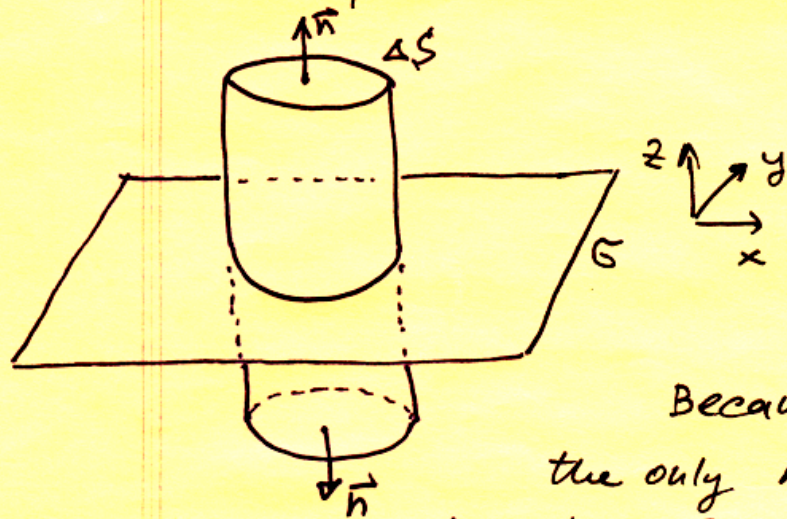


Potentials for Non-spherical Distributions

Non-spherical systems: examples, which demonstrate general trends

In general, non-spherical systems are much more difficult to handle. Still, we can solve some simple and astronomically interesting cases

① Thin infinite disk: a simple model for stellar disks

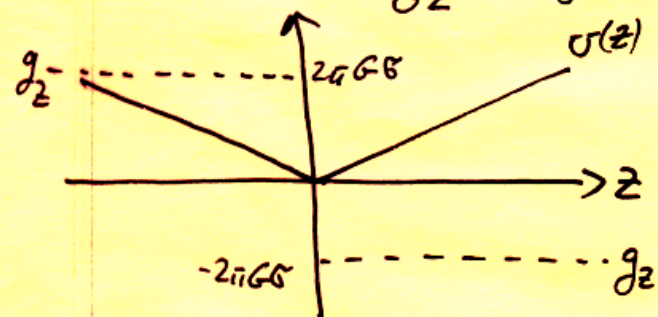


σ is the surface density
 $\Delta S = \text{area}$
 \vec{n} = unit vector orthogonal to the surface

Because of the plane symmetry, the only non-zero component of \vec{g} is g_z
 Use the Gauss law to find g_z :

$$\oint_{\text{cylinder}} \vec{g} \cdot d\vec{s} = -4\pi G M \Rightarrow \left. \begin{aligned} M &= \sigma \Delta S \\ \oint \vec{g} \cdot d\vec{s} &= -2g_z \Delta S \end{aligned} \right\} \rightarrow \vec{g} = -2\pi G \sigma \vec{n}$$

Now, from $\frac{\partial U}{\partial z} = -g_z$ find $U = 2\pi G \sigma |z|$



If we start with the Poisson equation, we get the same answer. In this case $\rho = \sigma \delta(z)$

Note, that in this case we cannot normalize U in usual way to have $U(\infty) = 0$. Instead, we use $U(0) = 0$.

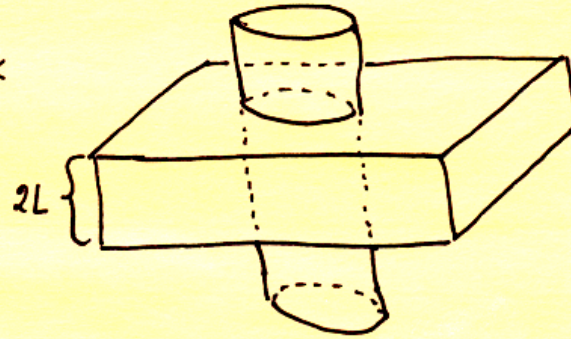
Another effect: in spite of infinite density at $z=0$, both g_z and U are finite.

