# On the geometry of generalized metrics 

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We would like to dedicate this paper to Prof. L. Tamássy on the occasion of his 80th birthday


#### Abstract

We study metrics on the pullback bundle of a tangent bundle by its own projection. We investigate the circumstances under which an arbitrary metric admits a regular Lagrangian and thus an associated semispray. We present a simple coordinate-free formulation for all metric derivatives.


## Introduction

The concept of a Finsler manifold is as old as the concept of a Riemannian manifold, since it was Riemann himself who suggested the investigation of more general 'non-Riemannian' metrics in his Habilitationsvortrag of 1854 (see e.g. [21], [4]). A class of these more general metrics, called now the class of Finsler metrics, was first investigated by Finsler in his thesis (1918). However, Finsler geometers usually do not refer to a metric tensor as the cornerstone of their theory: traditionally Finsler geometry is cast in terms of a 1-homogeneous function, called the fundamental function, or a 2-homogeneous function, the so-called energy, and only secondary, is the

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'Finsler metric' introduced as the Hessian of the energy. In contrast with this point of view, in our present paper, we intend to treat Finsler metrics (and more general structures) as being prior to the energy.

Speaking in coordinate terms, the most striking difference between a Riemannian metric and a Finsler metric is that the local components of the latter typically depend also on the fibre coordinates of the tangent manifold. In the past, a lot of models have been proposed to describe Finsler geometry. In our experience it turns out to be convenient to think about Finsler metrics as a special subset in the class of symmetric and nondegenerate $(0,2)$ tensor fields of a certain pullback bundle. In the following, we will refer to all such tensor fields as metrics. In [13], M. Hashiguchi gave a necessary and sufficient condition for a metric to be the Hessian of some Finsler energy and used for the first time the adjective normal to distinguish Finsler metrics from all others.

Although Finsler geometry has proved its merit in a lot of domains in physics, biology, ecology etc. (see e.g. [2]), there remain a number of theories that need a less restricted class of metrics (see e.g. [19] Ch. XI, Ch. XII and the references therein). In this paper we will study metrics in a broader context, meaning that they need not necessarily be the Hessian of some energy. There exists a long history of attempts to generalize Finsler geometry, mainly written in the language of classical tensor calculus. Here, we will mention only two papers which have a direct link with the current paper. In [23] and [18], the two authors considered a subclass of metrics that is more general than the class of normal metrics. These two subclasses are different from each other: J. R. Vanstone, building upon earlier work of A. Moór [20], studied certain aspects of homogeneous metrics, while the metrics of R. Miron satisfy a weaker condition than M. Hashiguchi's. We will come back to the precise characterization of these two classes in the fourth section. A lot of applications in metric geometry involve the use of a metric derivative. Both papers have in common that the authors were able to provide a local coordinate formulation for a 'canonical' metric derivative in their subclass. The main reason why they could find such a formulation is related to the ability of their subclass to generate a regular Lagrangian. The regularity of this Lagrangian implies
the existence of a canonical semispray, which in turn leads to an associated horizontal distribution. In general, such a horizontal distribution is not 'canonically' available for an arbitrary metric. Its presence makes it possible to simplify the problem of metric derivatives to the search for two appropriate tensor fields on the pullback bundle. Later, in [19], R. Miron and M. Anastasiei recognized this idea in a theorem that gives an explicit coordinate formulation for all 'metrical connections' when the availability of a horizontal distribution is assumed (which is a priori not related to the metric).

After elaborating some elementary tools, we give a review on Hessians, Lagrangians and metrics in the third section. Next, we investigate the circumstances under which a metric admits a regular Lagrangian and thus an associated semispray. Section 3 ends with a survey in the form of a tabular with the most interesting cases. In the last section we present a coordinate-free description of a metric derivative associated to a given horizontal distribution and we supply a simple coordinate-free formulation for all other metric derivatives.

## 1. Basic setup

In order to keep our paper more or less self-contained, we shall start this section with a brief overview of the elementary terminology and fix some notational conventions. A recent reference for a detailed survey of this background material is the study [22].

We work over an $n$-dimensional smooth manifold $M$ and assume that its topology is Hausdorff, second countable and connected. $C^{\infty}(M)$ denotes the ring of real-valued smooth functions on $M . \mathcal{X}(M)$ and $\mathcal{A}^{k}(M)$ $(1 \leq k \leq n)$ stand for the $C^{\infty}(M)$-modules of vector fields and differential $k$-forms on $M$, respectively. $\mathcal{A}^{0}(M):=C^{\infty}(M) ; \mathcal{A}(M):=\bigoplus_{k=o}^{n} \mathcal{A}^{k}(M)$ is the exterior algebra of $M$. The familiar wedge product $\wedge$ makes $\mathcal{A}(M)$ into a graded algebra over the ring $C^{\infty}(M)$. A vector $k$-form on $M$ is a $C^{\infty}(M)$-multilinear skew-symmetric map $(\mathcal{X}(M))^{k} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}(M)(1 \leq k \leq n)$. The $C^{\infty}(M)$-module of vector $k$-forms will be denoted by $\mathcal{B}^{k}(M)$. We
agree that $\mathcal{B}^{0}(M):=\mathcal{X}(M)$ and we denote the direct sum $\bigoplus_{k=0}^{n} \mathcal{B}^{k}(M)$ by $\mathcal{B}(M)$.
$\tau: T M \rightarrow M$ is the tangent bundle of $M ; \stackrel{\circ}{T} M \subset T M$ is the (open) set of all nonzero tangent vectors. The natural projection $\stackrel{\circ}{T} M \rightarrow M$ is denoted by $\stackrel{\circ}{\tau}$. We shall remain in the smooth category, however, in Finsler geometry, the smoothness of some objects living on the tangent bundle is guaranteed only over $\stackrel{\circ}{T} M$. The elements of the kernel of the tangent map $T \tau: T T M \rightarrow T M$ of the tangent bundle projection $\tau$ form the vertical submanifold $V T M$ of $T T M ; V T M$ is the total manifold of the vertical bundle $V \tau: V T M \rightarrow T M$ to $\tau$. The $C^{\infty}(T M)$-module $\mathcal{X}^{v}(T M)$ of the sections of the vertical bundle is called the module of vertical vector fields on $T M$. The vertical lift of a smooth function $f$ on $M$ is the function $f^{v}:=f \circ \tau \in C^{\infty}(T M)$, the complete lift of $f$ is the function $f^{c}: T M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $v \mapsto f^{c}(v):=v(f)$. Any vector field on TM is uniquely determined by its action on the complete lifts of smooth functions on $M$, so, given a vector field $X$ on $M$, there exist unique vector fields $X^{v}$ and $X^{c}$ on $T M$, such that $X^{v} f^{c}=(X f)^{v}$ and $X^{c} f^{c}=(X f)^{c}$ for all $X \in \mathcal{X}(M) . X^{v}$ and $X^{c}$ are said to be the vertical and the complete lift of $X$, respectively. Now we can formulate our first local basis principle: if $\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ is a local basis of vector fields on $M$, then $\left(X_{1}^{c}, \ldots, X_{n}^{c}, X_{1}^{v}, \ldots, X_{n}^{v}\right)$ is a local basis of vector fields on TM.

The majority of our concepts will live on the pullback bundle $\tau^{*} \tau$ of the tangent bundle by its own projection. It is a vector bundle over $T M$ with total manifold

$$
\tau^{*} T M=T M \times_{M} T M:=\{(v, w) \in T M \times T M \mid \tau(v)=\tau(w)\} .
$$

The fibres of $\tau^{*} \tau$ are the $n$-dimensional real vector spaces $\{v\} \times T_{\tau(v)} M \cong$ $T_{\tau(v)} M, v \in T M$. Any section of $\tau^{*} \tau$ is of the form

$$
\tilde{X}: v \in T M \mapsto \tilde{X}(v)=(v, \underline{X}(v)) \in T M \times_{M} T M,
$$

where $\underline{X}: T M \rightarrow T M$ is a smooth map such that $\tau \circ \underline{X}=\tau$. In particular, we have the specific section

$$
\delta: v \in T M \mapsto \delta(v):=(v, v) \in T M \times_{M} T M
$$

of $\tau^{*} \tau$, called the canonical vector field along $\tau$. In the following we shall identify the sections of $\tau^{*} \tau$ with the smooth maps $\underline{X}: T M \rightarrow T M$ that satisfy the requirement $\tau \circ \underline{X}=\tau$. The $C^{\infty}(T M)$-module of such maps is denoted by $\mathcal{X}(\tau)$, and an element of this module is said to be a vector field along the tangent bundle projection. Under this identification the canonical section $\delta$ corresponds to the identity map $1_{T M}$. A special class of vector fields along the projection is formed by the sections of the form $\hat{X}:=X \circ \tau$, where $X$ is a vector field on $M$. For obvious reasons, $\hat{X}$ will be called the lift of $X$ into $\mathcal{X}(\tau)$, or a basic vector field along $\tau$. If $\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ is a local basis of $\mathcal{X}(M)$, then $\left(\hat{X}_{1}, \ldots, \hat{X}_{n}\right)$ is a local basis for $\mathcal{X}(\tau)$. This observation, referred to as the second local basis principle, will simplify a great deal of our calculations.

By a one-form along $\tau$ we mean an element of the dual module of $\mathcal{X}(\tau)$. As in the case of vector fields along $\tau$, any one-form $\tilde{\alpha}$ along $\tau$ may be regarded as a smooth map of $T M$ into $T^{*} M:=\bigcup_{p \in M}\left(T_{p} M\right)^{*}$ that satisfies the condition $\tau^{*} \circ \tilde{\alpha}=\tau$, where $\tau^{*}$ is the natural projection $T^{*} M \rightarrow M$. We denote the $C^{\infty}(T M)$-module of these maps by $\mathcal{A}^{1}(\tau)$. For any one-form $\alpha$ on $M$, the map $\hat{\alpha}:=\alpha \circ \tau$ is a one-form along $\tau$, called the lift of $\alpha$ into $\mathcal{A}^{1}(\tau)$, or a basic one-form along $\tau$. By a $k$-fold contravariant, $l$-fold covariant tensor field, briefly a type $(k, l)$ tensor field along $\tau$, we mean a $C^{\infty}(T M)$-multilinear map $\left(\mathcal{A}^{1}(\tau)\right)^{k} \times(\mathcal{X}(\tau))^{l} \rightarrow C^{\infty}(T M)$. The $C^{\infty}(T M)$-module of these tensor fields will be denoted by $\mathcal{T}_{l}^{k}(\tau)$. We agree, as usual, that $\mathcal{T}_{0}^{0}(\tau):=C^{\infty}(T M)$. The elements of $\mathcal{T}_{l}^{k}(\tau)$ may indeed be regarded as 'fields' which smoothly assign to each element $v$ of the base manifold $T M$ a type $(k, l)$ tensor on the fibre $\{v\} \times T_{\tau(v)} M \cong T_{\tau(v)} M$ over $v$. For example, if $g \in \mathcal{T}_{2}^{0}(\tau)$, then $g$ may be interpreted as a smooth $\operatorname{map} v \in T M \mapsto g_{v}$, where $g_{v}: T_{\tau(v)} M \times T_{\tau(v)} M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a bilinear form. Notice that any tensor field $A$ on $M$ induces a basic tensor field $\hat{A}:=A \circ \tau$ along $\tau$. To end this brief summary on vector fields, forms and tensor fields along $\tau$, we mention that we will also use $\tau^{*} \tau$-valued vector forms on $T M$. By a $\tau^{*} \tau$-valued $k$-form on $T M$ we mean a skew-symmetric $C^{\infty}(T M)$-multilinear map of $(\mathcal{X}(T M))^{k}$ into $\mathcal{X}(\tau)$.

Most of our canonical objects may be identified from the short exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow \tau^{*} T M \xrightarrow{\mathbf{i}} T T M \stackrel{\mathbf{j}}{\rightarrow} \tau^{*} T M \rightarrow 0 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

of vector bundles over $T M$. Here the map $\mathbf{j}$ is defined by $\mathbf{j}(z):=(v, T \tau(z))$, for all $v \in T M, z \in T_{v} T M$, while the simplest description of $\mathbf{i}$ uses local coordinates. Let $\left(U,(u)_{i=1}^{n}\right)$ be a chart on $M$, and let us consider the induced chart

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\tau^{-1}(U),\left(x^{i}\right)_{i=1}^{n},\left(y^{i}\right)_{i=1}^{n}\right) ; \quad x^{i}:=\left(u^{i}\right)^{v}, \quad y^{i}:=\left(u^{i}\right)^{c} \quad(1 \leq i \leq n) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

on $T M$. Then for any vectors $v, w \in T_{\tau(v)} M$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{i}(v, w)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} y^{i}(w)\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial y^{i}}\right)_{v}=: y^{i}(w)\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial y^{i}}\right)_{v} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The composite of $\mathbf{i}$ and $\delta$ yields another canonical object, the Liouville vector field $C:=\mathbf{i} \circ \delta$ on $T M$. The short exact sequence (1) gives rise to a short exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \mathcal{X}(\tau) \xrightarrow{\mathbf{i}} \mathcal{X}(T M) \xrightarrow{\mathbf{j}} \mathcal{X}(\tau) \rightarrow 0
$$

of modules over $C^{\infty}(T M)$, where, for simplicity, we also denote by $\mathbf{i}$ and $\mathbf{j}$ the induced maps between the modules of sections. Notice that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{i} \hat{X}=X^{v}, \quad \mathbf{j} X^{c}=\hat{X} \quad \text { for all } X \in \mathcal{X}(M) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

The map $\mathbf{i}$ is an isomorphism between $\mathcal{X}(\tau)$ and $\mathcal{X}^{v}(T M)$, so any vertical vector field on $T M$ can be represented uniquely in the form $\mathbf{i} \tilde{X}(\tilde{X} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau))$. The map $\mathbf{j}$ is surjective, therefore any vector field along $\tau$ is of the form $\mathbf{j} \xi, \xi \in \mathcal{X}(T M)$. $\mathbf{i}$ and $\mathbf{j}$ enable us to introduce our next canonical object, the vertical endomorphism $J:=\mathbf{i} \circ \mathbf{j} . J$ is a type $(1,1)$ tensor field on $T M$. Using (4) and the relation $\mathbf{j} \circ \mathbf{i}=0$, it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
J X^{c}=X^{v}, \quad J X^{v}=0 \quad \text { for all } X \in \mathcal{X}(M) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

therefore $\operatorname{Im} J=\operatorname{Ker} J=\mathcal{X}^{v}(T M)$ and $J^{2}=0$.
Although we have now explained the most important canonical objects, sometimes it will be convenient to assume the presence of an additional ingredient. A horizontal map for $\tau$ is a (right) splitting $\mathcal{H}$ : $\tau^{*} T M \rightarrow T T M$ of the short exact sequence (1), i.e. a strong bundle map such that $\mathbf{j} \circ \mathcal{H}=1_{\tau^{*} T M}$. The existence of a horizontal map is guaranteed by the second countability of the topology of the base manifold.

