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# INTEGRABILITY OF INVARIANT METRICS ON THE DIFFEOMORPHISM GROUP OF THE CIRCLE 

ADRIAN CONSTANTIN AND BORIS KOLEV


#### Abstract

Each $H^{k}$ Sobolev inner product $(k \geq 0)$ defines a Hamiltonian vector field $X_{k}$ on the regular dual of the Lie algebra of the diffeomorphism group of the circle. We show that only $X_{0}$ and $X_{1}$ are bi-Hamiltonian relatively to a modified Lie-Poisson structure.


## 1. Introduction

Often motions of inertial mechanical systems are described in Lagrangian variables by paths on a configuration space $G$ that is a Lie group. The velocity phase space is the tangent bundle $T G$ and the kinetic energy

$$
\mathcal{K}=\frac{1}{2}\langle v, v\rangle
$$

for $v \in T G$. For example, in continuum mechanics the state of a system at time $t \geq 0$ can be specified by a diffeomorphism $x \mapsto \varphi(t, x)$ of the ambient space, giving the configuration of the particles with respect to their initial positions at time $t=0$. Here $x$ is a label identifying a particle, taken to be the position of the particle at time $t=0$ so that $\varphi(0, x)=x$. In this setting $G$ would be the group of diffeomorphisms. The material (Lagrangian) velocity field is given by $(t, x) \mapsto \varphi_{t}(t, x)$ while the spatial (Eulerian) velocity field is $u(t, y)=\varphi_{t}(t, x)$, where $y=\varphi(t, x)$, i.e. $u=\varphi_{t} \circ \varphi^{-1}$. Observe that for any fixed time-independent diffeomorphism $\eta$, the spatial velocity field $u=\varphi_{t} \circ \varphi^{-1}$ along the path $t \mapsto \varphi(t)$ remains unchanged if we replace this path by $t \mapsto \varphi(t) \circ \eta$. This right-invariance property suggests to extend the kinetic energy $\mathcal{K}$ by right translation to a right-invariant Lagrangian $\mathcal{K}: T G \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, obtaining a Lagrangian system on $G$. The length of a path $\{\varphi(t)\}_{t \in[a, b]}$ in $G$ is defined as

$$
\mathfrak{l}(\varphi)=\int_{a}^{b}<\varphi_{t}, \varphi_{t}>^{1 / 2} d t .
$$

The Least Action Principle holds if the equation of motion is the geodesic equation. The set Diff $\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ of all smooth orientation-preserving diffeomorphisms of the circle represents the configuration space for the spatially periodic motion of inertial one-dimensional mechanical systems. Diff $\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ is an infinite dimensional Lie group, the group operation being composition [19] and its Lie algebra $\operatorname{Vect}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ being the space of all smooth vector fields on $\mathbb{S}^{1}$

[^0]cf. [29]. On the regular (or $\left.L^{2}\right)$ dual $\operatorname{Vect}^{*}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ of the Lie algebra Vect $\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ there are some affine canonical Lie-Poisson structures, called modified LiePoisson structures, which are all compatible. On the other hand, we can consider on the regular dual Vect* $\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ a countable family $\left\{X_{k}\right\}_{k \geq 0}$ of Hamiltonian vector fields defined by Sobolev inner products. The importance of these inner products lies in that each gives rise via right translation to a geodesic flow on $\operatorname{Diff}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$, the Riemannian exponential map of which defines a local chart for every $k \geq 1 \mathrm{cf}$. [10] - a property which fails for the Lie group exponential map [19, 27] as well as for the Riemannian exponential map if $k=0$ [9]. In this paper we show that the Hamiltonian vector field $X_{k}$ is bi-Hamiltonian relatively to a modified Lie-Poisson structure if and only if $k \in\{0,1\}$.

## 2. Preliminaries

In this section, we review some fundamental aspects of finite dimensional smooth Poisson manifolds.

Definition 2.1. A symplectic manifold is a pair $(M, \omega)$, where $M$ is a manifold and $\omega$ is a closed nondegenerate 2 -form on $M$, that is $d \omega=0$ and for each $m \in M, \omega_{m}: T_{m} M \times T_{m} M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a continuous bilinear skew-symmetric map such that the induced linear map $\tilde{\omega}_{v}: T_{m} M \rightarrow T_{m}^{*} M$ defined by $\tilde{\omega}_{v}(w)=\omega(v, w)$ is an isomorphism for all $v \in T_{m} M$.

