

Project 3

FYS4150 Computational Physics

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Abstract

The motion of the planets in the solar system is governed by gravitational forces between the planets and the sun, and between the planets themselves. This can be expressed mathematically as a set of coupled differential equations. In this project we solve these equations, mainly by using the velocity Verlet algorithm. When doing so we use an object oriented approach, and two classes are developed; a *planet* class and a *solver* class. We find that the problem can be solved in a quite nice and compact way, and we get quite good estimates of the planetary orbits.

1 Introduction

The concept of object oriented programming was invented in the mid 1960s at the Norwegian Computing Centre in Oslo[1], and can be a very powerful way of programming. This applies especially if you have e.g. an algorithm that you want to apply to a variety of similar systems. Instead of writing new code tailored to each system, you write the algorithm in a more general way that allows you to apply it to different systems. The systems we will study in this project consists of planets orbiting the Sun. We will simulate both a binary system (e.g. the Earth and the Sun), a three-body system (Earth, Sun and Jupiter), and eventually the full solar system. The magic of object orientation is that once you have written the algorithm it is very easy to jump between each of these systems.

Two key concepts of object oriented programming is *classes* and *objects*. A class can be thought of as a set of variables and functions, while an object is an instance of the class. We say that the object inherits the functions and variables defined in the class. Two classes are written in this project, namely a planet class and a solver class, which will be discussed in more detail later.

The first part of the report is a short theoretical introduction to how we model planetary motion using Newtons law of gravitation, followed by the procedure for discretizing the equations and a discussion of the algorithms. Then the main aspects and ideas of the programs are discussed, before the results are presented towards the end.

2 Modelling planetary motion

Newtons law of gravitation states that the gravitational force between two objects, with mass M and m respectively, is given by

$$F_G = \frac{GMm}{r^2}, \quad (1)$$

where G is the gravitational constant and r is the distance between the two objects. This is the "corner stone" of all calculations done in this project.

2.1 Earth-Sun system

We start by considering a system with only two objects, namely the Sun (with mass M_\odot) and the Earth (with mass M_{Earth}), and we assume that the Sun is fixed, so that the only motion we have to care about is that of the Earth. We also assume that the motion of the Earth is co-planar, and take this to be the xy -plane, with the Sun in the origin. When writing the programs and implementing the algorithm we actually work in $3D$, but extending from two to three dimensions is quite trivial.

The forces acting on the Earth in the x - and y -direction are given by

$$F_{G,x} = -F_G \cos \theta = -\frac{GM_\odot M_{\text{Earth}}}{r^2} \cos \theta = -\frac{GM_\odot M_{\text{Earth}}}{r^3} x$$

and

$$F_{G,y} = -F_G \sin \theta = -\frac{GM_\odot M_{\text{Earth}}}{r^2} \sin \theta = -\frac{GM_\odot M_{\text{Earth}}}{r^3} y,$$

where we have used the relations $x = r \cos \theta$ and $y = r \sin \theta$. From Newton's second law we know that the accelerations, a_x and a_y , are given as

$$a_x = \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} = \frac{F_{G,x}}{M_{\text{Earth}}} \quad \text{and} \quad a_y = \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} = \frac{F_{G,y}}{M_{\text{Earth}}}.$$

We also know that the acceleration is the time derivative of the velocity, v , which again is the time derivative of the position, meaning that we can express the equations of motion as two coupled first order differential equations in each dimension:

$$v_x = \frac{dx}{dt}, \quad v_y = \frac{dy}{dt}, \quad a_x = \frac{dv_x}{dt} = -\frac{GM_\odot x}{r^3}, \quad a_y = \frac{dv_y}{dt} = -\frac{GM_\odot y}{r^3}. \quad (2)$$

When extending to three dimensions we simply add two more equations like those above, simply replacing x or y by z .

2.2 Scaling of equations

The next thing we want to do is to scale the equations appropriately. When working on an astronomical scale we prefer to work with years (yr) as the time unit and AU¹ as the length unit. This means that we need to find some way of scaling the gravitational constant, G , to these units.

If we assume the orbit of the Earth to be circular (which is very close to the truth), the acceleration is given as

$$a = \frac{v^2}{r} = \frac{F_G}{M_{\text{Earth}}} = \frac{GM_\odot}{r^2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad v^2 r = GM_\odot,$$

where $r = 1$ AU, while the velocity is

$$v = 2\pi \text{ AU/yr},$$

which means that

$$GM_\odot = 4\pi^2 \text{ AU}^3/\text{yr}^2,$$

which can be inserted in the equations of motion. In addition to this it is also convenient to scale the mass of the earth (and other planets) to the solar mass, i.e. we put $M_\odot = 1$, and scale other masses accordingly. We do this to decrease the chance of losing numerical precision through round-off errors, as the planetary masses are quite large (see Table 1).

¹Astronomical units; 1 AU is defined as the mean distance between the Earth and the Sun.

Table 1: Mass and distance to the Sun for the planets in the solar system. (Numbers taken from the project description.)

