# The Hierarchy of the Euclidean Non-linear Schrödinger Equation is a Harmonic Oscillator Containing KdV 

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#### Abstract

It is proved that there are infinitely many commuting conservation laws $I_{n}, n=0,1, \ldots$ for the Euclidean non-linear Schrödinger equation, and that the KdV equation is contained in this hierarchy. Adding an extra conservation law one obtains an annihilation operator. The (stationary) passage from $I_{n}$ to $I_{n+1}$ is the creation operator. These two operators yield a quantised harmonic oscillator with ground state $I_{0}$.


1. Introduction, the free case. This article has developed from work on the symmetries and conserved quantities for certain diffusion processes appearing in 'Euclidean Quantum Mechanics'. In a sense, the essential (from Schrödinger) idea is to consider two heat equations (with linear interaction), for backward and forward motion. We refer to [2], [3], [5], [11], [12], [13], [17], [18], and further references therein, and start with a simpler, linear, model case, before considering the nonlinear ENLS equation in the next section.
(1.1) The backward and forward free heat equations (in $1+1$ dimensions) can be obtained from the Lagrangian ([2], [10])

$$
L=\frac{1}{2}(u \dot{v}-\dot{u} v)+\frac{1}{2} u^{\prime} v^{\prime} .
$$

[^0]The vanishing of both variational derivatives of the Lagrangian, i.e. $\frac{\delta L}{\delta v}=\frac{\delta L}{\delta u}=0$ yields the Euler-Lagrange equations. In this case,

$$
\frac{\delta L}{\delta v}:=\frac{\partial L}{\partial v}-\frac{d}{d t} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{v}}-\frac{d}{d q} \frac{\partial I}{\partial v^{\prime}},
$$

with a similar expression for for $\delta L / \delta u$. The equations become

$$
\dot{u}+\frac{1}{2} u^{\prime \prime}=0, \quad-\dot{v}+\frac{1}{2} v^{\prime \prime}=0 .
$$

(1.2) The symmetry Lie algebra for the free heat system contains the vector fields (see [9] and [10])

$$
v \frac{\partial}{\partial v}-u \frac{\partial}{\partial u}, \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial q}, \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial t}
$$

corresponding to the conserved quantities (e.g. by Noether's theorem, [8], [9], [16])

$$
I_{0}=u v, \quad I_{1}=\frac{1}{2}\left(u^{\prime} v-u v^{\prime}\right), \quad I_{2}=\frac{1}{2}\left(u^{\prime \prime} v+u v^{\prime \prime}\right) .
$$

They belong to an infinite sequence of conserved quantities

$$
I_{n}:=\frac{1}{2}\left(u^{(n)} v+(-1)^{n} v^{(n)}\right), \quad n=0,1,2, \ldots
$$

which, again by Noether's theorem, can be obtained from the generalised (evolutionary) vector fields ([8], [9], [16])

$$
(-1)^{n} v^{(n)} \frac{\partial}{\partial v}-u^{(n)} \frac{\partial}{\partial u}, \quad n=0,1,2, \ldots
$$

(1.3) Introduce the bracket (the integral means that calculations are made modulo total space derivatives) from [6]:

$$
\{F, G\}:=\int\left(\frac{\delta F}{\delta u} \frac{\delta G}{\delta v}-\frac{\delta F}{\delta v} \frac{\delta G}{\delta u}\right) d q
$$

Here $F$ and $G$ are functionals ([4], [6], [16]) or differential functions ([8], [9]), i.e. smooth functions of $u, v$ and their space derivatives up to an arbitrary but finite order.

