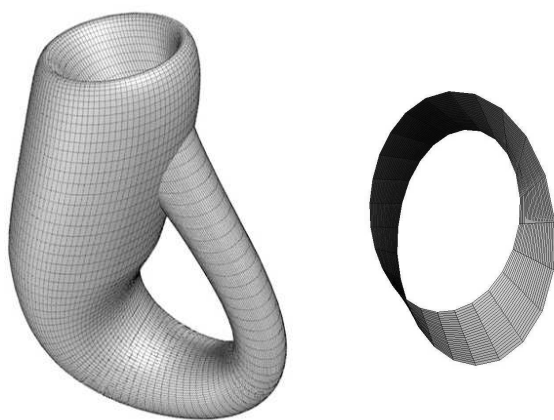


蛙鸣

第 60 期



中国科学技术大学数学系 编
2006 年 6 月

刊首寄语

裹挟着夏日的热情，六十期的《蛙鸣》走过枝繁叶茂的六月，向我们开启了一扇心灵之窗。六十载的光阴将嗷嗷待哺的婴儿洗炼成从容睿智的老人，六十期的《蛙鸣》亦经历青葱岁月，在一次次对精神世界的奥妙的探寻中，成熟为黄金的收获。

亲爱的朋友，伴随着盛夏的磅礴和激情，让我们一起聆听筑巢于逝水年华中的智慧的声音——大师睿语，一起凝听带着少年人体温的最本真的歌声——蛙声一片。苏轼有诗：“且将新火试新茶，诗酒趁年华。”在新序曲奏响的时刻，我们感受到同学们深深关注的热切目光，听到了稚嫩却不失锐意的思想掠过的鼓翼之声，期盼着各位作者以灼热的思想燃点创作的激情。

果的事业是尊贵的，花的事业是甜美的；但科大数学系各位老师做的是叶的事业，叶是谦逊地，专心地垂着绿荫的。衷心感谢你们对《蛙鸣》一如既往的支持和帮助！

走过夏天，我们02级数学系的同学们将纷纷踏上新的征途。向上的路，总是坎坷又崎岖，但既然选择了远方，便只顾风雨兼程。记忆是飘不落的日子，愿我们一道做的刊物能一道刻下生命的轨迹，愿每一个有梦的赶路人的脚下都有一片坚实的土地。

目 录

刊首寄语	i
------------	---

大师 睿语

怎样做数学研究	P.R.Halmos 1
---------------	--------------

特邀稿

Mathematics, Applied Mathematics and Science	Weinan E 6
--	------------

研究讨论

Full-ranked Decomposition for 2-D Polynomial Matrices	张翔雄 张 智 14
Connections and Covariant Derivative in Vector Bundles	修大成 18
A conjecture about Dynamical Systems	孙 俊 23

蛙声一片

<i>Riemann – Lebesgue</i> 引理及其几个推广形式	金天灵 28
单连通域上边界对应原理的理解及推广	杨 恒 32
一种 <i>Riemann</i> 面上的动力系统	王麒翰 40

新生园地

有限交换群的子群个数	洪继展 43
------------------	--------

怎样做数学研究

P.R.Halmos

§ 1

有谁能告诉别人怎样去做研究，怎样去创造，怎样去发现新东西？几乎肯定这是不可能的。在很长一段时间里，我始终努力学习数学，理解数学，寻求真理，证明一个定理，解决一个问题 — 现在我要努力说清楚我是怎样去做这些工作的，整个工作过程中重要部分是脑力劳动，那可是难以讲清楚的 — 但我至少可以试着讲一讲体力劳动的那一部分。

数学并非是一门演绎科学 — 那已经是老生常谈了。当你试图去证明一个定理时，你不仅只是罗列假设，然后开始推理，你所要做的工作应是反复试验，不断摸索，猜测。你要想弄清楚事实真相，在这点上你做的就像实验室里的技师，只是在其精确性和信息量上有些区别罢了。如果哲学家有胆量，他们也可能像看技师一样地看我们。

我喜欢做研究，我想做研究，我也得做研究，我却不愿做下来开始做研究 — 我是能拖则拖迟迟不肯动手。

§ 2

拥有一个大的，外在的，不受我一直支配的而且我能为之贡献一生的事业，对我是重要的。高斯，戈耶（Goya），莎士比亚和佩盖尼尼（Pagannini）是非凡的，他们的非凡性给我以快乐，我钦佩他们又羡慕他们，他们也是富有奉献精神的人。非凡的天才只有少数几个人才有，而奉献精神则是人人都可以拥有的 — 也应当拥有的 — 没有这样的精神，生命便失去价值了。

尽管我对工作无限眷恋，我仍是不愿意着手去做它；每做一项工作都像是一场打仗格斗。难道就没有什么事我能（或必须？）先行干好吗？难道我就不能先将铅笔削好吗？事实上我从来不用铅笔，但“削铅笔”已成为一切有助于延迟集中创造精力带来的痛苦的手法的代名词。它的意思可以是在图书馆查阅资料，可以是整理旧笔记，甚至可以视为明天要讲的课作准备，干这些事的理由是：一旦这些事了结了，我就真正能做到一心一意而不受干扰了。

§ 3

当卡米查埃 (Carmichael) 抱怨说他当研究生院主任每周可用于研究工作的时间不超过 20 小时的时候,我感到很奇怪,我现在仍觉得很奇怪。在我大出成果的那些年代里,我每周也许平均用 20 小时作全神贯注的数学思考,但大大超过 20 小时的情况是极少的。这极少的例外,在我的一生中只有两三次,他们都是在我的思想阶梯接近顶点时来到的。尽管我从来未当过研究生院主任,我似乎每天只有干三,四个小时工作的精力,这是真正的“工作”;剩下的时间我用于写作,教书,作评论,与人交换意见,作鉴定,作讲座,干编辑活,旅行。一般地说,我总是想出各种办法来“削铅笔”。每个做研究工作的人都陷入过休闲期。在我的休闲期中,其他的职业活动,低到并包括教三节课,成了我生活的一种借口。是的,是的,我也许今天没有证明出任何新定理,但至少我今天将正弦定理解释得十分透彻,我没白吃一天饭。

§ 4

数学家们为什么要研究? 这问题有好几个回答。我喜爱的回答是: 我们好奇心 — 我们需要知道。这几乎等于说“因为我愿意这样做”, 我就接受这一回答 — 那也是一个好回答。然而还有其它的回答, 它们要实在些。

我们给未来的工程师, 物理学家, 生物学家, 心理学家, 经济学家, 还有数学家教数学. 如果我们只教会他们借课本中的习题, 那不等他们毕业, 他们受到的教育便过时了。即使从粗糙而世俗的工商业观点来看, 我们的学生也得准备回答未来的问题, 甚至在我们课堂上从未问过的问题。只教他们已为人们所知的一切东西是不够的 — 他们也必须知道如何去发现尚未被发现的东西。换句话说, 他们必须接受独立解题的训练 — 去做研究工作。一个教师, 如果他从不总是在考虑解题 — 解答他尚不知道答案的题目 — 从心理上来说, 他就是不打算教他的学生们解题的本领。

§ 5

做研究工作, 有一点我不擅长因而也从不喜欢的是竞争。我不太善于抢在别人前面获得荣誉。我争当第一的另一办法是离开研究主流方向去独自寻找属于我自己的一潭小而深的洄水。我讨厌为证明一个著名猜想而耗费大量的时间却得不到结果, 所以我所干的事无非是分检出被别人漏掉的概念和阐明富有结果的问题。这样的事在你一生当中不可能常做, 如果那概念和那些个问题真是“正确”的, 它们便会被广泛接受, 而你则很有可能在你自己的课题发展中, 被更有能力和更有眼光的人们甩在后面。这很公平, 我能受得了; 这是合理的分工, 当

证明是一个偶像, 数学家在这个偶像前折磨自己。

— A.Eddington

然我希望次正规不变子空间定理是我证明的,但至少我在引入概念和指出方法方面做过一点贡献。

§ 6

不介入竞争的另一个方面就是我对强调抢时间争速度不以为然。我问我自己,落后于最近的精美的成果一两年又有什么关系呢?一点关系都没有,我这样对自己说,但即使对我自己来说,这样的回答有时也不管用,对那些心里构成和我相异的人们来说,这样的回答总是错的。当罗蒙诺索夫(Lomonosov)(关于交换紧算子的联立不变子空间)和斯科特·布朗(Scott Brown)的(关于次正规算子)消息传开时,我激动的就像我是第二位算子理论家似的,急切的想迅速地知道详情。然而这种破例的情形是少有的,所以我仍然可以在我一生大部分时间中心安理得地生活于时代之后。

好得很 — 不介入竞争,不赶风潮,落后于时代 — 那我实际上干些什么呢?

§ 7

回答是我写作。我在我的书桌前坐下,提起一杆黑色的圆珠笔,开始在一张 $8\frac{1}{2} \times 11$ 见方的标准用纸上写作。我在右上角上写上个“1”,然后开始:“这些笔记的目的是研究秩为 1 的摄动在... 的格上的影响。”在这一自然段写完后,我在稿纸边上标上个黑体“A”字,然后开始写 B 段,页数字和段落字构成了参考系统,常常可以一连写上好一百页:87C 意味着 87 页上 C 段。我将这些页手稿放入三环笔记夹中,在夹脊上贴上标签:逼近论,格,积分算子等等。如果一个研究项目获得成功,这笔记本便成为一篇论文,但不管成功与否,这笔记本是很难扔掉的。我常在我的书桌旁的书架上放上几十本,我仍然希望那些未完成的笔记将继续得到新的补充,希望那些已成为文章发表的笔记以后会被发现隐含着某种被忽视了的新思路的宝贵萌芽,而这种新思路恰恰是为解决某一悬而未决的大问题所需要的。

§ 8

我继续尽可能长时间地坐在我的书桌前 — 这可以理解为,我只要有精力,或者只要有时间,我就这样坐在书桌前,我努力整理笔记到一个弱拍出现为止,如一个引理的确定,或者,在最坏的情况下,一个未经过仔细研究但明显不是没希望解答的问题被提出。那样,我的潜意识可以投入工作了,并且在最好的时候,在我走向办公室时,或者给一个班上课时,甚至在夜间睡眠中,我取得意外的进展。那捉摸不透的问题解答有时让我无法入睡,但我似乎养成了一种愚弄我自己

上帝之所以存在,是因为数学是相容的而魔鬼之所以存在,是因为我们不能证明数学是相容的。

的办法了。在我翻来覆去一会后，时间并不长——通常仅为几分钟——我“解决”了那问题；那问题的证明或反例在闪念中出现了，我心满意足了，翻了个身便睡着了。那闪念几乎总被证明是假的；那证明有个巨大的漏洞，或者那反例根本就不反对任何东西。可不管怎么说，我对那个“解”相信的时间，长的足够是我睡个好觉。奇怪的事情是，在夜间，在床上，在黑暗中，我从未记得我怀疑过那“思路”；我百分之百地相信它可是件大好事。对一些情形它甚至被证明是正确的。

我不在乎坐在钟边工作，当因为到了上课的事件或者到了除去吃饭的时间，而我必须停止思考时，我总是高兴地将我的笔记收起来。我也许会在下楼去教室的路上，或者在发动我的汽车，关闭我车库门时仔细思考我的问题；但我并不因为这种打扰而生气（不像我的一些朋友们说的那样，他们讨厌被打断思绪）。这些都是生活的组成部分，一想到几小时候我俩——我的工作和我——又要相聚时，我就感到很舒坦。

§ 9

好的问题，好的研究问题，打哪儿来呢？它们也许来自一个隐蔽的洞穴，同在那个洞穴里，作家发现了他们的小说情节，作曲家则发现了他们的曲调——谁也不知道它在何方，甚至在偶然之中闯进一两次后，也记不清它的位置。有一点是肯定的：好的问题不是来自于做推广的模糊欲念。几乎正相反的说法倒是真的：所有大数学问题的根源都是特例，是具体的例子。在数学中常见到的一个似乎具有很大普遍性的概念实质上与一个小的具体的特例是一样的。通常，正是这个特例首次揭示了普遍性。阐述“在实质上是一样”的一个精确明晰的方法就如同一个定理表述。关于线性泛函的黎兹（Riesz）定理就很典型。固定一个在内积中的向量就定义了一个有界线性泛函；一个有界线性泛函的抽象概念表面上看来具有很大的概括性；事实上，每个抽象概念都是以具体特定的方式产生出来的，那定理也是。

这是我和狄多涅（Dieudonne）似乎各执己见的许多论题中的一个。在马里兰，我曾做过一次学术报告，那正好也是狄多涅访问那里的许多次中的一次。那次报告的主题是正逼近。我那次选定的问题是：已知一希尔伯特（Hilbert）空间上的任意算子 A ，求一个正（非负半定的）算子 P 极小化 $\|A - P\|$ 。我很幸运：结果发现有一个小的具体的特例，它包含了一切概念，一切困难，一切为理解和克服它们所需要的步骤。我使我的报告紧紧围绕那个特例，由矩阵 $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ 定义的 C^2 上的算子，我当时感到很自豪：我认为我成功地讲清了一个很好的问题及其令人满意的解，却没有因此而陷入与此无关的分析的术语陈式之中去。狄多涅当时表现的礼貌且友好，但事后显然表现出不屑一顾的态度；我记不清他的原话

弄清 π 是无理数这件事可能是根本没有实际用处的，但是如果我们能弄清楚那么肯定就不能容忍不去设法把它弄清楚。

— E.C.Titchmarsh

了，但大意上，他祝贺我的滑稽表演。他对我的报告的印象似乎是“娱乐数学”。这在他的词汇中是个讥笑的字眼；他认为我的报告趣味有余，但是做作且轻浮。我认为（现在还继续认为）问题远不只如此。我俩评价的相异是我们观点上的差别造成的。我认为对于狄多涅来说，重要的是那个强大的一般性定理，从这一定理你很容易推出所有你需要的特例来；而对于我来说，最伟大的前进步骤是，很能说明问题的中心例子，从这一例子中我们很容易搞清楚围在该例子周围的所有带普遍性的东西。

