

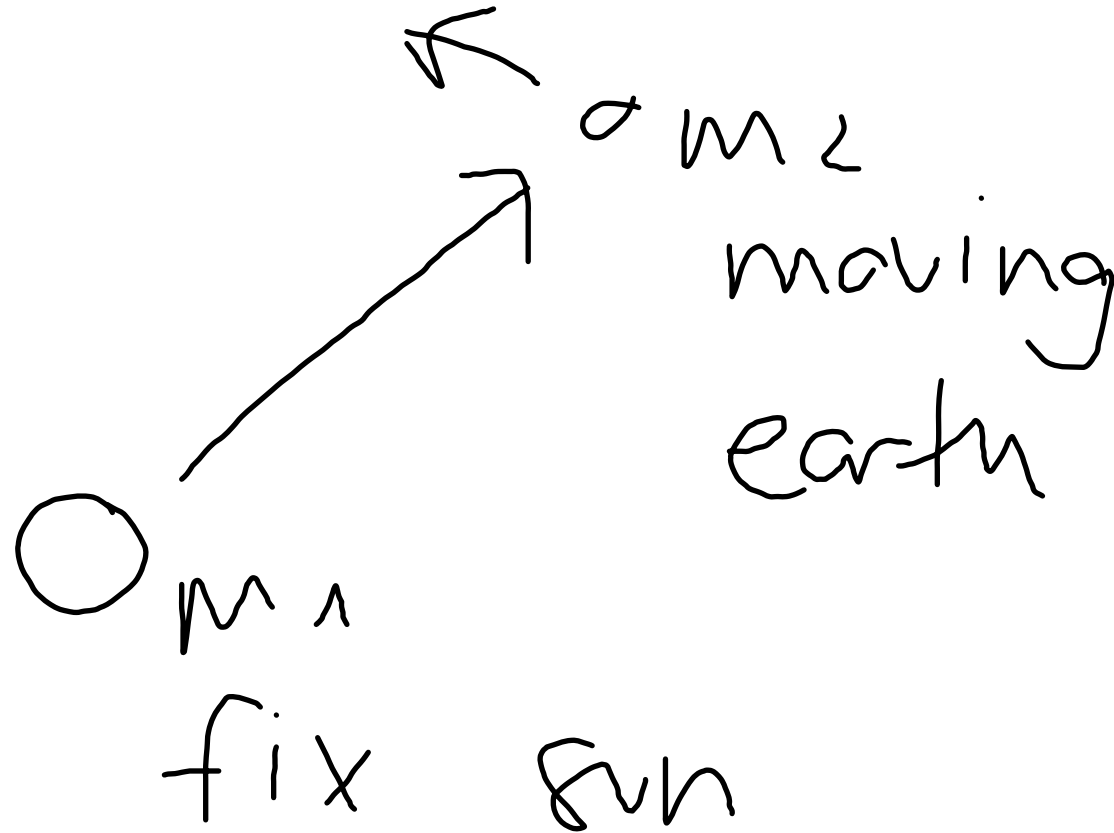
THE KEPLER PROBLEM

Mathematical Aspects of Classical Mechanics

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What is the Kepler problem?



2-body
problem

What is the Kepler problem?

For $M^n := \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$ the Hamiltonian system $(T^*M^n, dp \wedge dq, H)$ with

position \nearrow ~~manu~~ $H(q, p) := \frac{1}{2}|p|^2 - \frac{1}{|q|}$ \nwarrow potential
kinetic

with $(q, p) \in M^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \cong T^*M^n$ is called the Kepler problem.

The case $n = 2$ is the planar Kepler problem,
whereas the case $n = 3$ is called the spatial Kepler problem.

$Sp(2n) := \{A \in Mat(2n, \mathbb{R}) : \underline{A^T J_0 A} = J_0\}$ with $J_0 := \begin{pmatrix} 0 & I_n \\ -I_n & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ is a Lie group with Lie algebra $\mathfrak{sp}(2n)$.

