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**The condition of non-commutativity of the squares of
two vector fields in a nilpotent distribution**

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Praise be to God for His countless blessings . I have reached the end of my journey , where I prayed to God to grant me a moment of joy in my success , and God amazed me with His generosity .

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ملخص

في هذه المذكرة، نسعى إلى تحديد بعض الخصائص المتعلقة بالتوزيع النيلبوتيني $\mathcal{D} = \text{span}\{X, Y\}$ على المجال \mathbb{R}^n ، هذه الخاصية تحدد الشرط الضروري لقوس لاي $[X^2, Y^2] \neq 0$ ، تقدم هذه النتيجة حسابات أقل ووصفًا ممتازًا لحساب $[X^2, Y^2]$

الكلمات المفتاحية

توزيع ، حقل متجهي ، قوس لاي ، النيلبوتيني ...

Abstract

In this Memory , we aim to define certain properties regarding the nilpotent distribution $\mathcal{D} = \text{span}\{X, Y\}$ in the space \mathbb{R}^n , This property determines the necessary condition for the Lie bracket $[X^2, Y^2] \neq 0$. This result offers less computation and excellent description for the calcul of $[X^2, Y^2]$.

Keywords:

Distribution , Vector fields , Lie bracket , nilpotent ...

Résumé

Dans ce mémoire , nous visons à définir certaines propriétés concernant la distribution nilpotente $\mathcal{D} = \text{span}\{X, Y\}$ dans un l'espace \mathbb{R}^n , Cette propriété détermine la condition nécessaire pour le crochet de Lie $[X^2, Y^2] \neq 0$. Ce résultat offre moins de calculs et une excellente description pour le calcul de $[X^2, Y^2]$.

Les mots clés:

Distribution , Champ de vecteur , Crochet de lie , nilpotent ...

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The theory of subelliptic operators $L = X_1^2 + \dots + X_m^2$ on \mathbb{R}^n , where $X_1^2 + \dots + X_m^2$ are vector fields, plays a fundamental role in sub-Riemannian geometry. The main question addressed in this paper is the theory of finding heat kernels. The method for finding heat kernels depends on the commutativity of the squares of the vector fields $X_1^2 + \dots + X_m^2$. If the operators commute, then the value of the heat kernel is the product of the heat kernels of the operators. Otherwise, the Toranter formula will be presented using the method of integration by parts...

The goal of this memory is to present the result cited in [13], [6], defining a very important property in sub-Riemannian geometry. This property aims to verify the non-commutativity of the square of the vector fields X and Y in a nilpotent distribution $\mathcal{D} = \text{span}\{X, Y\}$ of class 2 and class 3.

Our work revolves around three essential points

The first chapter : It is dedicated to recalling the essential basic concepts necessary for understanding differential geometry, It provides the mathematical framework, deliberately very detailed, in which this document is situated, we define champ vecteur, distribution, sub-Riemannian structure, Lie bracket, ...

Second chapter : The kernel of this work, is dedicated to defining a very important notion regarding the nilpotent distribution $\mathcal{D} = \text{span}\{X, Y\}$ of class 2 and class 3, which are necessary conditions for the non-commutativity of square of the vector field X, Y .

Third chapter : We illustrate our work with two excellent examples in sub-Riemannian geometry those of the Heisenberg distribution and Martinet distribution.

this work shows that the condition of non-commutativity of the squares of two vector fields in a nilpotent distribution is a fundamental aspect of the study of sub-Riemannian geometry. This property highlights the uniqueness of nilpotent distributions and their impact on the geometric and topological structure of the studied spaces. A deep understanding of these conditions opens new avenues for research in this field, enhancing our knowledge of the interactions between geometry and analysis.

1.1 Vector fields in \mathbb{R}^n

We use any of the notation

$$\partial_j \quad , \quad \partial_{x_j} \quad , \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \quad , \quad \partial/\partial x_j \quad ,$$

to indicate the partial derivative operator with respect to the j -th coordinate of \mathbb{R}^n . Let $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be an open (and non-empty) set .

Definition 1.1 [15] Given an N -tuple of a scalar function a_1, \dots, a_N

$$a_j : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad , \quad j \in \{1, \dots, N\} \quad .$$

the first order linear differential operator

$$X = \sum_{j=1}^N a_j \partial_j \quad . \quad (1.1)$$

will be called a vector field on Ω with component functions (or simply , components) a_1, \dots, a_N . If $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is a differentiable function , we denote Xf the function on Ω by

$$Xf(x) = \sum_{j=1}^N a_j(x) \partial_j f(x) \quad , \quad x \in \Omega \quad .$$

Occasionally , we shall also use the notation Xf when

$$f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m \quad .$$

is a vector-valued function , to mean the component-wise action of X . More precisely , we set

$$Xf(x) = \begin{pmatrix} Xf_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ Xf_m(x) \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{for} \quad f(x) = \begin{pmatrix} f_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ f_m(x) \end{pmatrix} \quad .$$

Furthermore , given a differentiable function $f : \Omega \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$, we shall denote by

$$\mathfrak{J}_f(x) \quad , \quad x \in \Omega \quad .$$

the Jacobian matrix of f at x .

Let $C^\infty(\Omega, \mathbb{R})$ for brevity , $C^\infty(\Omega)$ be the set of smooth (i.e . infinitely-differentiable) real-valued functions . If the components a_j are smooth , we shall call X a smooth vector field and we shall often consider X as an operator acting on smooth functions ,

$$X : C^\infty(\Omega) \rightarrow C^\infty(\Omega), f \mapsto Xf \quad .$$

We shall denote by $T(\mathbb{R}^n)$ the set of all smooth vector fields in \mathbb{R}^n . Equipped with the natural operations , $T(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is a vector space over \mathbb{R} .

We adopt the following notation : I will denote the identity map on \mathbb{R}^n and , if X is the vector field in (1.1) , then

$$XI := \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_N \end{pmatrix} . \tag{1.2}$$

will be the column vector of the components of X .

This notation is obviously consistent with our definition of the action of X on a vector-valued function . Thus , XI may also be regarded as a smooth map from \mathbb{R}^n to itself .

Often , many authors identify X and XI . Instead , in order to avoid any confusion between a smooth vector field as a function belonging to $C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^n)$ and a smooth vector field as a differential operator from $C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)$ to itself , we prefer to use the different notation XI and X as described in (1.2) and (1.1) , respectively

By consistency of notation , we may write

$$Xf = (\nabla f) \cdot XI \quad .$$

where $\nabla = (\partial_1, \dots, \partial_N)$ is the gradient operator in \mathbb{R}^n , f is any real-valued smooth function on \mathbb{R}^n and \cdot denotes the row \times column product .

