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MEASURE CONTRACTION PROPERTIES OF CARNOT GROUPS

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ABSTRACT. We prove that any corank 1 Carnot group of dimension k+1 equipped with a left-invariant measure satisfies the $\mathrm{MCP}(K,N)$ iff $K\leq 0$ and $N\geq k+3$. This generalizes the well known result by Juillet for the Heisenberg group \mathbb{H}_{2d+1} to a larger class of structures, which admit non-trivial abnormal minimizing curves.

The number k+3 coincides with the geodesic dimension of the Carnot group, which we define here for a general metric space. We discuss some of its properties, and its relation with the curvature exponent (the least N such that the MCP(0, N) is satisfied). We prove that, on a metric measure space, the curvature exponent is always larger than the geodesic dimension which, in turn, is larger than the Hausdorff one. When applied to Carnot groups, this result improves a previous lower bound due to Rifford.

As a byproduct, we prove that a Carnot group is ideal if and only if it is fat.

1. Summary of the results

Let (X, d, μ) be a metric measure space which is assumed to be geodesic with negligible cut locus. In particular, for any $x \in X$ there exists a negligible set $\mathcal{C}(x)$ and a measurable map $\Phi^x : X \setminus \mathcal{C}(x) \times [0, 1] \to X$, such that the curve $\gamma(t) = \Phi^x(y, t)$ is the unique minimizing geodesic joining x with y. Moreover μ is a Borel measure such that $0 < \mu(\mathcal{B}(x, r)) < +\infty$ for any r > 0, where $\mathcal{B}(x, r)$ is the metric ball of radius r centered in x. Any complete Riemannian manifold, equipped with the Riemannian measure, provides an example.

For any set Ω , we consider its geodesic homothety of center $x \in X$ and ratio $t \in [0,1]$:

(1)
$$\Omega_t := \{ \Phi^x(y, t) \mid y \in X \setminus \mathcal{C}(x) \}.$$

For any $K \in \mathbb{R}$, define the function

(2)
$$s_K(t) := \begin{cases} (1/\sqrt{K})\sin(\sqrt{K}t) & \text{if } K > 0, \\ t & \text{if } K = 0, \\ (1/\sqrt{-K})\sinh(\sqrt{-K}t) & \text{if } K < 0. \end{cases}$$

Definition 1 (Ohta [15]). Let $K \in \mathbb{R}$ and N > 1, or $K \leq 0$ and N = 1. We say that (X, d, μ) satisfies the measure contraction property MCP(K, N) if for any $x \in M$ and any measurable set Ω with with $0 < \mu(\Omega) < +\infty$ (and with $\Omega \subset \mathcal{B}(x, \pi\sqrt{N-1/K})$ if K > 0)

(3)
$$\mu(\Omega_t) \ge \int_{\Omega} t \left[\frac{s_K(td(x,z)/\sqrt{N-1})}{s_K(d(x,z)/\sqrt{N-1})} \right]^{N-1} d\mu(z), \quad \forall t \in [0,1],$$

where we set 0/0 = 1 and the term in square bracket is 1 if $K \le 0$ and N = 1.

In this setting, the measure contraction property is a global control on the evolution of the measure of Ω_t . The function s_K comes from the exact behavior of the Jacobian determinant of the exponential map on Riemannian space forms of constant curvature K and dimension N, where (3) is an equality. On a complete Riemannian manifold M equipped with the Riemannian measure, the MCP(K, N) is equivalent to $Ric \geq K$ and

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dim $M \leq N$ (see [15]). Thus, the measure contraction property is a synthetic replacement for Ricci curvature bounds on more general metric measure spaces, and is actually one the weakest. It has been introduced independently by Ohta [15] and Sturm [20]. See also [19, 20, 12] for other (stronger) synthetic curvature conditions, including the popular geometric curvature dimension condition CD(K, N). An important property, shared by all these synthetic conditions, is their stability under (pointed) Gromov-Hausdorff limits.

It is interesting to investigate whether the synthetic theory of curvature bounds can be applied to the study of sub-Riemannian manifolds. These are an interesting class of metric spaces, that generalize Riemannian geometry with non-holonomic constraints. Even though some sub-Riemannian structures can be seen as Gromov-Hausdorff limits of sequences of Riemannian ones with the same dimension, these turn out to have Ricci curvature unbounded from below [16, 3]. For this reason a direct analysis is demanded.

In this paper we focus on Carnot groups. In the following, any Carnot group G is considered as a metric measure space (G,d,μ) equipped with the Carnot-Carathéodory distance d and a left-invariant measure μ . The latter coincides with the Popp [14, 7] and with the Hausdorff one [1], up to a constant rescaling. All of them coincide with the Lebesgue measure when we identify $G \simeq \mathbb{R}^n$ in a set of adapted coordinates.

1.1. **The Heisenberg group.** In [9], Juillet proved that the 2d + 1 dimensional Heisenberg group \mathbb{H}_{2d+1} does not satisfy the CD(K, N) condition, for any value of K and N. On the other hand, it satisfies the MCP(K, N) if and only if $K \leq 0$ and $N \geq 2d + 3$.

The number $\mathcal{N}=2d+3$, which is the lowest possible dimension for the synthetic condition MCP(0, N) in \mathbb{H}_{2d+1} , is surprisingly larger than its topological dimension (2d+1) or the Hausdorff one (2d+2). This is essentially due to the fact that, letting $\Omega=\mathcal{B}(x,1)$, we have $\Omega_t\subset\mathcal{B}(x,t)$ strictly, and

(4)
$$\mu(\Omega_t) \sim t^{2d+3}$$
, while $\mu(\mathcal{B}(x,t)) \sim t^{2d+2}$, for $t \to 0^+$ (see [9, Remark 2.7]).

1.2. Corank 1 Carnot groups. Our first result is an extension of the MCP results of [9] to any corank 1 Carnot group.

Theorem 2. Let (G, d, μ) be a corank 1 Carnot group of rank k. Then it satisfies the MCP(K, N) if and only if $K \leq 0$ and $N \geq k + 3$.

Remark 1. We stress that, in general, corank 1 Carnot groups admit abnormal minimizing curves (albeit not strictly abnormal ones).

1.3. **The geodesic dimension.** The geodesic dimension has been introduced in [3] for sub-Riemannian structures. We present it here in a different and more general setting.

Definition 3. Let (X, d, μ) be a metric measure space. For any $x \in X$ and s > 0, define

$$(5) \qquad C_s(x) := \sup \left\{ \limsup_{t \to 0^+} \frac{1}{t^s} \frac{\mu(\Omega_t)}{\mu(\Omega)} \mid \Omega \text{ measurable, bounded, } 0 < \mu(\Omega) < +\infty \right\},$$

where Ω_t is the homothety of Ω with center x and ratio t as in (1). We define the *geodesic dimension* of (X, d, μ) at $x \in X$ as the non-negative real number

(6)
$$\mathcal{N}(x) := \inf\{s > 0 \mid C_s(X) = +\infty\} = \sup\{s > 0 \mid C_s(X) = 0\},$$
 with the conventions $\inf \emptyset = +\infty$ and $\sup \emptyset = 0$.

Roughly speaking, the measure of $\mu(\Omega_t)$ vanishes at least as $t^{\mathcal{N}(x)}$ or more rapidly, for $t \to 0$. The two definitions in (6) are equivalent since $s \geq s'$ implies $C_s(x) \geq C_{s'}(x)$.

Remark 2. Indeed $\mathcal{N}(x)$ does not change if we replace μ with any commensurable measure (two measures μ and μ' are commensurable if $\mu \ll \mu'$ and $\mu' \ll \mu$).

The geodesic dimension $\mathcal{N}(x)$ is a local property. In fact, for sufficiently small t > 0, the set Ω_t lies in an arbitrarily small neighborhood of x. The next theorem puts it in relation with Hausdorff dimension $\dim_H(B)$ of a subset $B \subseteq X$ (see [5] for reference).

Theorem 4. Let (X, d, μ) be a metric measure space. Then, for any Borel subset B

(7)
$$\sup\{\mathcal{N}(x) \mid x \in B\} \ge \dim_H(B).$$

The next result appears in [3, Proposition 5.49], and we give here a self-contained proof.

Theorem 5. Let (X, d, μ) be the metric measure space defined by an equiregular sub-Riemannian or Riemannian structure, equipped with a smooth measure μ , then

(8)
$$\mathcal{N}(x) \ge \dim_H(X) \ge \dim(X), \quad \forall x \in X,$$

and the equality holds if and only if (X, d, μ) is Riemannian.