Example 2.2. In the general study of variational problems, extensive use is made of the canonical symplectic structure on the cotangent bundle $T^{*} M$ (representing the phase space) of the manifold $M$ (representing the configuration space). This symplectic form is given in any local trivialization $(q, p) \in U \times \mathbb{R}^{n} \subset \mathbb{R}^{n} \times \mathbb{R}^{n}$ of $T^{*} M$ by

$$
\omega_{(q, p)}((Q, P),(\tilde{Q}, \tilde{P}))=\tilde{P} \cdot Q-P \cdot \tilde{Q}, \quad(Q, P),(\tilde{Q}, \tilde{P}) \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \times \mathbb{R}^{n}
$$

Since a symplectic form $\omega$ is nondegenerate, it induces an isomorphism

$$
\begin{equation*}
b: T M \rightarrow T^{*} M, \quad X \mapsto X^{b} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

defined via $X^{b}(Y)=\omega(X, Y)$. The symplectic gradient $X_{f}$ of a function $f$ is defined by the relation $X_{f}^{b}=-d f$. The inverse of the isomorphism $b$ defines a skew-symmetric bilinear form $W$ on the cotangent space of $M$. This bilinear form $W$ induces itself a bilinear mapping on $\mathrm{C}^{\infty}(M)$, the space of smooth functions $f: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\{f, g\}=W(d f, d g)=\omega\left(X_{f}, X_{g}\right), \quad f, g \in \mathrm{C}^{\infty}(M) \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

and called the Poisson bracket of the functions $f$ and $g$.
Example 2.3. In Example 2.2, the Poisson bracket is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\{f, g\}=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial q_{i}} \frac{\partial g}{\partial p_{i}}-\frac{\partial f}{\partial p_{i}} \frac{\partial g}{\partial q_{i}}\right) \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The observation that a bracket like (2.3) could be introduced on $\mathrm{C}^{\infty}(M)$ for a smooth manifold $M$, without the use of a symplectic form, leads to the general notion of a Poisson structure [26].

Definition 2.4. A Poisson structure on a $C^{\infty}$ manifold $M$ is a skewsymmetric bilinear mapping $(f, g) \mapsto\{f, g\}$ on the space $\mathrm{C}^{\infty}(M)$, which satisfies the Jacobi identity

$$
\begin{equation*}
\{\{f, g\}, h\}+\{\{g, h\}, f\}+\{\{h, f\}, g\}=0, \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

as well as the Leibnitz identity

$$
\begin{equation*}
\{f, g h\}=\{f, g\} h+g\{f, h\} . \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

When the Poisson structure is induced by a symplectic structure $\omega$, the Leibnitz identity is a direct consequence of (2.2), whereas the Jacobi identity (2.4) corresponds to the condition $d \omega=0$ satisfied by the symplectic form $\omega$. In the general case, the fact that the mapping $g \mapsto\{f, g\}$ satisfies (2.5) means that it is a derivation of $\mathrm{C}^{\infty}(M)$. Each derivation on $\mathrm{C}^{\infty}(M)$ for a $C^{\infty}$ manifold (even in the infinite dimensional case cf. [1]) corresponds to a smooth vector field, that is, to each $f \in \mathrm{C}^{\infty}(M)$ is associated a vector field $X_{f}: M \rightarrow T M$, called the Hamiltonian vector field of $f$, such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\{f, g\}=X_{f} \cdot g=d g \cdot X_{f} \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $d g \cdot X_{f}=L_{X_{f}} g$ is the Lie derivative of $g$ along $X_{f}$. Conversely, a vector field $X: M \rightarrow T M$ on a Poisson manifold $M$ is said to be Hamiltonian if there exists a function $f$ such that $X=X_{f}$.

Recall [29] that for a smooth vector field $X: M \rightarrow T M$, the Lie derivative operator $L_{X}: \mathrm{C}^{\infty}(M) \rightarrow \mathrm{C}^{\infty}(M)$ acts on smooth functions $g: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with differentials $d g: M \rightarrow T^{*} M$ by $\left(L_{X} g\right)(m)=d g(m) \cdot X(m)$ for $m \in M$. The space $\operatorname{Vect}(M)$ of smooth vector fields on $M$ and the space of operators $\left\{L_{X}: X \in \operatorname{Vect}(M)\right\}$ are isomorphic as real vector spaces, the linear isomorphism between them being $X \mapsto L_{X}$ [1]. Therefore the elements of $\operatorname{Vect}(M)$ can be regarded as operators on $\mathrm{C}^{\infty}(M)$ via $X \cdot f=L_{X} f$, forming a Lie algebra if endowed with the bracket $[X, Y]=L_{X} \circ L_{Y}-L_{Y} \circ L_{X}$. Notice that (2.4) yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[X_{f}, X_{g}\right]=X_{\{f, g\}} \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (2.7) it follows (see [29]) that $g \in \mathrm{C}^{\infty}(M)$ is a constant of motion for $X_{f}$ if and only if $\{f, g\}=0$.

