

## Lecture 3

- So, we've reduced the **2-body problem** to a one-body problem. Next, we reduce the dimensionality:

- We have a central force, so  $\vec{F} \propto \vec{r}$

Thus we have no torque, since  $\vec{\tau} = \vec{r} \times \vec{F} = 0$

Thus angular momentum is conserved in the 2-body system.

- That angular momentum is always perpendicular to the orbital plane, since

$$\vec{L} \cdot \hat{r} = (\vec{r} \times \mu \dot{\vec{r}}) \cdot \hat{r}$$

$$\dots = (\hat{r} \times \vec{r}) \cdot \mu \dot{\vec{r}} = 0$$

- Since the orbit is always in a single, constant plane we can just describe it using 2D polar coordinates,  $r$  and  $\phi$

Thus we have  $\vec{L} = \vec{r} \times \mu \vec{v}$  (by definition of  $L$ )

$$\dots = \mu r v \phi = \mu r^2 \dot{\phi} = \text{constant}$$

→ **Equal area law (Kepler's 2<sup>nd</sup>) follows – true for any central force (not just  $1/r^2$ )**

- Next, we go from 2D to 1D:

- $E = \frac{1}{2} \mu \vec{v} \cdot \vec{v} + V(r)$

$$\dots = \frac{1}{2} \mu \dot{r}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \mu r^2 \dot{\phi}^2 + V(r)$$

$$L = \mu r^2 \dot{\phi} \text{ (from above), and so } \dot{\phi}^2 = \frac{L^2}{\mu^2 r^4}$$

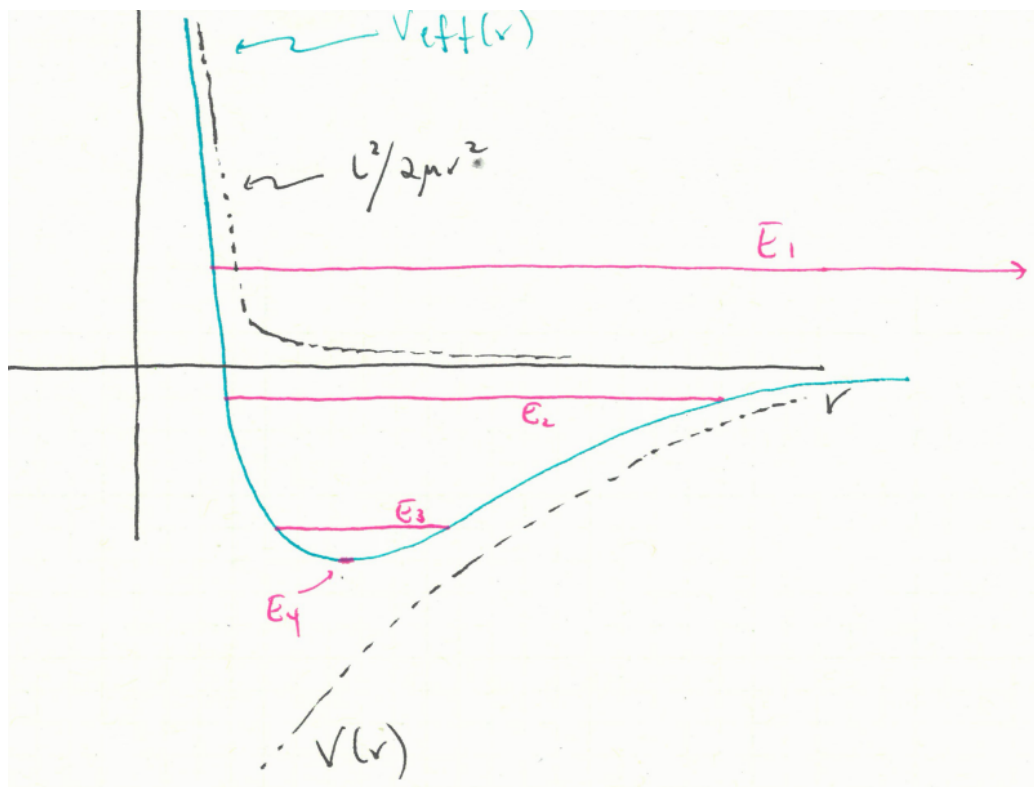
and so  $E = \frac{1}{2} \mu \dot{r}^2 + \frac{L^2}{2\mu r^2} + V(r)$ . We call those last two terms  $V_{\text{eff}}$ .

