

## 3.1. DISTANCES, ANGLES, AND THEIR STANDARD UNCERTAINTIES

## 3.1.5. Vector product

The scalar product defined in Section 3.1.2 is one multiplicative operation of two vectors that may be defined; another is the vector product, which is denoted as  $\mathbf{u} \wedge \mathbf{v}$  (or  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$  or  $[\mathbf{u}\mathbf{v}]$ ). The vector product of vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  is defined as a vector of length  $uv \sin \varphi$ , where  $\varphi$  is the angle between the vectors, and of direction perpendicular to both  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  in the sense that  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{u} \wedge \mathbf{v}$  form a right-handed system;  $\mathbf{u} \wedge \mathbf{v}$  is generated by rotating  $\mathbf{u}$  into  $\mathbf{v}$  and advancing in the direction of a right-handed screw. The magnitude of  $\mathbf{u} \wedge \mathbf{v}$ , given by

$$|\mathbf{u} \wedge \mathbf{v}| = uv \sin \varphi \quad (3.1.5.1)$$

is equal to the area of the parallelogram defined by  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ .

It follows from the definition that

$$\mathbf{u} \wedge \mathbf{v} = -\mathbf{v} \wedge \mathbf{u}. \quad (3.1.5.2)$$

## 3.1.6. Permutation tensors

Many relationships involving vector products may be expressed compactly and conveniently in terms of the permutation tensors, defined as

$$\epsilon_{ijk} = \mathbf{a}_i \cdot \mathbf{a}_j \wedge \mathbf{a}_k \quad (3.1.6.1)$$

$$\epsilon^{ijk} = \mathbf{a}^i \cdot \mathbf{a}^j \wedge \mathbf{a}^k. \quad (3.1.6.2)$$

Since  $\mathbf{a}_i \cdot \mathbf{a}_j \wedge \mathbf{a}_k$  represents the volume of the parallelepiped defined by vectors  $\mathbf{a}_i, \mathbf{a}_j, \mathbf{a}_k$ , it follows that  $\epsilon_{ijk}$  vanishes if any two indices are equal to each other. The same argument applies, of course, to  $\epsilon^{ijk}$ . That is,

$$\epsilon_{ijk} = 0, \quad \epsilon^{ijk} = 0, \quad \text{if } j = i \text{ or } k = i \text{ or } k = j. \quad (3.1.6.3)$$

If the indices are all different,

$$\epsilon_{ijk} = PV, \quad \epsilon^{ijk} = PV^* \quad (3.1.6.4)$$

for even permutations of  $ijk$  (123, 231, or 312), and

$$\epsilon_{ijk} = -PV, \quad \epsilon^{ijk} = -PV^* \quad (3.1.6.5)$$

for odd permutations (132, 213, or 321). Here,  $P = +1$  for right-handed axes,  $P = -1$  for left-handed axes,  $V$  is the unit-cell volume, and  $V^* = 1/V$  is the volume of the reciprocal cell defined by the reciprocal basis vectors  $\mathbf{a}^i, \mathbf{a}^j, \mathbf{a}^k$ .

A discussion of the properties of the permutation tensors may be found in Sands (1982a). In right-handed Cartesian systems, where  $P = 1$ , and  $V = V^* = 1$ , the permutation tensors are equivalent to the permutation symbols denoted by  $e_{ijk}$ .

## 3.1.7. Components of vector product

As is shown in Sands (1982a), the components of the vector product  $\mathbf{u} \wedge \mathbf{v}$  are given by

$$\mathbf{u} \wedge \mathbf{v} = \epsilon_{ijk} u^i v^j \mathbf{a}^k, \quad (3.1.7.1)$$

where again  $\mathbf{a}^k$  is a reciprocal basis vector (some writers use  $\mathbf{a}^*, \mathbf{b}^*, \mathbf{c}^*$  to represent the reciprocal axes). A special case of (3.1.7.1) is

$$\mathbf{a}_i \wedge \mathbf{a}_j = \epsilon_{ijk} \mathbf{a}^k, \quad (3.1.7.2)$$

which may be taken as a defining equation for the reciprocal basis vectors. Similarly,

$$\mathbf{a}^i \wedge \mathbf{a}^j = \epsilon^{ijk} \mathbf{a}_k, \quad (3.1.7.3)$$

which completes the characterization of the dual vector system with basis vectors  $\mathbf{a}_i$  and  $\mathbf{a}^j$  obeying

$$\mathbf{a}_i \cdot \mathbf{a}^j = \delta_i^j. \quad (3.1.7.4)$$

In (3.1.7.4),  $\delta_i^j$  is the Kronecker delta, which equals 1 if  $i = j$ , 0 if  $i \neq j$ . The relationships between these quantities are explored at some length in Sands (1982a).

