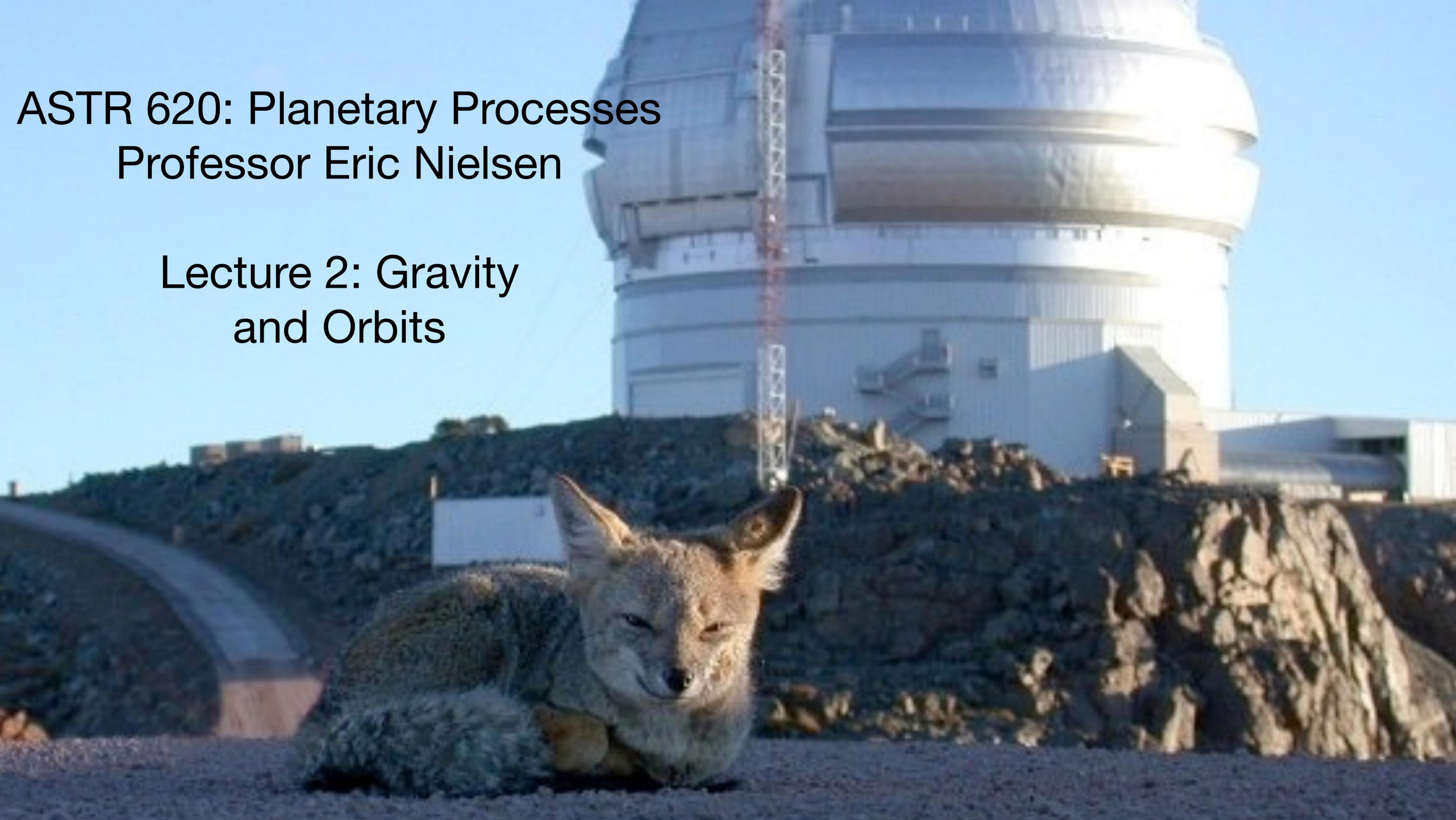


ASTR 620: Planetary Processes  
Professor Eric Nielsen

Lecture 2: Gravity  
and Orbits

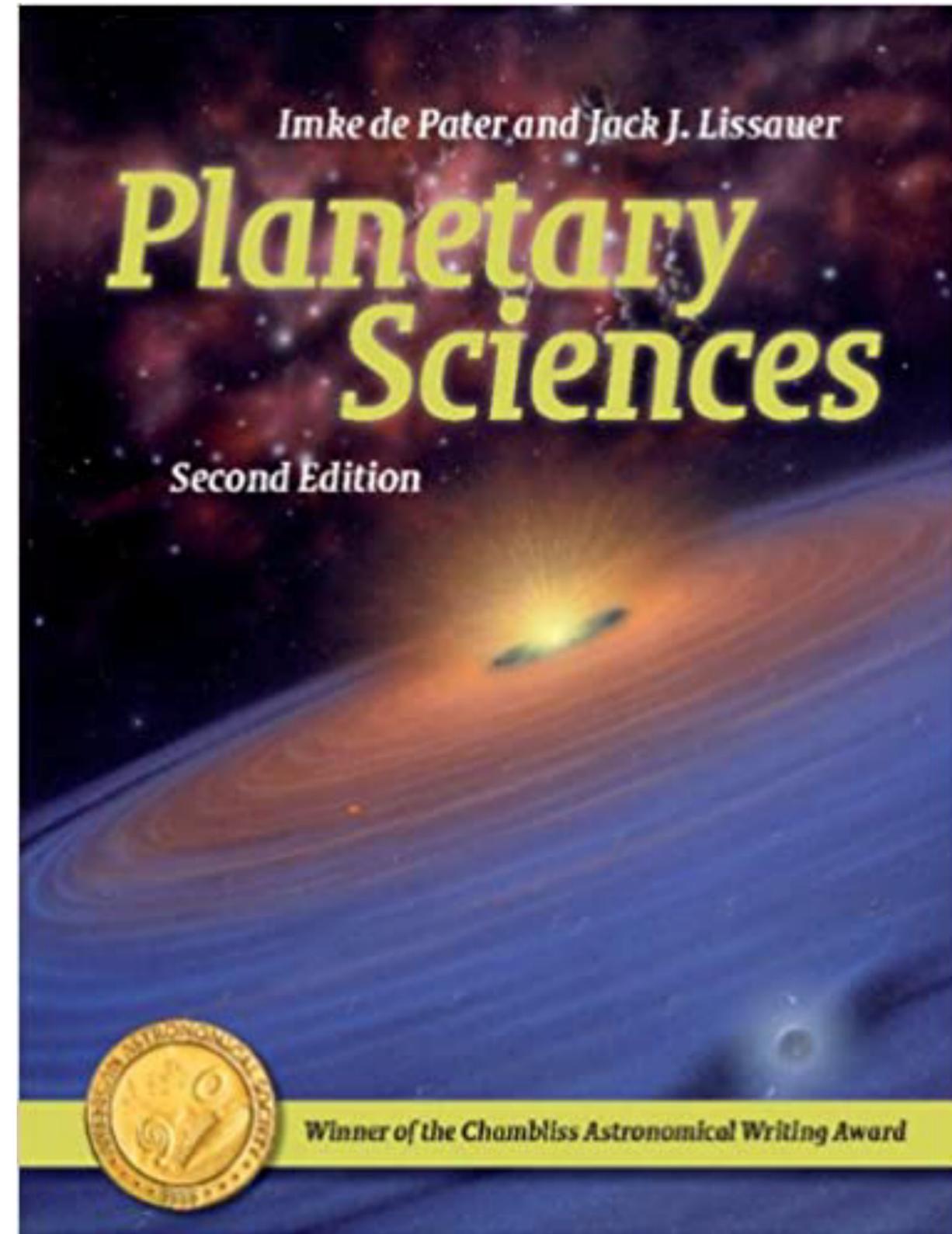


# Logistics

- Masks are encouraged
- No laptops, phones, or other electronic devices during class (I'll let you know in advance if we'll need laptops for an activity) **New: you may use a tablet to take notes if prefer, but please only use it for note-taking.**
- Things you should bring to lecture each day:
  - something to take notes on (including extra paper if there's a writing assignment),
  - something to write with
  - your response card (will be handed out later in class)
- Office hours: Monday 4-5pm, Astronomy 203

# Textbook

- Readings and some homework will be assigned from the textbook
- Either “second edition” or “updated second edition” is fine
  - try to avoid the first edition, it’s a bit out of date



# Review of the last class

- Which object contains most of the angular momentum ( $L = m \cdot v \cdot r$ ) in our Solar System?
  - (A) — Earth
  - (B) — Jupiter
  - (C) — Saturn
  - (D) — Neptune
  - (E) — Sun

# Review of the last class

- The region of space dominated by the Sun's plasma and magnetic fields, separate from the ISM, is called the:
  - (A) — heliosphere, and contains all objects orbiting the Sun
  - (B) — heliosphere, and contains most objects orbiting the Sun
  - (C) — corona, and contains all objects orbiting the Sun
  - (D) — corona, and contains most objects orbiting the Sun
  - (E) — There is no Sun

# Review of the last class

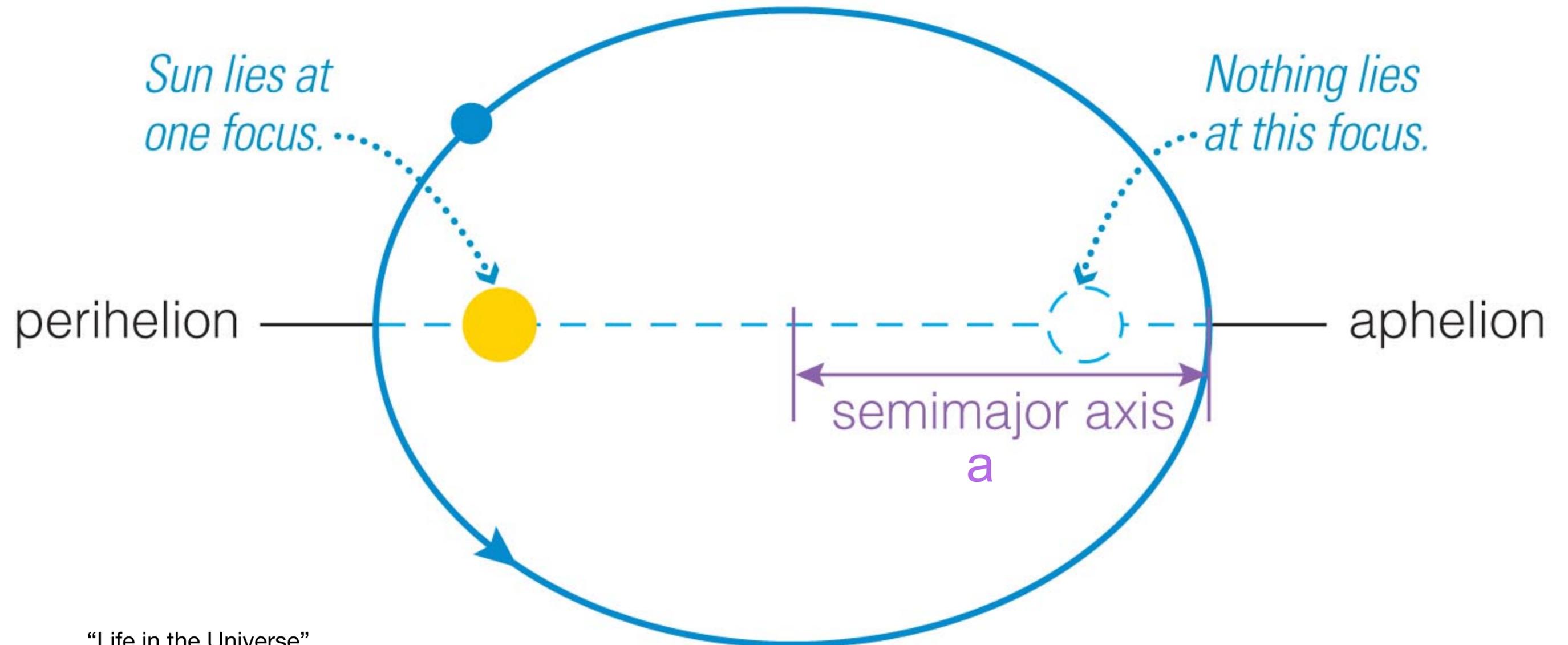
- How do we measure the masses of other objects in the solar system?
  - (A) — stellar occultations
  - (B) — radar mapping
  - (C) — light curves
  - (D) — orbits of moons and spacecrafts
  - (E) — Thermal IR spectra

# Review of the last class

- What is Jupiter's mass, in solar masses?
  - (A) —  $10^{-5}$  solar masses
  - (B) —  $10^{-4}$  solar masses
  - (C) —  $10^{-3}$  solar masses
  - (D) —  $10^{-2}$  solar masses
  - (E) —  $10^{-1}$  solar masses

# Kepler's First Law

- The orbit of each planet around the Sun is an ellipse with the Sun at one focus.

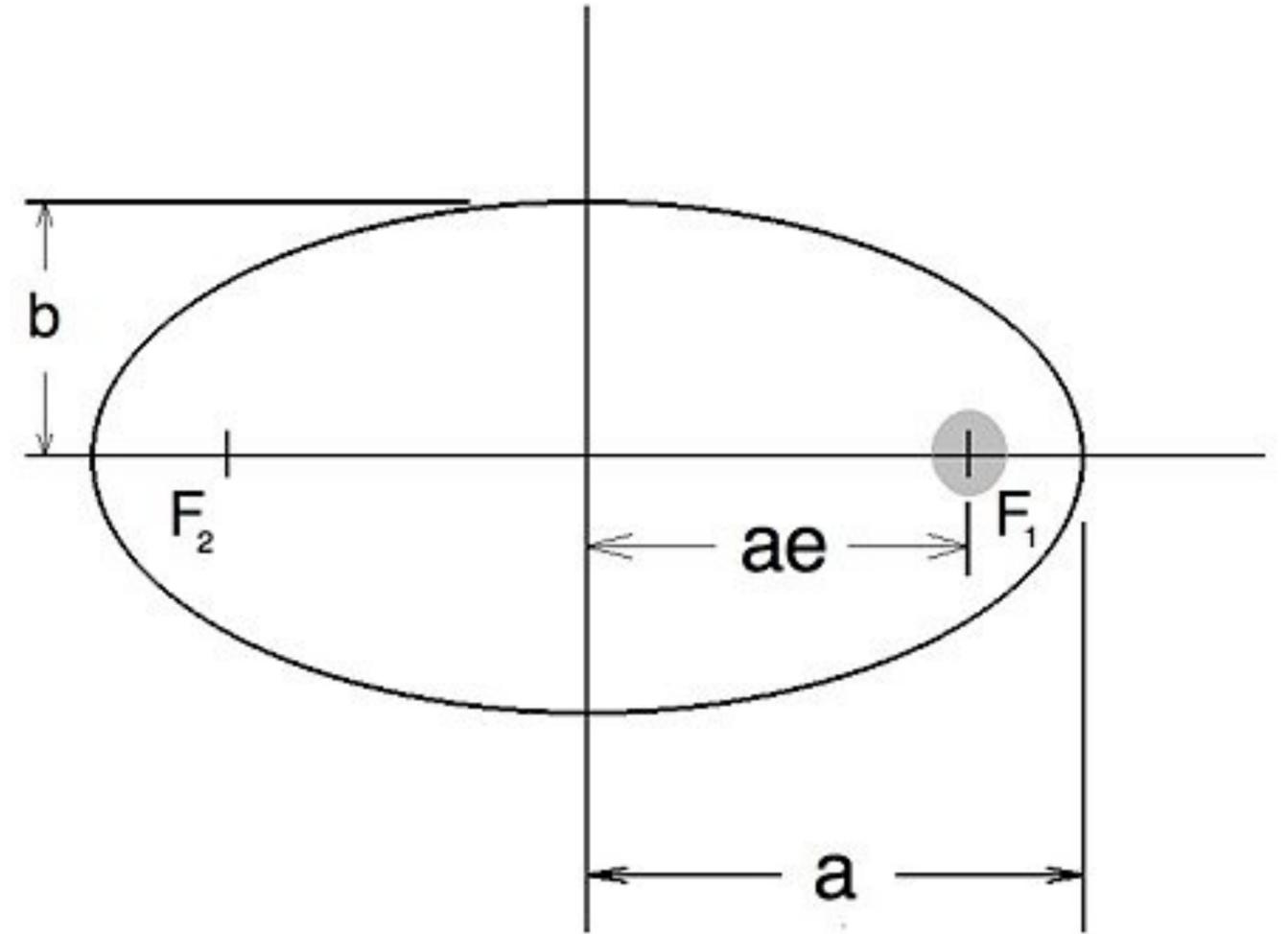


# Ellipses

- Major axis:  $2a$  ( $a$  = semi-major axis)
- Minor axis:  $2b$  ( $b$  = semi-minor axis)

