

1 The Cross Product

Notation 1.1 *In this course, we'll abide by the notational convention*

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & \cdots & a_{3n} \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & a_{n3} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix}$$

to denote an $(n \times n)$ -matrix and

$$\det(A) = |A| = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & \cdots & a_{3n} \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & a_{n3} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{vmatrix}$$

to denote its determinant.

Definition 1.2 *Given vectors $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle$ in \mathbb{R}^3 (note that this **ONLY** works for vectors in \mathbb{R}^3), their **cross product** is the vector defined as*

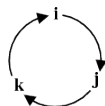
$$\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a_2 & a_3 \\ b_2 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} - \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{j} + \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ b_1 & b_2 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{k}$$

where $\mathbf{i} = \langle 1, 0, 0 \rangle$, $\mathbf{j} = \langle 0, 1, 0 \rangle$, and $\mathbf{k} = \langle 0, 0, 1 \rangle$ are treated just like numbers in the (3×3) -matrix determinant and as vectors in the expansion given in the right most side of the 2 equalities above.

WARNING 1.3 *While the cross product has many other properties typically associated with products, it is **NOT** commutative; it is **anticommutative**, meaning $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = -(\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{u})$.*

Theorem 1.4 *Let \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} be two nonzero vectors in \mathbb{R}^3 .*

1. $|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}| = |\mathbf{u}||\mathbf{v}|\sin(\theta)$, where $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$ is the angle between \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} .
2. Assuming the right hand coordinate system (positive x is out, positive y is right, and positive z is up), the direction of $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$ is determined as follows: place the vectors tail to tail, then let the knuckles on your right hand be that pivot point with \mathbf{v} represented as the back of your hand and \mathbf{u} represented as the lower segment of your fingers; in this case, pointing your thumb outward ("thumbs up" or "thumbs down"), $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$ is pointed in the direction of your thumb.
3. $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ if and only if \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are parallel (scalar multiples).
4. Treating \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} as two sides of a parallelogram, the area of that parallelogram is $|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}|$.
5. $\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{k}$, $\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{k} = \mathbf{i}$, and $\mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{i} = \mathbf{j}$. To help you remember this, the book includes this circle:



2 Basic Physical Applications of the Cross Product

2.1 Torque

Torque is the twisting force generated by a force acting at a distance from a pivot point O . Typically, we consider torque as the force $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ screwing in a bolt that's generated by moving a wrench that has direction and length (from the end O to the other end P) given by a vector \mathbf{r} (at a fixed time) with an external force \mathbf{F} (usually pressing the wrench up or down at an angle to make it twist). Typically, we let θ be the angle that \mathbf{F} forms with \mathbf{r} . Then, the torque is $\boldsymbol{\tau} = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{F}$. By bullet 1 in Theorem 1.4 on this handout, torque maximizes when $\theta = \pi/2$.

2.2 Magnetic Force on a Moving Charge

Suppose a charge of q coulombs moves at a velocity given by the vector \mathbf{v} at the point P , where it enters a magnetic field moving with direction and strength (in teslas, abbreviated T) given by the vector \mathbf{B} (at this point). Then, the force experienced by the charge moving through the magnetic field is given by the vector $\mathbf{F} = q(\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B})$.

3 Vector-Valued Functions

Definition 3.1 A function $\mathbf{r} : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ given by $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle x(t), y(t), z(t) \rangle = x(t)\mathbf{i} + y(t)\mathbf{j} + z(t)\mathbf{k}$ may be viewed either as a set of three parametric equations describing a curve in 3D or a **vector-valued function**, meaning for each real number t , we think of $\mathbf{r}(t)$ (as above) as a vector in \mathbb{R}^3 . The **domain** of a vector-valued function is the set of all t for which $x(t)$, $y(t)$, and $z(t)$ are all defined. The **orientation** (also called **positive orientation**) of a curve is the direction the points $\mathbf{r}(t)$ move as t increases.

The **equation of a line** passing through a point $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ in the direction of a vector $\mathbf{v} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$ is $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle x_0, y_0, z_0 \rangle + t\mathbf{v} = \langle x_0 + at, y_0 + bt, z_0 + ct \rangle$, for $-\infty < t < \infty$.

4 Analysis of Vector-Valued Functions

4.1 Limits and Continuity

Definition 4.1 Let a be a number. Consider the vector-valued function $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle$, and suppose that $\lim_{t \rightarrow a} f(t) = L_1$, $\lim_{t \rightarrow a} g(t) = L_2$, and $\lim_{t \rightarrow a} h(t) = L_3$. Then, **the limit as t approaches a** is the vector $\mathbf{L} = \langle L_1, L_2, L_3 \rangle$. If $\lim_{t \rightarrow a} \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{r}(a)$, then we say \mathbf{r} is **continuous at $t = a$** . For an interval I , we say \mathbf{r} is **continuous on I** if it is continuous at all a in I .

4.2 Derivatives, Tangent Vectors, and Integrals

Definition 4.2 Let $\mathbf{r} : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ be defined by $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle$ be a vector-valued function, where f , g , and h are differentiable functions on an interval (a, b) . Then, \mathbf{r}' , the **derivative of \mathbf{r} on (a, b)** , is defined as $\mathbf{r}'(t) = \langle f'(t), g'(t), h'(t) \rangle$, and for each c in (a, b) , provided $\mathbf{r}'(c) \neq \mathbf{0}$, we call $\mathbf{r}'(c)$ the **tangent vector at the point $\mathbf{r}(c)$** . With this (nonzero) tangent vector, if we divide it by its length, we obtain the **unit tangent vector at $t = c$** .

In general, the tangent vectors to a curve move in the direction of the positive orientation and vice-versa.

The derivatives of vector valued functions satisfy the usual rules from Calculus I, but the difference is there are 3 product rules (satisfying the obvious analogues to the scalar-valued product rule), one for each of the function forms $f(t)\mathbf{r}(t)$ (where $f(t)$ is scalar-valued and differentiable, meaning $f(t)\mathbf{r}(t)$ is a vector-valued function), $\mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t)$ (dot product of vector-valued functions, which is a scalar-valued function), and $\mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t)$ (cross-product of vector-valued functions, which is a vector-valued function), and the Chain Rule applies to one form: $\mathbf{u}(f(t))$ where \mathbf{u} is vector-valued and f is scalar-valued.

Integrals are similarly evaluated component-wise.

Definition 4.3 For the vector-valued function $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle$, where the antiderivatives of f , g , and h are respectively F , G , and H , the **antiderivative or indefinite integral of \mathbf{r}** is

$$\int \mathbf{r}(t) dt = \langle F(t), G(t), H(t) \rangle + \langle C_1, C_2, C_3 \rangle,$$

where C_1 , C_2 , and C_3 are arbitrary constants. Letting $[a, b]$ be an interval on which f , g , and h are integrable on, the **definite integral of \mathbf{r} on $[a, b]$** is

$$\int_a^b \mathbf{r}(t) dt = \left\langle \int_a^b f(t) dt, \int_a^b g(t) dt, \int_a^b h(t) dt \right\rangle.$$