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Restricted three body problem pdf

This article is about physics and classical mechanics theory. For the Chinese science fiction novel by Liu Cixin, see *The ThreeBody Problem* (novel). For other uses, see *Three-body problems* (disambiguation). Approximate orbits of three identical bodies located at the vertices of a scalene triangle and have zero initial speeds. It is seen that the center of mass, in accordance with the Law on the Conservation of Momentum, remains in place. In physics and classical mechanics, the three-body problem is the problem of taking the original positions and speeds (or momenta) of three point masses and settling for their subsequent movement according to Newton's laws of motion and Newton's law of universal gravity. [1] The three-body problem is a special case of the n-body problem. Unlike two-body problems, there is no general closed solution,[1] because the resulting dynamic system is chaotic for most initial conditions, and numerical methods are generally required. Historically, the first specific three-body problem to have expanded study was that involving the moon, earth and sun. [2] In an expanded modern sense, a three-body problem is a problem in classical mechanics or quantum mechanics that models the movement of three particles. Mathematical description The mathematical account of the three-body problem can be given in terms of Newtonian motion equations for vector positions

r

i

=
(

x

i

,

y

i

,

z

i

)

{\displaystyle \mathbf {r_{i}} =(x_{i},y_{i},z_{i})}

 of three gravitationally interacting bodies with masses

m

i

in

{\displaystyle m_{i}}

:

r

1

=
−

r

1

−

r

2

|

3

−

G

m

3

r

1

−

r

3

|

r

1

−

r

3

|

3

,

r

2

=
−

G

m

3

r

2

−

r

3

|

r

2

−

r

3

|

3

−

G

m

1

r

2

−

r

1

|

r

2

−

r

1

|

3

,

r

3

=
−

G

m

1

r

3

−

r

1

|

r

3

−

r

1

|

3

−

G

m

2

r

3

−

r

2

|

r

3

−

r

2

|

3

1

{\displaystyle {\begin{aligned}\ddot {\mathbf {r} } _{1}&=-Gm_{2}{\frac {\mathbf {r_{1}-\mathbf {r_{2}} } {\|\mathbf {r_{1}-\mathbf {r_{2}} \|^{3}}}}-Gm_{3}{\frac {\mathbf {r_{1}-\mathbf {r_{3}} } {\|\mathbf {r_{1}-\mathbf {r_{3}} \|^{3}}}}\ddot {\mathbf {r} } _{2}&=-Gm_{3}{\frac {\mathbf {r_{2}-\mathbf {r_{3}} } {\|\mathbf {r_{2}-\mathbf {r_{3}} \|^{3}}}}-Gm_{1}{\frac {\mathbf {r_{2}-\mathbf {r_{1}} } {\|\mathbf {r_{2}-\mathbf {r_{1}} \|^{3}}}}\ddot {\mathbf {r} } _{3}}&=-Gm_{1}{\frac {\mathbf {r_{3}-\mathbf {r_{1}} } {\|\mathbf {r_{3}-\mathbf {r_{1}} \|^{3}}}}-Gm_{2}{\frac {\mathbf {r_{3}-\mathbf {r_{2}} } {\|\mathbf {r_{3}-\mathbf {r_{2}} \|^{3}}}}\end{aligned}}}

 where

G

{\displaystyle G}

 is the gravity constant. [3] [4] This is a set of 9 second-order differential equations. The problem can also be indicated equivalent in the Hamiltonformalism, in which case it is described by a set of 18 first-order differential equations, one for each component in the positions

r

i

{\displaystyle \mathbf {r_{i}} }

 and momenta

p

i

{\displaystyle \mathbf {p_{i}} }

:

d

r

i

d

t

=

∂

H

∂

p

i

,

d

p

i

d

t

=
−

∂

H

∂

r

i

,

{\displaystyle {\frac {d\mathbf {r_{i}} }{dt}}={\frac {\partial {\mathcal {H}}}{\partial \mathbf {p_{i}} }}\quad {\frac {d\mathbf {p_{i}} }{dt}}=-{\frac {\partial {\mathcal {H}}}{\partial \mathbf {r_{i}} }}

 , where

H

{\displaystyle {\mathcal {H}}}

 is the Hamiltonian:

H
=
−

G

m

1

m

2

|

r

1

−

r

2

|

−

G

m

2

m

3

|

r

3

−

r

2

|

−

G

m

3

m

1

|

r

3

−

r

1

|

+

p

1

2

2

m

1

+

p

2

2

2

m

2

+

p

3

2

2

m

3

.

