



A quick survey of Hamiltonian systems

from a Dynamical Systems point of view

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Plan of the presentation:

- General properties of Hamiltonian systems
geodesics equations, Maupertuis principle, generating functions, Lagrange submanifolds, Hamilton-Jacobi, Huygens principle, relations between classical and quantum mechanics, optics, non-Hausdorff manifolds, Completely Integrable Systems, KAM



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- Systems with symmetries
Noether's theorem, symplectic reduction, momentum map, Atiyah-Sternberg theorem



Main Sources

- V.I. Arnold, “Mathematical Methods of Classical Mechanics”, GTM 60, Springer, 1989
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- V. Guillemin & S. Sternberg, “Semi-classical analysis”, Int. Press, 2011
- W. Thirring, “Classical Mathematical Physics”, Springer, 1992
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Introduction



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- 3 $\phi_\xi^t\phi_\xi^s = \phi_\xi^{t+s}$ when all three maps are defined.



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Here h is symmetrical and ξ_H is known as the *gradient* of H

$$L_{\xi_H} H(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \left. \frac{d}{dt} H(\phi_{\xi}^t(x)) \right|_{t=0}$$



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It turns out though that the dynamics is much richer when h is antisymmetric.



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Locally we have coordinates $(q^1, \dots, q^n, p_1, \dots, p_n)$ where $\omega = dq^\alpha \wedge dp_\alpha$ (Darboux Theorem), so that

$$\xi_H = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_\alpha} \frac{\partial}{\partial q^\alpha} - \frac{\partial H}{\partial q^\alpha} \frac{\partial}{\partial p_\alpha} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_\alpha} \partial_\alpha - \frac{\partial H}{\partial q^\alpha} \partial^\alpha$$



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This is the qualitative behaviour of Hamiltonian orbits in 2 dimensions close to a stable equilibrium point.



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In case $V \equiv 0$, $m = 1$, we get the equation of geodesics:

$$d/dt(g_{\alpha\beta} \dot{q}^\alpha) + \frac{1}{2} \partial_\alpha g^{\mu\nu} g_{\lambda\mu} g_{\rho\nu} \dot{q}^\lambda \dot{q}^\rho = 0$$



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Here $H = \frac{1}{2}p^2 + V(q)$ and $\xi_H(q, p) = p\partial_q - V'(q)\partial_p$.



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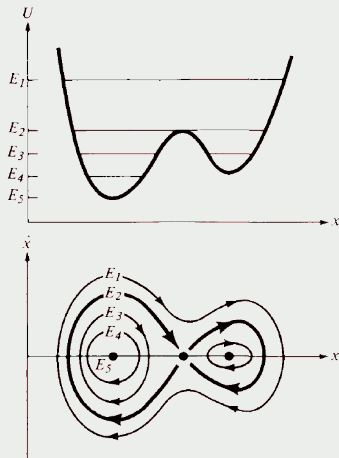
In particular, all critical points of ξ_H lie on the q axis and we get centers for $V'' > 0$ and saddles for $V'' < 0$ (e.g. see Arn 2.4C):



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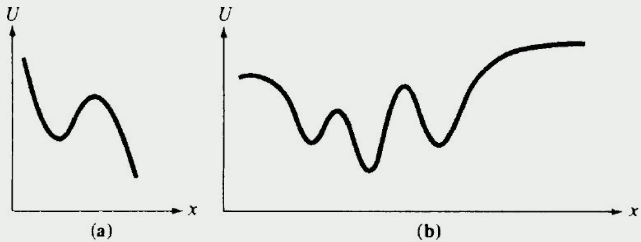


Figure 11 Potential energy

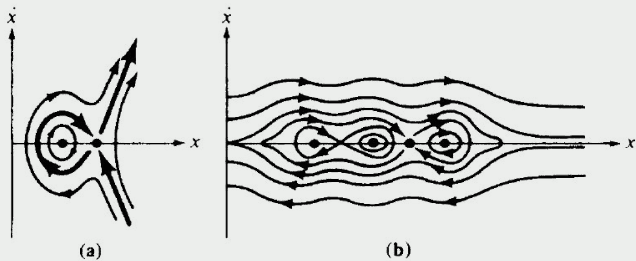


Figure 12 Phase curves

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Such systems have not been studied much so far, mainly because they do not arise from the framework of classical mechanics.



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A sign that ξ_η is not Hamiltonian is that its orbits, i.e. the level sets of H , are topologically non-trivial.



Example 2: smooth obstructions

Definition

A regular 1-dim. foliation \mathcal{F} of \mathbb{R}^2 is Hamiltonian if its leaves are the level sets of a regular smooth function H , i.e. if $\mathcal{F} = \{dH = 0\}$, i.e. if $T_x\mathcal{F} = \text{span}\{\xi_H(x)\}$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^2$.

¹Haefliger & Reeb, “Variétés (non séparés) a une dimension et structures feuilletées du plan”, *Ens.Math.* 3, 1957



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Remark: \mathcal{F} is usually a non-Hausdorff space, but this is not an obstruction to define a smooth structure¹.

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In this concrete case, for example, $C^k(\mathcal{F})$ can be defined as the set of $C^k(\mathbb{R}^2)$ functions that are constant on the leaves of \mathcal{F} , i.e. $\ker L_{\xi_H}$.

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Of course, though, fundamental properties such as the existence of a partition of unity do not hold in non-Hausdorff spaces!

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\mathcal{F} is Hamiltonian iff $C^1(\mathcal{F})$ contains regular functions.

This is the exception rather than the rule. It turns out, for example, that there exist foliations such that $C^1(\mathcal{F})$ contains only constant functions! (see the article by Haefliger and Reeb and the references therein).



Locally every regular foliation is Hamiltonian but globally things are different:

Theorem (Haefliger, Reeb 1957)

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Incidentally, we have an interesting related property:

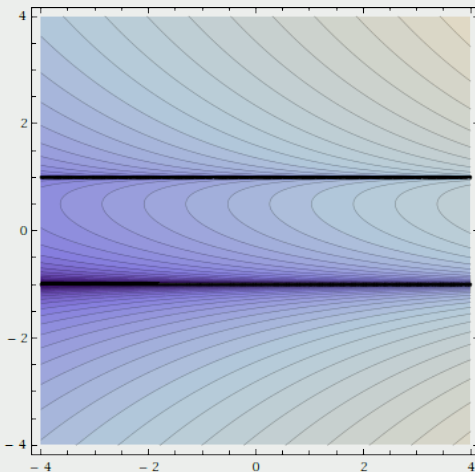
Theorem (Haefliger, Reeb 1957)

On non-Hausdorff smooth manifolds of every dimension there are infinitely many inequivalent smooth structures.



Example: a non-Hamiltonian foliation of \mathbb{R}^2

Consider $(\mathbb{R}^2, dq \wedge dp)$ and $\eta = (1 - p^2)dq + 2(1 - 2p)dp$.
Its leaves are shown below:



Clearly $\mathcal{F}_\eta = \{\eta = 0\}$ is a regular foliation but no regular function has this foliation as the set of its level curves.



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Correspondingly, the vector field $\xi_\eta = 2(2p - 1)\partial_q + (1 - p^2)\partial_p$ is regular and everywhere tangent to \mathcal{F}_η but $\ker L_{\xi_\eta}$ is generated by

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Hence the derivative of every function of

$$\mathcal{C}^1(\mathcal{F}_\eta) = \{f \circ H \mid f \in \mathcal{C}^1(\mathbb{R})\}$$

is null in that point.



In coordinates, consider on

$$\mathcal{F}_\eta \simeq Y = \mathbb{R} \sqcup \mathbb{R} / \{x \sim y \text{ if } x = y \text{ and } x < 0\}$$

the two charts $\psi, \phi : (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon) \rightarrow Y$ s.t.

$\psi(w)$ is the leaf of η passing through $(0, -1 - w)$ and

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Since w and z are the coords of the same leaf iff

$H(0, -1 - w) = H(0, z + 1)$, the coords change is given by

$$w^3(1 + w) = z(z + 2)^3$$

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Given $f \in C^1(\mathcal{F}_\eta)$, then its representatives in coordinates are

$f_\psi(w) = f(\psi(w))$ and $f_\phi(z) = f(\phi(z))$. Then

$$f_\psi(w) = f_\phi \circ \phi^{-1} \circ \psi(w) = f_\phi(w^3)$$

and

$$f'_\psi(w)|_{w=0} = 3w^2 f'_\phi(w^3)|_{w=0} = 0.$$



While in the example of the torus the vector field was only locally Hamiltonian for *topological* (C^0) reasons, here it depends on the *smooth* (C^1) structure:

Theorem (DL, 2014)

There exists a continuous function G such that (H, G) is locally injective and \mathcal{F}_η is Hamiltonian with respect to the (inequivalent) smooth structure on the plane given by the charts (H, G) at every point.



