

The Calculus of Variations

As we saw when we discussed path integrals, the amplitude

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \phi | \psi, T \rangle &= \langle \phi | e^{-i\mathcal{H}T/\hbar} | \psi \rangle = \langle \phi | e^{-iT(\frac{p^2}{2m} + V(x))/\hbar} | \psi \rangle \\ &= \int D_x(t) e^{iS[x]/\hbar} \langle \phi | x(T) \rangle \langle x(0) | \psi \rangle \end{aligned}$$

where $S[x]$ is the classical action

$$S[x(t)] = \int_0^T dt L(x, \dot{x}) = \int_0^T dt \left[\frac{m}{2} \dot{x}^2(t) - V(x(t)) \right].$$

Two paths that differ by $\delta x(t)$ may wash each other out unless the action S is stationary,

$$0 = \delta S, \text{ which means that } \delta S \propto \delta x^2.$$

This is the principle of least action.

In fact, much of classical physics follows from a choice of S and the rule $0 = \delta S$.

Example: (Note $\delta \dot{x} = \dot{x} + \delta \dot{x} - \dot{x} = d\delta x/dt$.)

$$\begin{aligned} \delta S &= \int_0^T dt \left(m \dot{x} \delta \dot{x} - V' \delta x \right) + \mathcal{O}(\delta x^2) \\ &= \int_0^T dt -\delta x (m \ddot{x} + V') + \left[m \dot{x} \delta x \right]_0^T, \end{aligned}$$

since we dropped δx^2 .

If the two paths $x(t)$ and $x(t) + \delta x(t)$ both go from $x(0)$ to $x(T)$, then

$$\delta x(0) = \delta x(T) = 0$$

and the boundary terms vanish. Then

$$\delta S = - \int_0^T dt (m\ddot{x} + V') \delta x$$

So if $\delta S \propto \delta x^2$, and not $\delta \propto \delta x$, then

$$0 = \delta S = - \int_0^T dt (m\ddot{x} + V') \delta x$$

and since δx is arbitrary (but small), we get

$$m\ddot{x} + V' = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad m\ddot{x} = -V' \quad \text{or}$$

$$m\ddot{x} = F = ma = \frac{\partial V(x)}{\partial x}.$$

In books on classical mechanics, one often uses generalized coordinates $q_i(t)$ so that

$$S = \int_0^T dt L(q, \dot{q}, t),$$

in which q and \dot{q} stand for q_1, \dots, q_n , etc.

Now the action S will be stationary if

$$0 = \delta S = \int_0^T dt \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial q_i} \delta q_i + \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} \delta \dot{q}_i \right).$$

Now

$$\delta \dot{q}_i = \dot{q}_i + \delta \dot{q}_i - \dot{q}_i = \frac{d}{dt} \delta q_i, \text{ so}$$

again integrating by parts, we have

$$\delta S = \int_0^T dt \delta q_i \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial q_i} - \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} \right) + \left[\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} \delta q_i \right]_0^T.$$

If all the paths go from $q_i(0)$ to $q_i(T)$, then

$$\delta q_i(0) = \delta q_i(T) = 0 \text{ and we have}$$

$$0 = \delta S \text{ if } \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_i} - \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} = 0.$$

The canonical momentum p_i is

$$p_i = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} \text{ and so}$$

Lagrange's equations imply $\dot{p}_i = \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_i}$.

Usually the Lagrangian $L(q, \dot{q})$ does not involve t explicitly. In this case, one may define a Hamiltonian H that is conserved:

$$H = \sum_{i=1}^N p_i \dot{q}_i - L$$

To see that H vanishes, just take its time derivative

$$\dot{H} = \sum_{i=1}^N \left(\dot{p}_i \dot{q}_i + p_i \ddot{q}_i - \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_i} \dot{q}_i - \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} \ddot{q}_i \right)$$

But $p_i = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i}$ and $\dot{p}_i = \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_i}$, so $\dot{H} = 0$.

