# Periodic motions in forced problems of Kepler type

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**Abstract.** A Newtonian equation in the plane is considered. There is a central force (attractive or repulsive) and an external force  $\lambda h(t)$ , periodic in time. The periodic second primitive of h(t) defines a planar curve and the number of periodic solutions of the differential equation is linked to the number of loops of this curve, at least when the parameter  $\lambda$  is large.

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## 1. Introduction and main results

Consider the second order equation in the plane

$$\ddot{z} \pm \frac{z}{|z|^{q+1}} = \lambda h(t), \quad z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$$
(1)

where  $q \geq 2, \lambda \geq 0$  is a parameter and  $h : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{C}$  is a continuous and  $2\pi$ -periodic function satisfying

$$\int_0^{2\pi} h(t)dt = 0.$$

This equation models the motion of a particle under the action of a central force  $F(z) = \mp \frac{z}{|z|^{q+1}}$  and an external force  $\lambda h(t)$ . The force F can be attractive or repulsive depending on the sign + or – in the Eq. (1). For q = 2the vector field F becomes the classical gravitational or Coulomb force. For general information on this type of problems we refer to [1].

For the repulsive case it is known that (1) has no  $2\pi$ -periodic solutions when  $\lambda$  is small enough (see [8] and [2]). In this paper we will discuss the existence of  $2\pi$ -periodic solutions when  $\lambda$  is large. Before stating the main result we recall the notion of index as it is usually employed in Complex Analysis (see [5]). Given a continuous and  $2\pi$ -periodic function  $\gamma : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{C}$  and a point z lying in  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \gamma(\mathbb{R})$ , the index of z with respect to the circuit  $\gamma$  is an integer denoted by  $j(z, \gamma)$ . When  $\gamma$  is smooth, say  $C^1$ , this index can be expressed as an integral,

$$j(z,\gamma) = \frac{1}{2\pi\imath} \int_{\gamma} \frac{d\xi}{z-\xi} = \frac{1}{2\pi\imath} \int_{0}^{2\pi} \frac{\dot{\gamma}(t)}{z-\gamma(t)} dt.$$

It is well known that  $z \mapsto j(z,\gamma)$  is constant on each connected component  $\Omega$  of  $\mathbb{C}\setminus\gamma(\mathbb{R})$ . From now on we write  $j(\Omega,\gamma)$  for this index. Let  $\phi(t)$ be a  $2\pi$ -periodic solution of (1), the index  $j(0,\phi)$  is well defined and can be interpreted as the winding number of the solution  $\phi$  around the singularity z = 0.

**Theorem 1.1.** Let H(t) be a  $2\pi$ -periodic solution of

$$\ddot{H}(t) = -h(t)$$

and let  $\Omega_1, \ldots, \Omega_r$  be bounded components of  $\mathbb{C} \setminus H(\mathbb{R})$ . Then there exists  $\lambda_* > 0$ such that the Eq. (1) has at least r different solutions  $\phi_1(t), \ldots, \phi_r(t)$  of period  $2\pi$  if  $\lambda \geq \lambda_*$ . Moreover,

$$j(0,\phi_k) = j(\Omega_k, H), \quad k = 1, \dots, r.$$

Next we discuss the applicability of the theorem in three simple cases.

**Example 1.2.**  $h(t) \equiv 0$ . We also have  $H(t) \equiv 0$  and so  $\mathbb{C} \setminus H(\mathbb{R}) = \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ . This set has no bounded components and so the theorem is not applicable. This is reasonable since the equation  $\ddot{z} - \frac{z}{|z|^{q+1}} = 0$  has no periodic solutions. This is easily checked since all solutions satisfy

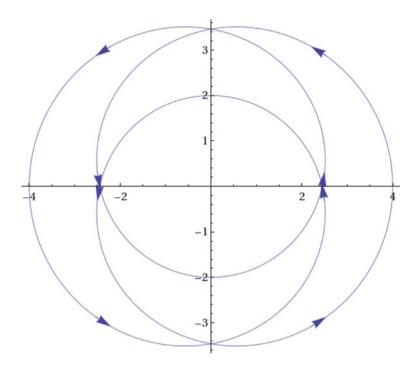
$$\frac{1}{2}\frac{d^2}{dt^2}(|z|^2) = |\dot{z}|^2 + \frac{1}{|z|^{q-1}} > 0.$$

On the contrary, in the attractive case the Eq. (1) has many periodic solutions for  $h \equiv 0$ . Notice that  $\phi(t) = e^{i(t+c)}$  is a  $2\pi$  periodic solution for any  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ . In particular this shows that the number of bounded components r is just a lower bound of the number of periodic solutions.

