

# 390(5): General Methodology for ECE2 orbits

In general, orbits are three dimensional, so the general  $\Phi$  and  $\underline{Q}$  are found from:

$$\square \Phi = 4\pi G \rho_m \quad - (1)$$

$$\square \underline{Q} = \frac{4\pi G}{c^2} \underline{J}_m \quad - (2)$$

where  $\rho_m$  is the source mass density and where  $\underline{J}_m$  is the source current of mass density. Here  $\Phi$  is the scalar potential and  $\underline{Q}$  is the vector potential of gravitation.

The precession of pericenter of laser orbits is observed experimentally to be very tiny, so  $\Phi$  to an excellent approximation:

$$\Phi = -\frac{2MG}{r} \quad - (3)$$

Note carefully that:

$$r = r(t) \quad - (4)$$

For example if an ellipse,  $r$  changes with time.

Therefore the ECE2 Hamiltonian and Lagrangian are:

$$H = \gamma mc^2 - \frac{MG}{r} \quad - (5)$$

$$L = -\frac{mc^2}{\gamma} + \frac{MG}{r} \quad - (6)$$

In 3-D:  $r = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{1/2} \quad - (7)$

and the Lorentz factor is:

$$\gamma = \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)^{-1/2} \quad - (8)$$

in which  $v^2 = \dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2 + \dot{z}^2 \quad - (9)$

Apply the free Euler Lagrange equations with Lagrangian (6),

a) and Lagrange variables  $X, Y$  and  $Z$ . This leads to forward and retrograde precession in 3-D, and solving Euler Lagrange equations also gives:

$$\underline{g} = \ddot{X} \underline{i} + \ddot{Y} \underline{j} + \ddot{Z} \underline{k} \quad (10)$$

The spin connection vector is found from:

$$\underline{g} = -\nabla \underline{\Phi} + \underline{\omega} \underline{\Phi} \quad (11)$$

because  $\underline{g}$ ,  $\underline{\Phi}$  and  $\nabla \underline{\Phi}$  are known.

The vector potential  $\underline{Q}$  is found from the vector antisymmetry law, ensuring automatically that vector antisymmetry is preserved.

In these equations:

$$\underline{\omega} = \omega_x \underline{i} + \omega_y \underline{j} + \omega_z \underline{k} \quad (12)$$

and

$$\underline{Q} = Q_x \underline{i} + Q_y \underline{j} + Q_z \underline{k} \quad (13)$$

with

$$\underline{\Phi} = \frac{-mg}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{1/2}} \quad (14)$$

Having found  $\underline{\omega}$  and  $\underline{Q}$ , the scalar spin connection is found from the covariant derivative of trace antisymmetry (Lidström constraint):

$$\frac{1}{c^2} \left( \frac{d}{dt} + \underline{\omega} \right) \underline{\Phi} = (\underline{\nabla} - \underline{\omega}) \cdot \underline{Q} \quad (15)$$

The map of the vacuum matter or spacetime is given by the spin connection four vector:

3)

$$\omega^\mu = \left( \frac{\omega_0}{c}, \underline{\omega} \right) - (16)$$

and this can be graphed for 3-D forward and retrograde precession.

The law of conservation of scalar antisymmetry  $\omega$

$$\underline{g} = -\underline{\nabla} \underline{\Phi} + \underline{\omega} \underline{\Phi} = -\frac{\partial \underline{Q}}{\partial t} - \omega_0 \underline{Q} - (17)$$

and this can be used to find the function  $\frac{\partial \underline{Q}}{\partial t}$ . Note carefully that is general:

$$\frac{\partial \underline{\Phi}}{\partial t} = \frac{d \underline{\Phi}}{dt} \neq 0 - (18)$$

over all Newtonian level. So is general:

$$\boxed{\frac{\partial \underline{Q}}{\partial t} \neq \underline{0}} - (19)$$

With this procedure, self consistency between trace and scalar antisymmetry is achieved. The need for legarity is eliminated.