We refer to Dickey [4], Ch. 1.2, in which the algebraic construction behind the integral is treated in more detail.
(1.4) It is easily checked-just partially integrate - that all the $I_{n}$ are in involution, i.e.

$$
\left\{I_{n}, I_{m}\right\}=0 \quad \text { for all } n, m
$$

For any functional $F,\left\{F, I_{m}\right\}$ is the derivative of $F$ with respect to the 'time' $t_{m}$ given by the hamiltonian $I_{m}: d F / d t_{m}=\left\{F, I_{m}\right\}$. Thus involutivity means that all $I_{n}$ are conserved quantities w.r.t. $d / d t_{m}$ for all $m$ :

$$
\frac{d I_{n}}{d t_{m}}=0 \quad \text { for all } n, m
$$

(1.5) The variational gradient of a functional $F$ is the vector $\delta F$ with components $\delta F / \delta u$ and $\delta F / \delta v$. It is convenient to represent it (as in [6]) as the $2 \times 2$-matrix

$$
\delta F:=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & \delta F / \delta u \\
\delta F / \delta v & 0
\end{array}\right) .
$$

(1.6) We see that

$$
\delta I_{n+1}=C \delta I_{n}, \quad C:=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
-D & 0 \\
0 & D
\end{array}\right),
$$

with $D=d / d q$. We shall also write this as $I_{n+1}=C I_{n}$. The transition in the sequence $\left(I_{n}\right)$ is stationary in the sense that

$$
I_{n}=C^{n} I_{0}, \quad n=0,1,2, \ldots
$$

(1.7) Consider the functional

$$
I:=-q I_{0}=-q u v .
$$

It is proved in the next section that

$$
\left\{I, I_{n}\right\}=n I_{n-1}, \quad n=0,1,2, \ldots
$$

(1.8) Write

$$
A:=\operatorname{Ad}_{I}=\{I, \cdot\}
$$

and

$$
\mathrm{H}:=\frac{1}{2}[A, C]_{+}=\frac{1}{2}(A C+C A) .
$$

$A$ is the annihilation and $C$ the creation operator. We have

$$
\mathrm{H} I_{n}=\left(n+\frac{1}{2}\right) I_{n} .
$$

This is a representation of the one-dimensional quantised harmonic oscillator with hamiltonian $\mathrm{H}=\mathrm{N}+\frac{1}{2}$, where N denotes the number operator. It follows that

$$
[A, C] I_{n}=I_{n}, \quad \text { i.e. } \quad[A, C]=1,
$$

the identity.
Preliminary observations indicate that it is natural to look upon the $I_{n}$ as unscaled Hermite polynomials (orthogonal w.r.t. a Gaussian probability measure, and) with norm $\sqrt{n!}$. With this convention, the number operator N is defined for all $F=\sum_{0}^{\infty} c_{n} I_{n}$ with $\sum_{0}^{\infty} n^{2}\left|c_{n}\right|^{2} / n$ ! finite.
(1.9) In general, if $A I_{n}=\lambda_{n} I_{n-1}$, and $C I_{n}=I_{n+1}$, we get $(A C+$ $C A) I_{n}=\left(\lambda_{n+1}+\lambda_{n}\right) I_{n}$, and $(A C-C A) I_{n}=\left(\lambda_{n+1}-\lambda_{n}\right) I_{n}$. The latter is the identity operator (acting on $I_{n}$ ) if and only if (except for a trivial additive constant which we choose to be zero) $\lambda_{n}=n$. Then $(A C+C A) I_{n}=(2 n+1) I_{n}$, as above.
(1.10) $I$ is not a conserved quantity, but is easily adjusted to become one. Fix $I_{k}$ as our hamiltonian. Replacing $I$ by

$$
I_{k}^{*}:=-\left(k t_{k} I_{k-1}+q I_{0}\right), \quad k=1,2, \ldots,
$$

we have $d I_{k}^{*} / d t_{k}=0$ and, since $t_{k}$ is a parameter, the relation $\left\{I, I_{n}\right\}=n I_{n-1}$ is carried over to $I_{k}^{*}$ :

$$
\left\{I_{k}^{*}, I_{n}\right\}=-k t_{k}\left\{I_{k-1}, I_{n}\right\}-\left\{q I_{0}, I_{n}\right\}=-\left\{q I_{0}, I_{n}\right\}=\left\{I, I_{n}\right\} .
$$

