

The Equations of Motion in a Rotating Coordinate System



Chapter 3

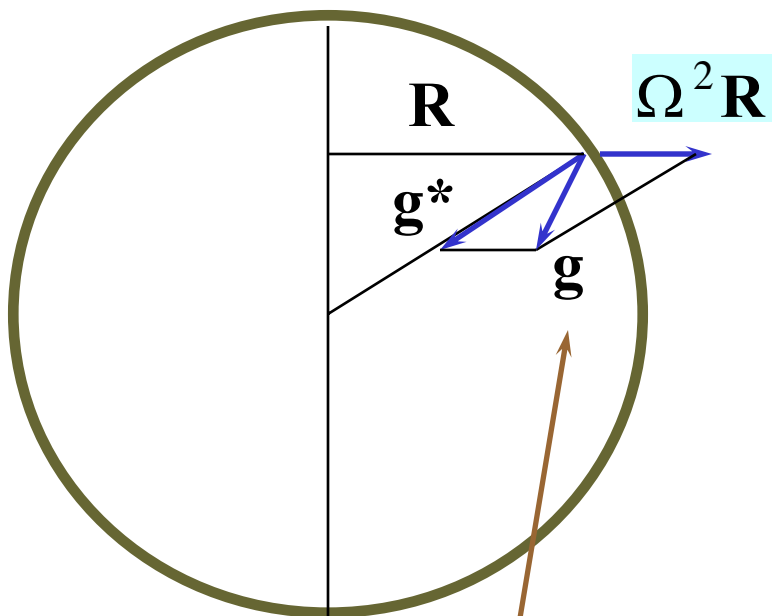
Since the earth is rotating about its axis and since it is convenient to adopt a frame of reference fixed in the earth, we need to study the equations of motion in a rotating coordinate system.

Before proceeding to the formal derivation, we consider briefly two concepts which arise therein:

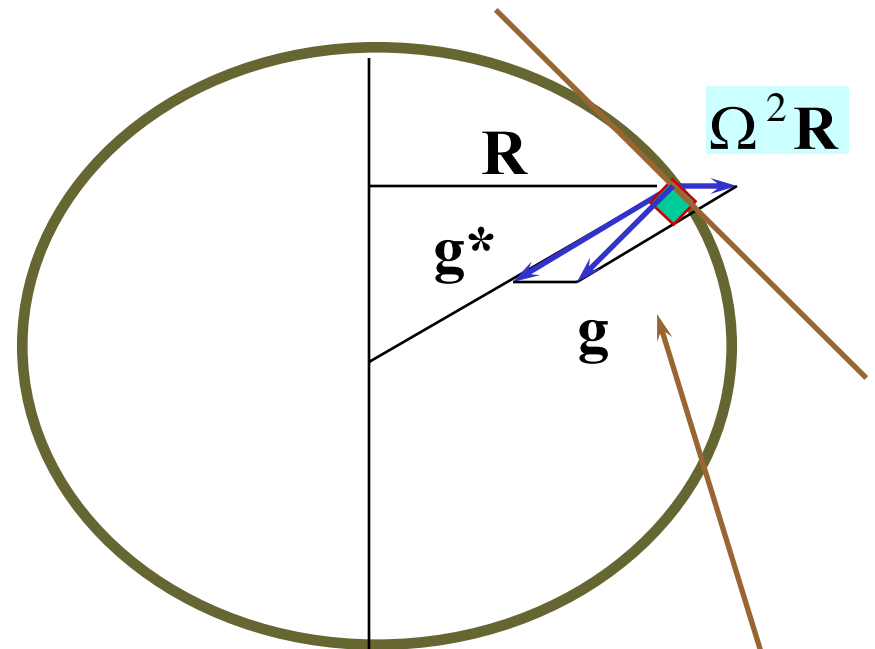
Effective gravity and Coriolis force

Effective Gravity

g is everywhere normal to the earth's surface



effective gravity g
on a spherical earth

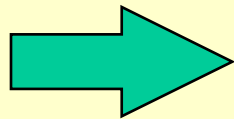


effective gravity on an earth
with a slight equatorial bulge

Effective Gravity

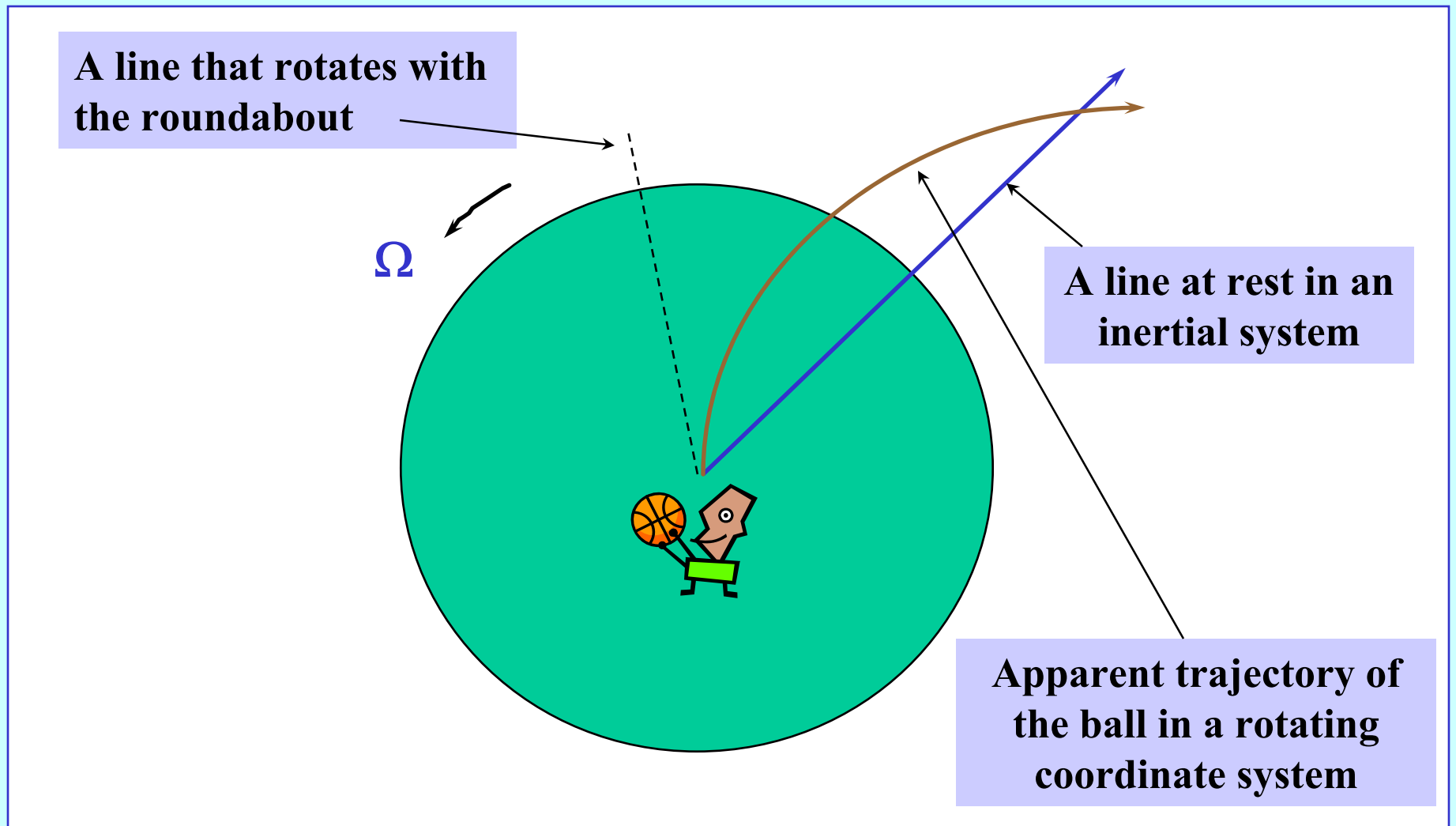
If the earth were a perfect sphere and not rotating, the only gravitational component g^* would be radial.

Because the earth has a bulge and **is** rotating, **the effective gravitational force** g is the vector sum of the normal gravity to the mass distribution g^* , together with a centrifugal force $\Omega^2 R$, and this has **no tangential component** at the earth's surface.