– $Sp(2n)$ Group structure

$$A, B \in Sp(2n) \rightarrow AB, A^{-1}, A^T \in Sp(2n)$$

– smooth submanifold

$$f: \mathbb{R}^{2n \times 2n} \rightarrow \mathfrak{so}(2n) = \{A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} : A^T = -A\}$$

$$f(A) = A^T J_0 A$$

$$df(A)B = B^T J_0 A + A^T J_0 B$$

$$A \in Sp(2n), C \in So(n) \exists B = -\frac{1}{2} A J_0 C$$

$$\text{sth } df(A)B = C$$

→ J_0 is regular value

$$f^{-1}(J_0) = Sp(2n) \text{ smooth subm.}$$

→ Lie group

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{S}p(2n) &= T_{\perp} Sp(2n) = \ker df \underline{1} \\ &= \{A \in \mathbb{R}^{2n \times 2n} \mid A^T J_0 + J_0 A = 0\}\end{aligned}$$

$$\omega_0(v, u) = v^T J_0 u$$

$$A^* \omega_0(v, u) = \omega_0(v, u) \quad A \in Sp(2n).$$

$SO(n) = \{A \in Mat(\mathbb{R}, n) : A^T = A^{-1}, \det(A) = 1\}$ Lie group with $A^T A = \mathbb{1}$
 $so(n) = \{A \in Mat(\mathbb{R}, n) : A^T = -A\}$ Lie Algebra.

$$f: \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \rightarrow S(n)$$

$$f(A) = A^T A \quad \mathbb{1} \text{ reg. value}$$

A Lie Group G is a symmetry group of a Hamiltonian system (M, ω, H) iff there exists a weakly Hamiltonian action of G on (M, ω) such that $\theta_g^* H = H \ \forall g \in G$.

Proposition: $SO(n)$ is a symmetry group of the Kepler problem.

We define the diagonal action $\theta : SO(n) \times T^*M^n \rightarrow T^*M^n$ by $A \cdot (q, p) := (Aq, Ap)$,

We see $\theta_A^* H = H$.

$$\forall A \in SO(n) \quad \theta_A^* H = H(A \cdot, A \cdot) = H$$

$$\theta_A^* \lambda = \lambda \quad \forall A \in SO(n)$$

$$= p \, dq$$

Moment map
Lemma

$$\mu(B) = i_B^* (\lambda) = \langle \cdot, B \cdot \rangle$$

Poisson
&
Hamilton

$\mu : \mathfrak{so}(n) \rightarrow C^\infty(T^*\mathbb{R}^n)$ with $\mu(B)(q, p) := q^T B p$ is a Lie Algebra homomorphism.

Hamiltonian equations

$$\dot{p} = - \frac{\partial \mu(B)}{\partial q} = - B p$$

$$\dot{q} = \frac{\partial \mu(B)}{\partial p} = (q^T B)^T = B^T q = - B q$$

$$(q(t), p(t)) = \begin{pmatrix} e^{-Bt} q & e^{-Bt} p \end{pmatrix} \hat{=} \text{action of } \mathfrak{so}(n) \text{ on } T^*\mathbb{R}^n$$

We want to find integrals of the spatial Kepler problem $h=3$

$SO(3)$

Noether's Theorem: Let G be a symmetry group of a Hamiltonian system (M, ω, H) .

Then $\underline{\mu(\xi)}$ is an integral of motion for all $\xi \in \mathfrak{g}$. $\underline{SO(3)}$ \cdot $\underline{A^T = -A}$

$$\beta_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \beta_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \beta_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mu(\beta_1)(q, p) = q^T \beta_1 p = q_1 p_2 - q_2 p_1 \rightarrow$$

$$\mu(\beta_2)(q, p) = q_1 p_3 - q_3 p_1 \quad \{H, \mu(\beta_i)\}$$

$$\mu(\beta_3)(q, p) = q_2 p_3 - q_3 p_2 = 0$$

We want to find integrals of the spatial Kepler problem

We define the **angular momentum** as function $L : T^*M^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ by $L(q, p) := q \times p$.