- The formal solution to solve for the orbital motion is:

$$dt = \frac{dr}{\sqrt{\frac{2}{\mu} [E - V_{\text{eff}}(r)]}}$$

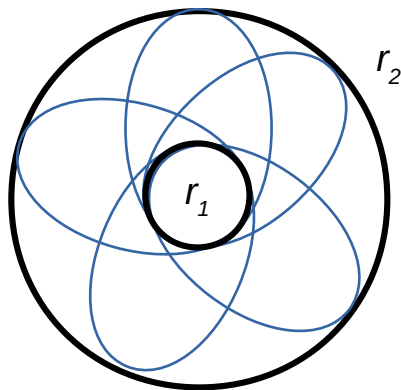
- For any given potential, one can integrate to get  $t(r)$  and then invert to find  $r(t)$ . Usually one gets nasty-looking Elliptic integrals for a polynomial potential.

- Get more insight from graphical analysis.



- Plot  $V_{eff}$ , and then the total system  $E$  on the same graph. Given  $L$  &  $E$ :
  - Must have  $V_{eff} < E$  (otherwise  $v^2 < 0$ )
  - Motion shows a turning point whenever  $V_{eff} = E$ .
- For different energies plotted:
  - $E_1$ : unbound orbit. Hyperbolic – interstellar comets!
  - $E_2, E_3$ : bound, eccentric orbits (outer (apastron) and inner (periastron) points)
  - $E_4$ : circular orbit (single radius).
  - $E < E_4$ : not allowed!

- Let's look at this motion in the plane (for the bound case):



We see that the possible paths will fill in the regions between an inner and an outer radius ( $r_1$  and  $r_2$ ). But there's no guarantee that the orbits actually repeat periodically.

- We get **periodic orbits, and closed ellipses, for two special cases:**
  - $V(r) \propto \frac{1}{r}$  (Keplerian motion)
  - $V(r) \propto r^2$  (simple harmonic oscillator)
  - “Bertrand’s Theorem” says that these are the only two closed-orbit forms.
- These closed-form cases are also special because they have an **“extra” conserved quantity**.
  - Consider gravity:  $V(r) = -\frac{G\mu M}{r}$  where  $M = m_1 + m_2$
  - Define the “Laplace-Runge-Lenz” (LRL) vector,  $\vec{A} \equiv \vec{p} \times \vec{L} - GM\mu^2 \hat{r}$  ← this is **conserved!** Describes shape & orientation of orbit
  - $\frac{d\vec{A}}{dt} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} \times \vec{L} + \vec{p} \times \frac{d\vec{L}}{dt} - GM\mu^2 \frac{d\hat{r}}{dt}$  (second term goes to zero;  $L$  conserved!)
 
$$\frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = -G\frac{\mu M}{r^2} \hat{r}$$

$$\frac{d\hat{r}}{dt} = \frac{d\varphi}{dt} \hat{\varphi}$$

$$\vec{L} = \mu r^2 \dot{\varphi} \hat{z}$$
  - So,  $\frac{d\vec{A}}{dt} = \left(-\frac{G\mu M}{r^2} \hat{r}\right) \times (\mu r^2 \dot{\varphi} \hat{z}) - GM\mu^2 \dot{\varphi} \hat{\varphi}$ , which gives
 
$$\frac{d\vec{A}}{dt} = +GM\mu^2 \dot{\varphi} \hat{\varphi} - GM\mu^2 \dot{\varphi} \hat{\varphi} = 0 \quad \dots A \text{ is a conserved quantity!}$$
  - But, what does the LRL vector *mean*?
    - It describes the elliptical equations of motion!

- A points in the orbital plane. Define it to point along the x-axis of our polar system:

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{r} \cdot \vec{A} &\equiv r A \cos \varphi = \vec{r} \cdot (\vec{p} \times \vec{L}) - G M \mu^2 r \\ &\dots = \vec{L} \cdot (\vec{r} \times \vec{p}) - G M \mu^2 r \quad \rightarrow \\ r A \cos \varphi &= L^2 - G M \mu^2 r\end{aligned}$$

- We can solve this for  $r$ :

$$r(\varphi) = \frac{L^2 / G M \mu^2}{1 + (A / G M \mu^2) \cos \varphi}$$

and this is just the **equation of an ellipse** that we saw in Lecture 2, with

$$\begin{aligned}e &= \frac{A}{G M \mu^2} \quad \text{and} \\ L &= \sqrt{G M \mu^2 a (1 - e^2)}\end{aligned}$$

- We defined  $A$  to point along the x-axis ( $\varphi = 0$ ). This is the same direction where  $r$  is minimized – so  $A$  (the LRL) points toward the closest approach in the orbit (“pericenter”).

