

Oct 17  
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## Chapter 5: Motion in an Axisymmetric Potential

A Keplerian system is one where the gravitational potential varies as  $\Phi(r) \propto r^{-1}$

and a non-Keplerian system is one that does not.

It is the non-Keplerian systems that are now of interest here, and there are two types:

nearly Keplerian system: e.g. planetary systems, or satellites orbiting an oblate planet, etc.

and the very-non-Keplerian systems: such as stars orbiting in a disk (or spiral) galaxy.

The equations developed here apply to both kinds of non-Keplerian systems,

so I will occasionally discuss the motion of stars in a galaxy, since our results easily apply there.

Let's consider motion in an axisymmetric potential where

$$\Phi = \Phi(r, z) \text{ with no } \theta\text{-dependence.}$$

The equation of motion for a particle is  $\ddot{\vec{r}} = -\nabla\Phi$ .

$$\ddot{\vec{r}} = -\nabla\Phi \quad \text{or}$$

$$\text{so} \quad \ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2 = -\frac{d\Phi}{dr} \quad \leftarrow \text{radial component of } \ddot{\vec{r}} = -\nabla\Phi$$

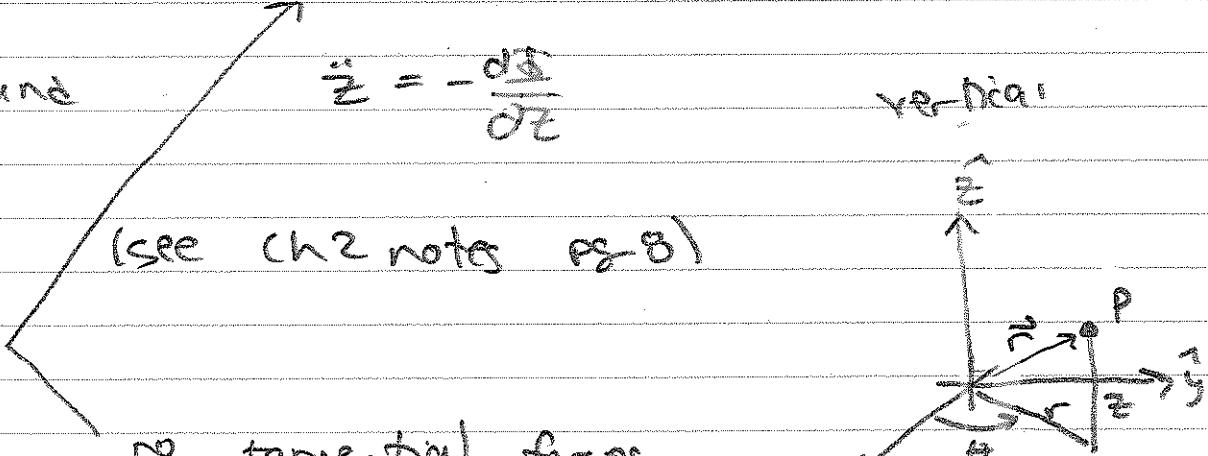
$$\frac{1}{r} \frac{d}{dt} (r^2\dot{\theta}) = -\frac{d\Phi}{dr} = 0 \quad \text{tangential}$$

and

$$\ddot{z} = -\frac{d\Phi}{dz}$$

vertical

(see ch2 notes pg 8)



no tangential forces

so the z-component of

the particle's specific angular momentum  
 $h_z = r^2\dot{\theta}$  is conserved

Remember:  $r$  = component of particle's position vector  $\vec{r}$  in  $\underline{x-y}$  plane.

let's solve for the particle's zero<sup>th</sup>-order motion:  
circular orbit in the  $z=0$  plane:

which is trivial:

$$r(t) = r_0 = \text{constant}$$

$$\theta(t) = \theta_0 + \omega_r t$$

$$z(t) = 0$$

where  $r_0, \theta_0$  are constants

The radial EOM tells us that

$$\dot{\theta}_r^2 = \frac{1}{r_0} \left. \frac{d\dot{\theta}}{dr} \right|_{\vec{r}_0} = \dot{\theta}_0^2(r_0)$$

*Note: this  $\dot{\theta}_r$  is angular velocity, not the longitude of ascending node*

where  $\left. \frac{d\dot{\theta}}{dr} \right|_{\vec{r}_0}$  means evaluate the

derivative at  $\vec{r} = \vec{r}_0$ .