Remark 3. For an equiregular (sub-)Riemannian structure, the Hausdorff measure is commensurable w.r.t. any smooth one [13]. This is no longer true in the non-equiregular case [8]. By choosing the Hausdorff measure instead of a smooth one, one obtains, a priori, a different geodesic dimension $\mathcal{N}(x)$.

1.4. A lower bound for the MCP dimension. If (X, d, μ) satisfies the MCP(K, N), then $N \geq \mathcal{N}(x)$ at any point. We give here a general statement for metric measure spaces.

Theorem 6. Let (X, d, μ) be a metric measure space, with geodesic dimension $\mathcal{N}(x)$, that satisfies the MCP(K, N), for some $K \in \mathbb{R}$ and $N \in \mathbb{N}$ or $K \leq 0$ and N = 1. Then

(9)
$$N \ge \sup\{\mathcal{N}(x) \mid x \in X\}.$$

The following definition was given originally in [16] for Carnot groups.

Definition 7. Let (X, d, μ) be a metric measure space that satisfies the MCP(0, N) for some $N \geq 1$. Its *curvature exponent* is

(10)
$$N_0 := \inf\{N > 1 \mid MCP(0, N) \text{ is satisfied}\}.$$

When (X, d, μ) does not satisfy the MCP(0, N) for all $N \ge 1$, we set $N_0 = +\infty$.

Indeed, if $N_0 < +\infty$, then the MCP $(0, N_0)$ is satisfied. Theorem 6 implies that $N_0 \ge \mathcal{N}$. It may happen that $N_0 > \mathcal{N}$ strictly, as in the following example.

Example 1 (Riemannian Heisenberg). Consider the Riemannian structure generated by the following global orthonormal vector fields, in coordinates $(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3$:

(11)
$$X = \partial_x - \frac{y}{2}\partial_z, \qquad Y = \partial_y + \frac{x}{2}\partial_z, \qquad Z = \partial_z.$$

Being a Riemannian structure, $\mathcal{N}=3$. In [16] it is proved that, when equipped with the Riemannian volume, it satisfies the MCP(0,5). With the same computations it is easy to prove that the MCP(0,5- ε) is violated for any $\varepsilon > 0$, so its curvature exponent is $N_0 = 5$.

1.5. Back to Carnot groups. More recently, in [16], Rifford studied the measure contraction properties of general Carnot groups. It may happen that $N_0 = +\infty$, that is the MCP(0, N) is never satisfied. However, if the Carnot group is ideal (i.e. it does not admit non-trivial abnormal minimizing geodesics), we have the following result.

Theorem 8 (Rifford [16]). Let (G, d, μ) be a Carnot group. Assume it is ideal. Then it satisfies the MCP(0, N) for some N > 1. In particular its curvature exponent $N_0 < +\infty$.

The proof of the above result is based on a semiconcavity property of the distance for ideal structures, which does not hold in general. Nevertheless, Theorem 2 shows that the above statement can hold even in presence of non-trivial abnormal minimizers. In general, nothing is known on the finiteness of N_0 , but we have the following lower bound.

Theorem 9 (Rifford [16]). Let (G, d, μ) be a Carnot group. Assume it is geodesic with negligible cut locus. Then its curvature exponent N_0 satisfies

$$(12) N_0 \ge N_R := Q + n - k,$$

where Q is the Hausdorff dimension, n is the topological one, and k is the rank of the horizontal distribution.

For Carnot groups, the geodesic dimension $\mathcal{N}(x) = \mathcal{N}$ is clearly constant. In particular $N_0 \geq \mathcal{N}$, by Theorem 6. This lower bound improves (12), as a consequence of the following.

Theorem 10. A Carnot group is ideal if and only if it is fat¹. In this case, $\mathcal{N} = N_R$. If a Carnot group is not fat, then

$$(13) \mathcal{N} > N_R.$$

Remark 4. Since fat Carnot groups do not admit non-trivial abnormal curves, the first part of Theorem 10 can be restated as follows: a Carnot group admits a non-trivial abnormal curve if and only if it admits a non-trivial abnormal minimizer (see Section 2).

Example 2 (Engel group). Consider the Carnot group in dimension 4, generated by the following global orthonormal left-invariant vector fields in coordinates $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) \in \mathbb{R}^4$

$$(14) X_1 = \partial_1, X_2 = \partial_2 + x_1 \partial_3 + x_1 x_2 \partial_4.$$

The Engel group is a metric space with negligible cut locus. It has rank 2, step 3, dimension 4 and growth vector (2,3,4). Its Hausdorff dimension is Q=7. The geodesic dimension is $\mathcal{N}=10$, while $N_R=9$. This is the lowest dimensional Carnot group where $N_R>\mathcal{N}$.

Checking whether the Engel group satisfies the $MCP(0, \mathcal{N})$ should be possible, at least in principle, as expressions for the Jacobian determinant are known [6].

1.6. **Open problems.** As a consequence of the formula for $\mathcal{N}(x)$ in the (sub-)Riemannian setting (see Section 7), for any corank 1 Carnot group we have

$$(15) \mathcal{N} = k + 3.$$

Thus, Theorem 2 can be restated saying that for any corank 1 Carnot group, the curvature exponent is equal to the geodesic dimension. Moreover, for \mathbb{H}_{2d+1} , this gives $\mathcal{N} = 2d+3$, and coincides with the "mysterious" integer originally found by Juillet.

We do not know whether non-ideal Carnot groups enjoy some MCP(0, N). It is not even known whether general Carnot groups have negligible cut locus (this is related with the Sard conjecture in sub-Riemannian geometry [18, 10]). However, if they do, it is natural to expect the curvature exponent to be equal to the curvature dimension.

Conjecture. Let (X, d, μ) be a Carnot group. Assume that it has negligible cut locus. Then the geodesic dimension coincides with the curvature exponent.

Preliminary results (using sub-Riemannian curvature techniques, in collaboration with D. Barilari) seem to provide evidence to the above claim for some step 2 Carnot group (these are Lipschitz and, in particular, have negligible cut locus [17]).

Structure of the paper. In Section 2 we collect some preliminaries of sub-Riemannian geometry and Carnot groups. In Section 3 we characterize the minimizers of corank 1 Carnot groups. In Section 4, 5, 6 we prove Theorems 2, 4, 6 respectively. In Section 7 we recall the formula for the geodesic dimension on general sub-Riemannian structures, we prove Theorem 5 and we discuss the Engel example. In Section 8 we prove Theorem 10.

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¹A sub-Riemannian structure (M, \mathcal{D}, g) is fat (or strong bracket-generating) if for all $x \in M$ and $X \in \mathcal{D}$, $X(x) \neq 0$, then $\mathcal{D}_x + [X, \mathcal{D}]_x = T_x M$. It is ideal if it does not admit non-trivial abnormal minimizers.

2. Sub-Riemannian Geometry

We present some basic results in sub-Riemannian geometry. See [2, 17, 14] for reference.

2.1. **Basic definitions.** A sub-Riemannian manifold is a triple (M, \mathcal{D}, g) , where M is a smooth, connected manifold of dimension $n \geq 3$, \mathcal{D} is a vector distribution of constant rank $k \leq n$ and g is a smooth metric on \mathcal{D} . We always assume that the distribution is bracket-generating. A horizontal curve $\gamma:[0,1]\to M$ is a Lipschitz continuous path such that $\dot{\gamma}(t)\in\mathcal{D}_{\gamma(t)}$ for almost any t. Horizontal curves have a well defined length

(16)
$$\ell(\gamma) = \int_0^1 \sqrt{g(\dot{\gamma}(t), \dot{\gamma}(t))} dt.$$

The sub-Riemannian (or Carnot-Carathéodory) distance is defined by:

(17)
$$d(x,y) = \inf\{\ell(\gamma) \mid \gamma(0) = x, \, \gamma(1) = y, \, \gamma \text{ horizontal}\}.$$

By the Chow-Rashevskii theorem, under the bracket-generating condition, $d: M \times M \to \mathbb{R}$ is finite and continuous. A sub-Riemannian manifold is complete if (M,d) is complete as a metric space. In this case, for any $x,y \in M$ there exists a minimizing geodesic joining the two points. In place of the length ℓ , one can consider the *energy functional* as

(18)
$$J(\gamma) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 g(\dot{\gamma}(t), \dot{\gamma}(t)) dt.$$

It is well known that, on the space of horizontal curves with fixed endpoints, the minimizers of $J(\cdot)$ coincide with the minimizers of $\ell(\cdot)$ with constant speed. Since ℓ is invariant by reparametrization (and in particular we can always reparametrize horizontal curves in such a way that they have constant speed), we do not loose generality in defining *geodesics* as horizontal curves that are locally energy minimizers between their endpoints.

