

Variational Principles

{Section 1}

Unless otherwise specified, f will be a function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. and $\underline{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$.

• Stationary Points

A stationary point is an \underline{x}_0 such that $\nabla f|_{\underline{x}_0} = 0$.
i.e. $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} = \dots = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} = 0$.

Also, the Taylor expansion for f is:

$$\left\{ f(\underline{x}) = f(\underline{0}) + \underline{x} \cdot \nabla f + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} x_i x_j \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} + O(x^3) \right\}$$

So, about a stationary point:

$$f(\underline{x}) = f(\underline{0}) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} x_i x_j \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} + O(x^3)$$

Definition: (Hessian matrix) $\left\{ H_{i,j} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} \right\}$

Now, since $(H_{i,j})$ is symmetric, it is diagonal in some co-ordinate system (\underline{x}'_i) . In this co-ordinate system:

$$\left\{ f(\underline{x}) - f(\underline{0}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i (x'_i)^2 \right\}$$

where (λ_i) are the eigenvalues of $(H_{i,j})$.

Now, if $\lambda_i > 0$ for all $i \Rightarrow \underline{0}$ is a minimum

$\lambda_i < 0$ for all $i \Rightarrow \underline{0}$ is a maximum

$\lambda_i > 0$ for some i , $\lambda_i < 0$ for all other $i \Rightarrow \underline{0}$ is a saddle point

If some $\lambda_i = 0$, then we have a degenerate stationary point.

(For $n=2$, $\det H$, $b(H)$ is sufficient:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \det H < 0 \Rightarrow \text{saddle} \\ \det H > 0, \begin{cases} b(H) > 0 \Rightarrow \text{maximum} \\ b(H) < 0 \Rightarrow \text{minimum} \end{cases} \end{array} \right.$$

• Convex Functions : Convex functions have nice properties. e.g all stationary points are minima, and can take at most one minimum value.

Definition: (Convex Set). A set $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is convex if for any distinct $\underline{x}, \underline{y} \in S$, $t \in (0,1)$:

$$\{(1-t)\underline{x} + t\underline{y} \in S\}$$

Definition: (Convex function) A function, $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is convex if:

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{i) Domain, } D(f), \text{ is convex} \\ \text{ii) } f\{(1-t)\underline{x} + t\underline{y}\} \leq (1-t)f(\underline{x}) + t f(\underline{y}) \end{array} \right\}$, if this inequality is strict, then the function is strictly convex.

Now, suppose our function, f , is convex and once differentiable.

Define : $h(t) = (1-t)f(\underline{x}) + t f(\underline{y}) - f((1-t)\underline{x} + t\underline{y})$

By the definition of convexity, $h(t) \geq 0$ and $h(0) = 0$.

So : $\frac{h(t) - h(0)}{t} \geq 0$ for any $t \in (0,1)$

$$\Rightarrow h'(0) \geq 0$$

On the other hand, $h'(0) = f(\underline{y}) - f(\underline{x}) - (y - x) \cdot \nabla f(\underline{x})$

So : $\{f(\underline{y}) \geq f(\underline{x}) + (y - x) \cdot \nabla f(\underline{x})\}$

This says that a convex function lies entirely above its tangent plane.

Corollary: A stationary point of a convex function is a global minimum. There can be more than one global minimum, but there is at most one if the function is strictly convex.

Pf: Given $\underline{x}_0 : \nabla f(\underline{x}_0) = 0$.

$$\Rightarrow f(\underline{y}) \geq f(\underline{x}_0) + (y - x) \cdot \nabla f(\underline{x}_0) = f(\underline{x}_0).$$

We may rewrite the first-order convexity condition as:

$$(y-x) \cdot \{\nabla f(y) - \nabla f(x)\} \geq f(x) - f(y) - (x-y) \cdot \nabla f(y) \geq 0$$

^{↑ from original condition.}

So: $\{(y-x) \cdot \{\nabla f(y) - \nabla f(x)\} \geq 0\}$.

which simply says that $\nabla f(x)$ is a non-decreasing function.

Consider a twice-differentiable function now. write $y = x+h$ then, from the above condition:

$$\begin{aligned} h \cdot (\nabla f(x+h) - \nabla f(x)) &\geq 0 \\ \Rightarrow h \left[\sum_j \nabla_j f + O(h^2) \right] &\geq 0 \\ \Rightarrow h_i H_{ij} h_j + O(h^2) &\geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

So, this is true for all h if H is positive semi-definite i.e. the eigenvalues are non-negative. (if all positive, then H is definite).

Statement: Convexity \Leftrightarrow Hessian is positive semi-definite

^(definite if strictly convex.)

• Legendre Transform: Important in classical mechanics + thermodynamics to transform between Lagrangian + Hamiltonian and Helmholtz free energy + enthalpy.

Given a function (differentiable), we essentially wish to transform to the conjugate variable, $p = \frac{df}{dx}$. e.g. in classical mechanics, the conjugate momentum is $P = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}}$.

Now, $f^*(p) = f(x(p))$ is not the right choice. In particular we wish to have the property:

$$\left\{ \frac{df^*}{dp} = x \right\} \text{ i.e. } x \text{ is the conjugate of } p.$$

In terms of differentials:

$$df = \frac{df}{dx} dx = pdx$$

and $df^* = xdp$.

Consider product rule: $d(xp) = xdp + pdx$

So, defining $\{f^*(p) = x(p)p - f(x(p))\}$, then we satisfy the desired relation.

Definition: (Legendre Function) Given a function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, the Legendre transform, f^* is defined by:

$$\{f^*(p) = \sup_x \{p \cdot x - f(x)\}\}$$

The domain of f^* is the set of $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that the supremum is finite.

Note that supremum is obtained when derivative of $p \cdot x - f(x)$ is zero i.e. when $p = \nabla f(x)$.

