

Variational Calculus on Sub-Riemannian Manifolds

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**Dedicated to the Memory of Grigorios TSAGAS (1935-2003),
President of Balkan Society of Geometers (1997-2003)**

Abstract

We provide invariant formulas for the Euler-Lagrange equation associated to sub-Riemannian geodesics. They use the concept of curvature and horizontal connection introduced and studied in the paper.

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1 Introduction

The geodesic is a concept which comes from Riemannian geometry. It is the curve with the minimum energy $E = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{2} |\dot{c}(s)|^2 ds$ between two given points. At least two kind of constraints can be considered to act on the curve: holonomic and non-holonomic. A holonomic constraint is when the energy is perturbed by a potential $U(c)$ and the energy becomes $E = \int_0^1 \left(\frac{1}{2} |\dot{c}|^2 + U(c) \right) ds$. The equation geodesic in this case is $\nabla_{\dot{c}} \dot{c} = -U'(c)$.

The other kind of constraints are the nonholonomic ones (see [1], [8], [9]). These are constraints on the velocity of the curve. The energy to be minimized is $E = \int_0^1 \left(\frac{1}{2} |\dot{c}|^2 + \omega(\dot{c}) \right) ds$. The paper deals with a presentation of the variational calculus for the case when ω is a 1-form of type (1.1) such that (1.3) does not vanish. It is said that these kind of sub-Riemannian manifolds are of step 2. They are also called Heisenberg manifolds (see [2]). In general a sub-Riemannian manifold is said to be of step k if $k - 1$ iterations need for the brackets of X_j in order to span the whole tangent space.

In section 5 we shall deal with examples of sub-Riemannian manifolds of superior type.

The idea of the paper is to consider the solutions of the Euler-Lagrange system as geodesics in a certain connection with certain perturbation given by the curvature tensor defined in section 2. Section 3 shows that the classical Hamilton-Jacobi equation still holds if the gradient is modified into a horizontal gradient. The relationship

between the symplectic and sub-Riemannian structures is pointed out in section 4. Section 5 provides a few examples of sub-Riemannian manifolds and their geodesic equations. Some of these equations were solved in [3,4,6].

Consider a nonintegrable 2-dimensional distribution $x \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_x$ in $\mathbf{R}^3 = \mathbf{R}_{(x_1, x_2)}^2 \times \mathbf{R}_t$ defined as $\mathcal{H} = \ker \omega$, where ω is a 1-form on \mathbf{R}^3 . The distribution \mathcal{H} is called the *horizontal distribution*. We shall assume the 1-form $\omega = \omega^1 dx_1 + \omega^2 dx_2 + \omega^3 dt$ has the coefficient $\omega^3 \neq 0$ so that dividing by it we may assume

$$(1.1) \quad \omega = -A_1(x)dx_1 + A_2(x)dx_2 + dt$$

with $A_1 = -\omega^1$, and $A_2 = \omega^2$. One may verify that

$$\omega(X_1) = \omega(X_2) = 0$$

where

$$(1.2) \quad X_1 = \partial_{x_1} + A_1(x)\partial_t, \quad X_2 = \partial_{x_2} - A_2(x)\partial_t$$

The vector fields X_1, X_2 span the horizontal distribution \mathcal{H} and they are called *horizontal vector fields*.

Suppose the 2-form

$$(1.3) \quad \Omega := d\omega = \left(\frac{\partial A_1}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial A_2}{\partial x_1} \right) dx_1 \wedge dx_2$$

does not vanish. Then

$$(1.4) \quad [X_1, X_2] = -\left(\frac{\partial A_1}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial A_2}{\partial x_1} \right) \partial_t \notin \mathcal{H}$$

and then \mathcal{H} is not integrable, by Frobenius theorem.

Consider the positive definite metric $g : \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{F}$ in which the vector fields $\{X_1, X_2\}$ are orthonormal. The metric g is called the *sub-Riemannian metric* defined by the vector fields X_1 and X_2 .

