# An analytical treatment of rotations in Euclidean space 

Archan Chattopadhyay*


#### Abstract

An analytical treatment of rotations in the Euclidean plane and 3dimensional Euclidean space, using differential equations, is presented. Fundamental geometric results, such as the linear transformation for rotations, the invariance of the Euclidean norm, a proof of the Pythagorean theorem, and the existence of a period of rotations, are derived from a set of fundamental equations. Basic Euclidean geometry is also constructed from these equations.


## 1 Introduction

Rotations of Cartesian coordinate systems in Euclidean space are usually studied in terms of linear transformations. For instance, in the Euclidean plane, the transformation [1] to obtain a new coordinate system $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$ from an old one $(x, y)$, by rotating the latter by an angle $\theta$ is

$$
\begin{gather*}
\bar{x}=x \cos \theta+y \sin \theta  \tag{1a}\\
\bar{y}=y \cos \theta-x \sin \theta . \tag{1b}
\end{gather*}
$$

The fact that the distance of any point from the origin (the Euclidean norm) is preserved under a rotation is instated by the relation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{x}^{2}+\bar{y}^{2}=x^{2}+y^{2} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

In 3-dimensional Euclidean space, the transformation [2] to obtain a new coordinate system ( $\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{z}$ ) from an old one $(x, y, z)$, by rotating the latter by an angle $\theta$ about an axis pointing along the unit vector ( $u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}$ ) is

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
\bar{x}  \tag{3}\\
\bar{y} \\
\bar{z}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\cos \theta+u_{1}^{2}(1-\cos \theta) & u_{1} u_{2}(1-\cos \theta)+u_{3} \sin \theta & u_{1} u_{3}(1-\cos \theta)-u_{2} \sin \theta \\
u_{1} u_{2}(1-\cos \theta)-u_{3} \sin \theta & \cos \theta+u_{2}^{2}(1-\cos \theta) & u_{2} u_{3}(1-\cos \theta)+u_{1} \sin \theta \\
u_{1} u_{3}(1-\cos \theta)+u_{2} \sin \theta & u_{2} u_{3}(1-\cos \theta)-u_{1} \sin \theta & \cos \theta+u_{3}^{2}(1-\cos \theta)
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
x \\
y \\
z
\end{array}\right],
$$

and the preservation of the Euclidean norm is expressed by stating that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{x}^{2}+\bar{y}^{2}+\bar{z}^{2}=x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2} . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

[^0]However, in arriving at these equations, one usually employs geometric techniques. The same results (and more) may be derived in an analytical manner by using differential equations, which is the focus of this work. To this extent, the coordinates $x, y$ and $z$ of a point are taken to be (analytic) functions of the angle $\theta$. A coordinate system (in 3-dimensional space) is then given by $(x(\theta), y(\theta), z(\theta))$. The choice of $\theta$ for the initial coordinate system is arbitrary, since only the amount of rotation matters. Since distinct values of $\theta$ result in distinctly rotated coordinate systems, $\theta$ may be said to "label" a coordinate system.

## 2 Rotations in the Euclidean plane

### 2.1 The fundamental equations

Consider the system of equations (with primes denoting differentiation with respect to $\theta$ )

$$
\begin{align*}
x^{\prime} & =y  \tag{5a}\\
y^{\prime} & =-x \tag{5b}
\end{align*}
$$

Successive differentiation yields

$$
\begin{align*}
x^{\prime \prime} & =-x,  \tag{6a}\\
y^{\prime \prime} & =-y . \tag{6b}
\end{align*}
$$

A Taylor series solution [3] for $x$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
x(\theta)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\left(\theta-\theta_{0}\right)^{n}}{n!} x^{(n)}\left(\theta_{0}\right) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since successive differentiation of (6a) implies $x^{(n+2)}=-x^{(n)}$, the solution simplifies to

$$
\begin{equation*}
x(\theta)=x\left(\theta_{0}\right) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{n} \frac{\left(\theta-\theta_{0}\right)^{2 n}}{(2 n)!}+x^{\prime}\left(\theta_{0}\right) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{n} \frac{\left(\theta-\theta_{0}\right)^{2 n+1}}{(2 n+1)!} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

