# CHARACTERISTIC MULTIPLIERS AND STATIONARY INTEGRALS 

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In this note some rudimentary results about the characteristic multipliers of periodic solutions of differential equations are given which supplement those given by Poincaré [2], Chapitre IV, and by Wintner [4].

Motivation was supplied by some recent numerical computations of Bartlett [1] who found many periodic solutions of the restricted 3-body problem with the following property: at the periodic solution the energy integral assumes a value which is an extremum with respect to the values which it assumes at nearby periodic solutions of the same family.

## 1. Preliminaries

Our results will refer to an autonomous differential equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{x}=f(x) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

in which the given function $f$ is assumed tc be of class $C^{(1)}$ on an open set $S$ lying in $R^{n}$ or $C^{n}$ (the spaces of $n$-tuples of real or complex numbers respectively). A solution $x$ is to be defined on some interval of the real line $R$ and its range is to be a subset of $S$.

We shall use the letter $\Phi$ throughout to denote a family $\left\{\phi_{\gamma}: \gamma \in J\right\}$ of periodic solutions of (1) where $J$ is an open interval of $R$. We shall suppose that no $\phi_{\gamma}$ is an equilibrium (i.e. constant) solution of (1) and we shall use $\tau(\gamma)$ to denote the primitive period $(>0)$ of $\phi_{\gamma}$.

By saying that the family $\Phi$ of periodic solutions is smooth we shall mean that
(a) the mapping $(\gamma, t) \rightarrow \phi_{\gamma}(t)$ is of class $C^{(1)}$ on the product space $J \times R$;
(b) the function $\tau$, the period along the family, is differentiable on $J$.
(Mr. W. A. Coppel remarks that, in view of the implicit function theorem, if (a) is satisfied then continuity of the function $\tau$ is sufficient to ensure its differentiability.)

As a notational convenience we shall suppose that $0 \in J$ and shall
single out the member $\phi_{0}$ of the family for a distinguished rôle. Relative to $\phi_{0}$ the equations of variation of (1) are

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{x}=\partial f\left(\phi_{0}\right) x \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\partial f$ denotes the Jacobian matrix of the function $f$.
The monodromy matrix $\Gamma$ of $\phi_{0}$ is defined as $X(\tau(0))$ where $X$ is the fundamental matrix of solutions of (2) which satisfies the initial condition $X(0)=I, I$ being the unit matrix. The eigenvalues of $\Gamma$ are called the characteristic multipliers of the periodic solution $\phi_{0}$.

Let $g$ be a function from the region $S$, on which $f$ is defined, into the reals and let $g$ be of class $C^{(1)}$. If for each solution $x$ of (1) the composite function $g(x)$ is constant we shall say that $g$ is a (conservative) integral of (1). For any family $\Phi$ of periodic solutions of (1) we shall denote the function

$$
\gamma \rightarrow g\left(\phi_{\gamma}\right) \text { by } g_{\Phi}
$$

and we shall refer to it as the integral $g$ along the family $\Phi$. By saying that the integral $g$ is nontrivially stationary along the family $\Phi$ at $\phi_{0}$ we shall mean that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nabla g(\xi) \neq 0 \text { and } \dot{g}_{\Phi}(0)=0 \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\nabla$ is the gradient operator, $\cdot$ denotes differentiation as usual and where $\xi$ is some point in the range of the function $\phi_{0}$, say $\xi=\phi_{0}(0)$.

Note that if (1) is a Hamiltonian differential equation and $g$ is its energy integral then the first condition of (3) follows from the fact that $\phi_{0}$ is not an equilibrium solution.

If $n=1$ the first condition in (3) is inconsistent with the assumption that $\phi_{0}$ is not an equilibrium solution. The results which follow are therefore significant only when $n \geqq 2$.

## 2. Statement and discussion of results

Theorem 1. If the differential equation (1) admits an integral $g$ which is nontrivially stationary along a smooth family $\Phi$ of periodic solutions of (1) at $\phi_{0}$ then
(a) the period $\tau$ along $\Phi$ is stationary at $\phi_{0}$,
or
(b) $\phi_{0}$ has at least 3 of its characteristic multipliers equal to 1 .

In the case $\boldsymbol{n}=\mathbf{2}$ the alternative (a) is the only possible conclusion, of course.

Note that if (1) is a Hamiltonian differential equation, each of its periodic solutions has characteristic multipliers which occur in reciprocal
pairs (see, e.g., Wintner [5], § 151) so that the alternative (b) in the conclusion of Theorem 1 may be replaced by:

## $\phi_{0}$ has at least 4 characteristic multipliers equal to 1.

Next, a slightly weakened version of Theorem 1:
TheOrem 2. Let $\Phi$ be a smooth family of periodic solutions of (1) and suppose that
(a) the period along $\Phi$ is nowhere stationary,
(b) every member of $\Phi$ has at most 2 characteristic multipliers equal to 1 .