Lemma: $\{f^*\}$ is always convex.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Pf: } f^*((1-t)p + tq) &= \sup_x \{((1-t)p \cdot x + tq \cdot x) - f(x) \} \\ &= \sup_x \{ (1-t)(p \cdot x - f(x)) + t(q \cdot x - f(x)) \} \\ &\leq (1-t) \sup_x \{ p \cdot x - f(x) \} + t \sup_x \{ q \cdot x - f(x) \} \\ &= (1-t)f^*(p) + t f^*(q) \end{aligned}$$

To show domain is convex, we note $f^*((1-t)p + tq)$ is bounded so $(1-t)p + tq$ lies in domain of f^* \therefore convex.

$$\text{e.g.: } f(x) = \frac{1}{2}ax^2 \Rightarrow p = \frac{df}{dx} = ax, \text{ so } f^*(p) = p \cdot \frac{p}{a} - \frac{1}{2}a(\frac{p}{a})^2 = \frac{p^2}{2a}$$

e.g.2: $f(x) = cx$ ($c > 0$) $\Rightarrow px - f(x) = (p-c)x$ which has no finite supremum unless $p=c$. So domain is simply $\{c\}$. So $f^*(p) = 0$.

Theorem: If f is convex, differentiable with Legendre transform, f^* . Then: [3]

$$\{f^*\}^* = f \}$$

Pf: We have $f^*(p) = (p \cdot x(p) - f(x(p)))$ where $x(p)$ satisfies $p = \nabla f(x(p))$. Differentiating w.r.t. p we have:

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla_p f^*(p) &= x_i + p_j \nabla_i x_j(p) - \nabla_i x_j(p) \nabla_j f(x) \\ &= x_i + p_j \nabla_i x_j(p) - \nabla_i x_j(p) p_j \\ &= x_i\end{aligned}$$

So $\nabla f^*(p) = x$

Then: p 's conjugate variable is x

$$\begin{aligned}\text{So: } f^{**}(x) &= (x \cdot p - f^*(p))|_{p=\nabla f(x)} \\ &= x \cdot p - (p \cdot x - f(x)) \\ &= f(x).\end{aligned}$$

Applying this to thermodynamics: Given a system, the energy is usually given in terms of entropy (S) and volume (V).

i.e $E = E(S, V)$.

Think in terms of gas inside a piston. Two things may affect energy:

- We may push piston + modify volume, corresponding to work done by gas of $-pdV$
- Alternatively, we may heat it up inducing a heat change of TdS .

So: $\{dE = TdS - pdV\}$

Comparing with chain rule, we have: $\frac{\partial E}{\partial S} = T$, $-\frac{\partial E}{\partial V} = p$.

To express the energy in terms of T (now the Helmholtz free energy) we obtain the conjugate function by taking the (negative) Legendre transform:

$$\{F(T, V) = \inf_S \{E(S, V) - TS\} = E(S, V) - S \frac{\partial E}{\partial S}\}$$

If we transform with respect to V , we obtain the enthalpy.

Lagrange Multipliers: We wish to solve problems of constrained maximisation.

e.g. find maximum of $f(x,y)$ subject to $p(x,y) = 0$ (i.e. along a path).

We require $\nabla f \cdot \underline{dl} = 0$ for \underline{dl} parallel to path. Now normal to path is ∇p . So, our condition becomes:

$$\begin{cases} \nabla f = \lambda \nabla p \\ p = 0 \end{cases} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{system to be solved for} \\ x, y, \lambda. \end{array} \right\}$$

e.g. Find radius of smallest circle centred at origin that intersects $y = x^2 - 1$.

Three methods:

i) For intersection, $x^2 + y^2 = R^2$, $y = x^2 - 1$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So: } & (x^2)^2 - x^2 + 1 - R^2 = 0 \\ \Rightarrow & x^2 = \frac{1}{2} \pm \sqrt{R^2 - \frac{3}{4}} \\ \Rightarrow & R_{\min} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

ii) Want to minimise $f(x,y) = x^2 + y^2$ subject to constraint $p(x,y) = y - x^2 + 1 = 0$.

Solve constraint to obtain $y = x^2 - 1$.

$$\text{Then } R^2(x) = f(x, y(x)) = (x^2)^2 - x^2 + 1$$

Look for stationary pts of $R^2(x)$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow (R^2(x))' &= 0 \Rightarrow x(x^2 - \frac{1}{2}) = 0 \\ \Rightarrow x &= 0, R = 1 \text{ or } x = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}, R = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \end{aligned}$$

iii) Lagrange Multipliers.

Find stationary points of function:

$$\phi(x, y, \lambda) = f(x, y) - \lambda p(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - \lambda(y - x^2 + 1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} = 2x(1+\lambda) = 0 \\ \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} = 2y - \lambda = 0 \\ \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial \lambda} = y - x^2 + 1 = 0 \end{cases} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \Rightarrow x=0, y=-1, R=\sqrt{x^2+y^2}=1 \\ \text{or } \lambda=-1, y=-\frac{1}{2}, x=\pm\frac{1}{2} \end{array} \right\}$$

so $R = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$

e.g. 2 { for $\underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, find minimum of quadratic form }

$f(\underline{x}) = \sum_i A_{ij} x_j$

on the surface $|\underline{x}|^2 = 1$.

i) Constraint imposes normalisation condition on \underline{x} , but $f(\underline{x})$ scales with \underline{x} . So, if we define:

$$\Lambda(\underline{x}) = \frac{f(\underline{x})}{|\underline{x}|^2} := \frac{f(\underline{x})}{g(\underline{x})}$$

Then the problem is unconstrained minimization of $\Lambda(\underline{x})$

$$\text{So: } \nabla_i \Lambda(\underline{x}) = \frac{2}{g} \left\{ A_{ij} x_j - \frac{f}{g} x_i \right\}$$

$$\Rightarrow A\underline{x} = \Lambda \underline{x}$$

So, extremal values of Λ are eigenvalues of A . Then, smallest value is simply smallest eigenvalue.

ii) With Lagrange multipliers. Find stationary values of:

$$\phi(\underline{x}, \lambda) = f(\underline{x}) - \lambda (|\underline{x}|^2 - 1)$$

$$\text{So: } 0 = \nabla \phi \Rightarrow A_{ij} x_j = \lambda x_i$$

$$\text{and } \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial \lambda} = 0 \Rightarrow |\underline{x}|^2 = 1.$$

which gives the same solution.

e.g. 3 { Find the probability distribution $\{p_1, \dots, p_n\}$ satisfying }

$\sum_{i=1}^n p_i = 1$, that maximises the information entropy

$S = - \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \log p_i$

Look for stationary points of:

$$\phi(p, \lambda) = - \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \log p_i - \lambda \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \right\} + \lambda$$

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial p_i} = -\log p_i - (1+\lambda) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow p_i = e^{-(1+\lambda)}$$

Now, this expression is independent of i $\therefore p_i = k \forall i$
 $\Rightarrow p_i = \frac{1}{n}$

{Section 2}

• Functional Derivatives:

Definition: (Functional) function that takes another real-valued function as an argument. Usually written $F[x]$, $x = x(t) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

e.g Given medium of refractive index $n(x)$, time taken along a path $x(t)$ is given by functional:

$$T[x] = \int_{x_0}^{x_f} n(x) dt.$$

The particular functionals we will study are as follows: given $x(t) : [\alpha, \beta] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, define:

$$\left\{ F[x] = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} f(x, \dot{x}, t) dt \right\}$$

We wish to find stationary points of the functional $F[x]$.