$$L = (L_1, L_2, L_3) \quad L_i = \mu(p_j) \rightarrow L_i \text{ is integral}$$

$$\rightarrow \{H, L_i\} = 0$$

$$\rightarrow \{L_i, L_j\} = -\varepsilon_{ij} L_k$$

For $(q, p) \in T^*M^3$ we define the **Runge-Lenz vector** as function $A : T^*M^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ by

$$A(q, p) := p \times L(q, p) - \frac{q}{|q|}.$$

$$\dot{A} = 0$$

$$\{H, A_i\} = 0$$

$$\{A_i, L_j\} = -\varepsilon_{ij} A_k$$

Lemma: The spatial Kepler problem is completely integrable.

$$- (H, L_1, |L|^2) \quad |L|^2 = |L_1|^2 + |L_2|^2 + |L_3|^2$$

$$- (H, L_1, A_1)$$

Corollary: The planar Kepler problem is completely integrable. H, L_3, A_1, A_2

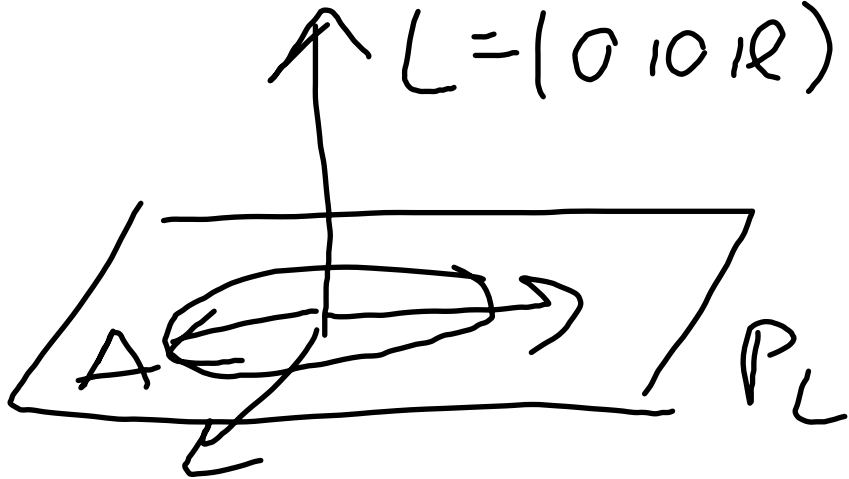
Theorem: The solutions of the spatial Kepler problem are conic sections.

$$P_L = \{v \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid \langle v, L \rangle = 0\}$$

$$p, q \in P_L \quad A \in P_L$$

$$\langle A, L \rangle = \underbrace{\langle p \times L, L \rangle}_{=0} - \underbrace{\langle \frac{q}{|q|}, L \rangle}_{=0} = 0$$

$\uparrow L = (0 \ 0 \ 1)$



$$A = (|A| \cos g, |A| \sin g, 0)$$

g perihelion

$$\frac{|q| + \langle A | q \rangle}{|q|} = \langle \frac{q}{|q|}, q \rangle + \langle \underline{A} | q \rangle$$

