

Differential–difference Kadomtsev–Petviashvili equation: properties and integrability

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Abstract

We present a review on certain integrability properties of differential–difference Kadomtsev–Petviashvili (DAKP) equation. We explain the differential–difference version of Sato theory and derive the DAKP equation as a first nontrivial member in the single-component KP family. In this process, we exploit the Sato theory to obtain conservation laws and generalised symmetries of the same. We further show that the Wronskian form of the N -soliton solutions and rational solutions follow naturally from this approach. Similarity reduction and Painlevé-singularity confinement analysis are performed. We also discuss a gauge equivalence of the DAKP equation and study certain integrability properties of the resulting system as well.

Keywords: Integrability, Sato theory, nonlinear systems

1. Introduction

Modern nonlinear dynamics started with a fundamental question—when is the given model integrable? Can one define it precisely? The answer is obviously no. But, at the same time, we try to find a close definition of integrability with the meaning of integrating and find the solution/existence theory like Liouville.^{1,2} In contrast to the linear theory it is well known that there is no general theory to handle nonlinear systems and get their solutions. However, the present status is not bad, thanks to the discovery of Inverse Scattering Transform (IST) method^{3,4} through which a large class of nonlinear partial differential equations (NPDEs) had been solved and special solutions called solitons obtained. At first, Zabusky and Kruskal observed soliton solution, numerically in Korteweg–de Vries (KdV) equation.⁵ Gardner *et al.*⁶ developed IST method to solve the initial value problem for the KdV equation. This discovery becomes vital since, after KdV equation was solved explicitly, many more nonlinear systems of physical importance were also treated with IST method.^{3,4} Again, this method was generalized to matrix formalism, notably by Zakharov and Shabat (ZS)⁷ and then by Ablowitz, Kaup, Newell and Segur (AKNS)⁸. These developments extended the applicability of IST to handle equations with complex potentials and coupled systems as well. Lax first reformulated these settings of IST in terms of linear operators, now popularly called Lax pair or L–M pair.⁹ These operators satisfy certain linear eigenvalue problem. Obtaining a suitable L–M pair for a given nonlinear system is equivalent to say that the given NPDE has been linearized and thus solvability is feasible using IST. Those equations solvable through IST are called integrable systems and

they possess soliton solutions, in fact N of them. After these pioneering works, many mathematical tools such as Hirota's bilinear formalism,¹⁰⁻⁴² Painlevé tests,⁴³⁻⁵² recursion operator, Lie-Backlund symmetries and others⁵³⁻⁷³ were developed to identify the integrable systems and study further analytical and algebraic properties of them

In the case of infinite dimensional systems (PDEs), the system is considered integrable (working definition) if it satisfies one of the following criteria.

1. The system is linearized through suitable variable transformation.
2. The system is solvable through IST method,³ after finding suitable Lax pair or eigenvalue problems.
3. The system possesses infinite number of conserved quantities
4. In view of the symmetry approach, "An equation is integrable if it possesses infinitely many time-independent non-Lie point symmetries" These symmetries are called generalized symmetries or Lie-Backlund transformations.⁶⁶
5. The system is bi- or tri-linearizable through suitable dependent variable transformations and admits N -soliton solutions.
6. The system which passes the so-called Painlevé test is a good candidate of an integrable system. In this connection, Ablowitz, Ramani and Segur (ARS) formulated the Painlevé conjecture, "Every ordinary differential equation which arises as a reduction of a completely integrable system is of Painlevé type (perhaps after a transformation of variables)".⁴⁴ This conjecture provided a most useful integrability detector. Following this conjecture, ARS proposed an algorithm which tests the Painlevé property. This property states that a system of ODEs satisfies the necessary condition for the Painlevé property, i.e. having no movable critical points other than poles, if all its solutions can be expanded in the Laurent series near every one of their movable singularities. This test was extended by Weiss *et al*⁴⁷ to PDEs

In the following, we briefly discuss various methods used to study the integrable systems

1.2. Lax method

The idea behind this approach is to derive the nonlinear evolution equation which arises as the compatibility condition of two linear equations associated with a spectral problem. The spectral problem and the time evolution of the eigenfunction are given by the equations⁹

$$L\psi = \lambda\psi \quad (1)$$

and

$$\frac{\partial\psi}{\partial t} = M\psi, \quad (2)$$

respectively. Assume that the spectral parameter λ is independent of t . The compatibility condition of these two equations gives us

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial t} = ML - LM = [M, L] \quad (3)$$

where L and M are linear operators. Equation (3) is called Lax equation. Lax⁹ explains how to derive operator M for given L . Once this goal is achieved we can find the solution of the given nonlinear equation through IST method. Numerous generalizations of the eigenvalue problems such as Zakharov and Shabat,⁷ Ablowitz, *et al.*,⁸ Ablowitz and Haberman,⁷⁴ Kaup and Newell,⁷⁵ Wadati, *et al.*,^{76,77} Shimizu and Wadati,⁷⁸ Ishimori,^{79,80} Wadati and Sogo,⁸¹ Konno and Jeffrey⁸² are available in literature covering a wide range of evolution equations.

1.3 Hirota's bilinear method

Hirota introduced a more direct method¹⁰⁻⁴² to derive soliton solutions of nonlinear equations. By introducing a suitable dependent variable transformation, the soliton equation becomes bilinear. Applying the perturbation technique to the resulting bilinear equation one can systematically construct the N -soliton solution. In fact, if the system admits N -soliton solution the series expansion in terms of small parameter in the above perturbative analysis truncates automatically. In this process, we obtain a class of linear partial differential equations which can be solved successively to obtain the exact solution. The soliton solution obtained through this technique is a polynomial in exponential functions. It is also noted that the N -soliton solutions of Hirota's bilinear equation can be written in the form of Wronskian and Grammon determinants and Pfaffians.^{21-24, 28-36} The latter formalism is more compact and easy to handle. Apart from finding N -soliton solution using this technique, we can also obtain the rational solutions in a direct way.⁸³⁻⁹⁶ Recently, bilinear approach has been extended to multilinear form, in particular to trilinear case.^{97, 98} Many interesting integrable systems have been brought in this framework. In some cases, the trilinear forms can be written in bilinear forms by introducing extra τ -functions.

1.4 Conservation laws and generalized symmetries

For a given nonlinear evolution equation of the form

$$u_t = F(u, u_x, u_{xx}, \dots), \quad (6)$$

a conservation law is defined in the form

$$T_t + X_x = 0 \quad (7)$$

which is satisfied by all solutions of (6), where T is the conserved density and X the flux. Here, T_t denotes the total derivative of T with respect to t , likewise, X_x denotes the same for X with respect to x . It is noted that T involves u and its x derivatives only and the terms like u_x, u_{xx}, \dots are replaced by u, u_x, u_{xx}, \dots appropriately using (6), the given equation. The existence of infinite number of conserved quantities which are in involution with respect to a suitable Poisson bracket assures the integrability of the given system.^{54, 56, 57, 61, 62} It is a well-established fact that there is a close connection between the symmetries and conserved quantities through the symplectic operators used in Poisson brackets.⁶⁰

1.5 Painlevé analysis

Painlevé analysis is used to study the singularity structure of the given nonlinear equation.⁴³⁻⁴⁹ If only the movable critical singularities of all solution of the given system are poles, then we say that the system passes the Painlevé test and hence it could be a good candidate of an inte-

grable system. In practice, this analysis is a very effective tool to classify possible integrable systems in a systematic way. In recent times, the nature of singularities also dictates the form of the τ -function which is used to bilinearize the given system^{49, 99, 100}. In addition, there is some evidence to show that this method can also be used to obtain Lax pairs and Backlund transformations.⁵⁰ However, it is not yet established completely that one can obtain the last mentioned properties systematically through this approach.

1.6. Lie symmetries

The theory of Lie point symmetries goes back to the 19th century. Sophus Lie studied the invariance properties of the symmetry groups and used them to solve/classify the differential equation. Using one-parameter Lie group of symmetries one can systematically reduce the order of the ordinary differential equation by one. Finding this group of symmetries which leaves the system invariant is tedious and computationally complex, nevertheless, it is very much algorithmic and systematic. Due to the algorithmic nature, this technique has been used widely to find special solutions to reduce the dimension of the independent variables especially in NPDEs, to identify integrable systems to one of the six Painlevé equations. By this method we can understand the underlying algebraic and geometric structure of the given system.^{53-73, 101-110}

1.7. Sato theory

Various methods developed so far to investigate the soliton equations indicate the rich mathematical structure of the soliton systems. It is Sato who unveiled the algebraic structure behind them using the method of algebraic analysis^{111, 112}. He noticed that the τ -function of the Kadomtsev-Petviashvili (KP) equation is connected with the Plucker coordinates appearing in the theory of Grassmann manifolds. He also noticed that the totality of solutions of the KP equation as well as its generalization constitute an infinite-dimensional Grassmann manifold. Ohta *et al.*¹¹³ presented a clear description of Sato theory in an elementary way. Starting from the pseudo-differential operator they construct a linear homogeneous ordinary differential equation and explicitly explain the connection between the coefficients and the solutions of the same. They introduce an infinite number of time variables in the coefficients and impose certain time dependence on the solutions and derive Sato, Lax, and ZS equations and the linear eigenvalue problem associated to the generalized Lax equation. As a consequence, the KP hierarchy was derived in a systematic manner and various reductions of it have been presented. They brought out the connection between the τ -function and the bilinear forms using Young diagram. After the development of this grand theory, Date *et al.*^{114, 115} and Jimbo and Miwa¹¹⁶ extended Sato's idea and developed the theory of transformation groups for soliton equations which essentially explains the group-theoretical foundation of Hirota's method and Sato theory. The main aim of this theory is to reveal the intimate relation between the KP hierarchy and the infinite dimensional Lie algebra $gl(\infty)$ using the language of free Fermion operators. They indeed had a big program to classify soliton hierarchies written in bilinear form according to various realizations of Lie algebras. Using Sato theory, recently a nice method was developed to derive the generalized symmetries and conserved quantities of KP hierarchy^{117, 119}. Hence, it is clear that Sato theory is the most powerful method through which one can obtain systematic

cally integrability properties such as Lax pair, soliton solutions, conservation laws and symmetries of the integrable systems in an unified way^{111-113,117-119} Using multicomponent version of this theory one can arrive at Davey-Stewartson equation and nonlinear Schrödinger equation in $2 + 1$ dimensions^{118, 120, 121}

1.8 Differential-difference framework

In contrast to the continuous equations wherein enormous amount of research has been done to investigate various aspects of integrability, differential-difference or fully discrete systems have not been studied in depth. However, some attempts had been made by Hirota in looking at the bilinear formalism for many known soliton equations in differential-difference settings¹²⁻¹⁹. Also, Ablowitz and Ladik introduced differential-difference analogue of AKNS scheme and obtained many differential-difference soliton systems like nonlinear Schrödinger equation. They also extended the IST method to differential-difference case^{122, 123}. In addition, many more important developments have taken place in this area.^{115, 124-155} Using group-theoretic techniques, Date *et al.*¹¹⁵ proposed a method and derived a large class of continuous, semi-continuous, discrete soliton equations. More recently, there was a remarkable discovery of proposing singularity structure analysis for nonlinear difference equation by Grammaticos *et al.*¹⁵⁶ This technique, now popularly called singularity confinement, is very powerful in identifying discrete integrable systems. In particular, it is interesting to see that the discrete versions of Painlevé equations have been obtained through this technique and other properties have been studied.¹⁵⁶⁻¹⁷¹ Soon after the discovery of singularity confinement, Ramani *et al.*^{172, 173} synthesized both the classical Painlevé analysis and singularity confinement together and proposed the singularity confinement approach to test the nature of singularity in differential-difference equations. Again, this has been successfully implemented for several differential-difference systems including integro-differential equations^{139, 172}. In the same period, following the idea of Macda,¹⁴⁰⁻¹⁴² Levi and Winternitz proposed Lie symmetry analysis for differential-difference systems¹⁴³⁻¹⁴⁵ which was studied by others also¹⁴⁶⁻¹⁵⁰. As in the continuous case, the existence of Lie point symmetries obtained through Lie's one-parameter transformation group for differential-difference equations again becomes very important. Using this theory, as in the continuous case, one could find similarity solutions and use them for reductions. Though this method is still in the early stage many interesting results have already been obtained.

1.9 Present work

In Section 2, we discuss the derivations of the differential-difference Kadomtsev-Petviashvili (DAKP) equation, conservation laws, generalized symmetries and solutions.^{151, 152} Next, we briefly mention singularity structures and Lie symmetry analysis of DAKP. Details will be published elsewhere.^{154, 155} Finally, we also discuss a gauge equivalence of the DAKP equation and study certain integrability properties of this system.^{153, 155}

In Section 3, preliminary definitions and results needed to develop the differential-difference Sato theory are presented. Also, the Sato equation, generalized Lax equation, Zakharov-Shabat equation, and DAKP hierarchy are derived. The associated eigenvalue problem is considered and the conserved quantities and generalized symmetries of DAKP equation are

obtained systematically. In Section 4, N -soliton solution and the rational solutions of DAKP and its hierarchy are given in terms of a Wronskian determinant. In Section 5, Lie-point symmetry analysis is performed for the differential-difference KP equation and the Veselov-Shabat equation¹⁷³ is obtained as a similarity reduction. Also, singularity structure of the solution of DAKP equation is analysed using Painlevé-singularity confinement method for the differential-difference equation. In Section 6, we derive a gauge equivalence of DAKP equation and study certain integrability properties such as Lax pair, conservation laws and generalized symmetries of the resulting system and perform Lie symmetry and singularity structure analysis.

2. Differential-difference Sato theory

2.1 Introduction

The search for discrete or semi-discrete integrable equations started after the identification of solitons in Toda lattice.¹³⁵ Toda lattice is a prototype model for the differential-difference soliton equation which possesses all integrability properties such as Lax pair representation, existence of infinite number of conserved quantities and N -soliton solution, etc as other soliton equations in continuous case. Thus, various methods used to identify the integrable systems in the continuous case were extended to semi-discrete case too. For example, the IST method by Ablowitz and Ladik,^{122,123} discrete bilinear forms by Hirota,¹²⁻²⁰ group-theoretic method by Date *et al.*^{114,115} and Jimbo and Miwa,¹¹⁶ Lax method by Kupershmidt,¹⁵⁶ Lie symmetry method of Maeda *et al.*¹⁴⁰⁻¹⁴², Levi and coworkers,¹⁴³⁻¹⁴⁶ Quispel and others¹⁴⁷⁻¹⁴⁹ and Gaeta¹⁵⁰ and the Painlevé method by Ramani *et al.*¹³⁷⁻¹³⁸ Since Sato theory unifies all these approaches in the continuous case, it is natural to expect that the Sato theory plays the same role for differential-difference case also. This motivates us to look for the Sato theory for differential-difference integrable equations. Following the work of Ohta *et al.*¹¹⁵ we formulated a suitable framework to treat the differential-difference equations. In fact, using this approach we have obtained the Lax pair, conservation laws and generalized symmetries of the DAKP equation systematically.¹⁵¹

2.2 Preliminaries

We start from the definition of the forward difference operator Δ and the shift operator E given by

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta f(n) &= f(n+1) - f(n) \\ E f(n) &= f(n+1)\end{aligned}\quad (8)$$

for all values of n (real or complex). Here the step size is taken to be one. From (8) it is clear that $\Delta = E - 1$. The Leibniz rule for the difference of product of two functions is given by

$$\Delta^m (f(n)g(n)) = \sum_{r=0}^m \frac{m(m-1) \cdots (m-r+1)}{r!} (\Delta^r E^{m-r} f(n)) (\Delta^{m-r} g(n)) \quad (9)$$

or

$$\Delta^m (f(n)g(n)) = \sum_{r=0}^m \frac{m(m-1)\cdots(m-r+1)}{r!} (\Delta^r f(n)) (\Delta^{m-r} E^r g(n)) \quad (10)$$

for all integers m . Using the Leibniz rule (9) for the difference set-up we arrive at negative and positive powers of Δ in the form.

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta^{-3}(fg) &= (E^{-3}f)\Delta^{-3}g - 3(E^{-4}\Delta f)\Delta^{-4}g + 6(E^{-5}\Delta^2 f)\Delta^{-5}g + \dots \\ \Delta^{-2}(fg) &= (E^{-2}f)\Delta^{-2}g - 2(E^{-3}\Delta f)\Delta^{-3}g + 3(E^{-4}\Delta^2 f)\Delta^{-4}g + \dots \\ \Delta^{-1}(fg) &= (E^{-1}f)\Delta^{-1}g - (E^{-2}\Delta f)\Delta^{-2}g + (E^{-3}\Delta^2 f)\Delta^{-3}g + \dots \\ \Delta(fg) &= (Ef)\Delta g + (\Delta f)g \\ \Delta^2(fg) &= (E^2f)\Delta^2 g + 2(E\Delta f)\Delta g + (\Delta^2 f)g \\ \Delta^3(fg) &= (E^3f)\Delta^3 g + 3(E^2\Delta f)\Delta^2 g + 3(E\Delta^2 f)\Delta g + (\Delta^3 f)g \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

Throughout this paper, we use the following convention

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta^l f \Delta^m g &= (\Delta^l f) (\Delta^m g) \\ E^l \Delta^m f \Delta^k g &= (E^l \Delta^m f) (\Delta^k g) \\ E^l f E^m g &= (E^l f) (E^m g) \end{aligned}$$

where l, m and k are integers. Now we define the formal inner product of the given functions $u(n), v(n)$ in such a way that

$$\langle u(n), v(n) \rangle = \Delta^{-1}(u(n)v(n)). \quad (12)$$

Also, we assume that $u(n), v(n) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. The formal adjoint of the difference operator is defined by

$$(q(n)\Delta^m p(n)) = (-1)^m p(n)\Delta^m E^{-m} q(n) \quad (13)$$

for all functions $p(n)$ and $q(n)$. Throughout this paper we assume that the difference operator Δ and the differential operator $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}$ commutes.