For example : for the following two vector fields on \mathbb{R}^3 (whose points are denoted by $x = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$)

$$X_1 = \partial_{x_1} + 2x_2\partial_{x_3} \quad , \quad X_2 = \partial_{x_2} - 2x_1\partial_{x_3} \quad , \tag{1.3}$$

we have

$$X_1I(x) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 2x_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad , \quad X_2I(x) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -2x_1 \end{pmatrix} \quad , \tag{1.4}$$

1.2 Integral Curves

Definition 1.2 [15]

A path $\gamma : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ being an interval of \mathbb{R} , will be said an integral curve of the smooth vector field X if

$$\dot{\gamma}(t) = XI(\gamma(t)) \quad \text{for every } t \in \mathcal{D} .$$

If X is a smooth vector field, then, for every $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the Cauchy problem

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\gamma} = XI(\gamma) \\ \gamma(0) = x \end{cases} . \quad (1.5)$$

has a unique solution

$$\gamma_X(\cdot, x) : \mathcal{D}(X, x) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n .$$

Since X is smooth, $t \rightarrow \gamma_X(t, x)$ is a C^∞ function whose n -th Taylor expansion in a neighborhood of $t = 0$ is given by

$$\gamma_X(t, x) = x + tX^{(1)}I(x) + \frac{t^2}{2!}tX^{(2)}I(x) + \cdots + \frac{t^n}{n!}tX^{(n)}I(x) + \frac{1}{n!} \int_0^t (t-s)^n X^{(n+1)}I(\gamma_X(s, x)) ds \quad (1.6)$$

Hereafter, for $k \in \mathbb{N}$, we denote by $X^{(k)}$ the vector field

$$X^{(k)} = \sum_{j=1}^N (X^{(k-1)}a_j) \partial_{x_j} .$$

being $X^0 = I$ (the identity map) and X^h , $h \geq 1$, the h -th order iterated of X , i.e.

$$X^h := \underbrace{X \circ \cdots \circ X}_{h \text{ times}} .$$

Example 1.1 For example, if X_1 is as in (1.3), since

$$X_1^{(1)}I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 2x_2 \end{pmatrix}, X_1^{(2)}I = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = X_1^{(k)}I, \quad \forall k \geq 3 .$$

we have

$$\gamma_{X_1}(t, x) = x + tX_1^{(1)}I(x) = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} + t \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 2x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 + t \\ x_2 \\ x_3 + 2x_2t \end{pmatrix} .$$

Definition 1.3 [15] Let X be a smooth vector field on \mathbb{R}^n . Following all the above notation, we set

$$\exp(tX)(x) := \gamma_X(t, x) .$$

where $\gamma_X(\cdot, x)$ is the solution of (1.5) Then, being X smooth, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have the expansion

$$\exp(tX)(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{t^k}{k!} X^k I(x) + \frac{1}{n!} \int_0^t (t-s)^n X^{n+1} I(\exp(sX)(x)) ds .$$

In particular, for $n = 1$,

$$\exp(tX)(x) = x + tX^1 I(x) + \int_0^t (t-s) X^2 I(\exp(sX)(x)) ds .$$

Moreover , from the unique solvability of the Cauchy problem related to smooth vector fields we get:
 $t \in \mathcal{D}(-X, x)$ iff $-t \in \mathcal{D}(X, x)$ and

$$\begin{aligned} \exp(tX)(x) &:= \exp((t)X)(x) = \exp(t(X))(x) \quad . \\ \exp(tX)(\exp(tX)(x)) &= x \quad . \\ \exp((t + \tau)X)(x) &= \exp(tX)(\exp(\tau X)(x)) \quad . \\ \exp((t\tau)X)(x) &= \exp(t(X))(x) \quad . \end{aligned}$$

when all the terms are defined .

Remark 1.1 [15] Let us consider a smooth function $u : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and the vector field in (1.1) . Then

$$Xu(x) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{u(\exp(tX)(x)) - u(x)}{t} \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad . \quad (1.7)$$

Indeed , since $\exp(tX)(x) = x + tXI(x) + \mathcal{O}(t^2)$, the limit on the right-hand side of (1.7) is equal to the following one :

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{u(x + tXI(x)) - u(x)}{t} = \nabla u(x) \cdot XI(x) = Xu(x) \quad .$$

1.3 Lie Brackets of Vector Fields in \mathbb{R}^n

Definition 1.4 [15]

If $X = \sum_{j=1}^N a_j \partial_j$ and $Y = \sum_{j=1}^N b_j \partial_j$, a direct computation shows that the Lie bracket $[X, Y]$ is the vector field

$$[X, Y] = \sum_{j=1}^N (Xb_j - Ya_j) \partial_j \quad .$$

As a consequence , Given two smooth vector fields X and Y in \mathbb{R}^n , we define the Lie bracket $[X, Y]$ as follows

$$[X, Y] := XY - YX \quad .$$

If $X = \sum_{j=1}^N a_j \partial_j$ and $Y = \sum_{j=1}^N b_j \partial_j$, a direct computation shows that the Lie bracket $[X, Y]$ is the vector field

$$[X, Y] = \sum_{j=1}^N (Xb_j - Ya_j) \partial_j \quad .$$

As a consequence ,

$$[X, Y]I = \begin{pmatrix} Xb_1 \\ \vdots \\ Xb_N \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} Ya_1 \\ \vdots \\ Ya_N \end{pmatrix} = \mathfrak{I}_{YI} \cdot XI - \mathfrak{I}_{XI} \cdot YI \quad .$$

Example 1.2 [15] If X_1, X_2 are as in 1.3 , we have

$$[X_1, X_2] = (X_1(-2x_1) - X_2(2x_2)) \partial_{x_3} = -4\partial_{x_3} \quad .$$

It is quite trivial to check that $(X, Y) \mapsto [X, Y]$ is a bilinear map on the vector space $T(\mathbb{R}^n)$ satisfying the Jacobi identity

$$[X, [Y, Z]] + [Y, [Z, X]] + [Z, [X, Y]] = 0 \quad .$$

for every $X, Y, Z \in T(\mathbb{R}^n)$

We now introduce some other notation on the algebras of vector fields . Given a set of vector fields $Z_1, \dots, Z_m \in T(\mathbb{R}^n)$ and a multi-index

$$J = (j_1, \dots, j_k) \in \{1, \dots, m\}^k .$$

we set

$$Z_J := [Z_{j_1}, \dots, [Z_{j_{k-1}}, Z_{j_k}] \dots] .$$

We say that Z_J is a commutator of length (or height) k of Z_1, \dots, Z_m . If $J = j_1$, we also say that $Z_J := Z_{j_1}$ is a commutator of length 1 of Z_1, \dots, Z_m . A commutator of the form Z_J will also be called nested , in order to emphasize its difference from , e.g . a commutator of the form $[Z_1, Z_2]$. We shall refer to $T(\mathbb{R}^n)$ (equipped with the above Lie bracket) as the Lie algebra of the vector fields on \mathbb{R}^n . Any sub-algebra \mathfrak{g} of $T(\mathbb{R}^n)$ will be called a Lie algebra of vector fields .

More explicitly , \mathfrak{g} is a Lie algebra of vector fields if \mathfrak{g} is a vector subspace of $T(\mathbb{R}^n)$ closed with respect to $[\cdot, \cdot]$, i.e . $[X, Y] \in \mathfrak{g}$ for every $X, Y \in \mathfrak{g}$.

We now introduce some other notation on the algebras of vector fields . Given a set of vector fields $Z_1, \dots, Z_m \in T(\mathbb{R}^n)$ and a multi-index

$$J = (j_1, \dots, j_k) \in \{1, \dots, m\}^k .$$

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$$Z_J := [Z_{j_1}, \dots, [Z_{j_{k-1}}, Z_{j_k}] \dots] .$$

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$$[[Z_1, Z_2], [Z_3, Z_4]] .$$

Definition 1.5 (The Lie algebra generated by a set) [15]

If V is any subset of $T(\mathbb{R}^n)$, we denote by $Lie\{V\}$ the least sub-algebra of $T(\mathbb{R}^n)$ containing V , i.e .

$$Lie\{V\} := \bigcap \mathfrak{h} .$$

where \mathfrak{h} is a sub-algebra of $T(\mathbb{R}^n)$ with $V \subseteq \mathfrak{h}$. We also define

$$rank(Lie\{V\}(x)) := dim_{\mathbb{R}} \{Z(x) | Z \in Lie\{V\}\} .$$

Example 1.3 Let X_1 and X_2 be as in (1.3) .

