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Constants and Notations

Notations

Formulas

This is a cheat sheet for USAAAO

Orbital Dynamics

Newton Gravity Law

$$F_g = \frac{GMm}{r^2}$$

This is known as the Inversed-Squared law of gravity. G is the Gravitational Constant.

Gravity Potential Energy: Point Mass Assuming the potential energy at infinity is *zero*, by integrating the gravity law, we have the potential energy at *R*:

$$U = \int_{-\infty}^{R} \frac{GMm}{r^2} dr = -\frac{GMm}{R}$$

Therefore the Sun can be visualized as a Gravitational Well, in which the deeper you get, the less energy you have.

Gravity Potential Energy: Uniform Ball A ball with mass M and radius R, assuming uniform density:

$$\rho = \frac{M}{\frac{4}{3}\pi R^3}$$

The potential energy is:

$$\begin{split} U &= \int_0^R dU = \int_0^R -\frac{GM(r)dm}{r} \\ &= \int_0^R -\frac{G \cdot \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3 \rho \cdot 4\pi r^2 dr \rho}{r} \\ &= -\frac{3GM^2}{R^6} \int_0^R r^4 dr \\ &= -\frac{3}{5}\frac{GM^2}{R} \end{split}$$

6 Together with viral theorem: $\langle K \rangle = -\frac{1}{2} \langle U \rangle$, one can 6 link the observational properties (velocities->kinetic 6 energy) to its mass

Conservation of Momentum

Examples:

Without the effects of *force*, the momentum of the system is conserved:

$$\vec{P} = \sum_{m} \vec{p} = \sum_{m} m\vec{v} = const$$

Conservation of Angular Momentum

Examples:

Without the effects of *torque*, the angular momentum of the system (referenced at a give point) is conserved

$$\vec{L} = \sum_{m} \vec{l} = \sum_{m} \vec{r} \times m\vec{v} = const$$

Conservation of Energy

The total energy: Kinetic+Potential is **conserved** for planets:

$$E = K + U = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 - \frac{GMm}{r}$$

For a elipse orbit with semi-major axis a: (Derivation: Conservation of energy at aphelia and perihelia)

$$E = -\frac{GMm}{2a} = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 - \frac{GMm}{r}$$

Orbital Energy $E = -\frac{GMm}{2a}$ is known as the *orbital energy*. One immediately notices three properties:

- E is negative for elipse (a > 0), zero for parabola $(a = \infty)$, positive for hyperbola (a < 0)
- Increase in *orbital energy* will increase a until it becomes a parabola, or even hyperbola
- A meteorite is trapped when E < 0, it escapes when $E \ge 0$.

Vis-Viva Equation Due to the conservation of orbital energy, one calculate velocity based on distance r:

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

This is known as the vis-viva equation. The escape velocity is:

$$v_{excape} = \sqrt{\frac{2GM}{r}}$$

Examples: 2021-Q15

Viral Theorem In statistical mechanics, people are often interested in the averaged behavior of an ensemble of particles, one of the most important results is the *viral theorem*:

$$\langle K \rangle = -\frac{1}{2} \langle U \rangle$$

And therefore the total energy:

$$\langle E \rangle = \langle K \rangle + \langle U \rangle = -\langle K \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \langle U \rangle$$

Examples: 2021-Q9

Kepler's Law

Examples: 2023-Q21

First Law The orbit of a planet is an ellipse with the Sun at one of the two foci.

Second Law line segment joining a planet and the Sun sweeps out equal areas during equal intervals of time.

This is effectively the Conservation of Angular Momentum, because:

• For a small object orbiting a central star, the *Gravity force* is point towards the star, therefore the change in augular momentum:

$$d\vec{L} = \vec{r} \times \vec{F}_g = 0$$

And the angular momentum:

$$\vec{L} = \vec{r} \times m\vec{v}$$

is conserved.

• Constant \vec{L} is identical to * sweeps out equal areas during equal intervals of time*

$$\vec{r} \times m\vec{v}dt \propto \vec{r} \times \vec{v}dt$$

is the small change in the area

Third Law The square of a planet's orbital period Law of Cosine is proportional to the cube of the length of the semimajor axis of its orbit.

Simple derivation can be inferred from circular orbit, where the centrifugal force balances the gravity force $(v\omega = v^2/r = \omega^2 r)$ is known as the **centrifugal** acceleration):

$$\frac{GMm}{a^2} = m\frac{v^2}{a} = m\omega^2 a = m\left(\frac{2\pi}{T}\right)^2 a\frac{GM}{4\pi^2} = \frac{a^3}{T^2}$$

Sidereal Day and Solar Day

Examples: 2020-Q12;

We denote sidereal day as t_{sid} and Solar Day as t_{sol} , we have:

$$t_{sid} = \frac{2\pi}{\omega_0}$$

$$t_{sol} = \frac{2\pi}{\omega_0 - \omega_1 \cos \theta}$$

where ω_0 is the angular velocity of the planet's rotation, and ω_1 is the angular velocity of orbital revolution, θ is the tilt angle.