Related Literature

- S.P. Novikov, *The Hamiltonian formalism and a many-valued analogue of Morse theory*, Uspekhi Mat. Nauk , 1982, 37:5, 3-49.
- S.P. Novikov, *The Semiclassical Electron in a Magnetic Field and Lattice. Some Problems of the Low Dimensional Periodic Topology*, Geometric and Functional Analysis, 1995, 5:2, 434-444.
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Least Action Principles



The Poincaré-Cartan 1-form

$$\theta_H = p_\alpha dq^\alpha - Hdt$$

Recall that the trajectory of a Hamiltonian system on M starting at time t_0 from q_0 and arriving at time t_1 in q_1 is an extremal of the action

$$S = \int_\gamma L(q, \dot{q}) dt = \int_\gamma (p_\alpha dq^\alpha - Hdt),$$

$$\gamma \in \{ \gamma : [t_0, t_1] \rightarrow M \mid \gamma(t_0) = q_0, \gamma(t_1) = q_1 \}$$



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The Poincaré-Cartan 1-form

$$\theta_H(t, q, p) = p_\alpha dq^\alpha - H(p, q) dt \in \Omega^1(\mathbb{R} \times T^*M)$$

plays a fundamental role in Hamiltonian systems.



Least Action principle in $\mathbb{R} \times T^*M$

Theorem (see Arnold, 45C)

The extremals of the “extended action”

$$S_{\mathbb{R} \times T^*M}[\gamma] = \int_{\gamma} \theta_H$$

*in the space of all paths $\gamma : [t_0, t_1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \times T^*M$ such that $\pi_t(\gamma(t)) = t$, $\pi_M(\gamma(t_0)) = (t_0, q_0)$ and $\pi_M(\gamma(t_1)) = (t_1, q_1)$, where $\pi_t(t, q, p) = t$ and $\pi_M(t, q, p) = (t, q)$, are the solutions $\gamma = (t, q(t), p(t)) : [t_0, t_1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \times T^*M$ of the Hamilton equations satisfying the initial conditions $q(t_0) = q_0, q(t_1) = q_1$.*

Remark: no condition is put on $p(t_0), p(t_1)$!



Proof.

We consider a family of paths γ_ε and set $\delta = \frac{d}{d\varepsilon} \Big|_{\varepsilon=0}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}\delta \int_{\gamma_\varepsilon} \theta_H &= \int_\gamma [p_\alpha \delta \dot{q}^\alpha + \dot{q}^\alpha \delta p_\alpha - \partial_\alpha H \delta q^\alpha - \partial^\alpha H \delta p_\alpha] dt = \\ &= p_\alpha \delta q^\alpha \Big|_{t_0}^{t_1} + \int_\gamma [(\dot{q}^\alpha - \partial^\alpha H) \delta p_\alpha + (-\dot{p}_\alpha + \partial_\alpha H) \delta q^\alpha] dt\end{aligned}$$



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From the line above it is clear why we need to fix the initial conditions for the q (i.e. $\delta q = 0$ at t_0 and t_1) but not for the p .



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It looks surprising that the extremals of the action on M coincide with those of the corresponding action on $\mathbb{R} \times T^*M$, where the p_α are allowed to vary independently from the q^α .



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It looks surprising that the extremals of the action on M coincide with those of the corresponding action on $\mathbb{R} \times T^*M$, where the p_α are allowed to vary independently from the q^α .

The reason behind this is that, for fixed \dot{q}^α on TM , the value of $p_\alpha = \frac{\partial L(q, \dot{q})}{\partial \dot{q}^\alpha}$ is, by definition of Legendre transform, an extremal of the function $L = p_\alpha \dot{q}^\alpha - H$.



Least Action Principle in $M_E = H^{-1}(E)$

Maupertuis Principle, Hamiltonian version

Theorem (Maupertuis principle I, see DFN Thm33.3.1)

The extremals of the “truncated action”

$$S_E[\gamma] = \int_{\gamma} \theta, \quad \theta = p_{\alpha} dq^{\alpha} \text{ (Liouville 1-form),}$$

*in the space Ω of all paths $\gamma: [t_0, t_1] \rightarrow T^*M$ such that*

$$\pi_M(\gamma(t_0)) = q_0, \pi_M(\gamma(t_1)) = q_1, \gamma([t_0, t_1]) \subset M_E,$$

*where $\pi_M: T^*M \rightarrow M$ is the projection that “drops” the p ,*

*are all the reparametrizations of the solutions $\gamma: [t_0, t_1] \rightarrow T^*M$ of the Hamilton equations contained inside Ω .*



Proof.

Proceeding as in the previous case, we find that

$$\delta \int_{\gamma_\varepsilon} \theta = \int_{\gamma} [\dot{q}^\alpha \delta p_\alpha - \dot{p}_\alpha \delta q^\alpha] dt.$$



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This time though the δq and δp are not independent: since H is constant over all paths, then

$$0 = \delta [H(q_\varepsilon(t), p_\varepsilon(t))] = \partial_\alpha H \delta q^\alpha + \partial^\alpha H \delta p_\alpha$$



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Since this is the only constraint, it means that

$$(\dot{q}^\alpha, \dot{p}_\alpha) \propto (\partial^\alpha H, -\partial_\alpha H),$$

namely the paths γ that extremizes the truncated action are those whose image $\gamma(M) \subset M_E$ coincides with the image of a solution of the corresponding Hamiltonian equations of motions, i.e. is a solution modulo reparametrization. □



Least Action Principle in $M_E = H^{-1}(E)$

Maupertuis Principle, Lagrangian version

Theorem (Maupertuis pr. II, Arn 45D & AM Thm3.8.5)

Consider a Hamiltonian system H with Lagrangian $L(q, \dot{q}) = \dot{q} \partial L / \partial \dot{q} - H(q, \partial L / \partial \dot{q})$.

Among all curves $\gamma = q(t) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow M$ connecting $q_0, q_1 \in M$ and parametrized so that $H(q, \partial L / \partial \dot{q}) = E$, the extremals of the “truncated action”

$$S_E[\gamma] = \int_{\gamma} \theta = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}^\alpha} \dot{q}^\alpha dt,$$

are all reparametrizations of the solutions of the Lagrangian equations of motion which keep the energy equal to E .



Proof.

Let $\mathcal{L} : TM \rightarrow T^*M$ be the Legendre transformation and consider any curve $\gamma = q(t) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow M$ connecting q_0 with q_1 in such a way that $H(q(t), \partial L / \partial \dot{q}) = E$.



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Then the curve $\tilde{\gamma} = \mathcal{L} \circ \gamma : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow T^*M$ satisfies the conditions of the Maupertuis' principle in the Hamiltonian version



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and therefore it is an extremal of the truncated action

iff $\tilde{\gamma}$ is a reparametrization of the solutions of the Hamiltonian equations of motion

iff γ is a reparametrization of the solutions of the Lagrangian equations of motion. □



Example 1: Geodesics

Theorem

On a Riemannian manifold (M, g) , the extremals of the action

$$S = \int_{\gamma} \sqrt{g_{\alpha\beta} \dot{q}^{\alpha} \dot{q}^{\beta}} dt \text{ are (unparametrized) geodesics.}$$



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Proof.

Geodesics are the solutions of the Hamiltonian dynamical system given by the purely kinetic energy Hamiltonian

$$H(q, p) = \frac{1}{2} g^{\alpha\beta} p_{\alpha} p_{\beta}. \text{ On } H = E, g^{\alpha\beta} p_{\alpha} p_{\beta} = \sqrt{E} \sqrt{g^{\alpha\beta} p_{\alpha} p_{\beta}}$$

and so the extremals of $\int_{\gamma} g_{\alpha\beta} \dot{q}^{\alpha} \dot{q}^{\beta} dt$ are also extremals of

$$\int_{\gamma} \sqrt{g_{\alpha\beta} \dot{q}^{\alpha} \dot{q}^{\beta}} dt.$$

□



Example 2: Motion in a Riemann Manifold

Theorem

A particle of mass m on a Riemannian manifold (M, g) subjected to a potential $V(q)$ moves, at the energy level E , along the geodesics of the new metric

$$\tilde{g}_{\alpha\beta} = 2m(E - V(x))g_{\alpha\beta}.$$



Example 2: Motion in a Riemann Manifold

Proof.

If $H(q, p) = \frac{1}{2}g^{\alpha\beta}p_\alpha p_\beta + V(q) = \frac{1}{2}g_{\alpha\beta}\dot{q}^\alpha \dot{q}^\beta + V(q)$, then, in M_E ,

$$g_{\alpha\beta}\dot{q}^\alpha \dot{q}^\beta = 2(E - V(q)).$$

Hence

$$S[\gamma] = \int_\gamma p_\alpha dq^\alpha = \int_\gamma g_{\alpha\beta}\dot{q}^\alpha \dot{q}^\beta dt,$$



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Hence

$$S[\gamma] = \int_\gamma p_\alpha dq^\alpha = \int_\gamma g_{\alpha\beta}\dot{q}^\alpha \dot{q}^\beta dt,$$

which we can write as

$$S[\gamma] = \int_\gamma \sqrt{2(E - V(q))} \sqrt{g_{\alpha\beta}\dot{q}^\alpha \dot{q}^\beta} dt = \int_\gamma \sqrt{\tilde{g}_{\alpha\beta}\dot{q}^\alpha \dot{q}^\beta} dt,$$



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from which it is clear that the extremals of the Maupertuis action with energy E coincide with the geodesics of M with respect to the metric

$$\tilde{g}_{\alpha\beta} = 2(E - V(q))g_{\alpha\beta}.$$



Maupertuis' principle allows us to apply to Hamiltonian dynamics important results of Riemannian geometry, e.g. the fact that, if in some homotopy class of loops there is a curve of shortest length, this is a geodesics:



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Double Pendulum

Corollary (See Arn 45C)

For every n_1, n_2 there is a periodic motion of the double pendulum ($M = \mathbb{T}^2$) such that one pendulum makes n_1 oscillations while the other makes n_2 oscillations.