§ 10

作为数学家，我最强的能力便是能看到两个事物在什么时候是“相同的”。例如，当我对大卫·伯格 (David Berg) 定理（正规等于对角加上紧致）苦苦思索时，我注意到它的困境很像那个证明：每个紧统 (Compactum) 是康托 (Cantor) 集的一个连续象。从那时起用不着很大的灵感就可使用经典的表述而不用它的证明了。结果是能取得伯格结果的一种意思明白的新方法。这样的例子我还可以举出很多。一些最突出的例子发生在对偶理论中。例如：紧阿贝尔群的研究与傅里叶 (Fourier) 级数的研究是一样的，正如布尔代数的研究与不连通的紧豪斯道夫 (Hausdorff) 空间的研究是一样的，其它的例子，不是对偶那一类的有：逐次逼近的经典方法与巴拿赫不动点定理是一样的，概率论与测度论也是一样的。

这样一联系起来看问题，数学便清楚了；这样看问题去掉了表象，揭示了实质。他推进了数学的发展了吗？难道那些伟大的新思想仅仅是看清了两个东西是一样的而已吗？我常常这样想——但我并不是总有把握的。

说到这里为止，我是不是已经回答了怎样做研究这个问题呢？

作者简介：保罗·哈尔莫斯以他在许多数学领域的研究著称于世，其中包括泛函分析、遍历理论、测度论、布尔代数理论等。他对数学的其他领域也保持浓厚兴趣，对于数学的主要进展十分关注，这显示出他作为一位数学家的地位，远超出狭窄的工匠之上。他在 1938 年由伊利诺伊大学取得哲学博士学位之后，曾在许多大学任职，其中包括芝加哥大学、密歇根大学和印第安纳大学。

有一条小路，穿过田野，通向新南盖特，我经常独自一人到那里去看落日，并想到自杀。然而，我终于不曾自杀，因为我想更多的了解数学。

— B. Russell

Mathematics, Applied Mathematics and Science

Weinan E

Department of Mathematics and PACM, Princeton University

What is the relation between mathematics and science? For mathematicians, it is tempting to argue that mathematics is the foundation of science. After all, it provides the language in terms of which scientific laws are stated. It provides the tools and techniques with which scientific calculations are carried out. But besides these, it has its own set of questions as well as an intrinsic structure, the pursuit of which is driving much of mathematics today. There is no argument that a very impressive amount of mathematics was developed as a result of the quest for internal completeness, of studying the fundamentals such as numbers, equations and shapes.

The issue is therefore not whether mathematics will survive, but how to make it grow. In principle, mathematics should be in an advantageous position compared with other scientific disciplines for attracting talents, funding, and public support. The intellectual ability of a child is often first revealed from his/her ability in mathematics. Most parents have a deep appreciation for the importance of their child's success in mathematics. Mathematics is a necessary background course for most science and engineering majors. It is heavily used in scientific research, industrial design, and a host of other applications. However, over the years a gap has been created between mathematics education, application, and mathematics research. While mathematics education/application is understood to be important by almost everyone, mathematics research remains largely a mystery to even the most educated public including our colleagues in other departments. There is a lot to be done before the mathematics community will be able to fully capitalize on the advantages mentioned above.

Computers have impacted our lives in a very fundamental way. They have changed the way that scientific and engineering research is carried out. Computation has become a major scientific tool in conducting research, playing a comparable role to experiment and theory. When a new problem comes along, one of the first things to try is to find its mathematical formulation so that it can be modeled on the computer. Even though such a process of mathematicalization was also an essential part of scientific

research in the old days, what happens now and what will happen in the future differs essentially from our past experience in at least two fundamental ways. The first is the time scale. It no longer takes years or decades to translate our understanding of nature into laws formulated in mathematical terms and have them checked quantitatively. The demand is that this process should happen in days or weeks. As a result, modeling and computation have become a much more interactive process. The faster time scale also means that if mathematicians do not act quickly enough, they become irrelevant to such a process. The second is the form, variety and increased complexity of the problems. Mathematical models are no longer polished when they are presented to us. They are not necessarily clean. They certainly do not necessarily fall into the standard categories that we have set up for mathematical problems. This means that if we want to make an impact, we should be prepared to get our hands dirty.

Naturally the task of bridging mathematics with science and engineering falls in the hands of applied mathematicians, as it has been traditionally. Indeed applied mathematics has contributed greatly, in developing and analyzing the basic computational methods, in applications to fluid mechanics, structural mechanics, and a host of other areas. Yet as the basic computational techniques become mature, more and more scientific disciplines are developing their own computational tools. Consequently computation as a whole is moving closer and closer to modeling. Can applied mathematics meet the new challenges and find and foster its new position in scientific research? Or will it adopt the current style of traditional pure mathematics and look into itself for future development? What are the new challenges in applied mathematics today? These are important questions that face all of us in mathematics, pure or applied. These questions can no longer be swept under the rug. As has happened in the past for pure mathematics, applied mathematics also requires some “soul-searching”.

Research

Among the many interesting new directions in applied mathematics, we will discuss a few topics that we think will enjoy fast growth: first principle-based modeling, discrete models, stochastic effects and the combination of data analysis and modeling.

First principle-based approach to modeling. Much of the physical modeling relies on empirical laws based on physical intuition, or experimental results. It is astonishing that basic conservation laws plus the simplest linear constitutive relations describe so well the behavior of fluids in such a wide variety of situations, from creeping to turbulent flow, from water waves in a river to blood flow in a blood vessel. There is little need to refer to the underlying behavior of the molecules that make up the

~~~~~→

Logic merely sanctions the conquests of the intuition.

— Jacques Hadamard



fluid. The same can be said for much of chemistry. The basic properties of chemical elements were found and the periodic table was discovered before its foundation was understood using quantum mechanics. The success of such empirical methods provided a strong push to extend them to more complex systems, with however mixed results. For example, constructing empirical constitutive relations for polymeric liquids and plastic deformations proved to be a very difficult task. In many areas, scientists have now realized the limitations of the empirical approaches that bypass the microscopic details of the processes, and increasingly favor approaches that directly take into account the microscopics. Such a first-principle based approach is likely going to play bigger roles in the future for several reasons. One is that the improvement of computational power and computational methods will make it more feasible. The second reason is that the demand for more accuracy in our models, particularly for systems that fall in between scales described by well-established theories, such as nano-systems, will make it a necessity. The third is simply the quest for understanding problems in a more fundamental way. The need for solving practical problems often makes it necessary to simplify the first-principle based models, by “sweeping things under the rug”. But this does not mean that there is no value in understanding the details that were swept under the rug. To the contrary, the quest for deeper and deeper understanding is the heart of scientific research.

**Discrete models.** In applied mathematics, we are very used to modeling physical process using differential equations, i.e., the continuum models. While differential equations will continue to play a very pivotal role in applied mathematics, discrete models will certainly claim their role in the coming years. This is simply because many physical processes are naturally described by discrete models, such as discrete stochastic processes, molecular dynamics, and kinetic Monte Carlo models. Examples are abundant in biology, ecology, materials sciences, and chemistry.

Discrete models bring out a host of new questions that should be addressed from points of view that are quite foreign to us. Take the example of speeding up molecular dynamics. The traditional approach from the viewpoint of applied mathematics is to design ODE methods that allow large time steps or to process the models so that certain degrees of freedom that require small time steps can be eliminated. There is an alternative viewpoint, which is based on the observation that for many examples modeled by molecular dynamics the system spends most of its time vibrating around local equilibrium states, with occasional sudden hops to different local equilibriums. The dynamics of the systems is characterized by these hopping events. It is therefore

~~~~~→

Every mathematical discipline goes through three periods of development: the naive, the formal, and the critical.

— David Hilbert

tempting to approximate the original molecular dynamics by a Markov chain that captures correctly the hopping events.

Our interest in analyzing these discrete models will bring us closer to another important area of mathematics that has so far remained tangential to core applied mathematics, and that is mathematical physics. It is likely that mathematical physics will become a main ally for applied mathematics among the areas of pure mathematics, together with differential equations.

Stochastic effects. For historical reasons, stochastic analysis and stochastic methods have not become a standard tool for a large part of the applied mathematics community interested in scientific/engineering problems. Indeed when our main concern was fluid dynamics at intermediate scales or structural mechanics, there was little need to think about stochastic effects. However, things are different when we turn to material sciences, chemistry, biology, and ecology. In these areas, stochastic effects are an intrinsic part of the problem. In some cases, they seem to have become the main obstacle for mathematicians to make further contributions.

Stochastic ideas also bring new tools into applied mathematics. A classical example is the Monte Carlo method for numerical integration. Other examples include global optimization techniques and kinetic Monte Carlo methods. The performance of these methods is much less understood from the point of view of numerical analysis, and there is certainly a lot of room for important contributions.

We should note that discrete models and stochastic methods themselves are not foreign to applied mathematics. They play important roles in areas such as network models, finance, statistics, and control theory. One important direction of research will be to integrate the knowledge we have learned from these areas with applications to sciences.

Modeling and data analysis. Another interesting new direction of research is combining data analysis with modeling. In many applications, the underlying laws of nature are not known or not known at the scales of interest. It can also be that some of the important parameters are not known. In such cases, one might want to extract the governing laws or parameters from available data. One particularly attractive approach is to start the simulation with a complex, microscopic model and to then extract a simplified macroscopic model as the computation goes on using the computed data. In other words, the numerical algorithm learns in the process of the computations. Such “learning algorithms” should combine scientific modeling with data processing techniques. These ideas already exist in various forms, but they should

~~~~~→

Mathematics is a dangerous profession; an appreciable proportion of us goes mad.

—J E Littlewood

be explored in much larger scale in computational sciences.

### Education

At a time when applied mathematics should be aggressively moving into new areas of science, we also have to think carefully about how to train our students to best prepare them for the many different new challenges that they will face.

Students in applied mathematics should be cultivated both in mathematics and other sciences. They should receive a solid training in both the fundamentals of pure mathematics and the fundamentals of sciences. This should be our basic principle in education. This is undoubtedly a very difficult task. But perhaps it is not more difficult than the task Landau faced when he formulated the basic curriculum for theoretical physics, of which mathematics is an essential part.

Our current graduate curriculum is still very much in tune with “traditional” applied mathematics with a strong emphasis on differential equations, continuum mechanics, and numerical methods. Some applied mathematics graduate curricula contain only these topics. While they will no doubt continue to play key roles in future graduate curricula, appropriate weights will also have to be given to new emerging topics such as stochastic and statistical methods, and the basic principles of science. Some well-established courses, such as numerical methods, have to be modified in order to give more emphasis to areas such as molecular dynamics and Monte Carlo methods. For applied mathematics students interested in science and engineering, we propose a set of four courses as the basic core graduate curriculum. These are: computational methods, applied differential equations, applied stochastic methods, and introduction to scientific modeling.

**Computational Methods.** This is perhaps the most well-established course among the four proposed courses. However, current teaching of this course needs to be modified in at least two aspects. 1. It needs to be streamlined, to be taught more efficiently, in order to make room for other new courses. 2. More emphasis has to be put on discrete simulations such as Monte Carlo methods and molecular dynamics, as well as computations based on quantum mechanics.

**Applied Differential Equations.** This course should cover rigorous analysis of prototypical equations, qualitative techniques such as bifurcation analysis and invariant manifolds, analytical techniques such as transform methods and asymptotic methods. It should also cover prototypical equations from applications such as fluid mechanics, nonlinear diffusion, material sciences, etc.

**Applied Stochastic Methods.** As we discussed earlier, stochastic analysis and

Mathematics is the art of giving the same name to different things.

— Henri Poincare



stochastic methods will become a major tool in applied mathematics, along with numerical methods and differential equations. It is important to develop a course that is tailored to the needs of applied mathematics students interested in science. Such a course may contain the following list of topics: A quick introduction to random variables and limit theorems, Markov chains and Markov processes, stochastic differential equations, Fokker-Planck equations, path integrals, Monte Carlo methods, and rare events. A course that covers these topics has been developed at Princeton University.

**Introduction to Scientific Modeling.** It is difficult to decide on a best title for this course. We intentionally avoided calling it “Mathematical Modeling” since this course is intended to be a systematic introduction to the basic theoretical tools for modeling scientific problems. But we also have in mind to select those topics that are more mathematical, with a clear distinction between first-principle based methods and empirical methods. Much of these will be physics, since it provides most of the theoretical tools that are now used in every scientific discipline. But the teaching of it can be tailored to the needs of mathematicians.

Among the four courses discussed, this is perhaps the most difficult course to develop and mature. The purpose of this course is to teach students basic principles, techniques, and languages in the science. Such a course is needed for several reasons. Our students may work in a variety of scientific disciplines and they may change their interest later on in their career, therefore a course limited to say, fluid mechanics, is not sufficient for the preparation of their scientific background. Currently students are encouraged to take such courses from individual departments outside of mathematics. While this will continue to be an important way that our students learn science, two factors have to be considered when we send our students to other departments. The first is that this is often time-consuming. Many topics covered in these courses are of little interest and/or importance to our students. If a student is interested in phase transformation in solids, he/she may not be able to afford the time to take one course in continuum mechanics, one course in statistical mechanics, and one course in quantum mechanics or solid state physics. The other factor is that our students are often uncomfortable with the way courses are taught in other departments. They are unhappy about the lack of precision, the readiness to resort to empirical solutions rather than the analysis of the detailed process. While the complexity of real systems often do not leave us a second choice besides sweeping things under the rug, a more complete picture about the successful techniques should be presented to the students before they are asked to accept the ad hoc approaches. Moreover, science courses in other depart-

Science is built up with facts, as a house is with stones. But a collection of facts is no more a science than a

ments are often taught with an eye on minimizing mathematical complexity. This is one short-cut that our students do not always need.

**Pure mathematics.** The emphasis in applications does not mean that there is less need for mathematics itself. To the contrary, the core values of mathematics are very crucial to our success in other areas. Mathematicians have developed a distinct style for approaching a problem, symbolized by its precision and its ability to extract the essence of the matter - the ability to abstract. This style of thinking is needed ultimately in all other areas of science.

### Academic Standards

Evaluating the work in applied mathematics can be a difficult, frustrating task. It is not surprising that opinions about particular pieces of contributions can be highly non-uniform. The main reason is quite simple. In applied mathematics, we are forced to use “double standards”: The mathematical standards and the scientific standards. Certainly rigorous proofs of existence of solutions to nonlinear systems of conservation laws should be considered an important contribution. But so is the fast Fourier transform, which does not use more than high school trigonometry. While mathematics has over the years developed a rather complete set of standards on the grounds of pure mathematics, most mathematicians, including applied mathematicians, are rather uncomfortable or unfamiliar with scientific standards. This is compounded by the fact that applied mathematics is continuously moving into new territories, leaving us little past experience that can be used to evaluate new work.

How do we resolve this situation? First and foremost, we should realize that while mathematics does and should have its own standards, ultimately our work will be put into the context of human knowledge and be judged in that broader context. Secondly, to be able to exercise scientific judgment, we as a community should become mature scientifically. We should educate ourselves. This is not just the task of applied mathematicians, but the task of the whole mathematics community. Realizing that there is more out there than the theorems we can prove and being able to adjust ourselves to that fact will ultimately lead the mathematics community to a new level of maturity.

At the same time, it is equally important for the applied mathematics community to become more cultivated in the basic values of core mathematics. After all, applied mathematics is still part of mathematics. It is different from engineering. Mathematical beauty, structure, and techniques should be among its most important goals, and should also be used as a basic standard in evaluating its work.