② Slightly more complicated system: Thick disk

$\rho_0 = \text{const} = \text{density of the disk}$

$2L = \text{disk height}$

$\sigma \equiv 2\rho_0 L = \text{surface density}$



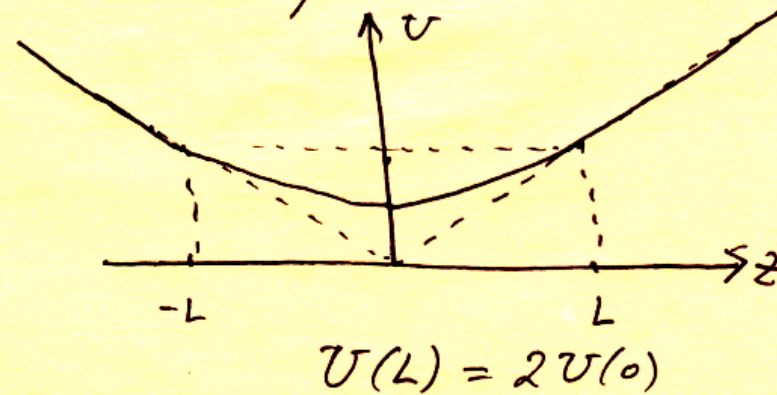
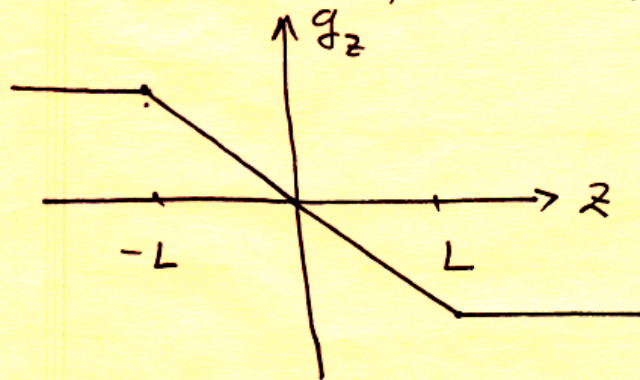
$M(z) = \text{mass inside the cylinder within } |z|$

$$M(z) = \begin{cases} \sigma \Delta S, & \text{for } |z| > L \\ 2\rho_0 |z| \Delta S, & \text{for } |z| < L \end{cases}$$

$$\oint \vec{g} \cdot d\vec{s} = -4\pi \sigma M \Rightarrow g(z) = \begin{cases} -4\pi \sigma \rho_0 L, & z > L \\ -4\pi \sigma \rho_0 z, & 0 < z < L \end{cases}$$

$$U = \begin{cases} 4\pi \sigma \rho_0 L z, & z > L \\ 2\pi \sigma \rho_0 z^2 + U(0), & z < L \end{cases}$$

The constant should be chosen in such a way, that U is a continuous function $\Rightarrow U(0) = 2\pi \sigma \rho_0 L^2$



III Filament with constant density

The filament is infinite; radius is R ; density is ρ_0

$G(r)$ = mass per unit length inside radius r

$$G(r) = \pi \rho_0 \begin{cases} r^2, & \text{for } r < R \\ R^2, & \text{for } r \geq R \end{cases}$$

