

We assume that you are familiar with the standard tests for extrema when we have a function f of more than one independent variable; we usually study $f(x, y)$ but the same ideas work for $f(x, y, z)$, etc. The important thing is being clear on the difference between **independent** and **non-independent** variables. In this introduction we and examples we write the variable as (x, y) or (x, y, z) , but use vector notation in describing the general principle.

1 Independent Variables

Suppose we want to find the extrema of $f(x, y)$ where (x, y) ranges over some domain D (for convenience we always assume that f has continuous partials). The standard method is (a) to identify the possible interior extrema by finding points (x, y) where $\nabla f(x, y) = \mathbf{0}$. This is where the issue of the variables being independent arises, since when they are independent, we may leave (x, y) in any direction and check whether f increases or decreases in that direction (that is why directional derivatives are introduced.) we introduced directional derivatives in the previous lecture). Only if $\nabla f(x, y) = \mathbf{0}$ will the *directional derivative* of f in any direction from (x, y) be zero, which means that there is no obvious direction in which to go from (x, y) where f would increase or decrease, and so (x, y) has to be considered a point at which f might attain an extremum.

Step (a) is followed by (b): identifying the possible extrema taken on the boundary of D , the situation discussed here.

2 Dependent variables

The situation is different when we look for points on the boundary of D at which the extrema occur; this is analogous to checking at the 'endpoints' when f is defined on $[a, b]$, and f might have an extremum at either $x = a, x = b$ without $f'(a)$ or $f'(b)$ vanishing. In two variables this usually that means that a given portion of ∂D (the boundary of D) is represented by one of the forms (i) $y = g(x)$, (ii) $x = g(y)$, or (iii) $(x, y) = (x(t), y(t))$, so that t is a parameter.

It is important to see in that situation we have lost an independent variable! In case (i) we are saying that only x is independent, so that once x is given we know y – that can't occur were the variables independent. In (ii) y is the only independent variable, and in (iii) only t is independent. So, for example, in (i), we have $f(x, y) = f(x, g(x)) = F(x)$, in case (ii) $f(x, y) = F(y)$, and in (iii) $f(x, y) = f(x(t), y(t)) = F(t)$ [I am using the letter F for a different function in each case]. When $(x, y) \in \partial D$, the variables are not independent, so we are not able to move (x, y) in any direction we choose and remain on the boundary. That is the reason f might have an extremum at (x, y) without $\nabla f(x, y)$ being zero.

(When we consider a function f of n variables defined in a region D , there will in general be $n - 1$ independent variables on ∂D .)

In our earlier homework, when doing these problems without Lagrange multipliers, we would simply study f on this portion of ∂D by going back to one-variable maximum/minimum techniques from calculus, and so identify all possible extrema on the boundary. This can lead to many cases, when the boundary has pieces which are of various types (i)–(iii). [There will be examples given.]

3 Naïve way to handle boundary situation

The Lagrange method is a more insightful – and simple – way of handling the situation that the number of independent variables is reduced — that is what we mean by there being a *constraint*. As we have mentioned, the constraint is that either $y = g(x), x = h(y)$ or $x = x(t), y = y(t)$, etc., which as we have observed reduces the number of independent variables.

4 Lagrange’s insight

Lagrange had an insight that uses geometry and some elementary vector analysis. The exposition I am giving here covers §14.8 in (my opinion) a simpler way, and always leads to “one less equation” in a system of simultaneous equations. No matter how we approach these problems, solving these systems requires methods improvised for each problem – we do not use any general method.

Our problem is to

extremize $f(\mathbf{x})$ subject to the ‘constraint’ $g(\mathbf{x}) = 0$:

here $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)$ is a vector.

It is governed by an elementary fact about vectors.

Principle: Let $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)$ and $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k)$ be vectors (in our context usually $k = 2$ or 3 .) Then $\mathbf{x} \parallel \mathbf{y}$ if and only if all ratios x_i/y_i ($i = 1, 2, \dots, k$) are the same; the understanding is that if we have $x_j = 0$ for some j , then the corresponding entry y_j must also be zero.

(You should check with a few examples: for what λ is $(1, 4, 9) \parallel (-2, -8, \lambda)$? How would your answer change if you replace only 4 with 6? Or 9 with 0?)

Let us apply this to the situation of extremizing f subject to our constraint $g = 0$, and let $\mathbf{x} = (a, b)$ be a point we are testing as a possible extrema. Then

Lagrange: in order that f have an extrema at \mathbf{x} it is necessary that

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \parallel \nabla g(\mathbf{x}). \tag{1}$$

NOTE. The word *multiplier* arises from the usual formulation of this principle: it asserts that at a potential extrema we have the equation

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \lambda \nabla g(\mathbf{x}),$$

where λ is a scalar. You should check that these two ways of expressing the Lagrange principle are the same; the (slight) advantage in the formulation I prefer is that the scalar λ usually has no physical significance, and in practice (that is, homework problems!) means introducing λ simply gives is an extra equation to consider, with no extra information.

Once we identify the points where (1) holds, we have to compute f at each, and then the maximum of f among points which satisfy the constraint will be where f takes on the largest value among these points; a similar remark will lead to the minimum of f .

