

## A GRAPHICAL METHOD FOR GREAT CIRCLE ROUTES

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### ABSTRACT

*A great circle route (GCR) is the shortest route on a spherical earth model. Do we have a visual diagram to handle the shortest route? In this paper, a graphical method (GM) is proposed to solve the GCR problems based on the celestial meridian diagram (CMD) in celestial navigation. Unlike developed algebraic methods, the GM is a geometric method. Applying computer software to graph, the GM does not use any equations but is as accurate as using algebraic methods. In addition, the GM, which emphasizes the rotational surface, can depict a GCR and judge its benefit.*

**Keywords:** transoceanic shipping; great circle route; waypoints; celestial meridian diagram

### INTRODUCTION

The shortest route is an important topic of maritime transportation, especially in transoceanic shipping. In recent years, the trend of maritime transportation shows that: the fluctuations in energy price may influence the shipping strategies and developing projects. For example, when oil price began to rise in 2009, slow steaming (a major cost-cutting measure) was used to adapt the high price, and energy-efficient ships were developed in vogue. When the price of oil dropped in June 2014, ships resumed sailing at faster speeds to increase their cargo capacity, and the use of energy-efficient ships was decreased [14]. However, whether the price of oil are rising or dropping, shipping companies can get benefit by sailing on the shortest route.

The great circle route (GCR) is the shortest route on a spherical earth model, and the great ellipse route (GER) is the shortest route on a spheroidal earth model. The WGS 84 spheroidal model is commonly be used in modern navigation

system, and the spherical model is commonly be used for instruction and simplified calculation. Hence, the great circle route (GCR) has still been discussing continuously. Most navigation textbooks have used Napier's rules of the right-angled spherical triangle to deal with GCR problems [1, 7, 11]. To reduce calculation steps and to apply to different situations, many researches have been published. For example, Miller et al. (1991), Nastro and Tancredi (2010), and Tseng and Chang (2014) used linear combination to obtain equations [9, 10, 13]. Chen et al. (2004), Earle (2005), Chen et al. (2014) and Chen (2016) used vector algebra to yield equations [2, 4, 5, 8]. Chen et al. (2015) used rotation transformation to produce equations [3]. Actually, these studies, which creatively use different approaches to derive equations, are all algebraic methods.

Unlike these developed algebraic methods, we propose a geometric method, namely graphical method (GM), to solve GCR problems. In celestial navigation, the celestial meridian diagram (CMD) is an important tool to analyze the position of a heavenly body on the celestial sphere. However, angle

deviations on the diagram by hand-made may reach 2 degrees [12]. To overcome the disadvantage, we use computer software to draw the diagram, which obtained results are as accurate as using algebraic equations. Hence, we can use the GM to solve GCR problems without using any equations.

Comparing with the algebraic methods, the GM has two advantages. The one advantage is that it has an outstanding ability to display the GCR. The other advantage is that it can analyze the geographic relationship graphically. Thus, The GM not only can demonstrates a GCR on the diagram more direct and clear, but also can help us to analyze the relative variables and judge the benefit of GCR.

## THEORETICAL BACKGROUNDS

Based on the concepts of CMD, we propose the GM to obtain the relative information of GCR. The CMD provides two important concepts as follows.

The first concept is the technique which fixed position by combining two coordinate systems. In celestial navigation, the position of any heavenly body (S) can be presented in the celestial equator system or in the celestial horizon system. As shown in Fig. 1, the red symbols and lines represent the celestial equator system, and the blue symbols and lines represent the celestial horizon system.

