# M3-4-5 A34 Handout: What is Geometric Mechanics II? 

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## Text for the course M3-4-5 A34:

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## Geometric Mechanics, Part II



Figure 1: Geometric Mechanics has involved many great mathematicians!

## What shall we study?

Hamilton: quaternions, $\mathrm{AD}, \mathrm{Ad}, \mathrm{ad}, \mathrm{Ad}^{*}$, ad* actions, variational principles Lie: Groups of transformations that depend smoothly on parameters

Poincaré: Mechanics on Lie groups, $S O(3), S U(2), S p(2), S E(3) \simeq S O(3) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{3}$
Noether: Implications of symmetry in variational principles
Cartan: Lie transformations of differential forms and fluid flows

## Geometric Mechanics A34 deals with motion on smooth manifolds

The rest of this handout is meant to be a sort of un-alphabetized glossary, a list of words and concepts that will be introduced and studied later in the course, defined and used succinctly here in sentences.

## Transformation theory

smooth manifold tangent space
motion equation
vector field
diffeomorphism
flow
fixed point

> equilibrium
linearisation
infinitesimal transformation
pull-back
push-forward
Jacobian matrix
directional derivative
tangent lift commutator differential, $d$ differential $k$-form wedge product, $\wedge$ Lie derivative, $£_{Q}$ product rule

- Let $M$ be a smooth manifold, $\operatorname{dim} M=n$. That is, $M$ is a smooth space that is locally $\mathbb{R}^{n}$.
- The tangent space $T M$ contains velocity $v_{q}=\dot{q}(t) \in T_{q} M$, tangent to curve $q(t) \in M$ at point $q$. The coordinates are $\left(q, v_{q}\right) \in T M$.
Note, $\operatorname{dim} T M=2 n$ and subscript $q$ reminds us that $v_{q}$ is an element of the tangent space at the point $q$ and that on $T M$ we must keep track of base points.
The tangent space $T M:=\cup_{q \in M} T_{q} M$ is also called the tangent bundle of the manifold $M$.
The curve $\dot{q}(t) \in T M$ is called the tangent lift of the curve $q(t) \in M$.
- A motion is defined as a smooth curve $q(t) \in M$ parameterised by $t \in \mathbb{R}$ that solves the motion equation, which is a system of differential equations

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{q}(t)=\frac{d q}{d t}=f(q) \in T M \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

or in components

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{q}^{i}(t)=\frac{d q^{i}}{d t}=f^{i}(q) \quad i=1,2, \ldots, n \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

- The map $f: q \in M \rightarrow f(q) \in T_{q} M$ is a vector field.

According to standard theorems about differential equations that are not proven in this course, the solution, or integral curve, $q(t)$ exists, provided $f$ is sufficiently smooth, which will always be assumed to hold.
Vector fields can also be defined as differential operators that act on functions, as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d}{d t} G(q)=\dot{q}^{i}(t) \frac{\partial G}{\partial q^{i}}=f^{i}(q) \frac{\partial G}{\partial q^{i}} \quad i=1,2, \ldots, n, \quad \text { (sum on repeated indices) } \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for any smooth function $G(q): M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

- To indicate the dependence of the solution of its initial condition $q(0)=q_{0}$, we write the motion as a smooth transformation

$$
q(t)=\phi_{t}\left(q_{0}\right)
$$

Because the vector field $f$ is independent of time $t$, for any fixed value of $t$ we may regard $\phi_{t}$ as mapping from $M$ into itself that satisfies the composition law

$$
\phi_{t} \circ \phi_{s}=\phi_{t+s}
$$

and

$$
\phi_{0}=\mathrm{Id}
$$

Setting $s=-t$ shows that $\phi_{t}$ has a smooth inverse. A smooth mapping that has a smooth inverse is called a diffeomorphism. Geometric mechanics deals with diffeomorphisms.

- The smooth mapping $\phi_{t}: \mathbb{R} \times M \rightarrow M$ that determines the solution $\phi_{t} \circ q_{0}=q(t) \in M$ of the motion equation (1) with initial condition $q(0)=q_{0}$ is called the flow of the vector field $Q$.
A point $q_{e} \in M$ at which $f\left(q_{e}\right)=0$ is called a fixed point of the flow $\phi_{t}$, or an equilibrium.
Vice versa, the vector field $f$ is called the infinitesimal transformation of the mapping $\phi_{t}$, since

$$
\left.\frac{d}{d t}\right|_{t=0}\left(\phi_{t} \circ q_{0}\right)=f(q)
$$

That is, $f(q)$ is the linearisation of the flow map $\phi_{t}$ at the point $q \in M$.
More generally, the directional derivative of the function $h$ along the vector field $f$ is given by the action of a differential operator, as

$$
\left.\frac{d}{d t}\right|_{t=0} h \circ \phi_{t}=\left[\frac{\partial h}{\partial \phi_{t}} \frac{d}{d t}\left(\phi_{t} \circ q_{0}\right)\right]_{t=0}=\frac{\partial h}{\partial q^{i}} \dot{q}^{i}=\frac{\partial h}{\partial q^{i}} f^{i}(q)=: Q h
$$

