2.3 Vector Algebra

Reading Assignment: pp. 11-16

You understand scalar math, but what about vector mathematics?

Consider, for example:

Α.

B.

C.

D.

A. Arithmetic Operations of Vectors

Q:

A: HO: Arithmetic Operations of Vectors

B. Arithmetic Operations of Vectors and Scalars

Say b is a scalar and \overline{A} is a vector.

Q: What then is $\overline{A} + b$ or $b - \overline{A}$??

A:

C. Multiplicative Operations of Vectors and Scalars

Q: So, does the multiplication of scalar b and vector \overline{A} (i.e., $b\overline{A}$ or $\overline{A}b$) have any meaning?

A:

HO: Multiplicative Operations of Vectors and Scalars

We can now examine a super-important concept:

HO: The Unit Vector

D. Multiplicative Operations of Vectors

Q: Can we multiply two vectors?

A:

HO: The Dot Product

HO: The Cross Product

HO: The Triple Product

E. Vectors Algebra

Now that we know the rules of vector operations, we can analyze, manipulate, and simplify vector operations!

HO: Example: Vector Algebra

HO: Scalar, Vector, or Neither?

F. Orthogonal and Orthonormal Vector Sets

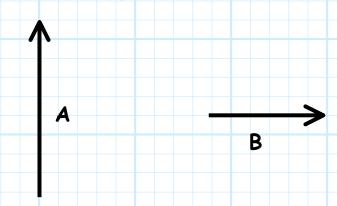
We can now use vector algebra to write equations that specify some relationship between sets of vectors.

HO: Orthogonal and Orthonormal Vector Sets

Arithmetic Operations of Vectors

Vector Addition

Consider two vectors, denoted A and B.

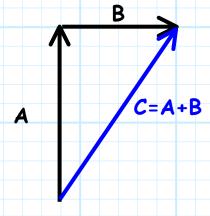


Q: Say we add these two vectors together; what is the result?

A: The addition of two vectors results in another vector, which we will denote as C. Therefore, we can say:

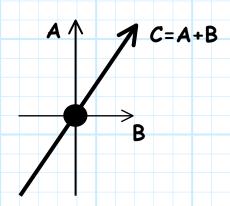
$$A + B = C$$

The magnitude and direction of C is determined by the headto-tail rule.



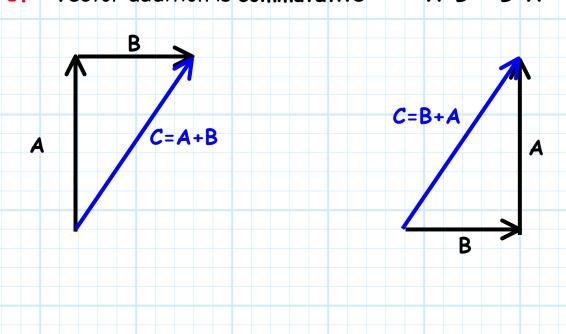
This is not a **provable** result, rather the head-to-tail rule is the **definition** of vector addition. This definition is used because it has many **applications** in physics.

For example, if vectors A and B represent two forces acting an object, then vector C represents the resultant force when A and B are simultaneously applied.



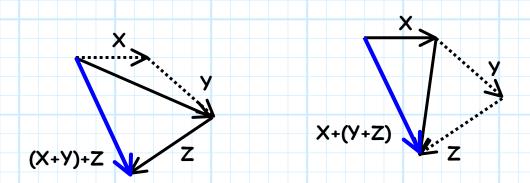
Some important properties of vector addition:

1. Vector addition is commutative -> A+B = B+A

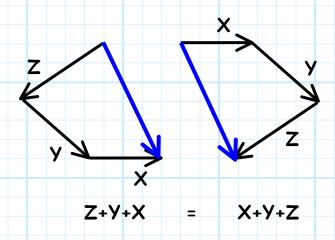


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2. Vector addition is associative -> (X+Y) + Z = X + (Y+Z)

