# Kolmogorov's Theorem

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Our goal is to understand the following theorem.

#### Kolmogorov's Theorem

Let  $\rho, \gamma > 0$  be given, and let  $h(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{p}) = h_0(\mathbf{p}) + h_1(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{p})$  be a Hamiltonian, with  $h_0, h_1 \in \mathcal{A}_\rho$  and  $\|h\|_\rho \leq 1$ . Suppose the Taylor polynomial of  $h_0$  is

$$h_0(\mathbf{p}) = a + \omega \mathbf{p} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{p} \cdot C \mathbf{p} + o(|\mathbf{p}|^2),$$

with  $\omega \in \Omega_{\gamma}$  and C is symmetric and invertible. Then for any  $\rho_* \leq \rho$ , there exists  $\epsilon > 0$ , which depends on C and  $\gamma$ , but not on the remainder term in  $o(|\mathbf{p}|^2)$ , such that if  $\|h_1\|_{\rho} \leq \epsilon$ , there exists a symplectic mapping  $\Phi: A_{\rho_*} \to A_{\rho}$  such that if we set  $(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{p}) = \Phi(\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{P})$  and  $H = h \circ \Phi$ , we have

$$H(\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{P}) = A + \omega \mathbf{P} + R(\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{P}),$$

with  $R(\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{P}) \in O(|\mathbf{P}|^2)$ .

### Kolmogorov's Theorem

The **KAM** theory is named after

Andreï Kolmogorov,

Vladimir **A**rnold,

Jürgen **M**oser.

Kolmogorov gave an original proof in the 1950s but never published it. Arnold gave a proof of the theorem in 1963 and Moser published a different but related result in 1962.

## A Motivating Example

The solar system when planets have zero mass.

Named for William Rowan Hamilton (1805-1865). A reformulation of classical Newtonian mechanics. Relies on a symplectic structure.

Let  $(X,\sigma)$  be a symplectic manifold. That is, X is a differentiable manifold and  $\sigma$  is a nowhere vanishing 2-form such that  $d\sigma=0$ . A function H on a X has a *symplectic gradient* denoted  $\nabla_{\sigma}H$ . This gradient is the unique vector field such that for any vector field  $\xi$ , we have

$$\sigma(\xi, \nabla_{\sigma} H) = dH(\xi).$$

We will consider a *Hamiltonian differential equation* that makes use of this symplectic gradient:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = (\nabla_{\sigma} H)(\mathbf{x}).$$



For a simple example of a Hamiltonian system, consider  $X = \mathbb{R}^{2n}$  with coordinates  $(q_1, \ldots, q_n, p_1, \ldots, p_n)$ . Take  $\sigma = \sum_i dp_i \wedge dq_i$ .

Our Hamiltonian differential equation is

$$\dot{q}_{i} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_{i}},$$

$$\dot{p}_{i} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial a_{i}},$$

where these are called the Hamiltonian equations of motion.



How does the Solar System fit this model? Consider the case of a single body of zero mass. (It is sufficient to consider the single body system, since the planets having zero mass means that they do not effect each other). For  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2$  the equation  $\ddot{\mathbf{x}} = -\frac{\mathbf{x}}{|\mathbf{x}|^3}$  is

Hamilton's equation for the manifold  $X = \mathbb{R}^2 \times \mathbb{R}^2$  with points  $(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{p})$ , standard symplectic form

$$\sigma = dp_1 \wedge dq_1 + dp_2 \wedge dq_2,$$

and Hamiltonian

$$H(\mathbf{q},\mathbf{p}) = rac{1}{2}(p_1^2 + p_2^2) - rac{1}{\sqrt{q_1^2 + q_2^2}}.$$



After some computation, we can obtain

$$abla_{\sigma}H=\left(\mathbf{p},-rac{1}{\left(q_1^2+q_2^2
ight)^{rac{3}{2}}}\mathbf{q}
ight).$$

The Hamiltonian Differential Equation  $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \nabla_{\sigma} H(\mathbf{x})$  is

$$\begin{aligned} q_1' &= p_1 & p_1' &= -\frac{q_1}{(q_1^2 + q_2^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}}, \\ q_2' &= p_2 & p_2' &= -\frac{q_2}{(q_1^2 + q_2^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}}. \end{aligned}$$
 From here we can recover  $\ddot{\mathbf{x}} = -\frac{\mathbf{x}}{|\mathbf{x}|^3}.$ 

We want to make formal the notion of "suffiently irrational." (Later we will see that this will help us to avoid dividing by zero). A number  $\theta$  is irrational if for all pairs  $p,q\in\mathbb{Z}$ , we have  $\left|\theta-\frac{p}{a}\right|\neq 0$ .

So for  $\theta$  to be "very" irrational, we want  $\left|\theta - \frac{p}{q}\right|$  to be "very" different from 0, or "very big."

