

ROTATIONS IN SPACE

1. INTRODUCTION

In Cartesian coordinates, the natural orthonormal basis is $\{\vec{i}, \vec{j}, \vec{k}\}$, where $\vec{i} \equiv \hat{x}$, $\vec{j} \equiv \hat{y}$, $\vec{k} \equiv \hat{z}$ denote the unit vectors in the x , y , z directions, respectively. The position vector from the origin to the point (x, y, z) takes the form

$$\vec{r} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k}$$

Note that $\vec{i}, \vec{j}, \vec{k}$ are constant.

A moving object has a position vector given by

$$\vec{r}(t) = x(t)\vec{i} + y(t)\vec{j} + z(t)\vec{k}$$

Its velocity \vec{v} and acceleration \vec{a} are obtained by differentiation, resulting in

$$\vec{v} = \dot{\vec{r}} = \dot{x}\vec{i} + \dot{y}\vec{j} + \dot{z}\vec{k}$$

$$\vec{a} = \ddot{\vec{r}} = \ddot{x}\vec{i} + \ddot{y}\vec{j} + \ddot{z}\vec{k}$$

where dots denote differentiation with respect to t .

As in the plane, if we wish to describe things as seen from some point (p, q, s) other than the origin, all we have to do is replace \vec{r} by

$$\vec{r}_{rel} = \vec{r} - \vec{R}$$

where

$$\vec{R} = p\vec{i} + q\vec{j} + s\vec{k}$$

2. SPHERICAL COORDINATES

In spherical coordinates

$$x = r \sin \theta \cos \phi$$

$$y = r \sin \theta \sin \phi$$

$$z = r \cos \theta$$

the natural orthonormal basis is $\{\hat{r}, \hat{\theta}, \hat{\phi}\}$, where

$$\hat{r} = \sin \theta \cos \phi \vec{i} + \sin \theta \sin \phi \vec{j} + \cos \theta \vec{k}$$

$$\hat{\theta} = \cos \theta \cos \phi \vec{i} + \cos \theta \sin \phi \vec{j} - \sin \theta \vec{k}$$

$$\hat{\phi} = -\sin \phi \vec{i} + \cos \phi \vec{j}$$

Again, this is a basis everywhere *except* at the origin, since neither θ nor ϕ are defined there.

Consider an observer located at the point (R, Θ, Φ) , *not* at the origin, whose natural basis is just $\{\hat{r}, \hat{\theta}, \hat{\phi}\}$. With respect to this observer, a moving object therefore has a *relative* position vector of the form

$$\vec{r}_{rel}(t) = Z(t) \hat{r} - Y(t) \hat{\theta} + X(t) \hat{\phi}$$

for some functions X, Y, Z .

We will normally take our observer to be on the surface of the Earth, which we will approximate as a sphere. Roughly speaking, Θ and Φ give the latitude and longitude of the observer, respectively; R is the radius of the Earth.

Note that the equator corresponds to $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$, and that θ *decreases* as you approach the North Pole. The functions (X, Y, Z) define *Cartesian* coordinates for the observer: Z is altitude, Y is distance to the *north*, and X is distance to the *east*; this explains the peculiar conventions in defining X, Y, Z .

The “true” position is given by

$$\vec{r}(t) = \vec{R} + \vec{r}_{rel}(t)$$

where

$$\vec{R} = R \hat{r}$$

3. ROTATING FRAME

An observer “standing still” on the surface of the Earth is really a rotating observer whose position is given by

$$r = R = \text{constant}$$

$$\theta = \Theta = \text{constant}$$

$$\phi = \Phi = \Omega t$$

Observers in this frame perceive \hat{r} , $\hat{\theta}$, $\hat{\phi}$ to be constant. (The sun “rises” and “sets”!) They will therefore compute the relative velocity and acceleration of a moving object with (relative) position vector \vec{r}_{rel} by taking derivatives of the *coefficients*:

$$\vec{v}_{rel}(t) = \dot{Z} \hat{r} - \dot{Y} \hat{\theta} + \dot{X} \hat{\phi}$$

$$\vec{a}_{rel}(t) = \ddot{Z} \hat{r} - \ddot{Y} \hat{\theta} + \ddot{X} \hat{\phi}$$

The basis vectors now take the form

$$\hat{r} = \sin \theta \cos(\Omega t) \vec{i} + \sin \theta \sin(\Omega t) \vec{j} + \cos \theta \vec{k}$$

$$\hat{\theta} = \cos \theta \cos(\Omega t) \vec{i} + \cos \theta \sin(\Omega t) \vec{j} - \sin \theta \vec{k}$$

$$\hat{\phi} = -\sin(\Omega t) \vec{i} + \cos(\Omega t) \vec{j}$$

so that

$$\dot{\hat{r}} = -\Omega \sin \theta \sin(\Omega t) \vec{i} + \Omega \sin \theta \cos(\Omega t) \vec{j}$$

$$\dot{\hat{\theta}} = -\Omega \cos \theta \sin(\Omega t) \vec{i} + \Omega \cos \theta \cos(\Omega t) \vec{j}$$

$$\dot{\hat{\phi}} = -\Omega \cos(\Omega t) \vec{i} - \Omega \sin(\Omega t) \vec{j}$$