Celestial Coordinates and Time

Examples: 2023-Q1|17|18; 2022-Q24|25|28|30

Trigonometry

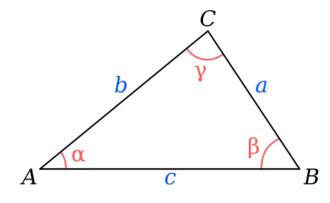


Figure 1: Trigonometry

Length of Arc Circumfurence: $2\pi r$

Length of Arc: θr

$$a^{2} = b^{2} + c^{2} - 2bc \cos \alpha$$
$$b^{2} = a^{2} + c^{2} - 2ac \cos \beta$$
$$c^{2} = a^{2} + b^{2} - 2bc \cos \gamma$$

Derivation:

$$\overrightarrow{BC} = \overrightarrow{AC} - \overrightarrow{AB}$$

$$|\overrightarrow{BC}|^2 = |\overrightarrow{AC} - \overrightarrow{AB}|^2$$

$$= |\overrightarrow{AC}|^2 + |\overrightarrow{AB}|^2 - 2\overrightarrow{AC} \cdot \overrightarrow{AB}$$

$$a^2 = b^2 + c^2 - 2bc\cos\alpha$$

Law of Sine

$$\frac{a}{\sin \alpha} = \frac{b}{\sin \beta} = \frac{c}{\sin \gamma}$$

Spherical Trigonometry

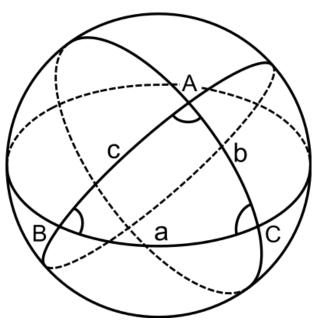


Figure 2: Spherical Trinometry

Spherical Law of Cosine

 $\cos a = \cos b \cos c + \sin b \sin c \cos A$ $\cos b = \cos c \cos a + \sin c \sin a \cos B$ $\cos c = \cos a \cos b + \sin a \sin b \cos C$

Spherical Law of Sine

$$\frac{\sin A}{\sin a} = \frac{\sin B}{\sin b} = \frac{\sin C}{\sin c}$$

Area of the Spherical Triangle

Area of triangle =
$$A + B + C - \pi$$
,

Celestial Coordinate

Circumpolar

$$90 - \delta < \lambda$$

 λ is latitude, δ is declination

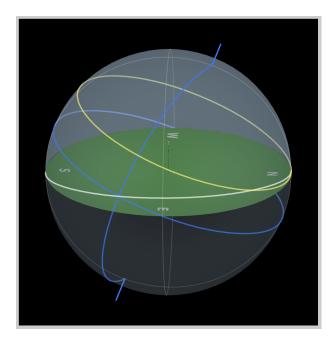


Figure 3: Circumpolar

Telescope & Star Magnitudes

Parallax

Examples:

One $parsec \approx 3.26~ly$ is the parallax of the distant star from a triangle of 1AU and 1 arcsec

Some confusing notations:

• mac: micro-arcsec = $10^{-3} arcsec$ • Mpc: Million-parsec = $10^{6} pc$

The Airy Spot

Examples: 2022-Q6

Due to the diffraction of light, the *best-focused spot* of light has a limited angular size.

$$\sin\theta \approx \theta \approx 1.22 \frac{\lambda}{d}$$

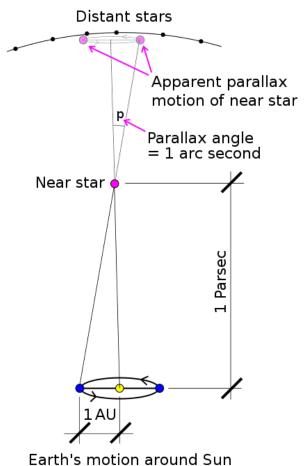


Figure 4: Parallax

where λ is the light wavelength, d is the diameter of the lens. To **differentiate** two light source, they have to be θ away from each other.

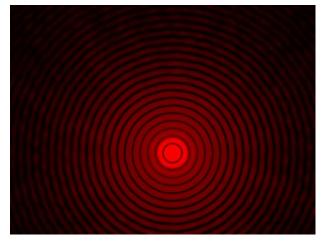


Figure 5: Airy Pattern

Telescope Parameters

Examples: 2021-Q13, 2023-Q2|Q24

f number (focal ratio) The focal ratio is the ratio between the focal length f and the diameter of the aperture d:

$$N = \frac{f}{d}$$

This number is usually denoted as f/N.