5 Some examples

Let's see how this works with some of the homework and examples in the text. We should always identify f and g . We then use the Lagrange principle, and what will come out is that the coordinates at a possible extremum must satisfy a certain *relation*. In other to find the exact values of the coordinates at these possible extrema, however, we have to return to the constraint $g = 0$, since if our constraint were $g = c$, c a constant (with $c \neq 0$), the Lagrange equation would be the same, and so would be a *relation* between the variables. (Our first example is an exception to this principle, because the relation (1) is more subtle, since the coordinates at the extrema will be zero.) I start with a complicated example, which was done earlier by other methods.

P. 962, No. 39. Find a point on the surface $z^2 = xy + 1$ closest to the origin.

Step I: Find f, g . Well, it is f that we wish to minimize, so

$$f = (x - 0)^2 + (y - 0)^2 + (z - 0)^2 = x^2 + y^2 + z^2;$$

where x, y, z are restricted to the surface; thus

$$g(x, y, z) = z^2 - xy$$

(the constraint is $g = 1$).

Step II: Write the Lagrange equation for this case; we can cancel common factors. This leads to

$$\nabla f \parallel \nabla g : (x, y, z) \parallel (-y, -x, 2z). \quad (2)$$

(Note that without the constraint of $g = 1$, there is a trivial solution: f has an absolute minimum when $x = y = 0$, but the points $(0, 0, 0)$ does not satisfy the constraint $z^2 = 1 + xy$.)

Step III: Using our Principle, manipulate (2) to get a *relation* that must be satisfied at a possible extremum.

I always assume first that (*) none of the coordinates are zero. So if these vectors are parallel, then (looking at the first two coordinates only) we see that $x/y = y/x$ so $x = \pm y$ which means that $x/y = \pm 1$. But then that common ratio

(± 1) of the first two coordinates in (2) would have to be the same for the ratio of third coordinates, and so the same as $2z/z$; however, unless $z = 0$, $2z/z$ can't be ± 1 . In other words, we are at a dead end!

This means the extrema will occur when $z = 0$ or, when we recall the case excluded in (*), that $x = 0$; if $x = 0$, then by our principle concerning parallel vectors, we'd have $y = 0$ too.

This means the only possible points to check are $(0, 0, \pm 1)$ (the ± 1 is the value of z when $x = y = 0$), and in addition, returning to the case that $z = 0$ we would have as possibilities the points $(1, -1, 0)$ and $(-1, 1, 0)$. At these points we compute $f : x^2 + y^2 + z^2$, and see that the extrema occur at $(0, 0, \pm 1)$: the closest point(s) on the surface are distance 1 from the origin.

P. 966, Example 1. Here $f = xyz$, and $g = 2xz + 2yz + xy$ (so the constraint is that $g = 12$).

Step II: We see that $\nabla f \parallel \nabla g$ when

$$(yz, xz, xy) \parallel (2z + y, 2y + x, 2x + 2y).$$

When we divide, it is simplest to put the entries of the left-hand vector in the denominators, since the algebra is simpler. Indeed, if x, y or z is zero, the box has no volume, so we may assume that $xyz \neq 0$.

Step III: Looking at the (ratio of) first two coordinates and cross-multiplying, we find that $2xz^2 + xyz = 2y^2z + xyz$, or that $x = y$. Then if we look at the (ratio of) first and third coordinates in the same way, we find that $2xyz + xy^2 = 2xyz + 2y^2z$, or, more simply, $x = 2z$. In summary, $x = y = 2z$, and since $2xz + 2yz + xy = 12$, we find that $x = 2 = y, z = 1$. (Notice that you get a different answer if $2xz + 2yz + xy = 100$ we would have a box of different size, but as we mentioned at the beginning of the \S , the same relations between the variables x, y, z would remain.

P. 968, Example 3. Now $f = x^2 + 2y^2, g = x^2 + y^2 - 1$ (when we look inside the circle of radius one, x and y are independent variables, and the Lagrange method is not relevant there).

Step II: $\nabla f \parallel \nabla g$ means that we have

$$(x, 2y) \parallel (x, y).$$

So now we see that the extrema occur when either x or y is zero, otherwise we'd have nonsense thinking the vectors parallel: $2 \neq 1$. So we need consider f only at $(0 \pm 1), (\pm 1, 0)$.

P. 971, No. 9 (This is a problem in three variables:) Maximize $f(x, y, z) = xyz; g : x^2 + 2y^2 + 3z^2 = 6$ So $\nabla f \parallel \nabla g$ occurs when

$$(yz, xz, xy) \parallel (x, 2y, 3z).$$

If $xyz = 0$, then $f = 0$. So if $xyz \neq 0$, we may put the entries of the second vector in the denominators, and see that an extremum will occur when

$$x^2z = 2y^2z; x^2y = 3z^2y.$$

That gives the relation that $x = \pm y, x = \pm\sqrt{3}z$. We now use that $g = 6$; note again that if the constraint were that $g = 100$, we would have the same relation between x, y , and z , but the specific number would be different. This produces eight points where extrema may occur, depending on the choice of sign for each of the coordinates. A minimum will occur when exactly one or three of x, y, z is negative and the other positive, and a maximum occurs when either all three variables are positive or exactly two are negative.