# The past and future motion of Comet $\mathbf{P} /$ Swift-Tuttle 

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Accepted 1993 August 2. Received 1993 August 2; in original form 1993 June 17


#### Abstract

The orbit of $\mathrm{P} /$ Swift-Tuttle is investigated by way of a long-term integration forward to AD 2392 and backward to 703 Bc . Two of its previous returns prior to the telescopic period, in AD 188 and 69 bc, are identified in Chinese records. No other observations of $\mathrm{P} / \mathrm{Swift}-$ Tuttle have been found. The non-gravitational forces that affect the motion of most active comets appear to be negligible for this comet, suggesting that either the comet outgasses radially toward the Sun and in a symmetric fashion about perihelion and/or it is far more massive than periodic comets of comparable activity (e.g. P/Halley). Our successful integration is consistent with all the observed returns of the comet. The unobserved returns between AD 188 and 1737 are easily explained, as the comet did not approach the Earth closely enough to allow naked-eye visibility. Our integration and the observing conditions at each return suggest that the comet has maintained about the same intrinsic brightness for more than two millennia. The lack of non-gravitational effects for this comet and the relative constancy of its intrinsic brightness place constraints upon the lifetime of its active area(s) and its spin state. Our prediction of the comet's return in 2126 places it well away from the Earth's position at the nodal crossing.


Key words: methods: numerical - celestial mechanics, stellar dynamics - comets: individual: $\mathrm{P} /$ Swift-Tuttle.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

P/Swift-Tuttle, the comet associated with the Perseid meteor stream, was successfully recovered on 1992 September 26 by Tsuruhiko Kiuchi (IAU Circ. 5620), after a lapse of 130 years since its last return in 1862. Until this recovery, it was not clear when, or even if, the comet would be found because, at the time, only the 1862 observations were clearly associated with Comet Swift-Tuttle. The first detailed analysis on the orbit of $\mathrm{P} /$ Swift-Tuttle was carried out by Hayn (1889), based on the 1862 observations which he grouped into seven normal places. Marsden (1973) utilized the individual observations as given by Hayn, and recomputed the orbit using 212 observations over the interval 1862 July 22-October 22. Marsden, whose orbit was consistent with Hayn's earlier result, estimated a two-year uncertainty in the orbital period, which he determined to be 119.98 yr. Using the fact that the comet was not obviously observed in the past, Marsden predicted, from a solution using the 1862 data alone, that $\mathrm{P} /$ Swift-Tuttle would return sometime between 1980 and 1983. He searched backwards in time for any possible 18th century appearance of this comet, and established that a comet observed in 1737 by the Jesuit missionary Koegler in Beijing was a possible sighting
of $\mathrm{P} /$ Swift-Tuttle, as was also suggested earlier by Lynn (1902). Since the observation interval in 1737 was very short (1737 July 3-10), Marsden found that five different orbital solutions were possible, and that one of the solutions could be linked to the 1862 observations to give reasonable residuals if a large and negative radial component of the nongravitational accelerations was employed. He then predicted that P/Swift-Tuttle would return in 1992 November, if the comet was not seen in the early 1980s.

The recovery of P/Swift-Tuttle in 1992 September not only showed that the second prediction by Marsden (1973) was correct, but also that the comet observed in 1737 was truly the same comet making one of its earlier appearances. With three consecutive observed returns, the comet's longterm motion could be investigated, including a prediction for the comet's next return to perihelion in the first half of the 22nd century. Marsden (1992a) noticed that the observational data in 1862, apart from the October data, could be linked reasonably well with the available pre-perihelion data in 1992, if large non-gravitational effects were included. However, the resulting predicted perihelion passage time for the 1737 return was 15 months too late. Marsden (1992a) published an orbit that did not take non-gravitational effects into account, but fitted the observations in 1992, and in

1862 October very well (though ignoring all other 1862 data), and also the perihelion passage time in 1737 to within one day. The extrapolation of this orbit gave a future time of perihelion passage of 2126 July 11. Due to the large uncertainty concerning the role of non-gravitational effects, Marsden noted that a change in the perihelion date by +15 d could cause the comet to strike the Earth on 2126 August 14.

Problems with various orbital solutions arose, because the only observations available in 1862 October are from the Cape of Good Hope and these are not consistent with the remaining 1862 observations. Either these data are accurate and large, short-term non-gravitational forces were affecting the comet's motion about this time, or the 1862 October data are discordant. By eliminating the 1862 October data altogether, Yeomans (1992) successfully linked the 1737, 1862 and 1992 data without the need for non-gravitational effects.

In order to study the long-term motion of $\mathrm{P} /$ Swift-Tuttle and to understand the role of any non-gravitational effects that might be operative, we have conducted a search for earlier returns of the comet. In Section 2, we give details of an orbit determination that takes into account the 1737, 1862 and 1992-93 data. In Section 3, we use the determined orbits to initialize backward integrations to 703 BC and, in Section 4, we identify the previous returns of the comet from the Chinese sources. In Section 5, we present a discussion of our results and predict the comet's future returns.