**Example 1.3.**  $h(t) = e^{it}$ . The second primitive of -h is  $H(t) = e^{it}$  and  $\mathbb{C} \setminus H(\mathbb{R})$  has one bounded component, the open disk  $\{|z| < 1\}$ . The theorem asserts the existence of a  $2\pi$ -periodic solution  $\phi_1(t)$  with  $j(0, \phi_1) = 1$  for  $\lambda$  large enough. Indeed this result can be obtained using very elementary techniques. The change of variables  $z = e^{it}w$  transforms (1) into

$$\ddot{w} + 2\imath\dot{w} - w \pm \frac{w}{|w|^{q+1}} = \lambda$$

This equation has, for large  $\lambda$ , two equilibria  $w_+$  and  $w_-$  with  $|w_+| \to \infty$ and  $|w_-| \to 0$  as  $\lambda \to \infty$ . These equilibria become  $2\pi$ -periodic solutions with index one in the z-plane. Our method of proof can be seen as a continuation from infinity and this explains why we cannot detect the small solution. After lengthy computations it is possible to find the spectrum of the linearization of



the w equation around the equilibria. This allows to apply Lyapunov center theorem in some cases to deduce the existence of sub-harmonic and quasiperiodic solutions in the z-plane (see [7] for more details on this technique).

**Example 1.4.**  $h(t) = e^{it} + 27e^{3it}$ .

The function  $H(t) = e^{it} + 3e^{3it}$  is a parametrization of an epicycloid.

We observe that  $\mathbb{C}\setminus H(\mathbb{R})$  has five bounded connected components with corresponding indices 3, 2, 2, 1, 1. Hence we obtain five  $2\pi$ -periodic solutions.

For some forcings h(t) the set  $\mathbb{C}\setminus H(\mathbb{R})$  has infinitely many bounded components. In such a case the previous result implies that the number of  $2\pi$ -periodic solutions grows arbitrarily as  $\lambda \to \infty$ .

## 2. Brouwer degree and weakly nonlinear systems

This section is devoted to describe a well known result on the existence of periodic solutions of the system

$$\dot{x} = \varepsilon g(t, x; \varepsilon), \quad x \in U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$$
(2)

where U is an open and connected subset of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $\varepsilon \in [0, \varepsilon_*]$  is a small parameter and  $g : \mathbb{R} \times U \times [0, \varepsilon_*] \to \mathbb{R}^d$  is continuous and  $2\pi$ -periodic with respect to t. Later it will be shown that our original system (1) can be transformed into a system of the type (2). Following the ideas of the averaging method, we define the function

$$G(c) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} g(t,c;0) dt, \quad c \in U.$$

Next we assume that G does not vanish on the boundary of a certain open set W, whose closure  $\overline{W}$  is compact and contained in U. In such a case the degree of G on W is well defined.

**Proposition 2.1.** In the above conditions assume that

$$deg(G, W, 0) \neq 0.$$

Then the system (2) has at least one  $2\pi$ -periodic solution  $x_{\varepsilon}(t)$  lying in W for  $\varepsilon > 0$  sufficiently small.

This result is essentially contained in Cronin's book [4]. We also refer to the more recent paper by Mawhin [6] containing more general results and some history.