For example, f/2 means f = 2d, the larger the number, the worse the telescope.

Magnification The magnification $m = f_o/f_e$ is the ratio between the focal length of *objective* and *eyepiece* lens.

The Apparent and Absolute Magnitude

Examples: 2023-Q2|13; 2022-Q8|18|20; 2021-Q22|23; 2020-Q13; 2019-Q13, 2018-Q13|21

Magnitude and Flux The ultimate physical carrier of light is the flux of photons (or electric-magnetic field), which follows the *inversed-squared law*. Magnitude is a *representation* of the *relative* amount of flux. The definition is that:

Five unit of magnitude = 100 difference in flux

$$100^{\frac{m_1 - m_2}{5}} = \frac{F_2}{F_1}$$

This can be rewritten in terms of distance (for same type of star):

$$10^{\frac{m_1 - m_2}{5}} = \frac{d_1}{d_2}$$

And in log10 in terms of distance:

$$m_1 - m_2 = 5\log_{10}d_1 - 5\log_{10}d_2$$

Absolute Magnitude M The apparent magnitude of a star measured at 10pc ($\log_{10}(10pc) = 1$):

$$M = m - 5\log_{10}(d_{pc}) + 5$$

Extinction Due to the existence of dust, the light can dim:

$$m - M = 5 * \log(d) - 5 + a_V * d$$

Where a_V is the interstellar extinction in the unit of mag/pc or mag/kpc

Examples: 2021-Q23, 2019-Q13

Special Relativity, Hubble's Law & Red Shift

Special Relativity

If the velocity is comparable to the speed of light c, the relativity effects can not be ignored.

 $\begin{array}{lll} \textbf{Mass-Energy Equation Examples:} & 2023\text{-Q}11, \\ 2022\text{-Q}12|15, & 2021\text{-Q}20, & 2020\text{-Q}15 \end{array}$

The mass and energy is equivalent:

$$E = mc^2$$

The loss of mass is identical to the loss of energy. This is the ultimate source of energy in the universe: Fusion in the stars.

Lorentz Coefficient

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}$$

For a moving body, the time flow is slower " $Time\ dilation$ ": (S' is the moving frame)

$$\Delta t' = \gamma \Delta t$$

The "length contraction":

$$\Delta x' = \frac{\Delta x}{\gamma}$$

Examples: 2023-Q15,

Hubble's Law & Red Shift

Examples: 2023-Q27; 2022-Q29;2021-Q8|12|26

The universe is constantly expanding with a coefficient $H_0 = 70 km/s/Mpc$, the expanding speed is:

$$v = H_0 D$$

The resulting "red-shift velocity" is **defined** to be:

$$v_{rs} = cz$$

where z is the red shift. In low velocity case, this can be related to the real red-shift in observed wavelength using the Fizeau-Doppler Formula:

$$z = \frac{\lambda_{\rm o}}{\lambda_{\rm e}} - 1 = \sqrt{\frac{1 + \frac{v}{c}}{1 - \frac{v}{c}}} - 1 \approx \frac{v}{c}$$

where λ_o and λ_e is the observed and emitted wavelength. Since the speed of light is constant, this can also be used to calculate the change in frequency:

$$\frac{\nu_e}{\nu_o} = \sqrt{\frac{1 + \frac{v}{c}}{1 - \frac{v}{c}}}$$

Critical Density of the Universe Replace the escape velocity with the speed of the light from Hubble's expansion:

$$c = H_0 r = \sqrt{\frac{2GM}{r}}$$

We have:

$$\rho = \frac{M}{\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3} = \frac{3H_0^2}{8\pi G} \simeq 9.22 \times 10^{-27} kg \cdot m^{-3}$$

MISC

Signal to Noise Ratio

Proportional to \sqrt{N} , where N is the number of measurements or exposure time

Examples: 2022-Q27

Energy of E&M Wave

Poynting Flux:

$$\vec{S} = \vec{E} \times \vec{B}$$

is *independent* of frequency

Constants and Notations

Constants

- 1. The absolute magnitude of the Sun: 4.83
- 2. Age of the Universe: 13.3 Billion years
- 3. Visible wavelength: 310 nm (ultraviolet) 1100 nm (infrared)

Notations

1. Length: pm/Å/nm/ μ m/mm/cm/km/Mm: $10^{-12}, 10^{-10}, 10^{-9}, 10^{-6}, 10^{-3}, 10^{-2}, 10^{3}, 10^{6}m$