A curve $s \rightarrow c(s) = (x_1(s), x_2(s), t(s))$ is called *horizontal curve* if $\dot{c}(s) \in \mathcal{H}_{c(s)}$, for every s . As

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{c}(s) &= \dot{x}_1(s)\partial_{x_1} + \dot{x}_2(s)\partial_{x_2} + \dot{t}(s)\partial_t \\ &= \dot{x}_1(s)X_1 + \dot{x}_2(s)X_2 + \omega(\dot{c}(s))\partial_t \end{aligned}$$

then $c(s)$ is a horizontal curve iff

$$(1.5) \quad \omega(\dot{c}) = \dot{t} - A_1(c)\dot{x}_1 + A_2(c)\dot{x}_2 = 0$$

The length of c with respect to the metric g is

$$(1.6) \quad l(c) = \int_0^1 \sqrt{g(\dot{c}(s), \dot{c}(s))} ds = \int_0^1 \sqrt{\dot{x}_1(s)^2 + \dot{x}_2(s)^2} ds$$

Given two points O and P there is at least a horizontal curve connecting them (see [5]). The Carnot-Carathéodory distance is defined as

$$(1.7) \quad d_C(O, P) = \inf\{l(c), c(0) = O, c(1) = P, c \text{ horizontal}\}$$

The horizontal curve with minimum length are called *sub-Riemannian geodesics* and can be described using the Hamiltonian formalism as in the following (see [7]). Consider the sub-elliptic operator

$$(1.8) \quad \Delta_X = \frac{1}{2}(X_1^2 + X_2^2)$$

and define the Hamiltonian as the principal symbol of Δ_X

$$(1.9) \quad H(x, t, \xi, \theta) = \frac{1}{2}(\xi_1 + A_1(x)\theta)^2 + \frac{1}{2}(\xi_2 - A_2(x)\theta)^2$$

The projections on the (x, t) -space of the solution of the Hamilton's system

$$(1.10) \quad \dot{x} = H_\xi, \quad \dot{t} = H_\theta$$

$$(1.11) \quad \dot{\xi} = -H_x, \quad \dot{\theta} = -H_t$$

with the boundary conditions

$$(1.12) \quad x(0) = t(0) = 0, \quad x(1) = x, t(1) = t$$

are called *sub-Riemannian geodesics* between the origin and (x, t) .

From $\dot{t} = H_\theta$ we get

$$(1.13) \quad \dot{t} = A_1\dot{x}_1 - A_2\dot{x}_2$$

i.e. the sub-Riemannian geodesics are horizontal curves.

2 Connection and curvature

The horizontal connection

The *horizontal connection* is defined as

$$(2.14) \quad D : \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$$

$$(2.15) \quad D(V, W) = D_V W = \sum_{k=1,2} V g(W, X_k) X_k$$

Proposition 2.1 *D is a linear metric connection.*

Proof. One needs to verify the Leibnitz rule

$$(2.16) \quad D_V(fW) = V(f)W + f D_V W$$

and the condition

$$(2.17) \quad U g(V, W) = g(D_U V, W) + g(V, D_U W)$$

For the first part,

$$\begin{aligned} D_V(fW) &= \sum V g(fW, X_k) X_k = \\ &= \sum V(f) g(W, X_k) X_k + f \sum V g(W, X_k) X_k = V(f)W + f D_V W \end{aligned}$$

To show the second part,

$$\begin{aligned}
& g(D_U V, W) + g(V, D_U W) = \\
& = g\left(\sum U g(V, X_i) X_i, W\right) + g\left(V, \sum U g(W, X_i) X_i\right) = \\
& = g\left(\sum U(V^i) X_i, W\right) + g\left(V, \sum U(W^i) X_i\right) = \\
& = \sum U(V^i) W^i + \sum U(W^i) V^i = U\left(\sum V^i W^i\right) = U g(V, W)
\end{aligned}$$

where $V = \sum V^i X_i$ and $W = \sum W^i X_i$.