2.2. **Hamiltonian.** We define the Hamiltonian function $H: T^*M \to \mathbb{R}$ as

(19)
$$H(\lambda) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \langle \lambda, X_i \rangle, \qquad \lambda \in T^*M,$$

for any local orthonormal frame X_1, \ldots, X_k for \mathcal{D} . Here $\langle \lambda, \cdot \rangle$ denotes the dual action of covectors on vectors. The cotangent bundle $\pi: T^*M \to M$ is equipped with a natural symplectic form σ . The Hamiltonian vector field \vec{H} is the unique vector field such that $\sigma(\cdot, \vec{H}) = dH$. In particular, the *Hamilton equations* are

(20)
$$\dot{\lambda}(t) = \vec{H}(\lambda(t)), \qquad \lambda(t) \in T^*M.$$

If (M, d) is complete, any solution of (20) can be extended to a smooth curve for all times.

2.3. **End-point map.** Let $\gamma_u:[0,1]\to M$ be an horizontal curve joining x and y. Up to restriction and reparametrization, we assume that the curve has no self-intersections. Thus we can find a smooth orthonormal frame X_1,\ldots,X_k of horizontal vectors fields, defined in a neighborhood of γ_u . Moreover, there is a *control* $u\in L^\infty([0,1],\mathbb{R}^k)$ such that

(21)
$$\dot{\gamma}_u(t) = \sum_{i=1}^k u_i(t) X_i(\gamma_u(t)), \quad \text{a.e. } t \in [0, 1].$$

Let $\mathcal{U} \subset L^{\infty}([0,1],\mathbb{R}^k)$ be the open set such that, for $v \in \mathcal{U}$, the solution of

(22)
$$\dot{\gamma}_v(t) = \sum_{i=1}^k v_i(t) X_i(\gamma_v(t)), \qquad \gamma_v(0) = x,$$

is well defined for a.e. $t \in [0,1]$. Indeed $u \in \mathcal{U}$. We define the *end-point map* with base x as $E_x : \mathcal{U} \to M$ that sends $v \mapsto \gamma_v(1)$. The end-point map is smooth on \mathcal{U} .

2.4. Lagrange multipliers. We can see $J:\mathcal{U}\to\mathbb{R}$ as a smooth functional on \mathcal{U} (we are identifying \mathcal{U} with a neighborhood of γ_u in the space of horizontal curves starting from x). A minimizing geodesic γ_u is a solution of the constrained minimum problem

(23)
$$J(v) \to \min, \quad E_x(v) = y, \quad v \in \mathcal{U}.$$

By the Lagrange multipliers rule, there exists a non-trivial pair (λ_1, ν) , such that

(24)
$$\lambda_1 \circ D_u E_x = \nu D_u J, \qquad \lambda_1 \in T_u^* M, \qquad \nu \in \{0, 1\},$$

where \circ denotes the composition and D the (Fréchet) differential. If $\gamma_u:[0,1]\to M$ with control $u \in \mathcal{U}$ is an horizontal curve (not necessarily minimizing), we say that a nonzero pair $(\lambda_1, \nu) \in T_y^*M \times \{0, 1\}$ is a Lagrange multiplier for γ_u if (24) is satisfied. The multiplier (λ_1, ν) is called normal if $\nu = 1$ and abnormal if $\nu = 0$. Observe that Lagrange multipliers are not unique, and a horizontal curve may be both normal and abnormal. Observe also that (λ_1, ν) is an abnormal multiplier if and only if u is a critical point of E_x . The following characterization is a consequence of the Pontryagin Maximum Principle [4].

Theorem 11. Let $\gamma_u:[0,1]\to M$ be an horizontal curve joining x with y. A non-zero pair $(\lambda_1, \nu) \in T_y^*M \times \{0, 1\}$ is a Lagrange multiplier for γ_u if and only if there exists a Lipschitz curve $\lambda(t) \in T^*_{\gamma_u(t)}M$ with $\lambda(1) = \lambda_1$, such that

- if $\nu = 1$ then $\dot{\lambda}(t) = \vec{H}(\gamma(t))$, i.e. it is a solution of Hamilton equations, if $\nu = 0$ then $\sigma(\dot{\lambda}(t), T_{\lambda(t)}\mathcal{D}^{\perp}) = 0$,

where $\mathcal{D}^{\perp} \subset T^*M$ is the sub-bundle of covectors that annihilate the distribution.

In the first (resp. second) case, $\lambda(t)$ is called a normal (resp. abnormal) extremal. Normal extremals are precisely the integral curves $\lambda(t)$ of H. As such, they are smooth, and are characterized by their initial covector $\lambda = \lambda(0)$. A geodesic is normal (resp. abnormal) if admits a normal (resp. abnormal) extremal. On the other hand, it is well known that the projection $\gamma_{\lambda}(t) = \pi(\lambda(t))$ of a normal extremal is locally minimizing, hence it is a normal geodesic. The exponential map with base $x \in M$ is the map

$$\exp_x: T_x^* M \to M,$$

which assigns to $\lambda \in T_x^*M$ the final point $\pi(\lambda(1))$ of the corresponding normal geodesic. The curve $\gamma_{\lambda}(t) := \exp_x(t\lambda)$, for $t \in [0,1]$, is the normal geodesic corresponding to λ , which has constant speed $\|\dot{\gamma}_{\lambda}(t)\| = \sqrt{2H(\lambda)}$ and length $\ell(\gamma|_{[t_1,t_2]}) = \sqrt{2H(\lambda)}(t_2 - t_1)$.

2.5. Carnot groups. A Carnot group (G,\star) of step s is a connected, simply connected Lie group of dimension n, such that its Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g} = T_e G$ is stratified of step s, that is

$$\mathfrak{g}=\mathfrak{g}_1\oplus\ldots\oplus\mathfrak{g}_s,$$

with

(27)
$$[\mathfrak{g}_1, \mathfrak{g}_i] = \mathfrak{g}_{1+i}, \quad \forall 1 \le j \le s, \quad \mathfrak{g}_s \ne \{0\}, \quad \mathfrak{g}_{s+1} = \{0\}.$$

The group exponential map $\exp_G: \mathfrak{g} \to G$ associates with $V \in \mathfrak{g}$ the element $\gamma_V(1)$, where $\gamma_V:[0,1]\to G$ is the integral line, starting at $\gamma_V(0)=e$, of the left invariant vector field associated with V. Since G is simply connected and \mathfrak{g} is nilpotent, \exp_G is a smooth diffeomorphism. Thus, by choosing a basis of \mathfrak{g} , we identify $G \simeq \mathbb{R}^n$.

Let \mathcal{D} be the left-invariant distribution generated by \mathfrak{g}_1 , with a left-invariant scalar product g. This defines a sub-Riemannian structure (G, \mathcal{D}, g) on the Carnot group. For $x \in G$, we denote with $L_x(y) := x \star y$ the left translation. The map $L_x : G \to G$ is a smooth isometry. Any Carnot group is a metric measure space (X, d, μ) where d is the Carnot-Carathéodory distance and μ the Lebesgue measure of $G = \mathbb{R}^n$. Haar, Popp, Lebesgue and top-dimensional Hausdorff measures are all left-invariant and proportional.

3. Corank 1 Carnot groups

A Corank 1 Carnot group is a Carnot groups of step s=2, with $\dim \mathfrak{g}_1=k$ and $\dim \mathfrak{g}_2=1$. In exponential coordinates (x,z) on $\mathbb{R}^k \times \mathbb{R}$, they are generated by the following set of global orthonormal left-invariant frames

(28)
$$X_{i} = \partial_{x_{i}} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{k} A_{ij} x_{j} \partial_{z}, \qquad i = 1, \dots, k,$$

where A is a $k \times k$ skew symmetric matrix. Observe that

$$[X_i, X_j] = A_{ij}\partial_z, \qquad i, j = 1, \dots, k.$$

Let $0 < \alpha_1 \le \ldots \le \alpha_d$ be the non-zero singular values of A. In particular, dim ker A = k - 2d. Up to an orthogonal change of coordinates, we can assume that

(30)
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & & \\ & \alpha_1 J & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \alpha_d J \end{pmatrix}, \qquad J = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The first zero block has dimension k-2d, while each other diagonal block is 2×2 . We split the coordinate $x=(x^0,x^1,\ldots,x^d)$, where $x^0 \in \mathbb{R}^{k-2d}$ and $x^i \in \mathbb{R}^2$, for $i=1,\ldots,d$.