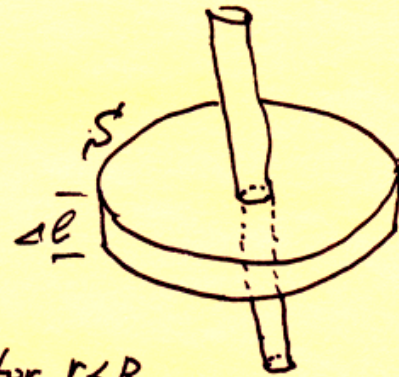
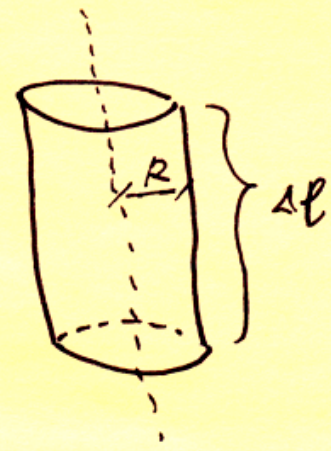
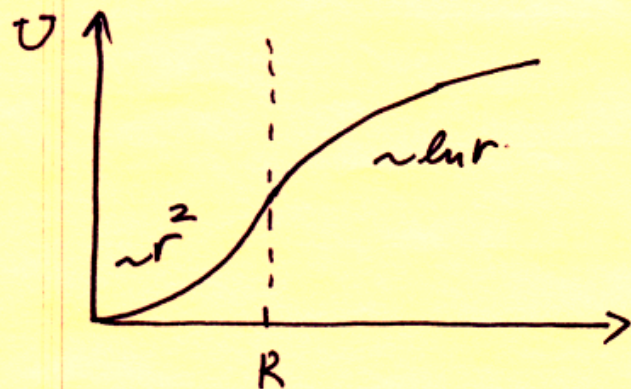
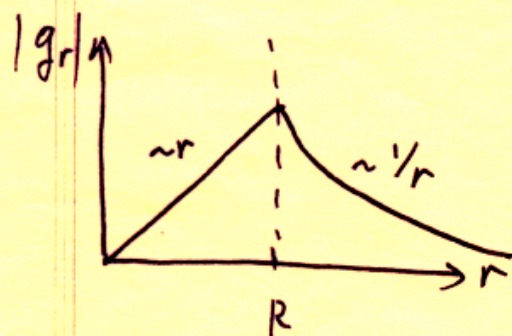
Apply the Gauss law: $\oint \vec{g} \cdot d\vec{s} = -4\pi G M$

$$g_r \Delta l 2\pi r = -4\pi G G(r) \Delta l$$

This gives:

$$g_r = -\frac{2G G(r)}{r} = \begin{cases} -2\pi G \rho_0 r, & \text{for } r < R \\ -2\pi G \rho_0 \frac{R^2}{r}, & \text{for } r \geq R \end{cases}$$

$$U(r) = \begin{cases} \pi G \rho_0 r^2 + U(0), & \text{for } r < R \\ \pi G \rho_0 R^2 + 2\pi G \rho_0 R^2 \ln\left(\frac{r}{R}\right) + U(0); & \text{for } r \geq R \end{cases}$$



We can find the potential for a string with finite mass by setting $R \rightarrow 0$ and keeping $\bar{G} = \pi \rho_0 R^2 = \text{const} = G_0$

$$U = 2G_0 \ln r$$

This goes to ∞ both at $r \rightarrow 0$ and at $r \rightarrow \infty$

Homogeneous Ellipsoid:

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} + \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1$$

$\rho = \rho_0$ is constant inside
ellipsoid:

Where a, b, c are semi axes

$$U(x, y, z) = \pi G \rho_0 [Ax^2 + By^2 + Cz^2]$$

$$A = abc \int_0^\infty \frac{d\lambda}{(a^2 + \lambda) f^{1/2}}$$

$$B = abc \int_0^\infty \frac{d\lambda}{(b^2 + \lambda) f^{1/2}}, \quad C = abc \int_0^\infty \frac{d\lambda}{(c^2 + \lambda) f^{1/2}}; \quad f = (a^2 + \lambda)(b^2 + \lambda)(c^2 + \lambda)$$

Gravitational potential inside the
ellipsoid is given by this
expression.

Here coefficient A, B, and C are:

analysis of these relations.