~~~~~→


Full-ranked Decomposition for 2-D Polynomial Matrices

Xiangxiong Zhang and Zhi Zhang

Supervised by Prof. Jiansong Deng

In this paper, we apply the theory of syzygy modules to affirm the full-ranked decomposition for bivariate polynomial matrices. An efficient algorithm is presented and illustrated with an example.

Keywords: Polynomial matrix; Bivariate polynomial matrix; Syzygy; Full-ranked decomposition

Introduction

There is a classical conclusion in Linear Algebra as follows:

Let A be a $m \times n$ matrix with real entries. The rank is r . Then there exists a $m \times r$ matrix B and a $r \times n$ matrix C satisfying that $A = BC$.

We call the property above full-ranked decomposition. What we are interested in is:

1. Does the property remain when we discuss polynomial matrices? That is to say: Let A be a $m \times n$ polynomial matrix. The rank is r . Does there exist a $m \times r$ polynomial matrix B and a $r \times n$ polynomial matrix C satisfying that $A = BC$?
2. If it is right, how can we calculate B and C ?

The main difficulty of dealing with polynomial matrices lies in that the entries are restricted within a ring rather than a field. So elementary row operations can not be used. Fortunately, all 1-D polynomials form an Euclidean Domain. It is easy to answer the two questions for 1-D polynomial matrices if we use the division algorithm in Euclidean domains when following the proof of the conclusion in Linear Algebra. But it is not so easy for 2-D and n-D ($n \geq 3$) cases any more. For n-D case, counterexamples to the questions have been presented by others. We will give the results of 2-D case in the next section, which is not trivial.

Main Result

Let K be a field, and let $K[s, t]$ denote the polynomial ring in two variables over K . Let $K^{m \times n}[s, t]$ denote the union of all $m \times n$ matrices with entries in $K[s, t]$. Other related concepts such as syzygy module and greatest common right divisor can be found in references.

Before we answer the questions raised in the first section, the following lemma is required. It can be deduced by the results in [1].

Lemma 1 *Let $A \in K^{m \times n}[s, t]$ and the rank is r . Then there exists a generating matrix $H \in K^{n \times (n-r)}[s, t]$ of $\text{Syz}(A)$. Moreover, H is of rank $(n - r)$.*

Now we can prove the following important result:

Theorem 1 (Full-ranked decomposition for 2-D case) *Let $A \in K^{m \times n}[s, t]$ and the rank is r . Then there exist a $m \times r$ polynomial matrix B and a $r \times n$ polynomial matrix C satisfying that $A = BC$.*

Proof Without loss of generality, we may assume that $r < m \leq n$.

By lemma 1, there exists a generating matrix $H \in K^{n \times (n-r)}[s, t]$ of $\text{Syz}(A)$ and its rank is $(n - r)$. Lemma 1 applies to H^T , which is the transpose of H . Then there exists a generating matrix $F \in K^{n \times r}[s, t]$ of $\text{Syz}(H^T)$ and its rank is r .

Let $A^T = (\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_m)$, $F = (\mathbf{f}_1, \dots, \mathbf{f}_r)$, and $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_m, \mathbf{f}_1, \dots, \mathbf{f}_r \in K^n[\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{t}]$ are column vectors. Since H is the generating matrix of $\text{Syz}(A)$, we have $AH = 0$, which implies that $H^T A^T = 0$. Hence $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_m \in$ are Syzygies of H^T . So there exist $t_{ij} \in K[\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{t}], i = 1, \dots, m, j = 1, \dots, r$, satisfying that:

$$\mathbf{a}_i = t_{i1}\mathbf{f}_1 + \dots + t_{ir}\mathbf{f}_r,$$

Let

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} t_{11} & \cdots & \cdots & t_{1r} \\ t_{21} & \cdots & \cdots & t_{2r} \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ t_{m1} & \cdots & \cdots & t_{mr} \end{pmatrix},$$

then $T^T \in K^{r \times m}[s, t]$ and $(\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_m) = FT^T$, namely $A^T = FT^T$.

Let $B = T, C = F^T P_2^T P_1^{-1}$, then $A = BC$. It is obvious that B and C are polynomial matrices. □

By theorem 1, we have answered the first question for 2-D case. According to the proof above, we have to calculate two generating matrices of syzygy module to obtain B and C . This method consumes too much time because the algorithm to calculate

If only I had the theorems! Then I should find the proofs easily enough.

— Bernhard Riemann

generating matrices is very complicated. By further discussion, we find a much more efficient way to calculate B and C . It is presented as the following algorithm:

Algorithm 1 (Full-ranked decomposition for 2-D case)

Input A : $A \in K^{m \times n}[s, t]$, the rank is r , and $r < m \leq n$.

Output B, C : $B \in K^{m \times r}[s, t]$ and $C \in K^{r \times n}[s, t]$, satisfying that $A = BC$.

Step

1. Suppose D_0 is a $r \times r$ full-ranked submatrix of A . The row indices of D_0 are i_1, \dots, i_r , and the column indices are j_1, \dots, j_r . Let \tilde{A} donate the submatrix of A consisting of the i_1 th, \dots, i_r th rows of A . Let F donate the submatrix consisting of the j_1 th, \dots, j_r th columns of A .
2. Get rid of the j_1 th, \dots, j_r th columns of \tilde{A} , and let N_0 donate the matrix consisting of the remaining columns. Calculate the Greatest Common Right Divisor(GCRD) of D_0^T and N_0^T , donated by M .
3. Calculate $B = FD_0^{-1}M^T$, $C = (M^T)^{-1}\tilde{A}$.

The algorithm finishes.

Proof Notice that A and H satisfying that $AH = 0$. By using this equation, it is easy to obtain the conclusion in the algorithm above when calculating generating matrices of syzygy module. The detail of the proof is omitted.

Calculating two generating matrices of syzygy module is replaced by calculating a GCRD of two matrices. That is why this algorithm provides much more convenience. \square

Example Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & st & s-t \\ -st & 0 & s \\ t-s & -s & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. We can obtain the following result by using the algorithm above:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & st & s-t \\ -st & 0 & s \\ t-s & -s & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} s & -t \\ s & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -t & 0 & 1 \\ -s & -s & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

It is easy to see that the rank of A is 2, so it is exactly the full-ranked decomposition. \square

Reference

- [1] GZhiping Lin, On syzygy modules for polynomial matrices, Linear Algebra and its Applications, Vol.298, 1999, 73–86.

The early study of Euclid made me a hater of geometry.

— James Joseph Sylvester

- [2] John P. Guiver and N. K. Bose, Polynomial matrix primitive factorization over arbitrary coefficient field and related results, IEEE Transactions on Circuits and Systems, Vol. Cas-29, No.10, 1982, 649–657.
- [3] Zhiping Lin, On matrix fraction description of multivariable linear n -D systems, IEEE Transactions on Circuits and Systems, Vol.35, No.10, 1988, 1317–1322.
- [4] Martin Morf, Bernard C. Lévy, and Sun-Yuan Kung, New results in 2-D systems theory, Part I: 2-D polynomial matrices, factorization, and coprimeness, Proceedings of the IEEE, Vol.65, No.6, 1979, 861–872.
- [5] Michael Šebek, One more counterexample in n -D systems — Unimodular versus elementary operations, IEEE Transactions on Automatic Control, Vol.33, No.5, 1988, 502–503.
- [6] B. L. van der Waerden, Modern Algebra, Vol.II, New York, Ungar, 1950.
- [7] Dante C. Youla and G. Gnani, Notes on n -dimensional system theory, IEEE Transactions on Circuits and Systems, Vol. Cas-26, No.2, 1979, 105–111.

新 闻

法国数学家 Poincaré 于 1904 年提出猜想: 任何一个封闭的三维空间, 只要它里面所有的封闭曲线都可以收缩成一点, 这个空间就一定是一个三维圆球。

20 世纪 80 年代初, 美国数学家 Thurston 给出了三维流形整体几何结构的结果, 并在一种特殊情形下给出了证明。1982 年, Hamilton 提出了 Ricci flow 的概念, 丘成桐告诉他用这种思路是可以证明 Poincaré 猜想的。1995 年 Hamilton 在一篇长文章中公开了他的工作, 文中留下了两个难点。2002 年至 2003 年, 俄罗斯数学家 Perelman 给出了这两个难点的证明。

运用 Hamilton, Perelman 的理论, 朱熹平和曹怀东第一次给出了完整详细的证明, 在 The Asian Journal of Mathematics, June 2006, Vol 10 以专刊的方式发表了题目为 “A Complete Proof of the Poincaré and Geometrization Conjectures - application of the Hamilton-Perelman theory of the Ricci flow” 的长篇论文。

All stable processes we shall predict. All unstable processes we shall control.

— John von Neumann

Connections and Covariant Derivative in Vector Bundles

0201 Dacheng Xiu

In this article, we briefly introduce a direct method of defining a connection in a vector bundle, and then make an effort to prove the equivalence between covariant derivative and connections in vector bundles.

There are various definitions of connections in vector bundles. For example, we can perceive a vector bundle as the associate bundle of a principle one. Then a connection in principle bundles induces a connection in vector bundles with the help of parallel displacement. However, we will introduce another direct definition, which is not very common in most textbooks.

We begin our discussion with the concept of covariant derivative, which is in accordance with general definition.

Definition 1 *Let M be a differentiable manifold, E a vector bundle over M . A covariant derivative is a map $D : \Gamma(E) \otimes \Gamma(TM) \rightarrow \Gamma(E)$ with the following properties:*

$$D_X(V) := D_V X, \text{ for } V \in \Gamma(TM), X \in \Gamma(E)$$

1. D is tensorial in V .

$$D_{U+V}X = D_U X + D_V X, \text{ for } U, V \in \Gamma(TM)$$

$$D_{fV}X = f D_V X, \text{ for } V \in \Gamma(TM), f \in C^\infty(M, \mathbb{R})$$

2. D is a derivation in $\Gamma(E)$.

$$D_V(X + Y) = D_V X + D_V Y, \text{ for } V \in \Gamma(TM), X, Y \in \Gamma(E)$$

$$D_V(fX) = V(f) \cdot X + f D_V X, \text{ for } f \in C^\infty(M, \mathbb{R})$$

Definition 2 *Let $\pi : E \rightarrow M$ be a vector bundle. A connection H on E is a distribution on TE , the tangent bundle of E , i.e. a map which assigns each point of E a subspace H_u of $T_u E$,*

1. $\pi_{*u} : H_u \rightarrow T_{\pi(u)}M$ is an isomorphism for all $u \in E$.

Proof Since both sides vanish when applied to horizontal vectors, it suffices to consider vertical ones. Let $v \in \pi^{-1}(p)$,

$$\kappa \circ \mu_{a*}(i_* \mathcal{J}_u v) = \kappa \circ (\mu_a \circ i)_*(\mathcal{J}_u v) = \kappa \circ i_* \mu_{a*} \mathcal{J}_u v = \kappa \circ i_*(\mathcal{J}_{au} av) = av,$$

$$\mu_a \circ \kappa(i_* \mathcal{J}_u v) = \mu_a v = av.$$

Thus, $\kappa \circ \mu_{a*} = \mu_a \circ \kappa$. \square

Let $(\pi, \phi) : \pi^{-1}(U) \rightarrow U \times \mathbb{R}^{n-m}$ be a local trivialization of vector bundle $\pi : E \rightarrow M$. (x, U) is a chart of M . Put $y = x \circ \pi$, so that $(y, \phi) : \pi^{-1}(U) \rightarrow x(U) \times \mathbb{R}^{n-m}$ is a coordinate map of E . Since $\phi : \pi^{-1}(U) \rightarrow U \times \mathbb{R}^{n-m}$ is a diffeomorphism, the basis $\{e_j\}$ of \mathbb{R}^{n-m} yields a basis $\mu_j(y) := \phi^{-1}(y, e_j)$ of $\pi^{-1}(U)$ at any point $y \in U$.