Let $\mathcal{H}_{v}:=\mathcal{H} \upharpoonright\{v\} \times T_{\tau(v)} M(v \in T M), H T M:=\bigcup_{v \in T M} \operatorname{Im} \mathcal{H}_{v}$, and let $H \tau$ be the natural projection of $H T M$ onto $T M$. There is a unique smooth manifold structure on $H T M$ which makes $H \tau: H T M \rightarrow T M$ into a vector bundle. This vector bundle is said to be the horizontal bundle induced by $\mathcal{H}$ and denoted by $H \tau$. Then $T T M=H T M \oplus V T M$; fibrewise $T_{v} T M=\operatorname{Im} \mathcal{H}_{v} \oplus V_{v} T M\left(V_{v} T M:=\operatorname{Ker} T_{v} \tau\right)$ for all $v \in T M$. The sections of $H \tau$ are called $(\mathcal{H}-)$ horizontal vector fields on $T M$. For the $C^{\infty}(T M)$-module of horizontal vector fields we use the notation $\mathcal{X}^{h}(T M)$, then $\mathcal{X}(T M)=\mathcal{X}^{h}(T M) \oplus \mathcal{X}^{v}(T M)$. Any horizontal map $\mathcal{H}$ makes it possible to define a lifting process of vector fields on $M$ to vector fields on $T M$. The horizontal lift of $X \in \mathcal{X}(M)$ is the horizontal vector field $X^{h}$ given by $X^{h}(v)=\mathcal{H}(v, X(\tau(v)))$ for all $v \in T M$. Evidently, $X^{h}=\mathcal{H} \circ \hat{X}$. Any right splitting $\mathcal{H}$ of (1) induces a left splitting $\mathcal{V}: T T M \rightarrow \tau^{*} T M$ of (1) such that $\mathcal{V} \circ \mathbf{i}=1_{\tau^{*} T M} ; \operatorname{Ker} \mathcal{V}=\operatorname{Im} \mathcal{H}$ and hence $\mathcal{V} \circ \mathcal{H}=0$. Thus, specifying a horizontal map for $\tau$, we arrive at the fundamental 'double exact' sequence

$$
0 \rightleftarrows \tau^{*} T M \underset{\mathcal{V}}{\stackrel{\mathbf{i}}{\rightleftarrows}} T T M \underset{\mathcal{H}}{\stackrel{\mathbf{j}}{\rightleftarrows}} \tau^{*} T M \rightleftarrows 0 .
$$

$\mathcal{V}$ is called the vertical map belonging to $\mathcal{H}$. The maps $\mathbf{h}:=\mathcal{H} \circ \mathbf{j}$ and $\mathbf{v}=1_{T T M}-\mathbf{h}$ are said to be (respectively) the horizontal and the vertical projectors determined by $\mathcal{H} . \mathbf{h}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are obviously $(1,1)$ tensor fields on $T M$, or equivalently, vector one-forms on $T M$, i.e. $\mathbf{h}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{B}^{1}(T M)$. We have the relations $\mathbf{h}^{2}=\mathbf{h}, \operatorname{Im} \mathbf{h}=H T M, \operatorname{Ker} \mathbf{h}=V T M ; \mathbf{v}=\mathbf{i} \circ \mathcal{V}$, $\mathbf{v}^{2}=\mathbf{v}, \operatorname{Im} \mathbf{v}=V T M, \operatorname{Ker} \mathbf{v}=H T M$. Thus $\mathbf{h}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are indeed projection operators; h projects TTM onto HTM along VTM, v projects TTM onto VTM along HTM. Concerning these technical tools, we collect here some useful formulae:

$$
\begin{gather*}
J \circ \mathbf{h}=J, \quad \mathbf{h} \circ J=0, \quad J \circ \mathbf{v}=0, \quad \mathbf{v} \circ J=J .  \tag{6}\\
J X^{h}=X^{v}, J\left[X^{h}, Y^{h}\right]=[X, Y]^{v}, \mathbf{h} X^{c}=X^{h}, \mathbf{h}\left[X^{h}, Y^{h}\right]=[X, Y]^{h} . \tag{7}
\end{gather*}
$$

In general there is no canonical way to specify a horizontal map. However, in the presence of some additional structure, a horizontal map may be given canonically. We recall here a well-known and very important construction.

Suppose that $\xi$ is a semispray on $M$, i.e. $\xi: T M \rightarrow T T M$ is a $C^{1}$ vector field which is smooth on $T M$ and has the property $J \xi=C$. Then the map

$$
\begin{equation*}
X \in \mathcal{X}(M) \mapsto X^{h}:=\frac{1}{2}\left(X^{c}+\left[X^{v}, \xi\right]\right) \in \mathcal{X}(\stackrel{\circ}{T} M) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

defines a horizontal lifting and, consequently, a horizontal map $\mathcal{H}$ for $\tau$. $\mathcal{H}$ will be mentioned as the horizontal map generated by the semispray $\xi$. If $\xi$ is a spray, i.e. $[C, \xi]=\xi$, then the horizontal map $\mathcal{H}$ is homogeneous in the sense that $\left[X^{h}, C\right]=0$ for all $X \in \mathcal{X}(M)$.

## 2. Derivations and Berwald derivatives

Let $r$ be an integer. By a graded derivation of degree $r$ of the exterior algebra $\mathcal{A}(M)$ we mean an $\mathbb{R}$-linear map $\mathcal{D}: \mathcal{A}(M) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}(M)$ such that $\mathcal{D}\left(\mathcal{A}^{k}(M)\right) \subset \mathcal{A}^{k+r}(M)$ for all $k \in\{0, \ldots, n\}$ and $\mathcal{D}(\alpha \wedge \beta)=$ $(\mathcal{D} \alpha) \wedge \beta+(-1)^{r k} \alpha \wedge \mathcal{D} \beta$ if $\alpha \in \mathcal{A}^{k}(M), \beta \in \mathcal{A}(M)$. The graded commutator of two graded derivations $\mathcal{D}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{D}_{2}$ is given by $\left[\mathcal{D}_{1}, \mathcal{D}_{2}\right]:=$ $\mathcal{D}_{1} \circ \mathcal{D}_{2}-(-1)^{r_{1} r_{2}} \mathcal{D}_{2} \circ \mathcal{D}_{1}$ where $r_{1}$ and $r_{2}$ are the degrees of $\mathcal{D}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{D}_{2}$, respectively. $\left[\mathcal{D}_{1}, \mathcal{D}_{2}\right]$ is also a graded derivation whose degree is $r_{1}+r_{2}$. The classical graded derivations of $\mathcal{A}(M)$ are the substitution operator $i_{X}$ (induced by $X \in \mathcal{X}(M)$ ), the Lie derivative $d_{X}$ (with respect to $X \in \mathcal{X}(M)$ ), and the exterior derivative $d$; their degrees are $-1,0$, and 1 , respectively. $i_{X}, d_{X}$ and $d$ are related by H. Cartan's 'magic' formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
d_{X}=i_{X} \circ d+d \circ i_{X}=\left[i_{X}, d\right] \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the Frölicher-Nijenhuis theory of derivations, two graded derivations of $\mathcal{A}(M)$ are associated to any vector $k$-form $K \in \mathcal{B}^{k}(M)$ : the derivation $i_{K}$ of degree $k-1$ defined by $i_{K} \upharpoonright C^{\infty}(M):=0$ and $i_{K} \alpha:=\alpha \circ K$ for $\alpha \in \mathcal{A}^{1}(M)$, and the derivation $d_{K}:=\left[i_{K}, d\right]=i_{K} \circ d-(-1)^{k-1} d \circ i_{K}$ of degree $k$. As an immediate consequence, we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { if } f \in C^{\infty}(M) \text { and } K \in \mathcal{B}^{k}(M) \text {, then } d_{K} f=i_{K} d f=d f \circ K \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

A characteristic property of $d_{K}$ is expressed by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[d, d_{K}\right]:=d \circ d_{K}-(-1)^{k} d_{K} \circ d=0 \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

For any vector $k$-form $K$ and vector $l$-form $L$ on $M$ there is a unique vector $(k+l)$-form on $M$, denoted by $[K, L]$, such that $d_{[K, L]}=\left[d_{K}, d_{L}\right] .[K, L]$ is said to be the Frölicher-Nijenhuis bracket of $K$ and $L$. If $K$ and $L$ are 0 -forms, i.e. vector fields on $M$, then $[K, L]$ is the usual bracket of vector fields. In the case $L:=Y \in \mathcal{X}(M)=\mathcal{B}^{0}(M)$ and $K \in \mathcal{B}^{1}(M)$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
[K, Y] X=[K X, Y]-K[X, Y] \quad \text { for all } X \in \mathcal{X}(M) \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $K$ and $L$ are both vector one-forms, or in other words type $(1,1)$ tensor fields on $M$, then their brackets acts by

$$
\begin{align*}
{[K, L](X, Y)=} & {[K X, L Y]+[L X, K Y]+(K \circ L+L \circ K)[X, Y] } \\
& -K[L X, Y]-K[X, L Y]-L[K X, Y]-L[X, K Y] \tag{13}
\end{align*}
$$

In our calculations over $T M$ the operators $i_{J}$ and $d_{J}=i_{J} \circ d-d \circ i_{J}$ play a distinguished role. Notice that over the induced chart (2) we have the coordinate expression

$$
d_{J} F \upharpoonright \tau^{-1}(U)=\frac{\partial F}{\partial y^{i}} d x^{i} \quad \text { for all } F \in C^{\infty}(T M)
$$

We shall need the following relations:

$$
\begin{gather*}
{\left[i_{C}, i_{J}\right]=0, \quad\left[i_{C}, d_{J}\right]=i_{J}, \quad\left[d_{J}, d_{C}\right]=d_{J}} \\
{\left[i_{J}, d_{J}\right]=0, \quad\left[d_{J}, d_{J}\right]=0, \quad\left[i_{\xi}, i_{J}\right]=i_{J \xi}} \tag{14}
\end{gather*}
$$

A more or less analogous theory of derivations of $\mathcal{A}(\tau)$ was elaborated by E. Martínez, J. F. Cariñena and W. Sarlet [16], [17], see also [22]. We shall borrow only one ingredient from this theory, the $v$-exterior derivative $d^{v}$ defined by

$$
\begin{gather*}
\left(d^{v} F\right)(\tilde{X}):=d F(\mathbf{i} \tilde{X})=(\mathbf{i} \tilde{X}) F \quad \text { for all } F \in C^{\infty}(T M)  \tag{15}\\
d^{v} \hat{\alpha}:=0 \quad \text { for all } \alpha \in \mathcal{A}^{1}(M) \tag{16}
\end{gather*}
$$

Observe that $d^{v} F(\mathbf{j} \xi)=(d F \circ J)(\xi) \stackrel{(10)}{=} d_{J} F(\xi)$ for any vector field $\xi$ on $T M$. In coordinates we have

$$
d^{v} F \upharpoonright \tau^{-1}(U)=\frac{\partial F}{\partial y^{i}} \widehat{d u^{i}}
$$

We can easily deduce the important relation $d^{v} \circ d^{v}=0$.

Lemma 1. $A k$-form $\tilde{\alpha}(1 \leq k \leq n)$ along $\tau$ is $d^{v}$-exact, i.e. there is a $(k-1)$-form $\tilde{\beta}$ along $\tau$ such that $\tilde{\alpha}=d^{v} \tilde{\beta}$ if and only if $\tilde{\alpha}$ is $d^{v}$-closed, i.e. $d^{v} \tilde{\alpha}=0$.

For a sketchy proof the reader is referred to [16]. A detailed account of $d_{J}$-cohomology is presented in K. Ayassou's thesis [3].

To complete this section about our main technical tools, first we define two partial differentials, the canonical $v$-covariant differential $\nabla^{v}$ and the $h$-covariant differential $\nabla^{h}$, next we piece these together to obtain a covariant derivative operator $\nabla$ (depending on a horizontal map), called the Berwald derivative in $\tau^{*} \tau$. The constructions goes as follows. Consider first, for a given vector field $\tilde{X}$ along $\tau$, the map $\nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{v}$ whose action on functions, vector fields and one-forms along the projection is given by

$$
\begin{gather*}
\nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{v} F:=\left(d^{v} F\right)(\tilde{X}), \quad \nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{v} \tilde{Y}:=\mathbf{j}[\mathbf{i} \tilde{X}, \mathcal{H} \tilde{Y}], \\
\left(\nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{v} \tilde{\alpha}\right)(\tilde{Y}):=\nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{v}(\tilde{\alpha}(\tilde{Y}))-\tilde{\alpha}\left(\nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{v} \tilde{Y}\right) . \tag{17}
\end{gather*}
$$

Although it may look as if we used a horizontal map in the definition of $\nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{v} \tilde{Y}$, it can easily be checked that the operator $\nabla^{v}$ is in fact independent of the choice of $\mathcal{H}$. Indeed, represent $\tilde{Y}$ in the form $\mathbf{j} \eta, \eta \in \mathcal{X}(T M)$. Then we get $\nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{v} \mathbf{j} \eta=\mathbf{j}[\mathbf{i} \tilde{X}, \mathbf{h} \eta]=\mathbf{j}[\mathbf{i} \tilde{X}, \eta]$, since $[\mathbf{i} \tilde{X}, \mathbf{v} \eta]$ is vertical. In particular, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nabla_{\hat{X}}^{v} \hat{Y}=0, \quad \nabla_{\hat{X}}^{v} \delta=\hat{X}, \quad \nabla_{\delta}^{v} \hat{X}=0 \quad \text { for all } X, Y \in \mathcal{X}(M) . \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now the formula