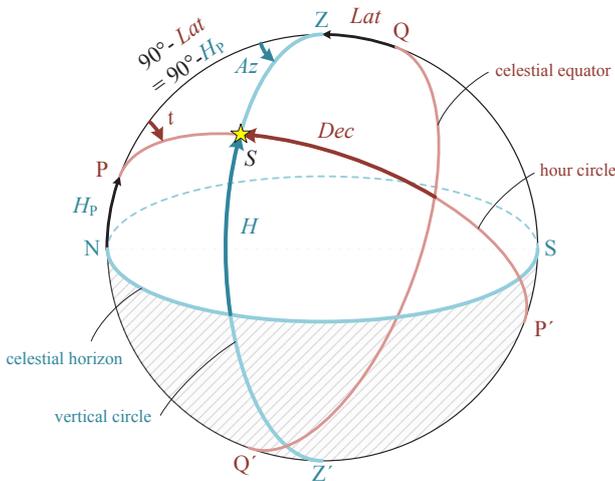


Fig. 1. Celestial coordinate systems

From the viewpoint of the north celestial pole (P), the position of S is fixed by using declination (Dec) and meridian angle (t) in the celestial equator system. From the viewpoint of the observer's zenith (Z), the position of S is fixed by using altitude (H) and azimuth angle (Az) in the celestial horizon system. Because the observer's latitude (Lat) is equal to the altitude of the celestial pole (Hp), the CMD cleverly combines two coordinate systems. Therefore, when a coordinate in one system is known, its position in another system can be determined on the CMD.

Applying this concept to the GCR, when the earth coordinate system is known, we can construct a horizon coordinate system and use variables of GCR to replace variables of heavenly body. For instance, North Pole ( $P_N$ ) replaces north celestial pole (P), departure (F) replaces observer's zenith (Z), and destination (T) replace heavenly body (S).

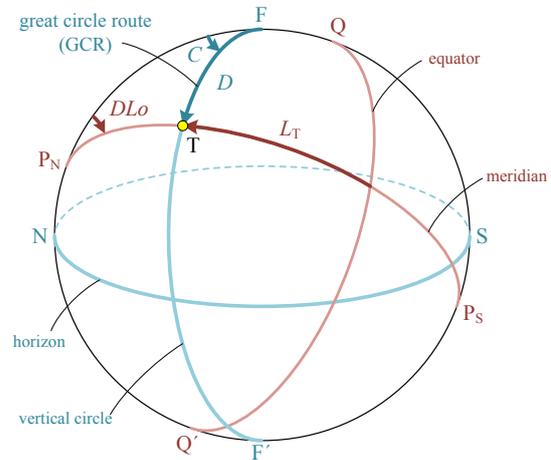


Fig. 2. Combined coordinate systems of the GCR

As shown in Fig. 2, the red symbols and lines represent the earth coordinate system, and the blue symbols and lines represent the horizon coordinate system. From the viewpoint of the North Pole ( $P_N$ ), the position of destination (T) is fixed by using latitude ( $L_T$ ) and difference of longitude (DLo) in the earth coordinate system.

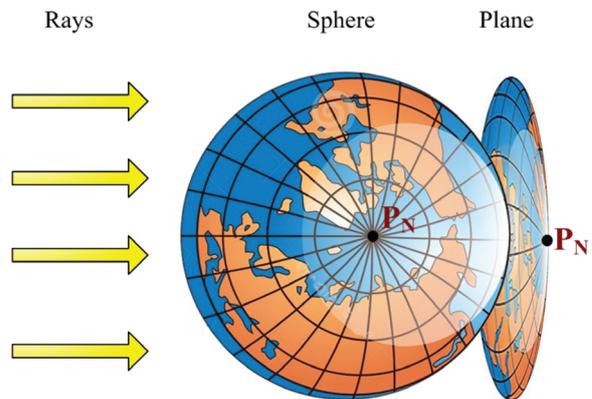
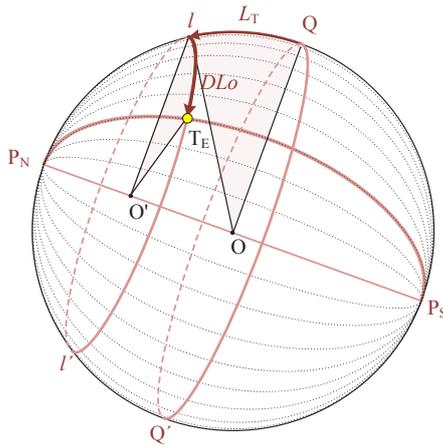


Fig. 3. An illustration of the azimuthal orthographic projection (equatorial aspect)

From the viewpoint of the departure (F), the position of destination (T) is fixed by using great circle distance (D) and initial course angle (C) in the horizon coordinate system. Hence, when the destination's latitude and longitude in the earth coordinate system are known, great circle distance and initial course angle can be obtained in the horizon coordinate system.

