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CLASSIC TESTS OF EINSTEIN'S THEORY

THE SHAPIRO RADAR ECHO DELAY

CALCULATED WITH THE SNELL'S LAW

Leonardo Rubino
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Abstract: The Shapiro radar echo delay calculated with the Snell's Law.

We send, through a radio telescope, an electromagnetic signal from the Earth to Mercury (as an example), or from the Earth to a space probe; it will be reflected and sent back to the Earth. Through the electronics we can easily measure the time between the departure time and the return one. If now we repeat this experiment when the Sun is in between those two planets (Fig. 1) and considering that the signal could possibly graze the Sun (Fig. 2), so being relativistically affected, then what happens is that the signal will come back to the Earth with a slight delay, if compared with the signal in the former case; the time delay will be very short (hundreds of μs , with respect to the tens of minutes taken by the whole round trip), but the electronics will easily measure such a delay anyway.

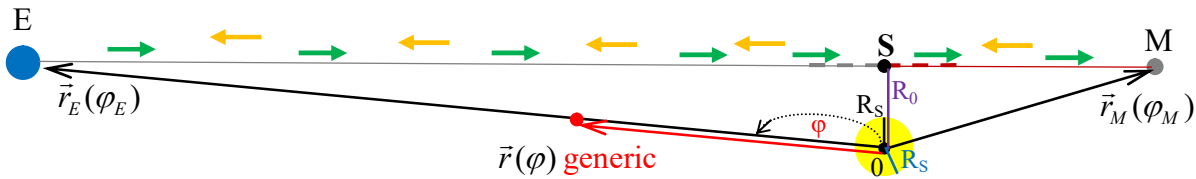


Fig. 1: To $\rightarrow$ and fro $\leftarrow$ trajectories in a round trip, with a farther Sun ($R_0 > R_S$).

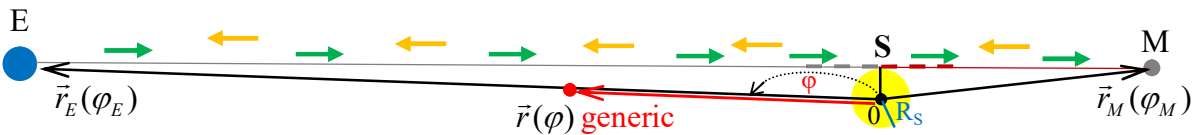


Fig. 2: To $\rightarrow$ and fro $\leftarrow$ trajectories in a round trip, with a just grazed Sun. ($R_0 = R_S$).

Due to all the difficulties on the evaluation of all the involved parameters, they carry out many measurements of the time delay for many days, before and after the conjunction and then they put them into a graph; the peak one gets will evidently correspond to the situation of the ideal top value. The official calculation from the General Relativity, which is below reported in the Appendix 4, considers the vector $\vec{r}(\varphi)$ in the relativistic equation of motion. In fact, still with reference to the Appendix 4 and starting from the Schwarzschild solution:

$d\tau^2 = B(r)c^2 dt^2 - A(r)dr^2 - r^2 d\theta^2 - r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2 = -g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$ and also by taking into account the

Equation of the Geodesic (see Appendix 2) $\frac{d^2 x^\mu}{dp^2} + \Gamma_{\nu\lambda}^\mu \frac{dx^\nu}{dp} \frac{dx^\lambda}{dp} = 0$, with μ which will change

through all its possible values, we come to the following equation (see the (4.17) in Appendix 4), for the Shapiro time delay:

$$(\Delta t)_{\max} = \frac{4GM_S}{c^3} \left[1 + \ln\left(\frac{4r_E r_M}{R_S^2}\right) \right] \cong \frac{72km}{c} = 240,17 \mu s \quad . \quad (1.1)$$

CONVERSELY, BY USING THE SNELL'S LAW:

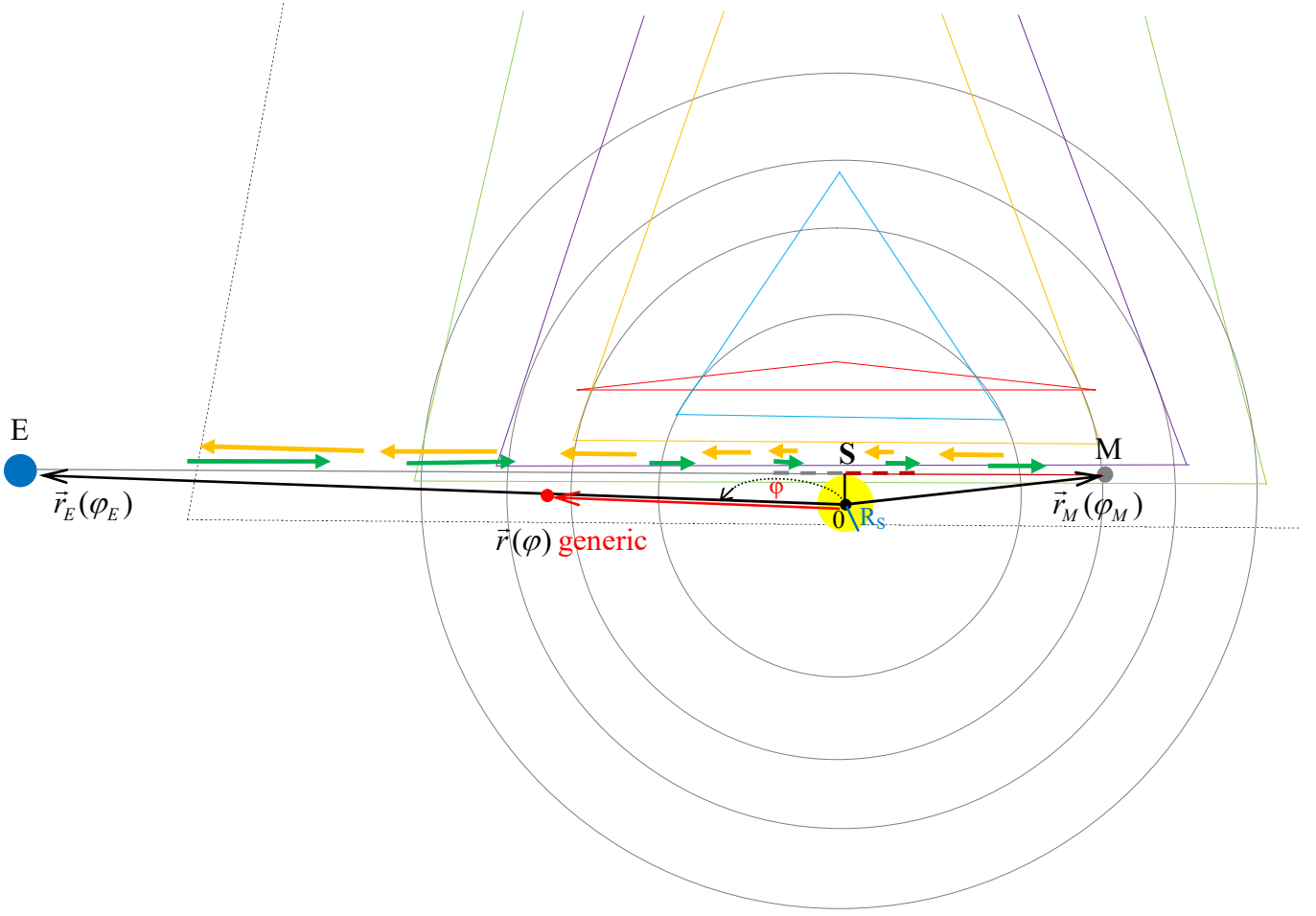


Fig. 3: To and fro trajectories (round trip) with progressive gravitational prisms and progressive velocities.

Conversely, if we consider the gravitational field of the Sun as refractive, as in an optical prism the refraction holds because it is due to a decrease of the speed of light when entering the prism itself, then we will face a situation like that represented in Fig. 3, where the prism refractive effect is increased as long as the electromagnetic signal gets closer to the Sun, as, so doing, the gravitational field gets stronger and the speed of light is decreased, passing from c (far from the Sun) to the velocity:

$$V \cong c[1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}] < c, \quad (1.2)$$

as proved in Appendix 1 (eq. (A1.8)). In fact, there we show all that by starting from the Schwarzschild Solution: $d\tau^2 = B(r)c^2dt^2 - A(r)dr^2 - r^2d\theta^2 - r^2\sin^2\theta d\varphi^2$, where $A(r) = (1 + \frac{2GM}{c^2r})$

and $B(r) = (1 - \frac{2GM}{c^2r})$.

Now, if we use it on a photon, we get: $0 = B(r)c^2dt^2 - A(r)dr^2 - r^2d\theta^2 - r^2\sin^2\theta d\varphi^2$; moreover, if we consider light radially travelling towards the Sun, we can get rid of the components in $d\theta$ and $d\varphi$:

$$0 = B(r)c^2dt^2 - A(r)dr^2; \quad (1.3)$$

the speed of light is $c = dr/dt$ far from the mass of the Sun, while, close to it, the (1.3) holds, from which we get:

$$V = dr/dt = c(B(r)/A(r))^{1/2} \neq c ; \quad (1.4)$$

so, being: $B(r) = [1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}]$ and $A(r) = [1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}]^{-1} \cong [1 + \frac{2GM}{rc^2}]$, then from the expansions on the

variable $\frac{2GM}{rc^2}$ used on the (1.4), we easily have that:

$$V/c = ([1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}]/[1 + \frac{2GM}{rc^2}])^{1/2} \cong [1 - \frac{2GM}{2rc^2}][1 - \frac{2GM}{2rc^2}] \cong [1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}], \text{ that is:}$$

$$\boxed{V \cong c[1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}]} \quad (1.5)$$

That being said, with reference to Fig. 3, without the Sun in the way, the electromagnetic signal moves from the Earth E up to Mercury M and comes back, and all this on a straight line and at speed c:

$T_{to} = \frac{ES + SM}{c} = \frac{\sqrt{r_E^2 - R_S^2} + \sqrt{r_M^2 - R_S^2}}{c} \cong \frac{r_E + r_M}{c}$, as the radius of the Sun $R_S = 6,95475 \cdot 10^8 m$ is too small if compared to the other distances, that are the Earth to Sun distance $r_{E-S} \cong 149,6 \cdot 10^9 m$ and the Sun to Mercury one, in opposition ($r_{M-S} \cong 55 \cdot 10^9 m$), so the cathetus matches the hypotenuse.

Regarding the “to and fro” round trip, we have: $T = T_{to} + T_{fro} = 2T_{to} = 2 \frac{(r_E + r_M)}{c}$.

On the contrary, with the Sun in the way and grazed by the signal, what happens is that the signal has a variable velocity in going from E to M; in fact, let's recall that when there is a gravitational field, the speed of light keeps being c in its absolute value just when it is locally measured, so in a point by point situation (locally inertial systems), while, under a top view, we perceive a slowing down. Therefore, the electromagnetic signal, for what we saw by the (1.2), heads, from E, for the left side of S first, by a velocity which is $V \cong \frac{dr}{dt} = c[1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}]$ indeed, (and taking into account that here the “r” are negative, so: -r), then (approximately) from the left side of S, along a $2R_S$ long way, by a velocity which is (we know) $V \cong c[1 - \frac{2GM}{R_S c^2}]$ and, finally, from the right side of S, for M, by a

velocity $V \cong \frac{dr}{dt} = c[1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}]$ (and here all the “r” are and keep being positive, so: +r);

let's sum all this up:

$$\begin{aligned} T'_{to} &= \int_0^{T_A} dt = \int_{-r_E}^{+r_M} \frac{dr}{V} = \int_{-r_E}^{+r_M} \frac{dr}{c(1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2})} \cong \frac{1}{c} \int_{-r_E}^{+r_M} (1 + \frac{2GM}{r^2 c^2}) dr = \frac{1}{c} \int_{-r_E}^{-R_S} [1 + \frac{2GM}{(-r)c^2}] dr + \frac{1}{c} \int_{-R_S}^{+R_S} (1 + \frac{2GM}{R_S c^2}) dr + \\ &+ \frac{1}{c} \int_{R_S}^{+r_M} (1 + \frac{2GM}{rc^2}) dr = [\frac{1}{c} \int_{-r_E}^{-R_S} dr - \frac{1}{c} \int_{-r_E}^{-R_S} \frac{2GM}{rc^2} dr] + \frac{1}{c} (1 + \frac{2GM}{R_S c^2}) \int_{-R_S}^{+R_S} dr + [\frac{1}{c} \int_{R_S}^{+r_M} dr + \frac{1}{c} \int_{R_S}^{+r_M} \frac{2GM}{rc^2} dr] = \\ &= [\frac{(r_E - R_S)}{c} - \frac{2GM}{c^3} \int_{-r_E}^{-R_S} \frac{1}{r} dr] + \frac{2R_S}{c} (1 + \frac{2GM}{R_S c^2}) + [\frac{(r_M - R_S)}{c} + \frac{2GM}{c^3} \int_{R_S}^{+r_M} \frac{1}{r} dr] = \\ &= [\frac{(r_E - R_S)}{c} - \frac{2GM}{c^3} \ln \frac{R_S}{r_E}] + (\frac{2R_S}{c} + \frac{4GM}{c^3}) + [\frac{(r_M - R_S)}{c} + \frac{2GM}{c^3} \ln \frac{r_M}{R_S}] = \\ &= \frac{r_E + r_M}{c} + \frac{4GM}{c^3} + \frac{2GM}{c^3} \ln \frac{r_E r_M}{R_S^2} ; \text{ now, regarding the “to and fro” round trip case, we have:} \end{aligned}$$

$T' = T'_{to} + T'_{fro} = 2T'_{to} = 2 \frac{(r_E + r_M)}{c} + \frac{8GM}{c^3} + \frac{4GM}{c^3} \ln \frac{r_E r_M}{R_S^2}$ and, finally, about the Shapiro delay:

($R_S = 6,95475 \cdot 10^8 m$, $M_S = 1,9891 \cdot 10^{30} kg$, $c = 2,99792458 \cdot 10^8 m/s$, $r_{E-S} \cong 149,6 \cdot 10^9 m$, $r_{M-S} \cong 55 \cdot 10^9 m$)

$$(\Delta t)_{\max} = T' - T = \left[2 \frac{(r_E + r_M)}{c} + \frac{8GM}{c^3} + \frac{4GM}{c^3} \ln \frac{r_E r_M}{R_S^2} \right] - 2 \frac{(r_E + r_M)}{c} = \frac{8GM}{c^3} + \frac{4GM}{c^3} \ln \frac{r_E r_M}{R_S^2} = \frac{4GM}{c^3} (2 + \ln \frac{r_E r_M}{R_S^2})$$

so: $(\Delta t)_{\max} = \frac{4GM}{c^3} (2 + \ln \frac{r_E r_M}{R_S^2}) \cong \frac{69,35 km}{c} = 231,34 \mu s \cong 240,17 \mu s$. (1.6)

This result is very good, as we have made slight approximations.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX 1: THE SCHWARZSCHILD SOLUTION:

-Gravity slows down the time

Also gravity slows down the time! On a mountain time elapses faster than down in the valley. Of course, on the Earth, the difference is imperceptible, but on a neutron star or in a black hole, that effect is very strong.

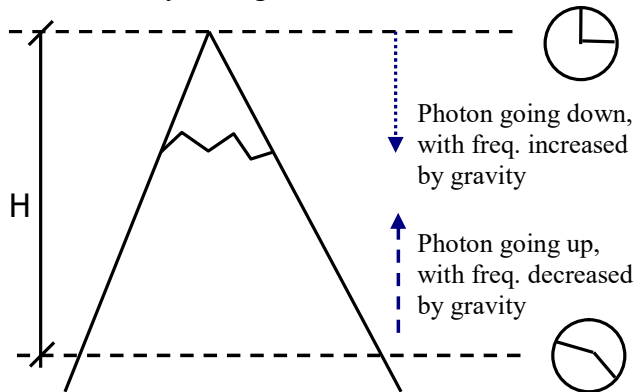


Fig. A1.1: Mountain, gravity and time.

$\Delta E = m_0 g H$ (delta energy from the level difference); $\Delta E = h \Delta \nu$ (delta energy due to the freq. decrease of the photon). From them: $\Delta \nu = m_0 g H / h$. For a photon, $E = h \nu$, but in relativity: $E = m_0 c^2$, from which, for a photon: $m_0 = h \nu / c^2$ and so, for $\Delta \nu : \Delta \nu = \nu g H / c^2$ and as time is the reciprocal of the frequency, we have: $\Delta \nu / \nu = \Delta t / t$ and so:

$$\Delta t = \frac{gH}{c^2} t . \quad (A1.1)$$

Therefore, over a time t , we have a slow down Δt due to gravity! We know that the escape velocity of a celestial body whose mass is M and radius R is: $V = \sqrt{2GM/R}$. If on that body an object is cast vertically with the escape velocity, it will quit the gravitational field of that celestial body and will go towards the infinite, without falling down anymore.

A black hole is a body so compressed (big M and small R) that the escape velocity on its surface reaches the speed of light and so not even the light can escape, from which the name of black hole; moreover, for what above said, we can say that in a black hole time is approximately stopped!

Now, jumping back to the time slowing, for the (A1.1): $\Delta t = \frac{gH}{c^2}t$, which can be seen as:

$dt = \frac{gdr}{c^2}t$ and considering that $|g| = \frac{GM}{r^2}$, it follows that: $dt = t \frac{GM}{c^2 r^2} dr$, that is:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dt}{t} &= \frac{GM}{c^2} \frac{dr}{r^2} \rightarrow \int \frac{dt}{t} = \frac{GM}{c^2} \int \frac{dr}{r^2} \rightarrow \ln t = -\frac{GM}{c^2 r} + k \rightarrow \\ t &= k \cdot e^{-\frac{GM}{c^2 r}} \rightarrow (e^{-x} \approx 1 - x) \rightarrow t = k(1 - \frac{GM}{c^2 r}) \rightarrow (t = t_0 \gg r = \infty) \rightarrow t = t_0(1 - \frac{GM}{c^2 r}) \rightarrow \\ (\sqrt{1-x}) &\approx 1 - \frac{1}{2}x \rightarrow \boxed{t = t_0 \sqrt{1 - \frac{2GM}{c^2 r}}} . \end{aligned} \quad (A1.2)$$

On the other hand, we know that the formula for the Lorentz's contraction has the same look of that for the time dilation, but with the root at the denominator, so:

$$\boxed{r = r_0 / \sqrt{1 - \frac{2GM}{c^2 r}}} . \quad (A1.3)$$

-The Schwarzschild solution

We know that, in general: $d\tau^2 = c^2(dt)^2 - (d\vec{x})^2$ (four-dimension invariant) and as, for a photon, $(d\vec{x})^2 = c^2(dt)^2$, then we have: $d\tau^2 = 0$ (for a photon, indeed).

