

Chapter One : Vectors

1.1 What is a Vector?

- Quantities that need to be represented by magnitude (size) and direction are called "vectors".
- Examples
 - Wind
 - Boat or aircraft travel
 - Forces in physics

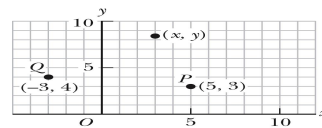
1.2. Coordinate Systems

- Used to describe the position of a point in space
- Common coordinate systems are:
 - Cartesian (x,y,z)
 - Polar (r,θ)

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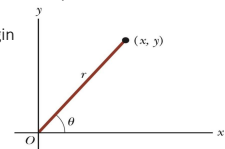
1.2.1. Cartesian Coordinate System

- Also called rectangular coordinate system, x- and y- axes intersect at the origin and Points are labeled (x,y)



1.2.2. Polar Coordinate System

- A Point is at a distance r from the origin in the direction of angle θ and the reference line is often the x-axis and Points are labeled (r, θ)



- Based on forming a right triangle from r and θ

$$x = r \cos \theta$$

$$y = r \sin \theta$$

- If the Cartesian coordinates are known

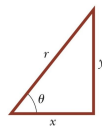
$$\tan \theta = \frac{y}{x}$$

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

$$\sin \theta = \frac{y}{r}$$

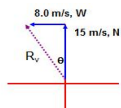
$$\cos \theta = \frac{x}{r}$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{y}{x}$$



Example

A boat moves with a velocity of 15 m/s, N in a river which flows with a velocity of 8.0 m/s, west. Calculate the boat's resultant velocity with respect to due north.



$$R_v = \sqrt{8^2 + 15^2} = 17 \text{ m/s}$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{8}{15} = 0.5333$$

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(0.5333) = 28.1^\circ$$

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1.3. Vectors and Scalars

- A **scalar quantity** is any quantity in physics that has **magnitude**, but not a direction associated with it.

- Magnitude** – A numerical value with units.

Ex: Length, temperature, mass, speed

- A **vector quantity** is ANY quantity in physics that has both **magnitude** and **direction**.

- Ex. Force, velocity, displacement, acceleration

Also used for printing is simple bold print: **A**

When dealing with just the magnitude of a vector in print, an italic letter will be used:

A or $|\vec{A}|$

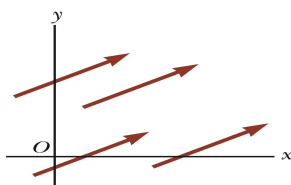
- The magnitude of the vector has physical units.
- The magnitude of a vector is always a positive number.

When handwritten, use an arrow: \vec{A}

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1.4. Equality of Two Vectors

- Two vectors are **equal**, if they have the same magnitude and the same direction.
- If $A = B$ and they point along parallel lines
- All of the vectors shown are equal.
- Allows a vector to be moved to a position parallel to itself



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1.5. Adding Vectors

- Vector addition is very different from adding scalar quantities.
- When adding vectors, their directions must be taken into account.
- Units must be the same
- Graphical Methods
 - Use scale drawings
- Algebraic Methods
 - More convenient

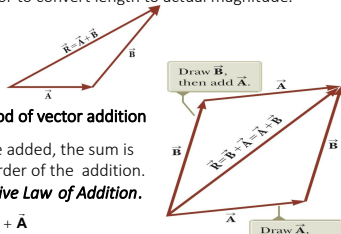
➤ Adding Vectors Graphically

- Draw the first vector, \vec{A} with the appropriate length and in the direction specified, with respect to a coordinate system.
- Draw the next vector with the appropriate length and in the direction specified, with respect to a coordinate system whose origin is the end of vector \vec{A} and parallel to the coordinate system used for \vec{A} .

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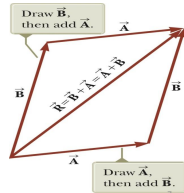
(A). Triangle method of vector addition

- Continue drawing the vectors “tip-to-tail” or “head-to-tail”.
- The resultant is drawn from the origin of the first vector to the end of the last vector.
- Measure the length of the resultant and its angle.
 - Use the scale factor to convert length to actual magnitude.

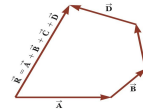
**(B). Parallelogram method of vector addition**

When two vectors are added, the sum is independent of the order of the addition. This is the **Commutative Law of Addition**.

$$\vec{A} + \vec{B} = \vec{B} + \vec{A}$$

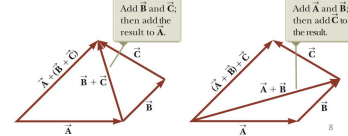
**(C). Polygon method of vector addition**

- When you have many vectors, just keep repeating the process until all are included.
- The resultant is still drawn from the tail of the first vector to the tip of the last vector.