- Under a smooth change of variables $q=c(r)$ the vector field $Q$ in the expression $Q h$ transforms as

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q=f^{i}(q) \frac{\partial}{\partial q^{i}} \quad \mapsto \quad R=g^{j}(r) \frac{\partial}{\partial r^{j}} \quad \text { with } \quad g^{j}(r) \frac{\partial c^{i}}{\partial r^{j}}=f^{i}(q(r)) \quad \text { or } \quad g=c_{r}^{-1} f \circ c \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $c_{r}$ is the Jacobian matrix of the transformation. That is,

$$
(Q h) \circ c=R(h \circ c)
$$

We express the transformation between the vector fields as $R=c^{*} Q$ and write this relation as

$$
\begin{equation*}
(Q h) \circ c=: c^{*} Q(h \circ c) . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

The expression $c^{*} Q$ is called the pull-back of the vector field $Q$ by the map $c$. Two vector fields are equivalent under a map $c$, if one is the pull-back of the other, and fixed points are mapped into fixed points.

The inverse of the pull-back is called the push-forward. It is the pull-back by the inverse map.

- The commutator

$$
Q R-R Q=:[Q, R]
$$

of two vector fields $Q$ and $R$ defines another vector field. Indeed, if

$$
Q=f^{i}(q) \frac{\partial}{\partial q^{i}} \quad \text { and } \quad R=g^{j}(q) \frac{\partial}{\partial q^{j}}
$$

then

$$
[Q, R]=\left(f^{i}(q) \frac{\partial g^{j}(q)}{\partial q^{i}}-g^{i}(q) \frac{\partial f^{j}(q)}{\partial q^{i}}\right) \frac{\partial}{\partial q^{j}}
$$

because the second-order derivative terms cancel. By the pull-back relation (5)

$$
\begin{equation*}
c^{*}[Q, R]=\left[c^{*} Q, c^{*} R\right] \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

under a change of variables defined by a smooth map, $c$. This means the definition of the vector field commutator is independent of the choice of coordinates. ${ }^{1}$

- The differential of a smooth function $f: M \rightarrow M$ is defined as

$$
d f=\frac{\partial f}{\partial q^{i}} d q^{i}
$$

in which the set $d q^{i}, i=1,2, \ldots, \operatorname{dim} M$, is called a differential basis set for the manifold $M$.

- Under a smooth change of variables $s=\phi \circ q=\phi(q)$ the differential of the composition of functions $d(f \circ \phi)$ transforms according to the chain rule as

$$
\begin{equation*}
d f=\frac{\partial f}{\partial q^{i}} d q^{i}, \quad d(f \circ \phi)=\frac{\partial f}{\partial \phi^{j}(q)} \frac{\partial \phi^{j}}{\partial q^{i}} d q^{i}=\frac{\partial f}{\partial s^{j}} d s^{j} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad d(f \circ \phi)=(d f) \circ \phi \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

That is, the differential $d$ commutes with the pull-back $\phi^{*}$ of a smooth transformation $\phi$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
d\left(\phi^{*} f\right)=\phi^{*} d f \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

In a moment, this pull-back formula will give us the rule for transforming differential forms of any order.

- Differential $k$-forms on an $n$-dimensional manifold are defined in terms of the differential $d$ and the antisymmetric wedge product $(\wedge)$ satisfying

$$
\begin{equation*}
d q^{i} \wedge d q^{j}=-d q^{j} \wedge d q^{i}, \quad \text { for } \quad i, j=1,2, \ldots, n \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

By using wedge product, any $k$-form $\alpha \in \Lambda^{k}$ on $M$ may be written locally at a point $q \in M$ in the differential basis $d q^{j}$ as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha_{m}=\alpha_{i_{1} \ldots i_{k}}(m) d q^{i_{1}} \wedge \cdots \wedge d q^{i_{k}} \in \Lambda^{k}, \quad i_{1}<i_{2}<\cdots<i_{k} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the sum over repeated indices is ordered, so that it must be taken over all $i_{j}$ satisfying $i_{1}<i_{2}<\cdots<i_{k}$. Roughly speaking differential forms $\Lambda^{k}$ are objects that can be integrated. As we shall see, vector fields also act on differential forms in interesting ways.