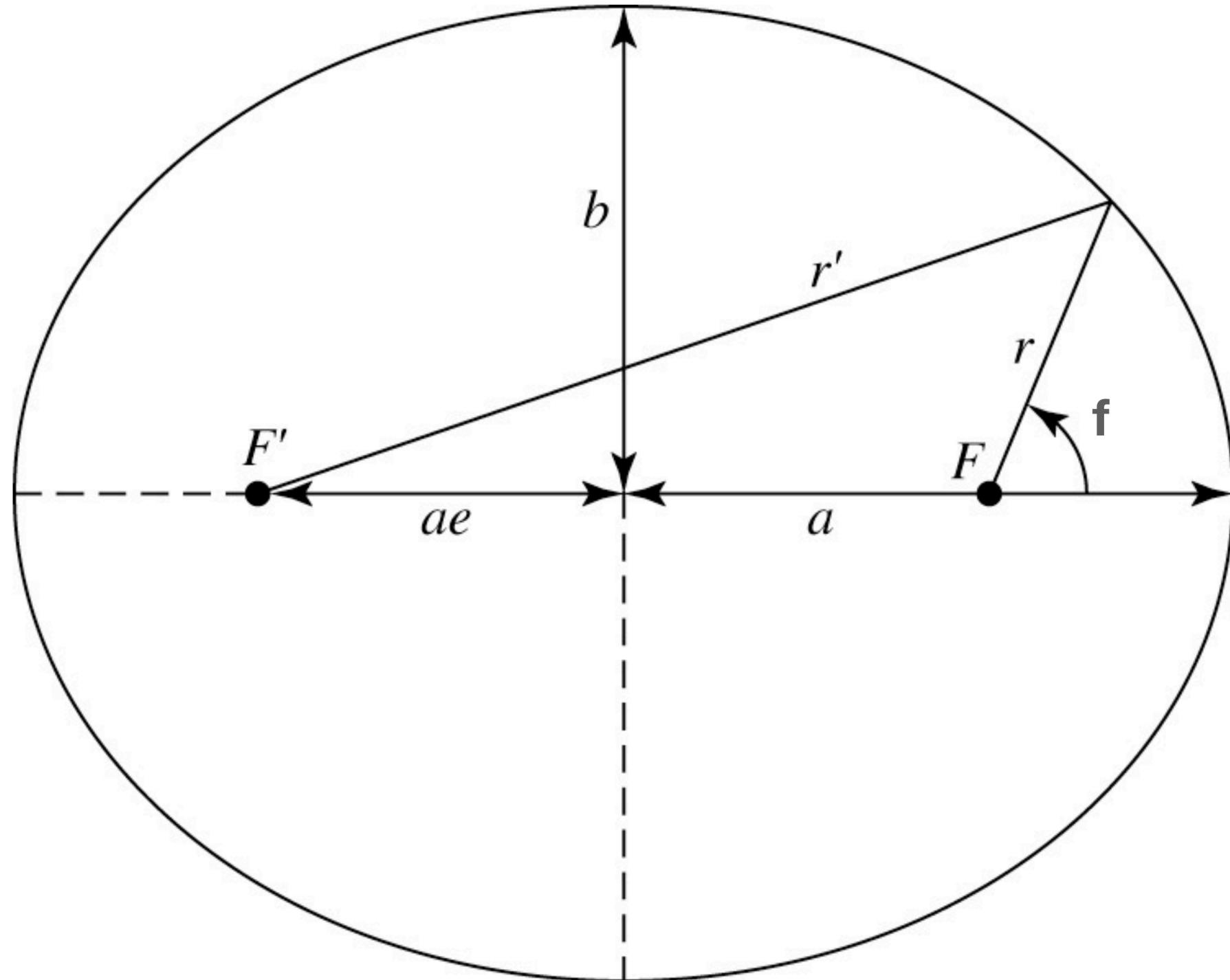
- Eccentricity:  $e = \sqrt{1 - \frac{b^2}{a^2}}$

- We describe elliptical orbits by their semi-major axis and eccentricity



# Ellipses

- The set of points where the distance from one focus, to that point, to the other focus is equal defines the ellipse

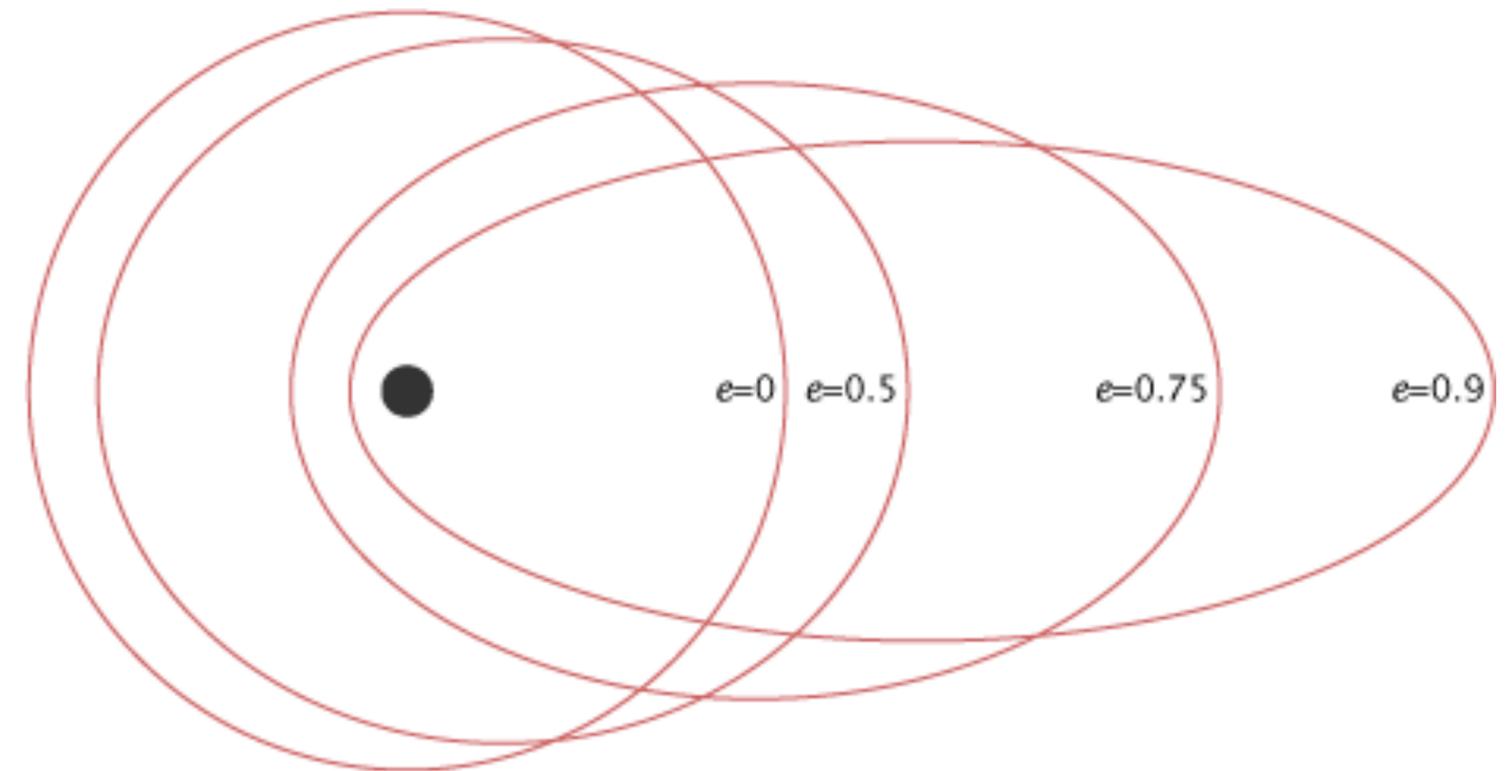


# Response Card Question

- What shape do we call an ellipse when  $e=0$ , and what shape do we call an ellipse when  $e=1$ ?
  - (A) —  $e=0$ : circle,  $e=1$ : oval
  - (B) —  $e=0$ : oval,  $e=1$ : circle
  - (C) —  $e=0$ : circle,  $e=1$ : parabola
  - (D) —  $e=0$ : parabola,  $e=1$ : circle
  - (E) —  $e=0$ : circle,  $e=1$ : line

# Eccentricity

- Eccentricity ( $e$ ) goes from 0 (circular orbits) to 1 (unbound orbit: a parabola)
- Closest approach, perihelion, is given by  $\text{perihelion} = (1-e) * a$
- Furthest approach, aphelion =  $(1+e) * a$
- -helion — Sun
- -gee — Earth
- -astron — Star



NASA

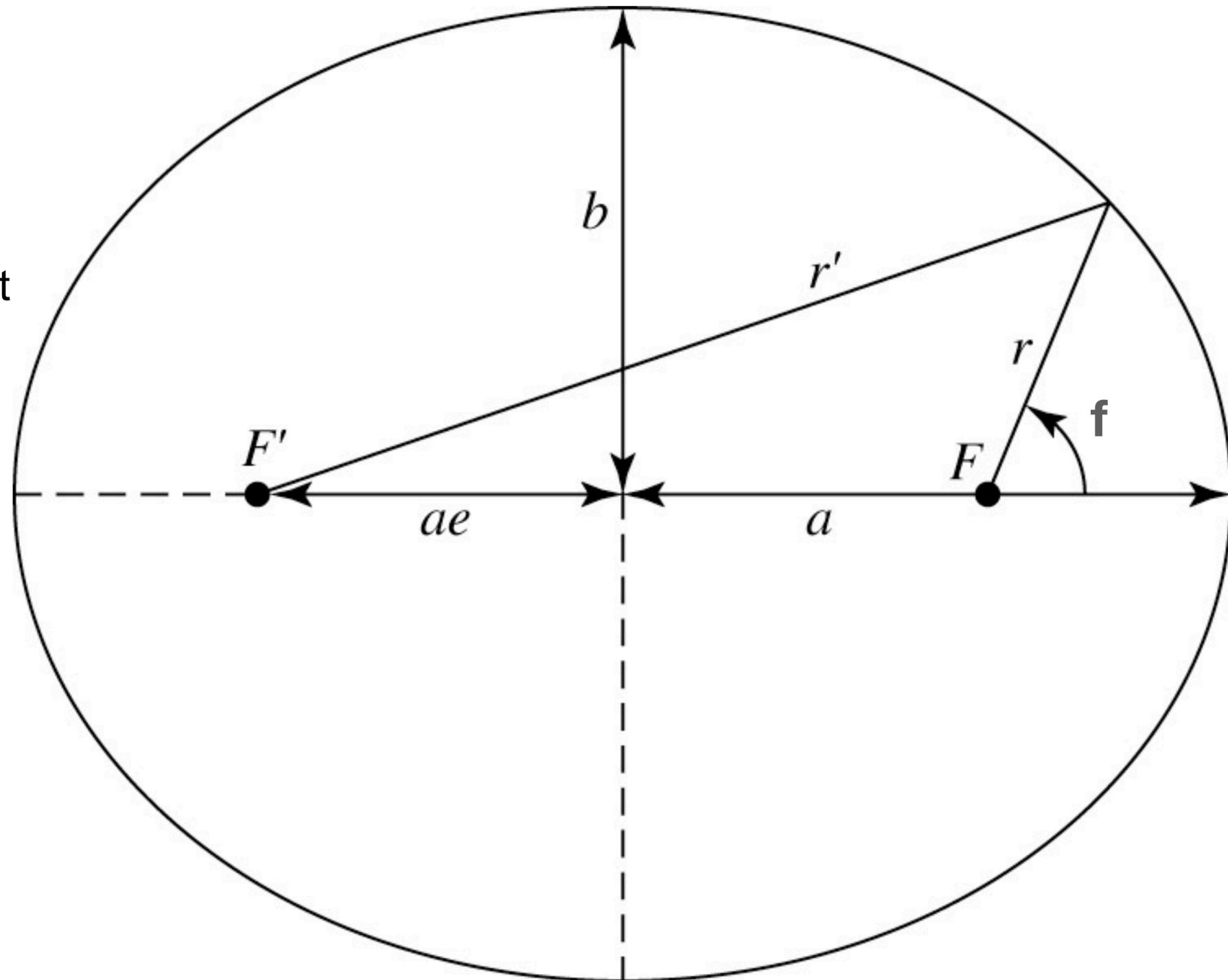
# Eccentricity

Body	Closest approach	Farthest approach
General	Periapsis/Pericentre	Apoapsis
<a href="#">Galaxy</a>	Perigalacticon	Apogalacticon
<a href="#">Star</a>	Periastron	Apastron
<a href="#">Black hole</a>	Perinigricon	Aponigricon
<a href="#">Sun</a>	Perihelion	Aphelion
<a href="#">Mercury</a>	Perihermion	Apohermion
<a href="#">Venus</a>	Perikrition	Apokrition
<a href="#">Earth</a>	Perigee	Apogee
<a href="#">Moon</a>	Perilune	Apolune
<a href="#">Mars</a>	Periareion	Apoareion
<a href="#">Jupiter</a>	Perizene/Perijove	Apozene/Apojove
<a href="#">Saturn</a>	Perikrone/Perisaturnium	Apokrone/Aposaturnium
<a href="#">Uranus</a>	Periuranion	Apouranion
<a href="#">Neptune</a>	Periposeidon	Apoposeidon
<a href="#">Pluto</a>	Perihadion	Apohadion

# Ellipses

- The set of points where the distance from one focus, to that point, to the other focus is equal defines the ellipse
- True anomaly ( $f$ ): angle in the plane of the orbit, between periastron, the central star, and the current position of the planet
- Current planet/star separation:

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

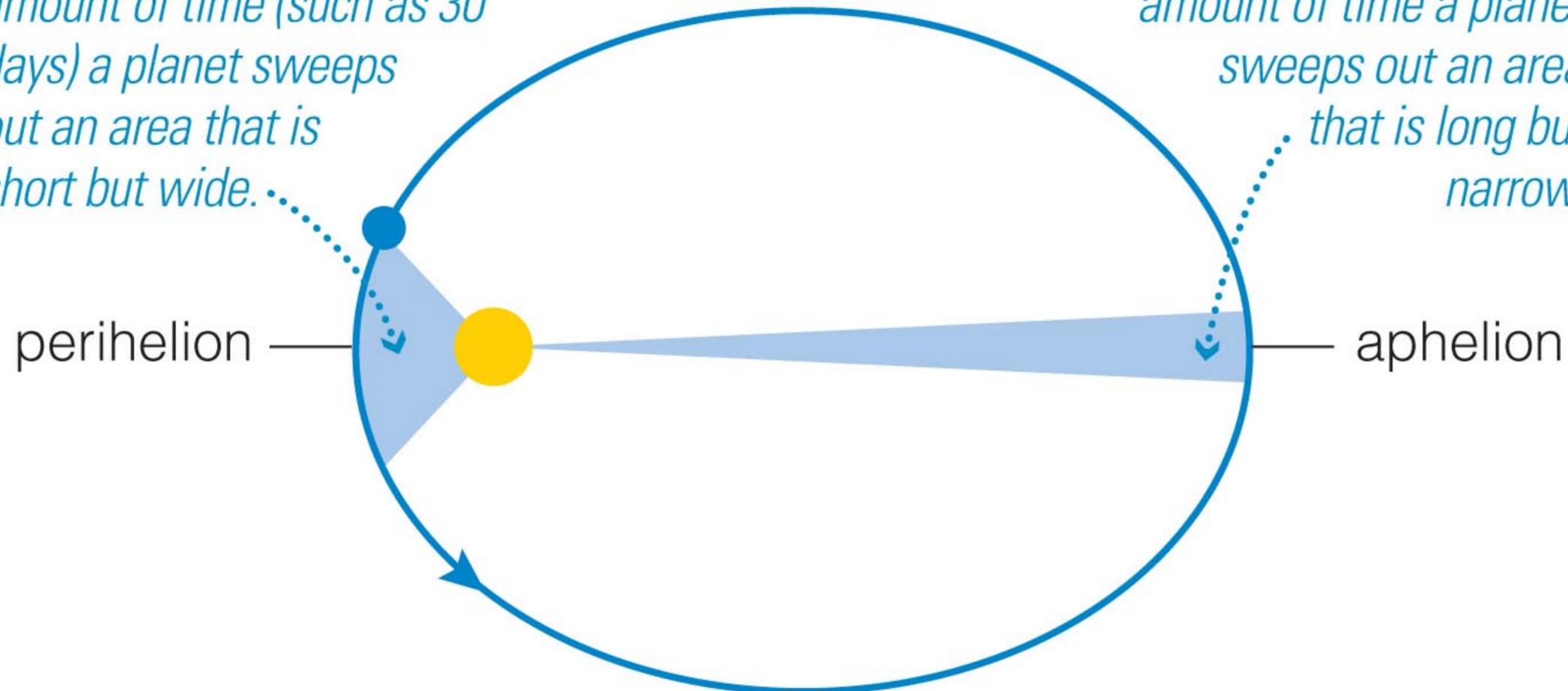


# Kepler's Second Law

- As a planet moves around its orbit, it sweeps out equal areas in equal times.
- This means that a planet travels faster when it is nearer to the Sun and slower when it is farther from the Sun.
- Angular momentum ( $m * v * r$ ) is conserved.