where  $r=r_0, \theta=\theta_0, z=0$

also  $\dot{\theta}_0$  is shorthand for  $\dot{\theta}_r$  evaluated  
at  $r=r_0$

The  $\dot{\theta}$  EOM tells us that

$$r^2 \dot{\theta}_r = \text{constant}$$

$$r_0^2 \dot{\theta}_0 = \dot{\theta}_0 \text{ is constant}$$

$$\text{and } \theta(t) = \dot{\theta}_0 t$$

When the potential is Keplerian,

$$\mathcal{E} = -\frac{\mu}{r}$$

$$\text{and } \mathcal{L}^2 = \frac{1}{r} \frac{d\mathcal{E}}{dr} = \frac{\mu}{r^3} = \mathcal{N}^2$$

so particle's angular velocity  $\mathcal{N} = n$  = mean motion,  
velocity as expect

Now solve for the particle's first-order motion:

The particle's motion is nearly circular  
and almost coplanar:

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{r}_0 + \mathbf{r}_1(t)$$

$$\theta(t) = \theta_0 + \omega_0 t + \theta_1(t)$$

$$z(t) = z_1(t)$$

where noncircular deviations are  
assumed small:

$$|\mathbf{r}_1| \ll \mathbf{r}_0$$

$$|\theta_1| \ll 1$$

$$|z_1| \ll r_0$$

the particle's EOM is

$$\ddot{r} = (r_0 + r_i)(\dot{r}_0 + \dot{r}_i)^2 = -\frac{d\mathcal{E}}{dr} = r^2 \text{ Eom}$$

$$h_z = (r_0 + r_i)^2 (\dot{r}_0 + \dot{r}_i) = \text{integration constant}$$

$$\ddot{z}_i = -\frac{d\mathcal{E}}{dz}$$

The particle's deviation from circular motion is small, so linearize the EOM

on the RHS,

$$\frac{d\mathcal{E}}{dr} \approx \left. \frac{d\mathcal{E}}{dr} \right|_{\bar{r}_0} + r_i \left. \frac{d^2\mathcal{E}}{dr^2} \right|_{\bar{r}_0}$$

$$= r_0 \mathcal{E}_0^2 + \left. \frac{d^2\mathcal{E}}{dr^2} \right|_{\bar{r}_0} r_i$$

similarly  $\frac{d\mathcal{E}}{dz} \approx \left. \frac{d\mathcal{E}}{dz} \right|_{\bar{r}_0} + \left. \frac{d^2\mathcal{E}}{dz^2} \right|_{\bar{r}_0} z_i$

$\nearrow$

usually one orients the coordinate system so that there is no vertical acceleration on particle in the  $z=0$  plane, so this term is usually zero

ex: put  $z$ -plane in equatorial plane of an oblate planet

6.

$$\text{so } \ddot{z}_r = -v_0^2 z_r$$

where  $v_0^2 = \frac{d^2 \mathcal{E}}{dr^2} \Big|_{r_0}$  is a constant

from  $\tilde{F}$  EOM:

$$\omega_r + \dot{\theta}_r = \frac{kz}{r^2} \left( 1 + \frac{\Omega}{\omega} \right)^{-2} \approx \frac{kz}{r_0^2} - \frac{2kz}{r_0^3} r$$

$$\text{so } \dot{\theta}_r = \frac{kz}{r_0^2} - \omega_0 - \frac{2kz}{r_0^3} r$$

we can set integration constant  $kz = \omega^2 r_0$

$$\text{so } \dot{\theta}_r = -\frac{2\omega_0}{r_0} r$$

insert this into  $\tilde{F}$  EOM:

$$\ddot{r}_r - (\omega + \dot{\theta}_r) \omega_r^2 \left( 1 - \frac{2r_r}{r_0} \right)^2 \approx -r_0 \omega_r^2 - \underbrace{\frac{d^2 \mathcal{E}}{dr^2} \Big|_{r_0}}_{1 - \frac{4r_0}{r_0}} r_r$$

$$\text{so } \ddot{r}_r - r_0 \omega_r^2 \left( 1 + \frac{r_r}{r_0} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{4r_r}{r_0} \right) = -r_0 \omega_r^2 - \underbrace{\frac{d^2 \mathcal{E}}{dr^2} \Big|_{r_0}}_{\approx +\frac{3\Omega}{r_0}} r_r$$

so

$$\ddot{r}_1 + \left( 3\omega_0^2 + \frac{d^2\mathcal{E}}{dr^2} \Big|_{r_0} \right) r_1 = 0$$

