

Spherical Geometry Of Earth

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Introduction

Spherical geometry studies figures drawn on the surface of a sphere, where the shortest paths are arcs of great circles rather than straight lines in a plane. The original essay correctly recognizes that flat maps distort routes and that geodesics connect geometry with Einstein's general relativity. It confuses several historical periods, treats Earth as a perfect sphere, and suggests that ordinary road-routing software works by dividing an arbitrary surface into tiny straight strings. Earth is better approximated by an oblate ellipsoid, while transportation networks impose roads, costs, and constraints. Understanding spherical geometry requires separating the ideal mathematical sphere, geodesy on the real Earth, map projection, graph algorithms, and spacetime geometry.

Euclidean and Spherical Geometry

Euclidean geometry assumes a flat plane in which parallel lines never meet and the angles of a triangle sum to 180 degrees. On a sphere, a line is modeled by a great circle, formed when a plane through the sphere's center intersects the surface. Two distinct great circles meet at two antipodal points, so there are no parallel great-circle lines in the Euclidean sense. A spherical triangle is bounded by three great-circle arcs, and its angle sum exceeds 180 degrees. These differences do not mean one geometry is wrong. Each describes a space with particular curvature. For small regions of a large sphere, spherical geometry resembles plane geometry closely, which explains why local construction can use flat approximations.

Great Circles

A great circle has the same center and radius as the sphere. The equator is a great circle, and every pair of opposite meridians forms another. Most circles of latitude are smaller circles because their planes do not pass through Earth's center. Between two non-antipodal points on a perfect sphere, the shorter great-circle arc is the unique shortest surface path. Antipodal points have infinitely many equal great-circle routes because every great circle through one also passes through the other. This qualification matters when using the string analogy. A taut string constrained to a smooth globe illustrates a local shortest path, but obstacles, friction, and exact antipodes complicate the physical demonstration. The mathematical result follows from symmetry and variational reasoning.

Spherical Distance

If two points on a sphere have central angle θ measured in radians, the great-circle distance is the radius multiplied by θ . Latitude and longitude can be converted into the central angle using the spherical law of cosines or the haversine formula. The haversine form is often numerically stable for small distances. These formulas assume a sphere, so results differ slightly from geodesic calculations on a reference ellipsoid. For classroom problems or long-distance intuition, spherical distance is highly useful. For surveying, cadastral boundaries, satellite navigation, or precise aviation, geodesists use ellipsoidal models and algorithms that account for flattening. Mathematical convenience must be matched with the accuracy required by the application.

Why Airline Routes Look Curved

A great-circle route often appears curved on a rectangular world map because a map projection cannot preserve every geometric property of a sphere. The Mercator projection preserves local angles and is useful for navigation, but it enlarges high latitudes and bends most great circles except the equator and meridians. A flight from North America to Europe may arc northward on the map while following a shorter path on the globe. Airlines do not choose routes from geometry alone. Winds, airspace restrictions, weather, airports, fuel planning, safety, and fees can shift the path. The apparent curve therefore illustrates projection distortion, while the actual operational route reflects both geodesic distance and constraints.

Map Projections

Every flat map distorts some combination of area, shape, distance, direction, or scale because a curved surface cannot be flattened without stretching or tearing. Equal-area projections preserve area relationships but alter shapes, conformal projections preserve local angles but distort area, and equidistant projections preserve selected distances rather than all distances. Choosing a projection is an analytical decision tied to purpose. A map used to compare country size should not use the same priorities as a marine navigation chart. Misreading projection can create false intuitions about distance and political importance. Spherical geometry helps users recognize that the map is a transformation of Earth, not Earth itself, and that visual straightness depends on the projection chosen.

Earth Is Not a Perfect Sphere

Earth rotates and is slightly wider at the equator than from pole to pole, producing an oblate ellipsoidal shape. Mountains, ocean trenches, and variations in gravity add further irregularity. Geodesy uses reference ellipsoids such as the one underlying WGS 84 to define coordinates

consistently. (National Geospatial-Intelligence Agency) The geoid represents an equipotential surface related to mean sea level and is irregular because mass is distributed unevenly. For many applications the spherical approximation introduces negligible error, but the distinction matters in precise positioning and height measurement. Saying that Earth is round is correct at ordinary scale; saying it is a mathematical sphere is an approximation whose usefulness depends on the question.

Geodesics on an Ellipsoid

On an ellipsoid, shortest surface paths are still called geodesics, but they are generally not planar circles. (Karney) Their equations are more complicated because curvature varies with latitude. Surveyors and navigation systems use numerical or series methods to solve the direct problem, which finds a destination from a starting point, bearing, and distance, and the inverse problem, which finds distance and bearings between known coordinates. Bearings along an ellipsoidal geodesic usually change continuously. The string intuition remains helpful but does not supply precise coordinates. Practical geodesy joins geometry with reference frames, Earth orientation, satellite measurements, and error modeling so that locations measured at different times and places can be compared.

