

## Chapter II. Isoperimetric Problems

### A. Abstract Derivatives

2026-01-30

For any real-valued function<sup>[al]</sup>  $\Phi: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined on a vector space  $V$ , let

$$\Phi'[\hat{x}; h] = \lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\Phi[\hat{x} + \lambda h] - \Phi[\hat{x}]}{\lambda}, \quad h \in V.$$

This is the directional derivative of  $\Phi$  at the point  $\hat{x}$ , in the direction  $h$ . The concept makes no reference at all to a topology on  $V$ ; we bring this issue in later.

**Examples.** Note that when  $V = \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\Phi$  is smooth,  $\Phi'[\hat{x}; h] = \nabla\Phi(\hat{x}) \bullet h$ . And when  $V = PWS[a, b]$  and  $\Lambda$  is the usual variational integral, with  $L = L(t, x, v)$  of class  $C^1$ , we have

$$\Lambda'[\hat{x}; h] = \int_a^b \left( \hat{L}_x(r)h(r) + \hat{L}_v(r)\dot{h}(r) \right) dr, \quad h \in PWS[a, b].$$

When  $\hat{x} \in V$  is a point at which  $\Phi'[\hat{x}; h]$  is defined for every  $h$  and the map  $h \mapsto \Phi'[\hat{x}; h]$  is linear, we use the notation  $D\Phi[\hat{x}]$  for this map. We'll manipulate it like any other matrix or linear operator  $A$ , writing  $Ah$  instead of  $A(h)$ . So  $\Phi'[\hat{x}; h] = D\Phi[\hat{x}]h$ .

It's safe to call  $D\Phi[\hat{x}]$  the Gâteaux derivative of  $\Phi$  at  $\hat{x}$ .

**Digression.** The terminology of Gâteaux derivatives is not completely standardized. Some authors require only  $\Phi'[\hat{x}; -h] = -\Phi'[\hat{x}; h]$  for each  $h$  instead of demanding linearity, while others require not only linearity but also some mild form of continuity. These fine distinctions don't make a difference for us.

Various definitions of “differentiability” are available. The same linear map  $D\Phi[\hat{x}]$  appears in all of them. The terminology (Gâteaux, Fréchet, etc.) highlights the trustworthiness of that same operator as an approximation for the underlying function near  $\hat{x}$ .

- Gâteaux differentiability describes reliable approximation independently for each given line through  $\hat{x}$ :

$$\forall h \in V, \quad \Phi[\hat{x} + \lambda h] = \Phi[\hat{x}] + \lambda D\Phi[\hat{x}]h + o(\lambda) \text{ as } \lambda \rightarrow 0.$$

- If  $V$  has a norm, we call  $\Phi$  Fréchet differentiable at  $\hat{x}$  when the operator  $D\Phi[\hat{x}]$  gives an approximation that is uniform in the direction, i.e., when

$$\Phi[\hat{x} + h] = \Phi[\hat{x}] + D\Phi[\hat{x}]h + o(\|h\|) \text{ as } \|h\| \rightarrow 0.$$

There are closely related considerations when we come to defining local minimizers in the Calculus of Variations. More on this later.

## B. Local Surjectivity

2026-02-02

**Theorem (Surjective Mapping).** Given an open set  $U$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and a  $C^1$  mapping  $G: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ , consider the Jacobian matrix at a point  $u_0 \in U$ :

$$DG(u_0) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial u_1} & \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial u_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial u_n} \\ \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial u_1} & \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial u_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial u_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial g_n}{\partial u_1} & \frac{\partial g_n}{\partial u_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial g_n}{\partial u_n} \end{bmatrix}_{u=u_0}.$$

If  $DG(u_0)$  is invertible, then  $G(u_0) \in \text{int } G(U)$ .

*Proof.* Introduce  $F: \mathbb{R}^n \times U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  by defining

$$F(x, u) = G(u) - x, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^n, u \in U.$$

Let  $x_0 = G(u_0)$ . This  $F$  is  $C^1$  and  $D_u F(x_0, u_0) = DG(u_0)$  is invertible, so the Implicit Function Theorem provides an open set  $X$  containing  $x_0$  and a  $C^1$  function  $\phi: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  such that

- (i)  $0 = F(x, \phi(x)) = G(\phi(x)) - x$ ,  $x \in X$ , and
- (ii) (a uniqueness condition we don't need).

Line (i) shows that every  $x$  in the open set  $X$  around  $x_0$  lies in the range of  $G$  (indeed  $x = G(\phi(x))$ ). That's the desired result.  $\text{////}$

**Lemma.** Given a real vector space  $V$  and linear operators  $M_1, \dots, M_n: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , TFAE:

- (a) The given operators are linearly dependent, i.e., there exist  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n \in \mathbb{R}$ , not all zero, such that

$$c_1 M_1 + c_2 M_2 + \dots + c_n M_n = 0.$$

(On the right, 0 denotes the zero operator on  $V$ .)