Planet	Mass (kg)	Distance to Sun (AU)
Earth	6×10^{24}	1
Jupiter	1.9×10^{27}	5.20
Mars	6.6×10^{23}	1.52
Venus	4.9×10^{24}	0.72
Saturn	5.5×10^{26}	9.54
Mercury	3.3×10^{23}	0.39
Uranus	8.8×10^{25}	19.19
Neptune	1.03×10^{26}	30.06
Pluto	1.31×10^{22}	39.53

2.3 The solar system

Once we know the form of the gravitational interaction it is quite easy to extend our system to include other planets, and eventually the full solar system. The general forces in the xy -planet between two planets with mass M_a and M_b are given by

$$F_{G,x} = \frac{GM_a M_b}{r^3} \Delta x \quad \text{and} \quad F_{G,y} = \frac{GM_a M_b}{r^3} \Delta y,$$

where Δx and Δy are the distances between the planets in x - and y -direction, and r the absolute distance between them. When we want to model a system with several planets we simply add up the forces acting on each planet, and calculate the acceleration of a specific planet as the total force acting on it divided by its mass. The planets of the solar system are listed in Table 1, along with their masses and distances to the Sun.

Before we start looking at how we should study this numerically there is one more thing that needs to be mentioned in this theoretical introduction. Newtonian mechanics is able to describe the planetary orbits quite well. It was however observed in the 1800s that Mercury's perihelion precession was off by $43''$ ($\sim 0.012^\circ$) per century (which is a very small deviation!) compared to the predictions from the Newtonian theory. However, in Einstein's general theory of relativity the gravitational force gets a small correction, and can be written as

$$F_G = \frac{GM_\odot M_{\text{Mercury}}}{r^2} \left[1 + \frac{3l^2}{r^2 c^2} \right],$$

where $l = |\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{v}|$ is the magnitude of the orbital angular momentum per unit mass and c is the speed of light. Towards the end of the project we will see (spoiler alert!) that this correction actually is able to explain the observed perihelion precession!

3 Discretization and algorithms

We would like to write a code that calculate updated positions for a system of planets as time passes. In order to do so we must, as usual, start by making a discrete approach to the problem. The discretization will only be shown for one dimension (x), since the procedure is completely equivalent for the other dimensions. Time and position are discretized as

$$\begin{aligned} t &\rightarrow t_i = t_0 + ih \\ x(t) &\rightarrow x(t_i) = x_i, \end{aligned}$$

with the time step, h , given by

$$h = \frac{t_f - t_0}{n}.$$

Here t_0 and t_f is the initial and final time respectively, n is total number of time steps and i runs from 1 to n .

Position and velocity after some time $t_i + h$ is given by Taylor expansion as

$$\begin{aligned} x_{i+1} &= x_i + hx'_i + \frac{h^2}{2}x''_i + O(h^3) \\ &= x_i + hv_i + \frac{h^2}{2}a_i + O(h^3) \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} v_{i+1} &= v_i + hv'_i + \frac{h^2}{2}v''_i + O(h^3) \\ &= v_i + ha_i + \frac{h^2}{2}v''_i + O(h^3), \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

where a_i is the acceleration, which for the Earth-Sun system is given in discrete form as

$$a_i = \frac{F(x_i, t_i)}{M_{\text{Earth}}} = -\frac{GM_{\odot}x_i}{r_i^3}.$$

Based on these equations we will consider two methods for approximating positions and velocities.

The first one is the forward Euler (FE) method, which we get directly from the above equations, by only including terms from eqs. (3) and (4) up to $O(h^2)$:

$$\begin{aligned} x_{i+1} &\approx x_i + hv_i \\ v_{i+1} &\approx v_i + ha_i \end{aligned}$$

The second one is the velocity Verlet (VV) method, where we keep terms up to $O(h^3)$. This means that we are stuck with a second derivative of the velocity, which we want to get rid of. This is done by Eulers formula, so

$$v''_i \approx \frac{v'_{i+1} - v'_i}{h} = \frac{a_{i+1} - a_i}{h},$$

which leaves us with the following approximations for position and velocity:

$$x_{i+1} \approx x_i + hv_i + \frac{h^2}{2}a_i$$
$$v_{i+1} \approx v_i + \frac{h}{2}[a_{i+1} + a_i]$$

Notice that the VV algorithm require some more floating point operations (FLOPS) than FE. If we pre-calculate $\frac{h}{2}$ and $\frac{h^2}{2}$ we need 7 FLOPS per time step for VV against 4 with the FE method. However, we also need to calculate the forces acting on the planet in order to calculate the acceleration. This must be done twice for each time step in the VV loop and only once per time step in the FE loop.

Both of these methods will be implemented in our code. However, the VV algorithm will be proven to work somewhat better than FE, so throughout most of the project we will stick to using the VV method.

Notice that in order to get the algorithms started we need some initial values for position and velocity, i.e. x_0 and v_0 , hence these kinds of problems are referred to as *initial value problems*.

4 Code

All code written for this project can be found in the following git repository:

<https://github.com/evensha/FYS4150/tree/master/Project3/Programs>

The most important files in this repository are:

- `planet.cpp/planet.h`
- `solver.cpp/solver.h`
- `main.cpp`
- Various (python) plotting scripts.

Before going into the details of the code we should have a quick look at the main structure and purpose of the different programs and classes.

