VECTOR AND SCALAR QUANTITIES

To understand vectors, we must first be able to distinguish between the two measurable quantities, a scalar and a vector.

A scalar quantity is a measurable quantity that possesses only magnitude. The scalar has no direction. Some examples of these are distance, speed, area, volume, length, time, age and mass.

A vector quantity is a measurable quantity that possesses both magnitude and direction. Some examples of vectors are displacement, velocity, acceleration and weight. We use line segments to represent vectors and the direction of the arrow shows the direction of the vector. The difference between a scalar and a vector is illustrated below.



whose line segment is not arrowed. The direction of the arrow shows the direction of the vector.

Vector Notation

A vector is written or named as a line segment using the two end points, with an arrow at the top. This arrow indicates the direction of the vector, The vector OP is written as \overrightarrow{OP} . In this case, the direction is from the point O to the point P. The point O is the tail of the vector and the point P is the head of the vector. Also, a vector may be symbolised by a letter, written in bold print, such as \boldsymbol{a} or an underlined letter such as $\underline{\boldsymbol{a}}$ to indicate that a quantity is a vector. So, we may write $\overrightarrow{OP} = \boldsymbol{a}$.

Parallel and equal vectors

Vectors that have the same direction are parallel. For example, the vector, p, 4 km North East is parallel to the vector, q, 8 km North East. If, however, another vector, r, is 2 km south-west, (which is opposite in direction to North East) we can represent these vectors by an arrow drawn in the opposite direction, as shown below.



The vectors p and q are said to be *directly* parallel, while the vectors p and r are said to be *oppositely* parallel. Although the vectors p and q are both in the same direction, their magnitudes are different. In our example, the magnitude of p is 4, the magnitude of qis 8 and the magnitude of r is 2. Note that either one is always a scalar multiple of the other.



If two vectors are **equal**, they must have both the same magnitude and same direction. In other words, equal vectors are the same vectors shifted to some other position on the plane.



If two vectors are equal in magnitude but are opposite in direction, one is the inverse of the other.



Adding Parallel vectors

Vectors of the same kind and in the same direction may be added or combined into a single vector called the **resultant**.

In this case, the resultant vector will be in the same direction as the separate or individual vectors and will have a magnitude obtained by adding the magnitudes of these individual vectors.



The two vectors a and b are in the same direction. The resultant will be in the same direction as that of a and of b. The magnitude of the resultant is the magnitude of a + the magnitude of b.

A practical example of parallel vectors is illustrated below. The swimmer is swimming in the same direction as the current (parallel vectors), hence the resultant is the sum of both velocities.



If the direction of the vectors is opposite to each other, then the resultant is in the direction of the greater vector and with a magnitude obtained by subtracting the smaller from the larger.



If the swimmer was swimming against the current then the resultant would be the difference between the vectors.

Swimmer 3ms ⁻¹
Current 1ms ⁻¹
Resultant 2ms ⁻¹

Adding non-parallel vectors

Vectors can be drawn from any point on a plane. Sometimes we are asked to add two vectors that are not parallel and start at the same point, like this:



In such a case, in order to add b to a, we must apply the tail to head principle and shift b to the point where a ends. In so doing, we form a parallelogram with b and a as adjacent sides, as shown below.



We are now in a position to determine the resultant vector. This is the vector that connects the starting point to the end point. If the vectors a and b are **neither** in the same direction **nor** in opposite directions, then we may introduce the parallelogram law of vector addition to obtain their resultant.



When adding two vectors that start from the same point we use the parallelogram law, shifting one of the vectors to the end point of the other. In so doing, we formed a triangle whose third side is the resultant of the two vectors. This is illustrated in the diagram below.



By the parallelogram law:

$$\overrightarrow{AB} + \overrightarrow{AD} = \overrightarrow{AC}$$

But, $\overrightarrow{BC} = \overrightarrow{AD}$ (opposite sides of a parallelogram)

Hence, we may replace \overrightarrow{AD} by \overrightarrow{BC} to get:

$$\overrightarrow{AB} + \overrightarrow{BC} = \overrightarrow{AC}$$

Notice we are now involving the three sides of a triangle ABC. This is called the triangle law for adding vectors.

Triangle law of vector addition

If two vectors are represented in magnitude and direction by two sides of a triangle, taken in order, then the resultant is represented in magnitude and direction by the third side of the triangle, taken in the direction from the starting point.



Hence, we do not always need the parallelogram law to add two vectors, we can simply use the principle of adding vectors tail-to-head to find the resultant vector. If vectors are so positioned that the resultant can be obtained by completing a triangle, then we apply the triangle law. Observe the following applications of this law.



The triangle law of vector addition follows a pattern when we observe any statement of its application. This pattern allows us to predict the resultant without even drawing the triangle.