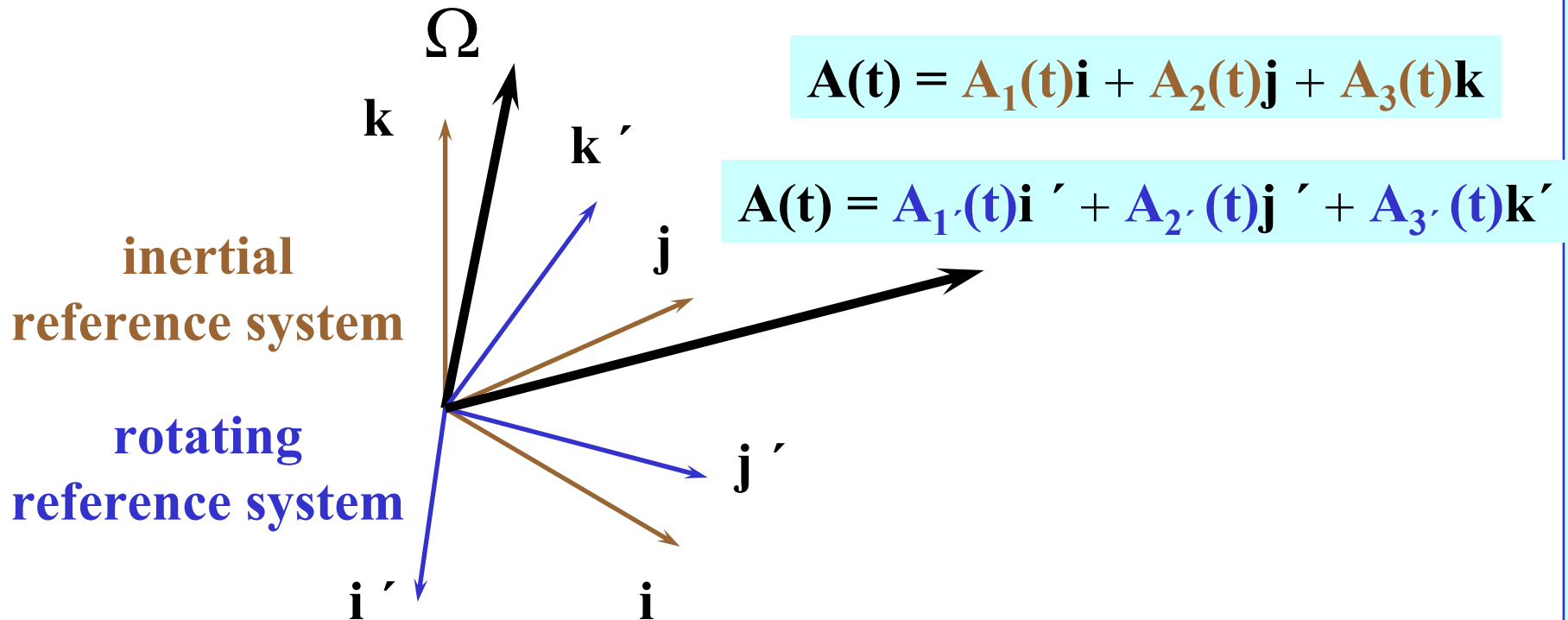
$$g = g^* + \Omega^2 R$$

The Coriolis force



Mathematical derivation of the Coriolis force

Representation of an arbitrary vector $\mathbf{A}(t)$



The time derivative of an arbitrary vector $\mathbf{A}(t)$

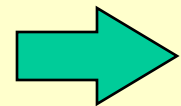
The derivative of $\mathbf{A}(t)$ with respect to time

$$\frac{d_a \mathbf{A}}{dt} = \mathbf{i} \frac{dA_1}{dt} + \mathbf{j} \frac{dA_2}{dt} + \mathbf{k} \frac{dA_3}{dt}$$

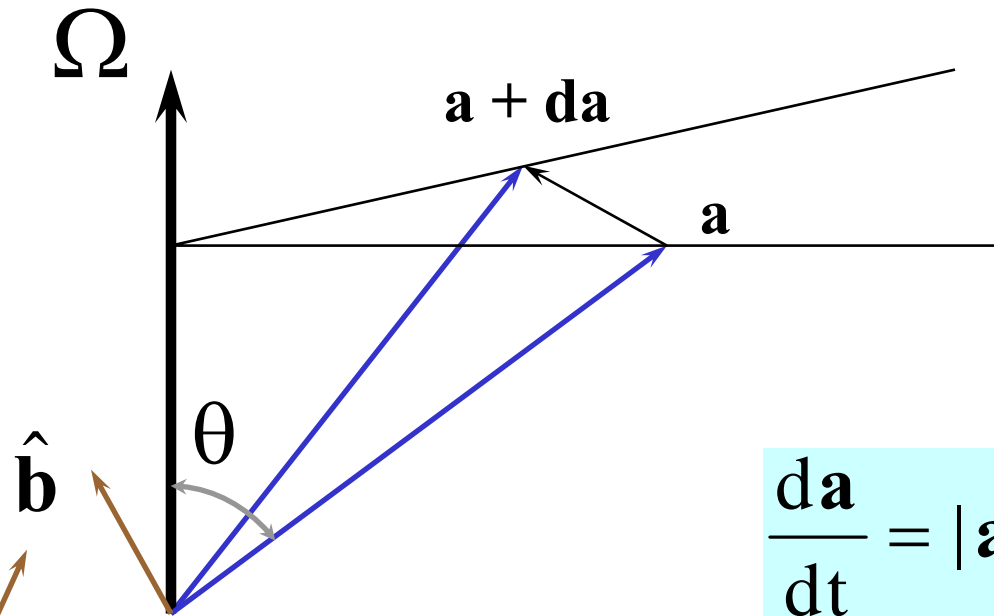
the subscript "a" denotes the derivative in an inertial reference frame

In the rotating frame of reference

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d_a \mathbf{A}}{dt} &= \mathbf{i}' \frac{dA'_1}{dt} + A'_1 \frac{d\mathbf{i}'}{dt} + \dots \\ &= \mathbf{i}' \frac{dA'_1}{dt} + A'_1 (\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{i}') + \dots \\ &= \left[\frac{d}{dt} + \boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \right] (A'_1 \mathbf{i}' + \dots) \end{aligned}$$



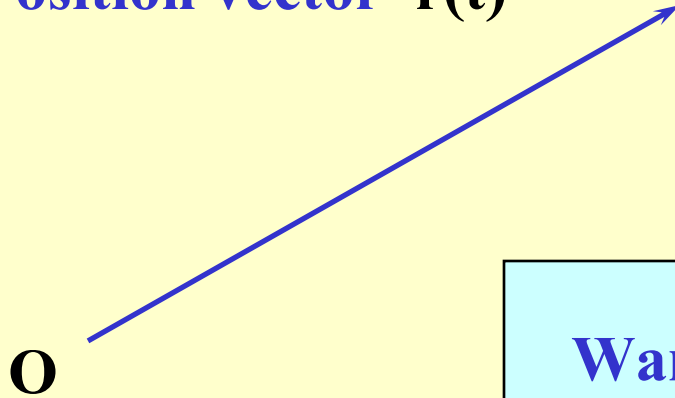
Let \mathbf{a} be any vector rotating with angular velocity Ω



Unit vector perpendicular
to Ω and \mathbf{a}

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d\mathbf{a}}{dt} &= |\mathbf{a}||\Omega|\sin\theta\hat{\mathbf{b}} \\ &= \Omega \wedge \mathbf{a}\end{aligned}$$

Position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$



Want to calculate $\mathbf{u}_a = \frac{d_a \mathbf{r}}{dt}$

the absolute velocity of an air parcel

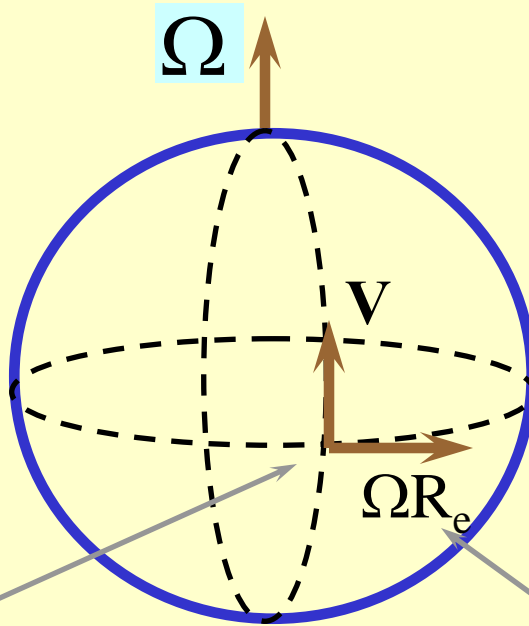
The relative velocity in a rotating frame of reference is

$$\mathbf{u} = \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = \frac{dr_{1'}}{dt} \mathbf{i}' + \frac{dr_{2'}}{dt} \mathbf{j}' + \frac{dr_{3'}}{dt} \mathbf{k}'$$

and $\mathbf{u}_a = \mathbf{u} + \boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{r}$

Example

$$\mathbf{u}_a = \mathbf{u} + \boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{r}$$

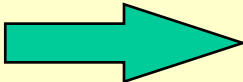


Earth's radius

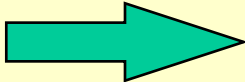
This air parcel starts relative to the earth with a poleward velocity \mathbf{V} .

