# OPTIMAL CONTROL OF NON-HOLONOMIC 3-STEP NILPOTENT SYSTEMS 

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#### Abstract

This paper considers the optimal control problem for a control affine driftless system with quadratic cost, defined by means of a left invariant distribution on a Lie group satisfying the property that the Lie algebra generated by the distribution is 3 -step nilpotent. The Pontryagin Maximum Principle provides necessary conditions for the extremal trajectories and in some low dimensions explicit integration for the adjoint system is carried out. The explicit integration of these cases yields the elements for completing the optimal synthesis. In dimension five these systems are related with the so called cross-chained form.


## Key words

Non-holonomic system, 3-step nilpotent Lie algebra, Pontryagin Maximum Principle.

## 1 Introduction

In the nineteenth century the German physicist H.R. Hertz (1857-1894) coined the term holonomic, (from the Greek roots hoflos meaning whole and nomos meaning law), for describing some mechanical systems subject to velocity constraints. Generally speaking a system is said to be non-holonomic with respect to a given constrained motion, if the system can evolve between any two given configurations without violating the constraints, otherwise is said to be holonomic. A prototypical non-holonomic system is the one of a sphere rolling over the plane without slipping and twisting.
There is a large amount of literature regarding holonomic and non-holonomic constraints for mechanical systems, we refer the reader to the classical book in classical mechanics [Whittaker E.T., 1988] and also [Neimark J.I., 1972], both containing plenty of interesting examples.
To be precise, assume that $q=\left(q_{1}, \ldots, q_{n}\right)$ denotes the coordinates of the configuration space of the system, and that the evolution of the system obeys to an
ensemble of $m$ linear constraints on the velocities written as $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i j}(q) \dot{q}_{i}=0, \quad j=1, \ldots, m$. If it is possible to find constraints on the position only, say $\beta_{1}(q)=\cdots=\beta_{m}(q)=0$, in such a way that, $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial \beta_{j}}{\partial q_{i}} \dot{q}_{i}=0, \quad j=1, \ldots, m$, determines the same ensemble of constraints for the system, then it is said that the constraints are holonomic, otherwise they are called non-holonomic.
In the control theory literature non-holonomic systems appear as models of mechanical systems with external forces, the constraints come up in two flavors: the ones that are obtained from the derivation of the equations of motion from the Euler-Lagrange equations (or from the Hamiltonian formalism), such constraints are not imposed on the system and it is better to take them as conservation laws rather that as genuine constraints; and those constraints that are direct consequence of the kinematics, such as the non slipping and twisting of the rolling, see for instance [Bloch A., 2003].
An important class of non-holonomic control systems is the one of driftless control-affine systems, such systems are defined either by a finite family of vector fields or by a Pfaffian system, that is, by the kernel of a finite family of differential 1 -forms. A relevant example of this class is the so-called Goursat chained form, which provides a model for a robot towing a finite number of trailers, all of them satisfying the non slipping and twisting rolling conditions.
If $Q$ denotes the configuration space of this mechanical system, the dynamical equation can be written as $\dot{q}=u_{1} X_{1}(q)+u_{2} X_{2}(q), q \in Q$, where $u_{1}$ and $u_{2}$ are the control parameters of the velocity of the center of mass of the leading robot, and the vector fields $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ satisfy the following commuting relations: $\left[X_{1}, X_{i}\right]=: X_{i+1}, i=2, \ldots, n$, with $n=\operatorname{dim} Q$, (of course $n$ depends on the number of trailers), and all other commutators are zero, for details see [Tilbury D. et al., 1995].
An important feature of this system is that the Lie algebra generated by the set of vector fields $\Delta=$
$\left\{X_{1}, X_{2}\right\}$ is nilpotent. The property of a system of being nilpotent presents theoretical and computational advantages for tackling various problems in control: optimal synthesis, path planning, small time controllability, stability etc. However it is a very strong condition to impose, in part for this reason techniques of nilpotent approximations for control systems have been extensively developed.
In this paper we consider the optimal control problem of a driftless control-affine system with quadratic cost, for which the Lie algebra generated by the vector fields defining the system is 3 -step nilpotent, that is, Lie brackets of length greater that three vanish.
Apart from this introduction the paper contains five sections, in section 2 we present a characterization of non-holonomic control systems and the basic definitions of nilpotent Lie algebras and nilpotent approximations. In section 3 we formulate the optimal control problem and apply the Pontryagin Maximum Principle that provides necessary conditions for the optimal controls. In section 4 we specialize the general results to some low dimensional cases, in particular we discuss the so-called cross-chained form. At the end in section 5 we derive some conclusions and perspectives of future work on the study of non-holonomic nilpotent control systems.