2.3. Pseudo-difference operator

In the continuous case, the pseudo-differential operator plays a fundamental role in developing Sato theory.¹¹² By proper manipulation of this operator one can derive Lax pair, conserved

quantities and symmetries in a systematic way. So, by analogy, with continuous case it is natural and worth to start with the pseudo-difference operator W , given by

$$W = 1 + w_1 \Delta^{-1} + w_2 \Delta^{-2} + \dots \tag{14}$$

where $w_j, j = 1, 2, \dots$ are functions of n . We expect that the inverse of the pseudo-difference operator W is also of the same form and is given by

$$W^{-1} = 1 + v_1 \Delta^{-1} + v_2 \Delta^{-2} + \dots \tag{15}$$

where $v_j, j = 1, 2, \dots$ are functions of n . Since W and W^{-1} are formal inverse to each other, we have $WW^{-1} = W^{-1}W = 1$.

Using the expressions in eqns (14) and (15) in $WW^{-1} = 1$ and rearranging the terms and comparing the like powers of Δ on both sides we get an infinite number of equations for v_j s in terms of w_j s, $i, j = 1, 2, \dots$ which give the relationship between v_j s and w_j s, $i, j = 1, 2, \dots$. We list the first few of them below.

$$\begin{aligned} v_1 &= -w_1 \\ v_2 &= w_1 E^{-1} w_1 - w_2 \\ v_3 &= -w_1 E^{-1} w_1 + w_1 E^{-2} w_1 - w_1 E^{-1} w_1 E^{-2} w_1 + w_1 E^{-1} w_2 \\ &\quad + w_2 E^{-2} w_1 - w_3 \end{aligned} \tag{16}$$

For convenience, we restrict the operator W to only a finite number of terms say m and thus consider the m th order linear homogeneous ordinary difference equation given by

$$W_m \Delta^m f(n) = (\Delta^m + w_1 \Delta^{m-1} + w_2 \Delta^{m-2} + \dots + w_m) f(n) = 0 \tag{17}$$

which has m linearly independent solutions say, $f^{(1)}(n), f^{(2)}(n), \dots, f^{(m)}(n)$. Since these $f^{(j)}(n)$ s are solutions of eqn (17) and hence we have a system of m linear equations in m unknowns w_1, w_2, \dots, w_m given by

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta^{m-1} f^{(1)} w_1 + \Delta^{m-2} f^{(1)} w_2 + \dots + f^{(1)} w_m &= -\Delta^m f^{(1)} \\ \vdots & \\ \Delta^{m-1} f^{(m)} w_1 + \Delta^{m-2} f^{(m)} w_2 + \dots + f^{(m)} w_m &= -\Delta^m f^{(m)} \end{aligned} \tag{18}$$

Solving this system of algebraic equations using Cramer's rule (this is possible because the determinant of the coefficient matrix of the above system (18) is nothing but the Casorati determinant which is nonzero, due to the fact that $f^{(j)}(n)$ s are linearly independent), we arrive at

$$w_j = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} \Delta^{m-1} f^{(1)} & \dots & -\Delta^m f^{(1)} & \dots & f^{(1)} \\ \vdots & \dots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ \Delta^{m-1} f^{(m)} & \dots & -\Delta^m f^{(m)} & \dots & f^{(m)} \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} \Delta^{m-1} f^{(1)} & \dots & \Delta^{m-j} f^{(j)} & \dots & f^{(1)} \\ \vdots & \dots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ \Delta^{m-1} f^{(m)} & \dots & \Delta^{m-j} f^{(m)} & \dots & f^{(m)} \end{vmatrix}} \tag{19}$$

for $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$. Substituting the values of w_j s in (17) and simplifying, we get

$$W_m = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} f^{(1)} & \dots & f^{(m)} & \Delta^{-m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \Delta^{m-1} f^{(1)} & \dots & \Delta^{m-1} f^{(m)} & \Delta^{-1} \\ \Delta^m f^{(1)} & \dots & \Delta^m f^{(m)} & 1 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} f^{(1)} & \dots & f^{(m)} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \Delta^{m-1} f^{(1)} & \dots & \Delta^{m-1} f^{(m)} \end{vmatrix}}. \quad (20)$$

In eqn (20), the operator Δ^j , $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$ has to be put in the rightmost position when we evaluate the determinant of the numerator.

We assume that the set of linearly independent solutions $f^{(j)}(n)$, $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$ of the m th order linear difference equation (17) are analytic and hence can be expanded by using Newton-Gregory formula,

$$f^{(j)}(n) = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{n^{(r)}}{r!} \xi_r^{(j)}, \quad (21)$$

where $\Delta^r f^{(j)}(0) = \xi_r^{(j)}$ and $n^{(r)} = n(n-1)\dots(n-r+1)$. Using (18) and (21) we can write the system of linear equations (17) as

$$W_m \Delta^m \left(1, \frac{n^{(1)}}{1!}, \frac{n^{(2)}}{2!}, \dots \right) \Phi = 0 \quad (22)$$

where

$$\Phi = \begin{pmatrix} \xi_0^{(1)} & \xi_0^{(2)} & \dots & \xi_0^{(m)} \\ \xi_1^{(1)} & \xi_1^{(2)} & \dots & \xi_1^{(m)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \end{pmatrix} \quad (23)$$

Here $\left(1, \frac{n^{(1)}}{1!}, \frac{n^{(2)}}{2!}, \dots \right)$ is an $1 \times \infty$ matrix and Φ is an $\infty \times m$ matrix. Let Λ be the shift matrix given by

$$\Lambda = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}. \quad (24)$$

Using the above matrix, we can write

$$\begin{aligned}
 (1+\Lambda)^n &= \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{n^{(r)}}{r!} \Lambda^r \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{n^{(1)}}{1!} & \frac{n^{(2)}}{2!} & \dots \\ & 1 & \frac{n^{(1)}}{1!} & \dots \\ & & 1 & \dots \\ 0 & & & \dots \end{pmatrix} \quad (25)
 \end{aligned}$$

Now, we define,

$$\begin{aligned}
 H(n) &= (1+\Lambda)^n \Phi \\
 &= \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{n^{(r)}}{r!} \Lambda^r \Phi \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} f^{(1)} & f^{(2)} & \dots & f^{(m)} \\ \Delta f^{(1)} & \Delta f^{(2)} & \dots & \Delta f^{(m)} \\ \Delta^2 f^{(1)} & \Delta^2 f^{(2)} & \dots & \Delta^2 f^{(m)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \end{pmatrix} \quad (26)
 \end{aligned}$$

The determinant formed by the first m rows of $H(n)$ is nothing but the denominator in W_n which is the Casorat determinant for the solutions of the difference equation (17).

2.4. Time dependence

In this section, we discuss the impact of time dependence in the coefficients of the ordinary difference equation (17). We introduce an infinite number of time variables $t = (t_1, t_2, \dots)$ in w_j as $w_j = w_j(n; t)$, $j = 1, 2, \dots$. As a consequence of this, we have

$$f^{(j)} = f^{(j)}(n; t) = f^{(j)}(n, t_1, t_2, \dots) \quad (27)$$

We consider the time evolution of $H(n)$ in the form

$$H(n; t) = \left(\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{n^{(r)}}{r!} \Lambda^r \right) \exp \eta(t, \Lambda) \Phi \quad (28)$$

where $\eta(t, \Lambda) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} t_k \Lambda^k$. We write formally,

$$\left(\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{n^{(r)}}{r!} \Lambda^r \right) \exp \eta(t, \Lambda) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_k \Lambda^k. \quad (29)$$

Expanding the above expression (29) and comparing the coefficients of like powers of Λ on both sides, we get

$$\begin{aligned}
P_0 &= 1 \\
P_1 &= n + t_1 \\
P_2 &= \frac{n(n-1)}{2!} + nt_1 + \frac{1}{2!}(t_1^2 + 2t_2) \\
P_3 &= \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{3!} + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!}t_1 + \frac{1}{2!}(t_1^2 + 2t_2)n + \frac{1}{3!}(t_1^3 + 6t_1t_2 + 6t_3) \\
P_4 &= \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)(n-3)}{4!} + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{3!}t_1 + \frac{1}{2!}(t_1^2 + 2t_2)\frac{n(n-1)}{2!} \\
&\quad + \frac{1}{3!}(t_1^3 + 6t_1t_2 + 6t_3)n + \frac{1}{4!}(t_1^4 + 12t_1^2t_2 + 12t_2^2 + 24t_3t_1 + 24t_4)
\end{aligned} \tag{30}$$

These polynomials are analogues to Schur polynomials in the continuous case. They have a special property

$$\frac{\partial P_k}{\partial t_m} = P_{k-m}, \quad P_k = 0, \forall k < 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta P_k = P_{k-1} \tag{31}$$

We use the above property (31) to express the function $H(n, t)$ in terms of P_k s, which is written in the form

$$\begin{aligned}
H(n; t) &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & P_1 & P_2 & \cdots \\ & 1 & P_1 & \cdots \\ & & 1 & \cdots \\ 0 & & & \ddots \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \xi_0^{(1)} & \xi_0^{(2)} & \cdots & \xi_0^{(m)} \\ \xi_1^{(1)} & \xi_1^{(2)} & \cdots & \xi_1^{(m)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \end{pmatrix} \\
&= \begin{pmatrix} h_0^{(1)}(n; t) & h_0^{(2)}(n; t) & \cdots & h_0^{(m)}(n; t) \\ h_1^{(1)}(n; t) & h_1^{(2)}(n; t) & \cdots & h_1^{(m)}(n; t) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \end{pmatrix}
\end{aligned} \tag{32}$$

where

$$h_0^{(j)}(n; 0) = f^{(j)}(n) \tag{33}$$

and

$$h_k^{(j)}(n; t) = \frac{\partial h_0^{(j)}(n; t)}{\partial t_k} = \Delta^k h_0^{(j)}(n, t). \tag{34}$$

It is easy to infer from (33) and (34) that $h(n; t) = h_0^{(j)}(n; t)$, and $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$ are solutions of a set of linear partial differential-difference equations

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t_k} - \Delta^k \right) h(n, t) = 0, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots \quad (35)$$

with the initial value $h(n, 0) = f^{(0)}(n)$. Hence, the linear difference equation (17) becomes,

$$W_m \Delta^m h_0^{(j)}(n, t) = (\Delta^m + w_1 \Delta^{m-1} + w_2 \Delta^{m-2} + \dots + w_m) h_0^{(j)}(n; t) = 0, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m. \quad (36)$$

Solving these system of equations (36) as earlier, we get,

$$w_j = \begin{vmatrix} \Delta^{m-1} h_0^{(1)} & \dots & -\Delta^m h_0^{(1)} & \dots & h_0^{(1)} \\ \vdots & \dots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ \Delta^{m-1} h_0^{(m)} & \dots & -\Delta^m h_0^{(m)} & \dots & h_0^{(m)} \\ \Delta^{m-1} h_0^{(1)} & \dots & \Delta^{m-j} h_0^{(1)} & \dots & h_0^{(1)} \\ \vdots & \dots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ \Delta^{m-1} h_0^{(m)} & \dots & \Delta^{m-j} h_0^{(m)} & \dots & h_0^{(m)} \end{vmatrix} \quad (37)$$

and hence

$$W_m = \begin{vmatrix} h_0^{(1)} & \dots & h_0^{(m)} & \Delta^{-m} \\ \vdots & \dots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \Delta^{m-1} h_0^{(1)} & \dots & \Delta^{m-1} h_0^{(m)} & \Delta^{-1} \\ \Delta^m h_0^{(1)} & \dots & \Delta^m h_0^{(m)} & 1 \\ h_0^{(1)} & \dots & h_0^{(m)} \\ \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ \Delta^{m-1} h_0^{(1)} & \dots & \Delta^{m-1} h_0^{(m)} \end{vmatrix} \quad (38)$$

Now w_j and W_m are completely given in terms of differential–difference analogues of Schur polynomials P_k s using (30)

2.5. Sato, Lax, Zakharov and Shabat equations

It is well known that the integrability of the nonlinear systems is associated with the finding of appropriate Lax or Zakharov–Shabat equations. As in the continuous case,¹¹³ the differential–difference version of Sato theory provides the Sato, Lax and Zakharov–Shabat equations naturally. To achieve this goal we proceed as follows: differentiating eqn (36) with respect to t_k , we obtain

$$\frac{\partial W_m}{\partial t_k} \Delta^m h_0^{(j)} + W_m \Delta^m \frac{\partial h_0^{(j)}}{\partial t_k} = 0, \quad (39)$$

since Δ and $\frac{\partial}{\partial t_k}$ commutes. Using the relations (34), in (39), we get

$$\left(\frac{\partial W_m}{\partial t_k} \Delta^m + W_m \Delta^m \Delta^k \right) h_0^{(j)}(n, t) = 0 \quad (40)$$

We factorize the operator in (40), as

$$\frac{\partial W_m}{\partial t_k} \Delta^m + W_m \Delta^m \Delta^k = B_k W_m \Delta^m \quad (41)$$

where B_k is a k th-order difference operator. B_k s can be obtained by applying $\Delta^{-m} W_m^{-1}$ from the right of eqn (41)

$$B_k = \frac{\partial W_m}{\partial t_k} W_m^{-1} + W_m \Delta^k W_m^{-1} \quad (42)$$

From eqn (42), we can obtain by multiplying W_m from right,

$$\frac{\partial W_m}{\partial t_k} = B_k W_m - W_m \Delta^k \quad (43)$$

Hence the time evolution of the pseudo-difference operator $W_m(n, t)$ is governed by

$$\frac{\partial W}{\partial t_k} = B_k W - W \Delta^k \quad (44)$$

which is the differential-difference version of the famous Sato equation¹¹⁵ The B_k s in the Sato equation can be computed from W using the following relation

$$B_k = (W \Delta^k W^{-1})^+ \quad (45)$$

where $(\)^+$ denotes the nonnegative powers of Δ only. We have discarded the first term of eqn (42), because it involves only negative powers of Δ , whereas B_k consists only nonnegative powers of Δ . Using (45) we can derive the B_k s explicitly. We list below a first few of them:

$$\begin{aligned} B_1 &= \Delta - \Delta w_1 \\ B_2 &= \Delta^2 - (2\Delta w_1 + \Delta^2 w_1) \Delta + (-2\Delta w_1 - 2\Delta^2 w_1 + \Delta w_1 \Delta^3 w_1 + 2(\Delta w_1)^2 \\ &\quad + w_1 \Delta^2 w_1 + 2w_1 \Delta w_1 - \Delta^2 w_2 - 2\Delta w_2) \end{aligned} \quad (46)$$

Next, we will derive the generalized Lax equation, involving infinite number of time variables. For this, we define

$$L = W \Delta W^{-1}. \quad (47)$$

Substituting the values of W and W^{-1} and rearranging the terms we can write

$$L = \Delta + u_0 + u_1 \Delta^{-1} + u_2 \Delta^{-2} + \dots \quad (48)$$

where u_s are expressed in terms of w_s $i = 0, 1, j = 1, 2$. We present some u_s

$$\begin{aligned} u_0 &= -\Delta w_1 \\ u_1 &= -\Delta w_1 - \Delta w_2 + w_1 \Delta w_1 \\ u_2 &= -\Delta w_2 - \Delta w_3 + \Delta w_1 E^{-1} w_1 + w_2 \Delta w_1 + E^{-1} w_1 \Delta w_2 - w_1 \Delta w_1 E^{-1} w_1 \end{aligned} \quad (49)$$

Differentiating eqn (47) with respect to t_k , we get

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial t_k} = \frac{\partial W}{\partial t_k} \Delta W^{-1} + W \Delta \frac{\partial W^{-1}}{\partial t_k} \quad (50)$$

The first term on the right-hand side of the above expression (50) will be replaced by the Sato equation (44) whereas for the second term we have to find $\frac{\partial W^{-1}}{\partial t_k}$. For this, differentiating $W W^{-1} = 1$ with respect to t_k we have

$$\frac{\partial W}{\partial t_k} W^{-1} + W \frac{\partial W^{-1}}{\partial t_k} = 0 \quad (51)$$

Operating W^{-1} from the left of the above expression (51) and rearranging the terms we have

$$\frac{\partial W^{-1}}{\partial t_k} = -W^{-1} \frac{\partial W}{\partial t_k} W^{-1}. \quad (52)$$

Using (52) in (50), we obtain

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial t_k} = \frac{\partial W}{\partial t_k} \Delta W^{-1} + W \Delta \left(-W^{-1} \frac{\partial W}{\partial t_k} W^{-1} \right) \quad (53)$$

Substituting the value of $\frac{\partial W}{\partial t_k}$ from the Sato equation (44), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial L}{\partial t_k} &= (B_k W - W \Delta^k) \Delta W^{-1} - W \Delta W^{-1} (B_k W - W \Delta^k) W^{-1} \\ &= B_k W \Delta W^{-1} - W \Delta^{k+1} W^{-1} - W \Delta W^{-1} B_k + W \Delta^{k+1} W^{-1} \\ &= B_k L - L B_k \\ &= [B_k, L] \end{aligned} \quad (54)$$