Since $[X_1, X_2] = -4\partial_{x_3}$ and since any commutator involving X_1, X_2 more than twice is identically zero then

$$Lie\{X_1, X_2\} = span\{X_1, X_2, [X_1, X_2]\} , \quad \text{and} \quad rank(Lie\{X_1, X_2\}(x)) = 3 \quad \text{for every } x \in \mathbb{R}^3 .$$

The following result holds .

1.4 Lie groups on \mathbb{R}^n

The Lie Algebra of a Lie Group on \mathbb{R}^n

We first recall a well-known definition.

Definition 1.6 [15] Let \circ be a given group law on \mathbb{R}^n and suppose that the map

$$\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \ni (x, y) \mapsto y^{-1} \circ x \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad .$$

is smooth . Then $\mathbb{G} := (\mathbb{R}^n, \circ)$ is called a Lie group on \mathbb{R}^n .

Fixed $\alpha \in \mathbb{G}$, we denote by $\tau_\alpha(x) := \alpha \circ x$ the left-translation by α on \mathbb{G} . A (smooth) vector field X on \mathbb{R}^n is called left-invariant on \mathbb{G} if

$$X(\varphi \circ \tau_\alpha) = (X_\varphi) \circ \tau_\alpha \quad .$$

For every $\alpha \in \mathbb{G}$ and for every smooth function $\varphi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We denote by \mathfrak{g} the set of the left-invariant vector fields on \mathbb{G} . It is quite obvious to recognize that

for every $X, Y \in \mathfrak{g}$ and for every $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{R}$ we have $\lambda X + \mu Y \in \mathfrak{g}$ and $[X, Y] \in \mathfrak{g}$.

Then , \mathfrak{g} is a Lie algebra of vector fields , sub-algebra of $T(\mathbb{R}^n)$. It will be called the Lie algebra of \mathbb{G} .

Example 1.4 (First Heisenberg group \mathbb{H}^1) The map

$$(x_1, x_2, x_3) \circ (y_1, y_2, y_3) = (x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2, x_3 + y_3 + 2(x_2 y_1 - x_1 y_2)) \quad .$$

are left invariant w.r.t . \circ . Consequently, $X_1, X_2, [X_1, X_2] \in \mathfrak{h}^1$, say , the Lie algebra of \mathbb{H}^1 .

Precisely ,

$$\mathfrak{h}^1 = \text{span}\{X_1, X_2, [X_1, X_2]\} = \text{Lie}\{X_1, X_2\}.$$

From the theorem of differentiation of composite functions , we easily get the following characterization of left-invariant vector fields on \mathbb{G} .

1.5 Distribution

Definition 1.7 [14]

A smooth distribution Δ of rank $m \leq n$ ($m \geq 1$) on M is a rank m subbundle of the tangent bundle TM , that is a smooth map that assigns to each point x of M a linear subspace $\Delta(x)$ of the tangent space $T_x M$ of dimension m . In other terms , for every $x \in M$, here are an open neighborhood \mathcal{V}_x of x in M and m smooth vector fields X_x^1, \dots, X_x^m linearly independent on \mathcal{V}_x such that

$$\Delta(y) = \text{Span}\{X_x^1(y), \dots, X_x^m(y)\} \quad \forall y \in \mathcal{V}_x \quad .$$

Such a family of smooth vector fields is called a **local frame** in \mathcal{V}_x for the distribution $\Delta(x)$. All the distributions which will be considered later will be smooth with constant rank $m \in [1, n]$. Thus , from now on , “distribution” always means ” smooth distribution with constant rank ” . A co-rank k distribution on M is a distribution of rank $m = n - k$ and any smooth vector field X on M such that $X(x) \in \Delta(x)$ or any $x \in M$ is called a section of Δ .

1.6 Sub-Riemannian Geometry

Definition 1.8 [9]

Let M be a manifold , together with a subbundle \mathcal{H} of the tangent bundle . Then a **sub-Riemannian manifold** is a triple (M, \mathcal{H}, h) where h is a fiber-metric on \mathcal{H} .

In this setting , the subbundle \mathcal{H} is called the **horizontal distribution** and h is called the sub-Riemannian metric .

We will use the letter d to refer to the rank of \mathcal{H} , and n to refer to the dimension of the manifold . The vector fields in $\Gamma(\mathcal{H})$ are called **horizontal vector fields** . Given a sub-Riemannian metric h we can define the analogue of the flat and sharp operator as in Riemannian geometry . The definition of flat with respect to h then becomes

$$b^h : \mathcal{H} \longrightarrow \mathcal{H}^* \quad , \quad b^h(v) = h(v, \cdot) \quad .$$

for $v \in \mathcal{H}$, while the sharp operator with respect to h is defined to be

$$\sharp^h : T^*M \longrightarrow \mathcal{H}, \quad \sharp^h(\omega) = (b^h)^{-1}(\omega|_{\mathcal{H}}) \quad .$$

for $\omega \in T^*M$.

Using the sharp operator we can define the **cometric** with respect to h by

$$h^* : T^*M \times T^*M \longrightarrow T^*M, \quad \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle_{h^*} = \alpha(\sharp^h(\beta)) \quad .$$

The cometric h^* is symmetric , since given any two elements $\alpha, \beta \in T^*M$ such that $\sharp^h(\alpha) = v$ and $\sharp^h(\beta) = w$, we have that

$$\langle v, w \rangle_h = \langle v, \cdot \rangle_h(w) = \alpha|_{\mathcal{H}}(\sharp^h(\beta)) = \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle_{h^*} \quad .$$

Note that $\sharp^h(\alpha) = h^*(\alpha, \cdot)$. An additional property of the cometric is that h^* is zero on the annihilator of \mathcal{H} in T^*M , i.e . the subbundle of T^*M given by

$$\{\alpha \in T^*M : \alpha(v) = 0 \quad \forall v \in \mathcal{H}\} \quad .$$

It is also possible to define the cometric by the following two properties : h^* is zero on the annihilator of \mathcal{H} , and

$$\langle \sharp^h \alpha, \sharp^h \beta \rangle_h = \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle_{h^*} \quad .$$

for all $\alpha, \beta \in T^*M$. The main advantage of working with the cometric instead of the sub-Riemannian metric is that the cometric is defined on the entire T^*M instead of a subbundle . Later we will also encounter the cometric as the symbol of the sub-Laplacian , which gives us another reason for preferring the cometric rather than the sub-Riemannian metric .

Let $\gamma : [a, b] \longrightarrow M$ be a continuous curve such that $\dot{\gamma} \in \mathcal{H}$ almost everywhere . We say that γ is a **horizontal absolutely continuous curve** if it satisfy

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x \|\dot{\gamma}(t)\|_h dt = \|\dot{\gamma}(x)\|_h \quad .$$

almost everywhere. The **length** of γ is then defined to be

$$l(\gamma) = \int_a^b \|\dot{\gamma}(t)\|_h dt \quad .$$

Denote by $C_{ac}^{\mathcal{H}}(A,B)$ the set of all horizontal absolutely continuous curves connecting the two points A and B on the manifold . We define the **distance** between A and B , denoted $d(A,B)$ to be

$$d(A,B) = \inf_{C_{ac}^{\mathcal{H}}(A,B)} l(\gamma) \quad .$$

where we use the convention $\inf \emptyset = \infty$. There are many cases in which the distance between two points may be infinite .