Now suppose $\mathcal{L}(\phi, \phi_{ij})$ is a Lagrange density that depends on the fields $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_N$ and their derivatives

$$\phi_{ij} = \frac{\partial \phi_i}{\partial x_j}$$

Assume that $\delta \phi_i = 0$ when any argument $x_k \rightarrow \pm \infty$, so we can drop all surface terms. Then

$$L = \int d^3x \mathcal{L} \quad \text{and} \quad S = \int dt L = \int d^4x \mathcal{L}$$

The requirement that δS be quadratic or higher in $\delta \phi$ gives

$$0 = \delta S = \int d^4x \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi_i} \delta \phi_i + \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi_{ij}} \delta \phi_{ij}$$

$$\text{Now } \delta \phi_{ij} = (\phi_i + \delta \phi_i)_{,j} - \phi_{i,j} = (\delta \phi_i)_{,j}$$

$$\text{where } G_{,j} = \frac{\partial G}{\partial x_j}, \text{ as before. } \quad \delta_0$$

$$0 = \delta S = \int d^4x \delta \phi_i \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi_i} - \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi_{i,j}} \right)_{,j} \right) + \text{S.T.} \\ \parallel \\ 0$$

whence the field equations

$$0 = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi_i} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi_{i,j}} \right)$$

In this way, one does field theory.

Lagrange Multiplier

Suppose one wants to find x and y that maximize $f(x, y)$ subject to the constraint $g(x, y) = c$, a constant. Set

$$H(x, y, \lambda) = f(x, y) + \lambda (g(x, y) - c)$$

and find the x, y , & λ that maximize H .
Then

$$\left. \begin{aligned} 0 = \frac{\partial H}{\partial x} = H_x = f_x + \lambda g_x = 0 \\ 0 = H_y = f_y + \lambda g_y = 0 \\ 0 = H_\lambda = g - c = 0. \end{aligned} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{Solve these} \\ \text{three eqs,} \\ \text{for } x, y, \\ \text{and } \lambda. \end{array}$$

Why does this work? Well, one could solve for the curve $y(x)$ that keeps

$$g(x, y(x)) = c.$$

Then one can maximize $f(x, y(x))$ by setting its derivative equal to zero:

$$0 = f_x + y' f_y. \quad \text{To find } y', \text{ one sets}$$

$$0 = g_x + y' g_y, \text{ which gives } y' = -\frac{g_x}{g_y}.$$

Lagrange's method here with $\lambda = \lambda$

So

$$0 = f_x + y' f_y = f_x - \frac{1}{g_y} g_x f_y \quad \text{or}$$

$$0 = f_x - \frac{f_y}{g_y} g_x \quad \text{or} \quad \lambda = -\frac{f_y}{g_y}$$

and

$$0 = f_y + \frac{1}{y'} f_x$$

$$0 = f_y - \frac{g_y}{g_x} f_x = f_y - \frac{f_x}{g_x} g_y \quad \text{or} \quad \lambda = -\frac{f_x}{g_x}$$

So

$$0 = f_x - \frac{f_y}{g_y} g_x$$

$$0 = f_y - \frac{f_x}{g_x} g_y$$

and the two equations for λ are the same because

$$0 = f_x - \frac{g_x}{g_y} f_y \quad \text{which means} \quad \frac{f_x}{g_x} = \frac{f_y}{g_y} = -\lambda.$$

Suppose $\rho = \sum p_n |n\rangle\langle n|$ is a

density operator. Then $\langle F \rangle = \text{tr}(\rho F)$

and $1 = \langle 1 \rangle = \sum p_i$. And $\langle H \rangle = \sum p_i H_i$.

Now $S = -k \sum (p_i \log p_i)$. So let's maximize S

subject to the conditions $1 = \sum p_i$ and $E = \langle H \rangle$.