## 3.1.8. Some vector relationships

The results developed above lead to several useful relationships between vectors; for derivations, see Sands (1982a).

## 3.1.8.1. Triple vector product

$$\mathbf{u} \wedge (\mathbf{v} \wedge \mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w})\mathbf{v} - (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v})\mathbf{w} \quad (3.1.8.1)$$

$$(\mathbf{u} \wedge \mathbf{v}) \wedge \mathbf{w} = -(\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w})\mathbf{u} + (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w})\mathbf{v}. \quad (3.1.8.2)$$

## 3.1.8.2. Scalar product of vector products

$$(\mathbf{u} \wedge \mathbf{v}) \cdot (\mathbf{w} \wedge \mathbf{z}) = (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w})(\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{z}) - (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{z})(\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}). \quad (3.1.8.3)$$

A derivation of this result may be found also in Shmueli (1974).

## 3.1.8.3. Vector product of vector products

$$(\mathbf{u} \wedge \mathbf{v}) \wedge (\mathbf{w} \wedge \mathbf{z}) = (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w} \wedge \mathbf{z})\mathbf{v} - (\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} \wedge \mathbf{z})\mathbf{u} \quad (3.1.8.4)$$

$$(\mathbf{u} \wedge \mathbf{v}) \wedge (\mathbf{w} \wedge \mathbf{z}) = (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} \wedge \mathbf{z})\mathbf{w} - (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} \wedge \mathbf{w})\mathbf{z}. \quad (3.1.8.5)$$

## 3.1.9. Planes

Among several ways of characterizing a plane in a general rectilinear coordinate system is a description in terms of the coordinates of three non-collinear points that lie in the plane. If the points are  $U, V$  and  $W$ , lying at the ends of vectors  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{w}$ , the vectors  $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}$  and  $\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{u}$  are in the plane. The vector

$$\mathbf{z} = (\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}) \wedge (\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}) \quad (3.1.9.1)$$

is normal to the plane. Expansion of (3.1.9.1) yields

$$\mathbf{z} = (\mathbf{u} \wedge \mathbf{v}) + (\mathbf{v} \wedge \mathbf{w}) + (\mathbf{w} \wedge \mathbf{u}). \quad (3.1.9.2)$$

Making use of (3.1.7.1),

$$\mathbf{z} = \epsilon_{ijk} (u^j v^k + v^j w^k + w^j u^k) \mathbf{a}^i. \quad (3.1.9.3)$$

If now  $\mathbf{x}$  is any vector from the origin to the plane,  $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{u}$  is in the plane, and

$$(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{z} = 0. \quad (3.1.9.4)$$

From (3.1.9.2),

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} \wedge \mathbf{w}. \quad (3.1.9.5)$$

Rearrangement of (3.1.9.4) with  $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{z}$  on the left and  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{z}$  on the right, and using (3.1.9.3) for  $\mathbf{z}$  on the left leads to

$$\epsilon_{ijk} x^i (u^j v^k + v^j w^k + w^j u^k) = \epsilon_{ijk} u^i v^j w^k. \quad (3.1.9.6)$$

If, in particular, the points are on the coordinate axes, their designations are  $[u^1, 0, 0]$ ,  $[0, v^2, 0]$  and  $[0, 0, w^3]$ , and (3.1.9.6) becomes

$$x^1/u^1 + x^2/v^2 + x^3/w^3 = 1, \quad (3.1.9.7)$$

which may be written

$$x^i h_i = 1 \quad (3.1.9.8)$$

or

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{h} = 1 \quad (3.1.9.9)$$

in which the vector  $\mathbf{h}$  has coordinates