Firstly we have two classes called **planet** (implemented in `planet.cpp` and `planet.h`) and **solver** (implemented in `solver.cpp` and `solver.h`). The main idea is that we let each planet we want to consider be an object of the planet class, which has properties like position, velocity, mass, and functions that can calculate other quantities for the planet. We then make an object of the solver class, and put our planets in to this object. The solver class contain functions that will solve our problem, i.e. by using forward Euler or velocity Verlet, in addition to other functions that could be useful. The main program (`main.cpp`) is used to initialize the necessary objects, and run the solver functions, while several different python scripts are used for plotting the results. The output from the programs is stored in

the "Output" repository. However, one might not find all produced output files in the mentioned git repository, as some of the produced output files are quite large.

In addition to the above described programs it is also worth mentioning that the git repository contains a `makefile`, used for compiling it all, and a file called `Planet_data.txt`. The latter file contains necessary information about all the planets, i.e. mass and the positions and velocities we will use as initial values. The positions and velocities are taken from ref. [3].

4.1 The planet class

The planet class has four public variables:

- `mass`: The mass of the planet.
- `position`: Three dimensional double containing the coordinates of the planets position.
- `velocity`: Three dimensional double containing the velocities of the planet in each dimension.
- `name`: The name of the planet, given as a string.

An object of this class can be initialized with a default initialization that sets all the variables to zero, and the name to "Planet". Alternatively it can be initialized with mass, positions, velocities and name. Positions and velocities can be given in either two or three dimension.

Further the class contains the following functions (which all return a double):

- `Distance(planet otherPlanet)`: Take an other object of the planet class as input argument, and calculates the distance to this planet.
- `PotentialEnergy(planet otherPlanet)`: Take an other object of the planet class as input, and calculates the planets potential energy with respect to the other planet.
- `xMomentum()`: Calculates the planets momentum in the x -direction.
- `yMomentum()`: Calculates the planets momentum in the y -direction.
- `AngularMomentum()`: Calculates the magnitude of the orbital angular momentum per unit mass of the planet.

4.2 The solver class

The solver class has the following public variables:

- `mass`: Mass of the system you are studying.
- `G`: Gravitational constant, $4\pi^2$ by default.

- **beta**: Power of r in the denominator of the gravitational force, i.e. $F_G \propto 1/r^\beta$. By default $\beta = 2$, but we will also study some variations of the gravitational force.
- **RelCorr**: Integer that indicates whether or not you want to add the previously discussed relativistic correction to the gravitational force:
 - 0: without relativistic correction (default).
 - 1: with relativistic correction.
- **total_planets**: Integer denoting the total number of planets in your system.
- **all_planets**: Vector that contains the "planet objects" you have added to the solver class.

The solver class is initialized either with a default initialization, or by specifying **RelCorr** or **beta** discussed above. The class contains the following functions:

- **addPlanet(planet newplanet)**: Takes an object of the planet class as input, and adds this object to the solver object, updating the total mass and number of planets in the system.
- **ForwardEuler(int integration_points, double time, int withOutput)**: Takes number of integration points and the final time of your simulation (in years) as input, as well as an argument specifying whether or not you want to produce any output². (1 if you want output, 0 if not.) The function then runs through the time steps and the planets in your system, updating positions and velocities of the planets according to the forward Euler algorithm.
- **VelocityVerlet(int integration_points, double final_time, int withOutput)**: Similar in structure to the forward Euler function, only this one is using the velocity Verlet method. A slight difference is however that the position of the perihelion of the orbit also can be calculated inside this function, which is useful when we are going to study Mercury's orbit.
- **GravitationalForce(planet &Planet, planet &other, double &F_x, double &F_y, double &F_z, double beta, int RelCorr)**: Calculates the gravitational forces between two specified planets in three dimensions.
- **PrintPositions()**: Prints the current positions to the output file.
- **PrintNames()**: Prints the names of all your planet objects to the output file.

²By output it is here meant a file containing the positions we are calculating.

4.3 The main program and plotting

The purpose of the main program is to initialize the needed planet objects and the solver, put the planets into the solver, and then run the relevant functions. The program takes number of time steps, final time of the simulation and name of the problem as input.

Different solver objects are initialized, depending on which problem we want to consider. If we want to consider the full solar system the planets are initialized with data from the `Planet_data.txt` file, which are stored in maps relating the variables to the corresponding planet.

As mentioned, several different python scripts are used for plotting, depending on the situation and system we study. These scripts read the output files produced by the solver. (I realized towards the end of the project that it might also could be handy to write a class for the plotting, but unfortunately there was no time to do this.)

5 Results

In this section all the results are presented. We start by doing some tests of the two algorithms, before we move on to simulating a three-body system and the full solar system. Finally we will (as promised) look at the perihelion precession of Mercury's orbit.

5.1 Testing the algorithms (Earth-Sun system)

In order to test the programs and algorithms we have developed we start by considering the binary system with the Sun (fixed in the origin) and the Earth moving in a circular orbit, and we only consider two dimensions. In order for the Earth to get a circular orbit the magnitude of the velocity must be $v = 2\pi$ AU/year (given $r = 1$ AU), so we initialize the system by putting $v_x = 0$ and $v_y = 2\pi$ AU/year.