Suppose we vary $x(t)$ by an amount $\delta x(t)$. Then the corresponding change in $F[x]$, $\delta F[x]$ is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} \delta F[x] &= F[x + \delta x] - F[x] \\ &= \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \{f(x + \delta x, \dot{x} + \delta \dot{x}, t) - f(x, \dot{x}, t)\} dt \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now, } f(x + \delta x, \dot{x} + \delta \dot{x}, t) &\approx f(x, \dot{x}, t) + (\delta x, \delta \dot{x}) \cdot \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)_{\dot{x}} + o(\delta^2) \\ &= f(x, \dot{x}, t) + \delta x \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + \delta \dot{x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} + o(\delta^2) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{So: } \delta F[x] = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \left\{ \dot{x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + \dot{x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} \right\} dt + o(\delta^2)$$

We integrate the second term by parts:

$$\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \dot{x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} dt = \left[\dot{x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} \right]_{\alpha}^{\beta} - \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \dot{x} \frac{d}{dt} \left\{ \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} \right\} dt$$

$$\text{To get: } \delta F[x] = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \delta x \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} - \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} \right) \right] dt + \left[\delta x \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} \right]_{\alpha}^{\beta}$$

We require that the boundary term vanishes, by choice of suitable boundary conditions. e.g. x fixed at $t=\alpha, \beta \Rightarrow \delta x(\alpha) = \delta x(\beta) = 0$.

$$\text{Then: } \delta F[x] = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \left(\delta x \frac{\delta F[x]}{\delta x(t)} \right) dt$$

where $\left\{ \frac{\delta F[x]}{\delta x(t)} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} - \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} \right) \right\}$ is the functional derivative.

For stationary points of $F[x]$, we require $\frac{\delta F[x]}{\delta x(t)} = 0$. So:

Definition: The Euler-Lagrange equations for a function $x(t): \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ are: $\left\{ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} - \frac{d}{dt} \left\{ \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}_i} \right\} = 0 \right\}$ for all i , $\alpha \leq t \leq \beta$.

e.g. {Geodesic in the plane, between A, B. The length is $\int_C dl = L[y]$ }

Choose an arbitrary parametrisation, $\tau(t) = (x(t), y(t))$ for $t \in [0, 1]$ such that $\tau(0) = A$, $\tau(1) = B$.

$$\text{Now } dl = \sqrt{\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2} dt$$

$$\text{So: } L[x, y] = \int_0^1 \sqrt{\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2} dt = \int_0^1 f(x, y, \dot{x}, \dot{y}, t) dt$$

We have $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 0$ since there is no explicit dependence.

$$\text{Then: } \frac{d}{dt} \left\{ \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} \right\} = \frac{d}{dt} \left\{ \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{y}} \right\} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\dot{x}}{\sqrt{\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2}} = c, \quad \frac{\dot{y}}{\sqrt{\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2}} = s, \quad c \text{ and } s \text{ are constants}$$

Now, $c^2 + s^2 = 1$ so let $c = \cos\theta$, $s = \sin\theta$.

$$\Rightarrow (\dot{x}\sin\theta)^2 = (ij\cos\theta)^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \dot{x}\sin\theta = \pm ij\cos\theta$$

We choose θ such that we have a positive sign.

$$\Rightarrow y\cos\theta = x\sin\theta + A \text{ which is straight line of slope } \tan\theta.$$

- First Integrals: If $f(x, \dot{x}, t)$ does not depend on x , then the Euler-Lagrange equations simplify to the first integral:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left\{ \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} \right\} = 0 \Rightarrow \left\{ \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} = \text{const.} \right\} \leftarrow \text{first integral.}$$

In physical problems, this corresponds to a conserved quantity.
e.g. energy (momentum).

Now consider situation where f does not depend explicitly on t .

By the chain rule: $\frac{df}{dt} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \frac{dx}{dt} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + \frac{d\dot{x}}{dt} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{df}{dt} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \dot{x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + \ddot{x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}}$$

Substituting Euler-Lagrange equations $\left\{ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} \right) \right\}$ in gives:

$$\frac{df}{dt} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \dot{x} \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} \right) + \ddot{x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} \left\{ f - \dot{x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} \right\} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}$$

So, if $\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = 0$ then we have the first integral:

$$\left\{ f - \dot{x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} = \text{const.} \right\}$$

We may now define action. For a particle mass m ,

$$E = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 + U(x), \text{ where } v = |\dot{x}|^2$$

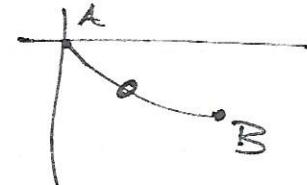
The action is defined as:

$$A = \int_A^B \sqrt{2m(E - U(x))} dl$$

The principle of least action states that this quantity is minimised in the trajectory.

e.g (Brachistochrone) What trajectory minimises time from A to B sliding along a wire.

Conservation of energy implies $\frac{1}{2}mv^2 = mgy$
 $\Rightarrow v = \sqrt{2gy}$



We wish to minimise $T = \int_A^B \frac{dl}{v}$

So: $T = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2g}} \int \frac{\sqrt{dx^2 + dy^2}}{\sqrt{y}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2g}} \int \sqrt{1 + (y')^2} dx$

There is no explicit x dependence, so:

$$f - y' \frac{df}{dy'} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{y(1 + (y')^2)}} = \text{const.}$$

$$\Rightarrow y(1 + (y')^2) = c$$

This has the solution $x = c(\theta - \sin\theta)$

$$y = c(1 - \cos\theta)$$

which is a cyloid.