So we maximize

$$\begin{aligned} Z(p, \lambda, \mu) &= S + \lambda (E - \langle H \rangle) + \mu (1 - \langle 1 \rangle) \\ &= -k \sum (p_i \log p_i) + \lambda (E - \sum p_i H_i) + \mu (1 - \sum p_i) \end{aligned}$$

We suppose $\langle n | m \rangle = \delta_{nm}$

$$\langle H | n \rangle = E_n |n\rangle. \quad \text{So}$$

$$Z(p, \lambda, \mu) = -k \sum p_n \log p_n + \lambda (E - \sum p_n E_n) + \mu (1 - \sum p_n)$$

$$0 = \frac{\partial Z}{\partial p_n} = -k \log p_n - \lambda E_n - \mu, \quad \text{so}$$

$$\log p_n = (-\lambda E_n - \mu) / k$$

$$p_n = e^{(-\lambda E_n - \mu) / k} = e^{-\frac{\lambda E_n}{k}} e^{-\frac{\mu}{k}}$$

Choose μ , by setting $p_n = \frac{e^{-\frac{\lambda E_n}{k}}}{\sum_n e^{-\frac{\lambda E_n}{k}}}$.

Choose $\lambda = \frac{1}{T}$

by the rule $\sum p_n E_n = E$.

Then

$$p_n = \frac{e^{-\frac{E_n}{kT}}}{\sum_n e^{-E_n/kT}}$$

is the quantum density operator that maximizes entropy for a fixed mean value E of the energy while conserving probability to $p = 1$.

Chaos

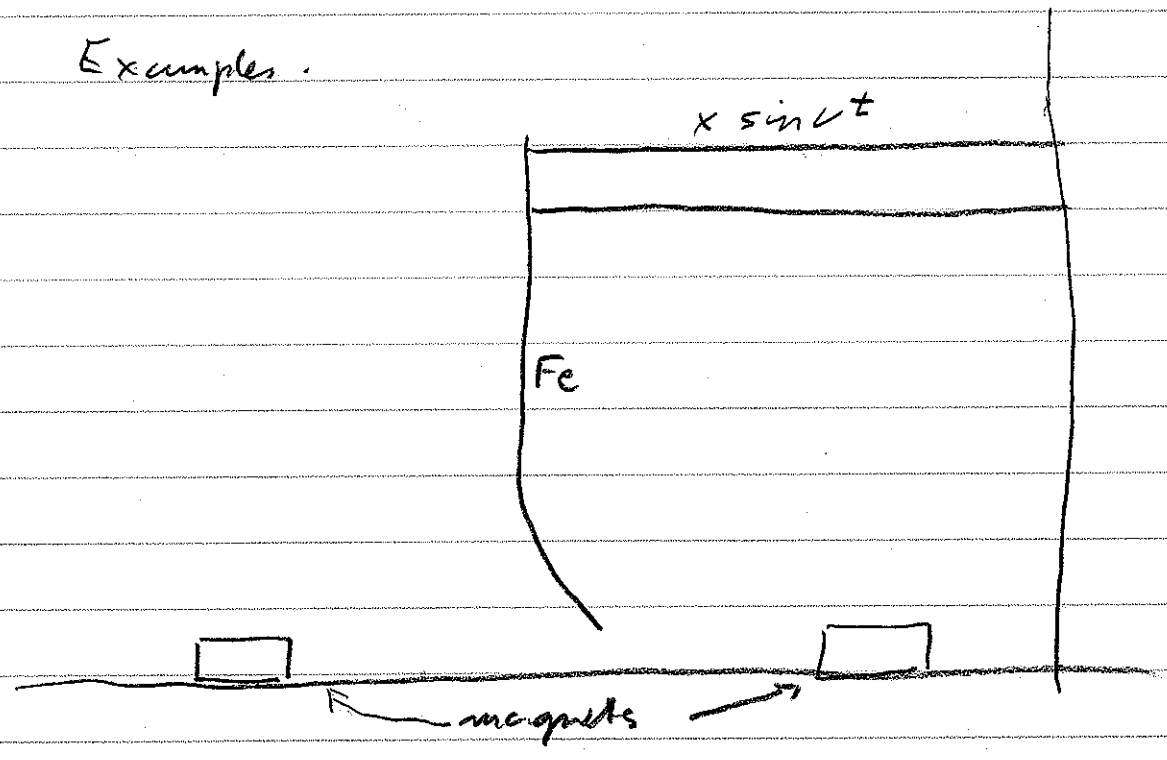
Henri Poincaré (~1900) studied the three-body problem and found very complicated (chaotic) orbits.

