

# MATH 689 - Physics for Mathematicians

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## 1 Lagrangian Mechanics

We can describe the position of a system of  $N$  particles in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  by a set of  $3N$  coordinates:  $\{(x_\alpha^1, x_\alpha^2, x_\alpha^3)\}_{\alpha=1}^N$ .

Given holonomic constraints (constraints on the positions of particles in the system), the system of particles is forced to live on a submanifold  $M$  of  $\mathbb{R}^{3N}$  (in that the sets of all possible positions is a point on  $M$ ).  $M$  is called the **configuration space** of the system.

**Example 1.** *Two points joined by a rigid rod of length  $\ell$  in the  $(x, y)$ -plane.*

Let  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2)$  be two points joined by a rod of length  $\ell$ . Then, the position of the system can be defined by the location of the first point, and the angle (from 0 to  $2\pi$ ) of the rod. Therefore, the position of the system can be described by the point  $(x, y, \theta) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \times S^1 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^4$ . Therefore, the configuration space of this system is  $\mathbb{R}^2 \times S^1$ . Alternatively, the configuration space can be described as the 3-dimensional submanifold of  $\mathbb{R}^4$  defined by the zero set of the function  $f(x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2) = (x_1 - x_2)^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2 - \ell^2$ .

Note that knowledge of the position of a system does not determine any information about the future position of the system. To determine the future positions of a system (in classical mechanics), we must know the position of all particles in the configuration space, given by a point  $q$  in the configuration space  $M$  and a vector  $\dot{q} \in T_q M$ . Hence, the point  $(q, \dot{q})$ , which lies in the tangent bundle  $TM$  of the configuration space can be used to determine the past and future states of the system, given predetermined equations of motion. In this setting, the tangent bundle  $TM$  is called the **Phase space** of the system, and a particular point in the phase space is called a **state** of the system.

## 2 The Euler-Lagrange Equation

**Example 2.** *The equation of motion of a free particle*

Suppose  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is a particle with mass  $m$ . Then, supposing that no forces are applied to the particle, then by Newton's Second Law, we have that

$$m \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} = 0.$$

**Example 3.** *The equation of a spring*

Suppose  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is a particle with mass  $m$  attached to one end of a spring (anchored at the other end) with spring constant  $k$ . Then, the spring's motion can be described by the equation

$$m \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} = -kx.$$

Euler-Lagrange gives us an alternative way of describing motion due to conservative (path-independent) forces. For such motions, there exists a smooth function  $L$  depending on the state of the system which satisfies the **Euler-Lagrange Equation**:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_i}.$$

In the first example, the function  $L_1(x, \dot{x}) = \frac{m\dot{x}^2}{2}$  satisfies the E-L equation exactly when the equation of motion is satisfied. Similarly,  $L_2(x, \dot{x}) = \frac{m\dot{x}^2}{2} - \frac{kx^2}{2}$  satisfies the E-L equation for a spring system (Ex 2.2).

**Exercise 1.** *Check that the E-L equation is satisfied for the functions  $L_1, L_2$  exactly when a particle satisfies the equations of motion in the examples above.*

**Definition 1.** *A smooth function  $L : TM \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is called an **autonomous Lagrangian** (time-independent), and a smooth function  $L : \mathbb{R} \times TM \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is called a **non-autonomous Lagrangian** (time-dependent).*

For a given Lagrangian  $L$ , we may define a functional  $A$  which acts on curves in the configuration space  $M$ . For a curve  $q : [t_0, t_1] \rightarrow M$  such that  $q(t_i) = q^i$  for  $q_i \in M$  for  $i = 0, 1$ , we define

$$A(q) = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} L(t, q(t), \dot{q}(t)) dt$$

We call this functional an action on the space of curves connecting the points  $q^0, q^1 \in M$  at times  $t_0$  and  $t_1$ , respectively.

