

## ELLIPSES

**Problem:** Find the points on the locus

$$Q(x, y) = 865x^2 - 294xy + 585y^2 = 1450$$

closest to, and farthest from, the origin.

**Answer.**

This is a Lagrange multiplier problem: we want to extremize  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  subject to the constraint  $Q(x, y) = 1450$ . To do this we look for points on the locus where the gradient of  $f + \lambda Q$  is zero: this amounts to solving the system

$$\nabla(f + \lambda Q) = (2x + \lambda(1730x - 294y), 2y + \lambda(-294x + 1070y)) = (0, 0)$$

(together with the constraint equation: that gives us three equations in three unknowns  $(x, y, \text{ and } \lambda)$ . But if we stare at this for a minute, we start to suspect that it might be easier to deal algebraically with the related problem, of finding the maximum of the function  $Q$  on the unit circle  $f(x, y) = 1$ : that question requires us to find the points where the gradient of  $Q + \lambda f$  vanishes – which is pretty much what we would get if we multiplied our original problem by  $\lambda^{-1}$ . After eliminating superfluous factors of two, the new problem gives us the system

$$\lambda x + 865x - 147y = 0, \quad \lambda y - 147x + 585y = 0,$$

which can be rewritten in matrix notation in the form

$$(A + \lambda \mathbf{1})\mathbf{x} = 0,$$

where  $\mathbf{x}$  denotes the vector  $(x, y)$ ,  $\mathbf{1}$  denotes the two-by-two ‘identity’ matrix (with ones down the diagonal, and zero elsewhere), and

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 865 & -147 \\ -147 & 585 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Now it’s useful to recall that square matrices are **invertible** (ie, have **inverse** matrices, in the sense the the matrix product of a matrix and its inverse equals the identity matrix) if and only if its determinant is nonzero. [This is related to the geometric interpretation of determinants as volumes: if the determinant vanishes, the linear transformation defined by the (square) matrix squashes a rectangle flat.] So if the determinant of the matrix  $A + \lambda \mathbf{1}$  is **not** zero, there can be no nontrivial solutions to our system of equations – because we can then multiply our equation on the left by the inverse matrix  $(A + \lambda \mathbf{1})^{-1}$ , to obtain (only) the trivial solution

$$(A + \lambda \mathbf{1})^{-1}(A + \lambda \mathbf{1})\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{1} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} = 0.$$

Thus in order for a nontrivial solution to exist,  $\lambda$  must satisfy the quadratic equation  $\det(A + \lambda \mathbf{1}) = 0$ , ie

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} 865 + \lambda & -147 \\ -147 & 585 + \lambda \end{bmatrix} = (\lambda + 865)(\lambda + 585) - (-147)^2 = 0,$$

which multiplies out to

$$\lambda^2 + 1450\lambda + [(865 \times 585 - 147^2) = 484,416] = 0.$$

According to the quadratic formula, then,

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{2}[-1450 \pm \sqrt{(1450^2 - 4 \times 484,416)}];$$

but

$$1450^2 - 4 \times 484,416 = 2,102,500 - 1,937,664 = 164,836 = 406^2,$$

so

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{2}[-1450 \pm 406] = -522 (= -9 \cdot 58) \text{ or } -928 (= -16 \cdot 58).$$

Substituting the first of these values into our original matrix equation gives us

$$\begin{bmatrix} 865 - 522 & -147 \\ -147 & 585 - 522 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = 0,$$

but the matrix factors as

$$\begin{bmatrix} 343 & -147 \\ -147 & 63 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \cdot 49 & -3 \cdot 49 \\ -7 \cdot 21 & 3 \cdot 21 \end{bmatrix}$$

and thus kills the vector  $(3, 7)$  – as well as its normalized multiple

$$\mathbf{x}_+ = \frac{1}{\sqrt{58}}(3, 7).$$

Similarly: substituting in the second root yields the matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 865 - 928 & -147 \\ -147 & 585 - 928 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -63 & -147 \\ -147 & -343 \end{bmatrix},$$

which admits a similar factorization, and consequently kills the normalized vector

$$\mathbf{x}_- = \frac{1}{\sqrt{58}}(-7, 3).$$

We can use these to answer the original question, about points on the curve  $Q = 1450$  at greatest and least distance from the origin, by noting that the function  $Q$  is quadratic, in the sense that for any real number  $t$ , we have