For instance , if \mathcal{H} is an integrable distribution , i.e . $[X,Y] \in \Gamma(\mathcal{H})$ for all $X,Y \in \Gamma(\mathcal{H})$.

1.7 Sub-Riemannian structures

Let M be a smooth n -dimensional manifold.

Definition 1.9 [12]

A sub-Riemannian structure on M is a pair (D,g) where D is a distribution and g is a Riemannian metric on D .

A sub-Riemannian manifold (M,D,g) is a smooth manifold M equipped with a sub-Riemannian structure (D,g) .

Recall that a distribution D of rank m ($m \leq n$) is a family of m -dimensional linear subspaces $D_q \subset T_q M$ depending smoothly on $q \in M$. A Riemannian metric on D is a smooth function $g : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which restrictions g_q to D_q are positive definite quadratic forms .

Let (M,D,g) be a sub-Riemannian manifold . A horizontal curve $\gamma : I \subset \mathbb{R} \rightarrow M$ is an absolutely continuous curve such that $\dot{\gamma}(t) \in D_{\gamma(t)}$ for almost every $t \in I$.

We define the length of a horizontal curve , as in Riemannian geometry , by :

$$length(\gamma) = \int_I \sqrt{g_{\gamma(t)}(\dot{\gamma}(t))} dt \quad .$$

Definition 1.10 [12] The sub-Riemannian distance on (M, D, g) is defined by

$$d(p,q) = \inf \{ length(\gamma) : \gamma \text{ horizontal curve } \gamma \text{ joins } p \text{ to } q \} \quad .$$

We use the convention

$$\inf \emptyset = +\infty \quad .$$

Thus,if p and q can not be joined by a horizontal curve ,

$$d(p,q) = +\infty \quad .$$

1.8 Brackets-Generating Distributions

In the following we shall define a very important type of horizontal distributions . Let $T_p M$ be to tangent space of the manifold M at p . For each given point $p \in M$ We shall construct the following

sequence of ascendant linear subspaces of the space T_pM :

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{D}_p^1 &= \mathcal{D}_p \\ \mathcal{D}_p^2 &= \mathcal{D}_p^1 + [\mathcal{D}_p, \mathcal{D}_p^1] \\ \mathcal{D}_p^3 &= \mathcal{D}_p^2 + [\mathcal{D}_p, \mathcal{D}_p^2] \\ &\vdots \\ \mathcal{D}_p^{n+1} &= \mathcal{D}_p^n + [\mathcal{D}_p, \mathcal{D}_p^n]\end{aligned}$$

Where $[\mathcal{D}_p, \mathcal{D}_p^n] = \{[X, Y]; X \in \mathcal{D}_p, Y \in \mathcal{D}_p^n\}$, such that $+$ is \cup .

Definition 1.11 [5]

The distributions \mathcal{D} is said bracket generating at the point $p \in M$ if there is an integer $r \geq 1$ such that $\mathcal{D}_p^r = T_pM$. The integer r is called the step of the sub-Riemannian manifold (M, \mathcal{D}, g) at the point p .

Remark 1.2 [5]

1. The step is a property of the distribution \mathcal{D} and does not depend on the sub-Riemannian metric g .
2. We have $\text{rank } \mathcal{D}_p^r = \text{dim}M$
3. There are distribution where the step is the same for all points . They are called constant-step distribution

1.9 Nilpotent Distributions

We Define the iterated commutator sets

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{C}^1 &= \{[X; Y]; X, Y \in \Gamma(\mathcal{D})\} \\ \mathcal{C}^2 &= \{[[X; Y], Z]; X, Y, Z \in \Gamma(\mathcal{D})\} \\ &= \{[\mathcal{C}^1, Z]; Z \in \Gamma(\mathcal{D})\} \\ &\vdots \\ \mathcal{C}^{n+1} &= \{[\mathcal{C}^n, Z]; Z \in \Gamma(\mathcal{D})\}\end{aligned}$$

\mathcal{C}^n is the set of vector fields obtained by n iterated lie brackets of horizontal vector fields

Definition 1.12 [5] the distributions \mathcal{D} is called nilpotent if there is an integer $n \geq 1$ such that $\mathcal{C}^n = 0$: i.e , all the n iterated Lie brackets vanish . The smallest integer n with this property is called the nilpotnce classe of \mathcal{D}

Example 1.5 Let's consider the following vector fields in \mathbb{R}^3

$$X = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + y \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \quad , \quad Y = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \quad .$$

Step-by-Step Verification of Nilpotency :

1. First-order Lie bracket :

Let's compute the Lie bracket between the vector fields :

$$[X, Y] = \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + y \frac{\partial}{\partial z}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right] .$$

Using the definition of the Lie bracket :

$$[X, Y] = X(Y) - Y(X) .$$

- $X(Y)$ represents the action of X on Y :

$$X \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) = 0 .$$

- $Y(X)$ represents the action of Y on X :

$$Y \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + y \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} .$$

Thus ,

$$[X, Y] = -\frac{\partial}{\partial z} .$$

2. Higher-order Lie brackets :

Let's compute second-order Lie brackets, i.e. brackets of the form $[X, [X, Y]]$, $[Y, [X, Y]]$, etc.

Since $[X, Y] = -\frac{\partial}{\partial z}$ is a constant vector field :

$$[X, [X, Y]] = \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + y \frac{\partial}{\partial z}, -\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right] = 0 .$$

$$[Y, [X, Y]] = \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial y}, -\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right] = 0 .$$

Then , the nilpotent distribution of class 2 .

Proposition 1.1 [5] There are brackets-generating distributions that are not nilpotent

Proof 1.9.1 [5] We shall provide an example . Let $\mathcal{D} = \text{span} \{X_1, X_2\}$, where

$$X_1 = \partial_{x_1} + e^{x_2} \partial_t \quad , \quad X_2 = \partial_{x_2} .$$

are vector fields on $\mathbb{R}^3_{(x,t)}$.

Since $[X_1, X_2] = -e^{x_2} \partial_t$, it follows that $X_1, X_2, [X_1, X_2]$ are linearly independent vector fields at every point $(x_1, x_2, t) \in \mathbb{R}^3$.

Hence the distribution \mathcal{D} is brackets generating with constant step 2 .

On the other hand , the distribution \mathcal{D} is non nilpotent since the iterated Lie brackets never vanish because of the exponential factor e^{x_2} .

CHAPTER 2

THE NON-COMMUTATIVITY ANALYSIS OF THE SQUARES OF TWO VECTOR FIELDS IN A NILPOTENT DISTRIBUTION

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter , we define a necessary condition for $[X^2, Y^2] \neq 0$ such that $\mathcal{D} = \text{span}\{X, Y\}$ is a nilpotent distribution in \mathbb{R}^m .

Definition 2.1 the vector fields X and Y be satisfying condition \mathfrak{R}_k at point p if $[X^k, Y^k]_p \neq 0$.