a) Sphere



b) Plane

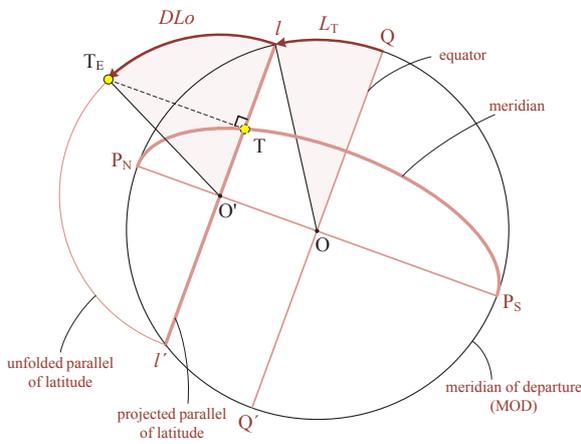
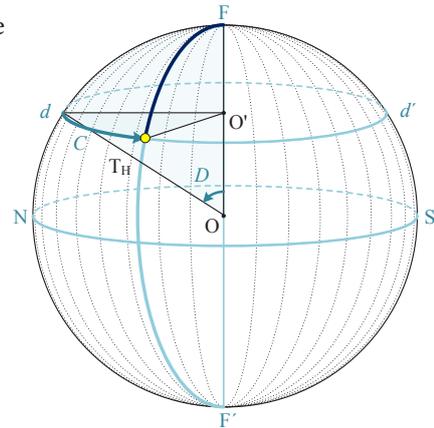


Fig. 4. Projecting the earth coordinate system on a plane

The second concept is the technique of azimuthal orthographic projection (equatorial aspect), which makes the arcs and angles on the sphere can be measured on the plane. As shown In Fig.3, the hemisphere of the earth is irradiated by the light rays at infinite distance from the earth. The equator is in the centerline, and the sphere is projected onto a plane. The projection looks like that someone took a picture of the earth from space. The projected earth coordinate system is shown in Fig. 4, and the projected horizon coordinate system is shown in Fig. 5. In Fig. 4(b), the projected meridian of departure (MOD) would appear as the outer limit circle. According to the angle values which measure from the outer limit circle to the projected meridians, the meridian whose angle is  $90^\circ$  would appear as a diameter ( $P_N P_S$ ), the others would appear as curved lines (e.g.,  $P_N P_S$ ). The projected equator would appear as a diameter ( $Q Q'$ ). The all projected parallels of latitude (POLs) would appear as straight lines (e.g.,  $I I'$ ), which are parallel to the equator. They also can unfold as semicircles on the projection plane (e.g.,  $I I'$ ). In Fig. 5(b), the projected principal vertical of the departure would appear as the outer limit circle (this circle also represented as the projection of

the MOD in the earth coordinate system). According to the angle values which measure from the outer limit circle to the projected vertical circles, the vertical circle whose angle is  $90^\circ$  would appear as a diameter ( $F F'$ ) (this vertical circle also called the prime vertical), the others would appear as curved lines (e.g.,  $F F'$ ). The GCR is the part of the vertical circle, which is from the departure to the destination (e.g.,  $F T$ ). The projected horizon would appear as a diameter ( $N S$ ) which includes all azimuths (the north is at the left, the south is at the right, the west is at the center, and the east is at the “back” side of the center). The all projected distance circles (each point on the same circle has the same distance from the departure to itself) would appear as straight lines (e.g.,  $d d'$ ). They also can unfold as semicircles on the projection plane (e.g.,  $d d'$ ). Furthermore, when the great circle plane or the small circle plane on the sphere is orthogonal or parallel to the light rays, their arcs and angles can be measured on the projection plane. Therefore, in Fig. 4(b), a latitude (e.g.,  $L_T$ ) can be found by measuring the central angle of the projected MOD (e.g.,  $\angle Q O I$ ). A difference of longitude (e.g.,  $D L o$ ) can be obtained by measuring the central angle of the spherical POL (e.g.,  $\angle I O T_E$ ). In Fig. 5(b), a great circle distance (e.g.,  $D$ ) can be found by measuring the central angle of the projected principal vertical (e.g.,  $F O d$ ). A great circle initial course (e.g.,  $C$ ) can be obtained by measuring the central angle of the spherical distance circle (e.g.,  $\angle d O T_H$ ).