Use the Poisson equation
This gives the relation
between A, B, C

$$\nabla^2 U = 4\pi G \rho(x, y, z)$$

$$A + B + C = 2$$

For an oblate ellipsoid
the coefficients A, B, and C are

$$a = b > c$$

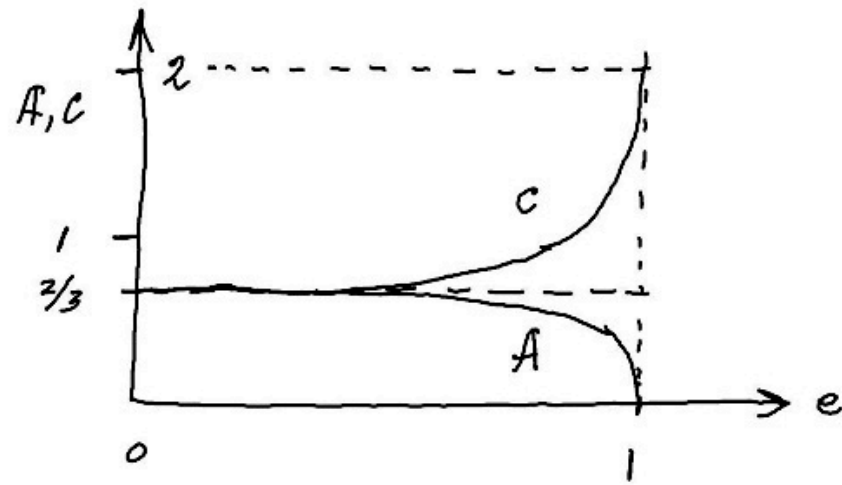
$$A = B = \frac{(1-e^2)^{1/2}}{e^2} \left[\frac{\arcsin e}{e} - (1-e^2)^{1/2} \right], \quad \text{where } e^2 = 1 - \frac{c^2}{a^2}$$

$$C = 2 \frac{(1-e^2)^{1/2}}{e^2} \left[\frac{1}{(1-e^2)^{1/2}} - \frac{\arcsin e}{e} \right], \quad e = \text{eccentricity}$$

at small $e \ll 1$ $\arcsin e \approx e + \frac{e^3}{3!} \Rightarrow A = B \approx \frac{2}{3}$

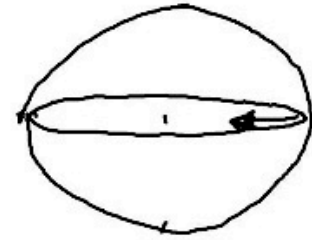
at $e = 1$ $\arcsin(1) = \pi/2$, $A \approx \frac{\pi}{2} \sqrt{1-e^2} = \frac{c}{a} \frac{\pi}{2} \rightarrow 0$
 $C \approx 2$

so, in this limit ($e \approx 1, a \gg c$) $U \approx 2\pi G \rho_0 z^2$



How much the acceleration changes if we flatten the distribution?

$$\left. \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \right|_{\substack{x=a \\ y=0 \\ z=0}} = 2\pi G \rho_0 A x$$



Rewrite it in a different way:

Mass is equal to

$$M = \frac{4\pi}{3} a b c \rho_0$$

Compare acceleration of a sphere
of the same mass with the real acceleration

$$g_{x, \text{sphere}} = \frac{GM}{a^2} \Leftrightarrow g_x = 2\pi G \rho_0 A a$$

For $e \approx 1 \Rightarrow A \approx \frac{\pi}{2} \sqrt{1-e^2} = \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{c}{a} \Rightarrow g_x = \frac{\pi}{2} G \rho_0 c \Rightarrow$

$$g_x = \frac{3}{4} \pi \frac{GM}{a^2} \quad \frac{3}{4} \pi \approx 2.356$$

Thus, the largest error is

$$g_{x, \text{sphere}} / g_x \approx \frac{1}{2.356}$$

The acceleration at point

$$x=y=0, z=c$$

$$g_z = 4\pi G \rho_0 c$$

This is almost the same acceleration as at point

$$x=a, z=0$$

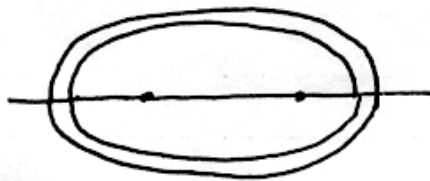
I Spheroids with inhomogeneous density distribution

Logic: start with a thin shell (homoeoid) \Rightarrow

Find the potential \Rightarrow integrate over all shells \Rightarrow get potential

This is the same logic we had for spherical systems, but now the shell is not a spherical shell

Homoeoid: constant density between two similar spheroids:



$$\frac{R^2}{a^2} + \frac{z^2}{b^2} = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad = (1+\delta)^2$$

\Rightarrow Exterior isopotential surfaces of a homoeoid are spheroids, that are confocal with the shell.