Let $Z = Z^1 X_1 + Z^2 X_2$ be a horizontal vector field. The *horizontal divergence* is defined as

$$\begin{aligned}
(2.18) \quad \operatorname{div}_{\mathcal{H}} Z &= \operatorname{trace}_g(V \rightarrow D_V Z) = \\
& \sum_k g(X_k, D_{X_k} Z) = \sum_k \left(X_k(Z^j) X_j\right)^k = \sum_k X_k(Z^k) = \sum_k X_k g(Z, X_k).
\end{aligned}$$

Define also the *X-gradient* of a function f as

$$(2.19) \quad \nabla_X f = \sum_k X_k(f) X_k.$$

Then

$$(2.20) \quad \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{div}_{\mathcal{H}} \nabla_X = \Delta_X f$$

The curvature tensor. Let $\mathcal{K} : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ be given by

$$(2.21) \quad \mathcal{K}(U) = \sum_k \Omega(U, X_k) X_k.$$

\mathcal{K} is $\mathcal{F}(\mathbf{R}^3)$ -linear and can be considered as a $(1,1)$ -tensor of curvature.

The following result shows that \mathcal{K} is skew-selfadjoint.

Proposition 2.2 *For every $U, W \in \mathcal{H}$*

$$(2.22) \quad g(\mathcal{K}(U), W) + g(U, \mathcal{K}(W)) = 0.$$

Proof. We show first that

$$(2.23) \quad g(\mathcal{K}(U), W) = \Omega(U, W),$$

and using the skew-symmetry of Ω we get (2.22).

Indeed,

$$\begin{aligned}
g(\mathcal{K}(U), W) &= g\left(\sum_k \Omega(U, X_k) X_k, W\right) = \\
&= \sum_k g(X_k, W) \Omega(U, X_k) = \Omega(U, W).
\end{aligned}$$

Corollary 2.3 For any $U \in \mathcal{H}$,

$$(2.24) \quad g(\mathcal{K}(U), U) = 0.$$

The last result suggests that in the case of a 2-dimensional distribution, the curvature \mathcal{K} is proportional with a rotation of angle $\pi/2$.

Define the rotation $\mathcal{J} : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ as

$$(2.25) \quad \mathcal{J}(X_1) = X_2, \quad \mathcal{J}(X_2) = -X_1$$

Then

$$\mathcal{K}(X_1) = \Omega(X_1, X_2)X_2 = \Omega(X_1, X_2)\mathcal{J}(X_1)$$

$$\mathcal{K}(X_2) = \Omega(X_2, X_1)X_1 = \Omega(X_1, X_2)\mathcal{J}(X_2)$$

We arrived at the following formula for the curvature

$$(2.26) \quad \mathcal{K}(U) = \Omega(X_1, X_2)\mathcal{J}(U), \quad \forall U \in \mathcal{H}$$

If the matrix Ω_{ij} is non-degenerate i.e. $\left(\frac{\partial A_1}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial A_2}{\partial x_1}\right) \neq 0$, then $\mathcal{K}(U) \neq 0$ for $U \neq 0$.

If V is not a horizontal vector field then the curvature can still be defined using

$$(2.27) \quad \mathcal{K}(V) = \sum_k \Omega(V, X_k)X_k$$

This is because the right hand side depends only on the horizontal part of V . Indeed, consider the vector field

$$V = V^1\partial_{x_1} + V^2\partial_{x_2} + V^3\partial_t$$

A computation shows

$$V = \underbrace{V^1X_1 + V^2X_2}_{=V_H} + \omega(V)\partial_t$$

Then

$$\Omega(V, X_k) = \Omega(V_H, X_k) + \omega(V) \underbrace{\Omega(\partial_t, X_k)}_{=0}$$

Hence $\mathcal{K}(V) = \mathcal{K}(V_H)$.