a) Sphere



b) Plane

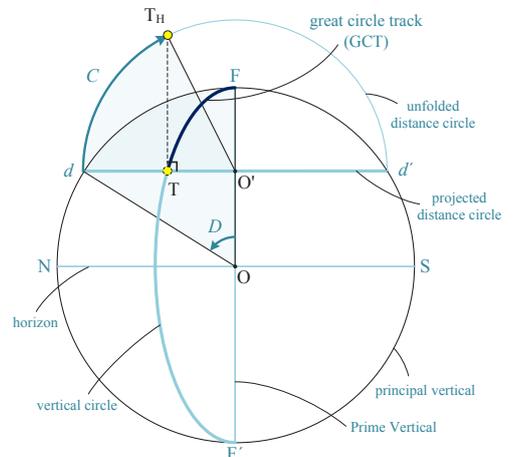


Fig. 5. Projecting the horizon coordinate system on a plane





circle ( $\widehat{FF}$  the blue curved line) and POL ( $\widehat{I_X I_X'}$ ), the red straight line) as shown in Fig. 10. The vertical circle of the waypoint can be sketched out by assuming some different points which have different great circle distances just as in the Condition 2. The projected POL of the waypoint can be drawn by using the known latitude of the waypoint ( $L_X$ ). Accordingly, the intersection of the vertical circle and the POL is the waypoint position (the obtained point number is one or two). The point  $X_E$  can be marked by returning the chosen waypoint ( $X$ ) on the spherical POL of the waypoint ( $I_X I_X'$ ). Therefore, the difference of longitude between the departure and the waypoint ( $DLo_{FX}$ ) can be obtained by measuring an arc of  $\angle I_X O' X_E$  along the small circle. For example, when the  $C$  is N63.5°W and the  $L_X$  is 30°N, the difference of longitude between the departure and the waypoint ( $DLo_{FX}$ ) is 29°24.0'W.

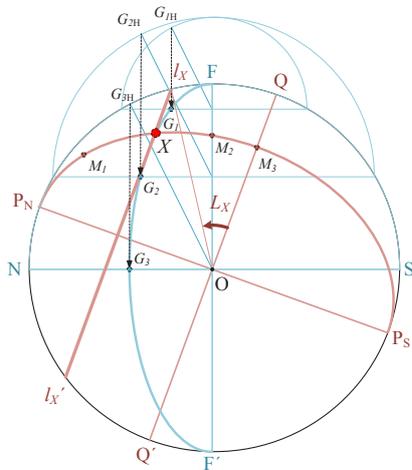


Fig. 9. Finding the waypoint under condition 2

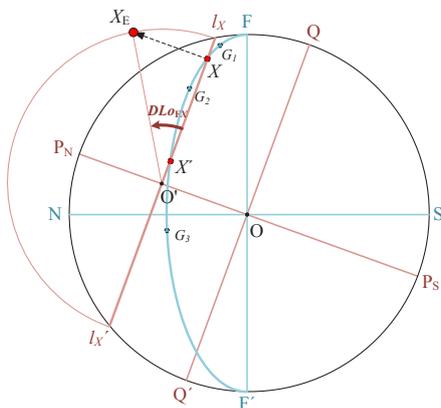


Fig. 10. Finding the waypoint under condition 3

### 3) Find the vertex and the equator crossing point

As shown in Fig. 11, the vertex is the point which has the highest latitude on a GCR. Draw the projected POL of the vertex ( $I_V I_V'$ ) which is tangent to the GCR and is parallel to the equator ( $QQ'$ ). The vertex is the intersection of the GCR and the projected POL ( $I_V I_V'$ ). Its latitude ( $L_V$ ) and difference of longitude ( $DLo_{FV}$ ) can be obtained by respectively measuring the angle of  $\angle QOI_V$  and  $\angle I_V O' V_E$ . Besides, the equator crossing point is the intersection of the GCR and the equator ( $QQ'$ ).

Its latitude is 0° and its difference of longitude ( $DLo_{FE}$ ) can be obtained by measuring the angle of  $\angle QOE_E$ . For example, when the  $\angle QOI_V$  is 32.7°, the latitude of the vertex ( $L_V$ ) is 32°42.0'N. When the  $\angle I_V O' V_E$  is 55.5°, the difference of longitude between the departure and vertex is ( $DLo_{FV}$ ) 55°30.0'W. When the  $\angle QOE_E$  is 145.5°, the difference of longitude between the departure and equator crossing point ( $DLo_{FE}$ ) is 145°30.0'W.

