

Integrable Systems – Lecture 6¹

The Liouville equation Bäcklund transformation is valid in a much broader context and they can link solutions of different PDEs. For example, suppose that

$$\partial_\rho(\psi - \phi) = 2a \exp \frac{\phi + \psi}{2}, \quad \partial_\tau(\psi + \phi) = -a^{-1} \exp \frac{\phi - \psi}{2}, \quad a \neq 0.$$

Then (proof left as an exercise) ϕ is the solution of the Liouville equation $\phi_{\rho\tau} = e^\phi$ iff ψ is the solution of $\psi_{\rho\tau} = 0$ – the latter equation can, of course, be solved trivially.

The Camassa–Holm equation An interesting example of an integrable PDE is the *Camassa–Holm equation* which (in a simplified form) reads

$$u_t - u_{xxt} + 3uu_x = 2u_x u_{xx} + uu_{xxx}.$$

It is used to model waves in shallow water. We will return to the CH equation once we deal with Hamiltonian formulation of soliton equations (this greedy equation has *two* such formulations!), now we just mention that solutions consist of a very strange version of non-smooth, crested solitons: *peakons*, of the form

$$u(x, t) = \sum_j m_j(t) e^{-|x - x_j(t)|}.$$

3 The inverse scattering transform

The Schrödinger equation and scattering Consider an infinite-dimensional complex linear space $\mathcal{H}$ of functions, referred to as *wave functions* or *state vectors*. We equip it with an inner product

$$\langle \Psi, \Phi \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \bar{\Psi}(x) \Phi(x) \, dx.$$

Functions Ψ s.t. $\langle \Psi, \Psi \rangle < \infty$ (think e^{-x^2}) are called *bound states*, while if $\langle \Psi, \Psi \rangle = \infty$ (e.g. e^{ix}) then ψ is a *scattering state*. (The terminology originates in quantum mechanics: physicists are more careless than mathematicians when it comes to infinities...)

The time-independent (univariate) Schrödinger equation is the spectral problem

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2 \Psi}{dx^2} + u\Psi = E\Psi, \tag{3.1}$$

where $u = u(x)$ is the *interaction potential*. $\hbar$ (the Planck constant) and m (the mass) are constants, which need not concern us, while E , the spectral point, is the energy of the underlying quantum system. The set of all E is in general discrete (point spectrum, a.k.a. eigenvalues) for bound states, continuous (continuous spectrum) for scattering states Ψ , and this depends on the potential u .

The quantum-mechanical interpretation is that the probability density of a position of a particle is given by $|\Psi|^2$, while its time evolution is governed by the time-dependent Schrödinger equation

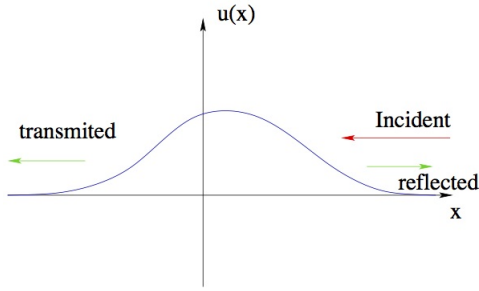
$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} + u\Psi.$$

¹Please email all corrections and suggestions to these notes to A.Iserles@damtp.cam.ac.uk. All handouts are available on the WWW at the URL <http://www.damtp.cam.ac.uk/user/na/PartII/Handouts.html>.

It is easy to prove that, once $\Psi(\cdot, 0)$ is a bound state, quantum-mechanical probability (a.k.a. Euclidean energy) is conserved, since

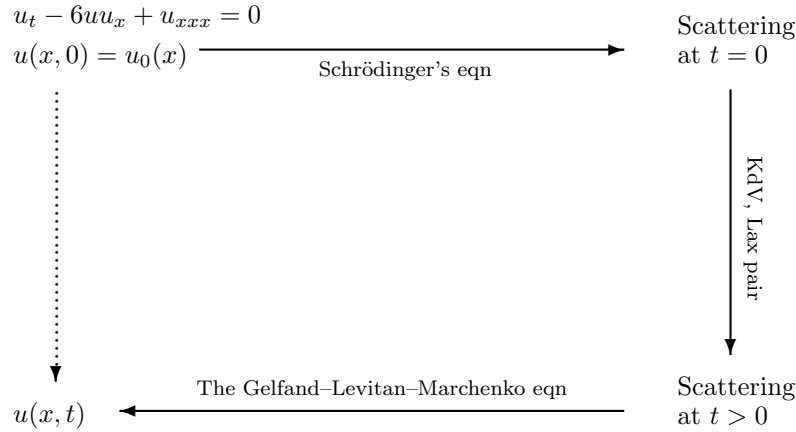
$$\frac{d}{dt} \langle \Psi, \Psi \rangle = \frac{d}{dt} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\Psi|^2 dx = 0.$$

The basic goal of particle physics is the solution of the following *inverse problem*: given scattering data produced by a Schrödinger equation with an unknown potential u , determine the potential. It has been solved by Gelfand, Levitan & Marchenko and then used by Kruskal *et al.* to solve the Cauchy problem for KdV. Changing variables in (3.1), we may assume that $\hbar^2/(2m) = 1$. We allow u to depend on time t but regard it as a parameter. Consider a beam of free particles incident from $+\infty$: some will be reflected by the potential (which, for the time being, is assumed to decay sufficiently fast at infinity), others will be transmitted in addition, there might also be a number of bound states with discrete energy levels.



Given *energy levels* E , *transmission probability* T and *reflection probability* R (all of which can be measured in a particle accelerator) we find the potential u : We commence from $u_0(x)$, the potential at $t = 0$ and find the scattering data $(E(0), T(0), R(0))$ at $t = 0$. Let $u(x, t)$ be the solution to KdV with $u(x, 0) = u_0(x)$, then $(E(t), T(t), R(t))$ obeys a simple linear ODE and, in particular, $E(t) = \text{const.}$ Once we have the scattering data, we recover $u(x, t)$ by solving a linear integral equation.

This leads to a scheme, due to Gardner, Green, Kruskal & Miura, to solve KdV, which is represented by the commutative diagram



Direct scattering Before we deal with inverse scattering, we need to understand *direct* scattering, i.e. the basic 1D quantum mechanics of particle scattering on a given potential. Letting $E = k^2$, we rewrite linear Schrödinger in the form $\mathcal{L}f = k^2 f$, where $\mathcal{L} = -d^2/dx^2 + u(x)$ is the *Schrödinger operator*. We assume that $u \in \mathcal{H}$, the linear space of all functions v s.t. $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (1 + |x|)|v(x)| dx < \infty$. This implies that $u(x) \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} 0$ and guarantees that the spectrum of $\mathcal{L}$ is made out of eigenvalues – in the language of physics, there is finite number of discrete energy levels. (This excludes many important cases, e.g. the harmonic oscillator and the hydrogen atom.)

At $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$ the problem reduces to $f_{xx} + k^2 f = 0$, thus $f(x) = c_1 e^{ikx} + c_2 e^{-ikx}$, where c_1, c_2 need not be the same at $\pm\infty$.