Math 222A Lecture 8 Notes

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1 Expressing Hamilton-Jacobi Equations in Terms of Calculus of Variations

1.1 Recap: Hamilton-Jacobi equations

Last time, we started talking about Hamilton-Jacobi equations, as an example of first order PDEs:

$$\begin{cases} u_t + H(x, Du) = 0 \\ u(0) = u_0 \end{cases}$$

The characteristics for this system were given by

$$\begin{cases} \dot{u} = H_p(x, p) \\ \dot{p} = -H_x(x, p) \\ \dot{z} = H_p(x, p) \cdot p - H(x, p) \end{cases}$$

with initial data

$$\begin{cases} x(0) = x_0 \\ p(0) = \partial_x u_0. \end{cases}$$

The equations for \dot{u} and \dot{p} are called the **Hamilton equations**. We noticed that we only need to solve them first to get the characteristics, and then we can integrate the \dot{z} equation to solve it after the fact.

1.2 Calculus of variations

Today, we will be looking at the calculus of variations. Here is the setup: We have a function L(x,q) we call the **Lagrangian**, and to each function $x:[0,T] \to \mathbb{R}$, we associate to this function an **action functional**

$$\mathcal{L}(x) = \int_0^T L(x, \dot{x}) dt.$$

The question we want to ask is: what are the minimizers of \mathcal{L} ? We are looking for

$$\min_{x:[0,T]\to\mathbb{R}}\mathcal{L}(x).$$

We can think of \mathcal{L} giving the cost of the trajectory x. So we want to find the most efficient trajectory x.

If we were just minimizing a function in \mathbb{R}^n , we would look for critical points. In particular, for $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$, a minimum point in a critical point if $\nabla f = 0$. How do we do this in the case of our functional? We can talk in terms of directional derivatives. Replace x by x + hy and look at the map $h \mapsto \mathcal{L}(x + hy)$, where h = 0 is a minimum point. Assume that our perturbation y is compactly supported. In this case, at h = 0, we have

$$0 = \frac{d}{dh} \mathcal{L}(x + hy)$$

$$= \frac{d}{dh} \int_0^T L(x + hy, \dot{x} + h\dot{y}) dt$$

$$= \int_0^T L_x(x, \dot{x}) \cdot y + L_q(\dot{x}) \cdot \dot{y} dt,$$

where we are using q as a placeholder for the second variable, as we did with p before. This holds for all $y \in C_0^{\infty}([0,T])$. To deal with the \dot{y} term, we integrate by parts (using the compact support assumption):

$$= \int_0^T y(L_x(x,\dot{x}) - \frac{d}{dt}L_q(x,\dot{x})) dt$$

when integrated against any function with compact support, the part inside the parentheses gives 0. So it must equal 0, Thus, we have actually proven a theorem:

Theorem 1.1 (Euler-Lagrange equation). x is a critical point for \mathcal{L} if and only if it solves

$$L_x(x, \dot{x}) - \frac{d}{dt}L_q(x, \dot{x}) = 0.$$

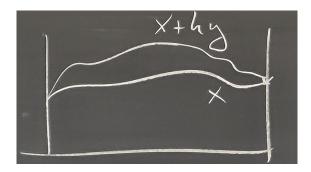
Remark 1.1. The PDE analogue takes a function $u: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ and gives the Euler-Lagrange equation

$$L_x(u, \partial u) - \partial_j L_{q_j}(u, \partial u) = 0,$$

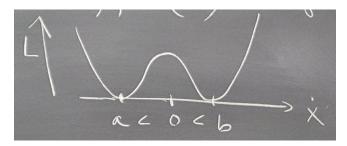
which is a second order PDE.

Remark 1.2. Our perturbation does not change the values at the endpoints x(0), x(T),

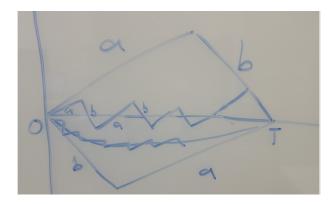
so it gives critical points in a context where x(0) and x(T) are fixed.



Remark 1.3. Suppose $L = L(\dot{x})$ is the following "double well potential."