Still starting from the metric tensor: $d\tau^2 = c^2 dt^2 - dr^2 = c^2 dt^2 - (dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2)$ we jump to the more simple spherical coordinates:

$$d\tau^2 = c^2 dt^2 - (dr^2 + r^2 d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2) . \quad (A1.4)$$

but because of the (A1.2) and (A1.3):

$$dt = dt_0 \sqrt{1 - \frac{2GM}{c^2 r}} \rightarrow dt^2 = dt_0^2 (1 - \frac{2GM}{c^2 r}) = dt_0^2 \underline{B(r)} \text{ and:}$$

$$dr^2 = dr_0^2 / (1 - \frac{2GM}{c^2 r}) \cong dr_0^2 (1 + \frac{2GM}{c^2 r}) = dr_0^2 \underline{A(r)} , \text{ as, according to Taylor: } 1/(1-x) \cong (1+x) .$$

Moreover, we have no Lorentz contraction on transversal directions (y and z, or also θ and φ , as an example), so, for the (A1.4):

$$d\tau^2 = B(r)c^2 dt^2 - A(r)dr^2 - r^2 d\theta^2 - r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2 \quad (\text{Schwarzschild Solution}) \quad (A1.5)$$

(and after having renamed r and t) Now, if we use it on a photon, we get:

$0 = B(r)c^2 dt^2 - A(r)dr^2 - r^2 d\theta^2 - r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2$; moreover, if we consider light radially travelling towards the Sun, we can get rid of the components in $d\theta$ and $d\varphi$:

$$0 = B(r)c^2 dt^2 - A(r)dr^2 ; \quad (A1.6)$$

the speed of light is $c = dr/dt$ far from the mass of the Sun, while, close to it, the (A1.6) holds, from which we get:

$$V = dr/dt = c(B(r)/A(r))^{1/2} \neq c ; \quad (A1.7)$$

so, being: $B(r) = [1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}]$ and $A(r) = [1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}]^{-1} \cong [1 + \frac{2GM}{rc^2}]$, then from the developments on

the variable $\frac{2GM}{rc^2}$ used on the (A1.7), we easily have that:

$$V/c = ([1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}])^{1/2} / [1 + \frac{2GM}{rc^2}]^{1/2} \cong [1 - \frac{2GM}{2rc^2}][1 - \frac{2GM}{2rc^2}] \cong [1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}] , \text{ that is:}$$

$$V \cong c[1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}] \quad (A1.8)$$

APPENDIX 2: The Geodesic:

A free falling parachutist does not have any floor over which his body can rest; therefore, he does not detect any gravitational acceleration and he feels as if floating in the vacuum. He realizes he is falling only if he looks at the moving objects around. Therefore, for a free falling particle, there is a reference system in which $\vec{a} = 0$, that is:

$$\frac{\partial^2 \xi^\alpha}{\partial \tau^2} = 0 \quad (\text{free falling in Euclidean coordinates}) \quad (\text{A2.1})$$

with $d\tau^2 = -\eta_{ik} d\xi^i d\xi^k$. But we can see (A2.1) in the following way:

$$\frac{\partial^2 \xi^\alpha}{\partial \tau^2} = 0 = \frac{d}{d\tau} \left(\frac{\partial \xi^\alpha}{\partial x^\mu} \frac{dx^\mu}{d\tau} \right) = \frac{\partial \xi^\alpha}{\partial x^\mu} \frac{d^2 x^\mu}{d\tau^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \xi^\alpha}{\partial x^\mu \partial x^\nu} \frac{dx^\mu}{d\tau} \frac{dx^\nu}{d\tau}.$$

If we multiply both sides by $\frac{\partial x^\lambda}{\partial \xi^\alpha}$ and consider that: $\frac{\partial \xi^\alpha}{\partial x^\mu} \frac{\partial x^\lambda}{\partial \xi^\alpha} = \delta_\mu^\lambda$, we'll have:

$$\frac{d^2 x^\lambda}{d\tau^2} + \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\lambda \frac{dx^\mu}{d\tau} \frac{dx^\nu}{d\tau} = 0 \quad (\text{free falling in curvilinear coordinates}) \quad (\text{A2.2})$$

(equation of the geodesic, where geodesic, on the Earth, is the shortest path between two places)

APPENDIX 3: REFRACTION AND SNELL'S LAW

-Refraction

-The Lifeguard

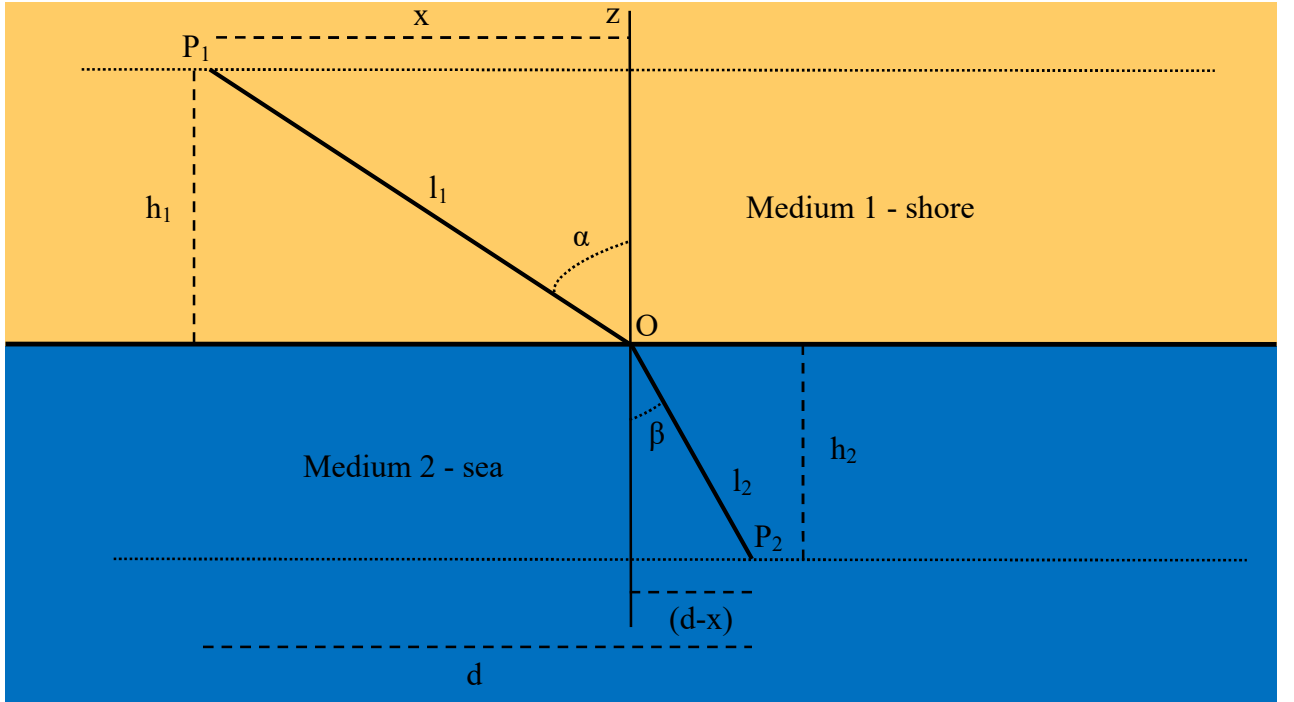


Fig. A3.1: The Lifeguard in P_1 sees the bather in trouble in P_2 .

The Lifeguard in P_1 has to reach and help the bather in P_2 ; but he also knows that the speed v_1 of running on the shore is higher than the swimming speed v_2 in the water, so the geometrically shortest path given by the segment P_1 - P_2 is not the fastest, as it forces the Lifeguard to stay too long in the water, where he is slower.

We evaluate the travelling time of the Lifeguard:

$$t_B = \frac{P_1 - O}{v_1} + \frac{O - P_2}{v_2} = \frac{l_1}{v_1} + \frac{l_2}{v_2} = \frac{\sqrt{h_1^2 + x^2}}{v_1} + \frac{\sqrt{h_2^2 + (d-x)^2}}{v_2}$$

Now, in order to evaluate the minimum value t_B , we calculate the derivative and we put it to zero:

$$\frac{dt_B}{dx} = \frac{2x}{v_1 \sqrt{h_1^2 + x^2}} - \frac{2(d-x)}{v_2 \sqrt{h_2^2 + (d-x)^2}} = 0, \text{ but we have:}$$

$$\frac{x}{\sqrt{h_1^2 + x^2}} = \sin \alpha \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{(d-x)}{\sqrt{h_2^2 + (d-x)^2}} = \sin \beta, \text{ so: } \frac{dt_B}{dx} = \frac{2 \sin \alpha}{v_1} - \frac{2 \sin \beta}{v_2} = 0, \text{ that is:}$$

$$\frac{v_1}{\sin \alpha} = \frac{v_2}{\sin \beta} = k, \quad (\text{A3.1})$$

therefore, in both media (medium 1 and medium 2), the ratio between the sine of the angle made with the vertical line and the speed is constant.

Snell's Law

If paths l_1 and l_2 were light rays and media 1 and 2 were, for instance, air and water, then, after considering that for the refraction indexes n_1 and n_2 we have, by definition:

$$n_1 = \frac{c}{v_1} \quad \text{and} \quad n_2 = \frac{c}{v_2}, \quad (\text{A3.2})$$

we get the Snell's Law:

$$\frac{\sin \alpha}{\sin \beta} = \frac{v_1}{v_2} = \frac{v_1 / c}{v_2 / c} = \frac{c / v_2}{c / v_1} = \frac{n_2}{n_1} = n_{21} = n, \quad (\text{A3.3})$$

which is the reason why a ladder into a pool looks bent. n_{21} is the relative refraction index of mean 2 with respect to mean 1. As $v_1 \neq v_2$, that is: $v_i \neq v_r$ ("i" stands for incident radiation, while "r" represents the refracted one) and $v_i = \lambda_i f_i$, $v_r = \lambda_r f_r \rightarrow \lambda_i = \frac{v_i}{f_i} = \frac{c / n_1}{\omega_i / 2\pi} = \frac{c}{n_1} \frac{2\pi}{\omega_i}$ and

$$\lambda_r = \frac{v_r}{f_r} = \frac{c / n_2}{\omega_r / 2\pi} = \frac{c}{n_2} \frac{2\pi}{\omega_r}; \text{ if, as we will see, we are in the situation of } f_1 = f_2, \text{ then } \rightarrow$$

$$\rightarrow \omega_1 = \omega_2 = \omega = (2\pi)f \rightarrow \lambda_r = \frac{c}{n_2} \frac{2\pi}{\omega} = \frac{c}{n_2} \frac{\lambda_i n_1}{c} = \frac{n_1}{n_2} \lambda_i = n_{12} \lambda_i, \text{ so:}$$

$$\lambda_r = \frac{n_1}{n_2} \lambda_i = n_{12} \lambda_i \quad (\text{A3.4})$$

As the Snell's Law has come out as a calculation of the minimum travelling time, then Fermat's Principle is here confirmed, according to which a light ray follows the shortest path (in duration).

Now, as we are dealing with electromagnetic waves (E and B), then we have that:

($\vec{k}$ is the wave vector)

(incident wave)

$$\vec{E}_i = E_{oi} \cdot e^{i(\vec{k}_i \cdot \vec{r} - \omega_i t)} = E_{oi} \cdot e^{i(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \hat{k}_i \cdot \vec{r} - 2\pi f_i t)} \quad \text{and} \quad \vec{B}_i = \frac{n_1}{c} \vec{k}_i \times \vec{E}_i$$

(refracted wave, such out of phase about φ_r)

$$\vec{E}_r = E_{or} \cdot e^{i(\vec{k}_r \cdot \vec{r} - \omega_r t + \varphi_r)} \quad \text{and} \quad \vec{B}_r = \frac{n_2}{c} \vec{k}_r \times \vec{E}_r$$

Then, being $\vec{j} = \sigma \vec{E}$ (where j is the current density and σ is the conductivity), we have that if we are between insulators or between vacuum and vacuum+gravitational field, then $\sigma=0$ and $\rightarrow \vec{j} = \sigma \vec{E} = 0$ (and this counts first of all along the border between the two means) and the Maxwell's equations will be those for the vacuum and they will lead to the Wave Equation in both “i” and “r”, and the relevant solutions are the above reported ones, for both “i” and “r”, (in both zones we claim $a \propto e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t + \varphi)}$) and so, while going from “i” to “r”, the arguments must stay unchanged: $(\vec{k}_i \cdot \vec{r} - \omega_i t) = (\vec{k}_r \cdot \vec{r} - \omega_r t + \varphi_r) \rightarrow \varphi_r = 0$, ($\omega_i = \omega_r \rightarrow f_i = f_r$ same frequencies) and $\vec{k}_i \cdot \vec{r} = \vec{k}_r \cdot \vec{r}$; in particular, we have: $\vec{k}_i \cdot \vec{r} = \vec{k}_r \cdot \vec{r} \rightarrow k_{i-x}x + k_{i-y}y + k_{i-z}z = k_{r-x}x + k_{r-y}y + k_{r-z}z$ and by considering the y axis as that coming out of the sheet, then we have that $k_{i-y}=0$ (when considering the incident ray as contained into the x-z plane of the sheet), so: $k_{i-x}x + k_{i-z}z = k_{r-x}x + k_{r-y}y + k_{r-z}z$ and also considering the crossing point of the border ($z=0$, with z as the vertical axis – rif. Fig. A3.1), then we have: $k_{i-x}x = k_{r-x}x + k_{r-y}y \rightarrow k_{r-y} = 0$ e $k_{i-x} = k_{r-x} \rightarrow \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_i} \sin \alpha = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_r} \sin \beta$ or also: $\frac{2\pi}{\lambda_i} \sin \theta_i = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_r} \sin \theta_r \rightarrow \frac{\sin \theta_i}{\sin \theta_r} = \frac{\lambda_i}{\lambda_r} = \frac{n_2}{n_1} = n_{21}$, that is again a confirmation of the Snell's Law.

The Prism

We have a prism made of a transparent material, like in Fig. A3.2:

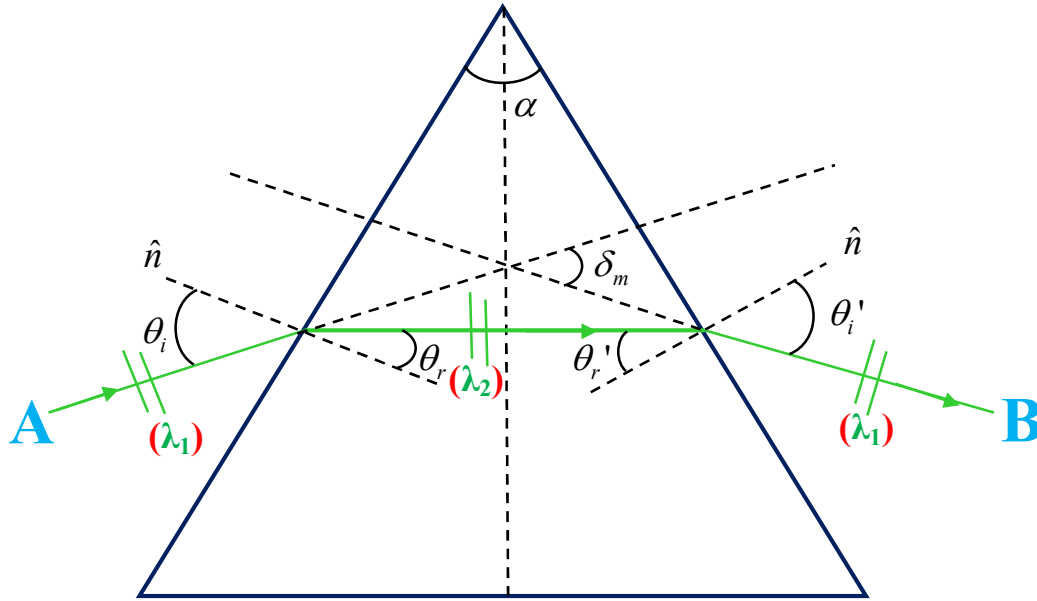


Fig. A3.2: The prism.

δ_m is the deflection angle the light ray undergoes when coming from **A**, then finally leaving the (refractive) prism system and so heading for **B**; moreover, $\delta = \delta_m$ is the lowest when θ_i makes the ray into the prism be parallel to the base and in such a case we also have that $\theta_i = \theta_i'$ and $\theta_r = \theta_r'$. Now we also show that:

$$\theta_i = \frac{\delta_m + \alpha}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \theta_r = \frac{\alpha}{2}, \quad (\text{A3.5})$$

$$\text{so: } n = \frac{\sin \theta_i}{\sin \theta_r} = \frac{\sin(\frac{\delta_m + \alpha}{2})}{\sin(\frac{\alpha}{2})} ; \text{ proof:}$$

besides, from both the (A3.5), we get: $\theta_i = \frac{\delta_m + \alpha}{2} = \frac{\delta_m + 2\theta_r}{2} \rightarrow$

$$\rightarrow \delta_m = 2(\theta_i - \theta_r) \quad (\text{A3.6})$$

Going back to the proof, with reference to Fig. A3.3 below, from the triangle DEB we have:

$$(\pi - \delta) + (\theta_i - \theta_r) + (\theta'_i - \theta'_r) = \pi \text{ , so:}$$

$$\delta = (\theta_i + \theta'_i) - (\theta_r + \theta'_r). \quad (\text{A3.7})$$

From the triangle ABD we have: $\alpha + (\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta_r) + (\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta'_r) = \pi$, so:

$$\alpha = (\theta_r + \theta'_r). \quad (\text{A3.8})$$

From the triangle BCD we have: $x + \theta_r + \theta'_r = \pi$, so: $x + \alpha = \pi \rightarrow x = (\pi - \alpha)$; the (A3.7)

$$\text{tells us that } (\theta_i + \theta'_i) = \delta + (\theta_r + \theta'_r) = \delta + \alpha \quad (\text{A3.9})$$

$$\text{that is: } \delta = (\theta_i + \theta'_i) - \alpha \text{ and } \frac{d\delta}{d\theta_j} = \frac{d\theta_i}{d\theta_j} + \frac{d\theta'_i}{d\theta_j} = 1 + \frac{d\theta'_i}{d\theta_j} \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \frac{d\theta'_i}{d\theta_j} = -1 \quad (\text{A3.10})$$

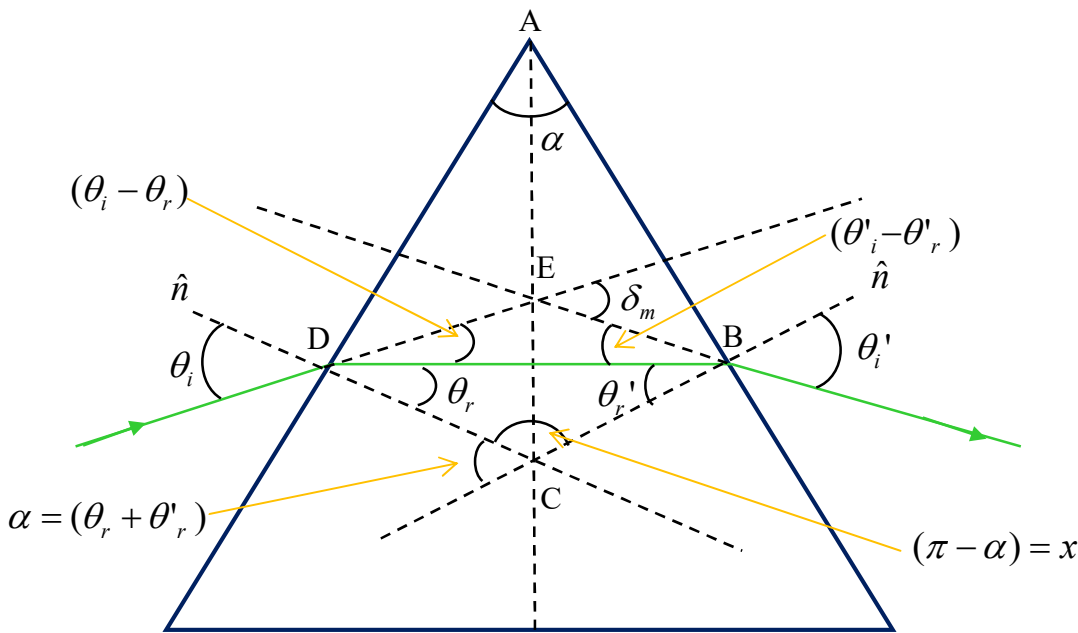


Fig. A3.3: Prism for calculations.