{\displaystyle {\mathcal {H}}=-{\frac {Gm_{1}m_{2}}{\|\mathbf {r_{1}-\mathbf {r_{2}} \|}}-{\frac {Gm_{2}m_{3}}{\|\mathbf {r_{3}-\mathbf {r_{2}} \|}}-{\frac {Gm_{3}m_{1}}{\|\mathbf {r_{3}-\mathbf {r_{1}} \|}}+{\frac {\mathbf {p_{1}} ^{2}}{2m_{1}}}}+{\frac {\mathbf {p_{2}} ^{2}}{2m_{2}}}}+{\frac {\mathbf {p_{3}} ^{2}}{2m_{3}}}}}

 In this case

H

{\displaystyle {\mathcal {H}}}

 is simply the total energy of the system, gravitational plus kinetic. Limited three-body problem The circular limited three-body problem is a valid approximation of elliptical orbits present in the solar system, and this can be visualized as a combination of the potentials due to the gravity of the two primary bodies along with the centrifugal effect of their rotation (Coriolis's effects are dynamic and do not appear). The lagrange points can then be seen as the five places where the slope of the resulting surface is zero (shown as blue lines), indicating that the forces are in balance there. In the narrow three-body problem,[3] a body of negligible mass (planetoid) moves under the influence of two massive bodies. With negligible mass, the force that the planetoid exerts on the two massive organs can be neglected, and the system can be analyzed and can therefore be described in terms of a two-organ movement. Usually this two-body movement is taken to consist of circular orbits around the mass center, and the planetoid is assumed to move in the plane defined by the circular orbits. The limited three-body problem is easier to analyze theoretically than the whole problem. It is of practical interest as well as because it accurately describes many real problems, the most important example being the Earth–Moon–Sun system. For these reasons, it has played an important role in the historical development of the three-body problem. Mathematically, the problem is listed as follows. Let

m

1

,

2

{\displaystyle m_{1,2}}

 be the masses of the two massive bodies, with (planar) coordinates

(

x

1

,

y

1

)

{\displaystyle (x_{1},y_{1})}

 and

(

x

2

,

y

2

)

{\displaystyle (x_{2},y_{2})}

, and let

(

x
,

y
)

{\displaystyle (x,y)}

 be the coordinates of the planetoid. For convenience, select units so that the distance between the two massive bodies, as well as the gravity constant, is both equal to 1

1

{\displaystyle 1}

. Then, the movement the planetoid is given with

d

2

x

d

t

2

=
−

m

1

x
−

x

1

r

1

3

−

m

2

x
−

x

2

r

2

3

d

2

y

d

t

2

=
−

m

1

y
−

y

1

r

1

3

−

m

2

y
−

y

2

r

2

3

{\displaystyle {\begin{aligned}{\frac {d^{2}x}{dt^{2}}}=-m_{1}{\frac {x-x_{1}}{r_{1}^{3}}}-m_{2}{\frac {x-x_{2}}{r_{2}^{3}}}

{\displaystyle x_{i}(t),y_{i}(t)}

\end{aligned}}}

 where

r

i

=
(

x
−

x

i

)

2

+
(

y
−

y

i

)

2

{\displaystyle r_{i}={\sqrt {(x-x_{i})^{2}+(y-y_{i})^{2}}}}

. In this form the motion equations carry an explicit time depending through the coordinates

x

i

(

t

)
,

y

i

in
(

t

)