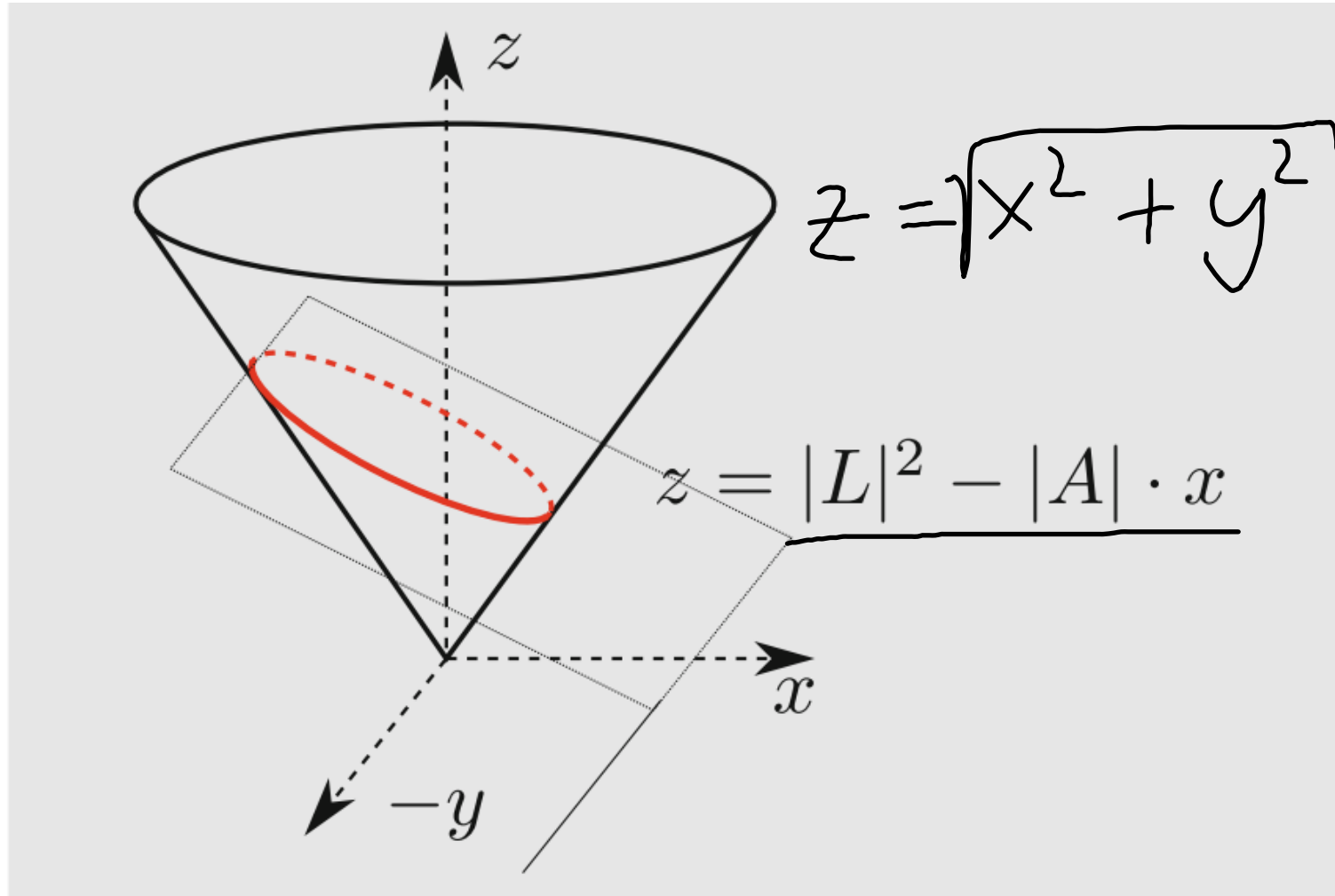
$$= \langle p \times L | q \rangle = \langle q \times p | L \rangle = \underline{|L|^2}$$

$$q = (1 \cos \psi, 1 \sin \psi, 0)$$

$$r = \frac{|L|^2}{1 + |A| \cos(\psi - g)}$$

|A| eccentricity
ψ - g true anomaly

Solutions to the spatial Kepler Problem are conic sections.