The solution for $y$ is similar. Defining

$$
\begin{align*}
& f_{1}(\theta)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{n} \frac{\theta^{2 n}}{(2 n)!},  \tag{9a}\\
& f_{2}(\theta)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{n} \frac{\theta^{2 n+1}}{(2 n+1)!}, \tag{9b}
\end{align*}
$$

and noting that $x^{\prime}\left(\theta_{0}\right)=y\left(\theta_{0}\right)$ and $y^{\prime}\left(\theta_{0}\right)=-x\left(\theta_{0}\right)$, we get

$$
\begin{align*}
& x(\theta)=x\left(\theta_{0}\right) f_{1}\left(\theta-\theta_{0}\right)+y\left(\theta_{0}\right) f_{2}\left(\theta-\theta_{0}\right),  \tag{10a}\\
& y(\theta)=y\left(\theta_{0}\right) f_{1}\left(\theta-\theta_{0}\right)-x\left(\theta_{0}\right) f_{2}\left(\theta-\theta_{0}\right) . \tag{10b}
\end{align*}
$$

One may have already recognized $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ as the trigonometric cosine and sine functions, respectively. However, we shall continue to use the
developed notation to derive their properties independently of geometric techniques. Equations (10) are strikingly similar to (1), and describe a rotation by an angle $\theta-\theta_{0}$, starting from a coordinate system $\theta_{0}$.

We also get from (5)

$$
\begin{equation*}
x x^{\prime}+y y^{\prime}=0 \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

which on integrating gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
x(\theta)^{2}+y(\theta)^{2}=\text { constant } \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

This proves the invariance of the (squared) Euclidean norm under rotations.

Setting $y(0)=0$ (as we are free to do so), we arrive at from (12)

$$
\begin{equation*}
x(\theta)^{2}+y(\theta)^{2}=x(0)^{2} \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

In this case, we have from (10) (with $\left.\theta_{0}=0\right)$

$$
\begin{align*}
x(\theta) & =x(0) f_{1}(\theta)  \tag{14a}\\
y(\theta) & =-x(0) f_{2}(\theta) \tag{14b}
\end{align*}
$$

so that (13) results in

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{1}(\theta)^{2}+f_{2}(\theta)^{2}=1 \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

We thus observe that $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ are both restricted to the interval $[-1,1]$ and are complementary in nature.

Now, additionally, let $x\left(\theta_{0}\right)=0$ for some $\theta_{0}$. We then have from (10)

$$
\begin{align*}
& x(\theta)=y\left(\theta_{0}\right) f_{2}\left(\theta-\theta_{0}\right)  \tag{16a}\\
& y(\theta)=y\left(\theta_{0}\right) f_{1}\left(\theta-\theta_{0}\right) . \tag{16b}
\end{align*}
$$

From (13), we obtain $y\left(\theta_{0}\right)^{2}=x(0)^{2}$. The case $y\left(\theta_{0}\right)=-x(0)$ produces from (14) and (16)

$$
\begin{align*}
& f_{1}(\theta)=-f_{2}\left(\theta-\theta_{0}\right),  \tag{17a}\\
& f_{2}(\theta)=f_{1}\left(\theta-\theta_{0}\right) \tag{17b}
\end{align*}
$$

Replacing $\theta$ by $\theta+\theta_{0}$, we get

$$
\begin{align*}
& f_{1}\left(\theta+\theta_{0}\right)=-f_{2}(\theta)  \tag{18a}\\
& f_{2}\left(\theta+\theta_{0}\right)=f_{1}(\theta) \tag{18b}
\end{align*}
$$

Successive application of (18) yields

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
f_{1}\left(\theta+2 \theta_{0}\right)=-f_{1}(\theta), & f_{2}\left(\theta+2 \theta_{0}\right)=-f_{2}(\theta), \\
f_{1}\left(\theta+3 \theta_{0}\right)=f_{2}(\theta), & f_{2}\left(\theta+3 \theta_{0}\right)=-f_{1}(\theta), \\
f_{1}\left(\theta+4 \theta_{0}\right)=f_{1}(\theta), & f_{2}\left(\theta+4 \theta_{0}\right)=f_{2}(\theta) . \tag{19c}
\end{array}
$$

Equations (19c) show that $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ both repeat after intervals of (integral multiples of) $4 \theta_{0}$. The smallest of these intervals is the period, say, $\Theta$. Consequently, from (10), we find that $x$ and $y$ are also periodic with the same period $\Theta$.


Figure 1: Two coordinate systems, one of whose axes are rotated by angle $\theta$.

