

Potential Theory

end of the 2nd part

Stellar orbits

1st part

Outlines

Ideal but useful models

- the infinite wire, the infinite slab
- infinite slab with oscillatory surface density, tightly wound spiral

Orbits

- some generalities

Lagrangian and Hamiltonian mechanics

- Euler-Lagrange equations
- Hamilton's equations

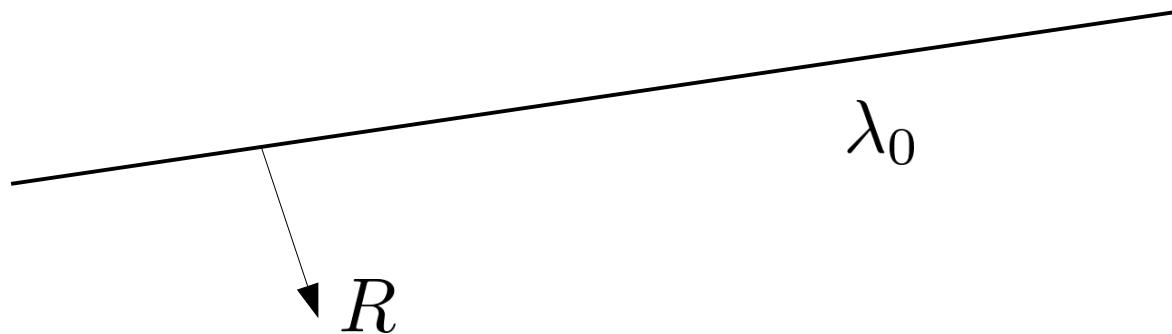
Orbits in spherical potentials

- angular momentum conservation
- equations of motion
- radial orbits
- non radial orbits

Potential Theory

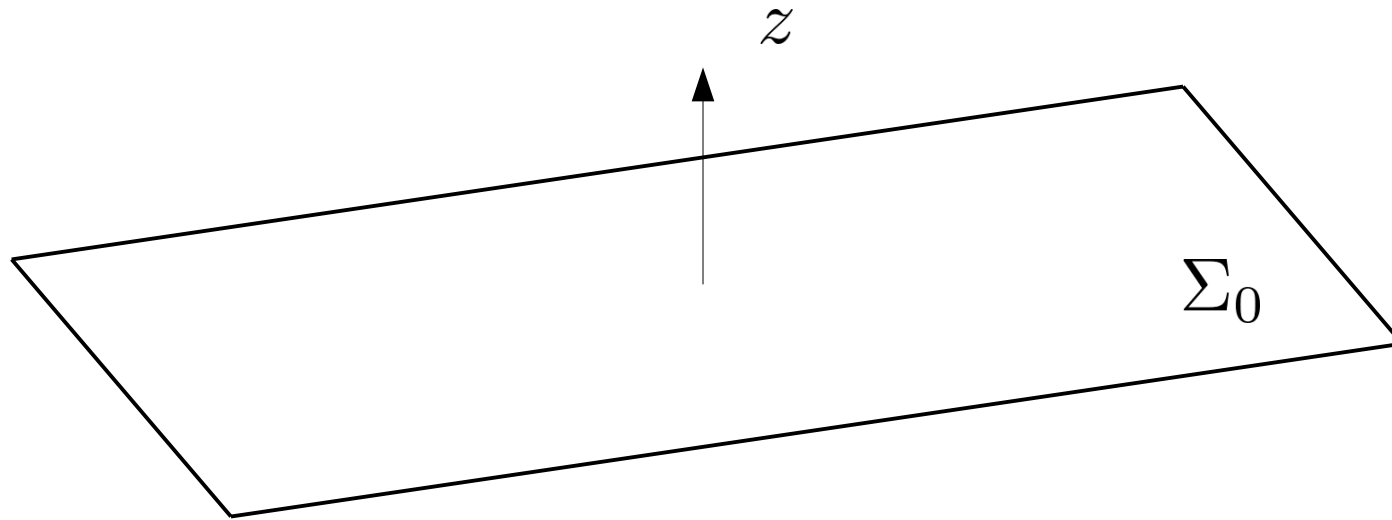
Ideal but useful models

Potential of an infinite wire of constant linear density



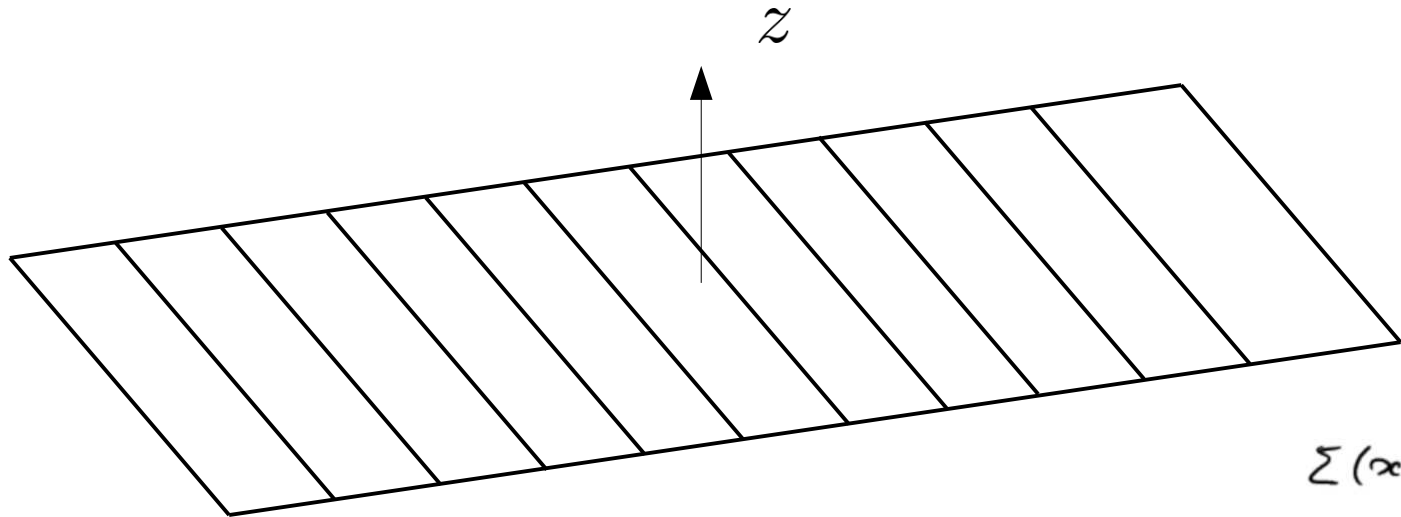
$$\Phi(R) = 2 G \lambda_0 \ln(R) + C$$

Potential of an infinite slab of constant surface density



$$\Phi(z) = 2\pi G \Sigma_0 |z| + C$$

Potential of an infinite slab with an oscillatory surface density



$$k = |\vec{k}| = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$$

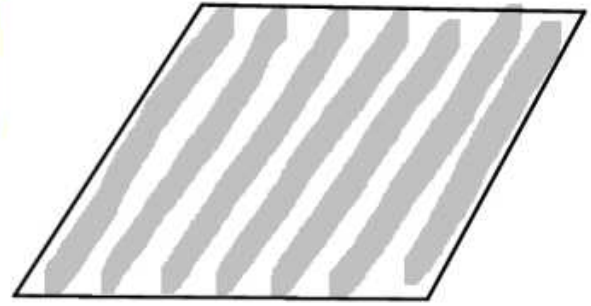
$$\Sigma(x, y) = \Sigma_1 \operatorname{Re} \left(e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x})} \right)$$

! will be negative !

$$\Phi(x, y, z) = -\frac{2\pi G \Sigma_1}{|\vec{k}|} \operatorname{Re} \left(e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x})} \right) e^{-|\vec{k}| z}$$

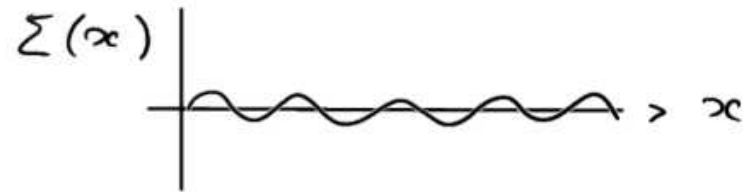
Potential of an infinite slab with an oscillatory surface density

$$\Sigma(x, y) = \operatorname{Re} \left(\Sigma_0 e^{i(kx^2)} \right)$$



Without loss of generality we can restrict to:

$$\Sigma(x) = \Sigma_0 e^{ikx}$$



Poisson equation

$$\nabla^2 \phi(x, z) = 4\pi G \Sigma(x) \delta(z)$$

Assume a corresponding potential of the type

$$\phi(x, z) = \phi_0 e^{ikx - |kz|}$$

Method: Integrate the Poisson equation over τ

$$\nabla^2 \phi = 4\pi G \rho$$

$$\int_{-\xi}^{\xi} d\tau \nabla^2 \phi = \int_{-\xi}^{\xi} d\tau 4\pi G \rho$$

and take the limit $\xi \rightarrow 0$

$$\underbrace{\lim_{\xi \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\xi}^{\xi} d\tau \nabla^2 \phi}_{(1)} = \underbrace{\lim_{\xi \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\xi}^{\xi} d\tau 4\pi G \rho}_{(2)}$$

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \nabla^2 = \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial z^2}$$

$\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x^2}(x, y, 0)$ is continuous across $z=0$

$$\lim_{\xi \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\xi}^{\xi} dz \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x^2}(x, y, z) = 0$$

$$\lim_{\xi \rightarrow 0^+} = \lim_{\xi \rightarrow 0^-}$$

$$\lim_{\xi \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\xi}^{\xi} dz \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y^2}(x, y, z) = 0$$

$$\lim_{\xi \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\xi}^{\xi} dz \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial z^2}(x, y, z) = \lim_{\xi \rightarrow 0} \left. \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z} \right|_{-\xi}^{\xi}$$

$$= \lim_{\xi \rightarrow 0} \phi_0 |k| \operatorname{sgn}(z) e^{ikx - |kz|} \Big|_{-\xi}^{\xi} = -2|k| \phi_0 e^{ikx}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \textcircled{2} \quad \lim_{\xi \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\xi}^{\xi} dz \quad 4\pi G \rho &= \lim_{\xi \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\xi}^{\xi} dz \quad 4\pi G \Sigma_0 e^{ikx} \delta(z) \\
 &= 4\pi G \Sigma_0 e^{ikx}
 \end{aligned}$$

Combining $\textcircled{1}$ and $\textcircled{2}$

$$-2|\kappa| \phi_0 e^{ikx} = 4\pi G \Sigma_0 e^{ikx}$$

$$\phi_0 = -\frac{2\pi G \Sigma_0}{|\kappa|}$$

$$\phi(x, y, z) = -\frac{2\pi G \Sigma_0}{|\kappa|} e^{ikx - |kz|}$$

Thus for $\Sigma(x, y) = \Sigma_0 e^{i\vec{k}\vec{x}}$

$$\phi(x, y, z) = -\frac{2\pi G \Sigma_0}{|\vec{k}|} e^{i\vec{k}\vec{x} - |\vec{k}|z}$$