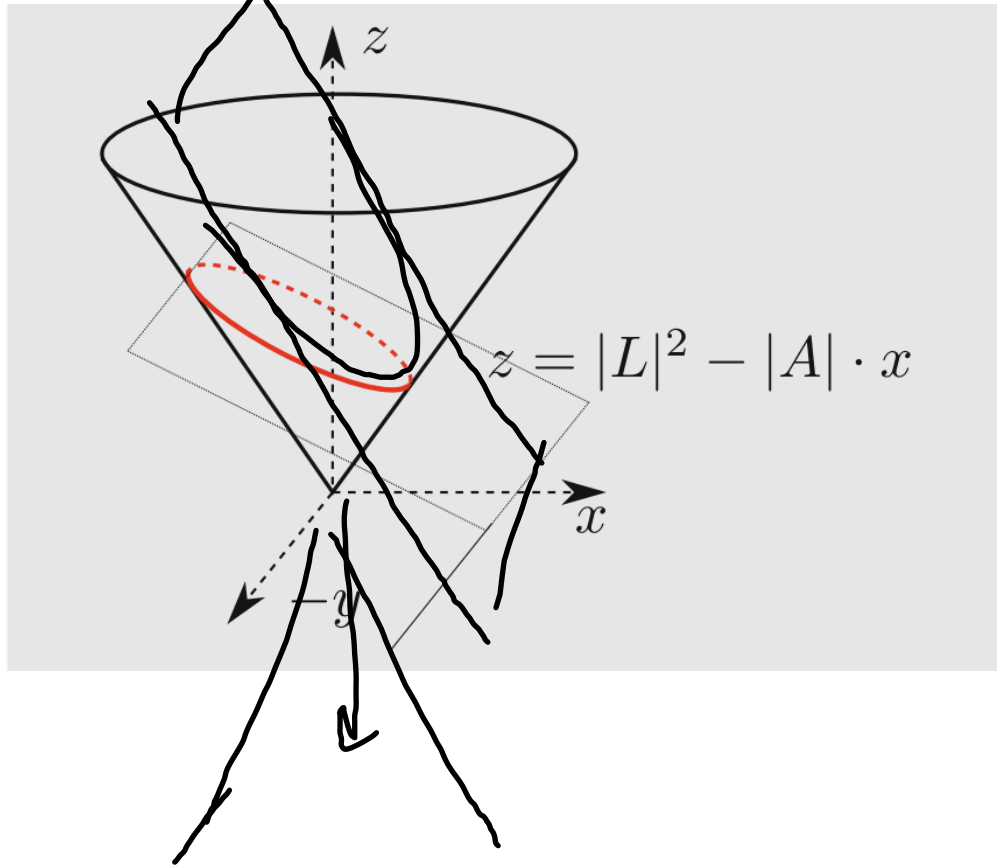


$$z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = |q|$$

$$z = |L|^2 - |A| \cdot x$$

$$\begin{aligned} &< A | q > \\ &= |A| r \cos \psi \\ &= A x \end{aligned}$$

Solutions to the spatial Kepler Problem are conic sections.

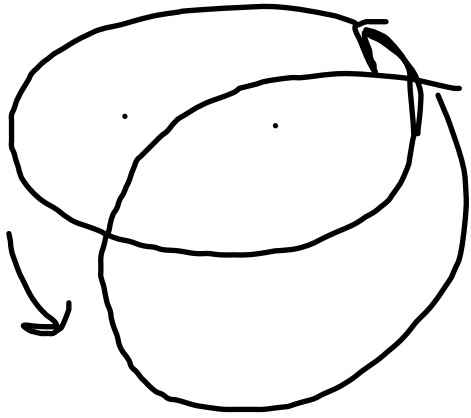


$|A| = 0 \rightarrow \text{circle } \bigcirc$
 $|A| \in (0, 1) \rightarrow \text{ellipse } \bigcirc$
 $|A| = 1 \rightarrow \text{parabola } \curvearrowright$
 $|A| > 1 \rightarrow \text{hyperbola } \wedge$