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(\nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{v} \tilde{A}\right)\left(\tilde{\alpha}_{1}, \ldots, \tilde{\alpha}_{k}, \tilde{X}_{1}, \ldots, \tilde{X}_{l}\right):=(\mathbf{i} \tilde{X}) \tilde{A}\left(\tilde{\alpha}_{1}, \ldots, \tilde{\alpha}_{k}, \tilde{X}_{1}, \ldots, \tilde{X}_{l}\right) \\
& \quad-\sum_{i=1}^{k} \tilde{A}\left(\tilde{\alpha}_{1}, \ldots, \nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{v} \tilde{\alpha}_{i}, \ldots, \tilde{\alpha}_{k}, \tilde{X}_{1}, \ldots, \tilde{X}_{l}\right) \\
& \quad-\sum_{j=1}^{l} \tilde{A}\left(\tilde{\alpha}_{1}, \ldots, \tilde{\alpha}_{k}, \tilde{X}_{1}, \ldots, \nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{v} \tilde{X}_{j}, \ldots, \tilde{X}_{l}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

extends the action of $\nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{v}$ to a general type $(k, l)$ tensor field along the projection. The canonical $v$-covariant differential is then the operator $\nabla^{v}$
that associates to a ( $k, l$ ) tensor field $\tilde{A}$ along $\tau$ a $(k, l+1)$ tensor field $\nabla^{v} \tilde{A}$ along $\tau$ given by

$$
\left(\nabla^{v} \tilde{A}\right)\left(\tilde{X}, \tilde{\alpha}_{1}, \ldots, \tilde{\alpha}_{k}, \tilde{X}_{1}, \ldots, \tilde{X}_{l}\right):=\left(\nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{v} \tilde{A}\right)\left(\tilde{\alpha}_{1}, \ldots, \tilde{\alpha}_{k}, \tilde{X}_{1}, \ldots, \tilde{X}_{l}\right) .
$$

In the same way as above, specifying a horizontal map $\mathcal{H}$ for $\tau$, and starting from

$$
\begin{gather*}
\nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{h} F:=(\mathcal{H} \tilde{X}) F, \quad \nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{h} \tilde{Y}:=\mathcal{V}[\mathcal{H} \tilde{X}, \mathbf{i} \tilde{Y}]  \tag{19}\\
\left(\nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{h} \tilde{\alpha}\right)(\tilde{Y}):=\nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{h}(\tilde{\alpha}(\tilde{Y}))-\tilde{\alpha}\left(\nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{h} \tilde{Y}\right)
\end{gather*}
$$

$\left(F \in C^{\infty}(T M), \tilde{Y} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau), \tilde{\alpha} \in \mathcal{A}^{1}(\tau)\right)$ we can introduce the $h$-covariant differential $\nabla^{h}$. Having these partial differentials, the map

$$
\nabla:(\xi, \tilde{Y}) \in \mathcal{X}(T M) \times \mathcal{X}(\tau) \mapsto \nabla_{\xi} \tilde{Y}:=\nabla_{\mathcal{V} \xi}^{v} \tilde{Y}+\nabla_{\mathbf{j} \xi}^{h} \tilde{Y} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau)
$$

is a covariant derivative operator in the vector bundle $\tau^{*} \tau$ in the sense that $\nabla$ is an $\mathbb{R}$-bilinear map satisfying the conditions $\nabla_{F \xi} \tilde{Y}=F \nabla_{\xi} \tilde{Y}$ and $\nabla_{\xi} F \tilde{Y}=(\xi F) \tilde{Y}+F \nabla_{\xi} \tilde{Y}$ concerning the multiplication with a smooth function $F$ on $T M$. The covariant derivative operator $\nabla$ is said to be the Berwald derivative in $\tau^{*} \tau$ induced by $\mathcal{H}$. Explicitly,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nabla_{\xi} \tilde{Y}=\mathbf{j}[\mathbf{v} \xi, \mathcal{H} \tilde{Y}]+\mathcal{V}[\mathbf{h} \xi, \mathbf{i} \tilde{Y}] \quad \text { for all } \xi \in \mathcal{X}(T M) \text { and } \tilde{Y} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau) \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

The canonical v-covariant differential $\nabla^{v}$ is intimately related to the v-exterior derivative $d^{v}$ : we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
d^{v} \tilde{\alpha}=(k+1) \text { Alt } \nabla^{v} \tilde{\alpha} \quad \text { for all } \tilde{\alpha} \in \mathcal{A}^{k}(\tau), \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

where Alt is the alternator in $\mathcal{A}^{k}(\tau)$. For a proof the reader is referred to [22]. Applying this observation, we exhibit now a convenient expression for the $d^{v}$-exactness of a one-form in terms of the operator $\nabla^{v}$. We say that a one-form $\tilde{\alpha}$ along $\tau$ is $\nabla^{v}$-exact if there exists a function $F \in C^{\infty}(T M)$ such that $\nabla^{v} F=\tilde{\alpha}$.

Lemma 2. A one-form $\tilde{\alpha}$ along $\tau$ is $\nabla^{v}$-exact if and only if $\nabla^{v} \tilde{\alpha}$ is symmetric, i.e.

$$
\left(\nabla^{v} \tilde{\alpha}\right)(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y})=\left(\nabla^{v} \tilde{\alpha}\right)(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{X}) \quad \text { for all } \tilde{X}, \tilde{Y} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau)
$$

Proof. $\nabla^{v} \upharpoonright C^{\infty}(T M)=d^{v} \upharpoonright C^{\infty}(T M)$ by (17), so $\nabla^{v}$-exactness and $d^{v}$-exactness are equivalent conditions for one-forms. In view of Lemma 1 , a one-form $\tilde{\alpha}$ is $d^{v}$-exact if and only if it is $d^{v}$-closed. Since $\left(d^{v} \tilde{\alpha}\right)(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}) \stackrel{(21)}{=}$ $2 \operatorname{Alt}\left(\nabla^{v} \tilde{\alpha}\right)(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y})=\left(\nabla^{v} \tilde{\alpha}\right)(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y})-\left(\nabla^{v} \tilde{\alpha}\right)(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{X})$, the assertion follows.

Finally, we point out that the Frölicher-Nijenhuis formalism provides a concise and extremely elegant way to define the basic geometric data of a horizontal map. Namely, let $\mathcal{H}$ be a horizontal map on $M$, and let $\mathbf{h}$ be the horizontal projector determined by $\mathcal{H}$. Then the vector forms

$$
\begin{gather*}
\mathbf{t}:=[\mathbf{h}, C] \in \mathcal{B}^{1}(T M), \quad \mathbf{T}:=[J, \mathbf{h}] \in \mathcal{B}^{2}(T M), \\
\Omega:=-\frac{1}{2}[\mathbf{h}, \mathbf{h}] \in \mathcal{B}^{2}(T M) \tag{22}
\end{gather*}
$$

are said to be the tension, the torsion and the curvature of $\mathcal{H}$, respectively. It is known that a horizontal map is generated by a semispray according to (8) if and only if its torsion vanishes (a theorem of M. Crampin).

## 3. Hessians, Lagrangians, and metrics

By the Hessian of a smooth function $F$ on $T M$ we mean the type $(0,2)$ tensor field $\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} F:=\nabla^{v}\left(\nabla^{v} F\right)=\nabla^{v}\left(d^{v} F\right)$ along $\tau$. We have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} F(\hat{X}, \hat{Y})=X^{v}\left(Y^{v} F\right) \quad \text { for all } X, Y \in \mathcal{X}(M) . \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

Indeed, $\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} F(\hat{X}, \hat{Y})=\left(\nabla_{\hat{X}}^{v}\left(\nabla^{v} F\right)\right)(\hat{Y}) \stackrel{(17)}{=} \nabla_{\hat{X}}^{v}\left(\nabla^{v} F(\hat{Y})\right)-$
$\nabla^{v} F\left(\nabla_{\hat{X}}^{v} \hat{Y}\right) \stackrel{(15)(18)}{=} X^{v}\left(Y^{v} F\right)$. Observe that $X^{v}\left(Y^{v} F\right)=\left[X^{v}, Y^{v}\right] F+$ $Y^{v}\left(X^{v} F\right)=Y^{v}\left(X^{v} F\right)$ whence $\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} F$ is symmetric, at least when its arguments are basic vector fields along $\tau$. Since the basic vector fields form a local basis for $\mathcal{X}(\tau)$ and $\nabla^{v}\left(\nabla^{v} F\right)$ is tensorial, we conclude that the Hessian of a smooth function $F: T M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a symmetric type $(0,2)$ tensor field along $\tau$. We obtain by an analogous reasoning that $\nabla^{v}\left(\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} F\right)$ is a totally symmetric type $(0,3)$ tensor field along $\tau$, and so forth.

A Lagrangian is a smooth function $L: T M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. The one-form $\theta_{L}:=$ $d_{J} L$ and the two-form $\omega_{L}:=d \theta_{L}=d d_{J} L$ are said to be the Lagrange oneform and the Lagrange two-form, respectively, while the function $E_{L}:=$
$C L-L$ is called the energy associated to $L$. In this context, we shall use the notation $g_{L}$ for the Hessian $\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} L$. We have the relations

$$
\begin{equation*}
i_{C} \omega_{L}=d_{J} E_{L}, \quad i_{J} \omega_{L}=0 \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

Indeed, $i_{C} \omega_{L}=i_{C} d d_{J} L \stackrel{(11)}{=}-i_{C} d_{J} d L \stackrel{(14)}{=} d_{J} i_{C} d L-i_{J} d L=d_{J}(d L(C)-L)=$ $d_{J} E_{L}$ and $i_{J} \omega_{L}=i_{J} d d_{J} L \stackrel{(11)}{=}-i_{J} d_{J} d L \stackrel{(14)}{=}-d_{J} i_{J} d L \stackrel{(10)}{=}-d_{J} d_{J} L=$ $-\frac{1}{2}\left[d_{J}, d_{J}\right] L \stackrel{(14)}{=} 0$.

Lemma 3. The Lagrange two-form $\omega_{L}$ and the Hessian $g_{L}$ are related by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\omega_{L}(J \xi, \eta)=g_{L}(\mathbf{j} \xi, \mathbf{j} \eta) \quad \text { for all } \xi, \eta \in \mathcal{X}(T M) \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. For any vector fields $X, Y$ on $M$ we have $\omega_{L}\left(J X^{c}, Y^{c}\right) \stackrel{(5)}{=}$ $\omega_{L}\left(X^{v}, Y^{c}\right)=d\left(d_{J} L\right)\left(X^{v}, Y^{c}\right)=X^{v} d L\left(J Y^{c}\right)-Y^{c} d L\left(J X^{v}\right)-$
$d L\left(J\left[X^{v}, Y^{c}\right]\right) \stackrel{(5)}{=} X^{v}\left(Y^{v} L\right) \stackrel{(23)}{=} g_{L}(\hat{X}, \hat{Y})$ (taking into account that $\left[X^{v}, Y^{c}\right]$ is vertical). Remark that $\omega_{L}\left(X^{v}, Y^{v}\right)$ always vanishes. Applying the first local basis principle, we can conclude the desired relation.

In order to avoid any confusion, before proceeding we emphasize that by the non-degeneracy of a type $(0,2)$ tensor field we mean the usual pointwise property (see e.g. [1], 3.1.4 Definition). This leads to a corresponding property at the level of vector fields, but not vice versa.

Returning to our Lagrangian $L \in C^{\infty}(T M)$ : it is called a regular $L a-$ grangian if the Lagrange two-form $\omega_{L}$ is non-degenerate. Due to Lemma 3, it is possible to cast the regularity condition in terms of the Hessian $g_{L}$.

Corollary 1. The Lagrange two-form $\omega_{L}$ is non-degenerate if and only if the Hessian $g_{L}$ is non-degenerate.

The proof is easy and is omitted. The regularity condition prescribed on $L$ plays a prominent role in the proof of the following well-known and fundamental fact [1], [8]: For a regular Lagrangian $L$, there exists a unique semispray $\xi_{L}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
i_{\xi_{L}} \omega_{L}=-d E_{L} \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

To verify this, let us first observe that $d E_{L} \neq 0$, since $i_{J} d E_{L}=d_{J} E_{L} \stackrel{(24)}{=}$ $i_{C} \omega_{L} \neq 0$ by the non-degeneracy of $\omega_{L}$. Thus, also for this reason, there
exists a unique, non-zero $\xi_{L}$ satisfying (26). Since $i_{J \xi_{L}} \omega_{L} \stackrel{(14)}{=} i_{\xi_{L}} i_{J} \omega_{L}-$ $i_{J} i_{\xi_{L}} \omega_{L} \stackrel{(24)}{=}-i_{J} i_{\xi_{L}} \omega_{L} \stackrel{(26)}{=} i_{J} d E_{L}=d_{J} E_{L} \stackrel{(24)}{=} i_{C} \omega_{L}$, we conclude, again by non-degeneracy, the desired relation $J \xi_{L}=C$. The semispray $\xi_{L}$ is called the Lagrangian vector field for $L$.

Tensor fields of the form $\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} L$ will be crucial in our argumentation. Therefore it is important to know exactly when a type $(0,2)$ tensor field along $\tau$ is the Hessian of a smooth function on $T M$. For a systematic treatment of this problem we need some preparation.

Definition 1. By a generalized metric, briefly a metric, we mean a symmetric and non-degenerate type $(0,2)$ tensor field along $\tau$. The function $E:=\frac{1}{2} g(\delta, \delta)$ is the (absolute) energy of $g$. The canonical $v$-covariant derivative $\mathcal{C}_{b}:=\nabla^{v} g$ of $g$ is said to be the lowered first Cartan tensor of $g$, the type $(1,2)$ tensor field $\mathcal{C}$ along $\tau$ determined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(\mathcal{C}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}), \tilde{Z}):=\left(\nabla^{v} g\right)(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z})=\mathcal{C}_{b}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z}) \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

is the first Cartan tensor of $g$. The one-form $\theta_{g}$ on $T M$ given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta_{g}(\xi):=g(\mathbf{j} \xi, \delta), \quad \xi \in \mathcal{X}(T M) \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

or the one-form $\tilde{\theta}_{g}: \tilde{X} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau) \mapsto \tilde{\theta}_{g}(\tilde{X}):=g(\tilde{X}, \delta)$ along $\tau$, is called the Lagrange one-form associated to $g ; \omega_{g}:=d \theta_{g}$ is the Lagrange two-form associated to $g$.

From Corollary 1 we can immediately conclude that if $L$ is a regular Lagrangian, then $g_{L}=\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} L$ is a metric. Its absolute energy is $E=\frac{1}{2}\left(\nabla^{v}\left(\nabla^{v} L\right)\right)(\delta, \delta)=\frac{1}{2}\left(\nabla_{\delta}^{v}\left(\nabla^{v} L(\delta)\right)-\nabla^{v} L\left(\nabla_{\delta}^{v} \delta\right)\right) \stackrel{(18)}{=} \frac{1}{2}\left(\nabla_{\delta}^{v}((\mathbf{i} \delta) L)-\right.$ $\left.\nabla^{v} L(\delta)\right)=\frac{1}{2}(C(C L)-C L)=\frac{1}{2} C E_{L}$.