3 The Euler-Lagrange equation

The Legendre transform of the Hamiltonian (1.9) leads to the following Lagrangian

$$(3.28) \quad L(x, t, \dot{x}, \dot{t}) = \frac{1}{2}(\dot{x}_1^2 + \dot{x}_2^2) + \theta(\dot{t} - A_1(x)\dot{x}_1 + A_2(x)\dot{x}_2),$$

where θ is constant because

$$(3.29) \quad \dot{\theta} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial t} = -\frac{dH}{dt} = 0.$$

We deal now with a minimization problem with constraints given by

$$(3.30) \quad L(c, \dot{c}) = \frac{1}{2}g(\dot{c}, \dot{c}) + \theta\omega(\dot{c})$$

A computation shows the Euler-Lagrange system of equations

$$(3.31) \quad \frac{d}{ds} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{c}} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial c}, \quad c = (x_1, x_2, t)$$

becomes

$$(3.32) \quad \ddot{x}_1 = \theta \left(\frac{\partial A_1}{\partial x_2} + \frac{\partial A_2}{\partial x_1} \right) \dot{x}_2$$

$$(3.33) \quad \ddot{x}_2 = -\theta \left(\frac{\partial A_1}{\partial x_2} + \frac{\partial A_2}{\partial x_1} \right) \dot{x}_1$$

If the velocity of the geodesic is given by $\dot{c}(s) = \dot{x}_1(s)X_1 + \dot{x}_2(s)X_2$, the system (3.32) – (3.33) can be written as

$$(3.34) \quad \ddot{x}_1 X_1 + \ddot{x}_2 X_2 = \theta \left(\frac{\partial A_1}{\partial x_2} + \frac{\partial A_2}{\partial x_1} \right) (\dot{x}_2 X_1 - \dot{x}_1 X_2)$$

The right hand side has the meaning of curvature. Indeed, using (2.25) and (2.26) the right hand side of (3.34) yields

$$(3.35) \quad -\theta \Omega(X_1, X_2) \mathcal{J}(\dot{c}) = -\theta \mathcal{K}(\dot{c}).$$

For the left hand side of (3.34) consider the acceleration defined by the horizontal connection along $\dot{c}(s)$

$$D_{\dot{c}} \dot{c} = \sum_k \dot{c} g(\dot{c}, X_k) X_k = \dot{c}(\dot{x}_1) X_1 + \dot{c}(\dot{x}_2) X_2 = \ddot{x}_1 X_1 + \ddot{x}_2 X_2.$$

Hence the Euler-Lagrange system of equations can be written globally as

$$(3.36) \quad D_{\dot{c}} \dot{c} = -\theta \mathcal{K}(\dot{c})$$

In sub-Riemannian geometry the acceleration of the geodesics is equal to the curvature. This keeps the geodesics into the horizontal distribution. Like in Riemannian geometry, we have

Corollary 3.1 *The length of velocity \dot{c} in the sub-Riemannian metric g is constant.*

Proof. Since D is a metric connection,

$$\dot{c} g(\dot{c}, \dot{c}) = 2g(D_{\dot{c}} \dot{c}, \dot{c}) = -2\theta g(\mathcal{K}(\dot{c}), \dot{c}) = 0,$$

by Corollary 2.3.

The Hamilton-Jacobi equation.

Lemma 3.2 *Let $c(s) = (x_1(s), x_2(s), t(s))$ be a horizontal curve and a smooth function $f \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{R}^3)$. Then*

$$(3.37) \quad \frac{df}{ds} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial s} + g(\dot{c}, \nabla_X f).$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{df}{ds} &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial s} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \dot{x}_1 + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \dot{x}_2 + \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \dot{t} = \\ &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial s} + \left(X_1 f - A_1(x) \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \right) \dot{x}_1 + \left(X_2 f + A_2(x) \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \right) \dot{x}_2 + \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \dot{t} = \\ &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial s} + (X_1 f) \dot{x}_1 + (X_2 f) \dot{x}_2 + \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \omega(\dot{c}) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial s} + g(\dot{c}, \nabla_X f). \end{aligned}$$

In the following we need to find the minimum of

$$I = \int_0^\tau \frac{1}{2} (\dot{x}_1(s)^2 + \dot{x}_2(s)^2) ds = \int_0^\tau \frac{1}{2} |\dot{c}(s)|_g^2 ds$$

over the horizontal curves $c(s)$ with fixed ends.