Now, consider figure 1, which describes a rotation between two coordinate systems by an angle $\theta$. Equation (13) shows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{OB}^{2}+\mathrm{BA}^{2}=\mathrm{OA}^{2} \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

which proves the Pythagorean theorem. Defining $r=\sqrt{x^{2}+y^{2}}$, we obtain from (12)

$$
\begin{equation*}
r(\theta)=\text { constant } \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equation (13) also describes the locus of all points whose distance from the origin is $r(\theta)=|x(0)|$. Consequently, it represents a circle of radius $r$, centred at the origin. For $x(0) \geq 0$, we then obtain from (14)

$$
\begin{align*}
& x(\theta)=r(\theta) f_{1}(\theta),  \tag{22a}\\
& y(\theta)=-r(\theta) f_{2}(\theta) . \tag{22b}
\end{align*}
$$

Now, eliminating $x(0)$ from (14) and defining $m=-f_{2} / f_{1}$ results in

$$
\begin{equation*}
y(\theta)=m(\theta) x(\theta) \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

The initial values of $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ (determined from (14)) are $f_{1}(0)=1$ and $f_{2}(0)=0$. Hence, for $\theta=0$, (23) produces the straight line $y(0)=0$. For any arbitrary value of $\theta$, it represents the same straight line in a rotated coordinate system, as is evident from figure 1. Here, $m$ represents the slope of the line.

### 2.2 More on the functions $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$

The equations governing $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ (obtained by substituting (14) in (5)) are

$$
\begin{align*}
& f_{1}^{\prime}=-f_{2},  \tag{24a}\\
& f_{2}^{\prime}=f_{1} . \tag{24b}
\end{align*}
$$

From (24), we get

$$
\begin{align*}
& f_{1}^{\prime \prime}=-f_{1},  \tag{25a}\\
& f_{2}^{\prime \prime}=-f_{2} . \tag{25b}
\end{align*}
$$

The characteristic equation [4] for both these equations is $\lambda^{2}=-1$. Defining a quantity $i=\sqrt{-1}$, we get $\lambda= \pm i$. The general solution to (25) is

$$
\begin{align*}
& f_{1}(\theta)=A_{1} e^{i \theta}+A_{2} e^{-i \theta}  \tag{26a}\\
& f_{2}(\theta)=B_{1} e^{i \theta}+B_{2} e^{-i \theta} \tag{26b}
\end{align*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{align*}
& A_{1}+A_{2}=f_{1}(0)=1,  \tag{27a}\\
& i\left(A_{1}-A_{2}\right)=f_{1}^{\prime}(0)=-f_{2}(0)=0,  \tag{27b}\\
& B_{1}+B_{2}=f_{2}(0)=0,  \tag{27c}\\
& i\left(B_{1}-B_{2}\right)=f_{2}^{\prime}(0)=f_{1}(0)=1 . \tag{27d}
\end{align*}
$$

Therefore,

$$
\begin{align*}
& f_{1}(\theta)=\frac{1}{2}\left(e^{i \theta}+e^{-i \theta}\right)  \tag{28a}\\
& f_{2}(\theta)=\frac{1}{2 i}\left(e^{i \theta}-e^{-i \theta}\right) \tag{28b}
\end{align*}
$$

We observe that $f_{1}$ is an even function of $\theta$ and $f_{2}$ is an odd function of $\theta$. Equivalently expressing $e^{i \theta}$ in terms of $f_{1}(\theta)$ and $f_{2}(\theta)$, we arrive at

$$
\begin{equation*}
e^{i \theta}=f_{1}(\theta)+i f_{2}(\theta) \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is to be noted that an equality of the form $a_{1}+i b_{1}=a_{2}+i b_{2}$, where $a_{1}, b_{1}, a_{2}$ and $b_{2}$ are real numbers, implies $a_{1}-a_{2}=i\left(b_{2}-b_{1}\right)$. The left-hand side expresses a real number, whereas the right-hand side does not, unless $a_{1}=a_{2}$ and $b_{1}=b_{2}$.

Supposing $\theta=\theta_{1}+\theta_{2}$ and substituting in (29), we obtain after some simplification

$$
\begin{align*}
& f_{1}\left(\theta_{1}+\theta_{2}\right)=f_{1}\left(\theta_{1}\right) f_{1}\left(\theta_{2}\right)-f_{2}\left(\theta_{1}\right) f_{2}\left(\theta_{2}\right)  \tag{30a}\\
& f_{2}\left(\theta_{1}+\theta_{2}\right)=f_{1}\left(\theta_{1}\right) f_{2}\left(\theta_{2}\right)+f_{2}\left(\theta_{1}\right) f_{1}\left(\theta_{2}\right) \tag{30b}
\end{align*}
$$

Further results may be derived by similar application of these equations. Henceforth, we resume with the common notation for the trigonometric functions.