## 2 Non-holonomic nilpotent systems

We present in this section a characterization of nonholonomic control systems and the basic definitions of nilpotent Lie algebras and nilpotent approximations.

### 2.1 Non-holonomic control systems

Let $G$ be a smooth manifold, and let $\Delta=$ $\left\{X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right\}$ with $n<\operatorname{dim}(G)$ be a distribution of smooth vector fields on $G$, the Lie algebra generated by the distribution is denoted as $\mathcal{G}(\Delta)$ and it consists of the Lie algebra spaned by iterations of all the Lie brackets of elements of $\Delta$. It is said that the distribution $\Delta$ is of full rank, ${ }^{1}$ if for all $g \in G$ it holds that $\mathcal{G}(\Delta)_{g}=T_{g} G$. For $k=1,2, \ldots$, the modules of vector fields $\Delta^{j}$ are defined inductively as follows: $\Delta^{1}:=\Delta$ and $\Delta^{k+1}:=\Delta^{k}+\left[\Delta, \Delta^{k}\right]$. For each $g \in G$, the full rank condition implies the existence of an integer $\nu(g)$ such that $\Delta_{g}^{\nu(g)}=T_{g} G$, together with a flag of modules of vector fields naturally defined as

$$
\Delta_{g}^{1} \subset \Delta_{g}^{2} \subset \cdots \subset \Delta_{g}^{\nu(g)}=T_{g} G
$$

Furthermore if $n_{i}(g)=\operatorname{dim} \Delta_{g}^{i}, i=1, \ldots, \nu$, then the vector $\left(n_{1}(g), n_{2}(g), \ldots, n_{\nu}(g)\right)$ is called the growth

[^0]vector of the distribution $\Delta$ at $g$, and $\nu(g)$ the nonholonomy degree of the distribution at $g$. The distribution is said to be regular at $g$ if the growth vector is constant on a neighborhood of $g$, it is said to be regular in $G$ if it is regular for all $g$ with the same degree of nonholonomy.
Assume that $\Delta$ is a full rank, regular distribution of vector fields in $G$, an absolutely continuous curve $g:\left[0, T_{g}\right] \rightarrow G$ is said to be admissible for the distribution $\Delta$ if satisfies $\dot{g}(t) \in \Delta(g(t))$, a.e., which is tantamount of saying that, there is a measurable and bounded function $t \mapsto \mathbf{u}=\left(u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right)$ such that $g(t)$ is an admissible solution of the following control-affine system:
\[

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{g}(t)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} u_{i} X_{i}(g(t)), \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

\]

that we shall call it a non-holonomic control system on $G$; the family of all admissible curves is denoted as $\mathcal{A}$, whereas the one of admissible control parameters is denoted as $\mathcal{U}$. It is known that the full rank condition guarantees the controllability of the system, see for instance [Jurdjevic V., 1997]. A smooth varying inner product $g \mapsto\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle_{g}$ on the vector spaces $\Delta_{g}$ can be defined by means of $\left\langle X_{i}, X_{j}\right\rangle_{g}=\delta_{i j}$, in such a way that the energy functional $\Lambda: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{+}$for admissible curves is written as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Lambda(g, \mathbf{u})=\int_{0}^{T_{g}}\langle\dot{g}(t), \dot{g}(t)\rangle=\int_{0}^{T_{g}} u_{1}^{2}+\cdots+u_{n}^{2} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

In this paper we study the optimal control problem defined by (1) and (2), for the particular case when $\mathcal{G}(\Delta)$ is a 3 -nilpotent and 2 -solvable Lie algebra.

### 2.2 Nilpotent Lie algebras and control systems

In order to set the notation for presenting our results, we shall digress on some aspects of structure theory of $n$-step nilpotent Lie algebras, for more details we refer the reader to [Jacobson N., 1962] and [Corwin L., and Greenleaf F.P., 1990].

### 2.3 Nilpotent and solvable Lie algebras

Let $\mathfrak{g}$ be a Lie algebra over $\mathbb{R}$, the lower central series is defined follows $\mathfrak{g}:=\mathfrak{g}^{1} \supseteq\left[\mathfrak{g}^{2}, \mathfrak{g}\right] \supseteq$ $\left[\mathfrak{g}^{3}, \mathfrak{g}\right] \cdots$, where $\mathfrak{g}^{j}:=\left[\mathfrak{g}^{j-1}, \mathfrak{g}\right]$ for $j=2,3, \ldots$ The Lie algebra is said to be nilpotent if there is an integer $n$ such that $\mathfrak{g}^{n+1}=0$, if such a $n$ is minimal in the sense that $\mathfrak{g}^{n} \neq 0$ then the Lie algebra is said to be $n$-step nilpotent. The Jacobi identity together with an elementary induction argument clearly imply