Now we list some elementary properties of the first Cartan tensor associated to a metric $g$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{C}_{b}(\hat{X}, \hat{Y}, \hat{Z})=X^{v}(g(\hat{Y}, \hat{Z})) \quad \text { for all } X, Y, Z \in \mathcal{X}(M) \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

therefore $\mathcal{C}_{b}$ is symmetric in its last two variables.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{C} \text { vanishes if and only if } g=\hat{g}_{M}:=g_{M} \circ \tau, \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $g_{M}$ is a pseudo-Riemannian metric on $M$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { If } g=\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} F\left(F \in C^{\infty}(T M)\right), \text { then } \mathcal{C}_{b}(\hat{X}, \hat{Y}, \hat{Z})=X^{v}\left(Y^{v}\left(Z^{v} F\right)\right) \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

therefore if $g$ is a Hessian, then the first Cartan tensor associated to $g$ is symmetric, the lowered first Cartan tensor is totally symmetric.

Lemma 4. The Hessian $g_{E}:=\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} E=\frac{1}{2} \nabla^{v} \nabla^{v}(g(\delta, \delta))$ of the absolute energy of $g$ can be expressed in terms of $g$ and the first Cartan tensor of $g$ as follows:

$$
\begin{gather*}
g_{E}(\hat{X}, \hat{Y})=\frac{1}{2} g(\mathcal{C}(\hat{X}, \delta), \mathcal{C}(\hat{Y}, \delta))+\frac{1}{2} g\left(\left(\nabla_{\hat{X}}^{v} \mathcal{C}\right)(\hat{Y}, \delta), \delta\right)+g(\mathcal{C}(\hat{Y}, \delta), \hat{X}) \\
+g(\mathcal{C}(\hat{X}, \hat{Y}), \delta)+g(\hat{X}, \hat{Y}), \quad \text { for all } X, Y \in \mathcal{X}(M)  \tag{32}\\
\text { PROOF. } g_{E}(\hat{X}, \hat{Y})=\frac{1}{2} X^{v}\left(Y^{v} g(\delta, \delta)\right)=\frac{1}{2} X^{v}\left(\left(\nabla_{\hat{Y}}^{v} g\right)(\delta, \delta)+\right. \\
\left.2 X^{v} g\left(\nabla_{\hat{Y}}^{v} \delta, \delta\right)\right) \stackrel{(18)}{=} \frac{1}{2} X^{v}(g(\mathcal{C}(\hat{Y}, \delta), \delta))+X^{v} g(\hat{Y}, \delta)=\frac{1}{2}\left(\nabla_{\hat{X}}^{v} g\right)(\mathcal{C}(\hat{Y}, \delta), \delta)+ \\
\frac{1}{2} g\left(\nabla_{\hat{X}}^{v}(\mathcal{C}(\hat{Y}, \delta)), \delta\right)+\frac{1}{2} g(\mathcal{C}(\hat{Y}, \delta), \hat{X})+\left(\nabla_{\hat{X}}^{v} g\right)(\hat{Y}, \delta)+g(\hat{Y}, \hat{X})= \\
\frac{1}{2} g(\mathcal{C}(\hat{X}, \mathcal{C}(\hat{Y}, \delta)), \delta)+\frac{1}{2} g\left(\left(\nabla_{\hat{X}}^{v} \mathcal{C}\right)(\hat{Y}, \delta), \delta\right)+\frac{1}{2} g(\mathcal{C}(\hat{Y}, \hat{X}), \delta)+ \\
\frac{1}{2} g(\mathcal{C}(\hat{Y}, \delta), \hat{X})+g(\mathcal{C}(\hat{X}, \hat{Y}), \delta)+g(\hat{X}, \hat{Y}) \stackrel{(29)}{=} \frac{1}{2} g(\mathcal{C}(\hat{X}, \delta), \mathcal{C}(\hat{Y}, \delta))+ \\
\frac{1}{2} g\left(\left(\nabla_{\hat{X}}^{v} \mathcal{C}\right)(\hat{Y}, \delta), \delta\right)+g(\mathcal{C}(\hat{Y}, \delta), \hat{X})+g(\mathcal{C}(\hat{X}, \hat{Y}), \delta)+g(\hat{X}, \hat{Y})
\end{gather*}
$$

Definition 2. A metric $g$ along $\tau$ is said to be variational, if the first Cartan tensor associated to $g$ is symmetric (or, equivalently, the lowered first Cartan tensor is totally symmetric); weakly variational, if $g(\mathcal{C}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}), \delta)=g(\mathcal{C}(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{X}), \delta)$, or, equivalently $\mathcal{C}_{b}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}, \delta)=\mathcal{C}_{b}(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{X}, \delta)$ for all $\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau)$; normal, if $\mathcal{C}(\tilde{X}, \delta)=0$ for all $\tilde{X} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau)$; weakly normal, if $\mathcal{C}_{b}(\tilde{X}, \delta, \delta)=0$ for all $\tilde{X} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau)$ and homogeneous, if $\mathcal{C}_{b}(\delta, \tilde{X}, \tilde{Y})=$ 0 for all $\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau)$.

Since $g(\mathcal{C}(\delta, \tilde{X}), \tilde{Y})=\left(\nabla_{\delta}^{v} g\right)(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}), g$ is homogeneous if and only if $\nabla_{\delta}^{v} g=0$. In coordinates this means that the components of $g$ are homogeneous functions of degree 0 . We shall deal systematically with the weak variationality, normality and weak normality in the next section. The meaning of variationality is explained by the next

Result 1. A metric $g$ is the Hessian of a (necessarily regular) Lagrangian if and only if it is variational.

We sketch a simple proof, whose idea is taken from a paper by O. KrupKOVÁ [15]. The necessity of the condition is obvious from (31), the regularity of the desired Lagrangian is guaranteed by Corollary 1. To verify
the sufficiency, first we construct a Lagrangian for $g$ locally. Choose an induced chart $\left(\tau^{-1}(U),\left(x^{i}\right)_{i=1}^{n},\left(y^{i}\right)_{i=1}^{n}\right)$ on $T M$ according to (2). Let $\tau_{U}$ be the natural projection of $\tau^{-1}(U)$ into $M$, and let us consider the pullback bundle $\tau_{U}^{*} \tau: \tau^{-1}(U) \times_{M} T M \rightarrow \tau^{-1}(U)$. We denote the restriction of $g$ to $\tau_{U}^{*} \tau$ by $g_{U}$. If $g_{i j}:=g_{U}\left(\frac{\hat{\partial}}{\partial u^{i}}, \frac{\hat{\partial}}{\partial u^{j}}\right) \quad(1 \leq i, j \leq n)$, then for the lowered first Cartan tensor $\left(\mathcal{C}_{b}\right)_{U}$ of $g_{U}$ we have the coordinate expression $\left(\mathcal{C}_{\mathrm{b}}\right)_{U}\left(\frac{\hat{\partial}}{\partial u^{i}}, \frac{\hat{\partial}}{\partial u^{j}}, \frac{\hat{\partial}}{\partial u^{k}}\right)=\frac{\partial g_{j k}}{\partial y^{i}}(1 \leq i, j, k \leq n)$. Thus, locally, the variationality of $g$ means that the expressions $\frac{\partial g_{j k}}{\partial y^{i}}$ are totally symmetric in $i, j, k$; in particular,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial g_{i j}}{\partial y^{k}}=\frac{\partial g_{i k}}{\partial y^{j}} \quad(1 \leq i, j, k \leq n) \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let us denote by $\imath$ the natural inclusion $t \in[0,1] \mapsto t \in \mathbb{R}$, and for each fixed $v \in \tau^{-1}(U)$, let $c_{v}$ be the map given by $t \in[0,1] \mapsto t v \in \tau^{-1}(U)$. We define the functions $F_{i j}$ on $\tau^{-1}(U)$ by setting $F_{i j}(v):=\int_{0}^{1} \imath\left(g_{i j} \circ c_{v}\right)$; $1 \leq i, j \leq n$. Let $L_{U}(v):=y^{i}(v) y^{j}(v) \int_{0}^{1} F_{i j} \circ c_{v}$. Using (33) repeatedly, it is easy to check that $\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} L_{U}=g_{U}$. Having local solutions, the desired global Lagrangian can immediately be constructed with the help of a partition of unity on $M$. Let $\left(U_{k}\right)_{k \in K}$ be an open covering of $M$, constituted by coordinate neighbourhoods. Choose a (smooth) partition of unity $\left(f_{k}\right)_{k \in K}$ subordinate to $\left(U_{k}\right)$. If $L:=\sum_{k \in K}\left(f_{k}\right)^{v} L_{U_{k}}$, where $\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} L_{U_{k}}=g_{U_{k}}$ for all $k \in K$, then $L$ is a smooth function on $T M$. Since $\nabla^{v}\left(f_{k}\right)^{v}=0$, it follows that $\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} L=g$.

## 4. Variationality and regularity

In Definition 1, we have introduced the Lagrange one-form and twoform associated to $g$. For a variational metric, their interpretation is easy.

Lemma 5. Let $g$ be a variational metric, $g=\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} L$. Then $\theta_{g}=$ $\theta_{E_{L}}=d_{J} E_{L}$ and therefore $\omega_{g}=\omega_{E_{L}}$.

Proof. For any vector field $X$ on $M$ we have $\theta_{g}\left(X^{c}\right):=g\left(\mathbf{j} X^{c}, \delta\right)=$ $g(\hat{X}, \delta)=\nabla^{v}\left(\nabla^{v} L\right)(\hat{X}, \delta)=\nabla_{\hat{X}}^{v}\left(\nabla^{v} L(\delta)\right)-\nabla^{v} L\left(\nabla_{\hat{X}}^{v} \delta\right) \stackrel{(17)(18)}{=} X^{v}(C L)-$
$\nabla^{v} L(\hat{X})=X^{v}(C L-L)=X^{v} E_{L}=\left(d_{J} E_{L}\right)\left(X^{c}\right)=\theta_{E_{L}}\left(X^{c}\right)$. Since obviously $\theta_{g}\left(X^{v}\right)=\left(d_{J} E_{L}\right)\left(X^{v}\right)=0$, by the appropriate local basis principle we conclude the assertion.

By far the most important metrics are the variational metrics. In some special cases it is possible to associate a variational metric to a generalized metric $g$. As a first example, consider the Hessian $g_{E}:=\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} E$ of the absolute energy $E=\frac{1}{2} g(\delta, \delta)$. Then, due to Corollary $1, g_{E}$ is non-degenerate (and hence a metric) if and only if $\omega_{E}=d \theta_{E}=d d_{J} E$ is non-degenerate, i.e. $E$ is a regular Lagrangian. In what follows we shall call metrics that satisfy this requirement $E$-regular. Using the non-degeneracy of $g$, it is always possible to introduce a new vector one-form $\tilde{A}$ along the projection, implicity given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(\tilde{A}(\tilde{X}), \tilde{Y}):=g_{E}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}) \quad \text { for all } \tilde{X}, \tilde{Y} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau) \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

A second way to define $\tilde{A}$ uses relation (25) to connect $\tilde{A}$ with $\omega_{E}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(\tilde{A}(\mathbf{j} \xi), \mathbf{j} \eta)=\omega_{E}(J \xi, \eta) \quad \text { for all } \xi, \eta \in \mathcal{X}(T M) \tag{35}
\end{equation*}
$$

Lemma 6. A metric $g$ along $\tau$ is $E$-regular if and only if the vector one-form $\tilde{A}$, regarded as a type $(1,1)$ tensor field along the projection, is injective.

Proof. Let us remark first that by injectivity we mean here that the maps $\tilde{A}_{v}: T_{\tau(v)} M \rightarrow T_{\tau(v)} M$ are injective for all $v \in T M$. However, it will be convenient to verify the statement only at vector field level. Suppose that $g$ is $E$-regular, i.e. $g_{E}$ is non-degenerate but $\tilde{A}$ is not injective. Then there exist distinct vector fields $\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}$ along $\tau$ such that $\tilde{A}(\tilde{X})=\tilde{A}(\tilde{Y})$. So, $g(\tilde{A}(\tilde{X})-\tilde{A}(\tilde{Y}), \tilde{Z})=g_{E}(\tilde{X}-\tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z})$ for all $\tilde{Z} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau)$. It follows that $\tilde{X}-\tilde{Y}=0$, but this is a contradiction.

Conversely, let $\tilde{A}$ be injective. If $0=g_{E}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y})=g(\tilde{A}(\tilde{X}), \tilde{Y})$ for all $\tilde{Y}$ in $\mathcal{X}(\tau)$, then, due to the non-degeneracy of $g, \tilde{A}(\tilde{X})=0$, and consequently $\tilde{X}=0$. This concludes the proof.

Proposition 1. If $g$ is a variational metric along $\tau$, then we have for the vector one-form $\tilde{A}$ the formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tilde{A}(\tilde{X})=\tilde{X}+2 \mathcal{C}(\tilde{X}, \delta)+\frac{1}{2}\left(\nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{v} \mathcal{C}\right)(\delta, \delta)+\frac{1}{2} \mathcal{C}(\tilde{X}, \mathcal{C}(\delta, \delta)) \tag{36}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. We may restrict ourselves to basic vector fields. By (34), Lemma 4 , and the total symmetry of $\mathcal{C}_{b}$, for any vector fields $X, Y$ on $M$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
g(\tilde{A}(\hat{X}), \hat{Y})= & g(\hat{X}, \hat{Y})+2 g(\mathcal{C}(\hat{X}, \delta), \hat{Y})+\frac{1}{2} g(\mathcal{C}(\hat{X}, \delta), \mathcal{C}(\hat{Y}, \delta)) \\
& +\frac{1}{2} g\left(\left(\nabla_{\hat{X}}^{v} \mathcal{C}\right)(\hat{Y}, \delta), \delta\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Next, taking the $X^{v}$-derivative of the identity $g(\mathcal{C}(\hat{Y}, \delta), \delta)=g(\mathcal{C}(\delta, \delta), \hat{Y})$, it can be easily shown that

$$
\begin{aligned}
g\left(\left(\nabla_{\hat{X}}^{v} \mathcal{C}\right)(\hat{Y}, \delta), \delta\right)= & g\left(\left(\nabla_{\hat{X}}^{v} \mathcal{C}\right)(\delta, \delta), \hat{Y}\right)+g(\mathcal{C}(\hat{X}, \mathcal{C}(\delta, \delta)), \hat{Y}) \\
& -g(\mathcal{C}(\hat{X}, \delta), \mathcal{C}(\hat{Y}, \delta)) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Replacing this expression of $g\left(\left(\nabla_{\hat{X}}^{v} \mathcal{C}\right)(\hat{Y}, \delta), \delta\right)$ into the above relation, the non-degeneracy of $g$ leads to the desired formula.