$$Q(tx, ty) = t^2 Q(x, y),$$

The points on the locus  $Q = 1450$  where  $f$  is greatest are just multiples  $t\mathbf{x}_\pm$  of the points on the unit circle where  $Q$  is greatest, by the argument above (about inverting  $\lambda$ ); so all we need to do is find the right scaling factor  $t$ . It's not hard to calculate that

$$Q(\mathbf{x}_+) = 58 \cdot 9, \quad Q(\mathbf{x}_-) = 58 \cdot 16,$$

from which it follows easily that  $\frac{5}{3}\mathbf{x}_+$  and  $\frac{5}{4}\mathbf{x}_-$  lie on the locus  $Q = 1450 = 25 \cdot 58$ : they are the extreme points we sought. Note by the way that these vectors (like  $\mathbf{x}_+$  and  $\mathbf{x}_-$ ) are **perpendicular**: their dot product is

$$\frac{25}{12 \cdot 58} (3 \cdot (-7) + 7 \cdot 3) = 0.$$

In other words: the locus  $Q = 1450$  is an ellipse, with the first vector above as the semimajor, and the second vector the semiminor, axes. It can be obtained from the standard ellipse

$$9X^2 + 16Y^2 = 25$$

by applying the **rotation matrix**

$$[\mathbf{x}_+ \mathbf{x}_-] := \frac{1}{\sqrt{58}} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -7 \\ 7 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} := R(\theta)$$

through the angle satisfying  $\tan \theta = \sin \theta / \cos \theta = 7/3$ . [Note that

$$R(\theta) \cdot \mathbf{e}_1 = \mathbf{x}_+, \quad R(\theta) \cdot \mathbf{e}_2 = \mathbf{x}_-,$$

where  $\mathbf{e}_1 = (1, 0)$ ,  $\mathbf{e}_2 = (0, 1)$  are the standard unit vectors.] In fact

$$Q(x, y) = 9(3x + 7y)^2 + 16(-7x + 3y)^2;$$

writing this out gives

$$9(9x^2 + 42xy + 49y^2) + 16(49x^2 - 42xy + 9y^2),$$

which equals

$$[9 \cdot 9 + 16 \cdot 49 = 865]x^2 + [42 \cdot (9 - 16) = -294]xy + [9 \cdot 49 + 16 \cdot 9 = 585]y^2.$$

**2** For clarity, here is another example, this time with smaller numbers:

**Problem:** Find the **principal axes** (ie the semimajor and semiminor axes) for the ellipse  $Q(x, y) = 23x^2 + 14xy + 23y^2 = 17$ .

**Solution:** We need to find the **eigenvectors** of the matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 23 & 7 \\ 7 & 23 \end{bmatrix} = B;$$

these are the (nontrivial) vectors  $\mathbf{v}_\pm$  satisfying the **eigenvalue** equation  $(B + \lambda_\pm)\mathbf{v}_\pm = 0$ . [**Eigen** comes from German, where it signifies something like ‘proper’ or ‘characteristic’. It has become standard in mathematics (and in quantum mechanics) in this and related contexts.] Thus we need to solve the quadratic equation

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} 23 + \lambda & 7 \\ 7 & 23 + \lambda \end{bmatrix} = (23 + \lambda)^2 - 7^2 = \lambda^2 + 46\lambda + [529 - 49 = 480] = 0.$$

This has solutions

$$\lambda_\pm = \frac{1}{2}[-46 \pm \sqrt{(46)^2 - 4 \cdot 480}];$$

but the term under the square root sign equals  $2116 - 1920 = 196 = 13^2$ , so  $\lambda_+ = -16$  and  $\lambda_- = -30$ . It follows that

$$B + \lambda_+ = \begin{bmatrix} 23 - 16 & 7 \\ 7 & 23 - 16 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 7 \\ 7 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

which kills the normalized vector  $\mathbf{v}_+ = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, -1)$ , while

$$B + \lambda_- = \begin{bmatrix} 23 - 30 & 7 \\ 7 & 23 - 30 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -7 & 7 \\ 7 & -7 \end{bmatrix}$$

kills the vector  $\mathbf{v}_- = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, 1)$ . In this case the rotation matrix is

$$R(\phi) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

defined by a 45-degree rotation (since  $\tan \phi = 1$ ), and the original equation can be rewritten as

$$\lambda_+(\mathbf{v}_+ \cdot \mathbf{x})^2 + \lambda_-(\mathbf{v}_- \cdot \mathbf{x})^2 = 8(x - y)^2 + 15(x + y)^2.$$