There seem to be four kinds of classical motion

- 1) periodic
- 2) steady (or damped motion that stops)
- 3) quasi-periodic (mixture of periodic motions, ω_i)
- 4) chaotic

for a system after a transient period.

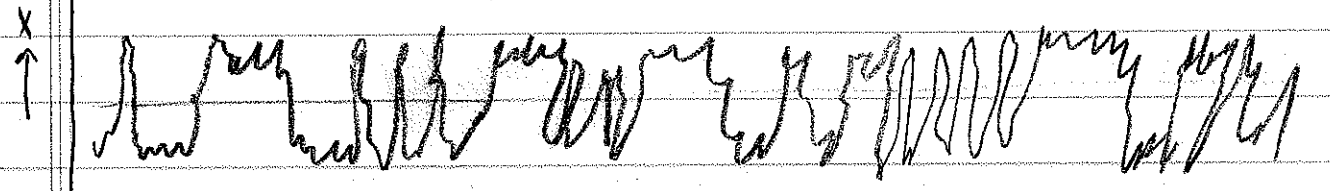
Examples.



$$x'' + \nu x' + x^3 - x = g \sin t$$

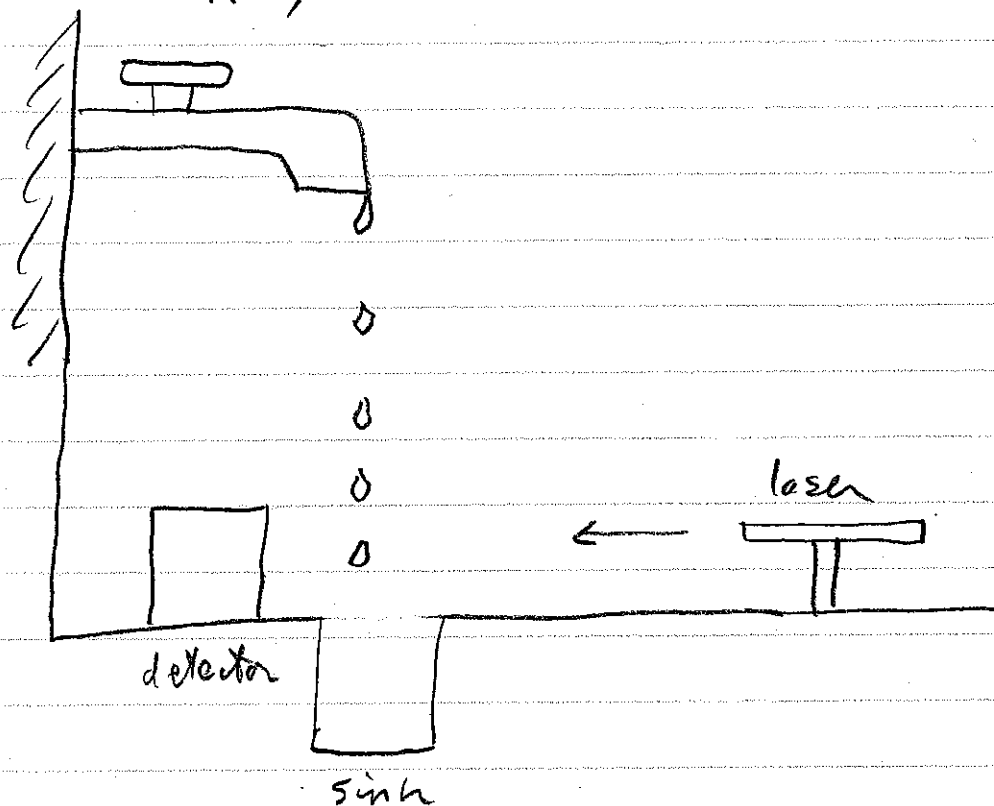
Exp. & theory

give something like



t ->

Dripping faucet



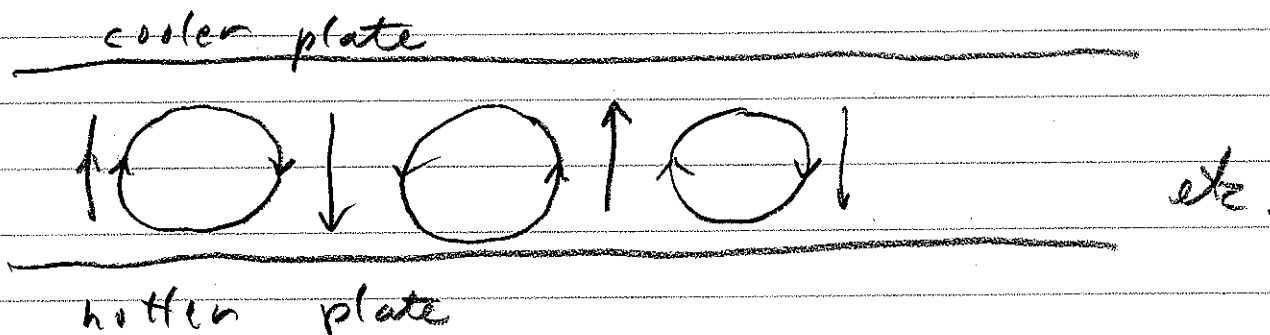
Data are t_1, t_2, t_3, \dots and

At low flow rate, $\Delta t_n = t_{n+1} - t_n$ is constant, all Δt_n are equal.

At a slightly higher rate, the drops come with gaps that alternate $\Delta t_a, \Delta t_b, \Delta t_a, \Delta t_b, \dots$ so that $\Delta t_{n+2} = \Delta t_n$. This is a period-two sequence.