It begins relative to space with an additional eastwards velocity component $\boldsymbol{\Omega} R_e$.

We need to calculate the absolute acceleration if we wish to apply Newton's second law


$$\frac{d_a \mathbf{u}_a}{dt}$$

Measurements on the earth give only the **relative velocity \mathbf{u}** and therefore the **relative acceleration**


$$\frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt}$$

With $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{u}_a$

$$\frac{d_a \mathbf{u}_a}{dt} = \frac{d\mathbf{u}_a}{dt} + \boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{u}_a$$

$$\mathbf{u}_a = \mathbf{u} + \boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{r}$$

$$\frac{d_a \mathbf{u}_a}{dt} = \frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt} + 2\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{u} + \boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge (\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{r})$$

**absolute
acceleration**

$$\frac{d_a \mathbf{u}_a}{dt} = \frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt} + \underbrace{2\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{u}}_{\text{Coriolis-acceleration}} + \underbrace{\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge (\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{r})}_{\text{Centripetal acceleration}}$$

**relative
acceleration**

**Coriolis-
acceleration**

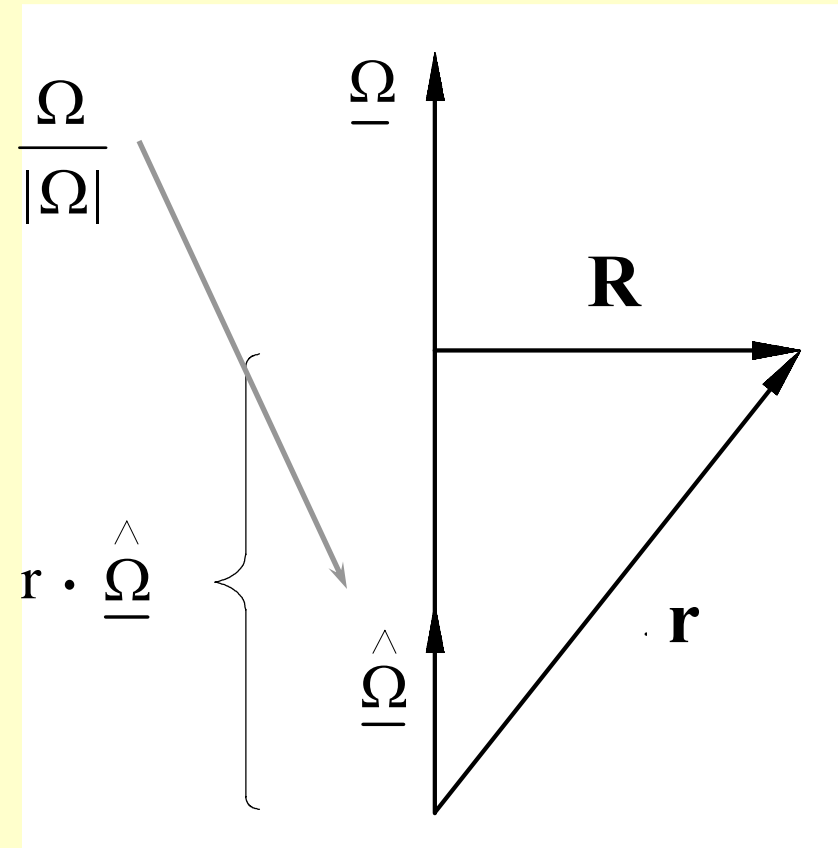
**Centripetal
acceleration**

Centripetal acceleration

Position vector \mathbf{r} is split up

$$\mathbf{r} = (\mathbf{r} \cdot \hat{\underline{\Omega}}) \hat{\underline{\Omega}} + \mathbf{R}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{\Omega} \wedge (\underline{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{r}) &= \underline{\Omega} \wedge (\underline{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{R}) \\ &= -|\underline{\Omega}|^2 \mathbf{R} \end{aligned}$$



The Centripetal acceleration is directed inwards towards the axis of rotation and has magnitude $|\underline{\Omega}|^2 \mathbf{R}$.

Newton's second law in a rotating frame of reference

In an inertial frame:

$$\rho \frac{d_a \mathbf{u}_a}{dt} = \mathbf{F}$$

density

force per
unit mass

In a rotating frame:

$$\rho \left[\frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt} + 2\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{u} + \boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge (\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{r}) \right] = \mathbf{F}$$

Alternative form

$$\rho \frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt} = \mathbf{F} - 2\rho\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{u} - \rho\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge (\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{r})$$

Coriolis force



Centrifugal force

Let the total force $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{g}^* + \mathbf{F}'$ be split up

$$\rightarrow \rho \frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt} = \mathbf{F}' + \mathbf{g}^* - 2\rho\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{u} - \rho\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge (\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{r})$$

$$\downarrow$$
$$\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge (\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{r}) = -|\boldsymbol{\Omega}|^2 \mathbf{R}$$

With $\mathbf{g} = \mathbf{g}^* + \boldsymbol{\Omega}^2 \mathbf{R}$

$$\rightarrow \rho \frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt} = \mathbf{F}' + \rho\mathbf{g} - 2\rho\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{u}$$

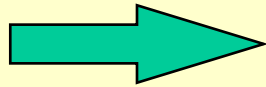
The centrifugal force associated with the earth's rotation no longer appears explicitly in the equation; it is contained in the effective gravity.

When frictional forces can be neglected, \mathbf{F}' is the pressure gradient force

$$\mathbf{F}' = -\nabla p_T \quad \text{per unit volume}$$

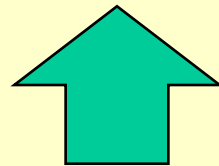
total pressure

$$\rho \frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt} = \mathbf{F}' + \rho \mathbf{g} - 2\rho \boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{u}$$



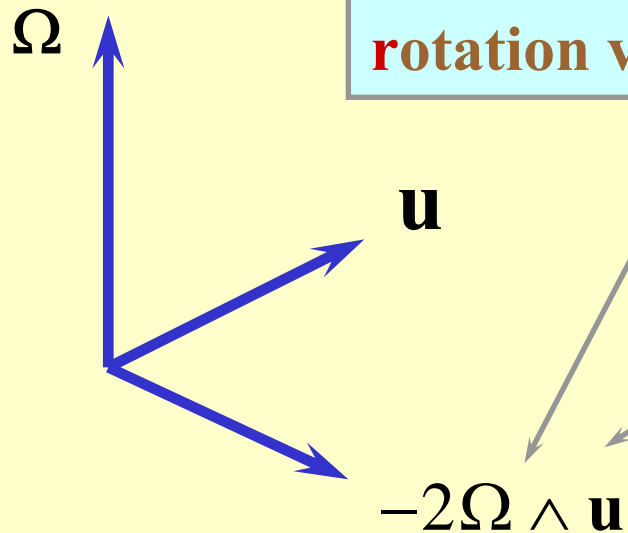
$$\frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \nabla p_T + \mathbf{g} - 2\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{u}$$

per
unit mass



This is the Euler equation in a rotating frame of reference.

The Coriolis force does no work



the Coriolis force acts normal to the **rotation vector** and normal to the velocity.

is directly proportional to the magnitude of \mathbf{u} and Ω .

Note: the Coriolis force does no work because $\mathbf{u} \cdot (2\Omega \wedge \mathbf{u}) \equiv 0$

Perturbation pressure, buoyancy force

Define $p_T = p_0(z) + p$ **where** $\frac{dp_0}{dz} = -g\rho_0$

$p_0(z)$ and $\rho_0(z)$ are the reference pressure and density fields

p is the **perturbation pressure**

Important: $p_0(z)$ and $\rho_0(z)$ are not uniquely defined

Euler's equation becomes

$$\frac{D\mathbf{u}}{Dt} + 2\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{u} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \nabla p + \mathbf{g} \left[\frac{\rho - \rho_0}{\rho} \right]$$

$\mathbf{g} = (0, 0, -g)$

the buoyancy force

Important: the perturbation pressure gradient $-\frac{1}{\rho}\nabla p$
and buoyancy force $\mathbf{g}\left(\frac{\rho - \rho_0}{\rho}\right)$ are **not** uniquely defined.

But the total force $-\frac{1}{\rho}\nabla p + \mathbf{g}\left(\frac{\rho - \rho_0}{\rho}\right)$ **is** uniquely defined.

Indeed
$$-\frac{1}{\rho}\nabla p + \mathbf{g}\left(\frac{\rho - \rho_0}{\rho}\right) = -\frac{1}{\rho}\nabla p_T + \mathbf{g}$$

A mathematical demonstration

$$\frac{D\mathbf{u}}{Dt} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \nabla p' + b\hat{\mathbf{k}} \quad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$$

Momentum equation **Continuity equation**

The divergence of the momentum equation gives:

$$\nabla^2 p' = -\left[\nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{u}) - \nabla \cdot (\rho b \hat{\mathbf{k}}) \right]$$

This is a diagnostic equation!

