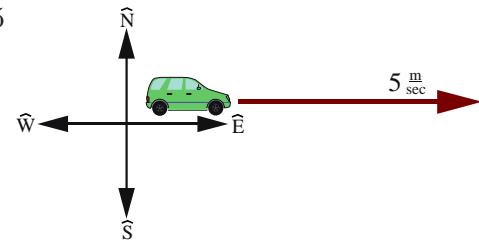
Courtesy Bro. Claude Rheume LaSalette.

<sup>a</sup> A 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 traffic report “the vehicle is heading East at  $5 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}}$ ”. It is **convenient** to name these two pieces of information (speed and direction) as a “**velocity vector**” and represent them mathematically as  $5 * \vec{\text{East}}$  (direction is identified with an arrow and/or bold-face font or with a hat for a **unit vector** such as  $\hat{\text{East}}$ ). The vehicle's speed is always a real non-negative number, equal to the **magnitude** of the velocity vector. The combination of **magnitude** and **direction** is a **vector**.

For example, the vector  $\vec{v}$  describing a vehicle traveling with speed 5 to the East is graphically depicted to the right, and is written

$$\vec{v} = 5 * \hat{\text{East}} \quad \text{or} \quad \vec{v} = 5 \hat{\text{East}}$$



A vehicle traveling with speed 5 to the West is

$$\vec{v} = 5 \hat{\text{West}} \quad \text{or} \quad \vec{v} = -5 \hat{\text{East}}$$

Note: The negative sign in  $-5 \hat{\text{East}}$  is associated with the vector's direction (the vector's magnitude is inherently non-negative).

When a vector is written in terms of a scalar  $x$  that can be **positive** or **zero** or **negative**, e.g., as  $x \hat{\text{East}}$ ,  $x$  is called the  **$\hat{\text{East}}$  measure** of the vector, whereas the vector's non-negative **magnitude** is  $\text{abs}(x)$ .

## 2.3 Zero vector $\vec{0}$ and its properties

A **zero vector**  $\vec{0}$  is defined as a vector whose magnitude is zero.<sup>2</sup>

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

<sup>2</sup>The 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 (as contrasted with a dyad which has 2 directions or triad which has 3 directions).

## 2.4 Unit vectors

A **unit vector** is defined as a vector whose magnitude is 1, and is designated with a special hat, e.g.,  $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ .

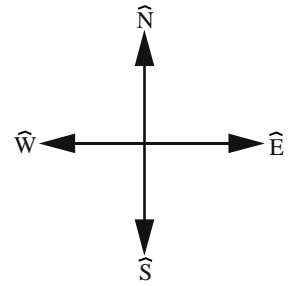
Unit vectors can be “**sign posts**”, e.g., unit vectors  $\hat{\mathbf{N}}$ ,  $\hat{\mathbf{S}}$ ,  $\hat{\mathbf{W}}$ ,  $\hat{\mathbf{E}}$  associated with local Earth directions **North**, **South**, **West**, **East**, respectively.

The direction of unit vectors are chosen to simplify communication and to produce efficient equations. Other useful “sign posts” are:

- Unit vector directed from one point to another point
- Unit vector directed locally vertical
- Unit vector parallel to the edge of an object
- 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  $\vec{\mathbf{v}}$  by dividing  $\vec{\mathbf{v}}$  by  $|\vec{\mathbf{v}}|$  (the magnitude of  $\vec{\mathbf{v}}$ ).

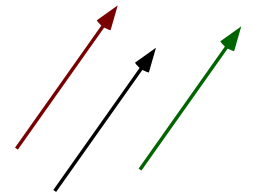
To avoid divide-by-zero problems during numerical computation, approximate the unit vector with a “small” positive real number  $\epsilon$  in the denominator.



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

## 2.5 Equal vectors ( = )

Two vectors are “equal” when they have the same magnitude and same direction.<sup>a</sup> Shown to the right are three **equal vectors**. Although each has a different location, the vectors are equal because they have the same magnitude and direction.<sup>b</sup>

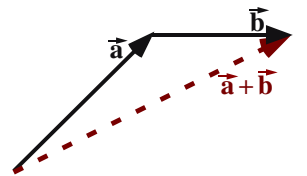
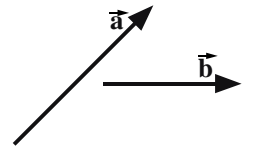


<sup>a</sup>Homework 2.6 draws vectors of different magnitude, **orientation**, and **sense**.