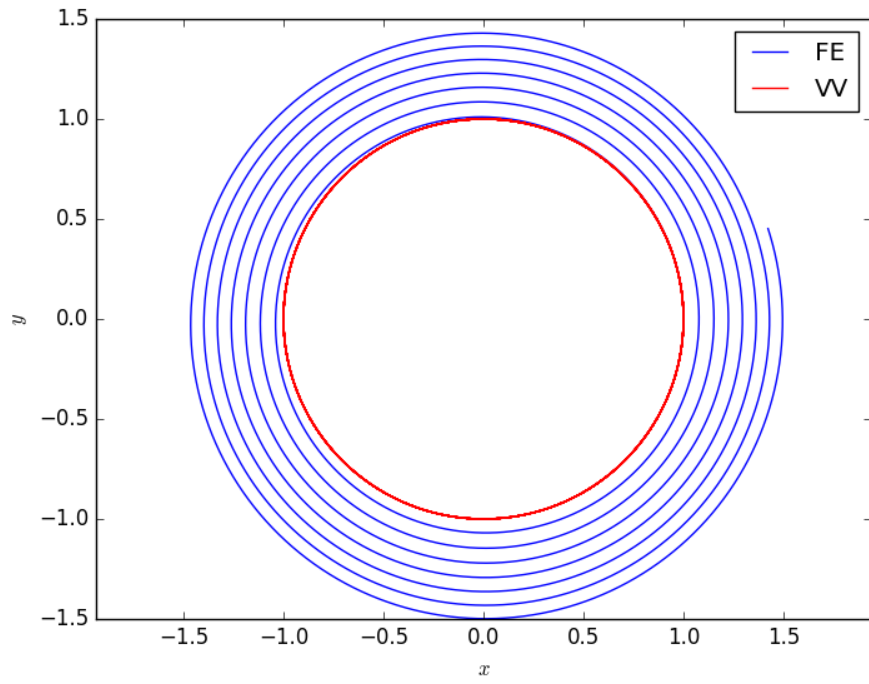
Figure 1 shows comparisons of the orbits we get by using FE and VV over a period of 10 years. In the upper plot we have chosen 10,000 time steps, while in the lower plot we have 100,000 time steps. We see from these plots that the orbits obtained by the VV looks very nice and stable in both cases, while the FE orbits are spiralling outwards. The spirals gets closer when we increase the number of time steps, but we see that the effect is still there.

Another way of testing the algorithms is to consider conservation of some kinematic quantities. Since the orbits (in this test case) should be perfect circles the kinetic and potential energy should be separately conserved, since the velocity and distance to the sun should stay the same. These two quantities are given as

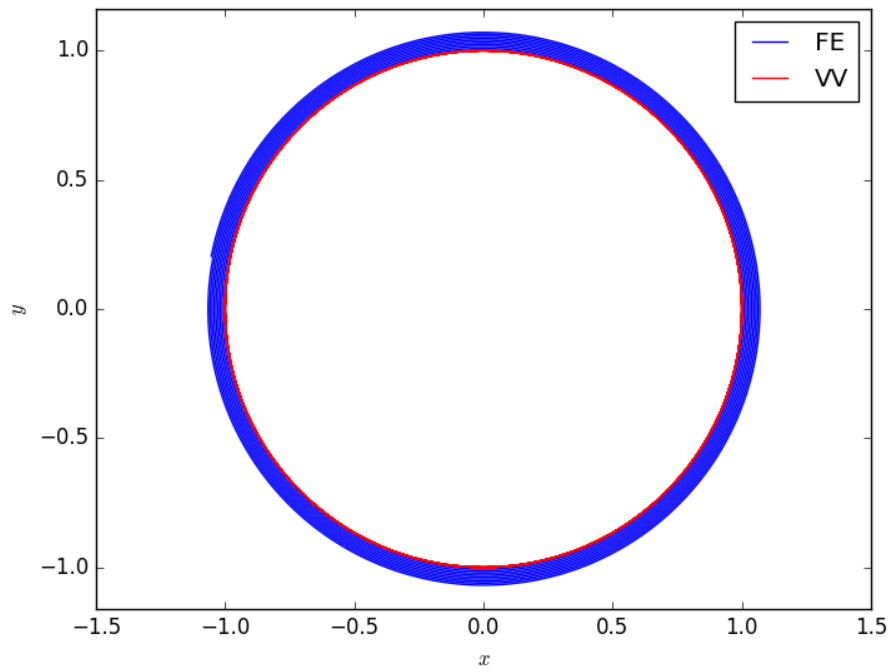
$$E_k = \frac{1}{2}M_{\text{Earth}}v^2$$

and

$$E_p = -\frac{GM_{\odot}M_{\text{Earth}}}{r}$$



(a) 10,000 time steps.



(b) 100,000 time steps.

Figure 1: Orbits obtained by using forward Euler and velocity Verlet, when running over 10 years.

respectively. Also, since the sun is fixed there should be no transfer of angular momentum, meaning that also this quantity should be conserved. We will consider the magnitude of the angular momentum per unit mass, which is given as

$$l = |\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{v}|.$$

In Table 2 these quantities are given for the initial state of the Earth, and after a 10 years simulation with 10,000 time steps for the two algorithms. Notice that the calculations are done in the units we used for scaling the equations (i.e. AU, years and mass per M_{\odot} .) We see here that with the VV algorithm all of these are perfectly conserved, while non of them are conserved using the FE algorithm.

Table 2: Kinetic and potential energy, and angular momentum (per unit mass), calculated before we run the algorithms and after 10 years and 10,000 time steps of forward Euler and velocity Verlet. The quantities are calculated using the units discussed earlier.

