# Poincaré polynomial of a class of signed complete graphic arrangements

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#### Abstract.

We compute the Poincaré polynomial of hyperplane arrangements associated with a class of signed complete graphs. We also make a factorization of the Poincaré polynomial over the integers.

### §1. Introduction

Let **V** be an n-dimensional vector space over a field  $\mathbb{K}$ . Let S be the symmetric algebra over the dual space  $\mathbf{V}^* := \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{K}}(\mathbf{V}, \mathbb{K})$ . If  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  is a basis of  $\mathbf{V}^*$ , then there are identifications  $S = \mathbb{K}[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  and  $\mathbf{V} = \mathbb{K}^n$ . A hyperplane H in  $\mathbb{K}^n$  is by definition the zero set of a degree one polynomial  $\alpha_H$  in the variables  $x_1, \cdots, x_n$ . An arrangement of hyperplanes  $\mathcal{A}$  in  $\mathbb{K}^n$  is a finite collection of hyperplanes.

Let L(A) be the collection of all non-empty intersections of hyperplanes from A, which is a partial ordered set with the order defined by the inverse inclusion. The rank of an element  $X \in L(A)$  is defined by  $r(X) = \operatorname{codim}(X)$ . Let  $\mu$  be the Möbius function of L(A), and denote  $\mu(X) = \mu(V, X)$ . The Poincaré polynomial of L is defined by  $\pi(L,t) = \sum_{X \in L} \mu(X)(-t)^{r(X)}$ .

If  $\mathbb{K}$  is the field  $\mathbb{C}$  of complex numbers, the complement M of  $\mathcal{A}$  is of interest from topological point of view. One of the central topics in studying hyperplane arrangements is to describe the topology of M by

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the data from L(A). For example, it is well known that the cohomology  $H^*(M;\mathbb{C})$  of M is isomorphic to the Orlik-Solomon algebra  $\mathfrak{G}(A)$  [7] and the Poincaré polynomial of  $\mathfrak{G}(A)$  equals to  $\pi(L,t)$ .

Graphic arrangements have been studied by a number of authors [5, 4, 3, 12], since they are related to the arrangements associated with classical groups [1, 2, 9, 10]. We study a special class of arrangements associated with signed complete graphs [13] and prove the following factorization formula.

**Theorem 1.** If a signed complete graph  $\Sigma_n$  with n vertices is switching equivalent to the signed complete graph  $\Sigma_n^{(3)}$  with negative part a triangle, the Poincaré polynomial of the corresponding arrangement  $\mathcal{A}(\Sigma_n)$  is

(1) 
$$\pi(\mathcal{A}(\Sigma_n),t) = (t+1)(2t+1)\cdots[(n-3)t+1]Q(t),$$

where

$$Q(t) := [3(n-3)(n-2) + 1]t^3 + (n^2 - 6)t^2 + (2n - 3)t + 1.$$

#### §2. Preliminaries

#### 2.1. Intersection lattice

An arrangement  $\mathcal{A}$  is called central if the intersection of all the hyperplanes in  $\mathcal{A}$  is not empty. If  $\mathcal{A}$  is central,  $L = L(\mathcal{A})$  is a geometric lattice. The minimal element of L is denoted by  $\hat{0}$  and the maximal element is denoted by  $\hat{1}$ .

The meet of  $X,Y \in L$  is defined by  $X \wedge Y = \cap \{Z \in L \mid Z \supseteq X \cup Y\}$ , and if  $X \cap Y \neq \emptyset$ , their join is defined by  $X \vee Y = X \cap Y$ . A pair  $(X,Y) \in L \times L$  is called a modular pair if for all  $Z \leq Y$  one has  $Z \vee (X \wedge Y) = (Z \vee X) \wedge Y$ . A pair  $(X,Y) \in L \times L$  is modular if and only if  $r(X) + r(Y) = r(X \vee Y) + r(X \wedge Y)$ . An element X is called a modular element if it forms a modular pair with each  $Y \in L$ .

An element in a geometric lattice L is called an atom if it covers the minimal element of L. If L is the intersection lattice of an arrangement, each hyperplane is an atom of L. Let A(L) be the collection of the atoms in L. For any  $X \in L$ , let  $A(L)_X = \{Y \in A(L) \mid Y \leq X\}$ .

Lemma 2. For  $X, Y \in L$ ,

$$X \wedge Y = \hat{0} \iff A(L)_X \cap A(L)_Y = \emptyset.$$

Proof. Obviously, the following formula holds.

$$A(L)_X \cap A(L)_Y = A(L)_{X \wedge Y}.$$

The lemma follows from this formula.