{\displaystyle x_{i}(t),y_{i}(t)}

. However, this time dependency can be removed by a transformation into a rotating frame of reference, which simplifies any subsequent analysis. Solutions General solution There is no general analytical solution to the three-body problem given by simple algebraic expressions and integrals. [1] In addition, the movement of three bodies is generally non-repeating, except in special cases. [5] On the other hand, the Finnish mathematician Karl Fritiof Sundman proved in 1912 that there is a serial solution in the powers of t1/3 for the 3-body problem. [6] This series converges for all real t, except for initial conditions corresponding to zero momentum. (In practice the later restriction is insignificant since such initial conditions are rare, having Lebesgue measure zero.) An important question in proving this result is the fact that the radius of convergence for this series is determined by the distance to the nearest singularity. Therefore, it is necessary to study the possible singularities of 3-body problems. As it will be discussed briefly below, the only singularities in 3-body problem are binary collisions (collisions between two particles in an instant) and triple collisions (collisions of three particles in an instant). Collisions, whether binary or triple (in fact, any number), are somewhat unlikely, as it has been shown that they correspond to a set of initial conditions for action zero. However, there is no criterion known to have been set on the original state in order to avoid collisions for the corresponding solution. So Sundman's strategy consisted of the following steps: Using an appropriate change of variables to continue analyzing the solution beyond the binary collision, in a process called regularization. Proves that triple collisions only occur when the momentum L disappears. By limiting the original data to L ≠ 0, he removed all real singularities from the converted equations of the 3-body problem. Shows that if L ≠ 0, then not only can there be no triple collision, but the system is strictly bounded away from a triple collision. This means, using Cauchy's differential equation sledgeamount, that there is no complex singularities in a strip (dependence (dependence the value of L) in the complex plane centered around the real axis (shades of Kovalevskaya). Find a conform transformation that maps this strip in the drive disc. If s = e.g. s = t1/3 (the new variable after regularization) and if |ln s| ≤ β,[clarification needed] when this map is given by

σ
=

e

π

s

2

β
−
1

e

π

s

2

β
+
1

.

{\displaystyle \sigma ={\frac {e^{\frac {\pi s}{2\beta }}-1}{e^{\frac {\pi s}{2\beta }}+1}}}

 This concludes the proof of Sundmannsats. Unfortunately, the corresponding series converge very slowly. [7] Special case solutions in 1767, Leonhard Euler found three families with periodic solutions in which the three masses are collinear at every moment. See Euler's three-body problem. In 1772, Lagrange found a family of solutions in which the three masses form an equilateral triangle at every moment. Together with Euler's multi-purpose solutions, these solutions form the central configurations for the three-body problem. These solutions are valid for all mass conditions, and the masses move on Keplerian ellipses. These four families are the only known solutions for which there are explicit analytical formulas. In the particular case of the circular limited problem of threebodies, these solutions, which are seen in a frame that rotates with the primaries, are points called L1, L2, L3, L4 and L5, and are called Lagrangian points, with L4 and L5 as symmetrical instances of Lagrange's solution. In works summarised from 1892 to 1899, Henri Poincaré established the existence of an infinite number of periodic solutions to the limited three-body problem, together with techniques to continue these solutions into the general three-body problem. In 1893, Meissel stated what is now called Pythagorean's three-body problem: three masses in the 3:4:5 ratio are placed at rest at the vertices of a 3:4:5 right triangle. Burrau[8] investigated this problem further in 1913. In 1967 Victor Szebehely and C. Frederick Peters finally established escape for this problem using numerical integration, while finding a nearby periodic solution at the same time. [9] In the 1970s, Michel Hénon and Roger A. Broucke each found a set of solutions that form part of the same family of solutions: the Broucke–Hénon–Hadjidemetriou family. In this family the three objects all have the same mass and can exhibit both retrograde and direct shapes. In some of Broucke's solutions, two of the bodies follow the same path. [10] An animation of the digit-8 solution to the three-body problem over a single period

T
≈
6.3259.

{\displaystyle T\approx 6.3259.}

 [11] In 1993, a zero angular moment With three equal masses moving around a figure-eight shape discovered numerically by physicist Cris Moore at the Santa Fe Institute. [12] Its formal existence was later proven in 2000 by mathematicians Alain Chenciner and Richard Montgomery. [13] The solution has numerically proven to be stable for small perturbations of the mass and orbital parameters, raising the intriguing possibility that such orbits could be observed in the physical universe. However, it has been argued that this occurrence is unlikely because the area of stability is small. For example, the probability of a binary-binary dispersion event[clarification is needed] resulting in a figure-8 orbit has been estimated to be a small fraction of 1%. [15] In 2013, physicists Milovan Šuvakov and Veljko Dmitrašinović of the Institute of Physics in Belgrade discovered 13 new families of solutions to the problem of equal zero-angle momentum three-body problems. [5] In 2015, physicist Ana Hudomal discovered 14

