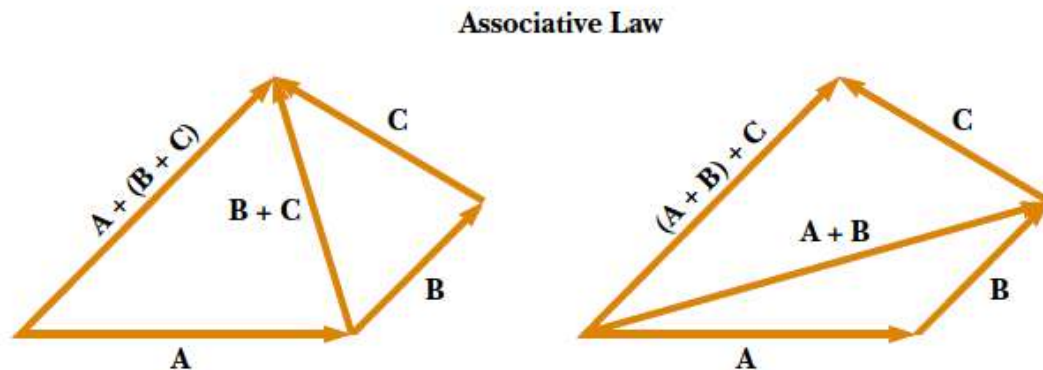
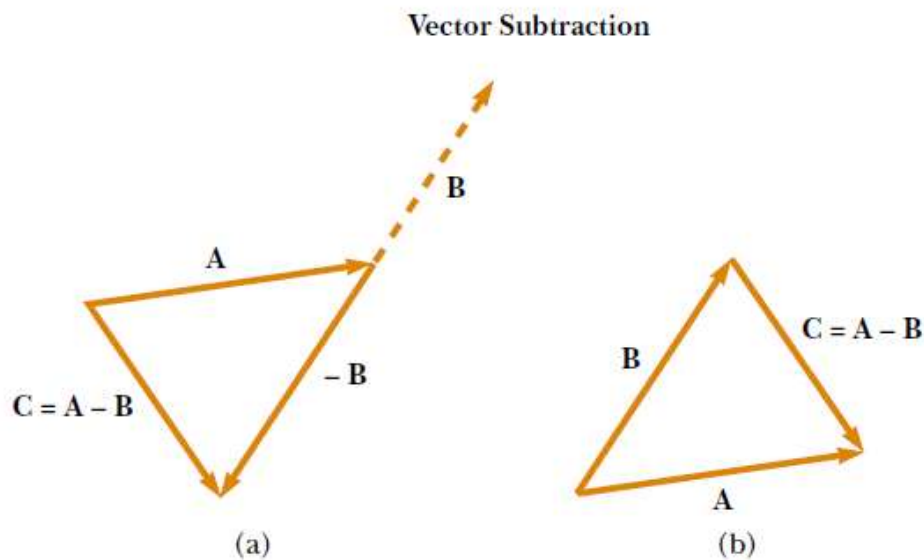


## Negative of a Vector

The negative of the vector  $A$  is defined as the vector that when added to  $A$  gives zero for the vector sum. That is,  $A + (-A) = \mathbf{0}$ . The vectors  $A$  and  $-A$  have the same magnitude but point in opposite directions.



**Figure 1.9** Geometric constructions for verifying the associative law of addition.



**Figure 1.10** (a) This construction shows how to subtract vector  $B$  from vector  $A$ . The vector  $-B$  is equal in magnitude to vector  $B$  and points in the opposite direction. To subtract  $B$  from  $A$ , apply the rule of vector addition to the combination of  $A$  and  $-B$ : Draw  $A$  along some convenient axis, place the tail of  $-B$  at the tip of  $A$ , and  $C$  is the difference  $A - B$ . (b) A second way of looking at vector subtraction. The difference vector  $C = A - B$  is the vector that we must add to  $B$  to obtain  $A$ .

## Subtracting Vectors

The operation of vector subtraction makes use of the definition of the negative of a vector. We define the operation  $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}$  as vector  $-\mathbf{B}$  added to vector  $\mathbf{A}$ :

$$\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A} + (-\mathbf{B}) \quad (1 - 7)$$

The geometric construction for subtracting two vectors in this way is illustrated in Figure 1.10a. Another way of looking at vector subtraction is to note that the difference  $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}$  between two vectors  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  is what you have to add to the second vector to obtain the first. In this case, the vector  $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}$  points from the tip of the second vector to the tip of the first, as Figure 1.10b shows.

