

The geometry of fractional tangent bundle and applications

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Abstract. The authors present the use of the revised fractional Riemann-Liouville derivative in the fractional tangent bundle of order k , ${}^{\alpha k}TM$, of a differential manifold M and the behavior of some objects under a change of local map. Among the geometrical structures defined on ${}^{\alpha k}TM$ we consider the fractional connections and the fractional Euler-Lagrange equations associated to a function defined on ${}^{\alpha k}TM$. Some examples are given.

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1 Introduction

It is known that the operators of fractional integration and derivation have geometrical and physical interpretations (see [7]) and they have been used in the modelation of problems in various domains. For example, in [6], the use of the revised Riemann-Liouville integral and derivative is shown.

In this paper, the fractional differential calculus on a differential manifold and the principal geometrical structures on the fractional tangent bundle of order k are considered. We also define the Euler-Lagrange equations associated to a function on that bundle.

Section 2 contains the definitions of the fractional operators on \mathbb{R} and some of their properties which are used in the sequel.

In Section 3, we describe the principal elements of fractional differential calculus on a manifold.

The fractional tangent bundle of order k , ${}^{\alpha k}TM$ ($\alpha > 0$) and some structures having a geometric character are defined in Section 4.

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In Section 5, the fractional Euler-Lagrange equations are established by using the notions of classical extremal value and fractional extremal value of an action. We also give two examples which prove that certain equations do not admit classical Lagrangians but they can be considered as fractional Euler-Lagrange equations.

2 Brief overview of fractional differential calculus

There are many books dealing with the fractional differential calculus and various definitions of the fractional integration and derivation. For the purpose of this note the revised Riemann-Liouville operators will be used (see [?]).

Let $\Gamma(\alpha)$ be the gamma function of the parameter α . α is not necessarily an integer and $\Gamma(1 + \alpha) = \alpha!$ if α is natural. For a function $f : I \subset \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $0 \in I$ the *fractional derivative of order α* is defined by the expressions:

$$(2.1) \quad D_t^\alpha f(t) := \frac{1}{\Gamma(-\alpha)} \int_0^t \frac{f(s) - f(0)}{(t-s)^{1+\alpha}} ds \quad \text{for } \alpha < 0;$$

$$(2.2) \quad D_t^\alpha f(t) := \frac{1}{\Gamma(m-\alpha)} \frac{d^m}{dt^m} \int_0^t \frac{f(s) - f(0)}{(t-s)^{\alpha-m+1}} ds \quad \text{for } \alpha \geq 0,$$

where m is the first integer greater than or equal to α . The relation (2.1) defines a fractional integral and (2.2) gives a fractional derivative. The last one has many interesting properties:

$$(2.3) \quad D_t^\alpha t^\gamma = \frac{\Gamma(1+\gamma)}{\Gamma(1+\gamma-\alpha)} t^{\gamma-\alpha}, \quad \gamma > -1, \quad 0 \leq \alpha < 1;$$

$$(2.4) \quad D_t^n D_t^\alpha f(t) = D_t^{n+\alpha} f(t), \quad n \in \mathbb{N};$$

$$(2.5) \quad D_t^\alpha D_t^{-\alpha} f(t) = f(t), \quad D_t^{-\alpha} D_t^\alpha f(t) \neq f(t);$$

$$(2.6) \quad D_t^\alpha (fg)(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \binom{\alpha}{i} D_t^{\alpha-i} f(t) D_t^i g(t),$$

where $D_t^i = \frac{d}{dt} \circ \frac{d}{dt} \circ \dots \circ \frac{d}{dt}$ (i times).