*Near perihelion, in any particular amount of time (such as 30 days) a planet sweeps out an area that is short but wide.*

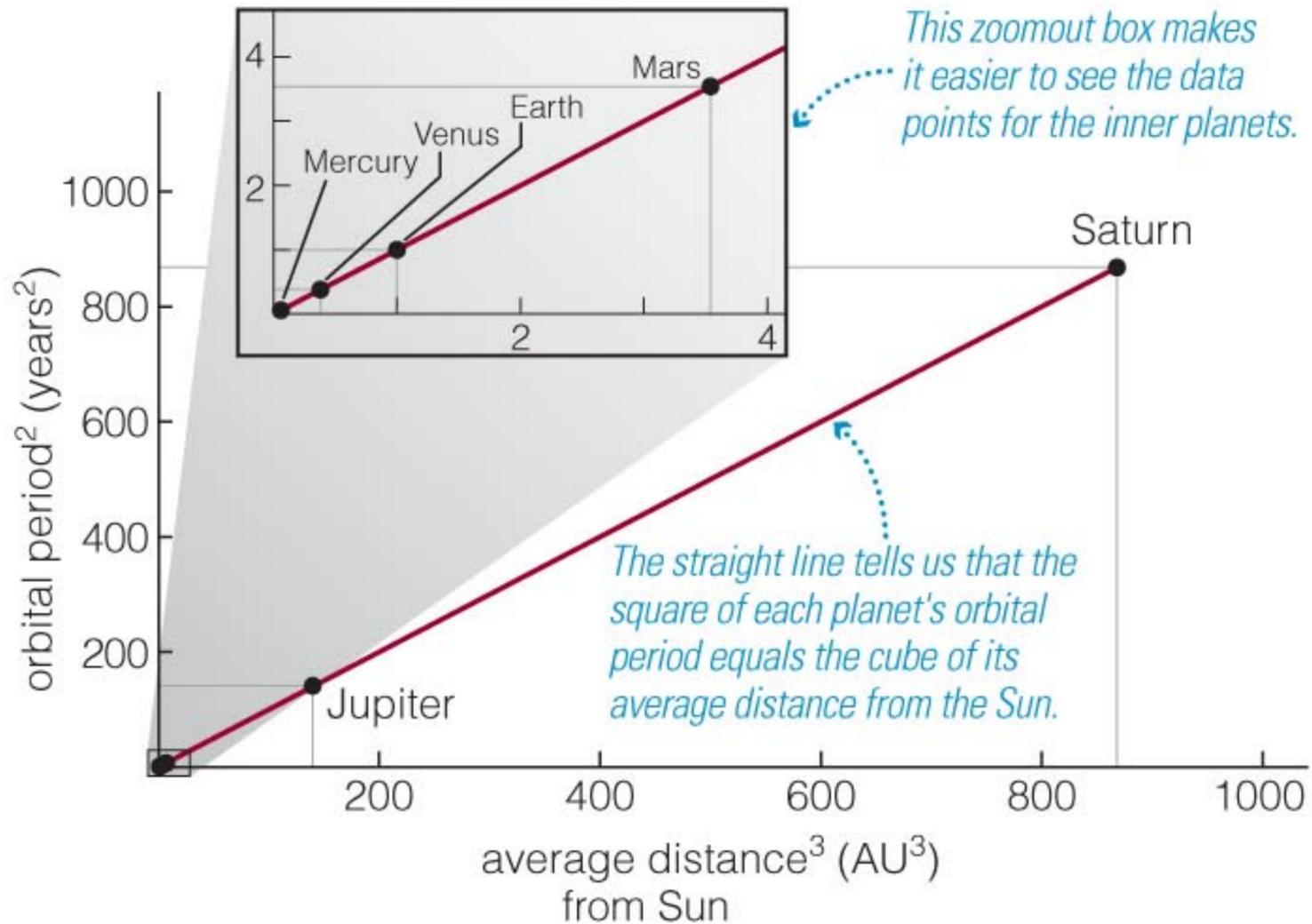
*Near aphelion, in the same amount of time a planet sweeps out an area that is long but narrow.*



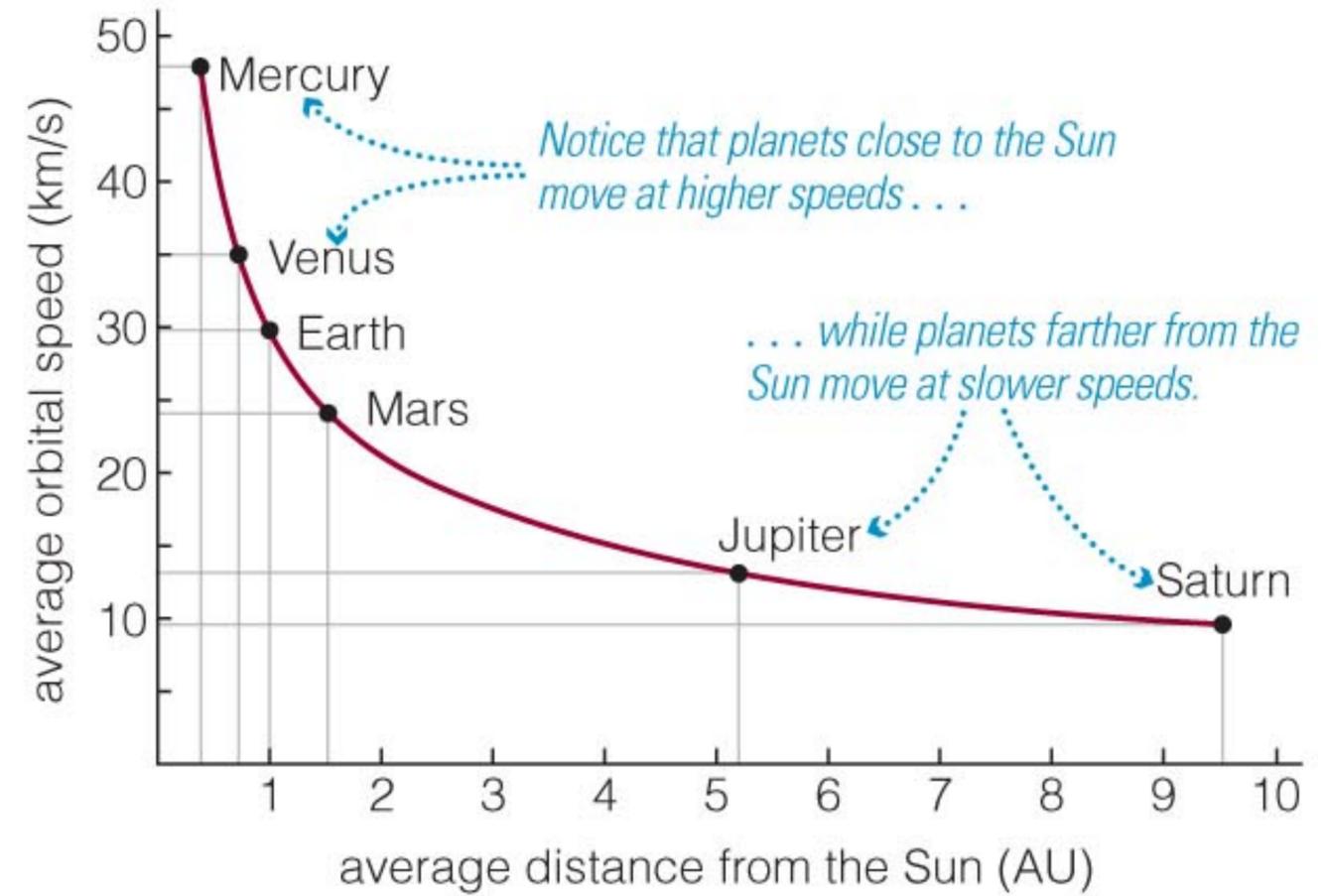
# Kepler's Third Law

- More distant planets orbit the Sun at slower average speeds, obeying the relationship
- $p^2 = a^3$
- $p$  = orbital period in years
- $a$  = average distance from Sun in AU
- Astronomical Unit (AU): semi-major axis of the Earth's orbit around the Sun

# Kepler's Third Law

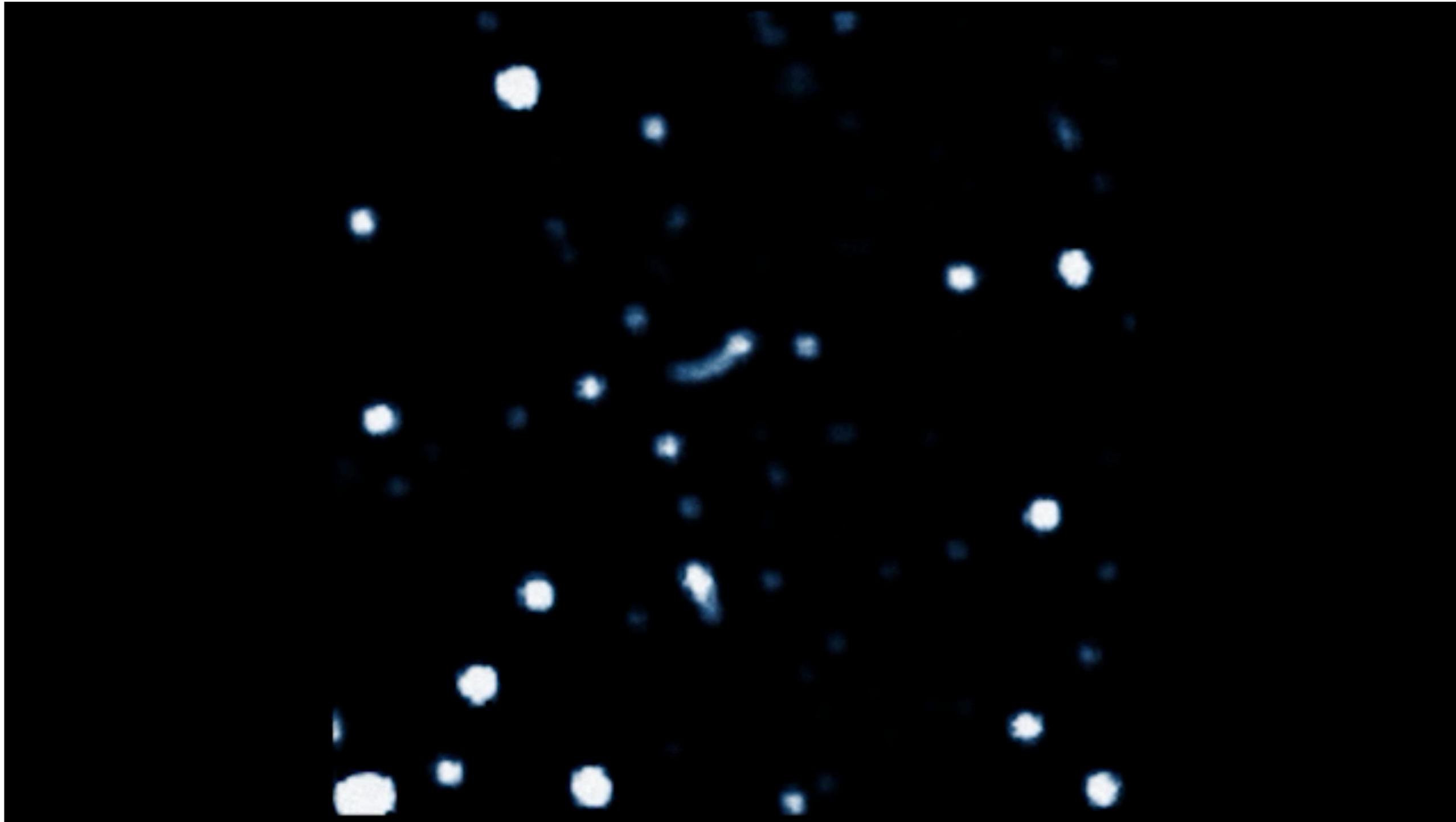


**a** This graph shows that Kepler's third law ( $p^2 = a^3$ ) holds true; the graph shows only the planets known in Kepler's time.

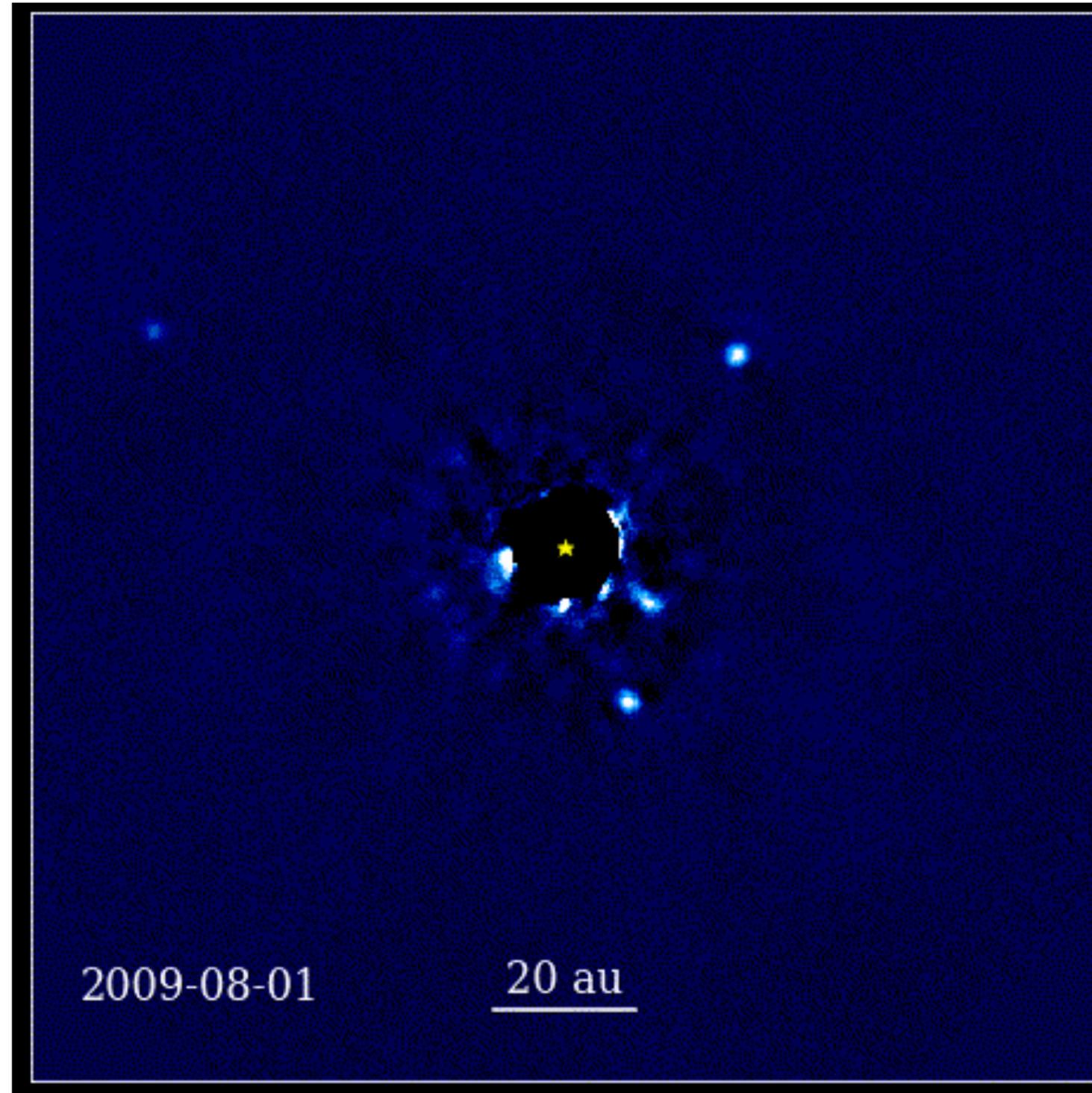


**b** This graph, based on Kepler's third law and modern values of planetary distances, shows that more distant planets orbit the Sun more slowly.

# Kepler's Laws and Black Holes



# Kepler's Laws and Exoplanets



Movie from Jason Wang and Christian Marois

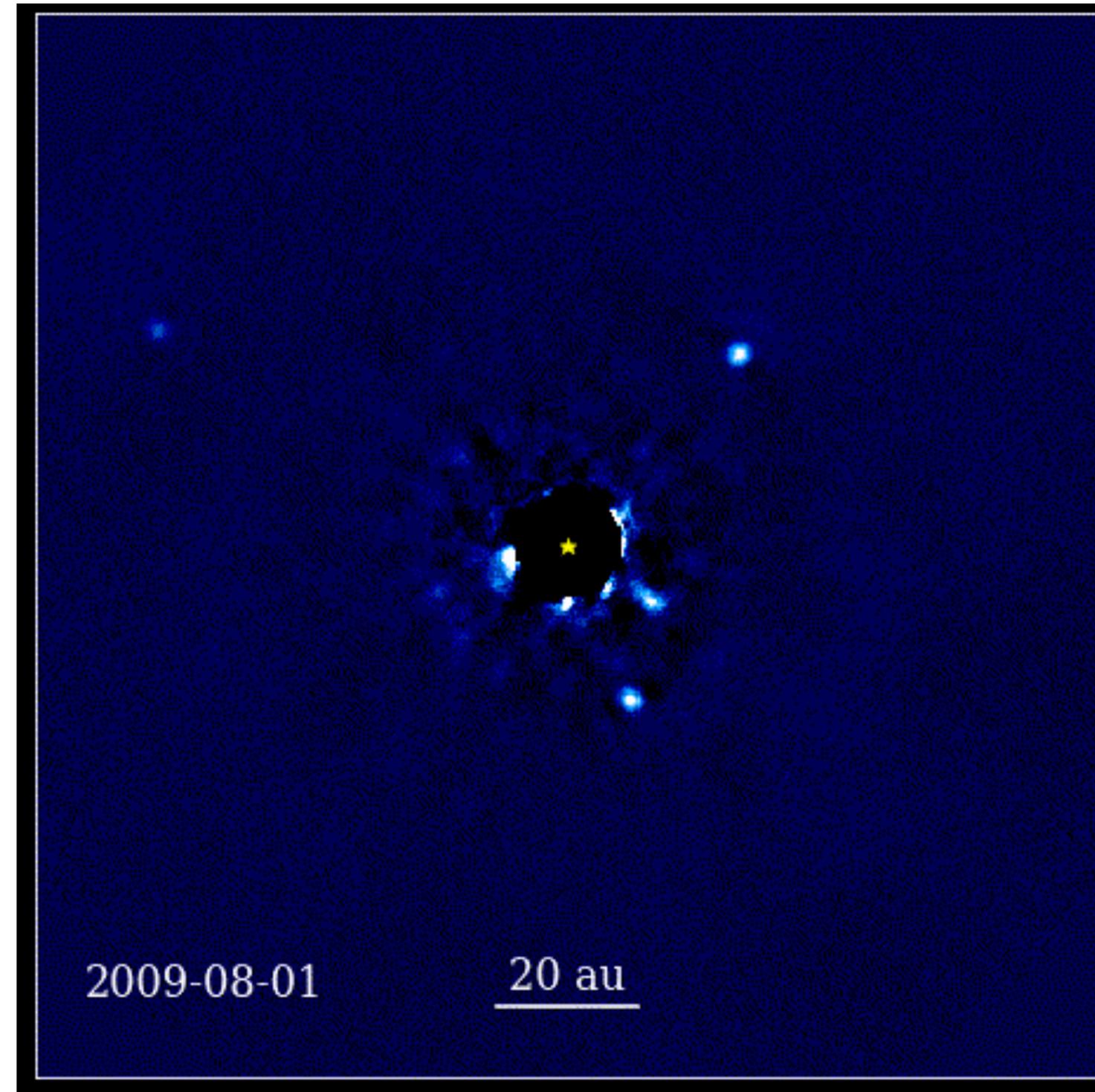
# Newton Derives Kepler's Laws

- Needed to invent calculus to solve the “two body problem”
  - Combining Newton's 3 laws with the law of universal gravitation resulted in Kepler's 3 laws
- Kepler's third law, specific to objects orbiting the Sun:

$$P^2 = a^3 \text{ (P in years, a in AU)}$$

- Newton's version of Kepler's third law, can be applied to any orbit:

$$P^2 = \frac{4\pi^2 a^3}{GM_{total}}$$



Movie from Jason Wang and Christian Marois

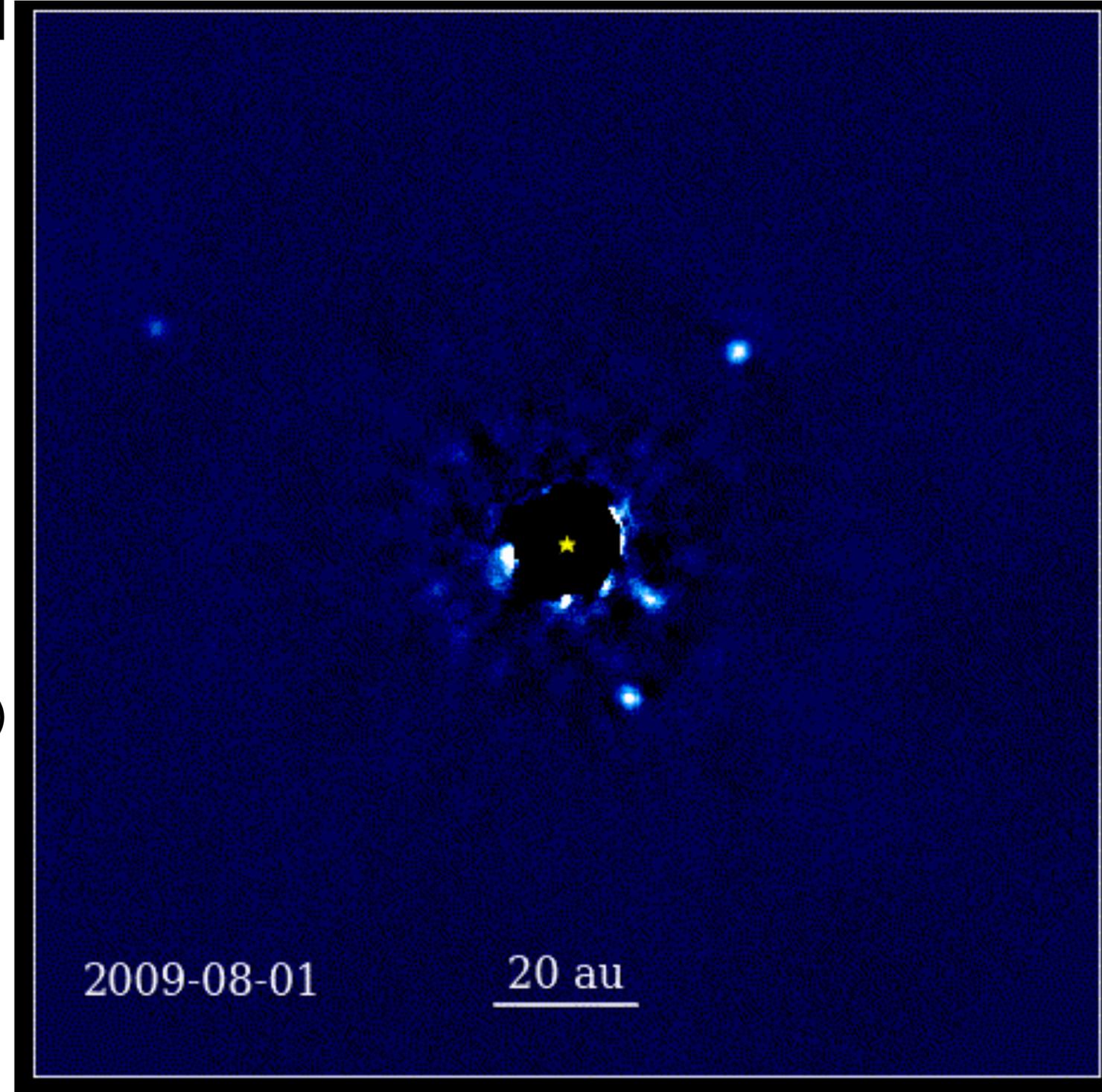
# Newton's Version of Kepler's Third Law

- Newton's version of Kepler's third law, dumb units:

$$P^2 = \frac{4\pi^2 a^3}{GM_{total}}$$

- Newton's version of Kepler's third law, smarter units:

$$P^2 = \frac{a^3}{M_{total}} \quad (\text{P in years, } a \text{ in AU, } M_{total} \text{ in solar masses})$$



Movie from Jason Wang and Christian Marois

# In-Class Activity

## Order of Magnitude

- $$P^2 = \frac{a^3}{M_{total}}$$
 (P in years, a in AU,  $M_{total}$  in solar masses)

- (1) If Earth orbited Jupiter at 1 AU, instead of orbiting the Sun, what would Earth's orbital period be?
- (2) Io orbits Jupiter with a period of 42 hours. What is the semi-major axis of Io, in AU?
- (3) What is the speed of Io in its orbit around Jupiter, in km/s? (hint: Io's orbital eccentricity is very, very small)



# In-Class Activity

## Order of Magnitude

- (1) Jupiter has about 1/1000 ( $10^{-3}$ ) the mass of the Sun, so in solar masses:  $10^{-3}$

- $P^2 = \frac{a^3}{M}$       So plugging in M and a=1 AU:       $P = \sqrt{\frac{a^3}{M}} = \sqrt{\frac{1^3}{10^{-3}}} = \sqrt{10^3} = 30 \text{ years}$

- (2) 42 hours = 48 hours = 2 days =  $2/365$  years =  $1/180 = 5 \times 10^{-3}$  years

$$a = (P^2 M)^{\frac{1}{3}} = ((5 \times 10^{-3})^2 * 10^{-3})^{\frac{1}{3}} = (25 \times 10^{-9})^{\frac{1}{3}} = 3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ AU}$$

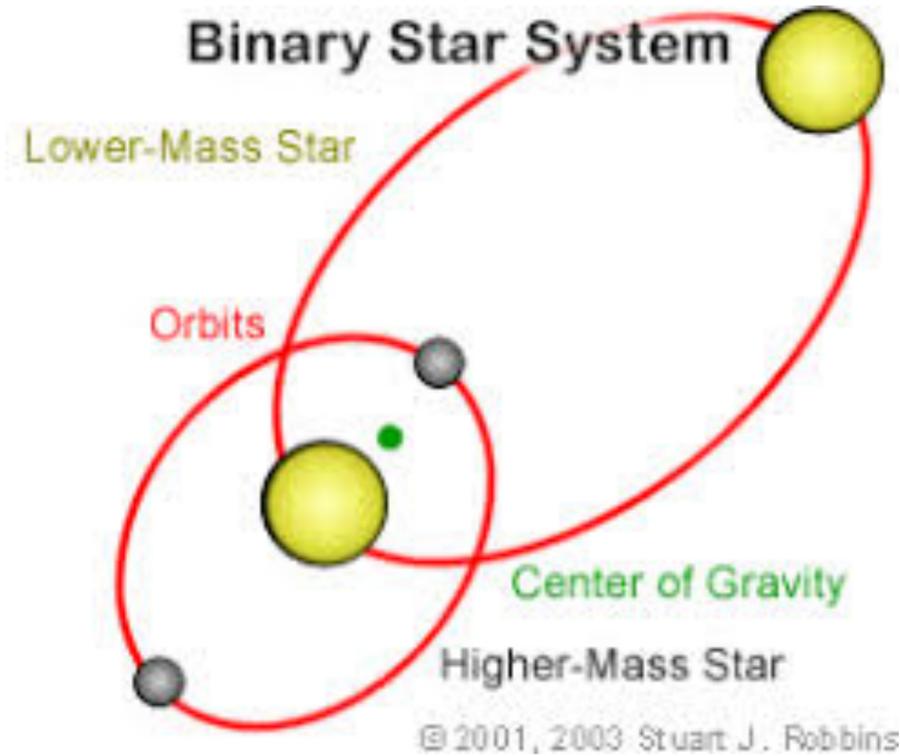
- (3) 1 AU =  $1.5 \times 10^{13}$  cm =  $1.5 \times 10^8$  km      1 year =  $3 \times 10^7$  seconds      Circumference of orbit:  $2\pi a$

$$v = \frac{2\pi a}{P} = \frac{2\pi * 3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ AU} * \frac{1.5 \times 10^8 \text{ km}}{1 \text{ AU}}}{5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ year} * \frac{3 \times 10^7 \text{ s}}{1 \text{ year}}} = \frac{10 * 10^{-3} 10^8 \text{ km}}{10 \times 10^{-3} \times 10^7 \text{ s}} = \frac{10^6 \text{ km}}{10^5 \text{ s}} = 10 \text{ km/s}$$

# Center of Mass

- Really, both objects in an orbit move around their common center of mass
- The two ellipses have different semi-major axes, but the center of mass is at a focus of each

$$a_1 M_1 = a_2 M_2$$



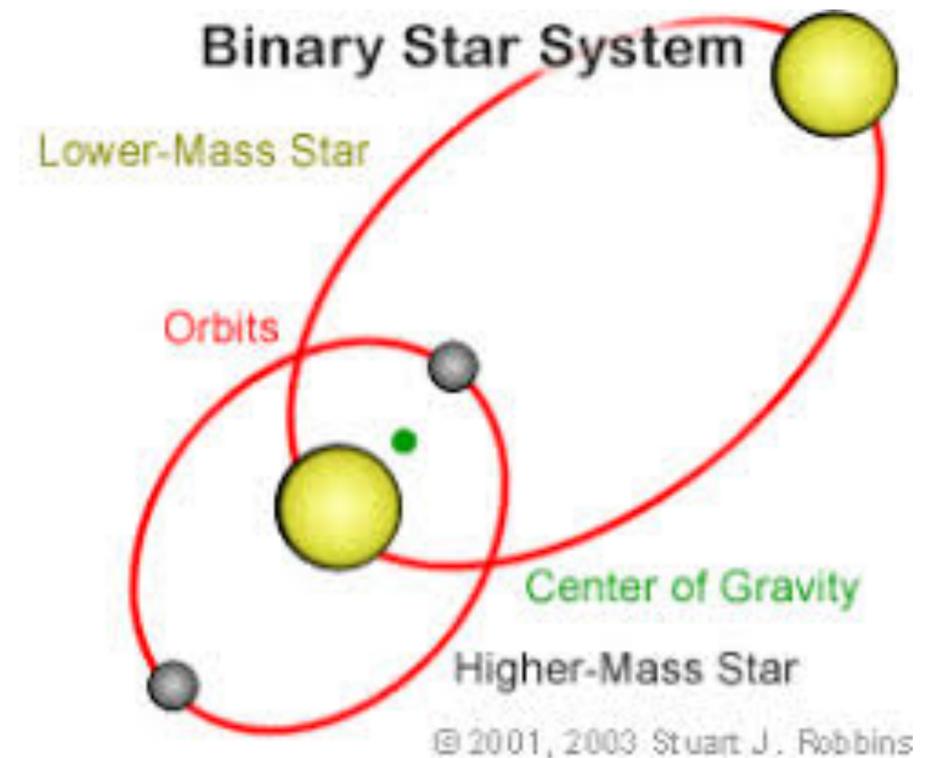
- The two orbits have the same period

# Response Card Question

- Two objects in orbit move in ellipses around their common center of mass, with semi-major axis  $a_1$  and  $a_2$ . Which semi-major axis do we plug into Kepler's third law,  $P^2 = \frac{a^3}{M_{total}}$ ?
- (A) — The semi-major axis of the more massive object:  $a_1$
- (B) — The semi-major axis of the less massive object:  $a_2$
- (C) — The sum of the two semi-major axes:  $a_1 + a_2$
- (D) — The average of the two semi-major axes:  $\frac{a_1 + a_2}{2}$

# Center of Mass

- For solar system objects and exoplanets, we typically measure distances as though the Sun (or central star) was fixed and not moving
- In this (non-inertial) reference frame, the orbit you measure is of the secondary moving about the primary
- The semi-major axis of the orbit in this reference frame is  $a_{tot} = a_1 + a_2$  (what we need for mass determinations)



$$P^2 = \frac{(a_1 + a_2)^3}{M_1 + M_2}$$

# Break

**05:00**

# Getting Masses with Kepler's Third Law

- $P^2 = \frac{a^3}{M_{total}}$  (P in years, a in AU,  $M_{total}$  in solar masses)

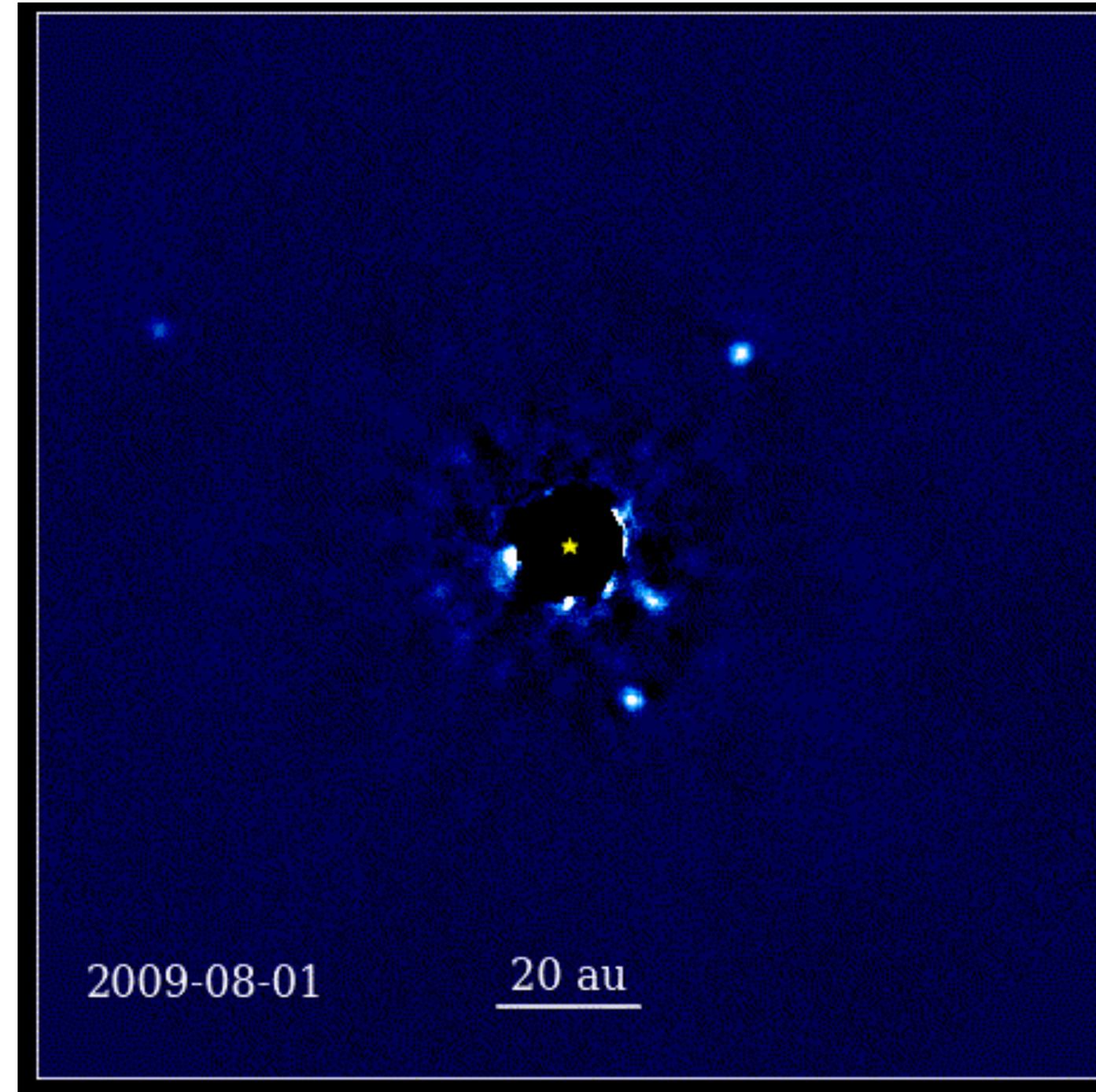
- If one mass is much larger than the other, we can approximate:

$$M_{total} = M_1 + M_2 \approx M_1$$

- Good cases to use that approximation:

$$\frac{M_{Earth}}{M_{Sun}} = 3 \times 10^{-6}$$

$$\frac{M_{Cassini}}{M_{Saturn}} = 10^{-23}$$



Movie from Jason Wang and Christian Marois

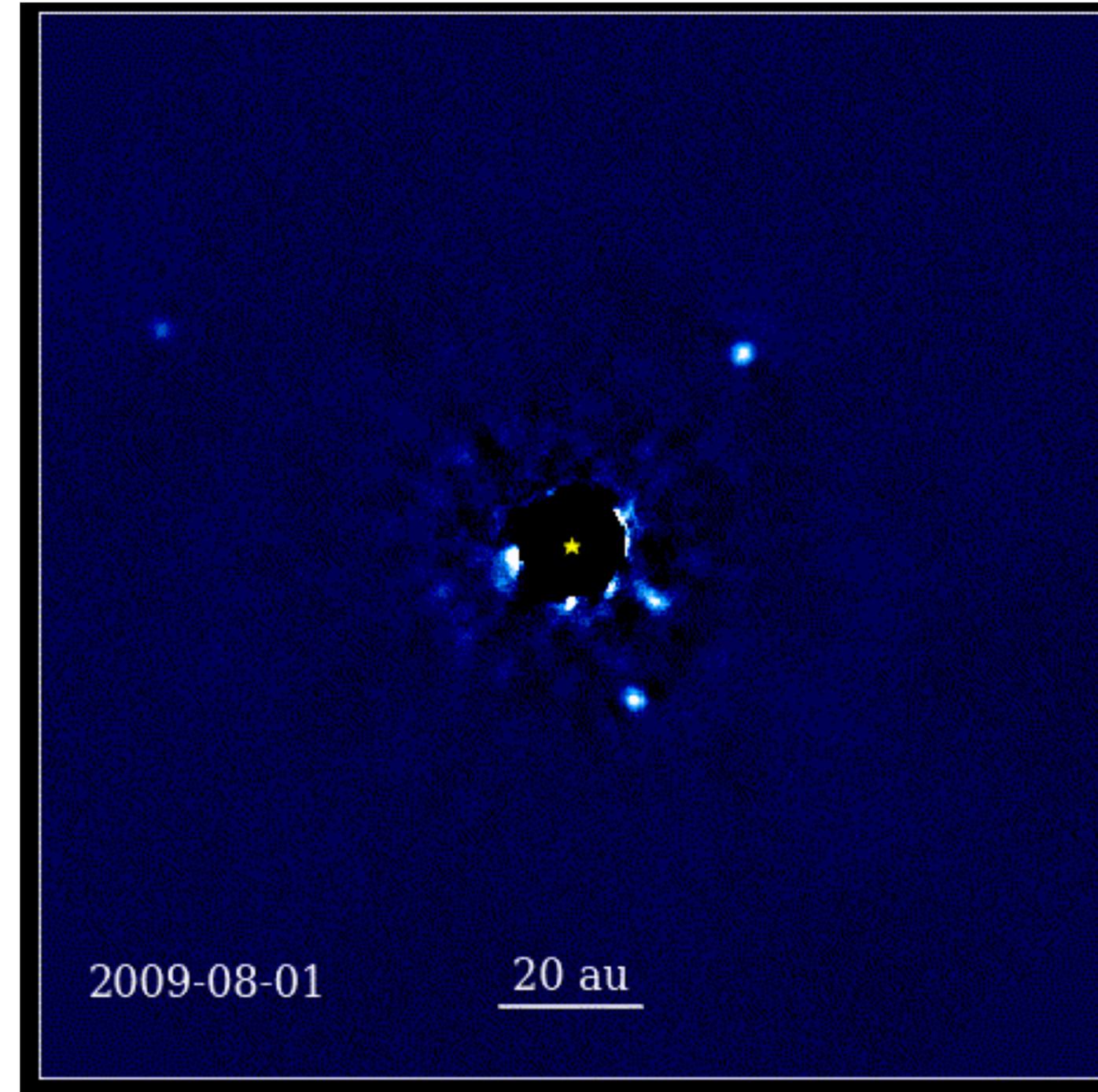
# Getting Masses with Kepler's Third Law

- Not so good cases:

$$\frac{M_{Moon}}{M_{Earth}} = 10^{-2}$$

$$\frac{M_{Charon}}{M_{Pluto}} = 10^{-1}$$

- In these cases, can use other data than relative (total) semi-major axis and period:
  - radial velocity of one of the bodies
  - absolute astrometry of one of the bodies

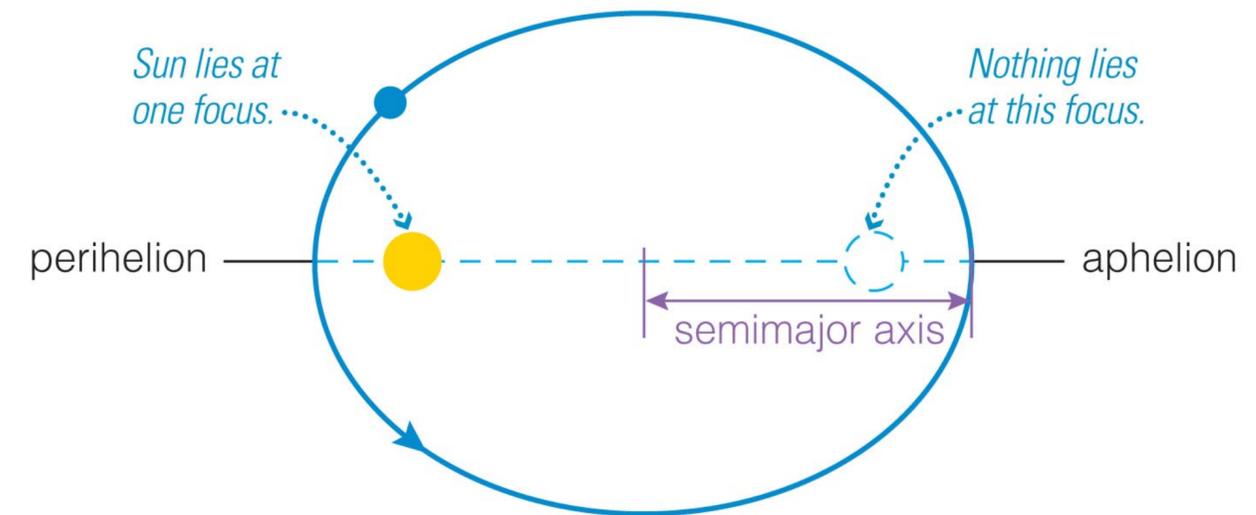


Movie from Jason Wang and Christian Marois

# Response Card Question

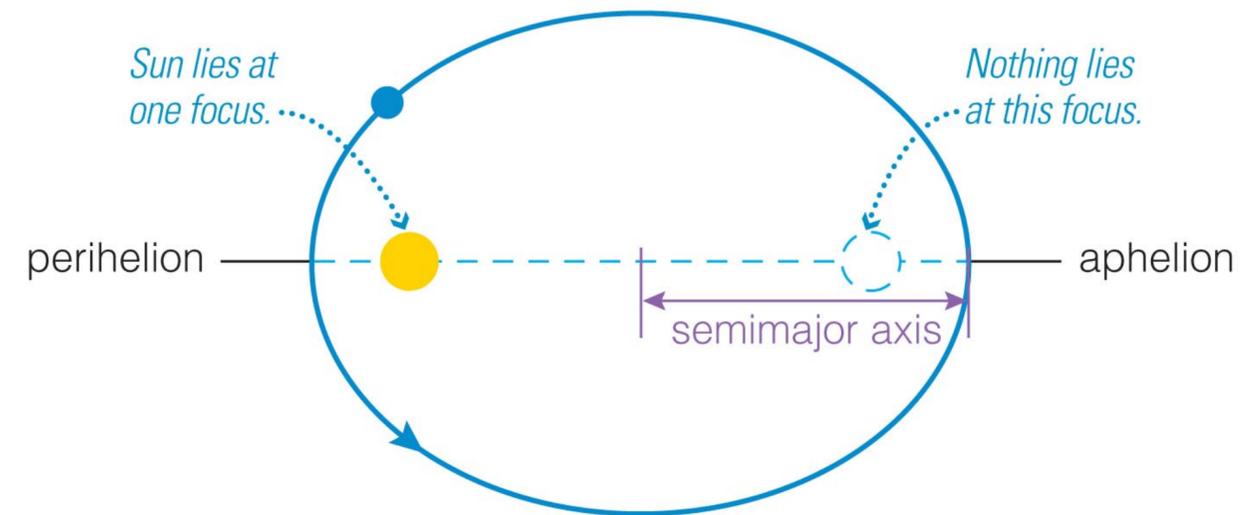
- If an Earth-mass planet had a semi-major axis of 1 AU, but orbited a 4 solar mass star, what would its orbital period be? (hint:  $P^2 = \frac{a^3}{M_{total}}$ )
  - (A) — 4 years
  - (B) — 2 years
  - (C) — 1 year
  - (D) — 0.5 years
  - (E) — 0.25 years