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Rigid Body

Corollary (See Arn 45C)

Given a rigid body ($M = SO_3$), in any potential field there exists at least one periodic motion of the body. Moreover, there are periodic motions for every arbitrary high value of the energy.



Example: Motion of light

The Hamiltonian for rays of light is $H(q, p) = c(q)\|p\|$.



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Theorem (Fermat's principle – Novikov 33.3.3)

The path that light rays take by passing from a point A to a point B in a isotropic media are geodesics with respect to the metric

$$g_{\alpha\beta} = \frac{1}{c(q)^2} \delta_{\alpha\beta}.$$



Related Literature

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Hamiltonian Systems as Lagrangian Submanifolds



Generating Functions

Symplectic diffeomorphisms of a manifold M^{2n} , which are $2n$ maps of $2n$ variables, are actually determined by a single function of $2n$ variables:



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Theorem

$f : (M^{2n}, \omega_1) \rightarrow (N^{2n}, \omega_2)$ is symplectic iff f 's graph $\Gamma_f \subset M \times N$ is Lagrangian submanifold of $(M \times N, \omega_1 - \omega_2)$.

Definition

Let $\theta_{1,2}$ be local Liouville 1-forms for $\omega_{1,2}$ and $i : \Gamma_f \rightarrow M \times N$ the inclusion of the graph. Then locally $i^*(\theta_1 - \theta_2) = dS$.
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 S is the *generating function* for f .

This means that locally $\theta_1 - \theta_2 = p_\alpha dq^\alpha - P_a dQ^a = dS(q, Q)$,
 i.e. locally

$$p_\alpha = \frac{\partial S}{\partial q^\alpha}, \quad P_a = \frac{\partial S}{\partial Q^a}.$$



Hamiltonian and Lagrangian formulations via Lagrangian submanifolds

Lagrangian submanifolds are a powerful language in the framework of Hamiltonian dynamics. In particular we can reformulate the whole theory with this language:



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Consider the following symplectic bundles and diffeomorphisms:

T^*M	$T^*(T^*M)$	$T(T^*M)$	$T^*(TM)$
(q^α, p_α)	$((q^\alpha, p_\alpha), (w_\alpha, v^\alpha))$	$((q^\alpha, p_\alpha), (v^\alpha, w_\alpha))$	$((q^\alpha, v^\alpha), (p_\alpha, w_\alpha))$
$p_\alpha dq^\alpha$	$w_\alpha dq^\alpha + v^\alpha dp_\alpha$	$v^\alpha dp_\alpha - w_\alpha dq^\alpha$	$p_\alpha dq^\alpha + w_\alpha dv^\alpha$



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$p_\alpha dq^\alpha$	$w_\alpha dq^\alpha + v^\alpha dp_\alpha$	$v^\alpha dp_\alpha - w_\alpha dq^\alpha$	$p_\alpha dq^\alpha + w_\alpha dv^\alpha$
$\psi :$	$T(T^*M)$	\rightarrow	$T^*(T^*M)$
	$((q^\alpha, p_\alpha), (v^\alpha, w_\alpha))$	\mapsto	$((q^\alpha, p_\alpha), (-w_\alpha, v^\alpha))$



Hamiltonian and Lagrangian formulations via Lagrangian submanifolds

Lagrangian submanifolds are a powerful language in the framework of Hamiltonian dynamics. In particular we can reformulate the whole theory with this language:

Consider the following symplectic bundles and diffeomorphisms:

T^*M	$T^*(T^*M)$	$T(T^*M)$	$T^*(TM)$
(q^α, p_α)	$((q^\alpha, p_\alpha), (w_\alpha, v^\alpha))$	$((q^\alpha, p_\alpha), (v^\alpha, w_\alpha))$	$((q^\alpha, v^\alpha), (p_\alpha, w_\alpha))$
$p_\alpha dq^\alpha$	$w_\alpha dq^\alpha + v^\alpha dp_\alpha$	$v^\alpha dp_\alpha - w_\alpha dq^\alpha$	$p_\alpha dq^\alpha + w_\alpha dv^\alpha$

$$\psi : \begin{array}{l} T(T^*M) \\ ((q^\alpha, p_\alpha), (v^\alpha, w_\alpha)) \end{array} \rightarrow \begin{array}{l} T^*(T^*M) \\ ((q^\alpha, p_\alpha), (-w_\alpha, v^\alpha)) \end{array}$$

$$\phi : \begin{array}{l} T(T^*M) \\ ((q^\alpha, p_\alpha), (v^\alpha, w_\alpha)) \end{array} \rightarrow \begin{array}{l} T^*(TM) \\ ((q^\alpha, v^\alpha), (w_\alpha, p_\alpha)) \end{array}$$



The pull-back $\psi^*\theta_{T^*(T^*M)}$, $\phi^*\theta_{T^*(TM)}$ on $T(T^*M)$ of the canonical Liouville 1-forms on $T^*(T^*M)$ and $T^*(TM)$ are given by:

$$\psi^*\theta_{T^*(T^*M)} = v^\alpha dp_\alpha - w_\alpha dq^\alpha, \quad \phi^*\theta_{T^*(TM)} = p^\alpha dv_\alpha + w_\alpha dq^\alpha$$



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Theorem (Tulczyjew 1974)

Consider the symplectic structure $\omega = dv^\alpha \wedge dp_\alpha - dw_\alpha \wedge dq^\alpha$ on $T(T^*M)$. Then:

- 1 ψ is symplectic, ϕ is anti-symplectic;



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- ④ $H(q, p) = p_\alpha v^\alpha - L(q, v)$, with $p_\alpha = \frac{\partial L}{\partial v^\alpha}$.



Related Literature

- W.M. Tulczyjew *Hamiltonian Systems, Lagrangian systems and the Legendre transformation*, Symp. Math. 14, 247-258
- K. Konieczna, P. Urbanski *Double vector bundles and duality*, Archivum Mathematicum, 1999
- M. de Leon, D. Martin de Diego, *Tulczyjew's triples and lagrangian submanifolds in classical field theories*, in "Applied Differential Geometry and Mechanics," Eds. W. Sarlet and F. Cantrijn, U. of Gent, Gent, Academia Press (2003), 21-47.
- J. Grabowski, G. Marmo, *Deformed Tulczyjew triples and Legendre transform*, Rend. Sem. Univ. Pol. Torino, 1999, 54:3



Hamilton-Jacobi Equation



Huygens principle

The idea behind Hamilton-Jacobi equations comes from the Huygens principle in optics:



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Theorem (Huygens principle, Arn 46A, DNF 35.2)

Consider the light emanating from a point q_0 . The wave front $\Phi_{q_0}(t+s)$ is the envelope of the fronts $\Phi_q(s)$ for all $q \in \Phi_{q_0}(t)$.



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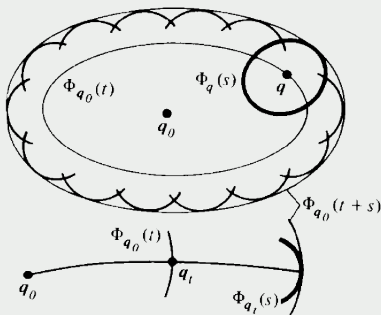


Figure 193 Envelope of wave fronts

Huygens principle

The level set of $S_{q_0}(q)$ (optical length) is the wave front.



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Note that the directions of \dot{q} and p do not coincide in an anisotropic medium!

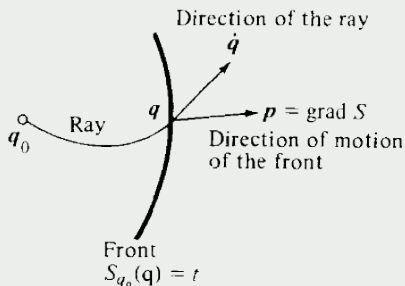


Figure 195 Direction of a ray and direction of motion of the wave front



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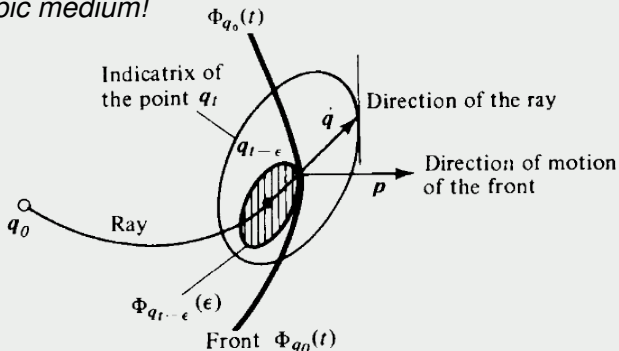


Figure 197 Conjugacy of the direction of a wave and of the front

Optical-Mechanics Analogy

Optics

Mechanics

Optical medium

Extended configuration space $\{(\mathbf{q}, t)\}$

Fermat's principle

Hamilton's principle $\delta \int L dt = 0$

Rays

Trajectories $\mathbf{q}(t)$

Indicatrices

Lagrangian L

Normal slowness vector \mathbf{p}
of the front

Momentum \mathbf{p}

Expression of \mathbf{p} in terms of
the velocity of the ray, $\dot{\mathbf{q}}$

Legendre transformation

1-form $\mathbf{p} d\mathbf{q}$

1-form $\mathbf{p} d\mathbf{q} - H dt$



Hamilton-Jacobi equations v1

The connection between Huygens principle and Hamiltonian equations comes from the three following observations:

Theorem 1

The 1-form $\eta \in \Omega^1(M)$ is closed iff $\eta^\omega = 0$, i.e. iff its graph $\eta(M) \subset T^*M$ is a Lagrangian submanifold of T^*M .*

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}\eta^*\omega &= dq^\alpha \wedge d\eta_\alpha = \partial_\beta \eta_\alpha dq^\alpha \wedge dq^\beta = \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(\partial_\beta \eta_\alpha - \partial_\alpha \eta_\beta) dq^\alpha \wedge dq^\beta\end{aligned}$$

□

Hence locally $\alpha = dS$, namely $\alpha(M)$ writes as $p_\alpha = \frac{\partial S}{\partial q^\alpha}$.