If f is an analytical function then

$$(2.7) \quad f(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} E_\alpha(t) D_t^{\alpha i} f(t),$$

where $E_\alpha(t)$ is the *Mittag-Leffler function*,

$$(2.8) \quad E_\alpha(t) := \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^{\alpha j}}{\Gamma(1 + \alpha j)}.$$

3 Fractional differential calculus on manifolds

Let M be an n -dimensional differential manifold, (U, x^i) a local coordinate system on M and $U_0 = \{x \in U \mid 0 \leq x^i \leq b^i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

For a function $f : U_0 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ we define the fractional derivative with respect to x^i :

$$(3.1) \quad D_{x^i}^\alpha f(x) := \frac{1}{\Gamma(m-\alpha)} D_{x^i}^m \int_0^{x^i} \frac{f(x^1, \dots, x^{i-1}, s, x^{i+1}, \dots, x^n) - f(x^1, \dots, x^{i-1}, 0, x^{i+1}, \dots, x^n)}{(x^i - s)^{\alpha-m+1}} ds,$$

where $D_{x^i}^m = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \circ \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \circ \dots \circ \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}$ (m times), i is fixed, $\alpha \geq 0$.

In particular we have, for $\alpha \in (0, 1)$, $\gamma > -1$,

$$D_{x^i}^\alpha (x^i)^\gamma = \frac{\Gamma(1+\gamma)}{\Gamma(1+\gamma-\alpha)}; \quad D_{x^i}^\alpha \frac{x^j}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} = \delta_i^j.$$

Let $D_{x^i} := \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, denote the local base of the module of vector fields $\mathcal{X}_U(M)$ and let dx^i , $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, be the local base of the 1-forms $\mathcal{D}_U^1(M)$. Using (3.1) and the previous relations, we get

Proposition 3.1. *Let (U, x^i) , (\bar{U}, \bar{x}^i) be two local coordinate systems such that $U \cap \bar{U} \neq \emptyset$ and*

$$(3.2) \quad \bar{x}^i = \bar{x}^i(x^1, x^2, \dots, x^n), \quad \text{rang} \left(\frac{\partial \bar{x}^i}{\partial x^i} \right) = n,$$

the corresponding coordinate transformation. The following relations hold:

$$(3.3) \quad \begin{aligned} d\bar{x}^i &= J_j^i(\bar{x}, x) dx^j, \quad \text{where } J_j^i(\bar{x}, \bar{x}) = D_{x^j} \bar{x}^i; \\ D_{x^j}^\alpha &= \overset{\alpha}{J}_j^i(\bar{x}, x) D_{\bar{x}^i}^\alpha, \quad \text{where } \overset{\alpha}{J}_j^i(\bar{x}, x) = D_{x^j}^\alpha \bar{x}^i; \\ J_j^i(\bar{x}, x) \overset{\alpha}{J}_h^j(\bar{x}, x) &= \delta_h^i. \end{aligned}$$

A fractional vector field on $U \subset M$ is an object of the form

$$\overset{\alpha}{X} = \overset{\alpha}{X}^i D_{x^i}^\alpha, \quad \text{where } \overset{\alpha}{X}^i \in \mathcal{F}_U(M), \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

We denote by $\overset{\alpha}{\mathcal{X}}_U$ the module of the fractional vector fields on U . $\overset{\alpha}{\mathcal{X}}_U$ is generated by the operators $D_{x^i}^\alpha$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$. If $c : x = x(t)$, $t \in I$ is a parametrized curve in U then the fractional tangent field of c is given by

$$(3.4) \quad \overset{\alpha}{\dot{x}}(t) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} D_t^\alpha x^i(t) D_{x^i}^\alpha.$$

Remark 3.1. Under a change of local coordinate systems (3.2) we have

$$(3.5) \quad \frac{\overset{\alpha}{X}^i}{\bar{X}^i} = \overset{\alpha}{J}_j^i(\bar{x}, x) \frac{\overset{\alpha}{X}^j}{\bar{X}^j}.$$

Remark 3.2. To each fractional vector field $\overset{\alpha}{X}$ we may associate a *fractional differential equation of order α* given by

$$(3.6) \quad \overset{\alpha}{x}(t) = \overset{\alpha}{X}(x(t)).$$

The equation (3.6) with an initial condition has a solution.

There are several fractional differential equations (systems) which are studied in literature because of their chaotic behaviour. Among the famous ones we mention: the fractional Lorenz system (1963), the fractional Rössler system (1976), Rabinovich - Fabrikant system (1979), Chua's system (1983) and so on.