Lemma 3 Suppose $u, v \in \pi^{-1}(p)$, $y(p) = 0$, then

$$\kappa((\frac{\partial}{\partial y^i})_{u+v}) = \kappa((\frac{\partial}{\partial y^i})_u) + \kappa((\frac{\partial}{\partial y^i})_v), \quad 1 \leq i \leq m;$$

$$\kappa((\frac{\partial}{\partial \phi^j})_u) = \mu_j \circ \pi(u), \quad 1 \leq j \leq n-m.$$

Proof Let $f : \pi^{-1}(p) \rightarrow \pi^{-1}(p)$, with $f(u) = \kappa((\frac{\partial}{\partial y^i})_u)$, since $\mu_{a*}(\frac{\partial}{\partial y^i})_u = (\frac{\partial}{\partial y^i})_{au}$. By Lemma 2, we have $f(tu) = \kappa((\frac{\partial}{\partial y^i})_{tu}) = \kappa(\mu_{a*}(\frac{\partial}{\partial y^i})_u) = \mu_t \circ \kappa((\frac{\partial}{\partial y^i})_u) = tf(u)$. Then by applying $\frac{d}{dt}|_{t=0}$ to both sides, we have $f(u) = uf'(0)$, hence f is linear in u . Suppose $\{e_j\}$ is a basis of \mathbb{R}^{n-m} , $\{D_j\}$ is a basis of the tangent space of \mathbb{R}^{n-m} . Then,

$$(\frac{\partial}{\partial \phi^j})_u = i_* \tilde{\phi}_*^{-1} D_j(\phi(u)) = i_* \tilde{\phi}_*^{-1} \mathcal{J}_{\phi(u)} e_j = i_* \mathcal{J}_u \tilde{\phi}^{-1} e_j = i_* \mathcal{J}_u \mu_j(p),$$

where $\tilde{\phi} = \phi|_{\pi^{-1}(p)}$. The statement is established by Definition 4. \square

Theorem 1 Let H be a connection on E with an operator ∇ . For any section X, Y of E , for any vector $U, V \in T_p M$, we have,

1. $\nabla_V(X + Y) = \nabla_V X + \nabla_V Y$.
2. $\nabla_{fV} X = f \nabla_V X$, for $f \in \mathbb{R}$.
3. $\nabla_{U+V} X = \nabla_U X + \nabla_V X$.
4. $\nabla_V fX = V(f)X(p) + f(p)\nabla_V X$, for $f \in \mathcal{C}^\infty(M, \mathbb{R})$.

Proof Since $(i_* \mathcal{J}_u)^{-1}$ and X^v are linear operators, then (2) and (3) follow clearly from that $\nabla_V X$ is linear in V . To prove (1), we continue to use the local trivialization as defined before. According to Lemma 1, we have

$$\begin{aligned} X_* V &= X_* V(y^i) (\frac{\partial}{\partial y^i})_{X(p)} + X_* V(\phi^j) (\frac{\partial}{\partial \phi^j})_{X(p)} \\ &= V(y^i \circ X) (\frac{\partial}{\partial y^i})_{X(p)} + V(\phi^j \circ X) (\frac{\partial}{\partial \phi^j})_{X(p)} \\ &= V(x^i) (\frac{\partial}{\partial y^i})_{X(p)} + V(X^j) (\frac{\partial}{\partial \phi^j})_{X(p)} \end{aligned}$$

xx

Similarly,

$$(X + Y)_*V = V(x^i)(\frac{\partial}{\partial y^i})_{X(p)+Y(p)} + V(X^j + Y^j)(\frac{\partial}{\partial \phi^j})_{X(p)+Y(p)}$$

Applying Lemma 2 and Lemma 3,

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa(X + Y)_*V &= \kappa V(x^i)(\frac{\partial}{\partial y^i})_{X(p)+Y(p)} + \kappa V(X^j + Y^j)(\frac{\partial}{\partial \phi^j})_{X(p)+Y(p)} \\ &= V(x^i)\kappa(\frac{\partial}{\partial y^i})_{X(p)+Y(p)} + V(X^j + Y^j)\mu_j(p) \\ &= V(x^i)\kappa(\frac{\partial}{\partial y^i})_{X(p)} + V(x^i)\kappa(\frac{\partial}{\partial y^i})_{Y(p)} + (V(X^j) + V(Y^j))\mu_j(p) \\ &= \kappa X_*V + \kappa Y_*V \end{aligned}$$

The last statement can be verified as follows,

$$\begin{aligned} (fX)_*V &= V(x^i)(\frac{\partial}{\partial y^i})_{f(p)X(p)} + (V(f)X^j(p) + f(p)V(X^j))(\frac{\partial}{\partial \phi^j})_{f(p)X(p)} \\ &= V(x^i)\mu_{f(p)*}(\frac{\partial}{\partial y^i})_{X(p)} + f(p)V(X^j)(\frac{\partial}{\partial \phi^j})_{f(p)X(p)} + V(f)X^j(p)(\frac{\partial}{\partial \phi^j})_{f(p)X(p)} \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa(fX)_*V &= V(x^i)f(p)\kappa(\frac{\partial}{\partial y^i})_{X(p)} + f(p)V(X^j)\mu_j(p) + V(f)X^j(p)\mu_j(p) \\ &= f(p)\kappa(X_*V) + V(f)X(p) \end{aligned}$$

□

Finally, we make some efforts to reverse the above process and illuminate the relationship between covariant derivative and connections in vector bundles.

Theorem 2 Let $\pi : E \rightarrow M$ be a vector bundle with a covariant derivative operator D as defined above. Put $H_u = \{X_*V : V \in T_pM, X \in \Gamma(E), X(p) = u, D_VX = 0\}$. Then H is a connection and the operator ∇ induced by H is D .

The proof of Theorem 2 requires a lemma:

Lemma 4 Given $p \in M$, for any $V \in TM$, there exists a section $X \in \Gamma(E)$, satisfying $X(p) = u$ and $\nabla_VX(p) = 0$.

Proof of Lemma 4. Choose a local trivialization ψ over the neighborhood U of p . Let $\{\frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}\}$ be a coordinate vector field of M . Let $X \in \Gamma(E)$, locally, we write $X(y) = a^k(y)\mu_k(y)$, where $\{\mu_k\}$ is a basis of $\Gamma(E)$. Let $c : I \rightarrow M$ be a smooth curve, with $c(0) = p$, and $V(t) = \dot{c}(t) := c_{*t}D(t) = c^{i'}(t)\frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}(c(t))$, $\mu(t) := \mu(c(t))$. Then,

$$D_{V(t)}X(t) = (a^k \circ c)'(t)\mu_k(c(t)) + \Gamma_{ik}^j(c(t))c^{i'}(t)a^k \circ c(t)\mu_j(c(t))$$

Thus, $D_{V(t)}X(t) = 0$ determines a group of first-order ordinary differential equations for the coefficients $a^k \circ c(t)$ of $X(t)$, which can be uniquely solved for a given initial vector V_p . □

Proof of Theorem 2. Given vectors $A_u, B_u \in H_u$, assume $\pi_*A_u = V_p$ and $\pi_*B_u = W_p$. We can choose X with $X(p) = u$ and $\nabla_{V_p}X = \nabla_{W_p}X = 0$ by Lemma 4, then we also have

XX

For Bourbaki, Poincaré was the devil incarnate. For students of chaos and fractals, Poincaré is of course God on Earth.

— Marshall Stone

$\nabla_{\lambda V_p + W_p} X = 0$, and $\lambda A_u + B_u = X_*(\lambda V_p) + X_*(W_p) = X_*(\lambda V_p + W_p)$, for any $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. Thus, H_u is a subspace of $T_u E$.

Consider $\pi_{*u}|_{H_u} : H_u \rightarrow T_p M$. For any $X_*V \in H_u$, $\pi_{*u}(X_*V) = 0 \Leftrightarrow V = 0$, which implies $\ker \pi_{*u}|_{H_u} = \{0\}$. On the other hand, given $V_p \in T_p M$, according to Lemma 4, there exists a section X satisfying $\nabla_{V_p} X = 0$, hence $X_{*p}V \in H_u$ and $\pi_{*u}X_{*p}V = V$. Thus, the map $\pi_{*u}|_{H_u}$ induces an isomorphism, which is in accordance with the first requirement of Definition 2.

As to the second requirement, since $\dim \mu_{a*}H_u = \dim H_u$, it suffices to prove $\mu_{a*}H_u \subseteq H_{au}$. Indeed, for any $X_{*p}V \in H_u$, $\mu_{a*}X_{*p}V = (\mu X)_{*p}V$, $\mu X(p) = au$, and $\nabla_V \mu X = \mu \nabla_V X = 0$, so $(\mu X)_{*p}V \in H_{au}$, which establishes the claim.

At last, suppose ∇ is induced by H . Then by definition,

$$\nabla_V X = \kappa X_*V = (i_*\mathcal{J}_u)^{-1}(X_*V)^v,$$

then we safely arrive at the conclusion by noticing that

$$\nabla_V X = 0 \Leftrightarrow X_*V \in H_u \Leftrightarrow D_V X = 0$$

□

Reference

- [1] Genard Walschap, Metric Structures in Differential Geometry. Springer, 2004 (Graduate Texts in Mathematics 224).
- [2] Jürgen Jost. Riemannian Geometry and Geometric Analysis. Springer, 1995.
- [3] Kobayashi&Nomizu, Foundations of Differential Geometry (Volume 1 and Volume 2), John Wiley&Sons, Inc, 1996.
- [4] Jürgen Jost. Nonlinear Methods in Riemannian and Kählerian Geometry. DMV Seminar Band 10, Birkhäuser, 1986.
- [5] Spivak. A Comprehensive Introduction to Differential Geometry.

XX

Technical skill is mastery of complexity while creativity is mastery of simplicity.

— Chris Zeeman

A Conjecture About Dynamical Systems

0201 Sun Jun

At the ICM 1998 Berlin, the famous mathematician Michael Herman proposed a conjecture:

Let $f: z \in \mathbf{R}^{2n} \longrightarrow Az + O(z^2) \in \mathbf{R}^{2n}$ be a germ of symplectic diffeomorphisms such that $A \in Sp(2n, \mathbf{R})$ is conjugated in $Sp(2n, \mathbf{R})$ to $r_{\alpha_1} \times r_{\alpha_2} \times \cdots \times r_{\alpha_n}$, $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \cdots, \alpha_n) \in DC$.

Conjecture:

If f is real analytic, then f leaves invariant, in any small neighborhood of O , a set of positive Lebesgue measure of Lagrangian tori.

Notion:

$Sp(2n, \mathbf{R})$ the set of symplectic transformation
 $r_{\alpha_1} \times r_{\alpha_2} \times \cdots \times r_{\alpha_n} \quad (r_{\alpha_1} \times r_{\alpha_2} \times \cdots \times r_{\alpha_n})(z_1, \cdots, z_n) = (e^{i\alpha_1} z_1, \cdots, e^{i\alpha_n} z_n)$
 DC diophantine condition

Definition 1 A diffeomorphism f is said to be a **symplectic diffeomorphism** if it satisfies the following equation:

$$\left(Jf \right)' J(Jf) = J$$

where $J = \begin{pmatrix} O & -I_n \\ I_n & O \end{pmatrix}$.

Remark 1 Let $n=1$, $J = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$, then

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}' \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & bc - ad \\ ad - bc & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Obviously, $f: \mathbf{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}^2$ is a symplectic diffeomorphism if and only if the determinant of Jf is equal to 1 for any $z \in \mathbf{R}^2$.

Remark 2 In the case of multidimensional conditions, we also have the result that the determinant of Jf is equal to 1 if f is a symplectic diffeomorphism.

Definition 2 A diffeomorphism f is said to be a **germ of symplectic diffeomorphism** at the point of z_0 if f is a symplectic diffeomorphism in a neighborhood of z_0 .

Definition 3 $A \in Sp(2n, \mathbf{R})$ is said to be **conjugated** in $Sp(2n, \mathbf{R})$ to B if there exists a homeomorphism $H \in Sp(2n, \mathbf{R})$, which converts A into $B = H^{-1} \circ A \circ H$.

Definition 4 $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \in T^n$ is said to be satisfying a diophantine condition (we write it $\alpha \in DC$) if there exist $\gamma > 0$, $\beta > 0$, such that

$$|e^{2\pi i \langle k, \alpha \rangle} - 1| \geq \frac{\gamma}{\left(\sum_{j=1}^n |k_j|\right)^\beta}, \quad \forall k \in \mathbf{Z}^n \setminus 0$$

Definition 5 We say f **leaves invariant** in a neighborhood U of O if $f(z) \in U$ for any $z \in U$.

Our fundamental idea is to use the similar method applied in the proof of Siegel's theorem to reduce f to its normal form which we have not yet known. (cf: V.I.Arnold: Geometrical Methods in the Theory of Ordinary Differential Equations.)

First, let's consider some simple conditions, for example, let $n=1$ and $A = r_\alpha$.

Note that A is equal to r_α , that is, $Az = e^{i\alpha}z = (\cos \alpha + i \sin \alpha)(x + iy) = (x \cos \alpha - y \sin \alpha) + i(x \sin \alpha + y \cos \alpha)$, then we have

$$A \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$$

So far, I have three directions to consider this conjecture. Unfortunately, none of them has derived essential progress so far.

(I) Let

$$u : \mathbf{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbf{C}^1$$

$$(x, y) \longmapsto z = x + iy, \bar{z} = x - iy$$

we have $x = \frac{z + \bar{z}}{2}, y = \frac{z - \bar{z}}{2i}$, then,

$$u^{-1} : \mathbf{C}^1 \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}^2$$

$$z \longmapsto \left(\frac{z + \bar{z}}{2}, \frac{z - \bar{z}}{2i} \right)$$

Assume $f(z) = Az + a(z)$, where $a(z) = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{pmatrix} = O(|z|^2)$. Let

$$\tilde{f} = u \circ f \circ u^{-1} : \mathbf{C}^1 \longrightarrow \mathbf{C}^1$$

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{f}(z) &= (u \circ f) \left(\frac{z + \bar{z}}{2}, \frac{z - \bar{z}}{2i} \right) \\ &= u \left(\frac{z + \bar{z}}{2} \cos \alpha - \frac{z - \bar{z}}{2i} \sin \alpha + a_1, \frac{z + \bar{z}}{2} \sin \alpha - \frac{z - \bar{z}}{2i} \cos \alpha + a_2 \right) \\ &= e^{i\alpha} z + a_1 + a_2 i. \end{aligned}$$

+++++

Technical skill is mastery of complexity while creativity is mastery of simplicity.