- Pull-backs of other differential forms may be built up from their basis elements, the $d q^{i_{k}}$. By equation (8),

Theorem 1 (Pull-back of a wedge product). The pull-back of a wedge product of two differential forms is the wedge product of their pull-backs:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi_{t}^{*}(\alpha \wedge \beta)=\phi_{t}^{*} \alpha \wedge \phi_{t}^{*} \beta \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

[^0]Definition 1 (Lie derivative of a differential $k$-form). The Lie derivative of a differential $k$-form $\Lambda^{k}$ by a vector field $Q$ is defined by linearising its flow $\phi_{t}$ around the identity $t=0$,

$$
£_{Q} \Lambda^{k}=\left.\frac{d}{d t}\right|_{t=0} \phi_{t}^{*} \Lambda^{k} \quad \operatorname{maps} \quad £_{Q} \Lambda^{k} \mapsto \Lambda^{k}
$$

Hence, by equation (11), the Lie derivative satisfies the product rule for the wedge product.
Corollary 1 (Product rule for the Lie derivative of a wedge product).

$$
\begin{equation*}
£_{Q}(\alpha \wedge \beta)=£_{Q} \alpha \wedge \beta+\alpha \wedge £_{Q} \beta \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Linearise (11) around the identity, $t=0$, using the product rule for the derivative.

## Variational principles

kinetic energy
Riemannian metric Lagrangian

| Hamilton's principle | momentum |
| :--- | :--- |
| variational derivative | fibre derivative |
| Legendre transformation | pairing | fibre derivative pairing

- Define kinetic energy, $K E: T M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, via a Riemannian metric $g_{q}(\cdot, \cdot): T M \times T M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.
- Choose Lagrangian $L: T M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. (For example, one could choose $L$ to be $K E$.)
- Hamilton's principle is $\delta S=0$ with $S=\int_{a}^{b} L(q, \dot{q}) d t$, where for a family of curves parameterised smoothly by $(t, \epsilon)$ the linearisation

$$
\delta S=\left.\frac{d}{d \epsilon}\right|_{\epsilon=0} \int_{a}^{b} L(q(t, \epsilon), \dot{q}(t, \epsilon)) d t
$$

defines the variational derivative $\delta S$ of $S$ near the identity $\epsilon=0$. The variations in $q$ are assumed to vanish at endpoints in time, so that $q(a, \epsilon)=q(a)$ and $q(b, \epsilon)=q(b)$.

- Legendre transformation $L T:(q, \dot{q}) \in T M \rightarrow(q, p) \in T^{*} M$ defines momentum $p$ as the fibre derivative of $L$, namely

$$
p:=\frac{\partial L(q, \dot{q})}{\partial \dot{q}} \in T^{*} M
$$

The LT is invertible for $\dot{q}=f(q, p)$, provided Hessian $\partial^{2} L(q, \dot{q}) / \partial \dot{q} \partial \dot{q}$ has nonzero determinant. Note, $\operatorname{dim} T^{*} M=2 n$.
In terms of LT, the Hamiltonian $H: T^{*} M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is defined by

$$
H(q, p)=\langle p, \dot{q}\rangle-L(q, \dot{q})
$$

in which the expression $\langle p, \dot{q}\rangle$ in this calculation identifies a pairing $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle: T^{*} M \times T M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Taking the differential of this definition yields

$$
d H=\left\langle H_{p}, d p\right\rangle+\left\langle H_{q}, d q\right\rangle=\langle d p, \dot{q}\rangle+\left\langle p-L_{\dot{q}}, d \dot{q}\right\rangle-\left\langle L_{q}, d q\right\rangle
$$

from which Hamilton's principle $\delta S=0$ for $S=\int_{t_{0}}^{t_{1}}\langle p, \dot{q}\rangle-H(q, p) d t$ produces Hamilton's canonical equations,

$$
H_{p}=\dot{q} \quad \text { and } \quad H_{q}=-L_{q}=-\dot{p}
$$

- Exercise: Show that Hamilton's principle $\delta S=0$ with $S=\int_{a}^{b} L(q, \dot{q}) d t$ implies EulerLagrange (EL) equations:

$$
\dot{p}(q, \dot{q})=\frac{d}{d t} \frac{\partial L(q, \dot{q})}{\partial \dot{q}}=\frac{\partial L(q, \dot{q})}{\partial q}
$$

What are the results for $\delta S=0$ with $S=\int_{a}^{b}\langle p, \dot{q}\rangle-H(q, p) d t$ ?