# Orbital elements



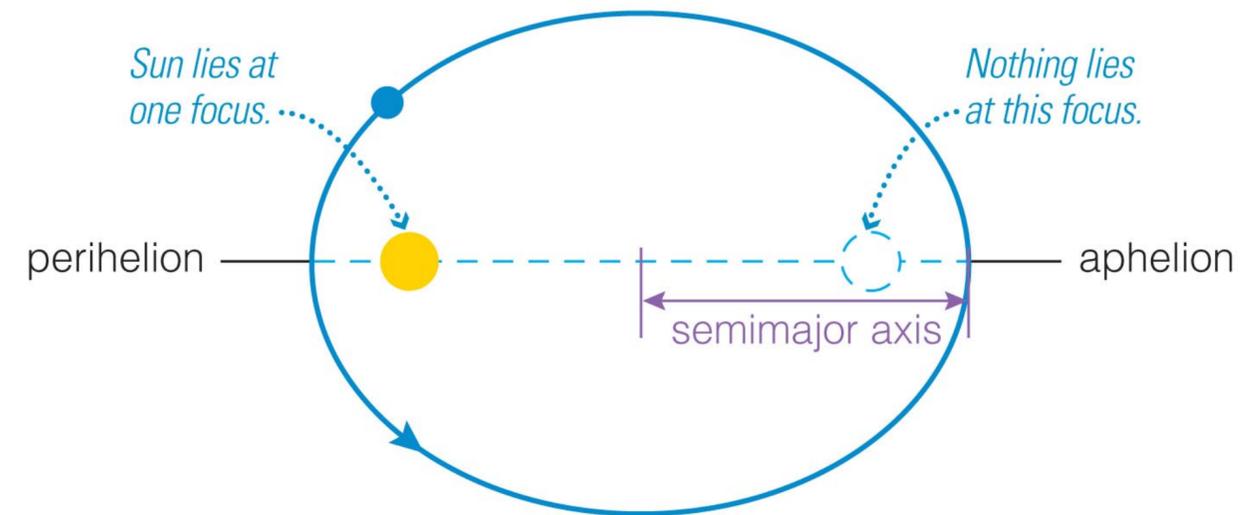
# Orbital elements

**semi-major axis (a)**



# Orbital elements

**semi-major axis (a)**  
**eccentricity (e)**

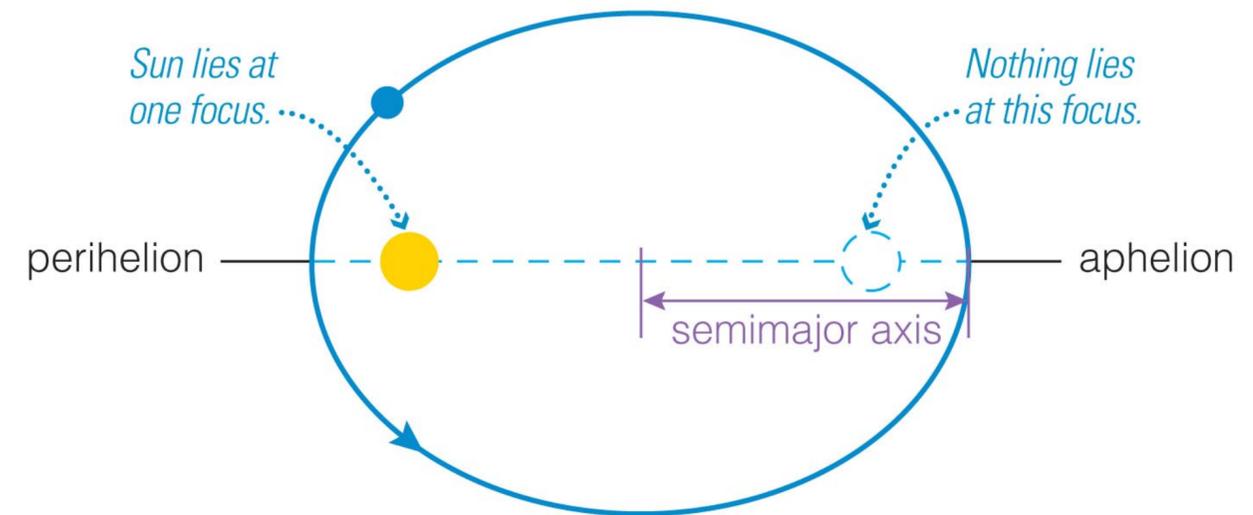


# Orbital elements

**semi-major axis (a)**

**eccentricity (e)**

**Period (P)**



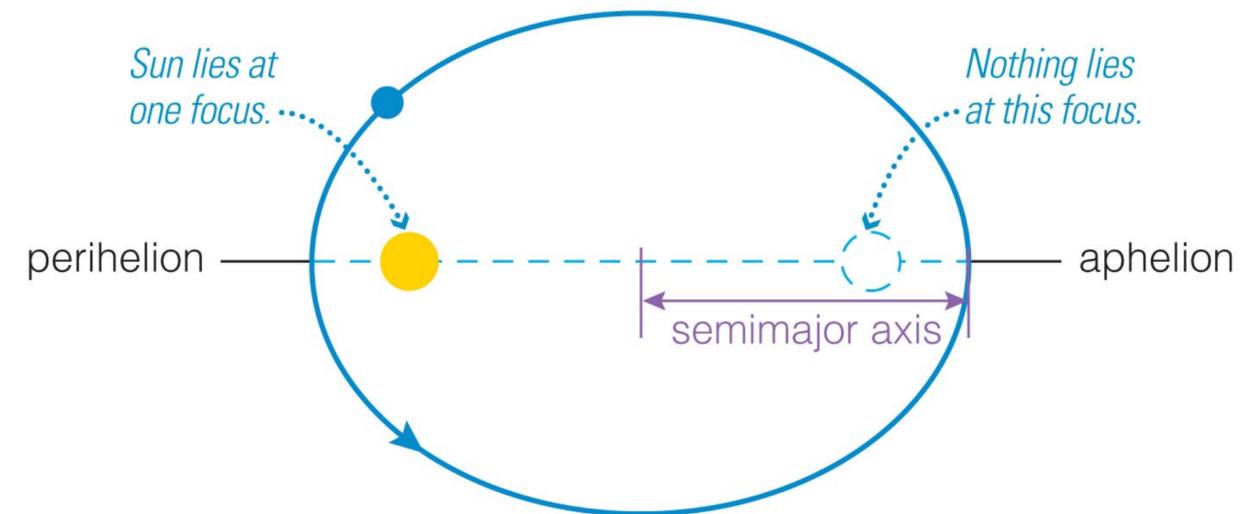
# Orbital elements

**semi-major axis (a)**

**eccentricity (e)**

**Period (P)**

**Epoch of Periastron Passage ( $T_0$ )**



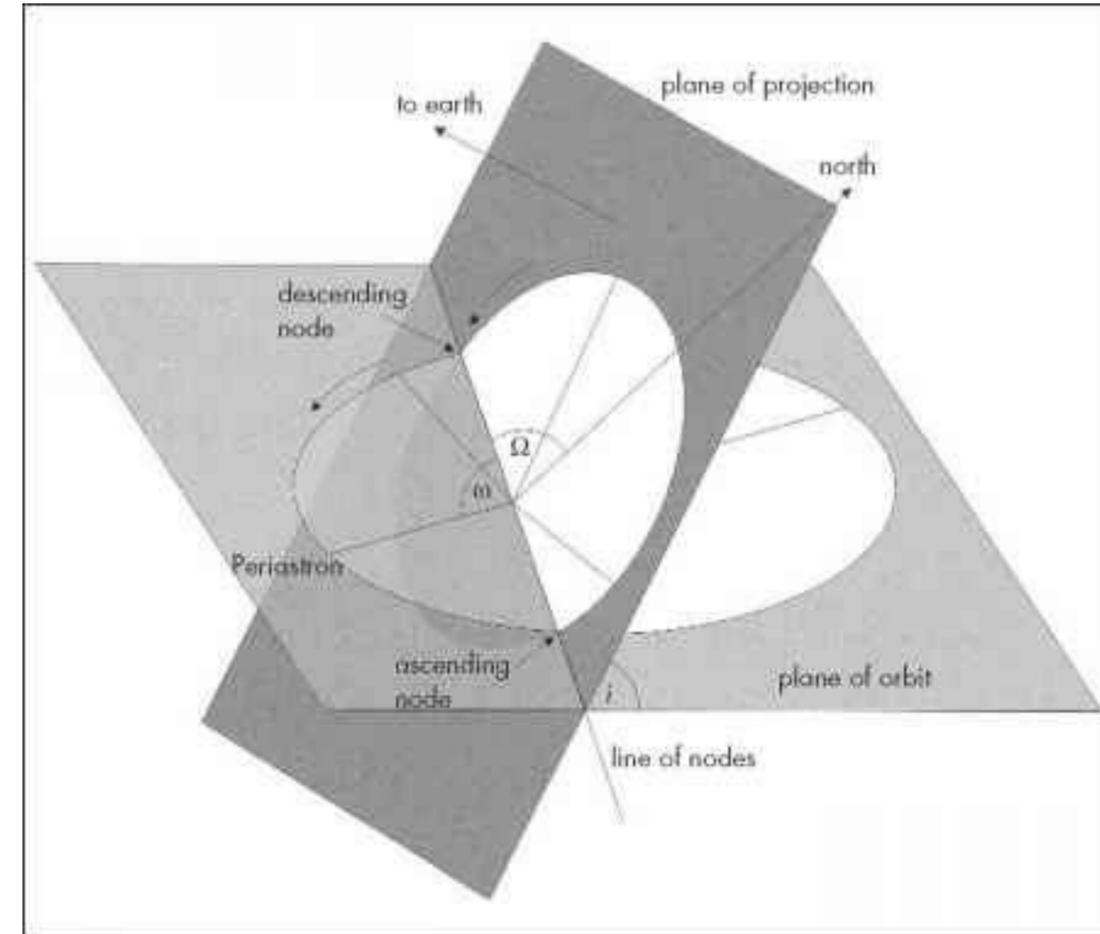
# Orbital elements

**semi-major axis (a)**

**eccentricity (e)**

**Period (P)**

**Epoch of Periastron Passage ( $T_0$ )**



# Orbital elements

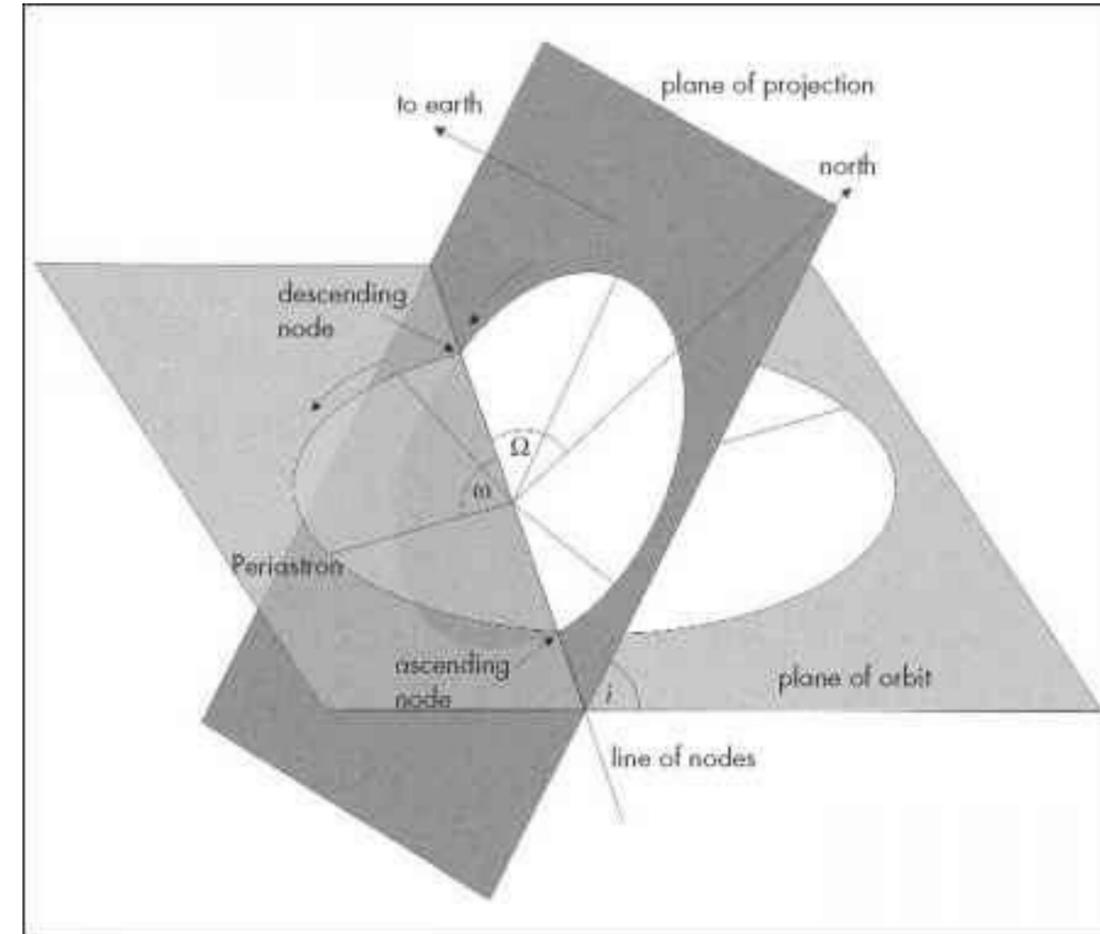
**semi-major axis (a)**

**eccentricity (e)**

**Period (P)**

**Epoch of Periastron Passage ( $T_0$ )**

**Inclination Angle (i)**



# Orbital elements

**semi-major axis (a)**

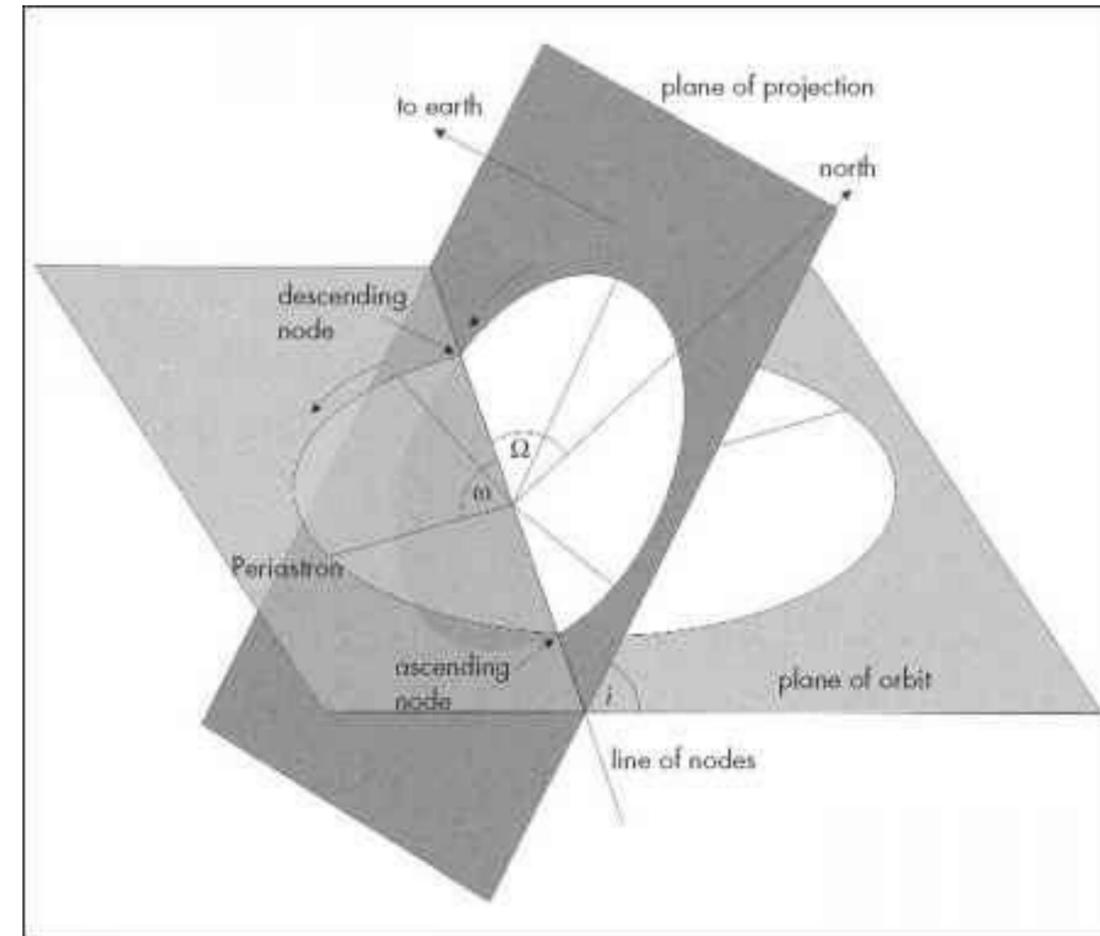
**eccentricity (e)**

**Period (P)**

**Epoch of Periastron Passage ( $T_0$ )**

**Inclination Angle (i)**

**Position Angle of Nodes ( $\Omega$ )**



# Orbital elements

**semi-major axis (a)**

**eccentricity (e)**

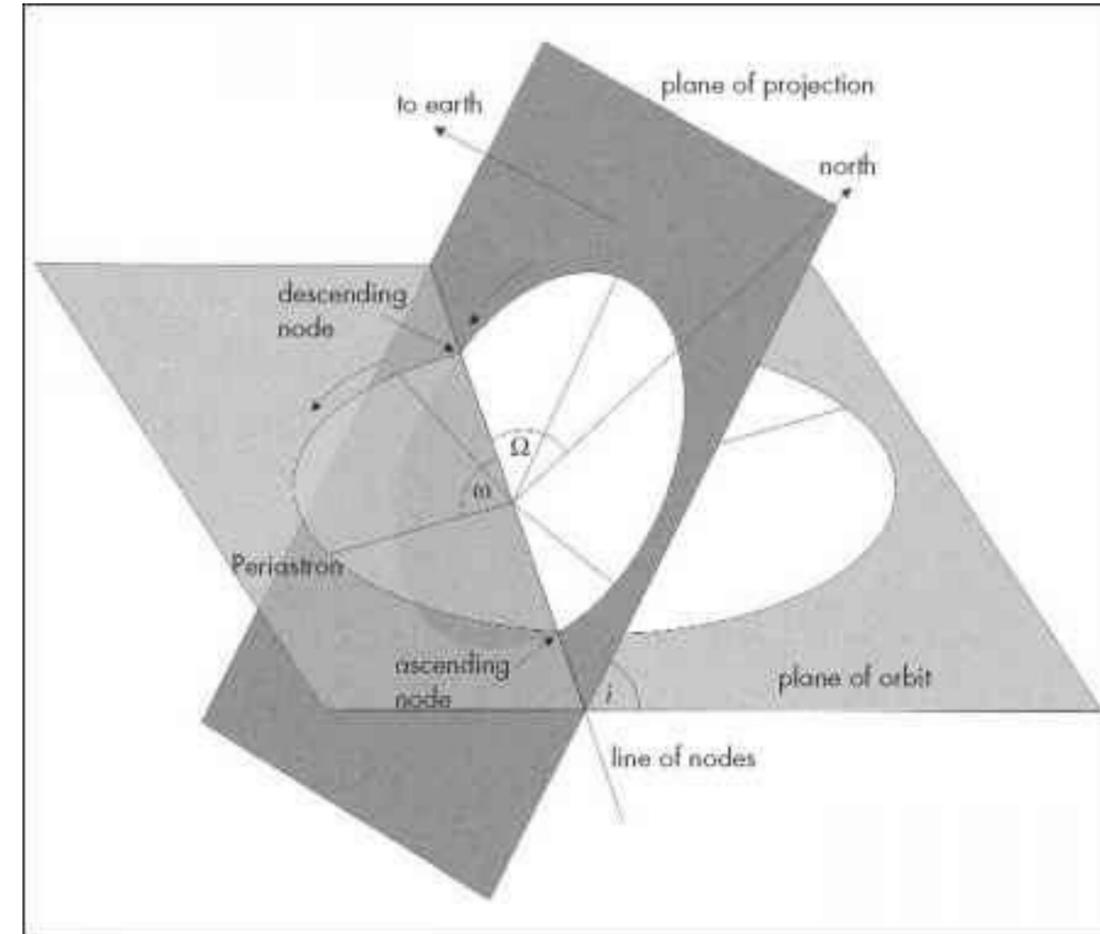
**Period (P)**

**Epoch of Periastron Passage ( $T_0$ )**

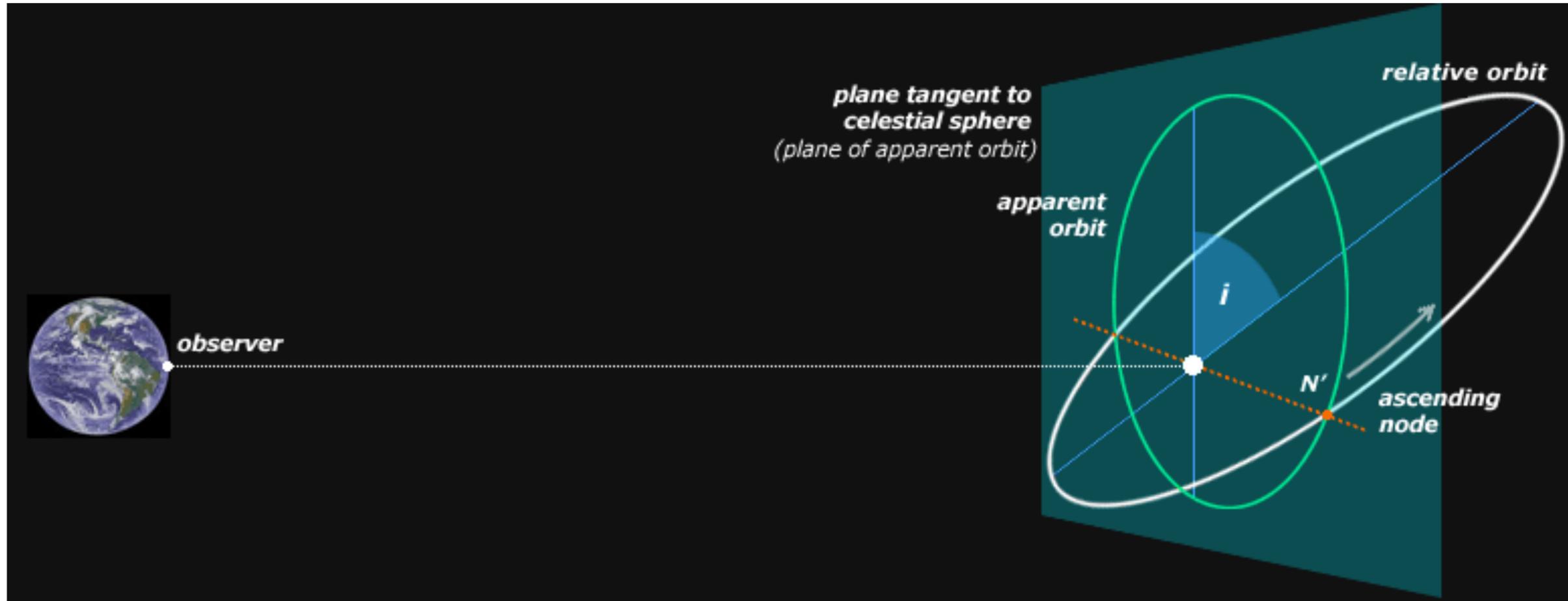
**Inclination Angle (i)**

**Position Angle of Nodes ( $\Omega$ )**

**Argument of Periastron ( $\omega$ )**

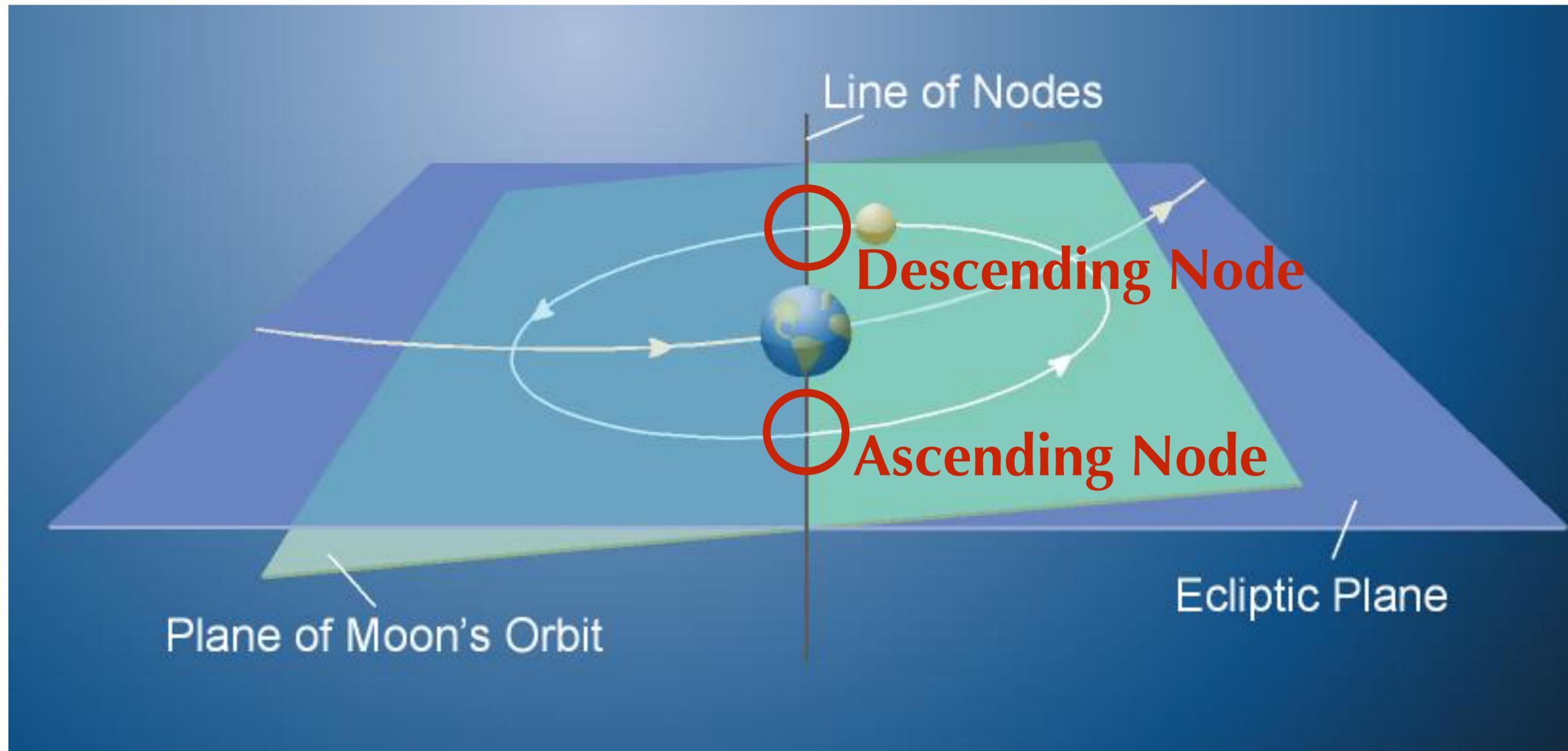


# Orbits outside our Solar System



- Inclination angle measured with respect to the plane of the sky
- Position Angle of Nodes given in the plane of the sky, east of north