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[\mathfrak{g}^{i}, \mathfrak{g}^{j}\right] \subseteq \mathfrak{g}^{i+j} \cup \text { for all } i \text { and } j \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

As a consequence, any product of $k$ elements of $\mathfrak{g}$ is an element of $\mathfrak{g}^{k}$, independently of the order. Furthermore, $\mathfrak{g}$ is $n$-step nilpotent if and only if all brackets of order greater that $n$ vanish. A typical element $x \in \mathfrak{g}^{k}$ is the monomial $\left[X_{i_{1}}\left[X_{i_{2}}, \ldots,\left[X_{i_{k-1}}, X_{i_{k}}\right] \ldots\right]\right]$, with $\left\{X_{i_{1}}, X_{i_{2}}, \ldots, X_{i_{k}}\right\} \subset \mathfrak{g}$, the degree of an such element is naturally defined as $\operatorname{deg}(x)=k$.
In a similar manner, the derived series of $\mathfrak{g}$ is defined inductively as follows $\mathfrak{g} \supseteq \mathfrak{g}^{(1)} \supseteq \mathfrak{g}^{(2)} \ldots$, with $\mathfrak{g}^{(1)}=[\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}]$ and $\mathfrak{g}^{(j)}=\left[\mathfrak{g}^{(j-1)}, \mathfrak{g}^{(j-1)}\right]$ for $j=2,3, \ldots$.. The Lie algebra is said to be solvable if there is an integer $m$ such that $\mathfrak{g}^{(m)}=0$. For then, relation (3) implies $\mathfrak{g}^{(k)} \supseteq \mathfrak{g}^{2^{k}}$, for all $k$, therefore nilpotent Lie algebras are also solvable.
There is a collecting process for organizing the commutators of free Lie algebras generated by a finite number of elements, that was originally presented by Philip Hall in [Hall Ph., 1934] and has recently been utilized in applications to path planning problem and constructive controllability, see for instance [Laferriere G. and Sussmann H., 1992].
Let $\mathfrak{g}$ be the free Lie algebra generated by the symbols $\left\{X_{1}, \ldots, X_{p}\right\}$ which are considered of being of degree one. For two given monomials $m_{1}$ and $m_{2}$ the relation $\operatorname{deg}\left[m_{1}, m_{2}\right]=\operatorname{deg}\left(m_{1}\right)+\operatorname{deg}\left(m_{2}\right)$ readily follows. A linear combination of monomials of degree $k$ is said to be homogeneous of degree $k$, and any element of $\mathfrak{g}$ is written as linear combination of monomials.
Since there are only a finite number of monomials of a given degree, then for each $n$, a number of monomials, say $m_{n_{1}}, \ldots, m_{n_{s}}$, denominated standard monomials, which are linearly independent and have the property that each homogeneous expression of degree $n$ is written as linear combination of $m_{n_{1}}, \ldots, m_{n_{s}}$, such a collection is defined recursively as follows:

Definition 2.1. The standard monomials of degree one are $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{p}$. Assume that the standard monomials of degree $n-1$, are defined, and that they are $\prec-$ ordered in such a way that $u \prec v$ provided $\operatorname{deg}(u)<\operatorname{deg}(v)$. If $\operatorname{deg}(x)=i, \operatorname{deg}(v)=j$ and $\operatorname{deg}[x, v]=i+j$, then $[x, v]$ is a standard monomial if and only if satisfies:

1. $x$ and $v$ are standard monomials with $x \prec v$.
2. If $v=[y, z]$ then $y \preceq x$ and $y \prec z$.

An element of the free Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ is said to be in standard form if it is written as linear combination of standard monomials.

Theorem 2.1. (M. Hall, 1950) The standard monomials form a basis for the free Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ generated by $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{p}$.

Applying this process to a 3-step nilpotent free Lie algebra generated by $\left\{X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots\right\}$ one has that a basis is given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[X_{i_{1}}, X_{i_{2}}\right] } & =X_{i_{1} i_{2}}, \quad i_{1}<i_{2}, \\
{\left[X_{i_{12}}, X_{i_{1} i_{2}}\right] } & =X_{i_{12}, i_{1} i_{2}}, \quad i_{1}<i_{2} \leq i_{12} \\
{\left[X_{i_{2}}, X_{i_{1} i_{12}}\right] } & =X_{i_{2}, i_{1} i_{12}}, \quad i_{1} \leq i_{2}<i_{12},
\end{aligned}
$$

and the remaining elements are again $X_{i_{2}, i_{1}}=-X_{i_{1}, i_{2}}$ and $\left[X_{i_{1}}, X_{i_{2} i_{12}}\right]=X_{i_{12}, i_{1} i_{2}}-X_{i_{2}, i_{1} i_{12}}, i_{1}<i_{2}<i_{12}$ with $i_{1}, i_{2}, i_{12}=1, \ldots, n$.