- When $L=K E=\frac{1}{2} g_{q}(\dot{q}, \dot{q})=: \frac{1}{2}\|\dot{q}\|^{2}$, the solution $q(t)$ of the EL equations that passes from point $q(a)$ to $q(b)$ is a geodesic with respect to the metric $g_{q}$.
In mechanics the point $q(b)$ is determined at time $t=b$ from the solution $q(t)$ to the initial value problem for EL equations with $q$ and $\dot{q}$ specified at the initial time, e.g., at $t=a$.

It is also possible to phrase this as a boundary value problem in time, by specifying endpoint positions $q(a)$ and $q(b)$ instead of the initial values of $q$ and $\dot{q}$.

## Geometric Mechanics is exemplified by mechanics on Lie groups

## This is a topic invented by H. Poincaré in 1901 [Po1901].

group
Lie group, $G$
identity element, $e$
Lie algebra, $\mathfrak{g}$
tangent vectors
conjugation map Lie algebra bracket, $[\cdot, \cdot]: \mathfrak{g} \times \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}$ Jacobi identity basis vectors, $e_{k} \in \mathfrak{g}$
structure constants
reduced Lagrangian
dual Lie algebra, $\mathfrak{g}^{*}$
dual basis, $e^{k} \in \mathfrak{g}^{*}$
pairing, $\mathfrak{g}^{*} \times \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

- A group is a set of elements with an associative binary product that has a unique inverse and identity element.
- A Lie group $G$ is a group that depends smoothly on a set of parameters in $\mathbb{R}^{\operatorname{dim}(G)}$.

A Lie group is also a manifold, so it is an interesting arena for geometric mechanics.

- Choose the manifold $M$ for mechanics as discussed above to be the Lie group $G$ and denote the identity element as the point $e$. The identity element $e$ satisfies $e g=g=g e$ for all $g \in G$, where the group product denoted by concatenation.
- The Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ of the Lie group $G$ is defined as the space of tangent vectors $\mathfrak{g} \cong T_{e} G$ at the identity $e$ of the group.
The Lie algebra has a bracket operation $[\cdot, \cdot]: \mathfrak{g} \times \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}$, which it inherits from linearisation at the identity $e$ of the conjugation map $h \cdot g=h g h^{-1}$ for $g, h \in G$. For this, one begins with the conjugation map $h(t) \cdot g(s)=h(t) g(s) h(t)^{-1}$ for curves $g(s), h(t) \in G$, with $g(0)=e=h(0)$. One linearises at the identity, first in $s$ to get the operation $\operatorname{Ad}: G \times \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}$ and then in $t$ to get the operation ad : $\mathfrak{g} \times \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}$, which yields the Lie bracket. The bracket operation is antisymmetric $[a, b]=-[b, a]$ and satisfies the Jacobi condition for $a, b, c \in \mathfrak{g}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
[a,[b, c]]+[b,[c, a]]+[c,[a, b]]=0 \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

The bracket operation among the basis vectors $e_{k} \in \mathfrak{g}$ with $k=1,2, \ldots, \operatorname{dim}(\mathfrak{g})$ defines the Lie algebra by its structure constants $c_{i j}{ }^{k}$ in (summing over repeated indices)

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[e_{i}, e_{j}\right]=c_{i j}^{k} e_{k} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

The requirement of skew-symmetry and the Jacobi condition put constraints on the structure constants. These constraints are

- skew-symmetry

$$
\begin{equation*}
c_{j i}^{k}=-c_{i j}^{k} \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

- Jacobi identity

$$
\begin{equation*}
c_{i j}^{k} c_{l k}^{m}+c_{l i}^{k} c_{j k}^{m}+c_{j l}^{k} c_{i k}^{m}=0 . \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

Conversely, any set of constants $c_{i j}^{k}$ that satisfy relations (15)-(16) defines a Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$.
Exercise: Prove that the Jacobi condition requires the relation (16).
Hint: the Jacobi condition involves summing three terms of the form

$$
\left[\mathbf{e}_{l},\left[\mathbf{e}_{i}, \mathbf{e}_{j}\right]\right]=c_{i j}^{k}\left[\mathbf{e}_{l}, \mathbf{e}_{k}\right]=c_{i j}^{k} c_{l k}^{m} \mathbf{e}_{m}
$$

Exercise: Prove that the Jacobi condition (13) arises from the linearisation of (6).