or  $\ddot{r}_1 + \kappa_0^2 r_1 = 0$  is the linearized  $\mathcal{E}$  form

where  $\kappa^2 = 3\omega^2 + \frac{d^2\mathcal{E}}{dr^2}$  = epicyclic frequency<sup>2</sup>

$$= 3\omega^2 + \frac{d}{dr}(r\omega^2) = 4\omega^2 + r \frac{d\omega^2}{dr}$$

and  $\kappa_0 = \kappa(r=r_0)$

This is the EOM for a SDO that is unforced,  
ie there is no driving term on the RHS  
(when we study orbit resonances, we will see this)  
(eqn again but with nonzero term on RHS)

The solution is  $r_1(t) = -R \cos \kappa_0 t$

where  $R$  = particle's epicyclic amplitude

$\kappa_0$  = its epicyclic frequency

$$\text{so } \dot{\theta}_1 = -\frac{2\omega_0}{r_0} r_1 = +2\omega_0 \frac{R}{r_0} \cos \Omega t$$

$$\theta_1(t) = \frac{2R}{r_0} \frac{\omega_0}{\Omega} \sin(\Omega t)$$

(The integration constant = 0 so  $\theta(0) = \theta_0$ )

$$\text{Also } \ddot{z}_1 = -\nu_0 z_1 \Rightarrow z_1(t) = Z \sin(\nu_0 t + \phi_0)$$

$$\text{so } \nu_0 = \sqrt{\frac{\partial^2 E}{\partial z^2}}_{\vec{r}_0} = \text{particle's vertical oscillation frequency}$$

The particle's trajectory in cylindrical coordinates is:

$$r(t) = r_0 + r_1(t) = r_0 - e r_0 \cos(\Omega t)$$

$$\text{where } e = \frac{R}{r_0}$$

resembles the eccentricity of the 2-body problem

$$\theta(t) = \theta_0 + \omega_0 t + \theta_1(t)$$

$$= \theta_0 + \omega_0 t + 2e \frac{R}{r_0} \sin(\Omega t)$$

and set  $z = r \sin i$  so  $z(t) = r \sin i \sin(\nu_0 t + \phi_0)$

So even if the particle is orbiting in a non-Keplarian potential, its motion resembles low-e Keplarian motion in the Guiding-Center approximation.  
(compare this solution to ch 2 notes, pg 28)

so  $r_0$  resembles 2-body semimajor axis

$$\frac{R}{r_0} \rightarrow \text{eccentricity } e$$

$$\frac{z}{r_0} \rightarrow \sin(\text{inclination})$$

Note that the 2-body problem should be recovered when the potential is Keplarian, ie

$$\Sigma(r) = -\frac{M_p}{r}$$

If so, then  $\omega_0, \gamma_0, \nu_0$  should all = mean motion  $n$ :

$$\text{check: } r^2 = \frac{1}{r} \frac{d\Sigma}{dr} = \frac{\mu}{r^3} = \lambda^2 \quad \checkmark$$

Assignment #5

problem 5.1: show  $\gamma_0 = \omega_0 = \nu_0 = n$

when  $\Sigma$  is Keplarian

problem 5.2: show that phases  $\theta_0$  and  $\phi$  are related to  $m_1, m_2, \omega$

## Orbital

### Precession in a Non-Keplerian Potential

if the potential is Keplerian,  $\hat{E} \propto r^{-1}$ , then  
and  $K_0 = \nu_0 = \varpi_0 = n = \text{mean motion}$

Then  $r(t)$ ,  $\theta(t)$ ,  $z(t)$  all oscillate with  
period  $T_{\text{orb}} = \frac{2\pi}{\nu_0} = \frac{2\pi}{\varpi_0}$

and the orbit is closed, i.e. the motion repeats  
after time  $T_{\text{orb}}$

If the particle is orbiting in a Non-Keplerian  
potential then the frequencies  $K_0 \neq \nu_0 \neq \varpi_0$

and the orbit precesses

as the eccentric orbital ellipse rotates over time

or the inclined orbit plane rotates.