## 2 INITIAL CONDITIONS FOR LONG-TERM INTEGRATION

The orbit determination program is a linearized, weighted least-squares estimation algorithm, in which observational data are used to improve an existing orbit, and the dynamic model includes all planetary perturbations at each time-step. The numerical integrator uses a variable-step, variable-order Adams method (Krogh 1972), and the step-size varies to ensure that the estimated local error at each step is less than an input tolerance of $10^{-13} \mathrm{au} \mathrm{d}^{-1}$. The partial derivatives necessary for adjusting the initial conditions are integrated along with the object's equations of motion. The basic form of Cowell's equations of motion is
$\ddot{\boldsymbol{r}}=-k^{2} \frac{\boldsymbol{r}}{r^{3}}+\boldsymbol{f}_{\mathrm{p}}$,
where $\ddot{\boldsymbol{r}}(\ddot{x}, \ddot{y}, \ddot{z})$ is the acceleration of the comet in units of au $\mathrm{d}^{-2}, k$ is the Gaussian gravitational constant, and $\boldsymbol{r}(x, y, z)$ and $r=|r|$ are the heliocentric position and distance of the comet, respectively. The first term on the right-hand side of equation (1) is the direct attraction due to the central primary mass, the Sun. Here the mass of the Sun is taken to be unity. The second term on the right-hand side is the planetary perturbational acceleration, given by
$\boldsymbol{f}_{\mathrm{p}}=k^{2} \sum_{j} m_{j}\left(\frac{\boldsymbol{r}_{j}-\boldsymbol{r}}{\rho_{j}^{3}}-\frac{\boldsymbol{r}_{j}}{r_{j}^{3}}\right)$,
where $\boldsymbol{r}_{j}\left(x_{j}, y_{j}, z_{j}\right)$ are positions of all of the perturbing masses $m_{j}$ expressed in terms of the solar mass, from Mercury to Pluto, $\rho_{j}=\left|\boldsymbol{r}_{j}-\boldsymbol{r}\right|$ are the distances between the comet and
the planets, and $r_{j}=\left|\boldsymbol{r}_{j}\right|$ are the planetary distances from the centre of the Sun.

For short-period comets, we have to take into account the non-gravitational accelerations due to the rocket-like effects of outgassing volatiles from the icy nucleus. For consistency with the planetary ephemeris, we also have to consider effects from post-Newtonian, relativistic orbital perturbations. These accelerations introduce two other terms into equation (1):
$\ddot{\boldsymbol{r}}=-k^{2} \frac{\boldsymbol{r}}{r^{3}}+\boldsymbol{f}_{\mathrm{p}}+\boldsymbol{f}_{\mathrm{n}}+\boldsymbol{f}_{\mathrm{r}}$.
The non-gravitational term is given (Marsden, Sekanina \& Yeomans 1973)
$\boldsymbol{f}_{\mathrm{n}}=\left(A_{1} \hat{\boldsymbol{r}}+A_{2} \hat{\boldsymbol{T}}\right)\left\{\alpha\left(\frac{r}{r_{0}}\right)^{-m}\left[1+\left(\frac{r}{r_{0}}\right)^{n}\right]^{-\jmath}\right\}$,
where $\hat{\boldsymbol{r}}=\boldsymbol{r} / \boldsymbol{r}$ is the radial unit vector defined outward along the Sun-comet radius vector, and $\hat{\boldsymbol{T}}=(r \dot{\boldsymbol{r}}-\dot{r} \boldsymbol{r}) / h$ is the transverse unit vector directed in the direction of the comet's motion and normal to $\hat{r}$ in the orbital plane. In the transverse unit vector equation, $\dot{r}(\dot{x}, \dot{y}, \dot{z})$ represents the velocity of the comet, $\dot{r}=r \cdot \dot{r} / r$ and $h^{2}=(y \dot{z}-z \dot{y})^{2}+(z \dot{x}-x \dot{z})^{2}+(x \dot{y}-y \dot{x})^{2}$. The parameters $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$ are, respectively, the magnitude of the radial and transverse acceleration components at 1 au. These non-gravitational parameters $\left(A_{1}, A_{2}\right)$ are determined along with the orbital elements, and they can be determined fairly accurately if three apparitions of the comet are available. $\alpha=0.111262$ is a normalizing constant such that the term within the large brackets in equation (4) becomes unity at 1 au. This model of the non-gravitational accelerations is based upon the sublimation from a water-ice nucleus (Marsden et al. 1973). The values obtained for water ice are $r_{\mathrm{o}}=2.808$ au with the components $m, n$ and $l$ equal to 2.15, 5.093 and 4.6142 , respectively.

The term $f_{r}$ in equation (3) is due to relativistic effects. The parametrized post-Newtonian equations based on those derived by Anderson et al. (1975) can be written for a comet as
$\boldsymbol{f}_{\boldsymbol{r}}=\frac{k^{2}}{c^{2} r^{3}}\left[4 k^{2} \frac{\boldsymbol{r}}{r}-(\dot{\boldsymbol{r}} \cdot \dot{\boldsymbol{r}}) \boldsymbol{r}+4(\boldsymbol{r} \cdot \dot{\boldsymbol{r}}) \dot{\boldsymbol{r}}\right]$,
where $c$ is in units of au d ${ }^{-1}$.
Two orbit determinations were computed using the available observations and planetary ephemeris DE200 (Standish 1990). These orbits are given in Table 1. The first orbit utilized 594 observations over the interval from 1862 July 23 to 1993 March 15. The 1862 October data from the Cape of Good Hope are not included in our orbital solutions for reasons given in Section 4. No non-gravitational effects were employed for the first orbit. For the second orbit, an additional eight observations from 1737 were used. All of the observations from 1862 and 1992-93 retained for orbital solutions were weighted equally with noise values of 1 arcsec. The eight observations from 1737 were given noise values of 15 arcmin , as they are approximate positions only. For the second orbit, a solution was also made for the radial and transverse non-gravitational parameters ( $A_{1}, A_{2}$ ). Although the 1737 residuals reflect the fact that these are

Table 1. Orbital solutions for Comet $\mathrm{P} /$ Swift-Tuttle.

|  | Orbit 1 | Orbit 2 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Observation Interval | 1862 July 23-1993 Mar 15 | 1737 July 2-1993 March 15 |
| Number of Observations | 594 | 602 |
| RMS Residual | $1.37^{\prime \prime}$ | $1.38^{\prime \prime}$ |
|  |  |  |
| Perihelion Time, $T$ | 1992 Dec 12.3239437 | 1992 Dec 12.3239546 |
| Perihelion Distance, $q$ | 0.958217507 | 0.958217427 |
| Eccentricity, $e$ | 0.963589236 | 0.963589498 |
| Arg. of Perihelion, $\omega$ | 153.0013797 | 153.0013980 |
| Long. Asc. Node, $\Omega$ | 139.4444214 | 139.4444208 |
| Inclination, $i$ | 113.4265824 | 113.4265816 |
| Epoch | 1992 Dec 4.0 (TDB) | $1992 \mathrm{Dec} 4.0(\mathrm{TDB})$ |
| $A_{1} \times 10^{-8}$ | 0 | $-0.0118( \pm 0.0452)$ |
| $A_{2} \times 10^{-8}$ | 0 | $-0.00155( \pm 0.0002)$ |

only approximate observations, no systematic residual trends remain in the 1862 and 1992-93 data. For the second orbit, the rms residual is a weighted value.

