

Outline

- ① Coordinate systems in 2-dimensions: Cartesian and plane polar coordinate systems and their relationship. Length and area elements
- ② Coordinate systems in 3-dimensions: Cylindrical and Spherical Polar Coordinate systems, line, surface and volume elements

Objectives

- ① To learn to use symmetry adapted coordinate systems
- ② To understand as to how to construct line, surface, and volume elements for various coordinate systems

Using Symmetries in Physics

- Using a coordinate system which is consistent with the symmetry of the physical system simplifies calculations
- If a planar system has circular symmetry, use of plane-polar coordinate system will simplify calculations
- For systems with cylindrical symmetry, use of cylindrical polar coordinates is advised
- Likewise for spherical systems, use of spherical polar coordinate system will be beneficial

Coordinate Systems in Two Dimensions: Cartesian Coordinates

- Location of a point in a flat plane is given by coordinates (x,y) .
- Differential line element \vec{dl} is given by $\vec{dl} = dx\hat{i} + dy\hat{j}$
- A general vector is given by $\vec{A} = A_x\hat{i} + A_y\hat{j}$.
- Infinitesimal area element \vec{dA}_{12} in a plane described by orthogonal coordinates 1 and 2 can be computed for any coordinate system as

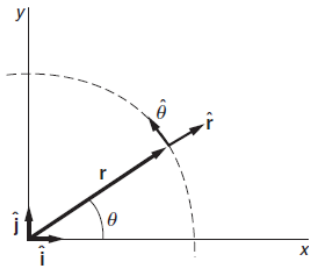
$$\vec{dA}_{12} = \vec{dl}_1 \times \vec{dl}_2 \quad (1)$$

- For Cartesian coordinates it yields

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{dA} &= dx\hat{i} \times dy\hat{j} = dx dy \hat{k} \\ \text{or } dA &= dx dy\end{aligned}$$

2D Coordinates: Plane Polar Coordinates

Unit vectors denoted as \hat{r} and $\hat{\theta}$ are shown below



- Location of a point in a flat plane is given by coordinates (r, θ) .
- Differential line element \vec{dl} is given by $\vec{dl} = dr\hat{r} + r d\theta\hat{\theta}$
- Infinitesimal surface area is $\vec{dA} = dr\hat{r} \times r d\theta\hat{\theta} = r dr d\theta\hat{k}$, or $dA = r dr d\theta$

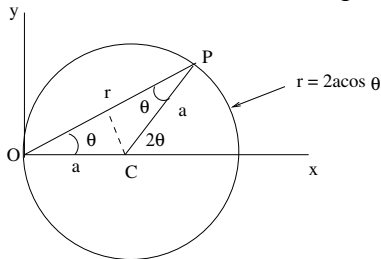
Relationship between Cartesian and Plane Polar Coordinates

- $x = r \cos \theta$, $y = r \sin \theta$
- $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, $\theta = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{y}{x} \right)$, where $-\infty \leq x, y \leq \infty$;
 $0 \leq r \leq \infty$, $0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$.
- And unit vectors are related as $\hat{r} = \cos \theta \hat{i} + \sin \theta \hat{j}$, and
 $\hat{\theta} = -\sin \theta \hat{i} + \cos \theta \hat{j}$
- $\hat{i} = \cos \theta \hat{r} - \sin \theta \hat{\theta}$, $\hat{j} = \sin \theta \hat{r} + \cos \theta \hat{\theta}$
- Using these relations, one can easily transform vectors expressed in one coordinate system, into the other one.
- Area of a circle of radius a

$$A = \int \int dA = \int_0^a \int_0^{2\pi} r dr d\theta = \int_0^a r dr \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta = \pi a^2$$

Calculating the area of a circle again

- Consider a circle of radius a as shown in the figure below



- The origin of the (r, θ) coordinate system O is assumed to be on the circumference
- Clearly, the distance of any point P on the circle, from the origin is $r = 2a \cos \theta$
- Thus, the equation of the circle in this coordinate system will be $r = 2a \cos \theta$,

Area of a circle...