Spherical Triangles

A spherical triangle can be formed by the North Pole and two points on the equator separated by 90 degrees of longitude. Each angle is 90 degrees, so the total is 270 degrees. The excess above 180 degrees is proportional to the triangle's area on a sphere: area equals the squared radius multiplied by the spherical excess in radians. This relationship connects curvature with measurement and has historical importance in astronomy and geodesy. For very small triangles the excess is tiny, and Euclidean formulas work well. For continental or astronomical scales, ignoring curvature creates measurable error. The example also demonstrates why familiar geometric rules must be derived from the space rather than assumed universal.

Parallel Transport

A vector carried around a closed loop on a sphere can return with a different orientation even when it was kept as parallel as possible along the path. This phenomenon, called parallel transport, reveals curvature without requiring the surface to be viewed from outside. For example, an arrow transported from the North Pole to the equator, along the equator, and back to the pole can rotate relative to its starting direction. The result depends on the enclosed area. The original essay's bicycle comment points toward this idea but oversimplifies it. A rider following a geodesic does not need to steer to maintain the locally straight path, yet orientation relative to distant coordinates can still change because the surface is curved.

From Gauss and Riemann to Modern Geometry

Carl Friedrich Gauss developed intrinsic curvature and showed that the curvature of a surface can be determined through measurements made within the surface. Bernhard Riemann generalized geometry to spaces of arbitrary dimension and variable curvature. Their work did not simply “decipher shortest paths” independently; it created mathematical language for metrics, curvature, and geodesics. Earlier scholars, navigators, and astronomers had studied spherical trigonometry for centuries. Modern differential geometry emerged through a historical accumulation rather than one sudden discovery. Riemann’s ideas later gave physics a framework in which gravity could be represented geometrically, but the mathematical theory existed before Einstein’s physical interpretation.

Geodesics in General Relativity

In general relativity, spacetime is four-dimensional and its curvature is determined by matter and energy. A freely falling object follows a timelike geodesic, while light follows a null geodesic. The familiar phrase that gravity bends light is useful, but light is not traveling across a two-dimensional spherical surface around every object. It follows the geometry of spacetime. The 1919 eclipse observations helped support Einstein’s prediction of starlight deflection near the Sun, though modern tests are far more precise. The connection with Earth geometry is conceptual: both use metrics and geodesics. The physical spacetime case involves Lorentzian geometry and time, making it different from ordinary spherical geometry.

Road Routing Is a Graph Problem

A road journey cannot usually follow the unconstrained geodesic because vehicles must use streets, bridges, tunnels, legal directions, and available crossings. Routing software represents the transportation system as a graph whose nodes and edges carry costs such as distance, travel time, tolls, turn restrictions, or traffic. Algorithms such as Dijkstra’s or A* search for a least-cost path through that network. Geographic coordinates and map projections help measure and display edges, but the solution is not obtained merely by dividing the surface into small straight strings. Terrain routing, robotics, and surface meshes may approximate geodesics numerically, while road navigation primarily solves a network optimization problem.

Global Positioning and Coordinates

Satellite navigation systems estimate position through signal travel times and orbital data within a global reference frame. A receiver computes coordinates related to an ellipsoid, while mapping software converts them into latitude, longitude, and projected screen positions. Atmospheric delay,

satellite geometry, clocks, multipath, and reference-frame differences affect accuracy. The system does not prove that Earth is spherical through one measurement; it operates using a sophisticated model tested continuously against observations. Coordinates are meaningful only when the datum is known. Two numerical latitude-longitude pairs associated with different datums can refer to slightly different physical locations, an issue important in surveying and geographic information systems.

Applications

Spherical and ellipsoidal geometry support aviation, shipping, astronomy, cartography, climate modeling, telecommunications, geophysics, and satellite operations. Great-circle distance helps estimate routes and coverage, spherical harmonics represent global fields, and geodesic grids support numerical models. Computer graphics use related mathematics for cameras, rotations, and mapping textures onto curved objects. The same concepts also improve geographic literacy by showing why Greenland appears enormous on some maps and why the shortest path may approach a pole. Applications succeed when the model matches the scale and precision required. A sphere can be ideal for teaching and approximate calculation, while high-stakes engineering may require an ellipsoid, terrain model, or full physical simulation.

Conclusion

Spherical geometry replaces plane lines with great circles and explains why triangle angles, distance, direction, and parallelism behave differently on a curved surface. Great-circle arcs are shortest paths on a perfect sphere, but Earth is more accurately modeled as an oblate ellipsoid, and real navigation includes weather, infrastructure, law, and cost. Flat maps necessarily distort, so an airline route can look curved while being geographically efficient. (Snyder) Gauss and Riemann developed intrinsic and multidimensional geometry, and Einstein used related ideas to describe geodesics in curved spacetime. Road-routing software solves graph problems rather than a simple string construction. The central lesson is to choose geometry according to the space, scale, constraints, and accuracy of the problem.

Works Cited

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