Then for every integral $g$ of (1) such that $\nabla g$ is nowhere zero, the function $g_{\Phi}$ (the corresponding integral along the family) is one-one.

Theorem 2 is weaker, for conservative Lagrangian systems, than the following result which is stated in § 100 of Wintner's book [5]:
(*) Along a (suitably smooth) family of periodic solutions of a conservative Lagrangian system, the period is a (single-valued) function of the energy.

At the crux of the proof of (*) given by Wintner, however, there is a fallacy and (*) itself is false - except perhaps for systems with one degree of freedom - a counterexample being given below in Section 4. Theorem 2 is proposed as a replacement for (*).

Our final theorem provides a partial converse of Theorem 1:
Theorem 3. Let $\phi_{0}$ be a periodic solution of (1) with at least 3 of its characteristic multipliers equal to 1 . If the matrix $\Gamma-I$ ( $\Gamma$ the monodromy matrix of $\phi_{0}$ ) has rank $n-1$, then every integral $g$ of (1) is stationary at $\phi_{0}$ along any smooth family of periodic solutions to which $\phi_{0}$ belongs.

Some interest attaches to the conditions imposed on $\Gamma$ in the above theorem as they are sufficient to ensure that $\phi_{0}$ does in fact belong to a (locally unique) smooth family of periodic solutions. This follows by a straightforward application of Poincaré's "continuity method" (as expounded for example in Siegel [3], § 19) to $\phi_{0}$ as generating solution.

Theorem 3 may be of some use in the numerical search for periodic solutions, for example by providing information about the Jordan normal forms of monodromy matrices - information which would probably be unobtainable by the standard methods of numerical analysis.

## 3. Proofs

Two lemmas will be used. The first gives some more or less classical results which relate the monodromy matrix of a periodic solution to various derivatives, while the second is a result of linear algebra concerning the
orthogonality of eigenvectors and a generalization of it may be published later.

We use the dash ' to denote transposition of matrices.
Lemma 1. Let $\left\{\phi_{\gamma}: \gamma \in J\right\}$ be a smooth family of periodic solutions of (1) and for each real t let $u(t)$ be the derivative at 0 of the function $\gamma \rightarrow \phi_{\gamma}(t)$. The monodromy matrix $\Gamma$ of $\phi_{0}$ then satisfies the relations

$$
\begin{align*}
\Gamma \phi_{0}(0) & =\phi_{0}(0) \\
\Gamma u(0) & =u(0)-t(0) \phi_{0}(0)  \tag{4}\\
{\left[\nabla g\left(\phi_{0}(0)\right)\right]^{\prime} \Gamma } & =\left[\nabla g\left(\phi_{0}(0)\right)\right]^{\prime}
\end{align*}
$$

where, in the last equation, $g$ is assumed to be an integral of (1).
Proof. By the superposition principle, if $x$ is a solution of the equations of variation (2) then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Gamma x(0)=x(\tau(0)) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now each of the functions $\phi_{0}$ and $u$ is a solution of the equations of variation (Wintner [5], §§ 148, 149) and moreover

$$
u(t)=\psi(t)-t t(0) \tau(0)^{-1} \dot{\phi}_{0}(t)
$$

where $\psi$ as well as $\phi_{0}$ has the period $\tau(0)$. If in turn $\phi_{0}$ and $u$ are substituted in (5) in place of $x$ and periodicity is used, then the first and second equations in (4) are obtained, respectively.

Finally note that the function $(\xi, t) \rightarrow\left[\nabla g\left(\phi_{0}(t)\right)\right]^{\prime} \xi$ is a (nonconservative) integral of (2) (Wintner [5], § 87) and from this fact and the periodicity of $\phi_{0}$ follows the last equation in (4).

Lemma 2. Let $A$ be a complex matrix of order $n(\geqq 2)$ with $p$ of its eigenvalues equal to 0 and let the Jordan normal form of $A$ be represented either by a block diagonal matrix

$$
\left[\begin{array}{ll}
C_{1} & 0  \tag{6}\\
0 & C_{2}
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $C_{2}$ is nonsingular and where $C_{1}$ is the $p$-th order matrix

$$
\left[\begin{array}{lllllll}
0 & & & & & \\
1 & 0 & & & 0 & \\
& 1 & 0 & & & \\
& & \cdot & . & & \\
& 0 & & \cdot & \cdot & \\
& & & & 1 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

or by $C_{1}$ itself when $p=n$. If $x, y, z$ are column vectors satisfying the equations

$$
\begin{equation*}
A x=0, \quad A y=x, \quad A^{\prime} z=0 \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

then $y^{\prime} z=0$ when $p>2$; but $y^{\prime} z \neq 0$ when $p=2$ provided that $x \neq 0$ and $z \neq 0$.

