

Lecture 8

1 Lagrangian dynamics

1.1 Overview

We now consider the important case of equations (or, rather, system of equations) derived from a Lagrange principle. Let $L = L(x, y_1, \dots, y_p, y_1^{(1)}, \dots, y_p^{(n)})$ be any function of x and p dependent variables $Y := \{y_1, \dots, y_p\}$ and their x derivative to order n . We shall denote such a function by $L = L(x, Y^{(n)})$. This Lagrangian induces an *action* on the set of orbits $\mathcal{Y} = Y(x)$ defined on the interval $x \in (\alpha, \beta)$ which verify the end conditions $\mathcal{Y}(\alpha) = Y_1, \mathcal{Y}(\beta) = Y_2$:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y}) = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} L(x, \mathcal{Y}^{(n)}(x)) dx .$$

A function \mathcal{Y} in this set is called stationary of this Lagrangian if

$$\delta_{\mathcal{Y}} \mathcal{L}(\Gamma) := \left. \frac{d}{dt} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y}^{(n)} + t\Gamma^{(n)}) \right|_{t=0} = 0 \quad (1.1)$$

for any n -differentiable $\Gamma = \{\gamma_1(x), \dots, \gamma_p(x)\}$ which verifies

$$\Gamma^{(n)}(\alpha) = \Gamma^{(n)}(\beta) = 0 . \quad (1.2)$$

Now, let D_i is the complete derivative with respect to y_i :

$$D_j = \partial_x + y_j^{(1)} \partial_{y_j} + \dots .$$

Let

$$E_j := \sum_{k=0}^n (-D_j)^k \partial_{y_j^{(k)}} .$$

Here $D_j^0 = 1$.

Proposition 1.1. \mathcal{Y} is a stationary solution of the Lagrangian L iff it satisfies the system of equations (Euler-Lagrange equations)

$$E_i(L) = 0 \quad , i = 1, \dots, p . \quad (1.3)$$

Proof. From (1.1) we get that

$$\delta_{\mathcal{Y}} \mathcal{L}(\Gamma) = \sum_{j=1}^p \sum_{i=0}^n \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{\partial L}{\partial y_j^{(i)}} \frac{d^i \gamma_j}{dx^i} dx$$

By integration by parts and (1.2) we get

$$\delta_{\mathcal{Y}} \mathcal{L}(\Gamma) = \sum_{j=1}^p \sum_{i=1}^n \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} (-1)^i D_j^i \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial y_j^{(i)}} \right) \gamma_j dx = 0$$

which implies the result (since Γ is, apart from condition (1.2), arbitrary). □

Example A *mechanical Lagrangian* is of the form

$$L(x, Y^{(2)}) = \sum_1^p m_i (y_i')^2 - U(x, Y)$$

where m_i are constants (inertia masses) and U the interaction potential. the equation $E_i(L) = 0$ takes the form

$$m_i y_i'' + U_{y_i} = 0$$

In particular, the equation for the single pendulum of mass m and length l in a gravitational field g , given by $L = m(y')^2/2 - (1 - gl \cos(y))$ takes the form

$$y'' = (gl/m) \sin(y) .$$

1.2 Transformations of the Lagrangian

Let now a symmetry group G acting on a domain in \mathbb{R}^{p+1} parameterized by $(x, Y) = (x, y_1, \dots, y_p)$. The action is denoted by $\Psi : \mathbb{R}^{p+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{p+1}$ where $\Psi := (\psi_{(x)}, \psi_{(Y)})$.

$$x \rightarrow \tilde{x} = \psi_{(x)}(x, Y) \quad , \quad Y \rightarrow \tilde{Y} = \psi_{(Y)}(x, Y) .$$

This action induces an action on the graph of a dependent variable $Y = Y(x)$ as defined in lecture 3. It can also be prolonged into the graph of $Y^{(n)}$, The prolonged action is denoted by $\tilde{\Psi}^{(n)} : (x, Y^{(n)}) \rightarrow \tilde{x}, \tilde{Y}^{(n)}$.

Such an action induces a transformation on a Lagrangian L in the following, natural way:

$$\tilde{\mathcal{L}}(\tilde{Y}) = \mathcal{L}(Y) \tag{1.4}$$

It follows that the Lagrangian function $L : (\alpha, \beta) \times \mathbb{R}^{p(n+1)} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is transformed into $\tilde{L} : (\tilde{\alpha}, \tilde{\beta}) \times \mathbb{R}^{p(n+1)} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ where $(\tilde{\alpha}, \tilde{\beta}) = (\psi_{(x)}(\alpha, Y_1), \psi_{(x)}(\beta, Y_2))$. From (1.4) we get the form of the transformed Lagrangian by change of variables formula:

$$\tilde{L}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{Y}^{(n)}) D_x \psi_{(x)}(x, Y) = L(x, Y^{(n)}) \tag{1.5}$$

where $D_x := \partial_x + \sum_i^p y_i^{(1)} \partial_{y_i}$.