(1.11) For the heat system, $I^{*}:=t I_{1}-q I_{0}$ is a conserved quantity obtained from the vector field $\Lambda^{*}:=t \frac{\partial}{\partial q}-q\left(v \frac{\partial}{\partial v}-u \frac{\partial}{\partial u}\right) . I_{0}, I_{1}, I^{*}$ form a Heisenberg algebra w.r.t. the bracket, as do the corresponding ordinary vector fields w.r.t the ordinary bracket. This vector field is often used as recursion operator to obtain an infinite number of conserved quantities for the heat equation. See Ibragimov
$[8,9]$ or Olver [16]. $\Lambda^{*}$ plays a different role in our approach, and in a sense $\partial / \partial q$ is the recursion operator. This is expressed in the formula for $C$ above. There is another way to represent it: with Hirota's bilinear derivative,

$$
D(u \cdot v):=\left.\frac{d}{d \varepsilon}(u(\cdot+\varepsilon) v(\cdot-\varepsilon))\right|_{\varepsilon=0}=u^{\prime} v-u v^{\prime}
$$

we find

$$
I_{n}=\left(\frac{1}{2} D\right)^{n}(u \cdot v), \quad n=0,1, \ldots
$$

## 2. Euclidean NLS Equation.

(2.1) The euclidean non-linear Schrödinger equation is the following system of non-linear heat equations:

$$
\dot{u}+\frac{1}{2} u^{\prime \prime}-u^{2} v=0, \quad-\dot{v}+\frac{1}{2} v^{\prime \prime}-u v^{2}=0 .
$$

It can be found in the list of completely integrable time-symmetric heat equations in [14]. We may look upon these equations as a system

$$
\dot{u}+\frac{1}{2} u^{\prime \prime}-V u=0, \quad-\dot{v}+\frac{1}{2} v^{\prime \prime}-V v=0
$$

with the 'non-linear potential' $V=u v$.
(2.2) The equations of motion result from calculus of variations with the Lagrangian

$$
L=\frac{1}{2}(u \dot{v}-\dot{u} v)+\frac{1}{2}\left(u^{\prime} v^{\prime}+u^{2} v^{2}\right) .
$$

Then $\delta L / \delta v=-\dot{u}-\frac{1}{2} u+u^{2} v$ and $\delta L / \delta u=\dot{v}-\frac{1}{2} u+u v^{2}$.
(2.3) The 'usual' non-linear Schrödinger equation, say

$$
\mathrm{i} \dot{\psi}=-\frac{1}{2} \psi^{\prime \prime}+|\psi|^{2} \psi,
$$

results from the Lagrangian

$$
L=\frac{\mathrm{i}}{2}(\psi \bar{\psi}-\dot{\psi} \bar{\psi})+\frac{1}{2}\left(\psi \overline{\psi^{\prime}}+\psi^{2} \bar{\psi}^{2}\right) .
$$

It is extensively treated in Faddeev and Takhtajan [6]. Our key operator $C$ below is a slight adaption of one of their many ways to approach this equation. See [6], Ch. III. 5 and V.4.
(2.4) For the ENLS equations, the infinitesimal symmetries

$$
v \frac{\partial}{\partial v}-u \frac{\partial}{\partial u}, \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial q}, \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial t}
$$

yield the conserved quantities

$$
I_{0}=u v, \quad I_{1}=\frac{1}{2}\left(u^{\prime} v-u v^{\prime}\right), \quad I_{2}=\frac{1}{2}\left(u^{\prime \prime} v+u v^{\prime \prime}-2 u^{2} v^{2}\right) .
$$

The first one is a basic density, the vacuum vector or ground state for the oscillator to be constructed below. The second one is the momentum density and the third is the energy density. The densities are calculated in the state $(u, v)$.
(2.5) We will need the explicit form $\delta I_{0}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & v \\ u & 0\end{array}\right)$.