Let $S(x, t) \in \mathcal{F}$ be the solution for the Hamilton-Jacobi equation

$$(3.38) \quad \frac{\partial S}{\partial \tau} + \frac{1}{2} |\nabla_X S|^2 = 0, \quad S(O) = 0.$$

Consider the integral

$$(3.39) \quad J = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{2} |\dot{c}(s)|_g^2 ds - dS$$

Using Lemma 3.2

$$\begin{aligned} J &= \int_0^\tau \left(\frac{1}{2} |\dot{c}(s)|_g^2 - \frac{\partial S}{\partial s} - g(\nabla_X S, \dot{c}) \right) ds = \\ (3.40) \quad &= \int_0^\tau \left(\frac{1}{2} |\dot{c} - \nabla_X S|_g^2 - \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial s} + \frac{1}{2} |\nabla_X S|^2 \right) \right) ds = \int_0^\tau \frac{1}{2} |\dot{c} - \nabla_X S|_g^2 ds \end{aligned}$$

The integrals I and J reach the minimum for the same horizontal curve and this occurs for a curve with the velocity

$$(3.41) \quad \dot{c} = \nabla_X S$$

Theorem 3.3 *A horizontal curve $c(s)$ is energy-minimizing iff (3.41) holds.*

Using (2.20) we get

Corollary 3.4 *The horizontal divergence of the geodesic flow is*

$$(3.42) \quad \operatorname{div}_{\mathcal{H}} \dot{c} = 2\Delta_X S$$

The Hamiltonian. The Hamiltonian $H : T^*M \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ is defined as

$$H(x, p) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_k p(X_k)^2$$

If $p = df$,

$$H(x, df) = \frac{1}{2} \sum df(X_k)^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum X_k(f)^2 = \frac{1}{2} |\nabla_X f|^2.$$

For $f = S$,

$$H(x, dS) = \frac{1}{2} |\nabla_X S|^2 = \frac{1}{2} |\dot{c}|^2 = \frac{1}{2}.$$

We also have

$$H(x, \omega) = \frac{1}{2} \sum \omega(X_i)^2 = 0.$$

The eiconal equation. Consider the energy associated to a function $f \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{R}^3)$ defined as

$$(3.43) \quad H(\nabla f) = H(x, df) = \frac{1}{2} |\nabla_X f|^2 = \frac{1}{2} \left((X_1 f)^2 + (X_2 f)^2 \right)$$

The front wave is given by the level curves of the energy and it is described by the eiconal equation

$$(3.44) \quad H(\nabla f) = k, \quad \text{positive constant}$$

with the initial condition

$$(3.45) \quad f(O) = 0$$

If $k = 0$, then f is the constant function equal to zero. Indeed, suppose that f is not constant. There is a point p such that $(gradf)_p \neq 0$. Then $\Sigma_c = f^{-1}(c)$ will be a surface through p , where $c = f(p)$. As $X_i(f) = 0$, then X_i are tangent to Σ_c on a neighborhood of p and hence Σ_c becomes integral surface for the horizontal distribution \mathcal{H} around p , which is nonintegrable, contradiction.

If $k \neq 0$, consider the geodesics starting at origin $c(0) = O$, parametrized such that $|\dot{c}(s)|_g^2 = 2k$. If S is the action along $c(s)$, by (3.41) we have

$$H(\nabla S) = \frac{1}{2} |\nabla_X S|_g^2 = \frac{1}{2} |\dot{c}|_g^2 = k.$$

Jacobi vector fields and curvature. Let $c(s)$ be a subRiemannian geodesic which starts at origin and let P be the first conjugate point with 0 along $c(s)$. Denote by $V(s)$ a Jacobi vector field along $c(s)$ and by $S(s)$ the action between 0 and $c(s)$.