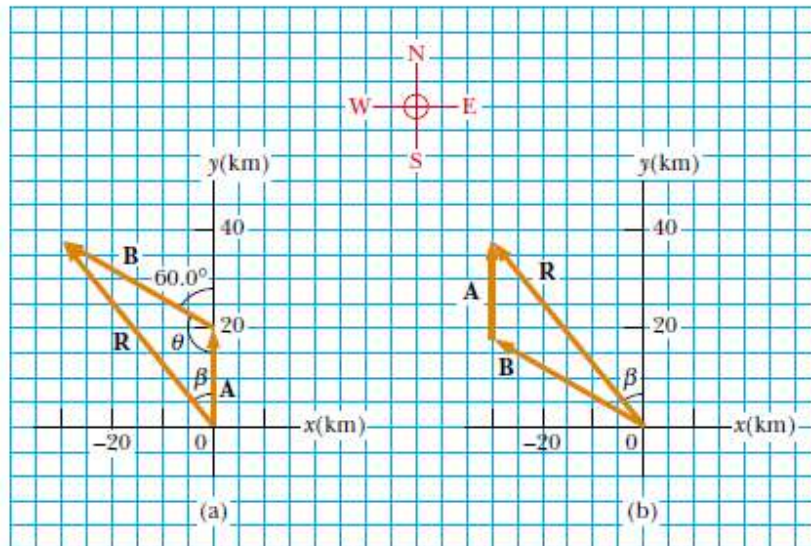
**Quick Quiz 1.2** The magnitudes of two vectors  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  are  $A = 12$  units and  $B = 8$  units. Which of the following pairs of numbers represents the largest and smallest possible values for the magnitude of the resultant vector  $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$ ? (a) 14.4 units, 4 units (b) 12 units, 8 units (c) 20 units, 4 units (d) none of these answers.

**Quick Quiz 1.3** If vector  $\mathbf{B}$  is added to vector  $\mathbf{A}$ , under what condition does the resultant vector  $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$  have magnitude  $A + B$ ? (a)  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  are parallel and in the same direction. (b)  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  are parallel and in opposite directions. (c)  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  are perpendicular.

**Quick Quiz 1.4** If vector  $\mathbf{B}$  is added to vector  $\mathbf{A}$ , which *two* of the following choices must be true in order for the resultant vector to be equal to zero? (a)  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  are parallel and in the same direction. (b)  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  are parallel and in opposite directions. (c)  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  have the same magnitude. (d)  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  are perpendicular.

### Example 1.2 A Vacation Trip

A car travels 20.0 km due north and then 35.0 km in a direction  $60.0^\circ$  west of north, as shown in Figure 1.11a. Find the magnitude and direction of the car's resultant displacement.



**Figure 1.9** (Example 1.2) (a) Graphical method for finding the resultant displacement vector  $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$ . (b) Adding the vectors in reverse order ( $\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A}$ ) gives the same result for  $\mathbf{R}$ .

### Solution

The vectors  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  drawn in Figure 1.11a help us to *conceptualize* the problem. We can *categorize* this as a relatively simple analysis problem in vector addition. The displacement  $\mathbf{R}$  is the resultant when the two individual displacements  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  are added. We can further categorize this as a problem about the analysis of triangles, so we appeal to our expertise in geometry and trigonometry.

In this example, we show two ways to *analyze* the problem of finding the resultant of two vectors. The first way is to solve the problem geometrically, using graph paper and a protractor to measure the magnitude of  $\mathbf{R}$  and its direction in Figure 1.11a. (In fact, even when you know you are going to be carrying out a calculation, you should sketch the vectors to check your results.) With an ordinary ruler and protractor, a large diagram typically gives answers to two-digit but not to three-digit precision.

The second way to solve the problem is to analyze it algebraically. The magnitude of  $\mathbf{R}$  can be obtained from the law of cosines as applied to the triangle. With  $\theta = 180^\circ - 60^\circ = 120^\circ$  and  $R^2 = A^2 + B^2 - 2AB \cos \theta$ , we find that

$$\begin{aligned}
 R &= \sqrt{A^2 + B^2 - 2AB \cos \theta} \\
 &= \sqrt{(20.0 \text{ km})^2 + (35.0 \text{ km})^2 - 2(20.0 \text{ km})(35.0 \text{ km}) \cos 120^\circ} \\
 &= 48.2 \text{ km}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{\sin \beta}{B} &= \frac{\sin \theta}{R} \\
 \sin \beta &= \frac{B}{R} \sin \theta = \frac{35.0 \text{ km}}{48.2 \text{ km}} \sin 120^\circ = 0.629 \\
 \beta &= 39.0^\circ
 \end{aligned}$$