**Definition 2.** *Let  $q$  be a curve in  $M$ . Given any one-parameter family of smooth curves  $q_s(t)$ , for  $t \in [t_0, t_1]$  and  $s \in (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)$  such that  $q_0 = q$ , and  $q_s(t_i) = q^i$  for all  $s$ , then  $q$  is a **critical point** of  $A$  if,  $g$*

$$\left. \frac{d}{ds} [A(q_s(t))] \right|_{s=0} = 0.$$

**Theorem 1.** *A curve  $q$  is a critical point of  $A$  if and only if it is a solution to the Euler-Lagrange equation.*

*Proof.* Fix a one parameter family of curves  $q_s$  as in the definition of a critical point of  $A$ . Let  $h(t) = \frac{\partial}{\partial s}[q_s(t)]|_{s=0} \in T_{q(t)}M$ . Then  $h(t)$  is called a variational vector field. Note that since  $q_s$  is constant at the endpoints, then  $h(t_0) = h(t_1) = 0$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{ds}[A(q_s)]|_{s=0} &= \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \frac{\partial}{\partial s} L(t, q_s(t), \dot{q}_s(t))|_{s=0} dt \\ &= \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_s} \frac{\partial q_s}{\partial s} + \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_s} \frac{\partial \dot{q}}{\partial s} \right) \Big|_{s=0} dt, \\ &= \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_0} h + \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_0} \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \frac{\partial q}{\partial t} \Big|_{s=0} \right) dt, \\ &= \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_s} \Big|_{s=0} h + \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}} \frac{dh}{dt} \right) dt. \end{aligned}$$

Now, we apply integration by parts to the second term:

$$\int_{t_0}^{t_1} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}} h dt = \left[ \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}} h \right]_{t_0}^{t_1} - \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}} h dt.$$

Noting that the boundary term is zero since  $h(t_i) = 0$ , we find that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{ds}[A(q_s)]|_{s=0} &= \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \frac{\partial L}{\partial q} h dt - \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}} h dt \\ &= \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial q} - \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}} \right) h dt. \end{aligned}$$

Define  $G(t) := \frac{\partial L}{\partial q} - \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}}$ . Note that if  $L$  satisfies the E-L equation, we have that  $\frac{d}{ds}[A(q_s)]|_{s=0} = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} 0 h(t) dt = 0$  for any one-parameter family  $q_s$  (as specified), so  $q$  is indeed a critical point of  $A$ . On the other hand, if we assume that  $q$  is a critical point, then  $\frac{d}{ds}[A(q_s)]|_{s=0} = 0$ , so  $\int_{t_0}^{t_1} G(t) h(t) dt = 0$  for all variational vector fields  $h$ . We claim that this implies that  $G(t) = 0$ . Suppose, by way of contradiction that for some  $t$ , we have that  $G(t) \neq 0$ . Then, by continuity, there exists some interval  $U = (t - \delta, t + \delta)$  such that  $G(s) > 0$  for all  $s \in U$ . Choose a positive bump function  $h$  supported in  $U$  (Do we have to show that such an  $h$  is a variational vector field??). Then we have that

$$\int_{t_0}^{t_1} G(t) h(t) dt = \int_U G(t) > 0.$$

This contradicts our assumption that  $\int_{t_0}^{t_1} G(t) h(t) dt = 0$ . □

**Remark 1.** *The above theorem proves the Least-action principle. The minimal trajectory (measured by the functional  $A$ ) is the path which is determined solely by the equations of motion.*

### 3 The Least Action Principle

assume we have a system of  $N$  particles in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  with potential energy  $U$ , described by the coordinates  $\{(x_\alpha^1, x_\alpha^2, x_\alpha^3)\}_{\alpha=1}^N$ . Then, by Newton's Second Law, we have

$$m_\alpha \ddot{x}_\alpha^i = F_\alpha^i = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial x_\alpha^i}.$$

Let  $T = \sum_\alpha \sum_i \frac{m_\alpha (\dot{x}_\alpha^i)^2}{2}$  ( $T$  represents the kinetic energy of the system). Then, we define the Lagrangian  $L = T - U$ . Then,

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}_\alpha^i} = m_\alpha \dot{x}_\alpha^i \text{ and } \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}_\alpha^i} = m_\alpha \ddot{x}_\alpha^i.$$

Additionally,  $\frac{\partial L}{\partial x_\alpha^i} = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial x_\alpha^i}$ , so  $\frac{\partial L}{\partial x} = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial x} = F$ . Hence, the Lagrangian satisfies the E-L equation exactly when the system satisfies Newton's Laws of Motion.