Finally simultaneous solution of the wave equation (1) and the field equation:

$$\underline{\nabla} \cdot \underline{g} = 4\pi G \rho_m - (20)$$

gives the equation:

$$\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial^2 \underline{\Phi}}{\partial t^2} = \frac{1}{c} \frac{d^2 \underline{\Phi}}{dt^2} = \underline{\nabla} \cdot (\underline{\omega} \underline{\Phi}) - (21)$$

7) In the classical limit:

$$c \rightarrow \infty, \quad \underline{c} \rightarrow \underline{0} \quad - (22)$$

so  $\gamma \rightarrow 1 \quad - (23)$

It follows that eq. (21) is always true in the classical limit, even though  $\frac{d^2 \Phi}{dt^2} (\text{Newton}) \neq 0 \quad - (24)$

In ECE2 relativity,  $c$  is the speed of light, a universal constant, so eq. (21) gives the function

$$\frac{d^2 \Phi}{dt^2} = - \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{mg}{r(t)} \right) \quad - (25)$$

Calculation of  $d^2 \Phi / dt^2$  in Newtonian Gravitation.

In this case:

$$\frac{1}{r(t)} = \frac{1}{d} (1 + \epsilon \cos \phi(t)) \quad - (26)$$

and  $\frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{1}{r(t)} \right) = \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{1}{r(t)} \right) \quad - (27)$

$$= - \frac{\epsilon}{d} \omega(t) \sin \phi(t)$$

but the angular ~~momentum~~ velocity is:

$$\omega = \frac{d\phi}{dt} = \frac{L}{mr^2} \quad - (28)$$

where  $L$  is the constant angular momentum and

$$m \approx \frac{mM}{n+M} \text{ if } M \gg m \quad - (29)$$

3) In eq. (21) it follows that:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d^2}{dt^2} \left( \frac{1}{r(t)} \right) &= -\frac{e}{d} \left( \frac{d\omega}{dt} \sin \phi + \omega \frac{d \sin \phi(t)}{dt} \right) - (30) \\ &= -\frac{e}{d} \left( \frac{d\omega}{dt} \sin \phi + \omega \frac{d\phi}{dt} \cos \phi \right) \\ &= -\frac{e}{d} \left( \frac{d\omega}{dt} \sin \phi + \omega^2 \cos \phi \right)\end{aligned}$$

Here:  $\omega = \frac{L}{m d^2} = \frac{L}{m d^2} \left( 1 + e \cos \phi(t) \right)^2 - (31)$

So  $\frac{d^2 \mathcal{I}}{dt^2} = \frac{d^2 \mathcal{I}}{dt^2} = m b \frac{e}{d} \left( \frac{d\omega}{dt} \sin \phi + \frac{L^2}{m^2 d^4} \left( 1 + e \cos \phi \right)^4 \right) - (32)$

which:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d\omega}{dt} &= \frac{2L}{m d^2} \left( 1 + e \cos \phi \right) \frac{d}{dt} \left( 1 + e \cos \phi(t) \right) \\ &= -\frac{2L\omega}{m d^2} \left( 1 + e \cos \phi \right) e \sin \phi(t) \\ &= -\frac{2L\omega e}{m d^2} \left( 1 + e \cos \phi \right) \sin \phi(t) \\ &= -2e \left( \frac{L}{m d^2} \right)^2 \left( 1 + e \cos \phi \right)^3 \sin \phi - (33)\end{aligned}$$

Therefore it follows that  $d^2 \mathcal{I} / dt^2$  a Newtonian level is not zero:

$$\frac{d^2 \phi}{dt^2} = \frac{mGE}{d} \left[ \frac{L^2}{m^2 d^4} (1 + \cos \phi)^4 - 2E \left( \frac{L}{md} \right)^2 (1 + \epsilon \cos \phi)^3 \sin^2 \phi \right]$$

$$= mGE \frac{L^2}{d} \left( \frac{L}{md} \right)^2 (1 + \cos \phi)^3 \left( 1 + \epsilon \cos \phi - 2\epsilon \sin^2 \phi \right) \quad (34)$$