If A has trivial kernel (in particular, k is even), we are in the case of a *contact Carnot group*, and there are no non-trivial minimizers. However, when A has a non-trivial kernel, then non-trivial abnormal minimizers appear. To prove Theorem 6, we need a complete characterization of the minimizing geodesics on a general corank 1 Carnot group. Our study extends the results of [1], where the case of a non-degenerate A is considered.

3.1. Characterization of minimizers. On any corank 1 sub-Riemannian distribution, all minimizing geodesics are normal (this is true for any step 2 distribution). In particular, they can be recovered by solving Hamilton equations. By left-invariance, it is sufficient to consider geodesics starting from the identity e = (0,0). Any covector $\lambda \in T_e^*G$ has coordinates (p_x, p_z) , where we split $p_x = (p_x^0, p_x^1, \dots, p_x^d)$.

Lemma 12. The exponential map $\exp_e: T_e^*G \to G$ of a Corank 1 Carnot group is

(31)
$$\exp_e(p_x^0, p_x^1, \dots, p_x^d, p_z) = (x^0, x^1, \dots, x^d, z),$$

where, for all i = 1, ..., d we have

$$(32) x^0 = p_x^0,$$

(33)
$$x^{i} = \left(\frac{\sin(\alpha_{i}p_{z})}{\alpha_{i}p_{z}}I + \frac{\cos(\alpha_{i}p_{z}) - 1}{\alpha_{i}p_{z}}J\right)p_{x},$$

(34)
$$z = \sum_{i=1}^{d} ||p_x^i||^2 \frac{\alpha_i p_z - \sin(\alpha_i p_z)}{2\alpha_i p_z^2}.$$

If $p_z = 0$, one must consider the limit $p_z \to 0$, that is $\exp_e(p_x, 0) = (p_x, 0)$.

Remark 5 (Abnormal geodesics). A non-zero covector $\lambda = (p_x, p_z)$ such that $Ap_x = 0$, that is of the form $(p_x^0, 0, \dots, 0, p_z)$ corresponds to an abnormal geodesic. A way to see this is to observe that there is an infinite number of initial covectors giving the same geodesic

(35)
$$\exp_e(tp_x^0, 0, \dots, 0, tp_z) = (tp_x^0, 0, \dots, 0, 0), \quad \forall p_z \in \mathbb{R}$$

A direct analysis of the end-point map shows that abnormal geodesic are all of this type.

Proof. Let $h_x = (h_1, \ldots, h_k) : T^*G \to \mathbb{R}^k$ and $h_z : T^*G \to \mathbb{R}$, where $h_i(\lambda) := \langle \lambda, X_i \rangle$, for $i = 1, \ldots, k$ and $h_z(\lambda) := \langle \lambda, \partial_z \rangle$. Indeed $H = \frac{1}{2} ||h_x||^2$. Hamilton equations are

(36)
$$\dot{h}_z = 0, \qquad \dot{h}_x = -h_z A h_x, \qquad \dot{x} = h_x, \qquad \dot{z} = -\frac{1}{2} h_x^* A x,$$

where, without risk of confusion, the dot denotes the derivative w.r.t. t. Indeed we have

(37)
$$h_z(t) = p_z, \qquad h_x(t) = e^{-p_z A t} p_x.$$

The equations for (x, z) can be easily integrated, using the block-diagonal structure of A. Split $h_x = (h_x^0, h_x^1, \dots, h_x^d)$, with $h_x^0 \in \mathbb{R}^{k-2d}$ and $h_x^i \in \mathbb{R}^2$ for $i = 1, \dots, d$. We obtain

(38)
$$h_x^0(t) = p_x^0, \quad h_x^i(t) = [\cos(\alpha_i p_z t)I - \sin(\alpha_i p_z t)J]p_x^i,$$

where I is the 2×2 identity matrix. Integrating the above on [0, t], we obtain

(39)
$$x^{0}(t) = p_{x}^{0}t, \qquad x^{i}(t) = \left(\frac{\sin(\alpha_{i}p_{z}t)}{\alpha_{i}p_{z}}I + \frac{\cos(\alpha_{i}p_{z}t) - 1}{\alpha_{i}p_{z}}J\right)p_{x}^{i}.$$

Finally, for the coordinate z we obtain

$$(40) z = -\frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 h_x^*(s) Ax(s) ds = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^d \int_0^1 h_x^i(s)^* \alpha_i Jx^i(s) ds$$
$$= \frac{1}{2p_z} \sum_{i=1}^d \|p_x^i\|^2 \int_0^1 \left(1 - \cos(\alpha_i p_z s)\right) ds = \sum_{i=1}^d \|p_x^i\|^2 \left(\frac{\alpha_i p_z - \sin(\alpha_i p_z)}{2\alpha_i p_z^2}\right).$$

Lemma 13. The Jacobian determinant of the exponential map is (41)

$$J(p_x, p_z) = \frac{2^{2d}}{\alpha^2 p_z^{2d+2}} \sum_{i=1}^d \|p_x^i\|^2 \prod_{i \neq i} \sin\left(\frac{\alpha_i p_z}{2}\right)^2 \sin\left(\frac{\alpha_i p_z}{2}\right) \left(\sin\left(\frac{\alpha_i p_z}{2}\right) - \frac{\alpha_i p_z}{2}\cos\left(\frac{\alpha_i p_z}{2}\right)\right),$$

where $\alpha = \prod_{i=1}^d \alpha_i$ is the product of the non-zero singular values of A. If $p_z = 0$, the formula must be taken in the limit $p_z \to 0$. In particular $J(p_x, 0) = \frac{1}{12} \sum_{i=1}^d \|p_x^i\|^2 \alpha_i^2$.

Proof. For any matrix with the following block structure

$$(42) M = \begin{pmatrix} B & v \\ w^* & \theta \end{pmatrix},$$

where the only constraint is that $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ is a one-dimensional block, we have

(43)
$$\det(M) = \theta \det(B) - v^* \operatorname{cof}(B) w,$$

where cof denotes the matrix of cofactors. More in general, let

(44)
$$M = \begin{pmatrix} B_0 & & v_0 \\ & B_1 & & v_1 \\ & & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & B_d & v_d \\ w_0^* & w_1^* & \dots & w_d^* & \theta \end{pmatrix},$$

where B_0, \ldots, B_d are square blocks of arbitrary (possibly different) dimension, $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ and v_i, w_j are column vectors of the appropriate dimension. In this case we have

(45)
$$\det(M) = \theta \prod_{i=0}^{d} \det B_i - \sum_{i=0}^{d} \left(\prod_{j \neq i} \det B_j \right) v_i^* \operatorname{cof}(B_i) w_i.$$

If $B_i = a_i I + b_i J$, then $cof(B_i) = B_i$. If we also assume that $B_0 = 1$, $v_0 = w_0 = 0$, we have

(46)
$$\det(M) = \theta \prod_{i=1}^{d} \det B_i - \sum_{i=1}^{d} \left(\prod_{j \neq i} \det B_j \right) v_i^* B_i w_i.$$

From Lemma 12, the differential of the exponential map has the above form, with

(47)
$$B_0 = \frac{\partial x^0}{\partial p_x^0} = 1, \qquad B_i = \frac{\partial x^i}{\partial p_x^i} = \frac{\sin(\alpha_i p_z)}{\alpha_i p_z} I + \frac{\cos(\alpha_i p_z) - 1}{\alpha_i p_z} J,$$

$$(48) v_i = \frac{\partial x^i}{\partial p_z} = \frac{\alpha_i p_z \cos(\alpha_i p_z) - \sin(\alpha_i p_z)}{\alpha_i p_z^2} I p_x^i + \frac{1 - \cos(\alpha_i p_z) - \alpha_i p_z \sin(\alpha_i p_z)}{\alpha_i p_z^2} J p_x^i,$$

(49)
$$w_i = \frac{\partial z}{\partial p_x^i} = \frac{\alpha_i p_z - \sin(\alpha_i p_z)}{\alpha_i p_z^2} p_x^i,$$

(50)
$$\theta = \frac{\partial z}{\partial p_z} = \sum_{i=1}^d ||p_x^i||^2 \left(\frac{2\sin(\alpha_i p_z) - \alpha_i p_z - \alpha_i p_z \cos(\alpha_i p_z)}{2\alpha_i p_z^3} \right).$$

The result follows applying formula (46) and observing that, for i = 1, ..., d, we have

(51)
$$\det(B_i) = \frac{4\sin^2(\alpha_i p_z/2)}{(\alpha_i p_z)^2},$$

$$v_i^* B_i w_i = \frac{\alpha_i^2 ||p_x^i||^2}{(\alpha_i p_z)^5} (\alpha_i p_z - \sin(\alpha_i p_z))(\alpha_i p_z \sin(\alpha_i p_z) + 2\cos(\alpha_i p_z) - 2).$$

Lemma 14 (Characterization of the cotangent injectivity domain). Consider the set

(52)
$$D := \left\{ \lambda = (p_x, p_z) \in T_e^* G \text{ such that } |p_z| < \frac{2\pi}{\alpha_d} \text{ and } Ap_x \neq 0 \right\} \subset T_e^* G.$$

Then $\exp_e: D \to \exp_e(D)$ is a smooth diffeomorphism and $C(e) := G \setminus \exp_e(D)$ is a closed set with zero measure.