## 2.2. Stanley Theorem

Let L be a geometric lattice,  $\mathfrak{C}(L)$  the Orlik-Solomon algebra generated by the atoms of L. By [7],  $\mathfrak{C}(L(\mathcal{A}))$  is the same as  $\mathfrak{C}(\mathcal{A})$  for a hyperplane arrangement  $\mathcal{A}$ . Note that, for  $Y \in L$ ,  $L_Y = \{Z \in L \mid Z \leq Y\}$  is also a geometric lattice.

Stanley Theorem [8, 11]. Let L be a geometric lattice, and  $X \in L$  be a modular element. Then

(2) 
$$\pi(\mathcal{C}(L),t) = \pi(\mathcal{C}(L_X),t) \sum_{Z \in L, Z \wedge X = \hat{0}} \mu(Z)(-t)^{r(Z)},$$

where  $\mu$  is the Möbius function of L.

## 2.3. Signed complete graph

A signed complete graph  $\Sigma_n = (K_n, \sigma)$  consists of an ordinary complete graph  $K_n$  with n vertices, and an arc labelling mapping  $\sigma : E \longrightarrow \{\pm\}$ , where E is the edge set of  $K_n$ . Let  $E_+ = \sigma^{-1}(+)$  and  $E_- = \sigma^{-1}(-)$  denote the sets of the positive and negative edges respectively. An edge  $\{ij\} \in E_+$  is denoted by  $\{ij\}^+$  and is pictured as a line segment connecting the vertices i and j. An edge  $\{ij\} \in E_-$  is denoted by  $\{ij\}^-$  and is pictured as a dashed line segment connecting the vertices i and j. For general study of singed graphs we refer the reader to Zaslavsky [13].

Given a signed complete graph  $\Sigma_n = (K_n, \sigma)$ , define an arrangement  $\mathcal{A}(\Sigma_n)$  in  $\mathbb{K}^n$  as follows:

$$\{x_i-x_j=0\}\in \mathcal{A}(\Sigma_n) ext{ if } \{ij\}\in E_+$$
 and

$${x_i + x_j = 0} \in \mathcal{A}(\Sigma_n) \text{ if } {ij} \in E_-$$

# 2.4. Switching equivalence

For a signed complete graph  $\Sigma_n = (K_n, \sigma)$ , we consider the following operations on  $\Sigma_n$ .

- 1) A permutation of the labels on the vertices of  $\Sigma_n$ ;
- 2) Switching a vertex  $i_0 \in [n] = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  is to switch the sign of the edge  $\{i_0i\}$  for each  $i \in N_{i_0} := \{i \in [n] \mid \{i_0i\} \in E\}$ , the neighborhood of  $i_0$ . We call this the vertex switching, or, switching  $i_0$ .

The first operation is essentially a permutation on the coordinates, which allows one to consider unlabeled graphs. For a vertex v, switching v corresponds to switching the sign of the coordinate  $x_v$ . Obviously,

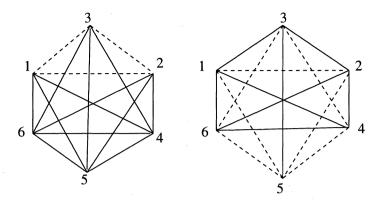


Fig. 1

the vertex switching operations form a group, which acts on the set of signed graphs with fixed number of vertices. Since a coordinate transformation on the vector space  ${\bf V}$  does not affect the intersection lattice of an arrangement, the first two operations preserve the modular elements.

Two signed graphs  $\Sigma'_n$  and  $\Sigma''_n$  are switching equivalent if there exists a series of vertex switchings such that  $\Sigma'_n$  can be transformed into  $\Sigma''_n$  up to a permutation of the labels on the vertices. In this case, we also say that the corresponding arrangements are switching equivalent. For example, the two signed complete graphs with 6 vertices in figure 1 are switching equivalent by first switching the vertex 5, then the vertex 3 of the graph on the right hand side, one gets the graph on the left hand side.

#### §3. Modular elements

Signed complete graphs with at most 6 vertices were classified under the switching equivalence in [6]. One class of signed complete graphs with n vertices is denoted by  $\Sigma_n^{(3)}$  in which the negative part is a triangle. We denote the vertices of the triangle by 1,2,3 and label the other vertices by 4, ..., n. The arrangement associated with  $\Sigma_n^{(3)}$  consists of the following hyperplanes.

$$\begin{array}{llll} H_{12}: & x_1+x_2=0, & H_{13}: & x_1+x_3=0, & H_{23}: & x_2+x_3=0, \\ H_{1m}: & x_1-x_m=0, & H_{2m}: & x_2-x_m=0, & 4\leq m\leq n, \\ H_{ij}: & x_i-x_j=0, & 3\leq i< j\leq n. \end{array}$$

For the case of n = 6 see figure 1.