Moreover, due to the Snell's Law, we have: $\sin \theta_i = n \sin \theta_r$ and $\sin \theta'_i = n \sin \theta'_r$, so, by a differentiation: $\cos \theta_i d\theta_i = n \cos \theta_r d\theta_r$ and $\cos \theta'_i d\theta'_i = n \cos \theta'_r d\theta'_r$, but for the (A3.8) we have: $d\theta_r + d\theta'_r = 0 \rightarrow d\theta'_r = -d\theta_r$ and so:

$\cos \theta_i d\theta_i = n \cos \theta_r d\theta_r$ and $\cos \theta'_i d\theta'_i = -n \cos \theta'_r d\theta'_r$; now, by carrying out a ratio side by side between those two equations (the last two), we get: $\frac{d\theta'_i}{d\theta_i} = -\frac{\cos \theta'_r \cos \theta_i}{\cos \theta_r \cos \theta'_i}$, but as we already know that $\frac{d\theta'_i}{d\theta_i} = -1$ and $\theta'_r = \alpha - \theta_r$, then we get: $\frac{\cos(\alpha - \theta_r) \cos \theta_i}{\cos \theta_r \cos \theta'_i} = 1 \rightarrow \theta_i = \theta'_i$ (in order to have $\frac{\cos \theta_i}{\cos \theta'_i} = 1$) and $\theta_r = \frac{\alpha}{2} = \theta'_r$ (as: $\frac{\cos(\alpha - \theta_r)}{\cos \theta_r} = \frac{\cos(\alpha - \frac{\alpha}{2})}{\cos \frac{\alpha}{2}} = \frac{\cos \frac{\alpha}{2}}{\cos \frac{\alpha}{2}} = 1$).

At last, because of the (A3.9), we have:

$$(\theta_i + \theta'_i) = 2\theta_i = 2\theta'_i = \delta + \alpha, \text{ that is: } \theta_i = \theta'_i = \frac{(\delta_m + \alpha)}{2} \text{ (and } \theta_r = \theta'_r = \frac{\alpha}{2} \text{)}.$$

We have written δ_m and not just δ because of the zero value of the derivative of the (A3.10).

APPENDIX 4: OFFICIAL CALCULATION OF THE SHAPIRO TIME DELAY

-The general equations of motion.

We know the Schwarzschild Solution (see Appendix 1):

$d\tau^2 = B(r)c^2 dt^2 - A(r)dr^2 - r^2 d\theta^2 - r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2 = -g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$ and with the convention $c=1$ it becomes: $d\tau^2 = B(r)dt^2 - A(r)dr^2 - r^2 d\theta^2 - r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2 = -g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$, and we also consider the

geodesic equation (see Appendix 2): $\frac{d^2 x^\mu}{dp^2} + \Gamma_{\nu\lambda}^\mu \frac{dx^\nu}{dp} \frac{dx^\lambda}{dp} = 0$ (in a generic p, for the moment):

we have, by making μ change: $(\Gamma_{\nu\lambda}^\nu = \frac{1}{2} g^{\nu\rho} (\frac{\partial g_{\rho\lambda}}{\partial x^\nu} + \frac{\partial g_{\rho\nu}}{\partial x^\lambda} - \frac{\partial g_{\nu\lambda}}{\partial x^\rho}))$

$$0 = \frac{d^2 r}{dp^2} + \frac{A'(r)}{2A(r)} \left(\frac{dr}{dp}\right)^2 - \frac{r}{A(r)} \left(\frac{d\theta}{dp}\right)^2 - \frac{r \sin^2 \theta}{A(r)} \left(\frac{d\varphi}{dp}\right)^2 + \frac{B'(r)}{2A(r)} \left(\frac{dt}{dp}\right)^2 \quad (4.1)$$

$$0 = \frac{d^2 \theta}{dp^2} + \frac{2}{r} \frac{d\theta}{dp} \frac{dr}{dp} - \sin \theta \cos \theta \left(\frac{d\varphi}{dp}\right)^2 \quad (4.2)$$

$$0 = \frac{d^2 \varphi}{dp^2} + \frac{2}{r} \frac{d\varphi}{dp} \frac{dr}{dp} + 2 \cot \theta \frac{d\varphi}{dp} \frac{d\theta}{dp} \quad (4.3)$$

$$0 = \frac{d^2 t}{dp^2} + \frac{B'(r)}{B(r)} \frac{dt}{dp} \frac{dr}{dp} \quad (4.4)$$

Now, as the field is isotropic, we put $\theta = \pi/2$ and so the last two equations, (4.3) and (4.4), becomes:

$$\frac{d}{dp} \left[\ln \frac{d\varphi}{dp} + \ln r^2 \right] = 0 \text{ and } \frac{d}{dp} \left[\ln \frac{dt}{dp} + \ln B \right] = 0, \text{ from which:}$$

$$r^2 \frac{d\varphi}{dp} = J \text{ (constant)} \quad (4.5)$$

$$\frac{dt}{dp} B = \text{const} \text{ (=1, by choice)} \quad (4.6)$$

from which: $\frac{dt}{dp} = \frac{1}{B}$. Now, by putting (4.5), (4.6) and the condition $(\theta = \pi/2)$ used before, in the (4.1), we'll have:

$$0 = \frac{d^2 r}{dp^2} + \frac{A'(r)}{2A(r)} \left(\frac{dr}{dp}\right)^2 - \frac{J^2}{r^3 A(r)} + \frac{B'(r)}{2A(r)B^2(r)} \quad \text{and by multiplying, now, by } 2A(r) \frac{dr}{dp} :$$

$$\frac{d}{dp} \left[A(r) \left(\frac{dr}{dp}\right)^2 + \frac{J^2}{r^2} - \frac{1}{B(r)} \right] = 0 \quad \text{that is:}$$

$$A(r) \left(\frac{dr}{dp}\right)^2 + \frac{J^2}{r^2} - \frac{1}{B(r)} = -E \quad (\text{constant}) \quad (4.7)$$

If now we make a system with the equations $(\theta = \pi/2)$ just used, then the (4.5), (4.6) and (4.7), we get: $d\tau^2 = Edp^2$ (4.8)

We know that $E=0$ for photons and $E>0$ for material particles.

As $A(r)$ is always positive, we have that the particle can reach r only if (see the (4.7)):

$$\frac{J^2}{r^2} + E \leq -\frac{1}{B(r)}. \quad \text{Then, by using (4.6) in (4.5), (3.7) and (4.8), we get:}$$

$$r^2 \frac{d\phi}{dt} = JB(r) \quad (4.9)$$

$$\frac{A(r)}{B^2(r)} \left(\frac{dr}{dt}\right)^2 + \frac{J^2}{r^2} - \frac{1}{B(r)} = -E \quad (4.10)$$

$$\text{and } d\tau^2 = EB^2(r)dt^2 \quad (4.11)$$

Now, as we are transmitting a radar signal, so an electromagnetic wave, then we know that $d\tau = 0$, so, because of the (4.11): $E=0$ and then the (4.10) becomes:

$$\frac{A(r)}{B^2(r)} \left(\frac{dr}{dt}\right)^2 + \frac{J^2}{r^2} - \frac{1}{B(r)} = 0. \quad (4.12)$$

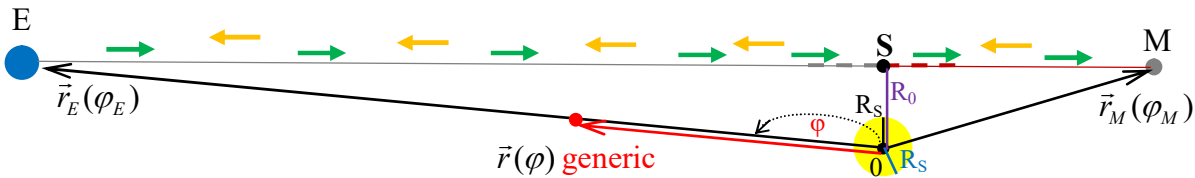


Fig. A4.1: To $\rightarrow$ and fro $\leftarrow$ trajectories (round trip) with the Sun not completely in the way ($R_0 > R_s$).

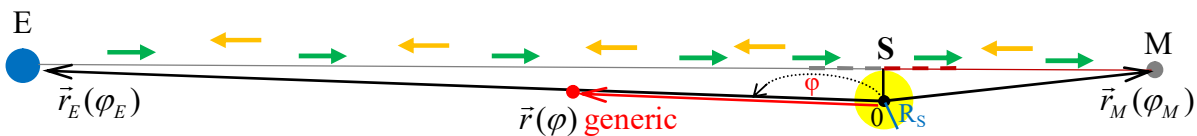


Fig. A4.2: To $\rightarrow$ and fro $\leftarrow$ trajectories (round trip) with the Sun in the way and just grazed ($R_0 = R_s$).

Now, with reference to Fig. A4.1, we consider the plane $(\theta = \pi/2)$ where the electromagnetic signal starts moving from the Earth, so from the point $r_E(\phi_E)$ to Mercury ($r_M(\phi_M)$) and, close to the Sun, it will pass by the star at a generic distance R_0 from its centre, where $R_0 \geq R_s$, so, for the time

being, not necessarily grazing the surface of the star; moreover, at the point where the signal is at its lowest distance R_0 from the Sun, then there, of course, we will have that: $\frac{dr}{dt} = 0$, so, due to the

$$(4.12): \frac{A(R_0)}{B^2(R_0)}(0)^2 + \frac{J^2}{R_0^2} - \frac{1}{B(R_0)} = 0 \rightarrow J^2 = \frac{R_0^2}{B(R_0)} \text{ and so, due to the (4.12), we finally have:}$$

$$\frac{A(r)}{B^2(r)}\left(\frac{dr}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{R_0}{r}\right)^2 B^{-1}(R_0) - B^{-1}(r) = 0 \quad (4.13)$$

Then, from the (4.13), we have that the time required to go from R_0 to the generic r , or also vice versa, is $t_{(r,R_0)}$:

$$t_{(r,R_0)} = \int_{R_0}^r \sqrt{\frac{A(r)/B(r)}{[1 - \frac{B(r)}{B(R_0)}(\frac{R_0}{r})^2]}} dr \quad (4.14)$$

and then the time to go from the Earth to Mercury, when the Sun is in the way, will be: $T_S = t_{(r_E,R_0)} + t_{(r_M,R_0)}$. Now, by recalling the values of A and B obtained in Appendix 1:

$$A(r) = (1 + \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2}) \text{ and } B(r) = (1 - \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2}) , \text{ it follows that:}$$

$$1 - \frac{B(r)}{B(R_0)}\left(\frac{R_0}{r}\right)^2 = 1 - \frac{(1 - \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2})}{(1 - \frac{2GM_S}{R_0c^2})}\left(\frac{R_0}{r}\right)^2 = 1 - [(1 - \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2})(1 + \frac{2GM_S}{R_0c^2})]\left(\frac{R_0}{r}\right)^2 =$$

$$= 1 - [1 + \frac{2GM_S}{R_0c^2} - \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2} - \frac{4G^2M_S^2}{R_0rc^4}]\left(\frac{R_0}{r}\right)^2 \text{ and after neglecting the term with } c^4 \text{ at its denominator,}$$

$$\text{we will have: } 1 - \frac{B(r)}{B(R_0)}\left(\frac{R_0}{r}\right)^2 = 1 - [1 + \frac{2GM_S}{R_0c^2} - \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2}]\left(\frac{R_0}{r}\right)^2 = 1 - [1 + \frac{2GM_S}{c^2}(\frac{1}{R_0} - \frac{1}{r})]\left(\frac{R_0}{r}\right)^2 =$$

$$= 1 - \left(\frac{R_0}{r}\right)^2 - \frac{2GM_S}{c^2}\left(\frac{R_0}{r^2} - \frac{R_0^2}{r^3}\right) = [1 - \left(\frac{R_0}{r}\right)^2] - [\frac{2GM_S R_0}{c^2}(\frac{r - R_0}{r^3})] = [1 - \left(\frac{R_0}{r}\right)^2][1 - \frac{2GM_S R_0}{c^2 r(r + R_0)}],$$

so, due to the (4.14), we get, after having considered that by getting completely out of the $c=1$ convention, the $A(r)/B(r)$ ratio in the (4.14) will have to show the units of $1/c^2$, as then its root will reduce it to $1/c$, which, thanks to dr , will yield a time t , indeed, while the denominator of the

$$(4.14), \text{ that is } \sqrt{[1 - \frac{B(r)}{B(R_0)}(\frac{R_0}{r})^2]} \text{ already has no final unit, so } B(r) \text{ will be multiplied by } c^2, \text{ just}$$

like in the above expression for $d\tau^2$ (out of the convention):

$$t_{(r,R_0)} = \int_{R_0}^r \sqrt{\frac{A(r)/B(r)}{[1 - \frac{B(r)}{B(R_0)}(\frac{R_0}{r})^2]}} dr = \int_{R_0}^r \frac{[A(r)/B(r)]^{1/2}}{[1 - \frac{B(r)}{B(R_0)}(\frac{R_0}{r})^2]^{1/2}} dr = \int_{R_0}^r \frac{[(1 + \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2})/c^2(1 - \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2})]^{1/2}}{[1 - (\frac{R_0}{r})^2]^{1/2}[1 - \frac{2GM_S R_0}{c^2 r(r + R_0)}]^{1/2}} dr \cong$$

$$\cong \int_{R_0}^r \frac{1}{c} [1 - (\frac{R_0}{r})^2]^{-1/2} \frac{[(1 + \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2})/(1 - \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2})]^{1/2}}{[1 - \frac{2GM_S R_0}{c^2 r(r + R_0)}]^{1/2}} dr = \int_{R_0}^r \frac{1}{c} [1 - (\frac{R_0}{r})^2]^{-1/2} \frac{[(1 + \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2})(1 + \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2})]^{1/2}}{[1 - \frac{GM_S R_0}{c^2 r(r + R_0)}]} dr =$$

$$= \int_{R_0}^r \frac{1}{c} [1 - (\frac{R_0}{r})^2]^{-1/2} (1 + \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2}) [1 + \frac{GM_S R_0}{c^2 r(r + R_0)}] dr =$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \int_{R_0}^r [1 - (\frac{R_0}{r})^2]^{-1/2} [1 + \frac{GM_S R_0}{c^2 r(r+R_0)} + \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2} + \frac{2G^2 M_S^2 R_0}{c^4 r^2 (r+R_0)}] dr = \\
&= \int_{R_0}^r \frac{1}{c} [1 - (\frac{R_0}{r})^2]^{-1/2} [1 + \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2} + \frac{GM_S R_0}{c^2 r(r+R_0)}] dr = \int_{R_0}^r \frac{1}{c} \frac{r}{\sqrt{r^2 - R_0^2}} [1 + \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2} + \frac{GM_S R_0}{c^2 r(r+R_0)}] dr = \\
&= \frac{1}{c} \int_{R_0}^r \frac{r}{\sqrt{r^2 - R_0^2}} dr + \frac{2GM_S}{c^3} \int_{R_0}^r \frac{1}{\sqrt{r^2 - R_0^2}} dr + \frac{GM_S R_0}{c^3} \int_{R_0}^r \frac{1}{(r+R_0)\sqrt{r^2 - R_0^2}} dr = \\
&= t_{(r, R_0)} = \frac{\sqrt{r^2 - R_0^2}}{c} + \frac{2GM_S}{c^3} \ln \left[\frac{r + \sqrt{r^2 - R_0^2}}{R_0} \right] + \frac{GM_S R_0}{c^3} \sqrt{\frac{1}{R_0^2} \left(\frac{r - R_0}{r + R_0} \right)} \quad (4.15)
\end{aligned}$$

Now, we claim the highest delay, which is given when Mercury is at its superior conjunction (just behind the Sun, with respect to the Earth) and simultaneously the electromagnetic signal just grazes the Sun ($R_0 = R_S$, so R_0 is just as big as the radius of the Sun; a sort of what is shown in Fig. A4.2), so, due to the (4.15):

$$t_{(r, R_S)} = \frac{\sqrt{r^2 - R_S^2}}{c} + \frac{2GM_S}{c^3} \ln \left[\frac{r + \sqrt{r^2 - R_S^2}}{R_S} \right] + \frac{GM_S R_S}{c^3} \sqrt{\frac{1}{R_S^2} \left(\frac{r - R_S}{r + R_S} \right)} \quad (4.16)$$

In the (4.16) the first term is the mere “to” travel time, for instance from the Earth to the Sun ($\frac{\sqrt{r_E^2 - R_S^2}}{c}$), so it’s the cathetus ES in Fig. A4.2, at the very speed of light c , so with no relativistic effects, so without the Sun hanging around, while the other two terms represent the relativistic effects. Anyway, it is roughly equal to r_E , that is the line from the Earth to the centre of the Sun, as the radius of the Sun $R_S = 6,95475 \cdot 10^8 m$ is too small with respect to the other distances, such as the Earth to Sun one $r_{E-S} \cong 149,6 \cdot 10^9 m$ and the Sun to Mercury one, in opposition ($r_{M-S} \cong 55 \cdot 10^9 m$), and from all this, we have the cathetus which matches the hypotenuse.