Constrained variation of functionals: Consider minimising $F[x]$ subject to $g(x(t)) = 0$. This is equivalent to the unconstrained stationary values of:

$$\phi_\lambda[x] = F[x] - \lambda (P[x] - c)$$

with respect to the function $x(t)$ and λ .

e.g. (Isoperimetric Problem). Consider string of fixed length, what is the max area it can enclose? We may assume it encloses a convex region (else we can "push out"). Assuming this we split the curve into two parts:

$$\text{we have } dA = \{y_0(x) - y_1(x)\} dx$$

$$\text{So: } A = \int_a^b \{y_2(x) - y_1(x)\} dx$$

$$\text{or alternatively } A[y] = \int_a^b y(x) dx$$

$$\text{and the length is } L[y] = \int_a^b \sqrt{1 + (y')^2} dx$$

So we look for stationary points of:

$$\phi_\lambda[y] = \int_a^b \{y(x) - \lambda \sqrt{1 + (y')^2}\} dx + \lambda L$$

Since there is no explicit dependence on x we use the first integral:

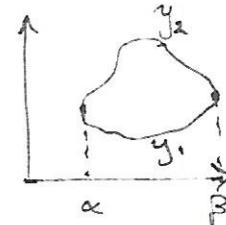
$$f - y' \frac{\partial f}{\partial y'} = \text{const.} = y_0$$

$$\text{So: } y_0 = y - \lambda \sqrt{1 + (y')^2} - \frac{\lambda (y')^2}{\sqrt{1 + (y')^2}} = y - \frac{\lambda}{\sqrt{1 + (y')^2}}$$

$$\Rightarrow (y - y_0)^2 = \frac{\lambda^2}{1 + (y')^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow (y')^2 = \frac{\lambda^2}{(y - y_0)^2} - 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{(y - y_0)y'}{\sqrt{\lambda^2 - (y - y_0)^2}} = \pm 1$$



$$\text{So: } d\left\{\sqrt{\lambda^2 - (y-y_0)^2} \pm x\right\} = 0. \quad \square$$

$$\text{Then: } \lambda^2 - (y-y_0)^2 = (x-x_0)^2$$

$$\Rightarrow (x-x_0)^2 + (y-y_0)^2 = \lambda^2$$

which is a circle of radius λ .

$$\text{So perimeter is } 2\pi\lambda \Rightarrow \frac{L}{2\pi} = \lambda$$

$$\text{Then max. area is } \pi\lambda^2 = \frac{L^2}{4\pi}.$$

e.g. (Sturm-Liouville Problem) Let $e(x)$, $\sigma(x)$, $w(x)$ be real functions of x defined on $a \leq x \leq b$. Consider special case where e and w are positive on $a \leq x \leq b$. We aim to find stationary points of the functional:

$$F[y] = \int_a^b \{e(x)(y')^2 + \sigma(x)y^2\} dx$$

$$\text{subject to } G[y] = \int_a^b w(x)y^2 dx = 1.$$

Now, by the Euler-Lagrange equations, the functional derivatives of F, G are:

$$\frac{\delta F[y]}{\delta y} = 2\{ - (ey')' + \sigma y \}$$

$$\frac{\delta G[y]}{\delta y} = 2(wy)$$

$$\text{So, the Euler-Lagrange equation of } \phi_\lambda[y] = F[y] - \lambda(G[y] - 1)$$

$$- (ey')' + \sigma y - \lambda wy = 0$$

which we write as an eigenvalue problem:

$$Ly = \lambda wy$$

$$\text{where } L = -\frac{d}{dx}(e \frac{dy}{dx}) + \sigma.$$

We note that $Ly = \lambda wy$ is linear, so if y is a soln. then Ay is.

But, $G[ay] = A^2$. So $G[y] = 1$ is a normalisation condition.

So, consider $\Delta[y] = \frac{F[y]}{G[y]}$

$\Delta[y]$ is not of the correct form to apply the Euler-Lagrange equations. However we vary it directly:

$$S\Delta = \frac{1}{G} \delta F - \frac{F}{G^2} \delta G = \frac{1}{G} \{ \delta F - \Delta \delta G \}$$

When Δ is minimised, we have:

$$\delta\Delta = 0 \Leftrightarrow \frac{\delta F}{\delta y} = \Delta \frac{\delta G}{\delta y} \Leftrightarrow Ly = \Delta wy$$

So at stationary values of $\Delta[y]$, Δ is the associated Sturm-Liouville eigenvalue.

Section 3

Configuration space: in general, for N free particles, there will be $3N$ dimensions of configuration space:

$$\xi(t) = (x_1^1, x_1^2, x_1^3, \dots, x_N^1, x_N^2, x_N^3)$$

These generalised co-ordinates need not be Cartesian co-ordinates and instead are better chosen with regard to the specific problem.

Law: (Hamilton's Principle). The actual path of a particle, $\xi(t)$, is the path that makes the action, $S[\xi]$, stationary, where:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} S[\xi] = \int L dt \\ L = T - V \end{array} \right. \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{KE} \\ \text{PE} \\ \text{Lagrangian} \end{array}$$

e.g for one particle in Euclidean 3-space: in Cartesian co-ordinates,
 $T = \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{x})^2$, $V = V(x, t)$

$$\text{Then: } S[\xi] = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \left\{ \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{x})^2 - V(x, t) \right\} dt.$$

and the Lagrangian is:

$$L(x, \dot{x}, t) = \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{x})^2 - V(x, t).$$

Apply the Euler-Lagrange equations to obtain,

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} = \frac{d}{dt} \left\{ \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} \right\} \Rightarrow m \ddot{x} = -\nabla V$$

which is Newton's Force Law.

If V is independent of time, then so is L , so we may obtain a first integral as follows:

$$\frac{dL}{dt} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial t} + \dot{x} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} + \ddot{x} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \ddot{x}}$$

$$\frac{dL}{dt} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial t} + \dot{x} \frac{d}{dt} \left\{ \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} \right\} + \ddot{x} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \ddot{x}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} \left\{ L - \dot{x} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} \right\} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial t}$$

So, if L is not explicitly dependent on time (ie $V = V(x)$), then:

$$\dot{x} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} - L = E, E \text{ is a constant.}$$

e.g. for one particle:

$$E = m|\dot{x}|^2 - \frac{1}{2}m|\dot{x}|^2 + V(x) = \frac{1}{2}m|\dot{x}|^2 + V(x) = \text{total energy.}$$

e.g. Consider a central force field, $F = -\nabla V$ where $V = V(r)$.