<sup>b</sup>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 to the right, adding two vectors  $\vec{\mathbf{a}} + \vec{\mathbf{b}}$  produces a vector.<sup>a</sup> First, vector  $\vec{\mathbf{b}}$  is translated<sup>b</sup> so its tail is at the tip of  $\vec{\mathbf{a}}$ . Next, the vector  $\vec{\mathbf{a}} + \vec{\mathbf{b}}$  is drawn from the tail of  $\vec{\mathbf{a}}$  to the tip of the translated  $\vec{\mathbf{b}}$ .



### Properties of vector addition

Commutative law:  $\vec{\mathbf{a}} + \vec{\mathbf{b}} = \vec{\mathbf{b}} + \vec{\mathbf{a}}$

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

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

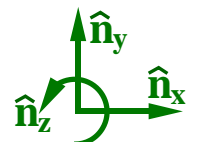
<sup>a</sup>It does not make sense to add vectors with different units, e.g., it is nonsensical to add a velocity vector with units of  $\frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}}$  with an angular velocity vector with units of  $\frac{\text{rad}}{\text{sec}}$ .

<sup>b</sup>Translating  $\vec{\mathbf{b}}$  does *not* change the magnitude or direction of  $\vec{\mathbf{b}}$ , and so produces an equal  $\vec{\mathbf{b}}$ .

### Example: Vector addition ( + )

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

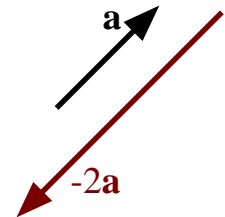
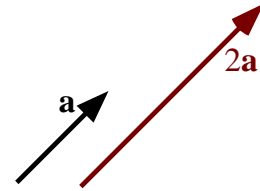
$$\begin{aligned} \vec{\mathbf{v}} &= 7\hat{\mathbf{n}}_x + 5\hat{\mathbf{n}}_y + 4\hat{\mathbf{n}}_z \\ + \vec{\mathbf{w}} &= 2\hat{\mathbf{n}}_x + 3\hat{\mathbf{n}}_y + 2\hat{\mathbf{n}}_z \\ \hline &= 9\hat{\mathbf{n}}_x + 8\hat{\mathbf{n}}_y + 6\hat{\mathbf{n}}_z \end{aligned}$$



## 2.7 Vector multiplied or divided by a scalar (\* or /)

To the right is a graphical representation of multiplying a vector  $\vec{a}$  by a scalar.<sup>a</sup>

- 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  $s_1$  is defined as  $\frac{\vec{a}}{s_1} \triangleq \frac{1}{s_1} * \vec{a}$



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

- Commutative law:  $s_1 \vec{a} = \vec{a} s_1$   
 Associative law:  $s_1 (s_2 \vec{a}) = (s_1 s_2) \vec{a} = s_2 (s_1 \vec{a}) = s_1 s_2 \vec{a}$   
 Distributive law:  $(s_1 + s_2) \vec{a} = s_1 \vec{a} + s_2 \vec{a}$   
 Distributive law:  $s_1 (\vec{a} + \vec{b}) = s_1 \vec{a} + s_1 \vec{b}$   
 Multiplication by zero:  $0 * \vec{a} = \vec{0}$

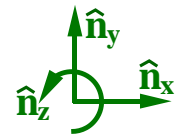
<sup>a</sup>Homework 2.9 multiplies a vector  $\vec{b}$  by various scalars.

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

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

$$5\vec{v} = 35\hat{n}_x + 25\hat{n}_y + 20\hat{n}_z$$

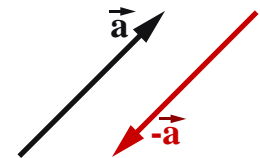
$$\frac{\vec{v}}{-2} = -3.5\hat{n}_x - 2.5\hat{n}_y - 2\hat{n}_z$$



## 2.8 Vector negation and subtraction (-)

**Negation:** A graphical representation of negating a vector  $\vec{a}$  is shown right.

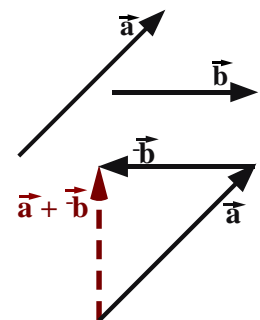
Negating a vector (multiplying the vector by  $-1$ ) changes the *sense* of a vector without changing its magnitude or orientation. In other words, multiplying a vector by  $-1$  reverses the sense of the vector (it points in the opposite direction).