**Theorem 2** (The Least Action Principle). *The motion of the mechanical system under consideration above coincides with an extremal of the action*

$$A(q) = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} (T - U) dt.$$

**Remark 2.** *By analyzing the second derivative  $\frac{d}{ds} A(q_s)$ , it can be shown that the extremals in question are indeed local minimizers, justifying the use of the word "least".*

We say that a mechanical system is defined by a Lagrangian  $L$ , and its trajectories are solutions to the E-L equation with the given  $L$ .

**Remark 3.** *In local coordinates  $(q^1, \dots, q^n)$  on  $M$ , the quantity  $p_i = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}^i}$  is called the generalized momentum conjugated to the coordinate  $q^i$ . Thus, the E-L equation can be written in the form  $\dot{p}_i = \frac{\partial L}{\partial q^i}$ .*

**Definition 3.** *A function  $I : TM \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is called a (first) integral of motion if, for any trajectory  $q$  of a system,*

$$\frac{d}{dt} I(q(t), \dot{q}(t)) \equiv 0,$$

*or equivalently,  $I$  is constant along the lift of the trajectory to  $TM$ .*

**Remark 4.** *First Integrals of Motion can be thought of as conservation laws. Along trajectories determined by the underlying laws of motion, these quantities don't change.*

**Example 4.** *First integrals of motion of free particle*

Recall that  $m \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} = 0$  for a free particle. The integrals of motion are momentum;  $p = m\dot{x}$ , and kinetic energy:  $\frac{m\dot{x}^2}{2}$ . It can be shown by taking the time derivative of these quantities that they are indeed integrals of motion.

**Example 5.** *IoMs of Autonomous Lagrangians*

Assume that the Lagrangian is autonomous ( $\frac{dL}{dt} = 0$ ). Consider the quantity  $\sum_i q^i \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}^i}$  for a trajectory  $q$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} \left[ \sum_i q^i \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}^i} \right] &= \sum_i \dot{q}^i \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}^i} + q^i \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}^i} \\ &= \sum_i \dot{q}^i \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}^i} + q^i \frac{\partial L}{\partial q^i} \\ &= \frac{d}{dt} L(q(t), \dot{q}(t)) \end{aligned}$$

by Euler-Lagrange and the chain rule. Therefore,

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left[ \sum_i q^i \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}^i} - L(q(t), \dot{q}(t)) \right] = 0.$$

Therefore,  $H = \sum_i q^i \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}^i} - L$  is an IoM for the system. Note that when  $L = T - U$ , then  $H = T + U$ , which is precisely the conservation of energy (of a closed system).

**Example 6.** *Lagrangian independent of a certain coordinate*

Suppose  $L$  is a Lagrangian such that in a given local coordinate system  $(q^1, \dots, q^n)$ ,  $L$  is independent of  $q^i$  for some  $i$ . Then  $p_i = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}^i}$  is an IoM given that, along any trajectory,  $\frac{d}{dt} p_i = \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}^i} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial q^i} = 0$  by Euler-Lagrange.

**Definition 4.** A diffeomorphism  $\varphi : M \rightarrow M$  is called a *symmetry of the Lagrangian  $L$*  if  $\varphi^* L = L$  (i.e.  $L(\varphi(q), \phi_{*,q}(v)) = L(q, v)$  for all  $(q, v) \in TM$ ).

**Example 7.** *Lagrangian independent of a coordinate  $q^i$*

Let  $L$  be a Lagrangian such that in the local coordinate system  $(q^1, \dots, q^n)$ ,  $L$  is independent of  $q^i$ . In this context, the coordinate  $q^i$  is called cyclic. We then observe that  $\phi^s(q^1, \dots, q^i, \dots, q^n) = (q^1, \dots, q^i + s, \dots, q^n)$ , then  $\phi^s$  is a symmetry of  $L$  for all  $s$ .