By a summing up, we have:

$$(R_S = 6,95475 \cdot 10^8 m, \quad M_S = 1,9891 \cdot 10^{30} kg, \quad c = 2,99792458 \cdot 10^8 m/s, \quad r_{E-S} \cong 149,6 \cdot 10^9 m, \quad r_{M-S} \cong 55 \cdot 10^9 m)$$

-“to” time, without the Sun in between: $t_A = t_{Earth-Sun} + t_{Sun-Mercury} = \frac{\sqrt{r_E^2 - R_S^2}}{c} + \frac{\sqrt{r_M^2 - R_S^2}}{c} \cong \frac{r_E}{c} + \frac{r_M}{c}$

-”to” and “fro” time (round trip), without the Sun in between:

$$2t_A = 2(t_{Earth-Sun} + t_{Sun-Mercury}) = 2\left(\frac{\sqrt{r_E^2 - R_S^2}}{c} + \frac{\sqrt{r_M^2 - R_S^2}}{c}\right) \cong 2\left(\frac{r_E}{c} + \frac{r_M}{c}\right)$$

-“to” time, with the Sun in between: (due to the (4.16))

$$\begin{aligned}
t_B = t_{(r_E, R_S)} + t_{(R_S, r_M)} = & \left\{ \frac{\sqrt{r_E^2 - R_S^2}}{c} + \frac{2GM_S}{c^3} \ln \left[\frac{r_E + \sqrt{r_E^2 - R_S^2}}{R_S} \right] + \frac{GM_S R_S}{c^3} \sqrt{\frac{1}{R_S^2} \left(\frac{r_E - R_S}{r_E + R_S} \right)} \right\} + \\
& + \left\{ \frac{\sqrt{r_M^2 - R_S^2}}{c} + \frac{2GM_S}{c^3} \ln \left[\frac{r_M + \sqrt{r_M^2 - R_S^2}}{R_S} \right] + \frac{GM_S R_S}{c^3} \sqrt{\frac{1}{R_S^2} \left(\frac{r_M - R_S}{r_M + R_S} \right)} \right\}
\end{aligned}$$

-”to” and “fro” time (round trip), with the Sun in between:

$$2t_B = 2(t_{(r_E, R_S)} + t_{(R_S, r_M)}) = 2\left\{ \frac{\sqrt{r_E^2 - R_S^2}}{c} + \frac{2GM_S}{c^3} \ln \left[\frac{r_E + \sqrt{r_E^2 - R_S^2}}{R_S} \right] + \frac{GM_S R_S}{c^3} \sqrt{\frac{1}{R_S^2} \left(\frac{r_E - R_S}{r_E + R_S} \right)} \right\} +$$

$$+ 2\left\{\frac{\sqrt{r_M^2 - R_S^2}}{c} + \frac{2GM_S}{c^3} \ln\left[\frac{r_M + \sqrt{r_M^2 - R_S^2}}{R_S}\right] + \frac{GM_S R_S}{c^3} \sqrt{\frac{1}{R_S^2} \left(\frac{r_M - R_S}{r_M + R_S}\right)}\right\}$$

-Shapiro delay:

$$\begin{aligned} (\Delta t)_{\max} &= 2t_B - 2t_A = 2(t_{(r_E, R_S)} + t_{(R_S, r_M)}) - 2(t_{\text{Earth-Sun}} + t_{\text{Sun-Mercury}}) = \\ &= 2\left\{\frac{\sqrt{r_E^2 - R_S^2}}{c} + \frac{2GM_S}{c^3} \ln\left[\frac{r_E + \sqrt{r_E^2 - R_S^2}}{R_S}\right] + \frac{GM_S R_S}{c^3} \sqrt{\frac{1}{R_S^2} \left(\frac{r_E - R_S}{r_E + R_S}\right)}\right\} + \\ &+ 2\left\{\frac{\sqrt{r_M^2 - R_S^2}}{c} + \frac{2GM_S}{c^3} \ln\left[\frac{r_M + \sqrt{r_M^2 - R_S^2}}{R_S}\right] + \frac{GM_S R_S}{c^3} \sqrt{\frac{1}{R_S^2} \left(\frac{r_M - R_S}{r_M + R_S}\right)}\right\} - 2\left(\frac{\sqrt{r_E^2 - R_S^2}}{c} + \frac{\sqrt{r_M^2 - R_S^2}}{c}\right) = \\ &= \frac{4GM_S}{c^3} \ln\left[\frac{r_E + \sqrt{r_E^2 - R_S^2}}{R_S}\right] + \frac{2GM_S R_S}{c^3} \sqrt{\frac{1}{R_S^2} \left(\frac{r_E - R_S}{r_E + R_S}\right)} + \frac{4GM_S}{c^3} \ln\left[\frac{r_M + \sqrt{r_M^2 - R_S^2}}{R_S}\right] + \frac{2GM_S R_S}{c^3} \sqrt{\frac{1}{R_S^2} \left(\frac{r_M - R_S}{r_M + R_S}\right)} = \\ &= \frac{4GM_S}{c^3} \ln\left[\left(\frac{r_E + \sqrt{r_E^2 - R_S^2}}{R_S}\right)\left(\frac{r_M + \sqrt{r_M^2 - R_S^2}}{R_S}\right)\right] + \frac{2GM_S R_S}{c^3} \left[\sqrt{\frac{1}{R_S^2} \left(\frac{r_E - R_S}{r_E + R_S}\right)} + \sqrt{\frac{1}{R_S^2} \left(\frac{r_M - R_S}{r_M + R_S}\right)}\right] \cong \\ &(\text{by neglecting } R_S) = \frac{4GM_S}{c^3} \ln\left(\frac{4r_E r_M}{R_S^2}\right) + \frac{4GM_S}{c^3} = \frac{4GM_S}{c^3} \left[1 + \ln\left(\frac{4r_E r_M}{R_S^2}\right)\right], \text{ so:} \end{aligned}$$

$$(\Delta t)_{\max} = \frac{4GM_S}{c^3} \left[1 + \ln\left(\frac{4r_E r_M}{R_S^2}\right)\right] \cong \frac{72 \text{ km}}{c} = 240,17 \mu\text{s} \quad (4.17)$$

APPENDIX 5 – CALCULATION OF THE DEFLECTION OF LIGHT BY THE SUN (A METHOD BASED, ONCE AGAIN, ON THE SNELL'S LAW):

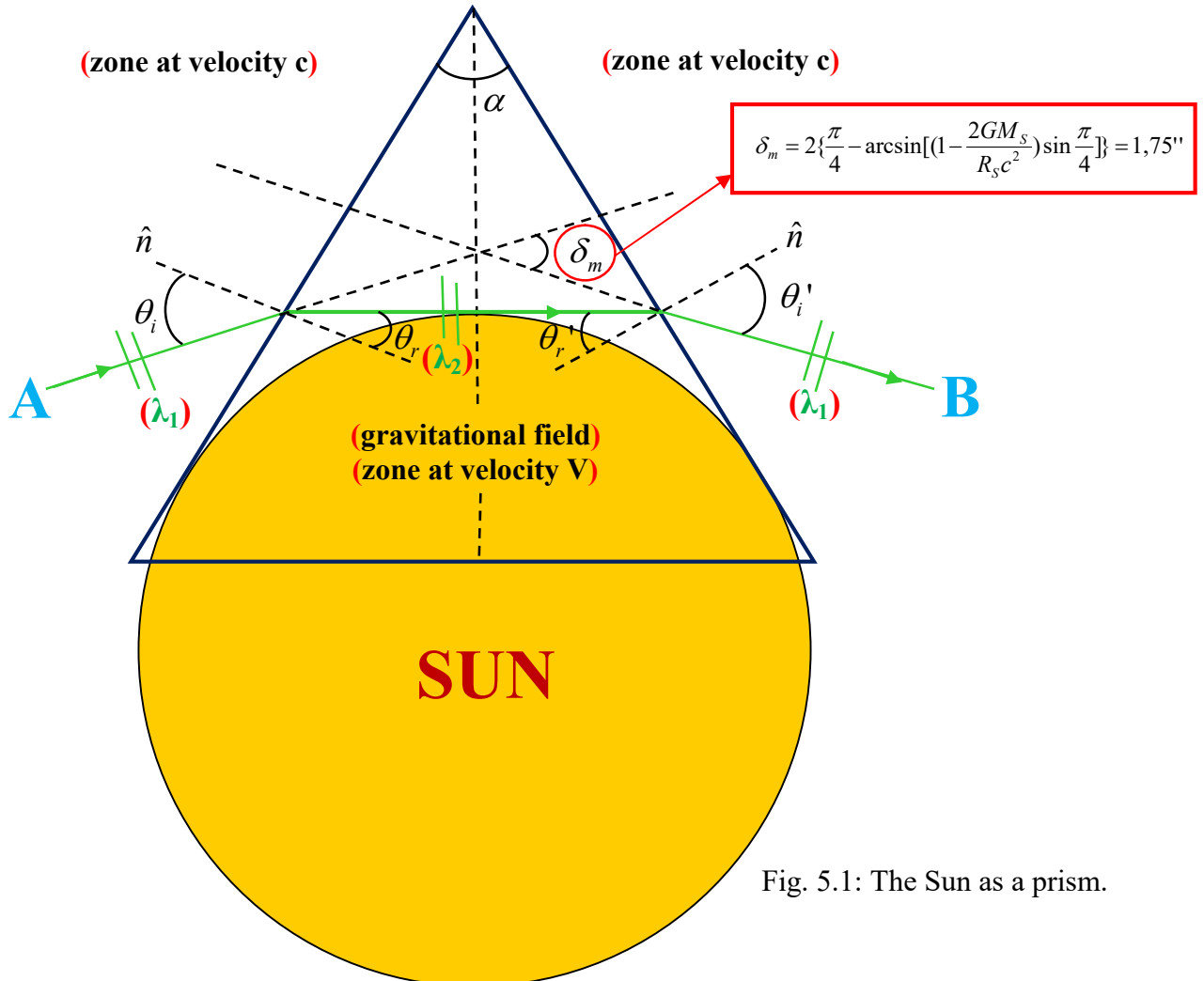


Fig. 5.1: The Sun as a prism.

Of course, in the above Fig. 5.1, the prism can be lowered, in order to have the horizontal stretch of the ray of light (λ_2) short enough. And such a prism can also be rotated around the centre of the star and repositioned, out of symmetry reasons.

As well as in the light refraction situation, a ray bends while entering the water (SNELL-Rif. Fig. A3.1 in Appendix 3), the same happens to the light entering the gravitational field of a star: a deflection. Moreover, as well as air and water have got different light velocities, also with the Sun we will talk about a far c and a close V .

The traditional computation method for the light deflection by the Sun yields the value:

$$\Delta\varphi = \frac{4GM_S}{R_S c^2} = 0,849 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ rad} = 1,75'' , \quad (5.1)$$

such a value was obtained, as an example, in Brazil during the 1919 eclipse.

($R_S = 6,95475 \cdot 10^8 \text{ m}$, $M_S = 1,9891 \cdot 10^{30} \text{ kg}$ and $c = 2,99792458 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$)

Now, we are going to use the change of the velocity of light when it approaches a mass.

With reference to the above Fig. 5.1, we remind (first of all) the (A3.6) in Appendix 3, which is rather intuitive anyway, although it is proved there:

$$\boxed{\delta_m = 2(\theta_i - \theta_r) = \Delta\varphi} \quad (5.2)$$

δ_m is (of course) the deflection angle the light ray undergoes when coming from **A**, then finally leaving the (refractive) prism system and so heading for **B** ; moreover, there we prove that $\delta = \delta_m$ is the lowest when θ_i makes the ray into the prism be parallel to the base and in such a case we also have that $\theta_i = \theta_i'$ and $\theta_r = \theta_r'$, and also have the (5.2) (that is the A3.6), indeed.

Then, we remind the definition of redshift:

$$z = \frac{\lambda_{\text{observed}} - \lambda_{\text{emitted}}}{\lambda_{\text{emitted}}} \quad (5.3)$$

Moreover, it follows that: $1 + z = \frac{\lambda_{\text{observed}}}{\lambda_{\text{emitted}}}$. $z > 0$ is redshift; $z < 0$ is blueshift. From the (5.3) we get:

$$z = \frac{\lambda_{\text{observed}} - \lambda_{\text{emitted}}}{\lambda_{\text{emitted}}} = \frac{\lambda_2 - \lambda_1}{\lambda_1} = \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} - 1 = \frac{-\Delta\lambda}{\lambda_1} = \frac{V/f - c/f}{c/f} = \frac{-\Delta v}{c} = \frac{V}{c} - 1 \quad (5.4)$$

(of course, on the left of the prism, where λ_1 is in the **A** zone (source) and λ_2 is observed from the prism) and then, by comparing the last one (the (5.4), indeed) to the (1.2) (which comes out of the

Schwarzschild Solution), that is the: $V \cong c[1 - \frac{2GM_S}{R_S c^2}]$ ($\rightarrow \frac{V}{c} \cong [1 - \frac{2GM_S}{R_S c^2}]$), then we get:

$$z = -\frac{2GM_S}{R_S c^2} = \frac{-\Delta\lambda}{\lambda_1} \quad (5.5)$$

So, for the Snell's Law (A3.3), we have: $\frac{\sin \theta_i}{\sin \theta_r} = \frac{c}{V} = n$, but from the (5.4) we also have that:

$$\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} - 1 = \frac{V}{c} - 1 , \text{ so: } \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} = \frac{V}{c} \rightarrow \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2} = \frac{c}{V} \rightarrow \frac{\sin \theta_i}{\sin \theta_r} = \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2} \text{ and so:}$$

$$\sin \theta_r = \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \sin \theta_i = \frac{(\lambda_1 - \Delta\lambda)}{\lambda_1} \sin \theta_i = (1 - \frac{\Delta\lambda}{\lambda_1}) \sin \theta_i \text{ and due to the (5.5), we have, then:}$$

$$\sin \theta_r = (1 - \frac{\Delta\lambda}{\lambda_1}) \sin \theta_i = (1 - \frac{2GM_S}{R_S c^2}) \sin \theta_i \text{ and finally:}$$

$$\theta_r = \arcsin[(1 - \frac{2GM_s}{R_sc^2}) \sin \theta_i] \quad (5.6)$$

and the (5.6) into the (5.2) yields:

$$\delta_m = 2\{\theta_i - \arcsin[(1 - \frac{2GM_s}{R_sc^2}) \sin \theta_i]\} \quad (5.7)$$

At last, by inspecting Fig. 5.2 below, we notice that the angle θ_i can span between 0° (so with the ray of light perfectly perpendicular to the left side of the prism) and 90° (so when, as a limit, the ray of light gets almost parallel to the left side of the prism), and so we will use, as θ_i , its mean value,

that is: $\bar{\theta}_i = \frac{0^\circ + 90^\circ}{2} = 45^\circ = \frac{\pi}{4} rad$, from which, thanks to the (5.7):

$$\delta_m = 2\{\frac{\pi}{4} - \arcsin[(1 - \frac{2GM_s}{R_sc^2}) \sin \frac{\pi}{4}]\} = 0,849 \cdot 10^{-5} rad = 1,75'' \quad !!! \quad (5.8)$$

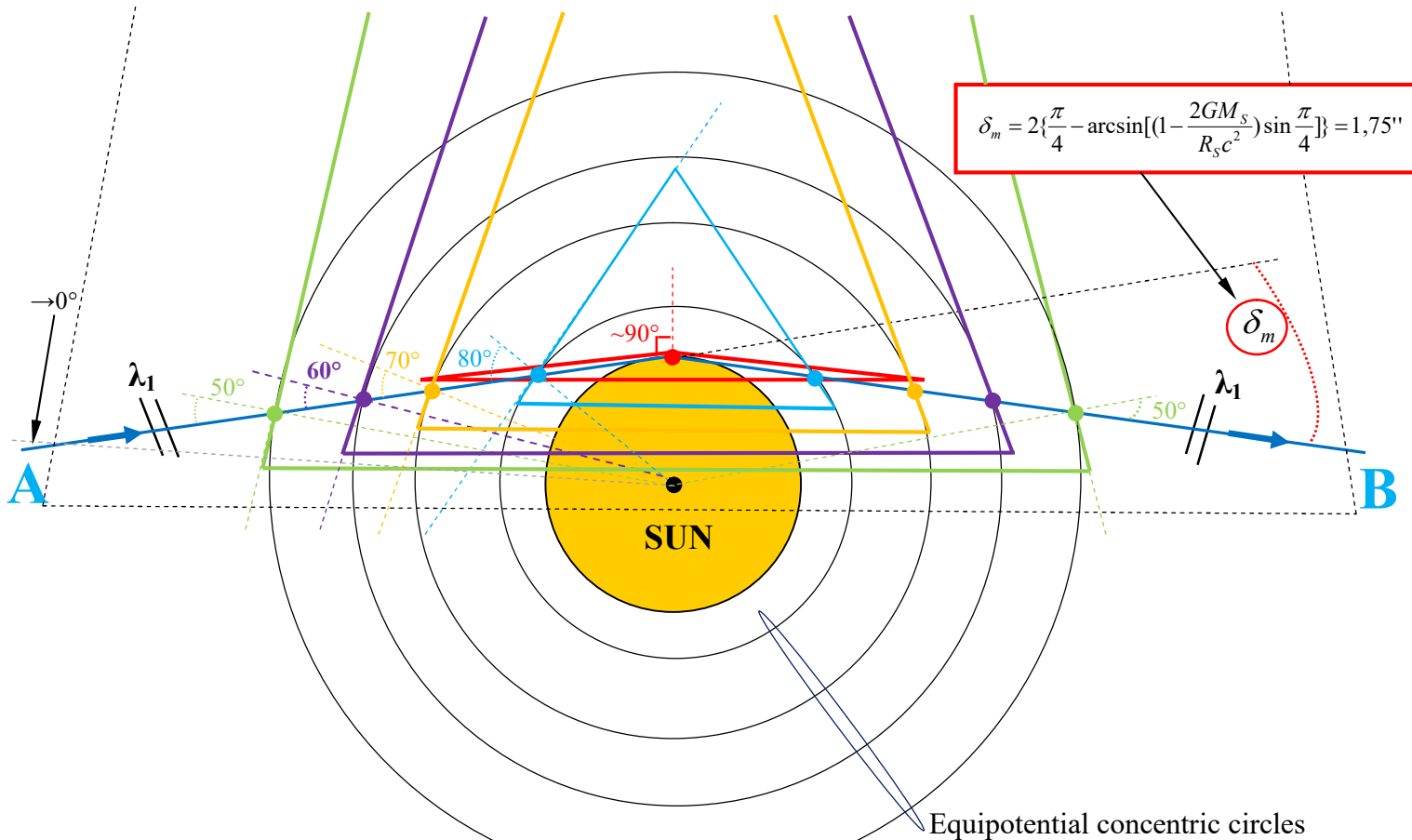
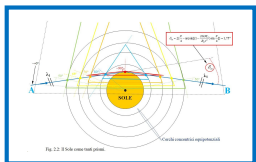


Fig. 5.2: The Sun as many prisms.



TESTS CLASSICI DELLA TEORIA DI EINSTEIN IL RITARDO DELL'ECO RADAR DI SHAPIRO CALCOLATO CON LA LEGGE DI SNELL

Leonardo Rubino

Novembre 2025

Abstract: Il ritardo dell'eco radar di Shapiro calcolato con la Legge di Snell.

Mando tramite un radiotelescopio un segnale elettromagnetico, ad esempio dalla Terra a Mercurio, oppure dalla Terra ad una sonda spaziale; questo viene riflesso e ritorna sulla Terra. Con l'elettronica misuro agevolmente il tempo intercorso tra la partenza ed il ritorno. Se ora ripeto la cosa quando il Sole è interposto tra i due pianeti (Fig. 1) e considerando che, volendo, il segnale possa anche rasentare il Sole (Fig. 2), venendo così influenzato relativisticamente, succede che il segnale ritornerà sulla Terra con un lieve ritardo rispetto al primo caso; il ritardo sarà molto molto breve (centinaia di μs , rispetto alle decine di minuti di durata del viaggio di andata e ritorno), ma l'elettronica potrà comunque agevolmente misurare tale ritardo.

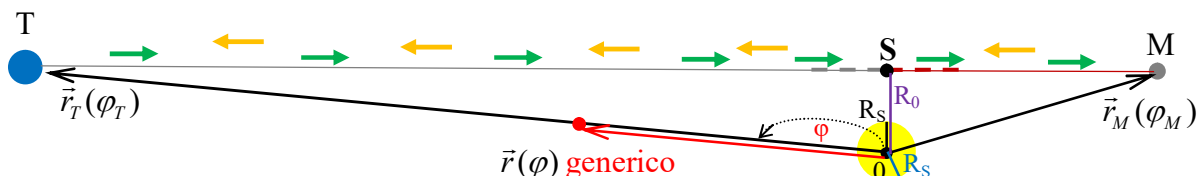


Fig. 1: Traiettorie di andata $\rightarrow$ e ritorno $\leftarrow$ con Sole più defilato ($R_0 > R_S$).