### Multiplying a Vector by a Scalar

If vector  $\mathbf{A}$  is multiplied by a positive scalar quantity  $m$ , then the product  $m\mathbf{A}$  is a vector that has the same direction as  $\mathbf{A}$  and magnitude  $mA$ . If vector  $\mathbf{A}$  is multiplied by a negative scalar quantity  $-m$ , then the product  $-m\mathbf{A}$  is directed opposite  $\mathbf{A}$ . For example, the vector  $5\mathbf{A}$  is five times as long as  $\mathbf{A}$  and points in the same direction as  $\mathbf{A}$ ; the vector  $-1/3\mathbf{A}$  is one-third the length of  $\mathbf{A}$  and points in the direction opposite  $\mathbf{A}$ .

## 1.4 Components of a Vector and Unit Vectors

The graphical method of adding vectors is not recommended whenever high accuracy is required or in three-dimensional problems. In this section, we describe a method of adding vectors that makes use of the projections of vectors along coordinate axes. These projections are called the **components** of the vector. Any vector can be completely described by its components.

Consider a vector  $\mathbf{A}$  lying in the  $xy$  plane and making an arbitrary angle  $\theta$  with the positive  $x$  axis, as shown in Figure 1.12a. This vector can be expressed as the sum of two other vectors  $\mathbf{A}_x$  and  $\mathbf{A}_y$ .

From Figure 1.12b, we see that the three vectors form a right triangle and that  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}_x + \mathbf{A}_y$ . We shall often refer to the “components of a vector  $\mathbf{A}$ ,” written  $A_x$  and  $A_y$  (without the boldface notation). The component  $A_x$  represents the projection of  $\mathbf{A}$  along the  $x$  axis, and the component  $A_y$  represents the projection of  $\mathbf{A}$  along the  $y$  axis. These components can be positive or negative. The component  $A_x$  is positive if  $A_x$  points in the positive  $x$  direction and is negative if  $A_x$  points in the negative  $x$  direction. The same is true for the component  $A_y$ .

From Figure 1.12 and the definition of sine and cosine, we see that  $\cos \theta = A_x/A$  and that  $\sin \theta = A_y/A$ . Hence, the components of  $\mathbf{A}$  are

$$A_x = A \cos \theta \quad (1 - 8)$$

$$A_y = A \sin \theta \quad (1 - 9)$$

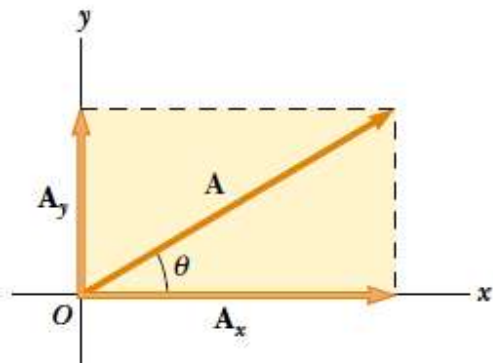
These components form two sides of a right triangle with a hypotenuse of length  $A$ . Thus, it follows that the magnitude and direction of  $A$  are related to its components through the expressions:

$$A = \sqrt{A_x^2 + A_y^2} \quad (1 - 10)$$

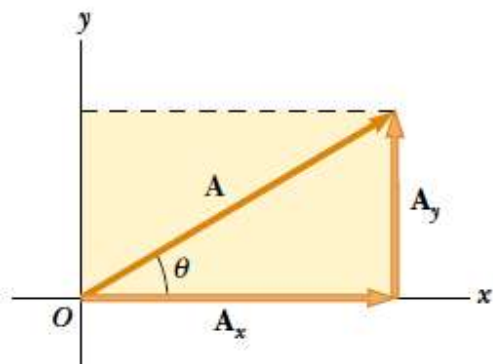
$$\theta = \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{A_y}{A_x} \right) \quad (1 - 11)$$

Note that **the signs of the components  $A_x$  and  $A_y$  depend on the angle  $\theta$** . For example, if  $\theta = 120^\circ$ , then  $A_x$  is negative and  $A_y$  is positive. If  $\theta = 225^\circ$ , then both  $A_x$  and  $A_y$  are negative. Figure 1.13 summarizes the signs of the components when  $A$  lies in the various quadrants.

When solving problems, you can specify a vector  $\mathbf{A}$  either with its components  $A_x$  and  $A_y$  or with its magnitude and direction  $A$  and  $\theta$ .