Jost [21] pointed out that, just like a derivation on $\mathrm{C}^{\infty}(M)$ corresponds to a vector field, a bilinear bracket $\{f, g\}$ satisfying the Leibnitz rule (2.5) corresponds to a skew-symmetric bilinear form on $T M$. That is, there exists a $C^{\infty}$ tensor field $W \in \Gamma\left(\bigwedge^{2} T M\right)$, called the Poisson bivector of $(M,\{\cdot, \cdot\})$, such that

$$
\{f, g\}=W(d f, d g)
$$

Using the unique local extension of the Lie bracket of vector fields to skewsymmetric multivector fields, called the Schouten-Nijenhuis bracket [30], the condition (2.4) becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
[W, W]=0 \tag{2.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Conversely, any $W \in \Gamma\left(\bigwedge^{2} T M\right)$ that satisfies (2.8) induces a Poisson structure on $M$ via (2.2). The only condition that must be satisfied by $W$ is (2.8) since (2.5) holds automatically. A Poisson structure on $M$ is therefore
equivalent to a bivector $W$ that satisfies (2.8). This induces a homomorphism

$$
\begin{equation*}
\#: T^{*} M \rightarrow T M, \quad \alpha \mapsto \alpha^{\#} \tag{2.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

such that $\beta\left(\alpha^{\#}\right)=W(\beta, \alpha)$ for every $\beta \in T^{*} M$. Notice that for $f \in \mathrm{C}^{\infty}(M)$ we have $(d f)^{\#}=X_{f}$. If the homomorphism (2.9) is an isomorphism we call the Poisson structure nondegenerate. A nondegenerate Poisson structure on $M$ is equivalent to a symplectic structure where the symplectic form $\omega$ is just $\# W$, the closedness condition corresponding to the Jacobi identity [30].
Remark 2.5. The notion of a Poisson manifold is more general than that of a symplectic manifold. For example, in the symplectic case the Poisson bracket satisfies the additional property that $\{f, g\}=0$ for all $g \in \mathrm{C}^{\infty}(M)$ only if $f \in \mathrm{C}^{\infty}(M)$ is constant, whereas for Poisson manifolds such nonconstant functions $f$ might exist, in which case they are called Casimir functions. To highlight this, notice that by Darboux' theorem [29] a finite dimensional symplectic manifold $M$ has to be even dimensional and locally there are coordinates $\left\{q_{1}, \ldots, q_{n}, p_{1}, \ldots, p_{n}\right\}$ such that $\{f, g\}$ is given by (2.3). On the other hand, on $M=\mathbb{R}^{2 n+1}$ with coordinates $\left\{q_{1}, \ldots, q_{n}, p_{1}, \ldots, p_{n}, \zeta\right\}$ we determine a Poisson structure defining the Poisson bracket of $f, g \in$ $C^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{R}^{2 n+1}\right)$ by the same formula (2.3). Notice that any $f \in C^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{R}^{2 n+1}\right)$ which depends only on $\zeta$ is a Casimir function.

Two Poisson bivectors $W_{1}$ and $W_{2}$ define compatible Poisson structures if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[W_{1}, W_{2}\right]=0 \tag{2.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

This is equivalent to say that for any $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$
\{f, g\}_{\lambda, \mu}=\lambda\{f, g\}_{1}+\mu\{f, g\}_{2}
$$

is also a Poisson bracket. On a manifold $M$ equipped with two compatible Poisson structures, a vector field $X$ is said to be (formally) integrable or bi-Hamiltonian if it is Hamiltonian for both structures.

On a symplectic manifold $(M, \omega)$, a necessary condition for a vector field $X$ to be Hamiltonian is that $L_{X} \omega=0$ [29]. A similar criterion exists for a Poisson manifold ( $M, W$ ). It is instructive for later considerations to present a short proof of this known result.

Proposition 2.6. On a Poisson manifold ( $M, W$ ) a necessary condition for a vector field $X$ to be Hamiltonian is

$$
\begin{equation*}
L_{X} W=0 \tag{2.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. If $X$ is Hamiltonian, there is a function $h \in \mathrm{C}^{\infty}(M)$ such that $X=$ $X_{h}$. Let $f$ and $g$ be arbitrary smooth functions on $M$. We have

$$
L_{X} W(d f, d g)=L_{X}(W(d f, d g))-W\left(L_{X} d f, d g\right)-W\left(d f, L_{X} d g\right) .
$$

But $L_{X_{h}} f=\{h, f\}$ and $L_{X_{h}} d f=d L_{X_{h}} f=d\{h, f\}$. Therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
L_{X} W(d f, d g) & =L_{X}\{f, g\}-W(d\{h, f\}, d g)-W(d f, d\{h, g\}) \\
& =\{h,\{f, g\}\}-\{\{h, f\}, g\}-\{f,\{h, g\}\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

This last expression equals zero because of the Jacobi identity.

