## Classical mechanics

A physical theory is a mathematical model for how (parts of) the physical world work. Physics is about

1. inventing or discovering good theories/models,
2. collecting empirical data (experiments),
3. comparing the empirical facts about our world with our theory/model.

## Classical mechanics

Classical mechanics is built on the following observations about the world:

1. Space and time. The physical space is three dimensional and time is one dimensional, and there is not preferred position nor time in the universe.
2. Newton's principle of determinacy. The positions and velocities of a mechanical system at certain time uniquely determine all it's motion (and hence future and past positions and velocities).
3. Galileo's principle of relativity. There exists so-called inertial coordinate systems such that
(i) The laws of nature are the same at any time in all inertial coordinate systems.
(ii) All coordinate systems in uniform rectilinear motion with respect to an inertial one are themselves inertial.

In mathematical terms these observations suggest that 1) the physical universe will be modeled in $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^{3}$, where there is not preferred origin, 2) a second order (in time) differential equation will describe the whole evolution and 3) such equations will be invariant under certain symmetries of the space.

## Newtonian mechanics

Newton established a mathematical model for the motion of $N$ particles (apples, planets, atoms, bullets, ...) in physical space and time. The Newtonian representation of the physical space is $E^{3}$ (three-dimensional euclidean space), $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ after the choice of an origin and an orthonormal basis. The time in Newtonian mechanics is described by $E^{1}$ (euclidean line), $\mathbb{R}$ after the choice of an origin.

Definition 7.1 (Configuration space of $N$ point particles).

$$
q \in \mathbb{R}^{3 N}=\underbrace{\mathbb{R}^{3} \times \ldots \times \mathbb{R}^{3}}_{N \text {-copies }}=\text { configuration space } .
$$

$q=\left(q_{1}, q_{2}, \ldots, q_{N}\right), q_{j} \in \mathbb{R}^{3}$ position of the $j^{\text {th }}$ particle.
In this model, the "world" is completely specified by the position of all particles at all times, i.e. by a curve

$$
\gamma: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3 N}, \quad t \mapsto \gamma(t)
$$

in configuration space
The physical "law" is a system of second-order ODEs for $\gamma$, Newton's law:

$$
\ddot{\gamma}=M^{-1} \cdot F(t, \gamma, \dot{\gamma})
$$

with $M$ being the mass matrix, $F(t, \gamma, \dot{\gamma})$ the force field and $\ddot{\gamma}$ the acceleration. Only the solutions to this ODE are possible worlds, according to Newtonian mechanics. Assuming sufficient regularity of $F$, a unique solution is determined by specifying the positions $\gamma\left(t_{0}\right)$ and the velocities $\dot{\gamma}\left(t_{0}\right)$ at some time $t_{0} \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow$ predictions of the theory.
The explicit specification of $M$ and $F$ is also part of the law.
Example 7.2 (Gravitating bodies).

$$
M=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
m_{1} & & 0 \\
& \ddots & \\
0 & & m_{N}
\end{array}\right)
$$

with $m_{i}$ being the mass of the $i^{\text {th }}$ body and

$$
F_{j}(t, q, v)=F_{j}(q)=G \sum_{i \neq j} \frac{m_{i} m_{j}\left(q_{i}-q_{j}\right)}{\left\|q_{i}-q_{j}\right\|^{3}} .
$$

For $N=2$ for example, the Newton's law is

$$
\binom{\ddot{\gamma}_{1}(t)}{\ddot{\gamma}_{2}(t)}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
m_{1} & 0 \\
0 & m_{2}
\end{array}\right)^{-1}\binom{F_{1}(t, \gamma(t))}{F_{2}(t, \gamma(t))},
$$

and reading out the components $\gamma_{j}(t)=\left(x_{j}(t), y_{j}(t), z_{j}(t)\right), j=1,2$, we are left with the system