Proposition 3.5

$$(3.46) \quad \int_0^1 \mathcal{K}(V(s))(S(s)) ds = 0,$$

where $P = c(1)$ and \mathcal{K} is the curvature.

Proof. Let $c_\epsilon = F_\epsilon(c)$ be a smooth variation of c , such that for every ϵ , c_ϵ is a sub-Riemannian geodesic. As c_ϵ is a horizontal curve, then

$$0 = \int_0^1 \omega(\dot{c}_\epsilon(s)) ds = \int_{c_\epsilon} \omega = \int_{F_\epsilon(c)} \omega = \int_c F_\epsilon^* \omega$$

Then

$$\frac{d}{d\epsilon} \int_c F_\epsilon^* \omega = 0$$

or,

$$\int_c L_V \omega = 0,$$

where V is the Jacobi vector field associat to the variation $(c_\epsilon)_\epsilon$. As V is zero at the end points of c ,

$$\int_c d(i_V \omega) = \int_{\partial c} i_V \omega = \omega(V)(0) - \omega(V)(1) = 0.$$

Cartan decomposition yields

$$L_V \omega = d(i_V \omega) + i_V(d\omega),$$

and then

$$\int_c i_V \Omega = 0,$$

which can also be written as

$$\int_0^1 \Omega(V(s), \dot{c}(s)) ds = 0.$$

Using $\dot{c} = \sum \dot{c}^j X_j$ and $\dot{c}^j(s) = X_j(S)$, then

$$\Omega(V, \dot{c}) = \Omega(V, \dot{c}^j X_j) = \dot{c}^j \Omega(V, X_j) = \Omega(V, X_j) X_j(S) = \mathcal{K}(V)(S).$$

Hence

$$\int_0^1 \mathcal{K}(V)(S) ds = 0.$$

4 Constant curvature flow

In this section we ask the problem of a vector field such that $|\mathcal{K}(V)|^2 = 1$. As a nondegenerate, closed 2-form, Ω can be regarded as a symplectic form. One may associate the horizontal *Hamiltonian vector field* X_f to a function f as

$$(4.47) \quad \Omega(X_f, W) = W(f), \quad \forall W \in \mathcal{H}$$

We shall show that X_f has constant curvature for a certain f .

$$\mathcal{K}(X_f) = \sum \Omega(X_f, X_k) X_k = \sum X_k(f) X_k = \nabla_X f$$

and choosing $f = S$ we have

$$(4.48) \quad |\mathcal{K}(X_S)|_g^2 = |\dot{c}|_g^2 = 1$$

In the following we find the relation between the Hamiltonian field X_S and the geodesic flow \dot{c} .

Applying (2.26),

$$\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{K}(U)) = \Omega(X_1, X_2)\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{J}(U)) = \Omega(X_1, X_2)^2\mathcal{J}^2(U) = -\Omega(X_1, X_2)^2U$$

or

$$(4.49) \quad \mathcal{K}^2 = -\Omega(X_1, X_2)^2 Id$$

Using (4.49)

$$X_S = -\Omega(X_1, X_2)^{-2}\mathcal{K}^2(X_S) = -\Omega(X_1, X_2)^{-2}\mathcal{K}(\dot{c}) = -\Omega(X_1, X_2)^{-1}\mathcal{J}(\dot{c})$$

or

$$(4.50) \quad \dot{c} = \Omega(X_1, X_2)\mathcal{J}(X_S),$$

which provides the velocity of the geodesic in terms of the Hamiltonian vector field X_S .