Note if the surface density evolves as a plane wave

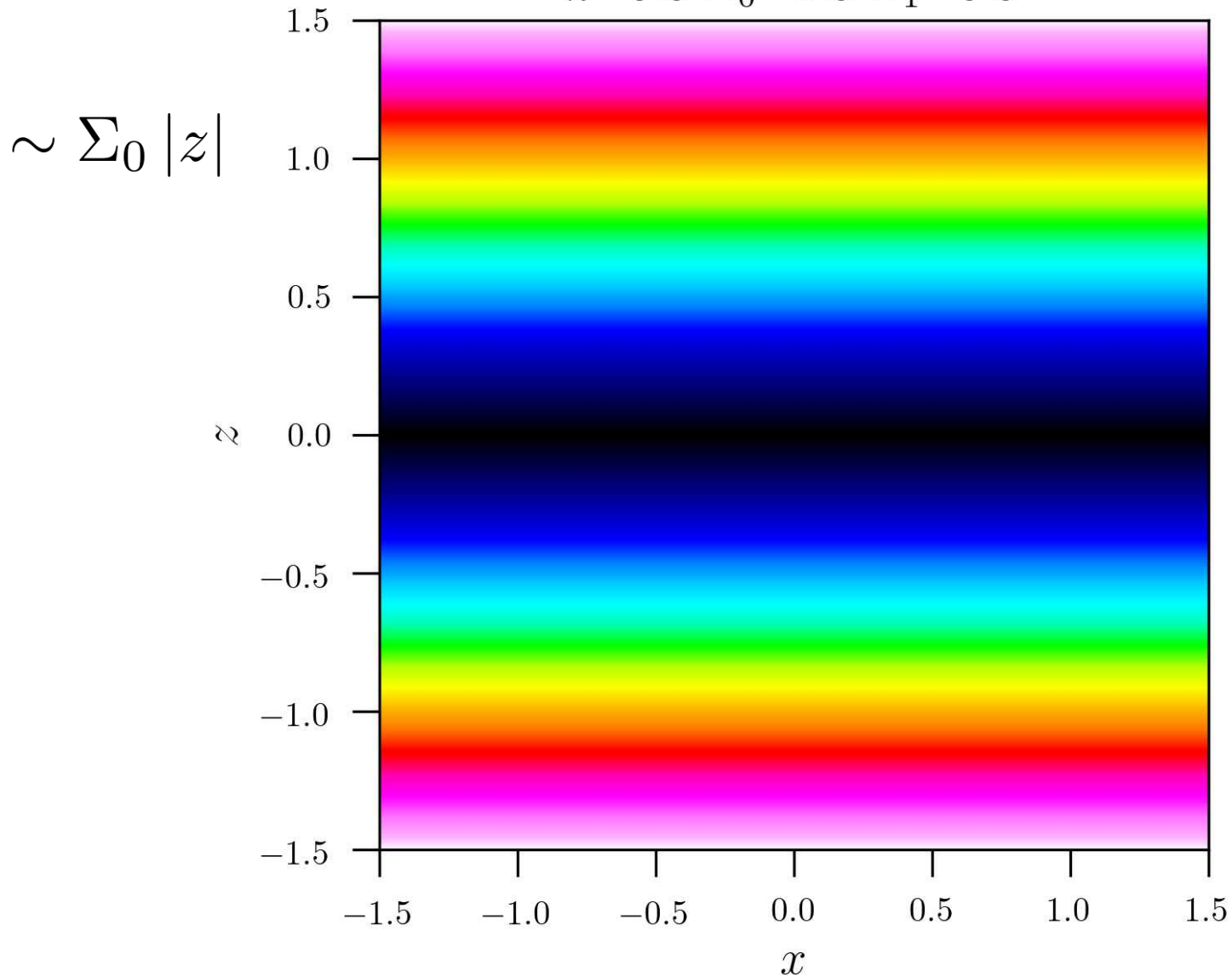
$$\Sigma(x, y, t) = \Sigma_0 e^{i(\vec{k}\vec{x} - \omega t)}$$

$$\phi(x, y, z, t) = -\frac{2\pi G \Sigma_0}{|\vec{k}|} e^{i(\vec{k}\vec{x} - \omega t) - |\vec{k}|z}$$

Potential of an Infinite slab

$$\Sigma(x) = \Sigma_0 + \Sigma_1 \operatorname{Re}(e^{ikx})$$

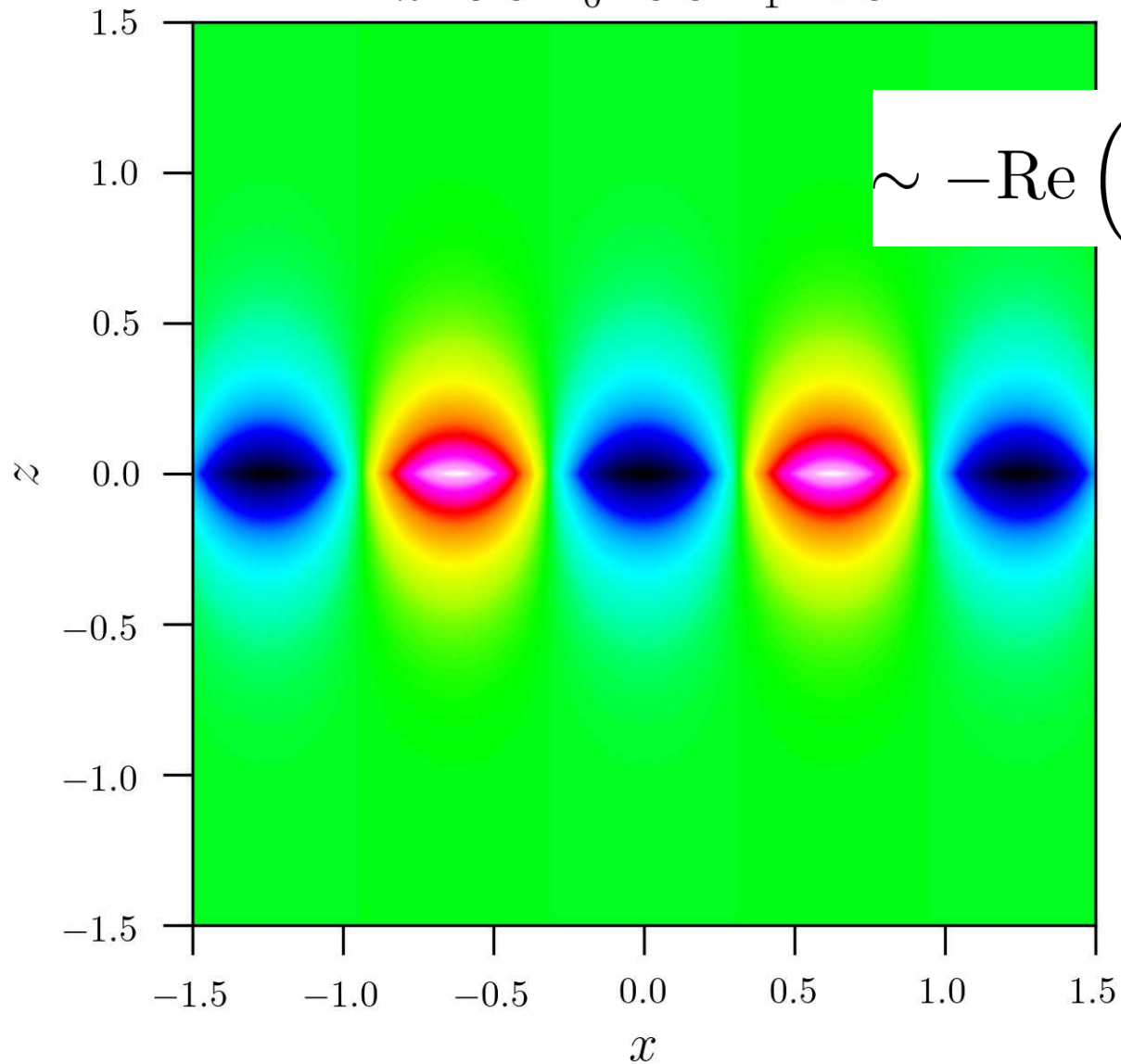
$$k=5.0 \quad \Sigma_0=1.0 \quad \Sigma_1=0.0$$



Potential of an Infinite slab

$$\Sigma(x) = \Sigma_0 + \Sigma_1 \operatorname{Re} \left(e^{ikx} \right)$$

$$k=5.0 \quad \Sigma_0=0.0 \quad \Sigma_1=1.0$$

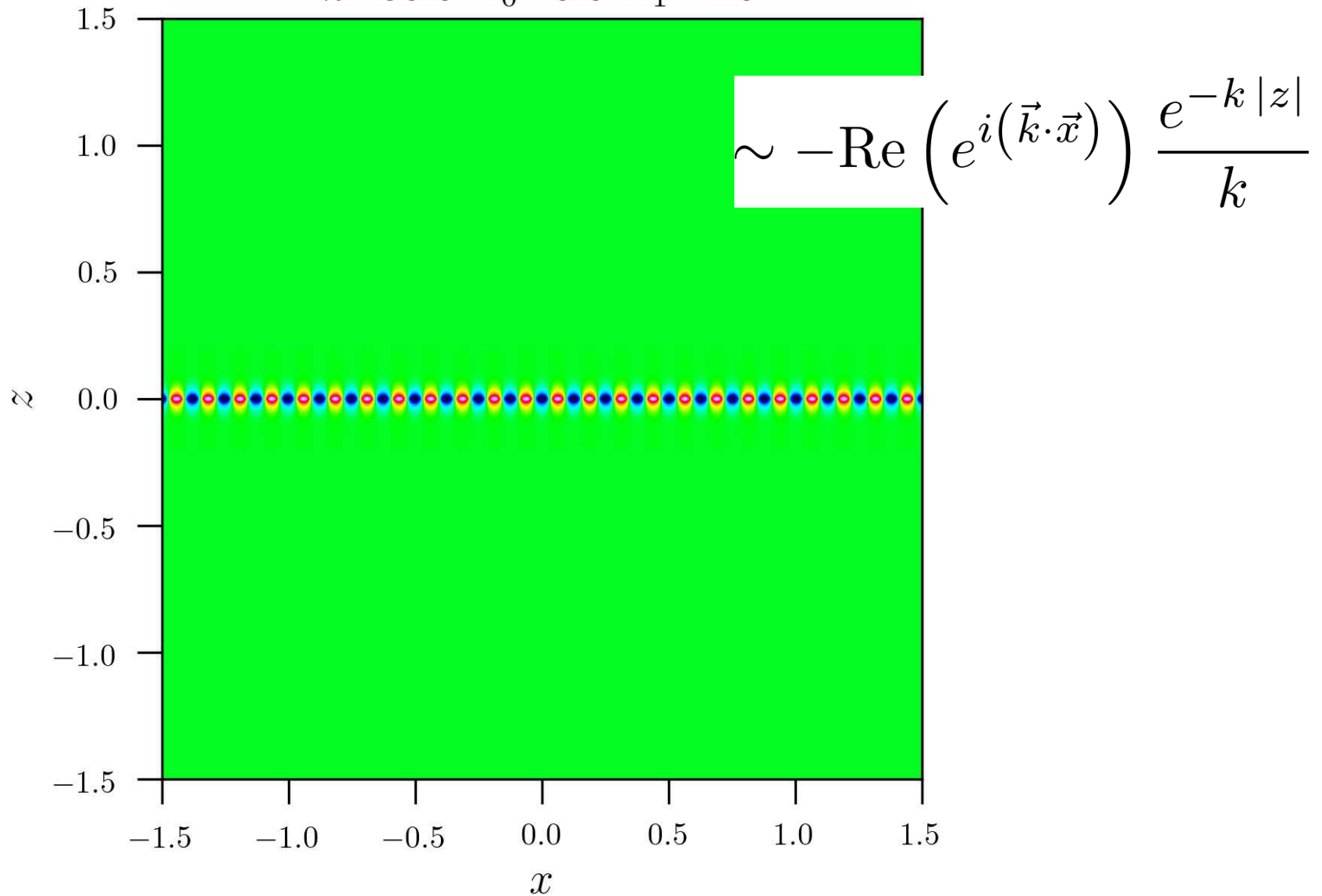


$$\sim -\operatorname{Re} \left(e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x})} \right) \frac{e^{-k|z|}}{k}$$