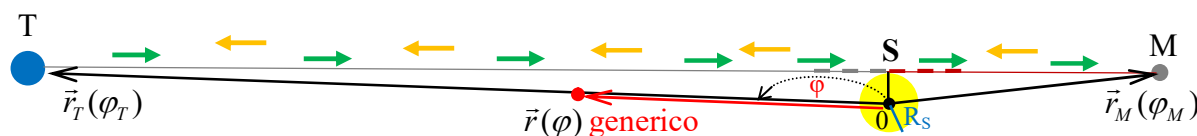


Fig. 2: Traiettorie di andata $\rightarrow$ e ritorno $\leftarrow$ con Sole appena lambito ($R_0 = R_S$).

Date le difficoltà di valutazione dei vari parametri in gioco, si effettuano varie valutazioni del ritardo per molti giorni prima e dopo la congiunzione e le si graficano; il picco che si ottiene corrisponderà evidentemente alla situazione ideale di massimo.

Il calcolo ufficiale fornito dalla Relatività Generale, che è qui riportato in Appendice 4, tiene conto del vettore $\vec{r}(\varphi)$ nell'equazione relativistica del moto. Infatti, sempre con riferimento all'Appendice 4, partendo dalla Soluzione di Schwarzschild:

$d\tau^2 = B(r)c^2 dt^2 - A(r)dr^2 - r^2 d\theta^2 - r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2 = -g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$ e tenendo inoltre conto della equazione della geodetica (vedere Appendice 2) $\frac{d^2 x^\mu}{dp^2} + \Gamma_{\nu\lambda}^\mu \frac{dx^\nu}{dp} \frac{dx^\lambda}{dp} = 0$, con μ che viene fatto variare, si giunge alla seguente equazione (vedere la (4.17) in Appendice 4), per il ritardo di

$$\text{Shapiro: } (\Delta t)_{\max} = \frac{4GM_S}{c^3} \left[1 + \ln\left(\frac{4r_T r_M}{R_S^2}\right) \right] \cong \frac{72 \text{ km}}{c} = 240,17 \mu s \quad . \quad (1.1)$$

UTILIZZANDO INVECE LA LEGGE DI SNELL:

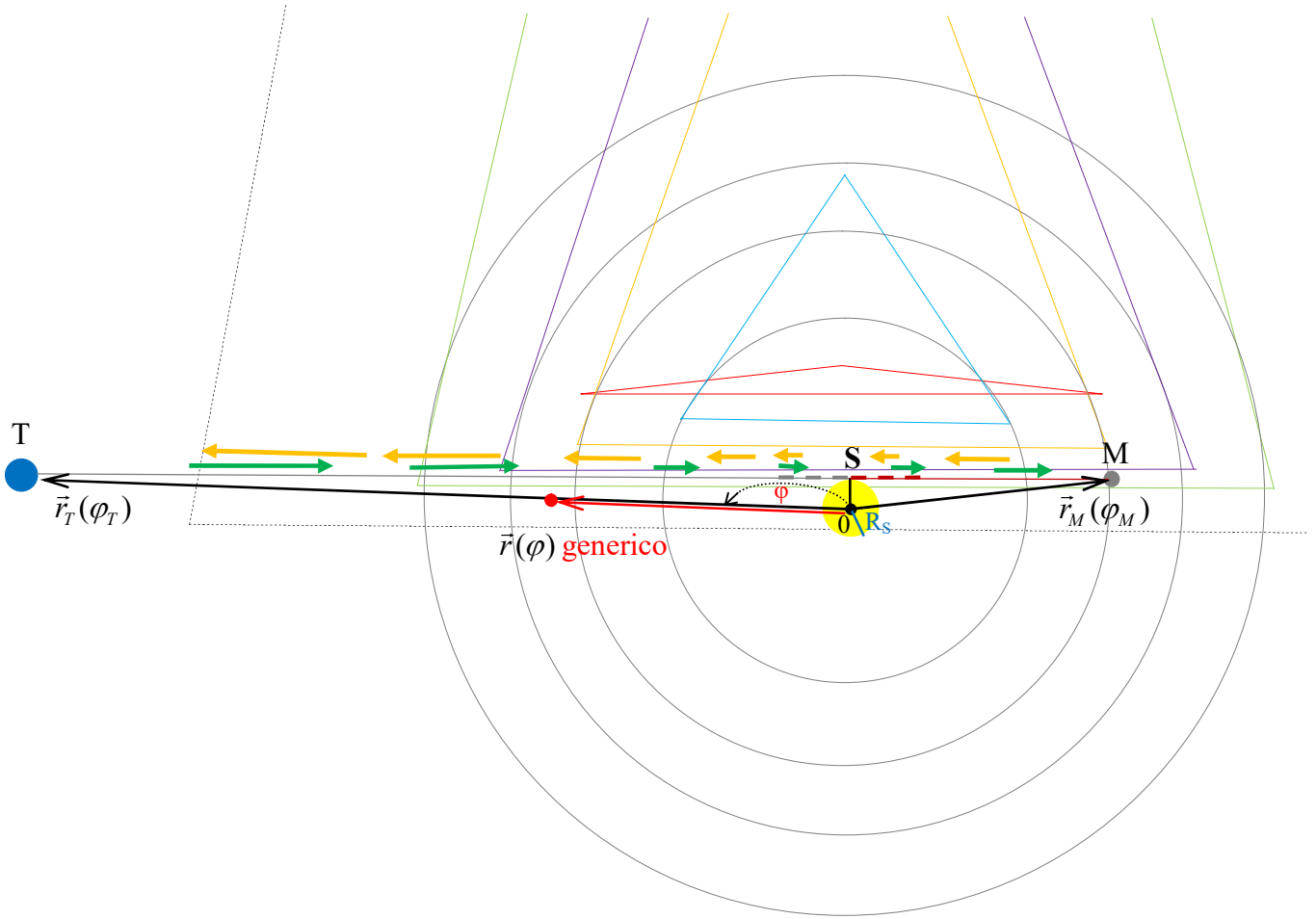


Fig. 3: Traiettorie di andata e ritorno con prismi gravitazionali progressivi e velocità progressive.

Considerando invece il campo gravitazionale del Sole come rifrattivo, dove, come noto, in un prisma ottico la rifrazione sussiste in forza di una diminuzione della velocità della luce con l'introdursi all'interno del prisma, allora si avrà una situazione del tipo di quella rappresentata in Fig. 3, dove l'effetto prismatico rifrattivo aumenta con l'approssimarsi al Sole, visto che con tale approssimarsi il campo gravitazionale si intensifica e la velocità delle onde elettromagnetiche risulta così diminuita, passando da c (lontani dal Sole) alla velocità:

$$V \cong c \left[1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2} \right] < c, \quad (1.2)$$

come dimostrato in Appendice 1 (eq. (A1.8)). Infatti, lì si dimostra ciò partendo dalla Soluzione di Schwarzschild: $d\tau^2 = B(r)c^2dt^2 - A(r)dr^2 - r^2d\theta^2 - r^2\sin^2\theta d\varphi^2$, con $A(r) = \left(1 + \frac{2GM}{c^2r}\right)$ e

$$B(r) = \left(1 - \frac{2GM}{c^2r}\right).$$

Applicandola al fotone: $0 = B(r)c^2dt^2 - A(r)dr^2 - r^2d\theta^2 - r^2\sin^2\theta d\varphi^2$; inoltre, considerando luce che viaggia radialmente verso il Sole, possiamo annullare le componenti in $d\theta$ e $d\varphi$:

$$0 = B(r)c^2dt^2 - A(r)dr^2; \quad (1.3)$$

la velocità della luce è $c = dr/dt$ lontano dalla massa del Sole, mentre in prossimità dello stesso vale la (1.3), dalla quale si ricava che:

$$V = dr/dt = c(B(r)/A(r))^{1/2} \neq c; \quad (1.4)$$

essendo quindi: $B(r) = [1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}]$ e $A(r) = [1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}]^{-1} \cong [1 + \frac{2GM}{rc^2}]$, allora dagli sviluppi in serie sulla variabile $\frac{2GM}{rc^2}$ applicati alla (1.4), si ha banalmente che:

$$V/c = ([1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}] / [1 + \frac{2GM}{rc^2}])^{1/2} \cong [1 - \frac{2GM}{2rc^2}] [1 - \frac{2GM}{2rc^2}] \cong [1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}], \text{ ossia appunto:}$$

$$\boxed{V \cong c[1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}]} \quad (1.5)$$

Detto ciò, con riferimento alla Fig. 3, in assenza del Sole il segnale elettromagnetico emesso procede dalla Terra T fino a Mercurio M e torna indietro, tutto in linea retta e tutto a velocità c:

$T_{io} = \frac{TS + SM}{c} = \frac{\sqrt{r_T^2 - R_S^2} + \sqrt{r_M^2 - R_S^2}}{c} \cong \frac{r_T + r_M}{c}$, poiché il raggio del Sole $R_S = 6,95475 \cdot 10^8 m$ è troppo piccolo rispetto alle altre distanze, ossia la distanza Terra-Sole $r_{T-S} \cong 149,6 \cdot 10^9 m$ e quella Sole-Mercurio in opposizione ($r_{M-S} \cong 55 \cdot 10^9 m$), da cui il cateto che coincide con l'ipotenusa.

Riguardo ora l'andata e ritorno, si ha: $T = T_{io} + T_{fro} = 2T_{io} = 2 \frac{(r_T + r_M)}{c}$.

Invece, col Sole interposto e lambito dal segnale, succede che lo stesso, lungo il cammino da T ad M, ha velocità variabile; ricordiamo infatti che in presenza di campo gravitazionale la velocità della luce resta in modulo sempre c se misurata localmente, ossia punto per punto (sistemi localmente inerziali), mentre nella visione d'insieme appare un rallentamento risultante. Dunque, il segnale elettromagnetico, per quanto visto con la (1.2), si dirige prima da T al bordo sinistro di S con velocità appunto $V \cong \frac{dr}{dt} = c[1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}]$ (ricordando che qui gli r sono negativi, ossia -r), poi (approssimativamente) dal bordo sinistro al destro di S, per un tragitto pari a $2R_S$, con una velocità che è notoriamente pari a $V \cong c[1 - \frac{2GM}{R_S c^2}]$ e, per ultimo, dal bordo destro di S ad M, con velocità

$V \cong \frac{dr}{dt} = c[1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}]$ (e qui gli r sono e restano positivi, ossia +r); riassumendo, riguardo la sola andata:

$$\begin{aligned} T'_{io} &= \int_0^{T_A} dt = \int_{-r_T}^{+r_M} \frac{dr}{V} = \int_{-r_T}^{+r_M} \frac{dr}{c(1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2})} \cong \frac{1}{c} \int_{-r_T}^{+r_M} (1 + \frac{2GM}{r^2 c^2}) dr = \frac{1}{c} \int_{-r_T}^{-R_S} [1 + \frac{2GM}{(-r)c^2}] dr + \frac{1}{c} \int_{-R_S}^{+R_S} (1 + \frac{2GM}{R_S c^2}) dr + \\ &+ \frac{1}{c} \int_{R_S}^{r_M} (1 + \frac{2GM}{rc^2}) dr = [\frac{1}{c} \int_{-r_T}^{-R_S} dr - \frac{1}{c} \int_{-r_T}^{-R_S} \frac{2GM}{rc^2} dr] + \frac{1}{c} (1 + \frac{2GM}{R_S c^2}) \int_{-R_S}^{+R_S} dr + [\frac{1}{c} \int_{R_S}^{r_M} dr + \frac{1}{c} \int_{R_S}^{r_M} \frac{2GM}{rc^2} dr] = \\ &= [\frac{(r_T - R_S)}{c} - \frac{2GM}{c^3} \int_{-r_T}^{-R_S} \frac{1}{r} dr] + \frac{2R_S}{c} (1 + \frac{2GM}{R_S c^2}) + [\frac{(r_M - R_S)}{c} + \frac{2GM}{c^3} \int_{R_S}^{r_M} \frac{1}{r} dr] = \\ &= [\frac{(r_T - R_S)}{c} - \frac{2GM}{c^3} \ln \frac{R_S}{r_T}] + (\frac{2R_S}{c} + \frac{4GM}{c^3}) + [\frac{(r_M - R_S)}{c} + \frac{2GM}{c^3} \ln \frac{r_M}{R_S}] = \\ &= \frac{r_T + r_M}{c} + \frac{4GM}{c^3} + \frac{2GM}{c^3} \ln \frac{r_T r_M}{R_S^2}; \text{ riguardo ora l'andata e ritorno, si ha:} \end{aligned}$$

$$T' = T'_{io} + T'_{fro} = 2T'_{io} = 2 \frac{(r_T + r_M)}{c} + \frac{8GM}{c^3} + \frac{4GM}{c^3} \ln \frac{r_T r_M}{R_S^2} \text{ e, finalmente, per il ritardo di Shapiro:}$$

$$(R_S = 6,95475 \cdot 10^8 m, \quad M_S = 1,9891 \cdot 10^{30} kg, \quad c = 2,99792458 \cdot 10^8 m/s, \quad r_{T-S} \cong 149,6 \cdot 10^9 m, \\ r_{M-S} \cong 55 \cdot 10^9 m)$$

$$(\Delta t)_{\max} = T' - T = \left[2 \frac{(r_T + r_M)}{c} + \frac{8GM}{c^3} + \frac{4GM}{c^3} \ln \frac{r_T r_M}{R_S^2} \right] - 2 \frac{(r_T + r_M)}{c} = \frac{8GM}{c^3} + \frac{4GM}{c^3} \ln \frac{r_T r_M}{R_S^2} = \frac{4GM}{c^3} (2 + \ln \frac{r_T r_M}{R_S^2})$$

dunque:

$$(\Delta t)_{\max} = \frac{4GM}{c^3} (2 + \ln \frac{r_T r_M}{R_S^2}) \cong \frac{69,35 km}{c} = 231,34 \mu s \cong 240,17 \mu s \quad (1.6)$$

Il risultato è ottimo, considerando le lievi approssimazioni fatte.

APPENDICI

APPENDICE 1: LA SOLUZIONE DI SCHWARZSCHILD:

-La gravità rallenta il tempo

Anche la gravità rallenta il tempo! In montagna il tempo scorre più velocemente che a valle. Ovviamente, sulla Terra, la differenza è impercettibile, ma su una stella di neutroni, o in un buco nero, l'effetto è intensissimo.

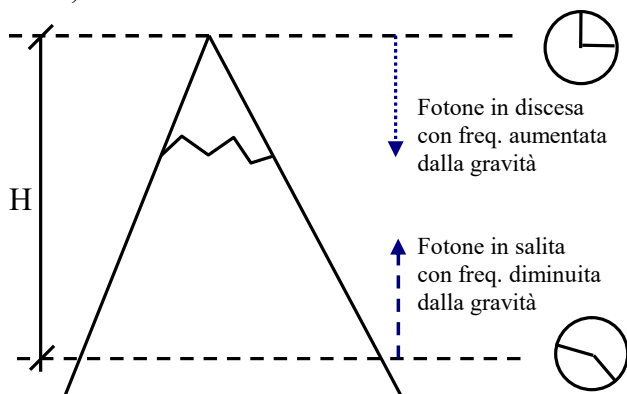


Fig. A1.1: Montagna, gravità e tempo.

$\Delta E = m_0 g H$ (delta energia del salto di quota); $\Delta E = h \Delta \nu$ (delta energia del calo di frequenza di un fotone). Dalle due: $\Delta \nu = m_0 g H / h$. Per un fotone, $E = h \nu$, ma in relatività si ha che: $E = m_0 c^2$, da cui, per un fotone: $m_0 = h \nu / c^2$ e dunque, per $\Delta \nu$: $\Delta \nu = \nu g H / c^2$ ed essendo il tempo l'inverso della frequenza, si ha: $\Delta \nu / \nu = \Delta t / t$ e dunque: $\Delta t = \frac{gH}{c^2} t$. (A1.1)

Dunque, su un tempo t , si ha un rallentamento Δt dato dalla gravità! Sappiamo che la velocità di fuga di un corpo celeste di massa M e raggio R vale: $V = \sqrt{\frac{2GM}{R}}$. Se su quel corpo un oggetto viene lanciato verticalmente alla velocità di fuga, esso uscirà dal campo gravitazionale del corpo celeste ed andrà verso l'infinito, senza più ricadere. Un buco nero è un corpo così compresso (M grande ed R piccolo) che la velocità di fuga sulla sua superficie raggiunge il valore della velocità della luce e dunque neanche la luce vi sfugge, da cui il nome di buco nero; inoltre, per quanto detto sopra, si può affermare che in un buco nero il tempo è pressoché fermo!

Tornando al rallentamento, per la (A1.1): $\Delta t = \frac{gH}{c^2} t$, che può essere interpretata come: $dt = \frac{g dr}{c^2} t$ e

considerando che $|g| = \frac{GM}{r^2}$, segue che: $dt = t \frac{GM}{c^2 r^2} dr$, ossia: $\frac{dt}{t} = \frac{GM}{c^2 r^2} \frac{dr}{r^2} \rightarrow \int \frac{dt}{t} = \frac{GM}{c^2} \int \frac{dr}{r^2} \rightarrow$

$$\begin{aligned}
&\rightarrow \ln t = -\frac{GM}{c^2 r} + k \rightarrow, \quad t = k \cdot e^{\frac{-GM}{c^2 r}} \rightarrow (e^{-x} \approx 1 - x) \rightarrow t = k(1 - \frac{GM}{c^2 r}) \rightarrow \\
&(t = t_0 \gg r = \infty) \rightarrow t = t_0(1 - \frac{GM}{c^2 r}) \rightarrow (\sqrt{1-x} \approx 1 - \frac{1}{2}x) \rightarrow \\
&\rightarrow t = t_0 \sqrt{1 - \frac{2GM}{c^2 r}}. \tag{A1.2}
\end{aligned}$$

D'altra parte, sappiamo che la formula per la contrazione di Lorentz ha la stessa forma della formula per la dilatazione del tempo, ma con la radice al denominatore, dunque:

$$r = r_0 / \sqrt{1 - \frac{2GM}{c^2 r}}. \tag{A1.3}$$

-La soluzione di Schwarzschild

Sappiamo che, in generale: $d\tau^2 = c^2(dt)^2 - (d\vec{x})^2$ (invariante quadridimensionale) ed essendo, per un fotone (che ha velocità c): $(d\vec{x})^2 = c^2(dt)^2$, segue che: $d\tau^2 = 0$ (per un fotone appunto).

Sempre dal tensore metrico: $d\tau^2 = c^2 dt^2 - dr^2 = c^2 dt^2 - (dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2)$, passiamo alle più semplici coordinate sferiche:

$$d\tau^2 = c^2 dt^2 - (dr^2 + r^2 d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2); \tag{A1.4}$$

ma per le (A1.2) e (A1.3):

$$\begin{aligned}
dt &= dt_0 \sqrt{1 - \frac{2GM}{c^2 r}} \rightarrow dt^2 = dt_0^2 (1 - \frac{2GM}{c^2 r}) = dt_0^2 \underline{B(r)} \quad \text{e:} \\
dr^2 &= dr_0^2 / (1 - \frac{2GM}{c^2 r}) \cong dr_0^2 (1 + \frac{2GM}{c^2 r}) = dr_0^2 \underline{A(r)}, \quad \text{poiché, per Taylor: } 1/(1-x) \cong (1+x). \text{ Inoltre,} \\
&\text{non si ha contrazione di Lorentz sulle direzioni trasversali (ad esempio, y e z, oppure anche } \theta \text{ e } \varphi), \\
&\text{da cui, per la (A1.4):}
\end{aligned}$$

$$d\tau^2 = B(r)c^2 dt^2 - A(r)dr^2 - r^2 d\theta^2 - r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2 \tag{A1.5}$$

(e dopo aver ribattezzato r e t) che è la Soluzione di Schwarzschild.