(a)



(b)

**Figure 1.12** (a) A vector  $A$  lying in the  $xy$  plane can be represented by its component vectors  $A_x$  and  $A_y$ . (b) The  $y$  component vector  $A_y$  can be moved to the right so that it adds to  $A_x$ . The vector sum of the component vectors is  $A$ . These three vectors form a right triangle.

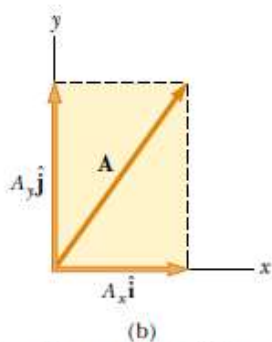
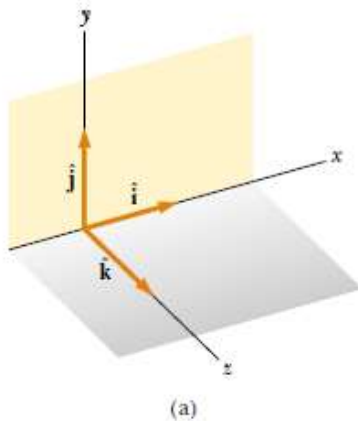
$A_x$ negative	$A_x$ positive	$x$
$A_y$ positive	$A_y$ positive	
$A_x$ negative	$A_x$ positive	$y$
$A_y$ negative	$A_y$ negative	

**Figure 1.13** The signs of the components of a vector  $A$  depend on the quadrant in which the vector is located.



## Unit Vectors

1



**Active Figure 1.15** (a) The unit vectors  $\hat{i}$ ,  $\hat{j}$ , and  $\hat{k}$  are directed along the  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$  axes, respectively. (b) Vector  $\mathbf{A} = A_x \hat{i} + A_y \hat{j}$  lying in the  $xy$  plane has components  $A_x$  and  $A_y$ .

Vector quantities often are expressed in terms of unit vectors. A **unit vector is a dimensionless vector having a magnitude of exactly 1**. Unit vectors are used to specify a given direction and have no other physical significance. They are used solely as a convenience in describing a direction in space. We shall use the symbols  $\hat{i}$ ,  $\hat{j}$ , and  $\hat{k}$  to represent unit vectors pointing in the positive  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$  directions, respectively. (The “hats” on the symbols are a standard notation for unit vectors.) The unit vectors  $\hat{i}$ ,  $\hat{j}$ , and  $\hat{k}$  form a set of mutually perpendicular vectors in a right-handed coordinate system, as shown in Figure 1.15a. The magnitude of each unit vector equals 1; that is,  $|\hat{i}| = |\hat{j}| = |\hat{k}| = 1$ .

Consider a vector  $\mathbf{A}$  lying in the  $xy$  plane, as shown in Figure 1.15b. The product of the component  $A_x$  and the unit vector  $\hat{i}$  is the vector  $A_x \hat{i}$ , which lies on the  $x$  axis and has magnitude  $|A_x|$ . (The vector  $A_x \hat{i}$  is an alternative representation of vector  $\mathbf{A}_x$ .) Likewise,  $A_y \hat{j}$  is a vector of magnitude  $|A_y|$  lying on the  $y$  axis. (Again, vector  $A_y \hat{j}$  is an alternative representation of vector  $\mathbf{A}_y$ .) Thus, the unit-vector notation for the vector  $\mathbf{A}$  is

$$\mathbf{A} = A_x \hat{i} + A_y \hat{j} \quad (1-12)$$

For example, consider a point lying in the  $xy$  plane and having Cartesian coordinates  $(x, y)$ , as in Figure 3.17. The point can be specified by the **position vector**  $\mathbf{r}$ , which in unit-vector form is given by

$$\mathbf{r} = x \hat{i} + y \hat{j} \quad (1-13)$$

This notation tells us that the components of  $\mathbf{r}$  are the lengths  $x$  and  $y$ .

Now let us see how to use components to add vectors when the graphical method is not sufficiently accurate. Suppose we wish to add vector  $\mathbf{B}$  to vector  $\mathbf{A}$  in Equation 3.12, where vector  $\mathbf{B}$  has components  $B_x$  and  $B_y$ . All we do is add the  $x$  and  $y$  components separately. The resultant vector  $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$  is therefore

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

or

$$\mathbf{R} = (A_x + B_x) \hat{i} + (A_y + B_y) \hat{j} \quad (1-14)$$

Because  $\mathbf{R} = R_x \hat{i} + R_y \hat{j}$ , we see that the components of the resultant vector are

$$\begin{aligned} R_x &= A_x + B_x \\ R_y &= A_y + B_y \end{aligned} \quad (1-15)$$