Calculate particle's precession rates:

$$\text{Since } \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{r}_0 - R \cos(\omega_0 t) \hat{\mathbf{z}}$$

$$\theta(t) = \theta_0 + \omega_0 t + 2 \frac{R}{\omega_0} \frac{\omega_0}{\omega} \sin \omega_0 t$$

$$z(t) = Z \sin(\omega_0 t + \phi_0)$$

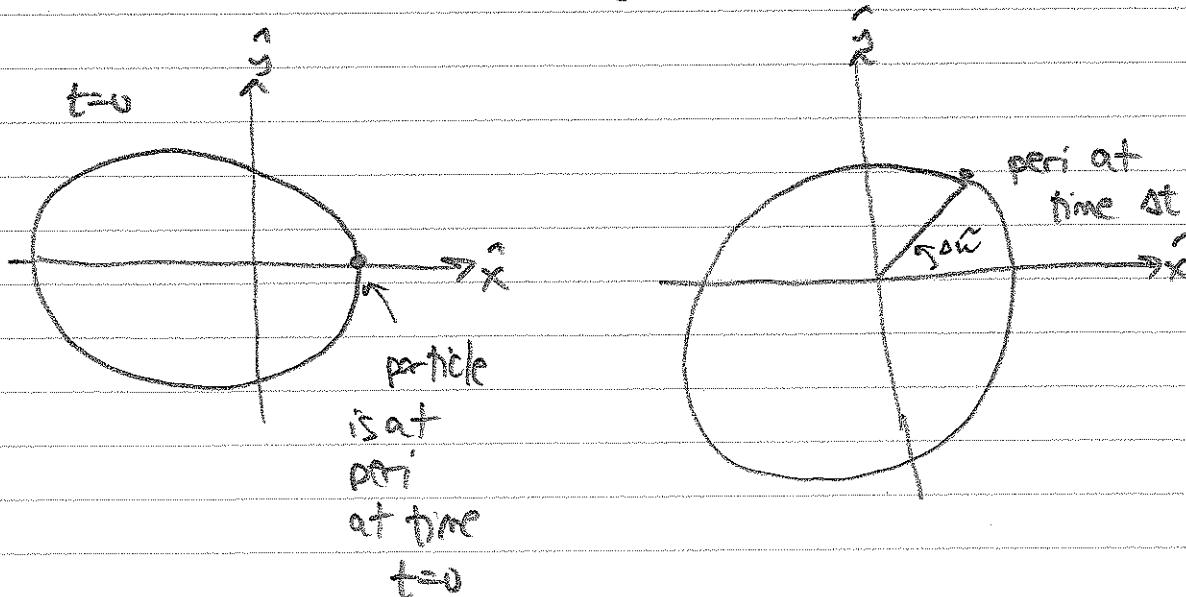
so  $\Delta t = \frac{2\pi}{\omega_0}$  = particle's epicyclic period  
 = time between two perigee passages

If time  $t=0$  is time of one perigee passage,

then  $\Delta t = \frac{2\pi}{\omega_0}$  = time of next perigee passage

But the particle's longitude will have advanced  
 by  $\Delta\theta = \omega_0 \Delta t$  = new longitude of perigee passage

so  $\Delta\tilde{\theta} = \Delta\theta - 2\pi$  = angle  $\tilde{\theta}$  advanced  
 during time  $\Delta t$  (modulo  $2\pi$ )



$$\text{so } \frac{\Delta\theta}{\Delta t} = \dot{\theta} = \omega_0 - \frac{2\pi}{2\pi/\kappa_0} = \omega_0 - \kappa_0$$

= particle's perihelion precession rate

Likewise, the period for the particle's vertical oscillations is  $\Delta t = \frac{2\pi}{\kappa_0}$

The longitude of the ascending node  $\Omega_{\text{node}}$  is the value of  $\theta(t)$  when  $\dot{\theta}(t)=0$

suppose  $t=0$  = time of first passage thru the  $z=0$  plane

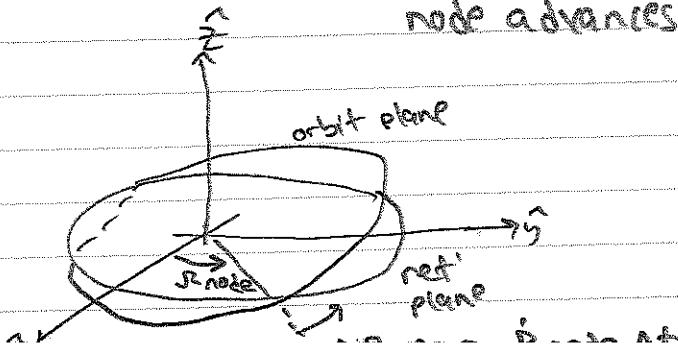
$$\text{so } \Delta t = \frac{2\pi}{\kappa_0} = \text{time of next passage thru } z=0$$

and  $\theta(\Delta t)$  will have advanced by

$$\Delta\theta = \omega_0 \Delta t - 2\pi$$

$$\text{so } \Omega_{\text{node}} = \frac{\Delta\theta}{\Delta t} = \omega_0 - \frac{2\pi}{\kappa_0}$$