Theorem 2

Let $\Gamma^n \subset T^*M^n$ be Lagrangian and contained in $H^{-1}(E_0)$.
Then $\xi_H \in T\Gamma$.

Proof.

Since $\omega(\xi_H, \zeta) = dH(\zeta) = 0, \forall \zeta \in T\Gamma$, and Γ is Lagrangian,
then $\xi_H \in T\Gamma$ at every point. □



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then $\xi_H \in T\Gamma$ at every point. □

Theorem 3

Let $\Gamma^{n-1} \subset T^*M^n$ be isotropic. Then

$$\Gamma_T^n = \bigcup_{t \in [0, T]} \phi_H^t(\Gamma^{n-1})$$

is Lagrangian $\forall T > 0$.



Theorem (HJ v1, DFN 35.1.6, AM 5.2.18)

*Given a Hamiltonian H on T^*M and a closed 1-form η on M , the following are equivalent:*

- 1 $d(\eta^*H) = 0;$



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- 2 $\eta(M)$ is a Lagrangian submanifold of T^*M invariant by the Hamiltonian flow ϕ_H^t ;
- 3 for every curve $\gamma = q(t) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow M$ satisfying $\dot{q}^\alpha = \left. \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_\alpha} \right|_{\eta(q)}$, the curve $\tilde{\gamma}(t) = \eta(q(t))$ is an integral curve of ξ_H ;



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- ④ if S is a generating function for $\eta(M)$, namely if locally $\eta = dS$, then S satisfies the (time-independent) Hamilton-Jacobi equation

$$H\left(q, \frac{\partial S}{\partial q}\right) = E_0$$



The name S for the generating function was not by chance:

Theorem

Let $\Gamma \subset T^*M$ be Lagrangian and contained in $H = E_0$,
 $m_0, m \in \Gamma$ two “close enough” points and $\gamma_{1,2} : [0, 1] \rightarrow \Gamma$ two
paths s.t. $\gamma_{1,2}(0) = m_0$ and $\gamma_{1,2}(1) = m$.

Then $\int_{\gamma_1} \theta = \int_{\gamma_2} \theta$.



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Then $\int_{\gamma_1} \theta = \int_{\gamma_2} \theta$.

Proof.

Since Γ is Lagrangian,

$$d\theta|_{\Gamma} = \omega|_{\Gamma} = 0$$

and so locally $\theta = dS$, i.e.

$$p_{\alpha} = \frac{\partial S}{\partial q^{\alpha}},$$

and therefore

$$\int_{\gamma_i} \theta = S(m) - S(m_0).$$



Corollary (“Method of Characteristics”)

For a fixed q_0 , assume that the Lagrangian submanifold $\Gamma^n \subset \{H(q, p) = E_0\} \subset T^*M$ projects with full rank on M close to q_0 . Then the “truncated action”

$$S_{E_0}(q) = \int_{q_0}^q p_\alpha dq^\alpha$$

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Proof.

Since $dS_{E_0} = p_\alpha dq^\alpha$, we have that

$$p_\alpha = \frac{\partial S_{E_0}}{\partial q^\alpha}$$

so that, since $\Gamma \subset \{H(q, p) = E_0\}$, $H(q, \partial_q S_{E_0}) = E_0$. □



Application to solving 1st order PDEs

Consider the 1st order implicit PDE with “Cauchy boundary conditions”:

$$H(q, \partial_q S) = E_0, \quad S|_{\Gamma^{n-1}} = s_0 \in C^\infty(\Gamma^{n-1})$$

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Then the previous Corollary shows that, at least for small T , the solution on $\pi_M(\Gamma_T)$ is given by

$$S_{E_0}(q) = s_0(q_0) + \int_{q_0}^q p_\alpha dq^\alpha,$$

where q_0 is the point of Γ^{n-1} such that $q = \Phi_H^t(q_0)$ for some t .



Example 1: Harmonic Oscillator

$$H(x, y, p_x, p_y) = \frac{1}{2} (p_x^2 + p_y^2 + x^2 + y^2)$$

The level set $H = \frac{1}{2}$ is the unitary 3-sphere \mathbb{S}^3 .



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$p_x^2 + x^2 = \alpha^2$, $p_y^2 + y^2 = 1 - \alpha^2$, so the manifold of trajectories $\Gamma_{2\pi}$ of every loop $\Gamma^1 \subset \mathbb{S}^3$ transversal to the flow is a 2-torus.



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Take $\Gamma^1 = \{p_y = p_x = 0, x^2 + y^2 = 1\}$. Then the surface Γ_T is

$$x = \cos \phi \cos t, \quad y = \sin \phi \cos t$$

$$p_x = -\cos \phi \sin t, \quad p_y = -\sin \phi \sin t$$



Hence

$$S(x(T), y(T)) = \int_0^T (p_x dx + p_y dy) = \int_0^T \cos^2 t dt = \frac{1}{2} (T + \sin(2T))$$



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Remarks: 1. In order to have a solution on the whole $r \leq 1$, we must have $s_0 = \text{const}$.

2. The solution is singular where Γ_t is not a graph.



Example 2: Cohomological Equation

$$L_{\xi}f = g, \quad \xi \in \chi(M), \quad f, g \in C^{\infty}(M)$$

Every $\xi \in \chi(M)$ is the base component of a Ham. vector field ξ_H : just take $H(q, p) = p_{\alpha}\xi^{\alpha}(q)$.



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Once the value of f is given on some $n - 1$ -dimensional submanifold transversal to ξ , its (local) solution is given by

$$f(q) = \int_{q_0}^q p_{\alpha} dq^{\alpha} = \int_{t_0}^t \frac{\partial f}{\partial q} \dot{q}^{\alpha} dt = \int_{t_0}^t \frac{\partial f}{\partial q} \xi^{\alpha} dt = \int_{t_0}^t g(q(t)) dt,$$

(the integral is taken over the integral traj. of ξ joining q_0 and q)



Hamilton-Jacobi equations v2

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This new generating function S therefore satisfies the HJ eq. but it also depends on n “external parameters” Q^α , so that it gives rise to a Lagrangian foliation of T^*Q where every leaf is isoenergetic.



Hamilton-Jacobi equation (time-dependent)

In case of time-dependent Hamiltonians $H(t, q, p)$ we can repeat verbatim all we did so far using the following dictionary:

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Ham. eqs.	$\begin{pmatrix} \dot{q} \\ \dot{p} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \partial H / \partial p \\ -\partial H / \partial q \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} \dot{q} \\ \dot{p} \\ \dot{t} \\ \dot{E} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \partial H / \partial p \\ -\partial H / \partial q \\ 1 \\ \partial H / \partial t \end{pmatrix}$



Hamilton-Jacobi equation (time-dependent)

In this environment, the generating function is given by

$$S(m) = S(m_0) + \int_{\gamma} [p_{\alpha} dq^{\alpha} - H(t, q, p)] dt$$

and satisfies the complete Hamilton-Jacobi equation

$$H\left(q, \frac{\partial S}{\partial q}\right) = -\frac{\partial S}{\partial t}$$

The solution to this equation provides a 1-parameter family of symplectomorphisms S_t which make the Hamiltonian H equal to constant at all time.



HJ equation and Quantum Mechanics

Feynmans' two postulates for QM on \mathbb{R}^n :

- 1 The probability $\langle q_1 | \psi_t | q_2 \rangle$ that a particle represented by the wavefunction $\psi_t \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ moves from q_1 to q_2 under a Hamiltonian $H(q, p) = \frac{1}{2m} \delta^{ij} p_i p_j + V(q)$ is the “sum” over all contribution from all possible paths joining the two points;



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Which equation does ψ satisfy?



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so the HJ equation

$$\frac{\partial S}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{2m} \left[\delta^{ij} \frac{\partial S}{\partial q^\alpha} \frac{\partial S}{\partial q^\beta} \right] + V(q)$$



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$$\frac{\partial S}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{2m} \left[\delta^{ij} \frac{\partial S}{\partial q^\alpha} \frac{\partial S}{\partial q^\beta} \right] + V(q)$$

writes as

$$-i\hbar \dot{\psi} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \Delta \psi + V(q)\psi + \frac{i\hbar}{2m} \psi \Delta S$$

Apart for the non-linear term, this is exactly the Schrodinger equation of quantum mechanics $-i\hbar \dot{\psi} = \hat{H}\psi$, where \hat{H} is comes from H via $p_\alpha \rightarrow -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial q^\alpha}$ and $q^\alpha \rightarrow$ “multiplication by q^α ”.