Newton's 2nd law

mass × acceleration = force

$$\rho \frac{Dw}{Dt} = - \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} - g\rho$$

buoyancy form

Put $p = p_o(z) + p'$ **where** $\frac{dp_o}{dz} = -g\rho_o$
 $\rho = \rho_o(z) + \rho'$

Then $\frac{Dw}{Dt} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p'}{\partial z} + b$ **where** $b = -g \left(\frac{\rho - \rho_o}{\rho} \right)$

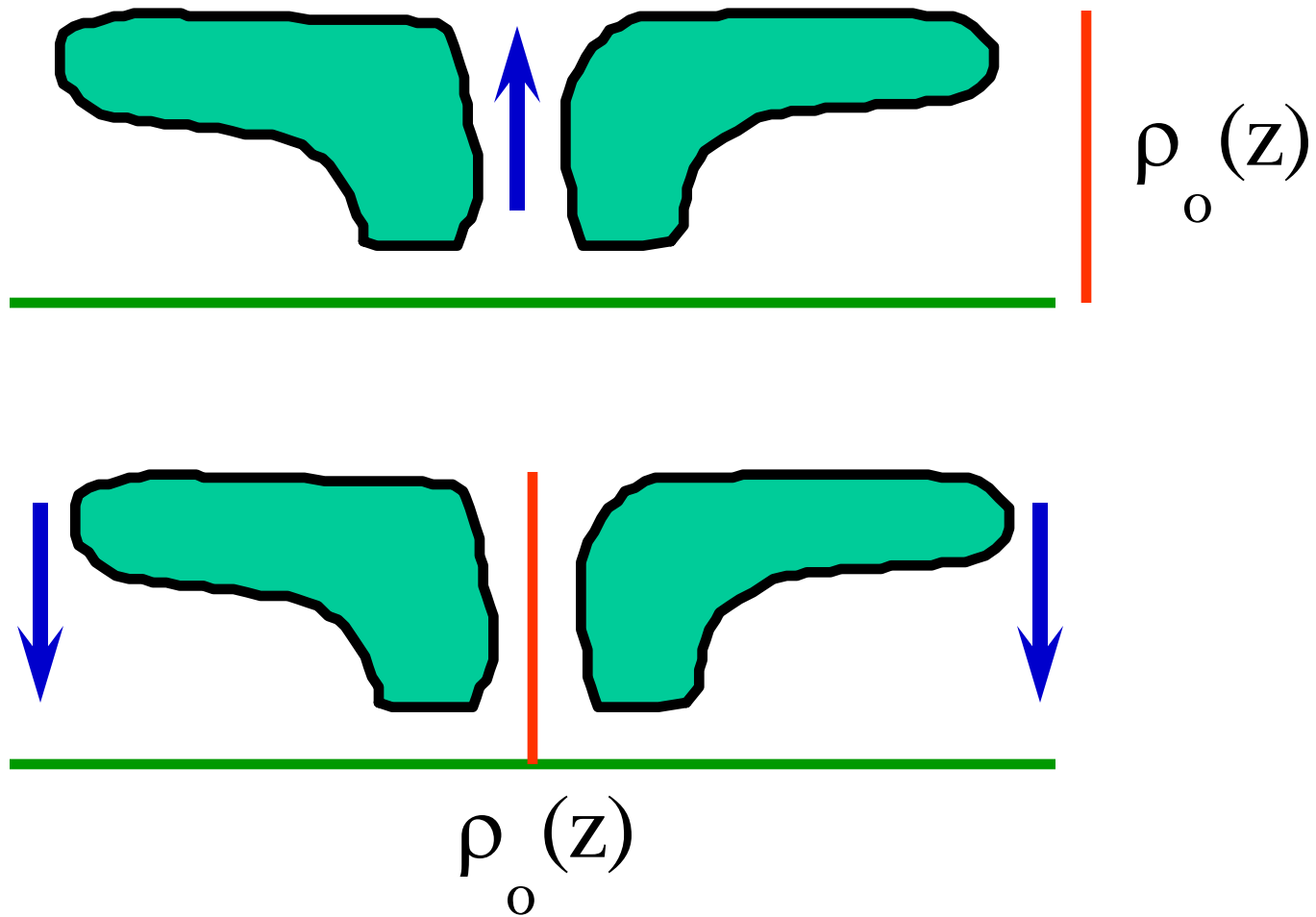
buoyancy force is NOT unique

$$b = -g \left(\frac{\rho - \rho_0}{\rho} \right)$$

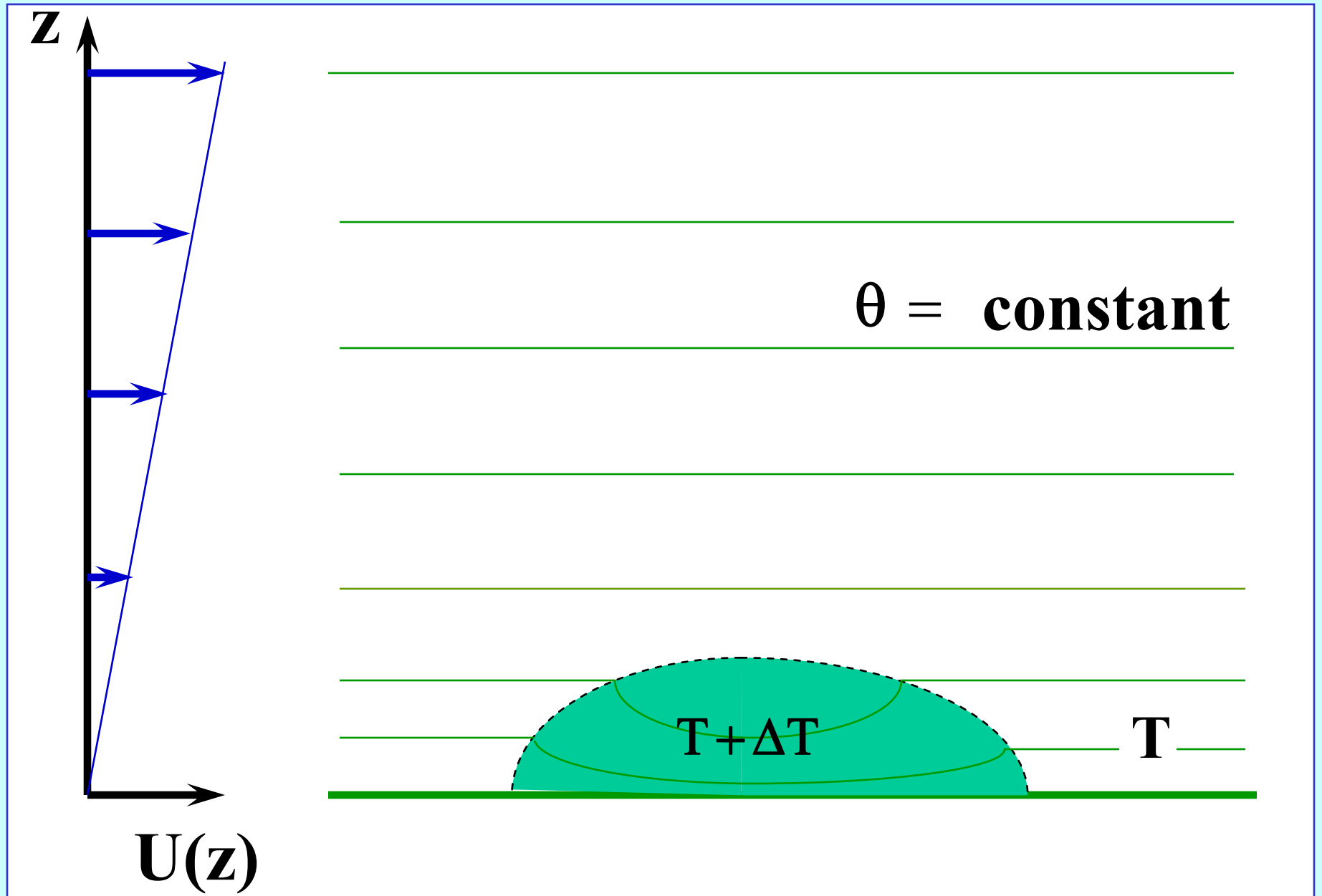
it depends on choice of reference density $\rho_0(z)$

but
$$-\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} - g = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p'}{\partial z} + b \quad \text{is unique}$$