Potential of an Infinite slab

$$\Sigma(x) = \Sigma_0 + \Sigma_1 \operatorname{Re} (e^{ikx})$$

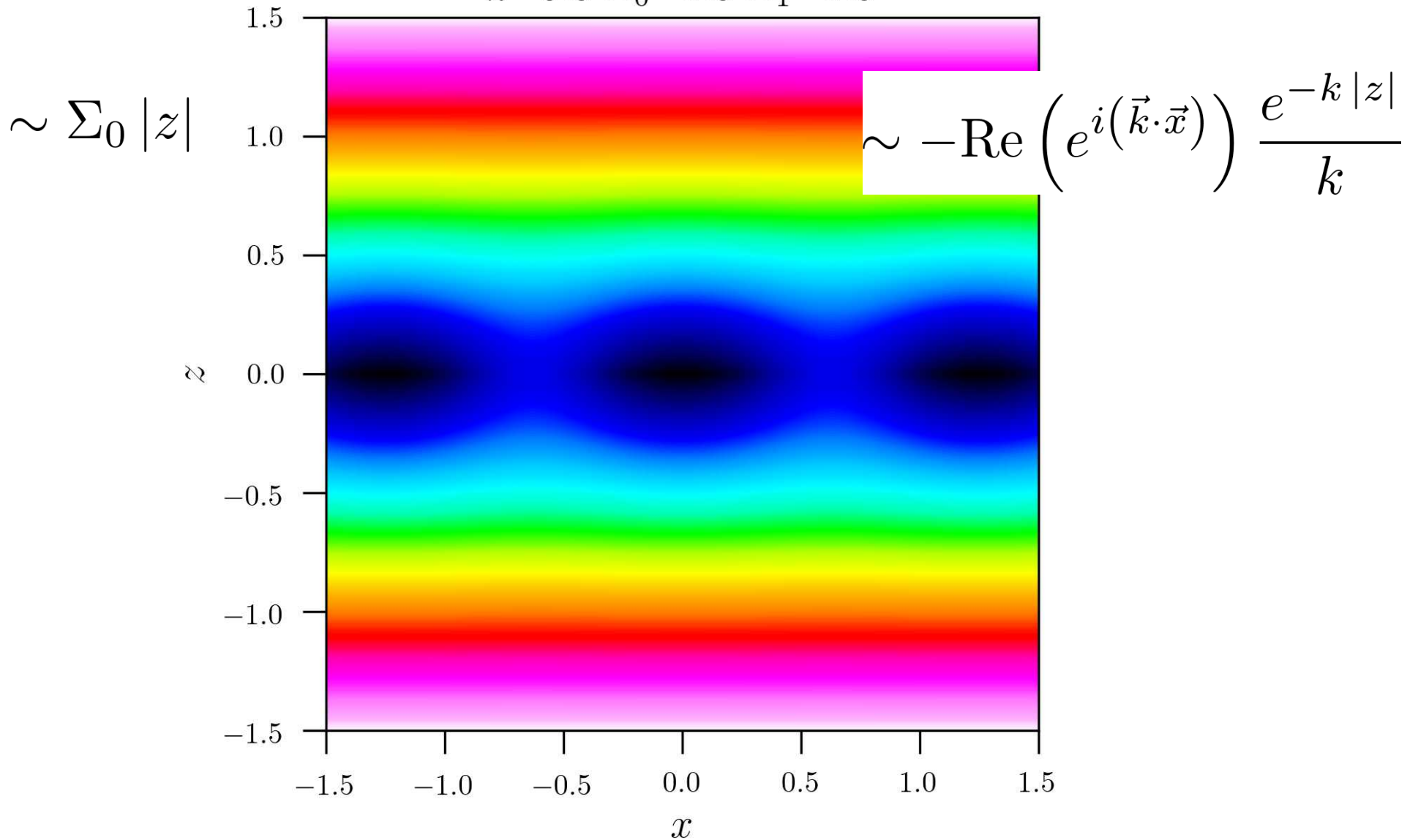
$$k=50.0 \quad \Sigma_0=0.0 \quad \Sigma_1=1.0$$



Potential of an Infinite slab

$$\Sigma(x) = \Sigma_0 + \Sigma_1 \operatorname{Re} (e^{ikx})$$

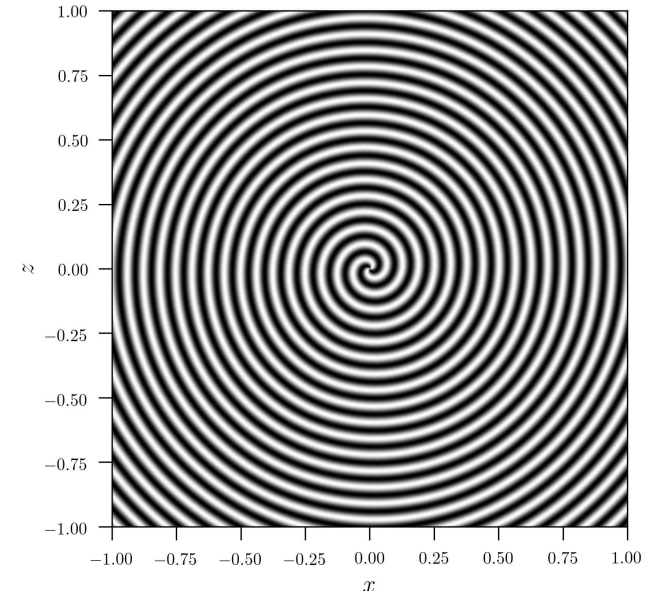
$$k=5.0 \quad \Sigma_0=1.0 \quad \Sigma_1=1.0$$



Potential of an infinite slab with a tightly wound spiral pattern

$$\Sigma(R, \phi) = H(R) \operatorname{Re} \left(e^{i[m\phi + f(R)]} \right)$$

$m=2$



if $\left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial R} \cdot R \right| \ll 1$ WKB approximation
(Wentzel, Kramers, Brillouin)

$$\Phi(R, \phi) = -\frac{2\pi G \Sigma_0}{\left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial R} \right|} H(R) \operatorname{Re} \left(e^{if(R)} \right) e^{-\left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial R} \cdot z \right|}$$

Potential of an infinite slab with a tightly wound spiral pattern

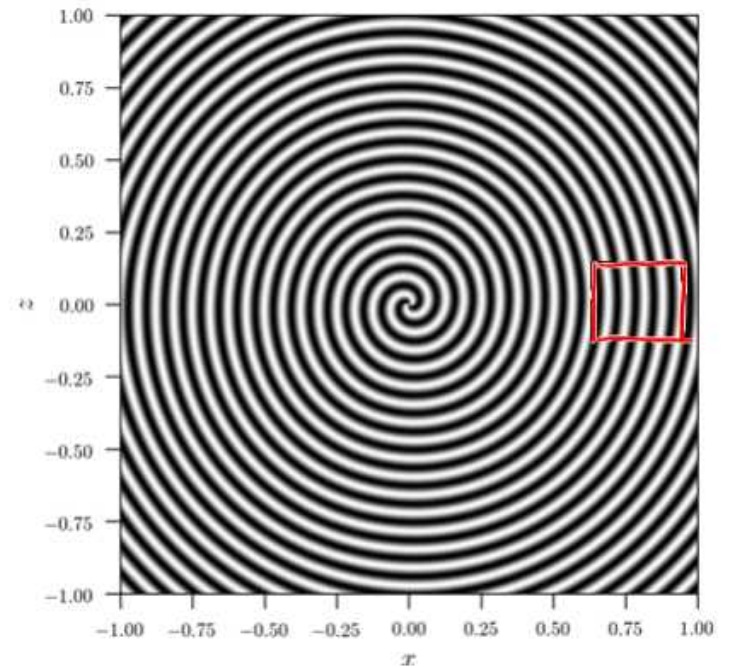
$m=2$

$$\Sigma(R, \phi) = \text{Re} \left(\underbrace{U(R)}_{\text{slow variation}} \underbrace{e^{i(m\theta + f(R))}}_{\text{rapid variation}} \right)$$

Note

$$m\theta + f(R) = \text{cte}$$

describe a spiral $f(R) = \text{shape function}$



Idea: WKB approximation

far from the center, Σ is nearly $\sim e^{i(kx)}$

Indeed Developing $f(R)$ around R_0 gives

$$f(R) \cong f(R_0) + \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial R} \right|_{R_0} (R - R_0)$$

For $\theta = 0$

$$\Sigma(R, \theta) = \underbrace{U(R_0)}_{\text{no radial}} e^{i\psi(R_0)} \underbrace{e^{i \left. \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial R} \right|_{R_0} (R-R_0)}}_{\text{dependencg}}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} k = \left. \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial R} \right|_{R_0} \\ x = R - R_0 \end{array} \right\}$$

We directly have the solution from the infinite slab

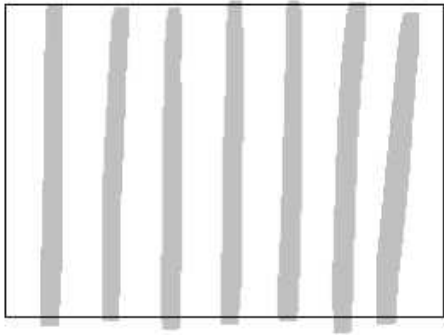
$$\phi(R, \theta) = - \frac{2\pi G}{\left| \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial R} \right|} U(R_0) e^{i\psi(R_0)} e^{i \left. \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial R} \right|_{R_0} (R-R_0)} e^{-\left| \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial R} \right| z}$$

Choosing $R_0 = R$

$$\phi(R, \theta) = - \frac{2\pi G}{\left| \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial R} \right|} U(R) e^{i\psi(R)} e^{-\left| \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial R} \right| z}$$

Validity of the approximation

- we want a large number of "oscillations" over a small radius compared to R



$\sim R$

$$\left| \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial R} \right| \cdot R \gg 1$$

Stellar orbits

1st part

Orbits

Generalities

Stellar orbits

Why studying stellar orbits ?