Now consider instead the Schrodinger equation

$$\frac{\hbar}{i} \dot{\psi} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \Delta \psi + V(q) \psi$$

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Proceeding like above we find

$$-\frac{\partial S}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{2m} \left[\delta^{ij} \frac{\partial S}{\partial q^i} \frac{\partial S}{\partial q^j} \right] + V(q) - \frac{i\hbar}{2m} \Delta S$$

namely

$$-\frac{\partial S}{\partial t} = H \left(q, \frac{\partial S}{\partial q} \right) - \frac{i\hbar}{2m} \Delta S$$

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that, for $\hbar \rightarrow 0$, reduces exactly to the HJ equation!

This is the simplest way to show that QM reduces to CM for $\hbar \rightarrow 0$.



The WKB Method

Consider again the Schrodinger equation in \mathbb{R}^n

$$-i\hbar\dot{\psi} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\Delta\psi + V(q)\psi$$

Under the ansatz $\psi(x) = e^{iS(x)/\hbar}$, at 1st order in \hbar then S is the solution of the corresponding HJ equation.

This though is a very poor approximation, e.g. $\psi \notin L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$.

Under the ansatz

$$\psi(x) = a(x)e^{iS(x)/\hbar}$$

ψ is an eigenfunction for the quantum Hamiltonian \hat{H} iff

$$i\hbar \left(a\Delta S + 2\delta^{\alpha\beta}\partial_\beta a\partial_\alpha S \right) + \hbar^2\Delta a = 0$$

At the 1st order in \hbar we get the *homogeneous transport equation*

$$a\Delta S + 2\delta^{\alpha\beta}\partial_\alpha a\partial_\beta S = 0.$$



Example: QM on the line

The 2nd order solution $\psi = ae^{iS/\hbar}$ is called *semiclassical approximation* of the exact solution of the Schrodinger equation.

In \mathbb{R} , the homegenous transport equation writes

$$aS'' + 2a'S' = 0$$

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This method, called WKB (Wentzel, Kramers, Brillouin), is at the base of *microlocal analysis*.



Related Literature

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Completely Integrable Systems



Poisson bracket & First Integrals

Let (M^{2n}, ω) be a symplectic mfd. Functions in $C^\infty(M)$ are called *observables*.



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Theorem

If $\{f_1, \dots, f_n\}$ are n commuting observables in involution, all level submanifolds $f_1 = c_1, \dots, f_n = c_n$ are Lagrangian.



Arnold-Liouville Theorem

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- 1 if M_f is compact, each connected component is diffeomorphic to \mathbb{T}^n ;
- 2 in the neighborhood of each such torus, there exists action-angle symplectic coordinates $I_1, \dots, I_n, \varphi^1, \dots, \varphi^n$ such that the φ^α are coordinates on the torus and $H = H(I_1, \dots, I_n)$.



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In particular in such coordinates the Hamilton eqs writes

$$\dot{I}_\alpha = 0, \quad \dot{\varphi}^\alpha = \frac{\partial H}{\partial I_\alpha}$$



Hamilton-Jacobi and CIS

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Theorem (Jacobi, see Arn 47B)

If the Hamilton-Jacobi equation $H(q, \partial_q S) = E_0$ admits a solution $S(q, Q)$, depending on n parameters Q^1, \dots, Q^n , such that the Hessian

$$\frac{\partial^2 S}{\partial q \partial Q}$$

is always non-degenerate, then the corresponding Hamiltonian equations

$$\begin{pmatrix} \dot{q} \\ \dot{p} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \partial H / \partial p \\ -\partial H / \partial q \end{pmatrix}$$

can be solved explicitly by quadratures and the n functions $Q^\alpha(q, p)$ are all integrals of motion.



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$$\varphi = \frac{\partial S}{\partial I} = \int \frac{\omega}{\sqrt{2I\omega - \omega^2 q^2}} dq = \sin^{-1} \left(q \sqrt{\frac{\omega}{2I}} \right) - \varphi_0$$



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The coord. change $(q, p) \mapsto (\varphi, I)$ is symplectic (i.e.

$d\varphi \wedge dI = dq \wedge dp$) and the equations of motion now write

$$\dot{\varphi} = \omega, \quad \dot{I} = 0$$



Example 2: Geodesics on an Ellipsoid (Jacobi, 1835)

Problem: study geodesics on $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} + \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1$.



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Consider confocal ellipsoidal coordinates $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3$ defined by

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is an ellipsoid, elliptic hyperboloid and hyperbolic hyperboloid for respectively $i = 1, 2, 3$.



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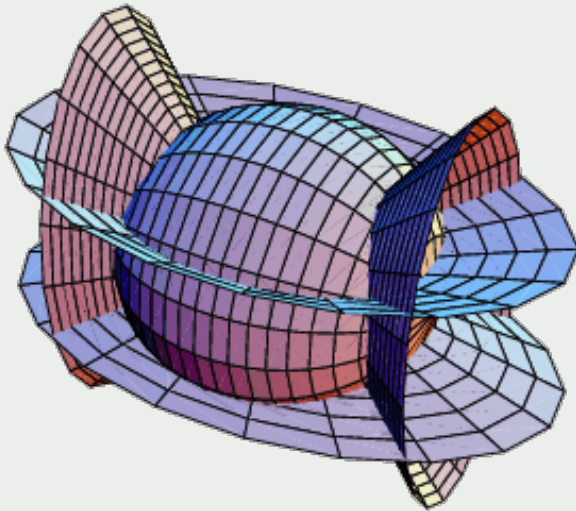
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Note that λ_i, λ_j can be used as local coordinates on E_k .





In coordinates λ_2, λ_3 on the ellipsoid E_1 the metric is

$$g = (\lambda_3 - \lambda_2) \left[\frac{\lambda_3 - \lambda_1}{f(\lambda_3)} d\lambda_3^2 - \frac{\lambda_2 - \lambda_1}{f(\lambda_2)} d\lambda_2^2 \right],$$



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$$\text{So } H(\lambda_2, \lambda_3) = \frac{1}{\lambda_3 - \lambda_2} \left[\frac{f(\lambda_3)}{\lambda_3 - \lambda_1} p_3^2 + \frac{f(\lambda_2)}{\lambda_2 - \lambda_1} p_2^2 \right]$$



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and therefore the Hamilton-Jacobi equation

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_3 - \lambda_2} \left[\frac{f(\lambda_3)}{\lambda_3 - \lambda_1} \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial \lambda_3} \right)^2 + \frac{f(\lambda_2)}{\lambda_2 - \lambda_1} \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial \lambda_2} \right)^2 \right] = 1$$

is separable.

Hence the system is completely integrable!



Remainder: classic Galois theory in 1 slide

Consider a field k and a polynomial $p \in k[x]$. The *splitting field* (SF) $L(p)$ is *the* field extension (modulo isomorphisms) of minimal degree over k in which p splits as $p(x) = \prod_{i=1}^{\deg p} (x - a_i)$.



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E.g. $\mathbb{C} = \mathbb{R}[x]/(x^2 + 1)$ is the SF of $p(x) = x^2 + 1$ over \mathbb{R} .



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and $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt[3]{2}, e^{i2\pi/3}]$ is the SF of $p(x) = x^3 - 2$ over \mathbb{Q} .



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Consider a field k and a polynomial $p \in k[x]$. The *splitting field* (SF) $L(p)$ is *the* field extension (modulo isomorphisms) of minimal degree over k in which p splits as $p(x) = \prod_{i=1}^{\deg p} (x - a_i)$.

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Theorem

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E.g. $\text{Aut}(L(x^5 - x - 1)/\mathbb{Q}) \simeq S_5$ is not soluble (Artin).



Galois theory of CIS

How to find out whether a Hamiltonian system (M^{2n}, ω, H) is or not a Completely Integrable System?



Galois theory of CIS

How to find out whether a Hamiltonian system (M^{2n}, ω, H) is or not a Completely Integrable System?

The idea is to study the equations of second variations on TM

$$\dot{X}^\alpha(t) = \left. \frac{\partial \xi_H^\alpha}{\partial x^\beta} \right|_{\gamma(t)} X^\beta(t), \quad X(t) \in T_{\gamma(t)}M$$

defined on integral trajectories γ of the Hamiltonian equations of motion,

where (x^α) are coords on M and (X^α) the variations along γ .



Example: the Hénon-Heiles system

$$H(x, y, p_x, p_y) = \frac{1}{2} (p_x^2 + p_y^2) - y^2(A + x) - \frac{\lambda}{3} x^3$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{y} \\ \dot{p}_x \\ \dot{p}_y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p_x \\ p_y \\ y^2 + \lambda x^2 \\ 2(A + x)y \end{pmatrix}$$



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Clearly there are orbits with $y(t) = p_y(t) = 0$ for all t .
Along these trajectories the linearized equation writes

$$\begin{pmatrix} \dot{X} \\ \dot{Y} \\ \dot{P}_x \\ \dot{P}_y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} P_x \\ P_y \\ 2\lambda xX \\ 2AY + 2xY \end{pmatrix}$$



Theorem (Audin, III.1.12)

If $f : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a first integral of ξ_H and k is the first order where the k -th order derivative $D^k f : S^k(TM) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is not zero on γ , then

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E.g., in case of the Henon-Heiles system, on a solution of the form $\gamma(t) = (x(t), 0, p_x(t), 0)$ the integral of motion associated to the Hamiltonian $H = \frac{1}{2}(p_x^2 + p_y^2) - y^2(A + x) - \frac{\lambda}{3}x^3$ is

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Indeed, on a solution of the linearized equation, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dH_\gamma^0}{dt} &= \dot{p}_x P_x + p_x \dot{P}_x - 2\lambda x \dot{x} X - \lambda x^2 \dot{X} = \\ &= \lambda x^2 P_x + p_x 2\lambda x X - 2\lambda x p_x X - \lambda x^2 P_x = 0 \end{aligned}$$



Differential Galois Theory

Definition

Given an algebraically close field k with a derivation D (e.g. $\mathbb{C}(t)$ with d/dt) and a linear ODE

$$\dot{X} = AX, \quad A \in M_n(k),$$

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Like in the standard Galois theory, such extension is unique modulo differential isomorphisms.

