## Lecture 2: Orbital dynamics

### 2.1. Orbits in an axisymmetric potential

Consider the motion, according to Newtonian dynamics, of a test particle in the gravitational potential $\Phi$ of a star, planet, black hole, galaxy, etc. Use cylindrical polar coordinates $(r, \phi, z)$ (called radial, azimuthal and vertical).

Assume that $\Phi$ is axisymmetric and reflectionally symmetric:

$$
\Phi=\Phi(r, z), \quad \Phi(r,-z)=\Phi(r, z)
$$

An important special case is the potential of a point mass $M$,

$$
\Phi=-\frac{G M}{\sqrt{r^{2}+z^{2}}} .
$$

In this case the test particle follows a Keplerian orbit.
Lagrange's equations of motion are

$$
\frac{d}{d t} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_{i}}=\frac{\partial L}{\partial q_{i}},
$$

where $q_{i}$ are the generalized coordinates of the particle. The Lagrangian for a particle of unit mass is

$$
L=T-V=\frac{1}{2}\left(\dot{r}^{2}+r^{2} \dot{\phi}^{2}+\dot{z}^{2}\right)-\Phi(r, z) .
$$

Two conserved quantities are the specific angular momentum,

$$
h=\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\phi}}=r^{2} \dot{\phi},
$$

and the specific energy,

$$
\varepsilon=\sum_{i} \dot{q}_{i} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_{i}}-L=T+V=\frac{1}{2}\left(\dot{r}^{2}+r^{2} \dot{\phi}^{2}+\dot{z}^{2}\right)+\Phi(r, z) .
$$

The radial and vertical equations of motion are

$$
\ddot{r}=r \dot{\phi}^{2}-\Phi_{r}, \quad \ddot{z}=-\Phi_{z},
$$

where the subscripts on $\Phi$ denote partial derivatives. These are equivalent to

$$
\ddot{r}=-\Phi_{r}^{\mathrm{eff}}, \quad \ddot{z}=-\Phi_{z}^{\mathrm{eff}}
$$

with the effective potential

$$
\Phi^{\mathrm{eff}}=\frac{h^{2}}{2 r^{2}}+\Phi
$$

Note that

$$
\varepsilon=\frac{1}{2}\left(\dot{r}^{2}+\dot{z}^{2}\right)+\Phi^{\mathrm{eff}} .
$$

Consider the family of circular orbits ( $r=$ constant) in the midplane $(z=0)$. These must satisfy

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0=-\Phi_{r}^{\mathrm{eff}}(r, 0)=\frac{h^{2}}{r^{3}}-\Phi_{r}(r, 0) \\
& 0=-\Phi_{z}^{\mathrm{eff}}(r, 0) \quad(\checkmark \text { by reflectional symmetry })
\end{aligned}
$$

The specific angular momentum $h_{\mathrm{c}}(r)$, angular velocity $\Omega_{\mathrm{c}}(r)$ and specific energy $\varepsilon_{\mathrm{c}}(r)$ of the circular orbits are therefore given by (assuming $\Phi_{r}(r, 0)>0$ and considering prograde orbits)

$$
h_{\mathrm{c}}=\sqrt{r^{3} \Phi_{r}(r, 0)}, \quad \Omega_{\mathrm{c}}=\frac{h_{\mathrm{c}}}{r^{2}}, \quad \varepsilon_{\mathrm{c}}=\frac{h_{\mathrm{c}}^{2}}{2 r^{2}}+\Phi(r, 0) .
$$

They satisfy the relation

$$
\frac{d \varepsilon_{\mathrm{c}}}{d h_{\mathrm{c}}}=\Omega_{\mathrm{c}} .
$$

Proof:

$$
\frac{d \varepsilon_{\mathrm{c}}}{d r}=\frac{h_{\mathrm{c}}}{r^{2}} \frac{d h_{\mathrm{c}}}{d r}-\frac{h_{\mathrm{c}}^{2}}{r^{3}}+\Phi_{r}(r, 0)=\Omega_{\mathrm{c}} \frac{d h_{\mathrm{c}}}{d r} .
$$

The orbital shear rate $S(r)$ and the dimensionless orbital shear parameter $q(r)$ are defined by

$$
S=-r \frac{d \Omega_{\mathrm{c}}}{d r}, \quad q=-\frac{d \ln \Omega_{\mathrm{c}}}{d \ln r}=\frac{S}{\Omega_{\mathrm{c}}} .
$$

In the case of a point-mass potential, the circular Keplerian orbits satisfy

$$
\Phi(r, 0)=-\frac{G M}{r}, \quad h_{\mathrm{c}}=\sqrt{G M r}, \quad \Omega_{\mathrm{c}}=\sqrt{\frac{G M}{r^{3}}}, \quad \varepsilon_{\mathrm{c}}=-\frac{G M}{2 r}, \quad S=\frac{3}{2} \Omega_{\mathrm{c}}, \quad q=\frac{3}{2} .
$$

(See Example 1.1 for a revision of Keplerian orbits.)