How does the Euler-Lagrange equations look like for the transformed Lagrangian? Let us consider a variation $Y \rightarrow Y + t\Gamma$ and $x_{(t)}, Y_{(t)}$ given by

$$\tilde{x} = \psi_{(x)}(x_{(t)}, Y(x_{(t)}) + t\Gamma(x_{(t)})) \quad , \quad \tilde{Y}_{(t)} = \psi_{(Y)}(x_{(t)}, Y(x_{(t)}) + t\Gamma(x_{(t)})) .$$

By this convention, \tilde{x} is independent of t . Hence

$$0 = D_x \psi_{(x)} \frac{dx_{(t)}}{dt} + \nabla_Y \psi_{(x)} \cdot \Gamma .$$

So

$$\frac{dx_{(t)}}{dt} = -\nabla_Y \psi_{(x)} \cdot \Gamma / D_x \psi_{(x)}$$

$$\frac{d\tilde{Y}(t)}{dt} = \nabla_Y \psi(Y) \cdot \Gamma + D_x \psi(Y) \frac{dx(t)}{dt} = \nabla_Y \psi(Y) \cdot \Gamma - (D_x \psi(x))^{-1} D_x \psi(Y) \nabla_Y \psi(x) \cdot \Gamma$$

Consider now

$$F_{i,j} := \begin{pmatrix} D_x \psi(x) & \partial_{y_i} \psi(x) \\ D_x \psi(y_j) & \partial_{y_i} \psi(y_j) \end{pmatrix}$$

Then

$$\frac{d\tilde{y}_j}{dt} = (D_x \psi(x))^{-1} \sum_{i,j} \det(F_{i,j}) \gamma_i .$$

Since, by definition

$$\begin{aligned} \left. \frac{d}{dt} \tilde{\mathcal{L}}(\tilde{Y}) \right|_{t=0} &= \int_{\tilde{\alpha}}^{\tilde{\beta}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^p \tilde{E}_i(\tilde{L}) \frac{d\tilde{y}_i}{dt} \right) d\tilde{x} = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} D_x \psi(x) \left(\sum_{i=1}^p \tilde{E}_i(\tilde{L}) \frac{d\tilde{y}_i}{dt} \right) dx \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^p \sum_{j=1}^p \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \det(F_{i,j}) \tilde{E}_i(\tilde{L}) \gamma_i dx = \left. \frac{d}{dt} \mathcal{L}(Y) \right|_{t=0} = \sum_{i=1}^p \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} E_i(L) \gamma_i dx . \end{aligned}$$

We finally get the relation between the Euler-Lagrange equations:

$$\sum_{j=1}^p \det(F_{i,j}) \tilde{E}_j(\tilde{L}) = E_i(L) . \quad (1.6)$$

Example: In the case $p = 1$ we obtain

$$E(L) = \det \begin{pmatrix} \partial_x \psi(x) & \partial_y \psi(x) \\ \partial_x \psi(y) & \partial_y \psi(y) \end{pmatrix} \tilde{E}(\tilde{L})$$

Why did we replaced $D_x \psi(x)$ by $\partial_x \psi(x)$?

Let now $(x, y) \rightarrow (y, x)$ so $\psi(x)(x, y) = y$, $\psi(y)(x, y) = x$. In this case we obtain

$$E(L) = -\tilde{E}(\tilde{L}) .$$

Can you verify it directly from the Lagrangian formulation?

1.3 Lagrangian preserving transformations

A transformation ψ is said to preserve a given Lagrangian L if \tilde{L} , as defined in (1.5), is equal to L :

$$L(\tilde{x}, \tilde{Y}^{(n)}) D_x \psi_{(x)}(x, Y) = L(x, Y^{(n)}) . \quad (1.7)$$

It is possible to generalize this definition and request the transformed Lagrangian to induce the same *Lagrangian action*. Suppose there exists a function $V = V(x, Y^{(n-1)})$ such that the transformed Lagrangian takes the form $L + D_x V$. Evidently, this Lagrangian generates the same action as L , up to an irrelevant constant, for

$$\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} [L + D_x V] dx = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} L dx + V(\beta, Y^{(n)}(\beta)) - V(\alpha, Y^{(n)}(\alpha))$$

Exercise: Prove directly, using (1.1), that the Euler Lagrange equations for L and $L + D_x V$ are identical. For this, you need to show the identity $E_i D_x \equiv 0$ for any i .