Example 1

Write down the resultant in each case:

(i) $\overrightarrow{PQ} + \overrightarrow{QR}$ (ii) $\overrightarrow{RP} + \overrightarrow{PQ}$ (iii) $\overrightarrow{QR} + \overrightarrow{RP}$

Solution

By observation of the pattern

(i) \overrightarrow{PR} (Q is the common point, P is the starting point and R is the end point)

(ii) \overrightarrow{RQ} (*P* is the common point, *R* is the starting point and *Q* is the end point)

(iii) \overrightarrow{QP} (*R* is the common point, *Q* is the starting point and *P* is the end point)

Vectors on the Cartesian Plane

So far, we have represented vectors using line segments with arrows to show their direction. When vectors are represented on the Cartesian plane, we use another convention. We have used this convention in the study of motion geometry, where column matrices were used to describe a translation.

Column vector notation

In this notation, a 2×1 matrix is used to represent the vector. The elements of the matrix or components of the vector are their displacements along the x and y-axes.



(b) displacement of *a* units along the *x*-axis and a displacement of *b* units along the *y*-axis.

Position vectors

All vectors are measured from a fixed point. Vectors on a Cartesian Plane can start at any point on the plane (as seen in the above example). Such vectors are known as free vectors. If, however, we start a vector at the origin, then such a vector is called a position vector.

In this sense, position vectors are not free vectors because they are tied to the origin. Their starting point is always the origin.



In general, if P(a, b), then the position vector, $\overrightarrow{OP} = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$. The inverse of \overrightarrow{OP} is $\overrightarrow{PO} = -\overrightarrow{OP} = \begin{pmatrix} -a \\ -b \end{pmatrix}$

Example 2

The points *A*, *B* and *C* have position vectors $\overrightarrow{OA} = \begin{pmatrix} 6\\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$ $\overrightarrow{OB} = \begin{pmatrix} 3\\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\overrightarrow{OC} = \begin{pmatrix} 12\\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$ Express in the form $\begin{pmatrix} x\\ y \end{pmatrix}$ the vector (i) \overrightarrow{BA} (ii) \overrightarrow{BC}



Unit vectors

A unit vector is a vector whose length is one unit. A unit vector can have any direction, but its magnitude is always one. On the Cartesian plane, we can define two special unit vectors, i and j, shown in the diagram below.



The unit vector \mathbf{i} is one unit in length, parallel to the x-axis. The unit vector, \mathbf{j} is one unit in length, parallel to the y-axis.

We can now define any position vector in terms of the unit vectors, *i* and *j*.



We now have an alternative notation to represent a vector. This notation is convenient as it facilitates problems involving algebraic manipulations of vectors.

In general, we can represent vectors using either the unit vector notation or column matrix notation, $a\mathbf{i} + b\mathbf{j} = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ a \end{pmatrix}$

The modulus of a vector

The modulus of a vector refers to its length. If we know the coordinates of a point, P, then we can find the length of the position vector, \overrightarrow{OP} using Pythagoras' Theorem.

For example, to determine the length of the position vector \overrightarrow{OP} , where *P* (3, 4). We observe that *OP* is the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle whose horizontal and vertical sides are 3 and 4 units respectively.



In general, if $\overrightarrow{OP} = a\mathbf{i} + b\mathbf{j} = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$ then the magnitude or the modulus of *p*, is

$$\left|\overrightarrow{OP}\right| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$$

The Direction of a Vector

The direction of a vector is the angle it makes with the positive direction of the *x*-axis. This is easily obtained by simple trigonometry.

In the above example, the direction of \overrightarrow{OP} is determined by calculating θ using the tangent ratio.

Since $\tan \theta = \frac{4}{3}$, the direction of the vector \overrightarrow{OP} is calculated by obtaining the value of θ from:

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{4}{3}\right) = 53.1$$

In general, if $\overrightarrow{OP} = a\mathbf{i} + b\mathbf{j} = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$ then the direction of \overrightarrow{OP} is angle, θ it makes with the positive direction of the *x*-axis, where

 $\theta = tan^{-1}\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)$

Adding of vectors - unit vector notation

When we are adding or subtracting vectors, using the unit vector notation, we add the coefficients of i and j as illustrated below.

If $a = a_1 \mathbf{i} + b_1 \mathbf{j}$ and $b = a_2 \mathbf{i} + b_2 \mathbf{j}$ Then $a + b = (a_1 + a_2)\mathbf{i} + (b_1 + b_2)\mathbf{j}$ So too, $a - b = (a_1 - a_2)\mathbf{i} + (b_1 - b_2)\mathbf{j}$

Example 3

The vectors **a** and **b** are: $a = 6\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}$ and $b = 2\mathbf{i} + 7\mathbf{j}$, express (i) a + b (ii) a - b in the form $a\mathbf{i} + b\mathbf{j}$

Solution

(i)	(ii)
a+b=(6+2)i+(1+7)j	a-b=a+-b
$a+b=8\mathbf{i}+8\mathbf{i}$	a-b=(6i+j)+(-2i-7j)
	$a-b=(6-2)\mathbf{i}+(1-7)\mathbf{j}$
	$a-b=4\mathbf{i}-6\mathbf{j}$

Unit vectors that are not parallel to the *x* and *y*-axes

A unit vector always has a magnitude of one unit, but it can have any direction. We can visualize a unit vector parallel to the vector, $\overrightarrow{OP} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$ as a vector whose magnitude is one and whose direction is the same as *OP*.