At still higher flow rates, no regularity is apparent.

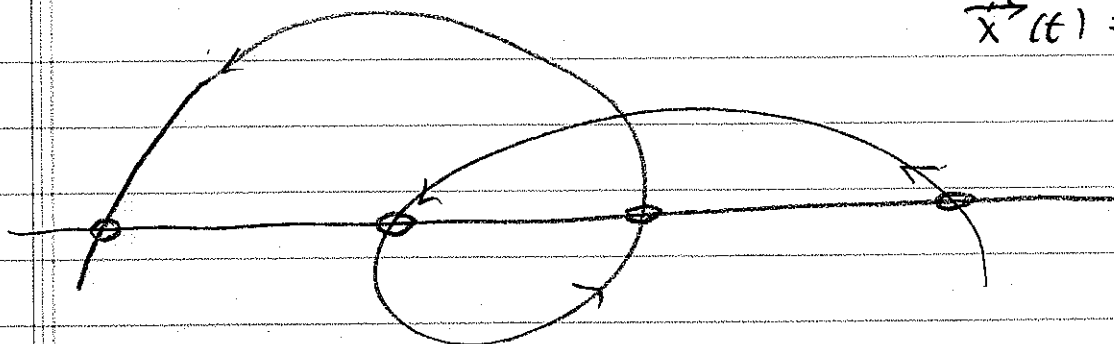
Chaotic Rayleigh - Benard convection occurs when a fluid is placed in a gravitational field between two plates that are kept at constant temperatures with the lower plate hotter by Δt above the chaotic threshold. For lower Δt , the motion is steady convective cellular flow



Dynamical Systems

$$\dot{x}_i = F_i(x) \quad \text{or} \quad \dot{\vec{x}} = \vec{F}(\vec{x}), \quad \text{etc.}$$

$$\vec{x}(t) = \vec{F}(\vec{x}(t))$$



The crossings of a suitably oriented plane give rise to a map

$$\vec{x}_{n+1} = M(\vec{x}_n)$$

in one or fewer dimensions.