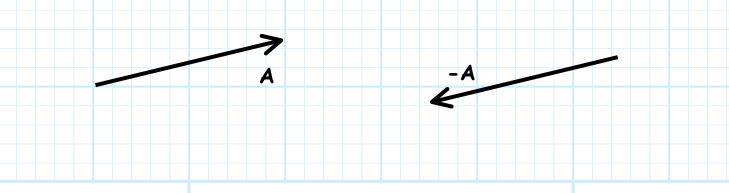


From these two properties, we can conclude that the addition of several vectors can be executed in any order:



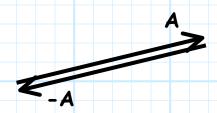
Vector Subtraction

First, we define the **negative** of a vector to be a vector with **equal magnitude** but **opposite direction**.



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Note that A + (-A) = 0



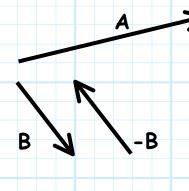
We can therefore consider the addition of a negative vector as a subtraction:

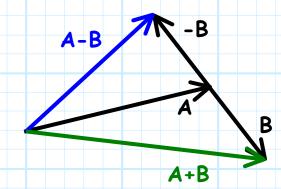
$$A - A = 0$$

More generally, we can write:

$$A + (-B) = A - B$$

E.G.,





A: What do you think?



Multiplicative Operations of Vectors and Scalars

Consider a scalar quantity a and a vector quantity B. We express the multiplication of these two values as:

$$aB = C$$

In other words, the product of a scalar and a vector—is a vector!

Q: OK, but what is vector C? What is the meaning of a B?

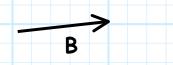
A: The resulting vector C has a magnitude that is equal to a times the magnitude of B. In other words:

$$|C| = a|B|$$

However, the **direction** of vector C is **exactly** that of B.

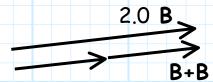
Therefore multiplying a vector by a scalar changes the magnitude of the vector, but not its direction.

For example:



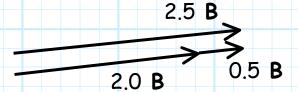


Note that B + B = 2.0 B!



1. More generally, we find that scalar-vector multiplication is distributive as:

$$aB + bB = (a+b)B$$



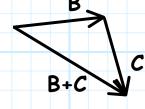
2. And also distributive as:

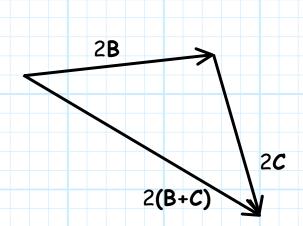
$$aB + aC = a(B + C)$$

E.G.,









3. Scalar-Vector multiplication is also commutative:

$$a B = B a$$

4. Multiplication of a vector by a **negative** scalar is interpreted as:

$$-a B = a (-B)$$

E.G., B
$$-B$$
 $-2.0B = 2.0(-B)$

5. Division of a vector by a scalar is the same as multiplying the vector by the inverse of the scalar:

$$\frac{\mathsf{B}}{a} = \left(\frac{1}{a}\right) \mathsf{B}$$

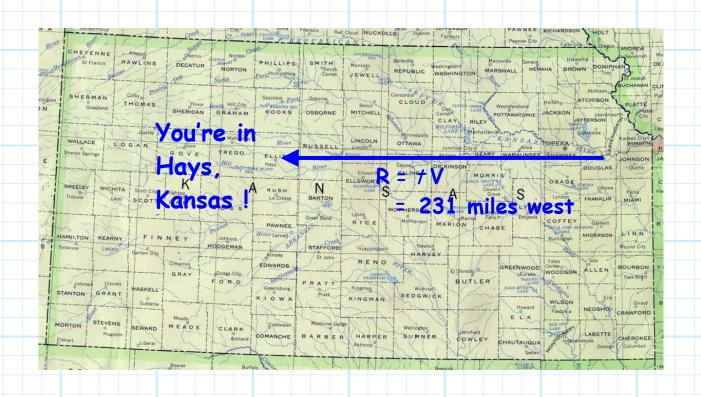
Scalar-Vector multiplication is likewise used in many **physical** applications. For example, say you start in Lawrence and head **west** at **70 mph** for exactly **3.3 hours**.