Applicandola al fotone:

$$0 = B(r)c^2 dt^2 - A(r)dr^2 - r^2 d\theta^2 - r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2; \text{ inoltre, considerando luce che viaggia } \underline{\text{radialmente}} \text{ verso il Sole, possiamo annullare le componenti in } d\theta \text{ e } d\varphi: 0 = B(r)c^2 dt^2 - A(r)dr^2; \tag{A1.6}$$

$$\text{la velocità della luce è } c = dr/dt \text{ lontano dalla massa del Sole, mentre in prossimità dello stesso vale la (A1.6), dalla quale si ricava che: } V = dr/dt = c(B(r)/A(r))^{1/2} \neq c; \tag{A1.7}$$

$$\text{essendo quindi: } B(r) = [1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}] \text{ e } A(r) = [1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}]^{-1} \cong [1 + \frac{2GM}{rc^2}], \text{ allora dagli sviluppi in serie}$$

sulla variabile $\frac{2GM}{rc^2}$ applicati alla (A1.7), si ha banalmente che:

$$V/c = ([1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}])^{1/2} / [1 + \frac{2GM}{rc^2}]^{1/2} \cong [1 - \frac{2GM}{2rc^2}][1 - \frac{2GM}{2rc^2}] \cong [1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}], \text{ ossia:}$$

$$V \cong c[1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}] \tag{A1.8}$$

APPENDICE 2: La geodetica:

Un paracadutista in caduta libera non ha un pavimento su cui il suo corpo può gravare, dunque lui, tra sé e sé, non avverte accelerazione di gravità, e si sente come sospeso nel vuoto e si accorge che sta cadendo solo se guarda gli altri oggetti attorno che si muovono. Per una particella in caduta libera, dunque, vi è ovviamente un sistema di riferimento in cui $\vec{a} = 0$, ossia:

$$\frac{\partial^2 \xi^\alpha}{\partial \tau^2} = 0 \quad (\text{caduta libera in coordinate euclidee}) \quad (\text{A2.1})$$

con $d\tau^2 = -\eta_{ik} d\xi^i d\xi^k$. Possiamo però vedere la (A2.1) nel seguente modo:

$$\frac{\partial^2 \xi^\alpha}{\partial \tau^2} = 0 = \frac{d}{d\tau} \left(\frac{\partial \xi^\alpha}{\partial x^\mu} \frac{dx^\mu}{d\tau} \right) = \frac{\partial \xi^\alpha}{\partial x^\mu} \frac{d^2 x^\mu}{d\tau^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \xi^\alpha}{\partial x^\mu \partial x^\nu} \frac{dx^\mu}{d\tau} \frac{dx^\nu}{d\tau}$$

per $\frac{\partial x^\lambda}{\partial \xi^\alpha}$ e teniamo conto del fatto che: $\frac{\partial \xi^\alpha}{\partial x^\mu} \frac{\partial x^\lambda}{\partial \xi^\alpha} = \delta_\mu^\lambda$; si avrà:

$$\frac{d^2 x^\lambda}{d\tau^2} + \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\lambda \frac{dx^\mu}{d\tau} \frac{dx^\nu}{d\tau} = 0 \quad (\text{caduta libera in coordinate curvilinee}) \quad (\text{A2.2})$$

(equazione della geodetica, dove geodetica, qui sulla Terra, è la rotta minima tra una località e l'altra)

APPENDICE 3: LA RIFRAZIONE E LA LEGGE DI SNELL:

-Rifrazione

-Il bagnino

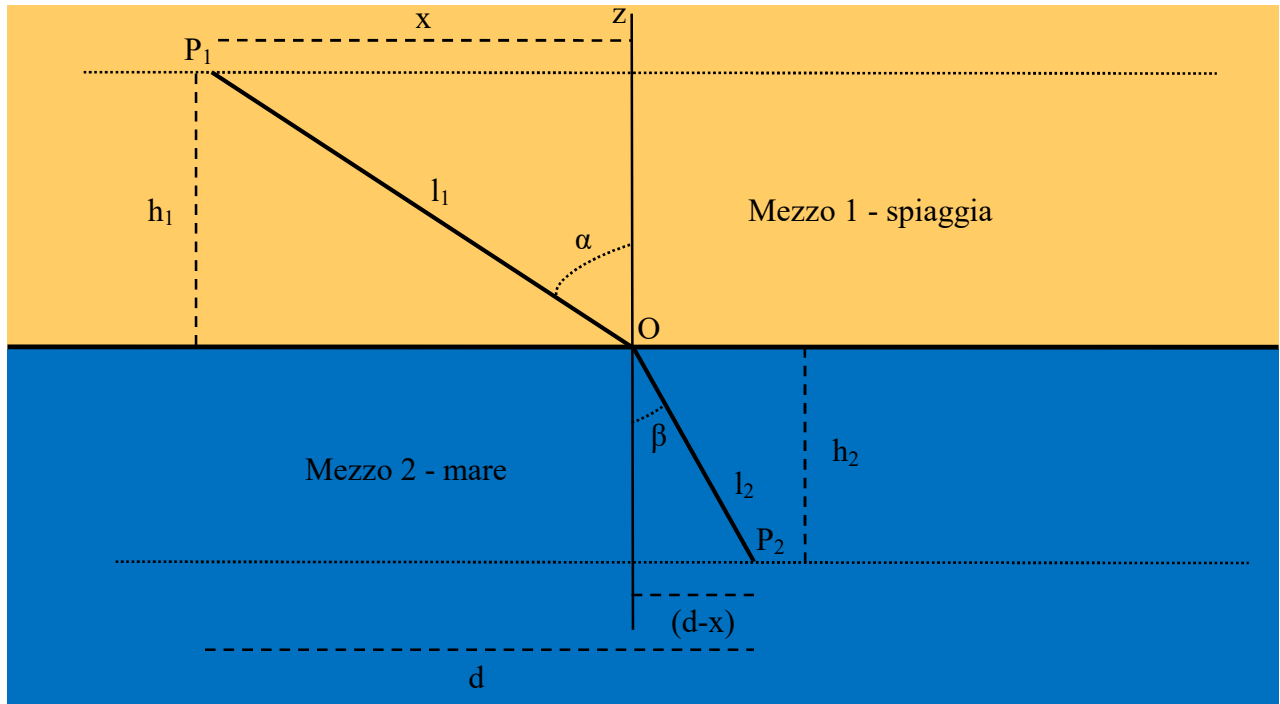


Fig. A3.1: Il bagnino in P_1 vede il bagnante in difficoltà in P_2 .

Il bagnino in P_1 deve raggiungere e soccorrere il bagnante in P_2 ; egli, però, sa anche che la corsa sulla spiaggia avviene a velocità v_1 maggiore della velocità v_2 del nuoto in acqua, dunque il percorso geometricamente più breve, dato dal segmento P_1 - P_2 non è il più veloce, perché fa stare il bagnino troppo in acqua, dove è più lento.

Valutiamo il tempo di percorrenza del viaggio del bagnino:

$$t_B = \frac{P_1 - O}{v_1} + \frac{O - P_2}{v_2} = \frac{l_1}{v_1} + \frac{l_2}{v_2} = \frac{\sqrt{h_1^2 + x^2}}{v_1} + \frac{\sqrt{h_2^2 + (d-x)^2}}{v_2}$$

Ora, per valutare il minimo di t_B , calcoliamo la derivata ed annulliamola:

$$\frac{dt_B}{dx} = \frac{2x}{v_1 \sqrt{h_1^2 + x^2}} - \frac{2(d-x)}{v_2 \sqrt{h_2^2 + (d-x)^2}} = 0, \text{ ma si ha che:}$$

$$\frac{x}{\sqrt{h_1^2 + x^2}} = \sin \alpha \quad \text{e} \quad \frac{(d-x)}{\sqrt{h_2^2 + (d-x)^2}} = \sin \beta, \text{ da cui: } \frac{dt_B}{dx} = \frac{2 \sin \alpha}{v_1} - \frac{2 \sin \beta}{v_2} = 0, \text{ ossia:}$$

$$\frac{v_1}{\sin \alpha} = \frac{v_2}{\sin \beta} = k, \quad (A3.1)$$

dunque, in entrambi gli strati (mezzo 1 e mezzo 2), il rapporto tra il seno dell'angolo con la verticale e la velocità è costante.

-Legge di Snell

Se i percorsi l_1 ed l_2 fossero dei raggi di luce ed i mezzi 1 e 2 fossero, ad esempio, aria ed acqua, considerando che, per gli indici di rifrazione n_1 ed n_2 si ha, per definizione:

$$n_1 = \frac{c}{v_1} \quad \text{e} \quad n_2 = \frac{c}{v_2}, \quad (A3.2)$$

si ottiene la Legge di Snell:

$$\frac{\sin \alpha}{\sin \beta} = \frac{v_1}{v_2} = \frac{v_1 / c}{v_2 / c} = \frac{c / v_2}{c / v_1} = \frac{n_2}{n_1} = n_{21} = n, \quad (A3.3)$$

che è la responsabile del fatto che una scala semi immersa in una piscina la vediamo piegata. n_{21} è l'indice di rifrazione relativo del mezzo 2 rispetto al mezzo 1. Visto che $v_1 \neq v_2$, ossia: $v_i \neq v_r$ ("i" denota la radiazione incidente, mentre "r" denota quella rifratta) e $v_i = \lambda_i f_i$, $v_r = \lambda_r f_r \rightarrow$

$$\lambda_i = \frac{v_i}{f_i} = \frac{c / n_1}{\omega_i / 2\pi} = \frac{c}{n_1} \frac{2\pi}{\omega_i} \quad \text{e} \quad \lambda_r = \frac{v_r}{f_r} = \frac{c / n_2}{\omega_r / 2\pi} = \frac{c}{n_2} \frac{2\pi}{\omega_r}; \text{ se, come vedremo, siamo nel caso di } f_1 = f_2$$

$$\rightarrow \omega_1 = \omega_2 = \omega = (2\pi)f \rightarrow \lambda_r = \frac{c}{n_2} \frac{2\pi}{\omega} = \frac{c}{n_2} \frac{\lambda_i n_1}{c} = \frac{n_1}{n_2} \lambda_i = n_{12} \lambda_i, \text{ ossia:}$$

$$\lambda_r = \frac{n_1}{n_2} \lambda_i = n_{12} \lambda_i \quad (A3.4)$$

Essendo che la Legge di Snell è qui scaturita anche come calcolo del tempo di percorrenza minimo, viene confermato il Principio di Fermat, secondo cui il raggio di luce segue il cammino più breve.

Trattandosi ora di onde elettromagnetiche (E e B), si ha che: ($\vec{k}$ è il vettore d'onda)
(onda incidente)

$$\vec{E}_i = E_{oi} \cdot e^{i(\vec{k}_i \cdot \vec{r} - \omega_i t)} = E_{oi} \cdot e^{i(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \hat{k}_i \cdot \vec{r} - 2\pi f_i t)} \quad \text{e} \quad \vec{B}_i = \frac{n_1}{c} \vec{k}_i \times \vec{E}_i$$

(onda rifratta, con un tal sfasamento φ_r)

$$\vec{E}_r = E_{or} \cdot e^{i(\vec{k}_r \cdot \vec{r} - \omega_r t + \varphi_r)} \quad \text{e} \quad \vec{B}_r = \frac{n_2}{c} \vec{k}_r \times \vec{E}_r$$

Essendo poi che $\vec{j} = \sigma \vec{E}$ (con j come densità di corrente e σ come conducibilità), si ha che se siamo tra mezzi isolanti, oppure tra vuoto e vuoto+campo gravitazionale, allora $\sigma=0$ e $\rightarrow \vec{j} = \sigma \vec{E} = 0$ (e

soprattutto nella zona di confine tra i due mezzi) e le Equazioni di Maxwell sono quelle per il vuoto ed esse condurranno all'Equazione delle Onde sia in "i" che in "r", le cui soluzioni sono quelle sopra riportate, sia in "i" che in "r", (in entrambe le zone si deve avere una $\propto e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t + \varphi)}$) ed allora passando da "i" ad "r" gli argomenti si devono conservare: $(\vec{k}_i \cdot \vec{r} - \omega_i t) = (\vec{k}_r \cdot \vec{r} - \omega_r t + \varphi_r) \rightarrow \varphi_r = 0$, ($\omega_i = \omega_r \rightarrow f_i = f_r$ stessa frequenza) e $\vec{k}_i \cdot \vec{r} = \vec{k}_r \cdot \vec{r}$; in particolare, si ha: $\vec{k}_i \cdot \vec{r} = \vec{k}_r \cdot \vec{r} \rightarrow k_{i-x}x + k_{i-y}y + k_{i-z}z = k_{r-x}x + k_{r-y}y + k_{r-z}z$ e considerando l'asse y come uscente dal foglio, si ha che $k_{i-y} = 0$ (considerando il raggio incidente come contenuto nel piano x-z del foglio), da cui: $k_{i-x}x + k_{i-z}z = k_{r-x}x + k_{r-y}y + k_{r-z}z$ e considerando il punto di attraversamento del confine ($z=0$, con z come asse verticale – rif. Fig. A3.1), si ha: $k_{i-x}x = k_{r-x}x + k_{r-y}y \rightarrow k_{r-y} = 0$ e $k_{i-x} = k_{r-x} \rightarrow \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_i} \sin \alpha = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_r} \sin \beta$ od anche: $\frac{2\pi}{\lambda_i} \sin \theta_i = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_r} \sin \theta_r \rightarrow \frac{\sin \theta_i}{\sin \theta_r} = \frac{\lambda_i}{\lambda_r} = \frac{n_2}{n_1} = n_{21}$, ossia la riconferma della Legge di Snell.

-II Prisma

Si abbia un prisma di materiale trasparente, come in Fig. A3.2:

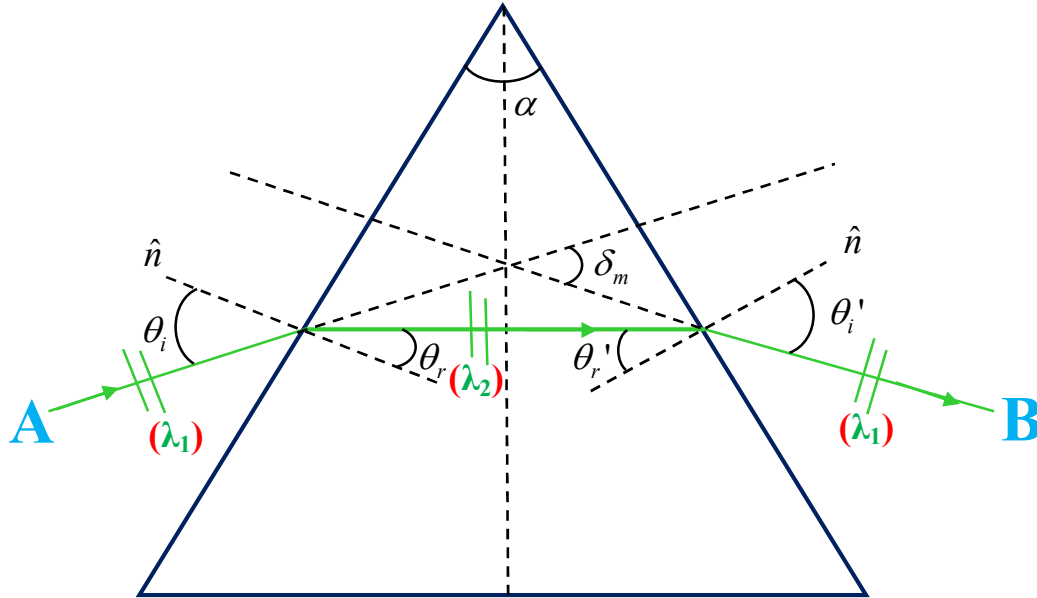


Fig. A3.2: Il prisma.

δ_m è l'angolo della deflessione subita dal raggio di luce che, provenendo da **A**, abbandona poi definitivamente il sistema prisma, dirigendosi verso **B**.

$\delta = \delta_m$ è minimo quando θ_i è tale che il raggio interno al prisma sia parallelo alla base e in tal caso si ha anche che $\theta_i = \theta_i'$ e $\theta_r = \theta_r'$. Mostriamo adesso anche che:

$$\theta_i = \frac{\delta_m + \alpha}{2} \quad \text{e} \quad \theta_r = \frac{\alpha}{2}, \quad (\text{A3.5})$$

da cui: $n = \frac{\sin \theta_i}{\sin \theta_r} = \frac{\sin(\frac{\delta_m + \alpha}{2})}{\sin(\frac{\alpha}{2})}$; dimostrazione:

tra parentesi, dalle (A3.5) si ottiene: $\theta_i = \frac{\delta_m + \alpha}{2} = \frac{\delta_m + 2\theta_r}{2} \rightarrow$

$$\rightarrow \boxed{\delta_m = 2(\theta_i - \theta_r)} \quad (A3.6)$$

Tornando alla dimostrazione, con riferimento alla Fig. A3.3 qui sotto, dal triangolo DEB si ha:

$$(\pi - \delta) + (\theta_i - \theta_r) + (\theta'_i - \theta'_r) = \pi, \text{ da cui:}$$

$$\delta = (\theta_i + \theta'_i) - (\theta_r + \theta'_r). \quad (A3.7)$$

Dal triangolo ABD si ha: $\alpha + (\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta_r) + (\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta'_r) = \pi$, da cui:

$$\alpha = (\theta_r + \theta'_r). \quad (A3.8)$$

Dal triangolo BCD si ha: $x + \theta_r + \theta'_r = \pi$, da cui: $x + \alpha = \pi \rightarrow x = (\pi - \alpha)$; la (A3.7) ci dice dunque che $(\theta_i + \theta'_i) = \delta + (\theta_r + \theta'_r) = \delta + \alpha$

$$(A3.9)$$

$$\text{ossia: } \delta = (\theta_i + \theta'_i) - \alpha \text{ e } \frac{d\delta}{d\theta_i} = \frac{d\theta_i}{d\theta_i} + \frac{d\theta'_i}{d\theta_i} = 1 + \frac{d\theta'_i}{d\theta_i} \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \frac{d\theta'_i}{d\theta_i} = -1 \quad (A3.10)$$

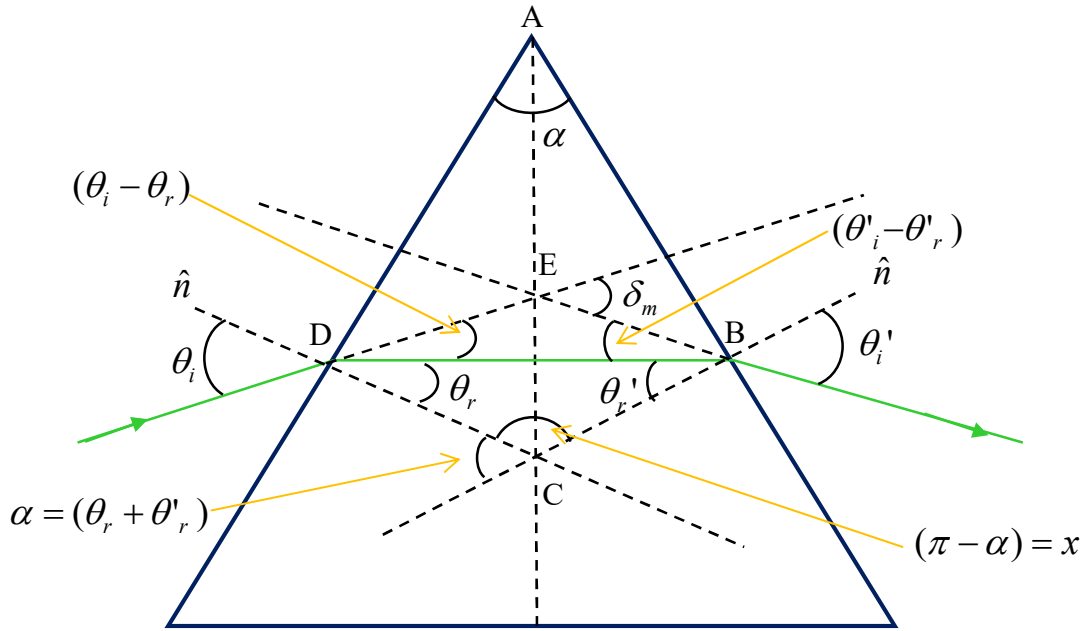


Fig. A3.3: Prisma per i calcoli.