- We know that in plane polar coordinates area element is

$$dA = r dr d\theta,$$

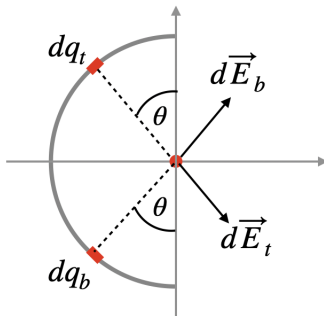
- therefore, the total area will be the double integral (pay attention to the limits)

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \int_{\theta=-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} d\theta \int_{r=0}^{2a\cos\theta} r dr \\ &= 2a^2 \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} \cos^2 \theta d\theta \\ &= a^2 \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} (1 + \cos 2\theta) d\theta \\ &= \pi a^2 \end{aligned}$$

- Note the same result as before

Electric Field Due to a Uniformly Charged Semicircular Wire

- Consider a uniformly charged semicircular wire shown below



- Clearly due to symmetry, y-components of the \vec{E} field will cancel
- and the net field will be in the x direction

Uniformly charged Semicircular Wire

- Let the linear charge density be λ , and the radius of the semicircle be a
- If the length elements subtend angles $d\theta$ at the origin, then clearly $dq_t = dq_b = \lambda dl = \lambda a d\theta$
- Electric field at the origin due to dq_t is

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{dE}_t &= \frac{dq_t}{4\pi\epsilon_0 a^2} (\sin\theta\hat{i} - \cos\theta\hat{j}) \\ &= \frac{\lambda d\theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0 a} (\sin\theta\hat{i} - \cos\theta\hat{j}) \\ \Rightarrow \vec{E}(r=0) &= \int \vec{dE}_t = \frac{\lambda}{4\pi\epsilon_0 a} \int_0^\pi (\sin\theta\hat{i} - \cos\theta\hat{j}) d\theta \\ &= \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0 a} \hat{i} + 0\hat{j}\end{aligned}$$

Kinematics in plane polar coordinates

- Computing quantities such as velocity and acceleration is a bit more complicated in plane polar coordinates
- The reason: \hat{r} and $\hat{\theta}$ are direction dependent
- Let us compute the velocity

$$\mathbf{v} = \frac{dr}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt}(r\hat{r}).$$

- Using the chain rule, we have

$$\mathbf{v} = \frac{dr}{dt}\hat{r} + r\frac{d\hat{r}}{dt}.$$

- Note that as the particle moves, vector \hat{r} also changes so that $\frac{d\hat{r}}{dt} \neq 0$.
- But, how to compute $\frac{d\hat{r}}{dt}$?
- A geometric calculation is possible, but let us take a different approach.

Velocity in plane polar coordinates

- Let us use Cartesian coordinates for the purpose

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

- Because Cartesian basis vectors \hat{i} and \hat{j} have fixed directions in space, so they don't change with time
- Therefore

$$\frac{d\hat{r}}{dt} = \frac{d \cos \theta}{dt} \hat{i} + \frac{d \sin \theta}{dt} \hat{j}$$

- Now

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d \cos \theta}{dt} &= -\sin \theta \frac{d\theta}{dt} = -\sin \theta \dot{\theta} \\ \frac{d \sin \theta}{dt} &= \cos \theta \frac{d\theta}{dt} = \cos \theta \dot{\theta}\end{aligned}$$

- So that

$$\frac{d\hat{r}}{dt} = -\sin \theta \dot{\theta} \hat{i} + \cos \theta \dot{\theta} \hat{j} = \dot{\theta} \left(-\sin \theta \hat{i} + \cos \theta \hat{j} \right) = \dot{\theta} \hat{\theta}$$

Velocity in plane polar coordinates contd.

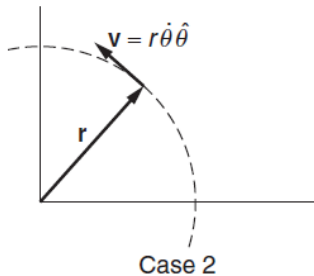
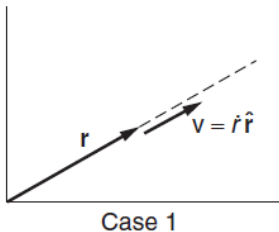
- Therefore, finally we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{v} &= \frac{dr}{dt} \hat{\mathbf{r}} + r \frac{d\hat{\mathbf{r}}}{dt} = \dot{r} \hat{\mathbf{r}} + r \dot{\theta} \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \\ &= v_r \hat{\mathbf{r}} + v_\theta \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \end{aligned}$$

- Thus, we have obtained an expression for velocity in terms of its radial and angular (also called tangential) components
- What is the physical significance of v_r and v_θ ?

