just as the ordinary numbers^{*}. For example, if the length and breadth of a rectangle are 1.0 m and 0.5 m respectively, then its perimeter is the sum of the lengths of the four sides, 1.0 m + 0.5 m +1.0 m + 0.5 m = 3.0 m. The length of each side is a scalar and the perimeter is also a scalar. Take another example: the maximum and minimum temperatures on a particular day are 35.6 °C and 24.2 °C respectively. Then, the difference between the two temperatures is 11.4 °C. Similarly, if a uniform solid cube of aluminium of side 10 cm has a mass of 2.7 kg, then its volume is 10^{-3} m³ (a scalar) and its density is 2.7×10^3 kg m⁻³ (a scalar).

A **vector** quantity is a quantity that has both a magnitude and a direction and obeys the **triangle law of addition** or equivalently the **parallelogram law of addition**. So, a vector is specified by giving its magnitude by a number and its direction. Some physical quantities that are represented by vectors are displacement, velocity, acceleration and force.

To represent a vector, we use a bold face type in this book. Thus, a velocity vector can be represented by a symbol **v**. Since bold face is difficult to produce, when written by hand, a vector is often represented by an arrow placed over a letter, say v. Thus, both **v** and vrepresent the velocity vector. The magnitude of a vector is often called its absolute value, indicated by $|\mathbf{v}| = v$. Thus, a vector is represented by a bold face, e.g. by **A**, **a**, **p**, **q**, **r**, ... **x**, **y**, with respective magnitudes denoted by light face *A*, *a*, *p*, *q*, *r*, ... *x*, *y*.

4.2.1 Position and Displacement Vectors

To describe the position of an object moving in a plane, we need to choose a convenient point, say O as origin. Let P and P' be the positions of the object at time *t* and *t*', respectively [Fig. 4.1(a)]. We join O and P by a straight line. Then, **OP** is the position vector of the object at time *t*. An arrow is marked at the head of this line. It is represented by a symbol **r**, i.e. **OP** = **r**. Point P' is represented by another position vector, **OP'** denoted by $\mathbf{r'}$. The length of the vector \mathbf{r} represents the magnitude of the vector and its direction is the direction in which P lies as seen from O. If the object moves from P to P', the vector **PP'** (with tail at P and tip at P') is called the **displacement vector** corresponding to motion from point P (at time t) to point P' (at time t).





It is important to note that displacement vector is the straight line joining the initial and final positions and does not depend on the actual path undertaken by the object between the two positions. For example, in Fig. 4.1(b), given the initial and final positions as P and Q, the displacement vector is the same **PQ** for different paths of journey, say PABCQ, PDQ, and PBEFQ. Therefore, the **magnitude of displacement is either less or equal to the path length of an object between two points.** This fact was emphasised in the previous chapter also while discussing motion along a straight line.

4.2.2 Equality of Vectors

Two vectors **A** and **B** are said to be equal if, and only if, they have the same magnitude and the same direction.**

Figure 4.2(a) shows two equal vectors **A** and **B**. We can easily check their equality. Shift **B** parallel to itself until its tail Q coincides with that of *A*, i.e. Q coincides with O. Then, since their tips S and P also coincide, the two vectors are said to be equal. In general, equality is indicated

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* Addition and subtraction of scalars make sense only for quantities with same units. However, you can multiply and divide scalars of different units.

* In our study, vectors do not have fixed locations. So displacing a vector parallel to itself leaves the vector unchanged. Such vectors are called free vectors. However, in some physical applications, location or line of application of a vector is important. Such vectors are called localised vectors.



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