## H. Poincaré's contribution [Po1901].

To understand [Po1901], let's begin by endowing the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ with a constant Riemannian metric $K: \mathfrak{g} \times \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and introducing two more definitions.

1. Define a reduced Lagrangian $l: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and an associated variational principle $\delta S=0$ with $S=\int_{a}^{b} l(\xi) d t$ where $\xi=\xi^{k} e_{k} \in \mathfrak{g}$ has components $\xi^{k}$ in the set of basis vectors $e_{k}$.
2. Define the dual Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}^{*}$ by using the fibre derivative of the Lagrangian $l: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as

$$
\mu:=\frac{\partial l(\xi)}{\partial \xi} \in \mathfrak{g}^{*}
$$

The relation $d l=\langle\mu, d \xi\rangle$ defines a pairing $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle: \mathfrak{g}^{*} \times \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. A natural dual basis for $\mathfrak{g}^{*}$ would satisfy $\left\langle e^{j}, e_{k}\right\rangle=\delta_{k}^{j}$ in this pairing and an element $\mu \in \mathfrak{g}^{*}$ would have components in this dual basis given by $\mu=\mu_{k} e^{k}$, again with with $k=1,2, \ldots, \operatorname{dim}(\mathfrak{g})$.

## - Exercise:

(a) Show that Hamilton's principle $\delta S=0$ with $S=\int_{a}^{b} l(\xi) d t$ implies the Euler-Poincaré (EP) equations:

$$
\frac{d}{d t} \mu_{i}(\xi)=\frac{d}{d t} \frac{\partial l(\xi)}{\partial \xi^{i}}=-c_{i j}^{k} \xi^{j} \mu_{k}(\xi)
$$

for variations given by $\delta \xi=\dot{\eta}+[\xi, \eta]$ with $\xi, \eta \in \mathfrak{g}$.
(b) Show that this variational formulation recovers Poincaré's equations introduced in [Po1901].

- Exercise: The Lie algebra $\mathfrak{s o}(3)$ of the Lie group $S O(3)$ of rotations in three dimensions has structure constants $c_{i j}{ }^{k}=\epsilon_{i j}{ }^{k}$, where $\epsilon_{i j}{ }^{k}$ with $i, j, k \in\{1,2,3\}$ is totally antisymmetric under pairwise permutations of its indices, with $\epsilon_{12}{ }^{3}=1, \epsilon_{21}{ }^{3}=-1$, etc.
(a) Identify the Lie bracket $[a, b]$ of two elements $a=a^{i} e_{i}, b=b^{j} e_{j} \in \mathfrak{s o}(3)$ with the cross product $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ of two vectors $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^{3}$ according to
(b) Show that this formula implies the Jacobi identity for the cross product of vectors in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$.

This is no surprise because, that familiar cross product relation for vectors may be proven by using the antisymmetric tensor $\epsilon_{i j}{ }^{k}$.

$$
[a, b]=\left[a^{i} e_{i}, b^{j} e_{j}\right]=a^{i} b^{j} \epsilon_{i j}{ }^{k} e_{k}=(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b})^{k} e_{k}
$$

(c) Show that for vectors in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ the EP equation

$$
\dot{\mu}_{i}=-\epsilon_{i j}{ }^{k} \xi^{j} \mu_{k}
$$

is equivalent to the vector equation for $\boldsymbol{\xi}, \boldsymbol{\mu} \in \mathbb{R}^{3}$

$$
\dot{\mu}=-\xi \times \mu
$$

(d) Show that when the Lagrangian is given by the quadratic expression

$$
l(\boldsymbol{\xi})=\frac{1}{2}\|\boldsymbol{\xi}\|_{K}^{2}=\frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\xi} \cdot K \boldsymbol{\xi}=\frac{1}{2} \xi^{i} K_{i j} \xi^{j}
$$

for a symmetric constant Riemannian metric $K^{T}=K$, then Euler's equations for a rotating rigid body are recovered.
(d) Identify the functional dependence of $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ on $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ and give the physical meanings of the symbols $\boldsymbol{\xi}, \boldsymbol{\mu}$ and $K$ in Euler's rigid body equations.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Letting the map $c$ depend smoothly on a parameter $t$ as $c_{t}$ and taking the tangent to the relation $c_{t}^{*}[Q, R]=$ $\left[c_{t}^{*} Q, c_{t}^{*} R\right]$ at the identity $t=0$ results in the Jacobi condition for the vector fields to form an algebra. The Jacobi condition is discussed further below.