Proof. Since all geodesic are normal and (G,d) is complete, each point of G is reached by at least one minimizing normal geodesic $\gamma_{\lambda}:[0,1]\to G$, with $\lambda=(p_x,p_z)\in T_e^*G$. If $|p_z| > 2\pi/\alpha_d$ and $Ap_x \neq 0$, then γ_λ is a strictly normal geodesic (i.e. not abnormal) with a conjugate time at $t_* = 2\pi/\alpha_d |p_z| < 1$. Strictly normal geodesics lose optimality after their first conjugate time (see [2]), hence $\gamma_{\lambda}(t)$ it is not minimizing on [0, 1]. On the other hand, if $Ap_x = 0$, for any value of p_z we obtain the same abnormal geodesic (see Remark 5). It follows that $\exp_e: D \to G$ is onto (the bar denotes the closure). Thus, $\exp_e: D \to \exp_e(D)$ is onto and $\mathcal{C}(e) = G \setminus \exp_e(D) = \exp_e(\partial D)$ has zero measure.

We now prove that, if $\lambda \in D$, then $\gamma_{\lambda} : [0,1] \to G$ is the unique geodesic joining its endpoints. In fact, assume that there are two covectors $\lambda = (p_x, p_z)$ and $\bar{\lambda} = (\bar{p}_x, \bar{p}_z) \in D$, such that $\exp_e(\lambda) = \exp_e(\bar{\lambda})$. Since the two geodesics have the same length, $||p_x|| =$ $\ell(\gamma_{\lambda}) = \ell(\gamma_{\bar{\lambda}}) = ||\bar{p}_x||$. Using Lemma 12, we have $p_r^0 = \bar{p}_r^0$ and

(53)
$$||x^i||^2 = 4||p_x^i||^2 \operatorname{sinc}(\alpha_i p_z)^2 = 4||\bar{p}_x^i||^2 \operatorname{sinc}(\alpha_i \bar{p}_z)^2, \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, d,$$

where $\operatorname{sinc}(w) = \sin(w)/w$ is positive and strictly decreasing on $[0, \pi)$. Since $Ap_x, A\bar{p}_x \neq 0$, there exist two non-empty set of indices $I, \bar{I} \subset \{1, \dots, d\}$ such that, for $i \in I$ (resp. \bar{I}) we have $||p_x^i||^2 \neq 0$ (resp. $||\bar{p}_x^i||^2 \neq 0$). Since $\alpha_i p_z$, $\alpha_i \bar{p}_z < \pi$, by (53), we have I = I'. Assume now that $\bar{p}_z > p_z$. Then by (53) $||\bar{p}_x^i||^2 > ||p_x^i||^2$ for all $i \in I$. In particular

(54)
$$\|\bar{p}_x\|^2 = \|\bar{p}_x^0\|^2 + \sum_{i \in I} \|\bar{p}_x^i\|^2 > \|p_x^0\|^2 + \sum_{i \in I} \|p_x^i\|^2 = \|p_x\|^2,$$

which is absurd. Analogously if $\bar{p}_z < p_z$, with reversed inequalities. Thus $p_z = \bar{p}_z$. Using now the equations for the coordinate x^i of Lemma 12 we observe that

(55)
$$\left[\frac{\sin(\alpha_i p_z)}{\alpha_i p_z}I + \frac{\cos(\alpha_i p_z) - 1}{\alpha_i p_z}J\right](\bar{p}_x^i - p_x^i) = 0, \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, d.$$

The 2 × 2 matrix on the l.h.s. is invertible (since if $\alpha_i p_z < \pi$), hence also $\bar{p}_x = p_x$. Thus $\exp_e: D \to \exp_e(D)$ is invertible.

Finally, no point $\lambda \in D$ can be critical for \exp_e . In fact, from Lemma 13 we have that $J(p_x, p_z) = \sum_{i=1}^d \|p_x^i\|^2 f_i(p_z)$, where each $f_i(p_z) > 0$ for $p_z < 2\pi/\alpha_d$. In particular $J(p_x, p_z) = 0$ if and only if $Ap_x = 0$. But this closed set was excluded from D.

Corollary 15. For any $x \in G$, let $C(x) := L_x C(e)$, where $L_x : G \to G$ is the left-translation. There exists a measurable map $\Phi^x : G \setminus C(x) \times [0,1] \to G$, given by

(56)
$$\Phi^{x}(y,t) = L_{x} \exp_{e}(t \exp_{e}^{-1}(L_{x}^{-1}y)),$$

such that $\Phi^x(y,t)$ is the unique minimizing geodesic joining x with y.

The next key lemma and its proof are a simplified version of the original concavity argument of Juillet for the Heisenberg group [9, Lemma 2.6].

Lemma 16. Let $g(x) := \sin(x) - x\cos(x)$. Then, for all $x \in (0, \pi)$ and $t \in [0, 1]$,

(57)
$$g(tx) \ge t^N g(x), \qquad \forall N \ge 3.$$

Proof. The condition $N \ge 3$ is necessary, as $g(x) = x^3/3 + O(x^4)$. It is sufficient to prove the statement for N = 3. The cases t = 0 and t = 1 are trivial, hence we assume $t \in (0, 1)$. By Gronwall's Lemma the above statement is equivalent to the differential inequality

$$(58) g'(s) \le 3g(s)/s, s \in (tx, x).$$

We need to prove the above inequality for all $s \in (0, \pi)$, which is equivalent to

(59)
$$f(s) := (3 - s^2)\sin(s) - 3s\cos(s) \ge 0, \qquad s \in (0, \pi).$$

To prove it, we observe that f(0) = 0 and $f'(s) = s(\sin(s) - s\cos(s)) \ge 0$ on $(0, \pi)$.

Corollary 17. For all $(p_x, p_z) \in D$, we have the following inequality

(60)
$$\frac{J(tp_x, tp_z)}{J(p_x, p_z)} \ge t^2, \qquad \forall t \in [0, 1].$$

Proof. Apply Lemma 16 to the explicit expression of J from Lemma 13, and the standard inequality $\sin(tx) \ge t \sin(x)$ for all $x \in [0, \pi]$ and $t \in [0, 1]$.

4. Proof of Theorem 2

The proof combines the arguments of [9] and the computation of the Jacobian determinant of [1] for contact Carnot groups, extended here to the general corank 1 case.

4.1. **Step 1.** We first prove that the MCP(0, N) holds for $N \ge k+3$. By left-translation, it is sufficient to prove the inequality (3) for the homothety with center equal to the identity e = (0,0). Let Ω be a measurable set with $0 < \mu(\Omega) < +\infty$.

By Lemma 14, up to removing a set of zero measure, $\Omega = \exp_e(A)$ for some $A \subset D \subset T_e^*G$. On the other hand, by Corollary 15, we have

(61)
$$\Omega_t = \exp_e(tA), \quad \forall t \in [0, 1],$$

where tA denotes the set obtained by multiplying by t any point of the set $A \subset T_e^*G$ (an Euclidean homothety). Thus, for all $t \in [0,1]$ we have

(62)
$$\mu(\Omega_t) = \int_{\Omega_t} d\mu = \int_{tA} J(p_x, p_z) dp_x dp_z$$

(63)
$$= t^{k+1} \int_{A} J(tp_z, tp_z) dp_x dp_z \ge t^{k+3} \int_{A} J(p_x, p_z) dp_x dp_z = t^{k+3} \mu(\Omega),$$

where we used Corollary 17. In particular $\mu(\Omega_t) \geq t^N \mu(\Omega)$ for all $N \geq k+3$.