Let us consider the real function U given by

$$x_{\alpha}^i := \frac{1}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)}(x^i)^{\alpha} \in \mathcal{F}_U, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

According to [3] we can define the *fractional exterior derivative* $d_{\alpha} : \mathcal{F}_U \rightarrow \mathcal{D}_U^1$ by

$$(3.7) \quad d_{\alpha}f := D_{x^i}^{\alpha}f dx_{\alpha}^i, \quad f \in \mathcal{F}_U.$$

Remark 3.3. With respect to the change of the local coordinate system (3.2) we have

$$(3.8) \quad d_{\alpha}\bar{x}^i = J_j^i(\bar{x}, x)d_{\alpha}x^i.$$

In order to extend the operator d_{α} on forms we determine the action of $D_{x^i}^{\alpha}$ on \mathcal{D}_U^1 . If $\omega = \omega_j dx^j \in \mathcal{D}_U^1$ then

$$(3.9) \quad D_{x^i}^{\alpha}(\omega) = D_{x^i}^{\alpha}(\omega_j dx^j) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{\alpha}{k} D_{x^i}^{\alpha-k}(\omega_j) D_{x^i}^k(dx^j).$$

Since $D_{x^i}^k(dx^j) = d(D_{x^i}^k x^j) = 0$ for $k \geq 1$, it results

$$(3.10) \quad D_{x^i}^{\alpha}(\omega) = D_{x^i}^{\alpha}(\omega_j) dx^j.$$

We now define the *operator* $d_{\alpha} : \mathcal{D}_U^1 \rightarrow \mathcal{D}_U^2$ by

$$(3.11) \quad d_{\alpha}\omega := dx_{\alpha}^i \wedge D_{x^i}^{\alpha}(\omega), \quad \omega \in \mathcal{D}_U^1.$$

From (3.10) and (3.11) we obtain

$$(3.12) \quad d_{\alpha}\omega = \frac{\alpha(x^i)^{\alpha-1}}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} D_{x^i}^{\alpha}(\omega_j) dx^i \wedge dx^j \in \mathcal{D}_U^2.$$

Remark 3.4. Using (3.12) one verifies that

$$(3.13) \quad d_{\alpha} \circ d_{\alpha} = 0.$$

In this way the classical differential calculus on manifolds may be extended to a fractional differential calculus taking into account the operators $D_{x^i}^{\alpha}$, d_{α} and the following property of a fractional vector field $\overset{\alpha}{X} = \overset{\alpha}{X}^i D_{x^i}^{\alpha} \in \overset{\alpha}{\mathcal{X}}_U$:

$$(3.14) \quad \overset{\alpha}{X}(fg)(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{\alpha}{k} \overset{\alpha}{X}^i(x) D_{x^i}^{\alpha-k} f(x) D_{x^i}^k g(x), \quad f, g \in \mathcal{F}_U.$$

Given $\overset{\alpha}{X}, \overset{\alpha}{Y} \in \mathcal{X}_U$ we can still consider a *covariant derivative* by the formula

$$(3.15) \quad \overset{\alpha}{\nabla}_{\overset{\alpha}{X}} \overset{\alpha}{Y} = \overset{\alpha}{X}^i \left(D_{x^i}^{\alpha} \overset{\alpha}{Y}^j + \overset{\alpha}{\Gamma}_{ik}^j \overset{\alpha}{Y}^k \right) D_{x^j}^{\alpha},$$

where $\left(\overset{\alpha}{\Gamma}_{ik}^j \right)$ are the functions defining *the coefficients of a fractional linear connection on M* . They are determined by the relations

$$(3.16) \quad \overset{\alpha}{\nabla}_{D_i^{\alpha}} D_k^{\alpha} = \overset{\alpha}{\Gamma}_{ik}^j D_j^{\alpha},$$

where $D_i^{\alpha} := D_{x^i}^{\alpha}$, $i, j, k = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

With respect to a change of local coordinates on M , the coefficients $(\overset{\alpha}{\Gamma}_{ik}^j)$ change according to the classical law by using $\overset{\alpha}{J}_j^i(\bar{x}, x)$ instead of $J_j^i(\bar{x}, x)$.