	Kinetic energy	Potential energy	Angular momentum
Initial value	$5.92 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$-1.18 \cdot 10^{-4}$	6.28
Forward Euler	$3.98 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$-7.93 \cdot 10^{-5}$	7.69
Velocity Verlet	$5.92 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$-1.18 \cdot 10^{-4}$	6.28

The last thing we want to test is the performance of the two algorithms in terms of CPU time. Results for various number of time steps are given in Table 3. As discussed previously the VV algorithm requires more FLOPS than FE, so it is not surprising to see that VV is about twice as time consuming as FE. However, simulating 10 million time steps in 10 second is still not that bad. So based on this, and the previous observations about stability and conservation of kinematic quantities, we will through the rest of the project use the VV algorithm for our simulations.

Table 3: CPU time consumption for different number of time steps with forward Euler and velocity Verlet.

n	CPU time	
	Forward Euler	Velocity Verlet
10^4	0.012 s	0.016 s
10^5	0.083 s	0.106 s
10^6	0.521 s	1.012 s
10^7	4.822 s	10.73 s

5.2 Escape velocity and modification of gravitational force

Since we have established the VV algorithm as our preferred method we can now play around with the program, for example by trying to find the escape velocity of a planet, and by doing some modifications of the gravitational force. When doing this we will stick to using the same system as for the testing above, only with the necessary modifications.

In Figure 2 planet trajectories are shown for four different values of the initial velocity, i.e. 2.4π , 2.6π , 2.8π and 3π AU/yr. (Remember that the initial velocity for the circular orbit was 2π AU/yr.) We see that for $v = 2.4\pi$ AU/yr the orbit is still relatively circular, but becomes gradually more elliptical as we increases v , while at $v = 3\pi$ AU/yr the planet manages to escape, suggesting that the critical velocity, v_c for escape lies between 2.8π and 3π AU/yr.

The criteria for escape is that $E_k > -E_p$, so the critical velocity is found when $E_k = -E_p$, i.e

$$\frac{1}{2}mv_c^2 = \frac{GM_\odot m}{r},$$

which, by solving for v_c leads to

$$v_c = \sqrt{\frac{2GM_\odot}{r}} = \sqrt{2}2\pi \approx 2.83\pi,$$

where we have used $GM_\odot = 4\pi^2 \text{ AU}^3/\text{yr}^2$ and $r = 1 \text{ AU}$.

The next thing we look at is a model where we let the gravitational force be given by

$$F_G = \frac{GM_\odot M_{\text{Earth}}}{r^\beta},$$

where $\beta \in [2, 3]$. Results for β equal to 2.5, 2.9, 2.99 and 3 are shown in Figure 3. We can see that for $\beta = 2.5$ the system still looks nice and stable, but as β creeps towards three the system starts to loose the stability, and when $\beta = 3$ the Sun is no longer able to keep the planet in orbit, and it starts spiralling out into space.

5.3 Three-body problem

We have now tested and played with our programs by studying one planet (i.e. the Earth) orbiting the Sun. Now we would like to add other planets, starting with the heaviest, namely Jupiter. Since we have written an object oriented code it is quite trivial to do this. We assume the motion to be co-planar, so we stick to studying the system in only two dimensions, and we start by considering initial velocities leading to circular motion, as previously. The results of this is shown in Figure 4, where the simulation runs over 20 years, using 1,000 and 100,000 time steps. Note that using only 1,000 time steps over 20 years mean only 50 time steps per year, showing that the VV algorithm is impressively stable. The Earth orbits seems in this figure seems to be very similar to the one obtained with the binary system. There is however a slight difference shown in Table 4.