Generally, the GCR between the departure (F) and the destination (T) has at most one vertex and one equator crossing point. However, as shown in Fig. 11, a complete great circle has two vertices ( $V_1$  and  $V_2$ ) and two equator crossing points ( $E_1$  and  $E_2$ ). Their values can be obtained by the method described above.

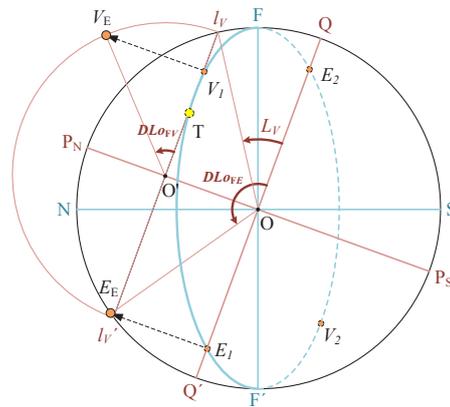


Fig. 11. Finding the vertex and the equator crossing point

## DEMONSTRATED EXAMPLE

In this paper, the GeoGebra, which is a kind of computer graphing software, is used to execute the graphical method (GM) to solve GCR problems. Take a voyage as for instance, its interface is as shown in Fig. 12. A vessel is leaving from Sydney (AUSTRALIA) to Balboa (PANAMA). The latitude of departure ( $L_P$ ) is 33°51.5'S, the latitude of destination ( $L_T$ ) is 08°53.0'N, and the difference of longitude between departure and destination ( $DLo$ ) is 129°16.0'E [4]. Following questions are calculated by using the GeoGebra.

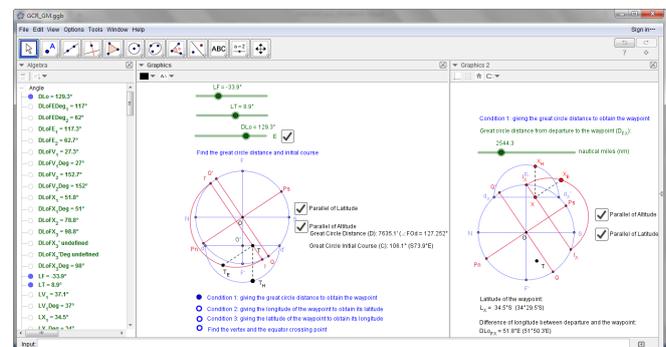


Fig. 12. Interface of the GeoGebra



3) Find the vertex and the equator crossing point

As shown in Fig. 17, the results of calculation are that the latitude of vertex is  $37^{\circ}03.5'S$  ( $\angle Q'O'V_1 = 37.059^{\circ}$ ), and the difference of longitude between the departure and vertex ( $DLo_{FV_1}$ ) is  $27^{\circ}19.3'W$  ( $\angle I_V'O'V_E = 27.322^{\circ}$ ). Besides, the difference of longitude between the departure and equator crossing point ( $DLo_{FE}$ ) is  $117^{\circ}19.3'E$  ( $\angle Q'O'E_E = 117.322^{\circ}$ ).

Find the vertex and the equator crossing point

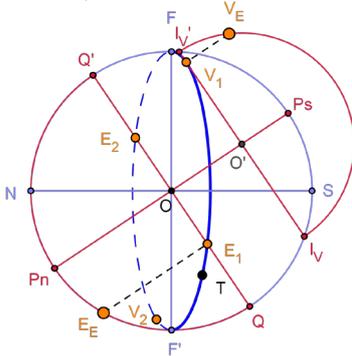
Vertex 1:

$$L_{V_1} = 37^{\circ}03.5'S \quad (\angle Q'O'V_1 = 37.059^{\circ})$$

$$DLo_{FV_1} = 27^{\circ}19.3'W \quad (\angle I_V'O'V_E = 27.322^{\circ})$$

Equator crossing point 1:

$$DLo_{FE_1} = 117^{\circ}19.3'E \quad (\angle Q'O'E_E = 117.322^{\circ})$$



Vertex 2:

$$L_{V_2} = 37^{\circ}03.5'N \quad DLo_{FV_2} = 152^{\circ}40.7'E$$

Equator crossing point 2:

$$DLo_{FE_2} = 62^{\circ}40.7'W$$

Fig. 17. Result of the graphical method to find the vertex and the equator crossing point in example

In this example, we found that the results of calculation by using the computer graphing software to execute the graphical method (GM) are as accurate as by using the algebraic methods [4].

## ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The GM not only can accurately solve the GCR problems, but also can help us to analyze relative variables. When the latitude of departure ( $L_F$ ), the latitude of destination ( $L_T$ ), and the difference of longitude between departure and destination ( $DLo$ ) are known, these variables will determine the only GCR between the departure ( $F$ ) and destination ( $T$ ). In this paper, we assume that the  $L_F$  is  $20^{\circ}N$ , the  $L_T$  is  $32.5^{\circ}N$ , the  $DLo$  is  $63.3^{\circ}W$ , and try to change one variable value at a time. Through this example, we can analyze the relationship between these variables and the GCR.

First, when the latitude of departure ( $L_F$ ) is changed, as shown in Fig. 18, the two axes of horizon coordinate will still be fixed, the two axes of earth coordinate (e.g., the equator) and the destination ( $T$ ) will rotate around the center ( $O$ ) on the diagram. When the latitude of departure ( $L_F$ ) value decreases from  $90^{\circ}N$  to  $90^{\circ}S$  (e.g.,  $L_{F1} = 90^{\circ}N$ ,  $L_{F2} = 67.5^{\circ}N$ , ...,  $L_{F9} = 90^{\circ}S$ ), the equator will rotate in a counterclockwise

direction from  $\overline{Q_1Q_1'}$  to  $\overline{Q_9Q_9'}$ , and the destination will rotate in a counterclockwise direction from  $T_1$  to  $T_9$ . Thus, the latitude of departure ( $L_F$ ) is the variable which links two coordinates.

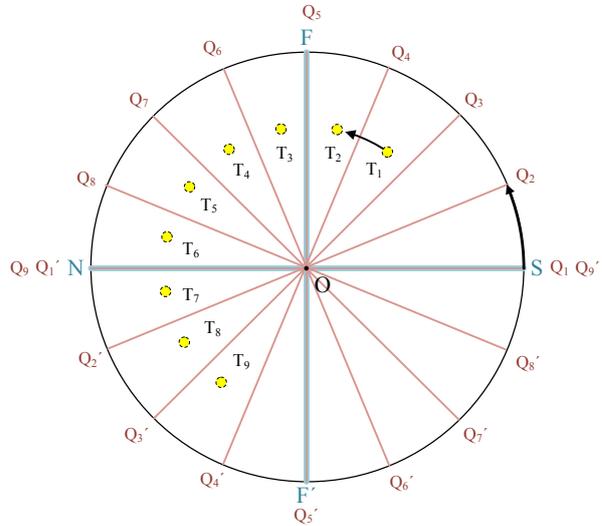


Fig. 18. Variable analysis for the latitude of departure

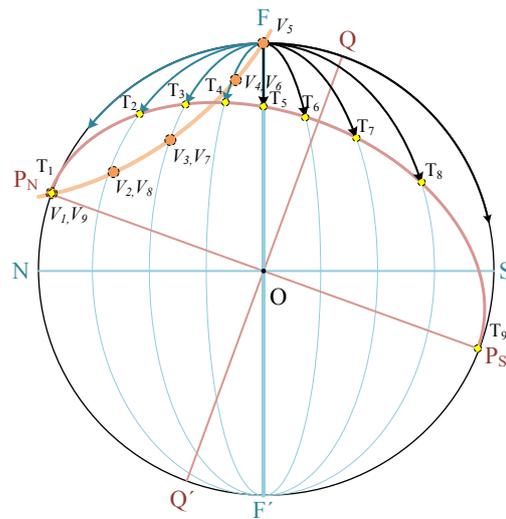


Fig. 19. Variable analysis for the latitude of destination

Next, when the latitude of destination ( $L_T$ ) is changed, as shown in Fig. 19, the destination ( $T$ ) will move along its meridian ( $\overline{P_N P_S}$ , the red curved line), and the vertex ( $V$ ) will move along a curve ( $\overline{P_N F}$ , the orange curved line) between the departure ( $F$ ) and elevated pole (when the departure is in the north latitude, its elevated pole will be the north pole and vice versa). The move curve of the vertex validates the concept of the vertex circle that is proposed by Chiang and Tseng (1992) [6]. When the latitude of destination ( $L_T$ ) value decreases from  $90^{\circ}N$  to  $90^{\circ}S$ , the destination ( $T$ ) will move along its meridian from  $T_1$  to  $T_9$ , and the vertex ( $V$ ) will move along the curve between the departure ( $F$ ) and the north pole ( $P_N$ ) from  $V_1$  to  $V_9$ . The  $V_1$  to  $V_4$  are on the diagram, and the