4 The fractional tangent bundle $\overset{\alpha k}{T} M$. Geometrical structure

Let $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ be fixed and two parametrized curves $c_1, c_2 : I \rightarrow U \subset M$, $0 \in I$, with $c_1(0) = c_2(0) = x_0 \in U$, x_0 fixed.

We say that c_1 and c_2 *have a fractional contact of order $k \in \mathbb{N}^*$ in x_0* if for any $f \in \mathcal{F}_U$

$$(4.1) \quad D_t^{\alpha a} (f \circ c_1) \Big|_{t=0} = D_t^{\alpha a} (f \circ c_2) \Big|_{t=0}, \quad a = 1, 2, \dots, k$$

holds.

The conditions (4.1) define an equivalence relation on the parametrized curves around x_0 .

An equivalence class $[c]_{x_0}^{\alpha k}$ is called *a fractional k -tangent vector to M in x_0* . The set of these classes is *the fractional k -tangent space of M in x_0* and it will be denoted by $\overset{\alpha k}{T}_{x_0} M$.

By considering $\overset{\alpha k}{T} M := \bigcup_{x_0 \in M} \overset{\alpha k}{T}_{x_0} M$ and the map

$$\overset{\alpha k}{\pi}_0 : [c]_{x_0}^{\alpha k} \in \overset{\alpha k}{T} M \mapsto x_0 \in M$$

we obtain a bundle

$$(4.2) \quad \left(\overset{\alpha k}{T} M, \overset{\alpha k}{\pi}_0, M \right).$$

There is a differential structure on $\overset{\alpha k}{T}$ (see [2]) and this bundle is called *the fractional tangent bundle of order k of M* .

We make two specifications:

1. If the curve c has the local representation $c : x^i = x^i(t)$, $t \in I$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, in (U, x^i) , then the class $[c]_{x_0}^{\alpha k}$ is given by

$$(4.3) \quad x^i(t) = x^i(0) + \sum_{a=1}^k \frac{t^{\alpha a}}{\Gamma(1 + \alpha a)} D_t^{\alpha a} x^i(t) \Big|_{t=0}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n,$$

where $t \in (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon) \subset I$.

2. Using the notations

$$(4.4) \quad x^i = x^i(0), \quad x^{\alpha i} = \frac{1}{\Gamma(1 + \alpha a)} D_t^{\alpha a} x^i(t) \Big|_{t=0}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n; \quad a = 1, 2, \dots, k,$$

we have the induced local coordinate system on ${}^{\alpha k} T M$,

$$(4.5) \quad \left(\left(\frac{\alpha k}{\pi_0} \right)^{-1} (U); x^i, x^{\alpha i}, x^{2\alpha i}, \dots, x^{k\alpha i} \right).$$

We can establish

Proposition 4.1. *With respect to a change of local coordinates (3.2) on M the following relations hold:*

$$(4.6) \quad \frac{\Gamma((a-1)\alpha)}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \frac{\alpha \alpha}{x^i} = \Gamma(1 + \alpha) J_j^{\alpha i} \left(\frac{(a-1)\alpha}{x}, x \right) x^i + \\ + \frac{\Gamma(2\alpha)}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \sum_{b=1}^{a-1} J_j^{\alpha i} \left(\frac{(a-1)\alpha}{x}, x^j \right) x^{(b+1)\alpha} + \frac{\Gamma((a-1)\alpha)}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \frac{\alpha \alpha_i}{x},$$

$a = 1, 2, \dots, k; b = 2, 3, \dots, k, b \leq a$, where

$$(4.7) \quad J_j^{\alpha i} \left(\frac{(a-1)\alpha}{x}, x^j \right) = D_{x^j}^{\alpha} \frac{(a-1)\alpha}{x^i}, \\ J_j^{\alpha i} \left(\frac{(a-1)\alpha}{x}, x \right) = D_{x^j}^{\alpha} \frac{(a-1)\alpha}{x^i}, \quad i, j = 1, 2, \dots, k.$$

Remark 4.1. The fractional tangent bundle of order k is a generalization of the tangent bundle of order k . If $\alpha_p \in (0, 1)$ is a sequence such that $\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \alpha_p = 1$, then

$$\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} {}^{\alpha_p k} T M = {}^k T M \text{ or } T^k M.$$

Let us define other geometrical structures and objects on the fractional tangent bundle ${}^{\alpha k} T M$.