- (b) For each choice of  $h_1, h_2, \dots, h_n \in V$ , the  $n \times n$  matrix below is not invertible:

$$\begin{bmatrix} M_1 h_1 & M_2 h_1 & M_3 h_1 & \dots & M_n h_1 \\ M_1 h_2 & M_2 h_2 & M_3 h_2 & \dots & M_n h_2 \\ M_1 h_3 & M_2 h_3 & M_3 h_3 & \dots & M_n h_3 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & & \vdots \\ M_1 h_n & M_2 h_n & M_3 h_n & \dots & M_n h_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

*Proof.* (a $\Rightarrow$ b) For a collection of constants as described in (a), and any elements  $h_1, \dots, h_n$  of  $V$ , observe that

$$\begin{bmatrix} M_1 h_1 & M_2 h_1 & M_3 h_1 & \cdots & M_n h_1 \\ M_1 h_2 & M_2 h_2 & M_3 h_2 & \cdots & M_n h_2 \\ M_1 h_3 & M_2 h_3 & M_3 h_3 & \cdots & M_n h_3 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & & \vdots \\ M_1 h_n & M_2 h_n & M_3 h_n & \cdots & M_n h_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

In detail, row  $j$  of the indicated product equals

$$c_1 M_1 h_j + c_2 M_2 h_j + \cdots + c_n M_n h_j = (c_1 M_1 + c_2 M_2 + \cdots + c_n M_n) h_j = 0.$$

Since the column vector on the left side of this product is nonzero, the matrix involved must be singular.

(b $\Rightarrow$ a) Let's use induction, recalling that a matrix is invertible if and only if its determinant is nonzero.

The case  $n = 1$  is obvious, and it is enough to launch the generic proof.

Let's show case  $n = 2$  explicitly to make the ideas clear. So assume

$$0 = \left| \begin{bmatrix} M_1 h_1 & M_2 h_1 \\ M_1 h_2 & M_2 h_2 \end{bmatrix} \right| = (M_1 h_1)(M_2 h_2) - (M_2 h_1)(M_1 h_2) \quad \forall h_1, h_2 \in V.$$

The result is obvious if  $M_2$  is itself the zero operator, since the choices  $c_1 = 0$  and  $c_2 = 1$  give the conclusion in that case. In the complementary case, there must exist some  $h_2 \in V$  for which  $M_2 h_2 \neq 0$ . Use this  $h_2$  to define  $c_1 = M_2 h_2$  and  $c_2 = -M_1 h_2$ . Then  $c_1 \neq 0$  and the identity above becomes

$$0 = c_1(M_1 h_1) + c_2(M_2 h_1) = (c_1 M_1 + c_2 M_2)h_1 \quad \forall h_1 \in V.$$

This is the desired result.

Now if the result is known for all dimensions up to and including  $n - 1$ , imagine expanding the determinant in the statement by minors, along the first row:

$$0 = (M_1 h_1) \Delta_1 + (M_2 h_2) \Delta_2 + \cdots + (M_n h_1) \Delta_n.$$

Here each  $\Delta_j$  is  $(-1)^{j+1}$  times the determinant of a certain  $(n - 1) \times (n - 1)$  submatrix. Note that each  $\Delta_j$  involves only the  $n - 1$  inputs  $h_2, \dots, h_n$ . Now suppose  $\Delta_1 = 0$  for every possible combination of  $h_2, \dots, h_n$ . Then by the  $(n-1)$ -dimensional case of our result (known to be true, by our induction hypothesis), the operators  $M_2, \dots, M_n$  must be linearly dependent. Of course that makes the larger set  $M_1, \dots, M_n$  linearly dependent also, so the result holds. In the complementary case, there must exist some choice of  $h_2, \dots, h_n$  for which  $\Delta_1 \neq 0$ . Use this particular choice to define  $c_j = \Delta_j$  for each  $j$ , and then revisit the identity above:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= c_1(M_1 h_1) + c_2(M_2 h_1) \Delta_2 + \cdots + c_n(M_n h_1) \\ &= (c_1 M_1 + c_2 M_2 + \cdots + c_n M_n)h_1, \quad h_1 \in V. \end{aligned}$$

This is the desired result. (Note that  $c_1 \neq 0$ .)

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## C. Lagrange Multipliers

2026-02-04

Now suppose  $V$  is a real vector space on which we have real-valued function[al]s  $\Phi, \Gamma_1, \dots, \Gamma_m$ , and constants  $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_m$ . Consider the constrained optimization problem

$$\min_{x \in V} \{\Phi[x] : \Gamma_j[x] = \gamma_j, j = 1, \dots, m\}.$$

Suppose  $\hat{x}$  solves this. Let's show why the operators  $D\Phi[\hat{x}], D\Gamma_1[\hat{x}], \dots, D\Gamma_m[\hat{x}]$  must be linearly dependent.