Example 2.1. The basis for a 3-step nilpotent free Lie algebra generated by seven symbols $\Delta=$ $\left\{X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{12}, X_{112}, X_{212}, X_{6}, X_{7}\right\}$.
The standard monomials of degree 2 , are denoted as $X_{i j}=\left[X_{i}, X_{j}\right], i<j$. We have then the seven elements of $\Delta$, and the 21 elements of length two,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Delta_{12}=\left\{X_{12}, X_{13}, X_{14}, X_{15}, X_{16}, X_{17}\right\} \\
& \Delta_{23}=\left\{X_{23}, X_{24}, X_{25}, X_{26}, X_{27}\right\} \\
& \Delta_{34}=\left\{X_{34}, X_{35}, X_{36}, X_{37}\right\} \\
& \Delta_{45}=\left\{X_{45}, X_{46}, X_{47}\right\} \\
& \Delta_{56}=\left\{X_{56}, X_{57}\right\}, \\
& \Delta_{67}=\left\{X_{67}\right\},
\end{aligned}
$$

and if we denote as $\Delta_{i j k}=\left\{\left[X_{i}, X_{j k} \mid X_{j k} \in \Delta_{j k}\right]\right\}$, we further have the following 112 elements of length three

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Delta_{112} \cup \Delta_{212} \cup \Delta_{312} \cup \Delta_{412} \cup \Delta_{512} \cup \Delta_{612} \cup \Delta_{712} \\
& \cup \Delta_{223} \cup \Delta_{323} \cup \Delta_{423} \cup \Delta_{523} \cup \Delta_{623} \cup \Delta_{723} \\
& \cup \Delta_{334} \cup \Delta_{434} \cup \Delta_{534} \cup \Delta_{634} \cup \Delta_{734} \\
& \cup \Delta_{445} \cup \Delta_{545} \cup \Delta_{645} \cup \Delta_{645} \\
& \cup \Delta_{556} \cup \Delta_{656} \cup \Delta_{756} \\
& \cup \Delta_{667} \cup \Delta_{767}
\end{aligned}
$$

### 2.4 Nilpotent approximations

A nilpotent approximation of a distribution of vector fields is another family of vector fields with the same generic properties that further has the property of generating a nilpotent Lie algebra. The definition of nilpotent approximations is based on the notion of order of smooth functions and vector fields, see for instance [Vendittelli M. et al., 2004].
Let $G$ be a smooth manifold, and let $\Delta=$ $\left\{X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right\} \subsetneq T G$ be a regular and full rank distribution of vector fields. A smooth function $f: G \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is said to be of order $\geq k$ at a point $g \in G$, if all its Lie derivatives, (with respect to vectors $X_{i} s$ ) of order $\leq k-1$ vanish at $g$, if is of order $\geq k$ but is not of order $\geq k+1$ at $g$, then it is said to be of order $k$ at $g$.
A vector field $X$ is said to be of order $\geq k$ at a point $g \in G$ if for every $j$ and every function $f$ of order $j$ at
$g$, the function $X(f)$ has order $\geq k+j$ at $g$, again if $X$ is of order $\geq k$ but is not of order $\geq k+1$ at $g$, then it is said to be of order $k$ at $g$. From this definition of order it is clear that the $X_{i} s$ are of order -1 , the brackets [ $X_{i}, X_{j}$ ] are of order -2 , etc.
A family of vector fields $\widetilde{\Delta}=\left\{\widetilde{X}_{1}, \ldots, \widetilde{X}_{n}\right\}$ is said to be a nilpotent approximation of $\Delta$ at $g$ if

1. The vector fields $X_{i}-\widetilde{X}_{i}$ are of positive order at $g$
2. The Lie algebra $\mathcal{G}(\widetilde{\Delta})$ is $\kappa$-step nilpotent, with $\kappa>$ $\nu(g)$, that is Lie brackets of length greater that $\kappa$ vanish.