### 2.2. Oscillations and precession

Small departures from a circular orbit of radius $r$ in the midplane satisfy

$$
\ddot{\delta r}=-\Omega_{r}^{2} \delta r, \quad \ddot{\delta} z=-\Omega_{z}^{2} \delta z,
$$

with

$$
\Omega_{r}^{2}=\Phi_{r r}^{\mathrm{eff}}(r, 0), \quad \Omega_{z}^{2}=\Phi_{z z}^{\mathrm{eff}}(r, 0),
$$

defining the radial frequency $\Omega_{r}(r)$ and the vertical frequency $\Omega_{z}(r)$. (The radial frequency is more often called the epicyclic frequency and denoted $\kappa$. The vertical frequency is sometimes denoted $\nu$. Note that $\Phi_{r z}^{\text {eff }}(r, 0)=0$ by reflectional symmetry.)
The circular orbit is stable if $\Omega_{r}^{2}>0$ and $\Omega_{z}^{2}>0$, i.e. if the orbit minimizes $\varepsilon$ for a given $h$.
We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Omega_{r}^{2} & =\frac{3 h_{\mathrm{c}}^{2}}{r^{4}}+\Phi_{r r}(r, 0) \\
& =\frac{3 h_{\mathrm{c}}^{2}}{r^{4}}+\frac{d}{d r}\left(\frac{h_{\mathrm{c}}^{2}}{r^{3}}\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{r^{3}} \frac{d h_{\mathrm{c}}^{2}}{d r} \\
& =4 \Omega_{\mathrm{c}}^{2}+2 r \Omega_{\mathrm{c}} \frac{d \Omega_{\mathrm{c}}}{d r} \\
& =2 \Omega_{\mathrm{c}}\left(2 \Omega_{\mathrm{c}}-S\right) \\
& =2(2-q) \Omega_{\mathrm{c}}^{2}, \\
\Omega_{z}^{2} & =\Phi_{z z}(r, 0) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Keplerian orbits satisfy

$$
\Omega_{r}=\Omega_{z}=\Omega,
$$

meaning that (slightly) eccentric or inclined orbits close after one turn.

## [FIGURE]

If $\Omega_{r} \approx \Omega$, an eccentric orbit precesses slowly. The minimum radius (periapsis) occurs at time intervals $\Delta t=2 \pi / \Omega_{r}$, corresponding to

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta \phi & =\frac{2 \pi \Omega}{\Omega_{r}} \\
& =2 \pi\left(\frac{\Omega}{\Omega_{r}}-1\right)+2 \pi \\
& =2 \pi\left(\frac{\Omega}{\Omega_{r}}-1\right) \bmod 2 \pi .
\end{aligned}
$$

The apsidal precession rate is therefore

$$
\frac{\Delta \phi}{\Delta t}=\Omega-\Omega_{r}
$$

Similarly, if $\Omega_{z} \approx \Omega$, an inclined orbit precesses slowly with nodal precession rate

$$
\Omega-\Omega_{z} .
$$

(See Example 1.2 for precession of orbits in binary stars and around black holes.)

### 2.3. Mechanics of accretion

Consider two particles in circular orbits in the midplane. Can energy be released by a conservative exchange of angular momentum between the particles?

The total angular momentum and energy are

$$
\begin{aligned}
H & =H_{1}+H_{2}=m_{1} h_{1}+m_{2} h_{2} \\
E & =E_{1}+E_{2}=m_{1} \varepsilon_{1}+m_{2} \varepsilon_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

In an infinitesimal exchange:

$$
\begin{aligned}
d H & =d H_{1}+d H_{2}=m_{1} d h_{1}+m_{2} d h_{2}, \\
d E & =d E_{1}+d E_{2}=m_{1} \Omega_{1} d h_{1}+m_{2} \Omega_{2} d h_{2},
\end{aligned}
$$

If $d H=0$ then

$$
d E=\left(\Omega_{1}-\Omega_{2}\right) d H_{1} .
$$

So energy is released by transferring angular momentum from higher to lower angular velocity. In practice $d \Omega / d r<0$, so this means an outward transfer of angular momentum.
Now generalize the argument to allow for an exchange of mass:

$$
\begin{aligned}
d M & =d m_{1}+d m_{2}=0, \\
d H & =d H_{1}+d H_{2}=0, \quad d H_{i}=m_{i} d h_{i}+h_{i} d m_{i}, \\
d E_{i} & =m_{i} \Omega_{i} d h_{i}+\varepsilon_{i} d m_{i} \\
& =\Omega_{i} d H_{i}+\left(\varepsilon_{i}-h_{i} \Omega_{i}\right) d m_{i}, \\
d E & =\left(\Omega_{1}-\Omega_{2}\right) d H_{1}+\left[\left(\varepsilon_{1}-h_{1} \Omega_{1}\right)-\left(\varepsilon_{2}-h_{2} \Omega_{2}\right)\right] d m_{1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

In practice

$$
\frac{d}{d r}(\varepsilon-h \Omega)=-h \frac{d \Omega}{d r}>0
$$

so energy is released by an outward transfer of angular momentum and an inward transfer of mass. This is the physical basis of an accretion disc.
[FIGURE]

### 2.4. Departures from Keplerian rotation



Families of prograde circumstellar (top) and circumbinary (bottom) periodic orbits of the restricted three-body problem for an equal-mass, circular binary. Orbits that are too large (top) or small (bottom) depart sufficiently from circular Keplerian orbits that they intersect their neighbours.

Exercise: Accretion on to a non-rotating black hole can be modelled using the potential $\Phi=$ $-G M /\left(R-r_{\mathrm{h}}\right)$, where $R=\sqrt{r^{2}+z^{2}}$ is the spherical radius and $r_{\mathrm{h}}=2 G M / c^{2}$ is the (Schwarzschild) radius of the event horizon of the black hole. Calculate $\Omega_{\mathrm{c}}(r)$ and compare with the Keplerian angular velocity. Show that $h_{\mathrm{c}}(r)$ has a minimum at $r=3 r_{\mathrm{h}}$ and deduce that circular orbits in this potential are unstable for $r<3 r_{h}$.