## 3 THE LONG-TERM INTEGRATION

For the long-term integration of the comet's motion backward in time, a somewhat different integration process was used. In part, this was due to the absence of suitable planetary coordinates earlier than AD 1600 from planetary ephemeris DE200. The coordinates of the planets for the long-term integration are taken directly from the JPL ephemeris DE102, which covers the interval from 1411 BC to AD 3002. Although this is an older ephemeris, it is the only one that covers the entire period of the historical astronomical observations. None of the newer ephemerides produced at JPL has been integrated for more than a few centuries in time. However, we can apply corrections to the coordinates of DE102 to make it approximate closely the more recent ephemeris DE118 (Newhall, Standish \& Williams 1983). Since both DE102 and DE118 are referenced to the 1950 system, and the current investigation employs the J2000 system, it was necessary to make a transformation to J2000 by using the rotation matrix given by Standish (1982). This is the same matrix as was actually used to create DE200 from DE118. The masses of the planets used in the integration were taken from the DE200 ephemeris.

The integrator itself uses a predictor-corrector procedure based on the Gauss-Jackson method (for details see Herrick 1972). A central-difference approach up to the 6th differences is employed in the present investigation. The components of the total acceleration acting on the comet due to the Sun and planets, the non-gravitational effects, and relativity are integrated step by step. The fixed step-size chosen for the integration is 0.25 d . This step-size gives a difference of the order of $10^{-17}$ au d${ }^{-2}$ in the 6th differences in our integration scheme. One can choose a smaller stepsize, but this is not necessary since we are working with double-precision Fortran.

Beginning with orbit 1 in Table 1, the comet's motion was integrated backwards in time. The computed times of perihelion passage during the observed returns in AD 188 and 69 $B C$ were compared with the 'observed' times of perihelion
determined directly from the Chinese observations (see Section 4). Since the initial integration predicted a perihelion time that was 4 d early in AD 188 and 79 d late in 69 BC , we made a series of very small adjustments in the initial value of the orbital eccentricity until the observations in AD 188 and 69 BC were well represented.

The optimal eccentricity adjustment was $+1.57 \times 10^{-9}$, a correction that is about a factor of 6 less than the formal rms uncertainty of the eccentricity itself. Since we held the initial perihelion distance fixed, our correction introduced an effective change, $\Delta a$, to the orbital semimajor axis $(a=26.31687451 \mathrm{au})$ of $1.13 \times 10^{-6}$ au or only 170 km . Although the eccentricity correction to the initial orbital elements, $\Delta e$, is less than the uncertainty associated with the eccentricity itself, the predicted times of perihelion passage in AD 188 and 69 вс are very sensitive to the selected value of $\Delta e$. As a result of the close Earth approach to within 0.129 au on AD 188 July 25 and an approach to Jupiter of 1.78 au on ad 57 November 18, the Chinese observations in 69 bC could not be matched unless the computed time of perihelion passage in 188 was July 10.5. This computed time of perihelion passage is far more tightly constrained than is possible from the Chinese observations themselves.

Fig. 1 shows the sensitivity of the predicted time of perihelion passage to the assumed eccentricity correction, and also the backward integration of orbit 2 in Table 1. This latter orbit, with non-gravitational effects operative, is not compatible with the observational data in AD 188 and 69 вс. The initial integration based on orbit 2 predicted a perihelion time that was 64 d early in AD 188 and 307 d late in 69 вс. Even by adjusting the eccentricity of orbit 2 in a similar manner to that carried out for orbit 1 , we cannot match the observed perihelion times for these two returns.

At the end of each cometary revolution around the Sun, a summary of the integration results is printed out. This includes rectangular coordinates for the position and velocity, mean motion, and the osculating orbital elements. The summary also includes a table of minimum distances between the comet and the planets. A list of close approaches to the planets from Venus to Saturn for all returns between 703 bC and AD 2392 is shown in Table 2. During this period, there are no particularly close approaches to Uranus and Neptune. The closest encounters to these two planets were at 2.5 and 6.5 au , respectively.


Figure 1. The difference in the times of perihelion passage for all returns from 703 BC to AD 2392 between orbit 1 (solved without non-gravitational forces) and the final adopted orbit, and also between orbit 2 (with non-gravitational forces included) and the final adopted orbit.

