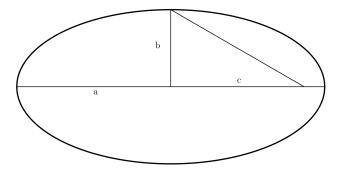
Astrophysics III, Dr. Yves Revaz

 $\begin{array}{l} \text{4th year physics} \\ \text{26.10.2022} \end{array}$

Astrophysics III: Stellar and galactic dynamics <u>Solutions</u>

Problem 1:



The ellipse equation is given by

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1 \tag{1}$$

the focii are at

$$c=\pm\sqrt{a^2-b^2}$$

and the eccentricity is defined as

$$e = \frac{c}{a}$$

Using these relations, we write

$$\begin{split} e^2 &= \frac{c^2}{a^2} = \frac{a^2 - b^2}{a^2} = 1 - \frac{b^2}{a^2} \\ y^2 &= b^2 - \frac{b^2}{a^2} x^2 = \frac{b^2}{a^2} (a^2 - x^2) = (1 - e^2)(a^2 - x^2) \end{split}$$

We apply a coordinate transformation now: Let x = x' + ae (= x' + c). This gives

$$y^{2} = (1 - e^{2}) \left(a^{2} - (x' + ae)^{2} \right)$$
(2)

Now we show that the equation of Keplerian orbits (3) can be written in the same form as (2). The Keplerian orbits are defined as

$$r(\varphi) = \frac{a(1-e^2)}{1+e\cos(\varphi)} \tag{3}$$

with $x' = r \cos(\varphi), \ y = r \sin(\varphi)$

$$\begin{aligned} r(1 + e\cos(\varphi)) &= r + er\cos(\varphi) = r + ex' \\ &= a(1 - e^2) \\ r^2 &= a^2(1 - e^2)^2 + e^2x'^2 - 2a(1 - e^2)ex' \\ &= x'^2 + y^2 \\ y^2 &= a^2(1 - e^2) + x'^2(e^2 - 1) - 2a(1 - e^2)ex' \\ &= (1 - e^2)[a^2(1 - e^2) - x'^2 - 2aex'] \\ &= (1 - e^2)[a^2 - a^2e^2 - (x' + ae)^2 + a^2e^2] \\ &= (1 - e^2)[a^2 - (x' + ae)^2] \end{aligned}$$

which is exactly equation (2) again. **Problem 2**:

First law : The orbit of a planet is an ellipse with the Sun at one of the two foci. This was shown in question 1.

Second law : A line segment joining a planet and the Sun sweeps out equal areas during equal intervals of time. Consider the Sun to be at the centre of the coordinate system and a planet at the position $\vec{x}(t)$ with a velocity $\vec{v}(t)$. Consider first the areas sweeps out during an infinitesimal time dt. This area will be:

$$\delta A = \frac{1}{2} \left| \vec{x}(t) \times d\vec{x}(t) \right|,\tag{4}$$

where $d\vec{x} = \vec{v}dt$. So,

$$\delta A = \frac{1}{2} dt \, |\vec{x}(t) \times \vec{v}(t)| = \frac{1}{2} dt |\vec{L}|, \tag{5}$$

with \vec{L} , the angular momentum (consider a body of unit mass). As the latter is conserved in a spherical potential, δA is independent of the time and of the position along the orbit. We can thus write for any interval time ΔT such that $\Delta T = t_2 - t_1$:

$$A = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \delta A = \frac{1}{2} \left| \vec{L} \right| \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \mathrm{d}t = \frac{1}{2} \left| \vec{L} \right| \Delta T, \tag{6}$$

which demonstrates the law.

Third law : The square of a planet's orbital period is proportional to the cube of the length of the semi-major axis of its orbit. From the previous law, we got a result of the form

$$A = \frac{1}{2}L\Delta T,$$

with L the magnitude of the angular momentum of a test particle of unit mass. For a full orbit, $\Delta T \equiv T$ is the period, and A is the area of the ellipse:

$$A = \pi ab = \pi a^2 \sqrt{1 - e^2}.$$

Let us now turn our attention to L. There are different ways of calculating it, but we will use the Vis-Viva equation:

$$v^2(r) = GM\left(\frac{2}{r} - \frac{1}{a}\right).$$

Let's take , e.g., $r = r_{\min}$:

$$v^{2}(r_{\min}) = GM\left(\frac{2}{r_{\min}} - \frac{1}{a}\right) = GM\left(\frac{2a - r_{\min}}{r_{\min}a}\right)$$

but $2a - r_{\min}$ is r_{\max} , and we also have $r_{\min}r_{\max} = b^2$. Together we get:

$$v^2(r_{\min}) = \frac{GM}{a} \left(\frac{b}{r_{\min}}\right)^2$$

So we have

$$L = L(r_{\min}) = \sqrt{\frac{GM}{a}}b = \sqrt{\frac{GM}{a}}a\sqrt{1-e^2}$$

Thus the period is

$$T = \frac{2A}{L} = 2\frac{\pi a^2 \sqrt{1 - e^2}}{\sqrt{\frac{GM}{a}} a \sqrt{1 - e^2}} = 2\frac{\pi a^{3/2}}{\sqrt{GM}},$$

or

$$T^2 = \frac{4\pi^2}{GM}a^3.$$

Throughout this exercise, we took a test particle of unit mass to make dealing with the units easier. (Usually, L = mrv and not only L = rv which we used here.)