Velocity in polar coordinates: Physical Significance

- Consider the figure



- Case 1:** This case corresponds to motion along the radial direction, with θ held fixed ($\dot{\theta} = 0$), so that $\mathbf{v} = \dot{r}\hat{r}$.
- Case 2:** Here there is no radial motion ($\dot{r} = 0$), so velocity will be along the arc of a circle with $\mathbf{v} = r\dot{\theta}\hat{\theta}$

Acceleration in polar coordinates

- Acceleration can be computed as

$$\begin{aligned} a &= \frac{dv}{dt} \\ &= \frac{d}{dt} \left(\dot{r} \hat{r} + r \dot{\theta} \hat{\theta} \right) \\ &= \frac{d\dot{r}}{dt} \hat{r} + \dot{r} \frac{d\hat{r}}{dt} + \frac{d(r\dot{\theta})}{dt} \hat{\theta} + r \dot{\theta} \frac{d\hat{\theta}}{dt} \\ &= \ddot{r} \hat{r} + \dot{r} \dot{\theta} \hat{\theta} + \dot{r} \dot{\theta} \hat{\theta} + r \ddot{\theta} \hat{\theta} + r \dot{\theta} \frac{d\hat{\theta}}{dt} \end{aligned}$$

- We compute $\frac{d\hat{\theta}}{dt}$, by expressing $\hat{\theta}$ in Cartesian coordinates

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\hat{\theta}}{dt} &= \frac{d}{dt} \left(-\sin \theta \hat{i} + \cos \theta \hat{j} \right) \\ &= -\cos \theta \dot{\theta} \hat{i} - \sin \theta \dot{\theta} \hat{j} \\ &= -\dot{\theta} \hat{r} \end{aligned}$$

Acceleration in polar coordinates....

- On substituting the expression of $\frac{d\hat{\theta}}{dt}$, we obtain

$$\mathbf{a} = \left(\ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2\right)\hat{r} + \left(2\dot{r}\dot{\theta} + r\ddot{\theta}\right)\hat{\theta}$$

- Different terms have the following interpretations
 - \ddot{r} due to change of radial speed, points in radial direction
 - $-r\dot{\theta}^2$ centripetal acceleration, pointing radially inwards
 - $2\dot{r}\dot{\theta}$ Coriolis acceleration, present whenever both radial and angular velocities are zero, points in tangential direction
 - $r\ddot{\theta}$ tangential angular acceleration, due to changing angular velocity, points in tangential direction

Derivation of Kepler's Second Law

- Kepler's second law states that the areal velocity of each planet with respect to Sun is constant
- The force applied by Sun on planets is gravitational and of the form $\mathbf{f}(r) = -\frac{C}{r^2}\hat{\mathbf{r}}$
- This force depends only on the distance r between Sun and the planet, and is along the line joining them
- Such forces are called central forces, which have the general form

$$\mathbf{f}(r) = f(r)\hat{\mathbf{r}}$$

- We know that in plane polar coordinates

$$\mathbf{a} = \ddot{\mathbf{r}} = (\ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2)\hat{\mathbf{r}} + (2\dot{r}\dot{\theta} + r\ddot{\theta})\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$$

Kepler's second law...

- Therefore, the equation of motion for a planet (or a particle) of mass m $m\ddot{\mathbf{r}} = f(r)\hat{\mathbf{r}}$, becomes

$$m(\ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2)\hat{\mathbf{r}} + m(2\dot{r}\dot{\theta} + r\ddot{\theta})\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = f(r)\hat{\mathbf{r}}$$

- On comparing both sides, we obtain following two equations

$$m(\ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2) = f(r)$$

$$m(2\dot{r}\dot{\theta} + r\ddot{\theta}) = 0$$

- By multiplying second equation on both sides by r , we obtain

$$\frac{d}{dt}(mr^2\dot{\theta}) = 0$$

Equations of motion...

- This equation yields

$$mr^2\dot{\theta} = L(\text{constant}),$$

we called this constant L because it is nothing but the angular momentum of the particle about the origin. Note that $L = I\omega$, with $I = mr^2$.