The Lemma above is key. Pick arbitrary  $y, h_1, \dots, h_m$  in  $V$  and define  $G: \mathbb{R}^{1+m} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{1+m}$  via

$$G(r_0, r_1, \dots, r_m) = \begin{bmatrix} \Phi[\hat{x} + r_0y + r_1h_1 + \dots + r_mh_m] \\ \Gamma_1[\hat{x} + r_0y + r_1h_1 + \dots + r_mh_m] \\ \vdots \\ \Gamma_m[\hat{x} + r_0y + r_1h_1 + \dots + r_mh_m] \end{bmatrix}.$$

Now  $G(0) = (\Phi[\hat{x}], \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_m)$ . This is the limit of the sequence  $(\Phi[\hat{x}] - 1/k, \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_m)$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \dots$ , and every point in this sequence lies outside the range of  $G$ . (Proof: Once the constraints are satisfied, it's impossible to push the value of the first component lower than  $\Phi[\hat{x}]$ .) So in particular,  $G(0)$  is not an interior point of  $G(V)$ . Thanks to the Local Surjection Theorem, the following matrix must fail to be invertible:

$$DG(0) = \begin{bmatrix} D\Phi[\hat{x}]y & D\Phi[\hat{x}]h_1 & D\Phi[\hat{x}]h_2 & \dots & D\Phi[\hat{x}]h_m \\ D\Gamma_1[\hat{x}]y & D\Gamma_1[\hat{x}]h_1 & D\Gamma_1[\hat{x}]h_2 & \dots & D\Gamma_1[\hat{x}]h_m \\ \vdots & & & & \\ D\Gamma_m[\hat{x}]y & D\Gamma_m[\hat{x}]h_1 & D\Gamma_m[\hat{x}]h_2 & \dots & D\Gamma_m[\hat{x}]h_m \end{bmatrix}.$$

This happens for every choice of  $y, h_1, \dots, h_m$  in  $V$ , so by the Lemma above, the  $m + 1$  operators  $D\Phi[\hat{x}], D\Gamma_1[\hat{x}], \dots, D\Gamma_m[\hat{x}]$  must be linearly dependent.

(How much smoothness do we need? To apply the Local Surjection Theorem requires the map  $(r_0, \dots, r_m) \mapsto \Gamma_j[\hat{x} + r_0y + \sum_j r_jh_j]$  to be  $C^1$  near the origin of  $\mathbb{R}^{1+m}$ , for every choice of  $y, h_1, \dots, h_m$ .)

Linear dependence requires existence of  $c_0, c_1, \dots, c_m$ , not all zero, such that

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= c_0 D\Phi[\hat{x}] + c_1 D\Gamma_1[\hat{x}] + \dots + c_m D\Gamma_m[\hat{x}] \\ &= D \left( c_0 \Phi + c_1 \Gamma_1 + \dots + c_m \Gamma_m \right) [\hat{x}]. \end{aligned}$$

The objective functional  $\Phi$  is special, so its coefficient gets special attention. If  $c_0 \neq 0$ , we divide by it in the identity above and define  $\lambda_j = c_j/c_0$  for each  $j$ . If  $c_0 = 0$ , we skip the division and define  $\lambda_j = c_j$  for each  $j$ . The formal statement below condenses this two-way split.

**Theorem (Lagrange Multipliers).** *If  $\hat{x}$  achieves the minimum in the constrained problem above, then there exist  $\lambda_0 \in \{0, 1\}$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , not both zero, such that*

$$0 = D \left( \lambda_0 \Phi + \lambda_1 \Gamma_1 + \cdots + \lambda_m \Gamma_m \right) [\hat{x}].$$

*Remarks.* 1. Taking both  $\lambda_0 = 0$  and  $\lambda = 0$  in the conclusion above yields the correct-but-trivial statement  $0 = 0$  for each and every  $\hat{x}$ , so it is essential to stipulate “not both zero” to give the theorem any chance to be useful.

2. The possibility that  $\lambda_0 = 0$  must be allowed to obtain a correct statement, but it usually signals a situation where there is something unusual about the problem formulation or the constraint structure. This situation is called “abnormal.” In exploring a new problem, it’s typical to start with a short exploration of the abnormal case: often this is easily shown to be a dead end, which guarantees that the normal situation will capture the desired solution. Examples appear below.

**Example (Rayleigh Quotient).** Suppose  $V = \mathbb{R}^n$  and a symmetric matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is given. Here is a problem with just one constraint (so  $m = 1$ ):

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ x^T A x : |x|^2 = 1 \right\}.$$

Here  $\Phi[x] = x^T A x$ ,  $\Gamma[x] = |x|^2 = x^T I x$ ,  $\gamma = 1$ . For any  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi(x + y) - \Phi(x) &= (x + y)^T A (x + y) - x^T A x \\ &= (x^T A x + y^T A x + x^T A y + y^T A y) - x^T A x \\ &= 2x^T A y + y^T A y. \end{aligned}$$

So for any  $h \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$\Phi'[x; h] = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\Phi[x + rh] - \Phi[x]}{r} = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0^+} (2x^T A h + rh^T A h) = 2x^T A h.$$

This is indeed a scalar-valued linear function of  $h$ , so (as an operator)  $D\Phi[x] = 2x^T A$ . For the special case  $A = I$  we get  $D\Gamma[x] = 2x^T$ .