Note your velocity has both direction (west) and magnitude (70 mph) - it's a vector! Lets denote it as V = 70 mph west.

Likewise, your travel time is a scalar; lets denote it as t = 3.3 h.

Now, lets **multiply** the two together (i.e., t V). The **magnitude** of the resulting vector is 70(3.3) = 231 miles. The **direction** of the resulting vector is of course **unchanged**: west.

A vector describing a distance and a direction—a directed distance! We find that $tV = \overline{R}$, where \overline{R} identifies your location after 3.3 hours!



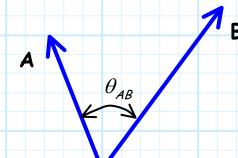
The Dot Product

The dot product of two vectors, A and B, is denoted as A.B.

The dot product of two vectors is defined as:

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = |\mathbf{A}| |\mathbf{B}| \cos \theta_{AB}$$

where the angle θ_{AB} is the angle formed **between** the vectors **A** and **B**.



 $0 \le \theta_{AB} \le \pi$

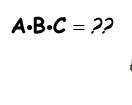
IMPORTANT NOTE: The dot product is an operation involving two vectors, but the result is a scalar !! E.G.,:

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = c$$

The dot product is also called the **scalar product** of two vectors.

Q1: So, what would the dot product of three

vectors be? I.E.,:



A:

Note also that the dot product is commutative, i.e.,:

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{A}$$

Some more fun facts about the dot product include:

1. The dot product of a vector with itself is equal to the magnitude of the vector squared.

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{A} = |\mathbf{A}| |\mathbf{A}| \cos 0^{\circ} = |\mathbf{A}|^{2}$$

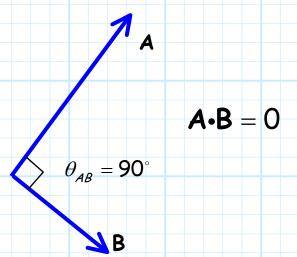
Therefore:

$$|\mathbf{A}| = \sqrt{\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{A}}$$

2. If $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$ (and $|\mathbf{A}| \neq 0$, $|\mathbf{B}| \neq 0$), then it must be true that:

$$\cos \theta_{AB} = 0 \implies \theta_{AB} = 90^{\circ}$$

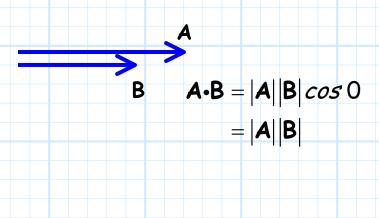
Thus, if $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$, the two vectors are **orthogonal** (perpendicular).



3. If $A \cdot B = |A||B|$, then it must be true that:

$$\cos \theta_{AB} = 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \theta_{AB} = 0$$

Thus, vectors A and B must have the same direction. They are said to be collinear (parallel).



4. If $A \cdot B = -|A||B|$, then it must be true that:

$$\cos \theta_{AB} = -1 \implies \theta_{AB} = 180^{\circ}$$

Thus, vectors A and B point in opposite directions; they are said to be anti-parallel.



$$\mathbf{A \cdot B} = |\mathbf{A}||\mathbf{B}|\cos 180^{\circ}$$
$$= -|\mathbf{A}||\mathbf{B}|$$

The dot product is distributive with addition, such that:

 $= |\mathbf{A}|^2 + \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C} \cdot \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{C} \cdot \mathbf{B}$

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{C}$$

For example, we can write:

$$(A+B)\cdot (A+C) = (A+B)\cdot A + (A+B)\cdot C$$
 (distributive)
= $A\cdot (A+B) + C\cdot (A+B)$ (commutative)
= $A\cdot A + A\cdot B + C\cdot A + C\cdot B$ (distributive)