- As the particle moves along the trajectory so that the angle θ changes by an infinitesimal amount $d\theta$, the area swept with respect to the origin is

$$\begin{aligned}dA &= \frac{1}{2}r^2 d\theta \\ \implies \frac{dA}{dt} &= \frac{1}{2}r^2\dot{\theta} = \frac{L}{2m} = \text{constant},\end{aligned}$$

because L is constant, thus, proving Kepler's second law

- Note, constancy of areal velocity is a property of all central forces, not just the gravitational forces.
- And it holds due to the conservation of angular momentum

Coordinate Systems in 3D: Cartesian Coordinates

- Location of a point is given by coordinates (x, y, z) .
- Differential line element \vec{dl} is given by $\vec{dl} = dx\hat{i} + dy\hat{j} + dz\hat{k}$
- Infinitesimal area element depends upon the plane. For xy plane it will be

$$\vec{dA}_{xy} = dxdy\hat{k}$$

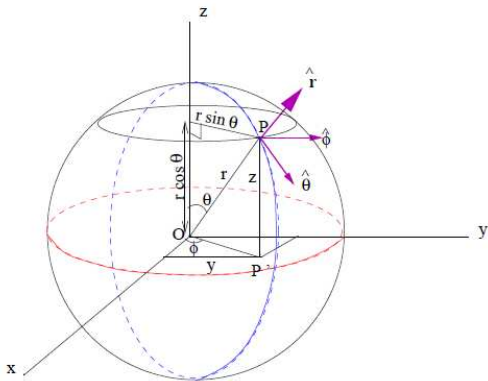
- Infinitesimal volume element for any orthogonal 3D coordinate system is given by

$$dV = dl_1 dl_2 dl_3$$

$$\text{for this case } dV = dxdydz$$

3D Coordinates: Spherical Polar Coordinates

- Location of a point is specified by three coordinates (r, θ, ϕ) , as shown below



- What is the range of r , θ , and ϕ ?

3D Coordinates...

- Clearly $0 \leq r \leq \infty$, $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$, $0 \leq \phi \leq 2\pi$
- Relationship with Cartesian coordinates $x = r \sin \theta \cos \phi$,
 $y = r \sin \theta \sin \phi$, $z = r \cos \theta$
- Inverse relationship

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

$$\theta = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}{z} \right)$$

$$\phi = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x}$$

- Differential line element \vec{dl} is given by
 $\vec{dl} = dr \hat{r} + r d\theta \hat{\theta} + r \sin \theta d\phi \hat{\phi}$
- Cross products given by $\hat{\theta} \times \hat{\phi} = \hat{r}$, $\hat{\phi} \times \hat{r} = \hat{\theta}$, and $\hat{r} \times \hat{\theta} = \hat{\phi}$
- Note that ϕ of this coordinate system is like θ of plane polar system

Spherical Polar Coordinates...

- Relationship between Cartesian and Spherical unit vectors

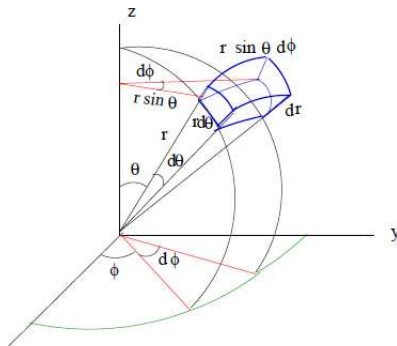
$$\hat{r} = \sin \theta \cos \phi \hat{i} + \sin \theta \sin \phi \hat{j} + \cos \theta \hat{k}$$

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

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

- Area element on the surface of a sphere of radius R ,
$$\vec{dA}_{\theta\phi} = \vec{dl}_{\theta} \times \vec{dl}_{\phi} = R d\theta \hat{\theta} \times R \sin \theta d\phi \hat{\phi} = R^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi \hat{r}$$
- Similarly, one can calculate $\vec{dA}_{r\theta}$ and $\vec{dA}_{\phi r}$
- Area of the surface of a sphere
$$A = R^2 \int_0^{\pi} \sin \theta d\theta \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi = 4\pi R^2$$

Spherical Polar Coordinates...