= rate at which particle's node advances



most planetary environments have  $\nu_0 > \omega_0 > k_0$

so  $\tilde{\omega} > 0$  (usually) and longitude of perihelion precesses (usually)

and  $j_{2n\ell} < 0$  (usually) so the particle's node regresses (usually)

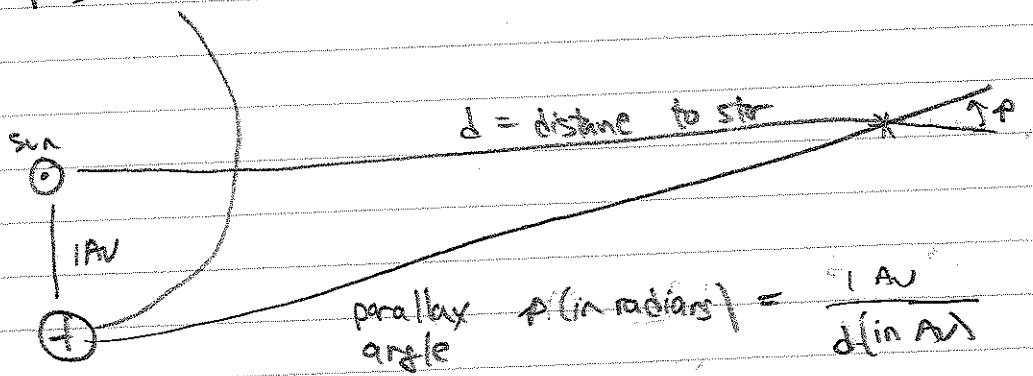
However the Sun's somewhat circular orbit through the Galaxy has  $\nu_0 > k_0 > \omega_0$

so  $\tilde{\omega} < 0$  } Sun's orbit regresses.  
 $j_{2n\ell} < 0$  }

Ex 5.1: Treat the Milky Way Galaxy as a uniform slab of matter of density

$\rho = 0.16 M_\odot/\text{pc}^3$ , calculate the Sun's vertical oscillation frequency

what is 1 pc?  
 a parsec = distance to a star whose parallax = 1 arc second



$$1 \text{ parsec} = \frac{1 \text{ degree}}{60 \text{ min} \times 60 \text{ sec}} \quad \text{or} \quad p (\text{in arcsec}) = \frac{1}{d (\text{in parsecs})}$$

anyway,  $1 \text{ pc} = 3.26 \text{ ly} = 3.09 \times 10^{19} \text{ cm}$   
 $M_\odot = 2 \times 10^{33} \text{ g} = 50 \text{ solar mass}$

recall from problem 1.3:

$$\frac{1}{r} \text{ slab density } \rho$$

$$g(z) = -\frac{d\phi}{dz} = 4\pi G \rho z$$

using Gauss law

$$\text{so } \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial z^2} = 4\pi G \rho = v_0^2$$

$$G = 6.67 \times 10^{-8} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-2}$$

$$\text{so } v_0 = \sqrt{4\pi G \rho} \quad \text{where } \rho = 0.16 \text{ M}_\odot / \text{pc}^3 \\ = 1.17 \times 10^{-23} \text{ gm/cm}^3 \\ = 3 \times 10^{15} \text{ sec}^{-1}$$

$$\text{so } T_z = \frac{2\pi}{v_0} = 2 \times 10^{15} \text{ sec}$$

$$= 70 \text{ Myrs}$$

= Sun's vertical oscillation period

Section 5.3 of text shows how to estimate

the Sun's orbit period

$$T_{orb} = \frac{2\pi}{\omega} \approx 230 \text{ Myrs}$$

$$\text{so } T_z \approx \frac{T_{orb}}{3.5}$$

i.e. Sun will execute

3.5 vertical oscillation

for every longitudinal  
orbit about the Sun

that section also shows that Sun's precession period is

$$T_\omega = \left( \frac{2\pi}{\dot{\omega}} \right) \approx 29 \text{ yrs}$$

So Sun's  $\omega$  rotates one every  $\sim 3$  orbits

$\Rightarrow$  in disk galaxies, precession is relatively fast

i.e. precession periods are comparable to a star's orbit period

Also keep in mind that the units is  $\sim 15$  Gyr old,  
so the Sun has orbited the Galaxy only

$$N \sim \frac{15 \text{ Gyr}}{230 \text{ Myr}} \sim 50 \text{ times}$$

$\Rightarrow$  galaxies (which are physically ancient) are also dynamically young... stars

have only existed long enough to make a few tens of orbits about the Galaxy

whereas the Earth has orbited the Sun  
 $\sim 4.5 \times 10^9$  times

$\Rightarrow$  planetary systems (which are young from a galaxy) are dynamically ancient