— Chris Zeeman

$$f \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = f \begin{pmatrix} \frac{z+\bar{z}}{2} \\ \frac{z-\bar{z}}{2i} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{z+\bar{z}}{2} \cos \alpha - \frac{z-\bar{z}}{2i} \sin \alpha + a_1 \\ \frac{z+\bar{z}}{2} \sin \alpha - \frac{z-\bar{z}}{2i} \cos \alpha + a_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Jf = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\cos \alpha}{2} - \frac{\sin \alpha}{2i} + a_{1z} & \frac{\cos \alpha}{2} + \frac{\sin \alpha}{2i} + a_{1\bar{z}} \\ \frac{\sin \alpha}{2} + \frac{\cos \alpha}{2i} + a_{2z} & \frac{\sin \alpha}{2} - \frac{\cos \alpha}{2i} + a_{2\bar{z}} \end{pmatrix}$$

Note that f is a symplectic diffeomorphism, we have

$$|Jf| = \left(\frac{\cos \alpha}{2} - \frac{\sin \alpha}{2i} + a_{1z} \right) \left(\frac{\sin \alpha}{2} - \frac{\cos \alpha}{2i} + a_{2\bar{z}} \right) - \left(\frac{\sin \alpha}{2} + \frac{\cos \alpha}{2i} + a_{2z} \right) \left(\frac{\cos \alpha}{2} + \frac{\sin \alpha}{2i} + a_{1\bar{z}} \right) = 1$$

that is,

$$(a_{1z} - a_{2\bar{z}}i)e^{-i\alpha} - (a_{1\bar{z}} - a_{2z}i)e^{i\alpha} + 2i(a_{1z}a_{2\bar{z}} - a_{1\bar{z}}a_{2z}) = 2i.$$

Difficulties about (I): Although f is real analytic, \tilde{f} is not necessarily complex analytic. This is the essential difference compared with Siegel's theorem.

(II) Assume $f(z) = Az + a(z)$, where $a(z) = O(|z|^2)$.

Let $x = r \cos \theta$, $y = r \sin \theta$, $a = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{pmatrix}$,

$$f \begin{pmatrix} r \cos \theta \\ r \sin \theta \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} r \cos \theta \\ r \sin \theta \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} r \cos(\theta + \alpha) + a_1 \\ r \sin(\theta + \alpha) + a_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Jf = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\theta + \alpha) + a_{1r} & -r \sin(\theta + \alpha) + a_{1\theta} \\ \sin(\theta + \alpha) + a_{2r} & r \cos(\theta + \alpha) + a_{2\theta} \end{pmatrix} \quad (1)$$

Our goal is to find a $u_r(\theta) : T^1 \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^2$ for some r , such that $f(u_r(\theta)) = u_r(\theta + \alpha)$. Let $u_r(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{pmatrix}$, then

$$f(u_r(\theta)) = \begin{pmatrix} u_1(\theta) \cos \alpha - u_2(\theta) \sin \alpha + a_1 \\ u_1(\theta) \sin \alpha + u_2(\theta) \cos \alpha + a_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u_1(\theta + \alpha) \\ u_2(\theta + \alpha) \end{pmatrix} \quad (2)$$

From (1), (2) and f is a symplectic diffeomorphism, we can get that

$$r + \begin{vmatrix} ru_{1r}(\theta + \alpha) + u_{2\theta}(\theta + \alpha) & \cos \alpha \\ ru_{1r}(\theta) - u_{2\theta}(\theta) & \cos(\theta + \alpha) \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} ru_{2r}(\theta + \alpha) - u_{1\theta}(\theta + \alpha) & \sin \alpha \\ ru_{2r}(\theta) - u_{1\theta}(\theta) & \sin(\theta + \alpha) \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} u_{1r}(\theta + \alpha) & u_{1\theta}(\theta + \alpha) \\ u_{2r}(\theta + \alpha) & u_{2\theta}(\theta + \alpha) \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} u_{1r}(\theta) & u_{1\theta}(\theta) \\ u_{2r}(\theta) & u_{2\theta}(\theta) \end{vmatrix}$$

+++++

Do not imagine that mathematics is hard and crabbed, and repulsive to common sense. It is merely the etherialization of common sense.

—William Thomson

$$\begin{aligned}
& + \left(\begin{vmatrix} u_{1r}(\theta) & u_{1\theta}(\theta) \\ u_{1r}(\theta + \alpha) & u_{1\theta}(\theta + \alpha) \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} u_{2r}(\theta) & u_{2\theta}(\theta) \\ u_{2r}(\theta + \alpha) & u_{2\theta}(\theta + \alpha) \end{vmatrix} \right) \sin \alpha \\
& + \left(\begin{vmatrix} u_{2r}(\theta) & u_{2\theta}(\theta) \\ u_{1r}(\theta + \alpha) & u_{1\theta}(\theta + \alpha) \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} u_{2r}(\theta + \alpha) & u_{2\theta}(\theta + \alpha) \\ u_{1r}(\theta) & u_{1\theta}(\theta) \end{vmatrix} \right) \cos \alpha \\
& = 1
\end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

Difficulties about (II): The most difficult aspect about (II) is the complexity of the equation (3).

(III) Let $f(z) = Az + a(z)$, where $a(z) = O(|z|^2)$, $a = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{pmatrix}$. Let $T : x = \sqrt{2I} \cos \theta, y = \sqrt{2I} \sin \theta, 0 < I \ll 1$. Then, we have

$$JT = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\cos \theta}{\sqrt{2I}} & -\sqrt{2I} \sin \theta \\ \frac{\sin \theta}{\sqrt{2I}} & \sqrt{2I} \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

We can deduce the determinant of JT is equal to 1 from that T is a symplectic diffeomorphism.

$$\text{Let } \tilde{f} = T^{-1} \circ f \circ T = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{I} \\ \tilde{\theta} \end{pmatrix}, \text{ and}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\begin{pmatrix} \tilde{x} \\ \tilde{y} \end{pmatrix} &= (f \circ T)(I, \theta) = f \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2I} \cos \theta \\ \sqrt{2I} \sin \theta \end{pmatrix} \\
&= \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2I} \cos(\theta + \alpha) + a_1(\sqrt{2I} \cos \theta, \sqrt{2I} \sin \theta) \\ \sqrt{2I} \sin(\theta + \alpha) + a_2(\sqrt{2I} \cos \theta, \sqrt{2I} \sin \theta) \end{pmatrix}
\end{aligned}$$

From $x = \sqrt{2I} \cos \theta, y = \sqrt{2I} \sin \theta$, we can get that

$$I = \frac{x^2 + y^2}{2}, \cos \theta = \frac{x}{\sqrt{2I}}, \sin \theta = \frac{y}{\sqrt{2I}}$$

So,

$$\tilde{I} = \frac{\tilde{x}^2 + \tilde{y}^2}{2} = I + \tilde{a}_1(\sqrt{I}, \theta), \cos \tilde{\theta} = \frac{\tilde{x}}{\sqrt{2\tilde{I}}} = \cos(\theta + \alpha) + \tilde{a}_2(\sqrt{I}, \theta)$$

where

$$\tilde{a}_1(\sqrt{I}, \theta) = \sqrt{2I}(a_1 \cos(\theta + \alpha) + a_2 \sin(\theta + \alpha)) + \frac{1}{2}(a_1^2 + a_2^2) = O(I^{\frac{3}{2}})$$

$$\tilde{a}_2(\sqrt{I}, \theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2I}}a_1(\sqrt{2I} \cos \theta, \sqrt{2I} \sin \theta) - \frac{1}{2I}\tilde{a}_1(\sqrt{I}, \theta) \cos(\theta + \alpha) + O(I) = O(\sqrt{I})$$

Then $\tilde{\theta} = \theta + \alpha + \tilde{a}_2(\sqrt{I}, \theta)$, where $\tilde{a}_2 = O(\sqrt{I})$.

Now, we have get that

+++++

I used to measure the Heavens, now I measure the shadows of Earth. The mind belonged to Heaven, the body's shadow lies here.

— Johannes Kepler

$$\tilde{I} = I + \tilde{a}_1(\sqrt{I}, \theta)$$

$$\tilde{\theta} = \theta + \alpha + \tilde{a}_2(\sqrt{I}, \theta)$$

where

$$\tilde{a}_1(\sqrt{I}, \theta) = O(I^{\frac{3}{2}}), \tilde{a}_2(\sqrt{I}, \theta) = O(I^{\frac{1}{2}})$$

Difficulties about (III): By far, the difficulty is how to expand \tilde{a}_1 and \tilde{a}_2 in the Fourier series or Taylor series with concrete coefficients.

+++++

从其他学科领域转而研究数学成功的数学家

数学是科学的皇后，她为人类文明的进步做出了巨大的贡献。也许数学家从事的职业在常人看来是很枯燥和生涩的，但有幸沉浸在数学的美妙王国里，真的是莫大的幸福。

本篇介绍几位从其他学科领域转而研究数学，并取得巨大成功的数学家。

Raoul Bott (1923-2005) 匈牙利裔的美国数学家，本科和硕士在 McGill 大学读工程，在 Carnegie Mellon 大学获应用数学博士学位。后来在 Princeton 高等研究所开始纯粹数学研究，在拓扑学，微分几何，Lie 群，数学物理等领域做出了重大贡献。他从 1959 年开始在 Harvard 任教授，直到 1999 年退休。Bott 获得过 2000 年的以色列 Wolf 奖，1990 年美国数学会 Steel 终身成就奖，1987 年的美国国家科学奖和 1964 年的微分几何最高奖 Veblen 奖。他还是美国国家科学院的院士。

William Paul Thurston (1946-) 本科是读生物的，后来去 UC.Berkeley 跟着 Hirsch 和 Smale 学拓扑，因为在 2, 3 维流形拓扑学上的开创性工作荣获 1982 年的国际数学最高奖 Fields 奖。他是美国国家科学院院士，获得过 1976 年的 Veblen 奖。

Edward Witten (1951-) 本科在 Brandis 大学读历史和经济，后在 Princeton 获得物理学博士学位。他借助物理学的直观和自身扎实的数学功底，在代数几何，低维拓扑等数学领域做出了许多大胆的猜测，推动了这些领域的大发展。同时他在弦论，广义相对论，量子论，高能物理等领域也做出了许多贡献。是目前国际上数学物理领域的绝对权威。他获得过 1990 年的 Fields 奖，1986 年的国际理论物理研究中心 Dirac 奖，1998 年的美国物理学会 Heineman 奖等众多数学和理论物理的国际大奖。他是美国国家科学院院士，两次被邀请在国际数学家大会上作 1 小时的全会报告 (1986 和 2002)。

Hassler Whitney (1907-1989) 先在 Yale 学音乐，后来去 Harvard 学数学，获得数学博士学位，并留校从事数学研究，由于在流形拓扑学上的开创性工作，获得 1983 年 Wolf 奖。他还获得过 1976 年美国国家科学奖，1985 年美国数学会 Steel 奖。

另外，像美国哥伦比亚大学数学教授张寿武本科是中山大学化学系的，西北大学数学教授夏志宏本科是南大天文系的。他们都在 1998 年柏林的国际数学家大会上作过 45 分钟报告。

+++++

Mathematics compares the most diverse phenomena and discovers the secret analogies that unite them.

— Joseph Fourier

Riemann – Lebesgue 引理及其几个推广形式

0201 金天灵

Riemann – Lebesgue 引理 若 $f \in L^1[a, b]$, 则

$$\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow +\infty} \int_a^b f(x) \cos \lambda x \, dx = 0$$
$$\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow +\infty} \int_a^b f(x) \sin \lambda x \, dx = 0$$

证明 这里提供一种利用泛函分析的证明, 但是条件要稍微加强一点。

以下均假设 $f \in L^2[a, b]$ 。

首先, $\{\sin(jx)\}_{j=1}^{j=+\infty}$ 是 $L^2[a, b]$ 中的有界序列, 且 $L^2[a, b]$ 是自反空间, 所以存在其子列

$$\{\sin(j_k x)\}_{k=1}^{k=+\infty} \rightharpoonup u(x) \in L^2[a, b].$$

于是

$$\int_a^b f(x) \sin(j_k x) \, dx \rightarrow \int_a^b f(x) u(x) \, dx, \quad k \rightarrow +\infty.$$

下面我们要证明 $u = 0$:

$\forall (r, s) \subset [a, b]$ 令 $f = \chi_{(r, s)}$, 于是

$$\int_a^b f(x) \sin(j_k x) \, dx = \int_r^s \sin(j_k x) \, dx \rightarrow 0, \quad k \rightarrow +\infty.$$

由 r 和 s 的任意性知, $u=0$ 。(几乎处处相等的视为同一。) 即

$$\sin(j_k x) \rightharpoonup 0.$$

则必有

$$\sin \lambda x \rightharpoonup 0.$$

否则, 存在 $\phi \in L^2[a, b]$, $\varepsilon > 0$, 及一序列 $\{\sin(j_h x)\}_{h=1}^{h=+\infty}$ 使得

$$| \langle \phi, \sin(j_h x) \rangle | \geq \varepsilon$$

对任意的 h 成立。但由上面的讨论知, 有一子列 $\sin(j_{h_k}x) \rightharpoonup 0$, 矛盾!

