Hilbert’s 23rd Problem and the Palais-Smale Condition

For Steve Smale on the Occasion of his 90th birthday
(the conference has been delayed due to Covid-19)

Abstract: Hilbert’s 23rd Problem is the last in his famous list of problems and is of a different character than the others. The description is several pages, and basically says that the calculus of variations is a subject which needs development. We will look in retrospect at one of the critical events in the calculus of variations: The point at which the critical role of dimension was understood, and the role that the Palais-Smale condition (1963) played in this understanding. I apologize that in its present state, the talk consists mostly of my reminiscences and lacks references. I welcome suggestions from the audience.
Outline

I. Background
II. Hilbert’s statement of the problem
III. Key Developments leading up to mid-Century
IV. Solution of the Plateau problem
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VI. Puzzlement at Mid Century
VII. The promise of global analysis and infinite dimensional manifolds
VIII. The Palais-Smale condition
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X. The three three classic geometric problems
XI. Unexpected spin-off: Moduli spaces
XII. Some present day mysteries
My idiosyncratic tour of the calculus of variations starts with Fermat, who in 1662 formulated the laws of refraction and reflection: The path taken by a light ray is that which minimizes time. Scarcely a year later we have, from a philosopher:

De Chambre to Fermat: “The principle you take as the basis of your proof, namely that Nature always acts by using the simplest and shortest paths, is merely a moral, and not a physical one, and cannot be the cause of any effect in nature”.

The first recorded actual problem in the calculus of variations is due to Newton. Not the famous brachistochrone problem, but according to Wikopedia: “Newton’s Minimal Resistance Problem is a problem of finding a solid of revolution which experiences a minimum resistance when it moves through a homogeneous fluid with constant velocity in the direction
of the axis of revolution, named after Isaac Newton, who studied the problem in 1685 and published it in 1687 in his *Principia Mathematica*"  

This is often forgotten, because the physics was incorrect. However, the calculus of variations survived.  

Most of the next couple of centuries involved setting up specific calculus of variations problems and solving them. Until we come to Weierstrass, who pointed out that the existence of solutions could be problematic, and that more rigor was needed. This more of less sets the stage for Hilbert. At the International Congress of 1900 he announced a list a problems, which was later expanded to the 23. The 23rd last problem concerns the calculus of variations. It is different in style, as he suggests that the calculus of variations is a subject that lacks rigor and needs developing. Here is the beginning…. 
23. Further development of the methods of the calculus of variations

So far, I have generally mentioned problems as definite and special as possible, in the opinion that it is just such definite and special problems that attract us the most and from which the most lasting influence is often exerted upon science. Nevertheless, I should like to close with a general problem, namely with the indication of a branch of mathematics repeatedly mentioned in this lecture—which, in spite of the considerable advancement lately given it by Weierstrass, does not receive the general appreciation which, in my opinion, is its due—I mean the calculus of variations.50

The lack of interest in this is perhaps due in part to the need of reliable modern text books. So much the more praiseworthy is it that A. Kneser in a very recently published work has treated the calculus of variations from the modern points of view and with regard to the modern demand for rigor.51

The calculus of variations is, in the widest sense, the theory of the variation of functions, and as such appears as a necessary extension of the differential and integral calculus. In this sense, Poincaré's investigations on the problem of three bodies, for example, form a chapter in the calculus of variations, in so far as Poincaré derives from known orbits by the principle of variation new orbits of similar character.

I add here a short justification of the general remarks upon the calculus of variations made at the beginning of my lecture.

The simplest problem in the calculus of variations proper is known to consist in finding a function \( y \) of a variable \( x \) such that the definite integral

\[
J = \int_{a}^{b} F(y_x, y; x) \, dx, \quad y_x = \frac{dy}{dx}
\]
assumes a minimum value as compared with the values it takes when \( y \) is replaced by other functions of \( x \) with the same initial and final values.

The vanishing of the first variation in the usual sense

\[
\delta J = 0
\]

gives for the desired function \( y \) the well-known differential equation

\[
\frac{dF_{yx}}{dx} - F_y = 0, \\
F_{yx} = \frac{\partial F}{\partial y_x}, \quad F_y = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}
\]

(1)

In order to investigate more closely the necessary and sufficient criteria for the occurrence of the required minimum, we consider the integral

\[
J^* = \int_a^b \{ F + (y_x - p) F_p \} \, dx,
\]

\[
F = F(p, y; x), \quad F_p = \frac{\partial F(p, y; x)}{\partial p}
\]