Inoltre, per la Legge di Snell si ha: $\sin \theta_i = n \sin \theta_r$ e $\sin \theta'_i = n \sin \theta'_r$, da cui, differenziando:

$$\cos \theta_i d\theta_i = n \cos \theta_r d\theta_r \text{ e } \cos \theta'_i d\theta'_i = n \cos \theta'_r d\theta'_r, \text{ ma per la (A3.8) si ha:}$$

$$d\theta_r + d\theta'_r = 0 \rightarrow d\theta'_r = -d\theta_r \text{ e quindi:}$$

$$\cos \theta_i d\theta_i = n \cos \theta_r d\theta_r \text{ e } \cos \theta'_i d\theta'_i = -n \cos \theta'_r d\theta_r; \text{ facendo ora il rapporto m.a.m. tra}$$

$$\text{queste ultime due, si ottiene: } \frac{d\theta'_i}{d\theta_i} = -\frac{\cos \theta'_r}{\cos \theta_r} \frac{\cos \theta_i}{\cos \theta'_i}, \text{ ma sapendo noi già che } \frac{d\theta'_i}{d\theta_i} = -1 \text{ e}$$

$$\theta'_r = \alpha - \theta_r, \text{ otteniamo: } \frac{\cos(\alpha - \theta_r)}{\cos \theta_r} \frac{\cos \theta_i}{\cos \theta'_i} = 1 \rightarrow \theta_i = \theta'_i \text{ (per avere } \frac{\cos \theta_i}{\cos \theta'_i} = 1 \text{) e}$$

$$\theta_r = \frac{\alpha}{2} = \theta'_r \text{ (in quanto: } \frac{\cos(\alpha - \theta_r)}{\cos \theta_r} = \frac{\cos(\alpha - \frac{\alpha}{2})}{\cos \frac{\alpha}{2}} = \frac{\cos \frac{\alpha}{2}}{\cos \frac{\alpha}{2}} = 1 \text{)}. \text{ Infine, per la (A3.9), si ha:}$$

$$(\theta_i + \theta'_i) = 2\theta_i = 2\theta'_i = \delta + \alpha, \text{ ossia: } \theta_i = \theta'_i = \frac{(\delta_m + \alpha)}{2} \text{ (e } \theta_r = \theta'_r = \frac{\alpha}{2} \text{)}.$$

Abbiamo scritto δ_m e non semplicemente δ per l'annullamento della derivata della (A3.10).

APPENDICE 4: CALCOLO UFFICIALE DEL TEMPO DI RITARDO DI SHAPIRO

-Le equazioni generali del moto.

Conosciamo la Soluzione di Schwarzschild, ricavata in Appendice 1:

$$d\tau^2 = B(r)c^2 dt^2 - A(r)dr^2 - r^2 d\theta^2 - r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2 = -g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu \text{ che, in convenzione } c=1, \text{ dà:}$$

$$d\tau^2 = B(r)dt^2 - A(r)dr^2 - r^2 d\theta^2 - r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2 = -g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu \text{ e teniamo inoltre conto della}$$

$$\text{equazione della geodetica, presentata in Appendice 2: } \frac{d^2 x^\mu}{dp^2} + \Gamma_{\nu\lambda}^\mu \frac{dx^\nu}{dp} \frac{dx^\lambda}{dp} = 0 \text{ (in p generico, per}$$

$$\text{ora): si ha allora, facendo variare } \mu: (\Gamma_{\nu\lambda}^\nu = \frac{1}{2} g^{\nu\rho} (\frac{\partial g_{\rho\lambda}}{\partial x^\nu} + \frac{\partial g_{\rho\nu}}{\partial x^\lambda} - \frac{\partial g_{\nu\lambda}}{\partial x^\rho}))$$

$$0 = \frac{d^2 r}{dp^2} + \frac{A'(r)}{2A(r)} \left(\frac{dr}{dp}\right)^2 - \frac{r}{A(r)} \left(\frac{d\theta}{dp}\right)^2 - \frac{r \sin^2 \theta}{A(r)} \left(\frac{d\varphi}{dp}\right)^2 + \frac{B'(r)}{2A(r)} \left(\frac{dt}{dp}\right)^2 \quad (4.1)$$

$$0 = \frac{d^2 \theta}{dp^2} + \frac{2}{r} \frac{d\theta}{dp} \frac{dr}{dp} - \sin \theta \cos \theta \left(\frac{d\varphi}{dp}\right)^2 \quad (4.2)$$

$$0 = \frac{d^2 \varphi}{dp^2} + \frac{2}{r} \frac{d\varphi}{dp} \frac{dr}{dp} + 2 \cot \theta \frac{d\varphi}{dp} \frac{d\theta}{dp} \quad (4.3)$$

$$0 = \frac{d^2 t}{dp^2} + \frac{B'(r)}{B(r)} \frac{dt}{dp} \frac{dr}{dp} \quad (4.4)$$

Ora, siccome il campo è isotropico, poniamo $\theta = \pi/2$ (ponendoci dunque su un piano, dunque con componente z nulla) e dunque le ultime due, (4.3) e (4.4) diventano:

$$\frac{d}{dp} \left[\ln \frac{d\varphi}{dp} + \ln r^2 \right] = 0 \text{ e } \frac{d}{dp} \left[\ln \frac{dt}{dp} + \ln B \right] = 0, \text{ da cui:}$$

$$r^2 \frac{d\varphi}{dp} = J \text{ (costante)} \quad (4.5)$$

$$\frac{dt}{dp} B = \text{const} \text{ (=1, per scelta)} \quad (4.6)$$

da cui: $\frac{dt}{dp} = \frac{1}{B}$. Inserendo ora le (4.5), (4.6) e la condizione ($\theta = \pi/2$) usata prima, nella (4.1), si

$$\text{ha: } 0 = \frac{d^2 r}{dp^2} + \frac{A'(r)}{2A(r)} \left(\frac{dr}{dp}\right)^2 - \frac{J^2}{r^3 A(r)} + \frac{B'(r)}{2A(r)B^2(r)} \text{ e moltiplicando ora per } 2A(r) \frac{dr}{dp} :$$

$$\frac{d}{dp} \left[A(r) \left(\frac{dr}{dp} \right)^2 + \frac{J^2}{r^2} - \frac{1}{B(r)} \right] = 0 \text{ cioè:}$$

$$A(r) \left(\frac{dr}{dp} \right)^2 + \frac{J^2}{r^2} - \frac{1}{B(r)} = -E \text{ (costante)} \quad (4.7)$$

Facendo poi sistema tra la condizione ($\theta = \pi/2$) usata prima, la (4.5), (4.6) e (4.7), si ottiene:

$$d\tau^2 = Edp^2 \quad (4.8)$$

Sappiamo che $E=0$ per i fotoni e $E>0$ per particelle materiali.

Siccome $A(r)$ è sempre positivo, si ha che la particella può raggiungere r solo se (vedere la (4.7)):

$$\frac{J^2}{r^2} + E \leq -\frac{1}{B(r)}. \text{ Usando poi la (4.6) nelle (4.5), (4.7) e (4.8), si ottiene:}$$

$$r^2 \frac{d\varphi}{dt} = JB(r) \quad (4.9)$$

$$\frac{A(r)}{B^2(r)} \left(\frac{dr}{dt} \right)^2 + \frac{J^2}{r^2} - \frac{1}{B(r)} = -E \quad (4.10)$$

$$\text{e } d\tau^2 = EB^2(r)dt^2. \quad (4.11)$$

Dal momento che noi trasmettiamo un segnale radar, dunque un'onda elettromagnetica, si sa che $d\tau = 0$, ossia, per la (4.11): $E=0$ e allora la (4.10) diventa:

$$\frac{A(r)}{B^2(r)} \left(\frac{dr}{dt} \right)^2 + \frac{J^2}{r^2} - \frac{1}{B(r)} = 0. \quad (4.12)$$

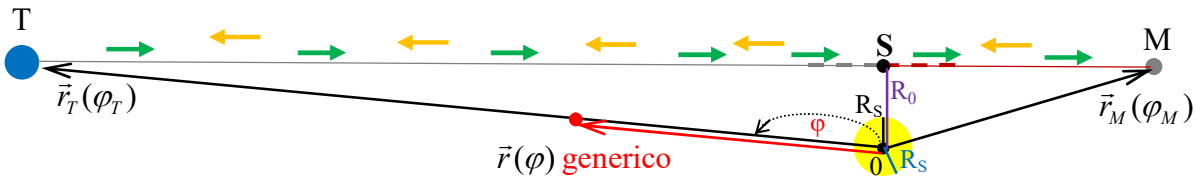


Fig. A4.1: Traiettorie di andata $\rightarrow$ e ritorno $\leftarrow$ con Sole più defilato ($R_0 > R_S$).

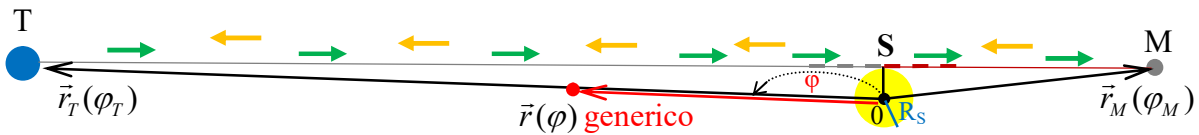


Fig. A4.2: Traiettorie di andata $\rightarrow$ e ritorno $\leftarrow$ con Sole appena lambito ($R_0 = R_S$).

Adesso, con riferimento alla Fig. A4.1, noi consideriamo il piano ($\theta = \pi/2$) dove il segnale elettromagnetico parte dalla Terra, ossia dal punto $r_T(\varphi_T)$ a Mercurio ($r_M(\varphi_M)$) ed in prossimità del Sole tale segnale passerà ad una distanza generica R_0 dal centro, con $R_0 \geq R_S$, dunque, per il momento, non necessariamente a rasentare la superficie del Sole; inoltre, nel punto in cui il segnale è alla distanza minima R_0 dal Sole, lì, ovviamente, si avrà che: $\frac{dr}{dt} = 0$, da cui, per la (4.12):

$$\frac{A(R_0)}{B^2(R_0)} (0)^2 + \frac{J^2}{R_0^2} - \frac{1}{B(R_0)} = 0 \rightarrow J^2 = \frac{R_0^2}{B(R_0)} \text{ e dunque, per la (4.12), si ha infine:}$$

$$\frac{A(r)}{B^2(r)} \left(\frac{dr}{dt} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{R_0}{r} \right)^2 B^{-1}(R_0) - B^{-1}(r) = 0 \quad (4.13)$$

Dalla (4.13) allora si ha che il tempo richiesto per andare da R_0 all'r generico o viceversa è $t_{(r,R_0)}$:

$$t_{(r,R_0)} = \int_{R_0}^r \sqrt{\frac{A(r)/B(r)}{[1 - \frac{B(r)}{B(R_0)} (\frac{R_0}{r})^2]}} dr \quad (4.14)$$

ed il tempo per andare da Terra a Mercurio, col Sole interposto, sarà allora: $T_S = t_{(r_T, R_0)} + t_{(r_M, R_0)}$.

Ricordando ora i valori di A e B ricavati in Appendice 1:

$$A(r) = (1 + \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2}) \quad \text{e} \quad B(r) = (1 - \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2}) \quad , \text{ segue che:}$$

$$1 - \frac{B(r)}{B(R_0)} \left(\frac{R_0}{r} \right)^2 = 1 - \frac{(1 - \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2})}{(1 - \frac{2GM_S}{R_0c^2})} \left(\frac{R_0}{r} \right)^2 = 1 - [(1 - \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2})(1 + \frac{2GM_S}{R_0c^2})] \left(\frac{R_0}{r} \right)^2 =$$

$$= 1 - [1 + \frac{2GM_S}{R_0c^2} - \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2} - \frac{4G^2M_S^2}{R_0rc^4}] \left(\frac{R_0}{r} \right)^2 \quad \text{e trascurando il termine con il } c^4 \text{ al denominatore, si}$$

$$\text{avrà: } 1 - \frac{B(r)}{B(R_0)} \left(\frac{R_0}{r} \right)^2 = 1 - [1 + \frac{2GM_S}{R_0c^2} - \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2}] \left(\frac{R_0}{r} \right)^2 = 1 - [1 + \frac{2GM_S}{c^2} (\frac{1}{R_0} - \frac{1}{r})] \left(\frac{R_0}{r} \right)^2 =$$

$$= 1 - \left(\frac{R_0}{r} \right)^2 - \frac{2GM_S}{c^2} \left(\frac{R_0}{r^2} - \frac{R_0^2}{r^3} \right) = [1 - \left(\frac{R_0}{r} \right)^2] - [\frac{2GM_S R_0}{c^2} (\frac{r - R_0}{r^3})] = [1 - \left(\frac{R_0}{r} \right)^2] [1 - \frac{2GM_S R_0}{c^2 r(r + R_0)}],$$

da cui, per la (4.14), si ottiene, dopo aver considerato che, uscendo del tutto dalla convenzione $c=1$, il rapporto $A(r)/B(r)$ nella (4.14) dovrà avere le dimensioni di $1/c^2$, poiché la radice lo ridurrà ad $1/c$, che, col dr darà appunto un tempo t , mentre il denominatore della (4.14), ossia

$$\sqrt{[1 - \frac{B(r)}{B(R_0)} (\frac{R_0}{r})^2]} \quad \text{è adimensionale già di suo, da cui } B(r) \text{ sarà moltiplicato per } c^2, \text{ proprio come}$$

nella espressione per $d\tau^2$ (fuori convenzione) qui sopra:

$$t_{(r,R_0)} = \int_{R_0}^r \sqrt{\frac{A(r)/B(r)}{[1 - \frac{B(r)}{B(R_0)} (\frac{R_0}{r})^2]}} dr = \int_{R_0}^r \frac{[A(r)/B(r)]^{1/2}}{[1 - \frac{B(r)}{B(R_0)} (\frac{R_0}{r})^2]^{1/2}} dr = \int_{R_0}^r \frac{[(1 + \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2})/c^2 (1 - \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2})]^{1/2}}{[1 - (\frac{R_0}{r})^2]^{1/2} [1 - \frac{2GM_S R_0}{c^2 r(r + R_0)}]^{1/2}} dr \cong$$

$$\cong \int_{R_0}^r \frac{1}{c} [1 - (\frac{R_0}{r})^2]^{-1/2} \frac{[(1 + \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2})/(1 - \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2})]^{1/2}}{[1 - \frac{2GM_S R_0}{c^2 r(r + R_0)}]^{1/2}} dr = \int_{R_0}^r \frac{1}{c} [1 - (\frac{R_0}{r})^2]^{-1/2} \frac{[(1 + \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2})(1 + \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2})]^{1/2}}{[1 - \frac{GM_S R_0}{c^2 r(r + R_0)}]} dr =$$

$$= \int_{R_0}^r \frac{1}{c} [1 - (\frac{R_0}{r})^2]^{-1/2} (1 + \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2}) [1 + \frac{GM_S R_0}{c^2 r(r + R_0)}] dr =$$

$$= \int_{R_0}^r [1 - (\frac{R_0}{r})^2]^{-1/2} [1 + \frac{GM_S R_0}{c^2 r(r + R_0)} + \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2} + \frac{2G^2M_S^2 R_0}{c^4 r^2 (r + R_0)}] dr =$$

$$= \int_{R_0}^r \frac{1}{c} [1 - (\frac{R_0}{r})^2]^{-1/2} [1 + \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2} + \frac{GM_S R_0}{c^2 r(r + R_0)}] dr = \int_{R_0}^r \frac{1}{c} \frac{r}{\sqrt{r^2 - R_0^2}} [1 + \frac{2GM_S}{rc^2} + \frac{GM_S R_0}{c^2 r(r + R_0)}] dr =$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \frac{1}{c} \int_{R_0}^r \frac{r}{\sqrt{r^2 - R_0^2}} dr + \frac{2GM_S}{c^3} \int_{R_0}^r \frac{1}{\sqrt{r^2 - R_0^2}} dr + \frac{GM_S R_0}{c^3} \int_{R_0}^r \frac{1}{(r + R_0)\sqrt{r^2 - R_0^2}} dr = \\
&= t_{(r, R_0)} = \frac{\sqrt{r^2 - R_0^2}}{c} + \frac{2GM_S}{c^3} \ln \left[\frac{r + \sqrt{r^2 - R_0^2}}{R_0} \right] + \frac{GM_S R_0}{c^3} \sqrt{\frac{1}{R_0^2} \left(\frac{r - R_0}{r + R_0} \right)} \quad (4.15)
\end{aligned}$$

Esigiamo ora il ritardo massimo, che si ha quando Mercurio è in congiunzione superiore (proprio dietro il Sole, rispetto alla Terra) ed il segnale elettromagnetico appena sfiora il Sole ($R_0=R_S$, ossia R_0 è proprio giusto il raggio del Sole; un po' come in Fig. A4.2), da cui, per la (4.15):

$$t_{(r, R_S)} = \frac{\sqrt{r^2 - R_S^2}}{c} + \frac{2GM_S}{c^3} \ln \left[\frac{r + \sqrt{r^2 - R_S^2}}{R_S} \right] + \frac{GM_S R_S}{c^3} \sqrt{\frac{1}{R_S^2} \left(\frac{r - R_S}{r + R_S} \right)} \quad (4.16)$$

Nella (4.16) il primo termine è il tempo del viaggio di andata puro, ad esempio da Terra a Sole ($\frac{\sqrt{r_T^2 - R_S^2}}{c}$), ossia il cateto TS di Fig. A4.2, alla velocità della luce pura c , ossia senza effetti relativistici, cioè senza la presenza del Sole, mentre gli altri due termini testimoniano gli effetti relativistici. Esso è comunque, grosso modo, pari ad r_T , ossia alla congiungente Terra-centro del Sole, poiché il raggio del Sole $R_S = 6,95475 \cdot 10^8 m$ è troppo piccolo rispetto alle altre distanze, tipo la distanza Terra-Sole $r_{T-S} \cong 149,6 \cdot 10^9 m$ e quella Sole-Mercurio in opposizione ($r_{M-S} \cong 55 \cdot 10^9 m$), da cui il cateto che coincide con l'ipotenusa.