The explicit computation of nilpotent approximations for a given distribution is rather technical and is based on the existence of the so-called privileged coordinates. There are in the literature various algorithmic processes for finding nilpotent approximations, see for instance [Vendittelli M. et al., 2004], however, those processes are far from the purposes of this paper. From now on we shall consider regular full rank distributions that generate 3-step nilpotent Lie algebras, or distributions that are 3-step nilpotent approximations of nonnilpotent ones

## 3 The optimal control problem

Following the technique of completing the Philip Hall basis for finitely generated Lie algebras, it has been shown in [Monroy-Pérez F. and Anzaldo-Meneses, A., 2011] that a 3-step nilpotent, 2-solvable Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ generated by a set $\Delta$ of $n$ symbols has dimension at most

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta:=\underbrace{n}_{\Delta^{1}}+\underbrace{\frac{(n-1) n}{2}}_{\Delta^{2}}+\underbrace{\frac{(n-1) n(n+1)}{3}}_{\Delta^{3}} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

The associated Lie group and corresponding group law can be obtained by standard BCH techniques. It has also been shown in the aforementioned reference that good models for this situation are the Lie the subgroups of $\mathbb{R}^{n} \times \mathfrak{s o}_{n} \times \mathbb{R}^{\mathrm{D}}$ where $\mathrm{D}=(n-1) n(n+1) / 3$; in this case the group law can be written as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
g \odot h=(\alpha+\beta, a+b+\alpha \wedge \beta, \breve{a}+\breve{b}+\Gamma) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha \wedge \beta & =\frac{1}{2}\left(\alpha \otimes \beta^{T}-\beta \otimes \alpha^{T}\right), \quad \text { and } \\
\Gamma & =-\frac{1}{2} \varphi(a, \alpha, b, \beta)-\frac{1}{12} \zeta(\alpha \wedge \beta, \alpha, \beta),
\end{aligned}
$$

for certain smooth functions $\varphi$ and $\zeta$.

For the remaining of the paper $G$ shall be taken as the simply connected Lie group $\mathbb{R}^{n} \times \mathfrak{s o}_{n} \times \mathbb{R}^{\mathrm{D}}$ of dimensión $\eta$ with group law (5), whose Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ is the 3-step nilpotent, 2-solvable Lie algebra generated by a given distribution $\Delta=\left\{X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right\} \subsetneq T G$ of left invariant vector fields on $G$.
As explained in section 2, the left invariant distribution $\Delta$ determines on the Lie group $G$ an optimal control problem, namely: for certain given initial conditions find, among the solutions of (1), the one that minimizes the functional (2).

### 3.1 The Hamiltonian formalism.

We approach the aforementioned optimal control problem by means of the Hamiltonian formalism on the cotangent bundle $T^{*} G$ and the necessary condition for optimality given by the Pontryagin Maximum Principle of optimal control theory, see for instance [Agrachev A.A. and Sachkov Y.L., 2004] and [Jurdjevic V., 1997]. We summarize in this paragraph the basic notation for the symplectic structure of the cotangent bundle and the Hamiltonian formalism.
The differential of the left translation $g \mapsto L_{g}$ on $G$, yields the trivialization of the cotangent bundle $T^{*} G \simeq G \times \mathfrak{g}^{*}$, in such a way that Hamiltonian functions corresponding to left invariant vector fields on $G$ are linear functions on $\mathfrak{g}^{*}$. Each left invariant vector field $X$ on $G$ defines a Hamiltonian function $H_{X}$ on $T^{*} G$ as $H_{X}(g, p)=p(X(e))$.
The double bundle $T\left(T^{*} G\right)$ is identified with $(G \times$ $\mathfrak{g}) \times\left(\mathfrak{g}^{*} \times \mathfrak{g}^{*}\right)$, and with this realization, any tangent vector $\left((g, X),\left(p, Y^{*}\right)\right) \in T\left(T^{*} G\right)$, is simply represented by means of the pair $\left(X, Y^{*}\right) \in \mathfrak{g} \times \mathfrak{g}^{*}$.
The canonical symplectic form on $T^{*} G \simeq G \times \mathfrak{g}^{*}$, allows to write, for each Hamiltonian function $H$ on $T^{*} G$, the corresponding Hamiltonian vector field $\vec{H}(g, p)=\left(X(g, p), Y^{*}(g, p)\right)$ as follows

$$
\begin{aligned}
X(g, p) & =\frac{\partial H}{\partial p}(g, p) \\
Y^{*}(g, p) & =-d L_{g}^{*}\left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial g}(g, p)\right)-(\mathrm{ad})^{*} X(p)
\end{aligned}
$$

or equivalently, integral curves $t \mapsto(g(t), p(t))$ of the Hamiltonian vector field $\vec{H}$, satisfy the Hamilton equations,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{d g}{d t} & =d L_{g}\left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial p}\right), \quad \text { and } \\
\frac{d p}{d t} & =-d L_{g}^{*}\left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial g}\right)-\left((\mathrm{ad})^{*} \frac{\partial H}{\partial p}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

For details on the representation of tangent and cotangent bundles of Lie groups, and the integral curves of the Hamiltonian lifting of left invariant vector fields,
we refer the reader to V. Jurdjevic's book [Jurdjevic V., 1997].