# Orbits inside our Solar System



- Inclination angle for objects orbiting the Sun is measured with respect to the ecliptic plane (Earth's orbital plane around the Sun)
- For objects orbiting solar system planets (moons, spacecraft), inclination angle is with respect to the planet's equator
- Position Angle of Nodes given in the plane of the ecliptic, with respect to the vernal point (also where  $RA=0$ )

# Circular Velocity

- If we assume a planet is much less massive than the star (a good assumption), then for a circular orbit acceleration

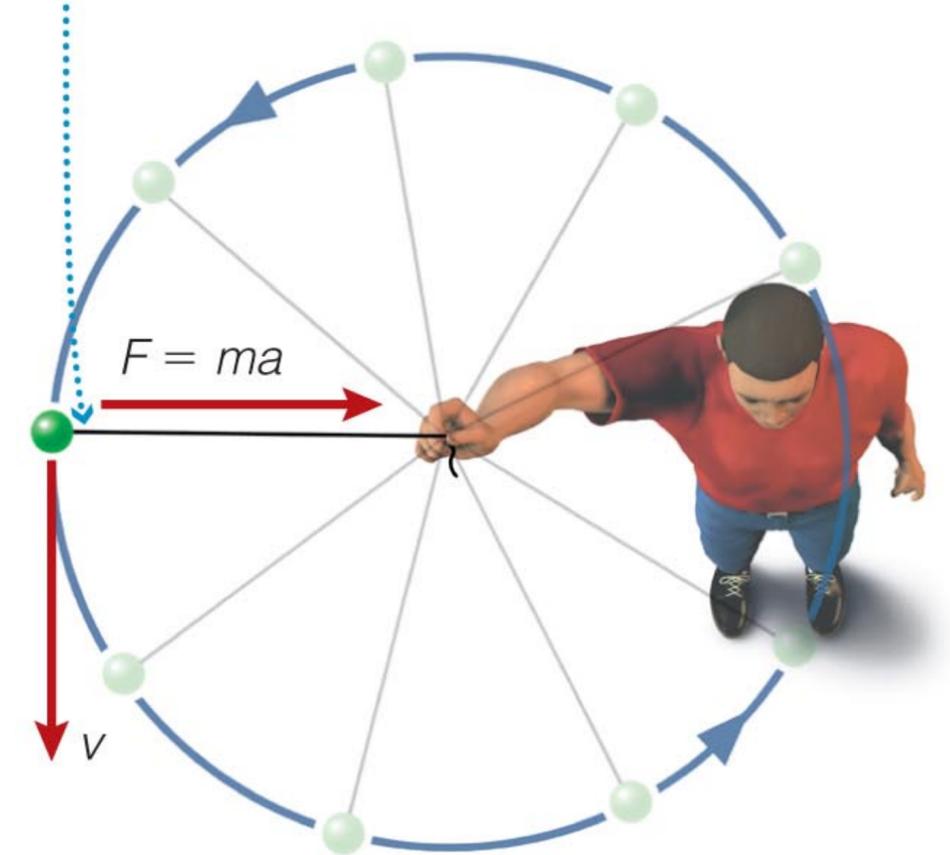
has to equal  $\frac{v^2}{R}$

$$F = ma = \frac{GMm}{R^2}$$

$$\frac{mv^2}{R} = \frac{GMm}{R^2}$$

$$v_c = \sqrt{\frac{GM}{R}} \quad \text{for a circular orbit, } R=a: v_c = \sqrt{\frac{GM}{a}}$$

*The inward force along the string keeps the ball moving in a circle.*



a When you swing a ball on a string, the string exerts a force that pulls the ball inward.

# Energy Conservation: Orbits

- An orbiting object has two types of energy: gravitational potential energy and kinetic energy. Total energy (PE + KE) is conserved

- PE (per unit mass of orbiting object):  $-\frac{GM_{\odot}}{r}$

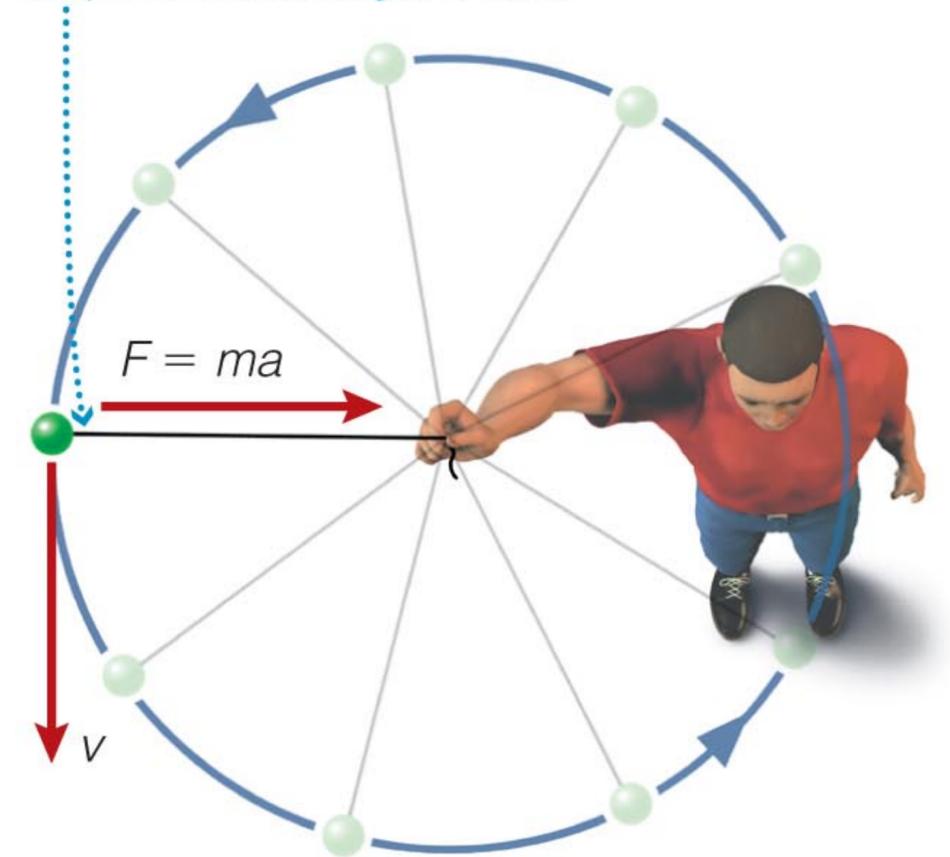
- KE (per unit mass of orbiting object):  $\frac{1}{2}v^2$

- For a circular orbit,  $v^2 = \frac{GM}{a}$

- Total energy for a circular orbit:

$$E = \frac{1}{2}v^2 - \frac{GM_{\odot}}{a} = \frac{GM_{\odot}}{2a} - \frac{GM_{\odot}}{a} = -\frac{GM_{\odot}}{2a}$$

*The inward force along the string keeps the ball moving in a circle.*



a When you swing a ball on a string, the string exerts a force that pulls the ball inward.

# vis-viva Equation

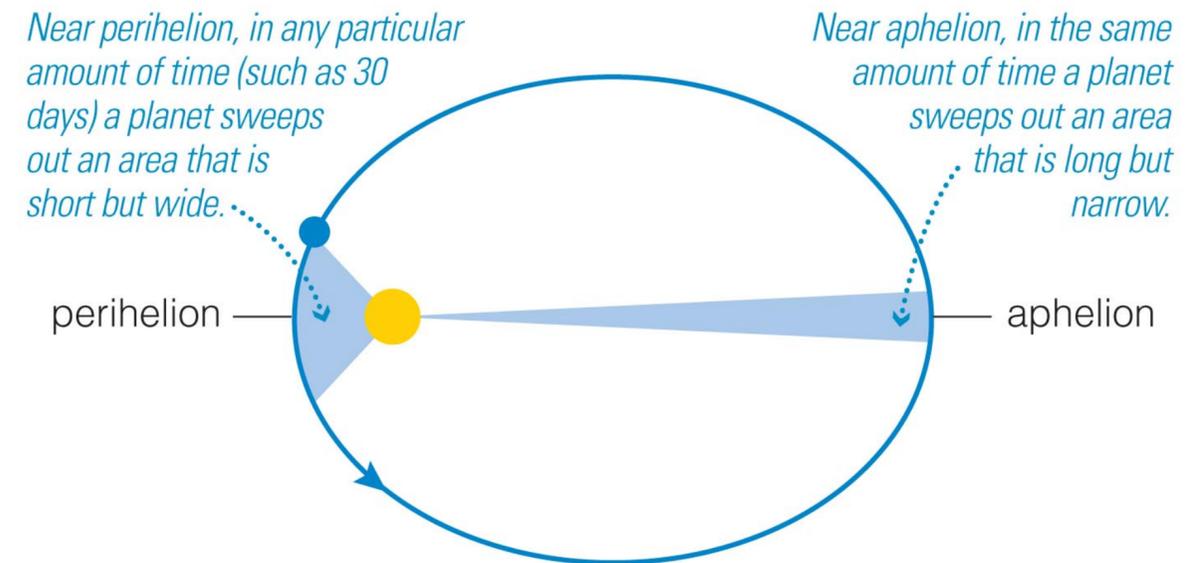
- For an elliptical orbit, velocity changes as a function of distance from the central star ( $r$ )
- Conserving energy, and using Kepler's second law, we get:

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

- Or, solving for  $v$ , we get the velocity at any point in an elliptical orbit:

$$v(r) = \sqrt{GM_{\odot} \left( \frac{2}{r} - \frac{1}{a} \right)}$$

vis-viva Equation



# Escape Velocity

- Going back to energy conservation:

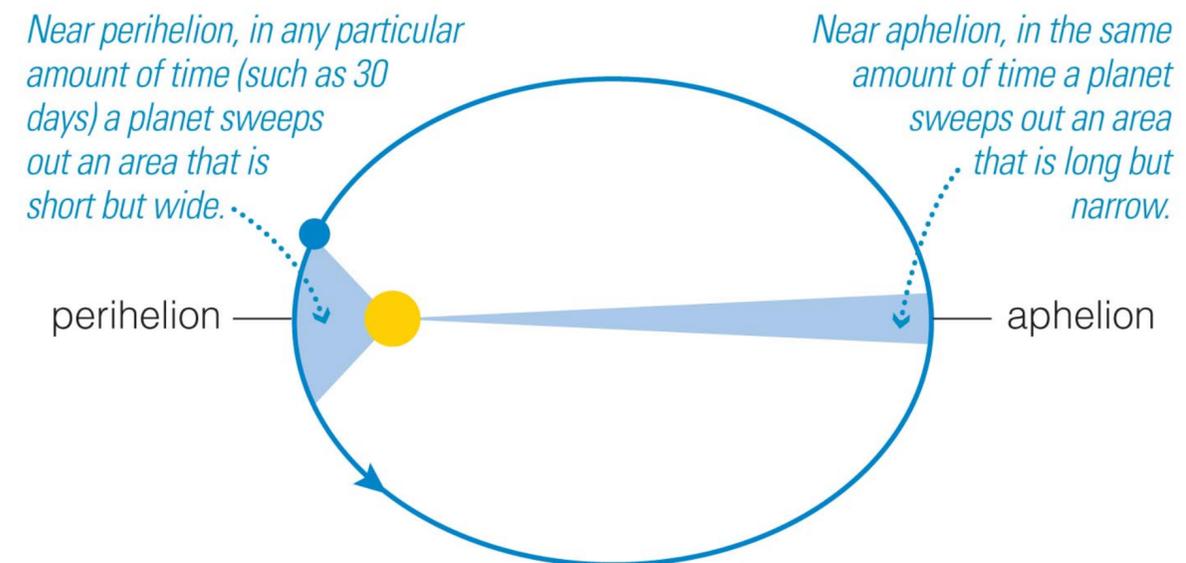
$$E = \text{constant} = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 - \frac{GM_{\odot}m}{r}$$

- If  $E < 0$ , the object is **bound**. If  $E \geq 0$ , the object is **unbound**.

- Setting  $E=0$ , and solving for  $v$ , we get the escape velocity (as a function of distance):

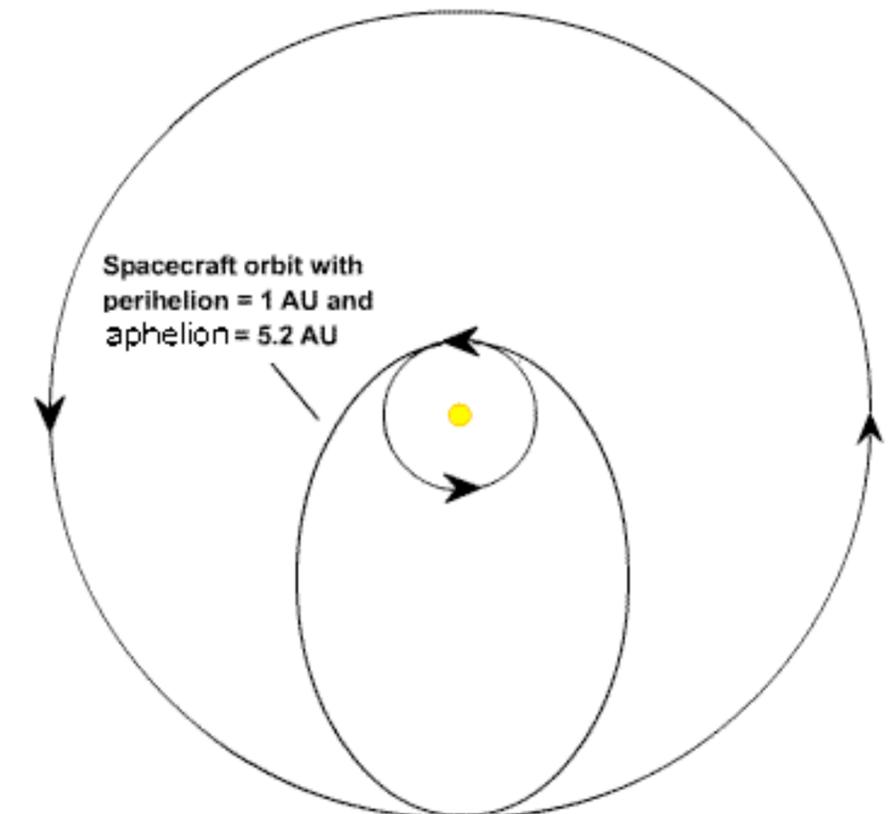
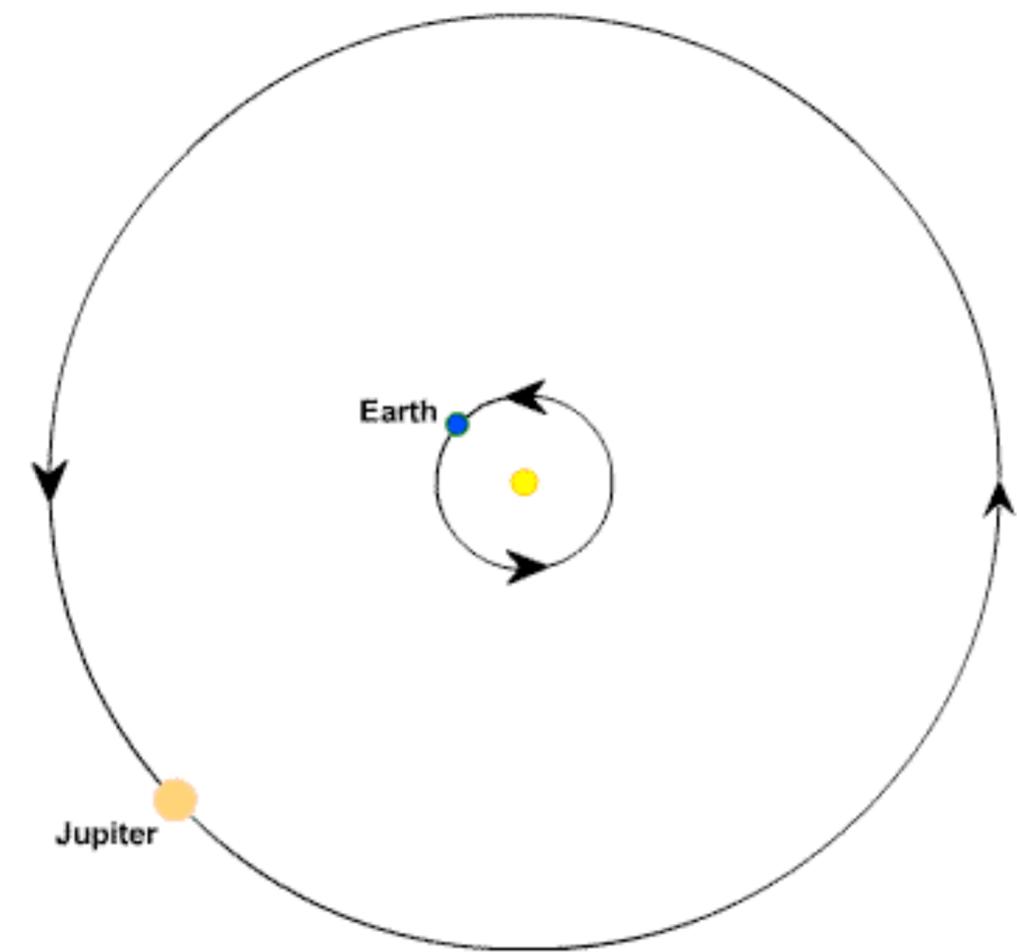
$$v_{esc}(r) = \sqrt{\frac{2GM_{\odot}}{r}} \quad \text{Escape Velocity}$$