- understand the motion of stars in stellar systems and galaxies
 - understand the observed kinematics
 - constraints the mass model

We will assume :

- a smoothed gravitational field
- time independent potentials

Stellar orbits

Definitions

- trajectory solution of the equation of motion

$$\ddot{\vec{x}} = -\vec{\nabla}\Phi(\vec{x})$$

defined on a finite interval:

$$\vec{x}(t), \vec{x}(t_0) = \vec{x}_0, t \in [t_0, t_1]$$

- orbit a trajectory defined on an infinite time interval

$$\vec{x}(t), \vec{x}(t_0) = \vec{x}_0, t \in [-\infty, \infty[$$

- periodic orbit a closed orbit

$$\forall t, \exists T, \vec{x}(t + T) = \vec{x}(t), \vec{v}(t + T) = \vec{v}(t)$$

- stationary point a point such that:

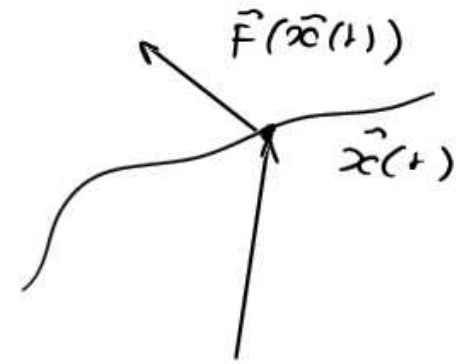
$$\ddot{\vec{x}} = \dot{\vec{x}} = 0$$

Stellar orbits

**Lagrangian and Hamiltonian
mechanics**

Lagrangian Mechanics

Assume a mass point moving in a force field $\vec{F}(\vec{r})$

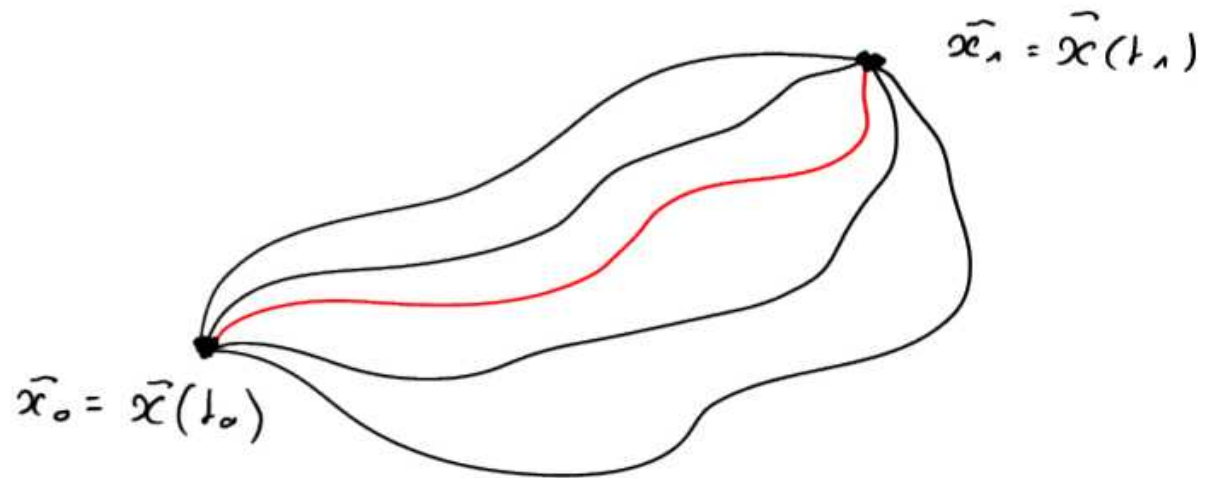


Definition Lagrangian, a scalar function of $\vec{x}, \dot{\vec{x}}, t$

$$\mathcal{L}(\vec{x}, \dot{\vec{x}}, t) = K - V = \frac{1}{2} m \dot{\vec{x}}^2 - V(\vec{x}, t)$$

Principle of least action or Hamiltonian principle

The motion of the particle from \vec{x}_0 to \vec{x}_1 is along a curve $\vec{x}(t)$ such that $\vec{x}(t_0) = \vec{x}_0$, $\vec{x}(t_1) = \vec{x}_1$ that is an extremal of the action I .



$$I = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} L(\vec{x}, \dot{\vec{x}}, t) dt = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} K(t) - V(t) dt$$

Euler - Lagrange equation

The trajectory is an extremal of I if and only if

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\vec{x}}} \right) - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \vec{x}} = 0$$

With cartesian coordinates, we get:

$$m \ddot{\vec{x}} = - \vec{\nabla} V(\vec{x})$$

Which is nothing else than
the second Newton law.

However: \mathcal{L} can be a function of arbitrary coordinates
 $(\tilde{q}, \dot{\tilde{q}})$ "generalized" coordinates $\mathcal{L}(\tilde{q}, \dot{\tilde{q}})$.

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\tilde{q}}} \right) - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \tilde{q}} = 0$$

Lagrange's equations

We can easily write equations of motions in any coord. system.

Hamiltonian mechanics

Note : Lagrangian mechanics generate 2nd order differential equations

$$m\ddot{\vec{x}} = -\vec{\nabla}V(\vec{x})$$

It is always possible to split a 2nd order differential equation into two first order differential equations.

This is what is done in Hamiltonian mechanics

Definition

- ① For $\vec{q}, \dot{\vec{q}}$, a set of generalized coordinates, the generalized momentum are :

$$\vec{p} := \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\vec{q}}}$$

Note : inverting $\vec{p} = \vec{p}(\vec{q}, \dot{\vec{q}})$, it is possible to write $\dot{\vec{q}} = \dot{\vec{q}}(\vec{p}, \vec{q})$

- ② Hamiltonian The scalar function

$$H(\vec{q}, \vec{p}, t) := \vec{p} \cdot \dot{\vec{q}} - \mathcal{L}(\vec{q}, \dot{\vec{q}}, t)$$

Note : $\dot{\vec{q}}$ is replaced by \vec{q}, \vec{p} through the definition of \vec{p}

Hamilton equations

Compute the total derivative of $H(\vec{q}, \vec{p}, t) = \vec{p} \cdot \dot{\vec{q}} - \mathcal{L}(\vec{q}, \dot{\vec{q}}, t)$

① right hand side (diff. with respect of \vec{q}, \vec{p})

$$\frac{\partial H}{\partial \vec{q}} d\vec{q} + \frac{\partial H}{\partial \vec{p}} d\vec{p} + \frac{\partial H}{\partial t} dt$$

② left hand side (diff with respect of \vec{p}, \vec{q}) with $\dot{\vec{q}} = \dot{\vec{q}}(\vec{p})$

$$\vec{p} \cdot d\dot{\vec{q}} + \dot{\vec{q}} d\vec{p} - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \vec{q}} d\vec{q} - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\vec{q}}} d\dot{\vec{q}} - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial t} dt$$

$$= -\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \vec{q}} d\vec{q} + \dot{\vec{q}} d\vec{p} + \cancel{\vec{p} \frac{d\dot{\vec{q}}}{d\vec{p}} d\vec{p}} - \cancel{\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\vec{q}}} \frac{\partial \dot{\vec{q}}}{\partial \vec{p}} d\vec{p}} - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial t} dt$$

$$= -\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \vec{q}} d\vec{q} + \dot{\vec{q}} d\vec{p} - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial t} dt$$

Lip

Equating ① and ②

$$\underline{\underline{\dot{\vec{q}} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial \vec{p}}}}$$

$$\underline{\underline{-\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \vec{q}} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial \vec{p}}}}$$

$$\underline{\underline{\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial t}}}$$

$$\dot{q} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial \vec{p}}$$

$$-\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \vec{q}} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial \vec{p}} \oplus$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial t}$$

Using Euler-Lagrange

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{q}} \right) - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial q} = 0$$

$$\underbrace{\quad}_{\vec{p}} \quad \underbrace{\quad}_{\frac{\partial H}{\partial \vec{q}} \oplus}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} \vec{p} = - \frac{\partial H}{\partial \vec{q}}$$

In conclusion, we have transformed a set of 2nd order differential equations into 2x more 1st order differential equations:

$$\dot{q} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial \vec{p}}$$

$$\dot{p} = - \frac{\partial H}{\partial \vec{q}}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial t}$$

Hamilton's equations

Hamiltonian conservation

Lets compute the time derivative of $H(\vec{q}, \vec{p}, t)$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} H(\vec{q}, \vec{p}, t) &= \frac{\partial H}{\partial \vec{q}} \frac{d\vec{q}}{dt} + \frac{\partial H}{\partial \vec{p}} \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} + \frac{\partial H}{\partial t} \\ &= \dot{\vec{p}} \cdot \dot{\vec{q}} + \dot{\vec{q}} \cdot \dot{\vec{p}} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

If \mathcal{L} is time independant, i.e. $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}(\vec{q}, \dot{\vec{q}})$
($\equiv V(\vec{q})$ is time independant)

\Rightarrow

By construction, $H(\vec{q}, \vec{p})$ is conserved along a trajectory

Definitions

for a system with n -dimensions

Configuration space

$(q_1 \dots q_n)$

n -dimensions

Momentum space

$(p_1 \dots p_n)$

n -dimensions

Phase space

$(q_1 \dots q_n, p_1 \dots p_n)$

$2n$ -dimensions

$= (w_1 \dots w_{2n})$

Note

As Hamilton's equations are 1st order differential equations, a trajectory is uniquely defined by a point in the phase space



Time evolution operator

It is possible to define a time evolution operator H_t that will bring



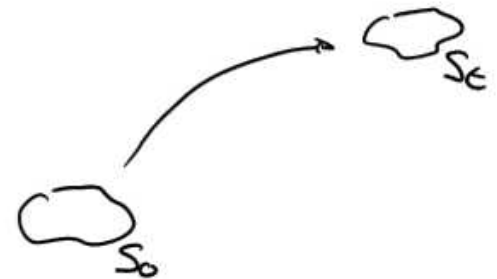
the state $(\tilde{q}_0, \tilde{p}_0)$ to $(\tilde{q}(t), \tilde{p}(t))$

$$(\tilde{q}(t), \tilde{p}(t)) = H_t(\tilde{q}_0, \tilde{p}_0)$$

H_t will map any 2D surface S_0 in the phase space to another 2D surface S_t in the phase space.