**Subtraction:** As drawn right, the process of subtracting a vector  $\vec{b}$  from a vector  $\vec{a}$  is simply addition and negation.<sup>a</sup>

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

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  $-\vec{b}$ .

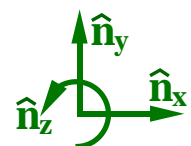


<sup>a</sup>In most (or all) mathematical processes, subtraction is defined as negation and addition.

### Example: Vector subtraction (-)

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

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



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

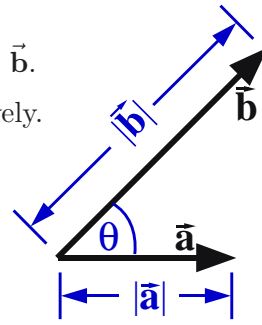
Equation (2) defines the *dot product* of vectors  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$ .

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

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 <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 law	$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \vec{b} \cdot \vec{a}$
Distributive law	$\vec{a} \cdot (\vec{b} + \vec{c}) = \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} + \vec{a} \cdot \vec{c}$
Distributive law	$(\vec{a} + \vec{b}) \cdot (\vec{c} + \vec{d}) = \vec{a} \cdot \vec{c} + \vec{a} \cdot \vec{d} + \vec{b} \cdot \vec{c} + \vec{b} \cdot \vec{d}$

Note: The distributive law for dot-products and cross-products is proved in [32, 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 3.3] or 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 3.2 and 3.3].
- Changing a *vector equation* into a *scalar equation* (see Homework 2.31).
- Calculating a *unit vector* in the direction of a vector  $\vec{v}$  [see equation (1)]

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

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

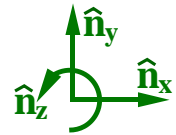
$$\vec{v} \cdot \frac{\vec{b}}{|\vec{b}|}$$

See Section 4.2 for *projections, measures, coefficients, components*.

### 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 Homework 2.4)

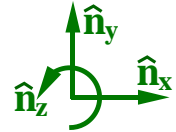
$$(a_x \hat{n}_x + a_y \hat{n}_y + a_z \hat{n}_z) \cdot (b_x \hat{n}_x + b_y \hat{n}_y + b_z \hat{n}_z) = a_x b_x + a_y b_y + a_z b_z$$



#### Optional: Special case of dot product as matrix multiplication

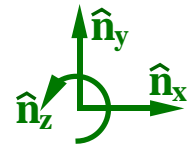
When one defines  $\vec{a} \triangleq a_x \hat{n}_x + a_y \hat{n}_y + a_z \hat{n}_z$  and  $\vec{b} \triangleq b_x \hat{n}_x + b_y \hat{n}_y + b_z \hat{n}_z$  in terms of the **orthogonal unit** vectors  $\hat{n}_x, \hat{n}_y, \hat{n}_z$ , the dot-product  $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}$  is related to the multiplication of the  $\hat{n}_x, \hat{n}_y, \hat{n}_z$  row matrix representation of  $\vec{a}$  with the  $\hat{n}_x, \hat{n}_y, \hat{n}_z$  column matrix representation of  $\vec{b}$  as

$$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} a_x & a_y & a_z \end{bmatrix}_{\hat{n}_{xyz}} * \begin{bmatrix} b_x \\ b_y \\ b_z \end{bmatrix}_{\hat{n}_{xyz}} = \begin{bmatrix} a_x b_x + a_y b_y + a_z b_z \end{bmatrix}$$



### 2.9.4 Examples: Vector dot-products ( $\cdot$ )

The following shows how to use dot-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.



$$\vec{v} = 7\hat{n}_x + 5\hat{n}_y + 4\hat{n}_z \quad \vec{w} = 2\hat{n}_x + 3\hat{n}_y + 2\hat{n}_z$$

$\hat{n}_x$  measure of  $\vec{v}$

$$\vec{v} \cdot \hat{n}_x = 7 \quad (\text{measures how much of } \vec{v} \text{ is in the } \hat{n}_x \text{ direction})$$

$$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{v} = 7^2 + 5^2 + 4^2 = 90$$

$$|\vec{v}| = \sqrt{90} \approx 9.4868$$

$$\vec{w} \cdot \vec{w} = 2^2 + 3^2 + 2^2 = 17$$

$$|\vec{w}| = \sqrt{17} \approx 4.1231$$

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  $\vec{w}$ :