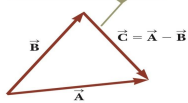
- When adding three or more vectors, their sum is independent of the way in which the individual vectors are grouped. This is called the **Associative Property of Addition**.

$$\vec{A} + (\vec{B} + \vec{C}) = (\vec{A} + \vec{B}) + \vec{C}$$

**1.6. Negative of a Vector**

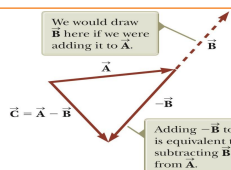
- The negative of a vector is defined as the vector that, when added to the original vector, gives a resultant of zero.
 - Represented as $-\vec{A}$
 - $\vec{A} + (-\vec{A}) = 0$
- The negative of the vector will have the same magnitude, but point in the opposite direction.

Vector $\vec{C} = \vec{A} - \vec{B}$ is the vector we must add to \vec{B} to obtain \vec{A} .

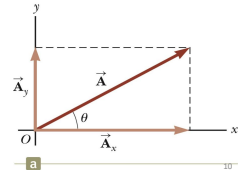


b. Added to the second vector gives you the first vector.

a. If $\vec{A} - \vec{B}$, then use $\vec{A} + (-\vec{B})$. Continue with standard vector addition procedure.

**1.7. Component Method of Adding Vectors**

- Graphical addition is not recommended when:
 - High accuracy is required
 - If you have a three-dimensional problem
- Component method is an alternative method
 - It uses projections of vectors along coordinate axes
- A **component** is a projection of a vector along an axis.
 - Any vector can be completely described by its components.
- It is useful to use **rectangular components**. These are the projections of the vector along the x- and y-axes.

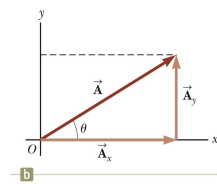


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- \vec{A}_x and \vec{A}_y are the **component vectors** of \vec{A}
 - They are vectors and follow all the rules for vectors.
- A_x and A_y are scalars, and will be referred to as the **components** of \vec{A}
- Assume you are given a vector \vec{A}
- It can be expressed in terms of two other vectors, \vec{A}_x and \vec{A}_y

$$\vec{A} = \vec{A}_x + \vec{A}_y$$
- These three vectors form a right triangle.

- The y- component is moved to the end of the x- component.
- This is due to the fact that any vector can be moved parallel to itself without being affected.
- This completes the triangle.



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- The x-component of a vector is the projection along the x-axis.

$$A_x = A \cos \theta$$
- The y-component of a vector is the projection along the y-axis.

$$A_y = A \sin \theta$$
- This assumes the angle θ is measured with respect to the x-axis.
 - If not, do not use these equations, use the sides of the triangle directly.
- The components are the legs of the right triangle whose hypotenuse is the length of A .

$$A = \sqrt{A_x^2 + A_y^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{A_y}{A_x}$$

- May still have to find θ with respect to the positive x-axis
- In a problem, a vector may be specified by its components or its magnitude and direction.

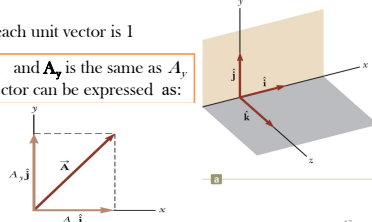
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1.8. Unit Vectors

- A **unit vector** is a dimensionless vector with a magnitude of exactly 1.
- Unit vectors are used to specify a direction and have no other physical significance.
- The symbols \hat{i} , \hat{j} , and \hat{k} represent unit vectors
- They form a set of mutually perpendicular vectors in a right-handed coordinate system
- The magnitude of each unit vector is 1

\mathbf{A}_x is the same as A_x and \mathbf{A}_y is the same as A_y , etc. The complete vector can be expressed as:

$$\mathbf{A} = A_x \hat{i} + A_y \hat{j}$$



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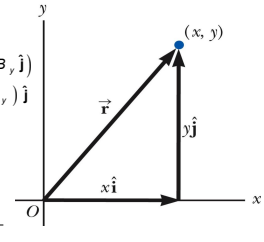
- A point lies in the xy plane and has Cartesian coordinates of (x, y) .
- The point can be specified by the position vector.
 $\mathbf{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j}$
- This gives the components of the vector and its coordinates.