Use spherical polar co-ordinates, (r, θ, ϕ) where:

$$x = r \sin \theta \cos \phi$$

$$y = r \sin \theta \sin \phi$$

$$z = r \cos \theta$$

$$\text{Then, } T = \frac{1}{2}m|\dot{x}|^2 = \frac{1}{2}m(r^2 + r^2(\dot{\theta}^2 + \sin^2 \theta \dot{\phi}^2))$$

$$\text{So: } L = \frac{1}{2}mr^2 \dot{\theta}^2 + \frac{1}{2}mr^2 \sin^2 \theta \dot{\phi}^2 - V(r)$$

w.l.o.g., $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$ (motion is planar).

$$\text{So: } L = \frac{1}{2}mr^2 \dot{\theta}^2 + \frac{1}{2}mr^2 \dot{\phi}^2 - V(r)$$

Then, Euler-Lagrange equations give:

$$\begin{cases} m\ddot{r} - mr\dot{\phi}^2 + V'(r) = 0 \\ \frac{d}{dt} \{ mr^2 \dot{\phi}^2 \} = 0 \end{cases}$$

So, $m\dot{r}^2\dot{\phi} = h$ (angular momentum / unit mass).

Then $\dot{\phi} = \frac{h}{m\dot{r}^2} \Rightarrow m\ddot{r} - \frac{mh^2}{r^3} + V'(r) = 0$

If we let $V_{\text{eff}}(r) = V(r) + \frac{mh^2}{2r^2}$

Then $m\ddot{r} = -V'_{\text{eff}}(r)$

So, in a gravitational field for example,

$$V_{\text{eff}}(r) = m \left\{ -\frac{GM}{r} + \frac{h^2}{2r^2} \right\}$$

- The Hamiltonian: This formulation works with the conjugate momentum, $\{P = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}}\}$, which involves taking the Legendre transform of the Lagrangian.

The space of variables (x, P) is known as phase space.

Since the Legendre transform is self-inverse, we have:

$$L = P \cdot \dot{x} - H(x, P). \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{since } \dot{x} \text{ is conjugate} \\ \text{variable to } P \end{array} \right\}$$

where $\dot{x} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial P} \Rightarrow \{H(x, P) = P \cdot \dot{x} - L\{x, \dot{x}(P)\}\}$

So, rewriting the action:

$$\{ S[x, P] = \int (P \cdot \dot{x} - H(x, P)) dt \}$$

phase-space form.

The Euler-Lagrange equations are Hamilton's equations:

$$-\frac{\partial H}{\partial P} + \dot{x} = \frac{d}{dt} \left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial \dot{x}} \{ P \cdot \dot{x} - H(x, P) \} \right\} = 0 \Rightarrow \dot{x} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial P}$$

$$-\frac{\partial H}{\partial x} = \frac{d}{dt} \left\{ P \right\} = \dot{P} \Rightarrow \dot{P} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial x}$$

- So: $\left\{ \dot{x} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial P}, \dot{P} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial x} \right\}$

Solving these gives a trajectory in phase space. parametrised by x, P , which are said to be canonically conjugate.

Symmetries + Noether's Theorem: Given:

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$$F[x] = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} f(x, \dot{x}, t) dt$$

Suppose we transform variables, $t \rightarrow t^*(t)$, $x \rightarrow x^*(t^*)$. Then:

$$F[x] \rightarrow F^*[x^*] = \int_{\alpha^*}^{\beta^*} f(x^*, \dot{x}^*, t^*) dt^*$$

where $\alpha^* = t^*(\alpha)$, $\beta^* = t^*(\beta)$

Definition: (Symmetry), If $\{F^*[x^*] = F[x]\}$ for all x, α, β . Then * is a symmetry.

example: 1) Consider $\{t \rightarrow t, x \rightarrow x + \varepsilon\}$ for some small ε . Then:

$$F^*[x^*] = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} f(x + \varepsilon, \dot{x}, t) dt = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \left\{ f(x, \dot{x}, t) + \varepsilon \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right\} dt$$

So, the transformation is a symmetry if $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 0$.

Also, we know if $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 0$, then the first integral becomes:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} \right) = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} \text{ is conserved quantity.}$$

2) Consider $t \rightarrow t - \varepsilon$, $x \rightarrow x^* : x^*(t^*) = x(t)$. Then:

$$F^*[x^*] = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} f(x, \dot{x}, t - \varepsilon) dt = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \left\{ f(x, \dot{x}, t) - \varepsilon \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \right\} dt$$

So, symmetry if $\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = 0$.

Again, the first integral becomes:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left\{ f - \dot{x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} \right\} = 0 \Rightarrow \left(f - \dot{x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} \right) \text{ is conserved quantity.}$$

Thm (Noether's Theorem) For every continuous symmetry of $F[x]$, the solutions (stationary points of $F[x]$) will have a corresponding conserved quantity.

Continuous means built up of infinitesimal transformations e.g. reflection not continuous. If the continuity condition does not hold, then whilst there may be a symmetry, there is not necessarily a conserved quantity.

We consider symmetries that involve only the x -variable, which up to 1st order is: $\{x \rightarrow x(t) + \varepsilon h(t), t \rightarrow t\}$

By saying this is a symmetry is equivalent to saying for small ε , $\delta F[x] = 0$.

On the other hand, since $x(t)$ is a stationary point of $F[x]$, we know if ε is non-constant but vanishes at the end-points, $\delta F = 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now, } \delta F &= \int \left\{ f(x + \varepsilon h, \dot{x} + \dot{\varepsilon} h, t) - f(x, \dot{x}, t) \right\} dt \\ &= \int \left\{ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \varepsilon h + \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} \dot{\varepsilon} h + \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \dot{\varepsilon} h \right\} dt \\ &= \int \varepsilon \left\{ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} h + \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} \dot{h} \right\} dt + \int \dot{\varepsilon} \left\{ \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} h \right\} dt \end{aligned}$$

Consider the case where ε is constant. So:

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon \int \left\{ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} h + \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} \dot{h} \right\} dt &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} h + \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} \dot{h} &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

So: $\delta F = \int \dot{\varepsilon} \left\{ \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} h \right\} dt$

Now consider a variable ε that is non-constant but vanishes at the end-points, then, integrating by parts we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} \int \varepsilon \frac{d}{dt} \left\{ \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} h \right\} dt &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} \left\{ \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} h \right\} &= 0 \Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} h \text{ is the conserved quantity}} \end{aligned}$$

For example: Applying this to Hamiltonian mechanics: motion of particle is stationary point of:

$$\begin{aligned} S[x, p] &= \int \left\{ p \cdot \dot{x} - H(x, p) \right\} dt \\ \text{where } H(x, p) &= \frac{1}{2m} |\mathbf{p}|^2 + V(x) \end{aligned}$$

1) Consider first case of free particle. ($V(x) = 0$).