Before applying this Proposition to (1) it will be convenient to have some information on the behaviour of  $x_{\varepsilon}(t)$  as  $\varepsilon \searrow 0$ . The function g is bounded on the compact set  $[0, 2\pi] \times \overline{W} \times [0, \varepsilon_*]$  and so

$$\|\dot{x}_{\varepsilon}\|_{\infty} = O(\varepsilon) \ as \ \varepsilon \searrow 0.$$

Let  $\varepsilon_n \searrow 0$  be a sequence such that  $x_{\varepsilon_n}(0)$  converges to some point c in  $\overline{W}$ . Then  $x_{\varepsilon_n}(t)$  converges uniformly to the constant c in  $[0, 2\pi]$ . Integrating the Eq. (2) over a period we obtain

$$\int_0^{2\pi} g(t, x_{\varepsilon_n}(t); \varepsilon_n) dt = 0$$

and letting  $n \to \infty$  we deduce that G(c) = 0. In other words, as  $\varepsilon \searrow 0$  the solutions  $x_{\varepsilon}(t)$  given by the previous Proposition must accumulate on  $G^{-1}(0)$ , the set of zeros of G.

#### **3.** Reduction to a problem with small parameters

Let us start with the original Eq. (1) and consider the change of variables

$$z = \lambda(w - H(t))$$

where w = w(t) is the new unknown. Then (1) is transformed into

$$\ddot{w} = \mp \varepsilon^2 \frac{w - H(t)}{|w - H(t)|^{q+1}} \tag{3}$$

with  $\varepsilon^2 = \frac{1}{\lambda^{q+1}}$ .

In principle this equation can have solutions passing through  $H(\mathbb{R})$  but we will look for solutions lying in one of the components  $\Omega_k$  of  $\mathbb{C} \setminus H(\mathbb{R})$ . On this domain the Eq. (3) is equivalent to a first order system of the type (2) with  $x = (w, \xi) \in \mathbb{C}^2$ ,  $U = \Omega_k \times \mathbb{C}$  and

$$\dot{w} = \varepsilon \xi, \ \dot{\xi} = \mp \varepsilon \frac{w - H(t)}{|w - H(t)|^{q+1}}.$$

The averaging function is

$$G(c_1, c_2) = (c_2, \Phi(c_1)), \ c_1 \in \Omega_k, \ c_2 \in \mathbb{C}$$

and

$$\Phi(c_1) = \mp \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{c_1 - H(t)}{|c_1 - H(t)|^{q+1}} dt.$$

In the next section we will prove the following

**Claim 3.1.** For each k = 1, ..., r there exists an open and bounded set  $\Omega_k^*$ , whose closure is contained in  $\Omega_k$ , and such that

$$\Phi(c_1) \neq 0 \quad if \ c_1 \in \partial \Omega_k^*, \quad deg(\Phi, \Omega_k^*, 0) = 1.$$

Assuming for the moment that this claim holds, we notice that G does not vanish on the boundary of  $W = \Omega_k^* \times B$  where B is the unit disk  $|c_2| < 1$ . Moreover G can be expressed as

$$G = L \circ (\Phi \times id)$$

where  $L: \mathbb{C}^2 \to \mathbb{C}^2$  is the linear map  $(c_1, c_2) \mapsto (c_2, c_1)$  and *id* is the identity in  $\mathbb{C}$ . If we interpret L as an endomorphism of  $\mathbb{R}^4$  then it can be represented by the  $4 \times 4$  matrix  $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & I_2 \\ I_2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ . Hence, if L is understood as a  $\mathbb{R}$ -linear map, the value of the determinant is one. The general properties of degree imply that

$$deg(G, W, (0, 0)) = sign(detL) \cdot deg(\Phi \times id, \Omega_k^* \times B, (0, 0))$$
$$= deg(\Phi, \Omega_k^*, 0) = 1.$$

In consequence Proposition 2.1 is applicable and we have proved the first part of the theorem 1.1. Namely, the existence of  $2\pi$ -periodic solutions  $\phi_1(t), \ldots, \phi_r(t)$  for large  $\lambda$  (or small  $\varepsilon$ ).

Notice that  $\phi_k(t) = \lambda(\psi_k(t) - H(t))$ , where  $\psi_k$  is a  $2\pi$ -periodic solution of (3) lying in  $\Omega_k^*$ . For convenience we make explicit the dependence of  $\phi_k$  with respect to  $\varepsilon$  and write  $\phi_k(t) = \phi_k(t, \varepsilon)$ .