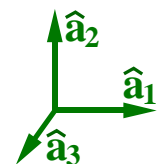
$$\frac{\vec{w}}{|\vec{w}|} = \frac{2\hat{n}_x + 3\hat{n}_y + 2\hat{n}_z}{\sqrt{17}} \approx 0.485\hat{n}_x + 0.728\hat{n}_y + 0.485\hat{n}_z$$

$$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = 7*2 + 5*3 + 4*2 = 37 \quad \angle(\vec{v}, \vec{w}) = \text{acos}\left(\frac{37}{\sqrt{90}\sqrt{17}}\right) \approx 0.33 \text{ rad} \approx 18.9^\circ$$

### 2.9.5 Dot-products to change vector equations to scalar equations (see Hw 1.31)

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  $\vec{v} = \vec{0}$ .



Courtesy Accuray Inc.. Dot-products are heavily used in radiation and other medical equipment.



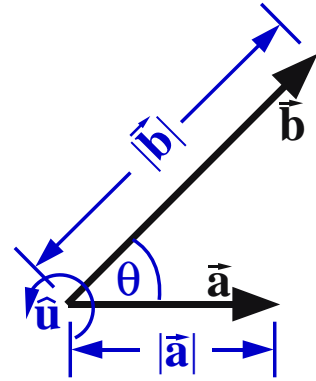
## 2.10 Vector cross product ( $\times$ )

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  $\vec{b}$  ( $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$ ).
- $\hat{u}$  is the unit vector **perpendicular** to both  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$ .

The direction of  $\hat{u}$  is determined by the **right-hand rule**.<sup>a</sup>

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,  $|\vec{a} \times \vec{b}| = |\vec{a}| |\vec{b}| \sin(\theta)$ .



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

<sup>a</sup>The right-hand rule is a convention, much like driving on the right-hand side of the road in North America. Until 1965, the Soviet Union used the left-hand rule.

### 2.10.1 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

$$\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = \vec{0} \quad \text{if } \vec{a} \parallel \vec{b}$$

Cross product with vectors scaled by  $s_1$  and  $s_2$

$$s_1 \vec{a} \times s_2 \vec{b} = s_1 s_2 (\vec{a} \times \vec{b})$$

Cross products are **not** commutative

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

Distributive law

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

Distributive law

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

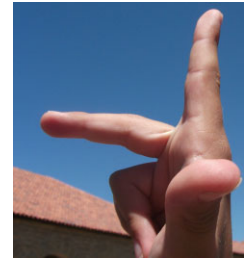
Cross products are **not** associative

$$\vec{a} \times (\vec{b} \times \vec{c}) \neq (\vec{a} \times \vec{b}) \times \vec{c}$$

**Vector triple cross product**

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

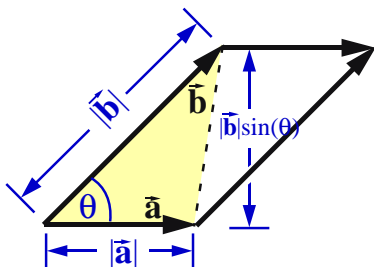
A mnemonic for  $\vec{a} \times (\vec{b} \times \vec{c}) = \vec{b} (\vec{a} \cdot \vec{c}) - \vec{c} (\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b})$  is “**back cab**” - as in were you born in the **back** of a **cab**? Many proofs of this formula resolve  $\vec{a}$ ,  $\vec{b}$ , and  $\vec{c}$  into orthogonal unit vectors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



### 2.10.2 Uses for the cross-product ( $\times$ )

Several uses for the cross-product in geometry, statics, and motion analysis, include calculating:

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



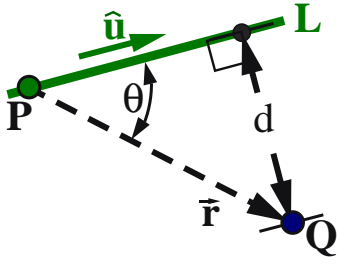
The **area of a triangle**  $\Delta$  is half the area of a parallelogram.<sup>a b</sup> A geometrical interpretation of  $|\vec{a} \times \vec{b}|$  is the **area of a parallelogram** having sides of length  $|\vec{a}|$  and  $|\vec{b}|$ , hence

$$\Delta(\vec{a}, \vec{b}) = \frac{1}{2} |\vec{a} \times \vec{b}| \quad (8)$$

<sup>a</sup>Homework 2.14 shows the utility of equation (8) for **surveying**.