Thus, we have the generalized Lax equation

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial t_k} = [B_k, L], \quad k = 1, 2, \dots \quad (55)$$

It is noted from (47) that

$$L^k = W\Delta^k W^{-1} \quad (56)$$

and hence

$$B_k = (L^k)^+ \quad (57)$$

From $B_k = (L^k)^+$, it is now immediate that

$$\begin{aligned} B_1 &= \Delta + u_0 \\ B_2 &= \Delta^2 + (2u_0 + \Delta u_0)\Delta + (\Delta u_0 + u_0^2 + 2u_1 + \Delta u_1) \\ B_3 &= \Delta^3 + (3u_0 + 3\Delta u_0 + \Delta^2 u_0)\Delta^2 + (2\Delta^2 u_0 + 3\Delta u_0 + 3u_0^2 + 3u_0\Delta u_0 + (\Delta u_0)^2 \\ &\quad + 3u_1 + 3\Delta u_1 + \Delta^2 u_1)\Delta + (\Delta^2 u_0 + 5u_1 u_0 + 3u_0\Delta u_0 + u_0^3 + (\Delta u_0)^2 + \Delta u_0\Delta u_1 \\ &\quad + 3u_0\Delta u_1 + u_1\Delta u_0 + u_1 E^{-1}u_0 + 2\Delta^2 u_1 + 3\Delta u_1 + 3u_2 + 3\Delta u_2 + \Delta^2 u_2) \end{aligned} \quad (58)$$

We can show that using (55) and (56),

$$\frac{\partial L^m}{\partial t_k} = [B_k, L^m], \quad m, k = 1, 2, \dots \quad (59)$$

is also true. Now, we will obtain the Zakharov-Shabat equation. From (59) we can show that

$$\frac{\partial L^m}{\partial t_k} - \frac{\partial L^k}{\partial t_m} = [B_k, L^m] - [B_m, L^k] \quad (60)$$

holds true. We denote $B_k^c = B_k - L^k$ which contains only terms with $\Delta^{-j}, j > 0$. Employing this relation in eqn (60), we arrive at

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial L^m}{\partial t_k} - \frac{\partial L^k}{\partial t_m} &= [B_k, L^m] - [B_m, L^k] \\ &= [L^k + B_k^c, L^m] - [B_m, B_k - B_k^c] \\ &= L^k L^m + B_k^c L^m - L^m L^k - L^m B_k^c - B_m B_k + B_m B_k^c + B_k B_m - B_k^c B_m \\ &= B_k^c L^m - L^m B_k^c - B_m B_k + B_m B_k^c + B_k B_m - B_k^c B_m \\ &= B_k^c B_m - B_k^c B_m^c - B_m B_k^c + B_m^c B_k^c - B_m B_k + B_m B_k^c + B_k B_m - B_k^c B_m \\ &= B_k B_m - B_m B_k - B_k^c B_m^c + B_m^c B_k^c \\ &= [B_k, B_m] - [B_k^c, B_m^c] \end{aligned} \quad (61)$$

But, from $L^k = B_k - B_k^c$, we have

$$\frac{\partial B_m}{\partial x_k} - \frac{\partial B_m^c}{\partial x_k} - \frac{\partial B_k}{\partial x_m} + \frac{\partial B_k^c}{\partial x_m} = [B_k, B_m] - [B_k^c, B_m^c] \quad (62)$$

Equating the difference part on both sides of (62), we find that

$$\frac{\partial B_m}{\partial x_k} - \frac{\partial B_k}{\partial x_m} = [B_k, B_m] \quad (63)$$

which is the Zakharov–Shabat equation ¹¹³

2.6. Differential–difference KP equation

In the previous section, we derived the Sato, Lax and Zakharov–Shabat equations in a systematic way. In this section, we obtain a hierarchy of differential–difference soliton equations using Sato theory. Since the first non-trivial member in this hierarchy is DΔKP equation, we call this as DΔKP hierarchy. Consider the L operator and the operators B_k , $k = 1, 2, \dots$. Using the generalized Lax equation (55), for a given B_k , we can derive a set of infinite number of equations involving u_0, u_1, \dots . So, it is possible to generate infinite set of infinite number of equations for u_0, u_1, \dots . By appropriately choosing the equations in different sets, we can derive integrable nonlinear differential–difference equations. We wish to remind the reader that not every member in these sets is individually integrable. For example, taking $k = 1$ in eqn (55) we get an infinite set of equations given by

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} &= \Delta u_1 \\ \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial t_1} &= \Delta u_1 + \Delta u_2 + u_0 u_1 - u_1 E^{-1} u_0 \\ \frac{\partial u_2}{\partial t_1} &= \Delta u_2 + \Delta u_3 + u_0 u_2 + u_1 E^{-1} u_0 - u_1 E^{-2} u_0 - u_2 E^{-2} u_0 \end{aligned} \quad (64)$$

Also, for $k = 2$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_2} &= \Delta^2 u_1 + 2\Delta u_2 + \Delta^2 u_2 + u_1 \Delta u_0 + 2u_0 \Delta u_1 + \Delta u_0 \Delta u_1 + u_0 u_1 - u_1 E^{-1} u_0 \\ \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial t_2} &= \Delta^2 u_1 + 2\Delta u_2 + 2\Delta^2 u_2 + 2\Delta u_3 + \Delta^2 u_3 + 2u_0 \Delta u_1 + \Delta u_0 u_1 + 2u_0 u_2 \\ &\quad + u_2 \Delta u_0 + 2u_0 \Delta u_2 + \Delta u_2 \Delta u_0 + u_1 \Delta u_0 + u_1 u_0^2 + u_1^2 + u_1 \Delta u_1 \\ &\quad - u_1 E^{-2} u_0 + u_1 E^{-1} u_0 - u_1 (E^{-1} u_0)^2 - u_1 E^{-1} u_1 - u_2 E^{-1} u_0 - u_2 E^{-2} u_0 \end{aligned} \quad (65)$$

Now, we consider the first two equations from the set of equations given in (64) and the first equation in (65). Solving these equations for u_0 we arrive at the DΔKP equation

$$\Delta \left(\frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_2} + 2 \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} - 2u_0 \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} \right) = (2 + \Delta) \frac{\partial^2 u_0}{\partial t_1^2} \quad (66)$$

This equation was first derived by Date *et al* through group of transformations approach.¹¹⁵

2.7 Conserved quantities

Once we have the Lax pair, it is natural to ask for the existence of infinite number of conservation laws, a basic property of integrable systems. Again we utilize the Sato's framework to derive them. Matsukidaira *et al*¹¹⁷ developed a method to derive conservation laws of the KP equation through Sato theory and the same method was implemented¹¹⁹ to derive the conserved quantities of Toda lattice. We follow a similar approach and derive the infinite number of conserved quantities for Δ DKP equation through Sato theory. For this purpose, we first consider the linear eigenvalue problem associated with the generalized Lax equation (55)

$$\begin{aligned} L\Psi &= \lambda\Psi \\ \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t_k} &= B_k \Psi \end{aligned} \quad (67)$$

and $\lambda_{,i} = 0$. Using $B_k = L^k + B_k^c$, we rewrite eqn (67), as

$$\frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t_k} = (L^k + B_k^c)\Psi. \quad (68)$$

We recall that B_k^c consists only the negative powers of Δ . Now we will express Δ^j , $j = 1, 2$, in terms of L^j . For this purpose first we find L^{-1} . We assume that L^{-1} is of the form

$$L^{-1} = \Delta^{-1} + q_2 \Delta^{-2} + q_3 \Delta^{-3} + \dots \quad (69)$$

Using $L^{-1}L = 1$ we can determine q_j s and we list some of them:

$$\begin{aligned} q_2 &= -E^{-1}u_0 \\ q_3 &= E^{-1}u_0 - E^{-2}u_0 - E^{-1}u_1 + E^{-1}u_0 E^{-2}u_0 \\ q_4 &= -E^{-1}u_0 + 2E^{-2}u_0 - E^{-3}u_0 + E^{-1}u_1 - E^{-2}u_1 - E^{-1}u_2 - 2E^{-1}u_0 E^{-2}u_0 \\ &\quad + E^{-1}u_0 E^{-3}u_0 + E^{-1}u_0 E^{-2}u_1 + E^{-2}u_0 E^{-3}u_0 + E^{-1}u_1 E^{-3}u_0 \\ &\quad - E^{-1}u_0 E^{-2}u_0 E^{-3}u_0 \\ q_5 &= E^{-1}u_0 - 3E^{-2}u_0 + 3E^{-3}u_0 - E^{-1}u_0 - E^{-1}u_1 + 2E^{-2}u_1 - E^{-3}u_1 + E^{-1}u_2 \\ &\quad - E^{-2}u_2 - E^{-1}u_3 + 3E^{-1}u_0 E^{-2}u_0 - 3E^{-1}u_0 E^{-3}u_0 - 2E^{-1}u_0 E^{-2}u_1 \\ &\quad + 2E^{-1}u_0 E^{-3}u_1 + E^{-1}u_0 E^{-2}u_2 - 3E^{-2}u_0 E^{-3}u_0 - 3E^{-1}u_1 E^{-3}u_0 \\ &\quad + 3E^{-1}u_0 E^{-2}u_0 E^{-3}u_0 + E^{-2}u_0 E^{-4}u_0 + 3E^{-1}u_1 E^{-4}u_0 - E^{-1}u_0 E^{-2}u_0 E^{-4}u_0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& -E^{-1}u_0E^{-3}u_1 + E^{-2}u_0E^{-3}u_1 + E^{-1}u_1E^{-3}u_1 - E^{-1}u_0E^{-2}u_0E^{-3}u_1 \\
& + E^{-1}u_0E^{-4}u_0 + E^{-3}u_0E^{-4}u_0 - E^{-1}u_1E^{-4}u_0 + E^{-2}u_1E^{-4}u_0 + E^{-1}u_2E^{-4}u_0 \\
& - E^{-1}u_0E^{-3}u_0E^{-4}u_0 - E^{-1}u_0E^{-2}u_1E^{-4}u_0 - E^{-2}u_0E^{-3}u_0E^{-4}u_0 \\
& - E^{-1}u_1E^{-3}u_0E^{-4}u_0 + E^{-1}u_0E^{-2}u_0E^{-3}u_0E^{-4}u_0 \\
& \dots
\end{aligned} \tag{70}$$

Using the Leibniz rule (9) and (69) we can derive the higher powers of L^j , $j = 1, 2$. We list some of them below:

$$\begin{aligned}
L^2 &= \Delta^{-2} + (E^{-1}q_2 + q_2)\Delta^{-3} + (-E^1q_2 + E^{-2}q_2 + E^{-1}q_3 + q_2E^{-2}q_2 + q_3)\Delta^{-4} \\
& \quad + (E^{-1}q_2 - 2E^{-2}q_2 + E^{-3}q_2 - E^{-1}q_3 + E^{-2}q_3 + E^{-1}q_4 - 2q_2E^{-2}q_2 \\
& \quad + 2q_2E^{-3}q_2 + q_2E^{-2}q_3 + q_3E^{-3}q_2 + q_4)\Delta^{-5} + \\
L^3 &= \Delta^{-3} + (E^{-2}q_2 + E^{-1}q_2 + q_2)\Delta^{-4} + (-2E^{-2}q_2 + 2E^{-3}q_2 + E^{-2}q_3 + q_2E^{-3}q_2 \\
& \quad + E^{-1}q_2E^{-3}q_2 - E^{-1}q_2 + E^{-2}q_2 + E^{-1}q_3 + q_2E^{-2}q_2 + q_3)\Delta^{-5} + \dots \\
L^4 &= \Delta^{-4} + (E^{-3}q_2 + E^{-2}q_2 + E^{-1}q_2 + q_2)\Delta^{-5} + \dots \\
L^5 &= \Delta^{-5} + \dots
\end{aligned} \tag{71}$$

Using the expressions for L^j and (70), we can express Δ^j , $j = 1, 2, \dots$

$$\begin{aligned}
\Delta^{-1} &= L^{-1} + E^{-1}u_0L^{-2} + (E^{-1}u_0^2 - E^{-1}u_0 + E^{-2}u_0 + E^{-1}u_1)L^{-3} + (E^{-1}u_0^3 - 2E^{-1}u_0^2 \\
& \quad + 2E^{-1}u_0E^{-1}u_1 + E^{-2}u_0^2 + E^{-2}u_0E^{-1}u_1 + E^{-1}u_0 - 2E^{-2}u_0 + E^3u_0 - E^{-1}u_1 \\
& \quad + E^{-2}u_1 + E^{-1}u_2 + E^{-1}u_0E^{-2}u_0)L^{-4} + (E^{-1}u_0^4 + E^{-1}u_0^3E^{-3}u_0 - 3E^{-1}u_0^3 \\
& \quad - E^{-1}u_0^3E^{-2}u_0 + 3E^{-1}u_0^2E^{-1}u_1 - E^{-1}u_0^2E^{-2}u_0E^{-3}u_0 + 3E^{-1}u_0^2 - 4E^{-1}u_0E^{-2}u_0 \\
& \quad - 4E^{-1}u_0E^{-1}u_1 + 2E^{-1}u_0E^{-1}u_2 + E^{-2}u_0^3 + E^{-2}u_0^2E^{-1}u_1 - E^{-1}u_0^2E^{-2}u_0^2 \\
& \quad + 2E^{-1}u_0E^{-2}u_0E^{-1}u_1 - E^{-1}u_1E^{-2}u_0 + 2E^{-1}u_0E^{-4}u_0 - 4E^{-2}u_0E^{-4}u_0 \\
& \quad + 4E^{-1}u_0E^{-2}u_0E^{-4}u_0 - 4E^{-4}u_0E^{-1}u_1 + E^{-2}u_0E^3u_0 + E^{-3}u_0E^{-1}u_1 \\
& \quad + E^{-1}u_1E^{-2}u_1 + E^{-1}u_0^2E^{-2}u_0 + E^{-1}u_1^2 + E^{-3}u_0^2 + E^{-3}u_0E^{-2}u_1 + E^{-3}u_0E^{-1}u_2 \\
& \quad - 3E^{-2}u_0^2 + E^{-2}u_0E^{-1}u_2 + E^{-1}u_0E^{-2}u_0^2 - E^{-1}u_0 + 3E^{-2}u_0 - 3E^{-3}u_0 + E^{-4}u_0 \\
& \quad + E^{-1}u_1 - 2E^{-2}u_1 + E^{-3}u_1 - E^{-1}u_2 + E^{-2}u_2 + E^{-1}u_3 + 4E^{-1}u_0E^{-3}u_0
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& +E^{-1}u_0E^{-2}u_1)L^{-5}+\dots \\
\Delta^{-2} & =L^{-2}+(E^{-2}u_0+E^{-1}u_0)L^{-3}+(E^{-2}u_0^2+E^{-1}u_0E^{-2}u_0+E^{-1}u_0^2-E^{-1}u_0 \\
& +E^{-1}u_1-E^{-2}u_0+2E^{-3}u_0+E^{-2}u_1)L^{-4}+(E^{-2}u_0^3-2E^{-2}u_0^2+2E^{-2}u_0E^{-3}u_0 \\
& +2E^{-2}u_0E^{-2}u_1-2E^{-2}u_0E^{-1}u_0+2E^{-2}u_0E^{-1}u_1+E^{-1}u_0^3+E^{-1}u_0^2E^{-3}u_0 \\
& -E^{-1}u_0E^{-2}u_0E^{-3}u_0+E^{-1}u_0E^{-2}u_1-2E^{-1}u_0^2+2E^{-1}u_0E^{-1}u_1+2E^{-3}u_0^2 \\
& +E^{-3}u_0E^{-2}u_1+2E^{-1}u_0E^{-3}u_0-E^{-2}u_1+2E^{-3}u_1+E^{-1}u_0-E^{-1}u_1+E^{-1}u_2 \\
& -2E^{-3}u_0+E^{-4}u_0+E^{-2}u_2)L^{-5}+\dots \\
\Delta^{-3} & =L^{-3}+(E^{-3}u_0+E^{-2}u_0+E^{-1}u_0)L^{-4}+(E^{-3}u_0^2+E^{-2}u_0E^{-3}u_0+E^{-1}u_0E^{-3}u_0 \\
& +E^{-2}u_0^2+E^{-1}u_0E^{-2}u_0+E^{-1}u_0^2-E^{-3}u_0+3E^{-4}u_0-E^{-2}u_0-E^{-1}u_0+E^{-3}u_1 \\
& +E^{-2}u_1+E^{-1}u_1)L^{-5}+\dots
\end{aligned} \tag{72}$$

Hence, eqn (68) becomes

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t_k} = \left(L^k + \sigma_1^{(k)} L^{-1} + \sigma_2^{(k)} L^{-2} + \dots \right) \psi \tag{73}$$

where $\sigma_j^{(k)}$ s are functions of u_s s for all $j, k = 1, 2, \dots, i = 0, 1, \dots$. On using $L'\psi = \lambda' \psi$ in (73), we obtain

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t_k} = \left(\lambda^m + \frac{\sigma_1^{(k)}}{\lambda} + \frac{\sigma_2^{(k)}}{\lambda^2} + \dots \right) \psi. \tag{74}$$

From this, we get

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t_k} \log \psi = \lambda^k + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sigma_j^{(k)}}{\lambda^j}. \tag{75}$$

We denote $\sigma^{(k)} = \sum_{j=1}^m \sigma_j^{(k)} \lambda^{-j}$ and hence eqn (75) becomes

$$\sigma^{(k)} = \frac{\partial(\log \psi)}{\partial t_k} - \lambda^k \tag{76}$$

Differentiating eqn (76) with respect to the time variable t_m , we will arrive at the conservation laws

$$\frac{\partial \sigma^{(k)}}{\partial t_m} = \frac{\partial}{\partial k} \left(\frac{\partial \log \Psi}{\partial t_m} \right), m, k = 1, 2, \quad (77)$$