Buoyancy force in a hurricane



Initiation of a thunderstorm



tropopause

negative buoyancy

outflow

original heated air

$\theta = \text{constant}$

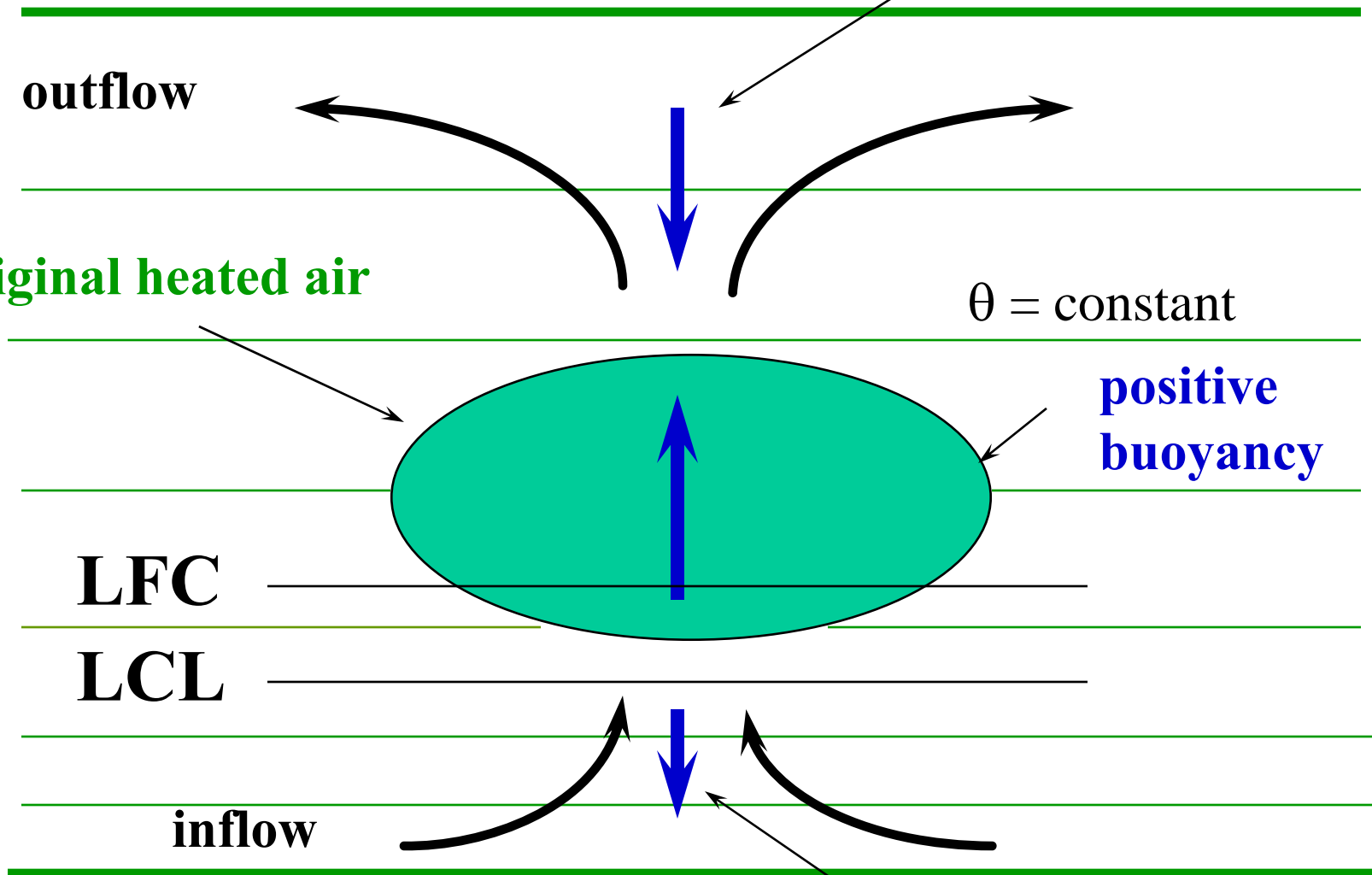
positive buoyancy

LFC

LCL

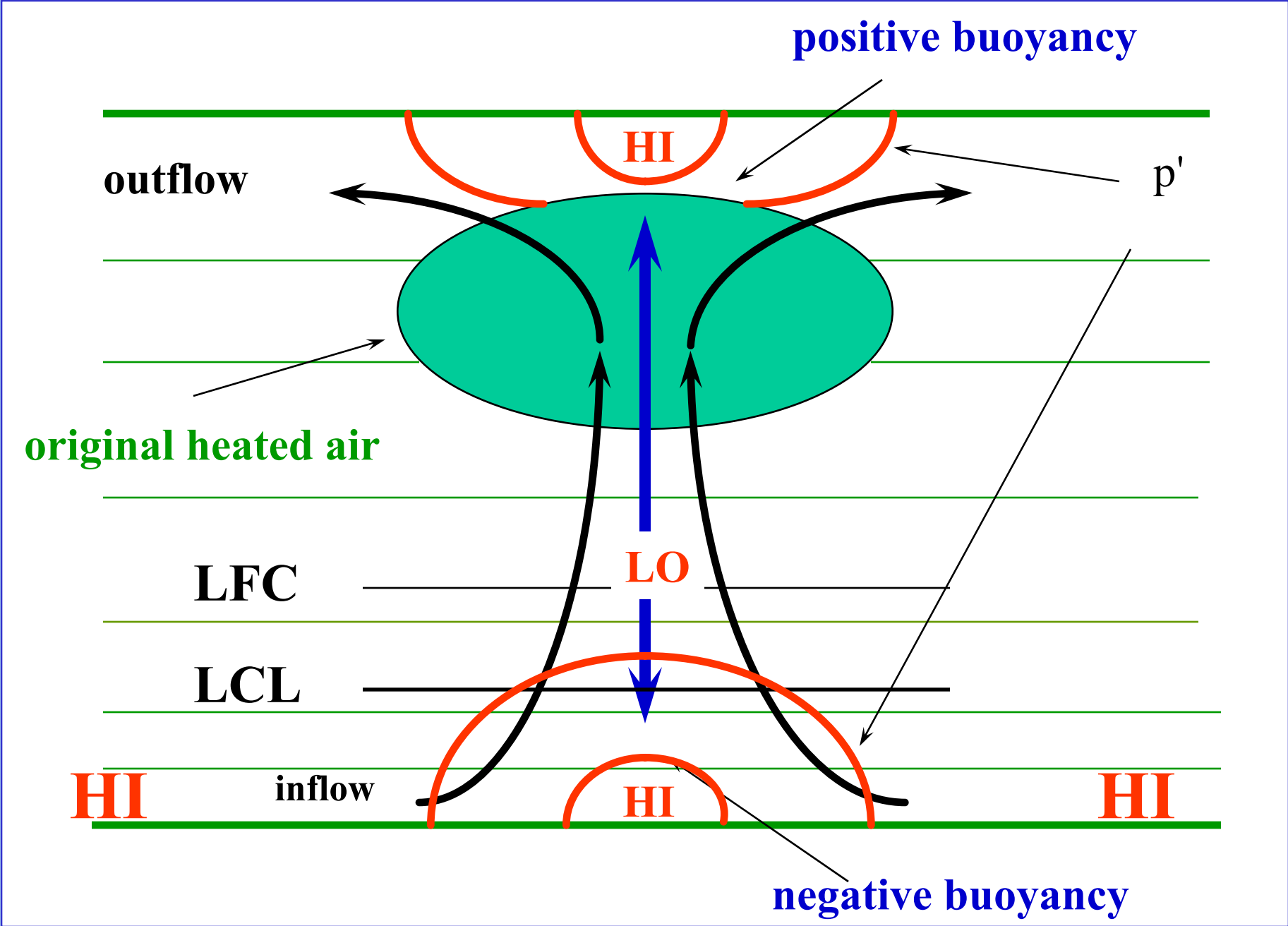
inflow

negative buoyancy



Some questions

- **How does the flow evolve after the original thermal has reached the upper troposphere?**
- **What drives the updraught at low levels?**
 - **Observation in severe thunderstorms: the updraught at cloud base is negatively buoyant!**
 - **Answer: - the perturbation pressure gradient**



Scale analysis

- Assume a homogeneous fluid $\rho = \text{constant}$.
- Euler's equation becomes:

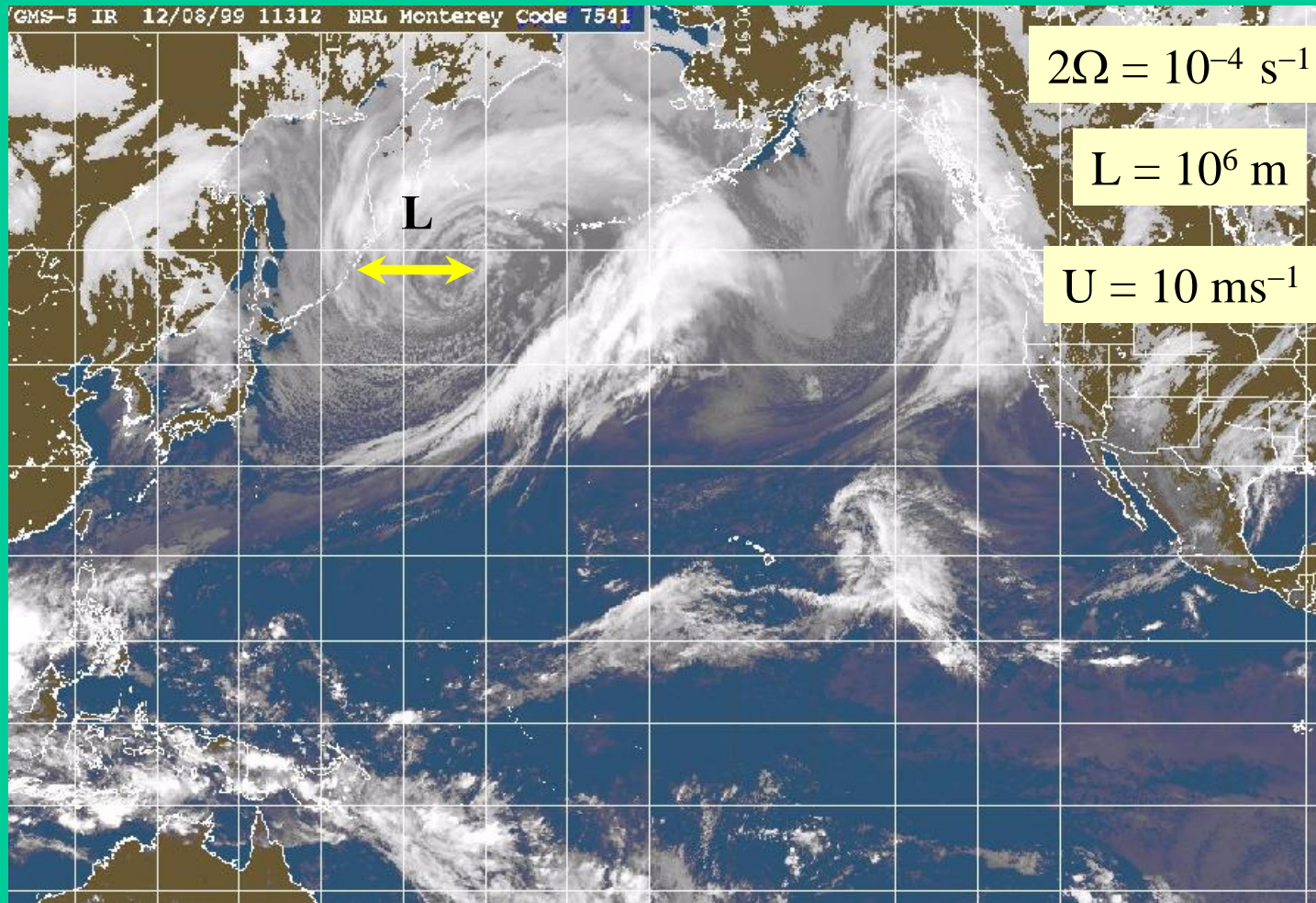
$$\frac{D\mathbf{u}}{Dt} + 2\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{u} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \nabla p$$

scales: $\frac{U^2}{L} \quad 2\Omega U \quad \frac{\Delta P}{\rho L}$

Then $\frac{|D\mathbf{u} / Dt|}{|2\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{u}|} \sim \frac{U^2 / L}{2\Omega U} = \frac{U}{2\Omega L} = \text{Ro}$

↑ Rossby number

Extratropical cyclone

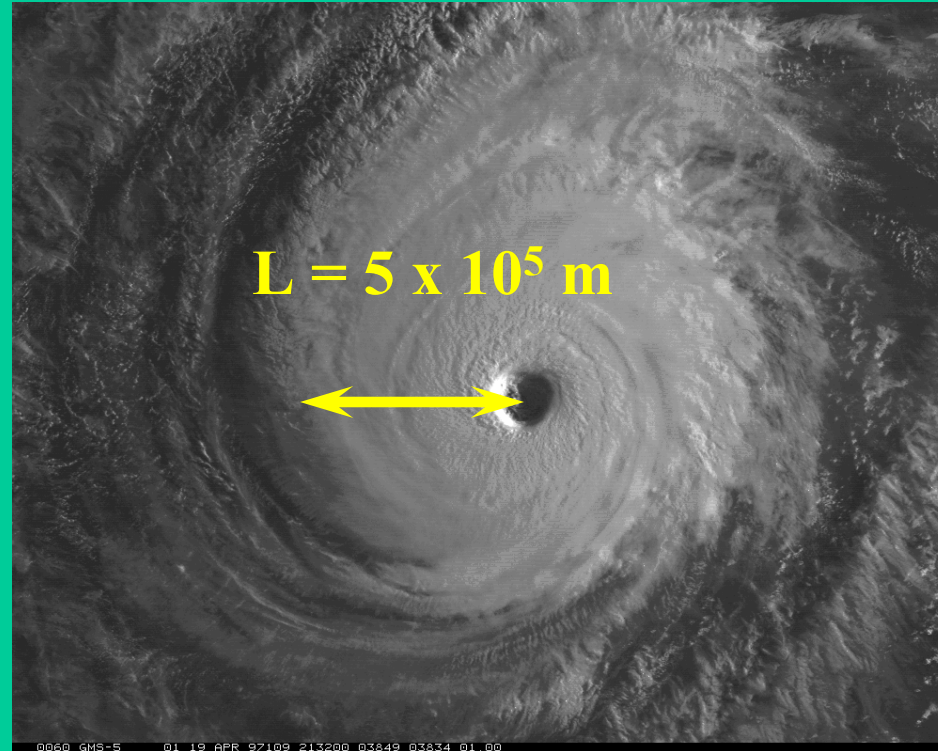


$$R_o = \frac{U}{2\Omega L} = \frac{10}{10^{-4} \times 10^6} = 10^{-1}$$

Tropical cyclone

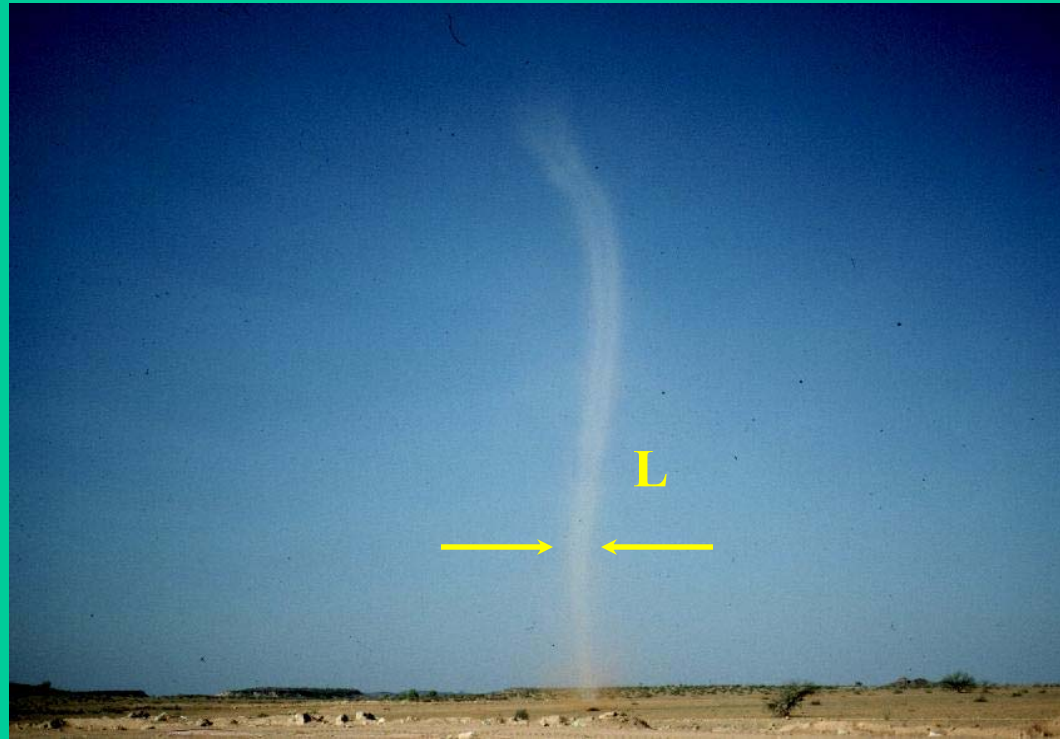
$$U = 50 \text{ m/sec}$$

$$2\Omega = 5 \times 10^{-5}$$



$$R_o = \frac{U}{2\Omega L} = \frac{50}{5 \times 10^{-5} \times 5 \times 10^5} = 2$$