从而

$$\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow +\infty} \int_a^b f(x) \sin \lambda x \, dx = 0.$$

同理得

$$\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow +\infty} \int_a^b f(x) \cos \lambda x \, dx = 0.$$

□

推论 1 (对积分区域的推广) 若 $f \in L^1(-\infty, +\infty)$, 则

$$\hat{f}(\lambda) \rightarrow 0, \quad |\lambda| \rightarrow \infty.$$

证明 由《数学分析教程》第三册 P268 定理 20.13 知,

$$a(\lambda) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) \cos \lambda x \, dx$$

$$b(\lambda) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) \sin \lambda x \, dx$$

在 \mathbf{R} 上一致连续, 于是 $\hat{f}(\lambda)$ 也在 \mathbf{R} 上一致连续。

i) 若 $f \in L^2(-\infty, +\infty)$, 则 $\|\hat{f}(\lambda)\|_{L^2(\mathbf{R})} = \|f(x)\|_{L^2(\mathbf{R})} < \infty$ ([3], P183, Plancherel Theorem)。再由 $\hat{f}(\lambda)$ 在 \mathbf{R} 上一致连续知必有 $\hat{f}(\lambda) \rightarrow 0$, 当 $|\lambda| \rightarrow \infty$ 。(这个用反证法 Argue 一下即可)

ii) 若 $f \notin L^2(-\infty, +\infty)$, 令

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} f(x), & |f(x)| \leq n; \\ 0, & |f(x)| > n. \end{cases}$$

则

$$\|f_n(x)\|_{L^2(\mathbf{R})}^2 \leq n \|f_n(x)\|_{L^1(\mathbf{R})} \leq n \|f(x)\|_{L^1(\mathbf{R})} < \infty.$$

故 $f_n \in L^2(\mathbf{R})$ 。于是由 (i) 得, $\hat{f}_n(\lambda) \rightarrow 0$, 当 $|\lambda| \rightarrow \infty$ 。

另一方面, 由积分的绝对连续性知,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |f(x) - f_n(x)| \, dx \rightarrow 0, \quad n \rightarrow \infty,$$

于是, $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N$, 使得

$$|\hat{f}(\lambda) - \hat{f}_N(\lambda)| \leq \|f - f_N\|_{L^1(\mathbf{R})} < \varepsilon/2,$$

音乐能激发或抚慰情怀, 绘画使人赏心悦目, 诗歌能动人心弦, 哲学使人获得智慧, 科学可改善物质生活, 但数学能给予以上的一切。

对任意的 λ 成立。又 $\exists A > 0$, 当 $|\lambda| > A$ 时, $|\hat{f}_N(\lambda)| < \varepsilon/2$, 于是,

$$|\hat{f}(\lambda)| \leq |\hat{f}(\lambda) - \hat{f}_N(\lambda)| + |\hat{f}_N(\lambda)| < \varepsilon,$$

即

$$|\hat{f}(\lambda)| \rightarrow 0, \quad |\lambda| \rightarrow \infty.$$

□

这里再提供一种相对更简便的证明, 而这个方法对下面要提到的另外一种变形直接有效:

(方法 2) 令

$$\begin{aligned} S_\lambda &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) \cos \lambda x \, dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x + \pi/\lambda) \cos \lambda(x + \pi/\lambda) \, dx \\ &= - \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x + \pi/\lambda) \cos \lambda x \, dx, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} |2S_\lambda| &= \left| \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (f(x) - f(x + \pi/\lambda)) \cos \lambda x \, dx \right| \\ &\leq \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |f(x) - f(x + \pi/\lambda)| \, dx \rightarrow 0, \quad \lambda \rightarrow \infty. \end{aligned}$$

最后一步由 Lebesgue 积分的平均连续性所保证。

□

推论 2 (对积分区域的另外一种推广) 若 $f \in L^1(-\infty, +\infty)$, (a_λ, b_λ) 是与正数 λ 有关的区间, 则

$$\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow +\infty} \int_{a_\lambda}^{b_\lambda} f(x) \cos \lambda x \, dx = 0.$$

证明 用上面的方法 2, 令

$$\begin{aligned} S_\lambda &= \int_{a_\lambda}^{b_\lambda} f(x) \cos \lambda x \, dx \\ &= \int_{a_\lambda - \pi/\lambda}^{b_\lambda - \pi/\lambda} f(x + \pi/\lambda) \cos \lambda(x + \pi/\lambda) \, dx \\ &= - \int_{a_\lambda - \pi/\lambda}^{b_\lambda - \pi/\lambda} f(x + \pi/\lambda) \cos \lambda x \, dx, \end{aligned}$$

则

$$\begin{aligned} 2S_\lambda &= \int_{a_\lambda}^{b_\lambda - \pi/\lambda} (f(x) - f(x + \pi/\lambda)) \cos \lambda x \, dx \\ &\quad - \int_{a_\lambda - \pi/\lambda}^{a_\lambda} f(x + \pi/\lambda) \cos \lambda x \, dx \\ &\quad + \int_{b_\lambda - \pi/\lambda}^{b_\lambda} f(x) \cos \lambda x \, dx, \end{aligned}$$

当 $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$ 时,

$$|2S_\lambda| \leq \int_{\mathbf{R}} |f(x) - f(x + \pi/\lambda)| \, dx + \int_{a_\lambda}^{a_\lambda + \pi/\lambda} |f(x)| \, dx + \int_{b_\lambda - \pi/\lambda}^{b_\lambda} |f(x)| \, dx \rightarrow 0.$$

第一项趋于 0 由 Lebesgue 积分的平均连续性所保证, 后面两项趋于 0 由 Lebesgue 积分的绝对连续性所保证。□

推论 3 (对 \sin 和 \cos 函数的推广) 若 $\{g_n(x)\}_{n=1}^{n=+\infty}$ 是 $[a, b]$ 上的可测函数列且满足:

$$(i) |g_n(x)| \leq M \quad (x \in [a, b]) \quad (n = 1, 2, \dots);$$

(ii) 对 $\forall c \in [a, b]$ 有

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \int_{[a, c]} g_n(x) \, dx = 0,$$

则对 $\forall f \in L^1[a, b]$, 有

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \int_{[a, b]} f(x) g_n(x) \, dx = 0.$$

证明 见《实变函数论》, 周民强, P197, 例 4。□

参考文献

- [1] 周民强。《实变函数论》, 北京大学出版社。
- [2] 常庚哲, 史济怀。《数学分析教程》第三册, 江苏教育出版社。
- [3] L.C. Evans, *Partial Differential Equations*, American Mathematical Society.

单连通域上边界对应原理的理解及推广

0201 杨恒

在一般的复变函数课程中, 我们学过非常重要的 Riemann 影射定理。我们知道对于复平面 \mathbb{C} 中的单连通域 D , 若其边界多于一点, 则可以共形映射到单位圆盘 Δ 上。那么, 这个映射是否一定能延拓到边界上? 我们知道当 D 为 Jordan 闭曲线围成的区域时可以做到。本文就是要通过素端的观点, 解决一般的 D 到 Δ 的共形映射在边界的情况。

可达边界点的 Koebe 定理

我们首先引入可达边界点的概念: 对于 $z_0 \in \partial D$, 若存在 Jordan 曲线 $l(t)$, $t \in [0, 1]$, $l(1) = z_0$, 并且 $l \setminus \{z_0\} \subset D$, 则称 (z_0, l) 为 D 的一个弧连点。我们说两个弧连点 $(z_1, l_1), (z_2, l_2)$ 等价, 如果 $z_1 = z_2$ 且 $\forall z_1$ 的邻域 U , \exists 弧 $\gamma \subset (U \cap D)$ 连接 l_1, l_2 。显然这是等价关系。那么我们把弧连点的等价类称为 D 的可达边界点, (z_0, l) 所在等价类记为 $[z_0, l]$ 。当 z_0 出只有一个可达边界点, 或者不明确指出 l 又不发生混淆时, 可用 z_0 表示。显然, 对于一个弧连点, l 可以取 D 中任一点为其一个端点的连接 z_0 的曲线。

下面我们引出 Koebe 的结论:

定理 1 D 为有界单连通区域, Δ 为单位圆, $f(z)$ 为 D 到 Δ 的共形映射, 则:

- (1) D 的每个可达边界点 $[z_0, l]$ 都对应于单位圆周的一个点 w_0 , 使得当 D 中 l 上的点趋向于 z_0 时, 其在 f 下的像趋于 w_0
- (2) D 的两个不同的可达边界点对应 $\partial\Delta$ 上两个不同点
- (3) 记 D 的全体可达边界点对应的集合为 F , 则 F 在 $\partial\Delta$ 上为稠密。

为了证明这个定理, 我们先引入两个引理:

引理 1 Jordan 弧序列 $\{\Upsilon_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ 位于单位圆 Δ 内, 且在原点 0 的邻域 G 外, Υ_k 的端点 z_{1k}, z_{2k} 分别收敛于 $\partial\Delta$ 上两个不同点 w_1, w_2 。若有界的解析函数 f 在 $\{\Upsilon_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ 上一致趋于 0 , 则 $f(z) \equiv 0$ 。

若 $\partial D_1 = (l_1 \cup l_2)$, 则说明 $z_1 = z_2$ 且当 l_1, l_2 上的各找一点充分靠近 z_1 时, 总是可以在 $\overline{D_1}$ 中找到曲线连结该两点, 从而与 $[z_1, l_1], [z_2, l_2]$ 为两个不同的可达边界点矛盾。

那么 $\partial D \setminus (l_1 \cup l_2)$ 非空, 则存在 ∂D 上一段 Jordan 弧 l 使 $\partial D \setminus (l_1 \cup l_2) = l$ 。由于 l_1, l_2, l 均为 Jordan 曲线, 在欧氏度量意义下, $\exists b \in l$ 以及其邻域 V , 使得 $V \cap (l_1 \cup l_2) = \emptyset$ 。当 z 从 $V \cap D_1 \subset D$ 中趋向于 $V \cap \partial D_1 = V \cap \partial D$ 时, 其在 f 下的像将趋向于 $\partial \Delta \cap \partial \Delta_1 = \{w_1\}$ 。从而我们可以用引理 3, 得到在 D 内有 $f(z) \equiv c$ 。矛盾。从而 $w_1 \neq w_2$ 。

3° 记 D 的全体可达边界点对应的集合为 $F \subset \partial \Delta$, 下面我们还需要证 F 在 $\partial \Delta$ 上为稠密。

下面还是用反证法, 假设 F 在 $\partial \Delta$ 中不稠密, 则存在点 $w_0 \in \partial \Delta$ 以及开弧 $\Gamma \subset \partial \Delta$, $w_0 \in \Gamma$, 使得 $\Gamma \cap F = \emptyset$ 。设点列 $\{w_n\}_{n=1}^\infty \subset \Delta$, 并且 $w_n \rightarrow w_0, n \rightarrow \infty$ 。记 $z_n = f^{-1}(w_n)$, 则点列 $\{z_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ 在 \overline{D} 中有收敛子列 $\{z_{n_k}\}_{n_k=1}^\infty$ 。由 1° 知, $z_{n_k} \rightarrow z_0 \in \partial \Delta, n_k \rightarrow \infty$ 。作从 z_{n_k} 到 z_0 的直线, 它不一定包含在 D 中, 但一定会与 ∂D 相交, 可以记从 z_{n_k} 到第一个交点的直线部分为 l_{n_k} 。那么, $l_{n_k} \setminus \{z_0\} \subset D$, 且当然 l_{n_k} 确定了一个可达边界点。由于 $z_{n_k} \rightarrow z_0, n_k \rightarrow \infty$, 可以知道 l_{n_k} 一致收敛到 z_0 。

又记 $\lambda_{n_k} = f(l_{n_k})$, 则 l_{n_k} 的一个端点为 w_{n_k} , 由 2° 可知, 另外一个端点 \hat{w}_{n_k} 在 $\partial \Delta \setminus \Gamma$ 上。(注意 Γ 中没有点对应可达边界点。) 由 $\partial \Delta$ 的紧性, 存在 $\{\hat{w}_{n_k}\}_{n_k=1}^\infty$ 的子列收敛到 \hat{w}_0 , 由于下标的缘故, 不妨设 $\hat{w}_{n_k} \rightarrow \hat{w}_0, n_k \rightarrow \infty$ 。由 $\hat{w}_0 \in (\partial \Delta \setminus \Gamma)$ 及 $w_0 \in \Gamma$, 可知, $w_0 \neq \hat{w}_0$ 。

我们可以假设 $\{\hat{w}_{n_k}\}_{n_k=1}^\infty$ 在 0 点的某个邻域之外, 因为它们的原象一致收敛到一个边界点。而对 λ_{n_k} 略作缩短可使其为 Δ 中的闭曲线, 且这一列的闭曲线的两个端点分别收敛到 $\partial \Delta$ 上两点 w_0, \hat{w}_0 ($w_0 \neq \hat{w}_0$)。对 $g(w) = f^{-1}(z) - z_0$ 用引理 2, 可以得到 $f^{-1}(z) \equiv z_0$ 在 Δ 中。从而矛盾。从而 F 在 $\partial \Delta$ 上稠密。□

由 Koebe 定理, 对于从有界单连通区域 D 到单位圆 Δ 的共形映射, 我们可以把它定义到 D 的可达边界点上。那么对于那些不可达的地方呢? 我们想要处理掉 D 边界上那些不好的地方, 想要使这样的共形映射定义到更多的边界部分, 就需要把区域进行紧化。为此, 我们可以引入素端的概念。这个概念来源于 Carathéodory。

素端

首先定义基本链。对于某个单连通域 D , 如果 $\gamma: [0, 1] \rightarrow \overline{D}$ 为一条 Jordan 曲线, 两个端点在 $\partial \Delta$, 其余均在 D 中, 那么它必然把 D 分成两个单连通区域。将其中一个区域记为 $N(\gamma)$, 另一个记为 $M(\gamma)$ 。我们将一系列这样的 \overline{D} 中曲线 $\{\gamma_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ 称为基本链, 如果:

- (1) $N(\gamma_{n+1}) \subsetneq N(\gamma_n), n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ (2) $\text{diam}(\gamma_n) \rightarrow 0, n \rightarrow \infty$



数学家毫不顾及声明或猜想, 他们仅仅根据定义和公理, 并用论证和推理来演绎每一件事。—Reid, Thomas

对于每个 n , 取 λ_n 的以 w_n 为端点的小部分曲线段 γ_n , 使得 γ_n 上的点到直线 $\overline{w_n w_n'}$ 的距离, 小于到直线 $\overline{w_{n-1} w_{n-1}'}$ 的距离, 还小于到直线 $\overline{w_{n+1} w_{n+1}'}$ 的距离。对 λ_n' 同样处理得到它的以 w_n' 为端点的小曲线段 γ_n' 。

作 Δ 内连接 γ_n 与 γ_n' 两个端点的直线, 使得它与 γ_n 与 γ_n' 组成从 w_n 到 w_n' 的、分割 Δ 为两个单连通区域的 Jordan 曲线 h_n 。设由 h_n 分割出的 Δ 的两个单连通区域中, 以 w_0 为边界点的那个为 $N(h_n)$ 。

由前面的构造方法, 我们容易知道 $\{h_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ 中元素两两不相交, 并一致收敛到 w_0 , 而且 $N(h_{n+1}) \subsetneq N(h_n), n = 1, 2, \dots$ 。则 $\{h_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ 在 D 中的原象构成了一个基本列。从而知道由 w_0 出发, 我们得到了一个与它对应的素端。 \square

这样我们得到了有界单连通区域 D 的素端到 Δ 的边界点的一一对应, 也就是说, 我们把 D 到 Δ 的共形映射定义到了 D 的全体素端上。那么, 素端与 D 的边界又是什么关系呢? 与可达边界点又是什么关系?