Since $S[x, p]$ depends only on \dot{x} (or p), it is invariant under the transformation $x \rightarrow x + z$, $p \rightarrow p$.

For a general ε that varies with time, we have:

$$\delta S = \int \{ [P \cdot (\dot{x} + \dot{\underline{x}}) - H(P)] - [P \cdot \dot{x} - H(P)] \} dt$$

$$= \int P \cdot \dot{\underline{x}} dt$$

and hence, the momentum, $\{P\}$ is conserved in the motion.

2) Time-translational invariance $\Rightarrow \{$ conservation of $H(x, P)$.

\Leftrightarrow conservation of energy.

} First integral is: $f = \dot{x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}}$ conserved.

$$\Rightarrow (P \cdot \dot{x} - H(x, P)) - \dot{x} \cdot P = -H(x, P) \text{ conserved}$$

$$\Rightarrow H(x, P) \text{ conserved}$$

3) Suppose we have a potential which depends on radius, $V(|x|)$. Then this has rotational symmetry. Choose an axis of rotation, $\underline{\omega}$.

$$\text{Then: } x \rightarrow x + \varepsilon \underline{\omega} \times x$$

$$P \rightarrow P + \varepsilon \underline{\omega} \times P$$

Then the rotation does not affect $|x|, |P|$ and hence $H(x, P)$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now: } \delta S &= \int (P \cdot \frac{d}{dt} \{x + \varepsilon \underline{\omega} \times x\} - P \cdot \dot{x}) dt \\ &= \int P \cdot \frac{d}{dt} \{\varepsilon \underline{\omega} \times x\} dt \\ &= \int P \cdot [\underline{\omega} \times \frac{d}{dt} (\varepsilon x)] dt \\ &= \int P \cdot [\underline{\omega} \times (\dot{\varepsilon} x + \varepsilon \dot{x})] dt \\ &= \int \dot{\varepsilon} P \cdot (\underline{\omega} \times x) + \varepsilon P \cdot (\underline{\omega} \times \dot{x}) dt \end{aligned}$$

Since P is parallel to \dot{x} , $P \cdot (\underline{\omega} \times \dot{x}) = 0$

$$= \int \dot{\varepsilon} (P \cdot (\underline{\omega} \times x)) dt$$

So: $\underline{\omega} \cdot (x \times P)$ is a constant of the motion. Since the above holds for all $\underline{\omega} \Rightarrow \{L = x \times P\}$ is conserved. This is the angular momentum.

{Section 4}

We now consider functions of the type: $y(x_1, \dots, x_m) : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$. Then the functional is of the form:

$$\left\{ F[y] = \int \dots \int f(y, \nabla y, x_1, \dots, x_m) dx_1 \dots dx_m \right\}$$

where ∇y is the second-rank tensor defined by:

$$\nabla y = \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_m} \right)$$

Instead of Euler-Lagrange equivalents, we consider instead directly variations in $y, \delta y$.

Example: {Minimal surfaces in \mathbb{E}^3 } Consider a surface of least area subject to some boundary conditions. Suppose (x, y) are good coordinates to describe surface S , where $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$. Then S is defined by $z = h(x, y)$.

Then, the area is given by:

$$A[h] = \int_D \sqrt{1 + h_x^2 + h_y^2} dA \quad (h_x = \frac{\partial h}{\partial x})$$

Consider a variation, $h(x, y) \rightarrow h(x, y) + \delta h(x, y)$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then: } A[h + \delta h] &= \int_D \sqrt{1 + (h_x + (\delta h)_x)^2 + (h_y + (\delta h)_y)^2} dA \\ &= A[h] + \int_D \left\{ \frac{\delta h_x (\delta h)_x + (\delta h)_y}{\sqrt{1 + h_x^2 + h_y^2}} + O((\delta h)^2) \right\} dA \end{aligned}$$

Integrating by parts:

$$\delta A = - \int_D \delta h \left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{h_x}{\sqrt{1 + h_x^2 + h_y^2}} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{h_y}{\sqrt{1 + h_x^2 + h_y^2}} \right) \right\} dA + O(\delta h^2)$$

plus boundary terms.

So, our minimal surface will satisfy:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{h_x}{\sqrt{1 + h_x^2 + h_y^2}} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{h_y}{\sqrt{1 + h_x^2 + h_y^2}} \right) = 0$$

which simplifies to the minimal surface equation:

$$\{(1 + h_y^2)h_{xx} + (1 + h_x^2)h_{yy} - 2h_x h_y h_{xy} = 0\}$$

We consider some special cases:

i) Obvious solution of $h(x,y) = Ax + By + C$

which represents a plane.

ii) If $|\nabla h|^2 \ll 1$, then h_{xx}, h_{yy} are small so, approximately:

$$\begin{aligned} h_{xx} + h_{yy} &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow \nabla^2 h &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

So harmonic functions are approximately minimal surfaces.

iii) (Cylindrically-symmetric solution) $h(x,y) = z(r)$ where

$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$. We have an ordinary differential equation:

$$rz'' + z' + (z')^3 = 0$$

which has the general solution:

$$z = A^{-1} \cosh(Ar) + B$$

which is a catenoid.

Example 2: {Small Amplitude Oscillations of uniform string} } Suppose we have string mass density, e. tension T.

