

## 262(8) : Comparison of Theories of Orbital Precession

For any planar orbit:

$$\underline{F}(r) = -\frac{L^2}{mr^3} \left( \frac{d^2}{d\theta^2} \left( \frac{1}{r} \right) + \frac{1}{r} \right) \underline{e}_r \quad (1)$$

Theory 1  
If  $\underline{F}(r) = \left( -\frac{mMG}{r^2} - \frac{3GML^2}{mc^2 r^4} \right) \underline{e}_r \quad (2)$

Then  $\omega = \omega_0 \left( 1 + \frac{6MG}{dc^2} \right) \quad (3)$   
 where  $\omega_0$  is the angular velocity of a Newtonian orbit defined by:

$$\underline{F}(r) = -\frac{mMG}{r^2} \underline{e}_r \quad (4)$$

i.e.  $\omega_0 = \frac{L}{mr^2} \quad (5)$

and  $\Delta\theta = \left( \frac{3MG}{ac^2(1-e^2)} \right) \theta \quad (6)$

The force law (2) is due to the Cartan  
spin connection (3). At the orbital turning  
 point  $\frac{d^2 r}{dt^2} = 0 \quad (7)$

2) then

$$r = d - r_0 = \frac{d}{1 + \epsilon \cos \theta} \quad - (8)$$

where

$$r_0 = \frac{3MG}{c^2} \quad - (9)$$

Theory 2

If:

$$\underline{F}(r) = (x^2 - 1) \frac{L^2}{mr^3} - \frac{x^2 L^2}{2mr^2} \quad - (10)$$

then:

$$\Delta \theta = x\theta \quad - (11)$$

and

$$r = \frac{d}{1 + \epsilon \cos(x\theta)} \quad - (12)$$

At the orbital turning point:

$$r = d \quad - (13)$$

So Theory 2 changes the angle from  $\theta$  to  $x\theta$ , but does not change the turning point of the Newtonian orbit, while Theory 1 leaves the angle the same but changes the turning point:

$$d \rightarrow d - r_0 \quad - (14)$$

3) If the two planets have the same effect then:

$$x = \frac{3MG}{ac^2(1-\epsilon^2)} \quad - (15)$$

So two different force laws (2) and (10) produce the same observed precession. Therefore the precessional method cannot distinguish between the two force laws, proving that the force law (2) is not unique.

In the Newton theory let:

$$r \rightarrow r + r_0 \quad - (16)$$

so

$$F = -\frac{mMG}{r^2} \rightarrow -\frac{mMG}{(r+r_0)^2}$$

$$= -\frac{mMG}{r^2} \left(1 + \frac{r_0}{r}\right)^{-2} = -\frac{mMG}{r^2} \left(1 - 2\frac{r_0}{r}\right) \quad - (17)$$

if  $r_0 \ll r$  - (18)

so

$$F = -\frac{mMG}{r^2} + \frac{2mMG r_0}{r^3} \quad - (18)$$

Now compare eqs. (10) and (18) with

$$4) \quad x \approx 1, \quad \alpha = \frac{L^2}{m^2 M G} \quad - (19)$$

to find:

$$x^2 = 1 + 2 \frac{r_0}{\alpha} \quad - (20)$$

to an excellent approximation If:

$$r_0 \ll \alpha \quad - (21)$$

then:

$$x = \left(1 + 2 \frac{r_0}{\alpha}\right)^{1/2} = 1 + \frac{r_0}{\alpha} \quad - (22)$$

So if

$$x = 1 + \frac{r_0}{\alpha} \quad - (23)$$

then

$$r \rightarrow r + r_0 \quad - (24)$$

It follows that:

$$r + r_0 = \frac{\alpha}{1 + \epsilon \cos \theta} \quad - (25)$$

is equivalent to:

$$r = \frac{\alpha}{1 + \epsilon \cos \left( \left(1 + \frac{r_0}{\alpha}\right) \theta \right)} \quad - (26)$$

At the turning point:

$$r + r_0 = \alpha \quad - (27)$$

So

$$r = \alpha - r_0 \quad - (28)$$

5) However, eq. (28) is the result of eq. (2),  
so the as. ts described by eqs. (25) and (26)  
are equivalent to eq. (2). Therefore the  
Euler theory (2) is merely a re-expression  
of an equation of type (12).

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