Riassumendo, abbiamo:

$$(R_S = 6,95475 \cdot 10^8 m, \quad M_S = 1,9891 \cdot 10^{30} kg, \quad c = 2,99792458 \cdot 10^8 m/s, \quad r_{T-S} \cong 149,6 \cdot 10^9 m, \quad r_{M-S} \cong 55 \cdot 10^9 m)$$

-tempo di andata senza Sole in mezzo: $t_A = t_{Terra-Sole} + t_{Sole-Mercurio} = \frac{\sqrt{r_T^2 - R_S^2}}{c} + \frac{\sqrt{r_M^2 - R_S^2}}{c} \cong \frac{r_T}{c} + \frac{r_M}{c}$

-tempo di andata e ritorno, senza Sole in mezzo:

$$2t_A = 2(t_{Terra-Sole} + t_{Sole-Mercurio}) = 2 \left(\frac{\sqrt{r_T^2 - R_S^2}}{c} + \frac{\sqrt{r_M^2 - R_S^2}}{c} \right) \cong 2 \left(\frac{r_T}{c} + \frac{r_M}{c} \right)$$

-tempo di andata col Sole in mezzo: (per la (4.16))

$$\begin{aligned}
t_B = t_{(r_T, R_S)} + t_{(R_S, r_M)} = & \left\{ \frac{\sqrt{r_T^2 - R_S^2}}{c} + \frac{2GM_S}{c^3} \ln \left[\frac{r_T + \sqrt{r_T^2 - R_S^2}}{R_S} \right] + \frac{GM_S R_S}{c^3} \sqrt{\frac{1}{R_S^2} \left(\frac{r_T - R_S}{r_T + R_S} \right)} \right\} + \\
& + \left\{ \frac{\sqrt{r_M^2 - R_S^2}}{c} + \frac{2GM_S}{c^3} \ln \left[\frac{r_M + \sqrt{r_M^2 - R_S^2}}{R_S} \right] + \frac{GM_S R_S}{c^3} \sqrt{\frac{1}{R_S^2} \left(\frac{r_M - R_S}{r_M + R_S} \right)} \right\}
\end{aligned}$$

-tempo di andata e ritorno, col Sole in mezzo:

$$\begin{aligned}
2t_B = 2(t_{(r_T, R_S)} + t_{(R_S, r_M)}) = & 2 \left\{ \frac{\sqrt{r_T^2 - R_S^2}}{c} + \frac{2GM_S}{c^3} \ln \left[\frac{r_T + \sqrt{r_T^2 - R_S^2}}{R_S} \right] + \frac{GM_S R_S}{c^3} \sqrt{\frac{1}{R_S^2} \left(\frac{r_T - R_S}{r_T + R_S} \right)} \right\} + \\
& + 2 \left\{ \frac{\sqrt{r_M^2 - R_S^2}}{c} + \frac{2GM_S}{c^3} \ln \left[\frac{r_M + \sqrt{r_M^2 - R_S^2}}{R_S} \right] + \frac{GM_S R_S}{c^3} \sqrt{\frac{1}{R_S^2} \left(\frac{r_M - R_S}{r_M + R_S} \right)} \right\}
\end{aligned}$$

-ritardo di Shapiro:

$$\begin{aligned}
(\Delta t)_{\max} = 2t_B - 2t_A = & 2(t_{(r_T, R_S)} + t_{(R_S, r_M)}) - 2(t_{Terra-Sole} + t_{Sole-Mercurio}) = \\
= & 2 \left\{ \frac{\sqrt{r_T^2 - R_S^2}}{c} + \frac{2GM_S}{c^3} \ln \left[\frac{r_T + \sqrt{r_T^2 - R_S^2}}{R_S} \right] + \frac{GM_S R_S}{c^3} \sqrt{\frac{1}{R_S^2} \left(\frac{r_T - R_S}{r_T + R_S} \right)} \right\} +
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& + 2\left\{\frac{\sqrt{r_M^2 - R_S^2}}{c} + \frac{2GM_S}{c^3} \ln\left[\frac{r_M + \sqrt{r_M^2 - R_S^2}}{R_S}\right] + \frac{GM_S R_S}{c^3} \sqrt{\frac{1}{R_S^2} \left(\frac{r_M - R_S}{r_M + R_S}\right)}\right\} - 2\left(\frac{\sqrt{r_T^2 - R_S^2}}{c} + \frac{\sqrt{r_M^2 - R_S^2}}{c}\right) = \\
& = \frac{4GM_S}{c^3} \ln\left[\frac{r_T + \sqrt{r_T^2 - R_S^2}}{R_S}\right] + \frac{2GM_S R_S}{c^3} \sqrt{\frac{1}{R_S^2} \left(\frac{r_T - R_S}{r_T + R_S}\right)} + \frac{4GM_S}{c^3} \ln\left[\frac{r_M + \sqrt{r_M^2 - R_S^2}}{R_S}\right] + \frac{2GM_S R_S}{c^3} \sqrt{\frac{1}{R_S^2} \left(\frac{r_M - R_S}{r_M + R_S}\right)} = \\
& = \frac{4GM_S}{c^3} \ln\left[\left(\frac{r_T + \sqrt{r_T^2 - R_S^2}}{R_S}\right)\left(\frac{r_M + \sqrt{r_M^2 - R_S^2}}{R_S}\right)\right] + \frac{2GM_S R_S}{c^3} \left[\sqrt{\frac{1}{R_S^2} \left(\frac{r_T - R_S}{r_T + R_S}\right)} + \sqrt{\frac{1}{R_S^2} \left(\frac{r_M - R_S}{r_M + R_S}\right)}\right] \cong \\
& (\text{trascurando } R_S) = \frac{4GM_S}{c^3} \ln\left(\frac{4r_T r_M}{R_S^2}\right) + \frac{4GM_S}{c^3} = \frac{4GM_S}{c^3} [1 + \ln\left(\frac{4r_T r_M}{R_S^2}\right)], \text{ ossia:}
\end{aligned}$$

$$(\Delta t)_{\max} = \frac{4GM_S}{c^3} [1 + \ln\left(\frac{4r_T r_M}{R_S^2}\right)] \cong \frac{72 \text{ km}}{c} = 240,17 \mu\text{s} \quad (4.17)$$

APPENDICE 5: CALCOLO DELLA DEFLESSIONE DELLA LUCE DA PARTE DEL SOLE (METODO BASATO ANCORA UNA VOLTA SULLA **LEGGE DI SNELL**):

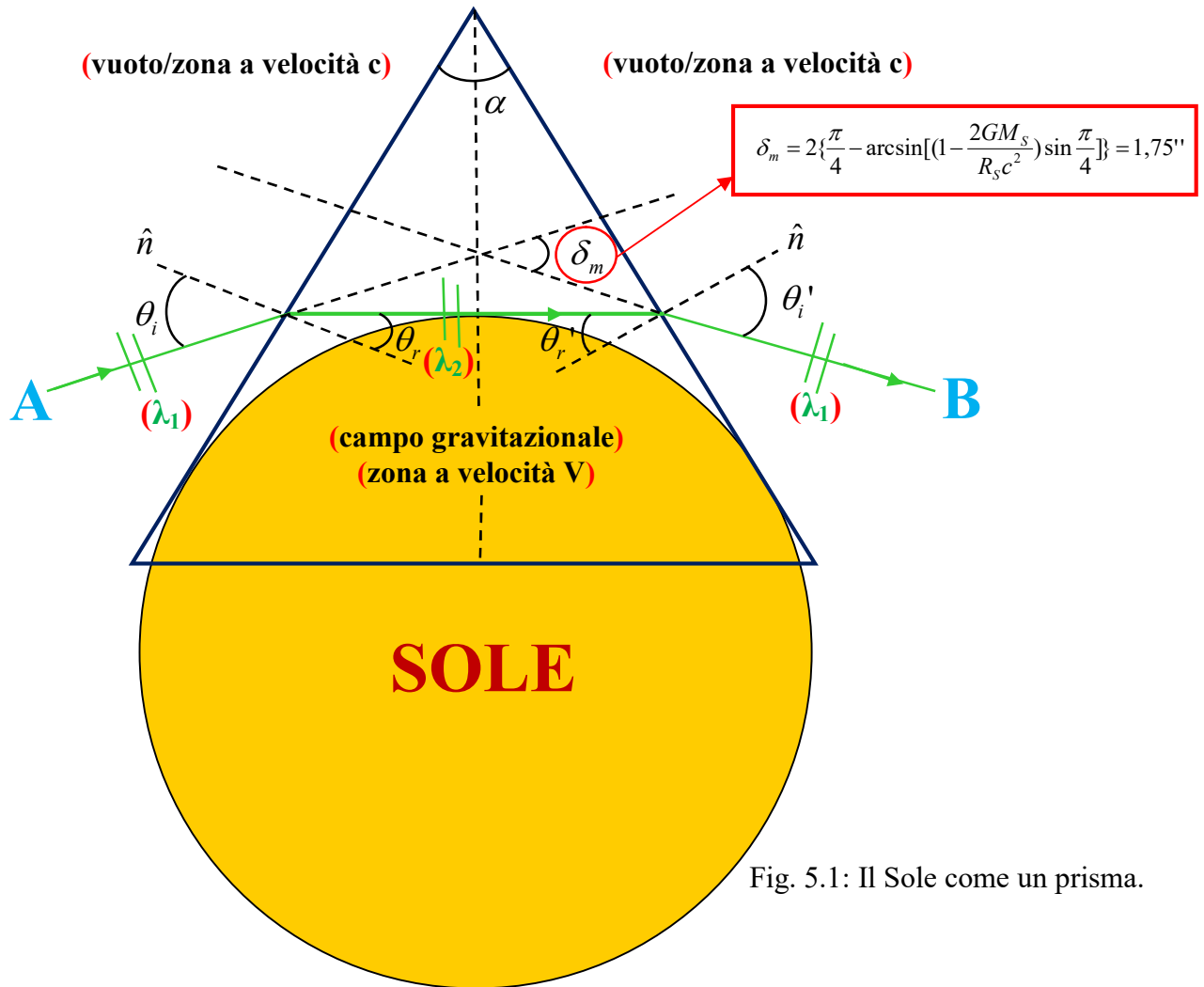


Fig. 5.1: Il Sole come un prisma.

Ovviamente, nella Fig. 5.1 qui sopra, il prisma può essere abbassato in modo da avere il tratto di raggio luminoso orizzontale (λ_2) sufficientemente corto. Ed il prisma può ovviamente essere ruotato intorno al centro dell'astro e riapplicato, per ragioni di simmetria.

Proprio come, nel fenomeno della rifrazione della luce, il raggio di luce piega entrando nell'acqua (SNELL-Rif. Fig. A3.1 in Appendice 3), così la luce che entra nel campo gravitazionale dell'astro

viene deflessa. Ed altresì, così come in aria ed acqua la luce ha velocità diverse, anche nel caso del Sole si parlerà di c lontano da esso e di V in sua vicinanza.

Il metodo di calcolo ufficiale della deflessione della luce da parte del Sole fornisce il valore:

$$\Delta\varphi = \frac{4GM_S}{R_S c^2} = 0,849 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ rad} = 1,75'' , \quad (5.1)$$

valore ottenuto, ad esempio, in Brasile durante l'eclissi del 1919.

($R_S = 6,95475 \cdot 10^8 \text{ m}$, $M_S = 1,9891 \cdot 10^{30} \text{ kg}$ e $c = 2,99792458 \cdot 10^8 \text{ m/s}$)

Facciamo ora appunto leva sulla variazione di velocità che la luce subisce quando si approssima ad una massa.

Con riferimento alla Fig. 5.1 qui sopra, ricordiamo innanzitutto la (A3.6) in Appendice 3, che è comunque anche abbastanza intuitiva, sebbene sia là dimostrata ufficialmente:

$$\delta_m = 2(\theta_i - \theta_r) = \Delta\varphi \quad (5.2)$$

δ_m è ovviamente l'angolo della deflessione subita dal raggio di luce che, provenendo da **A**, abbandona poi definitivamente il sistema prisma (rifrattivo), dirigendosi verso **B** , ed è altresì là dimostrato che $\delta = \delta_m$ è minimo quando θ_i è tale che il raggio interno al prisma è parallelo alla base e in tal caso si ha anche che $\theta_i = \theta_i'$ e $\theta_r = \theta_r'$, nonché anche la (5.2) (ossia la (A3.6)) appunto. Ricordiamo poi la definizione di redshift:

$$z = \frac{\lambda_{\text{osservata}} - \lambda_{\text{emessa}}}{\lambda_{\text{emessa}}} \quad (5.3)$$

Inoltre, segue che: $1 + z = \frac{\lambda_{\text{osservata}}}{\lambda_{\text{emessa}}}$. $z > 0$ è redshift; $z < 0$ è blueshift. Dalla (5.3) si ottiene:

$$z = \frac{\lambda_{\text{osservata}} - \lambda_{\text{emessa}}}{\lambda_{\text{emessa}}} = \frac{\lambda_2 - \lambda_1}{\lambda_1} = \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} - 1 = \frac{-\Delta\lambda}{\lambda_1} = \frac{V/f - c/f}{c/f} = \frac{-\Delta v}{c} = \frac{V}{c} - 1 \quad (5.4)$$

(ovviamente, alla sinistra del prisma, con λ_1 che è in zona **A**(sorgente) e λ_2 che è osservata dal prisma) e confrontando poi quest'ultima (la (5.4) appunto) con la (1.2) (che scaturisce dalla Soluzione di Schwarzschild), ossia la: $V \cong c[1 - \frac{2GM_S}{R_S c^2}]$ ($\rightarrow \frac{V}{c} \cong [1 - \frac{2GM_S}{R_S c^2}]$), si ha che:

$$z = -\frac{2GM_S}{R_S c^2} = \frac{-\Delta\lambda}{\lambda_1} \quad (5.5)$$

Allora, per la Legge di Snell (A3.3), si ha: $\frac{\sin \theta_i}{\sin \theta_r} = \frac{c}{V} = n$, ma dalla (5.4) si ha che:

$$\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} - 1 = \frac{V}{c} - 1 , \text{ da cui: } \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} = \frac{V}{c} \rightarrow \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2} = \frac{c}{V} \rightarrow \frac{\sin \theta_i}{\sin \theta_r} = \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2} \text{ e allora:}$$

$$\sin \theta_r = \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \sin \theta_i = \frac{(\lambda_1 - \Delta\lambda)}{\lambda_1} \sin \theta_i = (1 - \frac{\Delta\lambda}{\lambda_1}) \sin \theta_i \text{ e per la (5.5), si ha poi:}$$

$$\sin \theta_r = (1 - \frac{\Delta\lambda}{\lambda_1}) \sin \theta_i = (1 - \frac{2GM_S}{R_S c^2}) \sin \theta_i \text{ ed infine:}$$

$$\theta_r = \arcsin[(1 - \frac{2GM_S}{R_S c^2}) \sin \theta_i] \quad (5.6)$$

e la (5.6) nella (5.2) fornisce:

$$\delta_m = 2\{\theta_i - \arcsin[(1 - \frac{2GM_s}{R_sc^2})\sin\theta_i]\} \quad (5.7)$$

Per finire, osservando la Fig. 5.2 qui sotto, si nota che l'angolo θ_i può variare tra 0° (ossia col raggio di luce perfettamente perpendicolare alla superficie sinistra del prisma) a 90° (ossia quando, al massimo, il raggio di luce diventa quasi parallelo alla superficie sinistra del prisma), ed allora noi useremo per θ_i il suo valore medio, ossia $\bar{\theta}_i = \frac{0^\circ + 90^\circ}{2} = 45^\circ = \frac{\pi}{4} rad$, da cui, per la (5.7):

$$\delta_m = 2\{\frac{\pi}{4} - \arcsin[(1 - \frac{2GM_s}{R_sc^2})\sin\frac{\pi}{4}]\} = 0,849 \cdot 10^{-5} rad = 1,75'' \quad !!! \quad (5.8)$$

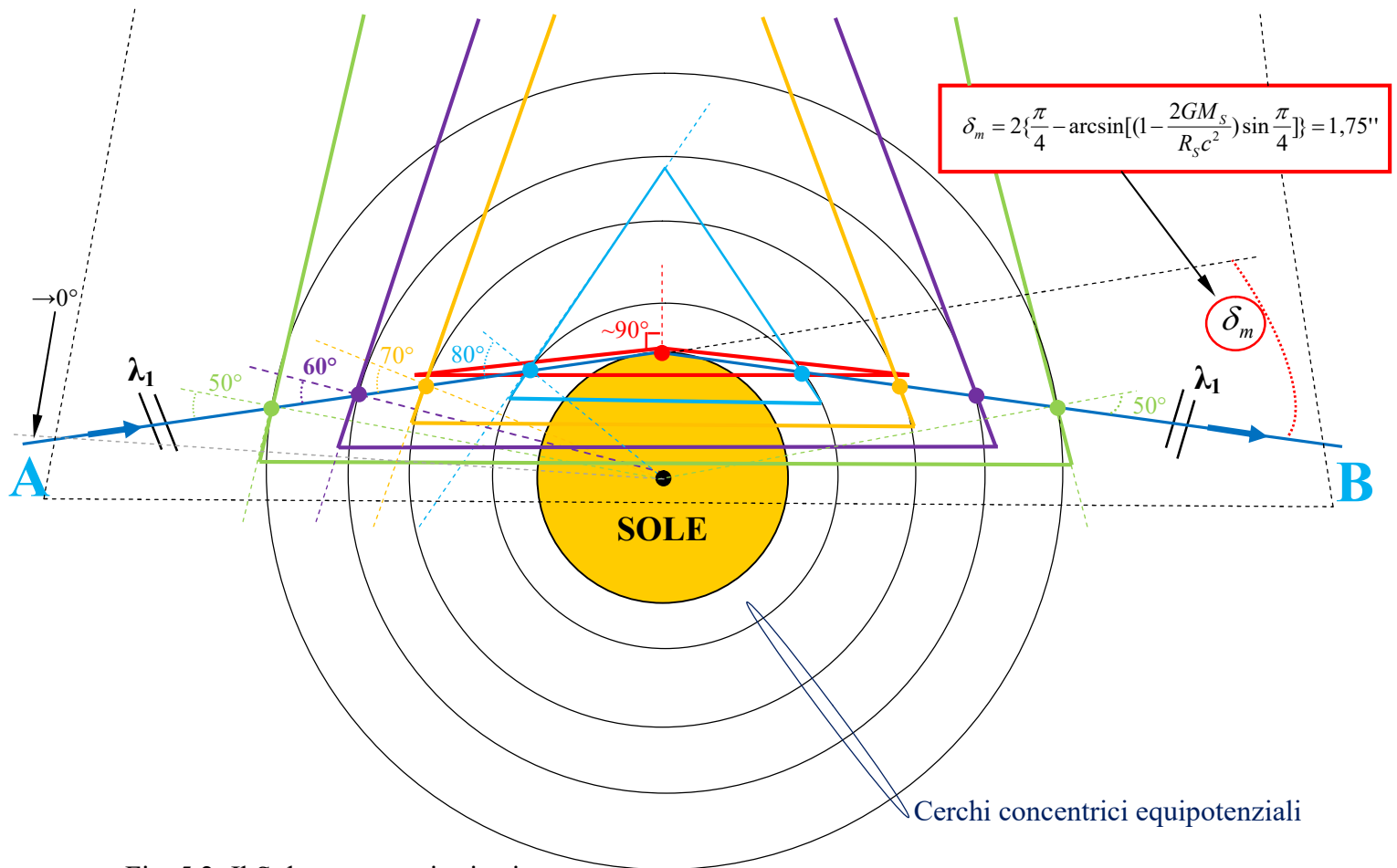


Fig. 5.2: Il Sole come tanti prismi.