\Rightarrow Inside the shell the potential is constant

Spheroids with isodensity surfaces: (similar spheroids)

$$m^2 = R^2 + \frac{z^2}{1-e^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow U = U(m, e)$$

Volume $V = \frac{4}{3}\pi a^2 b$

Interesting application: $\rho(m^2) = \rho_0 \left[1 + \left(\frac{m}{a_0} \right)^2 \right]^{-3/2}$

a_0 = core radius

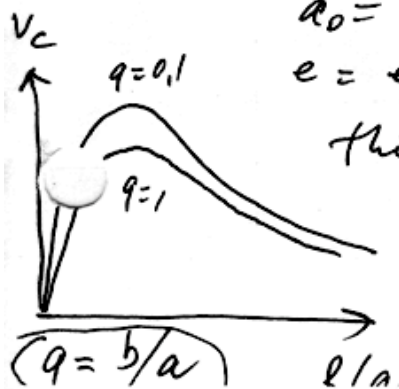
e = eccentricity

this gives

$$V_c^2(R) = 4\pi G \rho_0 a_0^3 \frac{\sqrt{1-e^2}}{R} k [F(\theta_m, k) - E(\theta_m, k)]$$

$$k = \left[\left(\frac{a_0 e}{R} \right)^2 + 1 \right]^{-1/2}$$

incomplete elliptical integrals

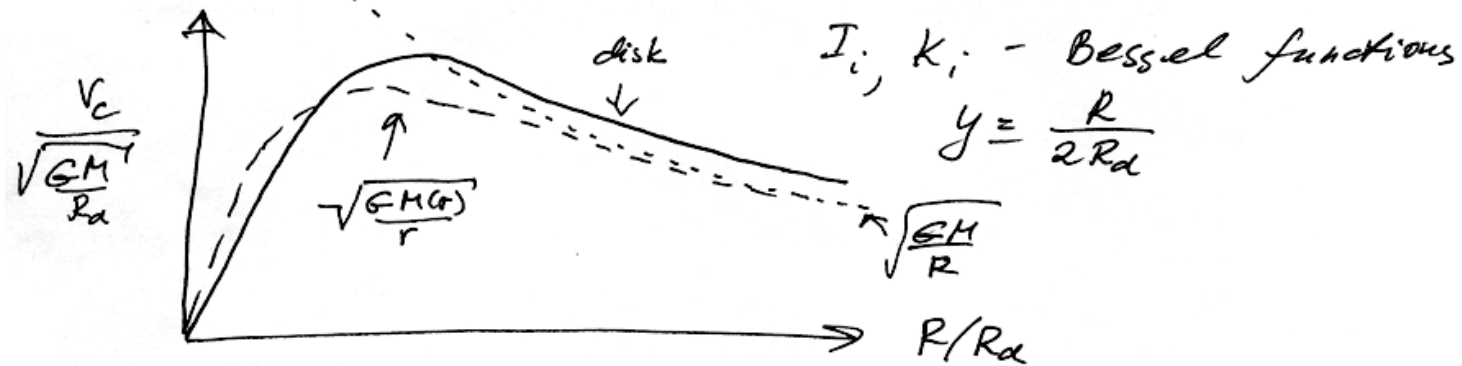


Another example: exponential thin disk

again, the final expression is not easy.