Proof. Let $B$ be the nonsingular matrix which reduces $A$ to Jordan normal form $C=B^{-1} A B$ and put $u=B^{-1} x, v=B^{-1} y, w=B^{\prime} z$. The equations (7) are then equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
C u=0, \quad C v=u, \quad C^{\prime} w=0, \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

and moreover

$$
\begin{equation*}
y^{\prime} z=v^{\prime} B^{\prime}\left(B^{\prime}\right)^{-1} w=v^{\prime} w . \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since the matrix $C$ has the form (6) or ( $6^{\prime}$ ) it is possible to solve the equations (8) for the components $u_{i}, v_{i}, w_{i}(1 \leqq i \leqq n)$ of the vectors $u$, $v, w$ to get the solutions:

$$
\begin{aligned}
u_{i} & =0 \quad \text { for } \quad i \neq p \quad(1 \leqq i \leqq n) \\
v_{p-1}=u_{p} \quad \text { and } \quad v_{i} & =0 \quad \text { for } \quad i \neq p, \quad i \neq p-1 \quad(1 \leqq i \leqq n) ; \\
w_{i} & =0 \quad(2 \leqq i \leqq n)
\end{aligned}
$$

From (9) and the solutions just obtained it is clear that

$$
\begin{equation*}
y^{\prime} z=v^{\prime} w=v_{1} w_{1} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

and hence that $y^{\prime} z=0$ unless $p=2$.
On the other hand if $p=2$ and $x \neq 0$, and $z \neq 0$ then $u \neq 0, w \neq 0$ and so $v_{p-1} \neq 0, w_{1} \neq 0$. From (10) it now follows that $y^{\prime} z \neq 0$.

Proof of Theorem 1. Suppose, contrary to the conclusion of Theorem 1, that the monodromy matrix $\Gamma$ of $\phi_{0}$ has less than 3 eigenvalues equal to 1 and that $t(0) \neq 0$. Lemma 1 then shows that $\Gamma$ has exactly 2 eigenvalues equal to 1 and that $\Gamma-I$ has as Jordan normal form (6) or ( $6^{\prime}$ ) with $p=2$.

The first hypothesis of Lemma 2 is therefore satisfied with $A=\Gamma-I$. The remaining hypotheses of Lemma 2 are satisfied by the choice

$$
x=-t(0) \phi_{0}(0), \quad y=u(0), \quad z=\nabla g\left(\phi_{0}(0)\right),
$$

where $u(0)$ is the derivative at 0 of the function $\gamma \rightarrow \phi_{\gamma}(0)$. Since $\dot{t}(0) \neq 0$ and $\phi_{0}$ is not an equilibrium solution, $x \neq 0$; and from the first of (3) follows $z \neq 0$. Lemma 2 now gives $y^{\prime} z \neq 0$.

Now the integral along the family, $g_{\Phi}$, is the composite function $\gamma \rightarrow g\left(\phi_{\gamma}(0)\right)$. The chain rule gives therefore

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{g}_{\mathscr{D}}(0)=\left[\nabla g\left(\phi_{0}(0)\right]^{\prime} u(0)=z^{\prime} y \neq 0 .\right. \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

This contradicts the hypothesis of Theorem 1.

Proof of Theorem 3. The conditions imposed ensure that $\Gamma-I$ has Jordan normal form (6) or ( $6^{\prime}$ ) with $p>2$. Now let $\Phi$ be a smooth family of periodic solutions of (1) containing $\phi_{0}$ and let $x, y, z$ be defined as in the proof of Theorem 1. Application of Lemma 2 gives $y^{\prime} z=0$ and hence, by use of the chain rule as in (11), $\dot{\mathrm{g}}_{\Phi}(0)=0$ as required.

## 4. Counterexample for (*)

To obtain a counterexample for the statement (*) mentioned in Section 2 consider the system with Lagrangian function defined by

$$
L(\dot{x}, \dot{y}, x, y)=\frac{1}{2}\left(\dot{x}^{2}+\dot{y}^{2}\right)+2\left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right)^{-1}
$$

which corresponds to the equations of motion

$$
\ddot{x}=-4 x\left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right)^{-2}, \quad \ddot{y}=-4 y\left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right)^{-2} .
$$

For each $\gamma>0$ this system admits the periodic solution given by

$$
x(t)=\gamma \cos \left(2 t \gamma^{-2}\right), \quad y(t)=\gamma \sin \left(2 t \gamma^{-2}\right) .
$$

The period of this solution is clearly $\pi \gamma^{2}$ while its energy is easily verified to be 0 .

The family of periodic solutions obtained by variation of $\gamma$ now gives the desired counterexample, the period and energy along the family being strictly monotonic and constant, respectively.

## References

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