(distributive)

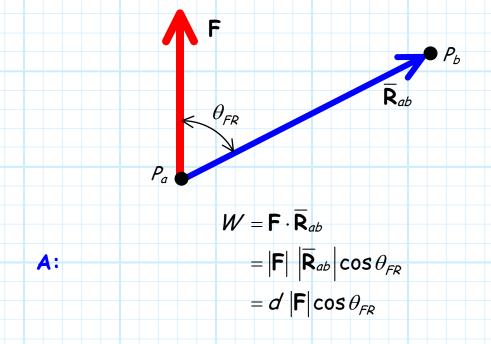
One application of the dot product is the determination of work. Say an object moves a distance d, directly from point P_a to point P_b , by applying a constant force \mathbf{F} .

Q: How much work has been done?

First, we can specify the direct path from point P_a to point P_b with a directed distance:

 $\overline{\mathsf{R}}_{ab}$

The work done is simply the **dot product** of the applied force vector and the directed distance!



The value $|\mathbf{F}|\cos\theta_{FR}$ is said to be the scalar component of force \mathbf{F} in the direction of directed distance \mathbf{R}_{ab}

The Unit Vector

Now that we understand multiplication and division of a vector by a scalar, we can discuss a very important concept: **the unit vector**.

Lets begin with vector \mathbf{A} . Say we **divide** this vector by its **magnitude** (a scalar value). We create a new vector, which we will denote as \hat{a}_{a} :

$$\hat{a}_{A} = \frac{A}{|A|}$$

Q: How is vector \hat{a}_A related to vector A?

A: Since we divided A by a scalar value, the vector \hat{a}_{A} has the same direction as vector A.

But, the **magnitude** of \hat{a}_{A} is:

$$\left|\hat{a}_{A}\right| = \frac{|A|}{|A|} = 1$$

The vector \hat{a}_{A} has a magnitude equal to **one**! We call such a vector a **unit vector**.

A unit vector is essentially a description of direction only, as its magnitude is always unit valued (i.e., equal to one).

Therefore:

- * |A| is a scalar value that describes the **magnitude** of vector A.
- * \hat{a}_{A} is a vector that describes the direction of A.

Rearranging the formula on the previous page, we can express vector \boldsymbol{A} as:

$$\mathbf{A} = |\mathbf{A}| \hat{a}_{\mathbf{A}}$$

Thus, any vector can be written as the product of its magnitude and its unit vector!

 \hat{a}_{A}

$$\mathbf{A} = |A| \hat{a}_A$$

Q: What, approximately, is the magnitude of vector A shown above?

$$\mathbf{A}$$
: $|\mathbf{A}| =$

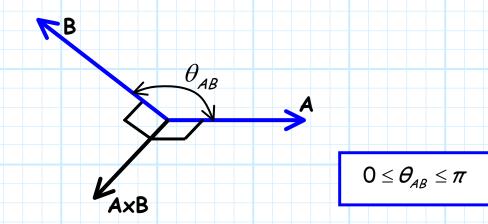
The Cross Product

The cross product of two vectors, \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} , is denoted as $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$.

The cross product of two vectors is defined as:

$$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = \hat{a}_n |\mathbf{A}| |\mathbf{B}| \sin \theta_{AB}$$

Just as with the dot product, the angle θ_{AB} is the angle between the vectors \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} . The unit vector \hat{a}_n is **orthogonal** to both \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} (i.e., $\hat{a}_n \cdot \mathbf{A} = 0$ and $\hat{a}_n \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$).



IMPORTANT NOTE: The cross product is an operation involving two vectors, and the result is also a vector. E.G.,:

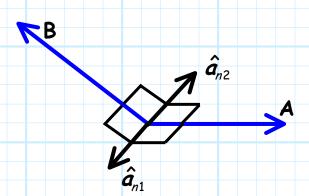
$$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{C}$$

The magnitude of vector AxB is therefore:

$$|\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}| = |\mathbf{A}| |\mathbf{B}| \sin \theta_{AB}$$

Whereas the **direction** of vector $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$ is described by unit vector \hat{a}_n .