Now if  $\hat{x}$  gives the minimum, there exist  $\lambda_0 \in \{0, 1\}$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ , not both zero, such that

$$0 = D(\lambda_0 \Phi + \lambda \Gamma)[\hat{x}] = 2\lambda_0 \hat{x}^T A + 2\lambda \hat{x}^T.$$

Take transposes (remember  $A = A^T$ ) and cancel 2’s to show that

$$\lambda_0 A \hat{x} + \lambda \hat{x} = 0.$$

Could  $\lambda_0 = 0$  work? No, because “not both zero” then requires  $\lambda \neq 0$ , which entails  $\hat{x} = 0$ , and that is incompatible with the constraint. So the problem is normal and

we take  $\lambda_0 = 1$ . This shows that  $\hat{x}$  is an eigenvector of  $A$ , with eigenvalue  $-\lambda$ . The constraint requires  $|\hat{x}| = 1$ . Consequently

$$\Phi[\hat{x}] = (\hat{x})^T A \hat{x} = (\hat{x})^T (-\lambda \hat{x}) = -\lambda.$$

Geometrically, the Lagrange Multiplier Rule focusses the search for minimizers in this problem to unit eigenvectors for  $A$ . The absolute minimum for  $\Phi$  on the unit sphere is achieved by the smallest eigenvalue. Every eigenvector for  $A$  is compatible with some solution of the Lagrange Multiplier setup, but the ones for other eigenvalues do not give the minimum. The largest eigenvalue gives the *maximum*. If there are eigenvalues strictly between the smallest and the largest, each of their eigenvectors gives neither a min nor a max.

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**Practice.** Let  $A$  be a symmetric matrix of shape  $n \times n$  and let  $\hat{u}$  be any eigenvector of  $A$ . Show that the minimum of  $x^T A x$  on the slice of the unit sphere  $|x|^2 = 1$  defined by the orthogonality condition  $\hat{u}^T x = 0$  is again an eigenvalue of  $A$ .

**Practice.** Let  $A$  be a symmetric matrix of shape  $n \times n$  and let  $\hat{u}_1, \dots, \hat{u}_k$  be linearly independent eigenvectors of  $A$ ; assume  $k < n$ . Show that the minimum of  $x^T A x$  on the slice of the unit sphere  $|x|^2 = 1$  defined by the orthogonality condition  $\hat{u}_j^T x = 0$  for  $j = 1, 2, \dots, k$  is again an eigenvalue of  $A$ .

**Example.** Here is an abnormal problem in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ :

$$\min \left\{ \phi(s, t) = t e^s : 0 = g(s, t) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} s^2 + t^2 \right\}.$$

The only point where  $g = 0$  is  $\hat{x} = (0, 0)$ , so it must be the point that gives the minimum. Lagrange says there must be some  $\lambda_0, \lambda$  (not both zero) such that

$$\begin{aligned} (0, 0) &= \nabla(\lambda_0 \phi + \lambda g)(\hat{x}) \\ &= \lambda_0(0, 1) + \lambda(0, 0) = (0, \lambda_0). \end{aligned}$$

This is correct when  $\lambda_0 = 0$  (any  $\lambda$  then works), but it never holds with  $\lambda_0 = 1$ . ////

## D. Applications in the Calculus of Variations

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The standard isoperimetric problem

$$\begin{aligned} \min \{ \Lambda[x] := \int_a^b L(t, x(t), \dot{x}(t)) dt : x \in PWS[a, b], x(a) = A, x(b) = B, \\ \int_a^b G_j(t, x(t), \dot{x}(t)) dt = \gamma_j, j = 1, 2, \dots, m \} \end{aligned}$$

fits the pattern described abstractly above. We need only recognize the vector space  $X$ , affine subset  $S$ , subspace  $V$ , and functional  $\Gamma$  as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} S &= \{x \in PWS[a, b] : x(a) = A, x(b) = B\}, \\ V &= V_{II} = \{y \in PWS[a, b] : y(a) = 0 = y(b)\}, \\ \Gamma[x] &= \int_a^b G(t, x(t), \dot{x}(t)) dt. \end{aligned}$$

The smoothness conditions on  $\Lambda$  and  $\Gamma$  will hold whenever the corresponding integrands  $L$  and  $G$  are of class  $C^1$ . The extremality theorem stated above concerns the operator

$$(\lambda_0\Lambda + \sum_{j=1}^m \lambda_j\Gamma_j)[x] = \int_a^b \left( \lambda_0 L(t, x(t), \dot{x}(t)) + \sum_{j=1}^m \lambda_j G_j(t, x(t), \dot{x}(t)) \right) dt.$$

Conclusion (3), that  $D(\lambda_0\Lambda + \sum_j \lambda_j\Gamma_j)[\hat{x}] = 0$ , is equivalent to the statement that the arc  $\hat{x}$  obeys IEL for the integrand

$$\tilde{L}(t, x, v) = \lambda_0 L(t, x, v) + \sum \lambda_j G_j(t, x, v).$$

The direct translation of the abstract theorem into the present context is as follows:

**Theorem.** *Suppose  $\hat{x}$  solves the isoperimetric variational problem stated above. If both  $L$  and  $G$  are  $C^1$ , then there must be constants  $\lambda_0 \in \{0, 1\}$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ , not both zero, such that for some  $c$ ,*

$$\lambda_0 \hat{L}_v(t) + \lambda \hat{G}_v(t) = c + \int_a^t \left( \lambda_0 \hat{L}_x(r) + \lambda \hat{G}_x(r) \right) dr \quad t \in [a, b].$$

*Remarks.* 1. On regularity: Weierstrass/Hilbert applies to extremals for a given Lagrangian. Thus it applies if you use  $\tilde{L} = \lambda_0 L + \lambda_1 G_1 + \dots + \lambda_m G_m$ .