For a thin disk with surface density $\Sigma(R) = \Sigma_0 e^{-R/R_d}$

$$v_c^2(R) = 4\pi G \Sigma_0 R_d \cdot y^2 [I_0(y) K_0(y) - I_1(y) K_1(y)]$$



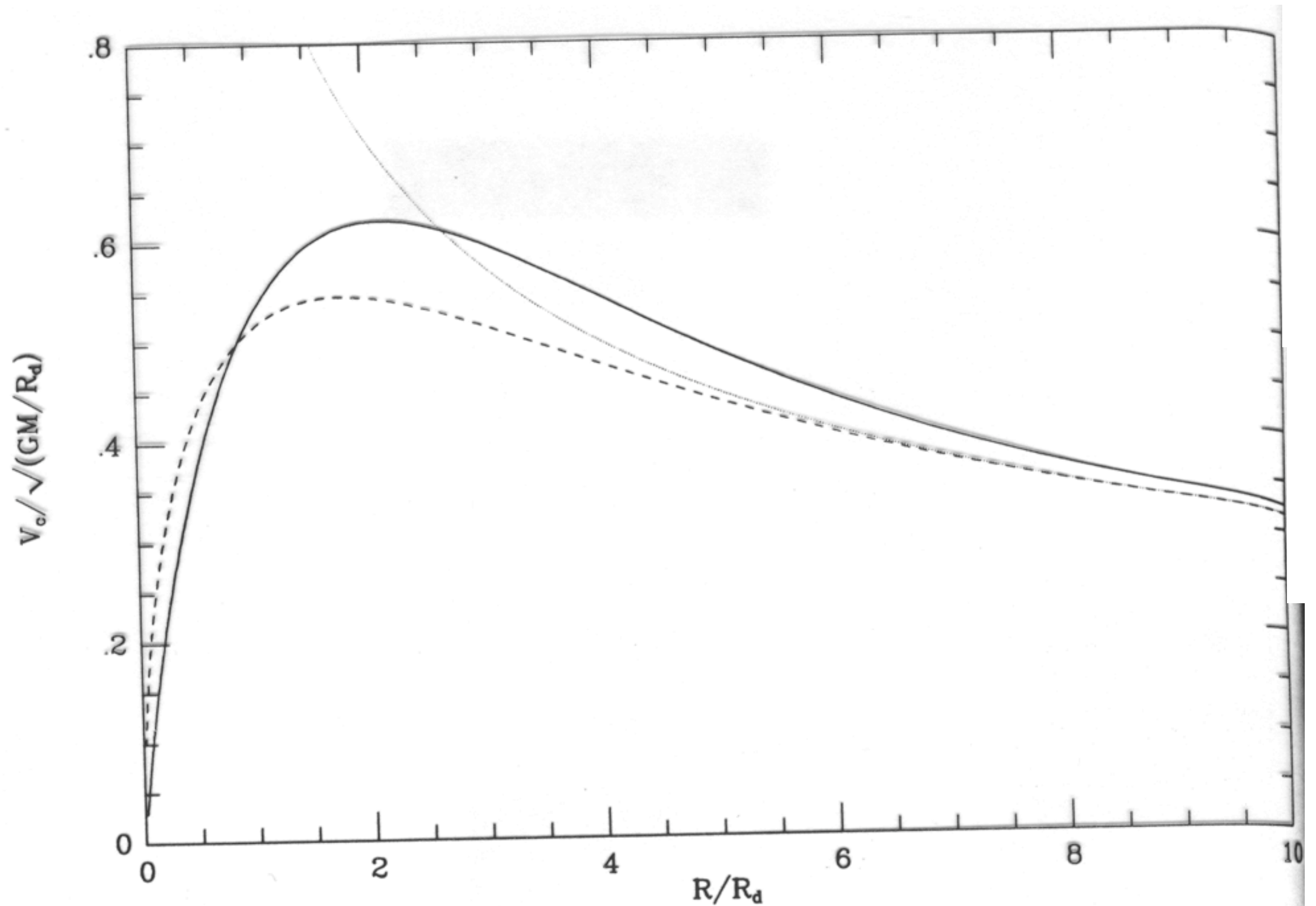


Figure 2-17. The circular-speed curves of: an exponential disk (full curve); a point with the same total mass (dotted curve); the spherical body for which $M(r)$ is given by equation (2-170) (dashed curve).