To prove the identity

$$j(0,\phi_k(.,\varepsilon)) = j(\Omega_k,H)$$

when  $\varepsilon$  is small enough, we proceed by contradiction. Let us assume that for some sequence  $\varepsilon_n \searrow 0$ ,  $j(0, \phi_k(., \varepsilon_n)) \neq j(\Omega_k, H)$ . After extracting a subsequence of  $\varepsilon_n$  we can assume that  $\psi_k(t, \varepsilon_n) \to z$ ,  $\dot{\psi}_k(t, \varepsilon_n) \to 0$ , uniformly in t, where z is some point in  $\Omega_k^* \subset \Omega_k$  with  $\Phi(z) = 0$ . This is a consequence of the discussion after Proposition 2.1. Computing indexes via integrals and passing to the limit

$$\begin{aligned} j(0,\phi_k(\cdot,\varepsilon_n)) &= -\frac{1}{2\pi\imath} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{\dot{\psi}(t,\varepsilon_n) - \dot{H}(t)}{\psi(t,\varepsilon_n) - H(t)} dt \\ &\to \frac{1}{2\pi\imath} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{\dot{H}(t)}{z - H(t)} dt = j(z,H) = j(\Omega_k,H). \end{aligned}$$

Since we are dealing with integer numbers,  $j(0, \phi_k(., \varepsilon_n))$  and  $j(\Omega_k, H)$  must coincide for large n. This is a contradiction with the definition of  $\varepsilon_n$ . By now the proof of the main theorem is complete excepting for the above claim.

### 4. Degree of gradient vector fields

The purpose of this section is to prove the claim concerning the function  $\Phi$ . To do this we first prove a result valid for general gradient maps in the plane.

**Proposition 4.1.** Let  $\Omega$  be a bounded, open and simply connected subset of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and let  $V : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$  be a continuously differentiable function. In addition assume that

$$V(z) \to +\infty \quad as \ z \to \partial\Omega.$$
 (4)

Then there exists an open set  $\Omega^*$ , whose closure is contained in  $\Omega$ , such that

1.  $\nabla V(z) \neq 0$  for each  $z \in \partial \Omega^*$ 

2.  $deg(\nabla V, \Omega^*, 0) = 1.$ 

**Remark.** The condition (4) says that V blows up in the boundary of  $\Omega$ . More precisely, given r > 0 there exist  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $z \in \Omega$  with  $dist(z, \partial \Omega) < \delta$  then V(z) > r.

Notice also that, by the properties of degree in two dimensions,

$$deg(\nabla V, \Omega^*, 0) = deg(-\nabla V, \Omega^*, 0).$$

Proof. By Sard lemma we know that V has many regular values in the interval  $]\min_{\Omega} V, +\infty[$ . Let us pick one of these values, say  $\alpha$ . Then the set  $M = V^{-1}(\alpha)$  is a one-dimensional manifold of class  $C^1$ . Since V blows up at the boundary, M is compact and so it has to be composed by a finite number of disjoint Jordan curves. Let  $\gamma$  be one of these Jordan curves and let us define  $\Omega^*$  as the bounded component of  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \gamma$ . Notice that the closure of  $\Omega^*$  is contained in  $\Omega$  because  $\Omega$  is simply connected.

We know that

$$V(z) = \alpha$$
 and  $\nabla V(z) \neq 0$  if  $z \in \gamma$ 

and so  $\nabla V(z)$  must be collinear to n(z), the outward unitary normal vector to the curve  $\gamma$ . This implies that  $\langle \nabla V(z), n(z) \rangle$  does not vanish on the curve  $\gamma$ . Assume for instance that

$$\langle \nabla V(z), n(z) \rangle > 0 \quad if \ z \in \gamma,$$

the other case being similar. Then it is easy to prove that  $\nabla V(z)$  is linearly homotopic to any continuous vector field which is tangent to  $\gamma$  on every point of this curve. The proof is complete because it is well known that these tangent vector fields have degree one. See for instance Th. 4.3 (Ch. 15) of [3].

We are ready to prove the claim concerning the function

$$\Phi: \Omega_k \to \mathbb{C}, \ \Phi(z) = \pm \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{z - H(t)}{|z - H(t)|^{q+1}} dt$$

where  $\Omega_k$  is a bounded component of  $\mathbb{C} \setminus H(\mathbb{R})$ .