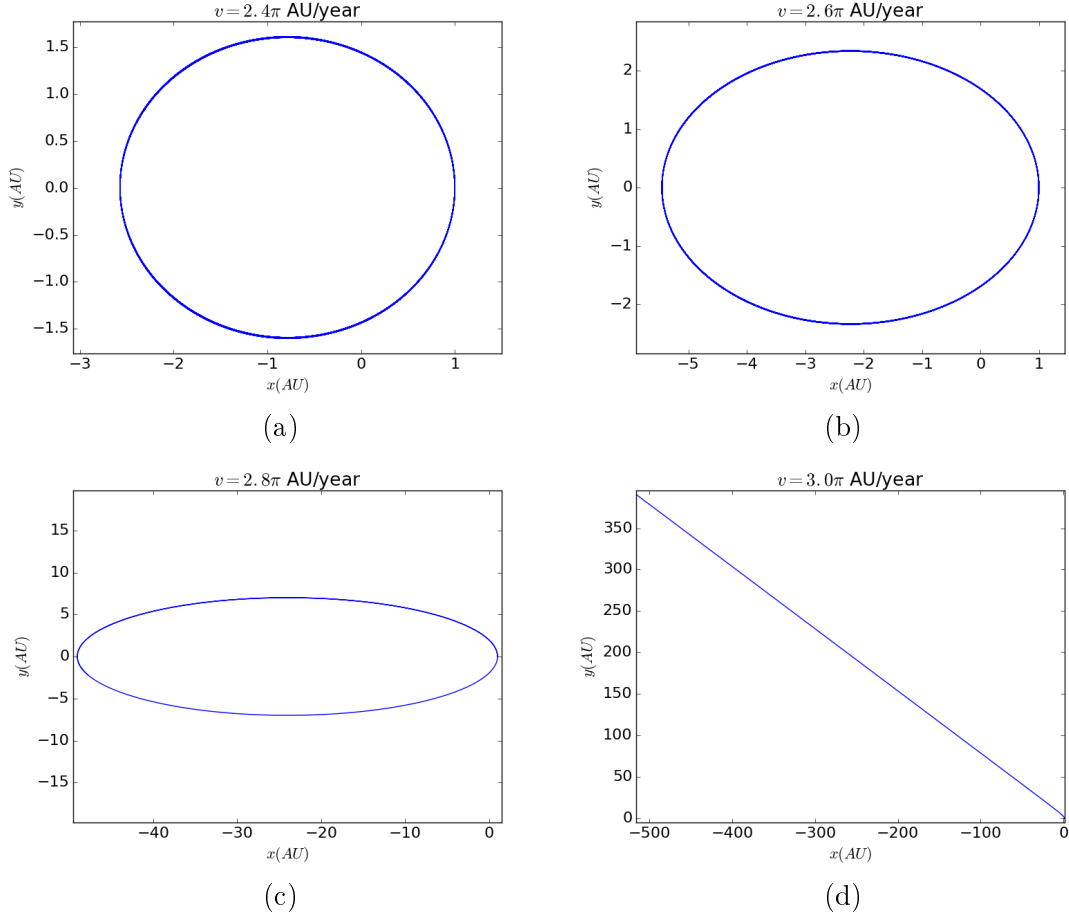


Figure 2: Planet trajectories for different values of the initial velocity, simulated over 200 years with 100,000 time steps. The initial velocity is indicated above each plot.

In Figure 5 we have tried to increase the mass of Jupiter with factor of 10 and 1000. We see that when making Jupiter 10 times heavier the system is still stable, while when we increase by a factor of 1000 (i.e. making Jupiter as heavy as the Sun) the system is no longer stable.

Our next step is to also set the Sun in motion, and choose the origin to be the center-of-mass, rather than the position of the Sun. We give the also give the Sun an initial velocity such that the total momentum of the system is zero, which ensures that the center-of-mass remains fixed. The resulting plots are shown in Figure 6, where we have zoomed in on the Sun in Figure 6b. (Notice also that the radius of the orbit of the Sun is ~ 0.005 AU, which is about the same as the radius of the Sun [2].) Comparing the orbits of the Earth and Jupiter with Figure 4 there is no visible difference, meaning that keeping the Sun fixed in the origin is a good approximation. However, in Table 4 we can see that there actually is a small difference, which we also would expect.

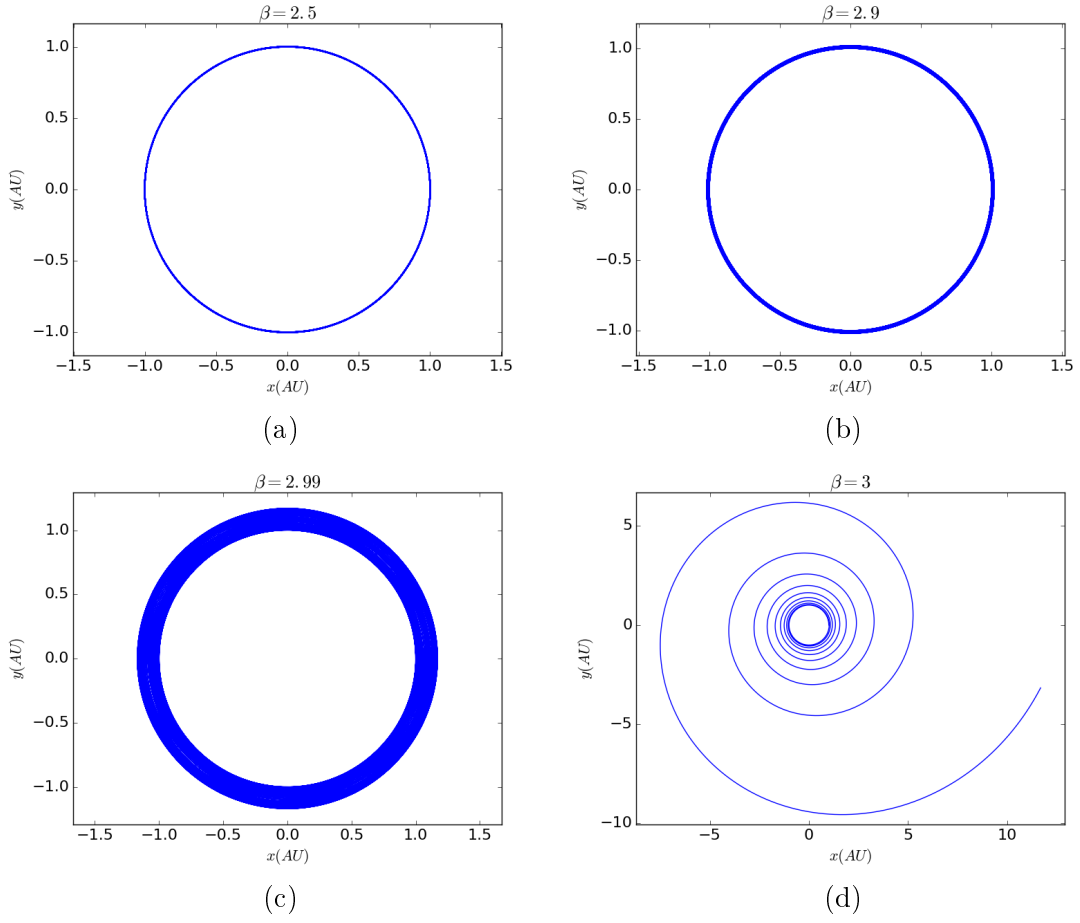


Figure 3: Planet trajectories with various modifications of the gravitational force, simulated over 100 years with 10,000 time steps.