- Elementary volume element

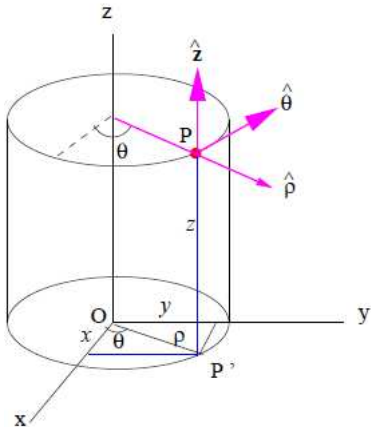
$$dV = dl_r dl_\theta dl_\phi = dr r d\theta r \sin \theta d\phi = r^2 \sin \theta dr d\theta d\phi$$

- Volume of a sphere of radius R

$$V = \int_0^R r^2 dr \int_0^\pi \sin \theta d\theta \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi = \frac{4}{3} \pi R^3$$

3D Coordinate Systems: Cylindrical Coordinates

- Location of a point specified by three coordinates (ρ, θ, z)



3D Coordinate System....

- Relationship with Cartesian coordinates $x = \rho \cos \theta$, $y = \rho \sin \theta$, $z = z$
- Inverse relationship $\rho = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, $\theta = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{y}{x} \right)$, $z = z$
- Differential line element \vec{dl} is given by
$$\vec{dl} = d\rho \hat{\rho} + \rho d\theta \hat{\theta} + dz \hat{k}$$
- Area element in different planes can be obtained using the relation $\vec{dA}_{ij} = \vec{dl}_i \times \vec{dl}_j$
- For $\rho - \theta$ plane it will be
$$\vec{dA}_{\rho\theta} = \vec{dl}_\rho \times \vec{dl}_\theta = d\rho \hat{\rho} \times \rho d\theta \hat{\theta} = \rho d\rho d\theta \hat{k}$$
- Volume element $dV = dl_1 dl_2 dl_3 = \rho d\rho d\theta dz$
- Volume of a cylinder of height L , and radius R
$$V = \int_{\rho=0}^R \rho d\rho \int_{z=0}^L dz \int_{\theta=0}^{2\pi} d\theta = \pi R^2 L$$

Generalized Orthogonal Curvilinear Coordinates

- Let us consider a general curvilinear coordinate system in 3D
- The coordinates are defined as (u_1, u_2, u_3) , which may or may not have dimensions of distance
- Corresponding unit vectors are $(\hat{u}_1, \hat{u}_2, \hat{u}_3)$
- Orthonormality condition of the unit vectors is $\hat{u}_i \cdot \hat{u}_j = \delta_{ij}$, for $i, j = 1, 2, 3$
- Symbol δ_{ij} is called Kronecker delta and it is $\delta_{ii} = 1$, and $\delta_{ij} = 0$, for $i \neq j$
- The displacement vector \vec{dl} between points (u_1, u_2, u_3) and $(u_1 + du_1, u_2 + du_2, u_3 + du_3)$ is given by

$$\vec{dl} = h_1 du_1 \hat{u}_1 + h_2 du_2 \hat{u}_2 + h_3 du_3 \hat{u}_3 = \sum_{i=1}^3 h_i du_i \hat{u}_i$$

- What are h_i 's?

Curvilinear Coordinates...

- Because u_i 's don't necessarily have dimensions of length, therefore, we need h_i 's
- They are defined such that $h_i du_i$ have dimensions of length
- By comparing with the Cartesian, Spherical Polar, and the Cylindrical coordinates, we have

$$h_x = 1, \quad h_y = 1, \quad h_z = 1 \quad \text{for Cartesian}$$

$$h_r = 1, \quad h_\theta = r, \quad h_\phi = r \sin \theta \quad \text{for spherical}$$

$$h_\rho = 1, \quad h_\theta = \rho, \quad h_z = 1 \quad \text{for cylindrical}$$

Gradient in Curvilinear Coordinates

- Let us consider a scalar field f which is a function of three curvilinear coordinates $f(u_1, u_2, u_3) \equiv f(u_i)$
- Using multi-variable Taylor expansion we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(u_i + du_i) &= f(u_i) + \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{\partial f}{\partial u_i} du_i + O(h_i^2) + \dots \\ &= f(u_i) + \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{1}{h_i} \frac{\partial f}{\partial u_i} h_i du_i + \dots \\ &= f(u_i) + \nabla f \cdot \vec{dl} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

- Leading to

$$\nabla f = \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{1}{h_i} \frac{\partial f}{\partial u_i} \hat{u}_i$$

- From which we deduce the expression for the gradient operator in a general orthogonal 3D curvilinear coordinate system

$$\nabla \equiv \sum_{i=1}^3 \hat{u}_i \frac{1}{h_i} \frac{\partial}{\partial u_i}$$

using which, and the values of h_i , one can derive the expression for gradient in any curvilinear coordinate system