Notice that $\sigma^{(k)}$ and $\frac{\partial \log \Psi}{\partial t_m}$ correspond to conserved quantity and flux, respectively. We list the first few of the $\sigma_j^{(l)}$ s :

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_1^{(1)} &= -u_1 \\ \sigma_2^{(1)} &= -u_1 E^{-1} u_0 - u_2 \\ \sigma_3^{(1)} &= -u_1 (E^{-1} u_0)^2 + u_1 E^{-1} u_0 - u_1 E^{-2} u_0 - u_1 E^{-1} u_1 - u_2 E^{-2} u_0 \\ &\quad - u_2 E^{-1} u_0 - u_3 \end{aligned} \quad (78)$$

It is known from Section 2.6 that the Lax equation with $k = 1$ gives

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} &= \Delta u_1 \\ \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial t_1} &= \Delta u_1 + \Delta u_2 + u_0 u_1 - u_1 E^{-1} u_0 \\ \frac{\partial u_2}{\partial t_1} &= \Delta u_2 + \Delta u_3 + u_0 u_2 + u_1 E^{-1} u_0 - u_1 E^{-2} u_0 - u_2 E^{-2} u_0 \end{aligned} \quad (79)$$

From the above equations (79), we can express u_1, u_2, u_3 in terms of u_0 , and we list the first few of u_j s for $j = 1, 2, \dots$

$$\begin{aligned} u_1 &= \Delta^{-1} \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} \\ u_2 &= \Delta^{-2} \frac{\partial^2 u_0}{\partial t_1^2} - \Delta^{-1} \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} - E^{-1} u_0 \Delta^{-1} \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} + \Delta^{-1} \left(u_0 \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} \right) \\ u_3 &= \Delta^{-3} \frac{\partial^3 u_0}{\partial t_1^3} - 2\Delta^{-2} \frac{\partial^2 u_0}{\partial t_1^2} + \Delta^{-1} \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} - E^{-1} u_0 \Delta^2 \frac{\partial^2 u_0}{\partial t_1^2} + E^{-2} u_0 \Delta^{-2} \frac{\partial^2 u_0}{\partial t_1^2} \\ &\quad + 2E^{-1} u_0 \Delta^{-1} \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} - E^{-2} u_0 \Delta^{-1} \left(u_0 \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} \right) + \Delta^{-1} \left(\left(\frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} \right)^2 + u_0 \frac{\partial^2 u_0}{\partial t_1^2} \right) \\ &\quad - \Delta^{-1} \left(E^{-1} \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} \Delta^{-1} \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} + E^{-1} u_0 \Delta^{-1} \frac{\partial^2 u_0}{\partial t_1^2} \right) + \Delta^{-1} \left(u_0 \Delta^{-1} \frac{\partial^2 u_0}{\partial t_1^2} \right) \\ &\quad + \Delta^{-1} \left(E^{-1} u_0 \Delta^{-1} \frac{\partial^2 u_0}{\partial t_1^2} \right) - 2\Delta^{-1} \left(u_0 \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} \right) + \Delta^{-1} \left(u_0 E^{-1} u_0 \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (80)$$

$$+\Delta^{-1}\left(u_0^2\frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1}\right)+\Delta^{-1}\left(u_0E^{-1}u_0\Delta^{-1}\frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1}\right)-\Delta^{-1}\left(E^{-2}u_0E^{-1}u_0\Delta^{-1}\frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1}\right)$$

Now substituting these values in $\sigma_j^{(i)}$, we obtain the conserved densities of the DAKP equation (66). We list below some of them:

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_1^{(1)} &= -\Delta^{-1}\frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} \\ \sigma_2^{(1)} &= -\Delta^{-2}\frac{\partial^2 u_0}{\partial t_1^2} + \Delta^{-1}\frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} - \Delta^{-1}\left(u_0\frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1}\right) \\ \sigma_3^{(1)} &= -\left(E^{-1}u_0\right)^2\Delta^{-1}\frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} + E^{-1}u_0\Delta^{-1}\frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} - E^{-2}u_0\Delta^{-1}\frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} \\ &\quad - \Delta^{-1}\frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1}E^{-1}\Delta^{-1}\frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} - E^{-2}u_0\Delta^2\frac{\partial^2 u_0}{\partial t_1^2} + E^{-2}u_0\Delta^{-1}\frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} \\ &\quad + E^{-1}u_0E^{-2}u_0\Delta^{-1}\frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} - E^{-2}u_0\Delta^{-1}\left(u_0\frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1}\right)\end{aligned}\quad (81)$$

2.8 Generalized symmetries

Another important feature of the integrable system is that it admits infinitely many time-independent non-Lie point symmetries called generalized symmetries. Again it is simple to derive the generalized symmetries using the theory of Sato. In fact, Matsukidaira *et al.*¹¹⁷ proposed a method to derive the generalized symmetries of the KP equation using Sato theory. They explicitly obtained the eigenfunction of the associated linear eigenvalue problem and showed that the squared eigenfunction generates generalized symmetries. We show that this strategy can also be adopted here and derive the generalized symmetries for DAKP equation. Before doing so, we give a brief review of the basic notions in this theory. We consider an evolution equation

$$u_t = K(u) \quad (82)$$

where K is a functional of u . We call the functional $S(u)$ a symmetry of (82) if it satisfies the linearized equation given by

$$S_t = K'(u)[S], \quad (83)$$

where the Fréchet derivative $K'(u)$ is defined by

$$K'(u)[S] = \left. \frac{\partial}{\partial \epsilon} K(u + \epsilon S) \right|_{\epsilon=0}. \quad (84)$$

It can be shown that a symmetry S must satisfy

$$[S, \bar{K}] = S'[K] - K'[S] = 0. \quad (85)$$

This means that any symmetry S commutes with $\bar{K}(u)$.

We will show that the eigenfunction of the linear eigenvalue problem (67) and its adjoint generate the symmetries of the DΔKP equation. Notice that $L = W\Delta W^{-1}$. Hence, we rewrite eqn (67) in the form

$$\begin{aligned} L\psi &= \lambda\psi \\ \text{i.e. } W\Delta W^{-1}\psi &= \lambda\psi \end{aligned} \quad (86)$$

Applying W^{-1} on both sides of (86), we have

$$\Delta W^{-1}\psi = W^{-1}\lambda\psi = \lambda W^{-1}\psi. \quad (87)$$

By taking $\psi_0 = W^{-1}\psi$ in the above equation (88), we arrive at

$$\Delta\psi_0 = \lambda\psi_0. \quad (88)$$

The above equation (88) is just a first-order ordinary linear difference equation, whose solution is given by

$$\psi_0 = g(t_1, t_2, \dots, \lambda)(1 + \lambda)^n \quad (89)$$

where $g(t_1, t_2, \dots, \lambda)$ is an integration function. From this result it follows that

$$W^{-1}\psi = \psi_0 = g(\lambda, t_1, t_2, \dots)(1 + \lambda)^n \quad (90)$$

and hence the eigenfunction is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \psi &= Wg(t_1, t_2, \dots, \lambda)(1 + \lambda)^n \\ &= (1 + w_1\Delta^{-1} + w_2\Delta^{-2} + \dots)(1 + \lambda)^ng(t_1, t_2, \dots, \lambda). \end{aligned} \quad (91)$$

To find the eigenfunction we need the value of $\Delta^j(1 + \lambda)^n$. For this purpose, first we derive $\Delta^{-1}(1 + \lambda)^n$. Now we compute $\Delta(1 + \lambda)^n$.

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta(1 + \lambda)^n &= (1 + \lambda)^{n+1} - (1 + \lambda)^n \\ &= (1 + \lambda)^n(1 + \lambda - 1) \\ &= (1 + \lambda)^n\lambda \end{aligned} \quad (92)$$

Operating $\frac{1}{\lambda}\Delta^{-1}$ on both sides of (92), we arrive at

$$\Delta^{-1}(1 + \lambda)^n = \frac{1}{\lambda}(1 + \lambda)^n. \quad (93)$$

Applying Δ^{-1} repeatedly on (93), we have

$$\Delta^{-j}(1 + \lambda)^n = \frac{(1 + \lambda)^n}{\lambda^j}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots \quad (94)$$

Using (94) in (91), we have

$$\psi = \left(1 + \frac{w_1}{\lambda} + \frac{w_2}{\lambda^2} + \dots\right) (1 + \lambda)^n g(t_1, t_2, \dots; \lambda). \tag{95}$$

But, we have,

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t_k} = (L^k + q_1 L^{-1} + q_2 L^{-2} + \dots) \psi \tag{96}$$

where q_j s are appropriate functions of λ, t_1, t_2, \dots . On using $L^j \psi = \lambda^j \psi, j = 1, 2, \dots$, we obtain

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t_k} = \left(\lambda^k + \frac{q_1}{\lambda} + \frac{q_2}{\lambda^2} + \dots\right) \psi. \tag{97}$$

This implies

$$\frac{\partial \log \psi}{\partial t_k} = \lambda^k + \frac{q_1}{\lambda} + \frac{q_2}{\lambda^2} + \dots \tag{98}$$

This is true for any integer $k > 0$. On integrating the set of equations, we finally find,

$$\psi = \exp \left(\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \lambda^j t_j + t_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \tilde{q}_j \lambda^{-j} \right) \tag{99}$$

where \tilde{q}_j is again appropriate functions. Comparing eqn (99) with (95) at $t_j = 0, \forall j = 1, 2, \dots$ we get $\tilde{q}_j = w_j, \forall j = 1, 2, \dots$, and

$$g(t_1, t_2, \dots; \lambda) = \exp \left(\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \lambda^j t_j \right) \tag{100}$$

Hence

$$\psi = \left(1 + \frac{w_1}{\lambda} + \frac{w_2}{\lambda^2} + \dots\right) (1 + \lambda)^n \exp \left(\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \lambda^j t_j \right). \tag{101}$$

We will obtain the formal adjoint of ψ as

$$\psi^* = \left(1 + \frac{w_1^*}{\lambda} + \frac{w_2^*}{\lambda^2} + \dots\right) (1 + \lambda)^{-n} \exp \left(- \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \lambda^j t_j \right). \tag{102}$$

To find the value of ψ^{*6} we have to determine $w_j^*, \forall j = 1, 2, \dots$. For this purpose, we consider

$$L^* \psi^* = \lambda \psi^*$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 (W\Delta W^{-1})^* \psi^* &= \lambda \psi^* \\
 (W^{-1})^* (-\Delta E^{-1})(W^*) \psi^* &= \lambda \psi^* \\
 -\Delta E^{-1} W^* \psi^* &= \lambda W^* \psi^*
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{103}$$

Taking $W^* \psi^* = \psi_0^*$ we arrive at a linear difference equation

$$-\Delta E^{-1} \psi_0^* = \lambda \psi_0^* \tag{104}$$

Solving the above equation (104) we arrive at

$$\psi_0^* = W^* \psi^* = h(t_1, t_2, \dots, \lambda)(1 + \lambda)^{-n} \tag{105}$$

and hence we have

$$\psi^* = (W^{-1})^* h(t_1, t_2, \dots, \lambda)(1 + \lambda)^{-n} \tag{106}$$

Using (13) and (15) in (106), we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 \psi^* &= (1 + v_1 \Delta^{-1} + v_2 \Delta^{-2} + \dots)^* h(t_1, t_2, \dots, \lambda)(1 + \lambda)^{-n} \\
 &= (1 - \Delta^{-1} E_{v_1} + \Delta^{-2} E^2 v_2 + \dots) h(t_1, t_2, \dots, \lambda)(1 + \lambda)^{-n}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{107}$$

Expanding the above equation (107), using Leibniz rule (10), we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 \psi^* &= \left(1 - E(v_1 \Delta^{-1} - \Delta v_1 E \Delta^{-2} + \Delta^2 v_1 E^2 \Delta^{-3} + \dots) \right. \\
 &\quad \left. + E^2(v_2 \Delta^{-2} - 2\Delta v_2 E \Delta^{-3} + \dots) \right. \\
 &\quad \left. - E^3(v_3 \Delta^{-3} + \dots) \right) h(t_1, t_2, \dots, \lambda)(1 + \lambda)^{-n} \\
 \psi^* &= \left(1 - E v_1 E \Delta^{-1} + (E \Delta v_1 + E^2 v_2) E^2 \Delta^{-2} \right. \\
 &\quad \left. - (E \Delta^2 v_1 + 2\Delta E^2 v_2 + E^3 v_3) E^3 \Delta^{-3} + \dots \right) h(t_1, t_2, \dots, \lambda)(1 + \lambda)^{-n}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{108}$$

Now, we compute $\Delta E^{-1}(1 + \lambda)^{-n}$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Delta E^{-1}(1 + \lambda)^{-n} &= \Delta(1 + \lambda)^{-n+1} \\
 &= (1 + \lambda)^{-n+1+1} - (1 + \lambda)^{-n+1} \\
 &= (1 + \lambda)^{-n} (1 - (1 + \lambda)) \\
 &= -\lambda(1 + \lambda)^{-n}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{110}$$

Operating $-\frac{1}{\lambda} \Delta^{-1} E$ on both sides of (110), we have

$$\Delta^{-1} E(1+\lambda)^{-n} = -\frac{(1+\lambda)^{-n}}{\lambda} \quad (111)$$

and hence

$$\Delta^{-j} E^j (1+\lambda)^{-n} = \frac{(-1)^j (1+\lambda)^{-n}}{\lambda^j}, \quad \forall j=1,2,\dots \quad (112)$$

Using the above result (112) in (109), we have,

$$\begin{aligned} \psi^* = & \left(1 + \frac{E v_1}{\lambda} + \frac{(E \Delta v_1 + E^2 v_2)}{\lambda^2} \right. \\ & \left. + \frac{(E \Delta^2 v_1 + 2 \Delta E^2 v_2 + E^3 v_3)}{\lambda^3} + \dots \right) h(t_1, t_2, \dots, \lambda)(1+\lambda)^{-n}. \end{aligned} \quad (113)$$

Comparing eqns (113) and (101), we have

$$h(t_1, t_2, \dots, \lambda) = \exp \left(- \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \lambda^j t_j \right) \quad (114)$$

and the w_j^* s are given by

$$\begin{aligned} w_1^* &= E v_1 \\ w_2^* &= E \Delta v_1 + E^2 v_2 \\ w_3^* &= E \Delta^2 v_1 + 2 \Delta E^2 v_2 + E^3 v_3 \\ w_4^* &= E \Delta^3 v_1 + 3 E^2 \Delta^2 v_2 + 3 E^3 \Delta v_3 + E^4 v_4 \end{aligned} \quad (115)$$

On using (16) in (115), we get

$$\begin{aligned} w_1^* &= -E w_1 \\ w_2^* &= -E \Delta w_1 + E w_1 E^2 w_1 - E^2 w_2 \\ w_3^* &= -E \Delta^2 w_1 - 2 E^3 w_2 + 3 E^2 w_1 E^3 w_1 + 2 E^2 w_2 - 2 E^2 w_1 E w_1 - E^3 w_1 E w_1 \\ & \quad + E^3 w_1 E^2 w_2 - E^3 w_1 E^2 w_1 E w_1 + E^3 w_2 E w_1 - E^3 w_3 \end{aligned} \quad (116)$$

Now, we will show that the eigenfunction and its adjoint in terms of w and w^* can be used to generate generalized symmetries of the DAKP equation. For this purpose, we adopt the procedure developed in Matsudaira¹¹⁷ Using the eigenvalue problem (67)

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t_1} &= B_1 \psi \\ \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t_2} &= B_2 \psi\end{aligned}\quad (117)$$

and its adjoint eigenvalue problem

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial \psi^*}{\partial t_1} &= -B_1^* \psi^* \\ \frac{\partial \psi^*}{\partial t_2} &= -B_2^* \psi^*\end{aligned}\quad (118)$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t_1} &= \Delta \psi + u_0 \psi \\ \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t_2} &= \Delta^2 \psi + (2u_0 + \Delta u_0) \Delta \psi + \left(\Delta u_0 + u_0^2 + (2 + \Delta) \Delta^{-1} \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} \right) \psi \\ \frac{\partial \psi^*}{\partial t_1} &= \Delta E^{-1} \psi^* - u_0 \psi^* \\ \frac{\partial \psi^*}{\partial t_2} &= -\Delta^2 E^{-2} \psi^* + \Delta E^{-1} (2u_0 \psi^* + \Delta u_0 \psi^*) \\ &\quad - \left(\Delta u_0 + u_0^2 + (2 + \Delta) \Delta^{-1} \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} \right) \psi^*\end{aligned}\quad (119)$$

Using (119), we can see that $s = \psi \psi^*$ satisfies

$$\frac{\partial s}{\partial t_2} - 2u_0 \frac{\partial s}{\partial t_1} + 2 \frac{\partial s}{\partial t_1} - (2 + \Delta) \Delta^{-1} \frac{\partial^2 s}{\partial t_1^2} = 0 \quad (120)$$

Using the definition of Fréchet derivative (83), the linearized DAKP equation is given by

$$\frac{\partial S}{\partial t_2} - 2u_0 \frac{\partial S}{\partial t_1} - 2S \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} + \frac{\partial S}{\partial t_1} - (2 + \Delta) \Delta^{-1} \frac{\partial^2 S}{\partial t_1^2} = 0. \quad (121)$$