Definition

The Galois group $Gal(A) \subset GL_n(k)$ of the linear ODE $\dot{X} = AX$ is the group of differential automorphisms of $L(A)$ that fixes k .



Example 1

Consider the linear ODE

$$x' = \frac{\alpha}{t}x$$

on $\mathbb{C}(t)$, namely $A = \left(\frac{\alpha}{t}\right) \in M_1(\mathbb{C}(t))$,
whose solution is $x(t) = t^\alpha + c$.



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whose solution is $x(t) = t^\alpha + c$.

Then

- 1 $L(A) \simeq \mathbb{C}(t)$, $Gal(A) \simeq \{1\}$ if $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}$;
- 2 $L(A) \simeq \mathbb{C}(t)[u]/\langle u^q - t^p \rangle$, $Gal(A) \simeq \mathbb{Z}_q$ if $\alpha = p/q \in \mathbb{Q}$;
- 3 $L(A) \simeq \mathbb{C}(t, u)$, $Gal(A) \simeq GL_1(\mathbb{C}) \simeq \mathbb{C}^*$ if $\alpha \notin \mathbb{Q}$.



Example 2 – the Cauchy equation

Consider the Cauchy equation $x'' = \frac{\alpha}{t^2}x$ on $\mathbb{C}(t)$, namely

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \frac{\alpha}{t^2} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in M_2(\mathbb{C}(t)), \text{ and assume } \alpha \neq -\frac{1}{4}.$$



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These two solutions $u_{1,2}$ are independent and if $\sigma \in \text{Gal}(A)$ then

$$\sigma(u_i)' = \sigma(u_i') = \sigma\left(\frac{\alpha_i}{t}u_i\right) = \frac{\alpha_i}{t}\sigma(u_i)$$

namely $\sigma(u_i) = \lambda u_i$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, i.e. all matrices of $\text{Gal}(A)$ are diagonal. In particular $\text{Gal}(A)$ is abelian.



Example 3 – the Airy equation

Finally consider the Airy equation $x'' = tx$ on $\mathbb{C}(t)$, namely

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ t & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in M_2(\mathbb{C}(t)).$$



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Redefine u and v so that their Wronskian is 1. Then, if $\sigma \in \text{Gal}(A) \subset GL_2(\mathbb{C})$, a direct calculation shows that, with respect to the base (u, v) ,

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It can be proved that indeed $\text{Gal}(A) \simeq SL_2(\mathbb{C})$.



Three fundamental theorems

Theorem (Morales & Ramis, Audin III.1.13)

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Theorem (Audin III.2.3)

The Galois group of the second variations equation is a symplectic subgroup of $GL(TM)$.

Theorem (Audin III.3.10)

The Lie algebra of the Galois group of the second variation equation of a CIS is abelian.



Example: $H = \frac{1}{2} (p_x^2 + p_y^2) - y^2(A + x) - \frac{\lambda}{3}x^3$

Apply these results to the Henon-Heiles system.

For $\lambda \neq 0$ we consider the trajectory

$$x(t) = \frac{6}{\lambda t^2}, p_x(t) = \dot{x}(t), y(t) = 0, p_y(t) = 0.$$



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The second variations equations can be reduced to

$$\ddot{X}(t) = 2 \left(A + \frac{6}{\lambda t^2} \right) X(t), \lambda \neq 0; \quad \ddot{X}(t) = tX(t), \lambda = 0$$



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The ODE $\ddot{X}(t) = tX(t)$ is the Airy equation. We saw that its Galois group is $SL_2(\mathbb{C})$, so **there cannot be any further integral of motion for $\lambda = 0$.**



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When $A \neq 0$, $\ddot{X}(t) = 2 \left(A + \frac{6}{\lambda t^2} \right) X(t)$ is the Whittaker equation. It can be proved that its Galois group is non-abelian when $\frac{6}{\lambda} \neq \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$, $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. This result can be made even stronger:

Theorem (Morales, Thm 6.4)

The Henon-Heiles system is non integrable for $\lambda \neq 1, 2, 6, 16$.



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Note finally that for $A = 0, \lambda = 6$ the HH system is indeed a CIS:

$$K = 4p_y(xp_y - yp_x) + y^4 + 4x^2y^2$$



Related Literature

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- A. Maciejewski and M. Przybylska, *Differential Galois theory and integrability*, *Int. J. of Geometric Methods in Modern Physics*, 6:8, 2009, arXiv:0912.1046



Hamiltonian Systems close to Integrable



Recall that, if (M^{2n}, ω, H) is a CIS and in a neighborhood $T^n \times D^n \subset T^n \times \mathbb{R}^n$ of a Lagrangian torus invariant by the flow, there exists action-angle coordinates (q, p) , so that $H = H(p)$ and the equations of motion write

$$\dot{q}^\alpha = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_\alpha}, \quad \dot{p}_\alpha = 0.$$



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If $\frac{\partial^2 H}{\partial p_\alpha \partial p_\beta}$ is non-singular at every point, then the n frequencies $\mathbf{v}(p) = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_\alpha}(p) : D^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ label the Lagrangian tori in $T^n \times D^n$.



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If $\frac{\partial^2 H}{\partial p_\alpha \partial p_\beta}$ is non-singular at every point, then the n frequencies $\nu(p) = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_\alpha}(p) : D^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ label the Lagrangian tori in $T^n \times D^n$.

Definition

The frequencies (ν^1, \dots, ν^n) are non-resonant if there exists $c > 0$ such that

$$|k_\alpha \nu^\alpha| \geq \frac{c}{\|k\|^n}, \quad \text{for all } k \in \mathbb{Z}^n \setminus 0.$$



The sets $\Phi_c \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, $c > 0$, of non-resonant frequencies are Cantor sets (closed, perfect and nowhere dense) such that $\mu(\Omega \setminus \Phi_c) = O(c)$ for every bounded $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$.



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Theorem (Kolmogorov, Arnold, Moser)

Suppose that (M^{2n}, ω, H) is a CIS, T^n a Lagrangian torus invariant by the flow and a neighborhood where we have Then, if the map $\nu = \left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial p_\alpha}\right) : D^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is an immersion and the Hamiltonian $H_\varepsilon(q, p) = H(p) + \varepsilon F(q, p)$ is analytic on $T^n \times D^n$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that for

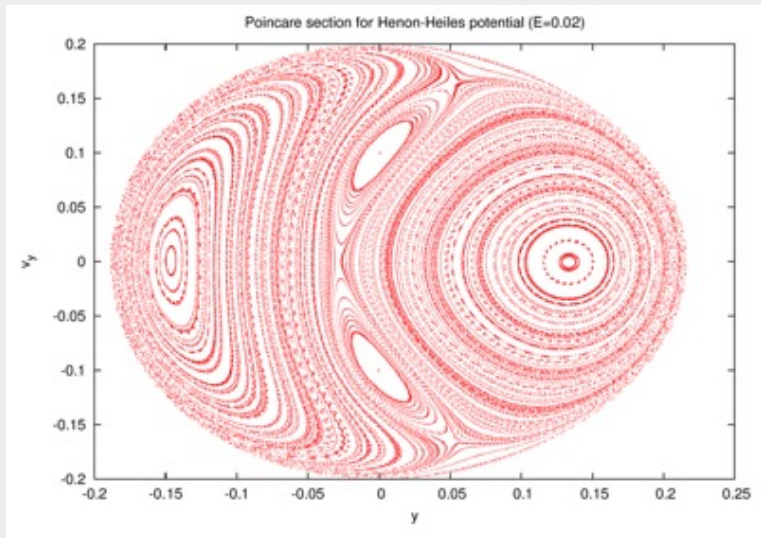
$$|\varepsilon| < \delta c^2$$

all tori of the unperturbed systems whose frequency ν belongs to Φ_c persists as Lagrangian tori in the perturbed system, being only slightly deformed. Moreover they depend in a Lipschitz way on ν and fill the phase space $T^n \times D^n$ with measure $O(c)$.