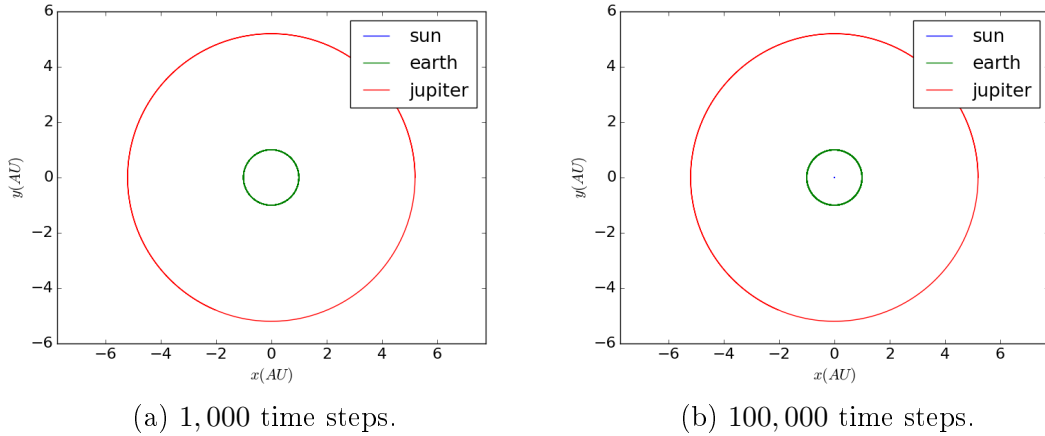


Figure 4: The three body system with the Sun, the Earth and Jupiter simulated over 20 years with different number of time steps, showing that the VV algorithm is impressively stable.

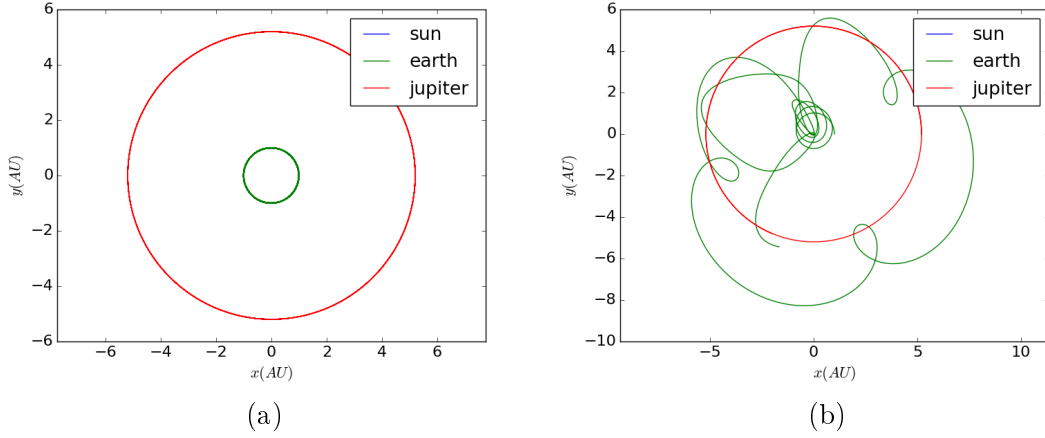


Figure 5: Trajectories of Earth and Jupiter when the mass of Jupiter is increased by a factor of 10 in (a) and a factor of 1,000 in (b). The simulation runs over 100 years in (a) and 20 years in (b).

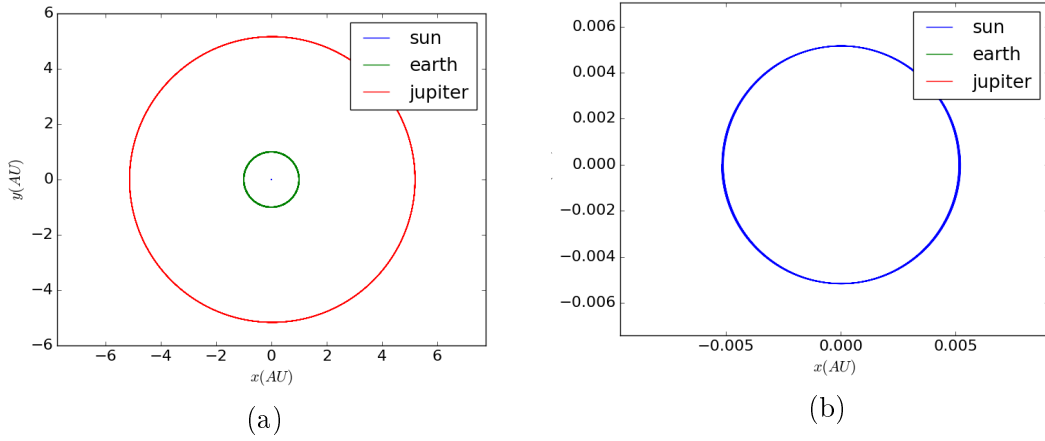


Figure 6: Motion of the Earth and Jupiter in (a), now also with the Sun moving. The motion of the Sun is shown in Figure (b). The simulation runs over 100 years with 100,000 time steps.

