# 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. Mathematics Subject Classification (2010). 34C25, 34C29, 70K40.


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## 1. Introduction and main results

Consider the second order equation in the plane

$$
\begin{equation*}
\ddot{z} \pm \frac{z}{|z|^{q+1}}=\lambda h(t), \quad z \in \mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

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

$$
\int_{0}^{2 \pi} h(t) d t=0
$$

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 $q=2$ the 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 $\gamma: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ and a point $z$ lying in $\mathbb{C} \backslash \gamma(\mathbb{R})$, 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,

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

It is well known that $z \mapsto j(z, \gamma)$ is constant on each connected component $\Omega$ of $\mathbb{C} \backslash \gamma(\mathbb{R})$. 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 $\mathbb{C} \backslash H(\mathbb{R})$. 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,

$$
j\left(0, \phi_{k}\right)=j\left(\Omega_{k}, H\right), \quad k=1, \ldots, r .
$$

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 $\mathbb{C} \backslash H(\mathbb{R})=\mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\}$. 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

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

On the contrary, in the attractive case the Eq. (1) has many periodic solutions for $h \equiv 0$. Notice that $\phi(t)=e^{\imath(t+c)}$ 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. $h(t)=e^{\imath t}$. The second primitive of $-h$ is $H(t)=e^{\imath t}$ and $\mathbb{C} \backslash H(\mathbb{R})$ has one bounded component, the open disk $\{|z|<1\}$. The theorem asserts the existence of a $2 \pi$-periodic solution $\phi_{1}(t)$ with $j\left(0, \phi_{1}\right)=1$ for $\lambda$ large enough. Indeed this result can be obtained using very elementary techniques. The change of variables $z=e^{\imath t} w$ 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 $\left|w_{+}\right| \rightarrow \infty$ and $\left|w_{-}\right| \rightarrow 0$ as $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$. 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. $h(t)=e^{2 t}+27 e^{32 t}$.
The function $H(t)=e^{\imath t}+3 e^{32 t}$ is a parametrization of an epicycloid.
We observe that $\mathbb{C} \backslash H(\mathbb{R})$ 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 $\mathbb{C} \backslash H(\mathbb{R})$ has infinitely many bounded components. In such a case the previous result implies that the number of $2 \pi$-periodic solutions grows arbitrarily as $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$.

## 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

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

where $U$ is an open and connected subset of $\mathbb{R}^{d}, \varepsilon \in\left[0, \varepsilon_{*}\right]$ is a small parameter and $g: \mathbb{R} \times U \times\left[0, \varepsilon_{*}\right] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{d}$ 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

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

Next we assume that $G$ does not vanish on the boundary of a certain open set $W$, whose closure $\bar{W}$ 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

$$
\operatorname{deg}(G, W, 0) \neq 0
$$

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 $[0,2 \pi] \times \bar{W} \times\left[0, \varepsilon_{*}\right]$ and so

$$
\left\|\dot{x_{\varepsilon}}\right\|_{\infty}=O(\varepsilon) \text { as } \varepsilon \searrow 0
$$

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

$$
\int_{0}^{2 \pi} g\left(t, x_{\varepsilon_{n}}(t) ; \varepsilon_{n}\right) d t=0
$$

and letting $n \rightarrow \infty$ 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

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

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 $\mathbb{C} \backslash H(\mathbb{R})$. 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

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

The averaging function is

$$
G\left(c_{1}, c_{2}\right)=\left(c_{2}, \Phi\left(c_{1}\right)\right), \quad c_{1} \in \Omega_{k}, c_{2} \in \mathbb{C}
$$

and

$$
\Phi\left(c_{1}\right)=\mp \frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{0}^{2 \pi} \frac{c_{1}-H(t)}{\left|c_{1}-H(t)\right|^{q+1}} d t
$$

In the next section we will prove the following
Claim 3.1. For each $k=1, \ldots, r$ there exists an open and bounded set $\Omega_{k}^{*}$, whose closure is contained in $\Omega_{k}$, and such that

$$
\Phi\left(c_{1}\right) \neq 0 \quad \text { if } c_{1} \in \partial \Omega_{k}^{*}, \quad \operatorname{deg}\left(\Phi, \Omega_{k}^{*}, 0\right)=1
$$

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 $\left|c_{2}\right|<1$. Moreover $G$ can be expressed as

$$
G=L \circ(\Phi \times i d)
$$

where $L: \mathbb{C}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{2}$ is the linear map $\left(c_{1}, c_{2}\right) \mapsto\left(c_{2}, c_{1}\right)$ and $i d$ 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 $\left(\begin{array}{cc}0 & I_{2} \\ I_{2} & 0\end{array}\right)$. 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