The orbits of Solar System planets have had lots of time (ie. orbits) to settle down to their current ~~equilibrium~~

See also section 5.3.1 which derives the so-called Oort Constants:

which are actually the functions

$$A(r) = -\frac{1}{2} \left[ r \frac{d\zeta}{dr} \right]$$

$$\text{and } B(r) = A(r) - 2(r)$$

Galactic astronomers can measure  $A(r)$  and  $B(r)$ , which are related to Galaxy's rotation curve

$$V_{\text{rot}}(r) = r\omega(r)$$

which is governed by the Galaxy's matter distribution... more matter in the galactic disk, the faster the stars orbit

Anyway, some papers on planetary dynamics will sometimes make use of  $A(r)$  and  $B(r)$  instead of  $\zeta(r)$  and  $K(r)$

but these are all related via

$$r \frac{d\zeta}{dr} = -2A$$

$$\text{so } K^2 = 4\zeta^2 + r \frac{d\zeta^2}{dr} = 4\zeta^2 + 2\zeta \left( r \frac{d\zeta}{dr} \right)$$

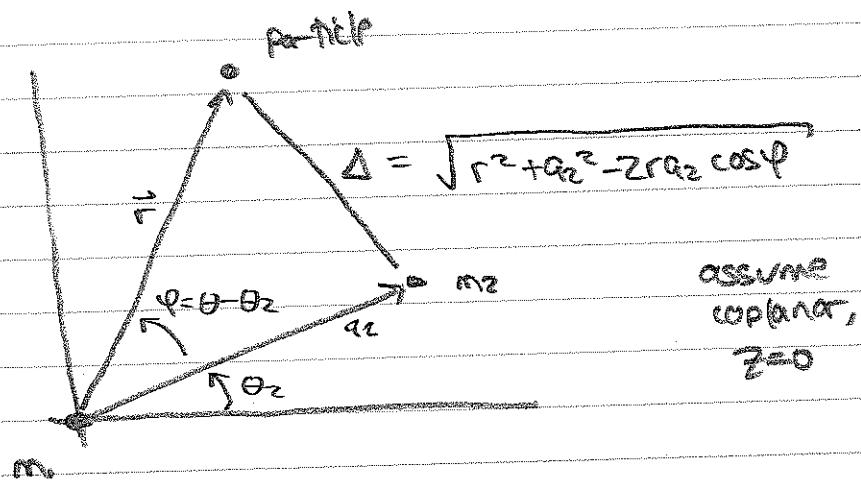
$$= 4\zeta^2 - 4\zeta A = 4\zeta^2 - 4\zeta(B + \zeta)$$

$$\text{so } K^2 = -4B\zeta$$

so if you are reading a paper on planetary dynamics, and it invokes  $A, B$  'constants', you can use the above to replace  $A, B \rightarrow K, \zeta$

### Precession in a planetary system:

Suppose the particle is perturbed by secondary  $m_2$  that is in circular orbit about  $m_1$ :



The system's total gravitation potential is

$$\Phi = \Phi_1 + \Phi_2 = -\frac{Gm_1}{r} - \frac{Gm_2}{\Delta}$$

note that  $\Phi_2$  is periodic in  $\phi$  = particle's relative longitude

lets fourier-expand  $\Phi_2$ :

$$\Phi_2(r, \phi) = -\frac{Gm_e}{r} = \frac{1}{2}\Phi_0(r) + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \left[ \varphi_m(r) \cos(m\phi) + \pi_m(r) \sin(m\phi) \right]$$

$\varphi_m(r)$  and  $\pi_m(r) = m^{\text{th}}$  Fourier coefficient  
in the Fourier  
expansion of  $\Phi_2$

is  $\Phi_2$  even or odd in  $\phi$ ?

what are the  $\pi_m$  then?