### 2.3 A geometric deduction of (5)

For a geometric deduction of (5), consider figure 2. $\theta$ refers to an arbitrarily oriented coordinate system with origin O . The axes are rotated by an angle $\Delta \theta$ to form a new coordinate system $\theta+\Delta \theta$. Let P be a point referred to both the coordinate systems. From the figure,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{OR}=\mathrm{OQ}+\mathrm{QR} \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$



Figure 2: Two coordinate systems, one of whose axes are rotated by an angle $\Delta \theta$.
or,

$$
\begin{equation*}
x(\theta+\Delta \theta)=x(\theta) \sec \Delta \theta+y(\theta+\Delta \theta) \tan \Delta \theta \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the infinitesimal limit of $\Delta \theta$, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
x(\theta+d \theta)=x(\theta)+y(\theta) d \theta \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

thus resulting in (5a). Similarly,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{SP}=\mathrm{SQ}+\mathrm{QP} \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

or,

$$
\begin{equation*}
y(\theta)=x(\theta) \tan \Delta \theta+y(\theta+\Delta \theta) \sec \Delta \theta \tag{35}
\end{equation*}
$$

whose infinitesimal limit yields (5b).
One may gain a better understanding by referring to figure 3, which depicts the rotation between two coordinate systems in the infinitesimal limit. It is readily seen that $d x=y d \theta$ and $-d y=x d \theta$.

## 3 Rotations in 3-dimensional Euclidean space

Let $u_{1}, u_{2}$ and $u_{3}$ be real numbers such that $u_{1}^{2}+u_{2}^{2}+u_{3}^{2}=1$. Consider now the system of equations

$$
\begin{align*}
& x^{\prime}=u_{3} y-u_{2} z,  \tag{36a}\\
& y^{\prime}=u_{1} z-u_{3} x,  \tag{36b}\\
& z^{\prime}=u_{2} x-u_{1} y . \tag{36c}
\end{align*}
$$

Successive differentiation yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{\prime \prime \prime}=-x^{\prime}, \quad y^{\prime \prime \prime}=-y^{\prime}, \quad z^{\prime \prime \prime}=-z^{\prime} . \tag{37}
\end{equation*}
$$



Figure 3: Two coordinate systems infinitesimally rotated with respect to each other.

The solution for $x$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
x(\theta)=C_{1} \cos \theta+C_{2} \sin \theta+C_{3}, \tag{38}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{align*}
C_{1}+C_{3} & =x(0)  \tag{39a}\\
C_{2} & =x^{\prime}(0)=u_{3} y(0)-u_{2} z(0),  \tag{39b}\\
C_{1} & =-x^{\prime \prime}(0)=\left(1-u_{1}^{2}\right) x(0)-u_{1} u_{2} y(0)-u_{1} u_{3} z(0) . \tag{39c}
\end{align*}
$$

The solutions for $y$ and $z$ may be obtained similarly. The solution to (36) is

$$
\left[\begin{array}{l}
x(\theta) \\
y(\theta) \\
z(\theta)
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\cos \theta+u_{1}^{2}(1-\cos \theta) & u_{1} u_{2}(1-\cos \theta)+u_{3} \sin \theta & u_{1} u_{3}(1-\cos \theta)-u_{2} \sin \theta \\
u_{1} u_{2}(1-\cos \theta)-u_{3} \sin \theta & \cos \theta+u_{2}^{2}(1-\cos \theta) & u_{2} u_{3}(1-\cos \theta)+u_{1} \sin \theta \\
u_{1} u_{3}(1-\cos \theta)+u_{2} \sin \theta & u_{2} u_{3}(1-\cos \theta)-u_{1} \sin \theta & \cos \theta+u_{3}^{2}(1-\cos \theta)
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
x(0) \\
y(0) \\
z(0)
\end{array}\right] .
$$

(40)

Equation (40) describes a rotation by angle $\theta$ about an axis pointing along the unit vector ( $u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}$ ) (note the similarity with (3)). It may be checked that (36) reduces to (5) for $\left(u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}\right)=(0,0,1)$. Eliminating $u_{1}, u_{2}$ and $u_{3}$ from (36) results in

$$
\begin{equation*}
x x^{\prime}+y y^{\prime}+z z^{\prime}=0, \tag{41}
\end{equation*}
$$

which on integrating gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
x(\theta)^{2}+y(\theta)^{2}+z(\theta)^{2}=\text { constant } . \tag{42}
\end{equation*}
$$

This proves the invariance of the (squared) Euclidean norm under rotations.

## References

[1] E. W. Swokowski, Calculus with Analytic Geometry, Prindle, Weber \& Schmidt (1979).
[2] S. Belongie, Rodrigues' Rotation Formula, MathWorld. https:// mathworld.wolfram.com/RodriguesRotationFormula.html
[3] R. Courant, F. John, Introduction to Calculus and Analysis, Vol. I, 1st ed., New York: Springer-Verlag (1989).
[4] E. Kreyszig, Advanced Engineering Mathematics, 9th ed., John Wiley \& Sons (2006).


[^0]:    *archanc@alum.iisc.ac.in