2. On the natural boundary conditions: Adding  $\ell(x(a), x(b))$  to  $\Lambda$  and  $g_j(x(a), x(b))$  to  $\Gamma_j$  is fully compatible with the developments above. In a problem where both endpoints are unconstrained, the minimizing  $\hat{x}$  will be an extremal for  $\tilde{L}$  as defined above, and also the endpoint function

$$\tilde{\ell}(x, y) = \lambda_0 \ell(x, y) + \sum_j \lambda_j g_j(x, y)$$

will make

$$(p(a), -p(b)) = \nabla \tilde{\ell}(\hat{x}(a), \hat{x}(b)), \quad \text{where } p(t) = \hat{L}_v(t) \text{ e.a. } t \in [a, b].$$

**An Abnormal Situation.** In the isoperimetric problem

$$\min \left\{ \int_0^1 t^2 \dot{x}(t)^2 dt : x(0) = 0, x(1) = 1, \int_0^1 \sqrt{1 + \dot{x}(t)^2} dt = \sqrt{2} \right\},$$

every arc providing a global minimum must have corresponding constants  $\lambda_0 \in \{0, 1\}$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ , not both zero, such that  $\hat{x}$  obeys (IEL) for

$$\tilde{L} = \lambda_0 t^2 v^2 + \lambda \sqrt{1 + v^2}.$$

That is, since  $\tilde{L}_x = 0$ , some constant  $c$  obeys

$$c = \hat{L}_v(t) = 2\lambda_0 t^2 \dot{\hat{x}}(t) + \lambda \frac{\dot{\hat{x}}(t)}{\sqrt{1 + \dot{\hat{x}}(t)^2}}.$$

Closer inspection of the constraints reveals there is only one admissible arc, namely  $\hat{x}(t) = t$ . This arc must certainly give the minimum, and substitution in the relation above gives

$$2\lambda_0 t^2 + \frac{\lambda}{\sqrt{2}} = c \quad \forall t \in [0, 1].$$

This forces  $\lambda_0 = 0$ : the only form in which the conclusion of the theorem holds is the abnormal one. ////

## F. The Catenary

We consider a flexible chain of length  $\gamma$  hanging between points  $(a, A)$  and  $(b, B)$  in a vertical plane. The shape of the chain will minimize the potential energy. Assuming constant linear density  $\rho$ , a segment of length  $ds$  will have mass  $dm = \rho ds$  and gravitational potential energy  $dU = (dm)(g)(x) = \rho g x \sqrt{dt^2 + dx^2}$ . This leads to the problem

$$\begin{aligned} \text{minimize} \quad & \Lambda[x] = \int_a^b x \sqrt{1 + \dot{x}(t)^2} dt \\ \text{over all} \quad & x \in PWS[a, b] \\ \text{subject to} \quad & \Gamma[x] = \int_a^b \sqrt{1 + \dot{x}(t)^2} dt = \gamma, \\ & x(a) = A, \quad x(b) = B. \end{aligned}$$

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We look for admissible arcs that are extremal for  $\tilde{L} = (\lambda_0 x + \lambda) \sqrt{1 + v^2}$ , with  $\lambda_0 \in \{0, 1\}$  and  $\lambda$  not both zero. Now if  $\lambda_0 = 0$ , we know extremals for  $\sqrt{1 + v^2}$  are straight lines. The straight line from  $(a, A)$  to  $(b, B)$  will be admissible exactly when its length exactly matches the available length, i.e., when

$$\gamma = \sqrt{(B - A)^2 + (b - a)^2}.$$

There is no meaningful choice available in this situation, but it is a valid optimum in a well-defined instance of the problem. Of course if the available length obeys  $\gamma < \sqrt{(B - A)^2 + (b - a)^2}$  then there are no admissible arcs, so the problem has no solution. If the reverse inequality holds (strictly), there is a legitimate choice to make, and we will need  $\lambda_0 = 1$  to do it. So we focus on  $\tilde{L} = (x + \lambda) \sqrt{1 + v^2}$ . This has the special form  $f(x) \sqrt{1 + v^2}$  considered in general some lectures ago. For an extremal  $x()$ , there must be a constant  $k$  such that

$$k(x(t) + \lambda) = \sqrt{1 + \dot{x}(t)^2}$$

Clearly  $k = 0$  is not compatible, so the continuous function  $x(t) + \lambda$  cannot change sign. It follows that  $L_{vv}(t, x(t), v)$  never changes sign, so  $x \in C^2$ . Standard manipulations lead to

$$\dot{x}(t)^2 = k^2(x(t) + \lambda)^2 - 1.$$

On any interval where the sign of  $\dot{x}$  is  $\sigma \in \{-1, 1\}$ ,

$$\frac{dx}{\sqrt{k^2(x + \lambda)^2 - 1}} = \sigma dt.$$

Substitute  $u = k(x + \lambda)$ ,  $du = k dx$ , to get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{k} \int \frac{du}{\sqrt{u^2 - 1}} &= \sigma t + \frac{C(\sigma)}{k} \\ \frac{1}{k} \log \left| u + \sqrt{u^2 - 1} \right| &= \sigma t + \frac{C(\sigma)}{k} \\ \log \left| u + \sqrt{u^2 - 1} \right| &= \sigma kt + C(\sigma). \end{aligned}$$