Example 2.1 [6] The vector fields

$$X = \partial_x \quad , \quad Y = \partial_y + x\partial_z \quad .$$

The vector fields satisfy the condition everywhere on \mathfrak{R}_2 . This follows from the relations

$$\begin{aligned} [X, Y] &= \partial_z \quad . \\ X^2 &= \partial_x^2 \quad , \quad Y^2 = \partial_y^2 + 2x\partial_y\partial_z + x^2\partial_z^2 \quad . \\ [X^2, Y^2] &= 4\partial_x\partial_y\partial_z + 2\partial_z^2 + 4x\partial_x\partial_z^2 \quad . \end{aligned}$$

2.2 Posed the problem

Let X and Y be two vector fields on \mathbb{R}^m . Consider the differential operator of order n obtained by iterating the same vector field k times $X^k = X \dots X$. We start by observing that if the vector fields X and Y commute , then the operators X^k and Y^k also commute . This can be written as the following set relation [4] :

$$\left\{ p; [X, Y]_p = 0 \right\} \subseteq \left\{ p; [X^k, Y^k]_p = 0 \right\} \iff \left\{ p; [X^k, Y^k]_p \neq 0 \right\} \subset \left\{ p; [X, Y]_p \neq 0 \right\} \quad .$$

Proof 2.2.1 [11] We begin with the case where $k = 2$, Using $XY = YX$,

Multiling the left :

$$\begin{aligned}
X^2Y^2 &= XXYY = XYXY = YXXY = YXYX \\
&= Y^2X^2 \quad . \\
&\vdots \\
\text{For } n=k \quad X^kY^k &= X \cdots XY \cdots Y = X \cdots YX \cdots Y \\
&\vdots \\
&= Y \cdots YX \cdots X \\
&= Y^k \cdots X^k \quad .
\end{aligned}$$

Example 2.2 Consider the following vector fields :

$$X = \partial_x \quad , \quad Y = y\partial_y \quad .$$

We have :

$$[X, Y] = [\partial_x, y\partial_y] = XY - YX = y\partial_x\partial_y - y\partial_x\partial_y = 0 \quad .$$

Then we calculate

$$X^2 = \partial_x^2 \quad , \quad Y^2 = y^2\partial_y^2 \quad .$$

we calculate the commutator

$$[X^2, Y^2] = [\partial_x^2, y^2\partial_y^2] = X^2Y^2 - Y^2X^2 = y^2\partial_x^2\partial_y^2 - y^2\partial_x^2\partial_y^2 = 0 \quad .$$

So

$$([X, Y] = 0) \implies ([X^2, Y^2] = 0) \quad .$$

For the other side of the equivalence :

Example 2.3 :

Consider the following vector fields :

$$X = \partial_x \quad , \quad Y = \partial_y + x\partial_z \quad .$$

$$\begin{aligned}
[X, Y] &= XY - YX = \partial_x(\partial_y + x\partial_z) - (\partial_y + x\partial_z)\partial_x \\
&= \partial_x\partial_y + \partial_x(x\partial_z) - (\partial_y\partial_x + x\partial_z\partial_x) \\
&= (\partial_y\partial_x + \partial_z + x\partial_x\partial_z) - (\partial_y\partial_x + x\partial_z\partial_x) \\
&= \partial_y\partial_x + \partial_z + x\partial_x\partial_z - \partial_y\partial_x - x\partial_z\partial_x \\
&= \partial_z + x\partial_x\partial_z - x\partial_z\partial_x \\
&= \partial_z \\
&\neq 0 \quad .
\end{aligned}$$

$$X^2 = \partial_x^2 \quad , \quad Y^2 = \partial_y^2 + x\partial_y\partial_z + x\partial_z\partial_y + x^2\partial_z^2$$

$$\begin{aligned}
[X^2, Y^2] &= X^2Y^2 - Y^2X^2 \\
&= \partial_x^2 (\partial_y^2 + x\partial_y\partial_z + x\partial_z\partial_y + x^2\partial_z^2) - (\partial_y^2 + x\partial_y\partial_z + x\partial_z\partial_y + x^2\partial_z^2) \partial_x^2 \\
&= \partial_y^2\partial_x^2 + \partial_y\partial_z\partial_x + \partial_y\partial_z\partial_x + \partial_z\partial_x\partial_y + \partial_x\partial_z\partial_y + 2\partial_z^2 + 2x\partial_x\partial_z^2 - (\partial_y^2\partial_x^2 + \partial_y\partial_z\partial_x + \partial_z\partial_y\partial_x + 2x\partial_z^2\partial_x) \\
&= 2\partial_z^2 + 2x\partial_x\partial_z^2 - x\partial_y\partial_z\partial_x - x\partial_z\partial_y\partial_x \\
&\neq 0 \quad .
\end{aligned}$$

So

$$([X^2, Y^2] \neq 0) \implies ([X, Y] \neq 0) \quad .$$

Remark 2.1 *The opposite of the property is not always true .*

counterexample

The vector fields

$$X = \partial_x \quad , \quad Y = (1+x^2)\partial_z \quad .$$

We have :

$$[X, Y] = XY - YX \quad .$$

we calculate XY :

$$XY = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left((1+x^2) \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) \quad .$$

Since $\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right)$ is just a coefficient function , we can take the derivative of the coefficient $(1+x^2)$ with respect to x :

$$XY = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (1+x^2) \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial z} = 2x \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \quad .$$

we calculate YX :

$$YX = (1+x^2) \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right) \quad .$$

Since $\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right)$ is a constant vector field , the derivative of $\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right)$ with respect to (z) is zero :

$$YX = (1+x^2) \cdot 0 = 0 \quad .$$

we calculate $[X, Y]$:

$$[X, Y] = [\partial_x, (1+x^2)\partial_z] = XY - YX = 2x \frac{\partial}{\partial z} - 0 = 2x \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \quad .$$

We have the square of vector fields is :

$$X^2 = \partial_x^2 \quad , \quad Y^2 = (1+2x^2+x^4)(\partial_z)^2 \quad .$$

We have :

$$[X^2, Y^2] = X^2Y^2 - Y^2X^2 \quad .$$

we calculate X^2Y^2 :

$$X^2Y^2 = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \left((1+x^2)^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right) \quad .$$

Applying $\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}\right)$ to $((1+x^2)^2)$:

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}(1+x^2)^2 = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(4x(1+x^2)) = 4(1+x^2) + 8x^2 = 4 + 12x^2 \quad .$$

Thus:

$$X^2Y^2 = (4 + 12x^2)\frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \quad .$$

Next , we calculate Y^2X^2

$$Y^2X^2 = (1+x^2)^2\frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}\right) \quad .$$

Since $\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}\right)$ does not act on x , we get :

$$Y^2X^2 = (1+x^2)^2\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \quad .$$

Therefore:

$$[X^2, Y^2] = X^2Y^2 - Y^2X^2 = (4 + 12x^2)\frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} - (1+x^2)^2\frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \quad .$$

Simplifying further:

$$[X^2, Y^2] = (4 + 12x^2 - 1 - 2x^2 - x^4)\frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} = (3 + 10x^2 - x^4)\frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \quad .$$

Thus, the commutator $[X^2, Y^2]$ is:

$$[X^2, Y^2] = (3 + 10x^2 - x^4)\frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \quad .$$

At the point $(0, y, z)$, We have

$$[X, Y]_p = 0 \quad , \quad \text{and} \quad [X^2, Y^2]_p \neq 0 \quad .$$

- In the following part , we will define the vector fields X and Y in a nilpotent distribution (whether it be of class 2 or class 3) in such a way that the opposite of this property holds true .