In general the normalized eigenvectors satisfy  $Q(\mathbf{v}_\pm) = -\lambda_\pm$ , so by rescaling (as in the previous problem) we find that the principal axes of the ellipse  $Q = 17$  are defined by the vectors

$$\frac{\sqrt{34}}{8} (1, 1) \text{ and } \frac{\sqrt{1120}}{60} (1, -1).$$

**3** In general, the  $n$ -dimensional Lagrange multiplier problem for a quadratic function

$$\mathbf{x} \mapsto (A\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{x} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

defined by a symmetric  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  will have  $n$  nontrivial (normalized, mutually orthogonal) eigenvectors  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  satisfying the eigenvalue equation  $A\mathbf{v}_k = \lambda_k \mathbf{v}_k$ , and the formula above generalizes to

$$Q(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^{k=n} \lambda_k (\mathbf{v}_k \cdot \mathbf{x})^2 .$$

Astronomers use this, for example, to study elliptical galaxies (which, being three-dimensional objects, have **three** principal axes).

I don't want to give the (false) impression, that the quadratic equations for such problems always work out so neatly; they don't. The problems above were cooked up using the equation

$$A(ax + by)^2 + B(-bx + ay)^2 = Ex^2 + 2Fxy + Gy^2 ,$$

where

$$E = a^2A + b^2B, \quad F = ab(A - B), \quad \text{and} \quad G = b^2A + a^2B ;$$

for example in problem 1,  $A = 9$ ,  $B = 16$ ,  $a = 3$ , and  $b = 7$ . If you chase through the quadratic formula in this generality, you find that for problems of this sort,

$$\lambda_{\pm} = -(a^2 + b^2)\{A \text{ or } B\} .$$

**4** The condition that the matrix  $A$  be symmetric is important. The symmetry condition [that the coefficient  $A_{ik}$  of the matrix equals the coefficient  $A_{ki}$ , with the order of indices reversed] implies that for any two vectors  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{v}'$ , we have

$$(A\mathbf{v}') \cdot \mathbf{v} = \sum_{i,k=1}^{i,k=n} A_{ik} v'_k v_i = \sum_{i,k=1}^{i,k=n} A_{ki} v_i v'_k = (A\mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{v}' .$$

But now if  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{v}'$  are eigenvectors of a symmetric matrix  $A$ , with associated eigenvalues  $\lambda$  and  $\lambda'$  which are **distinct**, ie  $\lambda \neq \lambda'$ , then  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{v}'$  must be orthogonal: for

$$A\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}, \quad A\mathbf{v}' = \lambda'\mathbf{v}' ,$$

so on one hand

$$(A\mathbf{v}') \cdot \mathbf{v} = (\lambda'\mathbf{v}') \cdot \mathbf{v} = \lambda'\mathbf{v}' \cdot \mathbf{v} ;$$

while on the other hand, the symmetry of  $A$  implies that

$$(A\mathbf{v}') \cdot \mathbf{v} = (A\mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{v}' = (\lambda\mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{v}' = \lambda\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}' .$$

Thus these two quantities are equal, ie

$$\lambda'\mathbf{v}' \cdot \mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}' ;$$

but the dot product itself is symmetric [ $\mathbf{v}' \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}'$ ] so

$$(\lambda' - \lambda)\mathbf{v}' \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0 .$$

But  $\lambda$  and  $\lambda'$  are distinct, so their difference is nonzero, and we conclude that  $\mathbf{v}' \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$  – which is to say that the eigenvectors  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{v}'$  are perpendicular.

This has applications in quantum mechanics: in that theory observable physical quantities are supposed to be represented by (things very much like) symmetric matrices, and the result of a measurement of the physical quantity in question is

thought to be an eigenvalue of that matrix. A **state** of the physical system is interpreted as a vector, and to say that a measurement of a physical quantity  $A$  in the state  $\mathbf{v}$  yields the result  $\lambda$  is interpreted as saying that the state  $\mathbf{v}$  is an eigenvector of  $A$ , with eigenvalue  $\lambda$ : in other words,

$$A\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v} .$$

The fact that eigenvectors corresponding to distinct eigenvalues are orthogonal is a kind of quantum-mechanical analog of the law of the excluded middle in logic: there is a certain amount of indeterminacy in quantum mechanics - an experiment might yield  $\lambda$  for a measurement, or it might yield  $\lambda'$  - but it can't yield both: the experiment yields a 'pure' state, in which the value of the measured quantity is well-defined.

This is a difficult and important notion, which lies at the heart of quantum mechanics, and it's really because I thought you might be interested in this, rather than because of the considerable intrinsic mathematical beauty of the theory of principal axes, that I have written up these notes.