We now generalize the notion of a transformation which preserves the Lagrangian, to a transformation which preserves the Lagrangian action. Thus

$$L\left(\tilde{x}, \tilde{Y}^{(n)}\right) D_x \psi_{(x)}(x, Y) = L(x, Y^{(n)}) + D_x V \quad (1.8)$$

for some function $V = V(x, Y^{(n-1)})$.

Next, consider a symmetry generated by a vector field

$$\mathbf{X} := \xi \partial_x + \sum_{j=1}^p \eta_j \partial_{y_j}$$

acting on the domain (x, Y) of a Lagrangian action induced by $L(x, Y^{(n)})$.

Example: The v-f ∂_x preserves any Lagrangian of the form $L = L(Y^{(n)})$.

The v-f ∂_{y_j} preserves any Lagrangian which is independent of y_j (but may depend on its derivatives).

If we substitute $x + t\xi$ for $\tilde{x} := \psi_{(x)}(x, Y)$, $y_j^{(k)} + t\eta_j^{(k)}$ for $\tilde{y}_j^{(k)}$ and tV for V in (1.8) and differentiate the equality at $t = 0$ we get

$$Pr^{(n)}\mathbf{X}(L) + LD_x(\xi) = D_x V .$$

Example: Let $L = \sqrt{1 + (y')^2}$ and consider $\mathbf{X} = -y\partial_x + x\partial_y$. We already met the prolongation of this field $Pr^{(1)}\mathbf{X} = -y\partial_x + x\partial_y + (1 + y_1^2)\partial_{y_1}$. Then

$$Pr^{(1)}\mathbf{X}(L) + LD_x\xi = \left(1 + (y')^2\right) L_{y'} - y' L \equiv 0$$

as we could expect. Since the action of this Lagrangian is the arc-length of the graph of y , it is not surprising that a rotation in the plane preserves this arc-length.

A natural conclusion is

Corollary 1.1. *If \mathbf{X} preserves the Lagrangian action, it also induces a symmetry of the corresponding Euler-Lagrange equation $E(L) = 0$.*

The inverse claim is not true, in general.

Example: The Kepler problem (point mass under inverse square law): We consider the Lagrangian

$$L(Y, Y^{(1)}) = \frac{1}{2} \left((y_1')^2 + (y_2')^2 + (y_3')^2 \right) - \frac{M}{\sqrt{y_1^2 + y_2^2 + y_3^2}}$$

The EL equations are

$$y_i'' = -\frac{My_i}{y_1^2 + y_2^2 + y_3^2} \quad , \quad i = 1, 2, 3 .$$

Direct computation implies that this equation is invariant under the first prolongation of

$$\mathbf{X}_{i,j} = y_i \partial_{y_j} - y_j \partial_{y_i} \quad , \quad i \neq j \quad ,$$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{X}_4 &= \partial_x , \\ \mathbf{X}_5 &= x\partial_x + \frac{2}{3} \sum_1^3 y_i \partial_{y_i}\end{aligned}$$

The v.f $\mathbf{X}_{i,j}$ represents the symmetry of the system with respect to rotation in space $SO(3)$. We readily see that its prolongation $Pr^{(1)}\mathbf{X}_{i,j} = y_i\partial_{y_j} - y_j\partial_{y_i} + y'_i\partial_{y'_j} - y'_j\partial_{y'_i}$ preserves the Lagrangian

$$Pr^{(1)}\mathbf{X}_{i,j}(L) = 0 .$$

Evidently, the prolongation of \mathbf{X}_4 (which is \mathbf{X}_4 itself) preserves to Lagrangian as well. However, $Pr^{(1)}\mathbf{X}_5 = x\partial_x + \frac{2}{3} \sum_1^3 y_i \partial_{y_i} - \frac{1}{3} \sum_1^3 y_i^{(1)} \partial_{y_i^{(1)}}$ verifies

$$Pr^{(1)}\mathbf{X}_5(L) - D_x(x)L = \frac{2}{3} \left(M - \sum_1^3 (y_j^{(1)})^2 \right) \neq D_x V .$$

We shall see later that $\mathbf{X}_{i,j}$ induces an invariant $L_{i,j} = y_i y'_j - y_j y'_i$ of the Kepler system. It is nothing but the angular momentum of this system in the direction perpendicular to the (y_i, y_j) plan. Similarly, \mathbf{X}_4 induces the invariant

$$\mathcal{E} = \frac{1}{2} \left((y'_1)^2 + (y'_2)^2 + (y'_3)^2 \right) + \frac{M}{\sqrt{y_1^2 + y_2^2 + y_3^2}}$$

which is to energy of the system. The v-f \mathbf{X}_5 is a manifestation of the third law of Kepler: It induces the transformation $x \rightarrow e^t x$, $y_i \rightarrow e^{2t/3} y_i$ which implies, between other, the power law of 2/3 between the period and the radius of a planet's orbit. It does not correspond, however, to a conservation law.