

The simplest example is just given by taking  $L = T = \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2 + \dot{z}^2)$  for motion in free space without any forces. The Euler-Lagrange equations are just

$$\ddot{x} = \ddot{y} = \ddot{z} = 0, \quad (44)$$

i.e. Newton's laws of motion for a free particle.

The next simplest example arises from  $L = T - V = \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2 + \dot{z}^2) - m\psi(x, y, z)$  for motion in free space subject only to a conservative force with potential  $\psi$  (typically, Newtonian gravity.) The Euler-Lagrange equations then become

$$\ddot{x} = -\frac{\partial\psi}{\partial x}, \ddot{y} = -\frac{\partial\psi}{\partial y}, \ddot{z} = -\frac{\partial\psi}{\partial z}, \quad (45)$$

as required.

The value of the reformulation as a stationary integral emerges more clearly if we make a *change of coordinates*. For orbit problems, with  $\psi = -k/r$ , the use of Cartesian  $x, y, z$  is correct but not very helpful. Since the Lagrangian formalism does not mind which coordinates we use, let's use spherical polars instead.

Then

$$L = T - V = \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{r}^2 + r^2\dot{\theta}^2 + r^2\sin^2\theta\dot{\phi}^2) + \frac{km}{r}. \quad (46)$$

The  $\theta$ -equation is:

$$\frac{d}{dt}(r^2\dot{\theta}) - r^2\sin\theta\cos\theta\dot{\phi}^2 = 0, \quad (47)$$

which is solved by  $\theta \equiv \pi/2$ , i.e. by paths always in the equatorial plane. Restricting our attention to such paths, the remaining equations become

$$\ddot{r} - r\dot{\phi}^2 + \frac{k}{r^2} = 0, \quad (48)$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}(r^2\dot{\phi}) = 0, \quad (49)$$

which we can recognise as the equations obtained by a longer argument in the Prelims treatment. The  $\phi$ -equation obviously integrates to

$$r^2\dot{\phi} = h. \quad (50)$$

It is very important to note that the simplicity of this step arises directly from the fact that  $\phi$  never appears in  $L$ ; it is an ignorable coordinate. So in the Lagrangian formulation, the conservation of angular momentum is an *immediate* consequence.