To simplify notation, in the following we set  $L = L(\mathcal{A}(\Sigma_n^{(3)}))$ .

**Lemma 3.** The element  $X = \bigcap_{3 \le i < j \le n} H_{ij} = \{x \in \mathbb{K}^n \mid x_3 = \cdots = x_n\} \in L$  is modular.

*Proof.* It is enough to prove that for each  $Y \in L$  with  $X \wedge Y = \hat{0}$ , (X,Y) is modular pair. This is equivalent to  $r(X) + r(Y) = r(X \vee Y)$  since  $r(X \wedge Y) = r(\hat{0}) = 0$ . By lemma 2 and the definition of rank function, it is sufficient to prove that for each  $Y \in L$  with  $A(L)_X \cap A(L)_Y = \emptyset$ , the equation

$$\dim Y - \dim(X \cap Y) = n - 3$$

holds.

Let

$$A_1 = \{H_{1j} \mid j = 4, \dots n\}, A_2 = \{H_{2j} \mid j = 4, \dots n\}, A_3 = \{H_{12}, H_{13}, H_{23}\}.$$

Then

$$A(L)_X \cap A(L)_Y = \emptyset \implies A(L)_Y \subset A_1 \sqcup A_2 \sqcup A_3$$

with

$$|A(L)_Y \cap A_m| \le 1, m = 1, 2, \quad |A(L)_Y \cap A_3| \le 3.$$

Hence, there are 16 possibilities for  $(|A(L)_Y \cap A_1|, |A(L)_Y \cap A_2|, |A(L)_Y \cap A_3|)$ :

$$(4) \qquad \begin{array}{c} (0,0,0) & (0,1,0) & (1,0,0) & (0,0,1) \\ (1,1,0) & (0,1,1) & (1,0,1) & (0,0,2) \\ (1,1,1) & (0,1,2) & (1,0,2) & (0,0,3) \\ (1,1,2) & (0,1,3) & (1,0,3) & (1,1,3) \end{array}$$

The case (0,0,0) can not appear. If  $(|A(L)_Y \cap A_1|, |A(L)_Y \cap A_2|, |A(L)_Y \cap A_3|) = (0,0,1)$ , A(Y) consists of one of the hyperplanes from  $A_3$ . Then dim Y = n - 1, dim $(X \cap Y) = 2$ , and equation (3) holds.

If  $(|A(L)_Y \cap A_1|, |A(L)_Y \cap A_2|, |A(L)_Y \cap A_3|) = (0, 0, 2), A(Y)$  consists of two of the hyperplanes from  $A_3$ . Then dim Y = n - 2, dim $(X \cap Y) = 1$ , and equation (3) holds.

If  $(|A(L)_Y \cap A_1|, |A(L)_Y \cap A_2|, |A(L)_Y \cap A_3|) = (0, 0, 3), A(Y) = A_3$ . Then dim Y = n - 3, dim $(X \cap Y) = 0$ , and equation (3) holds. Similar treatment will prove the cases (0, 1, 0), (1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 1), (1, 0, 1) and (1, 1, 0).

For the case (0, 1, 2), if  $A(Y) \cap A_3 = \{H_{12}, H_{13}\}$  and  $A(Y) \cap A_2 = \{H_{2j}\}$  for some  $j \geq 4$ , then Y is the intersection of  $x_1 + x_2 = 0, x_1 + 1$ 

 $x_3=0$ , and  $x_2-x_j=0$ . This implies that Y is contained in the hyperplane  $H_{3j}: x_3-x_j=0$ , which is impossible since  $X\subset H_{3j}$ . If  $A(Y)\cap A_3=\{H_{12},H_{23}\}$ , and  $A(Y)\cap A_2=\{H_{2j}\}$  for some  $j\geq 4$ , then dim Y=n-3, dim $(X\cap Y)=0$ , and equation (3) holds. Similar treatment works for  $A(Y)\cap A_3=\{H_{13},H_{23}\}$ .

One can treat the case (1,0,2) in a similar way.

The cases (0,1,3) and (1,0,3) do not appear, since otherwise there would be  $Y \subset H_{3k}$  for some k > 3.