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\ddot{x}_{1}(t)=G m_{2} \frac{x_{2}(t)-x_{1}(t)}{\left\|\gamma_{1}(t)-\gamma_{2}(t)\right\|^{3}} & \ddot{x}_{2}(t)=G m_{1} \frac{x_{1}(t)-x_{2}(t)}{\left\|\gamma_{1}(t)-\gamma_{2}(t)\right\|^{3}} \\
\ddot{y}_{1}(t)=G m_{2} \frac{y_{2}(t)-y_{1}(t)}{\left\|\gamma_{1}(t)-\gamma_{2}(t)\right\|^{3}} & \ddot{y}_{2}(t)=G m_{1} \frac{y_{1}(t)-y_{2}(t)}{\left\|\gamma_{1}(t)-\gamma_{2}(t)\right\|^{3}} \\
\ddot{z}_{1}(t)=G m_{2} \frac{z_{2}(t)-z_{1}(t)}{\left\|\gamma_{1}(t)-\gamma_{2}(t)\right\|^{3}} & \ddot{z}_{2}(t)=G m_{1} \frac{z_{1}(t)-z_{2}(t)}{\left\|\gamma_{1}(t)-\gamma_{2}(t)\right\|^{3}}
\end{array}
$$

of six second order ODEs. One finds Kepler's ellipses as special solutions, meaning Kepler's laws follow from Newtonian gravitation.

The gravitational force is an example of a conservative force field, i.e. a force $F: \mathbb{R}^{3 N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3 N}$ that is the negative gradient of a scalar function $V: \mathbb{R}^{3 N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, the so-called potential

$$
F=-\nabla V .
$$

For conservative forces, Newtonian mechanics display "conservation of energy". This means the function

$$
\begin{gathered}
E: \mathbb{R}^{3 N} \times \mathbb{R}^{3 N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\
E(q, v)=\sum_{j=1}^{N} \frac{m_{j}}{2}\left\|v_{j}\right\|^{2}+V(q)
\end{gathered}
$$

is constant along solutions of $\ddot{\gamma}=-M^{-1} \nabla V(\gamma)$, i.e.

$$
E(\gamma(t), \dot{\gamma}(t))=E\left(\gamma\left(t_{0}\right), \dot{\gamma}\left(t_{0}\right)\right) \quad \forall t \in \mathbb{R}
$$

In other words, the solutions of the Newtonian evolution stay on level sets of the function $E$ !

If $V$ is translation invariant, i.e.

$$
V\left(q_{1}+a, q_{2}+a, \ldots, q_{N}+a\right)=V\left(q_{1}, \ldots, q_{N}\right) \quad \forall a \in \mathbb{R}^{3}
$$

then also the total momentum:

$$
P(q, v)=P(v)=\sum_{j=1}^{N} m_{j} v_{j} \in \mathbb{R}^{3}
$$

is conserved. If $V$ is invariant under rotations of $\mathbb{R}^{3}$, i.e.

$$
V\left(R q_{1}, \ldots, R q_{N}\right)=V\left(q_{1}, \ldots, q_{N}\right)
$$

then angular momentum

$$
L(q, v)=\sum_{j=1}^{N} m_{j} q_{j} \times v_{j}
$$

is conserved. This observation of symmetries leading to the conservation of functions in $q$ and $p$ is more than by accident but follows the so-called conservation laws. As is the case for any 2nd-order ODE, one can write Newton's equation as a first-order ODE on $\mathbb{R}^{6 N}$ leading to the concept of Hamiltonian mechanics.

## Lagrangian mechanics

Another very popular and useful formalism is the Lagrangian formulation of classical mechanics as a variational problem: A Lagrangian function is a function

$$
\mathcal{L}: \mathbb{R}^{3 N} \times \mathbb{R}^{3 N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad(q, v) \mapsto \mathcal{L}(q, v)
$$

(e.g. $\left.\mathcal{L}(q, v)=\sum_{j=1}^{N} \frac{m_{j}}{2}\left\|v_{j}\right\|^{2}-V(q)\right)$. Let

$$
\Gamma=\left\{\gamma: C^{2}\left([0, T], \mathbb{R}^{3 N}\right)\right\}
$$

the space of $C^{2}$-paths in configuration-space on time interval $[0, T]$. The action of such a path is

$$
\begin{gathered}
S(\gamma)=\int_{0}^{T} \mathcal{L}(\gamma(t), \dot{\gamma}(t)) d t \\
S: \Gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}
\end{gathered}
$$