The fundamental example of a non-symplectic Poisson structure is the Lie-Poisson structure on the dual $\mathfrak{g}^{*}$ of a Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$.

Definition 2.7. On the dual space $\mathfrak{g}^{*}$ of a Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ of a Lie group $G$, there is a Poisson structure defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\{f, g\}(m)=m\left(\left[d_{m} f, d_{m} g\right]\right) \tag{2.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $m \in \mathfrak{g}^{*}$ and $f, g \in C^{\infty}\left(\mathfrak{g}^{*}\right)$, called the canonical Lie-Poisson structure ${ }^{1}$.
Remark 2.8. The canonical Lie-Poisson structure has the remarkable property to be linear. A Poisson bracket on a vector space is said to be linear if the bracket of two linear functionals is itself a linear functional.

Each element $\gamma \in \Lambda^{2} \mathfrak{g}^{*}$ can be viewed as a Poisson bivector. Indeed, $[\gamma, \gamma]=0$ since $\gamma$ is a constant tensor field. As such, $\gamma$ defines a Poisson structure on $\mathfrak{g}^{*}$. The condition of compatibility with the canonical LiePoisson structure, $\left[W_{0}, \gamma\right]=0$, can be written as (see [30], Chapter 3)

$$
\begin{equation*}
\gamma([u, v], w)+\gamma([v, w], u)+\gamma([w, u], v)=0, \quad u, v, w \in \mathfrak{g} . \tag{2.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

On a Lie group $G$, a right-invariant $k$-form $\omega$ is completely defined by its value at the unit element $e$, and hence by an element of $\bigwedge^{k} \mathfrak{g}^{*}$. In other words, there is a natural isomorphism between the space of right-invariant $k$ forms on $G$ and $\bigwedge^{k} \mathfrak{g}^{*}$. Moreover, since the exterior differential $d$ commutes with right translations, it induces a linear operator $\partial: \bigwedge^{k} \mathfrak{g}^{*} \rightarrow \bigwedge^{k+1} \mathfrak{g}^{*}$ that satisfies $\partial \circ \partial=0$ and
(1) $\partial \gamma=0$ for $\gamma \in \bigwedge^{0} \mathfrak{g}^{*}=\mathbb{R}$;
(2) $\partial \gamma(u, v)=-\gamma([u, v])$ for $\gamma \in \bigwedge^{1} \mathfrak{g}^{*}=\mathfrak{g}^{*}$;
(3) $\partial \gamma(u, v, w)=\gamma([u, v], w)+\gamma([v, w], u)+\gamma([w, u], v)$ for $\gamma \in \bigwedge^{2} \mathfrak{g}^{*}$, where $u, v, w \in \mathfrak{g}$, as one can check by direct computation (see [18], Chapter 24). The kernel $Z^{n}(\mathfrak{g})$ of $\partial: \bigwedge^{n}\left(\mathfrak{g}^{*}\right) \rightarrow \bigwedge^{n+1}\left(\mathfrak{g}^{*}\right)$ is the space of $n$ cocycles and the range $B^{n}(\mathfrak{g})$ of $\partial: \bigwedge^{n-1}\left(\mathfrak{g}^{*}\right) \rightarrow \bigwedge^{n}\left(\mathfrak{g}^{*}\right)$ is the spaces of $n$-coboundaries. Notice that $B^{n}(\mathfrak{g}) \subset Z^{n}(\mathfrak{g})$. The quotient space $H_{C E}^{n}(\mathfrak{g})=$ $Z^{n}(\mathfrak{g}) / B^{n}(\mathfrak{g})$ is the $n$-th Lie algebra cohomology or Chevaley-Eilenberg cohomology group of $\mathfrak{g}$. Notice that in general the Lie algebra cohomology is different from the de Rham cohomology $H_{D R}^{n}$. For example, $H_{D R}^{1}(\mathbb{R})=\mathbb{R}$ but $H_{C E}^{1}(\mathbb{R})=0$.

Each 2-cocycle $\gamma$ defines a Poisson structure on $\mathfrak{g}^{*}$ compatible with the canonical one. Indeed (2.13) can be recast as $\partial \gamma=0$. Notice that the Hamiltonian vector field $X_{f}$ of a function $f \in C^{\infty}\left(\mathfrak{g}^{*}\right)$ computed with respect to the Poisson structure defined by the 2-cocycle $\gamma$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
X_{f}(m)=\gamma\left(d_{m} f, \cdot\right) . \tag{2.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Definition 2.9. A modified Lie-Poisson structure is a Poisson structure on $\mathfrak{g}^{*}$ whose Poisson bivector is given by $W_{\gamma}=W_{0}+\gamma$, where $W_{0}$ is the canonical Poisson bivector and $\gamma$ is a 2 -cocycle.