Amplitude is given by $y(x; t)$, then KE is:

$$T = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^a e v^2 dx = \frac{e}{2} \int_0^a y'^2 dx$$

Potential energy is tension times length so:

$$V = T \int dl = T \int_0^a \sqrt{1 + (y')^2} dx \approx aT + \int_0^a \frac{1}{2} T (y')^2 dx$$

The aT -term can be seen as ground-state energy, and does not affect position of stationary points. Action is:

$$S[y] = \iint_0^a \left\{ \frac{1}{2} e y'^2 - \frac{1}{2} T (y')^2 \right\} dx dt$$

Applying Hamilton's principle, $\delta S[y] = 0$.

$$\text{Now, } \delta S[y] = \iint_0^a \left\{ e y \frac{\partial \delta y}{\partial t} - T y' \frac{\partial \delta y}{\partial x} \right\} dx dt$$

Integrating by parts:

$$\delta S[y] = \iint_0^a \delta y (\dot{y} - Ty'') dx dt + \text{boundary terms}$$

Assuming boundary terms vanish, we need:

$$\left\{ \ddot{y} - v^2 y'' = 0 \quad \text{where } v^2 = \frac{T}{e} \right\}$$

Example 3: (Maxwell's Equations) We wish to derive the Lagrangian for the field itself (electromagnetic).

Definitions: ρ = electric charge density

\underline{J} = electric current density.

ϕ = electric scalar potential

\underline{A} = magnetic vector potential

$\underline{E} = -\nabla\phi - \dot{\underline{A}}$ is electric field

$\underline{B} = \nabla \times \underline{A}$ is magnetic field.

We also pick convenient units where $c = \epsilon_0 = \mu_0 = 1$.

The action is now given by:

$$S[\underline{A}, \phi] = \int \left(\frac{1}{2} \{ |\underline{E}|^2 - |\underline{B}|^2 \} + \underline{A} \cdot \underline{J} - \phi \rho \right) dV dt$$

Varying \underline{A} by $\delta \underline{A}$ and ϕ by $\delta \phi$ we get:

$$\delta S = \iint \left\{ -\cancel{\underline{E} \cdot (\nabla(\delta\phi) + \frac{\partial(\delta\underline{A})}{\partial t})} - \cancel{\underline{B} \cdot \nabla \times \delta \underline{A}} + \delta \underline{A} \cdot \underline{J} - e \delta \phi \right\} dV dt$$

We integrate by parts: $\cancel{\nabla \cdot \underline{E}}$ $\cancel{\nabla \times \underline{B}}$ $\rightarrow \dot{\underline{E}}$

$$\delta S = \iint \left\{ \delta \underline{A} \cdot (\dot{\underline{E}} - \nabla \times \underline{B} + \underline{J}) + \delta \phi (\nabla \cdot \underline{E} - e) \right\} dV dt$$

Since the coefficients have to be zero:

$$\left\{ \nabla \times \underline{B} = \underline{J} + \dot{\underline{E}}, \quad \nabla \cdot \underline{E} = e \right\}$$

and from the definitions of $\underline{E}, \underline{B}$,

$$\left\{ \nabla \cdot \underline{B} = 0, \quad \nabla \times \underline{E} = -\dot{\underline{B}} \right\}$$

{Section 5}

- The Second Variation: we need to look at second functional derivatives to establish maximum + minimum properties.

- Now, suppose $x(t) = x_0(t)$ is a solution of:

$$\frac{\delta F[x]}{\delta y(x)} = 0$$

To determine the type of stationary point we must expand $F[x+\delta x]$ to second order. Let $\delta x(t) = \varepsilon \xi(t)$ for $\varepsilon \ll 1$, and functionals of the form:

$$F[x] = \int_a^b f(x, \dot{x}, t) dt$$

with $\xi(\alpha) = \xi(\beta) = 0$.

Consider variation $x \rightarrow x + \delta x$.

$$\begin{aligned} & f(x + \varepsilon \xi, \dot{x} + \varepsilon \dot{\xi}, t) - f(x, \dot{x}, t) \\ &= \varepsilon \left(\xi \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + \dot{\xi} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} \right) + \frac{\varepsilon^2}{2} \left(\xi^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + 2\xi \dot{\xi} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial \dot{x}} + \dot{\xi}^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \dot{x}^2} \right) + O(\varepsilon^3) \end{aligned}$$

Noting that $2\xi \dot{\xi} = (\xi^2)'$ and integrating parts we obtain:

$$= \varepsilon \xi \left\{ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} - \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} \right) \right\} + \frac{\varepsilon^2}{2} \left\{ \xi^2 \left\{ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} - \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial \dot{x}} \right) \right\} + \dot{\xi}^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \dot{x}^2} \right\}$$

$+ O(\varepsilon^3)$
 + boundary terms
 which vanish

So: $F[x + \varepsilon \xi] - F[x] = \int_a^b \left\{ \varepsilon \xi \left\{ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} - \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} \right) \right\} + \frac{\varepsilon^2}{2} \xi^2 F[x; \xi] + O(\varepsilon^3) \right\} dt$

where $\xi^2 F[x; \xi] = \int_a^b \left\{ \xi^2 \left[\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} - \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial \dot{x}} \right) \right] + \dot{\xi}^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \dot{x}^2} \right\} dt$

is a functional of both x and ξ . analogous to $\underline{\delta x}^T H \underline{\delta x}$

{ If $\xi^2 F[x; \xi] > 0$ for all non-zero ξ . Then a solution $x_0(t)$ is }
 { an absolute minimum. }

Example: (Geodesic's in the plane) We show that straight line is indeed shortest distance + not just stationary value.

Recall, $f = \sqrt{1+(y')^2}$

$$\text{Then: } \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 0, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y'} = \frac{y'}{\sqrt{1+(y')^2}}, \quad \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y'^2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+(y')^2}^3}$$

$$\text{So: } S^2 F[y, \xi] = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{\dot{\xi}^2}{(1+(y')^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}} dx > 0$$

So, any stationary function is indeed a minimum.

Not all functions are convex, so we may still ask whether a solution of the Euler-Lagrange equations is a local minimum.

We consider:

$$S^2 F[x_0, \xi] = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \{e(t)\dot{\xi}^2 + \sigma(t)\xi^2\} dt$$

$$\text{where } e(t) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \dot{x}^2} \Big|_{x=x_0}, \quad \sigma(t) = \left\{ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} - \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial \dot{x}} \right) \right\} \Big|_{x=x_0}$$

A necessary condition for this is:

$$\{e(t) \geq 0\} \quad (\text{Legendre condition}).$$

Example: (Brachistochrone Problem) we have:

$$T[x] \propto \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \sqrt{\frac{1+\dot{x}^2}{x}} dt$$

$$\text{So; } e(t) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \dot{x}^2} \Big|_{x_0} > 0, \quad \sigma(t) = \frac{1}{2x^2 \sqrt{x(1+\dot{x}^2)}} > 0$$

So, the cycloid does minimise T .