2.3 The necessary condition For $[X^2, Y^2] \neq 0$

2.3.1 The case of nilpotent distribution of class 2

Theorem 2.3.1 [13]

Any distribution $\mathcal{D} = \text{span}\{X, Y\}$ of nilpotency class equal to 2 is a \mathfrak{R}_2 -distribution .

Proof 2.3.1 See [6]

2.3.2 The case of nilpotent distribution of class 3

Theorem 2.3.2 [13] Any distribution $\mathcal{D} = \text{span}\{X, Y\}$ of nilpotency class equal to 3 is a \mathfrak{R}_2 -distribution, i.e., $[X^2, Y^2] \neq 0$.

To prove this theorem, we use several lemmas, and we recall the following. The distribution $\mathcal{D} = \text{span}\{X, Y\}$ is nilpotent of class 3 meaning that

$$[X, Y] \neq 0 \quad . \quad (2.1)$$

$$[X[X, Y]] \neq 0 \quad \text{or} \quad [Y[X, Y]] \neq 0 \quad .$$

$$\text{and} \quad [X[X[X, Y]]] = 0, \quad [Y[Y[X, Y]]] = 0 \quad . \quad (2.2)$$

$$[X[Y[X, Y]]] = 0, \quad [Y[X[X, Y]]] = 0 \quad . \quad (2.3)$$

Lemma 2.1 [13] In a distribution $\mathcal{D} = \text{span}\{X, Y\}$ of nilpotency class 3, we have

$$[X^2, Y^2] = 0 \implies (XY)^2 = (YX)^2 \quad .$$

Proof 2.3.2 [13] By developing the first equation of (2.5)

$$\begin{aligned} [X, [Y, [X, Y]]] = 0 &\iff X^2Y^2 - Y^2X^2 - 2(XY)^2 + 2(YX)^2 = 0 \\ &\implies X^2Y^2 - Y^2X^2 = 2\left((XY)^2 - (YX)^2\right) \quad . \end{aligned}$$

or

$$[X^2, Y^2] = 0 \quad .$$

then

$$(XY)^2 = (YX)^2 \quad .$$

Lemma 2.2 [13] In a distribution $\mathcal{D} = \text{span}\{X, Y\}$ of nilpotency class 3, we have

$$[X^2, Y^2] = 0 \implies XYX^2Y^2 = X^2Y^2XY \quad . \quad (2.4)$$

Proof 2.3.3 [13] The expansion of the equations (2.3.1) gives

$$X^3Y - 3X^2YX + 3XYX^2 - YX^3 = 0 \quad . \quad (2.5)$$

$$Y^3X - 3Y^2XY + 3YXY^2 - XY^3 = 0 \quad . \quad (2.6)$$

Multiplying the right-hand side, then the left-hand side of the relation (2.5) by Y^2 and the relation (2.6) by X^2 , we obtain

$$X^3Y^3 - 3X^2YXY^2 + 3XYX^2Y^2 - YX^3Y^2 = 0 \quad . \quad (2.7)$$

$$X^3Y^3 - 3Y^2XYX^2 + 3YXY^2X^2 - XY^3X^2 = 0 \quad . \quad (2.8)$$

$$X^3Y^3 - Y^2X^3Y + 3Y^2X^2YX - 3Y^2XYX^2 = 0 \quad . \quad (2.9)$$

$$X^3Y^3 - X^2Y^3X + 3X^2Y^2XY - 3X^2YXY^2 = 0 \quad . \quad (2.10)$$

By the subtractions of these equations , (2.7)-(2.8),(2.7)-(2.9)-(2.10)-(2.9) we have found , respectively ,

$$X^3Y^3 - Y^3X^3 = 3X^2YXY^2 - 3XYX^2Y^2 + YX^3Y^2 - 3Y^2XYX^2 + 3YXY^2X^2 - XY^3Y^2 \quad . \quad (2.11)$$

$$X^3Y^3 - Y^3X^3 = 3X^2YXY^2 - 3XYX^2Y^2 + YX^3Y^2 - Y^2X^3Y + 3Y^2X^2YX - 3Y^2XYX^2 \quad . \quad (2.12)$$

$$X^3Y^3 - Y^3X^3 = X^2Y^3X - 3X^2Y^2XY + 3X^2YXY^2 - Y^2X^3Y + 3Y^2X^2YX - 3Y^2XYX^2 \quad . \quad (2.13)$$

Subtracting the equations (2.11)-(2.12) gives

$$-3XYX^2Y^2 + YX^3Y^2 + Y^2X^3Y - 3Y^2X^2YX - XY^3X^2 + 3YXY^2X^2 - X^2Y^3X + 3X^2Y^2XY = 0 \quad .$$

In view of the fact that $X^2Y^2 = Y^2X^2$, the last equation becomes

$$-XYX^2Y^2 + XYX^2Y^2 + X^2Y^2XY - X^2Y^2XY = 0 \quad .$$

then

$$X^2Y^2[X, Y] = [X, Y]X^2Y^2 \quad . \quad (2.14)$$

On the other hand , subtracting the equations (2.13)-(2.11) gives

$$-3XYX^2Y^2 + YX^3Y^2 - X^2Y^3X + 3X^2Y^2XY = 0 \quad .$$

then

$$-[X, Y]X^2Y^2 + X^2Y^2[X, Y] + 2(X^2Y^2XY - XYX^2Y^2) \quad .$$

Using the relation (2.3) , we obtain

$$XYX^2Y^2 = X^2Y^2XY \quad .$$

Lemma 2.3 [13] In a distribution $\mathcal{D} = \text{span}\{X, Y\}$ of nilpotency class 3 , we have

$$[X^2, Y^2] = 0 \implies X^2Y^2 = 3(XY)^2 \quad . \quad (2.15)$$

Proof 2.3.4 [13] Multiplying the equation (2.5) in the proof of Lemma (2.2) by Y on two sides , we obtain

$$YX^3Y^2 - 3YX^2YXY + 3YXYX^2Y - Y^2X^3Y = 0 \quad . \quad (2.16)$$

Lemma(2.2) proves that

$$XYX^2Y^2 = X^2Y^2XY \quad .$$

and interchanging X and Y , we get

$$YXX^2Y^2 = X^2Y^2YX \quad .$$

then (2.16) becomes

$$X^2Y^2[X, Y] - 3\left((XY)^3 - (YX)^3\right) = 0 \quad .$$

this implies that

$$\left(X^2Y^2 - 3(XY)^2\right)[X, Y] = 0 \quad .$$

but $[X, Y] \neq 0$, then

$$X^2Y^2 = 3(XY)^2 \quad .$$

Proof 2.3.5 (Proof of theorem 2.3.1) [13]

We shall prove this theorem by contradiction , i.e , we assume that

$$[X^2, Y^2] = 0 \quad . \quad (2.17)$$

By developing $[X, Y]^3$ and using Lemma(2.1) we get

$$\begin{aligned} [X, Y]^3 &= (XY)^3 - (XY)^2(XY) - (XY)(YX)(XY) + (XY)(YX)^2 \\ &\quad - (YX)(XY)^2 + (YX)(XY)(YX) + (YX)^2(XY) - (YX)^3 \\ &= 3(XY)^3 - 3(YX)^3 - (XY)(YX)(XY) + (YX)(XY)(YX) \quad . \end{aligned} \quad (2.18)$$

Using Lemma(2.3) , we get

$$\begin{aligned} (XY)(YX)(XY) &= XY^2X^2Y \\ &= 3X(YX)^2Y \\ &= 3XYXYXY = 3(XY)^3 . \\ (YX)(XY)(YX) &= YX^2Y^2Y \\ &= 3Y(XY)^2X \\ &= 3YXYXYX = 3(YX)^3 . \end{aligned}$$

The equation (2.18) becomes

$$[X, Y]^3 = 3(XY)^3 - 3(YX)^3 - 3(XY)^3 + -3(YX)^3 = 0 \quad .$$

then $[X, Y] = 0$ is a contradiction . It turns out that (2.17) cannot hold . It follows that the vector fields X and Y span a \mathfrak{A}_2 distribution .