If  $(|A(L)_Y \cap A_1|, |A(L)_Y \cap A_2|, |A(L)_Y \cap A_3|) = (1, 1, 1), A(Y)$  consists of  $H_{1k}: x_1 - x_k = 0, H_{2j}: x_2 - x_j = 0$  and one of the hyperplanes from  $A_3$ . It is easy to see that  $\dim Y = n - 3$  and  $\dim(X \cap Y) = 0$ .

Let  $(|A(L)_Y \cap A_1|, |A(L)_Y \cap A_2|, |A(L)_Y \cap A_3|) = (1, 1, 2)$ , there are four cases for A(Y):

- 1)  $A(Y) = \{H_{1k}, H_{2j}, H_{12}, H_{13}\}$  which implies that  $Y \subset H_{3j}$ , a contradiction;
- 2)  $A(Y) = \{H_{1k}, H_{2j}, H_{12}, H_{23}\}$  which implies that  $Y \subset H_{3k}$ , a contradiction;
- 3)  $A(Y) = \{H_{1k}, H_{2j}, H_{13}, H_{23}\}$  with  $k \neq j$  which implies that  $Y \subset H_{kj}$ , a contradiction;
- 4)  $A(Y) = \{H_{1k}, H_{2k}, H_{13}, H_{23}\}$  with dim  $Y = n 3, X \cap Y = 0$ , hence equation (3) holds.

The case  $(|A(L)_Y \cap A_1|, |A(L)_Y \cap A_2|, |A(L)_Y \cap A_3|) = (1, 1, 3)$  does not appear since otherwise we would have  $Y \subset H_{ik}$ .

Let

$$\mathcal{A}_0 = \emptyset$$
,  $\mathcal{A}_1 = \{H_{34}\}$ ,  $\mathcal{A}_2 = \{H_{ij} \mid 3 \le i < j \le 5\}$ ,  
...,  $\mathcal{A}_{n-3} = \{H_{ij} \mid 3 \le i < j \le n\}$ .

and

$$X_k = \bigcap_{H \in \mathcal{A}_k} H, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots n - 3.$$

Note that  $X_0 = \hat{0}$  and  $X_{n-3} = X$ . By [4], we have the following

Lemma 4. There is a chain of modular elements

$$\hat{0} < X_1 < X_2 < \dots < X_{n-4} < X_{n-3} = X.$$

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For X defined in lemma 3, it follows from lemma 4 that  $L_X = L(\mathcal{A}(\Sigma_n^{(3)}))_X$  is a modular lattice. By [4], we have

(5) 
$$\pi(\mathcal{S}(L_X),t) = (t+1)(2t+1)\cdots((n-3)t+1).$$

### §4. Proof of the main result.

It remains to calculate

$$Q = \sum_{Z \in L, Z \wedge X = \hat{0}} \mu(Z) (-t)^{r(Z)}.$$

Note that in our case X is modular with r(X)=n-3. For  $Z\in L, Z\wedge X=\hat{0}$ , we have

$$n \ge r(X \lor Z) = r(X \lor Z) + r(X \land Z) = r(X) + r(Z)$$
$$= n - 3 + r(Z) \Rightarrow r(Z) \le 3.$$

Hence

(6) 
$$Q = \alpha(-t)^3 + \beta t^2 + \gamma(-t) + 1,$$

where

$$\alpha = \sum_{\substack{Z \in L, Z \wedge X = \hat{0} \\ r(Z) = 3}} \mu(Z), \quad \beta = \sum_{\substack{Z \in L, Z \wedge X = \hat{0} \\ r(Z) = 2}} \mu(Z), \quad \gamma = \sum_{\substack{Z \in L, Z \wedge X = \hat{0} \\ r(Z) = 1}} \mu(Z).$$

By lemma 2,

(7) 
$$\gamma = -|A(L) \setminus A(L)_X| = -\left[\binom{n}{2} - \binom{n-2}{2}\right] = -(2n-3).$$

Next we compute  $\beta$ . Since  $A(L)_Z \cap A(L)_X = \emptyset$  and r(Z) = 2, for each  $k = 1, 2, A(L)_Z$  may contain  $H_{ki}$  or  $H_{kj}$   $(i \neq j)$ , but does not contain both at the same time for, otherwise, there would be  $H_{ki} \cap H_{kj} \supset X$ . Hence,  $A(L)_Z$  contains two hyperplanes, and  $\mu(Z) = 1$ .

There are three cases to be considered.

- 1) one of the two hyperplanes in  $A(L)_Z$  comes from  $\{H_{1i} \mid i = 4, ..., n\}$ , and the other one comes from  $\{H_{2i} \mid i = 4, ..., n\}$ . Hence there are as many as  $(n-3)^2$  possibilities;
- 2) the two hyperplanes in  $A(L)_Z$  comes from  $H_{12}, H_{23}, H_{13}$ , there are 3 possibilities;
- 3) one of the two hyperplanes in  $A(L)_Z$  comes from  $\{H_{ki} \mid k = 1, 2, i = 4, ..., n\}$  and the other one comes from  $A_3$ . There are  $3 \times 2(n-3)$  possibilities.