- |     |  |  |  |
|-----|--|--|--|
| 6.  | Chiang, C. H. and Tseng, A. Y.: <i>Some ideas on calculating great circle sailings</i> , The Journal of Navigation, 45(1), pp. 136-138, 1992.                      | $L_x$<br>$L_v$<br>$DL_o$   | latitude of waypoint<br>latitude of vertex<br>difference of longitude between departure and destination                      |
| 7.  | Cutler, T. J.: <i>Dutton's Nautical Navigation</i> , Fifteenth Edition, Naval Institute Press, Maryland, 2004.   | $DL_o_{FX}$  | difference of longitude between departure and waypoint   |
| 8.  | Earle, M. A.: <i>Vector solutions for great circle navigation</i> , The Journal of Navigation, 58(3), pp. 451-457, 2005.   | $DL_o_{FV}$<br>$DL_o_{FE}$   | difference of longitude between departure and vertex<br>difference of longitude between departure and equator crossing point |
| 9.  | Miller, A. R., Moskowitz, I. S. and Simmen, J.: <i>Traveling on the curved earth</i> , NAVIGATION, Journal of the Institute of Navigation, 38(1), pp. 71-78, 1991. | $D$<br>$D_{FX}$  | great circle distance from departure to destination<br>great circle distance from departure to waypoint                      |
| 10. | Nastro, V. and Tancredi, U.: <i>Great circle navigation with vectorial methods</i> , The Journal of Navigation, 63(3), pp. 557-563, 2010.                          | $C$<br>$C_n$<br>$O$<br>$O'$  | great circle initial course angle<br>great circle initial course<br>center of the diagram<br>center of a semicircle          |
| 11. | Royal Navy: <i>The Admiralty Manual of Navigation: The Principles of Navigation</i> , Volume 1, Tenth Edition, Nautical Institute, London, 2008.                   | $\overline{P_N P_S}$<br>$\overline{QQ'}$<br>$\overline{l_l}, \overline{l_l'}$<br>$\overline{l_{X'X}}, \overline{l_{X'X'}}$<br>$\overline{l_{V'V}}$ | polar axis<br>equator<br>parallel of latitude<br>parallel of latitude of the waypoint<br>parallel of latitude of the vertex  |
| 12. | Sa, S. H.: <i>Navigation</i> , Volume 2, Wensheng Book Store, Taiwan, 2010. (In Chinese)   | $M_1, M_2, M_3$<br>$\overline{FF'}$  | points on a meridian<br>prime vertical   |
| 13. | Tseng, W. K. and Chang, W. J.: <i>Analogues between 2D linear equations and great circle sailing</i> , The Journal of Navigation, 67(1), pp. 101-112, 2014.        | $\overline{NS}$<br>$\overline{dd'}$ , $\overline{dd'}$<br>$\overline{d_X d_X'}$ , $\overline{d_X d_X'}$  | horizon<br>distance circle<br>distance circle of a waypoint  |
| 14. | UNCTAD: <i>Review of Maritime Transport</i> , Geneva: United Nations, 2015.  | $G_1, G_2, G_3$  | points on a vertical circle  |

## NOMENCLATURE

P	north celestial pole
Z	observer's zenith
S	heavenly body
Dec	declination
T	meridian angle
H	altitude
$H_p$	Altitude of north celestial pole
Az	azimuth angle
$P_N$	north pole
F	departure
T	destination
$T_E$	destination in the equator coordinate
$T_H$	destination in the horizontal coordinate
X	waypoint
$X_E$	waypoint in the equator coordinate
$X_H$	waypoint in the horizontal coordinate
V	vertex (highest point of a great circle)
$V_E$	vertex in the equator coordinate
E	equator crossing point
$E_E$	equator crossing point in the equator coordinate
$L_F$	latitude of departure
$L_T$	latitude of destination

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