[^1]Example 2.10. A special case of modified Lie-Poisson structure is given by a 2 -cocycle $\gamma$ which is a coboundary. If $\gamma=\partial m_{0}$ for some $m_{0} \in \mathfrak{g}^{*}$, the expression

$$
\{f, g\}_{\gamma}(m)=m_{0}\left(\left[d_{m} f, d_{m} g\right]\right)
$$

looks like if the Lie-Poisson bracket had been "frozen" at a point $m_{0} \in \mathfrak{g}^{*}$ and for this reason some authors call it a "freezing" structure.

## 3. Modified Lie-Poisson structures on $\operatorname{Vect}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$

The group Diff $\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ of smooth orientation-preserving diffeomorphisms of the circle $\mathbb{S}^{1}$ is endowed with a smooth manifold structure based on the Fréchet space $\mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$. The composition and the inverse are both smooth maps $\operatorname{Diff}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right) \times \operatorname{Diff}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Diff}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$, respectively $\operatorname{Diff}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Diff}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$, so that $\operatorname{Diff}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ is a Lie group [19]. Its Lie algebra Vect $\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ is the space of smooth vector fields on $\mathbb{S}^{1}$, which is isomorphic to the space $\mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ of periodic functions. The Lie bracket on $\operatorname{Vect}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ is given by

$$
[u, v]=u v_{x}-u_{x} v .
$$

Since the topological dual of the Fréchet space $\operatorname{Vect}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ is too big, being isomorphic to the space of distributions on the circle, we restrict our attention in the following to the regular dual $\operatorname{Vect}^{*}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$, the subspace of distributions defined by linear functionals of the form

$$
u \mapsto \int_{\mathbb{S}^{1}} m u d x
$$

for some function $m \in \mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$. The regular dual Vect* $\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ is therefore isomorphic to $\mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ by means of the $L^{2}$ inner product ${ }^{2}$

$$
<u, v>=\int_{\mathbb{S}^{1}} u v d x .
$$

Let $f$ be a smooth real valued function on $\mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$. Its Fréchet derivative at $m, d f(m)$ is a linear functional on $\mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$. We say that $f$ is a regular function if there exists a smooth map $\delta f: \mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right) \rightarrow \mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ such that

$$
d f(m) M=\int_{\mathbb{S}^{1}} M \cdot \delta f(m) d x, \quad m, M \in \mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)
$$

That is, the Fréchet derivative $d f(m)$ belongs to the regular dual Vect* $\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ and the mapping $m \mapsto \delta f(m)$ is smooth. The map $\delta f$ is a vector field on $\mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$, called the gradient of $f$ for the $L^{2}$-metric. In other words, a regular function is a smooth function on $\mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ which has a smooth gradient.
Example 3.1. Typical examples of regular functions are nonlinear functionals over the space $\mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$, like

$$
f(m)=\int_{\mathbb{S}^{1}}\left(m^{2}+m m_{x}^{2}\right) d x \quad \text { with } \quad \delta f(m)=2 m-m_{x}^{2}-2 m m_{x x},
$$

as well as linear functionals

$$
f(m)=\int_{\mathbb{S}^{1}} u m d x \quad \text { with } \quad \delta f(m)=u \in \mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right) .
$$

[^2]Notice that the smooth function $f_{\theta}: \mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f_{\theta}(m)=m(\theta)$ for some fixed $\theta \in \mathbb{S}^{1}$ is not regular as $\delta f_{\theta}$ is the Dirac measure at $\theta$.

Conversely, a smooth vector field $X$ on $\operatorname{Vect}^{*}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ is called a gradient if there exists a regular function $f$ on $\operatorname{Vect}^{*}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ such that $X(m)=\delta f(m)$ for all $m \in \operatorname{Vect}^{*}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$. Observe that if $f$ is a smooth real valued function on $\mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ then its second Fréchet derivative is symmetric [19], that is,

$$
d^{2} f(m)(M, N)=d^{2} f(m)(N, M), \quad m, M, N \in \mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)
$$

For a regular function, this property can be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{\mathbb{S}^{1}}(d \delta f(m) M) N d x=\int_{\mathbb{S}^{1}}(d \delta f(m) N) M d x \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $m, M, N \in \mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$. Hence the linear operator $d \delta f(m)$ is symmetric for the $L^{2}$-inner product on $\mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ for each $m \in \mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$. We will resume this fact in the following lemma.

Lemma 3.2. A necessary condition for a vector field $X$ on $\mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ to be a gradient is that its Fréchet derivative $d X(m)$ is a symmetric linear operator.