But that is not quite possible, as we can always approximate an irrational number by rational numbers.



Instead we want to consider what happens with small divisors.

We start with diophantine conditions.

#### Diophantine of Exponent d

A number  $\theta$  is diophantine of exponent d if there exists a constant C such that for all coprime integers p and q we have

$$\left|\theta - \frac{p}{q}\right| > \frac{\gamma}{|q|^d}.$$

We generalize "sufficiently irrational" from numbers to vectors.

#### Diophantine Vector in $\mathbb{R}^n$

Let  $\omega = (\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n)$ . We say  $\omega$  is Diophantine if there exists  $\gamma > 0$  such that for all vectors with integer coefficients  $(k_1, \dots, k_n)$ , we have

$$|k_1\omega_1+\cdots+k_n\omega_n|\geq \frac{\gamma}{(k_1^2+\cdots+k_n^2)^{\frac{n}{2}}}.$$

Let  $\Sigma_{\gamma}^{n}$  be the subset of such  $\omega \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ .

In our example of the solar system, the  $\omega_i$  represent the frequencies of the planets' orbits.



How common are the vectors  $\omega$ ? Actually very common, as if we pick components  $\omega_i$  at random, we will almost surely select such a vector.

### Torus

# **Analytic Functions**

We will be solving a system of equations iteratively, using an analog of Newton's method.

Recall that when using Newton's method, we need a way to bound the second derivatives.

We need a way to measure "size," that is, we need to choose a norm for our functions.

## **Analytic Functions**

Let  $X \subseteq \mathbb{C}^k$  be compact. <sup>1</sup>

Let the caligraphic letter  $\mathcal{X}$  be the Banach algebra of continuous functions on X that are analytic in the interior and have the sup norm

$$||f||_X = \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in X} |f(\mathbf{x})|.$$

We use the absolute value as the standard Euclidean norm on  $\mathbb{C}^n$ .

## **Analytic Functions**

We consider three regions:

$$\begin{split} & \mathcal{B}_{\rho} = \{\mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{C} : |\mathbf{p}| \leq \rho\}, \\ & \mathcal{C}_{\rho} = \{\mathbf{q} \in \mathbb{C}^{n}/\mathbb{Z}^{n} : |\operatorname{Im}(\mathbf{q})| \leq \rho\}, \\ & \mathcal{A}_{\rho} = \mathcal{C}_{\rho} \times \mathcal{B}_{\rho} = \{(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{p}) \in \mathbb{C}^{n}/\mathbb{Z}^{n} \times \mathbb{C}^{n} : |\mathbf{p}| \leq \rho, |\operatorname{Im}(\mathbf{q})| \leq \rho\}. \end{split}$$

Denote by  $\mathcal{B}_{\rho}$ ,  $\mathcal{C}_{\rho}$ , and  $\mathcal{A}_{\rho}$  the corresponding Banach algebras.

### Smell of the Proof

The last equation in the theorem is an equation for a diffeomorphism  $\Phi$ . We solve for this diffeomorphism. To do so we would like to use Newton's method, but using it is not quite sufficient. However we can still do something with a similar flavor. We obtain  $\Phi$  as a limit of  $\Phi_i$ , where

$$\Phi_i = \phi_i \circ \phi_{i-1} \circ \cdots \circ \phi_1.$$

Here,  $\phi_i$  is the Hamiltonian flow for a Hamiltonian function  $g_i$ . This  $g_i$  is the unknown for which we solve.

## Diophantine Differential Equations

Let  $g \in \mathcal{C}_{\rho}$ . We want to solve the linear equation

$$\mathrm{D}f(\omega) = \sum_{i=1}^n \omega_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial q_i} = g,$$

with  $f \in \mathcal{C}_{\rho'}$  for some  $\rho' < \rho$ . Set

$$f(\mathbf{q}) = \sum_{\mathbf{k} \in \mathbb{Z}^n} f_{\mathbf{k}} e^{2\pi i \, \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{q}},$$

$$g(\mathbf{q}) = \sum_{\mathbf{k} \in \mathbb{Z}^n} g_{\mathbf{k}} e^{2\pi i \, \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{q}}.$$

The solution is

$$f_{\mathbf{k}} = \frac{1}{2\pi i \left(\mathbf{k} \cdot \omega\right)} g_{\mathbf{k}}.$$

We need  $g_0$  to be zero. Then  $f_0$  is arbitrary, and otherwise the series for f is unique.

## Diophantine Differential Equations

The convergence properties of f depend on the Diophantine properties of  $\omega$ .

We cannot divide by zero when computing the Fourier coefficients  $f_k$ .

Even though we have convergence for  $\rho$ , we might not have boundedness. So we need some  $\rho' < \rho$  where we have boundedness, but large enough so that the limit is nonempty.