In this section , we introduce two examples of the sub-Riemannian geometry : the Heisenberg distribution and Martinet distribution , where we apply the all proprieties that we saw in the previous chapters .

3.1 The Distribution of the Heisenberg

we introduce the Heisenberg group \mathbb{H}^1 , a non-commutative group with underlying manifold \mathbb{R}^3 . For the sake of transparency considering the type of problems we are dealing with in this dissertation , we only look at the one-dimensional Heisenberg group , and the extensions to higher dimensions are easy generalizations .

We identify points in \mathbb{R}^2 with points in \mathbb{C} through the following law :

$$\mathbb{R}^2 \ni (x, y) \leftrightarrow z = xi + y \in \mathbb{C} \quad .$$

Let $\mathbb{H}^1 = \mathbb{C} \times \mathbb{R}$. Then for all points $(z, t), (w, s) \in \mathbb{H}^1$, we define the group law by

$$(z, t) \cdot (w, s) = \left(z + w, t + s + \frac{1}{4}[z, w] \right) \quad .$$

3.1.1 The left-invariant vector fields

A vector field V on \mathbb{H}^1 is said to be left-invariant if

$$VL_{(w,s)} = L_{(w,s)}V$$

for all $(w, s) \in \mathbb{H}^1$ where $L_{(w,s)}$ is the left translation by (w, s) defined by

$$(L_{(w,s)}f)(z, t) = f((w, s) \cdot (z, t)), (z, t) \in \mathbb{H}^1$$

We now introduce a particular Lie algebra, namely the Lie algebra of left-invariant vector fields on \mathbb{H}^1

Theorem 3.1.1 Let \mathfrak{b}^1 be the set of all left-invariant vector fields on \mathbb{H}^1 . Then \mathfrak{b}^1 is a Lie algebra in which the Lie bracket $[\cdot, \cdot]$ is the commutator given by

$$[X, Y] = XY - YX$$

for all $X, Y \in \mathfrak{b}^1$.

Proof 3.1.1 Linearity is obvious. Let $X, Y \in \mathfrak{b}^1$, and we need to show firstly that $[X, Y] \in \mathfrak{b}^1$. We write

$$X = a_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + b_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + c_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$$

and

$$Y = a_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + b_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + c_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$$

where $a_1, b_1, c_1, a_2, b_2, c_2$ are C^∞ functions on \mathbb{H}^1 . Then one can easily check that

$$XY = a_1 a_2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + b_1 b_2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + c_1 c_2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} + (a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial y} + (b_1 c_2 + b_2 c_1) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y \partial t} + (a_1 c_2 + a_2 c_1) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t \partial x} + V_1$$

where V_1 is a vector field on \mathbb{H}^1 . By switching subscripts in the second-order terms in XY , we get

$$[X, Y] = XY - YX = V_1 - V_2$$

where V_2 is another vector field on \mathbb{H}^1 . To see that $[X, Y]$ is left-invariant, let $(w, s) \in \mathbb{H}^1$, and we use the left-invariance of X, Y to check that

$$L_{(w,s)}XY = XL_{(w,s)}Y = XY L_{(w,s)}$$

and

$$L_{(w,s)}YX = YL_{(w,s)}X = YXL_{(w,s)}$$

Thus, we have

$$[X, Y]L_{(w,s)} = L_{(w,s)}[X, Y]$$

and therefore $[X, Y] \in \mathfrak{b}^1$, as desired. Secondly, we prove Jacobi's identity.

$$\begin{aligned} [X, [Y, Z]] &= [X, YZ - ZY] = XYZ - XZY - YZX + ZYX, \\ [Y, [Z, X]] &= [Y, ZX - XZ] = YXZ - YZX - ZXY + XZY, \\ [Z, [X, Y]] &= [Z, XY - YX] = ZXY - ZYX - XYZ + YXZ, \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$[X, [Y, Z]] + [Y, [Z, X]] + [Z, [X, Y]] = 0$$

and therefore \mathfrak{b}^1 is a Lie algebra.

Theorem 3.1.2 X, Y, T are vector fields on \mathbb{H}^1 defined as follows ,

$$X = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{2}y \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$$

$$Y = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{2}x \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$$

$$T = \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$$

Then X, Y, T form a basis for \mathfrak{b}^1

Proof 3.1.2 Firstly, we check that $X, Y, T \in \mathfrak{b}^1$ i.e.,

$$XL_{(w,s)} = L_{(w,s)}$$

for all $(w, s) \in \mathbb{H}^1$. To see this, we write $w = (u, v), z = (x, y)$ Then

$$(L_{(w,s)}f)(z, t) = f((w, s) \cdot (z, t)) = f(u + x, v + y, s + t + \frac{1}{2}(vx - uy))$$

where $(z, t) \in \mathfrak{b}^1$. To simplify notation, we denote

$$(\dots) = (u + x, v + y, s + t + \frac{1}{2}(vx - uy))$$

Then, we have

$$\begin{aligned} & (XL_{(w,s)}f)(z, t) \\ &= \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{2}y \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \right) L_{(w,s)}f(z, t) \\ &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(\dots) + \frac{1}{2}v \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(\dots) + \frac{1}{2}y \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(\dots) \\ &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(\dots) + \frac{1}{2}(v + y) \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(\dots) \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand ,

$$\begin{aligned} & (XL_{(w,s)}f)(z, t) \\ &= (Xf)(\dots) \\ &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(\dots) + \frac{1}{2}(v + y) \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(\dots) \end{aligned}$$

Thus ,

$$XL_{(w,s)} = L_{(w,s)}X$$

So we have proved that $X \in \mathfrak{b}^1$, and similar arguments show that Y, T are also elements of \mathfrak{b}^1 Moreover , we know that the Lie algebra \mathfrak{b}^1 is isomorphic to $T_{(0,0,0)}\mathbb{H}^1$, the tangent space of the

Heisenberg group at the origin, and a proof can be found in [44] . Since $T_{(0,0,0)}\mathbb{H}^1$ is a three dimensional vector space , it remains to show that X,Y,T are linearly independent. The see this, we consider , the equation

$$aX + bY + cT = 0$$

where a,b,c are real numbers. for all of \mathbb{H}^1 , we must show that

$$(aX + bY + cT)f = 0 \Leftrightarrow a, b, c = 0$$

But this is clear if we pick

$$f(x, y, t) = x$$

$$f(x, y, t) = y$$

$$f(x, y, t) = t$$

Therefore, X, Y, T is a basis for \mathfrak{b}^1

Lastly, we explain the choice of vector fields X, Y, T as a basis for \mathfrak{b}^1

Theorem 3.1.3 [8] Let e_1, e_2, e_3 be the coordinate axes and write them in their parameterized form

$$e_1(s) = (s, 0, 0), \quad s \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$e_2(s) = (0, s, 0), \quad s \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$e_3(s) = (0, 0, s), \quad s \in \mathbb{R}$$

Then for all C^∞ functions f on \mathbb{H}^1 , we have

$$(Xf)(z, t) = \frac{d}{ds} \Big|_{s=0} f((z, t) \cdot e_1(s)),$$

$$(Yf)(z, t) = \frac{d}{ds} \Big|_{s=0} f((z, t) \cdot e_2(s)),$$

$$(Tf)(z, t) = \frac{d}{ds} \Big|_{s=0} f((z, t) \cdot e_3(s)),$$

for all $(z, t) \in \mathbb{H}^1$

Proof 3.1.3 [8] Since

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{d}{ds} \Big|_{s=0} f((z, t) \cdot e_1(s)) \\ &= \frac{d}{ds} \Big|_{s=0} f(x + s, y, t + s + \frac{1}{2}sy) \\ &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y, t) + \frac{1}{2}y \frac{\partial}{\partial t}(x, y, t) \end{aligned}$$

We get

$$X = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{2}y \frac{\partial}{\partial t},$$

as asserted.