Now, we wish to find a sufficient condition for $S^2 F[x, \xi] > 0$.

Jacobi Condition for local minima of $F[x]$

We have the strong Legendre condition, $e(t) > 0$. Now, for a solution, x_0 , to the Euler-Lagrange equations, we have:

$$S^2 F[x_0, \xi] = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} (e(t)\dot{\xi}^2 + \sigma(t)\xi^2) dt$$

where $e(t)$, $\sigma(t)$ are as before. Assume $e(t) > 0$ for $\alpha < t < \beta$, and that $\xi(\alpha) = \xi(\beta) = 0$. When is this sufficient for $\delta^2 F > 0$.

Note that: $0 = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} (\omega \dot{\xi}^2)' dt$ since $\xi(\alpha) = \xi(\beta) = 0$.

and so: $0 = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \{ 2\omega \dot{\xi} \dot{\xi} + \ddot{\omega} \dot{\xi}^2 \} dt$

Then: $\delta^2 F = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} [e \dot{\xi}^2 + 2\omega \dot{\xi} \dot{\xi} + (\sigma + \dot{\omega}) \dot{\xi}^2] dt$

So: $\delta^2 F = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \left\{ e \left(\dot{\xi} + \frac{\omega}{e} \dot{\xi} \right)^2 + \left(\sigma + \dot{\omega} - \frac{\omega^2}{e} \right) \dot{\xi}^2 \right\} dt$

which is non-negative if $\omega^2 = (\sigma + \dot{\omega})e$

So, as long as this equation has a solution, $\delta^2 F > 0$. We also note that $\delta^2 F = 0 \Rightarrow \dot{\xi} + \frac{\omega}{e} \dot{\xi} = 0 \Rightarrow \xi(x) = C \exp\left(-\int_{\alpha}^x \frac{\omega(s)}{e(s)} ds\right)$

But $\xi(\alpha) = 0 = C \Rightarrow \xi = 0$ is only case where $\delta^2 F = 0$ may hold.

Now, let $\omega = -\frac{eu}{n}$, then:

$$e \left(\frac{u}{n} \right)^2 = \sigma - \left(\frac{eu}{n} \right)' = \sigma - \frac{(eu)'}{n} + e \left(\frac{u}{n} \right)^2$$

So: $\left\{ -\left(eu \right)' + \sigma u = 0 \quad (\text{Jacobi Accessory Equation}) \right\}$

From the definition of ω , $(\frac{u}{n})$, we require $n \neq 0$ on $[\alpha, \beta]$.

$\left\{ \text{So, if we can find non-zero } u(x), \text{ then, } \delta^2 F > 0 \right\}$

Example: (Geodesics on unit sphere). For any curve C we have:

$$L = \int_C \sqrt{d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2}$$

If θ is a good parameter for the curve, then:

$$L[\phi] = \int_{\theta_1}^{\theta_2} \sqrt{1 + \sin^2 \theta (\phi')^2} d\theta$$

Or alternatively, if ϕ is a good parameter.

$$L[\theta] = \int_{\theta_1}^{\theta_2} \sqrt{(\dot{\theta})^2 + \sin^2\theta} d\theta$$

Consider this second case,

$$f(\theta, \theta') = \sqrt{(\theta')^2 + \sin^2\theta}$$

$$\text{So: } \frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta} = \frac{\sin\theta \cos\theta}{\sqrt{(\theta')^2 + \sin^2\theta}}, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta'} = \frac{\theta'}{\sqrt{(\theta')^2 + \sin^2\theta}}$$

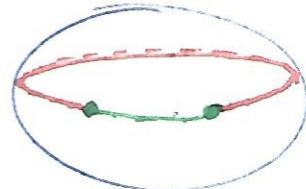
Since $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta} = 0$, we have the first integral,

$$\text{const.} = f - \theta' \frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta'} = \frac{\sin^2\theta}{\sqrt{(\theta')^2 + \sin^2\theta}} \\ \Rightarrow c \sin^2\theta = \sqrt{(\theta')^2 + \sin^2\theta} \quad (c \geq 1)$$

Consider case $c=1$ which occurs where $\theta' = 0$.

$$\Rightarrow \sin^2\theta = \sin\theta \Rightarrow (\theta = 0) \text{ or } \theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

So, $\theta(\phi) = \frac{\pi}{2}$, which generates two arcs, we ask which one minimises $L[\theta]$.



$$\text{Now, } \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial (\theta')^2} = \frac{\sin^2\theta}{((\sqrt{(\theta')^2 + \sin^2\theta})^3)} = \frac{1}{c^3 \sin^4\theta} = 1$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \theta^2} = \frac{\cos 2\theta}{\sqrt{(\theta')^2 + \sin^2\theta}} = \frac{\sin^2\theta \cos^2\theta}{((\sqrt{(\theta')^2 + \sin^2\theta})^3)} = -1$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \theta \partial \theta'} = 0$$

$$\text{So, } e(\phi) = 1, \quad \sigma(\phi) = -1$$

$$\text{And thus: } \delta^2 L[\theta_0, \xi] = \int_{\theta_1}^{\theta_2} \{ (\xi')^2 - \xi^2 \} d\theta$$

The Jacobi Accessory Equation is:

$$u'' + u = 0 \Rightarrow u \propto \sin\phi - \gamma \cos\phi \text{ for any } \gamma.$$

So, $u=0$ when $\tan\phi = \gamma$.

We note the LHS is periodic with period π , so for any ϕ_2 which is the first zero of $\tan \phi = \gamma$, there is another zero π radians later. So:

- 1) \exists nowhere-zero solution to Jacobi Accessory equations assuming the equatorial arc is such that ϕ increases by no more than π . Hence, the shorter of the two solutions is indeed a local minimum for $L[\phi]$.
 - 2) \nexists a nowhere-zero solution if ϕ increases by more than π , so $\delta^2 \not\leq 0 \Rightarrow$ Longer arc is not even local minimiser for $L[\phi]$.
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