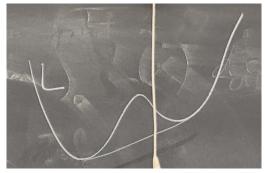
Suppose also that x(0) = x(T). We want to minimize $\int_0^T L(\dot{x}) dt \ge 0$. Can we achieve 0? We can make a line with slope a and then a line with slope b to get 0 as the minimum (notice that this is not differentiable!). Alternatively, we can alternate between lines of slope a and b in any number of ways as follows:



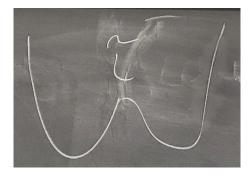
So we get that the infimum is 0 (since we can approximate any piecewise function by smoothing out the corners), and the minimum is 0 if we allow for any Lipschitz function x. In fact, all trajectories with slopes between [a,b] are limiting minimizers. This means

we are actually dealing with an **effective Lagrangian** L_{eff} with the hump between a and b flattened out. The effective Lagrangian L_{eff} is the **convex envelope** of L.

If we had another Lagrangian like the following, could we again look at the convex envelope?



Suppose we add a linear constant to get $\widetilde{L}(q) = L + c \cdot q$. Then we get the following picture, which is the same as before:



So the effective Lagrangian must be convex as a function of q. For PDEs, convexity is longer required. Instead, we require **rank one convexity**, which is given by convexity in one variable at a time.

Example 1.1. Here is an example that comes from classical mechanics. Suppose we have a particle with trajectory x(t) moving in a conservative force field $F = \nabla \phi$, where ϕ is the potential. Then we have the Lagrangian

$$L(x, \dot{x}) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}mq^2}_{\text{kinetic energy}} - \underbrace{\phi(x)}_{\text{potential energy}},$$

where we have $\phi_x = \frac{d}{dt}(m\dot{x})$, which we can write as $m \cdot \ddot{x} = F(x)$, which is Newton's law.

1.3 Connecting the Hamilton-Jacobi equations to the Euler Lagrange equations

Returning to Hamilton-Jacobi equations, we have x, p with the function H, and we want to relate this to the $x, q = \dot{x}$ and L in the Euler-Lagrange equation. We can think of the Euler-Lagrange equation as a system for x and q via

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x} = q \\ \frac{d}{dt} L_q(x, q) = L_x. \end{cases}$$

We want to let $p = L_q(x, q)$. For this to make sense, we need $q \mapsto L_q(x, q)$ to be a diffeomorphism from $\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ for fixed x.

Proposition 1.1. If $L : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is strictly convex and coercive (meaning $\lim_{q \to \infty} \frac{L(q)}{|q|} = \infty$), then $q \mapsto L_q$ is a diffeomorphism.

Proof. Injectivity: L is strictly convex, so the graph of L is above its tangent lines at points of nonintersection:

$$L(y) > L(x) + (y - x)DL(x), \qquad y \neq x.$$

We can use this to write

$$(y-x)(DL(y)-DL(x)) > 0, y \neq x.$$

This gives injectivity.

Surjectivity: We want to minimize $L(x,q)-p\cdot q$. If a minimum exists, then the gradient must equal 0:

$$L_q(x,q) = p,$$

which is our surjectivity. Why must the minimum exist? This is because $\lim_{q\to\infty} L(x,q) - p \cdot q = \infty$ by coercivity.

To check that this is a local diffeomorphism, the differential of $q \mapsto L_q(x, q)$ is $L_{qq} \ge 0$. In fact, by strict convexity, this is > 0.

So we have $p = L_q(x, q)$. We will define $H(x, p) = \max_q p \cdot q - L(x, q)$, Note that this is the same quantity we dealt with in the above proof. The functions $p \cdot q - L(x, q)$ are linear in p, so this maximum is convex.

Proposition 1.2. *H* is convex and coercive.

Proof. This comes from the strict convexity and coercivity of L.

Proposition 1.3.

$$q = H_p(x, p).$$

Proof. This is a maximum, so $H(p) + L(q) - pq \le 0$, with equality if $p = L_q(x,q)$. Now fix q and vary p! Then p is a maximum point for this expression when the derivative $H_p(p) - q = 0$.

Now let's change our variables: The Euler-Lagrange equations say

$$L_x(x,q) - \frac{d}{dt} \underbrace{L_q(x,q)}_{p} = 0$$

So we get

$$\begin{cases} \dot{p} = L_x(x, q) \stackrel{?}{=} -H_x(x, p) \\ \dot{x} = q = H_p(x, p). \end{cases}$$

We have

$$H(x,p) + L(x,q) - p \cdot q \le 0,$$

If we think of p = p(x,q), we can take $\frac{d}{dx}$ to get

$$H_x(x,p) + L_x(x,q) + \underbrace{(H_p(x,p) - q)}_{=0} \cdot \frac{\partial p}{\partial q} = 0.$$

So this gives us our relationship between H_x and L_x .