Problem! There are two unit vectors that satisfy the equations $\hat{a}_n \cdot \mathbf{A} = 0$ and $\hat{a}_n \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$!! These two vectors are antiparallel.



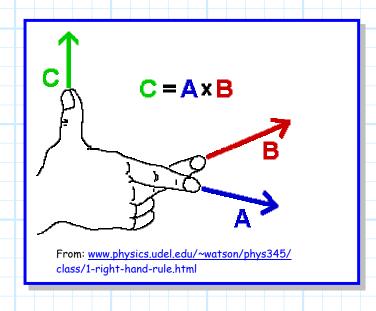
$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{a}}_{n1} = \mathbf{A} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{a}}_{n2} = 0$$

$$\mathbf{B} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{a}}_{n1} = \mathbf{B} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{a}}_{n2} = 0$$

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{n1} = -\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{n2}$$

Q: Which unit vector is correct?

A: Use the right-hand rule (See figure 2-9)!!

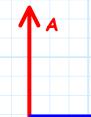


Some fun facts about the cross product!

1. If $\theta_{AB} = 90^{\circ}$ (i.e., orthogonal), then:

$$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = \hat{a}_n |\mathbf{A}| |\mathbf{B}| \sin 90^\circ$$

= $\hat{a}_n |\mathbf{A}| |\mathbf{B}|$



2. If $\theta_{AB} = 0^{\circ}$ (i.e., parallel), then:

$$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = \hat{a}_n |\mathbf{A}| |\mathbf{B}| \sin 0^\circ$$

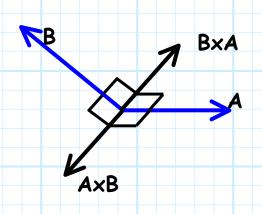
$$= 0$$



Note that $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = 0$ also if $\theta_{AB} = 180^{\circ}$



3. The cross product is **not** commutative! In other words, $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} \neq \mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{A}$. Instead:



I see! When
evaluating the
cross product of
two vectors, the
order is doggone important!

$$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = -(\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{A})$$



4. The negative of the cross product is:

$$-(\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) = -\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A} \times (-\mathbf{B})$$

5. The cross product is also **not** associative:

$$(A \times B) \times C \neq A \times (B \times C)$$

Therefore, AxBxC has ambiguous meaning!

6. But, the cross product is distributive, in that:

$$\mathbf{A} \times (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) = (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) + (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{C})$$

and also,

$$(\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) \times \mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{A}) + (\mathbf{C} \times \mathbf{A})$$

The Triple Product

The **triple product** is not a "new" operation, as it is simply a combination of the **dot** and **cross** products.

The triple product of vectors A, B, and C is denoted as:

 $A \cdot B \times C$

Q: Yikes! Does this mean:

 $(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}) \times \mathbf{C}$

or

 $\mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{B} \mathbf{x} \mathbf{C})$

A: The answer is **easy**! Only one of these two interpretations makes sense:

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In the **first** case, $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}$ is a scalar value, say $d = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}$. Therefore we can write the first equation as:

$$(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}) \times \mathbf{C} = d \times \mathbf{C}$$

But, this makes no sense! The cross product of a scalar and a vector has no meaning.

In the **second** interpretation, the cross product $\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{C}$ is a **vector**, say $\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{D}$. Therefore, we can write the second equation as:

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{C}) = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{D}$$

Not only does this make sense, but the result is a scalar!

The triple product $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{C}$ results in a scalar value.