### 3.2 The Pontryagin Maximum Principle.

Following the notation explained in example 2.1, $X_{i j}$ denotes the Lie bracket $\left[X_{i}, X_{j}\right]$ whereas $X_{i j k}$ denotes [ $\left.X_{i},\left[X_{j}, X_{k}\right]\right]$. The Hamiltonian functions associated to the left invariant vector fields $X_{i}, X_{i j}$ and $X_{i j k}$ shall be denoted as $H_{i}, H_{i j}$ and $H_{i j k}$, respectively. These Hamiltonians span the dual Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}^{*}$, endowed with the Poisson brackets that clearly satisfy the following commuting relations,

$$
\left\{H_{i}, H_{j}\right\}=H_{i j} \text { and }\left\{H_{i}, H_{j k}\right\}=H_{i j k},
$$

evidently the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}^{*}$ is also 3-step nilpotent and 2-solvable.
Each admissible control $\mathbf{u}=\left(u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right) \in \mathcal{U}$, determines a control dependent Hamiltonian function
$\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{u}}^{\lambda_{0}}=-\frac{\lambda_{0}}{2}\left[u_{1}^{2}+\cdots+u_{n}^{2}\right]+u_{1} H_{1}+\cdots+u_{n} H_{n}$.

Integral curves $t \mapsto \xi(t)=(g(t), p(t))$ of the corresponding Hamiltonian vector field $\overrightarrow{\mathcal{H}}_{\mathbf{u}}^{\lambda_{0}}$ are called extremal curves, the ones for $\lambda_{0} \neq 0$, are called normal, whereas the ones for $\lambda_{0}=0$ are called abnormal. The necessary conditions for $\Lambda$-optimal trajectories, i.e., solutions of (1) that minimize (2), read as follows:

Theorem 3.1. (Pontryagin Maximum Principle) If a trajectory $t \mapsto(g, \widehat{\mathbf{u}})$ is $\Lambda$-optimal then it is the projection of an extremal curve $t \mapsto \xi=(g, p)$, satisfying:
i $\mathcal{H}_{\widehat{\mathbf{u}}}^{\lambda_{0}}(\xi) \geq \mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{v}}^{\lambda_{0}}(\xi)$, for all $\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{U}$
ii $\mathcal{H}_{\widehat{\mathbf{u}}}^{0}(\xi)$ is not identically zero.
Remark 3.1. Abnormal extremals, are trajectories independent of the cost functional, they play a very important role in the geometric analysis of the so-called optimal synthesis, these extremals deserve a careful treatment and shall not be discussed here. For the remaining of the paper we shall consider that all $\Lambda$-optimal trajectories are projections of normal extremals only.

A direct application of the Pontryagin Maximum Principle yields the necessary condition for optimality. Observe that the dual variable can be expressed in terms of the dual basis as $(h, \omega, \breve{\mathrm{H}}) \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \times \mathfrak{s o}_{n} \times \mathbb{R}^{\mathrm{D}}$, where $h=$ $\left(H_{1}, \ldots, H_{n}\right)^{\mathrm{T}}, \omega=\left(H_{i j}\right)_{i<j}$ and $\breve{\mathrm{H}}=\left(\Upsilon_{1}, \ldots, \Upsilon_{n}\right)$ with $\Upsilon_{i}$ the skew-symmetric matrix dual to the matrix $A_{k}=\left(X_{i j k}\right)_{i j}$ which result from the length three brackets organized according to the Philip Hall process, for details see [Monroy-Pérez F. and AnzaldoMeneses, A., 2011].

Theorem 3.2. If ( $g, \widehat{\mathbf{u}}$ ) is a $\Lambda$-optimal then it is the projection of an extremal curve $\left(h, \omega, \Upsilon_{1}, \ldots, \Upsilon_{n}\right)$ along which $\widehat{\mathbf{u}}=\left(H_{1}, \ldots, H_{n}\right)$ and

$$
\begin{align*}
\dot{h} & =\omega h  \tag{6}\\
\dot{\omega} & =\sum_{i=1}^{n} H_{i} \Upsilon_{i}  \tag{7}\\
\dot{\Upsilon}_{i} & =0, \quad i=1 \ldots, n \tag{8}
\end{align*}
$$

Proof. The maximality condition implies that along extremals we have $\widehat{\mathbf{u}}=\left(H_{1}, \ldots, H_{n}\right)$, for then the system Hamiltonian becomes quadratic