Write $\sigma_{3}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1\end{array}\right)$ and let $F$ be a functional. We find

$$
\left[\delta I_{0}, \delta F\right]=\left(v \frac{\delta F}{\delta v}-u \frac{\delta F}{\delta u}\right) \sigma_{3}
$$

Hence

$$
\left\{I_{0}, F\right\}=\frac{1}{2} \int \operatorname{tr}\left(\sigma_{3}\left[\delta I_{0}, \delta F\right]\right) d q,
$$

so that $\left\{I_{0}, F\right\}=0$ if and only if there is a functional $a_{F}$ such that

$$
v \frac{\delta F}{\delta v}-u \frac{\delta F}{\delta u}=D a_{F} .
$$

(2.6) For such an $F$ we may form

$$
U_{0} \delta F:=\left[\delta I_{0}, D^{-1}\left[\delta I_{0}, \delta F\right]\right]=-2 a_{F}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & v \\
-u & 0
\end{array}\right),
$$

and

$$
C \delta F:=-\sigma_{3}\left(D-U_{0}\right) \delta F=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & -\left(D \frac{\delta F}{\delta u}+2 a_{F} v\right) \\
D \frac{\delta F}{\delta v}-2 a_{F} u & 0
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Starting from $I_{0}$, one finds $C \delta I_{0}=I_{1}, C \delta I_{1}=I_{2}$ and $C \delta I_{2}=I_{3}:=\frac{1}{2}\left(u^{\prime \prime \prime} v-u v^{\prime \prime \prime}\right)-\frac{3}{2} u v\left(u^{\prime} v-u v^{\prime}\right)$.
(2.7) Definition. We define $I_{n}$ by

$$
\delta I_{n}:=C^{n} \delta I_{0} .
$$

The next few $I_{n}$ are

$$
\begin{aligned}
I_{4}= & \frac{1}{2}\left(u^{(4)} v+u v^{(4)}\right)-u v\left(u^{\prime \prime} v+u v^{\prime \prime}\right)+4 u u^{\prime} v v^{\prime}+2 u^{3} v^{3}, \\
I_{5}= & \frac{1}{2}\left(u^{(5)} v-u v^{(5)}\right)+5 u v\left(u^{\prime \prime} v^{\prime}-u^{\prime} v^{\prime \prime}\right)+5 u^{2} v^{2}\left(u^{\prime} v-u v^{\prime}\right), \\
I_{6}= & \frac{1}{2}\left(u^{(6)} v+u v^{(6)}\right)-3\left(u u^{\prime \prime} v^{\prime 2}+u^{\prime 2} v v^{\prime \prime}\right)-12 u u^{\prime \prime} v v^{\prime \prime}+5 u^{\prime 2} v^{\prime 2} \\
& -\left(u^{\prime \prime 2} v^{2}+u^{2} v^{\prime \prime 2}\right)-50 u^{2} u^{\prime} v^{2} v^{\prime}-10 u v\left(\left(u^{\prime 2} v^{2}+u^{2} v^{\prime 2}\right)-5 u^{4} v^{4} .\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

We can now prove
(2.8) Theorem. All $I_{n}$ are in involution:

$$
\left\{I_{n}, I_{m}\right\}=0 \quad \text { for } \quad n, m=0,1, \ldots
$$

Proof. Suppose $I_{0}, \ldots, I_{n}$ all Poisson commute, and form $I_{n+1}$. Then

$$
\left\{I_{n+1}, I_{0}\right\}=\left\{C I_{n}, I_{0}\right\}=\left\{I_{n}, C I_{0}\right\}=\left\{I_{n}, I_{1}\right\}=0,
$$