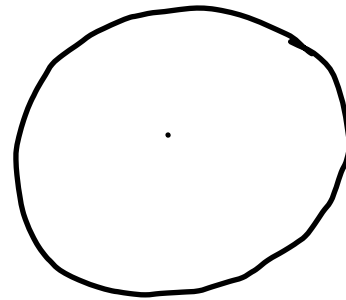
$\psi - g$

The planar Kepler problem $h=2$

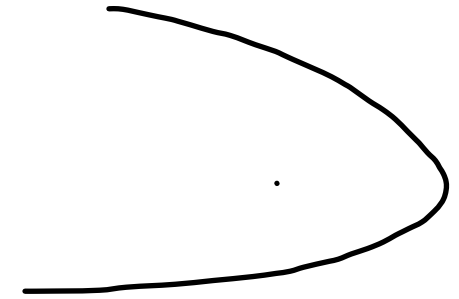
Liouville - Arnold



$$S^1 \times S^1 = T^2$$



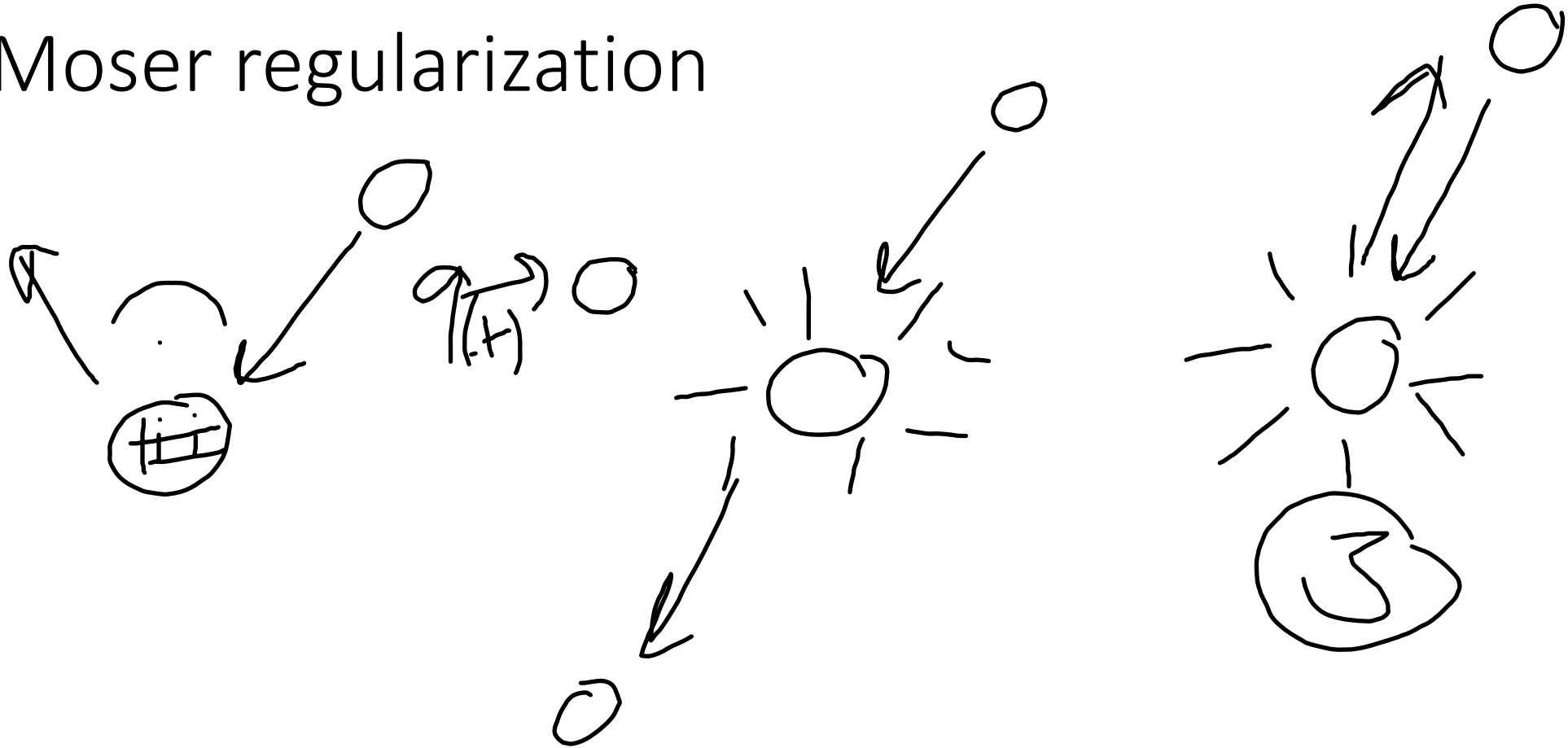
↓ regular value
→ no invariant
+ ch



↓ crescent
→ no invariant
+ ch

Collisions, Runge-Lenz Vector and hidden symmetries of H ?