Corollary 2. A variational metric $g$ is variational with respect to its own absolute energy $E$ if $\tilde{A}=1_{\mathcal{X}(\tau)}$, or

$$
2 \mathcal{C}(\tilde{X}, \delta)+\frac{1}{2}\left(\nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{v} \mathcal{C}\right)(\delta, \delta)+\frac{1}{2} \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{C}(\delta, \delta), \tilde{X})=0 \quad \text { for all } \tilde{X} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau) .
$$

As any regular Lagrangian via the Euler-Lagrange equation (26), an $E$-regular metric also generates a semispray $\xi_{E}$ by the relation $i_{\xi_{E}} \omega_{E}=$ $-d(C E-E)$. The crucial factor here is the presence of a symplectic form (in our case $\omega_{E}$ ). Next, we will introduce a new class of metrics, to which a symplectic form can also be associated. First we relate a metric $g$ with its Lagrange two-form $\omega_{g}$ utilizing the first Cartan tensor.

Lemma 7. For any vector fields $\xi, \eta$ on $T M$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\omega_{g}(J \xi, \eta)=g(\mathbf{j} \xi, \mathbf{j} \eta)+g(\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{j} \xi, \delta), \mathbf{j} \eta) . \tag{37}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Due to our first local basis principle, we can assume that $\xi=X^{c}, X \in \mathcal{X}(M)$; then $J \xi=X^{v}, \mathbf{j} \xi=\hat{X}$. If $\eta=Y^{v}, Y \in \mathcal{X}(M)$, then the right-hand side of (37) vanishes automatically, while $\omega_{g}\left(X^{v}, Y^{v}\right)=$ $d \theta_{g}\left(X^{v}, Y^{v}\right)=X^{v} \theta_{g}\left(Y^{v}\right)-Y^{v} \theta_{g}\left(X^{v}\right)-\theta_{g}\left(\left[X^{v}, Y^{v}\right]\right)=X^{v} g\left(\mathbf{j} Y^{v}, \delta\right)-$ $Y^{v} g\left(\mathbf{j} X^{v}, \delta\right)=0$. So it remains to check the statement for an $\eta$ of the
form $Y^{c}$. A straightforward calculation leads to the result: $\omega_{g}\left(X^{v}, Y^{c}\right)=$ $X^{v} \theta_{g}\left(Y^{c}\right)-Y^{c} \theta_{g}\left(X^{v}\right)-\theta_{g}\left(\left[X^{v}, Y^{c}\right]\right)=X^{v} g(\hat{Y}, \delta)-Y^{c} g\left(\mathbf{j} X^{v}, \delta\right)-$ $g\left(\mathbf{j}[X, Y]^{v}, \delta\right)=X^{v} g(\hat{Y}, \delta)=\left(\nabla_{\hat{X}}^{v} g\right)(\hat{Y}, \delta)+g(\hat{Y}, \hat{X})=g(\mathcal{C}(\hat{X}, \hat{Y}), \delta)+$ $g(\hat{Y}, \hat{X})=g(\hat{X}, \hat{Y})+g(\mathcal{C}(\hat{X}, \delta), \hat{Y})$.

Compared with (35), Lemma 7 brings the map

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tilde{B}: \tilde{X} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau) \mapsto \tilde{B}(\tilde{X}):=\tilde{X}+\mathcal{C}(\tilde{X}, \delta) \tag{38}
\end{equation*}
$$

into the spotlight. Obviously, $\tilde{B}$ is a type $(1,1)$ tensor field, or, equivalently, a vector one-form along $\tau$. Using our new ingredient we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\omega_{g}(J \xi, \eta)=g(\tilde{B}(\mathbf{j} \xi), \mathbf{j} \eta) \quad \text { for all } \xi, \eta \in \mathcal{X}(T M) . \tag{39}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proposition 2. The Lagrange two-form $\omega_{\tilde{g}}$ of a metric $g$ is nondegenerate if and only if the $(1,1)$ tensor field $\tilde{B}$ defined by (38) is injective.

Proof. For the sake of simplicity, we shall again give a proof only at the level of vector fields. The reasoning at the level of fibres is analogous and left to the reader. Suppose that $\omega_{g}$ is non-degenerate, but $\tilde{B}$ is not injective. Then there exists a non-zero vector field $\tilde{X}_{0}$ along $\tau$ such that $\tilde{B}\left(\tilde{X}_{0}\right)=0 . \quad \tilde{X}_{0}$ may be represented in the form $\mathbf{j} \xi_{0}, \xi_{0} \in \mathcal{X}(T M)$. So for all $\eta \in \mathcal{X}(T M)$ we have $0=g\left(\tilde{B}\left(\tilde{X}_{0}\right), \mathbf{j} \eta\right) \stackrel{(39)}{=} \omega_{g}\left(J \xi_{0}, \eta\right)$. Thus $J \xi_{0}=$ $\mathbf{i} \mathbf{j} \xi_{0}=0$, which is a contradiction, since $\mathbf{j} \xi_{0}=\tilde{X}_{0} \neq 0$.

Conversely, let $\tilde{B}$ be injective. Then $\tilde{B}$ is surjective as well. Therefore, if $0=\omega_{g}\left(\xi_{0}, J \eta\right) \stackrel{(39)}{=}-g\left(\tilde{B}(\mathbf{j} \eta), \mathbf{j} \xi_{0}\right)$ for all $\eta \in \mathcal{X}(T M)$, then also $g\left(\tilde{X}, \mathbf{j} \xi_{0}\right)=0$ for all $\tilde{X} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau)$. Non-degeneracy of $g$ implies that $\xi_{0}$ must be vertical, and hence of the form $J \xi_{1}$, for a certain $\xi_{1} \in \mathcal{X}(T M)$. Thus, finally, $0=\omega_{g}\left(J \xi_{1}, \eta\right)=g\left(\mathbf{j} \xi_{1}, \mathbf{j} \eta\right)$ for all $\eta \in \mathcal{X}(T M)$, which implies $\mathbf{j} \xi_{1}=0$ and so $\xi_{0}=\mathbf{i} \mathbf{j} \xi_{1}=0$. This concludes the proof of the converse statement.

It can be checked immediately that $\tilde{B}$ is injective (and therefore surjective) if and only if in any induced chart of type (2) we have

$$
\operatorname{det}\left(\left(\delta_{i}^{j}\right)+\left(y^{l} \frac{\partial g_{l k}}{\partial y^{i}} g^{j k}\right)\right) \neq 0 \quad\left(\left(g_{i j}\right)=\left(g\left(\frac{\hat{\partial}}{\partial u^{i}}, \frac{\hat{\partial}}{\partial u^{j}}\right)\right),\left(g^{i j}\right)=\left(g_{i j}\right)^{-1}\right)
$$

This local condition for a generalized metric was introduced by R. Miron in [18], so we shall use the following terminology:

Definition 3. A metric $g$ along $\tau$ is said to be Miron regular, if the $\operatorname{map} \tilde{B}: \tilde{X} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau) \mapsto \tilde{B}(\tilde{X}):=\tilde{X}+\mathcal{C}(\tilde{X}, \delta)$ is injective (in the sense that the linear maps $\tilde{B}_{v}: T_{\tau(v)} M \rightarrow T_{\tau(v)} M$ are injective for all $\left.v \in T M\right)$.

Corollary 3. For a variational metric $g=\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} L$ the condition of Miron-regularity coincides with the condition that the energy $E_{L}$ associated to $L$ is a regular Lagrangian.

Indeed, this is an immediate consequence of Lemma 5 and Proposition 2. We can push this idea a little bit further: given a metric $g$ along $\tau$, when does there exist a smooth function $L_{g}$ on $T M$, such that $\theta_{L_{g}}=\theta_{g}$ ? In such a case, Miron-regularity will turn out to be equivalent with the regularity of the Lagrangian $L_{g}$. If the Lagrangian $L_{g}$ is regular, then we can associate a semispray $\xi_{g}$ to it, by means of (26). Our next answer clarifies the meaning of weak variationality introduced in Definition 2.

Proposition 3. For a metric $g$ there exists a Lagrangian $L_{g}$ on $T M$ such that $\theta_{g}=\theta_{L_{g}}$ if and only if $g$ is weakly variational, i.e. $g(\mathcal{C}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}), \delta)=$ $g(\mathcal{C}(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{X}), \delta)$ for all vector fields $\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}$ along $\tau$.

Proof. Observe first that for any function $F$ in $C^{\infty}(T M)$ we have $\theta_{F}(\eta):=\left(d_{J} F\right)(\eta) \stackrel{(10)}{=}(J \eta) F=\mathbf{i}(\mathbf{j} \eta) F=\nabla^{v} F(\mathbf{j} \eta)(\eta \in \mathcal{X}(T M))$. Thus the question 'when is $\theta_{g}=\theta_{L g}$ for a Lagrangian $L_{g}$ ?' is equivalent with the question 'when does a Lagrangian $L_{g}$ exist, such that $\tilde{\theta}_{g}=\nabla^{v} L_{g}$ ?'. But the latter question has been answered in Lemma 2: if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\nabla^{v} \tilde{\theta}_{g}\right)(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y})=\left(\nabla^{v} \tilde{\theta}_{g}\right)(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{X}) \quad \text { for all } \tilde{X}, \tilde{Y} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau) \tag{40}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\left(\nabla^{v} \tilde{\theta}_{g}\right)(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y})=\left(\nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{v} \tilde{\theta}_{g}\right)(\tilde{Y})=(\mathbf{i} \tilde{X})\left[\tilde{\theta}_{g}(\tilde{Y})\right]-\tilde{\theta}_{g}\left(\nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{v} \tilde{Y}\right)=(\mathbf{i} \tilde{X})[g(\tilde{Y}, \delta)]-$ $g\left(\nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{v} \tilde{Y}, \delta\right) \stackrel{(18)}{=}\left(\nabla_{\tilde{\tilde{X}}}^{v} g\right)\left(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{\tilde{Z}}^{\sim}\right)+g(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{X})=g(\mathcal{C}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}), \delta)+g(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y})$, and in the same way $\left(\nabla^{v} \tilde{\theta}_{g}\right)(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{X})=g(\mathcal{C}(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{X}), \delta)+g(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y})$, it follows that (40) holds if and only if $g$ is weakly variational.

From our reasoning we infer immediately
Corollary 4. A generalized metric is weakly variational if and only if its Lagrange one-form is $\nabla^{v}$-exact.

Notice that if $g$ is weakly variational and hence $\theta_{g}=\theta_{L_{g}}\left(L_{g} \in\right.$ $\left.C^{\infty}(T M)\right)$, then we also have $\omega_{g}=\omega_{L_{g}}$. By Lemma 5 any variational metric $g=\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} L$ is weakly variational with the Lagrange one-form $\theta_{g}=\theta_{E_{L}}$. It is easy to recognize where the idea of the Lagrangian $L_{g}$ is coming from. The definition (39) of the tensor $\tilde{B}$ strongly resembles the definition (35) of the tensor $\tilde{A}$. Inspired by this analogy, let us define a type $(0,2)$ tensor field $\gamma_{g}$ along $\tau$, associated to $\tilde{B}$ in such a way that it plays the same role as $g_{E}$ in (34). To make a long story short, let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\gamma_{g}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}):=g(\tilde{B}(\tilde{X}), \tilde{Y}) \quad \text { for all } \tilde{X}, \tilde{Y} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau) \tag{41}
\end{equation*}
$$

When does $\gamma_{g}$ become a metric? The answer is conveyed in the next
Proposition 4. For a generalized metric $g$ along $\tau$ the following conditions are equivalent:
(i) The type $(0,2)$ tensor field $\gamma_{g}$ given by $(41)$ is a metric.
(ii) $g$ is Miron-regular and weakly variational.
(iii) $\gamma_{g}$ is the Hessian of a regular Lagrangian.

Proof. (i) $\Longrightarrow$ (ii) If $\gamma_{g}$ is a metric, then its symmetry implies immediately that $g$ is weakly variational. Following the same line of reasoning as in the proof of Lemma 6, we can conclude that non-degeneracy of $\gamma_{g}$ implies that $\tilde{B}$ is injective, i.e. $g$ is Miron-regular.
(ii) $\Longrightarrow$ (iii) If $g$ is weakly variational, then $\tilde{\theta}_{g}$ is $\nabla^{v}$-exact by Corollary 4, i.e. $\tilde{\theta}_{g}=\nabla^{v} L_{g}, L_{g} \in C^{\infty}(T M)$. Thus for any basic vector fields $\hat{X}, \hat{Y}$ we have $\gamma_{g}(\hat{X}, \hat{Y})=g(B(\hat{X}), \hat{Y}) \stackrel{(39)}{=} \omega_{g}\left(X^{v}, Y^{c}\right)=\omega_{L_{g}}\left(X^{v}, Y^{c}\right) \stackrel{(25)}{=}$ $\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} L_{g}(\hat{X}, \hat{Y})$, so $\gamma_{g}$ is the Hessian of the Lagrangian $L_{g}$. Since $g$ is Miron-regular, $\omega_{g}=\omega_{L_{g}}$ is non-degenerate, therefore $L_{g}$ is a regular Lagrangian.
(iii) $\Longrightarrow$ (i) This is clear by Corollary 1 .

Corollary 5. For a weakly variational metric the tensor $\tilde{A}$ also takes the form (36).

Indeed, analyzing the proof of Proposition 1, we find that it relies only on the weak variationality of the metric.

Now we have a look at the class of variational and Miron-regular metrics. Metrics enjoying these two properties at the same time will be called semi-Finsler metrics. If $g$ is a semi-Finsler metric, then the function $\tilde{E}_{L}:=C E_{L}-E_{L}$ is said to be the principal energy associated to $g$. Notice, that $d_{J} \tilde{E}_{L} \neq 0$, and hence $d \tilde{E}_{L} \neq 0$. Indeed, since $g$ is Miron-regular, the Lagrange two-form $\omega_{g}$ is non-degenerate by Proposition 2, therefore $0 \neq i_{C} \omega_{g}=i_{C} d \theta_{g} \stackrel{\text { Lemma } 5}{=} i_{C} d d_{J} E_{L}=-i_{C} d_{J} d E \stackrel{(14)}{=}-i_{J} d E_{L}+d_{J} i_{C} d E_{L}=$ $-d_{J} E_{L}+d_{J}\left(C E_{L}\right)=d_{J} \tilde{E}_{L}$.