Then the principle of least action asserts that the physically possible paths are those for which $S$ (when adding appropriate constraints) is critical, i.e.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left.D(S-\lambda \cdot H)\right|_{\gamma}=0 \quad \text { Euler-Lagrange equation } \tag{7.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

As

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left.D S\right|_{\gamma} h & =\left.D_{v} \mathcal{L}\right|_{(\gamma(T), \dot{\gamma}(T))} \cdot h(T)-\left.D_{v} \mathcal{L}\right|_{(\gamma(0), \dot{\gamma}(0))} \cdot h(0) \\
& +\int_{0}^{T}\left\{\left.D_{q} \mathcal{L}\right|_{(\gamma(t), \dot{\gamma}(t))}-\left(\frac{d}{d t} D_{v} \mathcal{L}_{(\gamma(t), \dot{\gamma}(t))}\right)\right\} h(t) d t
\end{aligned}
$$

a part of Eq. (7.1) is often (when $h$ is only contained at single points)

$$
\left.D_{q} \mathcal{L}\right|_{(\gamma(t), \dot{\gamma}(t))}-\left.\frac{d}{d t} D_{v} \mathcal{L}\right|_{(\gamma(t), \dot{\gamma}(t)}=0 \quad \forall t
$$

For $\mathcal{L}=\sum \frac{m_{j}}{2}\left\|v_{j}\right\|^{2}-V(q)$ these are exactly Newton's equations.

## Hamiltonian mechanics

Another approach is the one of Hamiltonian mechanics. The phase space of $N$ particles in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ is

$$
P=\mathbb{R}^{6 N}, x \in P
$$

where

$$
x=(\underbrace{q_{1}, \ldots, q_{N}}_{\text {positions }}, \underbrace{p_{1}, \ldots, p_{N}}_{\text {momenta }})
$$

(in general, $P$ is a symplectic space or manifold). The canonical symplectic form on $P=\mathbb{R}^{6 N}$ is

$$
J: \mathbb{R}^{6 N} \times \mathbb{R}^{6 N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right) \mapsto\left\langle x_{1} \mid I x_{2}\right\rangle
$$

with

$$
I=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & i d_{\mathbb{R}^{3 N}} \\
-i d_{\mathbb{R}^{3 N}} & 0
\end{array}\right), \quad I^{T}=-I
$$

The law of motion is the first-order ODE on $P$ where the vector field is the symplectic gradient of a function. $H: P \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, the Hamiltonian:

$$
\dot{\alpha}=I \nabla H(\alpha), \quad \alpha: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow P=\mathbb{R}^{6 N}
$$

With $\alpha(t)=(Q(t), P(t))$ this reads

$$
\begin{aligned}
\binom{\dot{Q}(t)}{\dot{P}(t)} & =\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & i d \\
-i d & 0
\end{array}\right) \cdot\binom{\nabla_{q} H(Q(t), P(t))}{\nabla_{p} H(Q(t), P(t))} \\
& =\binom{\nabla_{p} H(Q(t), P(t))}{-\nabla_{q} H(Q(t), P(t))}
\end{aligned}
$$

For $H(q, p)=\sum_{j=1}^{N} \frac{1}{2 m_{j}}\left\|p_{j}\right\|^{2}+V(q)$ one finds again Newton's equation.
Let $\Phi: \mathbb{R} \times P \rightarrow P, \quad(t, x) \mapsto \alpha_{x}(t)$ be the flow of a Hamiltonian system. Then one has

1. conservation of energy: $H \circ \Phi_{t}=H \quad \forall t \in \mathbb{R}$
2. conservation of phase space volume (Liouville's theorem):

$$
\left.\Phi_{t}^{*} \lambda=\lambda \quad \text { (i.e. } \lambda\left(\Phi_{t}(A)\right)=\lambda(A) \quad \forall A \in \mathcal{B}(P)\right)
$$

with $\lambda$ the Lebesgue measure, respectively Liouville measure.