Table 2. Minimum distances between comet Swift-Tuttle and the planets Venus, Earth, Mars, Jupiter and Saturn.

| Venus |  | Earth |  | Mars |  | Jupiter |  | Saturn |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Date | au | Date | au | Date | au | Date | au | Date | au |
| 2392/ 9/30 | 0.285 | 2392/ 9/17 | 0.501 | 2392/10/26 | 0.631 | 2392/ 5/20 | 4.454 | 2389/12/3 | 1.048 |
| 2261/ 9/ 6 | 0.363 | 2261/8/24 | 0.147 | 2261/ 7/22 | 1.228 | 2261/ 6/ 3 | 4.638 | 2261/8/22 | 8.803 |
| 2126/ 6/21 | 0.923 | 2126/8/5 | 0.153 | 2126/ 5/10 | 1.579 | 2126/ 9/22 | 4.359 | 2124/ 2/26 | 1.346 |
| 1992/12/ 4 | 0.679 | 1992/11/ 7 | 1.165 | 1992/10/15 | 1.568 | 1991/ 6/11 | 1.848 | 1993/ 1/19 | 8.797 |
| 1862/ 7/26 | 1.026 | 1862/ 8/30 | 0.342 | 1862/ 8/27 | 0.729 | 1861/ 1/17 | 2.030 | 1859/10/19 | 1.113 |
| 1737/ 7/11 | 0.360 | 1737/ 7/19 | 0.375 | 1737/3/4 | 1.598 | 1737/7/4 | 4.078 | 1736/11/14 | 7.916 |
| 1610/3/ 5 | 0.374 | 1609/12/ 7 | 1.369 | 1610/ $4 / 8$ | 1.071 | 1609/ 9/10 | 4.288 | 1610/3/17 | 8.799 |
| 1479/10/17 | 0.537 | 1479/ 9/29 | 0.947 | 1479/7/ 1 | 1.594 | 1479/5/ 4 | 4.153 | 1476/11/ 3 | 1.425 |
| 1348/ 3/29 | 1.097 | 1348/ 6/17 | 0.716 | 1347/12/11 | 1.668 | 1348/ 2/12 | 4.629 | 1348/5/14 | 8.737 |
| 1212/10/28 | 0.711 | 1212/10/ 9 | 1.080 | 1212/ 6/28 | 1.631 | 1213/ 1/28 | 4.439 | 1210/ 8/13 | 1.847 |
| 1079/10/27 | 0.604 | 1079/9/9 | 0.734 | 1079/11/12 | 0.958 | 1078/ 2/14 | 2.027 | 1079/10/27 | 8.762 |
| 950/ 3/17 | 1.089 | 950/6/10 | 0.824 | 950/ 5/ 3 | 0.479 | 948/ 2/ 7 | 3.756 | 947/ 1/ 3 | 2.294 |
| 826/ 5/19 | 0.419 | 826/6/9 | 0.815 | 826/4/19 | 0.830 | 826/ 2/ 4 | 4.634 | 825/ 3/21 | 6.238 |
| 698/8/ 4 | 1.082 | 698/ 9/1 | 0.658 | 698/8/5 | 1.404 | 697/ 9/ 6 | 2.233 | 698/10/ 2 | 8.708 |
| 569/ 3/26 | 0.359 | 569/ 5/13 | 1.293 | 568/12/25 | 1.593 | 567/10/19 | 1.637 | 564/10/12 | 5.216 |
| 441/11/24 | 0.321 | 441/10/ 5 | 1.086 | 442/ 2/ 3 | 1.699 | 442/ 1/26 | 4.397 | 441/ 2/ 2 | 7.353 |
| 316/12/15 | 0.796 | 316/10/1 | 1.051 | 316/9/30 | 1.340 | 316/ 6/27 | 4.466 | 316/11/13 | 8.661 |
| 188/7/5 | 0.637 | 188/7/25 | 0.129 | 188/ 7/27 | 0.424 | 187/ 7/24 | 2.333 | 182/ 6/ 9 | 8.752 |
| 59/ 5/ 5 | 0.779 | 59/ 6/23 | 0.455 | 59/ 3/23 | 1.569 | 57/11/18 | 1.778 | 58/ 7/14 | 7.063 |
| -68/ 8/12 | 0.816 | -68/8/23 | 0.620 | -68/9/21 | 0.327 | -68/10/21 | 4.083 | -68/9/24 | 8.682 |
| -193/ 2/17 | 0.906 | -193/5/16 | 1.163 | -193/2/1 | 1.448 | -194/ 9/27 | 4.183 | -193/7/10 | 9.309 |
| -321/ 9/25 | 0.577 | -321/ 9/12 | 0.879 | -321/6/23 | 1.588 | -322/ 4/10 | 1.723 | -323/12/13 | 3.434 |
| -446/ 4/29 | 1.097 | -446/7/1 | 0.247 | -446/7/18 | 0.694 | -446/6/28 | 4.006 | -446/4/23 | 8.658 |
| -573/ 7/16 | 0.830 | -573/8/6 | 0.400 | -573/5/14 | 1.612 | -573/2/23 | 4.227 | -573/10/3 | 8.950 |
| -702/ 4/12 | 0.373 | -702/5/27 | 0.877 | -703/11/ 4 | 1.678 | -703/6/29 | 3.088 | -705/12/ 5 | 1.549 |

The results of the integration are given in Table 3. The respective columns are the year of return, the time of perihelion passage $T$ (both calendar date and Julian date are given), eccentricity $e$, perihelion distance $q$, period $P$, argument of perihelion $\omega$, longitude of the ascending node $\Omega$, inclination $i$, and the epoch of osculation. The dates are given in the Julian Calendar prior to 1582 October 4 and in the Gregorian Calendar after 1582 October 15. We have adopted the convention that year $0=1 \mathrm{BC},-1=2 \mathrm{BC}$, and so on.

## 4 IDENTIFICATION OF PAST RETURNS

The first step in identifying the previous returns of a comet is to search through the appropriate catalogue of observational records and cometary orbits (e.g. Ho 1962; Ho \& Ang 1970; Marsden \& Williams 1992) for any past observations. If a comet is found near the predicted time of perihelion passage, then an ephemeris is constructed from the osculating orbital elements. An initial long-term integration is usually performed to provide the necessary orbital elements. Next, the

Table 3. Osculating orbital elements for comet $\mathrm{P} /$ Swift-Tuttle (J2000.0).

computed positions around the time of observations are plotted on a star map marked with the relevant constellations. The path of the comet can then be easily checked against the descriptions given by the records. In cases where the plotted path of the comet does not match the observations, it may be necessary to adjust the time of perihelion to obtain a best fit. For example, this procedure was required for Halley's comet, especially for those returns with a very close approach to the Earth (Yeomans \& Kiang 1981; Stephenson \& Yau 1985).