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{deg}(G, W,(0,0)) & =\operatorname{sign}(\operatorname{det} L) \cdot \operatorname{deg}\left(\Phi \times i d, \Omega_{k}^{*} \times B,(0,0)\right) \\
& =\operatorname{deg}\left(\Phi, \Omega_{k}^{*}, 0\right)=1
\end{aligned}
$$

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 $\phi_{k}(t)=\lambda\left(\psi_{k}(t)-H(t)\right)$, 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

$$
j\left(0, \phi_{k}(., \varepsilon)\right)=j\left(\Omega_{k}, H\right)
$$

when $\varepsilon$ is small enough, we proceed by contradiction. Let us assume that for some sequence $\varepsilon_{n} \searrow 0, j\left(0, \phi_{k}\left(., \varepsilon_{n}\right)\right) \neq j\left(\Omega_{k}, H\right)$. After extracting a subsequence of $\varepsilon_{n}$ we can assume that $\psi_{k}\left(t, \varepsilon_{n}\right) \rightarrow z, \psi_{k}\left(t, \varepsilon_{n}\right) \rightarrow 0$, 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

$$
\begin{aligned}
j\left(0, \phi_{k}\left(\cdot, \varepsilon_{n}\right)\right)= & -\frac{1}{2 \pi \imath} \int_{0}^{2 \pi} \frac{\dot{\psi}\left(t, \varepsilon_{n}\right)-\dot{H}(t)}{\psi\left(t, \varepsilon_{n}\right)-H(t)} d t \\
& \rightarrow \frac{1}{2 \pi \imath} \int_{0}^{2 \pi} \frac{\dot{H}(t)}{z-H(t)} d t=j(z, H)=j\left(\Omega_{k}, H\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since we are dealing with integer numbers, $j\left(0, \phi_{k}\left(., \varepsilon_{n}\right)\right)$ and $j\left(\Omega_{k}, H\right)$ 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 $V: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuously differentiable function. In addition assume that

$$
\begin{equation*}
V(z) \rightarrow+\infty \quad \text { as } z \rightarrow \partial \Omega \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

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. $\operatorname{deg}\left(\nabla V, \Omega^{*}, 0\right)=1$.

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 $\operatorname{dist}(z, \partial \Omega)<\delta$ then $V(z)>r$.

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

$$
\operatorname{deg}\left(\nabla V, \Omega^{*}, 0\right)=\operatorname{deg}\left(-\nabla V, \Omega^{*}, 0\right)
$$

Proof. By Sard lemma we know that $V$ has many regular values in the interval $] \min _{\Omega} V,+\infty\left[\right.$. 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 $\mathbb{R}^{2} \backslash \gamma$. Notice that the closure of $\Omega^{*}$ is contained in $\Omega$ because $\Omega$ is simply connected.

We know that

$$
V(z)=\alpha \quad \text { and } \quad \nabla V(z) \neq 0 \quad \text { if } z \in \gamma
$$

and so $\nabla V(z)$ must be colinear 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

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

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

$$
\Phi: \Omega_{k} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, \Phi(z)= \pm \frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{0}^{2 \pi} \frac{z-H(t)}{|z-H(t)|^{q+1}} d t
$$

where $\Omega_{k}$ is a bounded component of $\mathbb{C} \backslash H(\mathbb{R})$.

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

$$
\Phi=\mp \nabla V \quad \text { on } \Omega_{k}
$$

where $V$ is the real analytic function on $\Omega_{k}$,

$$
V(z)=\frac{1}{2 \pi(q-1)} \int_{0}^{2 \pi} \frac{d t}{|z-H(t)|^{q-1}}
$$

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 $\mathbb{R}^{2} \backslash \Gamma$. Then $\Omega$ is simply connected.

Proof. Given a Jordan curve $\gamma$ in the plane, the bounded and unbounded components of $\mathbb{R}^{2} \backslash \gamma$ 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 $\gamma \subset \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^{2} \backslash \Gamma$, 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 $\mathbb{R}^{2} \backslash \Gamma$ 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,

$$
V(z) \rightarrow+\infty \quad \text { as } z \rightarrow \partial \Omega_{k}
$$

Proof. By a contradiction argument assume the existence of a sequence $\left\{z_{n}\right\}$ in $\Omega_{k}$ with $\operatorname{dist}\left(z_{n}, \partial \Omega_{k}\right) \rightarrow 0$ and such that $V\left(z_{n}\right)$ 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

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

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

$$
\int_{0}^{2 \pi} \mu(t) d t \leq \liminf _{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{0}^{2 \pi} \frac{d t}{\left|H(t)-z_{n}\right|^{q-1}}=2 \pi(q-1) \liminf _{n \rightarrow \infty} V\left(z_{n}\right)<\infty
$$

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

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

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

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

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

$$
\int_{0}^{2 \pi} \mu(t) d t \geq \frac{1}{L^{q-1}} \int_{0}^{2 \pi} \frac{d t}{|t-\tau|^{q-1}}=+\infty
$$

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

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