→ Moser regularization



Runge-Lenz Vector and hidden symmetries of H?

→ Moser regularization

We explain the Moser regularization for the planar Kepler problem for $E = -\frac{1}{2}$.

$$E(q, p) = \frac{1}{2} |p|^2 - \frac{1}{|q|} = -\frac{1}{2} \quad | \cdot | q|$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \frac{|p|^2 |q|}{2} - 1 = -\frac{|q|}{2}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \left(\frac{|p|^2}{2} - 1 \right)^2 |q|^2 = \frac{1}{2} \quad |^2 | \cdot \frac{1}{2}$$

$$K(p, q) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{|p|^2}{2} - 1 \right)^2 |q|^2$$

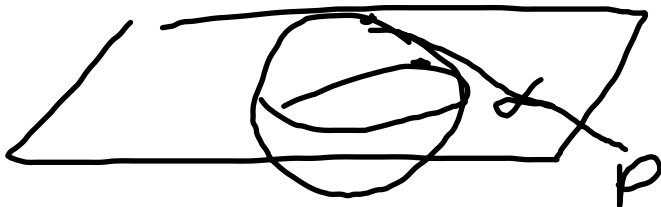
$$E^{-1}(-1/2) = K^{-1}(1/2)$$

Runge-Lenz Vector and hidden symmetries of H?

→ Moser regularization

free motion: $\hat{=}$ geodesic flow on the metric

$$\left(\frac{2}{|p|^2 + 1} \right)^2 \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_N$$



is the standard metric of S^2 with stereogr. projection

p

we conclude that K is the kinetic energy of the momentum p with respect to the round metric on S^2 in the chart obtained by stereographic projection.

Moreover one can show that on $T^*\mathbb{S}^2$ the $SO(3)$ -symmetry of the round \mathbb{S}^2 is generated by (A_1, A_2, L_3) . This explains the hidden symmetries of the planar Kepler problem and the definition of the Runge-Lenz vector A . These symmetries cannot be seen as they do not act on the configuration space but rather on the phase space.

$$\theta: G \times M \rightarrow M \xrightarrow{\quad} D\theta^+: G \times T^*M \rightarrow T^*M$$

preserving λ .

Consider \mathbb{R}^{2n} with standard symplectic form $\omega = d\lambda$. Then we have

$$\omega(v, u) = v^t J_0 u, \quad J_0 := \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -I \\ I & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$v, u \in T_{(x,y)} \mathbb{R}^{2n} \cong \mathbb{R}^{2n}$

\mathbb{R}^{2n} is a vector space

almost
complex
structure

and

$$\Phi_x: \begin{cases} V \rightarrow T_x V \\ v \mapsto \left. \frac{d}{dt} \right|_{t=0} x + tv \end{cases}, \quad x \in V$$

is a canonical isomorphism

does not depend on a choice of basis.

Consequently, if $A \in SO(n)$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \theta_A^* \omega|_{(x,y)} &= \omega(\theta_A v, \theta_A u) = (\theta_A v)^t J_0 (\theta_A u) \\ &= (Av_1, Av_2)^t J_0 \begin{pmatrix} Au_1 \\ Au_2 \end{pmatrix} \\ &\stackrel{\text{diagonalization}}{=} v^t \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -A^t A \\ A^t A & 0 \end{pmatrix} u \end{aligned}$$

This is the reason why you do not let $SO(2n)$ act on \mathbb{R}^{2n} .

This shows also that you cannot just act on one factor.

Also we have that

$$\theta_A^* \lambda = \lambda.$$

Why? First need a formula for λ .

$$\lambda_{(x,y)}(v, u) = y^t v$$

In canonical coordinates on phase space

$$\lambda = \sum_i p_i dx^i.$$

$$\text{Globally } \lambda_{(x,y)}(v) = \{ (D\pi_{T^*M}(v)) \} = \tilde{I}$$