Take a chance on  $u(t) > 1$ , in which case

$$u + \sqrt{u^2 - 1} = e^{\sigma kt + C(\sigma)}.$$

This implies

$$\begin{aligned} u^2 - 1 &= \left( e^{\sigma kt + C(\sigma)} - u \right)^2 = e^{2(\sigma kt + C(\sigma))} - 2ue^{\sigma kt + C(\sigma)} + u^2 \\ 2ue^{\sigma kt + C(\sigma)} &= e^{2(\sigma kt + C(\sigma))} + 1 \\ u &= \frac{e^{\sigma kt + C(\sigma)} + e^{-\sigma kt - C(\sigma)}}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Note

$$\dot{u} = \frac{\sigma k e^{\sigma kt + C(\sigma)} - \sigma k e^{-\sigma kt - C(\sigma)}}{2}.$$

To make a smooth connection from an interval with  $\sigma = +1$  to an interval with  $\sigma = -1$  at some instant  $t$ , that transition point will have to make  $\dot{u}(t) = 0$  in two ways:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= e^{kt+C(1)} - e^{-kt-C(1)} \implies kt + C(1) = 0 \\ 0 &= -e^{-kt+C(-1)} + e^{kt-C(-1)} \implies kt - C(-1) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

To reconcile these requires  $C(-1) = -C(1)$ . Now write  $C = C(1)$  and summarize:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{u} > 0 &\implies u = \frac{e^{kt+C} + e^{-kt-C}}{2}, \\ \dot{u} < 0 &\implies u = \frac{e^{-kt-C} + e^{kt+C}}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

Excellent: both expressions on the right are identical. So the single form below covers both cases at once:

$$u(t) = k(x(t) + \lambda) = \frac{e^{kt+C} + e^{-kt-C}}{2} = \cosh(kt + C).$$

We know  $x$  is convex (since  $f(x) = x + \lambda$  is increasing, and we showed this in the general discussion), so we must have  $k > 0$ .

Now we have  $x(t) = k^{-1} \cosh(kt + C) - \lambda$ , with the three constants  $k > 0$ ,  $C$ , and  $\lambda$  still to determine. The endpoint conditions give two equations, and the third comes from the arc length constraint. For the latter, we note that  $\dot{x}(t) = \sinh(kt + C)$  and insist upon

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma &= \int_a^b \sqrt{1 + \sinh^2(kt + C)} dt = \int_a^b \sqrt{\cosh^2(kt + C)} dt \\ &= k^{-1} \sinh(kt + C) \Big|_a^b = k^{-1} \sinh(kb + C) - k^{-1} \sinh(ka + C). \end{aligned}$$

Rearranging the two endpoint equations by keeping one as-is and using the difference instead of the second leads to these 3 equations for the 3 unknowns  $k$ ,  $C$ , and  $\lambda$ :

$$\begin{aligned} (1) \quad &B - A = k^{-1} \cosh(kb + C) - k^{-1} \cosh(ka + C) \\ (2) \quad &\gamma = k^{-1} \sinh(kb + C) - k^{-1} \sinh(ka + C) \\ (3) \quad &\lambda = k^{-1} \cosh(ka + C) - A \quad \left[ = k^{-1} \cosh(kb + C) - B \right] \end{aligned}$$

In this form, the constant  $\lambda$  does not appear in equations (1)–(2), so we can solve this pair of equations for  $k$  and  $C$ , and then recover  $\lambda$  from (3). Typically this calls for an approximate solution from the computer.

(Newton's Method for solving  $F(p) = 0$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  for a given function  $F: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is an effective choice.)

Let's try the case where  $A = B$ . This makes  $B - A = 0$  in (1), leading to  $\cosh(kb + C) = \cosh(ka + C)$ . Since  $\cosh$  is even,  $k > 0$ , and  $a < b$ , we must have

$$ka + C = -(kb + C), \quad \text{i.e.,} \quad 2C = -k(b + a), \quad \text{i.e.,} \quad C = -\frac{k(b + a)}{2}.$$

This reduces the remaining equations to

$$\begin{aligned} (2) \quad &\gamma = k^{-1} \sinh(\frac{1}{2}k(b - a)) - k^{-1} \sinh(\frac{1}{2}k(a - b)) = 2k^{-1} \sinh(\frac{1}{2}k(b - a)) \\ (3) \quad &\lambda = k^{-1} \cosh(\frac{1}{2}k(b - a)) - A \end{aligned}$$

Given  $\gamma > 0$ , solve (2) for  $k$ , then use

$$x(t) = k^{-1} [\cosh(kt) - \cosh((\frac{1}{2}k(b - a)))] + A, \quad a \leq t \leq b.$$

In the even more special case where  $A = B$  and  $b = -a > 0$ , we get

$$(2) \quad \gamma = 2k^{-1} \sinh(kb)$$

$$(3) \quad \lambda = k^{-1} \cosh(kb) - A$$

Given  $\gamma > 0$ , solve (2) for  $k$ , then use

$$x(t) = k^{-1} [\cosh(kt) - \cosh(kb)] + A, \quad -b \leq t \leq b.$$

Note that the function  $k \mapsto 2k^{-1} \sinh(kb)$  on the right side in (2) is even, increasing in the interval  $k \geq 0$ , and has the limit  $2b$  as  $k \rightarrow 0^+$ . As anticipated above, there is no solution if  $\gamma < 2b$  and some kind of degenerate solution when  $\gamma = 2b$ .