5 A few examples of sub-Riemannian manifolds

5.1 The Heisenberg group \mathbb{H}_1 .

The Heisenberg group constitutes the paradigm of the theory. The 3-dimensional Heisenberg group can be realized as $\mathbf{H}_1 = \mathbf{R}^3 \times \mathbf{R} = \{(x, t)\}$ endowed with the group law

$$(5.51) \quad (x, t) * (x', t') = (x + x', t + t' + 2x_2x'_1 - 2x_1x'_2).$$

The vector fields which generate the nonintegrable distribution \mathcal{H} are

$$(5.52) \quad X_1 = \partial_{x_1} + 2x_2\partial_t, \quad X_2 = \partial_{x_2} - 2x_1\partial_t, \quad T = \partial_t.$$

They are left invariant with respect to the group law and generate the Lie algebra of \mathbf{H}_1 . The 1-form is

$$(5.53) \quad \omega = dt - 2x_2\dot{x}_1 + 2x_1\dot{x}_2$$

and the curvature 2-form is

$$(5.54) \quad \Omega = 4dx_1 \wedge dx_2$$

with

$$(5.55) \quad \Omega(X_1, X_2) = 4$$

and the curvature given by (2.26) becomes

$$(5.56) \quad \mathcal{K}(U) = 4\mathcal{J}(U), \quad \forall U \in \mathcal{H}$$

The Euler-Lagrange equation is

$$(5.57) \quad \ddot{x} = 4\theta\mathcal{J}(\dot{x}).$$

5.2 The $(2n+1)$ -dimensional Heisenberg group \mathbb{H}_n .

The $2n$ -vector fields are defined on \mathbf{R}^{2n+1} as

$$(5.58) \quad X_k = \partial_{x_k} + B_k(x)\partial_t, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, 2n$$

where

$$(5.59) \quad B_j(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{2n} 2a_{jk}x_k$$

or $B = 2Ax$ where A is a skew-symmetric non-singular matrix. The 1-form of connection in this case is

$$(5.60) \quad \omega = dt - 2Ax dx$$

Then the 2-form becomes

$$(5.61) \quad \Omega = d\omega = 2 \sum_{p,j=1}^{2n} a_{pj} dx_p \wedge dx_j = -2\langle A dx, dx \rangle$$

A computation shows that the curvature along a horizontal vector field U is

$$(5.62) \quad \mathcal{K}(U) = - \sum_{k,p=1}^{2n} 4a_{pk} U^k X_p$$

The Euler-Lagrange equation system of equations is given by

$$(5.63) \quad \ddot{x} = -4\theta\mathcal{K}(\dot{x})$$

5.3 A step 4 case.

Consider the vector fields

$$(5.64) \quad X_1 = \partial_{x_1} + 4x_2|x|^2\partial_t, \quad X_2 = \partial_{x_2} - 4x_1|x|^2\partial_t,$$

which define the 1-form

$$(5.65) \quad \omega = dt - 4|x|^2(x_2 dx_1 - x_1 dx_2).$$

Then

$$(5.66) \quad \Omega = 16|x|^2 dx_1 \wedge dx_2.$$

The curvature becomes

$$(5.67) \quad \mathcal{K}(U) = 16|x|^2 \mathcal{J}(U), \quad \forall U \in \mathcal{H}.$$

The Euler-Lagrange system is

$$(5.68) \quad \ddot{x} = 16\theta|x|^2 \mathcal{J}(\dot{x}).$$

5.4 A step 3 case.

The vector fields

$$(5.69) \quad X_1 = \partial_{x_1} + \frac{x_2}{2} \partial_t, \quad X_2 = \partial_{x_2}$$

define the Martinet distribution on \mathbf{R}^3 . Then

$$(5.70) \quad \omega = dt - \frac{1}{2} x_2^2 dx_1$$

and

$$(5.71) \quad \Omega = x_2 dx_1 \wedge dx_2$$

The curvature is

$$(5.72) \quad \mathcal{K}(U) = x_2 \mathcal{J}(U).$$

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