Proposition 5. Let $g=\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} L$ be a semi-Finsler metric along $\tau$. There exists a unique semispray $\xi_{g}$ on $M$ such that

$$
i_{\xi_{g}} \omega_{g}=-d \tilde{E}_{L}, \quad \tilde{E}_{L}:=C E_{L}-E_{L}
$$

$\xi_{g}$ is just the Lagrangian vector field for the Lagrangian $E_{L}$, i.e.

$$
\begin{equation*}
i_{\xi_{g}} \omega_{E_{L}}=-d \tilde{E}_{L}, \quad E_{L}:=C L-L \tag{42}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. By Corollary $3, E_{L}$ is indeed a regular Lagrangian, so the general result quoted in Section 3 guarantees the existence and uniqueness of the Lagrangian vector field $\xi_{E_{L}}$ satisfying $i_{\xi_{E_{L}}} \omega_{E_{L}}=-d \tilde{E}_{L}$ (cf. (26)). We have remarked above (after Corollary 4) that $\omega_{E_{L}}=\omega_{g}$; this concludes the proof.
$\xi_{g}$ is called the canonical semispray of the semi-Finsler metric $g$. If $g=\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} L$ is a semi-Finsler metric, then, as a consequence of Corollary 1 , $L$ is also a regular Lagrangian. So we have another semispray on $M$, the Lagrangian vector field $\xi_{L}$ for $L$. Next we establish an important relation between $\xi_{L}$ and canonical semispray $\xi_{g}$.

Proposition 6. Let $g=\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} L$ be a semi-Finsler metric, $\xi_{g}$ the canonical semispray for $g$, $\xi_{L}$ the Lagrangian vector field for $L$. The difference $\xi:=\xi_{g}-\xi_{L}$ is the unique (necessarily vertical) vector field on $T M$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
i_{\xi} \omega_{g}=i_{\left[C, \xi_{L}\right]-\xi_{L}} \omega_{L} \tag{43}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\omega_{g}$ and $\omega_{L}$ are the Lagrange two-forms associated to $g$ and to $L$, respectively.

Proof. On the one hand we have $i_{\left[C, \xi_{L}\right]} \omega_{L}=d_{C} i_{\xi_{L}} \omega_{L}-i_{\xi_{L}} d_{C} \omega_{L} \stackrel{(26)}{=}$ $-d_{C} d E_{L}-i_{\xi_{L}}\left(i_{C} d \omega_{L}+d i_{C} \omega_{L}\right) \stackrel{(24)}{=}-d_{C} d E_{L}-i_{\xi_{L}} d d_{J} E_{L} \stackrel{\text { Lemma }{ }^{5}}{=}-d_{C} d E_{L}-$ $i_{\xi_{L}} \omega_{g}$. On the other hand, $i_{\xi_{g}} \omega_{g} \stackrel{(42)}{=}-d\left(C E_{L}-E_{L}\right)=-d d_{C} E_{L}+d E_{L} \stackrel{(26)}{=}$ $-d_{C} d E_{L}-i_{\xi_{L}} \omega_{L}$ and therefore $i_{\left[C, \xi_{L}\right]} \omega_{L}-i_{\xi_{g}} \omega_{g}=i_{\xi_{L}} \omega_{L}-i_{\xi_{L}} \omega_{g}$, i.e. $i_{\xi_{g}-\xi_{L}} \omega_{g}=i_{\left[C, \xi_{L}\right]-\xi_{L}} \omega_{L}$, as was to be shown.

Using formulae (25), (39) and (43), it is clear that if $\xi=\mathbf{i} \tilde{X}, \tilde{X} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau)$, then (due to the injectivity of $\tilde{B}$ ) this $\tilde{X}$ is the unique vector field along $\tau$ such that $\tilde{B}(\tilde{X})=\mathbf{j}\left[C, \xi_{L}\right]-\delta$.

Corollary 6. If $g=\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} L$ is a semi-Finsler metric, then the Lagrangian vector field for $L$ is a spray if and only if it coincides with the canonical semispray for $g$.

Next we turn to those special weakly variational metrics which are distinguished by the property $\tilde{\theta}_{g}=\nabla^{v} E=\frac{1}{2} \nabla^{v}(g(\delta, \delta))$, or, equivalently, for which $\theta_{g}=\theta_{E}$.

Lemma 8. $\left(\theta_{E}-\theta_{g}\right)\left(X^{c}\right)=\frac{1}{2} \mathcal{C}_{b}(\hat{X}, \delta, \delta)$ for all $X \in \mathcal{X}(M)$, therefore $\theta_{g}=\theta_{E}$ if and only if $\mathcal{C}_{b}(., \delta, \delta)$, i.e. (see Definition 2) if $g$ is weakly normal.

Proof. $\left(\theta_{E}-\theta_{g}\right)\left(X^{c}\right)=d_{J} E\left(X^{c}\right)-g\left(\mathbf{j} X^{c}, \delta\right)=X^{v} E-g(\hat{X}, \delta)=$ $\frac{1}{2} X^{v}(g(\delta, \delta))-g\left(\nabla_{\hat{X}}^{v} \delta, \delta\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left(\nabla_{\hat{X}}^{v} g\right)(\delta, \delta)=\frac{1}{2} \mathcal{C}_{b}(\hat{X}, \delta, \delta)$.

Proposition 7. Suppose that $g$ is a weakly normal metric. Then

$$
\begin{gather*}
\gamma_{g}=g_{E}, \quad \text { therefore } \quad \tilde{A}=\tilde{B}  \tag{44}\\
g_{E}(\tilde{X}, \delta)=g(\tilde{X}, \delta)=\tilde{\theta}_{g}(\tilde{X}) \quad \text { for all } \tilde{X} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau), \tag{45}
\end{gather*}
$$

and the absolute energy $E=\frac{1}{2} g(\delta, \delta)$ is homogeneous of degree 2, i.e. $C E=2 E$.

Proof. Since $\theta_{g}=\theta_{E}$ by Lemma 8 , we also have $\omega_{g}=d \theta_{g}=$ $d \theta_{E}=\omega_{E}$. Thus, for all vector fields $X, Y$ on $M$, we obtain $\gamma_{g}(\hat{X}, \hat{Y}):=$ $g(\tilde{B}(\hat{X}), \hat{Y}) \stackrel{(39)}{=} \omega_{g}\left(X^{v}, Y^{c}\right)=\omega_{E}\left(X^{v}, Y^{c}\right)=X^{v}\left(Y^{v} E\right) \stackrel{(23)}{=}\left(\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} E\right)(\hat{X}, \hat{Y})=$ $g_{E}(\hat{X}, \hat{Y})$. Hence $\gamma_{g}=g_{E}$, which implies by (34) and (41) that $\tilde{A}=\tilde{B}$. The verification of (45) is also easy. Let $\xi_{0}$ be a semispray on $M$. Then $g_{E}(\hat{X}, \delta)=g_{E}\left(\mathbf{j} X^{c}, \mathbf{j} \xi_{0}\right) \stackrel{\text { Lemma }}{=}{ }^{3} \omega_{E}\left(X^{v}, \xi_{0}\right)=\omega_{g}\left(X^{v}, \xi_{0}\right) \stackrel{(39)}{=} g(\tilde{B}(\hat{X}, \delta)=$
$g(\hat{X}, \delta)+g(\mathcal{C}(\hat{X}, \delta), \delta)=g(\hat{X}, \delta)=: \tilde{\theta}_{g}(\hat{X})$, since $g(\mathcal{C}(\hat{X}, \delta), \delta)=\mathcal{C}_{b}(\hat{X}, \delta, \delta)=0$ by our assumption. This proves (45). Finally, $C E=\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{i} \delta(g(\delta, \delta))=$ $\frac{1}{2}\left(\left(\nabla_{\delta}^{v} g\right)(\delta, \delta)+2 g\left(\nabla_{\delta}^{v} \delta\right)\right)=\frac{1}{2} \mathcal{C}_{b}(\delta, \delta, \delta)+g(\delta, \delta)=2 E$.
R. Miron studied (in our terminology) Miron-regular and weakly normal metrics. In [18], he gives a coordinate expression of a horizontal map. This horizontal map is clearly generated by the semispray $\xi_{E}$, in this case defined by $i_{\xi_{E}} \omega_{E}=-d E$. In fact, we can prove that $\xi_{E}$ is a spray. Let us calculate first $d_{C} \theta_{E}=i_{C} d \theta_{E}+d i_{C} \theta_{E}=i_{C} \omega_{E} \stackrel{(24)}{=} \stackrel{\text { Prop. }}{=}{ }^{7} d_{J} E=\theta_{E}$ and $d_{C} \omega_{E} \stackrel{(11)}{=} d d_{C} \theta_{E}=d \theta_{E}=\omega_{E}$. It follows that $i_{\left[C, \xi_{E}\right]} \omega_{E}=d_{C} i_{\xi_{E}} \omega_{E}-$ $i_{\xi_{E}} d_{C} \omega_{E}=-d_{C} d E-i_{\xi_{E}} \omega_{E}=-d(C E)-i_{\xi_{E}} \omega_{E}=2 i_{\xi_{E}} \omega_{E}-i_{\xi_{E}} \omega_{E}=i_{\xi_{E}} \omega_{E}$, and thus $\xi_{E}=\left[C, \xi_{E}\right]$.

Corollary 7. If $g$ is both variational $\left(g=\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} L\right)$ and weakly normal, then $E$ and $E_{L}$ differ only in a vertical lift.

Proof. For a variational metric $g=\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} L$ we have $\theta_{g}=d_{J} E_{L}$ by Lemma 5. Since $\theta_{g}=\theta_{E}=d_{J} E$ by Lemma 8 , we get $d_{J}\left(E-E_{L}\right)=0$. This implies easily (see e.g. [22], 2.31) that $E-E_{L}$ is the vertical lift of a smooth function on $M$.

In the cases of a variational metric with respect to $L$, a weakly variational and Miron-regular metric with respect to $L_{g}$ and an $E$-regular metric, respectively, equation (26) guarantees the existence of a unique 'canonical' semispray, which we denote by $\xi_{L}, \xi_{g}$ and $\xi_{E}$. As it can be seen from (8), these semisprays generate a corresponding horizontal map, that we will denote by $\mathcal{H}$ (in all cases).

It is well-known in the study of semisprays that an important role is played by the Jacobi endomorphism, $\Phi$ and the Lie derivative with respect to $\xi, \mathcal{L}_{\xi}^{h}$. The first is a $(1,1)$ tensor field along $\tau$ : if $\xi$ is a fixed semispray, then $\Phi(\tilde{X}):=\mathcal{V}[\xi, \mathcal{H} \tilde{X}]$. The second object is a derivation. In the same way as e.g. the definitions for $\nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{v}$ and $\nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{h}$ were cast (for $\tilde{X} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau)$ ), it is only necessary to prescribe the action of $\mathcal{L}_{\xi}^{h}$ on functions, vector fields and one-forms:
$\mathcal{L}_{\xi}^{h} f:=\xi(f), \quad \mathcal{L}_{\xi}^{h} \tilde{X}:=\mathbf{j}[\xi, \mathcal{H} \tilde{X}], \quad \mathcal{L}_{\xi}^{h} \tilde{\alpha}(\tilde{X}):=\mathcal{L}_{\xi}^{h}(\tilde{\alpha}(\tilde{X}))-\tilde{\alpha}\left(\mathcal{L}_{\xi}^{h} \tilde{X}\right)$,
where $f \in C^{\infty}(T M), \tilde{X} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau)$ and $\tilde{\alpha} \in \mathcal{A}^{1}(\tau)$. More details about this horizontal Lie derivative are available in [22].

Suppose now that a variational metric $g=\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} L$ is also given. It is possible to verify directly when a given semispray $\xi$ is the Lagrangian vector field of $L$.

Result 2 ([5], [17]). Let $g$ be a variational metric with respect to $L$ and let a semispray $\xi$ be given. $\xi$ is the semispray associated to $L$ by means of (26) if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(\Phi(\tilde{X}), \tilde{Y})=g(\tilde{X}, \Phi(\tilde{Y})) \quad \text { and } \quad \mathcal{L}_{\xi}^{h} g=0 \tag{46}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau)$.
The requirement that $g$ is variational, together with the conditions (46) are called the Helmholtz conditions. A similar version of this proposition can be found in [5], although it is cast there in the setup of time-dependent Lagrangians. However, only minor modifications on that proof lead to the statement of our proposition. It is possible to find an analogue of this statement for an $E$-regular metric or for a weakly variational and Mironregular metric.

Corollary 8. Let $g$ be an E-regular metric and let a semispray $\xi$ be given. $\xi$ is the semispray associated to $E$ if and only if

$$
\begin{align*}
g(\tilde{A}(\Phi(\tilde{X})), \tilde{Y}) & =g(\tilde{X}, \tilde{A}(\Phi(\tilde{Y}))) \quad \text { and } \\
\left(\mathcal{L}_{\xi}^{h} g\right)(\tilde{A}(\tilde{X}), \tilde{Y}) & =-g\left(\left(\mathcal{L}_{\xi}^{h} \tilde{A}\right)(\tilde{X}), \tilde{Y}\right) \tag{47}
\end{align*}
$$

for all $\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau)$.
Proof. In this case $\xi$ must obey the conditions of Result 2 with respect to the variational metric $g_{E}$. Using (34), the first condition in (47) follows immediately, while also $0=\left(\mathcal{L}_{\xi}^{h} g_{E}\right)(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y})=\mathcal{L}_{\xi}^{h}\left(g_{E}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y})\right)-$ $g_{E}\left(\mathcal{L}_{\xi}^{h} \tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}\right)-g_{E}\left(\tilde{X}, \mathcal{L}_{\xi}^{h} \tilde{Y}\right) \stackrel{(34)}{=} \mathcal{L}_{\xi}^{h}(g(\tilde{A}(\tilde{X}), \tilde{Y}))-g\left(\tilde{A}\left(\mathcal{L}_{\xi}^{h} \tilde{X}\right), \tilde{Y}\right)-$ $g\left(\tilde{A}(\tilde{X}), \mathcal{L}_{\xi}^{h} \tilde{Y}\right)=\left(\mathcal{L}_{\xi}^{h} g\right)(\tilde{A}(\tilde{X}), \tilde{Y})-g\left(\tilde{A}\left(\mathcal{L}_{\xi}^{h} \tilde{X}\right), \tilde{Y}\right)+g\left(\mathcal{L}_{\xi}^{h}(\tilde{A}(\tilde{X})), \tilde{Y}\right)=$ $\left(\mathcal{L}_{\xi}^{h} g\right)(\tilde{A}(\tilde{X}), \tilde{Y})+g\left(\left(\mathcal{L}_{\xi}^{h} \tilde{A}\right)(\tilde{X}), \tilde{Y}\right)$.