1. Let $\pi_{\alpha h}^{\alpha k} : \left(x, x^{\alpha}, \dots, x^{k\alpha} \right) \in {}^{\alpha k} T M \mapsto \left(x, x^{\alpha}, \dots, x^{h\alpha} \right) \in {}^{\alpha h} T M$, $h < k$, be the natural projection and

$$d_{\alpha} \pi_{\alpha h}^{\alpha k} : \mathcal{X} \left({}^{\alpha k} T M \right) \longrightarrow \mathcal{X} \left({}^{\alpha h} T M \right),$$

the operator given by

$$(4.8) \quad d_\alpha \pi_{\alpha h}^{\alpha k} := \Gamma(1 + \alpha) \left[dx_\alpha^i D_{x^i}^\alpha + \sum_{a=1}^h dx_\alpha^i D_{x^i}^{\alpha a} \right], \quad h < k,$$

where the module $\mathcal{X} \left(\begin{smallmatrix} \alpha k \\ T M \end{smallmatrix} \right)$ of fractional vector fields on $\begin{smallmatrix} \alpha k \\ T M \end{smallmatrix}$ is generated by $D_{x^i}^\alpha$, $D_{x^i}^{\alpha a}$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$; $a = 1, 2, \dots, k$.

If we consider $V_{\alpha h}^{\alpha k} := \ker d_\alpha \pi_{\alpha h}^{\alpha k}$, $h = 0, 1, \dots, k - 1$, then

$$(4.9) \quad \begin{aligned} V_{\alpha(k-1)}^{\alpha k} &\subset V_{\alpha(k-2)}^{\alpha k} \subset \dots \subset V_{\alpha 1}^{\alpha k} \subset V_0^{\alpha k}; \\ d_\alpha \pi_{\alpha h}^{\alpha k} (D_{x^i}^\alpha) &= D_{x^i}^\alpha; \quad d_\alpha \pi_{\alpha h}^{\alpha k} \left(D_{x^i}^{\alpha b} \right) = D_{x^i}^{\alpha b}, \quad b = 1, 2, \dots, k. \end{aligned}$$

By Proposition 4.1, $V_{\alpha h}^{\alpha k}$ has a geometrical character.

2. The following fractional vector fields:

$$(4.10) \quad \begin{aligned} \Gamma &= \Gamma(1 + \alpha) x^i D_{x^i}^{\alpha k}, \\ \Gamma &= \Gamma(1 + \alpha) x^i D_{(k-1)\alpha}^\alpha + \frac{\Gamma(2\alpha)}{\Gamma(\alpha)} D_{x^i}^{\alpha k}, \\ &\dots \\ \Gamma &= \Gamma(1 + \alpha) x^i D_{x^i}^\alpha + \frac{\Gamma(2\alpha)}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^i D_{x^i}^{2\alpha} + \dots + \frac{\Gamma((k-1)\alpha)}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^i D_{x^i}^{k\alpha}, \end{aligned}$$

are called *the Liouville fractional vector fields*.

The operator $\Lambda : \mathcal{X} \left(\begin{smallmatrix} \alpha k \\ T M \end{smallmatrix} \right) \rightarrow \mathcal{X} \left(\begin{smallmatrix} \alpha k \\ T M \end{smallmatrix} \right)$ with the properties

$$(4.11) \quad \Lambda(D_{x^i}^\alpha) = D_{x^i}^\alpha; \quad \Lambda \left(D_{x^i}^{\alpha a} \right) = D_{(a+1)\alpha}^\alpha, \quad a = 1, 2, \dots, k - 1; \quad \Lambda \left(D_{x^i}^{\alpha k} \right) = 0$$

determine a k -fractional tangent structure on $\begin{smallmatrix} \alpha k \\ T M \end{smallmatrix}$.