Poincaré invariant theorem

$$\iint_{S_0} d\tilde{q} \cdot d\tilde{p} = \iint_{S_t} d\tilde{q} \cdot d\tilde{p}$$



Poisson brackets

two operators A, B

$$[A, B] := \frac{\partial A}{\partial \vec{q}} \frac{\partial B}{\partial \vec{p}} - \frac{\partial A}{\partial \vec{p}} \frac{\partial B}{\partial \vec{q}} = \sum_i \frac{\partial A}{\partial q_i} \frac{\partial B}{\partial p_i} - \frac{\partial A}{\partial p_i} \frac{\partial B}{\partial q_i}$$

Hamilton's equations

$$\dot{w}_\alpha = [w_\alpha, H]$$

$$= \frac{\partial w_\alpha}{\partial \vec{q}} \frac{\partial H}{\partial \vec{p}} - \frac{\partial w_\alpha}{\partial \vec{p}} \frac{\partial H}{\partial \vec{q}}$$

$$= \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \dot{q}_\alpha = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_\alpha} \\ \dot{p}_\alpha = - \frac{\partial H}{\partial q_\alpha} \end{array} \right.$$

Stellar orbits

Orbits in Spherical Systems

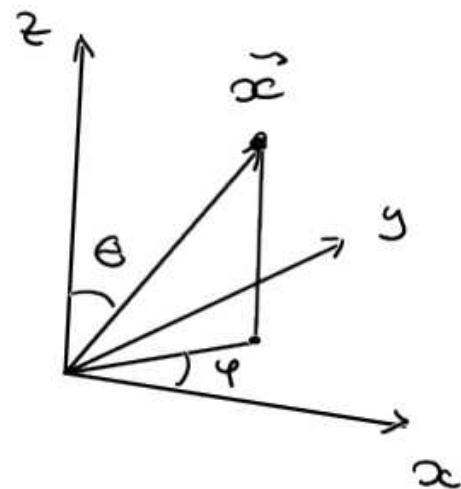
Orbits in spherical potentials

$$\phi(\vec{x}) = \phi(r)$$

Spherical coordinates

$$\begin{cases} x = r \cos\varphi \sin\theta \\ y = r \sin\varphi \sin\theta \\ z = r \cos\theta \end{cases}$$

$$\vec{x} = r \vec{e}_r = \vec{r}$$
$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$$



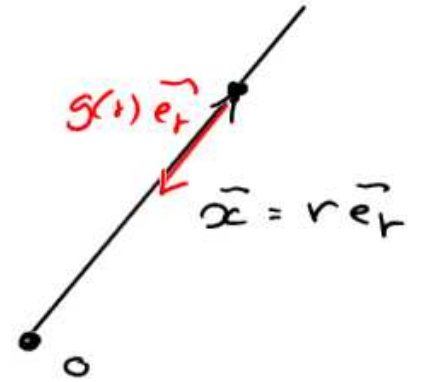
Equation of motion (Newton law)

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^2}(\vec{x}) = \vec{g}(\vec{x}) = g(r) \vec{e}_r$$

$$g(\vec{x}) = -\vec{\nabla} \phi(\vec{x}) = -\frac{\partial}{\partial r} \phi(r) \vec{e}_r - \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \phi(r) \vec{e}_\theta - \frac{1}{r \sin\theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \varphi} \phi(r) \vec{e}_\varphi$$
$$= g(r) \vec{e}_r \quad \text{with } g(r) = -\frac{\partial}{\partial r} \phi(r)$$

Angular momentum conservation

$$\vec{L} = \vec{x} \times \frac{d\vec{x}}{dt} \quad (\text{specific angular momentum})$$



$$\frac{d}{dt} (\vec{L}) = \frac{d\vec{x}}{dt} \times \frac{d\vec{x}}{dt} + \vec{x} \times \frac{d^2\vec{x}}{dt^2}$$

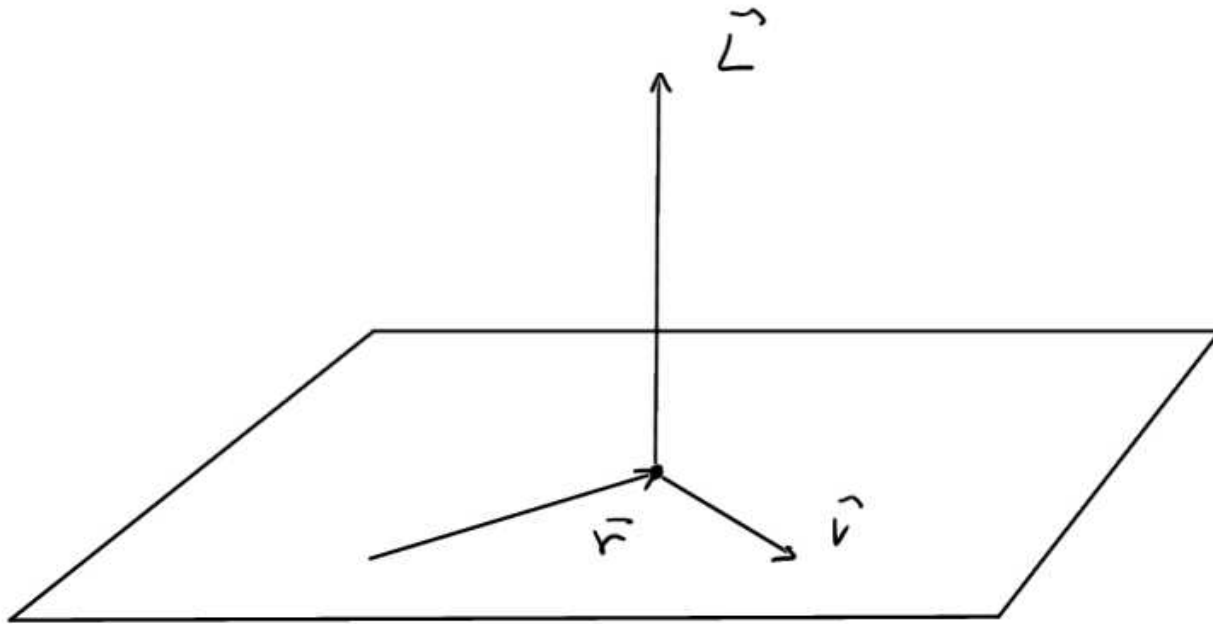
$$= 0 + \underbrace{r \vec{e}_r \times g(r) \vec{e}_r}_{= 0} = 0 \quad (= \vec{N}, \text{ the torque})$$

In a spherical system, the angular momentum of a particle is conserved! $\vec{L} = \text{cte}$

(A spherical potential induces no torque $\vec{N} = \vec{x} \times \vec{F} = 0$)

Corollary

As \vec{L} is conserved the orbit of a particle is limited to a plane (the orbital plane)

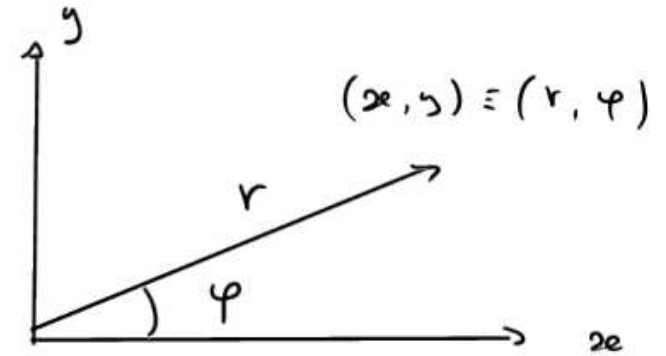


2D problem

Equations of motion in the orbital plane

Polar coordinates (in the orbital plane)

$$\begin{cases} x = r \cos \varphi \\ y = r \sin \varphi \end{cases} \quad \begin{cases} \dot{x} = \dot{r} \cos \varphi - r \sin \varphi \dot{\varphi} \\ \dot{y} = \dot{r} \sin \varphi + r \cos \varphi \dot{\varphi} \end{cases}$$



Lagrangian (specific) in polar coordinates

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2}(\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2) + \phi(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}) = \frac{1}{2}(\dot{r}^2 + (r\dot{\varphi})^2) - \phi(r)$$

Lagrange equations

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\vec{q}}} \right) - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \vec{q}} = 0$$

$$\begin{cases} \ddot{r} - r\dot{\varphi}^2 + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial r} = 0 \\ \frac{d}{dt} (r^2 \dot{\varphi}) = 0 \end{cases}$$

Angular momentum

$$r^2 \dot{\varphi} = |\vec{L}| = L$$

Indeed

in spherical coordinates

$$\vec{x} = r \vec{e}_r$$

$$\vec{v} = \dot{r} \vec{e}_r + r \dot{\varphi} \vec{e}_\varphi$$

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{L} &= \vec{x} \times \vec{v} = r \vec{e}_r \times (\dot{r} \vec{e}_r + r \dot{\varphi} \vec{e}_\varphi) \\ &= r^2 \dot{\varphi} \vec{e}_z \end{aligned}$$

Hamiltonian/Energy

$$H(\vec{q}, \vec{p}, t) := \vec{p} \cdot \dot{\vec{q}} - L(\vec{q}, \dot{\vec{q}}, t)$$

$$\vec{q} = \begin{cases} r \\ \varphi \end{cases} \quad \dot{\vec{q}} = \begin{cases} \dot{r} \\ \dot{\varphi} \end{cases} \quad \vec{p} = \begin{cases} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{r}} = \dot{r} = p_r \\ \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\varphi}} = r^2 \dot{\varphi} = p_\varphi \end{cases}$$

$$H(r, \varphi, \dot{r}, r^2 \dot{\varphi}) = \dot{r}^2 + r^2 \dot{\varphi}^2 - \frac{1}{2} (\dot{r}^2 + (r \dot{\varphi})^2) + \phi(r)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (\dot{r}^2 + (r \dot{\varphi})^2) + \phi(r) = E$$

or

$$H(r, \varphi, p_r, p_\varphi) = \frac{1}{2} p_r^2 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{p_\varphi^2}{r^2} + \phi(r) = E$$

E (Energy) is conserved

as L is time independent

Radial orbits

$$\dot{\varphi} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow L = 0$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Equation of motion} : \ddot{r} = - \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial r} \\ \text{Energy} : E = \frac{1}{2} \dot{r}^2 + \phi(r) \end{array} \right.$$

3 cases

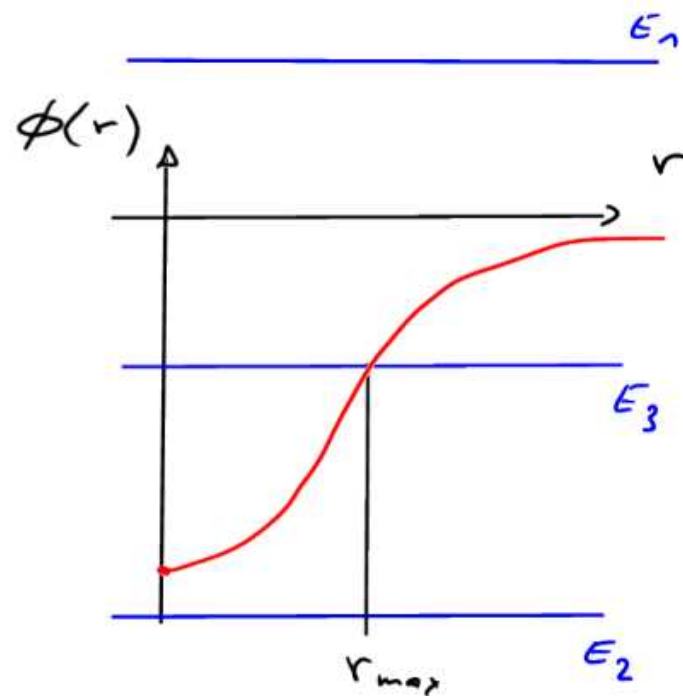
① $E > \phi(\infty) \Rightarrow \forall t, \dot{r}^2 > 0$
orbit not bounded