4.2. **Step 2.** Fix $\varepsilon > 0$. We prove that the MCP $(0, k + 3 - \varepsilon)$ does not hold. Let $\lambda = (p_x, 0) \in D$. By Lemma 13, and recalling that J > 0 on D, we have

(64)
$$J(tp_x, 0) = t^2 J(p_x, 0) < t^{2-\varepsilon} J(p_x, 0), \quad \forall t \in [0, 1].$$

By continuity of J and compactness of [0,1], we find an open neighborhood $A \subset D$ of λ such that $J(t\lambda) < t^{2-\varepsilon}J(\lambda)$, for all $t \in [0,1]$. In particular, for $\Omega = \exp_{\epsilon}(A)$, we obtain

(65)
$$\mu(\Omega_t) < t^{k+3-\varepsilon}\mu(\Omega), \qquad t \in [0,1].$$

4.3. Step 3. To prove that $\mathrm{MCP}(K,N)$ does not hold for K>0 and any N>1, we observe that spaces verifying this condition are bounded, while $G\simeq \mathbb{R}^n$ clearly is not. Finally, assume that (G,d,μ) satisfies $\mathrm{MCP}(K,N)$ for some K<0 and N< k+3. Then the scaled space $(G,\varepsilon^{-1}d,\varepsilon^{-Q}\mu)$ (where $\varepsilon>0$ and Q=k+2 is the Haudorff dimension of (G,d)) verifies $\mathrm{MCP}(\varepsilon^2K,N)$ for [15, Lemma 2.4]. But the two spaces (G,d,μ) and $(G,\varepsilon^{-1}d,\varepsilon^{-Q}\mu)$ are isometric through the dilation $\delta_\varepsilon(x,z):=(\varepsilon x,\varepsilon^2 z)$. In particular (G,d,μ) satisfies the $\mathrm{MCP}(\varepsilon K,N)$ for all $\varepsilon>0$, that is

(66)
$$\mu(\Omega_t) \ge \int_{\Omega} t \left[\frac{s_{\varepsilon K}(td(x,z)/\sqrt{N-1})}{s_{\varepsilon K}(d(x,z)/\sqrt{N-1})} \right]^{N-1} d\mu(z), \quad \forall t \in [0,1].$$

Taking the limit for $\varepsilon \to 0^+$, we obtain that (G, d, μ) satisfies the MCP(0, N) with N < k + 3, but this is false by the previous step (these are the same arguments of [9]).

5. Proof of Theorem 4

Assume that B is bounded. In particular, $\mu(B) < +\infty$. For any k > 0 let \mathcal{H}^k denote the k-dimensional Hausdorff measure on (X, d). Let $k < \dim_H(B)$, then $\mathcal{H}^k(B) = +\infty$. By [5, Theorem 2.4.3], there exists an $x \in B$ such that

(67)
$$\limsup_{t \to 0^+} \frac{\mu(\mathcal{B}(x,t))}{t^k} < +\infty.$$

Let Ω be a bounded measurable set with $0 < \mu(\Omega) < +\infty$, and let Ω_t be its homothety with center x. Indeed $\Omega \subset \mathcal{B}(x,R)$ for some R > 0, and $\Omega_t \subseteq \mathcal{B}(x,tR)$. In particular

(68)
$$\limsup_{t \to 0^+} \frac{1}{t^{k-\varepsilon}} \frac{\mu(\Omega_t)}{\mu(\Omega)} \le \limsup_{t \to 0^+} \frac{1}{t^{k-\varepsilon}} \frac{\mu(\mathcal{B}(x, tR))}{\mu(\Omega)} = 0, \qquad \forall \varepsilon > 0.$$

Since this holds for any Ω , we have $C_{k-\varepsilon}(x) = 0$ for all $k < \dim_H(B)$ and $\varepsilon > 0$. By definition of geodesic dimension $\mathcal{N}(x) = \sup\{s > 0 \mid C_s(x) = 0\} \ge k$. In other words, for any $k < \dim_H(B)$ we have found $x \in B$ such that $\mathcal{N}(x) \ge k$, that implies the statement.

If B is not bounded, consider the increasing sequence of bounded sets $B_j := B \cap \mathcal{B}(x, j)$, with $j \in \mathbb{N}$, and observe that $\dim_H(B_j)$ is a non-decreasing sequence for $j \to \infty$.

6. Proof of Theorem 6

By contradiction, assume that $N < \sup\{\mathcal{N}(x) \mid x \in M\}$. In particular there exists $x \in X$ such that $\mathcal{N}(x) > N$. Let $\Omega \subset X$ be a bounded, measurable set such that $0 < \mu(\Omega) < +\infty$, and with $\Omega \subset \mathcal{B}(x, \pi\sqrt{N-1/K})$ if K > 0. By the MCP(K, N) we have

(69)
$$\frac{\mu(\Omega_t)}{\mu(\Omega)} \ge \frac{1}{\mu(\Omega)} \int_{\Omega} t \left[\frac{s_K(td(x,z)/\sqrt{N-1})}{s_K(d(x,z)/\sqrt{N-1})} \right]^{N-1} d\mu(z), \quad \forall t \in [0,1].$$

Indeed $\Omega \subset \mathcal{B}(x, R\sqrt{N-1})$ for some sufficiently large R (with $R < \pi/\sqrt{K}$ if K > 0). Consider the functions $s_K(t\delta)/s_K(\delta)$, for $\delta \in (0, R)$. By explicit inspection using (53) we find a constant $A_{K,R} > 0$ (independent on δ) such that

(70)
$$s_K(t\delta)/s_K(\delta) \ge A_{K,R}t, \quad \forall t \in [0,1], \quad \forall \delta \in (0,R).$$

Thus we have

(71)
$$\frac{\mu(\Omega_t)}{\mu(\Omega)} \ge \frac{1}{\mu(\Omega)} \int_{\Omega} A_{K,R}^{N-1} t^N d\mu(z) = A_{K,R}^{N-1} t^N, \quad \forall t \in [0,1].$$

Let $\mathcal{N}(x) - N = 2\varepsilon > 0$. We have

(72)
$$\limsup_{t \to 0^+} \frac{1}{t^{\mathcal{N}(x) - \varepsilon}} \frac{\mu(\Omega_t)}{\mu(\Omega)} \ge \lim_{t \to 0^+} \frac{A_{K,R}^{N-1}}{t^{\mathcal{N}(x) - \varepsilon - N}} = \lim_{t \to 0^+} \frac{A_{K,R}^{N-1}}{t^{\varepsilon}} = +\infty.$$

In particular $C_{\mathcal{N}(x)-\varepsilon}(x)=+\infty$, where $C_s(x)$ is defined in (5). This is absurd since $\mathcal{N}(x)=\inf\{s>0\mid C_s(x)=+\infty\}$.

7. FORMULA FOR THE GEODESIC DIMENSION

We recall some of the results of [3] and we prove that the definition of geodesic dimension given in this paper coincides with the one of [3] for sub-Riemannian structures.

7.1. Flag of the distribution and Hausdorff dimension. Let (M, \mathcal{D}, g) be a fixed (sub-)Riemannian structure. The flag of the distribution at $x \in M$ is the filtration of vector subspaces $\mathcal{D}_x^1 \subseteq \mathcal{D}_x^2 \subseteq \ldots \subseteq T_x M$ defined as

(73)
$$\mathcal{D}_x^1 := \mathcal{D}_x, \qquad \mathcal{D}_x^{i+1} := \mathcal{D}_x^i + [\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{D}^i]_x,$$

where $[\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{D}^i]_x$ is the vector space generated by the iterated Lie brackets, up to length i+1, of local sections of \mathcal{D} , evaluated at x. We denote with s_x the step of the distribution at x, that is the smallest (finite) integer such that $\mathcal{D}_x^{s_x} = T_x M$.

We say that \mathcal{D} is equiregular if $\dim \mathcal{D}_x^i$ are constant for all $i \geq 0$. In this case the step is constant and equal to s. The growth vector of the distribution is

$$(74) (d_1,\ldots,d_s), d_i := \dim \mathcal{D}^i.$$

Theorem 18 (Mitchell [13]). Let (M, \mathcal{D}, g) an equiregular (sub-)Riemannian structure. Then its Hausdorff dimension is given by the following formula:

(75)
$$\dim_{H}(M) = \sum_{i=1}^{s} i(d_{i} - d_{i-1}), \qquad d_{0} := 0.$$

7.2. Flag of the geodesic and geodesic dimension. Let $\gamma_{\lambda}: [0, \varepsilon) \to M$ be a normal geodesic, with initial covector λ , and $x = \gamma(0)$. Let $T \in \Gamma(\mathcal{D})$ any horizontal extension of γ , that is $T(\gamma(t)) = \dot{\gamma}(t)$ for all $t \in [0, \varepsilon)$. The flag of the geodesic is the filtration of vector subspaces $\mathcal{F}_{\lambda}^{1} \subseteq \mathcal{F}_{\lambda}^{2} \subseteq \ldots \subseteq T_{x}M$ defined by