我们回顾素端的定义, 任取一个可达边界点 $[z_0, l]$, 可以把一个基本链 $\{\gamma_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ 的每个 γ_n 的两端点均取为 z_0 , 而且使 γ_n 与 l 总是相交, 那么, 这个可达边界点就对应了唯一一个素端。可见, 可以认为可达边界点本身就是一个素端。同时, 由素端全体与 $\partial\Delta$ 一一对应, 以及每个可达边界点都唯一对应于 $\partial\Delta$ 上一个点, 可以知道每个素端要么可以看成是一个可达边界点, 要么与可达边界点无关, 不可能有一个素端对应两个可达边界点。这样一来, 就相当于可达边界点是素端集合的稠密子集。

我们还知道, 一个可达边界点只对应 ∂D 上一个点, 而 ∂D 上一个点要么对应一个可达边界点, 要么对应两个可达边界点。由此, 我们可以认为, 素端集合的组成有 3 种成分:

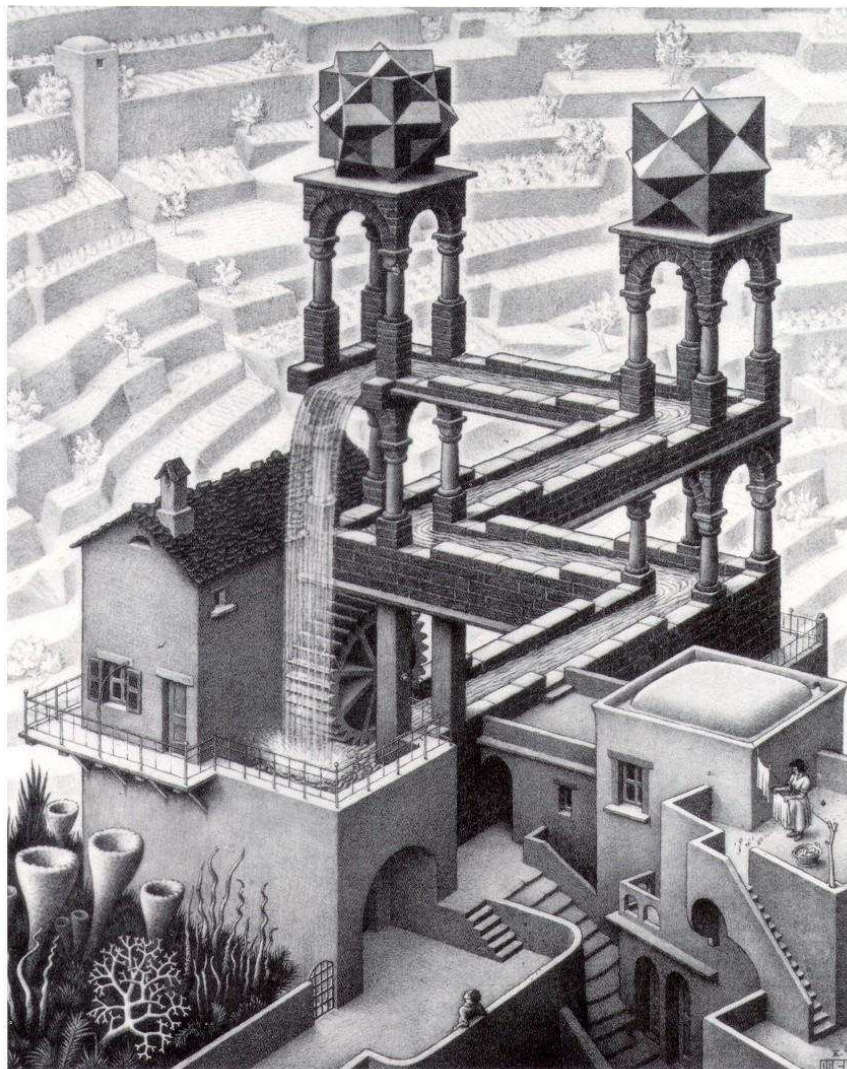
- (1) 对于可达边界点 $[z, l]$, 若 z 存在邻域 V 使得 $V \setminus \partial D$ 为两个连通域, 并且有一个在 D 外, 则把 z 当作素端;
- (2) 对于可达边界点 $[z, l]$, 若不满足 (1), 则把 z 作为两个点放入素端;
- (3) 对于 ∂D 上不属于任何可达边界点的点进行组合, 然后把组合当作素端, 具体如何组合因 ∂D 而异。

这样我们知道了素端与 D 的边界的关系。

以上我们总假设 D 为有界单连通域, 若 D 无界, 则我们可以先建立它到 Δ 的共形映射 f , 然后把 D 的某个有界单连通拿出来, 如果它包含 D 的部分边界, 由 f 的一一对应与连续性, 总可以把上面的定理应用到这边的部分边界。这样总可以把 D 的边界局部的处理。但对于整个 ∂D , 由于不是连通闭曲线, 在不加入 ∞ 进行处理时, 总是不能与 $\partial\Delta$ 建立一一对应的。

数学中的一些美丽定理具有这样的特性：它们极易从事实中归纳出来，但证明却隐藏的极深。 — Gauss

- [4] 史济怀, 刘太顺.《复变函数》, 中国科学技术大学出版社, 1998。
- [5] 闻国椿.《共形映射与边值问题》, 高等教育出版社, 1985。
- [6] 张南岳, 陈怀惠.《复变函数论选讲》, 北京大学出版社, 1995。



看埃舍尔的画, 是一桩奇妙的游戏。瀑布溅落, 水顺着水渠“正常”流淌, 却最终流回高处, 如此循环往复; 空间开始错杂, 上下、左右、内外通通颠倒, 却充满了美。



Mathematics, rightly viewed, possesses not only truth, but supreme beauty; a beauty cold and austere, like that of sculpture

— Bertrand Russell

一种 Riemann 面上的动力系统

0201 王麒麟

我们在复变函数中曾经学过扩充复平面 $\hat{\mathbb{C}}$ 上的单连通区域解析同构于 \mathcal{D} (单位圆盘), \mathbb{C} (复平面), $\hat{\mathbb{C}}$ (扩充复平面) 三者之一。在 *Riemann* 面上有类似的结论, 即 (*Poincaré – Klein – Koebe*) 定理, 它是说单连通 *Riemann* 面解析同构于下面三种典型 *Riemann* 曲面之一: (1) 扩充复平面 $\hat{\mathbb{C}} = \mathbb{C} \cup \infty$; (2) 复平面 \mathbb{C} ; (3) 单位圆盘 $\mathcal{D} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| < 1\}$ 。

由此我们利用 *Riemann* 面的相关知识可以推得, 对任意 *Riemann* 面 S , (\tilde{S}, π) 是 S 的万有覆盖, 记 G 为其覆盖变换群, 则: (1) $\tilde{S} = \hat{\mathbb{C}}$ 时, $G = id$; (2) $\tilde{S} = \mathbb{C}$ 时, $G = \mathbb{C}$ 或 $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ 或环面 $T = \mathbb{C}/\Lambda$, 其中 $\Lambda = \{z \rightarrow z + m\varpi_1 + n\varpi_2 : m, n \in \mathbb{Z}, \varpi_1, \varpi_2 \in \mathbb{C} \text{ 且 } \text{Im}(\varpi_1/\varpi_2) \neq 0\}$; (3) $\tilde{S} = \mathcal{D}$ 时, G 是一个无挠的 *Fuchs* 群。在本文中, 我们仅对 $T = \mathbb{C}/\Lambda$ 上的动力系统作些讨论。

首先介绍几个基本概念:

定义 1 U 是 \mathbb{C} 中的开集, $f_n : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ 是全纯函数 (本文不区分全纯函数和亚纯函数), 称 $\mathcal{F} = \{f_\alpha : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, \alpha \in A\}$ 是正规族, 如果, 对 \mathcal{F} 中的任意子列都存在内闭一致收敛的子列。

定义 2 设 S 是 *Riemann* 面, $f : S \rightarrow S$ 是非常值全纯映射。令 $f^n : S \rightarrow S$ 是 f 的 n 次迭代。对于给定的 $z_0 \in S$, 若存在 z_0 的邻域 U 使得 $\{f^n|_U\}$ 是正规族, 则称 z_0 属于 f 的 *Fatou* 集 (记作 $F(f)$); 若这样的邻域不存在, 则称 z_0 属于 f 的 *Julia* 集 (记作 $J(f)$)。

定义 3 z 称为 f 的周期点是指存在 $n \in \mathbb{N}$ 使得 $f^n(z) = z$, 最小的 n 称为 z 的周期。 $\lambda = (f^n)'(z)$, 若 $|\lambda| > 1$, 则称周期点为斥性的。斥性周期点都在 $J(f)$ 中, 且在其中稠密。由定义易知, *Fatou* 集是开集, *Julia* 集是闭集, 它们互为余集。

以下我们进入主要问题。

定理 1 每个全纯映射 $f : T \rightarrow T$ 都是仿射映射, 即 $f(z) \equiv \alpha z + c \pmod{\Lambda}$; 对应的 $J(f)$ 当 $|\alpha| \leq 1$ 时是空集, 当 $|\alpha| > 1$ 时是整个环 T 。

证明 首先证明 $f(z)$ 具有 $\alpha z + c$ 的形式。

不妨设 Λ 为元素 1 和 τ 所生成的, 其中 $\tau \notin \mathbb{R}$ 。因为 T 以 (\mathbb{C}, π) 为其万有覆盖, 提升存在。即存在全纯映射 $F : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ 使得 $\pi \circ F = f \circ \pi$ 。

故对任意 $z \in \mathbb{C}$,

$$\pi \circ F(z+1) = f \circ \pi(z+1) = f \circ \pi(z) = \pi \circ F(z),$$

从而 $F(z+1) \equiv F(z) \pmod{\Lambda}$, 即 $H(z) = F(z+1) - F(z) = \lambda \in \Lambda$ 。

由 $H(z)$ 为 \mathbb{C} 上的连续函数, \mathbb{C} 是连通的, Λ 是离散集, 故 $H(z)$ 是常数。即 $\exists \lambda_1 \in \Lambda$, 使得 $F(z+1) - F(z) = \lambda_1 \in \Lambda$ 。

同理, $\exists \lambda_2 \in \Lambda$, 使得 $F(z+\tau) - F(z) = \lambda_2 \in \Lambda$ 。

令 $g(z) = F(z) - \lambda_1 z$, 则

$$g(z+1) = F(z+1) - \lambda_1(z+1) = g(z),$$

$$g(z+\tau) = F(z+\tau) - \lambda_1(z+\tau) = g(z) + (\lambda_2 - \lambda_1\tau),$$

从而

$$g(z+n\tau+m) = g(z+n\tau) = g(z) + n(\lambda_2 - \lambda_1\tau),$$

显然, g 在 $\hat{\mathbb{C}}$ 至少有三个值取不到。由 Picard 小定理知 g 为常数, 设为 c_1 , 故 $F(z) = \lambda_1 z + c_1$,

$$f \circ \pi(z) = \pi \circ F(z) = \lambda_1 \pi(z) + \pi(c_1),$$

从而, 对任意 $z \in \Lambda$

$$f(z) \equiv \lambda_1 z + c \pmod{\Lambda}.$$

这就证明了上半部分。以下我们讨论 Julia 集 $J(f)$ 。

引理 1 存在全纯映射 $f: T \rightarrow T, f(z) \equiv \alpha z + c$ 当且仅当 $\alpha\Lambda \subset \Lambda$ 。

证明 “仅当”考虑 $f(z) - c$ 立刻可以看出。

“当”若 $\alpha\Lambda \subset \Lambda$, 令 $f(z) = \alpha z$, 易验证其满足条件。 □

引理 2 若 $|\alpha| = 1$, 且 $\alpha \neq 1$, 则 f 是有限阶自同构。事实上, 阶只能是 2, 3, 4, 6。

证明 由引理 1, $\alpha\Lambda \subset \Lambda$, 特别的, $\alpha \in \Lambda, \alpha\tau \in \Lambda$ 即 $\exists m_1, m_2, n_1, n_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ 使得

$$\alpha = m_1 + \tau n_1, \alpha\tau = m_2 + \tau n_2$$

整理得

$$\alpha^2 - (m_1 + n_2)\alpha - n_1 m_2 + m_1 n_2 = 0$$

故有

$$\begin{cases} \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = m_1 + n_2 \\ \alpha_1 \alpha_2 = -n_1 m_2 + m_1 n_2 \end{cases}$$

由方程可知, α_1, α_2 互为共轭复数, 故 $|\alpha|^2$ 是整数。由 $|\alpha| = 1$ 知, $-1 \leq \operatorname{Re}\alpha < 1$, 故 $-2 \leq m_1 + n_2 < 2$, 从而 $\operatorname{Re}\alpha = -1, -\frac{1}{2}, 0, \frac{1}{2}$ 故

$$\alpha = -1, -\frac{1}{2} \pm \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}i, \pm i, \frac{1}{2} \pm \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}i,$$

相应的阶分别是 2, 3, 4, 6。 □

引理 3 若 $|\alpha| \neq 0$, 对 $\forall z_0 \in T$, 方程 $f(z) = z_0$ 在 T 中恰有 $|\alpha|^2$ 个解。

证明 由引理 2 的证明知 $|\alpha|^2$ 为整数, $|\alpha - 1|^2 = (\alpha - 1)(\bar{\alpha} - 1) = |\alpha|^2 + 1 - 2\operatorname{Re}\alpha$ 也是整数。只需证明 $c = z_0 \in \Lambda$ 的情形即可, 即考虑 $z = \frac{m + n\tau}{\alpha}$ 在 T 中解的个数。

不妨设 T 是由 1 和 τ 两个元素生成, 由前面的讨论知 $\exists m_0, n_0$ 使得 $\alpha = m_0 + n_0\tau$ 。分离 z 的实部和虚部, 并且由 $0 \leq \operatorname{Im}z < |\operatorname{Im}\tau|$ 及 $\operatorname{Im}\tau = \frac{\tau - \bar{\tau}}{2i}$ 可得:

$$|mn_0 - nm_0| \leq |\alpha|^2 \text{ 即 } 0 \leq \frac{m_0 n - n_0 m}{(m_0, n_0)} \leq \frac{|\alpha|^2}{(m_0, n_0)}.$$

故 $m_0 n - n_0 m$ 可取 $\frac{|\alpha|^2}{(m_0, n_0)}$ 个不同的值, 且不同的 $m_0 n - n_0 m$ 对应的解不同。