Using (4.10), (4.11) we obtain

Proposition 4.2. *The k -fractional tangent structure has the following properties:*

- Λ has a geometrical character;
- $\text{rang } \Lambda = kn$, $\Lambda \circ \Lambda \circ \dots \circ \Lambda = 0$;
- $\Lambda \left(\begin{smallmatrix} k\alpha \\ \Gamma \end{smallmatrix} \right) = \begin{smallmatrix} (k-1)\alpha \\ \Gamma \end{smallmatrix}$, \dots , $\Lambda \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 2\alpha \\ \Gamma \end{smallmatrix} \right) = \begin{smallmatrix} \alpha \\ \Gamma \end{smallmatrix}$, $\Lambda \left(\begin{smallmatrix} \alpha \\ \Gamma \end{smallmatrix} \right) = 0$.

3. A fractional vector field $S \in \mathcal{X} \left(\begin{smallmatrix} \alpha k \\ T M \end{smallmatrix} \right)$ is called a k -fractional spray if

$\Lambda \left(\begin{smallmatrix} \alpha k \\ S \end{smallmatrix} \right) = \begin{smallmatrix} k\alpha \\ \Gamma \end{smallmatrix}$. From the last relation we obtain the expresion of the k -fractional spray:

$$(4.12) \quad S = \Gamma(1 + \alpha) x^i D_{x^i}^\alpha + \sum_{b=2}^{k-1} \frac{\Gamma(b\alpha)}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^i D_{x^i}^{b\alpha} - \frac{\Gamma(k\alpha)}{\Gamma(\alpha)} G^i \left(x, x, \dots, x \right) D_{x^i}^{\alpha k}.$$

There results

Proposition 4.3 *The k -fractional spray $S^{\alpha k}$ uniquely defines the fractional differential equations given by:*

$$(4.13) \quad \frac{1}{\Gamma(1+k\alpha)} D_t^{(k+1)\alpha} x^i(t) + G^i(x, D_t^\alpha x, \dots, \Gamma(1+(k-1)\alpha) D_t^{k\alpha} x) = 0.$$

5 Fractional Euler-Lagrange equations on $T^{\alpha k} M$

Let $c : t \in [0, 1] \mapsto x(t) \in U \subset M$ be a parametrized curve on M and

$${}^{\alpha k}c : t \in [0, 1] \mapsto \left(x(t), {}^{a\alpha}x(t) \right) \in \left(\frac{dk}{\pi}_0 \right)^{-1}(U) \subset T^{\alpha k} M, \quad a = 1, 2, \dots, k$$

the extension of c to $T^{\alpha k} M$.

Let $L : T^{\alpha k} M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a fractional Lagrange function. The action of L along the curve ${}^{\alpha k}c$ is

$$(5.1) \quad \mathcal{A} \left({}^{\alpha k}c \right) = \int_0^1 L \left(x(t), {}^{a\alpha}x(t) \right) dt.$$

Consider a family of curves

$$c_\varepsilon : t \in [0, 1] \mapsto x(t, \varepsilon) \in M$$

where the absolute value of $\varepsilon \geq 0$ is sufficiently small such that $\text{Im } c_\varepsilon \subset U \subset M$, $c_0(t) = c(t)$, $D_\varepsilon^\alpha c_\varepsilon \Big|_{\varepsilon=0} = 0$.

The action of L on the curve ${}^{\alpha k}c_\varepsilon$ is given by

$$(5.2) \quad \mathcal{A} \left({}^{\alpha k}c_\varepsilon \right) = \int_0^1 L \left(x(t, \varepsilon), {}^{a\alpha}x(t, \varepsilon) \right) dt,$$

where ${}^{a\alpha}x(t, \varepsilon) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(1+a\alpha)} D_t^{a\alpha} x(t, \varepsilon)$, $a = 1, 2, \dots, k$.