From (120) and (121) it is obvious that if s satisfies (120), then $S = \frac{\partial s}{\partial t_1}$ satisfies the linearized DAKP equation (121). Hence, it is immediate that $\frac{\partial}{\partial t_1} (\psi \psi^*)$ satisfies the linearized DAKP equation (121). Using (101) and (102), we have

$$\psi\psi^* = \left(1 + \frac{w_1}{\lambda} + \frac{w_2}{\lambda^2} + \dots\right) \left(1 + \frac{w_1^*}{\lambda} + \frac{w_2^*}{\lambda^2} + \dots\right) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} s_k \lambda^{-k} \quad (122)$$

where

$$s_k = \sum_{j=0}^k w_j w_{k-j}^* \quad (123)$$

with $w_0 = 1$ and $w_0^* = 1$. Since $\psi\psi^*$ is a polynomial expression in λ , and λ is independent of the time variables, we have

$$S_k = \frac{\partial}{\partial t_k} s_k, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (124)$$

which are solutions of (121) and hence generalized symmetries for the DΔKP equation (66). We present below the first few generalized symmetries.

$$\begin{aligned} S_0 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t_1}(1) = 0 \\ S_1 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t_1}(u_0) = \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} \\ S_2 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t_1} \left(-u_0 + u_0^2 + (2 + \Delta)\Delta^{-1} \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} \right) = \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_2} + \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} \\ S_3 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t_1} \left(\frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_2} + \Delta^{-1} \frac{\partial^2 u_0}{\partial t_1^2} + 3\Delta^{-2} \frac{\partial^2 u_0}{\partial t_1^2} - 4\Delta^{-1} \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} + 3u_0 \Delta^{-1} \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} \right) \\ &\quad + 3\Delta^{-1} \left(u_0 \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} + u_0 \frac{\partial u_0}{\partial t_1} + u_0 - 2u_0^2 + u_0^2 \right) \end{aligned} \quad (125)$$

3. Wronskian and rational solutions

3.1 Introduction

It is well known that many IST solvable nonlinear evolution equations exhibit multi-soliton solutions. When we use Hirota's bilinear method¹⁰⁻¹⁴ these N -soliton solutions can be expressed as an N th order polynomial in N exponentials. Perhaps, a more convenient representation of such a solution, however, is in terms of the Wronskian of N exponential functions. The N -soliton solution for soliton equations written in the Wronskian form was first introduced by Satsuma²⁸ and further developed by Freeman and Nimmo²⁹ and Nimmo and Freeman.³⁰ This procedure has been applied to the KP,^{29,31} the Boussinesq,^{30,32} and other soliton systems.³³⁻³⁸

It is also known that the N -soliton solution of KP hierarchy can be derived through Sato theory,¹¹³ which is expressed by an appropriate τ -function. This τ -function can be expressed in the form of generalized Wronskian determinant defined on the infinite-dimensional Grassmann manifold. In this framework, Hirota's bilinear forms arise naturally as Plücker relations. Using the Laplace expansion of the determinant, we can easily verify that the τ -function satisfies the given Hirota's bilinear form.

It has been recognized that integrable systems, in the sense of IST, possess other class of solutions as well, called rational solutions.^{3, 83-96} The rational solutions of the soliton equations can be obtained through various means. On the other hand, Sato theory provides a systematic approach to find the rational solutions of KP hierarchy.⁹¹ The fundamental ones are represented in terms of Schur polynomials which satisfy a certain set of linear differential equations

3.2 N -Soliton solution

Now, we consider the DAKP equation (66) in the form

$$\Delta \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial t_2} + 2 \frac{\partial u}{\partial t_1} - 2u \frac{\partial u}{\partial t_1} \right) = (2 + \Delta) \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t_1^2} \quad (126)$$

where $u = u(t_1, t_2, n)$. Now, using the dependent variable transformation

$$u(t_1, t_2, n) = \frac{\partial}{\partial t_1} \log \frac{\tau_{n+1}}{\tau_n} \quad (127)$$

in eqn (126), we arrive at

$$\tau_n \frac{\partial \tau_{n+1}}{\partial t_2} - \tau_{n+1} \frac{\partial \tau_n}{\partial t_2} + 2\tau_n \frac{\partial \tau_{n+1}}{\partial t_1} - 2\tau_{n+1} \frac{\partial \tau_n}{\partial t_1} + 2 \frac{\partial \tau_{n+1}}{\partial t_1} \frac{\partial \tau_n}{\partial t_1} - \tau_n \frac{\partial^2 \tau_{n+1}}{\partial t_1^2} - \tau_{n+1} \frac{\partial^2 \tau_n}{\partial t_1^2} = 0. \quad (128)$$

We represent this equation in the Hirota's bilinear form, which can be written in terms of Hirota's bilinear operators. These operators are defined by the following rule.¹⁴

$$D_t^m D_{t'}^k a \cdot b = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \frac{\partial}{\partial t'} \right)^m \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x'} \right)^k a(x, t) b(x', t') \Big|_{x'=x, t'=t} \quad (129)$$

where m and k are arbitrary nonnegative integers. Using the above definition (129), we can find

$$\begin{aligned} D_{t_1} \tau_{n+1} \cdot \tau_n &= \tau_n \frac{\partial \tau_{n+1}}{\partial t_1} - \tau_{n+1} \frac{\partial \tau_n}{\partial t_1} \\ D_{t_2} \tau_{n+1} \tau_n &= \tau_n \frac{\partial \tau_{n+1}}{\partial t_2} - \tau_{n+1} \frac{\partial \tau_n}{\partial t_2} \end{aligned} \quad (130)$$

$$D_{t_1}^2 \tau_{n+1} \tau_n = \tau_n \frac{\partial^2 \tau_{n+1}}{\partial t_1^2} - 2 \frac{\partial \tau_{n+1}}{\partial t_1} \frac{\partial \tau_n}{\partial t_1} + \tau_{n+1} \frac{\partial^2 \tau_n}{\partial t_1^2}$$

Now, we can easily see that eqn (128) can be written in the bilinear form

$$\left(D_{t_2} + 2D_{t_1} - D_{t_1}^2 \right) \tau_{n+1} \tau_n = 0. \quad (131)$$

Next, we prove that the solutions of the DdKP equation can be represented in the form of Wronskian (Casorati) determinant

$$\tau_n = W \left(f_n^{(1)}, f_n^{(2)}, \dots, f_n^{(N)} \right) \\ = \begin{vmatrix} f_n^{(1)} & \Delta f_n^{(1)} & \dots & \Delta^{N-1} f_n^{(1)} \\ f_n^{(2)} & \Delta f_n^{(2)} & \dots & \Delta^{N-1} f_n^{(2)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ f_n^{(N)} & \Delta f_n^{(N)} & \dots & \Delta^{N-1} f_n^{(N)} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} f_n^{(1)} & f_{n+1}^{(1)} & \dots & f_{n+N-1}^{(1)} \\ f_n^{(2)} & f_{n+1}^{(2)} & \dots & f_{n+N-1}^{(2)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ f_n^{(N)} & f_{n+1}^{(N)} & \dots & f_{n+N-1}^{(N)} \end{vmatrix}. \quad (132)$$

The determinant τ_n in (132) is nothing but the denominator in the expression (38) given in Section 2. The entries in the determinant (132), $f_n^{(j)} = f^{(j)}(t_1, t_2, n)$, $j = 1, 2, \dots, N$ are the solutions of a set of linear partial differential-difference equations

$$\frac{\partial f_n^{(j)}}{\partial t_1} = \Delta f_n^{(j)}, \\ \frac{\partial f_n^{(j)}}{\partial t_2} = \Delta^2 f_n^{(j)}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (133)$$

One of the particular solutions of (133) is readily given by

$$f_n^{(j)} = (1 + p_j)^n \exp(p_j t_1 + p_j^2 t_2), \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (134)$$

To obtain N -soliton solution in the Wronskian form, it is well known that $f_n^{(j)}$ can be chosen in the form

$$f_n^{(j)} = \exp \eta_j + \exp \xi_j \quad (135)$$

with η_j and ξ_j given by

$$\eta_j = p_j t_1 + p_j^2 t_2 + n \log(1 + p_j) + \eta_{j0} \\ \xi_j = q_j t_1 + q_j^2 t_2 + n \log(1 + q_j) + \xi_{j0} \quad (136)$$

Following Freeman and Nimmo's notation,^{29, 30} we denote τ_n in (132) as

$$\tau_n = |0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1| = \begin{vmatrix} f_n^{(1)} & f_{n+1}^{(1)} & \dots & f_{n+N-1}^{(1)} \\ f_n^{(2)} & f_{n+1}^{(2)} & \dots & f_{n+N-1}^{(2)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ f_n^{(N)} & f_{n+1}^{(N)} & \dots & f_{n+N-1}^{(N)} \end{vmatrix} \quad (137)$$

The terms involved in (128) may then easily be computed as

$$\begin{aligned} \tau_{n+1} &= |1, 2, \dots, N| \\ \frac{\partial \tau_n}{\partial x_1} &= |0, 1, 2, \dots, N-2, N| - N |0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1| \\ \frac{\partial \tau_{n+1}}{\partial x_1} &= |1, 2, 3, \dots, N-1, N+1| - N |1, 2, \dots, N| \\ \frac{\partial \tau_n}{\partial x_2} &= N |0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1| - |0, 1, 2, \dots, N-3, N-1, N| \\ &\quad + |0, 1, 2, \dots, N-2, N+1| - 2 |0, 1, 2, \dots, N-2, N| \\ \frac{\partial \tau_{n+1}}{\partial x_2} &= N |1, 2, \dots, N| - |1, 2, \dots, N-2, N, N+1| \\ &\quad + |1, 2, \dots, N-1, N+2| - 2 |1, 2, \dots, N-1, N+1| \\ \frac{\partial^2 \tau_n}{\partial x_1^2} &= N^2 |0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1| - 2N |0, 1, 2, \dots, N-2, N| \\ &\quad + |0, 1, 2, \dots, N-3, N-1, N| + |0, 1, 2, \dots, N-2, N+1| \\ \frac{\partial^2 \tau_{n+1}}{\partial x_1^2} &= N^2 |1, 2, \dots, N| - 2N |1, 2, \dots, N-1, N+1| \\ &\quad + |1, 2, \dots, N-2, N, N+1| + |1, 2, \dots, N-1, N+2| \end{aligned} \quad (138)$$

wherein the linear equations (133) are used in the derivation of the above results. Using the above expressions (138) in (128), we get

$$\begin{aligned} \tau_n \frac{\partial \tau_{n+1}}{\partial x_2} - \tau_{n+1} \frac{\partial \tau_n}{\partial x_2} + 2\tau_n \frac{\partial \tau_{n+1}}{\partial x_1} - 2\tau_{n+1} \frac{\partial \tau_n}{\partial x_1} + 2 \frac{\partial \tau_{n+1}}{\partial x_1} \frac{\partial \tau_n}{\partial x_1} \\ - \tau_n \frac{\partial^2 \tau_{n+1}}{\partial x_1^2} - \tau_{n+1} \frac{\partial^2 \tau_n}{\partial x_1^2} = 2 |0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1| |1, 2, \dots, N-2, N, N+1| \\ - 2 |0, 1, 2, \dots, N-2, N| |1, 2, \dots, N-1, N+1| \\ + 2 |0, 1, 2, \dots, N-2, N+1| |1, 2, \dots, N| \end{aligned} \quad (139)$$

which is the Laplace expansion of the $2N \times 2N$ determinant²¹

$$\begin{vmatrix} 0 & N-2 & 0 & N-1 & N & N+1 \\ 0 & 0 & N-2 & N-1 & N & N+1 \end{vmatrix} \quad (140)$$

where $N-2 = 1, 2, \dots, N-2$ and O denotes the $(N-2) \times (N-2)$ zero matrix. Since the above determinant (140) is zero it indeed verifies that τ_n satisfies the bilinear equation (128) identically. Thus we have proved that the τ -function defined by (132) gives the N -soliton solution of the DAKP equation (126).¹⁵²

3.3. Rational solutions

In this section, our aim is to describe the method of finding a class of rational solutions for the DAKP equation. For this purpose, we consider the set of linear partial differential-difference equations (133) with (134) as particular solution. Notice that $f_n^{(j)}$ in (134) can be expressed as a formal power series in p_j and hence we have

$$\begin{aligned} (1+p_j)^n \exp(p_j t_1 + p_j^2 t_2) &= \left(1 + n^{(1)} p_j + \frac{n^{(2)}}{2!} p_j^2 + \dots \right) \left(1 + (p_j t_1 + p_j^2 t_2) \right) \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} (p_j t_1 + p_j^2 t_2)^2 + \dots = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} P_m p_j^m \end{aligned} \quad (141)$$

From (141), we have a set of polynomials in the variables n , t_1 and t_2 . They can be expressed in a compact way as

$$P_m = \sum_{\substack{\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2 \geq 0 \\ \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 + 2\alpha_2 = m}} \frac{n(n-1)(n-2) \cdots (n-\alpha_0+1) t_1^{\alpha_1} t_2^{\alpha_2}}{\alpha_0! \alpha_1! \alpha_2!} \quad (142)$$

where $P_m = 0$, $\forall m \leq 0$. These P_m s are called the differential-difference analogues of Schur polynomials. Also, one can see that they satisfy the following equations.

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta P_m &= P_{m-1} \\ \frac{\partial P_m}{\partial t_1} &= \Delta P_m \\ \frac{\partial P_m}{\partial t_2} &= \Delta^2 P_m \end{aligned} \quad (143)$$

From the above equations (143), we see that the P_m s are solutions of the equations in (133). But we have already shown that the Wronskian formed by any solution of (133), satisfies the bilinear form of DAKP equation (128). Thus P_m s are also solutions of bilinear DAKP equation

(128) Therefore, the polynomials P_m can be used to generate a class of rational solutions for (126). Consider the Wronskian formed by the P_m 's

$$P_{l_1 l_2 \dots l_N} = \begin{vmatrix} P_{l_1} & P_{l_2} & \dots & P_{l_N} \\ P_{l_1-1} & P_{l_2-1} & \dots & P_{l_N-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ P_{l_1-N+1} & P_{l_2-N+1} & \dots & P_{l_N-N+1} \end{vmatrix} \quad (144)$$

where l_1, l_2, \dots, l_N are distinct integers. We list below first few rational solutions generated using (144):

$$\begin{aligned} P_0 &= 1 \\ P_1 &= n + t_1 \\ P_2 &= \frac{n(n-1)}{2!} + \frac{t_1^2}{2!} + nt_1 + t_2 \\ P_3 &= \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{3!} + \frac{t_1^3}{3!} + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!}t_1 + \frac{nt_1^2}{2!} + nt_2 + t_1 t_2 \\ P_{12} &= \frac{n}{2} + \frac{n^2}{2}t_2 + nt_1 + \frac{t_1^3}{2} \\ P_{13} &= \frac{-n}{3} + \frac{n^3}{3} + n^2 t_1 + nt_1^2 + \frac{t_1^3}{3} \\ P_{23} &= \frac{-n^2}{12} + \frac{n^4}{12} - nt_2 + t_2^2 - \frac{nt_1}{3} + \frac{n^3 t_1}{3} + \frac{n^2 t_1^2}{2} + \frac{nt_1^3}{3} + \frac{t_1^4}{12} \\ P_{123} &= \frac{n}{3} + \frac{n^2}{2} + \frac{n^3}{6} - nt_2 + \frac{nt_1}{2} + \frac{n^2 t_1}{2} - t_2 t_1 + \frac{nt_1^2}{2} + \frac{t_1^3}{6} \end{aligned}$$

Next, we construct a more general form of rational solutions. For this purpose, we consider the τ -function given by

$$\tau_n = W(f_n^{(1)}, f_n^{(2)}, \dots, f_n^{(N)}) \quad (145)$$

where the $f_n^{(j)}$'s are given by

$$f_n^{(j)} = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial p_j} \right)^{m_j} \exp\left[\eta(p_j)\right] = P_{m_j}(p_j) \exp\left[\eta(p_j)\right], \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, N, m_j \geq 0 \quad (146)$$

and they satisfy eqns (133) with

$$\eta(p_j) = (n + n_j) \log(1 + p_j) + p_j (t_1 + \tilde{t}_1) + p_j^2 (t_2 + \tilde{t}_2) \quad (147)$$

where n , \tilde{t}_1 and \tilde{t}_2 are arbitrary phase constants. From (146), we have

$$P_{m_j}(p_j) = m_j! \sum_{\substack{\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2 \geq 0 \\ \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 + 2\alpha_2 = m_j}} \prod_{k=0}^{m_j} \frac{(\theta_k(p_j))^{\alpha_k}}{\alpha_k!} \quad (148)$$

where

$$\theta_k(p_j) = \frac{1}{k!} \frac{\partial^k}{\partial p_j^k} \eta(p_j). \quad (149)$$

These polynomials $P_{m_j}(p_j)$ are the differential-difference analogues of the generalized Schur polynomials. Again, it should be noted that the Wronskian formed by these generalized Schur polynomials are also rational solutions for the DAKP equation (126). But this time the entries in the determinant are arbitrary linear combinations of the generalized Schur polynomials (148). It is easy to derive the N -soliton solutions and the rational solutions of DAKP hierarchy. If we introduce the infinite number of time variables in the functions $f_n^{(j)}$ in such a way that they satisfy the linear equations

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t_m} f_n^{(j)} = \Delta^m f_n^{(j)}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, N, \quad m = 1, 2, \quad (150)$$

then the Wronskian formed by these functions is the N -soliton solution of the DAKP hierarchy. The rational solutions of the DAKP hierarchy can be obtained as before.