- Using $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Then } \mathbf{R} &= (A_x \hat{i} + A_y \hat{j}) + (B_x \hat{i} + B_y \hat{j}) \\ \mathbf{R} &= (A_x + B_x) \hat{i} + (A_y + B_y) \hat{j} \\ \mathbf{R} &= R_x \hat{i} + R_y \hat{j}\end{aligned}$$

So $R_x = A_x + B_x$ and $R_y = A_y + B_y$

$$R = \sqrt{R_x^2 + R_y^2} \quad \theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{R_y}{R_x}$$



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- Note the relationships among the components of the resultant and the components of the original vectors.

$$R_x = A_x + B_x$$

$$R_y = A_y + B_y$$

- for Three-Dimensional Extension

- Using $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$

- Then

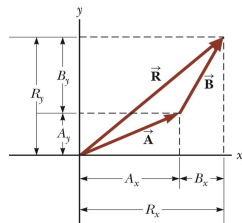
$$\mathbf{R} = (A_x \hat{i} + A_y \hat{j} + A_z \hat{k}) + (B_x \hat{i} + B_y \hat{j} + B_z \hat{k})$$

$$\mathbf{R} = (A_x + B_x) \hat{i} + (A_y + B_y) \hat{j} + (A_z + B_z) \hat{k}$$

$$\mathbf{R} = R_x \hat{i} + R_y \hat{j} + R_z \hat{k}$$

$$R = \sqrt{R_x^2 + R_y^2 + R_z^2} \quad \theta_x = \cos^{-1} \frac{R_x}{R} \text{ etc.}$$

- So $R_x = A_x + B_x$, $R_y = A_y + B_y$, and $R_z = A_z + B_z$



$$R = \sqrt{R_x^2 + R_y^2 + R_z^2} \quad \theta_x = \cos^{-1} \frac{R_x}{R} \text{ etc.}$$

1.9. Product of Vector

i). Dot(Scalar) product:

- If we take two vectors \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} , their dot product is

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = a_1 a_2 + b_1 b_2$$

If \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} are two nonzero vectors, the angle

θ , $0 \leq \theta < \pi$, between \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} is determined

by the formula

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}}{\|\mathbf{A}\| \|\mathbf{B}\|}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{i} \cdot \hat{j} &= 0 & \hat{i} \cdot \hat{k} &= 0 & \hat{j} \cdot \hat{k} &= 0 \\ \hat{i} \cdot \hat{i} &= 1 & \hat{j} \cdot \hat{j} &= 1 & \hat{k} \cdot \hat{k} &= 1\end{aligned}$$

Find the angle θ between $\mathbf{A} = 2\hat{i} - \hat{j}$ and $\mathbf{B} = 4\hat{i} + 3\hat{j}$

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = (2)(4) + (-1)(3) = 8 - 3 = 5$$

$$\|\mathbf{A}\| = \sqrt{2^2 + (-1)^2} = \sqrt{5}$$

$$\|\mathbf{B}\| = \sqrt{4^2 + 3^2} = \sqrt{16 + 9} = \sqrt{25} = 5$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}}{\|\mathbf{A}\| \|\mathbf{B}\|} = \frac{5}{\sqrt{5} \cdot 5} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}$$

$$\theta = \cos^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \approx 63.4^\circ$$

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ii). Cross(Vector) Product:

- The cross product between \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} produces a vector quantity. The magnitude of the vector product is defined as:

$$\|\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}\| = \|\mathbf{A}\| \|\mathbf{B}\| \sin \phi$$

- Where ϕ is the angle between the two vectors.

Consider:

$$\mathbf{A} = A_x \hat{i} + A_y \hat{j} + A_z \hat{k}$$

$$\mathbf{B} = B_x \hat{i} + B_y \hat{j} + B_z \hat{k}$$

$$\mathbf{B} \otimes \mathbf{A} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ B_x & B_y & B_z \\ A_x & A_y & A_z \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\hat{i} \times \hat{i} = 0 \quad \hat{j} \times \hat{j} = 0 \quad \hat{k} \times \hat{k} = 0$$

$$\hat{i} \times \hat{j} = \hat{k} \quad \hat{j} \times \hat{k} = \hat{i} \quad \hat{k} \times \hat{i} = \hat{j}$$

$$\hat{j} \times \hat{i} = -\hat{k} \quad \hat{k} \times \hat{j} = -\hat{i} \quad \hat{i} \times \hat{k} = -\hat{j}$$

Example: Let $\mathbf{A} = 3\hat{i} - 4\hat{j} + 5\hat{k}$ and $\mathbf{B} = -2\hat{i} - 4\hat{j} - 6\hat{k}$. What is $\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{A}$?

$$\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{A} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ -2 & -4 & -6 \\ 3 & -4 & 5 \end{vmatrix} \quad \mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{A} = -44\hat{i} - 8\hat{j} + 20\hat{k}$$

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iii). Scalar and Vector Triple product

- The **scalar triple product** is defined as the **dot product** of one of the vectors with the **cross product** of the other two.

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

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) = \mathbf{B} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) = 0$$

- Product of three vectors. Given three vectors \mathbf{A} , \mathbf{B} , and \mathbf{C} . We list three products with formula

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

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

$$(\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) \cdot \mathbf{C} = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

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