Hamiltonian Systems in \mathbb{R}^{2n}

Let $H : \mathbf{R}^{2n} \to \mathbf{R}$ be a C^k function, $k \ge 1$. Write coordinates $(q, p) = (q_1, \ldots, q_n, p_1, \ldots, p_n)$ on \mathbf{R}^{2n} .

A system of differential equations of the form

is called a *Hamiltonian system* with n degrees of freedom and Hamiltonian function H. We also write X_H for the vector field defined by (1).

Sometimes we write the shortened form of (1) as

$$\dot{q} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p} \dot{p} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q}$$

where $q = (q_1, \ldots, q_n), p = (p_1, \ldots, p_n).$ If we define $\nabla H = (\frac{\partial H}{\partial q_1}, \ldots, \frac{\partial H}{\partial q_n}, \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_1}, \ldots, \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_n})$ and

$$J = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 0 & I \\ -I & 0 \end{array} \right],$$

where I is the $n \times n$ identity matrix, then (1) has the form

$$\dot{z} = J\nabla H(z). \tag{2}$$

The matrix J above is called the standard symplectic matrix. It is one of the normal forms of a non-degenerate alternating bilinear form on \mathbb{R}^{2n} . Because of equation (2), one sometimes refers to a Hamiltonian system as a symplectic gradient. However, the orbit structure of a hamiltonian system is vastly different from that of a gradient system.

Proposition. If X_H is a Hamiltonian system with Hamiltonian H, then H is constant on orbits.

Proof.

For any solution curve $\gamma(t) = (q(t), p(t))$ we have

$$\frac{dH(q(t), p(t))}{dt} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i} \dot{q}_i + \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i} \dot{p}_i$$

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$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} H_{q_i} H_{p_i} + H_{p_i} (-H_{q_i}) \\ = 0$$

QED.

Classical Mechanical Systems in \mathbb{R}^n

Let $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ denote points in \mathbb{R}^n , and let $U : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ be a C^1 function. Let $m_i > 0, i = 1, \ldots, n$ be n positive real constants.

The system

$$m_i \ddot{x}_i = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial x_i}, \ i = 1, \dots, n$$
 (3)

is called a *conservative mechanical system* with potential function U in \mathbb{R}^n . The constants represent the masses of the system, and the function U plays the role of potential energy. The system (3) is a formulation of Newton's law of motion which, in words, says that mass times acceleration equals force and the force is the negative gradient of the potential energy function. Note that the potential function is a function of position alone (not velocity) and can be an arbitrary C^1 function.

Let $c_i > 0, i = 1, ..., n$ denote some other constants.

The system

$$m_i \ddot{x}_i + c_i \dot{x}_i = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial x_i}, \ i = 1, \dots, n$$
(4)

is called a *dissipative mechanical system* with potential function U and frictional constants c_i .

Given (3) or (4), we set $v = (v_1, \ldots, v_n) = (\dot{x}_1, \ldots, \dot{x}_n)$ and form the function

$$T(x,v) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} m_i v_i^2 + U(x)$$

This is called the total energy function (or simply the energy function) of the system. The function $K(v) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} m_i v_i^2$ is called the *Kinetic Energy* of the system. It is a function of velocity alone.

The equations (3), (4) are second order systems.

We can form the associated first order systems

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
\dot{x}_i &=& v_i \\
m_i \dot{v}_i &=& -\frac{\partial U}{\partial x_i}
\end{array}$$
(5)

and

$$\dot{x}_i = v_i
m_i \dot{v}_i = -c_i v_i - \frac{\partial U}{\partial x_i}$$
(6)

Proposition. There is a coordinate system on \mathbb{R}^{2n} in which the conservative system (3) becomes a Hamiltonian system.

Proof.

Let $q_i = x_i, p_i = m_i v_i$. Then,

$$H(q,p) = T(x,v) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{p_i^2}{m_i} + U(q_1,\dots,q_n)$$

and (3) becomes

QED. Facts.

- 1. The critical points of a classical mechanical system are the points (x, v) with x a critical point of U and v = 0.
- 2. The total energy function T(x, v) is a Lyapunov function for a conservative mechanical system and a strict Lyapunov function for a dissipative mechanical system.
- 3. If x_0 is a strict relative minimum of the potential function U, then $(x_0, 0)$ is a stable equilibrium of the system (5) and an asymptotically stable equilibrium of the system (6).

The fact that the energy function T(x, v) is a Lyapunov function for a mechanical system frequently helps us to get a picture of the solutions without solving the equation.

To illustrate this phenomenon, let us consider systems with one degree of freedom.

These have the form

$$\ddot{x} + f(x) = 0 \tag{7}$$

where $f : \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$ is a real-valued function of one real variable. Writing $U(x) = \int_0^x f(s) ds$, we get a total energy function of the form

$$T(x,v) = \frac{1}{2}v^2 + U(x)$$

Let us consider some examples.

1. Harmonic oscillator

$$T(x,v) = \frac{v^2}{2} + \frac{x^2}{2}$$

The orbits are circles around the origin (0,0) which is a single stable equilibrium.

2. Pendulum

$$T(x,v) = \frac{v^2}{2} + k(1 - \cos(x))$$

for some constant k > 0.

The critical points are $(\pm n\pi, 0)$. The stable ones are $(2\pi n, 0)$ and the saddles are $(\pi(2n+1), 0)$.

3. Duffing equation

$$T(x,v) = \frac{v^2}{2} + \frac{x^4}{4} - \frac{x^2}{2}$$

There are three critical points at (0,0), (-1,0), (1,0). The origin is a saddle and the others are centers (a center is a critical point surrounded by periodic orbits).

When one adds friction to each of the above equations, the orbits cross the level sets of T instead of lying in them.