To do this we will apply Proposition 4.1 and the crucial observation is that  $\Phi$  is a gradient vector field. Namely

$$\Phi = \mp \nabla V \quad on \ \Omega_k$$

where V is the real analytic function on  $\Omega_k$ ,

$$V(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi(q-1)} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{dt}{|z - H(t)|^{q-1}}.$$

To check the assumptions of Proposition 4.1 we must prove that  $\Omega_k$  is simply connected. This is done using very standard arguments of planar topology.

**Lemma 4.1.** Let  $\Gamma$  be a closed and connected subset of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and let  $\Omega$  be a bounded, connected component of  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \Gamma$ . Then  $\Omega$  is simply connected.

Proof. Given a Jordan curve  $\gamma$  in the plane, the bounded and unbounded components of  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \gamma$  are denoted by  $R_i(\gamma)$  and  $R_e(\gamma)$  respectively. The set  $\Omega$  is open and connected and it is sufficient to prove that, for any Jordan curve  $\gamma$ contained in  $\Omega$ , the bounded component  $R_i(\gamma)$  is also contained in  $\Omega$ . Since  $\gamma \subset \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \Gamma$ , we deduce that either  $\Gamma \subset R_i(\gamma)$  or  $\Gamma \subset R_e(\gamma)$ . Here we are using that  $\Gamma$  is connected. Assume first that  $\Gamma \subset R_i(\gamma)$ . Then  $\gamma \cup R_e(\gamma)$  is a connected subset of  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \Gamma$  and so it must be contained in one of the components. Since  $\gamma$  is contained in  $\Omega$  we deduce that that also  $R_e(\gamma)$  is contained in this component. This is impossible because  $\Omega$  is bounded. We conclude that the second alternative must hold. Once we know that  $\Gamma \subset R_e(\gamma)$  we repeat the previous reasoning, after changing the roles of  $R_i(\gamma)$  and  $R_e(\gamma)$ , to conclude that  $\gamma \cup R_i(\gamma)$  is inside  $\Omega$ .

It remains to check that (4) holds. We finish this paper with a proof of this fact.

Lemma 4.2. In the above setting,

$$V(z) \to +\infty \quad as \ z \to \partial \Omega_k.$$

*Proof.* By a contradiction argument assume the existence of a sequence  $\{z_n\}$ in  $\Omega_k$  with  $dist(z_n, \partial\Omega_k) \to 0$  and such that  $V(z_n)$  remains bounded. Since  $\Omega_k$  is bounded it is possible to extract a subsequence (again  $z_n$ ) converging to some point  $p \in \partial\Omega_k$ . Let us define the set  $A = \{t \in [0, 2\pi] : H(t) = p\}$  and the function

$$\mu(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{|H(t) - p|^{q-1}}, & t \in [0, 2\pi] \setminus A \\ +\infty, & t \in A. \end{cases}$$
(5)

Then the sequence of functions  $\frac{1}{|H(t)-z_n|^{q-1}}$  converges to  $\mu$  pointwise. By Fatou's Lemma

$$\int_{0}^{2\pi} \mu(t)dt \le \liminf_{n \to \infty} \int_{0}^{2\pi} \frac{dt}{|H(t) - z_n|^{q-1}} = 2\pi(q-1)\liminf_{n \to \infty} V(z_n) < \infty.$$

Hence  $\mu(t)$  is integrable in the Lebesgue sense. In particular the set A has measure zero. Since the boundary of  $\Omega_k$  is contained in  $H(\mathbb{R})$ , the set A is

non-empty and we can fix  $\tau \in [0, 2\pi]$  with  $H(\tau) = p$ . The previous discussion shows that

$$\mu(t) = \frac{1}{|H(t) - H(\tau)|^{q-1}}, \quad a.e. \ t \in [0, 2\pi].$$

Let L > 0 be a Lipschitz constant for H, then

$$\mu(t) \ge \frac{1}{L^{q-1}|t-\tau|^{q-1}} \quad a.e. \ t \in [0, 2\pi].$$

At this point the condition  $q \ge 2$  plays a role,

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \mu(t)dt \ge \frac{1}{L^{q-1}} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{dt}{|t-\tau|^{q-1}} = +\infty$$

and this is a contradiction with the integrability of  $\mu$ .

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