The only observations of $\mathrm{P} /$ Swift-Tuttle known prior to 1862 are found in Chinese histories. We have checked both the Korean and Japanese histories for the relevant period, but there do not seem to be any observations from these two sources. Only three early apparitions of $\mathrm{P} /$ Swift-Tuttle before the 1862 return can be identified from the Chinese observations. They are the returns of ad 1737, ad 188 and 69 BC . In the following discussion of the past returns of Comet Swift-Tuttle, we assume that the comet's apparent magnitude, $m_{v}$, is reasonably well represented by
$m_{V}=4.5+5 \log \Delta+15 \log r$,
where $\Delta$ and $r$ are the geocentric and heliocentric distances in au. Equation (6) is determined from observations during the 1992/3 apparition (Marsden 1992c). We discuss and justify this assumption in Section 5.

## $4.1 \quad 1862$ return

Details of Western observations during the comet's return in 1862 can be found in Marsden (1973) and will not be dis-
cussed in detail here. Mention has already been made of the discordant 1862 October observations from the Cape of Good Hope, South Africa. Owing to the comet's southern declinations in late September and October, the 10 available observations were all made at the Cape. These observations are discordant with the remaining 594 observations from 59 other observatories when one attempts to fit them with the traditional models for cometary dynamics. Either short-term, unmodelled perturbations in the comet's motion moved the object off the computed path in 1862 late September and October (and subsequently returned it thereafter) or there are errors in these observations. We consider the latter option to be the more likely. There may be systematic errors in the micrometer offsets between the comet and neighbouring reference stars as measured at the Cape in 1862 late September and October. The observation residuais (observed minus computed) for orbit number 1 are given in Fig. 2. Although they were not used in the solution for either orbit 1 or 2, the 1862 Cape data residuals are shown for comparison. The Cape data are clearly discordant.

Chinese observations for the 1862 return are not critical in our discussion. A summary of Chinese observations is given in Table 4.

## $4.2 \quad 1737$ return

The only observations for this return were obtained by the Jesuit missionary Koegler in Beijing. Ignatius Koegler (1680-1746) was the 6th Jesuit Director of the Chinese Astronomical Bureau from 1720 to 1746 (Yau 1993). He was involved in initiating the building of a large equatorial


Figure 2. The orbital residuals (in arcsec) from our orbit number 1 are displayed here as a function of time for both the 1862 and 1992-93 apparitions. The upper and lower two plots display the right ascension and declination residuals, respectively. All nine observations from the Cape of Good Hope in 1862 October and one in 1862 September are denoted with filled circles; they were not used in our orbital solutions. These 10 Cape observations are clearly discordant with the remaining 594 observations from 59 other observatories.
armillary sphere in 1744 , which can still be seen on the platform above the Old Beijing Observatory today. The Chinese record contained in chapter 39 of the Ch'ing-shih Kao (Drafted History of the Ch'ing Dynasty 1644-1911) states

Ch'ien-lung reign period 2nd year, 6th month, day tingmao (JD 2355674 = 1737 July 7). 'A strange star appeared to the east of Yu-keng. Its colour was white. It belonged to Lou (the 16th Lunar Mansion). It moved towards the south-west, and was still visible on day ping-tzu (1737 July 16).'

The path of $\mathrm{P} /$ Swift-Tuttle for 1737 is given in Fig. 3. The asterisks represent Koegler's observed positions of $\mathrm{P} /$ Swift-Tuttle during the 1737 return. The open squares represent the calculated positions based on the osculating elements for 1737 listed in Table 3. The crude positional determinations by Koegler can be seen from those asterisks which are not centred on the square markers. The record in Ch'ing-shih Kao appears to be only a summary of naked-eye observations carried out at that time. The descriptions generally conform to the path of the comet in Fig. 3. When it was first observed on July 7, to the east of the Yu-keng asterism,
its apparent magnitude was 3.4. It is worth noting that the 69 BC return was also discovered with a similar magnitude (see below). It seems that magnitude 3.4 must represent a limit for the visibility of Comet Swift-Tuttle to the unaided eye.

The dotted lines represent the boundaries between the Lunar Mansions. These are a group of asterisms situated roughly along the celestial equator for the purpose of providing reference stars for the determination of right ascension. A detailed discussion on the Lunar Mansions and Chinese asterisms in general may be found in Kiang (1972). The record says that the comet was inside the Lunar Mansion Lou. It can be seen from Fig. 3 that from July 7 to July 16 Comet Swift-Tuttle was indeed located inside the Lunar Mansion Lou. The record mentions that the comet then moved towards the south-west instead of south-east. The confusion is most likely due to the ecliptic longitude being used rather than the right ascension. The Jesuits introduced the ecliptic system to China around the middle of the 17th century. On July 16, the last date of observation, the magnitude of the comet was still at its peak magnitude of 3.1. According to our computation, it should have been, seen with the naked eye in the morning sky before sunrise in a near-south-easterly direction for a few more days until its heliacal setting on July 21.