4. Lie point symmetries and Painlevé-singularity confinement analysis

4.1 Introduction

In this section, we discuss the underlying Lie point symmetries of the DAKP and also study the singularity structures of the solutions of this equation. These two aspects played important role in integrable systems for many years. The first one helps us to find special class of solutions in terms of new variables called similarity variables. Using these variables we can also reduce the equation to a lower dimensional system. Furthermore, the structure of the symmetries reveals the nature of the associated Lie algebra of symmetry vector fields. The classification of Lie algebras of symmetry vector fields in turn brings out the associated solutions. As far as the second part, it is well recognised that the Painlevé-singularity analysis played a vital role for several years in identifying possible integrable systems both in ODEs and PDEs. This is more direct and simple and yet a powerful approach to identify integrable systems though the nature of the singularities appears in the solutions. In the following discussion we give brief introduction to both these methods and apply the techniques to DAKP. Detailed analysis will be published elsewhere.¹⁵⁴

A Lie point symmetries

The concept of symmetry is extremely general, and the precise meaning of the term depends to a larger extent on the context we deal with. When we use this concept in connection with dif-

ferential equations, we reserve the word symmetry for group of transformations which leave the given system of differential equations invariant. For computing the symmetries we adopt infinitesimal analogues of the transformation. However, there are methods to recover the full group from infinitesimal symmetries. In particular, the importance of Lie's invariance analysis lies in the fact that it is a systematic approach to discover a class of solutions, reductions to simpler equations through a new set of variables called similarity variables and similarity functions^{54, 72}. Numerous equations were analysed using this powerful tool. Over the years, the method of Lie has been generalized in many directions. Though there was intense activity on the symmetry analysis for continuous systems, it is surprising that until recently this theory had no impact on differential-difference systems and discrete equations as well. However, it is worth mentioning that Maeda was the first one to apply the theory of symmetries to discrete systems in the variational formalism¹⁴⁰⁻¹⁴². Due to resurgence of interest in the integrability of discrete and differential-difference systems, the symmetry approach again becomes vital to look for symmetries, special solutions and reductions. In this background, Levi and Winternitz, and later Quispel, Capel and Sahadevan developed the Lie symmetry method for differential-difference equations¹⁴³⁻¹⁵⁰. The Lie point symmetries for the fully discrete equations were also initiated¹⁴⁶. Symmetry analysis for fully discrete systems is yet to be developed as an efficient tool as in the continuous case. In view of the importance of Lie theory itself and the nontrivial applicability, we derive the Lie point symmetries of the Δ DKP equation in this section, and use them for reduction process.

4.2 Lie's method

Let us consider a function $u(x, n)$, $u \in R$, $x \in R^p$, $n \in Z$. We consider the differential-difference equation of the form

$$F(x, n, u_n, u_{n,x}, u_{n+1}, u_{n+l}, x) = 0 \quad (151)$$

where $l \in Z$. We say that the Lie point symmetry group of transformation¹⁴⁵

$$\tilde{n} = n, \tilde{x} = \Lambda_g(x), \tilde{u}_n = \omega_g(x, n, u_n) \quad (152)$$

where g denotes the group parameters, Λ_g and ω_g are invertible smooth functions, is admitted by the system (151) if $u_n(x)$ is a solution of (151), then $\tilde{u}_n(\tilde{x})$ is also a solution of (151). The power behind the Lie group of transformation technique lies in the infinitesimal formulation of the group. Lie's first fundamental theorem explicitly gives the connection between the infinitesimal transformation and the Lie group of transformation.⁵⁴ The infinitesimal one-parameter Lie point transformation corresponding to (152) is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{n} &= n \\ \tilde{x} &= x + \epsilon \xi(x, n, u_n) \\ \tilde{u}_n &= u_n + \epsilon \phi_n(x, n, u_n) \end{aligned} \quad (153)$$

and the vector field corresponding to the infinitesimal transformation (153) is given by

$$\tilde{X} = \sum_{i=1}^p \xi_i(x) \partial_{x_i} + \phi_n(x, n, u_n) \partial_{u_n} \quad (154)$$

The vector field (154) should be expanded to a larger space based on the order of the given equation (151). For example, if (151) is of order k then (154) should be extended (or prolonged) to $\text{Pr}^{(k)} \hat{X}$ defined by

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Pr}^{(k)} \hat{X} = & \sum_{i=1}^p \xi_i(\mathbf{x}) \partial_{x_i} + \sum_l \phi_{n+l}(\mathbf{x}, n, u_{n+l}) \partial_{u_{n+l}} \\ & + \sum_{i=1}^p \sum_l \phi_{n+l}^{\xi_i}(\mathbf{x}, n+l, u_{n+l}, \dots) \partial_{n+l, x_i} + \dots \end{aligned} \quad (155)$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_{n+l}^{\xi_i} &= D_{x_i} \phi_{n+l} - \sum_{j=1}^p (D_{x_j} \xi_j) \mu_{n+l, x_j} \\ \phi_{n+l}^{\xi_i \xi_j} &= D_{x_i} \phi_{n+l}^{\xi_j} - \sum_{j=1}^p (D_{x_j} \xi_j) \mu_{n+l, x_j} \end{aligned} \quad (156)$$

where

$$D_{x_i} \psi = \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x_i} + \sum_l \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial u_n} \frac{\partial u_n}{\partial x_i} \quad (157)$$

denotes the total derivative operator as in the continuous case.⁵⁴ Now, the invariance condition is given by

$$\text{Pr}^{(k)} \hat{X} \cdot F|_{F=0} = 0. \quad (158)$$

The main difference between the continuous and differential-difference case is the summation over l in (155). The number of terms we have to keep depends on the discrete order of the equation. As in the continuous case, eqn (151) is invariant under the action of (152) if the condition (158) holds good. Equation (158) gives the invariant condition from which we have to find the infinitesimal generators of the symmetry group (153). To do this, we expand eqn (158), use eqn (151) and equate the coefficients of the various derivatives of u_{n+l} to zero. This results in an over-determined system of linear equations for the infinitesimal generators of the group. We can solve these determining equations in a closed form and obtain symmetries. These symmetries are then used to find similarity solutions and reductions, etc. In order to derive the similarity solutions of the system (151) we use the symmetries ξ_i s and ϕ in the characteristic equation

$$\frac{dx_1}{\xi_1} = \frac{dx_2}{\xi_2} = \dots = \frac{dx_p}{\xi_p} = \frac{du_{n+l}}{\phi_{n+l}} \quad (159)$$

After solving the above equation we arrive at $p-1$ new independent variables called similarity variables. The new dependent variable is the function of similarity variables, called the simi-

larity function. Substituting the value of u_x in terms of similarity function in the system (151), and simplifying we arrive at a new system which has the number of independent variables reduced by one compared to the given system. Obtaining lower dimensional equations using this procedure is called similarity reduction. We can also use infinitesimal generators to classify the solutions. It can be shown that vector fields associated with infinitesimal generators form Lie algebras.

4.3 Symmetries and similarity reduction of the DAKP equation

In this section, we present the classical Lie point symmetries for the DAKP equation. Using these symmetries we find similarity solution and similarity reduction of the DAKP equation. As a similarity reduction we obtain Veselov-Shabat equation.¹⁷³

For this purpose, we start with DAKP equation in the form

$$\bar{u}_{xx} + u_{xx} - 2(1 - \bar{u})\bar{u}_x + 2(1 - u)u_x - \bar{u}_t + u_t = 0 \quad (160)$$

where we have used $u_x = u$ and $\bar{u}_{x+1} = \bar{u}$. Let us assume that the infinitesimal Lie group of transformation as

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{n} &= n \\ \tilde{x} &= x + \epsilon \xi(n, x, t, u) \\ \tilde{t} &= t + \epsilon \tau(n, x, t, u) \\ \tilde{u} &= u + \epsilon \phi(n, x, t, u). \end{aligned} \quad (161)$$

The vector field corresponding to (161) is given by

$$\tilde{X} = \xi(n, x, t, u)\partial_x + \tau(n, x, t, u)\partial_t + \phi(n, x, t, u)\partial_u \quad (162)$$

Since the order of DAKP equation is two we consider the second prolongation of the vector field (162), which is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Pr}^{(2)} \tilde{X} &= \xi \partial_x + \tau \partial_t + \phi \partial_u + \bar{\phi} \partial_{\bar{u}} + \phi^x \partial_{u_x} + \bar{\phi}^x \partial_{\bar{u}_x} + \phi^t \partial_{u_t} + \bar{\phi}^t \partial_{\bar{u}_t} + \phi^{xx} \partial_{u_{xx}} \\ &+ \bar{\phi}^{xx} \partial_{\bar{u}_{xx}} + \phi^{xt} \partial_{u_{xt}} + \bar{\phi}^{xt} \partial_{\bar{u}_{xt}} + \phi^{tx} \partial_{u_{tx}} + \bar{\phi}^{tx} \partial_{\bar{u}_{tx}}. \end{aligned} \quad (163)$$

We get the invariant

$$\bar{\phi}^t - \phi^t + 2\bar{\phi}^x - 2\phi^x - 2\bar{u}\bar{\phi}^t - 2\bar{\phi}u_x + 2u\phi^x + 2\phi u_x - \bar{\phi}^{xx} - \phi^{xx} = 0 \quad (164)$$

on using the invariant condition (158) and applying (163) on eqn (160). To evaluate this expression we need $\bar{\phi}^x$, $\bar{\phi}^t$, $\bar{\phi}^t$, $\bar{\phi}^x$, $\bar{\phi}^{xx}$ and we can explicitly find them using (156). They are listed as below:

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{\phi}^x &= \phi_x + (\phi_u - \bar{\xi}_x)u_x - \tau_x u_t - \xi_u u_x^2 - \tau_u u_x u_t \\ \bar{\phi}^t &= \bar{\phi}_x + (\bar{\phi}_u - \bar{\xi}_x)\bar{u}_x - \bar{\tau}_x \bar{u}_t - \bar{\xi}_u \bar{u}_x^2 - \bar{\tau}_u \bar{u}_x \bar{u}_t \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\phi' &= \phi_t - \xi_t u_x + (\phi_u - \tau_t) u_t - \xi_u u_x u_t - \tau_u u_t^2 \\
\bar{\phi}' &= \bar{\phi}_t - \bar{\xi}_t \bar{u}_x + (\bar{\phi}_{\bar{u}\bar{u}} - \bar{\tau}_t) \bar{u}_t - \bar{\xi}_t \bar{u}_x \bar{u}_t - \bar{\tau}_t \bar{u}_t^2 \\
\phi^{xx} &= \phi_{xx} + (2\phi_{xu} - \xi_{xx}) u_x - \tau_{xx} u_t + (\phi_{uu} - 2\xi_{xu}) u_x^2 \\
&\quad - 2\tau_{xu} u_x u_t - \xi_{uu} u_x^3 - \tau_{uu} u_x^2 u_t + (\phi_u - 2\xi_x) u_{xx} \\
&\quad - 2\tau_x u_{xt} - 3\xi_{xu} u_x u_{xx} - \tau_x u_{xt} u_t - 2\tau_{xu} u_x u_{xt} \\
\bar{\phi}^{xx} &= \bar{\phi}_{xx} + (2\bar{\phi}_{\bar{u}\bar{u}} - \bar{\xi}_{xx}) \bar{u}_x - \bar{\tau}_{xx} \bar{u}_t + (\bar{\phi}_{\bar{u}\bar{u}} - 2\bar{\xi}_{\bar{u}\bar{u}}) \bar{u}_x^2 \\
&\quad - 2\bar{\tau}_{\bar{u}\bar{u}} \bar{u}_x \bar{u}_t - \bar{\xi}_{\bar{u}\bar{u}} \bar{u}_x^3 - \bar{\tau}_{\bar{u}\bar{u}} \bar{u}_x^2 \bar{u}_t + (\bar{\phi}_{\bar{u}} - 2\bar{\xi}_x) \bar{u}_{xx} \\
&\quad - 2\bar{\tau}_x \bar{u}_{xt} - 3\bar{\xi}_{\bar{u}\bar{u}} \bar{u}_x \bar{u}_{xx} - \bar{\tau}_x \bar{u}_{xt} \bar{u}_t - 2\bar{\tau}_{\bar{u}\bar{u}} \bar{u}_x \bar{u}_{xt}.
\end{aligned} \tag{165}$$

Now solve eqn (160) for \bar{u}_{xx} and hence we have

$$\bar{u}_{xx} = \bar{u}_t - u_t - 2u_x + 2uu_x + 2u_x - 2\bar{u}u_x - u_{xx}. \tag{166}$$

In order to get the determining equations for the infinitesimal generators we substitute the values of (165) in (164) and using (166), replacing \bar{u}_{xx} in the resulting expression, we have an expression in $u_x, u_t, \bar{u}_x, \bar{u}_t, u_{xx}, u_{xt}, \bar{u}_{xx}, \bar{u}_{xt}$. Equating the coefficient of various powers of the derivatives of u and \bar{u} in the resulting expression to zero we arrive at a linear homogeneous system of partial differential-difference equations. Solving this overdetermined system we obtain the symmetries

$$\begin{aligned}
\xi &= \frac{1}{2} xf(t) + g(t) \\
\tau &= f(t)
\end{aligned} \tag{167}$$

$$\phi = -\frac{1}{2} f(t)u - \frac{1}{4} f(t)x + \frac{1}{2} f(t) - \frac{1}{2} g(t).$$

In order to perform similarity reduction first we have to solve the characteristic equation

$$\frac{dx}{\xi} = \frac{dt}{\tau} = \frac{du}{\phi} \tag{168}$$

and derive the similarity variable and similarity function. On integrating (168), we relate u to the similarity function $F(\zeta, n)$ through

$$u = -\frac{f(t)}{4f(t)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \int \frac{g(t)}{f(t)^{\frac{3}{2}}} dt - \frac{\zeta f(t)}{4f(t)^{\frac{1}{2}}} + 1 - \frac{g(t)}{2f(t)} + \frac{F(\zeta, n)}{f(t)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \tag{169}$$

where the similarity variable ζ is given by

$$\zeta = \frac{x}{f(t)^{\frac{1}{2}}} - \int \frac{g(t)}{f(t)^{\frac{3}{2}}} dt. \tag{170}$$

Substituting the value of u in DAKP equation we get the reduced equation

$$\bar{F}_\zeta + F_\zeta + \bar{F}^2 - F^2 = \alpha(n) \quad (171)$$

which is the Veselov-Shabat equation.¹⁷³ The above system can be derived using l -reduction technique in Sato theory, and moreover this equation can be identified with delay Painlevé equations.^{133, 172}

B Painlevé-singularity confinement analysis

Even before the discovery of solitons, we had a remarkable theory to test the integrability of ODEs called singularity-analysis first proposed by Kowalevski.^{174, 175} The motivation for her discovery emerged from the fact that the critical singularities of a linear ODE are fixed.^{45, 46, 52} This means that the location of singularities of the solutions of a linear ODE is determined entirely by the coefficients of the ODE. This is certainly not the case in nonlinear systems. The structure of the singularity in nonlinear equations is more complicated. While the singularities are fixed for linear ODEs, in the case of nonlinear differential equations, their location (in the complex plane) depends on the initial conditions. These singularities are called movable. Painlevé started asking for nonlinear ODEs with fixed critical singularities and attempted to classify all the second-order equations that belong to this class. In particular, he examined equations of the form

$$w'' = f(w', w, z) \quad (172)$$

with f polynomial in w' , rational in w and analytic in z . This classification was completed by Gambier.^{52, 176} Thus came the discovery of the famous six Painlevé equations.⁵²

The Painlevé equations are integrable in principle, however, their integration could not be performed with the methods available at that time. This situation has changed after the discovery of IST. Ablowitz and Segur¹⁷⁷ showed that the IST technique could be used to linearize the Painlevé equations. Soon after, Ablowitz, Ramani and Segur (ARS)⁴⁴ proposed the following conjecture: "Every ODE which arises as a reduction of a completely integrable PDE is of Painlevé type (perhaps after a transformation of variables)". The integrable systems also possess what is called the Painlevé property. If all movable singularities of all solutions of an ODE are poles then we say that the system possesses Painlevé property. ARS also provided an algorithm to test this property for ODEs. The ARS approach turned out to be the most powerful tool to isolate good candidates of integrable systems.³ Improvements made to it by Weiss *et al*⁴⁷ and Gibbon and Tabor¹⁷⁸ to treat PDEs directly without the constraint of considering reductions have resulted in several new equations. The Painlevé test is undoubtedly powerful but it does not have the rigour of a theorem.