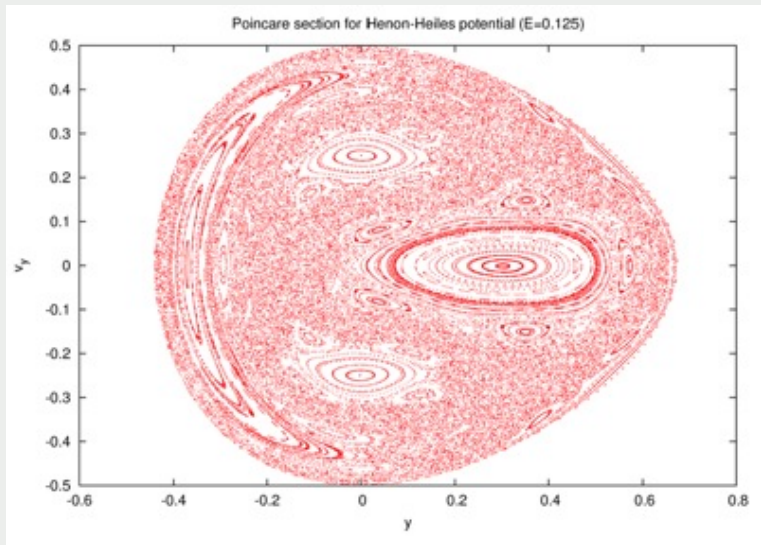
Example: Hénon-Heiles Hamiltonian

Close to integrable...



Example: Hénon-Heiles Hamiltonian

Not so close anymore...



Quantum Hamiltonian Chaos

It was conjectured by Berry and Tabor that the integrability of a Hamiltonian H can be read, in its quantum counterpart \hat{H} , from its eigenvalues distribution:

Conjecture (Berry & Tabor)

Let H be a Hamiltonian on \mathbb{R}^n and let $P(s)$ the distribution function of the nearest-neighbour spacings $\lambda_{n+1} - \lambda_n$ of the eigenvalues of \hat{H} . Then:

- 1 if the classical dynamics is integrable, then $P(s)$ coincides with the distribution of uncorrelated levels with the same mean spacing (Poisson distr.), i.e.

$$P(s) \propto e^{-cs}$$

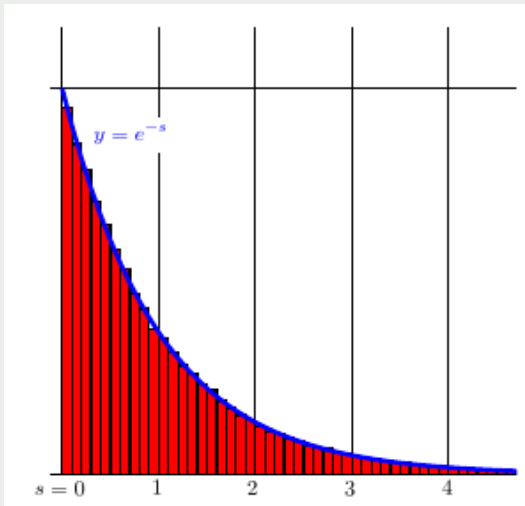
- 2 if the classic dynamics is chaotic, then $P(s)$ coincides with the distribution of a suitable ensemble of random matrices.

Quite interestingly, this conjecture relates Quantum *chaology* with Number Theory, and in particular with the Riemann Zeta



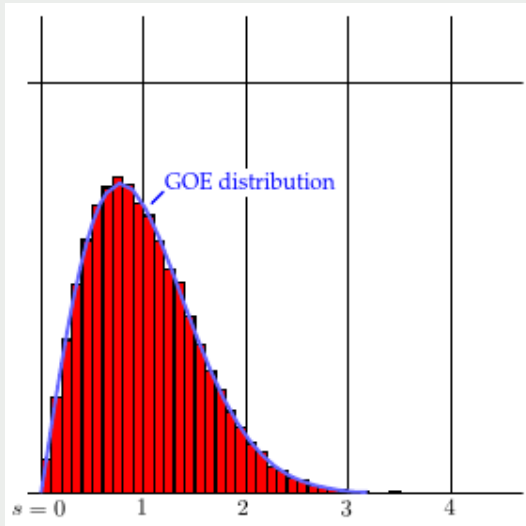
Quantum Hamiltonian Chaos

Poisson distribution:



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Related Literature

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Poissonian Systems



Main Definitions and examples

Definition

A Poisson manifold is a pair $(M^n, \{, \})$, where M is a manifold and the bilinear map $\{, \} : C^\infty(M) \times C^\infty(M) \rightarrow C^\infty(M)$ (Poisson bracket) satisfies the following properties:

- ① $\{f, g\} = -\{g, f\}$;
- ② $\{f, \{g, h\}\} + \{h, \{f, g\}\} + \{g, \{h, f\}\} = 0$;
- ③ $\{f, gh\} = \{f, g\}h + g\{f, h\}$.

Example 1: every symplectic manifold (M^{2n}, ω) is an even-dimensional Poisson manifold with

$$\{f, g\} = \omega(\xi_f, \xi_g)$$

Example 2: on a 3-dimensional Riemannian manifold (M, s) , every $h \in C^\infty(M)$ gives rise to the Poisson bracket

$$\{f, g\}_h = \star_s(df \wedge dg \wedge dh)$$



Main Definitions and examples

Like on a symplectic manifold, via the Poisson bracket we can associate a vector field ξ_H to each function $H \in C^\infty(M)$ as

$$\xi_H(f) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{H, f\}$$

On a symplectic manifold (M, ω) , in a symplectic chart (q^α, p_α) ,

$$\{q^\alpha, q^\beta\} = 0, \quad \{q^\alpha, p_\beta\} = \delta_\beta^\alpha, \quad \{p_\alpha, p_\beta\} = 0$$

so that

$$\xi_H(f) = \omega(\xi_H, \xi_f) = \partial_\alpha H \partial^\alpha f - \partial_\alpha f \partial^\alpha H$$

Clearly ξ_H is the same vector field from the symplectic structure. In case of 3-dim Riemannian manifolds (M, s) and $h \in C^\infty(M)$,

$$\{x^i, x^j\}_h = \sqrt{\det s} \varepsilon^{ijk} \partial_k h$$

so that

$$\xi_H = \sqrt{\det s} \varepsilon^{ijk} \partial_j H \partial_k h \partial_i$$



Poisson dynamics

Definition

A *Poissonian system* on the Poissonian manifold $(M, \{, \})$ is given by a smooth function $H \in C^\infty(M)$.

The variation of an observable $f \in C^\infty(M)$ over the flow ϕ_H^t of H is given by

$$\frac{d}{dt} f \circ \phi_H^t = L_{\xi_H} f = \omega(\xi_H, \xi_f) = \{H, f\}$$

This relation is written simply as

$$\dot{f} = \{H, f\}$$

E.g. if the system is symplectic then

$$\dot{q}^\alpha = \{H, q^\alpha\} = \partial^\alpha H, \quad \dot{p}_\alpha = \{H, p_\alpha\} = -\partial_\alpha H$$



Integrals of motion

Theorem

f is constant over the integral trajectories of H iff $\{H, f\} = 0$.

In odd dimension $\{, \}$ is degenerate, i.e. there exists observables that commute with all other observables. Such observables are called *Casimirs*.



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This means that the image of the integral trajectories of H under $\{, \}_h$ are the intersections between the level sets of H and of h .



Example: a Multivalued Poisson DS

Consider $(\mathbb{T}^3, \{, \}_B)$, where $B = B^i(p) dp_i$ is a closed 1-form and

$$\{p_i, p_j\}_B = \varepsilon_{ijk} B^k$$

A direct calculation shows that $\{, \}_B$ is a Poisson structure on \mathbb{T}^3 .



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The image of the integral trajectories of H are given by the intersections between the level surfaces of H and the leaves of the foliation $B = 0$.



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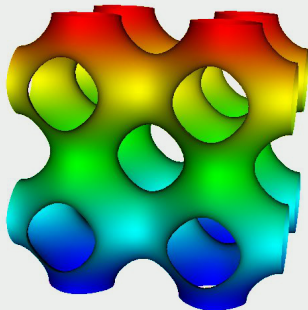
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Their topology instead, i.e. their asymptotics, turns out to be exceptionally rich.



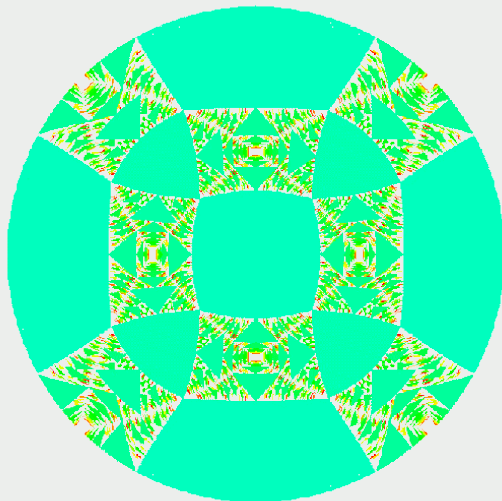
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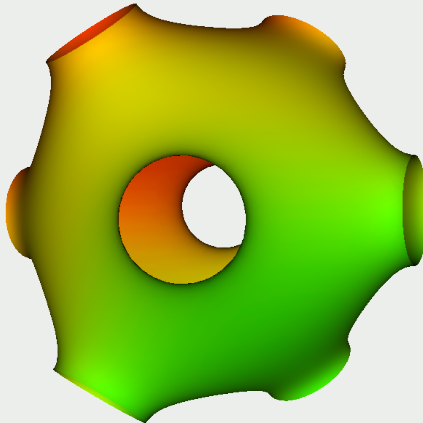
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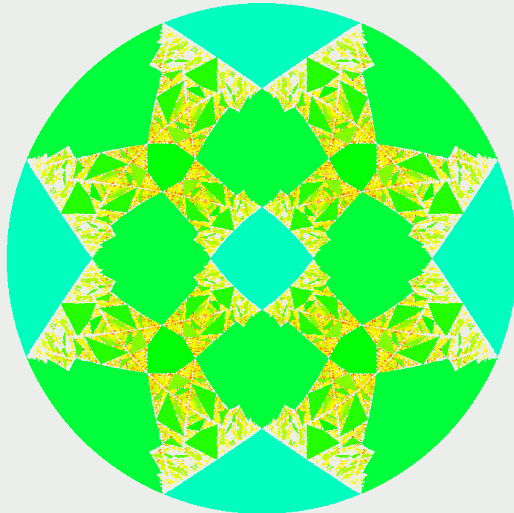
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Indeed in QM on \mathbb{R}^n the position and momentum observables $q^\alpha, p_\alpha \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)$ are replaced resp. by the operators \hat{q}^α (multiplication by q^α) and $\hat{p}_\alpha = \frac{i}{\hbar} \partial_{q^\alpha}$ acting on $L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$.