Comparing these equations with the preceding ones, we see that

$$\dot{\hat{r}} = \Omega \sin \theta \hat{\phi} = \vec{\omega} \times \hat{r}$$

$$\dot{\hat{\theta}} = \Omega \cos \theta \hat{\phi} = \vec{\omega} \times \hat{\theta}$$

$$\dot{\hat{\phi}} = -\Omega \sin \theta \hat{r} - \Omega \cos \theta \hat{\theta} = \vec{\omega} \times \hat{\phi}$$

where we have introduced the angular velocity

$$\vec{\omega} = \Omega \vec{k} = \Omega (\cos \theta \hat{r} - \sin \theta \hat{\theta})$$

Thus, just as in the 2-dimensional case, for *any* relative vector of the form

$$\vec{F}(t) = f(t) \hat{r}(t) + g(t) \hat{\theta}(t) + h(t) \hat{\phi}(t)$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\vec{F}} &= (\dot{f} \hat{r} + \dot{g} \hat{\theta} + \dot{h} \hat{\phi}) + (f \dot{\hat{r}} + g \dot{\hat{\theta}} + h \dot{\hat{\phi}}) \\ &= (\dot{f} \hat{r} + \dot{g} \hat{\theta} + \dot{h} \hat{\phi}) + (f \vec{\omega} \times \hat{r} + g \vec{\omega} \times \hat{\theta} + h \vec{\omega} \times \hat{\phi}) \\ &= (\dot{f} \hat{r} + \dot{g} \hat{\theta} + \dot{h} \hat{\phi}) + \vec{\omega} \times \vec{F} \end{aligned}$$

As before, the first term is the “naive” derivative of \vec{F} ; this “naive” differentiation is precisely what was used to obtain \vec{v}_{rel} and then \vec{a}_{rel} starting from \vec{r}_{rel} .

We are finally ready to compare the relative and “true” velocities and accelerations. Differentiating

$$\vec{r} = \vec{R} + \vec{r}_{rel}$$

we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{v} = \dot{\vec{r}} &= \dot{\vec{R}} + \dot{\vec{r}}_{rel} \\ &= \vec{\omega} \times \vec{R} + (\vec{v}_{rel} + \vec{\omega} \times \vec{r}_{rel}) \end{aligned}$$

Further differentiation yields

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{a} = \dot{\vec{v}} &= \vec{\omega} \times \dot{\vec{R}} + (\dot{\vec{v}}_{rel} + \vec{\omega} \times \dot{\vec{r}}_{rel}) \\ &= \vec{\omega} \times (\vec{\omega} \times \vec{R}) + (\vec{a}_{rel} + \vec{\omega} \times \vec{v}_{rel}) + \vec{\omega} \times (\vec{v}_{rel} + \vec{\omega} \times \vec{r}_{rel}) \\ &= \vec{\omega} \times (\vec{\omega} \times \vec{R}) + \vec{a}_{rel} + 2\vec{\omega} \times \vec{v}_{rel} + \vec{\omega} \times (\vec{\omega} \times \vec{r}_{rel}) \end{aligned}$$

Rewriting these expressions slightly, we obtain the following equations for the relative velocity and acceleration:

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{v}_{rel} &= \vec{v} - \vec{\omega} \times \vec{r} \\ \vec{a}_{rel} &= \vec{a} - 2\vec{\omega} \times \vec{v}_{rel} - \vec{\omega} \times (\vec{\omega} \times \vec{r}) \end{aligned}$$

As before, the *effective* acceleration \vec{a}_{rel} therefore consists of 3 parts: the “true” acceleration \vec{a} , the *centrifugal* acceleration $-\vec{\omega} \times (\vec{\omega} \times \vec{r})$ and the *Coriolis* acceleration $-2\vec{\omega} \times \vec{v}_{rel}$.

On the surface of the Earth, we have

$$\vec{r} \approx \vec{R}$$

so that the centrifugal acceleration can be approximated as $-\vec{\omega} \times (\vec{\omega} \times \vec{R})$. In analogy with the planar case, the centrifugal acceleration always points away from the axis of the Earth’s rotation, and is strongest at the equator. This acceleration is perceived as a small (less than 1%) correction to the acceleration due to gravity: Straight down, as defined by a plumb bob, does *not* point towards the center of the Earth! ¹ For a more detailed discussion, see pages 390–391 of Marion and Thornton.

Finally, *for motion parallel to the surface of the Earth*, the Coriolis acceleration always points to the *right* of the direction of motion \vec{v}_{rel} in the Northern Hemisphere (and to the *left* in the Southern Hemisphere).

¹ Straight down is, however, perpendicular to the surface of the Earth: The centrifugal force has deformed the Earth’s surface, resulting in an equatorial radius which is slightly (just over 20 km) greater than the polar radius.