Note that the version of (2) arising in the symmetric case can be rearranged as

$$\frac{\gamma}{2b} = \frac{\sinh(kb)}{kb} = \frac{\sinh(z)}{z}, \quad z = kb.$$

Thus a systematic method for inverting the function  $z^{-1} \sinh(z)$  is all we would need to settle the symmetric case for any real  $b > 0$ .

## G. Wishful Thinking

2026-02-11

*“In the fields of observation, chance only favours the mind which is prepared . . .”*  
— Louis Pasteur, 1854

Let  $X$  be a real vector space, with a subset  $S$ . Suppose functionals  $\Lambda, \Gamma: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are given, together with a constant  $\gamma$ , and we face the optimization problem

$$\min_{x \in S} \{\Lambda[x] : \Gamma[x] = \gamma\}. \quad (P)$$

Here are two lines of reasoning that produce results that resemble the Lagrange Multiplier Rule. Their limitations are subtle, but important.

### Optimistic Alternative 1.

**Theorem.** Suppose  $\hat{x} \in S$  is admissible in (P). If there is some  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$x = \hat{x} \text{ minimizes } \Lambda[x] + \lambda \Gamma[x] \quad (*)$$

then  $\hat{x}$  gives a minimum in (P).

*Proof.* For any  $x \in S$  obeying  $\Gamma[x] = \gamma$ , line (\*) gives the central inequality below:

$$\begin{aligned} \Lambda[x] &= \Lambda[x] + \lambda(\Gamma[x] - \gamma) \\ &= (\Lambda[x] + \lambda \Gamma[x]) - \lambda \gamma \\ &\geq (\Lambda[\hat{x}] + \lambda \Gamma[\hat{x}]) - \lambda \gamma \\ &= \Lambda[x] + \lambda(\Gamma[x] - \gamma) \\ &= \Lambda[\hat{x}]. \end{aligned}$$

This is the desired result. ////

**Implementation.** If the set  $S$  is a shifted copy of some vector space  $X$ , and both  $\Lambda$  and  $\Gamma$  are Gâteaux differentiable on  $S$ , then every  $\hat{x}$  satisfying  $(*)$  will be found among solutions of

$$0 = D(\Lambda + \lambda\Gamma)[\hat{x}] \quad \text{on } X. \quad (**)$$

So we look for points  $\hat{x}$  in  $S$  and constants  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  for which  $\Gamma[\hat{x}] = \gamma$  and  $(**)$  holds. If we find one that actually minimizes  $\tilde{\Lambda} = \Lambda + \lambda\Gamma$ , it is guaranteed to be a minimizer for  $(P)$ .

**Limitations.** The Theorem above provides a simple test that, if passed, guarantees that an admissible point  $\hat{x}$  solves the given problem. But *there is no guarantee that the test will identify every solution*. The next example illustrates how the procedure just outlined can break down, leaving its user with a page filled with calculations having no obvious relevance to anything.

**Example.** Consider this problem with  $S = X = \mathbb{R}^2$ , where typical points have the form  $x = (s, t)$ :

$$\min \left\{ \ell(s, t) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} s + t : 1 = g(s, t) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} st, s > 0 \right\}.$$

The suggested procedure is to look for feasible points  $(s, t)$  where some  $\lambda$  makes  $\nabla \tilde{\ell} = 0$  for  $\tilde{\ell} = \ell + \lambda g = s + t + \lambda st$ . Here

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \nabla \tilde{\ell}(s, t) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \lambda t \\ 1 + \lambda s \end{bmatrix} \iff \lambda s = \lambda t = -1.$$

Clearly  $\lambda = 0$  can't work, so we focus on points where  $s = t$ . Then the constraint forces  $1 = st = s^2$ , so  $s = 1$ , and our unique point of interest is  $\hat{x} = (1, 1)$ , with corresponding multiplier  $\lambda = -1$ . It's easy to see geometrically, or by substituting  $s = 1/t$  and using calculus, that  $\hat{x}$  really is this problem's global solution. However, the theorem above won't confirm this because  $\hat{x}$  **does not minimize** the function

$$(s, t) \mapsto s + t + \lambda st = s + t - st.$$

It's a critical point, but the inputs  $s = 1 + r$  and  $t = 1 + \sigma r$  give

$$s + t - st = (1 + r) + (1 + \sigma r) - (1 + r + \sigma r + \sigma r^2) = 1 - \sigma r^2.$$

Thus the point  $\hat{x}$  maximizes  $\tilde{\ell}$  along the lines where  $\sigma > 0$  and minimizes  $\tilde{\ell}$  along the lines where  $\sigma < 0$ :  $\hat{x}$  is a *saddle point*, not a minimizer. So this simple problem has a solution, but the procedure outlined above won't suffice to find it. In fact, this process alone provides no firm reason for thinking the point  $\hat{x}$  is preferable to any other. ////