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As operators, their commuting relations are

$$[\hat{q}^\alpha, \hat{q}^\beta] = 0, \quad [\hat{q}^\alpha, \hat{p}_\beta] = i\hbar \delta_\beta^\alpha, \quad [\hat{p}_\alpha, \hat{p}_\beta] = 0.$$

Recall that, in the symplectic setting,

$$\{q^\alpha, q^\beta\} = 0, \quad \{q^\alpha, p_\beta\} = \delta_\beta^\alpha, \quad \{p_\alpha, p_\beta\} = 0.$$



Poisson brackets and QM

In other words, “[\hat{f}, \hat{g}] = $i\hbar\{f, g\}$ ”. This analogy is the base of two attempts to fully understanding the relation between CM and QM:

- *geometric quantization* (Souriau, Weinstein, Guillemin, Sternberg...), which uses symplectic geometry to find some natural way to foliate T^*M in Lagrangian leaves (to mimic the separation of q 's and p 's in QM (polarization);
- *deformation quantization* (Kontsevich, Connes...), which deforms the product in $C^\infty(M)$ in order to get a non-commutative algebra A_\hbar that, in the limit $\hbar \rightarrow 0$, reduces to the multiplication in $C^\infty(M)$.

Neither of these attempts, which we have no space to illustrate here, succeeded to date.



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Hamiltonian Systems with Symmetries



Cyclic Coordinates

The form of the Lagrange equations

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}^\alpha} \right) = \frac{\partial L}{\partial q^\alpha}$$

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In a classical mechanical system in \mathbb{R}^n ,

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This is the starting point for all results that follow.



First generalization: Noether's Theorem

Definition

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Φ induces an action $\hat{\Phi}$ on TM as $\hat{\Phi}(\lambda, q, v) = (q_\lambda, v \cdot \partial_q \Phi(\lambda, q))$

Theorem (Noether, Arnold 20A)

If $L(q, v)$ is invariant by Φ , i.e. if $\hat{\Phi}^* L = L$,

then $p_\Phi(q, \dot{q}) = \xi_\Phi^\alpha(q) \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}^\alpha}(q, \dot{q})$ is a first integral.



Proof: since L is invariant

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Example: Rotations

Consider the case of $M = \mathbb{R}^3$ and $L(q, v) = \frac{1}{2}\|v\|^2 - V(q)$, with V invariant by rotations, i.e. depending only on the distance of q from the origin
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The action is

$$\Phi_z(\lambda, x, y, z) = (x \cos \lambda + y \sin \lambda, -x \sin \lambda + y \cos \lambda)$$

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The corresponding first integral

(z component of the angular momentum)

$$\text{is } p_{\Phi_z}(x, y, z, \dot{x}, \dot{y}, \dot{z}) = -y\dot{x} + x\dot{y}.$$



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Every such ξ_a satisfies $\xi_a \{F, G\} = \{\xi_a F, G\} + \{F, \xi_a G\}$

If $P = T^*M$ then $L_{\xi_a} \omega = 0$, i.e. ξ_a is locally Hamiltonian.



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Every such ξ_a satisfies $\xi_a \{F, G\} = \{\xi_a F, G\} + \{F, \xi_a G\}$

If $P = T^*M$ then $L_{\xi_a} \omega = 0$, i.e. ξ_a is locally Hamiltonian.

In both cases, locally ξ_a is the Ham. v.f. of some function H_a .



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Example: an action on T^*M induced from an action on M is always Poissonian (see Arnold, Appendix 5).

Definition

If Φ is Poissonian, we call *Momentum Map* the map $J : P \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}^*$ defined by $J_x(a) = H_a(x)$.



Example: Rotations

Consider the action Φ of SO_3 on $T^*\mathbb{R}^3$ induced by the rotations on the base space.

We choose a frame (x, y, z) and identify so_3 with \mathbb{R}^3 .



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This action is Poissonian. The first integrals corresponding to these vector fields are the three components of the angular momentum:

$$L_x = yp_x - xp_y, \quad L_y = zp_y - yp_z, \quad L_z = xp_z - zp_x.$$



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The momentum map is exactly the “angular momentum vector”:

$$J(x, y, z, p_x, p_y, p_z) = (L_x, L_y, L_z) \in so(3)^*$$

and $\{L_{x^i}, L_{x^j}\} = \varepsilon_{ijk} L_{x^k} = L_{[x^i, x^j]}_{so(3)^*}$.



Theorem (Covariance of the Momentum Map)

Under J_Φ , the action Φ is taken into the coadjoint action of G on \mathfrak{g}^ , namely $J_\Phi(\Phi(g, x)) = Ad_{g^{-1}}^*(J_\Phi(x))$.*

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Proof.

Let g_λ a 1-parameter subgroup of G with Hamiltonian H_b . Then $\frac{d}{d\lambda} H_a(\Phi(g, x)) = \{H_a, H_b\}(x) = H_{[a,b]}(x) = H_{Ad_{g^{-1}}^* a}(x)$. \square



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Symplectic Reduction

Consider a Hamiltonian on a symplectic manifold (P, ω) invariant by some Poissonian action Φ of G on P and set

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Assume Φ satisfies the following properties:

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Theorem (Marsden & Weinstein, Arnold App. 5)

The quotient $M_\mu = P_\mu / G$ is a smooth manifold and inherits from (P, ω) a symplectic structure ω_μ .



Example: Harmonic Oscillator

Consider the action of \mathbb{S}^1 on $P = \mathbb{R}^{2n}$ induced by the flow of the Harmonic Oscillator Hamiltonian $H(q, p) = \frac{1}{2} (\|p\|^2 + \|q\|^2)$.



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All quotient spaces M_μ , $\mu \neq 0$, are symplectomorphic to $\mathbb{C}P^{n-1}$ with a symplectic structure proportional to the Fubini-Study 2-form

$$\omega = \frac{i}{2\pi} \partial \bar{\partial} \ln |z|^2$$



Convexity of the Momentum Map

Theorem (Atiyah, Guillemin, Sternberg (1981))

Consider a Poisson action $\Phi : \mathbb{T}^k \times P^{2n} \rightarrow P^{2n}$ on a compact connected symplectic manifold P .

Then $J_\Phi(P) \subset \mathfrak{g}^$ is a convex polytope.*

Example. Consider $P^{2n} = \mathbb{C}P^n$ and $G = \mathbb{T}^{n+1}$ acting on it as $x = (z_1 : \cdots : z_{n+1}) \rightarrow (e^{i\theta_1} z_1 : \cdots : e^{i\theta_{n+1}} z_{n+1})$.



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Its image is the simplex

$$\{(s_1, \dots, s_{n+1}) \mid s_1 + \cdots + s_{n+1} = 1, s_1, \dots, s_{n+1} \geq 0\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1},$$

whose vertices are the images of the fixed points $x_j = (0 : \cdots : z_j : \cdots : 0)$ of the action.



Convexity of multivalued Momentum Maps

Theorem (A. Giacobbe (2000))

Consider a Poisson action $\Phi : \mathbb{T}^k \times P^{2n} \rightarrow P^{2n}$ on a closed connected symplectic manifold P with a multivalued momentum map J_Φ . Then $J_\Phi(P) \subset \mathfrak{g}^$ is a cylinder over a convex polytope.*



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Example. Consider $P^4 = \mathbb{T}^2 \times \mathbb{C}P^1$ with coordinates $((\phi, \psi), (z : w))$ and symplectic structure

$$\omega = d\phi \wedge d\psi + \frac{i}{2\pi} d\bar{d} \ln \left| \frac{z}{w} \right|^2$$



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and consider the action of $G = \mathbb{T}^3$ on it defined by

$$((\phi, \psi), (z : w)) \rightarrow ((\phi + \theta_1, \psi), (e^{i\theta_2} z : e^{i\theta_3} w))$$

The corresponding momentum map is multivalued:

$$J((\phi, \psi), (z : w)) = \left(\psi, \frac{|z|^2}{|z|^2 + |w|^2}, \frac{|w|^2}{|z|^2 + |w|^2} \right)$$



Its image is $J(\mathbb{T}^2 \times \mathbb{C}P^1) = \mathbb{R} \times S \subset \mathbb{R}^3$,

where $S = \{(s, t) \mid s + t = 1, s, t \geq 0\}$



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