In the system

$$\dot{\vec{x}} = \vec{F}(\vec{x})$$

chaos can occur only if the dimension N of the vector \vec{x} exceeds 2

$$N \geq 3.$$

For the invertible map

$$x_{n+1} = M(x_n) \quad \Rightarrow \quad x_n = M^{-1}(x_{n+1})$$

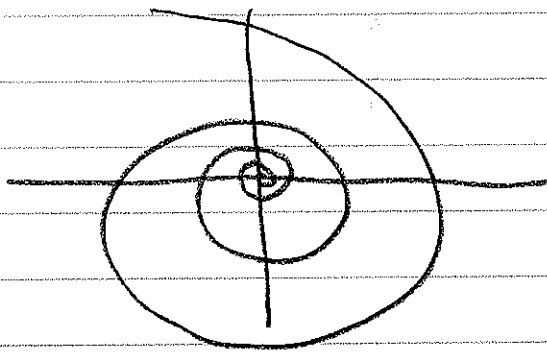
chaos occurs only if $N \geq 2$.

If the map is not invertible, then chaos can occur even if $N=1$. An example is

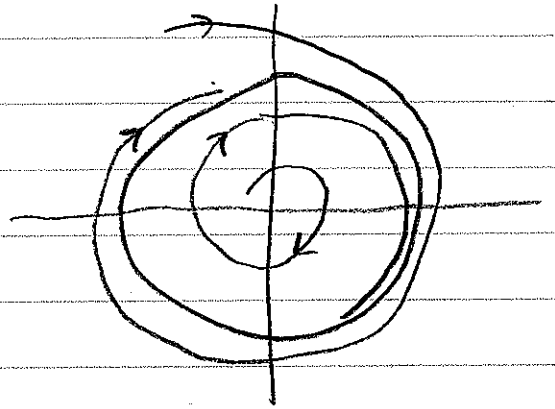
$$x_{n+1} = r x_n (x_n - 1)$$

which is not invertible and does exhibit chaos in increasingly striking forms as r exceeds a number slightly greater than $r_m = 3.57$. By $r=4$, the map is totally chaotic.

Attractors



Here $x_1 = x_2 = 0$ is
an attractor.



Here the circle is
an attractor called
a limit cycle.

The limit cycle occurs in the van der Pol
equation

$$\ddot{y} + (y^2 - \eta)\dot{y} + \omega^2 y = 0$$

which may be written as the first-order
system

$$x_1 = \dot{y} \quad x_2 = y$$

$$\dot{x}_1 = -\omega^2 x_2 - (x_2^2 - \eta)x_1$$

$$\dot{x}_2 = x_1$$

The van der Pol equation was introduced
in the 1920s to describe a vacuum-tube
oscillator circuit.

Fractals

Fractal sets don't have dimensions that are natural numbers. To compute their dimensions one needs a redefinition of dimension.

The box-counting dimension is as follows: Cover the set with line segments, squares, cubes, etc., of edge length ϵ . Count how many you need as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$. Call the number of boxes $N(\epsilon)$. Then

$$D_0 = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{\ln N(\epsilon)}{\ln(1/\epsilon)},$$

Cantor set: 0 

1 

2 -- --

$\epsilon_n = \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n$ need $N(\epsilon) = 2^n$ boxes.

So

$$D_0 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln 2^n}{\ln 3^n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln 2}{\ln 3} \approx 0.63.$$

Attractors of fractal dimension are strange.