In recent years there has been a growing interest in the study of discrete equations. In modern science discrete equations play an important role.^{133, 134} With the advancement of high-precision computing, discretisation becomes unavoidable. Quite often, discrete models are more realistic than continuous ones to understand the physics of the problem better. However, we can clearly see a close parallel behaviour between the properties of the continuous systems and

their discrete analogues¹⁶² At the same time, it is not obvious to find the discrete analogues of all integrable equations In the past the focus was not much in this domain, but, has changed very recently due to the appearance of discrete Painlevé equations^{156,157}

Although there was some progress in discrete systems, no singularity-structure analysis (Painlevé method) existed for such systems until the discovery of singularity confinement (the equivalent of Painlevé analysis for discrete systems) by Grammaticos *et al*¹⁵⁶ As in the Painlevé method for continuous systems, singularity confinement method becomes a powerful tool to detect possible discrete integrable systems The singularity confinement was complemented by pre-image nonproliferation conditions which means that at each point the mapping will have a single pre-image In the case of mapping, if no unique pre-image exists then there is no need to use singularity confinements¹⁷⁰ The most striking use of singularity confinement is the discovery of discrete Painlevé equations¹⁵⁹ It also plays a vital role in getting other integrability properties of discrete systems¹⁵⁸⁻¹⁶⁹

4.4 Algorithm

The principle of singularity confinement can be stated as follows In a rational mapping, singularity may appear spontaneously due to a particular choice of initial condition In analogy with the continuous case we call this singularity 'movable' The conjecture states¹⁵⁶ that in integrable systems this singularity must disappear after a few iterations This is what is meant by 'confinement' Also, memory of initial conditions must be recovered beyond singularity We can present the method of implementing singularity confinement in the following way as Painlevé analysis in the ARS method⁸⁴ (details in Appendix I):

- 1) Find all possible singularities and check that they are movable.
ARS Find all possible leading behaviours
- 2) Determine when, at the earliest, the singularities can disappear.
ARS Find the resonances
- 3) Check that fine cancellations ensure that they actually disappear (gives constraints on the parameters)
ARS Check compatibility conditions at resonances

For the purpose of dealing with differential-difference equations, neither Painlevé method nor singularity confinement is enough to capture singularities. But Ramani *et al*^{137, 138} have shown how a nice combination of these two methods will allow us to treat differential-difference equations In fact, it goes beyond in treating integro-differential equations as well. The basic idea is to consider the effect of a singularity in the continuous variable on the discrete evolution For Painlevé property the singularity must be a pole, as well as the subsequent ones and in addition, this must disappear after a few iterations (in the discrete variable). This idea is very fruitful in dealing delay-differential equations As an application of this method a few delay-Painlevé equations have also been obtained¹⁷²

4.5 Painlevé-singularity confinement analysis for DAKP

We illustrate the Painlevé singularity confinement technique on DAKP and study the singularity structure of the solutions We introduce the following notations in our discussion $t_1 = x$,

$t_2 = t$, $E^{-1}u_0 = \underline{u}$, $u_0 = u$, $Eu_0 = \bar{u}$, $E^2u_0 = \bar{\bar{u}}$, $\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = u_t$, $\frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial t} = \bar{u}_t$, $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = u_{xx}$, ... Let us write the DAKP equation as

$$u_t + 2(1-u)u_x - u_{xx} = \underline{u}_t + 2(1-\underline{u})\underline{u}_x + \underline{u}_{xx}. \quad (173)$$

According to singularity-confinement analysis, we assume that a given \underline{u} is regular and using the above equation, we should study the propagation of singularities that appear for u . The leading behaviour around the free singularity manifold $\phi(x, t) = 0$ is

$$u = \frac{\phi_x}{\phi} \quad (174)$$

To simplify the calculations, we apply Kruskal's ansatz, i.e. we put $\phi(x, t) = x + \psi(t)$ without loss of generality. In this situation, \underline{u} has a Taylor expansion and thus u can be expressed in the Laurent series

$$u = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j(t) \phi^{j-1} \quad (175)$$

where $a_0 = 1$. Using the expansions (174) and (175) in (173) and performing the usual Painlevé analysis we find that ARS-resonances are $j = -1, 2$ and the compatibility condition for $j = 2$ is automatically satisfied.

This is not enough to test integrability through singularity confinement. For this purpose we have to consider the first and second iterations of the recursion (173) and perform the usual Painlevé analysis and check the passing of the test. The iterations of eqn (173) are

$$\bar{u}_t + 2(1-\bar{u})\bar{u}_x - \bar{u}_{xx} = u_t + 2(1-u)u_x + u_{xx}, \quad (176)$$

and

$$\bar{\bar{u}}_t + 2\left(1 - \frac{\bar{u}}{u}\right)\bar{\bar{u}}_x - \bar{\bar{u}}_{xx} = \bar{u}_t + 2(1-\bar{u})\bar{u}_x + \bar{u}_{xx}. \quad (177)$$

We apply the nature of the singularity of the solution from the previous analysis to these above upshifted equations while doing Painlevé analysis and notice that DAKP equation satisfies the singularity confinement criterion and Painlevé property, thus confirming the integrability of this equation from singularity analysis point of view. Details will be published elsewhere.¹⁵⁴

5. A gauge equivalence of differential-difference Kadomtsev-Petviashvili equation

5.1 Introduction

In the previous sections we have studied the DAKP equation in view of Sato theory. We derived Lax pair, conserved quantities, generalized symmetries, Wronskian solutions, rational solutions and Lie point symmetries and tested the Painlevé-singularity confinement property.^{151, 152, 154, 155} In this section, we discuss a gauge equivalence of the DAKP equation.^{153, 155}

One of the frequent questions asked in the theory of integrable systems is that of the relationship among various eigenvalue problems and of the associated systems. This question has

significant implications, and to investigate it, gauge transformation has been introduced which connects one eigenvalue problem to the other and subsequently one integrable equation to the other. Such equivalence of integrable equations has been a subject of intensive research.¹⁷⁹⁻¹⁹² For example, a gauge equivalence of the nonlinear Schrödinger equation and Heisenberg ferromagnet equation was established by Lakshmanan,¹⁷⁹ and later Zakharov and Takhtajan¹⁸⁰ showed a gauge equivalence between the eigenvalue problems. It has been applied by Kundu^{181, 182} to many systems in both 1 + 1 and 2 + 1 dimensions. It is well known that three different eigenvalue problems, that is, Ablowitz-Kaup-Newell-Segur (AKNS), Kaup-Newell (KN) and Wadati-Konno-Ichikawa (WKI) are connected through gauge transformation.^{80, 81} In view of Sato theory, Kiso derived the modified hierarchies using gauge transformation.¹⁸³ There is a close connection among KP, modified KP and Harry-Dym hierarchies which has been established through gauge transformation. An unified approach to gauge transformation and reciprocal links for a broad class of nonlinear evolution equations has also been investigated.^{184, 185}

Motivated by these works we discuss a gauge equivalence of the linear eigenvalue problem of DAKP and derive a differential-difference equation related to DAKP through a gauge transformation.¹⁸⁵ We find the conserved quantities and generalized symmetries for this system.

5.2 A gauge equivalence of DAKP equation

We start with the pseudo-difference operator

$$\tilde{W} = w'_0 + w'_1 \Delta^{-1} + w'_2 \Delta^{-2} + \quad (178)$$

where the w_j s are functions of n, t_1, t_2 . The formal inverse of \tilde{W} is given by

$$\tilde{W}^{-1} = v'_0 + v'_1 \Delta^{-1} + v'_2 \Delta^{-2} + \quad (179)$$

Using $\tilde{W}\tilde{W}^{-1} = \tilde{W}^{-1}\tilde{W} = 1$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= (w'_0 + w'_1 \Delta^{-1} + w'_2 \Delta^{-2} + \dots)(v'_0 + v'_1 \Delta^{-1} + v'_2 \Delta^{-2} + \dots) \\ &= w'_0(v'_0 + v'_1 \Delta^{-1} + v'_2 \Delta^{-2} + \dots) + w'_1(E^{-1}v'_0 \Delta^{-1} - E^{-2}\Delta v'_0 \Delta^{-2} + \\ &\quad + E^{-1}v'_1 \Delta^{-2} + \dots) + w'_2(E^{-2}v'_0 \Delta^{-2} + \dots) + \dots \end{aligned} \quad (180)$$

Rearrange the terms on the right-hand side of the above expression (180) and compare the like powers of Δ on both sides of (180). This results in an infinite number of equations for v'_j s in terms of w'_j s, $i, j = 1, 2, \dots$

$$\begin{aligned} v'_0 &= \frac{1}{w'_0} \\ v'_1 &= \frac{-w'_1}{w'_0 E^{-1} w'_0} \end{aligned} \quad (181)$$

$$v_2' = \frac{w_2'}{w_0' E^{-2} w_0'} + \frac{w_1'}{w_0' E^{-2} w_0'} + \frac{w_1'}{w_0' E^{-1} w_0'} + \frac{w_1' E^{-1} w_1'}{w_0' E^{-1} w_0' E^{-2} w_0'}$$

Now we introduce a gauge transformation for the L operator (48) defined in Section 2 by

$$\tilde{L} = \phi^{-1} L \phi \quad (182)$$

where ϕ^{-1} means $\frac{1}{\phi}$ and the resulting expression for \tilde{L} is given by

$$\tilde{L} = u' \Delta + u_0' + u_1' \Delta^{-1} + u_2' \Delta^{-2} + \dots \quad (183)$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} u' &= \frac{E\phi}{\phi} \\ u_0' &= \frac{E\phi - \phi + u_0\phi}{\phi} \\ u_1' &= \frac{u_1 E^{-1} \phi}{\phi} \\ u_2' &= \frac{u_1 E^{-2} \phi - u_1 E^{-1} \phi + u_2 E^{-2} \phi}{\phi} \end{aligned} \quad (184)$$

It is possible to decompose \tilde{L} in (183) as

$$\tilde{L} = \tilde{W} \Delta \tilde{W}^{-1} \quad (185)$$

Expanding the right-hand side of equation (185), and comparing it with eqn (183), we arrive at the u_i' s can be expressed in terms of w_i' s for all $i, j = 0, 1, 2, \dots$. We list the first few of them.

$$\begin{aligned} u' &= \frac{w_0'}{E w_0'} \\ u_0' &= \frac{1}{w_0' E w_0'} (w_0'^2 - w_0' E w_0' - w_0' E w_1' + w_1' E w_0') \\ u_1' &= \frac{1}{w_0' E w_0' E^{-1} w_0'} (w_1' w_0' E w_0' - w_0'^2 E w_2' - w_0'^2 E w_1' + w_0' w_1' E w_1' - w_1'^2 E w_0' + w_2' w_0' E w_0') \end{aligned} \quad (186)$$

In the continuous case,¹⁸⁴ the B_i s are defined by

$$B_i = (L^i)^+ \quad (187)$$

where $()^+$ denotes the strictly positive powers of ∂ for the modified KP hierarchy. Here also we expect the same and therefore define

$$\tilde{B}_k = (\tilde{L}^k)^+ \quad (188)$$

where $(\cdot)^+$ involves strictly positive powers of Δ and the generalized Lax equation is given by

$$\frac{\partial \tilde{L}}{\partial t_k} = [\tilde{B}_k, \tilde{L}], \quad k = 1, 2, \dots \quad (189)$$

From (188) and (183), we get

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{B}_1 &= u' \Delta \\ \tilde{B}_2 &= u' E u' \Delta^{-2} + (u' E u' - u'^2 + u' E u'_0 + u' u'_0) \Delta \\ &\dots \end{aligned} \quad (190)$$

Using the Lax equation (189) for $k = 1$ we have the following set of equations

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1} &= u' E u'_0 - u' u'_0 \\ \frac{\partial u'_0}{\partial t_1} &= u' E u'_0 - u' u'_0 + u' E u'_1 - u'_1 E^{-1} u' \\ &\dots \end{aligned} \quad (191)$$

and for $k = 2$ we have,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_2} &= u' E u' E^2 u'_0 - u' E u' E u'_0 + u' E u' E^2 u'_1 - u'^2 E u'_0 + u' (E u'_0)^2 + u'^2 u'_0 \\ &\quad - u' u'_0{}^2 - u' u'_1 E^{-1} u' \end{aligned} \quad (192)$$

Solving the above set of equations, we arrive at

$$\frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_2} = \frac{\partial^2 u'}{\partial t_1^2} - 2u' \frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1} + 2u' \Delta^{-1} \frac{\partial}{\partial t_1} \left(\frac{1}{u'} \frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1} \right) + 2 \frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1} \Delta^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{u'} \frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1} \right). \quad (193)$$

Next we derive the conserved quantities and generalized symmetries for this system

5.3. Conserved quantities

In Section 2, we have derived the conserved quantities and generalized symmetries for DΔKP equation (66). For this purpose we follow the procedure described in Matsukidaira *et al*¹¹⁷. Here, we adopt the same technique and present the conserved quantities and generalized symmetries of the equation (193). For this purpose, we first consider the linear eigenvalue problem associated with the generalized Lax equation (189)

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{L}\psi &= \lambda\psi \\ \frac{\partial\psi}{\partial t_k} &= \tilde{B}_k\psi\end{aligned}\quad (194)$$

where $\lambda_k = 0$. We assume that $\tilde{B}_k^c = \tilde{B}_k - \tilde{L}_k$, and hence rewrite eqn (194) as

$$\frac{\partial\psi}{\partial t_k} = (\tilde{L}^k + \tilde{B}_k^c)\psi \quad (195)$$

It is noticed that \tilde{B}_k^c consists of terms involving Δ^j , $j=0, 1, 2, \dots$. Now we will express Δ^j , $j=1, 2, \dots$ in terms of \tilde{L}^{-j} . For this purpose, first we find \tilde{L}^{-1} . We assume that \tilde{L}^{-1} is of the form

$$\tilde{L}^{-1} = q_1'\Delta^{-1} + q_2'\Delta^{-2} + q_3'\Delta^{-3} + \dots \quad (196)$$

Using $\tilde{L}^{-1}\tilde{L} = 1$ we have

$$\begin{aligned}1 &= (q_1'\Delta^{-1} + q_2'\Delta^{-2} + \dots)(u'\Delta + u_0' + u_1'\Delta^{-1} + u_2'\Delta^{-2} + \dots) \\ &= q_1'(E^{-1}u' - E^{-2}\Delta u'\Delta^{-1} + E^{-3}\Delta^2 u'\Delta^{-2} + \dots + E^{-1}u_0'\Delta^{-1} - E^{-2}\Delta u_0'\Delta^{-2} + \dots \\ &\quad + E^{-1}u_1'\Delta^{-2} + \dots) + q_2'(E^{-2}u'\Delta^{-1} - 2E^{-3}\Delta^2 u'\Delta^{-2} + \dots + E^{-2}u_0'\Delta^{-2} + \dots) + q_3'(E^{-3}u'\Delta^{-2} + \dots)\end{aligned}\quad (197)$$

Comparing the like powers of Δ on both sides of (197) we get

$$\begin{aligned}q_1' &= \frac{1}{E^{-1}u'} \\ q_2' &= \frac{1}{E^{-1}u'E^{-2}u'}(E^{-1}u' - E^{-2}u' - E^{-1}u_0') \\ q_3' &= \frac{1}{E^{-1}u'E^{-2}u'E^{-3}u'}(-E^{-1}u_1'E^{-2}u' + E^{-1}u'E^{-2}u' - E^{-2}u_0'E^{-2}u' \\ &\quad - 2E^{-3}u'E^{-1}u' + E^{-3}u'E^{-2}u' + 2E^{-3}u'E^{-1}u_0' - E^{-2}u_0'E^{-1}u' + E^{-1}u_0'E^{-2}u_0')\end{aligned}\quad (198)$$

Using Leibniz rule (9) and (196), we can derive the higher powers of \tilde{L}^{-j} , $j=1, 2, \dots$. We list some of them.

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{L}^{-2} &= q_1'E^{-1}q_1'\Delta^{-2} + (-q_1'E^{-1}q_1' + q_1'E^{-2}q_1' + q_1'E^{-1}q_2' + q_2'E^{-2}q_1')\Delta^{-3} + \dots \\ \tilde{L}^{-3} &= q_1'E^{-1}q_1'E^{-2}q_2'\Delta^{-3} + \dots\end{aligned}\quad (199)$$

Using (198) and (199), we can present the values for $\Delta^j, j = 1, 2, \dots$ in terms of negative powers of L as

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta^{-1} &= E^{-1}u'\tilde{L}^{-1} + \left(-E^{-1}u'^2 + E^{-2}u'E^{-1}u' + E^{-1}u'E^{-1}u'_0\right)L^{-2} + \left(-E^{-1}u'3 \right. \\ &\quad + 2E^{-1}u'^2E^{-3}u' + E^{-1}u'^2E^{-2}u'_0 + 2E^{-1}u'^2E^{-1}u'_0 + E^{-1}u'E^{-2}u'^2 \\ &\quad - 2E^{-1}u'E^{-2}u'E^{-3}u' - E^{-1}u'E^{-2}u'E^{-2}u'_0 - 2E^{-1}u'E^{-1}u'_0E^{-3}u' \\ &\quad - E^{-1}u'E^{-1}u'_0E^{-2}u'_0 - E^{-1}u'E^{-1}u'_0{}^2 - E^{-1}u'_1E^{-2}u' + E^{-1}u'E^{-2}u' \\ &\quad - E^{-1}u'_0E^{-2}u' - 2E^{-3}u'E^{-1}u' + E^{-3}u'E^{-2}u' + 2E^{-3}u'E^{-1}u'_0 \\ &\quad \left. - E^{-2}u'_0E^{-1}u' + E^{-1}u'_0E^{-2}u'_0\right)\tilde{L}^{-3} + \\ \Delta^{-2} &= E^{-1}u'E^{-2}u'\tilde{L}^{-2} - \left(E^{-1}u'^2E^{-2}u' + E^{-1}u'E^{-2}u'^2 - 2E^{-1}u'E^{-2}u'E^{-3}u' \right. \\ &\quad \left. - E^{-1}u'E^{-2}u'E^{-2}u'_0 - E^{-1}u'E^{-2}u'E^{-1}u'_0\right)\tilde{L}^{-3} + \dots \\ \Delta^{-3} &= E^{-1}u'E^{-2}u'E^{-3}u'\tilde{L}^{-3} + \dots \end{aligned} \quad (200)$$

Now, using these results, we can write down eqn (195) in the form

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t_k} = \left(\tilde{L}^k + \sigma_0^{(k)} + \sigma_1^{(k)}L^{-1} + \sigma_2^{(k)}L^{-2} + \dots \right) \psi \quad (201)$$

where $\sigma_j^{(k)}$'s are functions of u', u'_j 's for all $i, j = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ and $k = 1, 2, \dots$. On using $L'\psi = \lambda'\psi$ in (201), we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t_k} &= \left(\lambda^k + \sigma_0^{(k)} + \frac{\sigma_1^{(k)}}{\lambda} + \frac{\sigma_2^{(k)}}{\lambda^2} + \dots \right) \psi \\ \frac{1}{\psi} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t_k} &= \left(\lambda^k + \sigma_0^{(k)} + \frac{\sigma_1^{(k)}}{\lambda} + \frac{\sigma_2^{(k)}}{\lambda^2} + \dots \right) \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial t_k} \log \psi &= \lambda^k + \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{\sigma_j^{(k)}}{\lambda^j}. \end{aligned} \quad (202)$$

We denote $\sigma^{(k)} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sigma_j^{(k)} \lambda^{-j}$ and hence eqn (202) becomes

$$\sigma^{(k)} = \frac{\partial(\log \psi)}{\partial t_k} - \lambda^k \quad (203)$$

Differentiating eqn (203) with respect to the variable t_m , we will arrive at the conservation laws

$$\frac{\partial \sigma^{(k)}}{\partial t_m} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t_k} \left(\frac{\partial \log \psi}{\partial t_m} \right), \quad m, k = 1, 2, \dots, m \neq k. \quad (204)$$

We list first few of the $\sigma_j^{(k)}$ s.

