

= m/n . For example , if $k =$

$1/3$ (green planet in Figure 5 , green orbit in Figure 10) , the resulting orbit is called the third subharmonic of the original orbit . Although such orbits are unlikely to occur in nature , they are helpful for illustrating Newton 's theorem .

= = Limit of nearly circular orbits = =

In Proposition 45 of his Principia , Newton applies his theorem of revolving orbits to develop a method for finding the force laws that govern the motions of planets . Johannes Kepler had noted that the orbits of most planets and the Moon seemed to be ellipses , and the long axis of those ellipses can be determined accurately from astronomical measurements . The long axis is defined as the line connecting the positions of minimum and maximum distances to the central point , i.e. , the line connecting the two apses . For illustration , the long axis of the planet Mercury is defined as the line through its successive positions of perihelion and aphelion . Over time , the long axis of most orbiting bodies rotates gradually , generally no more than a few degrees per complete revolution , because of gravitational perturbations from other bodies , oblateness in the attracting body , general relativistic effects , and other effects . Newton 's method uses this apsidal precession as a sensitive probe of the type of force being applied to the planets .

Newton 's theorem describes only the effects of adding an inverse r^{-3} central force . However , Newton extends his theorem to an arbitrary central force $F(r)$ by restricting his attention to orbits that are nearly circular , such as ellipses with low orbital eccentricity ($0 < e < 1$) , which is true of seven of the eight planetary orbits in the solar system . Newton also applied his theorem to the planet Mercury , which has an eccentricity e of roughly 0.21 , and suggested that it may pertain to Halley 's comet , whose orbit has an eccentricity of roughly 0.97 .

A qualitative justification for this extrapolation of his method has been suggested by Valluri , Wilson and Harper . According to their argument , Newton considered the apsidal precession angle ϕ (the angle between the vectors of successive minimum and maximum distance from the center) to be a smooth , continuous function of the orbital eccentricity e . For the inverse r^{-2} square force , ϕ equals 180° ; the vectors to the positions of minimum and maximum distances lie on the same line . If ϕ is initially not 180° at low e (quasi r^{-2} circular orbits) then , in general , ϕ will equal 180° only for isolated values of e ; a randomly chosen value of e would be very unlikely to give $\phi = 180^\circ$. Therefore , the observed slow rotation of the apsides of planetary orbits suggest that the force of gravity is an inverse r^{-2} square law .

= = Quantitative formula = =

To simplify the equations , Newton writes $F(r)$ in terms of a new function $C(r)$

<formula>

where R is the average radius of the nearly circular orbit . Newton expands $C(r)$ in a series ϕ now known as a Taylor expansion ϕ in powers of the distance r , one of the first appearances of such a series . By equating the resulting inverse r^{-3} cube force term with the inverse r^{-2} cube force for revolving orbits , Newton derives an equivalent angular scaling factor k for nearly circular orbits

<formula>

In other words , the application of an arbitrary central force $F(r)$ to a nearly circular elliptical orbit can accelerate the angular motion by the factor k without affecting the radial motion significantly . If an elliptical orbit is stationary , the particle rotates about the center of force by 180° as it moves from one end of the long axis to the other (the two apses) . Thus , the corresponding apsidal angle ϕ for a general central force equals $k \times 180^\circ$, using the general law $\phi = k \times 180^\circ$.

= = Examples = =