The action (5.2) has a fractional extremum if

$$(5.3) \quad D_\varepsilon^\alpha \left[\mathcal{A} \left({}^{\alpha k}c_\varepsilon \right) \right] \Big|_{\varepsilon=0} = 0.$$

At the same time, the action (5.2) has an extremal value if

$$(5.4) \quad D_\varepsilon \left[\mathcal{A} \left({}^{\alpha k}c_\varepsilon \right) \right] \Big|_{\varepsilon=0}, \quad (\text{see [1]}).$$

On the basis of the conditions (5.3) and (5.4) we have the following

Proposition 5.1. a) *A necessary condition for the action (5.2) to reach a fractional extremal value is that $c : x = x(t)$ satisfy the fractional Euler-Lagrange equations:*

$$(5.5) \quad D_{x^i}^\alpha L + \sum_{a=1}^k (-1)^a d_t^{\alpha a} \left(D_{x^i}^{\alpha a} L \right) = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n,$$

where

$$(5.6) \quad d_t^{\alpha a} = \sum_{b=1}^a x^i D_{(b-1)\alpha}^{\alpha}; \quad D_{x^i}^{\alpha} \equiv D_{x^i}^\alpha.$$

b) A necessary condition for the action (5.2) to reach an extremal value is that $c : x = x(t)$ satisfy the fractional Euler-Lagrange equations:

$$(5.7) \quad D_{x^i} L + \sum_{a=1}^k (-1)^a d_t^a \left(D_{x^i}^\alpha L \right) = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n,$$

where

$$(5.8) \quad d_t^a = \sum_{b=1}^a x^i D_{(b-1)\alpha}^{\alpha}; \quad D_{x^i}^\alpha \equiv D_{x^i}^\alpha.$$

Examples and applications. 1. Let $L : T^{\frac{2\alpha}{1}} \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the Lagrange function given by

$$(5.9) \quad L \left(x, \overset{\alpha}{x}, \overset{2\alpha}{x} \right) = -\psi_1(x) - \frac{1}{2} a_1 \Gamma(1 + 2\alpha) \left(\overset{\alpha}{x} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{2} \Gamma(1 + 4\alpha) \left(\overset{2\alpha}{x} \right)^2,$$

where $\frac{d\psi_1}{dx} =: \varphi_1(x)$. The fractional Euler-Lagrange equation associated to L is

$$(5.10) \quad \Gamma(1 + 4\alpha) \overset{4\alpha}{x} + a_1 \Gamma(1 + 2\alpha) \overset{2\alpha}{x} + \varphi_1(x) = 0.$$

If $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$, the equation (5.10) is

$$(5.11) \quad \ddot{x}(t) + a_1 \dot{x}(t) + \varphi_1(x(t)) = 0.$$

It does not admit a classical Lagrangean but it comes from a fractional Lagrangean.

2. Let $L : T^{\frac{3\alpha}{1}} \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the Lagrange function given by

$$(5.12) \quad L \left(x, \overset{\alpha}{x}, \overset{2\alpha}{x}, \overset{3\alpha}{x} \right) = -\psi_2(x) + \frac{1}{2} a_1 \Gamma(1 + 2\alpha) \left(\overset{\alpha}{x} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{2} a_2 \Gamma(1 + 4\alpha) \left(\overset{2\alpha}{x} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \Gamma(1 + 6\alpha) \left(\overset{3\alpha}{x} \right)^2$$

and $\varphi_2(x) := \frac{d\psi_2}{dx}$. The fractional Euler-Lagrange equation associated to L is

$$(5.13) \quad \Gamma(1 + 6\alpha) \overset{6\alpha}{x} + a_2 \Gamma(1 + 4\alpha) \overset{4\alpha}{x} + a_1 \Gamma(1 + 2\alpha) \overset{2\alpha}{x} + \varphi_2(x) = 0.$$

If $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$, we obtain the equation

$$(5.14) \quad \ddot{x}(t) + a_2\dot{x}(t) + a_1x(t) + \varphi_2(x(t)) = 0$$

which also does not admit a classical Lagrangean.