Corollary 9. Let $g$ be a Miron-regular and weakly variational metric with respect to $L_{g}$ and let a semispray $\xi$ be given. $\xi$ is the semispray associated to $L_{g}$ if and only if

$$
\begin{align*}
g(\tilde{B}(\Phi(\tilde{X})), \tilde{Y}) & =g(\tilde{X}, \tilde{B}(\Phi(\tilde{Y}))) \quad \text { and } \\
\left(\mathcal{L}_{\xi}^{h} g\right)(\tilde{B}(\tilde{X}), \tilde{Y}) & =-g\left(\left(\mathcal{L}_{\xi}^{h} \tilde{B}\right)(\tilde{X}), \tilde{Y}\right) \tag{48}
\end{align*}
$$

for all $\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau)$.
Proof. We can follow the same line of reasoning as in the previous corollary, if we substitute $\gamma_{g}$ for $g_{E}$ and $\tilde{B}$ for $\tilde{A}$.

The last corollary can be useful because, even if we do not know exactly the Lagrangian $L_{g}$, we can always check the conditions (48) on a given semispray to conclude if it is indeed the canonical semispray of the given weakly variational and Miron-regular metric.

We are now ready to recover Finsler geometry.
Proposition 8. A metric is variational with respect to a homogeneous function of degree 2 if and only if it is normal, i.e. $\mathcal{C}(\tilde{X}, \delta)=0$ for all $\tilde{X} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau)$.

Proof. Suppose first that $g=\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} L$, where $C L=2 L$. Then for all vector fields $X, Y$ on $M$ we have $2 X^{v}\left(Y^{v} L\right)=X^{v}\left(Y^{v}(C L)\right)=$ $X^{v}\left(\left[Y^{v}, C\right] L+C\left(Y^{v} L\right)\right)=X^{v}\left(Y^{v} L\right)+\left[X^{v}, C\right]\left(Y^{v} L\right)+C\left(X^{v}\left(Y^{v} L\right)\right)=$ $2 X^{v}\left(Y^{v} L\right)+C\left(X^{v}\left(Y^{v} L\right)\right)$, hence $0=C\left(X^{v}\left(Y^{v} L\right)\right)=C\left(\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} L(\hat{X}, \hat{Y})\right)=$ $C(g(\hat{X}, \hat{Y}))=\left(\nabla_{\delta}^{v} g\right)(\hat{X}, \hat{Y})=g(\mathcal{C}(\delta, \hat{X}), \hat{Y}) \stackrel{\text { Res. }}{=}{ }_{\tilde{B}} g(\mathcal{C}(\hat{X}, \delta), \hat{Y})$; so we obtain $\mathcal{C}(., \delta)=0$. Conversely, if $g$ is normal, then $\tilde{B}=1_{\mathcal{X}(\tau)}$ by (38), and hence $\tilde{A}=1_{\mathcal{X}(\tau)}$ by Proposition 7. Thus $g=\gamma_{g}=g_{E}=\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} E$, proving that $g$ is variational. Here the energy $E$ is homogeneous of degree two, also by Proposition 7.

Corollary 10. For a homogeneous metric, variationality and normality are equivalent conditions.

Before going on, let us see an immediate way to obtain a normal metric.
Corollary 11. If $g$ is a weakly normal and $E$-regular (or, equivalently, Miron-regular) metric, then $g_{E}$ is normal.

Proof. Since $g$ is weakly normal, we have $C E=2 E$. The $E$-regularity of $g$ implies, that $g_{E}$ is a variational metric, namely $g_{E}=\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} E$, so Proposition 8 leads to the desired conclusion.

As stated in the Introduction, a Finsler metric is the Hessian of a Lagrangian $E$. To be more precise: $E$ is assumed to be of class $C^{1}$ on $T M$, smooth on $\stackrel{\circ}{T} M$, positive-homogeneous of degree 2, and, of course, it is required that the two-form $d d_{J} E$ is non-degenerate. As is well-known, the weakening of the differentiability is necessary: if $E$ is (at least) of class $C^{2}$ on the whole tangent manifold $T M$, then the first Cartan tensor of $g_{E}$ vanishes, and $g_{E}$ comes from a pseudo-Riemannian metric on $M$ (see (30)). It follows from our above considerations that if $g$ is a metric in the pullback bundle of $\tau$ by the map $\stackrel{\circ}{\tau}: \stackrel{\circ}{T} M \rightarrow M$, and satisfies the normality condition $\mathcal{C}(., \delta)=0$, then $g$ is a Finsler metric, and $(M, E), E:=\frac{1}{2} g(\delta, \delta)$, is a Finsler manifold in the usual sense. (The only, minor difficulty is to check that $E$ has a (unique) $C^{1}$-extension into $T M$; for this technicality we refer to [22].)

Thus, roughly speaking, normal metrics lead to the territory of Finsler geometry. According to our preceding remark, when we speak of a normal metric $g$, we shall always assume (at least tacitly) that $g$ lives in the pullback bundle $\stackrel{\circ}{\tau}^{*} \tau$.

We end this section with a summarizing tabular:

| metric | no <br> condition | weakly <br> variational | weakly <br> normal | variational | variational <br> with respect to $E$ | normal |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $g$ | - | - | - | $\exists L$ | $L=E$ | $L=E$ |
| $\gamma_{g}$ | - | $\exists L_{g}$ | $L_{g}=E$ | $L_{g}=E_{L}$ | $L_{g}=C E-E$ | $L_{g}=E$ |
| $g_{E}$ | $E$ | $E$ | $E=L_{g}$ | $E=\frac{1}{2} C E_{L}$ | $E=\frac{1}{2}(C C E-C E)$ | $E=E$ |

Comment. For an arbitrary generalized metric it is possible that its absolute energy $E$ is regular. When we start to impose restrictions on the metric, we get two main subclasses: the class of variational metrics (meaning that there should exist a Lagrangian $L$ ) and the class of weakly variational metrics (providing the existence of a Lagrangian $L_{g}$ via Proposition 3). The regularity of the Lagrangian $L$ is guaranteed; that of $L_{g}$ has to be imposed (Miron-regularity, see Proposition 4). For each class we can
consider a subcategory, consisting of those special metrics where the Lagrangian ( $L$ or $L_{g}$ ) is exactly the absolute energy $E$, so we get metrics that are variational with respect to $E$ (column 6) and weakly normal metrics (column 4). In these cases, the regularity of $L$ and $L_{g}$ coincides with the regularity of $E$. The two subclasses have a non-empty intersection with each other, constituted by those metrics that are both variational with respect to $E$ and weakly variational with respect to $E$. In the intersection, $L_{g}=C E-E$ should also be $E$, and thus $E$ is homogeneous of degree 2 . In accordance with Proposition 8, we mention here the metrics that are variational with respect to a homogeneous function of degree 2 , normal (column 7).

## 5. The metric derivatives

In this section we will give an elegant formulation for all metric derivatives. We assume that $g$ is a metric along $\tau$ and that a horizontal map $\mathcal{H}: \mathcal{X}(\tau) \rightarrow \mathcal{X}(T M)$ is specified. A covariant derivative operator $D$ in $\tau^{*} \tau$ is said to be metric if $\xi g(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z})=g\left(D_{\xi} \tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z}\right)+g\left(\tilde{Y}, D_{\xi} \tilde{Z}\right)$ for all $\xi \in \mathcal{X}(T M)$ and $\tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau)$. Equivalently, once a horizontal map $\mathcal{H}$ is specified, $D$ is metric if it is both $v$-metric and $h$-metric, i.e. if we have $\mathbf{i} \tilde{X} g(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z})=$ $g\left(D_{\tilde{X}}^{v} \tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z}\right)+g\left(\tilde{Y}, D_{\tilde{X}}^{v} \tilde{Z}\right)$ and $\mathcal{H} \tilde{X} g(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z})=g\left(D_{\tilde{X}}^{h} \tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z}\right)+g\left(\tilde{Y}, D_{\tilde{X}}^{h} \tilde{Z}\right)$, where $D_{\tilde{X}}^{v} \tilde{Y}:=D_{\mathbf{i} \tilde{X}} \tilde{Y}, D_{\tilde{X}}^{h} \tilde{Y}=D_{\mathcal{H} \tilde{X}} \tilde{Y}, \tilde{X} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau)$. Applying the covariant exterior derivative $d^{D}$ with respect to $D$, we now define the torsions of $D$. If $K: \mathcal{X}(T M) \rightarrow \mathcal{X}(\tau)$ is a $\tau^{*} \tau$-valued one-form on $T M$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
d^{D} K(\xi, \eta):=D_{\xi}(K \eta)-D_{\eta}(K \xi)-K[\xi, \eta] ; \quad \xi, \eta \in \mathcal{X}(T M) . \tag{49}
\end{equation*}
$$

(A general definition of $d^{D}$ in the context of vector bundles can be found in [10].) The canonical map $\mathbf{j}$ and the vertical map $\mathcal{V}$ belonging to $\mathcal{H}$ may be regarded as $\tau^{*} \tau$-valued one-forms on $T M$; their covariant exterior derivatives $T^{v}(D):=d^{D} \mathcal{V}$ and $T^{h}(D):=d^{D} \mathbf{j}$ are said to be the vertical and the horizontal torsion of $D$, respectively (although $T^{h}(D)$ does not depend on any horizontal structure). With the help of $T^{h}(D)$, we define the $h$-horizontal torsion $\mathcal{T}$ and the $h$-mixed torsion $\mathcal{S}$ of $D$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{T}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}):=T^{h}(D)(\mathcal{H} \tilde{X}, \mathcal{H} \tilde{Y}) \stackrel{(49)}{=} D_{\mathcal{H} \tilde{X}} \tilde{Y}-D_{\mathcal{H} \tilde{Y}} \tilde{X}-\mathbf{j}[\mathcal{H} \tilde{X}, \mathcal{H} \tilde{Y}] \tag{50}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{S}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}) & :=T^{h}(D)(\mathcal{H} \tilde{X}, \mathbf{i} \tilde{Y}) \stackrel{(49)}{=}-D_{\mathbf{i} \tilde{Y}} \tilde{X}-\mathbf{j}[\mathcal{H} \tilde{X}, \mathbf{i} \tilde{Y}] \\
& \stackrel{(17)}{=}-D_{\mathbf{i} \tilde{Y}} \tilde{X}+\nabla_{\mathbf{i} \tilde{Y}} \tilde{X} \tag{51}
\end{align*}
$$

Following [9], a covariant derivative $D$ in $\tau^{*} \tau$ is called symmetric, if $\mathcal{T}=0$ and $\mathcal{S}$ is symmetric. Using $T^{v}(D)$, it is possible to define three more partial torsions of $D$, the $v$-horizontal torsion $\mathcal{R}^{1}$, the $v$-mixed torsion $\mathcal{P}^{1}$, and the $v$-vertical torsion $\mathcal{Q}^{1}$ :

$$
\begin{align*}
& \mathcal{R}^{1}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}):=T^{v}(D)(\mathcal{H} \tilde{X}, \mathcal{H} \tilde{Y})=-\mathcal{V}[\mathcal{H} \tilde{X}, \mathcal{H} \tilde{Y}]  \tag{52}\\
& \mathcal{P}^{1}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}):=T^{v}(D)(\mathcal{H} \tilde{X}, \mathbf{i} \tilde{Y})=D_{\mathcal{H}} \tilde{X} \tilde{Y}-\mathcal{V}[\mathcal{H} \tilde{X}, \mathbf{i} \tilde{Y}]  \tag{53}\\
& \stackrel{(19)}{=} D_{\mathcal{H}} \tilde{X} \tilde{Y}-\nabla_{\mathcal{H}} \tilde{X} \tilde{Y} \\
& \mathcal{Q}^{1}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}):=T^{v}(D)(\mathbf{i} \tilde{X}, \mathbf{i} \tilde{Y})=D_{\mathbf{i} \tilde{X}} \tilde{Y}-D_{\mathbf{i} \tilde{Y}} \tilde{X}-\mathcal{V}[\mathbf{i} \tilde{X}, \mathbf{i} \tilde{Y}] \tag{54}
\end{align*}
$$

Observe that $\mathcal{R}^{1}$ does not depend on the covariant derivative operator $D$ : since

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{i} \mathcal{R}^{1}(\mathbf{j} \xi, \mathbf{j} \eta)=-\mathbf{v}[\mathbf{h} \xi, \mathbf{h} \eta]=\Omega(\xi, \eta) \quad \text { for all } \xi, \eta \in \mathcal{X}(T M) \tag{55}
\end{equation*}
$$

(see (13) and (23)), $\mathcal{R}^{1}$ is merely another expression for the curvature of $\mathcal{H}$. It can also readily be seen that a covariant derivative operator in $\tau^{*} \tau$ is completely determined, once one has given two $\tau^{*} \tau$-valued two-forms to play the role of the $h$-mixed and $v$-mixed torsions. In particular, as it can be seen at once from (51) and (54), the choice $\mathcal{S}=0, \mathcal{P}^{1}=0$ leads to the Berwald derivative $\nabla$ induced by $\mathcal{H}$. We denote the torsions of $\nabla$ by $\stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{T}}, \stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{S}}$, etc. Another remark will also be appropriate. Let $X, Y \in \mathcal{X}(M)$. Then $\mathbf{i} \stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{T}}\left(\mathbf{j} X^{h}, \mathbf{j} Y^{h}\right)=\mathbf{i} \stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{T}}(\hat{X}, \hat{Y}) \stackrel{(50)}{=} \mathbf{i} \nabla_{X^{h}} \hat{Y}-\mathbf{i} \nabla_{Y^{h}} \hat{X}-J\left[X^{h}, Y^{h}\right] \stackrel{(19)(7)}{=}$ $\left[X^{h}, Y^{v}\right]-\left[Y^{h}, X^{v}\right]-[X, Y]^{v}$. On the other hand, applying (12), (6) and (7), we get $\mathbf{T}\left(X^{h}, Y^{h}\right) \stackrel{(23)}{:=}[J, \mathbf{h}]\left(X^{h}, Y^{h}\right)=\left[X^{h}, Y^{v}\right]-\left[Y^{h}, X^{v}\right]-[X, Y]^{v}$, therefore

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{i} \stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{T}}\left(\mathbf{j} X^{h}, \mathbf{j} Y^{h}\right)=\mathbf{T}\left(X^{h}, Y^{h}\right) \quad \text { for all } X, Y \in \mathcal{X}(M) \tag{56}
\end{equation*}
$$

This means that the $h$-horizontal torsion of the Berwald derivative induced by $\mathcal{H}$ and the torsion of $\mathcal{H}$ contain the same information.