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_0^{(1)} &= -u'_0 \\ \sigma_1^{(1)} &= -u'_1 E^{-1} u' \\ \sigma_2^{(1)} &= u'_1 E^{-1} u'^2 - u'_1 E^{-2} u' E^{-1} u' - u'_1 E^{-1} u' E^{-1} u'_0 - u_2 E^{-1} u' E^{-2} u'\end{aligned}\quad (205)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_0^{(2)} &= -u' E u'_0 + u' u'_0 - u' E u'_1 - u_0'^2 - u'_1 E^{-1} u' \\ \sigma_1^{(2)} &= -u' E u' E^{-1} u' + u' u'_1 E^{-1} u' - u' E u'_2 E^{-1} u' - u'_0 u'_1 E^{-1} u' + u'_1 E^{-1} u'^2 \\ &\quad - u'_1 E^{-1} u' E^{-2} u'\end{aligned}\quad (206)$$

It is known that the Lax equation with $k=1$ gives

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1} &= u' E u'_0 - u' u'_0 \\ \frac{\partial u'_0}{\partial t_1} &= u' E u'_0 - u' u'_0 + u' E u'_1 - u'_1 E^{-1} u'\end{aligned}\quad (207)$$

From the above equations (207), we can express u'_0, u'_1, \dots , in term of u' and we list the first few of u'_j s for $j=0, 1, 2$,

$$\begin{aligned}u'_0 &= \Delta^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{u'} \frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1} \right) \\ u'_1 &= \frac{1}{E^{-1} u'} \left(\Delta^{-2} \frac{\partial}{\partial t_1} \left(\frac{1}{u'} \frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1} \right) - \Delta^{-1} \left(\frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1} \right) \right)\end{aligned}\quad (208)$$

Now substituting the values of u'_0, u'_1, \dots in $\sigma_j^{(1)}$ (205), we obtain the conserved densities of the differential-difference equation (193). We list below some of them:

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_0^{(1)} &= -\Delta^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{u'} \frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1} \right) \\ \sigma_1^{(1)} &= -\Delta^{-2} \left(-\frac{1}{u'^2} \frac{\partial u'^2}{\partial t_1} + \frac{1}{u'} \frac{\partial^2 u'}{\partial t_1^2} \right) + \Delta^{-1} \frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1} \\ \sigma_2^{(1)} &= E^{-1} u' \Delta^{-2} \frac{\partial}{\partial t_1} \left(\frac{1}{u} \frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1} \right) - E^{-1} u' \Delta^{-1} \frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1} - E^{-2} u' \Delta^{-2} \frac{\partial}{\partial t_1} \left(\frac{1}{u'} \frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1} \right)\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& +E^{-2}u'\Delta^{-1}\frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1}-\Delta^{-2}\frac{\partial}{\partial t_1}\left(\frac{1}{u'}\frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1}\right)E^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{u'}\frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1}\right) \\
& +\Delta^{-2}\frac{\partial}{\partial t_1}\left(\frac{1}{u'}\frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1}\right)\Delta^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{u'}\frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1}\right)+\Delta^{-1}\frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1}E^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{u'}\frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1}\right) \\
& -\Delta^{-1}\frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1}\Delta^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{u'}\frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1}\right)+\Delta^{-1}\left[E^{-1}u'\Delta^{-1}\frac{\partial}{\partial t_1}\left(\frac{1}{u'}\frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1}\right)-E^{-1}u'\frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1}\right] \\
& -\Delta^{-1}\left[u'\Delta^{-2}\frac{\partial}{\partial t_1}\left(\frac{1}{u'}\frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1}\right)-u'\Delta^{-1}\frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1}\right] \\
& -\Delta^{-1}\left[E^{-2}u'\Delta^{-2}\frac{\partial}{\partial t_1}\left(\frac{1}{u'}\frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1}\right)-E^{-2}u'\Delta^{-1}\frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1}\right] \\
& -\Delta^{-1}\left[E^{-1}u'\frac{\partial}{\partial t_1}\left(\frac{1}{E^{-1}u'}\left(\Delta^{-2}\frac{\partial}{\partial t_1}\left(\frac{1}{u'}\frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1}\right)-\Delta^{-1}\frac{\partial u'}{\partial t_1}\right)\right)\right]
\end{aligned} \tag{209}$$

5.4. Generalized symmetries

In this section, we derive the generalized symmetries of the differential–difference equation (193).^{153, 155} For this purpose, we consider the linear eigenvalue problem

$$\begin{aligned}
\tilde{L}\psi_n &= \lambda\psi_n \\
\frac{\partial\psi_n}{\partial t_m} &= \tilde{B}_m\psi_n
\end{aligned} \tag{210}$$

and the adjoint eigenvalue problem

$$\begin{aligned}
\tilde{L}^*\psi_n^* &= \lambda\psi_n^* \\
\frac{\partial\psi_n^*}{\partial t_m} &= -B_m^*\psi_n^*
\end{aligned} \tag{211}$$

where λ is the spectral parameter and is independent of n and t_m . We follow the same procedure as in Section 2 to compute the eigenfunctions ψ_n and ψ_n^* . They are given by

$$\begin{aligned}
\psi_n &= \left(w'_0 + \frac{w'_1}{\lambda} + \frac{w'_2}{\lambda^2} + \dots \right) (1+\lambda)^n \exp\left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} t_i \lambda^i \right) \\
\psi_n^* &= \left(w_0'^* + \frac{w_1'^*}{\lambda} + \frac{w_2'^*}{\lambda^2} + \dots \right) (1+\lambda)^{-n} \exp\left(-\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} t_i \lambda^i \right)
\end{aligned} \tag{212}$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} w_0^{*'} &= v_0' \\ w_1^{*'} &= -E v_1' \\ w_2^{*'} &= -\left(E \Delta^2 v_1' + 2E^2 \Delta v_2' + E^3 v_3' \right) \end{aligned} \quad (213)$$

For convenience, we denote u' as u_n . The equations representing the linear eigenvalue problem and its adjoint are given by

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \psi_n}{\partial \lambda_1} &= u_n \psi_{n+1} - u_n \psi_n \\ \frac{\partial \psi_n}{\partial \lambda_2} &= u_n u_{n+1} \psi_{n+2} - u_n u_{n+1} \psi_{n+1} - u_n^2 \psi_{n+1} + \frac{\partial u_n}{\partial \lambda_1} \psi_{n+1} + u_n^2 \psi_n \\ &\quad + 2u_n \Delta^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{u_n} \frac{\partial u_n}{\partial \lambda_1} \right) \psi_{n+1} - \frac{\partial u_n}{\partial \lambda_1} \psi_n - 2u_n \Delta^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{u_n} \frac{\partial u_n}{\partial \lambda_1} \right) \psi_n \end{aligned} \quad (214)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \psi_n^*}{\partial \lambda_1} &= u_n \psi_n^* - u_{n-1} \psi_{n-1}^* \\ \frac{\partial \psi_n^*}{\partial \lambda_2} &= u_n u_{n-1} \psi_n^* - u_{n-1} u_{n-2} \psi_{n-2}^* - u_n^2 \psi_n^* + \frac{\partial u_n}{\partial \lambda_1} \psi_n^* + u_{n-1}^2 \psi_{n-1}^* \\ &\quad + 2u_n \Delta^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{u_n} \frac{\partial u_n}{\partial \lambda_1} \right) \psi_n^* - 2u_{n-1} \Delta^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{u_{n-1}} \frac{\partial u_{n-1}}{\partial \lambda_1} \right) \psi_{n-1}^* - \frac{\partial u_{n-1}}{\partial \lambda_1} \psi_{n-1}^* \end{aligned}$$

By taking

$$\psi_n^* = \Delta E^{-1} \phi_n \quad (215)$$

and

$$s = \psi_n \phi_n \quad (216)$$

one can check that

$$\frac{\partial s}{\partial \lambda_2} = \frac{\partial^2 s}{\partial \lambda_1^2} - 2u_n \frac{\partial s}{\partial \lambda_1} + 2u_n \Delta^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{u_n} \frac{\partial s}{\partial \lambda_1} \right) + 2 \frac{\partial s}{\partial \lambda_1} \Delta^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{u_n} \frac{\partial u_n}{\partial \lambda_1} \right) \quad (217)$$

is consistent with (214). The solution of eqn (217) is derived from

$$\psi \Delta^{-1} E \psi^* = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} s_m \lambda^{-(m+1)}, \quad (218)$$

where

$$s_m = \sum_{j=0}^m w_j w_{m-j}^* \quad (219)$$

We denote $S = \frac{\partial s}{\partial t_1}$ and $u_n = u$. Then, eqn (217) becomes

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial S}{\partial t_2} = & \frac{\partial^2 s}{\partial t_1^2} - 2u \frac{\partial s}{\partial t_1} - 2S \frac{\partial u}{\partial t_1} + 2u \Delta^{-1} \left(-\frac{2}{u^2} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t_1} \frac{\partial s}{\partial t_1} + \frac{2S}{u^3} \frac{\partial u^2}{\partial t_1} + \frac{1}{u} \frac{\partial^2 S}{\partial t_1^2} - \frac{S}{u^2} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t_1^2} \right) \\ & + 2S \Delta^{-1} \left(-\frac{1}{u^2} \frac{\partial u^2}{\partial t_1} + \frac{1}{u} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t_1^2} \right) + 2 \frac{\partial u}{\partial t_1} \Delta^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{u} \frac{\partial S}{\partial t_1} - \frac{S}{u^2} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t_1} \right) + 2 \frac{\partial S}{\partial t_1} \Delta^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{u} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t_1} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (220)$$

which is nothing but the symmetry invariant equation of (193). The solutions of eqn (220) are the generalized symmetries of eqn (193). We first list a few generalized symmetries of (193):

$$\begin{aligned} S_0 &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial t_1} \\ S_1 &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial t_2} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial t_1} \\ S_2 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t_1} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial t_1} + 2u \Delta^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{u} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t_1} \right) - u^2 + u^3 - 3u^2 \Delta^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{u} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t_1} \right) + 3u \left(\Delta^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{u} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t_1} \right) \right)^2 \right) \\ &+ 3u \Delta^{-2} \left(-\frac{1}{u^2} \frac{\partial u^2}{\partial t_1} + \frac{1}{u} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t_1^2} \right) - 3u \Delta^{-1} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t_1} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t_1^2} + 3 \frac{\partial u}{\partial t_1} \Delta^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{u} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t_1} \right) - 3u \frac{\partial u}{\partial t_1} \\ &+ 3u \Delta^{-1} \left(-\frac{1}{u^2} \frac{\partial u^2}{\partial t_1} + \frac{1}{u} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t_1^2} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (221)$$

5.5. 2-Reduction

In this section, we derive the 2-reduced gauge equivalent DΔKP equation. For this, we consider

$$\tilde{L}^2 = \tilde{B}_2 \quad (222)$$

which will give the constraints

$$\begin{aligned} u' E u'_0 - u' u'_0 + u' E u'_1 + u'_0{}^2 + u'_1 E^{-1} u' &= 0 \\ u' E u'_1 - u' u'_1 + u' E u'_2 + u'_0 u'_1 - u'_1 E^{-1} u' + u'_1 E^{-2} u' + u'_1 E^{-1} u'_0 + u'_2 E^{-2} u' &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (223)$$

...

Imposing these on the constraints in eqns (191) and (192) we finally arrive at the reduced system

$$\frac{1}{u'_{n+1}} \frac{\partial u'_{n+1}}{\partial t_1} + \frac{1}{u'_n} \frac{\partial u'_n}{\partial t_1} = u'_n - u'_{n+1}. \quad (224)$$

Here $u'_n = u'$ and eqn (224) is related to the Kac-van Moerbeke system⁴⁷ by the transformation $u'_n = \log\left(\frac{u'_n}{v'_n}\right)$. The Painlevé-singularity confinement analysis and Lie symmetry analysis of (193) will be published elsewhere.¹⁵³

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Appendix I

Painlevé analysis for PDEs

ARS⁴⁴ proposed an algorithm to analyse the Painlevé property of ODEs. This has been extended by WTC⁴⁷. The Painlevé analysis for PDEs due to WTC can be stated as follows: Let us consider the evolution equation of the form

$$u_t + K(u) = 0, \quad (\text{A } 1)$$

where $K(u)$ is some nonlinear function of u and its derivatives of order N , in the complex domain. We say that an NPDE possesses the generalized Painlevé property^{47,60} if the following two conditions are satisfied

- (a) The solutions of the NPDE (A 1) must be 'single-valued' about the 'non-characteristic' movable singularity manifold. More precisely, if the singularity manifold is determined by

$$\phi(x, t) = 0, \quad \phi_x(x, t) \neq 0 \quad (\text{A.2})$$

and $u(x, t)$ is a solution of (A 1), then we seek

$$u = \phi^\alpha \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} u_j \phi^j \quad (\text{A } 3)$$

where $\phi = \phi(x, t)$, $u_j = u_j(x, t)$, $u_0 \neq 0$ are analytic functions of (x, t) in a neighbourhood of the manifold and α is a negative integer

- (b) Then by Cauchy-Kovalevskaya's theorem, the solution (A 3) should contain N arbitrary functions, one of them being the function ϕ and others coming from the u_j s. The algo-

algorithmic procedure to test the given nonlinear evolution equation for its generalized Painlevé property consists essentially of three steps. We shall describe each of these steps below.

Leading order analysis

The analysis starts with the determination of the possible values of α and u_0 in the expansion (A 3). For each value of α , the homogeneous terms with the highest degree may balance each other. The terms that balance each other are called leading terms. Then all the α s must be negative integers by (a).

For each choice of the α , an algebraic equation for the u_0 in (A 3) is usually obtained by requiring that the coefficient, say A of the dominant term $A\phi^{-d}$ should vanish, where d is the highest degree. If u_0 is arbitrary, A should identically vanish.

Resonance analysis

After identifying all the possible branches in the solution (A 3), our next aim is to find the resonances. When the coefficient u_j of the term $\phi^{j+\alpha}$ in the expression (A 3) is arbitrary, then we say that the resonance occurs at j in the above series. In order to find the resonance values, we substitute

$$u = u_0\phi^\alpha + u_j\phi^{j+\alpha} \quad (\text{A } 4)$$

in eqn (A 1), retaining only the most dominant terms, and extracting the coefficient $\tilde{Q}(j) = Q(j)u_j$ of the term $\phi^{j+\alpha-N}$. Then $Q(j) = 0$ is called the resonance equation, in which -1 is always a root, which corresponds to the arbitrary nature of ϕ . Substituting the values of u_0 (obtained earlier in the leading order analysis) in the resonance equation, one can find the remaining roots of $Q(j)$.

Arbitrary functions

Having obtained the resonance values, we have to show that necessary arbitrary functions exist at these resonance values in the series without the introduction of any movable critical manifold. Let r_s be the highest of the allowed resonance values. Then we substitute

$$u = \sum_{j=0}^{r_s} u_j \phi^{j+\alpha}, \quad (\text{A } 5)$$

in the original equation (A 1) and for $j = 0, 1, 2, \dots, r_s$ requires

$$Q(j)u_j + R_j = 0, \quad (\text{A } 6)$$

where the left-hand side of eqn (A 6) is the coefficient of $\phi^{j+\alpha-N}$ and R_j is a polynomial in the partial derivatives of ϕ and u_k s ($k = 0, 1, \dots, j-1$). Since $Q(j) = 0$, R_j should identically vanish for any resonance j and in which case u_j is arbitrary. Suppose if it is not so, we have to introduce logarithmic terms of the form $a_j + b_j \log \phi$ in the series. But due to this addition, the logarithmic singularities will appear in the solution manifold. Thus, the condition $R_j = 0$ ensures that the solution is free from movable critical manifolds.

Note: We have noticed rather late in production stage that eqns (4) and (5) do not figure in the paper of K. M. Tamizhmani and S. Kanaga Vel, 1998, 78, 311–372. This omission has probably occurred during revision.