② $E < \phi(0) \Rightarrow$ impossible

③ $\phi(0) < E < \phi(\infty)$

$$\exists r \text{ t.q. } \dot{r} = 0 \quad \text{i.e.} \quad E = \phi(r)$$

$$r = r_{\max}$$



Non radial orbits

$$r \neq 0 \quad \dot{\varphi} \neq 0 \quad L \neq 0$$

$$\text{EOM} \begin{cases} \ddot{r} - r\dot{\varphi}^2 + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial r} = 0 & \textcircled{1} \\ \frac{d}{dt}(r^2\dot{\varphi}) = 0 \end{cases}$$

replace t by φ

$$\frac{d}{dt} = \frac{d}{d\varphi} \dot{\varphi} = \frac{L}{r^2} \frac{d}{d\varphi}$$

① becomes

$$\frac{L^2}{r^2} \frac{d}{d\varphi} \left(\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{dr}{d\varphi} \right) - \frac{L^2}{r^3} = - \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial r}$$

use $u = \frac{1}{r}$

$$\frac{d^2 u}{d\varphi^2} + u = \frac{1}{L^2 u^2} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial r} \left(\frac{1}{u} \right)$$

No analytical general solution

Radial energy equation

From the energy

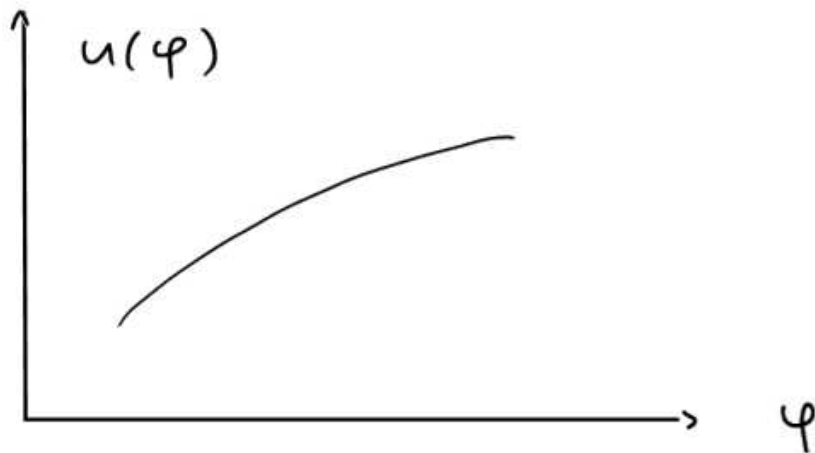
$$E = \frac{1}{2} (\dot{r}^2 + (r\dot{\varphi})^2) + \phi(r)$$

1) multiply by $\frac{2}{L^2}$

2) use $u = \frac{1}{r}$ and $\frac{d}{dt} = \frac{L}{r^2} \frac{d}{d\varphi}$

we get

$$\left(\frac{du}{d\varphi}\right)^2 + u^2 + \frac{2\phi\left(\frac{1}{u}\right)}{L^2} = \frac{2E}{L^2}$$



Orbit properties

Minimal radius

As $L \neq 0$, the orbit cannot cross the center there must be a minimal radius

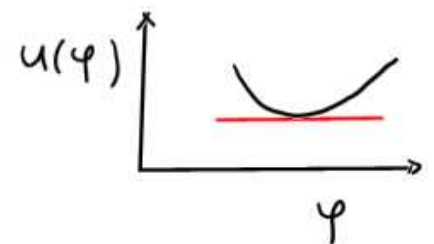
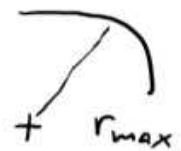
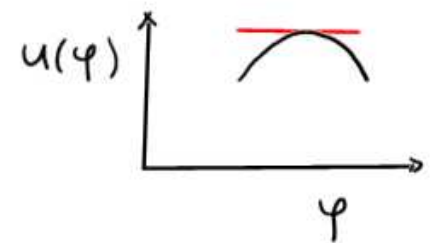
$$\forall \varphi \text{ such that } \frac{du}{d\varphi} = 0$$

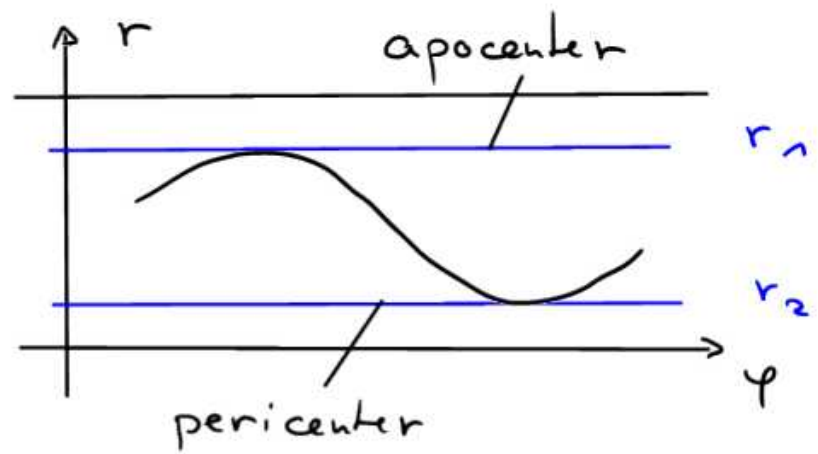
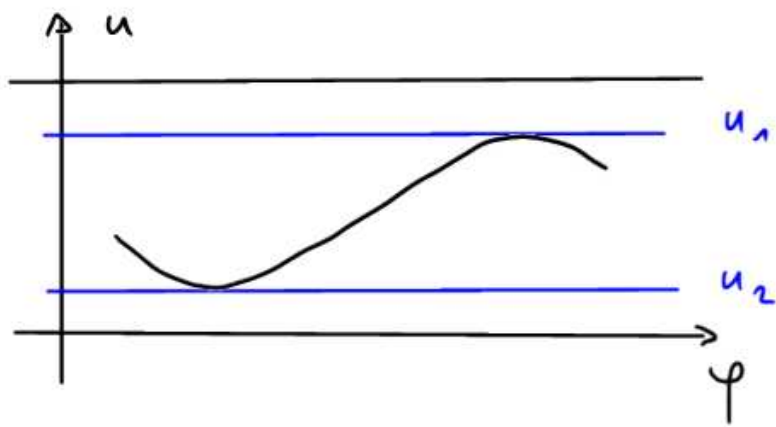
Maximal radius

If the orbit is bounded there must be a maximal radius

$$\forall \varphi \text{ such that } \frac{du}{d\varphi} = 0$$

$$\text{For } \frac{du}{d\varphi} = 0 \quad u^2 = \frac{2[E - \phi(1/u)]}{L^2}$$





Notes

• if $u_1 = u_2$

: periodic orbit



• if $u_1 \approx u_2$

: orbit with a small eccentricity

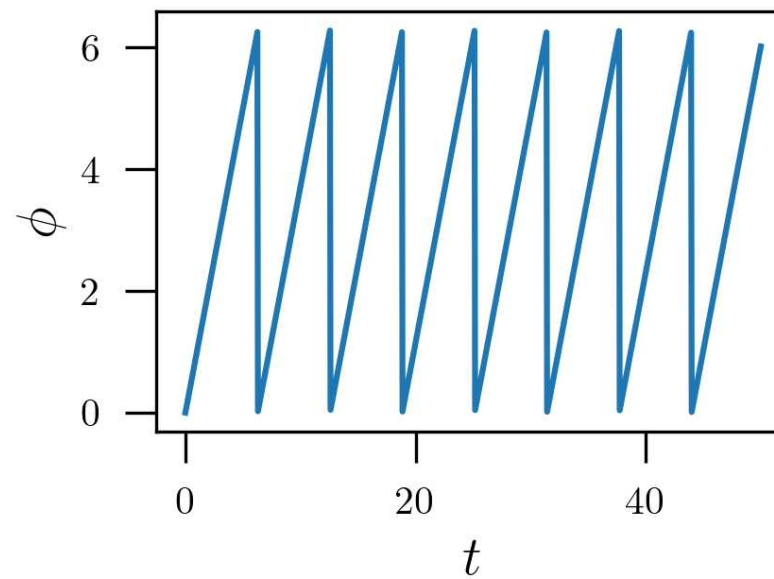
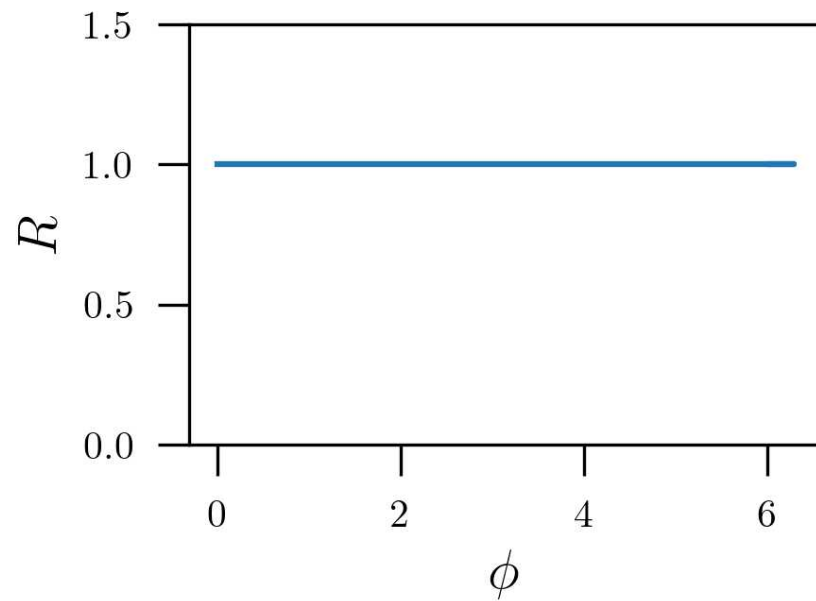
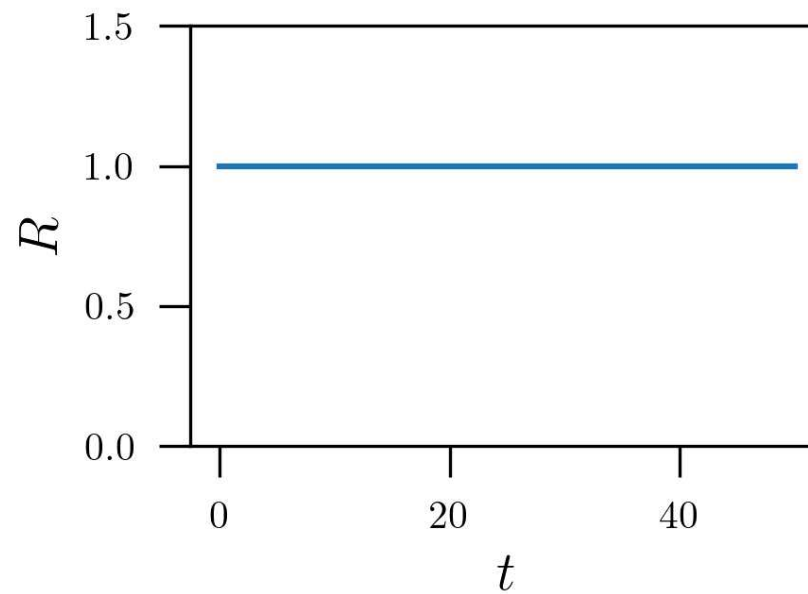
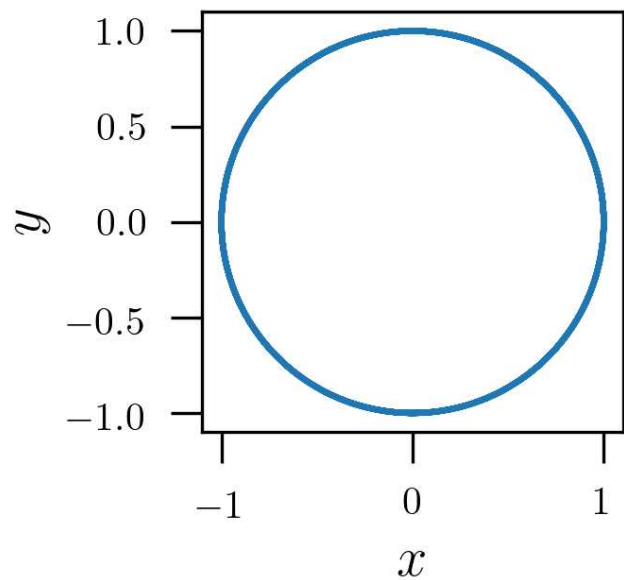