The Cyclic Property

It can be shown that the triple product of vectors A, B, and C can be evaluated in three ways:

$$A \cdot B \times C = C \cdot A \times B = B \cdot C \times A$$

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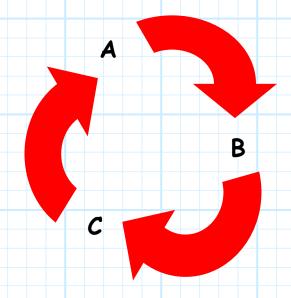
But, it is important to note that this does **not** mean that order is unimportant! For example:

$$A \cdot B \times C \neq A \cdot C \times B$$

$$A \cdot B \times C \neq C \cdot B \times A$$

$$A \cdot B \times C \neq B \cdot A \times C$$

The cyclical rule means that the triple product is invariant to shifts (i.e., rotations) in the order of the vectors.



There are six ways to arrange three vectors. Therefore, we can group the triple product of three vectors into two groups of three products:

$$A \cdot B \times C = C \cdot A \times B = B \cdot C \times A$$

$$B \cdot A \times C = C \cdot B \times A = A \cdot C \times B$$

but,
$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{C} = -(\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{C})$$

Example: Vector Algebra

Consider the scalar expression:

$$ac + bc + bd + ad$$

We can manipulate and simply this expression using the rules of scalar algebra:

$$ac + bc + bd + ad = ac + ad + bc + bd$$
 (commutative)
 $= (ac + ad) + (bc + bd)$ (associative)
 $= a(c + d) + b(c + d)$ (distributive)
 $= (a + b)(c + d)$ (distributive)

We can likewise perform a similar analysis on vector expressions! Consider now the expression:

$$(A+B)\cdot C\times A$$

We can show that this is actually a very familiar and basic vector operation!

$$(A + B) \cdot C \times A = C \cdot A \times (A + B)$$
 (Triple product identity)
 $= C \cdot (A \times A + A \times B)$ (Cross Product Distibutive)
 $= C \cdot A \times B$ (Since $A \times A = 0$)
 $= A \cdot B \times C$ (Triple product identity)

Or, for example, if we consider:

$$(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) \cdot (\mathbf{B} + 2\mathbf{A})$$

we find:

$$= (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) \cdot (\mathbf{B} + 2\mathbf{A})$$

$$= \mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{B} + 2\mathbf{A}) + \mathbf{B} \cdot (\mathbf{B} + 2\mathbf{A})$$
 (dot product distributive)

$$= A \cdot B + A \cdot 2A + B \cdot B + B \cdot 2A$$
 (dot product distributive)

$$= A \cdot B + 2 A \cdot A + B \cdot B + 2 B \cdot A$$
 (scalar multiply commutative)

=
$$A \cdot B + 2|A|^2 + |B|^2 + 2B \cdot A$$
 (C · C = |C|² identity)

$$= \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} + 2 |\mathbf{A}|^2 + |\mathbf{B}|^2 + 2 \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}$$

$$= 2|A|^2 + 2A \cdot B + A \cdot B + |B|^2$$

$$= 2|\mathbf{A}|^2 + (2+1)\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} + |\mathbf{B}|^2$$

$$= |A|^2 + 3A \cdot B + |B|^2$$

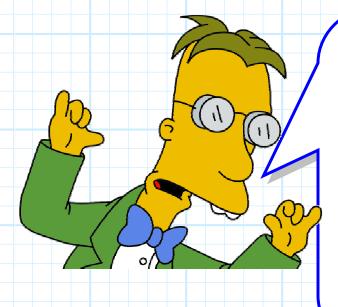
$$(\mathbf{C} \cdot \mathbf{C} = |\mathbf{C}|^2 \text{ identity})$$

(dot product communitive)

(vector addition commutative)

 $= 2|\mathbf{A}|^2 + (2+1)\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} + |\mathbf{B}|^2$ (scalar multiply distributive)

$$(2+1=3)$$



Keep in mind one very important point when doing vector algebra the expression can never change type (e.g., from vector to scalar)!

In other words, if the expression initially results in a vector (or scalar), then after each manipulation, the result must also be a vector (or scalar).