(76)
$$\mathcal{F}_{\lambda}^{i} := \operatorname{span}\{\mathcal{L}_{T}^{j}(X)|_{x} \mid X \in \Gamma(\mathcal{D}), \quad j \leq i - 1\} \subseteq T_{x}M, \quad i \geq 1,$$

where \mathcal{L} denotes the Lie derivative. By [3, Section 3.4], this definition does not depend on the choice of the extension T, but only on the germ of $\gamma(t)$ at t=0. In particular, it depends only on the initial covector $\lambda \in T_x^*M$. We define the *geodesic growth vector* as

(77)
$$\mathcal{G}_{\lambda} := (k_1, \dots, k_i, \dots), \qquad k_i := \dim \mathcal{F}_{\lambda}^i.$$

We say that γ_{λ} is ample (at t=0) if there is a smallest integer $m \geq 1$ such that $\mathcal{F}_{\lambda}^{m} = T_{x}M$. In this case the growth vector is constant after its m-th entry, and m is called the *geodesic step*. Different initial covectors may give different growth vectors (possibly associated with non-ample geodesics when γ is abnormal). The *maximal geodesic growth vector* at x is

(78)
$$\mathcal{G}_x^{max} := (k_1^{max}, \dots, k_i^{max}, \dots), \qquad k_i^{max} := \max\{\dim \mathcal{F}_\lambda^i \mid \lambda \in T_x^*M\}.$$

Theorem 19. The set $A_x \subset T_x^*M$ of initial covectors such that the corresponding geodesic is ample, and its growth vector is maximal is an open, non-empty Zariski subset.

In particular, the generic normal geodesic starting at x has maximal growth vector and the minimal step m(x). For a fixed $x \in M$, consider the following number:

(79)
$$\mathcal{N}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{m(x)} (2i - 1)(k_i^{max} - k_{i-1}^{max}), \qquad k_0^{max} := 0.$$

Theorem 20. Let (M, \mathcal{D}, g) be a sub-Riemannian manifold, equipped with a smooth measure. Assume that, as a metric measure space (M, d, μ) , has negligible cut locus. Let $x \in M$, and let Ω be any measurable, bounded subset with $0 < \mu(\Omega) < +\infty$. Then there exists a constant $C(\Omega) > 0$ such that

(80)
$$\mu(\Omega_t) \sim C(\Omega) t^{\mathcal{N}(x)}, \qquad t \to 0^+.$$

Equation (79) is the definition of geodesic dimension given in [3]. As a consequence of Theorem 20, it coincides with the one given in this paper, when specified to sub-Riemannian structures. In this case, to compute $\mathcal{N}(x)$, it is sufficient to compute the growth vector for the generic geodesic, and use (79). Theorems 19, 20 are also proved in [3], and are based on a deep relation between the geodesic growth vector and the asymptotics of the exponential map on a general sub-Riemannian manifold.

7.3. **Proof of Theorem 5.** If (M, \mathcal{D}, g) is Riemannian, for any point $x \in M$ we have $\mathcal{G}_x = (\dim(M))$ for any non-trivial initial covector and $\mathcal{N}(x) = \dim(M) = \dim_H(M)$.

If (M, \mathcal{D}, g) is sub-Riemannian (with $k = \operatorname{rank} \mathcal{D} < n$), and equiregular of step s, let $q_i := d_i - d_{i-1}$, for $i = 1, \ldots, s$ and $p_i := k_i^{max} - k_{i-1}^{max}$, for all $i = 1, \ldots, m(x)$. Indeed $m(x) \ge s \ge 2$. By Mitchell's formula (75), and (79), we have

(81)
$$\dim_{H}(M) = \underbrace{1 + \dots + 1}_{q_{1}} + \underbrace{2 + \dots + 2}_{q_{2}} + \dots + \underbrace{s + \dots + s}_{q_{s}},$$

(82)
$$\mathcal{N}(x) = \underbrace{1 + \dots + 1}_{p_1} + \underbrace{3 + \dots + 3}_{p_2} + \dots + \underbrace{2m(x) - 1 + \dots + 2m(x) - 1}_{p_{m(x)}}.$$

Both sums have n terms and $q_1 = p_1 = k < n$. The terms of (82), after the k-th, are strictly greater then the ones of (81). Thus $\mathcal{N}(x) > \dim_H(M) > \dim(M)$.

7.4. **The Engel group.** We discuss more in detail the Engel group introduced in (Example 2). This is the Carnot group, in dimension n = 4, generated by the following global orthonormal left-invariant vector fields in coordinates $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) \in \mathbb{R}^4$

(83)
$$X_1 = \partial_1, \qquad X_2 = \partial_2 + x_1 \partial_3 + x_1 x_2 \partial_4.$$

Indeed it is a rank 2 Carnot group of step 3, with $\mathfrak{g}_1 = \operatorname{span}\{X_1, X_2\}$ and

(84)
$$g_2 = [X_1, X_2] = \partial_3 + x_2 \partial_4, \qquad g_3 = [X_2, [X_1, X_2]] = \partial_4,$$

where we omit the linear span. In particular, by left-invariance, $\mathcal{D}^1 = \mathfrak{g}_1$, $\mathcal{D}^2 = \mathfrak{g}_1 \oplus \mathfrak{g}_2$ and $\mathcal{D}^3 = \mathfrak{g}_1 \oplus \mathfrak{g}_2 \oplus \mathfrak{g}_3$. The growth vector of the distribution is (2,3,4). By Mitchell's formula (75) for the Hausdorff dimension we have Q = 2 + 2 + 3 = 7.

Let us compute the geodesic growth vector. It is sufficient to choose the curve $\gamma(t) = e^{tX_2}(e)$ (this is a normal geodesic, by Lemma 21). Using the definition, we obtain $\mathcal{F}^1 = \text{span}\{X_1, X_2\}$ and, omitting the linear span,

(85)
$$\mathcal{F}^2 = [X_2, X_1] = \partial_3 + x_2 \partial_4, \qquad \mathcal{F}^3 = [X_2, [X_2, X_1]] = \partial_4.$$

Indeed this gives the maximal possible geodesic growth vector, hence

(86)
$$\mathcal{G}_x^{max} = (2, 3, 4), \quad \forall x \in G.$$

In particular, using (79) we obtain $\mathcal{N} = 2 + 3 + 5 = 10$.

8. Proof of Theorem 10

Let (G, \mathcal{D}, g) be a Carnot group of step s and dimension n. We identify $\mathfrak{g} = T_eG$ (and its subspaces) with the vector space of left-invariant vector fields. In particular $\mathcal{D} = \mathfrak{g}_1$.

8.1. Step 1: Estimates in the fat case. We remind that a sub-Riemannian structure (M, \mathcal{D}, g) is fat (or strong bracket-generating) if for any $x \in M$ and $X \in \mathcal{D}$, $X(x) \neq 0$, then $\mathcal{D}_x + [X, \mathcal{D}]_x = T_x M$. It is well known that fat structures do not admit non-trivial abnormal minimizers [2, 14, 17]. If G is a fat Carnot group of rank k, then the geodesic growth vector of any geodesic is

(87)
$$\mathcal{G}_{x}^{max} = (k, n), \qquad \forall x \in G.$$

By (79) we have $\mathcal{N} = k + 3(n - k) = 3n - 2k$. On the other hand, the Hausdorff dimension is Q = k + 2(n - k) = 2n - k. Moreover, from (12), we have $N_R = Q + n - k = 3n - 2k$. This proves that on a fat Carnot group $\mathcal{N} = N_R$.

To prove the inequality $\mathcal{N} > N_R$ when G is not fat, let $\mathcal{G}^{max} = (k_1, k_2, \dots, k_m)$ be the maximal geodesic growth vector, with geodesic step $m \geq s \geq 2$. Let $q_i := d_i - d_{i-1}$, for $i = 1, \dots, s$ and $p_i := k_i - k_{i-1}$, for $i = 1, \dots, m$. Since $d_0 = k_0 = 0$ by convention and $d_s = k_m = n$, we have $n = \sum_{i=1}^s q_i = \sum_{i=1}^m p_i$. Thus, from (79), we obtain

(88)
$$\mathcal{N} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} (2i-1)p_i = \sum_{i=2}^{m} (2i-2)p_i + n.$$

On the other hand, for $N_R = Q + n - k$ and using Mitchell's formula (75), we obtain

(89)
$$N_R = \sum_{i=1}^{s} iq_i + n - k = \sum_{i=2}^{s} iq_i + n.$$

Arranging the terms as we did in the proof of Theorem 5, we write

(90)
$$\mathcal{N} - n = \underbrace{2 + \dots + 2}_{p_2} + \underbrace{4 + \dots + 4}_{p_3} + \dots + \underbrace{2m - 2 + \dots + 2m - 2}_{p_m},$$

(91)
$$N_R - n = \underbrace{2 + \dots + 2}_{q_2} + \underbrace{3 + \dots + 3}_{q_3} + \dots + \underbrace{s + \dots + s}_{p_s}$$

Both sums have $n-k=\sum_{i=2}^m p_i=\sum_{i=2}^s q_i$ entries. Moreover m>2 (if m=2, then $\mathcal{F}^2=\mathfrak{g}_1\oplus [X,\mathfrak{g}_1]=T_eM$ for some $X\in\mathfrak{g}_1$, which is absurd if G is not fat). Then the entries of (90), after the p_2 -th one, are strictly greater than the corresponding ones of (91), and $\mathcal{N}>N_R$.