Table 4: The maximal and minimal x - and y -positions of the Earth in different systems, found using simulations over 20 years with 100,000 time steps.

System	x_{min}	y_{min}	x_{max}	y_{max}
Binary (fixed Sun)	-1.000001	-1.000000	1.000000	1.000000
Three-body (fixed Sun)	-1.001280	-1.000642	1.000000	1.000636
Three-body (moving Sun)	-1.006822	-1.006036	1.005162	1.005943

5.4 The solar system

Now we move on to simulation the full solar system, with all the planets given previously in Table 1. The planets are initialize using NASA data taken from ref. [3]. The resulting plot in three dimensions is shown in Figure 7.

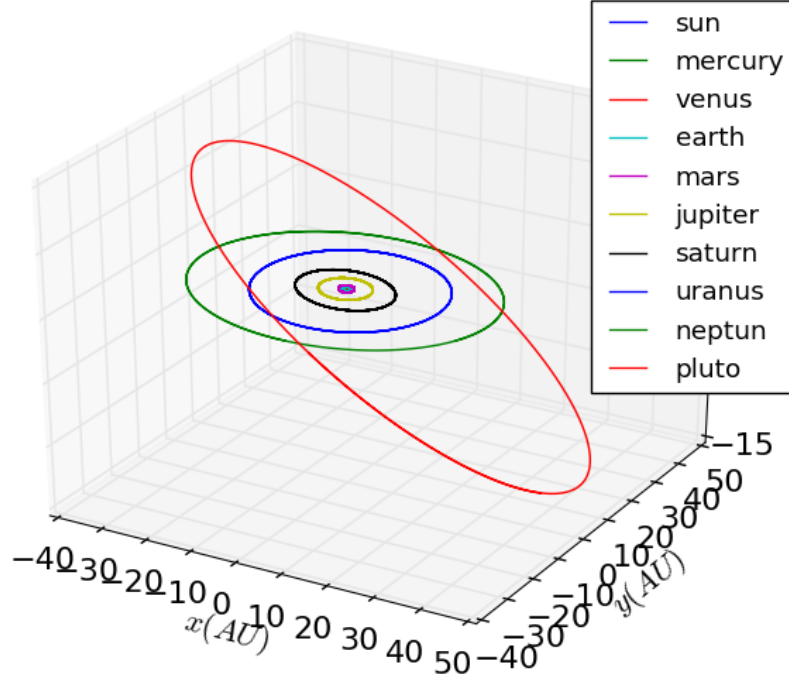


Figure 7: The solar system with nine planets and the Sun simulated over 300 years with 600,000 time steps.

5.5 Perihelion precession of Mercury

Finally, as mentioned previously, we would like to study the perihelion precession of Mercury's orbit. When doing this we go back to keeping the Sun fix in the origin and remove all the other planets. This means that by using the Newtonian force we should (theoretically) get no precession at all, while with the relativistic correction we hope to see the a precession of $\theta_p = 43'' \approx 0.012^\circ$ over one century.

The perihelion of Mercury's orbit is 0.3075 AU, and the velocity at perihelion is 12.44 AU/year. We initialize the system by putting the perihelion along the x -axis, so that the perihelion coordinates initially are given by $x_p = 0.3075$ AU and $y_p = 0$ AU. The angle between the perihelion and the x -axis is then given by

$$\tan \theta_p = \frac{y_p}{x_p},$$

and this quantity is calculated and updated in the code as the years passes by, and printed out in the end. If the correction from General Relativity is correct we should get a final value $\tan \theta_p \approx 2.085 \cdot 10^{-4}$.

Since the expected perihelion angle is very small we need extremely good time resolution in order to see any difference between the two cases, so the simulation is done using 1 billion time steps. The results are shown in Table 5, and they agree quite well with the observed perihelion precession! The slight difference can probably be blamed on round-off errors in the conversion between arc seconds and degrees, and possibly also on limited numerical precision in the computer.

Table 5: Comparison of Newtonian and relativistic calculation of the perihelion angle $\tan \theta_p$.

	$\tan \theta_p$
Newtonian	$1.062 \cdot 10^{-6}$
Relativistic	$2.080 \cdot 10^{-4}$

6 Summary and conclusions

In this project we have simulated planetary motion by using two different methods; the forward Euler algorithm and the velocity Verlet algorithm. When testing and comparing these methods we found that velocity Verlet was a better algorithm, e.g. due to better stability and conservation of kinematic quantities like energy and angular momentum.

Since we have studied several different systems we have also seen the usefulness of making an object oriented program. This introduced a great deal of flexibility to our programs, and made it easy to switch between studying the different systems, like a binary system, a three-body system and a full solar system. We have also experimented with for example the form of the gravitational force and the mass of Jupiter, and seen that the solar system becomes unstable if these are sufficiently altered.

Finally, we also saw that, by adding a relativistic correction to the Newtonian force, we are able to explain the observed perihelion precession of Mercury, even though this quantity is very small.

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