- Note the escape velocity is only  $\sqrt{2}$  times larger than the circular velocity of a bound orbit



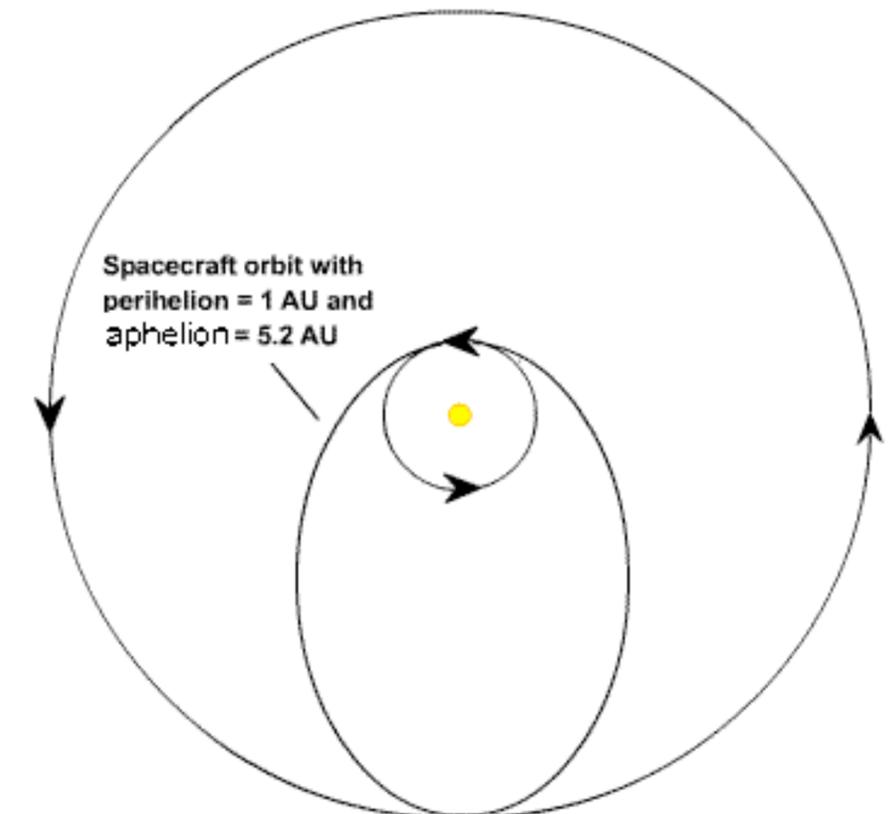
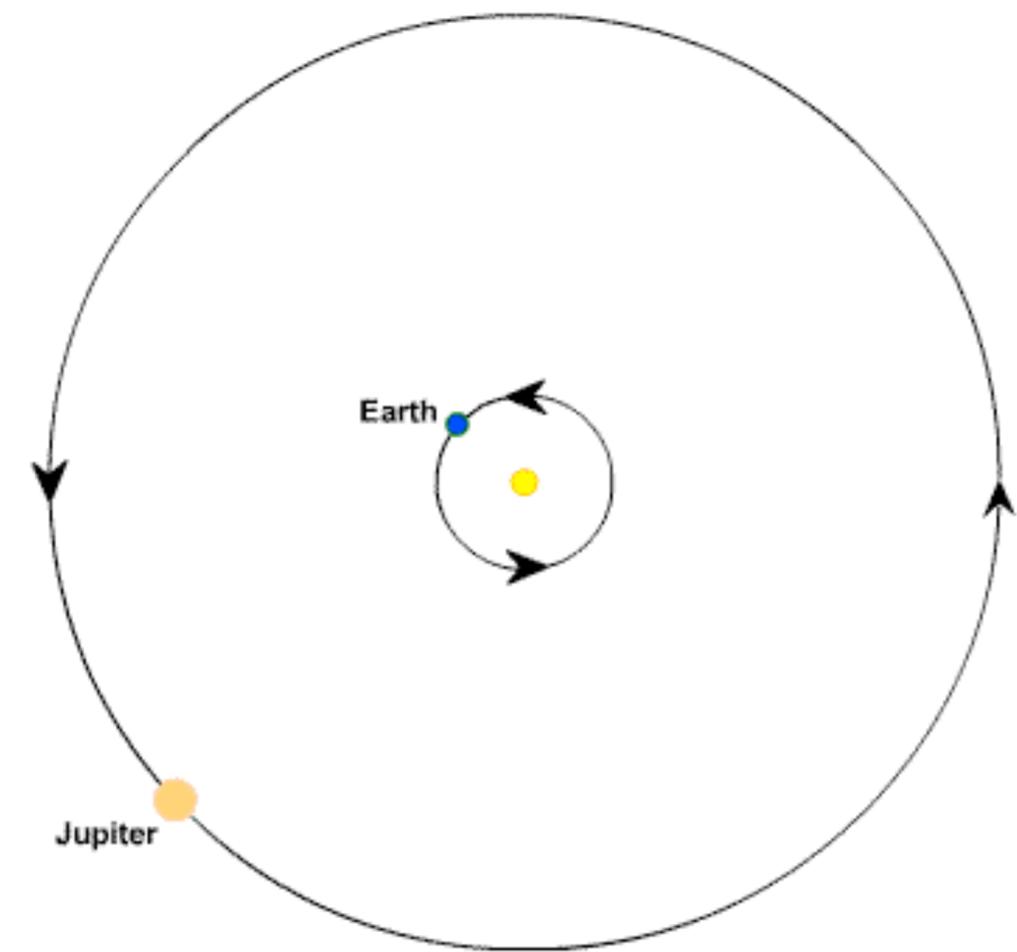
# Hohmann Transfer Orbit

- The most efficient way to change orbits in a short amount of time is a Hohmann transfer orbit
- For example, when going from Earth to Jupiter, the transfer orbit will have perihelion of 1 AU, and aphelion of 5.2 AU



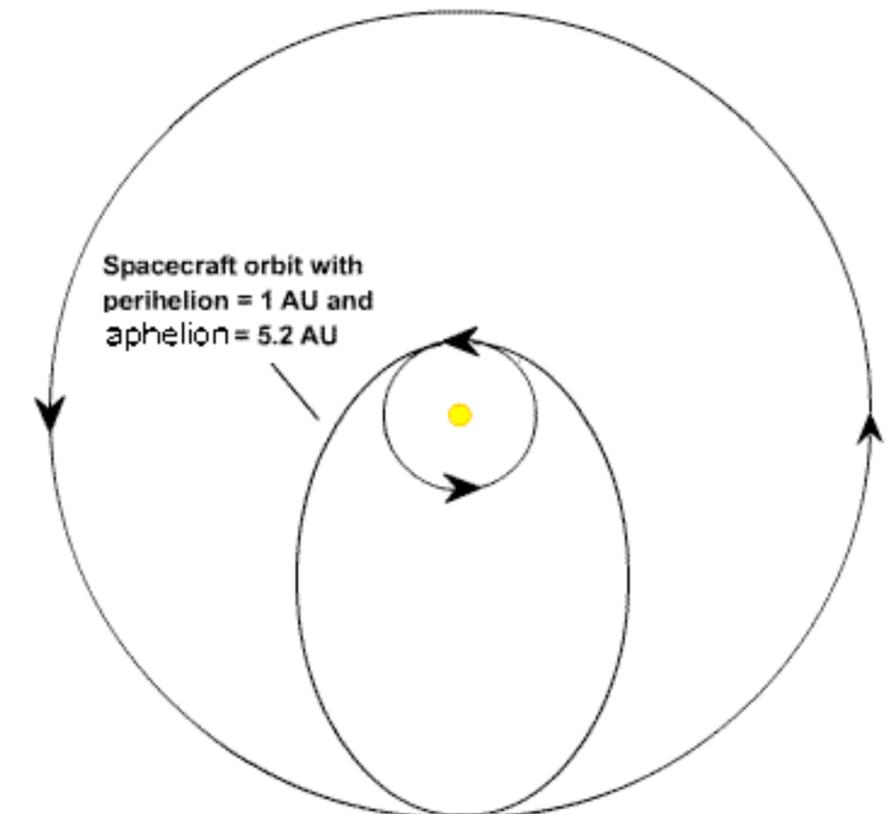
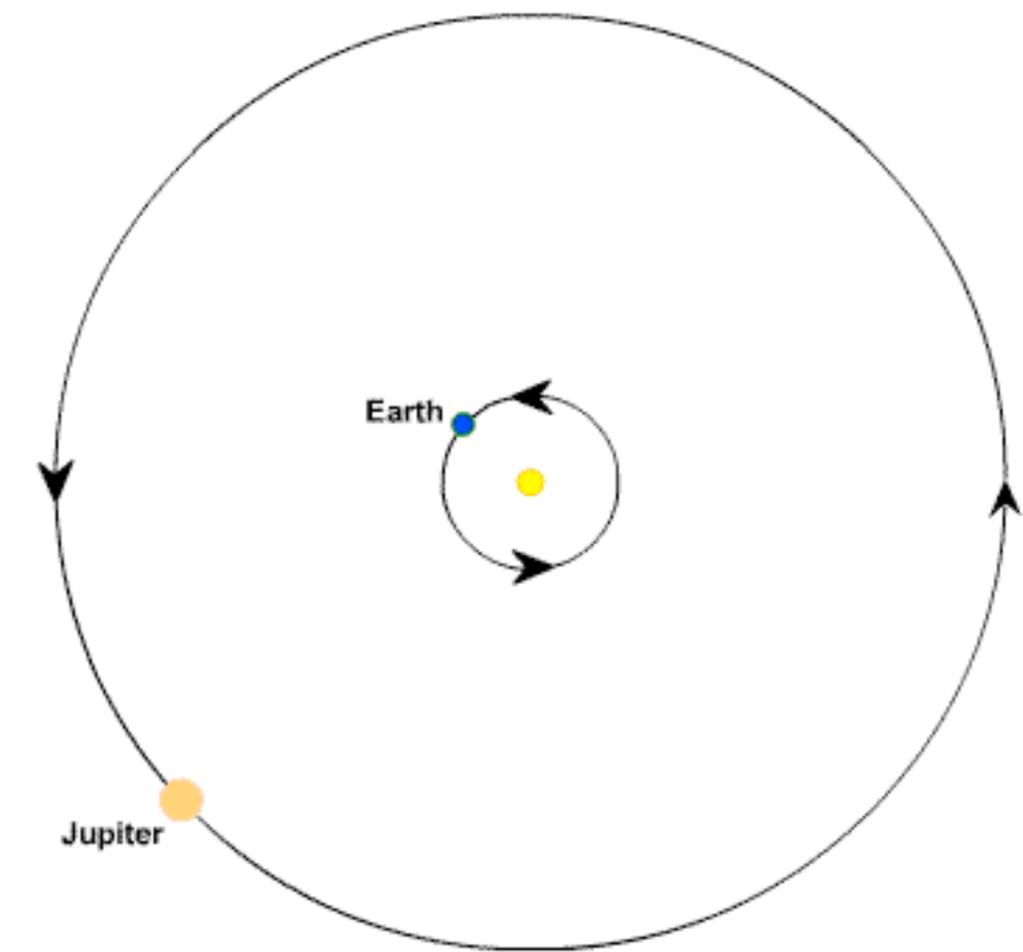
# Response Card Question

- The most efficient way to change orbits in a short amount of time is a Hohmann transfer orbit
  - For example, when going from Earth to Jupiter, the transfer orbit will have perihelion of 1 AU, and aphelion of 5.2 AU
- What is the semi-major axis and eccentricity of the transfer orbit?
- A)  $a = 3.1 \text{ AU}$ ,  $e = 0.67$  ( $=2.1/3.1$ )
  - B)  $a = 5.2 \text{ AU}$ ,  $e = 0.67$  ( $=2.1/3.1$ )
  - C)  $a = 1 \text{ AU}$ ,  $e = 0.67$  ( $=2.1/3.1$ )
  - D)  $a = 3.1 \text{ AU}$ ,  $e = 0.2$  ( $=1/5.2$ )
  - E)  $a = 5.2 \text{ AU}$ ,  $e = 0.2$  ( $=1/5.2$ )



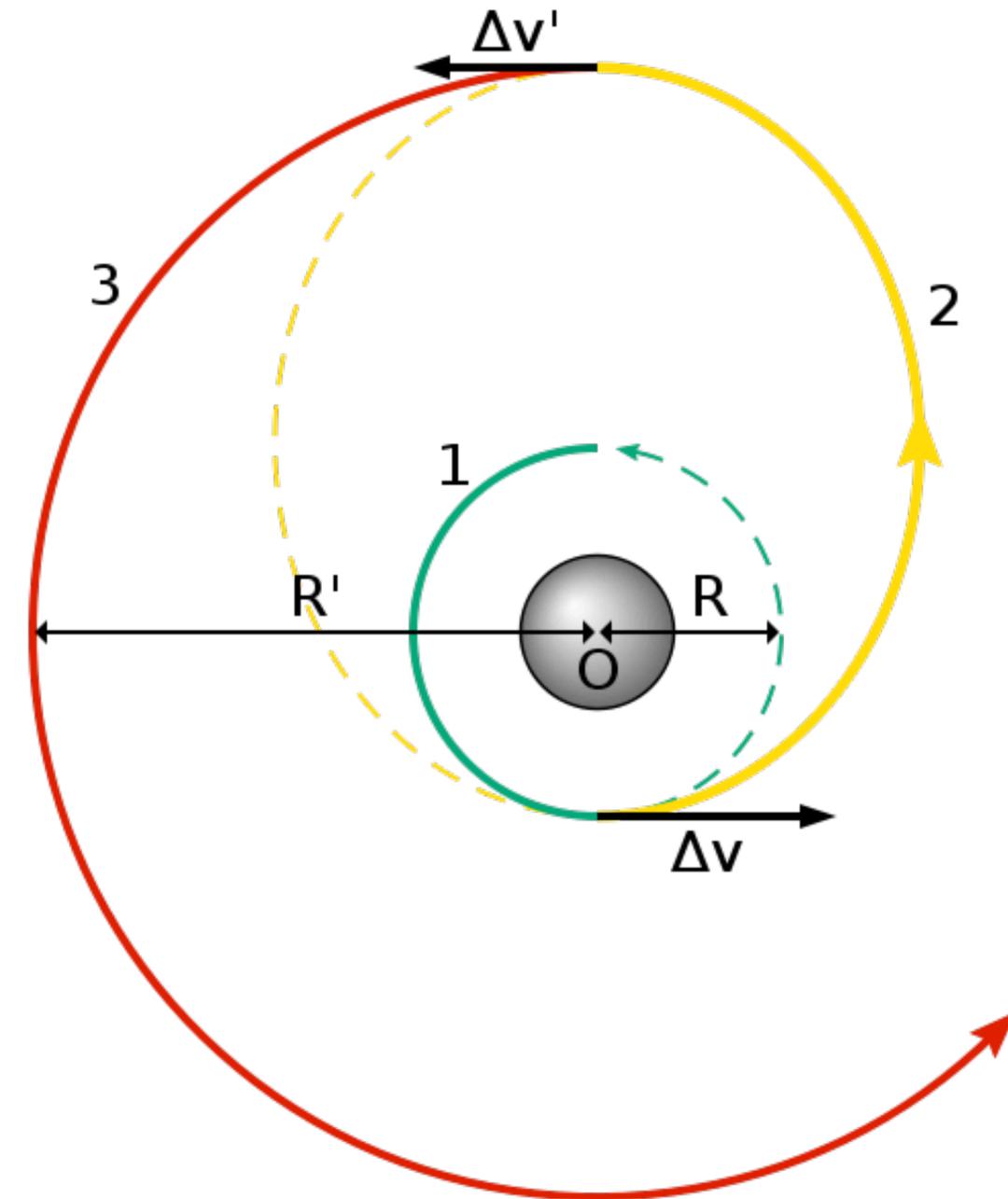
# Hohmann Transfer Orbit

- The most efficient way to change orbits in a short amount of time is a Hohmann transfer orbit
- For example, when going from Earth to Jupiter, the transfer orbit will have perihelion of 1 AU, and aphelion of 5.2 AU
- Perihelion =  $(1-e) * a = a - ae$
- Aphelion =  $(1+e) * a = a + ae$
- $2a = \text{Perihelion} + \text{Aphelion} = 6.2 \text{ AU}$ , so  $a = 3.1 \text{ AU}$
- $2ae = \text{Aphelion} - \text{Perihelion} = 4.2 \text{ AU}$ , so  $e = 4.2 / 2 / 3.1 = 0.67$



# Hohmann Transfer Orbit

- The most efficient way to change orbits in a short amount of time is a Hohmann transfer orbit
- For example, when going from Earth to Jupiter, the transfer orbit will have perihelion of 1 AU, and aphelion of 5.2 AU
- At 1 AU, Fire spacecraft thrusters to speed up in direction of motion ( $\Delta v$ ), the increased velocity means a larger eccentricity and larger semi-major axis
- Once spacecraft reaches 5.2 AU (aphelion of the transfer orbit), Fire spacecraft thrusters to (again) speed up in the direction of motion, to increase semi-major axis and decrease eccentricity
- This is the most time-efficient way to change orbits. More fuel efficient (and slower) paths exist by doing gravitational fly-bys that steal energy from planets.



# For next time

- Find a copy of the textbook (remember: either version of the 2nd edition works — NOT the first edition)
- Reading: de Pater & Lissaeuer Chapter 2, section 2.1.4-2.1.6
- Homework 1 due in 1 week, August 29 at 11:59:59 on Canvas (reminder, late homework loses 10% of possible points each day)