To define a Poisson bracket on the space of regular functions on Vect* $\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$, we consider a one-parameter family of linear operators $J(m)$ and set

$$
\begin{equation*}
\{f, g\}(m)=\int_{\mathbb{S}^{1}} \delta f(m) J(m) \delta g(m) d x \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

The operators $J(m)$ must satisfy certain conditions in order for (3.2) to be a valid Poisson structure on Vect* $\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$.

Definition 3.3. A family of linear operators $J(m)$ on $\operatorname{Vect}^{*}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ defines a Poisson structure on $\operatorname{Vect}^{*}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ if (3.2) satisfies
(1) $\{f, g\}$ is regular if $f$ and $g$ are regular,
(2) $\{g, f\}=-\{f, g\}$,
(3) $\{\{f, g\}, h\}+\{\{g, h\}, f\}+\{\{h, f\}, g\}=0$.

Notice that the second condition above simply means that $J(m)$ is a skew-symmetric operator for each $m$.

Example 3.4. The canonical Lie-Poisson structure on Vect* $\mathbb{S}^{1}$ ) given by

$$
\{f, g\}(m)=m([\delta f, \delta g])=\int_{\mathbb{S}^{1}} \delta f(m)(m D+D m) \delta g(m) d x
$$

is represented by the one-parameter family of skew-symmetric operators

$$
\begin{equation*}
J(m)=m D+D m \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $D=\partial_{x}$. It can be checked that all the three required properties are satisfied. In particular, we have

$$
\delta\{f, g\}=d \delta f(J \delta g)-d \delta g(J \delta f)+\delta f \delta g_{x}-\delta g \delta f_{x}
$$

Definition 3.5. The Hamiltonian of a regular function $f$, for a Poisson structure defined by $J$ is defined as the vector field

$$
X_{f}(m)=J(m) \delta f(m)
$$

Proposition 3.6. A necessary condition for a smooth vector field $X$ on Vect* $\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ to be Hamiltonian with respect to the Poisson structure defined by $a$ constant linear operator $K$ is the symmetry of the operator $d X(m) \circ K$ for each $m \in \operatorname{Vect}^{*}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$.
Proof. If $X$ is Hamiltonian, we can find a regular function $f$ such that

$$
X(m)=K \delta f(m)
$$

Moreover, since $K$ is a constant linear operator, we have

$$
d(K \delta f)(m) M=K \circ(d \delta f(m)) M
$$

Therefore, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
<d X(m) \circ K M, N> & =<K \circ d \delta f(m) \circ K M, N> \\
& =<M, K \circ d \delta f(m) \circ K N> \\
& =<M, d X(m) \circ K N>,
\end{aligned}
$$

since $K$ is skew-symmetric and $d \delta f(m)$ is symmetric.
A 2-cocycle on $\operatorname{Vect}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ is a bilinear functional $\gamma$ represented by a skewsymmetric operator $K: \mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right) \rightarrow \mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ such that

$$
\gamma(u, v)=\left\langle u, K v>=\int_{\mathbb{S}^{1}} u K v d x\right.
$$

and satisfying the Jacobi identity

$$
<[u, v], K w>+<[v, w], K u>+<[w, u], K v>=0 .
$$

If $K$ is a differential operator we call $\gamma$ a differential cocycle. Gelfand and Fuks [16] observed that all differential 2-cocycles of Vect( $\mathbb{S}^{1}$ ) belong to the one-dimensional cohomology class generated by $\left[D^{3}\right]$. Moreover, each regular 2 -coboundary is represented by the skew-symmetric operator

$$
m_{0} D+D m_{0}
$$

for some $m_{0} \in \mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$. Therefore, each differential 2-cocycle of $\operatorname{Vect}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ is represented by an operator of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
K=m_{0} D+D m_{0}+\beta D^{3} \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $m_{0} \in \mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ and $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$ (see also [17]).
For $k \geq 0$ and $u, v \in \operatorname{Vect}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right) \equiv \mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$, let us now define the $H^{k}$ (Sobolev) inner product by

$$
<u, v>{ }_{k}=\int_{\mathbb{S}^{1}} \sum_{i=0}^{k}\left(\partial_{x}^{i} u\right)\left(\partial_{x}^{i} v\right) d x=\int_{\mathbb{S}^{1}} A_{k}(u) v d x
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
A_{k}=1-\frac{d^{2}}{d x^{2}}+\ldots+(-1)^{k} \frac{d^{2 k}}{d x^{2 k}} \tag{3.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

is a continuous linear isomorphism of $\mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$. Note that $A_{k}$ is a symmetric operator for the $L^{2}$ inner product since

$$
\int_{\mathbb{S}^{1}} A_{k}(u) v d x=\int_{\mathbb{S}^{1}} u A_{k}(v) d x
$$

The operator $A_{k}$ gives rise to a Hamiltonian function on $\operatorname{Vect}^{*}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ given by

$$
h_{k}(m)=\int_{\mathbb{S}^{1}} \frac{1}{2} m\left(A_{k}^{-1} m\right) d x .
$$

The corresponding Hamiltonian vector field $X_{k}$ is given by

$$
X_{k}(m)=(m D+D m)\left(A_{k}^{-1} m\right)=2 m u_{x}+u m_{x},
$$

if we let $m=A_{k} u$.
Theorem 3.7. The Hamiltonian vector field $X_{k}$ is bi-Hamiltonian relatively to a modified Lie-Poisson structure if and only if $k \in\{0,1\}$.