Hence

(8) 
$$\beta = (n-3)^2 + 3 + 6(n-3) = n^2 - 6.$$

Now we compute  $\alpha$ . The point is that in some cases,  $A(L)_Z$  contains more atoms than the the minimal possible.

Since r(Z)=3,  $(|A(L)_Z\cap A_1|,|A(L)_Z\cap A_2|,|A(L)_Z\cap A_3|)$  has only the following possibilities.

$$(0,0,3),(0,1,2),(1,0,2),(1,1,1),(1,1,2),(1,0,3),(0,1,3),(1,1,3).$$

The cases (1,0,3), (0,1,3), (1,1,3) are excluded by the condition  $Z \wedge X = \hat{0}$ .

For the case (0,0,3),  $Z=H_{12}\cap H_{13}\cap H_{23}$  and  $\mu(Z)=-1$ , This contributes -1 to  $\alpha$ .

In case (0,1,2), for  $4 \le k \le n$ , we have

$$Z_1^{(k)} = H_{12} \cap H_{23} \cap H_{2k}, \ Z_2^{(k)} = H_{12} \cap H_{13} \cap H_{2k}, \ Z_3^{(k)} = H_{13} \cap H_{23} \cap H_{2k}.$$

Since  $Z_2^{(k)} \subset H_{3k}$ ,  $Z_2^{(k)}$  should be excluded. It is obvious that

$$A(L)_{Z_1^{(k)}} = \{H_{12}, H_{23}, H_{2k}\}, \quad A(L)_{Z_2^{(k)}} = \{H_{13}, H_{23}, H_{1k}, H_{2k}\}.$$

So  $Z_3^{(k)}$  should belong to the case (1,1,2), which will be considered later. Since  $\mu(Z_1^{(k)}) = -1$ , this case contributes -(n-3) to  $\alpha$ .

The case (1,0,2) is similar to the case (0,1,2). For  $4 \le k \le n$ , we have

$$\tilde{Z}_1^{(k)} = H_{12} \cap H_{23} \cap H_{1k}, \ \ \tilde{Z}_2^{(k)} = H_{12} \cap H_{13} \cap H_{1k}, \ \ \tilde{Z}_3^{(k)} = H_{13} \cap H_{23} \cap H_{1k}.$$

Since  $\tilde{Z}_1^{(k)} \subset H_{3k}$ ,  $\tilde{Z}_1^{(k)}$  should be excluded. It is obvious that  $\tilde{Z}_3^{(k)} = Z_3^{(k)}$ . Since  $\mu(\tilde{Z}_2^{(k)}) = -1$ . This case contributes -(n-3) to  $\alpha$ . In case (1,1,1), there are  $3(n-3)^2$  possibilities all together. Since

In case (1,1,1), there are  $3(n-3)^2$  possibilities all together. Since  $H_{13} \cap H_{1k} \cap H_{2k} = H_{23} \cap H_{1k} \cap H_{2k} = Z_3^{(k)}$  which should be in the case (1,1,2), this case contributes  $-(3(n-3)^2-2(n-3))$  to  $\alpha$ .

We consider the case (1,1,2). For  $4 \le j, k \le n$ , we have

$$Z_4^{(jk)} = H_{12} \cap H_{13} \cap H_{1j} \cap H_{2k}, \quad Z_5^{(jk)} = H_{12} \cap H_{23} \cap H_{1j} \cap H_{2k},$$
$$Z_6^{(jk)} = H_{13} \cap H_{23} \cap H_{1j} \cap H_{2k}.$$

It is obvious that  $Z_4^{(jk)} \subset H_{3k}$ ,  $Z_5^{(jk)} \subset H_{3j}$ , and for  $j \neq k$ ,  $Z_6^{(jk)} \subset H_{jk}$ , which are excluded by the condition  $Z \wedge X = \hat{0}$ . For j = k, we have  $Z_6^{(jk)} = Z_6^{(kk)} = Z_3^{(k)}$ , and  $\mu(Z_3^{(k)}) = -3$ . Hence, this case contributes -3(n-3) to  $\alpha$ .

Hence

(9) 
$$\alpha = -(1+3(n-2)(n-3)).$$

Combine formulae (2), (7), (8), and (9), we obtain the formula (1) in Theorem 1.

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