Table 4. A summary of Chinese observations of comet $\mathrm{P} /$ Swift-Tuttle for the 1862 return.

| No. | Date | Record |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. | 1862 Aug 9 | T'ung-chih reign period, 1st year, 7 th month, 14 th day. In the evening, there was a broom star with a length of more than a chang (more than ten degrees). It was pointing straight towards the wall of Tzu-wei. It lasted until August and then disappeared. (Yang-hsin Hsien-chih, chap. 2) |
| 2. | 1862 Aug 10 | T'ung-chih reign period, 1st year, 7 th month, 15 th day. <br> (i) A broom star was seen at the Big Dipper. <br> (Ts'en-hsiu Chu-ch'eng Hsien Hsu-chih, chap. 1) |
|  |  | (ii) A broom star was seen. It lasted until mid-August and then extinguished. (Hsu-hsiu Chu-yeh Hsien-chih, chap. 1) |
|  |  | (iii) A broom star was seen at the north-west. (Wu-yang Chih-yu, chap. 5) |
| 3. | 1862 Aug 18 | T'ung-chih reign period, 1st year, 7 th month, 23 rd day. At night, a broom star appeared in the north-western direction. (Luan-ch'eng Hsien-chih, chap. 3) |
| 4. | 1862 Aug 19 | T'ung-chih reign period, 1st year, 7 th month, 24th day. <br> (i) At night, a long star was seen at the north. Its color was bluish-white like smoke. It was five to six $c h$ 'ih (five to six degrees) in length. It was pointing down towards the south. On the night of the 7 th day of the 8 th month (Aug 31), it was seen in the west, and it set towards the east. (Nao-p'ing Hsien-chih, chap. 13) |
|  |  | (ii) A broom star was seen at the wall of the Tzu-wei Enclosure. Its vapour was about a chang (about ten degrees) in length. It disappeared after more than a month. (Wen-shui Hsien-chih, chap. 1) |
|  |  | (iii) A broom star rose from the north-west. Its length was several chang (several tens of degrees). It was pointing straight towards the wall of the Tzu-wei Enclosure. In the 8th month (Aug 25-Sept 23), it gradually moved into T'ien-lao and extinguished. (Hui-min Hsien-chih, chap. 17) |
| 5. | 1862 Aug 20 | T'ung-chih reign period, 1st year, 7 th month, 25 th day. <br> (i) A broom star was seen at the north-west. <br> (Ch'ing-shih-kao, chap. 21) |
|  |  | (ii) At night, a broom star was seen in the western direction. (Hsu-hsiu Shensi-Sheng T'ung-chih-kao, chap. 201) |
| 6. | $\begin{aligned} & 1862 \text { Aug } 20 \\ & \text { and } 21 \end{aligned}$ | T'ung-chih reign period, 1st year, 7th month, 25th and 26th day During the night, a broom star was seen at the north-west. (Ch'ing-ch'ao Hsu Wen-hsien T'ung-k'ao, chap. 303) |
| 7. | 1862 Aug 21 | T'ung-chih reign period, 1st year, 7 th month, 26 th day. At night, a broom star was seen at the Big Dipper. (Hsu-yung T'ing-chih, chap. 51) |
| 8. | $\begin{aligned} & 1862 \operatorname{Aug} 21 \\ & \text { and } 22 \end{aligned}$ | T'ung-chih reign period, 1st year, 7 th month, 26 th and 27th day. At night, a broom star was seen at the north-west. (Chekiang Hsu T'ung-chih-kao, chap. 1) |
| 9. | 1862 Aug 23 | T'ung-chih reign period, 1st year, 7 th month, 28th day. <br> (i) A broom star was seen. Its rays were straight. It disappeared on the 11th day of the 9 th month (Oct 4). (Wu-yuan Hsien-chih, chap. 64) |
|  |  | (ii) A broom star was seen. ( $K^{\prime}$ ai-hua Hsien-chih, chap. 14) |

Remarks. These records are contained in the local histories of various regions of China. They have been grouped according to the date of observations. Only records with a date accurate to the day are included in this list. Tzu-wei is an asterism with two walls forming an enclosure which occupies about $25^{\circ}$ of the North Celestial Pole. T'ien-lao is an asterism in UMa, west of the Big Dipper.


Figure 3. The computed daily motion of Comet Swift-Tuttle (open squares) from July 2.7 to July 16.7 in 1737 and the corresponding observed positions by Koegler (asterisks) from July 2.7 to July 9.7.

### 4.3188 return

No observations of a comet that could be $\mathrm{P} /$ Swift-Tuttle are found in the interval from 1737 to 188. The 188 return is contained in chapter 20 of the Hou Han-shu (History of the Later Han Dynasty ad 25-220).

Chung-p'ing reign period 5th year, 6th month, day ting$m a o$ (JD $1789934=188$ July 28). 'A guest-star as large as a vessel with a capacity of three pints appeared at Kuan-so. It moved south-west and entered the Tienshih (Enclosure). It reached Wei (the 6th Lunar Mansion) and then disappeared.'
The time of perihelion passage deduced from the description, taking July 28 as the date the comet appeared at Kuanso, is one day on either side of 188 July 15 , and thus consistent with the date of about July 15 suggested by Kronk (1992). The path of P/Swift-Tuttle for the 188 return, as given by our integration, is shown in Fig. 4. The path indicates that $\mathrm{P} /$ Swift-Tuttle appeared at Kuan-so on July 25 . On the date given by the record, July 28 , the comet would have already passed through the T'ien-shih Enclosure. The record seems to be giving a retrospective account. On July 28 , the magnitude of the comet was 0.5 , already past its peak brightness of 0.1 mag. Taking 3.4 mag as our discovery limit for $\mathrm{P} /$ Swift-Tuttle, the comet would have become visible to the naked eye on July 7. It is curious that there are no records earlier than July 28. Perhaps the original detailed observations were condensed by the compilers of the history. The description 'as large as a vessel' could mean a nebulous
appearance without a tail. Although the record mentions no other date, it is likely that it would have been visible until at least mid-August, when it would be in the region near the Lunar Mansion Wei.

## $4.4 \quad 69$ вс return

The observations for the 69 bс return of Comet Swift-Tuttle may be found in chapter 26 of the Chien Han-shu (History of the Former Han Dynasty 206 bc-ad 8). The record gives the following details concerning the observations of $\mathrm{P} /$ Swift-Tuttle.