• if $u_1 \gg u_2$

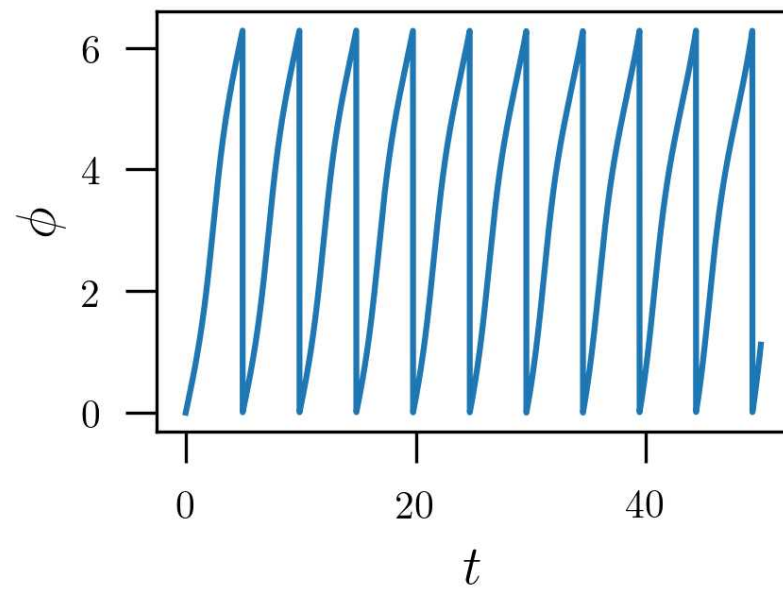
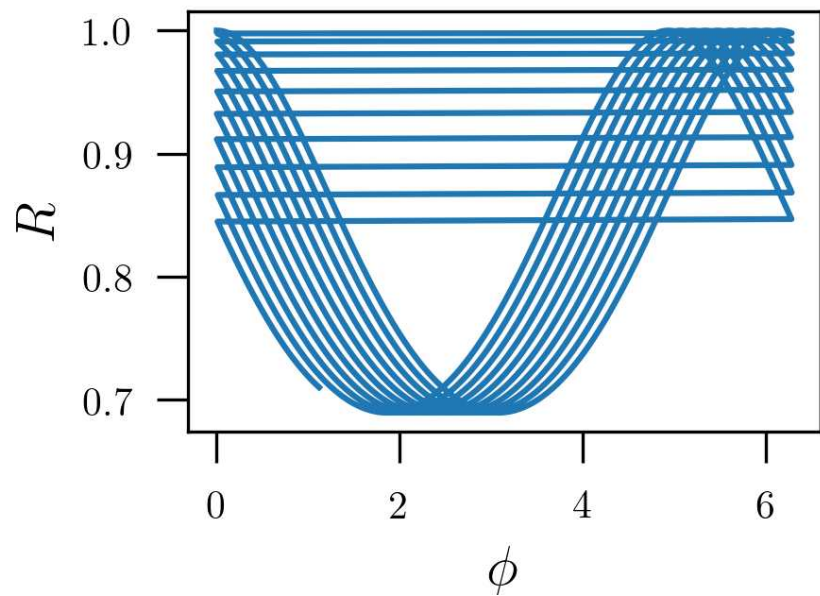
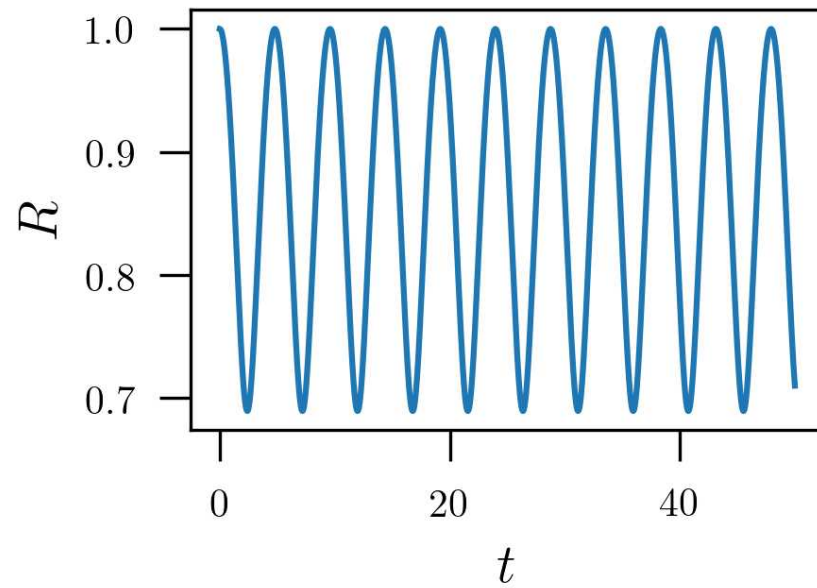
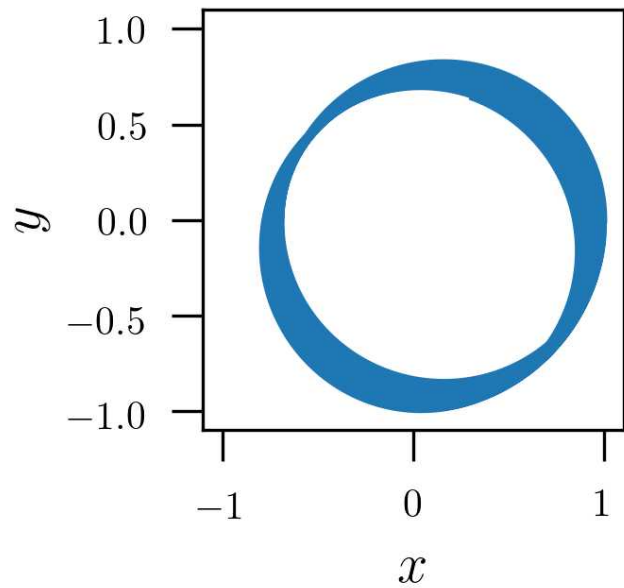
: orbit eccentricity is nearly 1



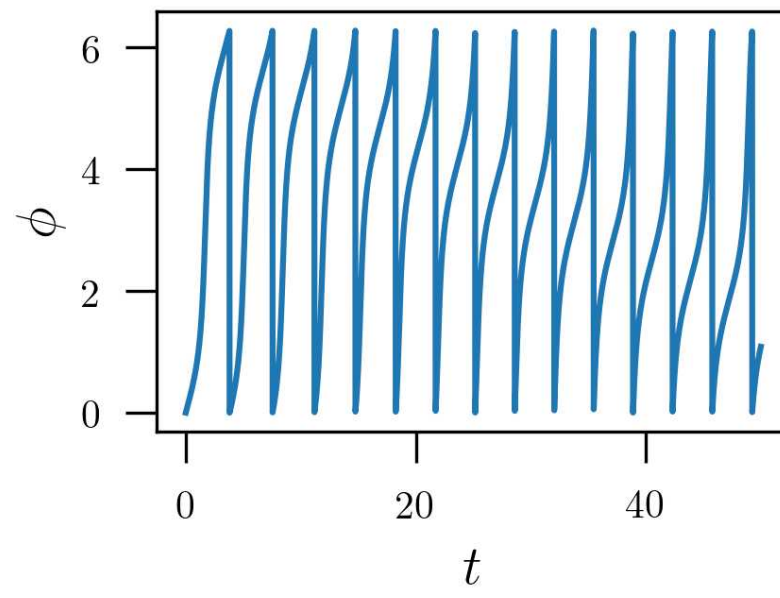
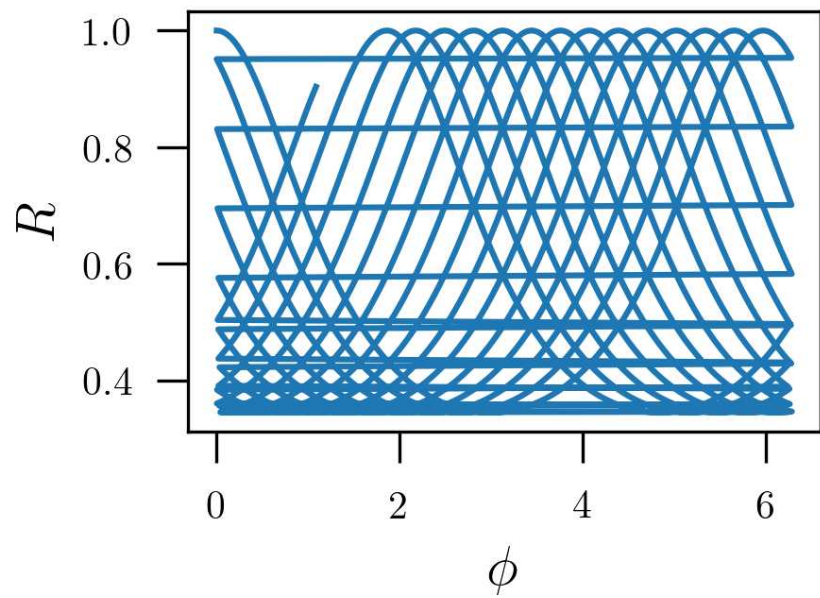
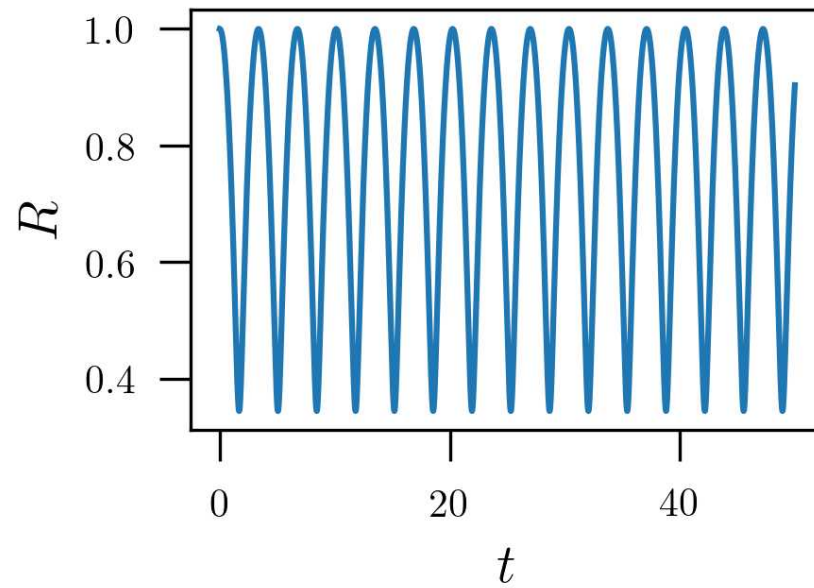
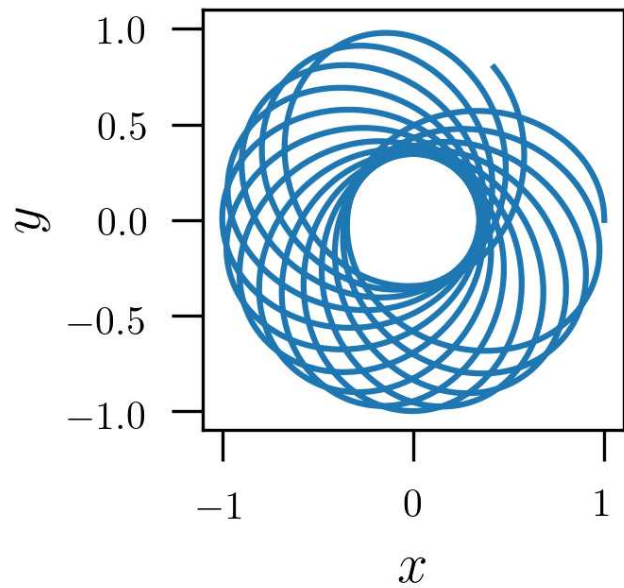
Plummer