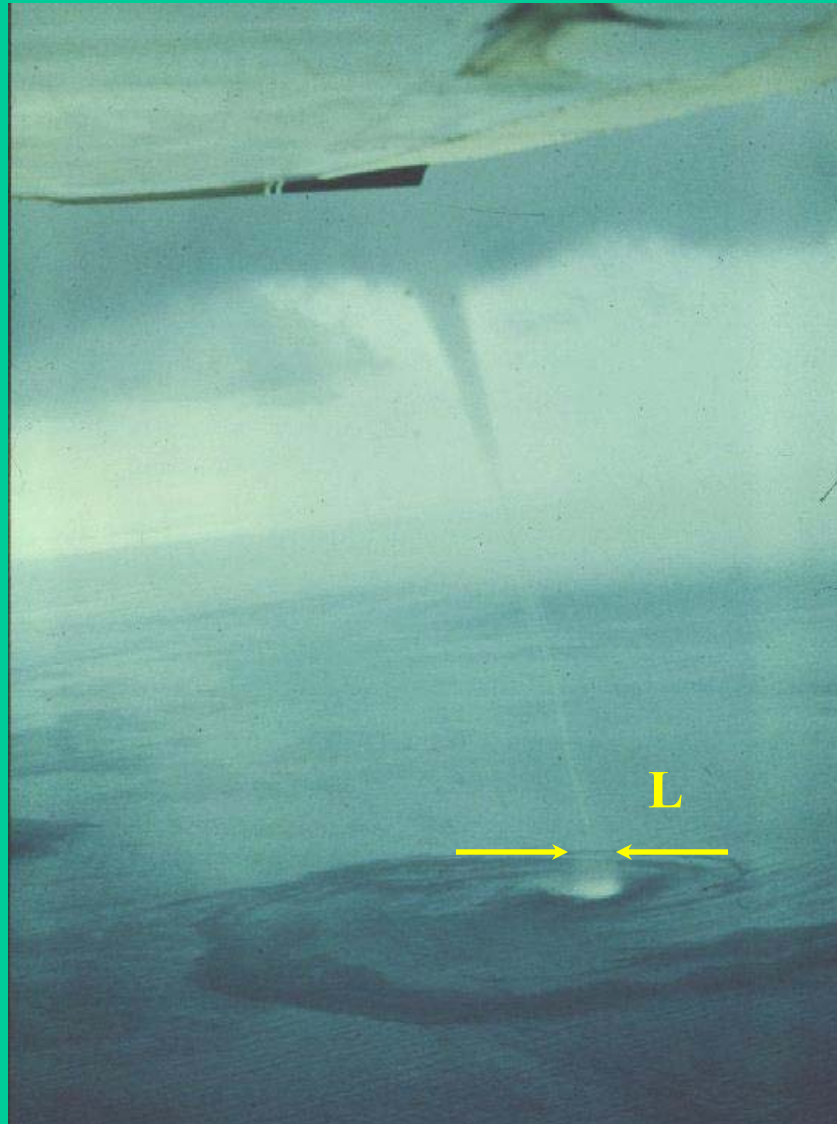
Dust devil



$$L = 10 - 100 \text{ m} \quad U = 10 \text{ ms}^{-1} \quad 2\Omega = 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$$

$$R_o = \frac{U}{2\Omega L} = \frac{10}{10^{-4} \times (10, 100)} = 10^{-3} \rightarrow 10^{-4}$$

Waterspout



$$L = 100 \text{ m}$$

$$U = 50 \text{ ms}^{-1}$$

$$2\Omega = 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$$

$$Ro = 5 \times 10^3$$

Aeroplane wing



$$L = 10 \text{ m}$$

$$U = 200 \text{ m s}^{-1}$$

$$2\Omega = 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$$

$$Ro = 2 \times 10^5$$

The Rossby number

Flow system	L	U m s ⁻¹	Ro
Ocean circulation	10 ³ - 5 × 10 ³ km	1 (or less)	10 ⁻² - 10 ⁻³
Extra-tropical cyclone	10 ³ km	1-10	10 ⁻² - 10 ⁻¹
Tropical cyclone	500 km	50 (or >)	1
Tornado	100 m	100	10 ⁴
Dust devil	10-100 m	10	10 ³ - 10 ⁴
Cumulonimbus cloud	1 km	10	10 ²
Aerodynamic	1-10 m	1-100	10 ³ - 10 ⁶
Bath tub vortex	1 m	10 ⁻¹	10 ³