as one easily sees that $C$ is symmetric w.r.t. the bracket. Repeating this argument one finds $\left\{I_{n+1}, I_{j}\right\}=0$ for $j<n$. In general, using that $D a_{F}=v \frac{\delta F}{\delta v}-u \frac{\delta F}{\delta u}$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -\{C F, F\} \\
& =\int\left(\left(D \frac{\delta F}{\delta u}+2 a_{F} v\right) \frac{\delta F}{\delta v}+\left(D \frac{\delta F}{\delta v}-2 a_{F} u\right) \frac{\delta F}{\delta u}\right) d q \\
& =\int D\left(\frac{\delta F}{\delta u} \frac{\delta F}{\delta v}+2 a_{F}^{2}\right) d q=0
\end{aligned}
$$

The claim follows upon letting $F=I_{n}$.
(2.9) Corollary. For any $n, m=0,1, \ldots$

$$
\frac{d I_{n}}{d t_{m}}=0 .
$$

In particular, each $I_{n}$ is a conservation law for the euclidean nonlinear Schrödinger equations

$$
\dot{u}+\frac{1}{2} u^{\prime \prime}-u^{2} v=0, \quad-\dot{v}+\frac{1}{2} v^{\prime \prime}-u v^{2}=0 .
$$

(2.10) Remark on KdV. The Lagrangian using $I_{3}$ as Hamiltonian, i.e.

$$
L_{3}=\frac{1}{2}(u \dot{v}-\dot{u} v)+\frac{1}{2}\left(u^{\prime \prime \prime} v-u v^{\prime \prime \prime}\right)-\frac{3}{2} u v\left(u^{\prime} v-u v^{\prime}\right)
$$

produces the (Euler-Lagrange) equations of motion

$$
\dot{u}=u^{\prime \prime \prime}-6 u u^{\prime} v, \quad \dot{v}=v^{\prime \prime \prime}-6 u v v^{\prime} .
$$

Of course, any $I_{n}$ is a conservation law for these equations too. Upon choosing $v \equiv 1$ we obtain the Koorteweg-deVries equation for $u$ :

$$
\dot{u}=u^{\prime \prime \prime}-6 u u^{\prime} .
$$

In this sense, the ENLS hierarchy contains KdV.
As in §1, we introduce

$$
I:=-q I_{0}=-q u v .
$$

Our next result is
(2.11) Theorem. For all $n \geq 0$,

$$
\left\{I, I_{n}\right\}=n I_{n-1} .
$$

Proof: Write $a_{n}:=a_{I_{n}}$. In general,

$$
\left\{I, I_{n}\right\}=\int-q\left(v \frac{\delta I_{n}}{\delta v}-u \frac{\delta I_{n}}{\delta u}\right) d q=\int-q a_{n}^{\prime} d q=\int a_{n} d q
$$

Hence, we want to prove that

$$
a_{n}=n I_{n-1} .
$$

Use of the (creation) operator $C$ and partial integration, leads to the relation

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_{n+1}^{\prime}= & u^{(n+1)} v+(-1)^{n} u v^{(n+1)} \\
- & 2\left(\left(a_{1} u\right)^{(n-1)} v+(-1)^{n} u\left(a_{1} v\right)^{(n-1)}+\ldots\right. \\
& \left.+\left(a_{n-2} u\right)^{\prime \prime} v-u\left(a_{n-2} v\right)^{\prime \prime}+\left(a_{n-1} u\right)^{\prime} v+u\left(a_{n-1} v\right)^{\prime}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Assuming $a_{k}=k I_{k-1}$ for all $k \leq n$, we may write

$$
a_{n+1}^{\prime}=A_{n+1}+A_{n-1}+\ldots .
$$

where the index on the right refers to the total number of derivatives. The terms of lowest order will come from

$$
\left.-2\left(a_{n-1} u\right)^{\prime} v+u\left(a_{n-1} v\right)^{\prime}\right)
$$

if $n$ is even, and from

$$
-2\left(\left(a_{n-2} u\right)^{\prime \prime} v-u\left(a_{n-2} v\right)^{\prime \prime}+\left(a_{n-1} u\right)^{\prime} v+u\left(a_{n-1} v\right)^{\prime}\right)
$$

if $n$ is odd.
In the former case, the hypothesis yields

$$
a_{n+1}^{\prime}=-2(n-1)\left(\left(I_{n-2} u v\right)^{\prime}+I_{n-2}^{\prime} u v\right)+\text { h. o. t. }
$$