Now we inquire how \( p \) is to be chosen as function of \( x, y \) in order that the value of this integral \( J^* \) shall be independent of the path of integration, i. e., of the choice of the function \( y \) of the variable \( x \). The integral \( J^* \) has the form

\[
J^* = \int_a^b \{ Ay_x - B \} \, dx,
\]

where \( A \) and \( B \) do not contain \( y_x \), and the vanishing of the first variation

\[
\delta J^* = 0
\]

in the sense which the new question requires gives the equation
\[ \frac{\partial A}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial B}{\partial y} = 0, \]

i. e., we obtain for the function \( p \) of the two variables \( x, y \) the partial differential equation of the first order

\[ (1^*) \quad \frac{\partial F_p}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial (pF_p - F)}{\partial y} = 0. \]

The ordinary differential equation of the second order (1) and the partial differential equation (1\(^*\)) stand in the closest relation to each other. This relation becomes immediately clear to us by the following simple transformation

\[
\delta J^* = \int_a^b \{ F_y \delta y + F_p \delta p + (\delta y_x - \delta p)F_p + (y_x - p)\delta F_p \} \, dx \\
= \int_a^b \{ F_y \delta y + \delta y_x F_p + (y_x - p)\delta F_p \} \, dx \\
= \delta J + \int_a^b (y_x - p) \delta F_p \, dx.
\]

We derive from this, namely, the following facts: If we construct any simple family of integral curves of the ordinary differential equation (1) of the second order and then form an ordinary differential equation of the first order

\[ (2) \ y_x = p(x, y) \]

which also admits these integral curves as solutions, then the function \( p(x, y) \) is always an integral of the partial differential equation (1\(^*\)) of the first order; and conversely, if \( p(x, y) \) denotes any solution of the partial differential equation (1\(^*\)) of the first order, all the nonsingular integrals of the ordinary differential equation (2) of the first order are at the same time integrals of the differential equation (1) of the second order, or in short if \( y_x = p(x, y) \) is an integral equation of the first order of the differential equation (1) of the second order, \( p(x, y) \) represents an integral of the partial differential equation (1\(^*\)) and conversely; the integral curves of the ordinary differential equation of the second order are therefore, at the same time, the characteristics of the partial differential equation (1\(^*\)) of the first order.

In the present case we may find the same result by means of a simple calculation; for this gives us the differential equations (1) and (1\(^*\)) in question in the form
where the lower indices indicate the partial derivatives with respect to \( x, y, p, y_x \). The correctness of the affirmed relation is clear from this.

The close relation derived before and just proved between the ordinary differential equation (1) of the second order and the partial differential equation (1*) of the first order, is, as it seems to me, of fundamental significance for the calculus of variations. For, from the fact that the integral \( J^* \) is independent of the path of integration it follows that

\[
\int_a^b \left\{ F(p) + (y_x - p)F_p(p) \right\} \, dx = \int_a^b F(y_x) \, dx,
\]

if we think of the left hand integral as taken along any path \( y \) and the right hand integral along an integral curve \( \overline{y} \) of the differential equation

\[ y_x = p(x, \overline{y}). \]

With the help of equation (3) we arrive at Weierstrass's formula

\[
\int_a^b F(y_x) \, dx - \int_a^b F(y_x) \, dx = \int_a^b E(y_x, p) \, dx,
\]

where \( E \) designates Weierstrass's expression, depending upon \( y_x, p, y, x \),

\[ E(y_x, p) = F(y_x) - F(p) - (y_x - p) F_p(p), \]

Since, therefore, the solution depends only on finding an integral \( p(x, y) \) which is single valued and continuous in a certain neighborhood of the integral curve \( \overline{y} \), which we are considering, the developments just indicated lead immediately—without the introduction of the second variation, but only by the application of the polar process to the differential equation (1)—to the expression of Jacobi's condition and to the answer to the question: How far this condition of Jacobi's in conjunction with Weierstrass's condition \( E > 0 \) is necessary and sufficient for the occurrence of a minimum.
The developments indicated may be transferred without necessitating further calculation to the case of two or more required functions, and also to the case of a double or a multiple integral. So, for example, in the case of a double integral

\[ J = \int F(z_x, z_y, z; x, y) d\omega, \quad \left[ z_x = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}, \ z_y = \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \right] \]

to be extended over a given region \( \omega \), the vanishing of the first variation (to be understood in the usual sense)

\[ \delta J = 0 \]

gives the well-known differential equation of the second order

\[
\left[ \frac{dF_z}{dx} + \frac{dF_{zy}}{dy} - F_z = 0, \\
F_{zx} = \frac{\partial F^r}{\partial z}, F_z = \frac{\partial F^r}{\partial z_y}, F^r = \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \right]
\]

for the required function \( z \) of \( x \) and \( y \).