▪ One remaining law: **Kepler’s 3<sup>rd</sup> Law**

- Consider the area of a curve in polar coordinates.

$$\begin{aligned}d \text{Area} &= \frac{1}{2} r^2 d\varphi \quad , \text{ so} \\ \frac{d \text{Area}}{dt} &= \frac{1}{2} r^2 \dot{\varphi} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{L}{\mu} = \text{constant}\end{aligned}$$

- If we integrate over a full period, we get the area of an ellipse:

$$A_{\text{ellipse}} = \int_0^P \frac{d \text{Area}}{dt} dt = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^P \frac{L}{\mu} dt = \frac{L P}{2 \mu} .$$

- And from geometry,  $A_{\text{ellipse}} = \pi a b$  (where  $b = a \sqrt{1 - e^2}$  is the semiminor axis)

- So set these equal:

$$\frac{L P}{2 \mu} = \pi a^2 \sqrt{1 - e^2} . \quad \text{Plugging the previous expression for } L \text{ in:}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{\sqrt{G M \mu^2 a (1 - e^2)}}{\mu} P = \pi a^2 \sqrt{1 - e^2} , \quad \text{which simplifies to}$$

$$\sqrt{\frac{G M}{a^3}} = \frac{2 \pi}{P} = \Omega_{\text{Kepler}}$$

- Rearranging to the more familiar form, we find:

$$P^2 = \left( \frac{4 \pi^2}{G M} \right) a^3 . \quad \text{Or in Solar units,} \quad \left( \frac{P}{1 \text{ yr}} \right)^2 = \left( \frac{M}{M_{\text{sun}}} \right)^{-1} \left( \frac{a}{1 \text{ AU}} \right)^3$$

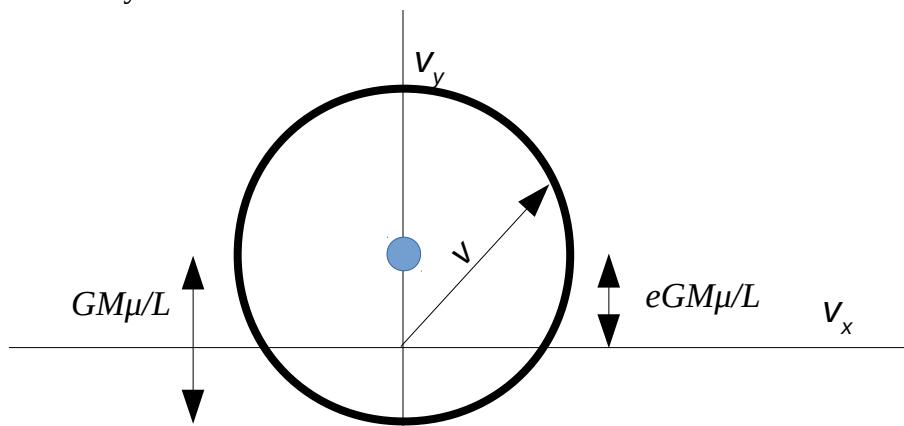
- Other interesting bits and bobs:

- A useful exercise for the reader is to show that  $E = -\frac{GM\mu}{2a}$   
(use  $\dot{r} = 0$  at pericenter,  $r = a(1 - e)$ ,  $\varphi = 0$ )

- We have  $r(\varphi)$  --- **what about  $r(t)$  and  $\varphi(t)$  ?**

- Unfortunately there's no general, closed-form solution – this is typically calculated iteratively using a numerical framework.
- One can find parametric solutions (see Psets)

- The position vector moves on an ellipse, but you can show that the velocity vector actually moves on a circle:



- Really esoteric: all these conservation laws are tied to particular symmetries:
  - Energy conservation comes from time translation
  - Angular momentum conservation comes from SO(3) rotations
  - The RLR vector  $A$  is conserved because of rotations in  $4D$  (!!).  $r$  &  $p$  map onto the 3D surface of a 4D Euclidean sphere. Cool – but not too useful.