In general,

$$
I_{2 m}=c_{2 m}(u v)^{m+1}+\text { h. o. t. }
$$

where the coefficient is (if $(-1)!!=1)$

$$
c_{2 m}=(-2)^{m} \frac{(2 m-1)!!}{(m+1)!}, \quad m=0,1,2, \ldots
$$

This expression can be found by repeated use of the following formulae for $C^{2}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\delta I_{k+2}}{\delta u}=D^{2} \frac{\delta I_{k}}{\delta u}+2\left(a_{k} v\right)^{\prime}-2 a_{k+1} v, \\
& \frac{\delta I_{k+2}}{\delta v}=D^{2} \frac{\delta I_{k}}{\delta v}-2\left(a_{k} u\right)^{\prime}-2 a_{k+1} u .
\end{aligned}
$$

With $n=2 m$, and writing $s:=u v$, the terms of lowest order are

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -2(2 m-1) c_{2(m-1)}\left(\left(s^{m+1}\right)^{\prime}+\left(s^{m}\right)^{\prime} s\right) \\
= & -2(2 m-1) c_{2(m-1)}(2 m+1) s^{m} s^{\prime} \\
= & (2 m+1)(-2)^{m} \frac{(2 m-1)!!}{m!} \frac{\left(s^{m+1}\right)^{\prime}}{m+1}=(2 m+1)\left(c_{2 m} s^{m+1}\right)^{\prime},
\end{aligned}
$$

which proves the assertion in this case.

In the case when $n$ is odd, $n=2 m+1$, the lowest order terms for $a_{2 m+2}^{\prime}$ are obtained from

$$
\begin{aligned}
- & 2\left(2 m\left(I_{2 m-1} s\right)^{\prime}\right. \\
& +2 m I_{2 m-1}^{\prime} s+(2 m-1) I_{2 m-2} a \\
& \left.+(2 m-1)\left(I_{2 m-2} a\right)^{\prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where, in addition to $s=u v$, we have written $a:=u^{\prime} v-u v^{\prime}$. In general,

$$
I_{2 m+1}=c_{2 m+1} s^{m} a+\text { h. o. t. }
$$

for some constant $c_{2 m+1}$. Hence the middle terms above are

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 2 m c_{2 m-1}\left(s^{m-1} a\right)^{\prime} s+(2 m-1) c_{2 m-2}\left(s^{m}\right)^{\prime} a \\
= & \left(2 m c_{2 m-1}(m-1)+(2 m-1) m c_{2 m-2}\right) s^{m-1} s^{\prime} a+2 m c_{2 m-1} s^{m} a^{\prime} \\
= & \left(2(m-1) c_{2 m-1}+(2 m-1) c_{2 m-2}\right)\left(s^{m}\right)^{\prime} a+2 m c_{2 m-1} s^{m} a^{\prime} \\
= & 2 m c_{2 m-1}\left(s^{m} a\right)^{\prime},
\end{aligned}
$$

provided $2(m-1) c_{2 m-1}+(2 m-1) c_{2 m-2}=2 m c_{2 m-1}$, i.e.

$$
c_{2 m-1}=\frac{2 m-1}{2} c_{2(m-1)} .
$$

One may deduce this formula from the formula for $c_{2 m}$ together with the formulae for $C^{2}$ displayed above.