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{H}=\frac{1}{2}\left(H_{1}^{2}+\cdots+H_{n}^{2}\right) \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

A straightforward differentiation (Poisson bracketing with $\mathcal{H}$ ), yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{H}_{i}=\left\{H_{i}, \mathcal{H}\right\}=\sum_{j \neq i} H_{i} H_{i j} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

similarly

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{H}_{i j}=\left\{H_{i j}, \mathcal{H}\right\}=-\sum_{k=1}^{n} H_{k} H_{i j k}, \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

and finally

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{H}_{i j k}=\left\{H_{i j k}, \mathcal{H}\right\}=0 \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

as required.
Remark 3.2. Equation (12) implies that all the length three Poisson brackets are constant along extremals, that is, we have already D integrals of motion.

The coordinates $g=(\alpha, a, \breve{a})$ in $G$, can be chosen in such a way that the left invariant vector fields are written as $X_{i}=\partial \alpha_{i}+\cdots$. In such a case, we have $\dot{\alpha}_{i}=u_{i}=H_{i}$, and therefore

$$
\frac{d}{d t}\left(H_{i j}+\sum_{k=1}^{n} \alpha_{k} H_{k i j}\right)=0
$$

We introduce the skew-symmetric constant matrix $c$ with elements

$$
c_{i j}=H_{i j}+\sum_{k=1}^{n} \alpha_{k} H_{k i j}
$$

therefore, from (10)

$$
\ddot{\alpha}_{i}-\sum_{j=1}^{n} c_{i j} \dot{\alpha}_{j}=-\sum_{j, k=1}^{n} \alpha_{k} H_{k i j} \dot{\alpha}_{j}
$$

that is,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\ddot{\alpha}_{i}+\sum_{j, k=1}^{n} \alpha_{k} H_{k i j} \dot{\alpha}_{j}=0 \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since the $H_{k i j}$ are constant, these equations are given in terms of the $\alpha_{i} / s$ only. And together with the nonholonomic constraints (1), after plugging the optimal controls given by theorem (3.2), determine completely the optimal curves.

## 4 Some low dimensional cases

We discuss here two examples for illustrating the general results of the above sections.

### 4.1 The Cartan Lie algebra $\mathfrak{n}$

This case corresponds to $n=2$ and $\eta=5$, and is provided by the rank 2 distribution $\Delta=$ $\left\{X_{1}, X_{2}\right\}$ for which the only non-zero Lie brackets are $X_{12}, X_{112}, X_{212}$. The Lie algebra $\mathfrak{n}=$ $\operatorname{span}\left\{X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{12}, X_{112}, X_{212}\right\}$, is known as the Car$\tan$ Lie algebra.
If $H_{i}$ denotes the left invariant Hamiltonian associated with the vector field $X_{i}$, then we have the non-trivial Poisson brackets $H_{12}, H_{112}, H_{212}$.
The corresponding system Hamiltonian writes as follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{H}=\frac{\lambda_{0}}{2}\left(u_{1}^{2}+u_{2}^{2}\right)+u_{1} H_{1}+u_{2} H_{2} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

For the normal case $\left(\lambda_{0}=1\right)$, the maximality condition of the Maximum Principle, readily yield $u_{1}=H_{1}$ and $u_{2}=H_{2}$, therefore the system Hamiltonian is quadratic $\mathcal{H}=H_{1}^{2}+H_{2}^{2}$, and the adjoint system can be directly written as follows

$$
\begin{align*}
\dot{H}_{1} & =\frac{1}{2}\left\{H_{1}, \mathcal{H}\right\}=H_{2} H_{12}  \tag{15}\\
\dot{H}_{2} & =\frac{1}{2}\left\{H_{2}, \mathcal{H}\right\}=-H_{1} H_{12}  \tag{16}\\
\dot{H}_{12} & =\frac{1}{2}\left\{H_{12}, \mathcal{H}\right\}=-H_{1} H_{112}-H_{2} H_{212}  \tag{17}\\
\dot{H}_{112} & =\dot{H}_{212}=0 \tag{18}
\end{align*}
$$

$H_{112}$ and $H_{212}$ are central elements, and multiplying third equation by $H_{12}$, we get

$$
\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{d t}\left(H_{12}^{2}\right)=\frac{d}{d t}\left(H_{2} H_{112}-H_{1} H_{212}\right)
$$

therefore we obtain the constant of integration

$$
\begin{equation*}
c_{2}:=\frac{1}{2} H_{12}^{2}-H_{2} H_{112}+H_{1} H_{212} \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