For example, we find that the following expression cannot possibly be true!

$$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} + (\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C}) \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{C}) + (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) \cdot \mathbf{C}$$

Q: Do you see why?

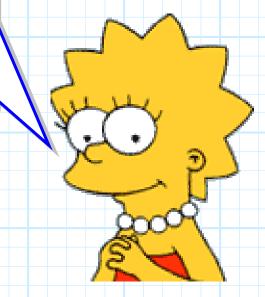
A:

Likewise, be careful **not** to create expressions that have **no** mathematical meaning whatsoever!

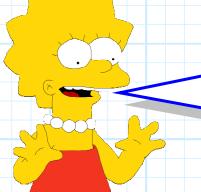
Examples include:

$$(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}) \times \mathbf{C}$$

$$\boldsymbol{A} + (\boldsymbol{B} \cdot \boldsymbol{C})$$



Scalar, Vector, or Neither?



Let's **test** our vector algebraic skills!

Can **you** evaluate the following

expressions, and determine whether

the result is a **scalar** (**S**), a **vector**(**V**), or **neither** (**N**) ??

1. (A·B)C

 $2. \quad \mathbf{A} + (\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C})$

3. $\mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C})$

4. A(**BxC**)

5. $B(A \cdot C) - C(A \cdot B)$

6. $\mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{C}) + \mathbf{C} \cdot (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B})$

7. $A \cdot B \times C \cdot D$

Orthogonal and Orthonormal Vector Sets

We often specify or relate a set of scalar values (e.g., x, y, z) using a set of scalar equations. For example, we might say:

$$x = y$$
 and $z = x + 2$

From which we can conclude a third expression:

$$z = y + 2$$

Say that we now add a **new** constraint to the first two:

$$x + y = 2$$

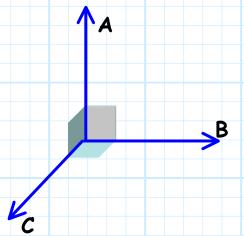
We can now specifically conclude that:

$$x=1$$
 $y=1$ $z=3$

Note we can likewise use vector equations to specify or relate a set of vectors (e.g., A,B,C).

For example, consider a set of **three** vectors that are oriented such that they are **mutually orthogonal**!

In other words, each vector is **perpendicular** to each of the other two:



Note that we can describe this orthogonal relationship mathematically using three simple equations:

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$$

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{C} = 0$$

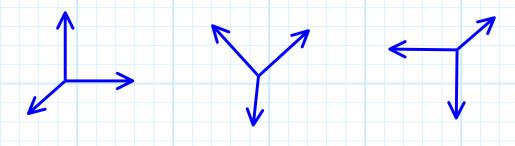
$$\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C} = 0$$

We can therefore **define** an orthogonal set of vectors using the **dot product**:

Three (non-zero) vectors \mathbf{A} , \mathbf{B} and \mathbf{C} form an orthogonal set iff they satisfy $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{C} \cdot \mathbf{A} = 0$

Note that there are an infinite number of mutually orthogonal vector sets that can be formed!

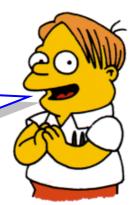






Q: Can four or more vectors form an mutually orthogonal set?

A: Nope, not in a threedimensional space! Three is the limit.



Consider now a mutually orthogonal set of unit vectors. Such a set can be defined as any three vectors that satisfy these six equations:

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{C} \cdot \mathbf{A} = 0$$
 (mutually orthognal)

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{C} \cdot \mathbf{C} = 1$$
 (unit magnitudes)

A set of vectors that satisfy these equations are said to form an **orthonormal** set of vectors! Therefore, an orthonormal set consists of **unit vectors** where:

$$\hat{a}_{A} \cdot \hat{a}_{B} = \hat{a}_{B} \cdot \hat{a}_{C} = \hat{a}_{C} \cdot \hat{a}_{A} = 0$$

Again, there are an infinite number of orthonormal vector sets, but each set consists of only three vectors.

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