Ti-chieh reign period 1st year, 6th month, day ping-yin (JD $1696453=$ bс 69 August 20). 'Another guest-star was seen to the north-east of Kuan-so. It moved in a southerly direction. On the night of kuei-yu (вс 69 August 27) it entered the T'ien-shih (Enclosure). Its rays were pointing south-east. Its colour was white.'
The time of perihelion passage obtained from the Chinese description is about August 27 in 69 вс, a result that is consistent with the suggestions by Hasegawa (1979) and Kronk (1992) that the time of perihelion passage was 69 вс August 26-28. The path of $\mathrm{P} / \mathrm{Swift}$-Tuttle for 69 вс, as given by our integration, is depicted in Fig. 5. On the first date (August 20) given by the record, which is the likely discovery date, the comet attained a magnitude of 3.4. On this date, Comet Swift-Tuttle was at the north-east of the asterism Kuan-so, as described in the record. It then moved south. On the night of August 27, it entered the enclosure of the


Figure 4. The computed daily motion of $\mathrm{P} /$ Swift-Tuttle (open squares) as seen at 8 pm (local time) from July 25 to August 14 during the ad 188 return.
asterism T'ien-shih. Its apparent magnitude was again 3.4, having reached its peak magnitude of 3.3 on August 24. Although the record mentions that its tail was pointing south-east, it does not give an estimate of its length. It is possible that the tail was too short to be noted. The tail was described as white, suggesting that a dust tail was being described, rather than a bluish ion tail. According to our calculations, the comet would have been visible in the early part of September, but no observations are known after August 27.

Apart from the above identified returns, there are three other returns of $\mathrm{P} /$ Swift-Tuttle which were in the borderline of visibility. They are the returns of AD 1079, 698 and 59. At the 1079 return, Comet Swift-Tuttle reached a peak magnitude of 3.7, and the conditions for its observation were favourable. Its position after dark was some $55^{\circ}$ in altitude in a near-west direction. However, at this magnitude it did not attract the attention of any observers at the time. The 698 return is a little brighter, with a peak magnitude of 3.4. At the time it reached its maximum magnitude, it was about $56^{\circ}$ above the western horizon in the evening sky. It stayed at this magnitude for four nights, yet there were no reports of its observation. The computed magnitude for the 698 return seems to suggest that this apparition must have come very close to being discovered. Perhaps it was missed merely due to adverse weather conditions. The 59 return attained a maximum magnitude of about 3.6. By the time it reached the peak magnitude, Comet Swift-Tuttle was already close to the
horizon, at an altitude of $19^{\circ}$ at the beginning of morning twilight. It would have been seen in the south-east in the morning before sunrise. It was visible at this magnitude for only a few days before its heliacal setting. Even if the comet was at its usual discovery magnitude of 3.4 , it might still have been missed due to its unfavourable location in the morning sky where the denser atmosphere near the horizon could easily obscure it from view.

If our numerical extrapolation of the comet's motion is correct prior to the 69 BC apparition, the comet would have been visible to the naked eye at the end of June in 447 вс with a peak magnitude of 2.1 , and in August 574 bc with a magnitude of 2.4. However, no records of these returns can be located from the Chinese sources. It is likely that the relevant Chinese observations during these two apparitions have not been preserved. In fact, very few records of cometary observations, and astronomical phenomena in general, have survived before about 200 вс. This circumstance is possibly due to the infamous 'Burning of the Books' at the command of the first emperor of China, Ch'in Shih-huang, in 213 вс and the subsequent sacking of his capital Hsien-yang, where the official archive was kept, in 206 вс (Twitchett \& Loewe 1986). Astronomical records that survived from the period before 200 вс tend to be very brief. For example, the record of the earliest known apparition of Comet Halley in 240 BC is so poor that it was not regarded as a positive sighting of the comet until the discovery of its 164 вс return on Babylonian cuneiform text tablets (Stephenson, Yau \&


Figure 5. The computed daily motion of $\mathrm{P} /$ Swift-Tuttle (open squares) as seen at 8 pm (local time) from August 20 to August 27 during the 69 BC return.

Hunger 1985). Unless further material is unearthed, it seems that there is not much hope of Comet Swift-Tuttle having a longer history than its brighter counterpart Halley.

Without constraints from early observations, a continuation of the integration backwards for any substantial length of time has relatively little value. For the present investigation, we have continued optimistically until the return of 703 вс. The close approach to Jupiter of 1.72 au on 323 вс April 10, and a subsequent close approach to the Earth of 0.247 au , on 447 bс July 1 , might have perturbed the motion of Comet Swift-Tuttle to such an extent that its orbit becomes unreliable beyond 447 вс.

## 5 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The closest approach distances between Earth and P/Swift-Tuttle for all returns since 703 вс are shown in Fig. 6(a). In general, the comet has to approach the Earth to within about 0.6 au for it to be visible to naked-eye observers. The brightest magnitude of Comet Swift-Tuttle near perihelion, as computed from equation (6), is shown in Fig. 6(b). An active comet, such as Halley's comet, becomes visible to the naked eye when the object reaches an apparent magnitude between about 3.5 and 4.0 (Stephenson et al. 1985). A dotted line is drawn at magnitude 3.4 in Fig. 6(b) to show that Comet Swift-Tuttle was recorded only on those returns where its apparent magnitude was brighter than
about 3.4. The slight differences between the recovery magnitudes of Comets Halley and Swift-Tuttle could be due to the relative activity of the two comets. At discovery, Halley's comet was likely to have a developed tail which would have enhanced its visibility. However, none of the records for Swift-Tuttle, apart from the 1862 return, mentions a long tail. Rather, a nebulous bushy appearance was implied. Without a tail, perhaps it was necessary for the comet to become a little brighter before attracting the attention of ancient sky watchers.