Note that  $\Phi_0(r)$  is the axisymmetric part of  $m_e$ 's potential; this is the part of  $\Phi_2$  that will cause the particle's orbit to precess.

Solve for  $\Phi_0$  by averaging the above over all relative longitudes  $\phi$ :

$$-\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{Gm_e}{r} d\phi = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} d\phi \left[ \frac{1}{2}\Phi_0(r) + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \varphi_m(r) \cos(m\phi) \right]$$

= ?

$$\text{so } \frac{1}{2} \varphi_0(r) = -\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{Gm_2 d\phi'}{\sqrt{r^2 + a_2^2 - 2ra_2 \cos\phi'}}$$

$$= -\frac{Gm_2}{\pi a_2} \int_0^{\pi} \frac{d\phi'}{\sqrt{1 + \beta^2 - 2\beta \cos\phi'}}$$

where  $\beta = \frac{r}{a_2}$

The above integral is related to the Laplace coefficient:

$$b_3^{(m)}(\beta) = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \frac{\cos(m\phi) d\phi}{(1 + \beta^2 - 2\beta \cos\phi)^5}$$

$$\text{so } \frac{1}{2} \varphi_0(r) = -\frac{Gm_2}{2a_2} b_3^{(0)}(\beta)$$

so the system's total gravitational potential is

$$\Phi(r, \phi) = \Phi_1 + \Phi_2$$

$$= -\frac{Gm_1}{r} - \frac{Gm_2}{2a_2} b_3^{(m)}(\beta) + \text{secondary's non-axisymmetric terms}$$

axisymmetric part

The secondary's non-axisymmetric terms do not contribute much to particle's precession rate... rather, those terms give rise to mean-motion or Lindblad resonances, which will be examined in greater detail in Chapter 6.

So to calculate the particle's  $\dot{\omega}$ , we can use

$$\dot{\theta} = -\frac{Gm_1}{r^2} - \frac{Gm_2}{2a_2} b_{Y2}^{(0)} \text{ for } \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{term is responsible for a secular resonance} \\ \text{where } B = \frac{r}{a_2} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\text{so } \dot{r}^2 = \frac{1}{r} \frac{d\dot{\theta}}{dr} = \frac{Gm_1}{r^3} - \frac{Gm_2}{2a_2 r} \frac{db_{Y2}^{(0)}}{dr}$$

$\checkmark$  use chain rule

$$\frac{db_{Y2}^{(0)}}{dr} = \frac{db_{Y2}^{(0)}}{dB} \frac{dB}{dr} = \frac{1}{a_2} \frac{db_{Y2}^{(0)}}{dB}$$

$$\text{Also set } n_0^2 = \frac{Gm_1}{r^3} = \text{mean motion}^2$$

$$\text{so } \dot{r}^2 = n_0^2 - \frac{Gm_2}{2a_2^2 r} \frac{db_{Y2}^{(0)}}{dB}$$

$$= n_0^2 \left( 1 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{m_2}{m_1} B^2 \frac{db_{Y2}^{(0)}}{dB} \right)$$

$$\text{set } \mu_2 = \frac{m_2}{m_1}$$

Note  $\mu_2 \ll 1$  for planetary systems

$$\text{so } \dot{x}_2 \approx n_0 \left( 1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_2}} \beta^2 \frac{d \ln \gamma_2}{d \beta} \right)$$

Inspect Fig 5.6... does  $m_2$ 's gravity  
slow down or speed up the particle's  
mean angular velocity?

The particle's precession rate is  $\tilde{\omega} = \omega - \kappa$   
 so we also need  $\kappa$ :

$$\kappa^2 = 3\omega^2 + \frac{d^2 \theta}{dr^2} = 4\omega^2 + r \frac{d\omega^2}{dr}$$

$$r = BA_2$$

$$\text{so } r \frac{d}{dr} \rightarrow B \frac{\partial}{\partial B}$$

will use this formula

$$\text{so } \kappa^2 = 4n_0^2 \left( 1 - \frac{1}{2} M_2 B^2 \frac{db_{yz}^{(0)}}{\partial B} \right) \quad n_0^2 = \frac{GM}{r^3}$$

$$+ r \frac{d}{dr} \left[ n_0^2 \left( 1 - \frac{1}{2} M_2 B^2 \frac{db_{yz}^{(0)}}{\partial B} \right) \right]$$

$$= 3n_0^2 \left( 1 - \frac{1}{2} M_2 \dots \right) - n_0^2 B \frac{\partial}{\partial B} \left( \frac{1}{2} M_2 B^2 \frac{db_{yz}^{(0)}}{\partial B} \right)$$