Proof. It is well known (see [28]) that $X_{0}$ is bi-Hamiltonian with respect to the operator $D$ which represents a coboundary. It is also known that $X_{1}$ is a bi-Hamiltonian vector field with respect to the cocycle represented by the operator $D\left(1-D^{2}\right)$ cf. $[2,11,14]$. Notice that this cocycle is not a coboundary.

We will now show that there is no differential cocycle

$$
K=m_{0} D+D m_{0}+\beta D^{3}
$$

for which $X_{k}$ could be Hamiltonian unless $k \in\{0,1\}$. We have

$$
d X_{k}(m)=2 u_{x} I+u D+2 m D A_{k}^{-1}+m_{x} A_{k}^{-1},
$$

and in particular, for $m=1$,

$$
d X_{k}(1)=D+2 D A_{k}^{-1} .
$$

Letting

$$
P(m)=d X_{k}(m) \circ K,
$$

we obtain that

$$
P(1)=\left(D+2 D A_{k}^{-1}\right) \circ\left(m_{0} D+D m_{0}\right)+\beta D^{4}\left(1+2 A_{k}^{-1}\right),
$$

whereas

$$
P(1)^{*}=\left(m_{0} D+D m_{0}\right) \circ\left(D+2 D A_{k}^{-1}\right)+\beta D^{4}\left(1+2 A_{k}^{-1}\right) .
$$

Therefore, denoting $m_{0}^{\prime}=\partial_{x} m_{0}$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P(1)-P(1)^{*}=\left(m_{0}^{\prime} D+D m_{0}^{\prime}\right)+2\left(A_{k}^{-1} D m_{0} D-D m_{0} D A_{k}^{-1}\right)+ \\
&+2\left(A_{k}^{-1} D^{2} m_{0}-m_{0} D^{2} A_{k}^{-1}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

If this operator is zero, we must have in particular the relation

$$
A_{k}\left(P(1)-P(1)^{*}\right) A_{k}\left(e^{i r x}\right)=0,
$$

for all $r \in \mathbb{Z}$. But, for $r \neq \pm 1$,

$$
A_{k}\left(e^{i r x}\right)=f_{k}(r) e^{i r x} \quad \text { with } \quad f_{k}(r)=\frac{r^{2 k+2}-1}{r^{2}-1}
$$

and

$$
A_{k}\left(P(1)-P(1)^{*}\right) A_{k}\left(e^{i r x}\right)
$$

is of the form $e^{i r x}$ times a polynomial expression in $r$ with highest order term 2 i $m_{0}^{\prime}(x) r^{4 k+1}$. Therefore, a necessary condition for $X_{k}$ to be Hamiltonian relatively to the Poisson operator $K$ defined by (3.4) is that $m_{0}$ is a constant.

Let $\alpha=2 m_{0} \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
P(m)=d X_{k}(m) \circ K=\alpha & \left\{2 u_{x} D+u D^{2}+2 m D^{2} A_{k}^{-1}+m_{x} D A_{k}^{-1}\right\}+ \\
& +\beta\left\{2 u_{x} D^{3}+u D^{4}+2 m D^{4} A_{k}^{-1}+m_{x} D^{3} A_{k}^{-1}\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

because $D$ and $A_{k}$ commute. By virtue of Proposition 3.6, a necessary condition for $X_{k}$ to be Hamiltonian with respect to the cocycle represented by $K$ is that $P(m)$ is symmetric. That is

$$
\begin{equation*}
<P(m) M, N>=<M, P(m) N>, \tag{3.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $m, M, N \in \mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$. Since this last expression is tri-linear in the variables $m, M, N$, the equality can be checked for complex periodic functions $m, M, N$ where the $L^{2}$ inner product is extended naturally into a complex bilinear functional. That is, the extension is not a hermitian product, we just allow homogeneity with respect to the complex scalar field in both components. Let $m=A_{k} u, u=\exp (i a x), M=\exp (i b x)$ and $N=\exp (i c x)$ with $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
<P(m) M, N> & =\left[\left(2 a b^{3}+b^{4}\right) \beta-\left(2 a b+b^{2}\right) \alpha+\right. \\
& \left.+\left(\left(a b^{3}+2 b^{4}\right) \beta-\left(a b+2 b^{2}\right) \alpha\right) \frac{f_{k}(a)}{f_{k}(b)}\right] \int_{\mathbb{S}^{1}} e^{i(a+b+c) x} d x
\end{aligned}
$$