Further derivation of (17) yields

$$
\ddot{H}_{12}=c_{2} H_{12}-\frac{1}{2} H_{12}^{3},
$$

in consequence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\dot{H}_{12} \ddot{H}_{12} & =\left[\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{d t}\left(\dot{H}_{12}\right)^{2}\right]=c_{2} H_{12} \dot{H}_{12}-\frac{1}{2} H_{12}^{3} \dot{H}_{12} \\
& =c_{2}\left[\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{d t}\left(H_{12}\right)^{2}\right]-\frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{1}{4} \frac{d}{d t}\left(H_{12}\right)^{4}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

we obtain then another constant of integration

$$
c_{3}:=\frac{1}{4} H_{12}^{4}-c_{2} H_{12}^{2}+\left(H_{1} H_{112}+H_{2} H_{212}\right)^{2}
$$

Lemma 4.1. The elements of set $\left\{\mathcal{H}, H_{112}, H_{212}, c_{2}\right\}$ are independent first integrals in involution, whereas $\mathcal{K}:=H_{112}^{2}+H_{212}^{2}$ and $c_{3}$ are neither independent nor in involution.

Proof. A straightforward calculation shows that $\left\{c_{2}, H_{1}\right\}=\left\{c_{2}, H_{2}\right\}=0$, therefore $\left\{c_{2}, \mathcal{H}\right\}=0$. On the contrary we have, $\left\{c_{3}, H_{1}\right\}=-2 H_{2} H_{12} \mathcal{K}$ and $\left\{c_{3}, H_{2}\right\}=2 H_{1} H_{12} \mathcal{K}$. Consequently $\left\{c_{3}, \mathcal{H}\right\}=0$, but $c_{3}=2 \mathcal{H} \mathcal{K}-c^{2}$ as can be easily shown.
Thus the trajectories in cotangent space are given by the intersection of the cylinder $H_{1}^{2}+H_{2}^{2}=1$, with the parabolic cylinder $\frac{1}{2} H_{12}-H_{2} H_{112}+H_{1} H_{212}=c_{2}$. A simple way to represent this curves is to note that they can be visualized as curves on the sphere $\left(H_{1}+\right.$ $\left.H_{212}\right)^{2}+\left(H_{2}-H_{212}\right)^{2}+H_{12}^{2}=\mathcal{H}+2 c_{2}+H_{112}^{2}+$ $H_{212}^{2}$.

### 4.2 Cross-chained form

An alternative normal form to the Goursat [Tilbury D. et al., 1995] is the so-called cross-chained introduced by [Ishikawa M. and Kuroiwa T., 2009]. It turns out that such normal form yields the same 3-step nilpotent Lie algebra as the Cartan discussed above. The normal form is defined in $\mathbb{R}^{5}$ by the kernel of the Pfaffian system

$$
\begin{equation*}
d x_{5}-x_{3} d x_{2}, d x_{4}-x_{3} d x_{1}, d x_{3}+x_{2} d x_{1}-x_{1} d x_{2} \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

The non-holonomic control system consisting of a ball rolling on a plane without twisting and slipping and driven by the another plane can be modelled in the Lie group $G=\mathbb{R}^{2} \times \mathrm{SO}_{3}$ : the first coordinate of a state $(p, M) \in G$ yields the center of the ball, whereas the second provides the evolution of a moving frame attached to its center, for details see [Jurdjevic, V., 1993]. It can also be shown that the non-holonomic control system in this case can be reduced to the kernel of the following Pfaffian system in $\mathbb{R}^{5}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
d x_{3}-x_{1} d x_{2}, d x_{4}-x_{1}^{2} d x_{2}, d x_{5}-x_{1} x_{2} d x_{2} \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

After a lengthy calculation including a change of variables and exterior differentiation it can be shown that system (21) can be taken into the crossed-chained normal form (20). Furthermore the crossed-chained normal encodes a driftless control system with two inputs given by the following vector fields

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X_{1}=\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{1}}-x_{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{3}}+x_{3} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{4}} \\
& X_{2}=\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{2}}+x_{1} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{3}}+x_{3} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{5}},
\end{aligned}
$$

The Lie algebra generated by the distribution $\Delta=$ $\left\{X_{1}, X_{2}\right\}$ has the same Lie structure of $\mathfrak{n}$, as can be easily verified.

## 5 Conclusions

We have studied general properties for optimal trajectories of a problem defined by a driftless nonholonomic control system and a quadratic cost. We have considered the case when the Lie algebra generated by the distribution of vector fields is 3-step and 2solvable. We have derived the geometric properties of the trajectories using the Pontryagin Maximum Principle and the associated Hamiltonian formalism. We have discussed a five dimensional case that models and interesting non-holonomic mechanical system.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ This condition goes also in the literature under the names of bracket generating distribution, Lie algebra rank condition or Hörmander condition.