Lastly , an observation can be made through the theorem below .

Theorem 3.1.4 [8] $[X, Y] = -T$, and all other commutators among X, Y, T vanish .

The vector fields X, Y ,and their first-order commutator span the Lie algebra \mathfrak{h}^1 on the Heisenberg group. In fact, they are the so-called horizontal vector fields on \mathbb{H}^1 ,and T is known as the missing direction.

Now, we develop the sub-Laplacian on \mathbb{H}^1 ,which will later give rise to a family of linear operators known as the twisted Laplacians on \mathbb{R}^3 .The sub-Laplacian \mathfrak{L} on \mathbb{H}^1 is defined by

$$\mathfrak{L} = -(X^2 + Y^2)$$

More explicitly ,

$$\begin{aligned} X^2 &= \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{2}y \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \right) \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{2}y \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \right) \\ &= \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + y \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial t} + \frac{1}{4}y^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} Y^2 &= \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial y} - \frac{1}{2}x \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \right) \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial y} - \frac{1}{2}x \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \right) \\ &= \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} - x \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y \partial t} + \frac{1}{4}x^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\mathfrak{L} = -\Delta - \frac{1}{4}(x^2 + y^2) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} + \left(x \frac{\partial}{\partial y} - y \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$$

where

$$\Delta = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}$$

3.1.2 The right-invariant vector fields

[3] Where as the right-invariant vector fields write :

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{X} &= \partial_x + y \partial_z \quad . \\ \hat{Y} &= \partial_y + x \partial_z \quad . \\ \hat{Z} &= \partial_z \quad . \end{aligned}$$

3.1.3 The degree of bracket generating distribution

The distribution $\mathcal{D} = \text{span} \{X, Y\}$ such that

$$X = \partial_x - y \partial_z \quad , \quad Y = \partial_y - x \partial_z \quad .$$

We have ,

$$[X, Y] = [\partial_x - y \partial_z, \partial_y - x \partial_z] = XY - YX = \partial_z \quad , \quad [[X, Y], Y] = 0 \quad , \quad [[X, Y], X] = 0 \quad .$$

According of chapter 1 , we have :

- $D^0 = 0$.
- $D^1 = D = \text{span} \{X_2, X_2\}$.
- $D^2 = D^1 + [D, D^1] = T_q \mathbb{R}^3$.

Then , the degree of bracket generating distribution of step 2 .

3.1.4 The class of nilpotence

We have:

$$\mathcal{C}^1 = \{[X, Y] = [\partial_x - y\partial_z, \partial_y - x\partial_z] = \partial_z; \quad X, Y \in \Gamma(\mathcal{D})\} \neq 0 \quad .$$

$$\mathcal{C}^2 = \{[[X; Y], Y] = 0, \quad [[X; Y], X] = 0; \quad X, Y \in \Gamma(\mathcal{D})\} = 0 \quad .$$

Then the class of nilpotent distribution is step 2 , according to the cited by chapter 2 , we have

$$[X^2, Y^2] \neq 0 \quad .$$

3.2 The Martinet distribution

We define the distribution $\mathcal{D} = \text{span} \{X, Y\}$ such that , X, Y two vector fields on \mathbb{H}^1 defined

3.2.1 The left invariant vector fields

$$X = \partial_x \quad , \quad Y = \partial_y + \frac{x^2}{2} \partial_z \quad .$$

3.2.2 The right-invariant vector fields

Where as the right-invariant vector fields write :

$$X = \partial_x \quad , \quad Y = \partial_y - \frac{x^2}{2} \partial_z \quad .$$

3.2.3 The degree of bracket generating

We have:

$$[X, Y] = x\partial_z \quad , \quad [X, [X, Y]] = 0 \quad , \quad [Y, [X, Y]] = 0 \quad .$$

The case of $x = 0$:

The distribution $\mathcal{D} = \text{span} \{X, Y\}$ such that

$$X = \partial_x \quad , \quad Y = \partial_y + \frac{x^2}{2} \partial_z \quad .$$

is bracket generating of step 3 .

The case of $x \neq 0$:

Then the bracket generating of step 2 , we have

- $D^0 = 0$.
- $D^1 = D = \text{span}\{X, Y\}$.
- $D^2 = D^1 + [D, D^1] = \{X, Y, [X; Y]\}$.
- $D^3 = D^2 + [D, D^2] = \{X, Y, [X; Y], [[X; Y], X]\}$.

Then, the distribution $\mathcal{D} = \text{span}\{X, Y\}$ is bracket generating of step 3 .

3.2.4 The class of nilpotence

The distribution $\mathcal{D} = \text{span}\{X, Y\}$ is nilpotente of class 3 , We have
For $x \neq 0$:

$$\mathcal{C}^1 = \{[X, Y] = x\partial_z; \quad X, Y \in \Gamma(\mathcal{D})\} \quad .$$

$$\mathcal{C}^2 = \{[[X, Y], X] = \partial_z, [[X, Y], Y] = 0; \quad X, Y \in \Gamma(\mathcal{D})\} \quad .$$

The distribution is bracket generating of degree 2 , then the step of sub-elliptic operator is 3 .

For $x = 0$:

Since the distribution is bracket generating of degree 2 , then the step of sub-elliptic operator is 3

$$\mathcal{C}^3 = \{[[[X, Y], X], X] = 0, [[[X, Y], X], Y] = 0, [[[X, Y], Y], X] = 0, [[[X, Y], Y], Y] = 0; \quad X, Y \in \Gamma(\mathcal{D})\} \quad .$$

Then, the distribution $\mathcal{D} = \text{span}\{X, Y\}$ is bracket generating of step 3 .

According to the result of chapter 2 , we have directly

$$[X^2, Y^2] \neq 0 \quad .$$

CONCLUSION

In conclusion , the condition of non-commutativity of the squares of two vector fields in a nilpotent distribution constitutes a fundamental aspect in the study of sub-Riemannian geometries and nilpotent distributions . This non-commutativity , which manifests through the fact that the Lie brackets of the squares of the vector fields are not necessarily zero , reveals deep and complex structures within the geometric spaces studied .

We have presented two properties of a distribution in space \mathbb{R}^n , which give us a good description of the state of $[X^2, Y^2]$. These properties facilitate or guide the future calculation of the heat kernel of the operator $\mathfrak{L} = (X^2, Y^2)$.

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شهادة الترخيص بالإيداع

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Quelques propriétés sur la distribution nilpotente de classe 2 et de classe 3

من أجازت الطالبة ميموني لينا القول

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