3. The homogeneous Bagley-Törvik equation,

$$(5.15) \quad aD^2x(t) + bD^{3/2}x(t) + cx(t) = 0,$$

where $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$, $x(0) = 0$, $D^1x(0) = 0$, describe the dynamics of a flat rigid body embedded in a Newton fluid. The equation (5.15) is the fractional differential equation for the Lagrangean function $L_1 : T^{7/4}\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by

$$(5.16) \quad L_1 \left(x(t), \overset{5/4}{x}(t), \overset{7/4}{x}(t) \right) = \frac{c}{\Gamma(9/4)} - \frac{b\Gamma(3)}{\Gamma(3/2)} \left[\overset{5/4}{x}(t) \right]^{1/2} - \frac{a\Gamma(3)}{\Gamma(3/2)} \left[\overset{7/4}{x}(t) \right]^{1/2}.$$

For proof we consider the function $L : T^{7\alpha}\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, given by

$$(5.17) \quad L \left(x, \overset{5\alpha}{x}, \overset{7\alpha}{x} \right) := \frac{c}{\Gamma(2+\alpha)} x^{1+\alpha} - \frac{b_1}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)} \left(\overset{5\alpha}{x} \right)^{2\alpha} - \frac{a_1}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)} \left(\overset{7\alpha}{x} \right)^{2\alpha},$$

where $a_1 = a\Gamma(3)$, $b_1 = b\Gamma(5/2)$. The fractional Euler-Lagrange equation associated to (5.17) is the following:

$$(5.18) \quad D_x^\alpha L - d_t^{5\alpha} \left(D_{\overset{5\alpha}{x}}^\alpha L \right) - d_t^{7\alpha} \left(D_{\overset{7\alpha}{x}}^\alpha L \right) = 0.$$

Using the relation (2.3), we have

$$(5.19) \quad \begin{aligned} D_x^\alpha L &= \frac{c}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} D_x^\alpha (x(t))^{1+\alpha} = \frac{cx}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} \cdot \frac{\Gamma(2+\alpha)}{\Gamma(1)} = cx(t); \\ D_{\overset{5\alpha}{x}}^\alpha L &= -\frac{b_1}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)} D_{\overset{5\alpha}{x}}^\alpha \left(\overset{5\alpha}{x}(t) \right)^{2\alpha} = -\frac{b_1}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} \left(\overset{5\alpha}{x}(t) \right)^\alpha; \\ D_{\overset{7\alpha}{x}}^\alpha L &= -\frac{a_1}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)} D_{\overset{7\alpha}{x}}^\alpha \left(\overset{7\alpha}{x}(t) \right)^{2\alpha} = -\frac{a_1}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} \left(\overset{7\alpha}{x}(t) \right)^\alpha; \\ d_t^{5\alpha} \left(D_{\overset{5\alpha}{x}}^\alpha L \right) &= -b_1 \overset{6\alpha}{x}(t); \quad d_t^{7\alpha} \left(D_{\overset{7\alpha}{x}}^\alpha L \right) = -a_1 \overset{8\alpha}{x}(t). \end{aligned}$$

From (5.18), with (5.19), we obtain the equation

$$(5.20) \quad a_1 \overset{8\alpha}{x}(t) + b_1 \overset{6\alpha}{x}(t) + cx(t) = 0.$$

For $\alpha = \frac{1}{4}$, the relation (5.20) leads to the equation

$$(5.21) \quad a_1 \overset{2}{x}(t) + b_1 \overset{3/2}{x}(t) + cx(t) = 0$$

which is equivalent to (5.15). Consequently, (5.15) is the fractional differential equation associated to L_1 given by (5.16).

6 Conclusions

Starting from the idea that the fractional techniques and methods require a fractional geometrical model we consider the fractional tangent bundle of order k . On this tangent bundle are defined some objects and structures having a geometrical character. We also consider fractional Lagrangeans on that bundle.

As the examples show there are some equations which do not come from a variational principle, but they can be described as the Euler–Lagrange equations of fractional Lagrangeans.

Most approaches of the fractional order systems in literature are studied with numerical methods. A logical target for us is to analyse the behaviour of a fractional dynamics including geometrical methods. Related results can be found in [4, 5].

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