The magnitude information plotted in Fig. 6(b) was computed under the assumption that the comet's absolute magnitude (4.5) has remained constant over two millennia. If its absolute magnitude was half a magnitude brighter in the past, it seems likely that there would be Chinese records of its returns in AD 59, 698 and 1079. Likewise, if the comet was intrinsically fainter in the past, it could not have been recorded in 69 bc. Similar to the situation with comet Halley (Broughton 1979; Hughes 1983; Bortle \& Morris 1984), the intrinsic brightness of Comet Swift-Tuttle does not seem to have changed significantly for at least two millennia.

We have found no evidence for significant non-gravitational effects in the motion of this comet. However, Marsden (1992a,b) considered them of such importance that he believed that the gravitational solutions completely fail to link the apparitions. In large part, the disagreement concerns the 1862 October observations from the Cape of Good


Figure 6. (a) The minimum distances between Earth and P/Swift-Tuttle for all of its returns to the inner Solar system since 703 Bc . The dashed line marks a geocentric distance at 0.6 au . (b) The brightest apparent magnitudes of $\mathrm{P} / \mathrm{Swift}$-Tuttle around the time of perihelion passage for all returns from 703 BC to AD 2392 . These values were computed from equation (6), and determined by noting the brightest magnitude achieved by the comet in a dark sky. The dashed line represents apparent magnitude 3.4. For Comet Swift-Tuttle to be discovered with the naked eye, it has to be brighter than magnitude 3.4.

Hope. Unfortunately, these observations are the only ones available for that time period. With or without solutions for the standard non-gravitational parameters, systematic residual trends are evident if the 1862 October data are retained. If one forces the orbital solutions to include these observations, then one must try to introduce short-term nongravitational effects that somehow explain the deviation of these observations and only these observations. Our approach has been to consider the 1862 October data as discordant, and to eliminate them completely from our orbital solutions 1 and 2. Marsden (1992c) noted that the postperihelion observations in 1993 should be examined for the same type of systematic residual trends that are evident in the 1862 October observations from the Cape. We have done so, and find no systematic residual trends in the 1993 post-perihelion observations.

At some level, the motion of Comet Swift-Tuttle is certainly affected by non-gravitational accelerations. We found that orbit solutions over the 1737-1993 interval were more successful if we solved for the radial and transverse non-gravitational parameters. Yet the formal uncertainty on the radial parameter is larger than the value of the parameter itself, and the value of the transverse parameter $\left(A_{2}\right)$ is an order of magnitude smaller than for Comet Halley. In addition, if we initialize a long-term backward integration using our orbit 2 (with non-gravitational effects included), it is apparent from Fig. 1 that the comet's predicted motion in AD 188 and 69 BC is not consistent with the Chinese observations.

It is instructive to compare the dynamics and physical behaviour of Comet Swift-Tuttle with those of Comet Halley. Like Comet Halley, the absolute magnitude of

Swift-Tuttle has remained relatively constant for two millennia. This absolute magnitude is about 4.5 , a figure that is about one magnitude brighter than the pre-perihelion value for Comet Halley. In addition, the gas production rates for both comets are comparable for the same heliocentric distance (A'Hearn, private communication). Of course, Comet Halley outgasses more after perihelion than it does before, and this not only makes the comet brighter postperihelion but introduces a non-gravitational effect that increases this comet's period by approximately four days at each return. Since the non-gravitational change in a comet's orbital period varies as the square of the orbital period itself, Comet Swift-Tuttle would suffer an orbital delay of 12 d if it had the same mass as Comet Halley and the same outgassing forces around its orbital path. Yet the non-gravitational parameters of Swift-Tuttle are negligible when compared to Comet Halley. It seems likely that the mass of Comet Swift-Tuttle is larger than that of Comet Halley, so its motion is little affected by non-gravitational forces. From their estimates of the masses of the meteor streams associated with each comet, Hughes \& McBride (1989) also concluded that the mass of Swift-Tuttle is considerably larger than that of Comet Halley.

If we assume, for the moment, that the mass of Swift-Tuttle is not far larger than that of Halley, the constancy of its absolute magnitude and the absence of significant non-gravitational effects place strict constraints upon models of the nucleus of Swift-Tuttle over its entire observational period of two millennia. If Swift-Tuttle is not overly massive, then it seems likely that (1) the size and activity of its outgassing areas have been relatively constant, (2) the obliquity of the rotation pole has not evolved over significant
angles, and (3) the outgassing is directed radially toward the Sun, and this outgassing acts symmetrically with respect to perihelion. If these three constraints are not met, the noted stability in the comet's brightness and the absence of significant non-gravitational effects would not be possible. One could envisage scenarios where active vents die out or spring to life in such a fashion as to compensate for changes in the obliquity of the rotational axis, or scenarios where the comet outgasses isotropically so that no non-gravitational accelerations are evident. However, without special circumstances or a very massive comet, these three constraints would have to be valid. The validity of all three constraints over two millennia seems less likely than the much simpler hypothesis that Swift-Tuttle is too massive to be accelerated by outgassing forces.

On account of the long-term stability of the comet's absolute brightness, the negligible effects of non-gravitational accelerations, and the ability to represent accurately the comet's past motion over more than two millennia, we can confidently predict the comet's future motion. We integrated the comet's orbit forward in time in the same manner as described in Section 3, using the DE102 ephemeris. The future returns of the comet and close approach distances to the planets are shown in Tables 3 and 2 respectively. We note that during the comet's next perihelion passage on 2126 July 12 the comet will pass 0.153 au from the Earth on August 5, reaching an apparent magnitude of 0.7 . While the comet's appearance will be visually impressive, there is virtually no chance that the comet will collide with the Earth in 2126 August (see also Marsden 1992c). The following return, in 2261, comes even closer to the Earth, reaching a minimum distance of 0.147 au , but again the Earth will remain safe from collision.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Dr D. W. Hughes for his valuable comments. This work was supported in part by both the Planetary Astronomy program and the Planetary Geology and Geophysics program of NASA. The research described in this paper was carried out at the Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology, under contract with the National Aeronautics and Space Administration.

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