Our next objective is to construct a metric derivative which has as many vanishing partial torsions as possible. To achieve this, we need the lowered second Cartan tensor $\mathcal{C}_{b}^{h}:=\nabla^{h} g$ and its metrical equivalent, the second Cartan tensor $\mathcal{C}^{h}$ defined by $g\left(\mathcal{C}^{h}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}), \tilde{Z}\right):=\mathcal{C}_{b}^{h}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z}):=$ $\left(\nabla_{\tilde{X}}^{h} g\right)(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z})$ for all $\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau)$.

Lemma 9. The tensors $\stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{C}}^{\text {and }} \stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{C}}^{h}$ given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
g(\stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{C}}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}), \tilde{Z}) & :=\mathcal{C}_{b}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z})+\mathcal{C}_{b}(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z}, \tilde{X})-\mathcal{C}_{b}(\tilde{Z}, \tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}) \quad \text { and } \\
g\left(\mathcal{C}^{h}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}), \tilde{Z}\right) & :=\mathcal{C}_{b}^{h}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z})+\mathcal{C}_{b}^{h}(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z}, \tilde{X})-\mathcal{C}_{b}^{h}(\tilde{Z}, \tilde{X}, \tilde{Y})
\end{aligned}
$$

are well-defined, symmetric (1,2) tensor fields along $\tau$.
Indeed, well-definedness is assured by non-degeneracy of $g$. Since both $\mathcal{C}_{b}$ and $\mathcal{C}_{b}^{h}$ are symmetric in their last two arguments, it follows that $\stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{C}}$ and $\mathcal{C}^{\circ}$ are symmetric. Some easy consequences may be inferred immediately from the definition of $\stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{C}}$. For example, $g$ is variational if and only if $\mathcal{C}=\stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{C}}$ and if $\stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{C}}(., \delta)=0$, then $g$ is weakly normal. We show that $\stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{C}}(., \delta)=0$ also implies that $g$ is weakly variational and homogeneous, and vice versa. Indeed, if $\stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{C}}(., \delta)=0$, then for all $\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau)$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0=g(\stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{C}}(\tilde{X}, \delta), \tilde{Y})=\mathcal{C}_{b}(\tilde{X}, \delta, \tilde{Y})+\mathcal{C}_{b}(\delta, \tilde{Y}, \tilde{X})-\mathcal{C}_{b}(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{X}, \delta) \quad \text { and } \\
& 0=g(\stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{C}}(\tilde{Y}, \delta), \tilde{X})=\mathcal{C}_{b}(\tilde{Y}, \delta, \tilde{X})+\mathcal{C}_{b}(\delta, \tilde{X}, \tilde{Y})-\mathcal{C}_{b}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}, \delta)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\mathcal{C}_{b}$ is symmetric in its last two variables, after subtraction, the property $\mathcal{C}_{b}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}, \delta)=\mathcal{C}_{b}(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{X}, \delta)$ drops out. Thus $g$ is weakly variational, and hence both of the above relations imply $\mathcal{C}(\delta,)=$.0 , i.e. $g$ is homogeneous. Conversely, if $g$ is weakly variational and homogeneous, then the right-hand sides of our above relations vanish, therefore $\stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{C}}(., \delta)=0$.

Notice that it is more difficult to handle $\mathcal{C}^{\circ}$ (and $\left.\mathcal{C}^{h}\right)$.
Proposition 9. Let $g=\nabla^{v} \nabla^{v} L$ be a variational metric and $\mathcal{H}$ the horizontal map generated by $\xi_{L}$. Then, $\check{\mathcal{C}}^{h}=\mathcal{C}^{h}$.

Proof. It is well-known (see e.g. [7]) that one can derive from the properties (46) that

$$
\begin{align*}
\nabla^{h} g(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z})=\nabla^{h} g(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{X}, \tilde{Z}) \quad \text { or } \\
g\left(\mathcal{C}^{h}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}), \tilde{Z}\right)=g\left(\mathcal{C}^{h}(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{X}), \tilde{Z}\right), \tag{57}
\end{align*}
$$

for all $\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau)$. Indeed, let $X, Y \in \mathcal{X}(M)$ and take the $\xi_{L}$ derivative of the integrability condition $X^{v}(g(\hat{Y}, \hat{Z}))=Y^{v}(g(\hat{X}, \hat{Z}))$. Interchange now the positions of $\xi_{L}$ and $X^{v}$, using the bracket $\left[\xi_{L}, X^{v}\right]=-X^{h}+$ $\mathbf{i}\left(\mathcal{L}_{\xi_{L}}^{h} \hat{X}\right)$. The property $\mathcal{L}_{\xi_{L}}^{h} g=0$ leads to (57) and the statement now easily follows.

Proposition 10. Suppose that the horizontal map $\mathcal{H}$ has vanishing torsion and let $\nabla$ be the Berwald derivative induced by $\mathcal{H}$ in $\tau^{*} \tau$. If $\stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{C}}$ and $\mathcal{C}^{\circ}$ are the tensors given by Lemma 9, then the rules

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{\mathbf{i} \tilde{X}} \tilde{Y}:=\nabla_{\mathbf{i} \tilde{X}} \tilde{Y}+\frac{1}{2} \mathcal{C}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}), \quad D_{\mathcal{H} \tilde{X}} \tilde{Y}:=\nabla_{\mathcal{H} \tilde{X}} \tilde{Y}+\frac{1}{2} \mathcal{C}^{h}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}) \tag{58}
\end{equation*}
$$

define a symmetric, metric derivative in $\tau^{*} \tau$. More explicitly

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{\xi} \tilde{Y}=\mathbf{j}[\mathbf{v} \xi, \mathcal{H} \tilde{Y}]+\mathcal{V}[\mathbf{h} \xi, i \tilde{i} \tilde{Y}]+\frac{1}{2}\left({ }^{\circ}\left(\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{V}, \tilde{Y})+\stackrel{\mathcal{C}}{ }^{\circ}(\mathbf{j} \xi, \tilde{Y})\right) .\right. \tag{59}
\end{equation*}
$$

For the partial torsions of $D$ we have

$$
\mathcal{T}=0, \mathcal{S}=-\frac{1}{2} \mathcal{C},\left(\mathcal{R}^{1}\right)_{0}=\Omega, \mathcal{P}^{1}=\frac{1}{2} \mathcal{C}^{h}, \mathcal{Q}^{1}=0
$$

where $\left(\mathcal{R}^{1}\right)_{0}(\xi, \eta):=\mathbf{i} \mathcal{R}^{1}(\mathbf{j} \xi, \mathbf{j} \eta)$.
Proof. First we check that $D$ is $v$-metric. For all vector fields $X$, $Y, Z$ on $M$ we have $\left(D^{v} g\right)(\hat{X}, \hat{Y}, \hat{Z})=\left(D_{X^{v}} g\right)(\hat{Y}, \hat{Z})=X^{v}(g(\hat{Y}, \hat{Z}))-$ $g\left(D_{X^{v}} \hat{Y}, \hat{Z}\right)-g\left(\hat{Y}, D_{X^{v}} \hat{Z}\right)=\mathcal{C}_{b}(\hat{X}, \hat{Y}, \hat{Z})-\frac{1}{2} g(\stackrel{\mathcal{C}}{ }(\hat{X}, \hat{Y}), \hat{Z})-$ $\frac{1}{2} g(\hat{Y}, \stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{C}}(\hat{X}, \hat{Z}))=\mathcal{C}_{b}(\hat{X}, \hat{Y}, \hat{Z})-\frac{1}{2} g(\stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{C}}(\hat{X}, \hat{Y}), \hat{Z})-\frac{1}{2} g(\stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{C}}(\hat{Z}, \hat{X}), \hat{Y})=$ $\mathcal{C}_{b}(\hat{X}, \hat{Y}, \hat{Z})-\mathcal{C}_{b}(\hat{X}, \hat{Y}, \hat{Z})=0$, as we claimed. By a completely analogous calculation we obtain that $D$ is $h$-metric and hence it is metric. Next we calculate the partial torsions of $D$.
$\mathcal{T}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}) \stackrel{(50)}{=} D_{\mathcal{H} \tilde{X}} \tilde{Y}-D_{\mathcal{H} \tilde{Y}} \tilde{X}-\mathbf{j}[\mathcal{H} \tilde{X}, \mathcal{H} \tilde{Y}] \stackrel{(58)}{=} \nabla_{\mathcal{H} \tilde{X}} \tilde{Y}-\nabla_{\mathcal{H} \tilde{Y}} \tilde{X}-$ $\mathbf{j}[\mathcal{H} \tilde{X}, \mathcal{H} \tilde{Y}]+\frac{1}{2} \mathcal{C}^{h}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y})-\frac{1}{2} \mathcal{C}^{h}(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{X})=\stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{T}}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}) \stackrel{(56)}{=} 0$, since $\mathbf{T}=0$ by our assumption. From (51) and (58), $\mathcal{S}=-\frac{1}{2} \mathcal{C}$. Thus, by Lemma $9, \mathcal{S}$ is symmetric, therefore the covariant derivative operator $D$ is also symmetric. (55) yields immediately $\left(\mathcal{R}^{1}\right)_{0}=\Omega$, while (52) and (58) lead to $\mathcal{P}^{1}=$ $\frac{1}{2} \mathcal{C}^{h}$. Finally, $\mathcal{Q}^{1}(\hat{X}, \hat{Y}) \stackrel{(54)}{=} D_{X^{v}} \hat{Y}-D_{Y^{v}} \hat{X}-\mathcal{V}\left[X^{v}, Y^{v}\right] \stackrel{(58)}{=} \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{C}(\hat{X}, \hat{Y})-$ $\frac{1}{2} \mathcal{C}(\hat{Y}, \hat{X})=0$, concluding the proof of the proposition.

In [18], R. Miron gave a coordinate formulation for this metric derivative in the case that the metric is weakly normal and Miron-regular and the horizontal map is generated by $\xi_{E}$. A coordinate expression of the general case (58) can also be found in [19]. Now we are in a position to describe all metric derivatives (depending on a horizontal map). We begin by a simple remark. The difference of two covariant derivative operators $D^{1}$ and $D^{2}$ can be characterized by means of a $C^{\infty}(T M)$-bilinear map $\varrho: \mathcal{X}(T M) \times \mathcal{X}(\tau) \rightarrow \mathcal{X}(\tau)$ such that

$$
D_{\xi}^{1} \tilde{X}-D_{\xi}^{2} \tilde{X}=\varrho(\xi, \tilde{X}) \quad \text { for all } \xi \in \mathcal{X}(T M), \tilde{X} \in \mathcal{X}(\tau)
$$

$\varrho$ can be decomposed into a $v$-part $\varrho^{v}$ and a $h$-part $\varrho^{h}$ given by

$$
\varrho^{v}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}):=\varrho(\mathbf{i} \tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}) \quad \text { and } \quad \varrho^{h}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}):=\varrho(\mathcal{H} \tilde{X}, \tilde{Y})
$$

then $\varrho(\xi, \tilde{X})=\varrho^{v}(\mathcal{V} \xi, \tilde{X})+\varrho^{h}(\mathbf{j} \xi, \tilde{X})$.
Proposition 11. Let $D$ be the metric derivative described in Proposition 10. Then any other metric derivative $\bar{D}$ can be uniquely determined with the help of two $(1,2)$-tensor fields $\Phi$ and $\Psi$ which are related to the difference $\varrho$ of $D$ and $\bar{D}$ by means of

$$
\begin{align*}
& g\left(\varrho^{v}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}), \tilde{Z}\right)=\frac{1}{2}(g(\Phi(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}), \tilde{Z})-g(\Phi(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Z}), \tilde{Y})) \quad \text { and }  \tag{60}\\
& g\left(\varrho^{h}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}), \tilde{Z}\right)=\frac{1}{2}(g(\Psi(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}), \tilde{Z})-g(\Psi(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Z}), \tilde{Y})) \tag{61}
\end{align*}
$$

for all vector fields $\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z}$ along $\tau$.

Proof. First, we will show that for a given $\Phi$ and $\Psi$, the above construction gives indeed a metric derivative. For example, if we use the fact that $D$ is metric, then $\left(\bar{D}_{\mathcal{H} \tilde{X}} g\right)(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z})=\mathcal{H} \tilde{X}(g(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z}))-g\left(\bar{D}_{\mathcal{H} X} \tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z}\right)-$ $g\left(\tilde{Y}, \bar{D}_{\mathcal{H}} \tilde{X} \tilde{Z}\right)=g\left(\varrho^{h}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}), \tilde{Z}\right)+g\left(\tilde{Y}, \varrho^{h}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Z})=\frac{1}{2}(g(\Psi(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}), \tilde{Z})-\right.$ $g(\Psi(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Z}), \tilde{Y})+g(\tilde{Y},(\Psi(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Z}))-g(\tilde{Z},(\Psi(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y})))=0$, and analogously for the $\varrho^{v}$ part. On the other hand, suppose that $\bar{D}$ is a metric derivative. Then $\bar{D}$ is completely determined by the tensor fields $\Phi=\varrho^{v}$ and $\Psi=\varrho^{h}$, which are exactly of the type (60) and (61) since (due to $\bar{D} g=0$ ) $g\left(\varrho^{v}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}), \tilde{Z}\right)+g\left(\varrho^{v}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Z}), \tilde{Y}\right)=0$ and $g\left(\varrho^{h}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}), \tilde{Z}\right)+g\left(\varrho^{h}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Z}), \tilde{Y}\right)=0$.

A coordinate version of this proof is mentioned in [18, 19]. In fact, there one made use of the so-called Obata-operators. In our context, the first Obata-operator can best be viewed as a map Ob that maps a $(1,2)$ tensor field onto another $(1,2)$-tensor field, $\mathrm{Ob}: \Psi \mapsto \mathrm{Ob}_{\Psi}$, where $\mathrm{Ob}_{\Psi}$ is defined by

$$
g\left(\mathrm{Ob}_{\Psi}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}), \tilde{Z}\right):=\frac{1}{2}(g(\Psi(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}), \tilde{Z})-g(\Psi(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Z}), \tilde{Y}))
$$

The second Obata-operator $\mathrm{Ob}^{*}$, has an analogous definition

$$
g\left(\mathrm{Ob}_{\Psi}^{*}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}), \tilde{Z}\right):=\frac{1}{2}(g(\Psi(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}), \tilde{Z})+g(\Psi(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Z}), \tilde{Y}))
$$

Therefore, (60) and (61) can be restated as $\varrho^{v}=\mathrm{Ob}_{\Phi}$ and $\varrho^{h}=\mathrm{Ob}_{\Psi}$.
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