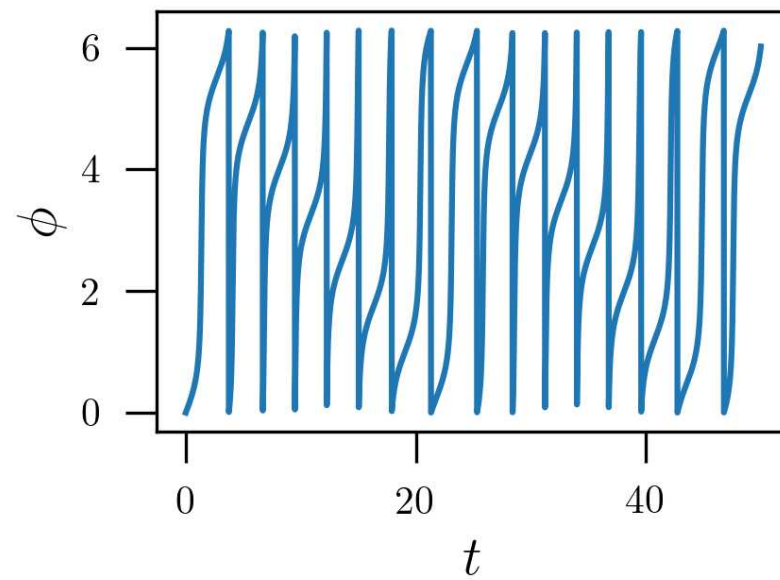
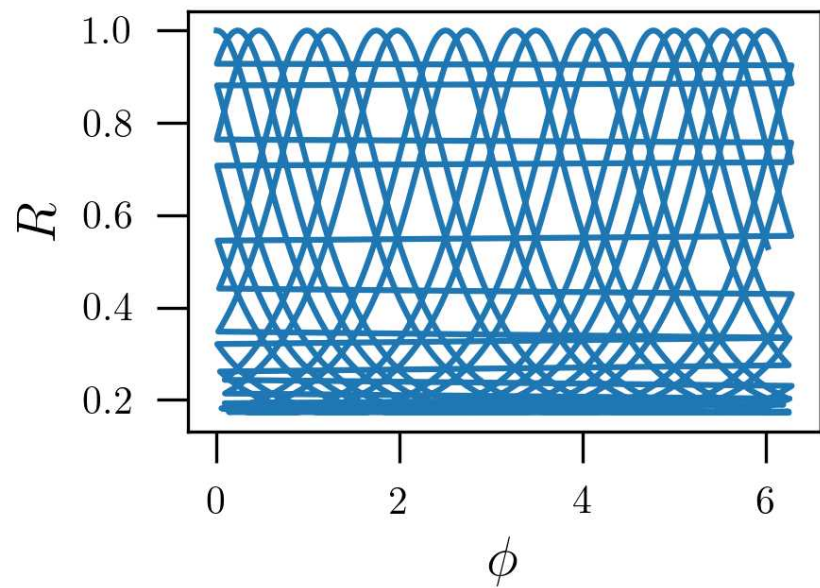
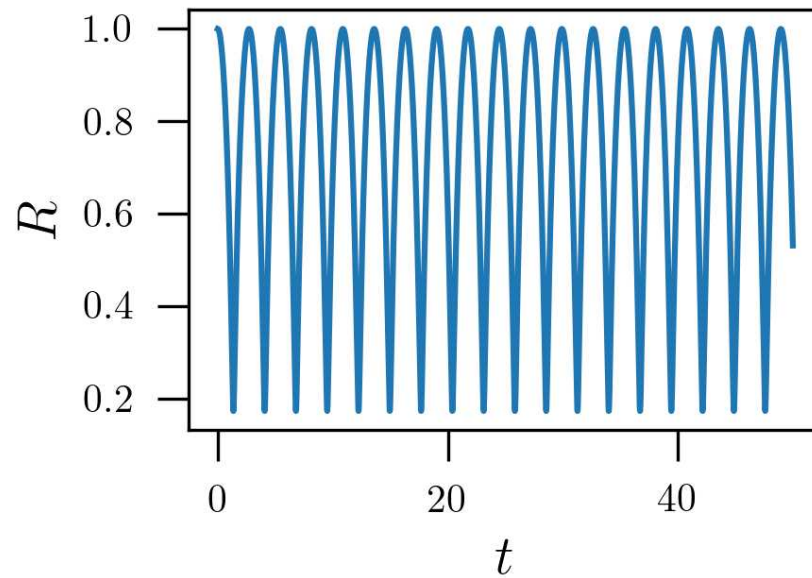
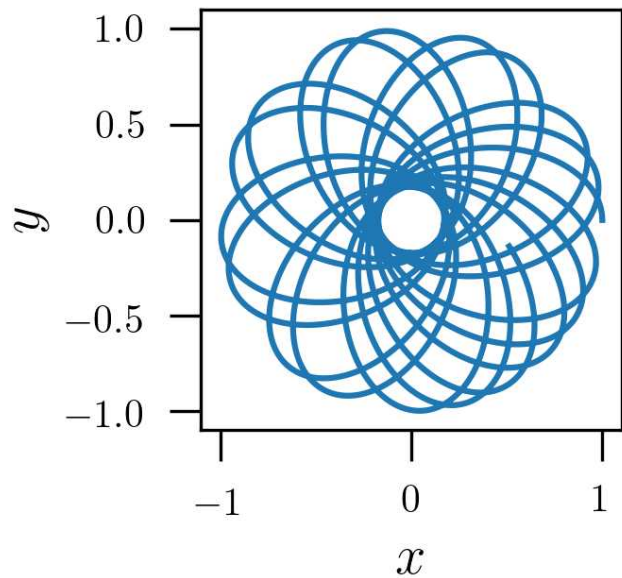
Plummer



Plummer



Plummer



Radial period

Time to travel from the apocenter to the pericenter

$$T_r = 2 \int_{t_1}^{t_2} dt = 2 \int_{r_1}^{r_2} \frac{dt}{dr} dr \quad \begin{cases} r(t_1) = r_1 \\ r(t_2) = r_2 \end{cases}$$

From $E = \frac{1}{2} (\dot{r}^2 + (r\dot{\phi})^2) + \phi(r) = \frac{1}{2} \dot{r}^2 + \frac{L^2}{2r^2} + \phi(r)$

$$\dot{r}^2 = 2(E - \phi(r)) - \frac{L^2}{r^2}$$

$$\frac{dr}{dt} = \sqrt{2(E - \phi(r)) - \frac{L^2}{r^2}}$$

$$\frac{dt}{dr} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2(E - \phi(r)) - \frac{L^2}{r^2}}}$$

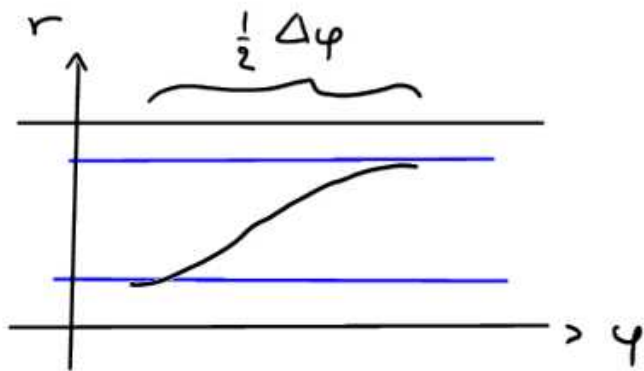
$$T_r = 2 \int_{r_1}^{r_2} \frac{dr}{\sqrt{2(E - \phi(r)) - \frac{L^2}{r^2}}}$$

Azimuthal period

$$T_\varphi = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} dt \quad \begin{cases} \varphi(t_1) = 0 \\ \varphi(t_2) = 2\pi \end{cases}$$

$\Delta\varphi$: increase of the azimuthal angle during T_r

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta\varphi &= 2 \int_{\varphi_1}^{\varphi_2} d\varphi = 2 \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \frac{d\varphi}{dt} dt = 2 \int_{r_1}^{r_2} \frac{d\varphi}{dt} \frac{dt}{dr} dr \\ &= 2 \int_{r_1}^{r_2} \frac{L}{r^2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2(\epsilon - \phi(r)) - \frac{L^2}{r^2}}} dr \end{aligned}$$



Azimuthal period: time to increase φ by 2π

$$T_\varphi = \frac{2\pi}{\langle \dot{\varphi} \rangle} \quad \langle \dot{\varphi} \rangle = \frac{|\Delta\varphi|}{T_r}$$

mean azimuthal "velocity"

$$T_\varphi = \frac{2\pi}{|\Delta\varphi|} T_r$$

As in general $\frac{2\pi}{|\Delta\varphi|}$ is not a rational number

the orbit is not guaranteed to be closed

The End