

# Variational Calculus on Sub-Riemannian Manifolds

O. Călin and V. Mangione

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  $E = \int_0^1 \left( \frac{1}{2} |\dot{c}|^2 + \langle \dot{c}, \theta \rangle \right) ds$ . The paper deals with a presentation of the variational calculus for the case when  $\theta$  is a 1-form of type (1:1) such that  $\langle \dot{c}, \theta \rangle$  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  $\mathbb{R}^3 = \mathbb{R}^2_{(x_1, x_2)} \times \mathbb{R}_t$  defined as  $\mathcal{H} = \ker \omega$ , where  $\omega$  is a 1-form on  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . 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  $A_1 = -\omega^1/\omega^3$ , and  $A_2 = \omega^2/\omega^3$ . One may verify that

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

where

$$(1.2) \quad X_1 = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} + A_1(x)\frac{\partial}{\partial t}; \quad X_2 = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} - A_2(x)\frac{\partial}{\partial t}$$

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

Suppose the 2-form

$$(1.3) \quad \omega^2 := d\omega = \left( \frac{\partial A_1}{\partial x_2} - \frac{\partial A_2}{\partial x_1} \right) dx_1 \wedge dx_2$$

does not vanish. Then

$$(1.4) \quad [X_1; X_2] = -\left( \frac{\partial A_1}{\partial x_2} - \frac{\partial A_2}{\partial x_1} \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \in \mathcal{H}$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

and define the Hamiltonian as the principal symbol of  $X$

$$(1.9) \quad H(x; t; \mu) = \frac{1}{2}(\mu_1 + A_1(x)\mu)^2 + \frac{1}{2}(\mu_2 - A_2(x)\mu)^2$$

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

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

$$(1.11) \quad \dot{\mu} = -H_x ; \quad \dot{\mu} = -H_t$$

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

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

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

$$(2.21) \quad \mathcal{K}(U) = \sum_k (U; X_k) X_k:$$

$\mathcal{K}$  is  $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{R}^3)$ -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

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

and using the skew-symmetry of  $\mathcal{K}$  we get (2.22).

Indeed,

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

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  $\dots=2$ .

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

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

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

We arrived at the following formula for the curvature

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

If the matrix  $_{ij}$  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

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

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

$$V = V^1_{@_{x_1}} + V^2_{@_{x_2}} + V^3_{@_t}$$

A computation shows

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

Then

$$(V; X_k) = (V_H; X_k) + (V)_{@_t} \underbrace{(@_t; X_k)}_{=0}$$

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

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

where  $\mu$  is constant because

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

We deal now with a minimization problem with constraints given by

$$(3.30) \quad L(c; \dot{c}) = \frac{1}{2}g(\dot{c}; \dot{c}) + \mu \mathcal{K}(\dot{c})$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$(3.35) \quad -\mu \langle X_1; X_2 \rangle \mathcal{K}(\dot{c}) = -\mu \mathcal{K}(\dot{c});$$

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

$$D_{\dot{c}} \dot{c} = \sum_k \dot{c} g(\dot{c}; X_k) X_k = \dot{c}(x_1) X_1 + \dot{c}(x_2) X_2 = \ddot{x}_1 X_1 + \ddot{x}_2 X_2;$$

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

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

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,

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

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  $f \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{R}^3)$ . Then*

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

Proof.

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

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

$$(3.38) \quad \frac{\partial S}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2} |\nabla_X S|^2 = 0; \quad S(0) = 0;$$

Consider the integral

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

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*

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

The Hamiltonian. The Hamiltonian  $H : T^*M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  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

$$H(x; ! ) = \frac{1}{2} \sum ! (X_i)^2 = 0:$$

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

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

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  $(\text{grad} f)_p \neq 0$ . Then  $c = f^{-1}(c)$  will be a surface through  $p$ , where  $c = f(p)$ . As  $X_i(f) = 0$ , then  $X_i$  are tangent to  $c$  on a neighborhood of  $p$  and hence  $c$  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  $c(0) = 0$ , 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  $c_\epsilon = F_2(c)$  be a smooth variation of  $c$ , such that for every  $\epsilon$ ,  $c_\epsilon$  is a sub-Riemannian geodesic. As  $c_\epsilon$  is a horizontal curve, then

$$0 = \int_0^1 \langle \dot{c}_\epsilon(s), \dot{c}_\epsilon(s) \rangle ds = \int_0^1 \langle \dot{c}_\epsilon, \dot{c}_\epsilon \rangle ds = \int_0^1 \langle F_2(c), F_2(c) \rangle ds$$

Then

$$\frac{d}{ds} \int_0^1 \langle F_2(c), F_2(c) \rangle ds = 0$$

or,

$$\int_0^1 \langle L_V, L_V \rangle ds = 0;$$

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

$$\int_0^1 \langle L_V, L_V \rangle ds = \int_0^1 \langle V, V \rangle ds = \langle V(0), V(0) \rangle + \langle V(1), V(1) \rangle = 0;$$

Cartan decomposition yields

$$L_V = d(i_V) + i_V(d);$$

and then

$$\int_0^1 \langle i_V, i_V \rangle ds = 0;$$

which can also be written as

$$\int_0^1 \langle V(s), \dot{c}(s) \rangle ds = 0;$$

Using  $\dot{c} = \sum \dot{c}_j X_j$  and  $\dot{c}(s) = \sum X_j(s) V_j(s)$