Finally, the Newtonian dependence of  $\phi$  on  $t$  is found from:

$$\frac{d\phi}{dt} = \frac{L}{mr} \quad (35)$$

where

$$\frac{1}{r^2} = \frac{1}{d^2} (1 + \epsilon \cos \phi)^2 \quad (36)$$

so

$$\frac{d\phi}{dt} = \frac{L}{md} (1 + \epsilon \cos \phi)^2 \quad (37)$$

and

$$\frac{dt}{d\phi} = \frac{md^2}{L(1 + \epsilon \cos \phi)^2} \quad (38)$$

It follows that:

$$t = \frac{md^2}{L} \int \frac{d\phi}{(1 + \epsilon \cos \phi)^2} \quad (39)$$

The integral must be evaluated numerically, because the analytical solution is very complicated, and given by:

$$\int \frac{dx}{(a+b\cos x)^2} = \frac{b \sin x}{(b^2-a^2)(a+b\cos x)} - \frac{a}{b^2-a^2} \int \frac{dx}{a+b\cos x}, \quad (40)$$

here

$$\int \frac{dx}{a+b\cos x} = \frac{2}{(a^2-b^2)^{1/2}} \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{a \tan(x/2) + b}{(a^2-b^2)^{1/2}} \right) \quad (41)$$

if  $a^2 < b^2$

so

$$\int \frac{dx}{a+b\cos x} = \frac{2}{(a^2-b^2)^{1/2}} \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{(a-b) \tan(x/2)}{(a^2-b^2)^{1/2}} \right) \quad (42)$$

if  $a^2 > b^2$

Here  $a = 1, b = \epsilon \quad (43)$

so eq. (42) is used for ellipse and eq. (41) for the hyperbola.

After finding  $t(\phi)$  it must be inverted to give  $\phi(t)$ . This procedure is used in Newtonian astronomy. For small  $\epsilon$ :

$$\phi(t) = \frac{2\pi t}{\tau} + 2\epsilon \sin \frac{2\pi t}{\tau} + \frac{5}{4}\epsilon^2 \sin \frac{4\pi t}{\tau} - (44)$$

$$+ \frac{1}{12}\epsilon^3 \left( 13 \sin \frac{6\pi t}{\tau} - 3 \sin \frac{2\pi t}{\tau} \right) + \dots$$

So the Newtonian  $d^2\phi/dt^2$  is found from eq. (44), and is not zero.

A very important consequence of this fact is that

The Newtonian Poisson equation:

$$\nabla^2 \Phi = -4\pi G \rho_m \quad (45)$$

is incomplete. It must be replaced by the Newtonian  
Alembert wave equation:

$$\left( \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \nabla^2 \right) \Phi_w = -4\pi G \rho_m \quad (46)$$

where  $v$  is the Newtonian orbital velocity:

$$v = MG \left( \frac{2}{r} - \frac{1}{a} \right) \quad (47)$$

where  $a$  is the semi-major axis:

$$a = \frac{d}{1-e^2} \quad (48)$$

From eq. (46), propagating gravitational waves exist at the Newtonian level. In eq. (46),  $\Phi_w$  is the wave's scalar potential. It is different from the inverse square (3), and similar to the Liénard-Wiechert potentials of electrodynamics.

If the result:

$$\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial t^2} = \nabla \cdot (\underline{\omega} \Phi) \quad (49)$$

found for a precessing orbit, it must be repeated as:

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \Phi(r(t)) = -MG \frac{\partial}{\partial t^2} \left( \frac{1}{r(t)} \right) = 0 \quad (50)$$

giving dependence of  $r$  on  $t$  for the orbit.