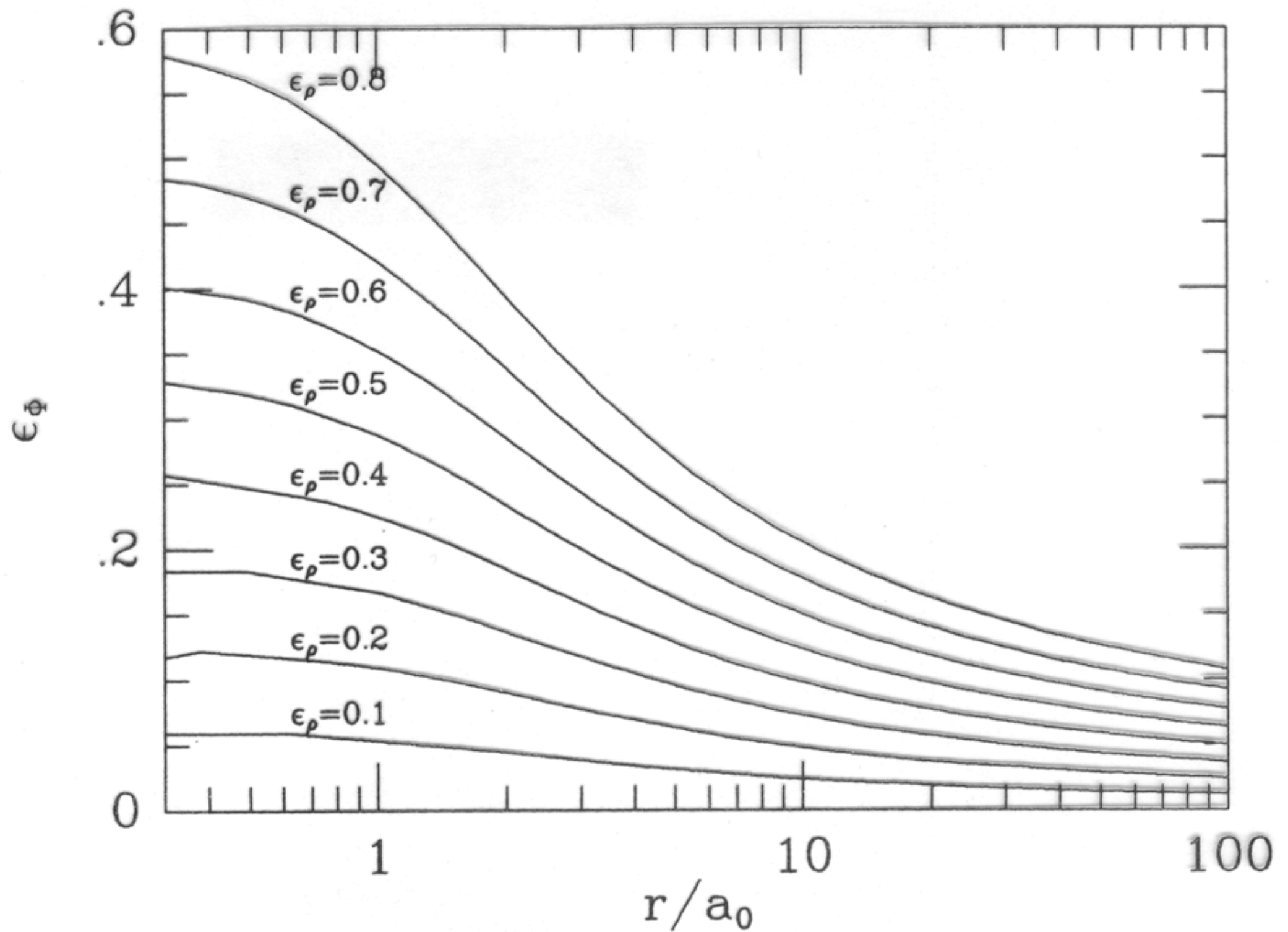


Figure 2-13. The ellipticity ϵ_{Φ} of an equipotential surface versus the surface's semi-major axis length r . Each curve is labeled by the ellipticity $\epsilon_{\rho} = 1 - q$ of the body with density (2-92) that generates the corresponding potential. Notice the rapidity with which the equipotential surfaces become spherical at large r/a_0 .