whereas

$$
\begin{aligned}
<M, P(m) N> & =\left[\left(2 a c^{3}+c^{4}\right) \beta-\left(2 a c+c^{2}\right) \alpha+\right. \\
& \left.+\left(\left(a c^{3}+2 c^{4}\right) \beta-\left(a c+2 c^{2}\right) \alpha\right) \frac{f_{k}(a)}{f_{k}(c)}\right] \int_{\mathbb{S}^{1}} e^{i(a+b+c) x} d x .
\end{aligned}
$$

For $a=n, b=-2 n$ and $c=n$, we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
<P(m) M, N>=\left(24 n^{4} \beta-6 n^{2} \alpha\right) \frac{f_{k}(n)}{f_{k}(2 n)},<M, P(m) N>=6 n^{4} \beta-6 n^{2} \alpha . \tag{3.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

The equality of the two expressions in (3.7) for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ is ensured by means of (3.6). For $k=1$ this leads to the condition $\alpha+\beta=0$ and we recover the second Poisson structure given by $K=D-D^{3}$ for which $X_{1}$ is known to be Hamiltonian with Hamiltonian function

$$
\tilde{h}_{1}(m)=\frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{S}^{1}}\left(\left(A_{1}^{-1} m\right)^{3}+\left(A_{1}^{-1} m\right)\left[\left(A_{1}^{-1} m\right)_{x}\right]^{2}\right) d x .
$$

In the general case, if $\beta \neq 0$, the leading term with respect to $n$ in the first expression in (3.7) is $\left(-48 \beta 2^{-2 k}\right)$, whereas in the second it is $(-12 \beta)$. Thus unless $\beta=0$ we must have $k=1$. On the other hand, if $\beta=0$, from (3.6)-(3.7) we infer that $\alpha f_{k}(n)=\alpha f_{k}(2 n)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Thus $\alpha=0$ unless $k=0$. For $k=0$ we recover the Poisson structure given by $K=D$ for which $X_{0}$ is Hamiltonian with Hamiltonian function

$$
\tilde{h}_{0}(m)=\frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{S}^{1}} m^{3} d x .
$$

This completes the proof.

## 4. Conclusion

We showed that among all $H^{k}$ Sobolev inner products on $\mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$, only for $k \in\{0,1\}$ is the associated vector field bi-Hamiltonian relatively to a modified Lie-Poisson structure. Endowing $\operatorname{Diff}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ with the $H^{1}$ right-invariant metric, the associated geodesic equation turns out to be the Camassa-Holm equation [23] (see also [22])

$$
u_{t}+u u_{x}+\partial_{x}\left(1-\partial_{x}^{2}\right)^{-1}\left(u^{2}+\frac{1}{2} u_{x}^{2}\right)=0
$$

a model for shallow water waves (see [2] and the alternative derivations in $[5,13,15,20])$ that accommodates waves that exist indefinitely in time $[3,7]$ as well as breaking waves $[6,8]$. The bi-Hamiltonian structure is reflected in the existence of infinitely many conserved integrals for the equation [2, $11,14,24]$ which are very useful in the qualitative analysis of its solutions. Both global existence results and blow-up results can be obtained using certain conservation laws $[3,7,31]$, while the proof of stability of traveling wave solutions relies on the specific form of some conserved quantities [4, $11,12,25]$. On the other hand, the geodesic equation on $\operatorname{Diff}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ for the $L^{2}$ right-invariant metric is the inviscid Burgers equation

$$
u_{t}+3 u u_{x}=0
$$

This model of gas dynamics has been thoroughly studied (see [9] and references therein). In contrast to the case of the $H^{1}$ right-invariant metric [10], the Riemannian exponential map is not a $C^{1}$ local diffeomorphism in the case of the $L^{2}$ right-invariant metric [9]. This means that of the two biHamiltonian vector fields $X_{0}$ and $X_{1}$, the second generates a flow on $\operatorname{Diff}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ with properties that parallel those of geodesic flows on finite-dimensional Lie groups.

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[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ Here, $d_{m} f$, the differential of a function $f \in C^{\infty}\left(\mathfrak{g}^{*}\right)$ at $m \in \mathfrak{g}^{*}$ is to be understood as an element of the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$

[^2]:    ${ }^{2}$ In the sequel, we use the notation $u, v, \ldots$ for elements of $\operatorname{Vect}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ and $m, n, \ldots$ for elements of Vect* $\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ to distinguish them, although they all belong to $\mathrm{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$.