<sup>b</sup>Section 3.3 shows the utility of a cross-product for area calculations.

- **Distance**  $d$  between a line  $L$  and a point  $Q$ .

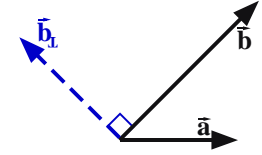


The line  $L$  (shown left) passes through point  $P$  and is parallel to the unit vector  $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ . The **distance**  $d$  between line  $L$  and a point  $Q$  can be calculated as

$$d = |\vec{\mathbf{r}}^{Q/P} \times \hat{\mathbf{u}}| \stackrel{(5)}{=} |\vec{\mathbf{r}}^{Q/P}| \sin(\theta) \quad (9)$$

Note: See example in Hw 1.26. Other distance calculations are in Sections 3.2 and 3.3.

- The vector  $\vec{\mathbf{b}}_{\perp}$  (shown right) is perpendicular to  $\vec{\mathbf{b}}$  and is in the plane containing both  $\vec{\mathbf{a}}$  and  $\vec{\mathbf{b}}$ . It is calculated with the **vector triple cross product**:

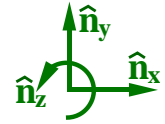


$$\vec{\mathbf{b}}_{\perp} = (\vec{\mathbf{a}} \times \vec{\mathbf{b}}) \times \vec{\mathbf{b}}$$

In general,  $|\vec{\mathbf{b}}_{\perp}| \neq |\vec{\mathbf{b}}|$  and  $\vec{\mathbf{b}}_{\perp}$  is not perpendicular to  $\vec{\mathbf{a}}$ .

### 2.10.3 Special case: Cross-products with right-handed, orthogonal, unit vectors

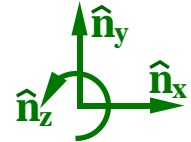
When  $\hat{\mathbf{n}}_x, \hat{\mathbf{n}}_y, \hat{\mathbf{n}}_z$  are **orthogonal unit** vectors, it can be shown (see Homework 2.13) that the cross product of  $\vec{\mathbf{a}} = a_x \hat{\mathbf{n}}_x + a_y \hat{\mathbf{n}}_y + a_z \hat{\mathbf{n}}_z$  with  $\vec{\mathbf{b}} = b_x \hat{\mathbf{n}}_x + b_y \hat{\mathbf{n}}_y + b_z \hat{\mathbf{n}}_z$  happens to be equal to the **determinant** of the following matrix.



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

### 2.10.4 Examples: Vector cross-products ( $\times$ )

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



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

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

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

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

$$\vec{\mathbf{v}} \times (\vec{\mathbf{v}} \times \vec{\mathbf{w}}) = \det \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{n}}_x & \hat{\mathbf{n}}_y & \hat{\mathbf{n}}_z \\ 7 & 5 & 4 \\ -2 & -6 & 11 \end{bmatrix} = 79 \hat{\mathbf{n}}_x - 85 \hat{\mathbf{n}}_y - 32 \hat{\mathbf{n}}_z$$



## 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 in equation (10).

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

Although parentheses make equation (10) clearer, i.e.,  $\text{ScalarTripleProduct} \triangleq \vec{a} \cdot (\vec{b} \times \vec{c})$ , 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.

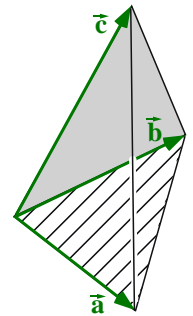
### 2.11.1 Scalar triple product and the volume of a tetrahedron

A geometrical interpretation of  $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} \times \vec{c}$  is the *volume of a parallelepiped* having sides of length  $|\vec{a}|$ ,  $|\vec{b}|$ , and  $|\vec{c}|$ . The formula for the *volume of a tetrahedron* whose sides are described by the vectors  $\vec{a}$ ,  $\vec{b}$ ,  $\vec{c}$  is



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

This formula is used for volume calculations (e.g., highway *surveying* cut and fill), 3D *CAD*, solid geometry, and mass property calculations.

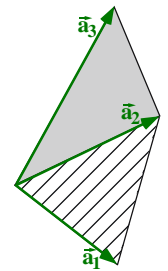


### 2.11.2 ( $\times \cdot$ ) to change vector equations to scalar equations (see Hw 1.31)

Section 2.9.5 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.

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).



Vectors are used with *surveying data* for volume cut-and-fill dirt calculations for highway construction