8.2. **Step 2: Ideal = Fat.** To conclude the proof of Theorem 10, we prove that any ideal Carnot group is fat. Denote with $ad_X : \mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{g}$ the linear map:

(92)
$$\operatorname{ad}_{X}(Y) := [X, Y] = \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} e_{*}^{-tX} Y(\gamma_{X}(t)),$$

where $\gamma_X(t) = e^{tX}(x)$ is the integral curve of $X \in \mathfrak{g}_1$ starting from $x \in G$.

Lemma 21. Let $\gamma_X(t) = e^{tX}(x)$ be the integral curve of the left-invariant vector field $X \in \mathfrak{g}_1$, starting from x. Then γ_X it is a normal geodesic. It is also an abnormal geodesic if and only if there exists a non-zero $\lambda \in T_e^*G$ such that

(93)
$$\langle \lambda, \operatorname{ad}_{X}^{i}(\mathfrak{g}_{1}) \rangle = 0, \quad \forall i = 0, \dots, s-1.$$

Proof. Let X_1, \ldots, X_k be a basis of left-invariant vector fields. Indeed $X = \sum_{i=1}^k u_i X_i$ for a constant control $u \in L^{\infty}([0,1], \mathbb{R}^k)$. By left-invariance we can set x = e. A well known formula for the differential of the end-point map [2, 17] $D_u E_e : T_u \mathcal{U} \simeq \mathcal{U} \to T_{\gamma(1)} G$, gives

(94)
$$D_u E_e(v) = \int_0^1 e_*^{(1-t)X} \sum_{i=1}^k v_i(t) X_i(\gamma(t)) dt, \qquad \forall v \in L^{\infty}([0,1], \mathbb{R}^k).$$

We first prove that $\gamma_X(t)$ is a normal geodesic. Consider the covector $\eta \in T_eG$ such that $\langle \eta, X_i \rangle = u_i$ and $\langle \eta, W \rangle = 0$ for all $W \in \mathfrak{g}_2 \oplus \ldots \oplus \mathfrak{g}_s$. Then

$$(95) \ \langle (e^{-X})^* \eta, D_u E_e(v) \rangle = \int_0^1 \sum_{i=1}^k v_i(t) \langle \eta, e_*^{-tX} X_i(\gamma(t)) \rangle dt = (u, v)_{L^2([0,1], \mathbb{R}^k)} = D_u J(v).$$

Thus $\gamma_X(t)$ with control u satisfies the normal Lagrange multiplier rule with covector $\eta_1 = (e^{-X})^* \eta \in T_{\gamma(1)}^* G$, and is a normal geodesic. By definition $\gamma_X(t)$ is also abnormal if and only if there exists a $\lambda_1 \in T_{\gamma(1)}^* G$ such that $\lambda_1 \circ D_u E_e = 0$. That is, if and only if there exists $\lambda = (e^X)^* \lambda_1 \in T_e^* G$ such that

$$(96) \quad 0 = \langle \lambda, e_*^{-X} D_u E_e(v) \rangle = \int_0^1 \sum_{i=1}^k v_i(t) \langle \lambda, e_*^{-tX} X_i(\gamma(t)) \rangle dt, \qquad \forall v \in L^{\infty}([0, 1], \mathbb{R}^k).$$

This is true if and only if $\langle \lambda, e_*^{-tX} Y \rangle = 0$ for any $Y \in \mathfrak{g}_1$ and $t \in [0,1]$. Since all the relevant data are analytic, $t \mapsto \langle \lambda, e_*^{-tX} Y \rangle$ is an analytic function of t. Hence it vanishes if and only if all its derivatives at t = 0 are zero, and this condition coincides with 93. \square

Lemma 22. Let G be a Carnot group of step $s \leq 2$. G is ideal if and only if it is fat.

Proof. The implication fat \Rightarrow ideal is trivial. Then, assume that \mathfrak{g}_1 is not fat, i.e. there exists $X \neq 0 \in \mathfrak{g}_1$ such that $\mathfrak{g}_1 \oplus [X, \mathfrak{g}_1] \subsetneq T_eG$. Hence there exists $\lambda \neq 0 \in T_e^*G$ such that

(97)
$$0 = \langle \lambda, \mathfrak{g}_1 \rangle = \langle \lambda, \operatorname{ad}_X(\mathfrak{g}_1) \rangle.$$

By Lemma 21, $\gamma_X(t) = e^{tX}(e)$ is a normal and abnormal geodesic. In particular, a sufficiently short segment of it is a minimizing curve.

We learned the following fact by E. Le Donne. For the reader's convenience we provide a simple proof here, which is similar to the one in [11].

Lemma 23. Let G be a Carnot group of step $s \ge 3$. Then there exists a non-zero $X \in \mathfrak{g}_1$ such that the integral curve $\gamma_X(t) = e^{tX}(e)$ is a normal and abnormal geodesic.

Proof. If there exists a $X \neq 0 \in \mathfrak{g}_1$ such that $\mathrm{ad}_X(\mathfrak{g}_1) \subsetneq \mathfrak{g}_2$, using the same argument of Lemma 22, we show that $\gamma_X(t)$ is abnormal and normal. Let $q_i := \dim \mathfrak{g}_i$, for $i = 1, \ldots, s$. Then assume that, for any $X \neq 0 \in \mathfrak{g}_1$, we have $\mathrm{ad}_X(\mathfrak{g}_1) = \mathfrak{g}_2$. This implies $q_2 \leq q_1 - 1$. Consider a basis Y_1, \ldots, Y_{q_2} of \mathfrak{g}_2 and a basis Z_1, \ldots, Z_{q_3} of \mathfrak{g}_3 . Let $\lambda \in T_e^*G$ such that $\langle \lambda, Z_i \rangle = 0$ if i > 1 and $\langle \lambda, Z_1 \rangle = 1$, while $\langle \lambda, \mathfrak{g}_i \rangle = 0$ for all $i \neq 3$. Consider the linear maps $A_i := \lambda \circ \mathrm{ad}_{Y_i} : \mathfrak{g}_1 \to \mathbb{R}$, for $i = 1, \ldots, q_2$. Indeed dim ker $A_i \geq q_1 - 1$. Moreover

(98)
$$\dim(\ker A_1 \cap \ker A_2) = \dim\ker A_1 + \dim\ker A_2 - \dim(\ker A_1 + \ker A_2)$$

$$(99) \geq 2(q_1 - 1) - q_1 = q_1 - 2.$$

After a finite number of similar steps we arrive to

(100)
$$\dim(\ker A_1 \cap \ldots \cap \ker A_{q_2}) \ge q_1 - q_2 \ge q_1 - (q_1 - 1) = 1.$$

Thus let $X \neq 0 \in \ker A_1 \cap \ldots \cap \ker A_{q_2}$. We show that $\gamma_X(t) = e^{tX}(e)$, which is indeed a normal geodesic, verifies the abnormal characterization of Lemma 21 with covector λ . Since $\operatorname{ad}_X^i(\mathfrak{g}_1) \subseteq \mathfrak{g}_{i+1}$, we have $\langle \lambda, \operatorname{ad}_X^i(\mathfrak{g}_1) \rangle = 0$ for all $i \neq 2$ by construction of λ . Finally,

(101)
$$\langle \lambda, \operatorname{ad}_X^2(\mathfrak{g}_1) \rangle = \langle \lambda, \operatorname{ad}_X(\mathfrak{g}_2) \rangle = 0,$$

where in the last passage we used the fact that $\mathrm{ad}_X(\mathfrak{g}_1) = \mathfrak{g}_2$, that the latter is generated by the Y_i , and the definition of X. Then $\gamma_X(t)$ is abnormal by Lemma 21.

To sum up, a Carnot group of step $s \geq 3$ admits non-trivial abnormal minimizing curves, and cannot be ideal. On the other hand if $s \leq 2$, then ideal \Leftrightarrow fat.

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