When we divide a vector by its magnitude we obtain a vector which has the same direction but a magnitude of one.

The magnitude of the vector $\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$ is $\sqrt{3^2 + 4^2} = 5$, hence, \overrightarrow{OP} has a length of 5 units.

The unit vector in the direction of $\begin{pmatrix} 3\\4 \end{pmatrix}$ is one-fifth the vector $\begin{pmatrix} 3\\4 \end{pmatrix}$ or $\frac{1}{5}\begin{pmatrix} 3\\4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{3}{5}\\ \frac{4}{2} \end{pmatrix}$. Hence, there are 5

vectors, each of length one unit along OP to make up a magnitude of 5.

In general, a unit vector in the direction of	$\left(\begin{array}{c} a\\b\end{array}\right)$) is

Example 4

 $\sqrt{a^2+b^2}$

b

Find the unit vector in the direction of \overrightarrow{OM} , where $\overrightarrow{OM} = 5i + 12j$.

Solution

 $|\overrightarrow{OM}| = \sqrt{25 + 144} = \sqrt{169} = 13$ The unit vector in the direction of \overrightarrow{OM} is $\frac{1}{13}(5i + 12j)$

Proofs in vectors

Often when we study vectors, we are asked to prove relationships between two vectors. For example, we may be asked to prove that two vectors are parallel, or collinear.

To prove two vectors are parallel

If we wish to prove that vectors are parallel, we must simply show that either one of them is a scalar multiple of the other. The converse is also true, that is, if a vector can be expressed as a scalar multiple of another, then they are parallel.

For example, if we are given two vectors \overrightarrow{VW} and \overrightarrow{ST} such that, $\overrightarrow{VW} = \alpha \ \overrightarrow{ST}$, where α is a scalar. We can conclude that \overrightarrow{VW} and \overrightarrow{ST} are parallel vectors.

Example 4

The position vectors of the points L , M and K		
relative to the origin are:		
$\overrightarrow{OM} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \overrightarrow{ON} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \overrightarrow{OK} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$		
(a) Express as column vectors:		
(i) \overrightarrow{MN} (ii) \overrightarrow{KM}		
(b) The point T is such that $MT = NT$. Use a		
vector method to determine the position vector of		
T. Hence, state the coordinates of T .		
(c) Hence, prove that <i>OKMT</i> is a parallelogram.		

Solution

(a) (i)
$$\overrightarrow{MN} = \overrightarrow{MO} + \overrightarrow{ON} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ -4 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ -6 \end{pmatrix}$$

(a) (ii) $\overrightarrow{KM} = \overrightarrow{KO} + \overrightarrow{OM} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$
(b) $\overrightarrow{OT} = \overrightarrow{OM} + \overrightarrow{MT}$
 $= \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ -6 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$
Hence, the coordinates of *T* are (4, 1).
(c) In the quadrilateral *OKMT*, $\overrightarrow{OT} = \overrightarrow{KM} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.
Hence, the quadrilateral is a parallelogram because it has one pair of opposite sides which are both parallel and equal.

Example 5

In triangle *ABC*, *R* and *S* are the midpoints of *AB* and *BD* respectively. (a) Sketch the diagram to show the points *R* and *S*. (b) Given that $\overrightarrow{AB} = 4x$ and $\overrightarrow{BC} = 6y$, express in

terms of x and y an expression for (i) AC (ii) \overrightarrow{RS}

(c) Hence, show that
$$\overline{RS} = \frac{1}{2}\overline{AC}$$
.

Solution



To prove three points are collinear

Points are collinear if they lie on the same straight line. To prove A, B and C are collinear, we may prove that two of the line segments are parallel, by proving that either is a scalar multiple of the other. If there is a common point together with the parallel property, then the three points must be collinear.

Example 5

OA = a, OB = b, P is on OA such that and M is on BA such that BM = MA and OB is produced to N such that OB = BN

- (a) Draw a diagram showing the points P and M.
- (b) Express \overline{AB} , \overline{PA} and \overline{PM} in terms of a and b.
- (c) Prove *P*, *M* and *N* are collinear.





Solution -Example 5, part (c)







Solution

(i) R(6, 2), $\overline{OR} = \binom{6}{2}$ is of the form $\binom{x}{y}$, where x = 6 and y = 2. (ii) S(-4, 3), $\overline{OS} = \binom{-4}{3}$ is of the form $\binom{x}{y}$, where x = -4 and y = 3. (iii) $\overline{SR} = \overline{SO} + \overline{OR} = \binom{4}{-3} + \binom{6}{2} = \binom{10}{-1}$ is of the form $\binom{x}{y}$, where x = 10 and y = -1.