**Optimistic Alternative 2.** Extend the given problem  $(P)$  by defining the *value function*

$$V(\gamma) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \min \{ \Lambda[x] : \Gamma[x] = \gamma \}. \quad P(\gamma)$$

Imagine starting with a nominal problem in which  $\gamma = \hat{\gamma}$  happens to have a minimizer  $\hat{x}$ , and we are interested in what would change if the nominal value of the constraint was allowed to deviate from  $\hat{\gamma}$ . The baseline situation is

$$\Lambda[\hat{x}] = V(\hat{\gamma}) = V(\Gamma[\hat{x}]) \quad (1)$$

Now fix any  $y$  in  $X$ , and put  $\gamma = \Gamma[y]$  into the definition above. Then the minimization problem sets up a contest between all  $x$  that satisfy  $\Gamma[x] = \Gamma[y]$ . Clearly one of the choices for  $x$  compatible with the constraints is our starting function  $y$  itself, so  $V(\gamma) \leq \Lambda[y]$ . (The input  $y$  is admissible, but there is no particular reason to expect it to actually provide a minimum.) Recalling the choice of  $\gamma$ , we have

$$V(\Gamma[y]) = V(\gamma) \leq \Lambda[y], \quad \forall y \in X. \quad (2)$$

(The same reasoning applies to each fixed  $y \in X$  independently, and that's expressed by the quantifiers in (2).)

Taken together, lines (1)–(2) imply

$$[0 = ] \Lambda[\hat{x}] - V(\Gamma[\hat{x}]) \leq \Lambda[y] - V(\Gamma[y]), \quad \forall y \in X.$$

That is, the function  $y \mapsto (\Lambda - V \circ \Gamma)[y]$  has an unconstrained minimum over  $X$  at the point  $y = \hat{x}$ . Therefore

$$0 = D(\Lambda - V \circ \Gamma)[\hat{x}] = D\Lambda[\hat{x}] - V'(\Gamma[\hat{x}])D\Gamma[\hat{x}].$$

Defining  $\lambda = -V'(\hat{\gamma})$ , we have the same conclusion derived carefully in previous sections: *If  $\hat{x}$  is a minimizer in problem  $P(\hat{\gamma})$ , then there exists some constant  $\lambda$  such that*

$$0 = D(\Lambda + \lambda\Gamma)[\hat{x}].$$

**Limitations.** The weak point in the reasoning above is the *implicit assumption* that the function  $V$  is differentiable at  $\hat{\gamma}$ . Independent effort using quite different methods is required to put a solid foundation under this approach. (Success is possible, however.)

**Interpretation.** In normal problems with a unique minimizer  $\hat{x}$  and a unique corresponding Lagrange multiplier  $\lambda$ , this alternative derivation suggests a new interpretation for the number  $\lambda$ . Namely,  $-\lambda$  tells the rate of change of the objective value with respect to the constraint levels.

In Economics, problem  $P(\gamma)$  might be faced by some business owner, whose goal is to minimize some financial loss (measured in dollars). Then the negative loss,  $-V$ , would be the owner's *profit*. Meanwhile, the number  $\gamma$  might represent the available amount of some commodity important in the business, perhaps in units of kg. Then  $d(-V)/d\gamma$  tells the rate of change in the owner's profit as the available resource increases. Typically, having more resources drives profits up, so the multiplier  $\lambda = d(-V)/d\gamma > 0$ . The units of  $\lambda$  are *dollars per kilogram*, and the standard name for

it in economics is the *shadow price*. It tells the value of resource  $\gamma$  to the business owner interested in problem  $P(\gamma)$ . The owner will compare  $\lambda$  with the cost of  $\gamma$  on the open market. If the market price is below  $\lambda$ , the owner can buy some  $\gamma$  and increase their profit by more than they paid; if the market price is above  $\lambda$ , selling some  $\gamma$  in the market will reduce profit from the optimization, but that loss will be more than covered by the profit from selling the raw material.

**Summary: Problem-Solving Steps.** Given an isoperimetric problem of the form above, ...

1. Find all admissible extremals for *a linear combination of the constraint integrands  $G_j$  alone*. These are the problem's "abnormal extremals," since they satisfy the conclusions of the main theorem with  $\lambda_0 = 0$ . In most problems this set of arcs is empty, or reveals that the set of competing arcs is somehow degenerate.
2. Find all admissible  $\hat{x}$  that, together with some constant  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , satisfy IEL for  $\tilde{L} = L + \sum_j \lambda_j G_j$ .
3. If the problem has a solution, it is guaranteed to appear on the list of arcs identified in Steps 1 and 2. (We earned this knowledge through hard work in Sections B–C.)
4. For each pair  $(\hat{x}, \lambda)$  found in Step 2, take a chance: test whether the mapping  $x \mapsto \Lambda + \lambda\Gamma$  is minimized over  $S$  by  $\hat{x}$ . If so, you win:  $\hat{x}$  gives the minimum in the stated problem. (If not, it is still possible that  $\hat{x}$  is a minimizer ... but unfortunately the super-easy proof of Wishful Thinking Option 1 is not powerful enough to detect that.)