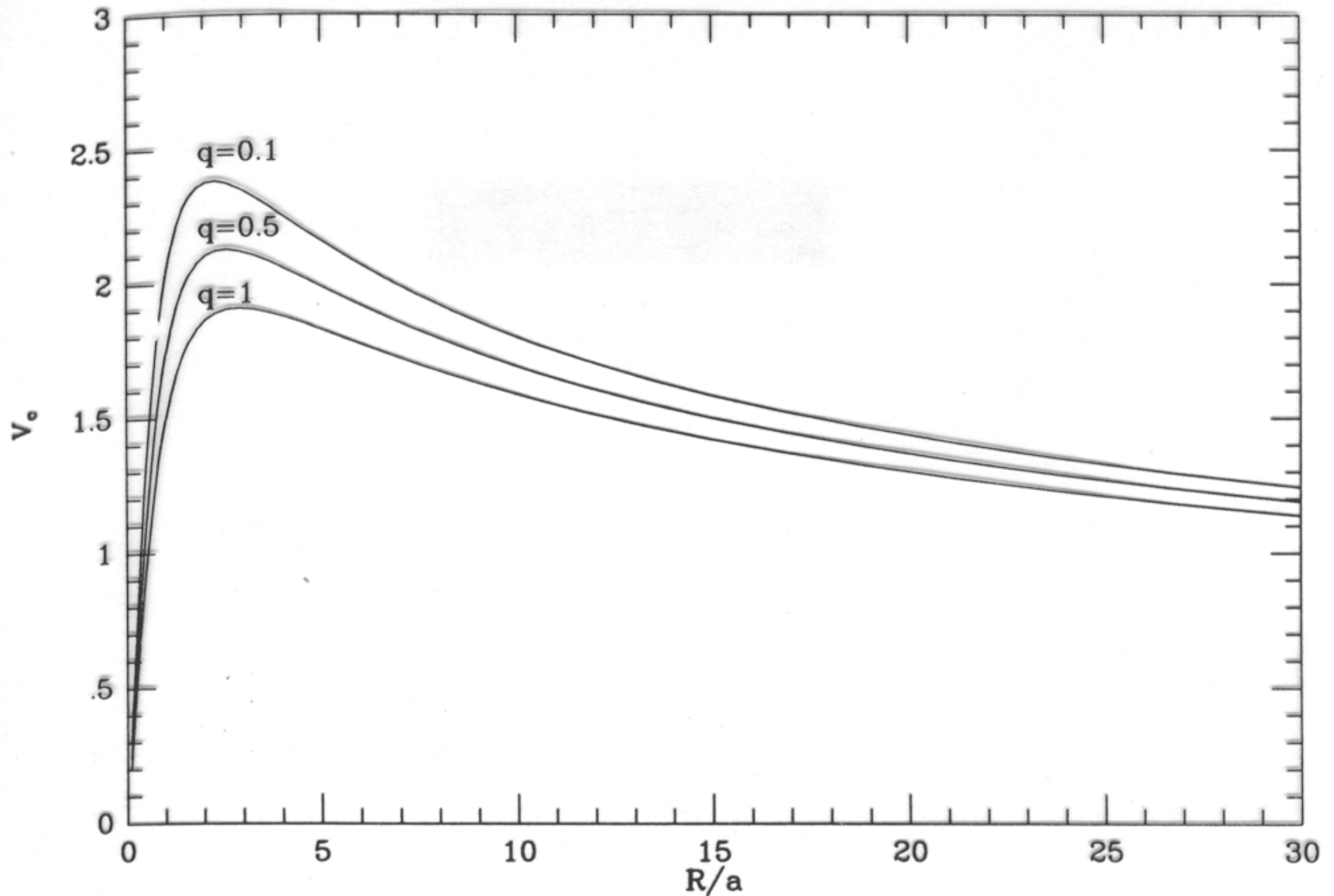


Figure 2-12. Circular speed versus radius for three bodies with the same face-on projected density profile (the modified Hubble profile) but different axis ratios $q = b/a$. Though all three bodies have the same total mass inside a spheroid of given semi-major axis, v_c increases with flattening $1 - q$.