$$= n_0^2 - \frac{1}{2} M_2 B^2 \frac{db_{yz}^{(0)}}{\partial B} n_0^2 - \frac{1}{2} M_2 \left( 2B^2 \frac{\partial b_{yz}^{(0)}}{\partial B} + B^3 \frac{\partial^2 b_{yz}^{(0)}}{\partial B^2} \right) n_0^2$$

$$\text{so } \kappa^2 = n_0^2 \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{2} M_2 B^2 \left( \frac{3db_{yz}^{(0)}}{\partial B} + B \frac{\partial^2 b_{yz}^{(0)}}{\partial B^2} \right) \right]$$

$$\text{and } \kappa \approx n_0 \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{4} M_2 B^2 \left( \frac{3db_{yz}^{(0)}}{\partial B} + B \frac{\partial^2 b_{yz}^{(0)}}{\partial B^2} \right) \right]$$

so the particle's precession rate  $\tilde{\omega} = \omega - \kappa$  is

$$\tilde{\omega} = \frac{1}{2} M_2 \beta^2 \left( \frac{\partial b_{42}^{(m)}}{\partial B} + \frac{1}{2} \beta \frac{\partial b_{42}^{(m)}}{\partial B} \right) n_0$$

which is kinda complicated-looking,

but can be simplified further

via Laplace coefficient identities:

$$\frac{\partial b_s^{(m)}}{\partial B} = \frac{d}{dB} \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^\pi \frac{\cos(ms)}{(1+\beta^2 - 2B \cos\phi)^s}$$

$$= \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^\pi \frac{d\phi \cos(ms)(-s)(2B - 2\cos\phi)}{(1+\beta^2 - 2B \cos\phi)^{s+1}}$$

$$= (-2s) \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^\pi d\phi \frac{\cos(ms) - (\cos ms \cos \phi)}{(1+\beta^2 - 2B \cos \phi)^{s+1}} \quad \text{A.6}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \cos(m+1)\phi + \frac{1}{2} \cos(m-1)\phi$$

$$\text{so } \frac{\partial b_s^{(m)}}{\partial B} = -2s \left( -\frac{1}{2} b_{s+1}^{m+1} + b_{s+1}^m - \frac{1}{2} b_{s+1}^{m-1} \right)$$

$$= s \left( b_{s+1}^{m+1} - 2b_{s+1}^m + b_{s+1}^{m-1} \right)$$

$$\text{and } \frac{\partial b_{42}^{(m)}}{\partial B} = \frac{1}{2} \left( b_{3/2}^{(-1)} - 2b_{3/2}^m + b_{3/2}^{(1)} \right)$$

$$= b_{3/2}^{(1)} - b_{3/2}^{(-1)}$$

Another useful identity:

$$2 \frac{db_{3/2}^{(0)}}{\partial \beta} + \beta \frac{d^2 b_{3/2}^{(0)}}{\partial \beta^2} = b_{3/2}^{(n)}(\beta)$$

extra credit, +10 points on Assignment #5

find an easy proof for the above

↖ easy enough for textbook

$$\text{so } \tilde{\omega} = \frac{1}{2} \mu_2 \beta^2 \left( \frac{db_{3/2}^{(0)}}{\partial \beta} + \frac{1}{2} b_{3/2}^{(n)} - \frac{db_{3/2}^{(0)}}{\partial \beta} \right) n_0$$

$$\Rightarrow \tilde{\omega} = \frac{1}{4} \mu_2 \beta^2 b_{3/2}^{(n)}(\beta) n_0$$

which is always positive.

So  $\mu_2$ 's gravity causes particle's  $\tilde{\omega}$  to advance over time,

at a rate that is faster nearer  $\mu_2$ 's orbit

where  $\beta \rightarrow 1$  and  $b_{3/2}^{(n)}(\beta)$  blows up.

If there were multiple planets in the system, then

$$\ddot{\vec{r}} \rightarrow -\frac{Gm}{r} \sum_{j=2}^N \frac{Gm_j}{2a_j} b_{42}^{(0)} (B_j)$$

and  $\ddot{\vec{w}} \rightarrow \frac{1}{4} \sum_j^{\text{planets}} m_j B_j^2 b_{32}^{(1)} (B_j) \vec{n}$

$\uparrow$   
 $B_j = \frac{r}{a_j}$

$a_j$  = planet j's  
SMA.