The lowest order terms become

$$
-2\left(2 \cdot 2 m c_{2 m-1}+(2 m-1) c_{2 m-2}\right)\left(s^{m} a\right)^{\prime} .
$$

The coefficient can be written

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -2(2 m-1)(2 m+1) c_{2 m-2} \\
& =2(m+1) \cdot \frac{2 m+1}{2}(-2)^{m} \frac{(2 m-1)!!}{(m+1)!}=2(m+1) c_{2 m+1},
\end{aligned}
$$

which proves our claim

$$
a_{2(m+1)}^{\prime}=2(m+1) c_{2 m+1}\left(s^{m} a\right)^{\prime}+\text { h. o. t. }
$$

By induction, we may assume that all terms of order strictly less than the highest order, viz. $n+1$, satisfy the corresponding identity. It remains to prove that the $J_{n}:=\frac{1}{2}\left(u^{(n)} v+(-1)^{n} u v^{(n)}\right)$ fulfil

$$
\left\{I, J_{n}\right\}=n J_{n-1} \quad \text { for all } \quad n
$$

This is the relation $\left\{I, I_{n}\right\}=n I_{n-1}$ in the free case, referred to in §1. We must show that $-q\left(u^{(n)} v-(-1)^{n} u v^{(n)}\right) \simeq n J_{n-1}$, where ' $\simeq$ ' signifies equivalence modulo total (space) derivatives. The left hand-side is equivalent to

$$
\begin{aligned}
u^{(n-1)} v & +(-1)^{n-1} u v^{(n-1)}+q\left(u^{(n)} v^{\prime}-(-1)^{n} u^{\prime} v^{(n)}\right) \\
& =2 J_{n-1}+q\left(u^{(n)} v^{\prime}-(-1)^{n} u^{\prime} v^{(n)}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

If $n=2 m+1$, repetition of this leads to

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \simeq 2 m J_{2 m}-(-1)^{m} q\left(u^{(m+1)} v^{(m)}+u^{(m)} v^{(m+1)}\right) \\
& \simeq 2 m J_{2 m}+(-1)^{m} u^{(m)} v^{(m)} \simeq(2 m+1) J_{2 m} .
\end{aligned}
$$

A similar, slightly longer, calculation yields the result for even $n$.
The theorem follows.
We have the following version of Newton's free equations:
(2.12) Corollary. Write $\bar{q}:=\int q u v d q$ for the expectation value of the position. Then

$$
\frac{d^{2} \bar{q}}{d t_{n}^{2}}=0, \quad n=0,1,2, \ldots \ldots
$$

Proof: The left hand-side is $-\left\{\left\{I, I_{n}\right\}, I_{n}\right\}=-n\left\{I_{n-1}, I_{n}\right\}=0$.
(2.13) Remarks: (i) As in the introduction, we may now use $A$ and $C$ to get an oscillator with Hamiltonian $\frac{1}{2}(A C+C A)$.
(ii) For the ENLS equation $I^{*}=t I_{1}-q I_{0}$ is a conservation law, just as in the free case. Also, we may, for any $k>0$, replace $I$ by $I_{k}^{*}$, which is a conservation law using $I_{k}$ as Hamiltonian in the Lagrangian $L=L_{k}:=\frac{1}{2}(u \dot{v}-\dot{u} v)-I_{k}$.
(iii) The Lagrangian integrals used here are in a sense generalisations to infinite dimension of the Hilbert integral and PoincaréCartan invariant $\int p d q-H(t, q, p) d t$ from classical mechanics, see e.g., Arnold [1]. The first fundamental form $p d q$ may be replaced by $\frac{1}{2}(p d q-q d p)=\frac{1}{2}(p \dot{q}-q \dot{p}) d t$ along solutions.

The 'extra variable trick', adding $v$ to $u$, in classical mechanics can be found in the book of Morse and Feshbach, [15]. It is mentioned in passing in Goldstein [7], that it yields the Schrödinger
equations from a variational principle. See also Brandão and Kolsrud [3] and Ibragimov and Kolsrud [10], where it is used to obtain conservation laws via Noether's theorem for several known evolution equations.

## References

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