若 $m_0 n - n_0 m = m_0 n' - n_0 m'$ 且 $\frac{m' + n'\tau}{m_0 + n_0\tau}$ 亦是一个解, 则 $\frac{m - m'}{m_0} = \frac{n - n'}{n_0} = t$ 。那么 $t + \frac{m' + n'\tau}{m_0 + n_0\tau}$ 亦是解。由 $n - n'$ 是 $\frac{m_0}{(m_0, n_0)}$ 的倍数, 得出 t 是 $\frac{1}{(n_0, m_0)}$ 的整数倍。

令 $z_0 = \frac{m' + n'\tau}{m_0 + n_0\tau}$, 则 $z_0 + \frac{1}{(n_0, m_0)}, \dots, z_0 + \frac{(n_0, m_0) - 1}{(n_0, m_0)}$ 是 T 中的不同的解。 □

定理的后半部分证明:

由引理 2, $|\alpha|^2$ 为整数, 故 $|\alpha| \leq 1$ 时只有 $|\alpha| = 0$ 及 $|\alpha| = 1$ 两种情形。

1. 若 $|\alpha| = 0$, 即 $\alpha = 0, f(z) \equiv c \pmod{\Lambda}$ 。显然 $\forall z \in T, z \in F(f)$ 。故 $J(f) = \emptyset$ 。

2. 若 $|\alpha| = 1$, 由引理 2, $f(z) = \alpha z + c \pmod{\Lambda}$ 。

如果 $\alpha = 1$, 则 $f(z) = z + c \pmod{\Lambda}$, 从而 $\{f^n(z)|_T\}$ 一致收敛于 ∞ 。

故 $z \in F(f)$ 。

如果 $\alpha \neq 1$, 则 α 的阶数只能为 2, 3, 4, 6。即 $f^k(\alpha) = z + c_k \pmod{\Lambda}, k = 2, 3, 4, 6$ 。

故 $\{f^{kn}|_T\}$ 一致收敛到 $\infty, z \in F(f)$ 。故 $J(f) = \emptyset$ 。



有限交换群的子群个数

04001 洪继展

我们知道对于任给的一个有限生成交换群 \mathbb{G} ，总可以将 \mathbb{G} 分解为

$$\mathbb{G} \cong \mathbb{Z}^{rank(\mathbb{G})} \oplus A_t$$

其中 A_t 为 \mathbb{G} 的扭子群。当 \mathbb{G} 的阶数为无穷时，其子群的个数自然是无穷，我们下面考虑的是有限交换群的子群个数。我们设

$$G = \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha_1}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha_2}} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha_n}}$$

其中 $n, \alpha_i (1 \leq i \leq n) \in \mathbb{N}^*$ ，且是一个递增有限序列。我们约定

$$(*) \quad p^{y_1} \times p^{y_2} \times \cdots \times p^{y_n} : y$$

(*) 式中的 $y_i \in [0, \alpha_i], 1 \leq i \leq n$ ，冒号左边表示的是 G 当中的一种类型的 $p^{\max_i \{y_i\}}$ 阶元，其由分别在 G 中的各个直和项 $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha_i}} (1 \leq i \leq n)$ 中的 $p^{y_j} (1 \leq j \leq n)$ 阶元作和而得到 (p^{y_j} 阶元不一定在 $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha_i}}$ 中取，即顺序不固定)。冒号右边的数 y 表示该类型的 $p^{\max_i \{y_i\}}$ 阶元在 G 中的个数。例如 $\mathbb{Z}_p \oplus \mathbb{Z}_p$ 中的 $p^1 \times p^0$ 型的 p 阶元有 $\varphi(p) + \varphi(p) = 2\varphi(p)$ 个。易证不同类型的 $p^{\max_i \{y_i\}}$ 阶元不会相等。

定理 1 $G = \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha_1}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha_2}} (\alpha_1 \leq \alpha_2)$ 时 G 的各阶子群及相应个数如下：

$p^\beta (0 \leq \beta \leq \alpha_1)$ 阶子群个数为：

$$(1) \quad \sum_{i=0}^{\beta} p^i$$

$p^\gamma (\alpha_1 < \gamma \leq \alpha_2)$ 阶子群的个数为：

$$(2) \quad \sum_{i=0}^{\alpha_1} p^i$$

$p^\sigma (\alpha_2 < \sigma \leq \alpha_1 + \alpha_2)$ 阶子群个数为：

$$(3) \quad \sum_{i=0}^{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 - \sigma} p^i$$

G 的各阶元的个数是：

$p^\beta (0 \leq \beta \leq \alpha_1)$ 阶元的个数是：

$$(1') \quad p^{2\beta} - p^{2(\beta-1)}$$

$p^\gamma (\alpha_1 < \gamma \leq \alpha_2)$ 阶元的个数是：

$$(2') \quad p^{\alpha_1} (p^\gamma - p^{\gamma-1})$$

(i). 当 $x = \beta - x$ 时, $\mathbb{Z}_{p^x}^2$ 阶子群中显然包含了 G 中的所有阶数不大于 p^x 的元素, 故这种类型的子群恰有一个。从而, 此时 G 中的 p^β 阶子群的个数是:

$$(p^\beta + p^{\beta-1}) + (p^{\beta-2} + p^{\beta-3}) + \cdots + (p^2 + p) + 1 = \sum_{i=0}^{\beta} p^i$$

(ii). 当 β 为奇数时

$$(p^\beta + p^{\beta-1}) + (p^{\beta-2} + p^{\beta-3}) + \cdots + (p+1) = \sum_{i=0}^{\beta} p^i$$

对于 p^γ 阶子群, 其结构可以有 (仍是最多只有两个直和项的情形):

$$\mathbb{Z}_{p^\gamma}, \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\gamma-1}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_p, \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\gamma-2}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^2} \dots$$

任意自然数 x , 当 $x \leq \alpha_1 < \gamma - x$ 时, $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\gamma-x}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^x}$ 型的子群中的 $p^{\gamma-x}$ 阶元的个数是 $\varphi(p^{\gamma-x})p^x$, 从而, 这种类型的子群的个数是

$$\frac{\varphi(p^{\gamma-x})p^{\alpha_1}}{\varphi(p^{\gamma-x})p^x} = p^{\alpha_1-x}$$

对于 x 与 γ 有三种情况会发生:

(i). 当 $x = \alpha_1 = \gamma - x$ 时, \mathbb{Z}_{p^x} 型的子群个数是 1, 此时, G 中的 p^γ 阶子群的个数是:

$$p^{\alpha_1} + p^{\alpha_1-1} + \dots + p^{\alpha_1-(\alpha_1-1)} + 1 = \sum_{i=0}^{\alpha_1} p^i$$

(ii). 当 $x = \alpha_1, \gamma - x > \alpha_1$ 时, $\mathbb{Z}_{p^x} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\gamma-x}}$ 阶子群的个数为 1, x 若再增加, 已经没有对应类型的 p^γ 阶子群了. 此时, (2) 式成立.

(iii). 当 $\gamma - x = \alpha_1, x < \alpha_1$ 时, $\mathbb{Z}_{p^x} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\gamma-x}}$ 阶子群的个数为 $p^{\alpha_1-x} + p^{\alpha_1-x-1}$ 。 $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{x+1}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\gamma-x-1}}$ 阶子群的个数是 $p^{\alpha_1-x-2} + p^{\alpha_1-x-3} (\gamma - x = \alpha_1, x < \alpha_1 - 2)$ 或 $1 (\gamma - x = \alpha_1, x = \alpha_1 - 2)$ 。(当 $x = \alpha_1 - 1, \gamma - x = \alpha_1$ 时 $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{x+1}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\gamma-x-1}}$ 型的子群已经和 $\mathbb{Z}_{p^x} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\gamma-x}}$ 型的子群相同)。 x 再增大后的子群个数问题化为与 (4) 式类似的情形。故 (2) 式仍成立。

对与 p^σ 阶子群的情形, 它已经没有循环子群了, 它的结构可以有:

$$\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha_2}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{n^{\sigma-\alpha_2}}, \mathbb{Z}_{n^{\alpha_2-1}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{n^{\sigma-\alpha_2+1}}, \dots$$

对于任意的 $x, \alpha_2 - x > \alpha_1 > \sigma - \alpha_2 + x$, $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha_2 - x}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\sigma - \alpha_2 + x}}$ 型的子群个数是 $p^{\alpha_1 - (\sigma - \alpha_2 + x)} = p^{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 - \sigma - x}$, 对于 x, σ 有以下情况:

(i). 当 $\alpha_2 - x = \alpha_1 = \sigma - \alpha_2 + x$ 时, $\mathbb{Z}_{n\alpha_1}^2$ 型子群的个数是 1。故而, 结论成立。

(ii). 当 $\alpha_2 - x > \alpha_1 = \sigma - \alpha_2 + x$ 时, $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha_2-x}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha_1}}$ 型的子群的个数是 $p^{\alpha_1 - \alpha_1} = 1$ 。结论亦成立。

(iii). 当 $\alpha_2 - x = \alpha_1 > \sigma - \alpha_2 + x$ 时, $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha_1+1}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\sigma-\alpha_1-1}}$ 型的子群的个数是 $p^{\alpha_1-(\sigma-\alpha_1-1)} = p^{2\alpha_1-\sigma+1}$, $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha_2-x}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\sigma-\alpha_2+x}} = \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha_1}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\sigma-\alpha_1}}$ 型的子群的个数是 $p^{\alpha_1-(\sigma-\alpha_1)} + p^{\alpha_1-(\sigma-\alpha_1)-1} = p^{2\alpha_1-\sigma} + p^{2\alpha_1-\sigma-1}$, x 再增大, 就化为与 (4) 式类似的情形, 易知结论成立。

定理 1 证毕。

引理 1 $G = \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha_1}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha_2}} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha_n}}$ (各符号遵照前述约定) 中的 $p^\beta (1 \leq \beta \leq \alpha_1)$ 阶元的个数是:

$$(5') \quad p^{n\beta} - p^{n(\beta-1)}$$

p^β 阶循环子群的个数是:

$$(5) \quad \sum_{i=1}^n p^{(n-1)\beta+1-j}$$

Theory attracts practice as the magnet attracts iron.

—Gauss

至于, $x_j, j = 1, \dots, n$ 不一定都比 α_1 小时的情形, 我们也可以按照这种方法来做, 剩下的只是繁琐的计算而已, 我们这里就不再细述了。(所有类型的子群的结构中的直和项不会超过 n)

到此为止, 我们也经可以说是解决了有限交换群的子群个数的问题了。我们最后再回过头来看看 (**) 式, 我们现在只知道它在 $p^x, x \in \mathbb{N}$ 处的定义, 对于一般的整数的情形, 我们马上就可以看到它的定义, 它有着所谓的“可乘性”。对于任给的一个有限交换群 \mathbb{G} , 设它阶数为 $n = \prod_{i=1}^r p_i^{\alpha_i}$, 对其进行 Sylow 子群分解,

$$\mathbb{G} = \mathbb{G}_{p_1} \oplus \mathbb{G}_{p_2} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{G}_{p_r}$$

对于每个 Sylow 子群, 我们已经知道, 它的各阶元素的个数, 设 $m = \prod_{i=1}^r p_i^{\beta_i}, \beta_i \leq \alpha_i$, 我们立即得到, \mathbb{G} 中的 m 阶元的个数是

$$H_{\mathbb{G}}(m) = \prod_{i=1}^r H_{\mathbb{G}_{p_i}}(p_i^{\beta_i}) = \prod_{i=1}^r H_{\mathbb{G}}(p_i^{\beta_i})$$

参考文献

- [1] 冯克勤, 李尚志, 查建国, 近世代数引论, 中国科学技术大学出版社, 1998 年

~~~~~

## 阿贝尔奖及其得主简介

阿贝尔奖是以已故的挪威数学家 N.H.Abel 的姓氏命名的。

N.H.Abel 是 19 世纪数学一道闪亮的光辉, 他不幸死于肺结核, 年仅 26 岁。他以证明一般五次方程不能被根式解 (这个工作导致现代的群论这个领域) 以及椭圆函数的工作而享有盛名。时至今日, 许多重要的数学概念以他的名字命名: Abel 群、Abel 簇、Abel 积分、Abel 函数。

为了纪念 N.H.Abel 对数学的杰出贡献, 为了弥补诺贝尔奖中未设数学奖的不足, 为了促进数学的发展, 挪威政府于 2001 年 9 月宣布, 决定设立相当于 4800 万马克的基金, 自 2003 年开始, 每年一度对为数学做出杰出贡献的数学家颁发阿贝尔奖 (Abel Prize), 奖金为 600 万挪威克朗 (现约为 80 万美元)。

自 2003 年开始, 阿贝尔奖的得主分别是:

2003 年度, 获奖者是法国数学家 J.P.Serre, 获奖的评语是: “由于他在赋予数学许多分支以现代的形式中起着关键的作用, 这些分支包括拓扑学、代数几何学和数论。”

2004 年度, 获奖者是英国数学家 M.F.Atiyah 和美国数学家 I.M.Singer. 获奖的评语是: “他们发现并证明了指标定理, 这一定理贯通了拓扑学、几何、分析学之间的联系, 并在数学与理论物理之间架起了一座桥梁。指标定理是 20 世纪数学中的最重要的成就之一。”

2005 年度, 获奖者是美国数学家 P.D.Lax. 获奖的评语是: “他对偏微分方程及其计算理论上和应用上都做出了开创性的贡献。”

2006 年度, 获奖者是 L.Carleson. 获奖的评语是: “他的工作彻底地改变了我们对分析的认识。不仅是他证明了极其困难的定理, 更重要的是他在证明时引入的方法与定理本身同样重要。独特的几何直觉以及惊人的对各分支复杂证明的控制是他的独特的风格。”

XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX

The moving power of mathematical invention is not reasoning but imagination.

— Augustus De Morgan

主编： 中国科学技术大学 2002 级数学系  
编委： 修大成 雷 涛 张 智 王 可  
审稿： 金天灵 张鹏飞 孙 俊 王麒麟  
设计： 张翔雄 胡雪莹 刘 欣  
封面： 克莱因瓶和墨比乌斯带