On the other hand we consider the integral

\[ J^* = \int \{ F + (z_x - p) F_p + (z_y - q) F_q \} d\omega, \]

\[
\left[ F^r = F(p, q, z; x, y), F_p = \frac{\partial F^r(p, q, z; x, y)}{\partial p}, F_q = \frac{\partial F^r(p, q, z; x, y)}{\partial q} \right]
\]

and inquire, how \( p \) and \( q \) are to be taken as functions of \( x, y \) and \( z \) in order that the value of this integral may be independent of the choice of the surface passing through the given closed twisted curve, i.e., of the choice of the function \( z \) of the variables \( x \) and \( y \).

The integral \( J^* \) has the form
\[ J^* = \int \left\{ Az_x + Bz_y - C \right\} \, d\omega \]

and the vanishing of the first variation

\[ \delta J^* = 0 \]

in the sense which the new formulation of the question demands, gives the equation

\[ \frac{\partial A}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial B}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial C}{\partial z} = 0, \]

i. e., we find for the functions \( p \) and \( q \) of the three variables \( x, y \) and \( z \) the differential equation of the first order

\[
\begin{vmatrix}
  \frac{\partial F_p}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial F_q}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial (pF_p + qF_q - F)}{\partial z} = 0.
\end{vmatrix}
\]

If we add to this differential equation the partial differential equation

\[
\begin{vmatrix}
  (I^*) \\
  p_x + qy = q_x + pq_y.
\end{vmatrix}
\]

resulting from the equations

\[ z_x = p(x, y, z), \]
\[ z_y = q(x, y, z) \]

the partial differential equation (I) for the function \( z \) of the two variables \( x \) and \( y \) and the simultaneous system of the two partial differential equations of the first order (I*) for the two functions \( p \) and \( q \) of the three variables \( x, y, \) and \( z \) stand toward one another in a relation exactly analogous to that in which the differential equations (I) and (I*) stood in the case of the simple integral.

It follows from the fact that the integral \( J^* \) is independent of the choice of the surface of integration \( z \) that

\[ \int \{ F(p, q) + (z_x - p)F_p(p, q) + (z_y - q)F_q(p, q) \} \, d\omega = \int F(z_x, z_y) \, d\omega, \]
if we think of the right hand integral as taken over an integral surface $\overline{Z}$ of the partial differential equations

$$\overline{z}_x = p(x, y, \overline{z}), \quad \overline{z}_y = q(x, y, \overline{z});$$

and with the help of this formula we arrive at once at the formula

$$\int F(z_x, z_y) \, d\omega - \int F(\overline{z}_x, \overline{z}_y) \, d\omega = \int E(z_x, z_y, p, q) \, d\omega,$$

which plays the same role for the variation of double integrals as the previously given formula (4) for simple integrals. With the help of this formula we can now answer the question how far Jacobi's condition in conjunction with Weierstrass's condition $E > 0$ is necessary and sufficient for the occurrence of a minimum.

Connected with these developments is the modified form in which A. Kneser, beginning from other points of view, has presented Weierstrass's theory. While Weierstrass employed integral curves of equation (1) which pass through a fixed point in order to derive sufficient conditions for the extreme values, Kneser on the other hand makes use of any simple family of such curves and constructs for every such family a solution, characteristic for that family, of that partial differential equation which is to be considered as a generalization of the Jacobi-Hamilton equation.

The problems mentioned are merely samples of problems, yet they will suffice to show how rich, how manifold and how extensive the mathematical science of today is, and the question is urged upon us whether mathematics is doomed to the fate of those other sciences that have split up into separate branches, whose representatives scarcely understand one another and whose connection becomes ever more loose. I do not believe this nor wish it. Mathematical science is in my opinion an indivisible whole, an organism whose vitality is conditioned upon the connection of its parts. For with all the variety of mathematical knowledge, we are still clearly conscious of the similarity of the logical devices, the relationship of the ideas in mathematics as a whole and the numerous analogies in its different departments. We also notice that, the farther a mathematical theory is developed, the more harmoniously and uniformly does its construction proceed, and unsuspected relations are disclosed between hitherto separate branches of the science. So it
happens that, with the extension of mathematics, its organic character is not lost but only manifests itself the more clearly.

But, we ask, with the extension of mathematical knowledge will it not finally become impossible for the single investigator to embrace all departments of this knowledge? In answer let me point out how thoroughly it is ingrained in mathematical science that every real advance goes hand in hand with the invention of sharper tools and simpler methods which at the same time assist in understanding earlier theories and cast aside older more complicated developments. It is therefore possible for the individual investigator, when he makes these sharper tools and simpler methods his own, to find his way more easily in the various branches of mathematics than is possible in any other science.

The organic unity of mathematics is inherent in the nature of this science, for mathematics is the foundation of all exact knowledge of natural phenomena. That it may completely fulfil this high mission, may the new century bring it gifted masters and many zealous and enthusiastic disciples!

Notes