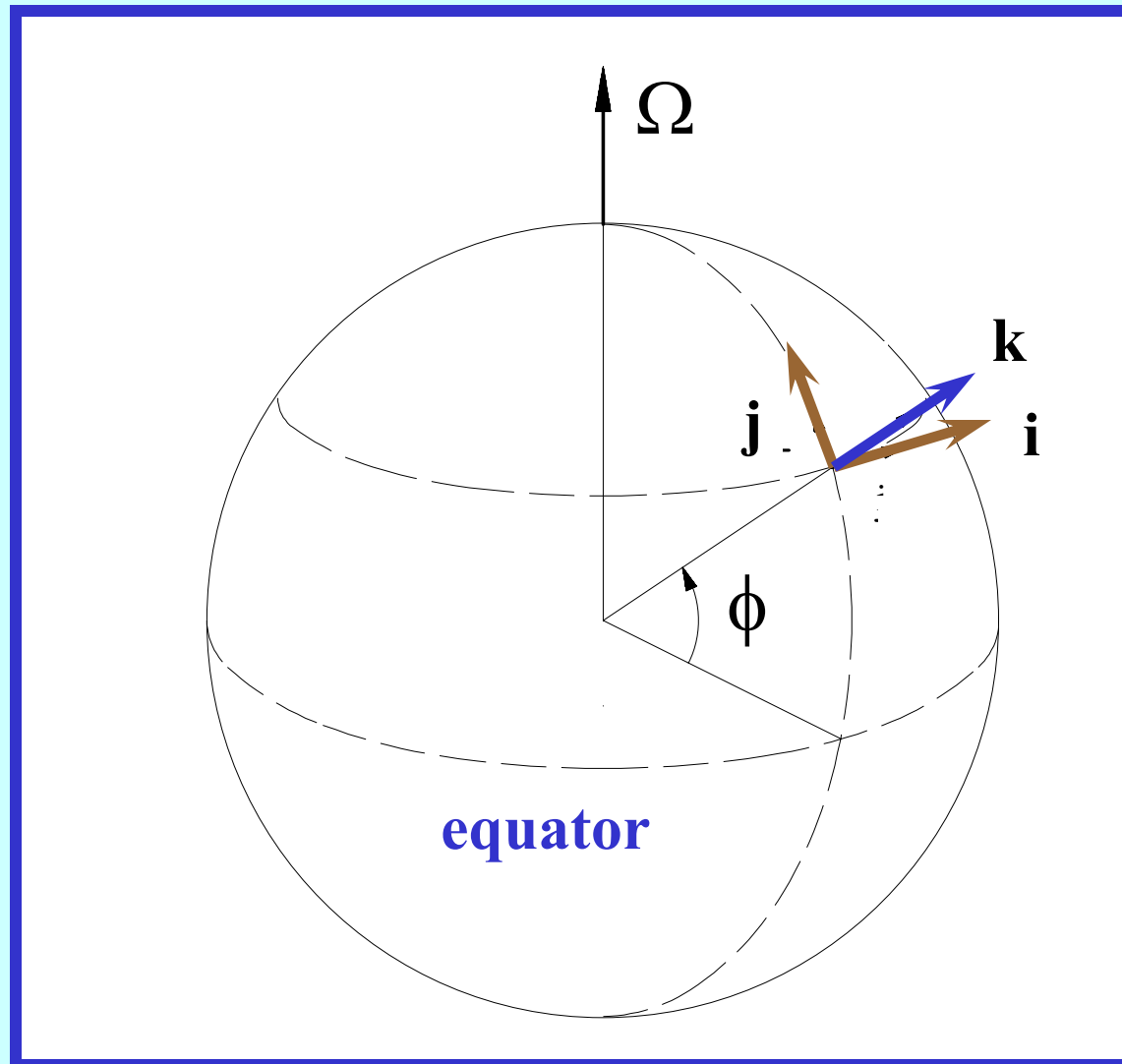
Summary

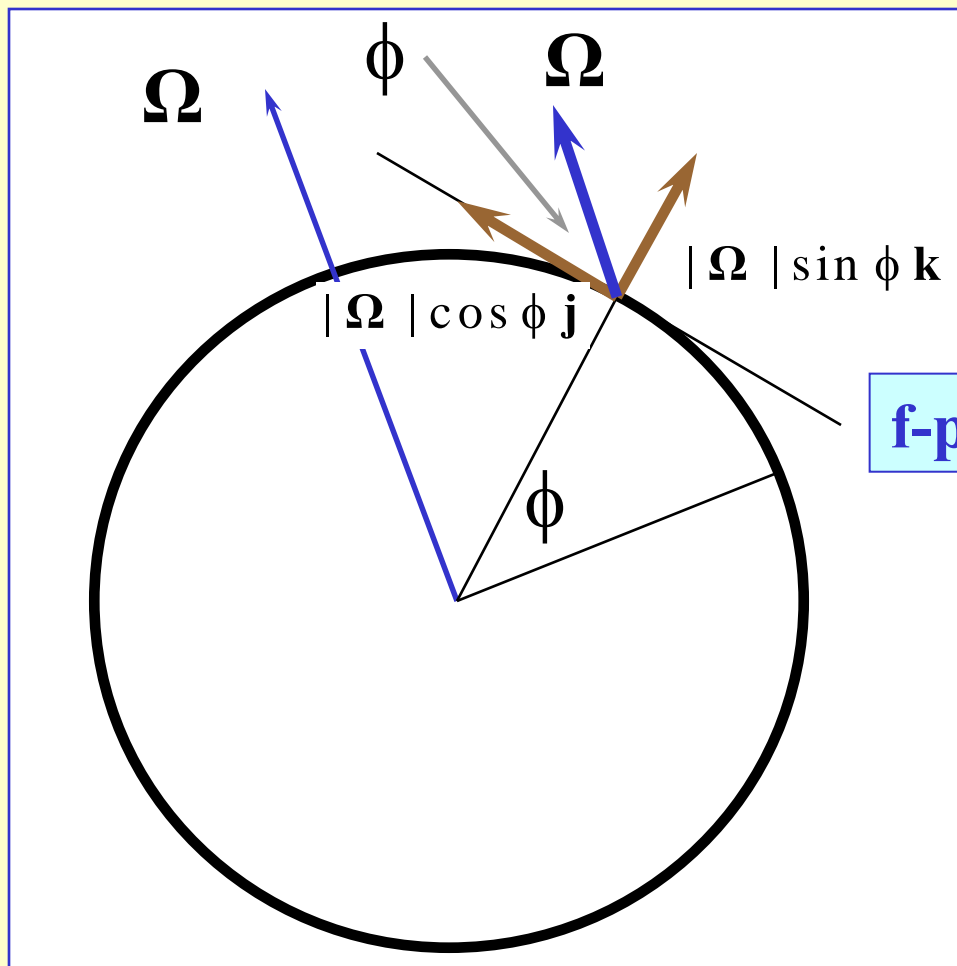
- (i) Large scale meteorological and oceanic flows are strongly constrained by rotation ($Ro \ll 1$), except possibly in equatorial regions.
- (ii) Tropical cyclones are always cyclonic and appear to derive their rotation from the background rotation of the earth. They never occur within 5 deg. of the equator where the normal component of the earth's rotation is small.
- (iii) Most tornadoes are cyclonic, but **why?**
- (iv) Dust devils do not have a preferred sense of rotation as expected.
- (v) In aerodynamic flows, and in the bath (!), the effect of the earth's rotation may be ignored.

Coordinate systems and the earth's sphericity

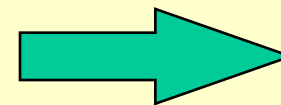
- Many of the flows we shall consider have horizontal dimensions which are small compared with the earth's radius.
- In studying these, it is both legitimate and a great simplification to **assume that the earth is locally flat** and to use a rectangular coordinate system with z pointing vertically upwards.
- **Holton (§2.3, pp31-35)** shows the precise circumstances under which such an approximation is valid.
- In general, the use of spherical coordinates merely refines the theory, but does not lead to a deeper understanding of the phenomena.

Take **rectangular coordinates** fixed relative to the earth and centred at a point on the surface at latitude.





$$\Omega = |\Omega| \cos \phi \mathbf{j} + |\Omega| \sin \phi \mathbf{k}$$



$$2\Omega \wedge \mathbf{u} = |\Omega| \cos \phi \mathbf{j} \wedge \mathbf{u} + |\Omega| \sin \phi \mathbf{k} \wedge \mathbf{u}$$

In component form

$$2\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} -2\Omega v \sin \phi + 2\Omega w \cos \phi \\ 2\Omega u \sin \phi \\ -2\Omega u \cos \phi \end{bmatrix}$$

I will show that for middle latitude, synoptic-scale weather systems such as extra-tropical cyclones, the terms involving $\cos \phi$ may be neglected.

$$2\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{u} = 2|\boldsymbol{\Omega}| \cos \phi \mathbf{j} \wedge \mathbf{u} + 2|\boldsymbol{\Omega}| \sin \phi \mathbf{k} \wedge \mathbf{u}$$

The important term for large-scale motions

To a good approximation

$$2 \boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{u} = 2 |\boldsymbol{\Omega}| \sin \phi \mathbf{k} \wedge \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{f} \wedge \mathbf{u}$$

$$\mathbf{f} = 2 |\boldsymbol{\Omega}| \sin \phi$$

$$\mathbf{f} = f \mathbf{k}$$

Coriolis parameter

Scale analysis of the equations for middle latitude synoptic systems

- Much of the significant weather in middle latitudes is associated with extra-tropical cyclones, or depressions.
- We shall base our scaling on such systems.
- Let L , H , T , U , W , P and R be scales for the horizontal size, vertical extent, time, $|\mathbf{u}_h|$, w , perturbation pressure, and density in an extra-tropical cyclone, say at 45° latitude, where $f (= 2\Omega \sin \phi)$ and $2\Omega \cos \phi$ are both of order 10^{-4} .

and

$$U = 10 \text{ ms}^{-1}; W = 10^{-2} \text{ ms}^{-1};$$

$$L = 10^6 \text{ m (} 10^3 \text{ km)}; H = 10^4 \text{ m (} 10 \text{ km)};$$

$$T = L / U \sim 10^5 \text{ s (} \sim 1 \text{ day)}; \delta P = 10^3 \text{ Pa (} 10 \text{ mb)}$$

$$R = 1 \text{ kg m}^{-3}.$$

horizontal momentum equations

$$\frac{Du}{Dt} - 2\Omega v \sin \phi + 2\Omega w \cos \phi = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial x}$$

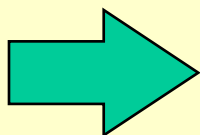
$$\frac{Dv}{Dt} + 2\Omega u \sin \phi = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial y}$$

scales

$$U^2/L \quad 2\Omega U \sin \phi \quad 2\Omega W \cos \phi \quad \delta P/\rho L$$

orders

$$10^{-4} \quad 10^{-3} \quad 10^{-6} \quad 10^{-3}$$



$$\frac{D\mathbf{u}_h}{Dt} + f\mathbf{k} \wedge \mathbf{u}_h = -\frac{1}{\rho} \nabla_h p$$

vertical momentum equations

$$\frac{Dw}{Dt} - 2\Omega u \cos\phi = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p_T}{\partial z} - g$$

scales	UW/L	$2\Omega U \cos\phi$	$\delta P_T/\rho H$	g
orders	10^{-7}	10^{-3}	10	10

negligible



the atmosphere is **strongly hydrostatic** on the synoptic scale.

But are the disturbances themselves hydrostatic?

Question: when we subtract the reference pressure p_0 from p_T , is it still legitimate to neglect Dw/Dt etc.?

vertical momentum equations

$$\frac{Dw}{Dt} - 2\Omega u \cos\phi = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} + b$$

scales

UW/L

$2\Omega U \cos\phi$

$\delta P/\rho H^*$

$g\delta T/T_0$

orders

10^{-7}

10^{-3}

$\geq 10^{-1}$

10^{-1}

still negligible

assume that $H^* \leq H$

assume that $\delta T \approx 3^\circ\text{K}/300 \text{ km}$

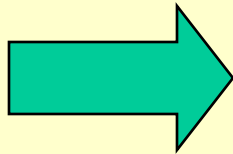
H^* = height scale for a perturbation pressure difference δp of 10 mb

In summary

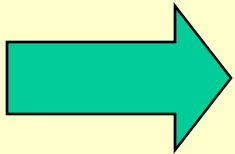
$$\frac{Dw}{Dt} - 2\Omega u \cos \phi = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} + b$$

orders

$$10^{-7} \quad 10^{-3} \quad \geq 10^{-1} \quad 10^{-1}$$



$$0 = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} + b$$



In synoptic-scale disturbances, the perturbations are in **close** hydrostatic balance

Remember: it is small departures from this equation which **drive** the weak vertical motion in systems of this scale.

The hydrostatic approximation

The hydrostatic approximation permits enormous simplifications in dynamical studies of large-scale motions in the atmosphere and oceans.

**End of
Chapter 3**