

SYMMETRIES AND THE CALCULATIONS OF DEGREE**

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Abstract

This paper considers the calculations of Leray-Schauder degree of equivariant compact operators under any compact Lie group actions. The main results include two parts. One is a local Leray-Schauder index formula on regular zero orbits. The other is a generalized Borsuk theorem.

§0. Introduction

In this paper we consider the calculations of Leray-Schauder degree of equivariant compact operators under any compact Lie group actions. The main results include two parts. One is a local Leray-Schauder index formula on regular zero orbits. The other is a generalized Borsuk theorem.

The zero points of equivariant operators, which appear as orbits here, are generally not isolated. Hence, some useful and efficient results about the local index of degree cannot be used again. Naturally the locally calculating problem of the index for zero orbits should be investigated. We study this problem in § 1, and give formula of the local index for regular zero orbits, which is related to the topology (Euler characteristic) of the orbits.

On the other hand, it is well known that the classical Borsuk-Ulam theorem has played an important role for dealing with symmetric nonlinear problems. Based on this theorem Lusternik-Schnirelman category theory and the related notion of genus were founded, which have been used to treat even functionals and to obtain many stationary points for the variational problems. In finite dimensional case the Borsuk-Ulam theorem states that if Ω is a symmetric bounded open neighbourhood of the origin in R^n , and f is an odd continuous map of $\partial\Omega$ into R^k , $k < n$, then f must vanish somewhere. This is an immediate corollary of the following Borsuk's theorem: If Ω is as above and f is a continuous odd map of $\partial\Omega$ into $R^n \setminus \{\theta\}$, then $\deg(f, \Omega, \theta)$

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is odd. This shows that the appearance of symmetry can provide some quantitative information for the calculation of degree.

In recent years, much work was devoted to the generalizations of the above theorems. In [1] and [8] Benci, Fadell and Rabinowitz, to develop an S^1 index theory, gave an S^1 -version of the Borsuk-Ulam theorem. The initial proof of it given in [1] employed some theory in algebraic topology, such as Chern class. Afterwards, in [3] Nirenberg gave an elementary analytic proof for a slightly generalized form by means of transversality lemma. In addition, there is a lot of work concerned with the generalization of the Borsuk theorem. For instance, in [11] for finite groups torus groups, in [15] for Z_p groups (p prime integer); and when $\text{Fix}_G \neq \{\theta\}$, in [13] [9] for S^1 group, in [7] for finite groups or torus groups. Other work is referred the references of the above papers. However, observing all these researches on the global generalizations of the Borsuk theorem we find that the transformation groups are restricted to the finite groups, S^1 or torus groups which all are commutative groups except finite groups, and that there is no result for other group actions such as $SO(n)$, $O(n)$, S^3 , which should be more complicated and appear more natural in applications than finite groups, S^1 or T^n .

In § 2, we consider the global calculation of Leray-Schauder degree under the action of a compact Lie group, and we obtain a generalization of the Borsuk theorem which we call a generalized Borsuk theorem (cf. § 2 Theorem 2.1). This result divides the degree calculation into two parts. One part is the degree of the map restricted to the fixed point space of the group action, and the other part is a linear combination of Euler characteristics of the orbits. Obviously, the former corresponds to the part on which there is no influence of the group action, and the latter shows clearly how the symmetries influence the global degree. We also discuss some versions of the generalized Borsuk theorem for certain concrete groups. Moreover, we point out that our theorems imply all previous results about Z_2 , S^1 , T^n and finite groups.

This work was motivated by the studies of equivariant Morse theory for isolated critical orbits in [19] by means of which some slightly further results about degree calculation of equivariant potential operators were obtained in [20].

Throughout this note, the following notations are used. G always denotes a compact Lie group. A G -Hilbert space means that there is an isometric linear representation of G on X . For fixed x , $G(x) = \{gx | g \in G\}$ is called a G -orbit, which is a compact submanifold of X . The normal bundle of $G(x)$ in X is denoted by $\nu G(x)$. The closed subgroup of G defined by $G_x = \{g \in G | gx = x\}$ is called the isotropy group of x . If H is a closed subgroup of G , G/H denotes the left coset space of H in G . $\text{Fix}_G = \{x \in X | gx = x, \forall g \in G\}$ is called fixed point space. The concepts of tube and slice are often used. We refer these concepts and other terminology on the compact

ie transformation groups to [2].

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§1. Local Result—An Index Formula of Regular Zero Orbits

Let X be a Banach space and let $f = I + K: X \rightarrow X$ be continuous, where K is a compact operator. Assume that x_0 is an isolated zero point of f , then the index of f with respect to x_0 , $\text{ind}(f, x_0)$, is well defined. And from the Leray-Schauder index formula (cf. [4]), if $(-1) \notin \sigma(DK(x_0))$, then

$$\text{ind}(f, x_0) = (-1)^{\rho(DK(x_0))}, \quad (1.1)$$

where $\rho(DK(x_0))$ equals to the sum of the algebraic multiplicities of all eigenvalues $DK(x_0)$ which are less than -1 .

The zero points of a G -equivariant operator are generally not isolated. Therefore we should consider the index of isolated zero orbits.

Let X be a Hilbert space* and $T(G)$ be a smooth isometric linear representation of a compact Lie group G . When X' is also a G -space on which the representation of G is $T'(G)$, $f \in \mathcal{O}(X, X')$ is called G -equivariant if

$$f(T_g x) = T'_g f(x), \quad \forall g \in G, x \in X. \quad (1.2)$$

Set

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{O}_G^k(X, X) &= \{f \in \mathcal{O}^k(X, X) \mid f \text{ is } G\text{-equivariant}\}, \\ F_G(X, X) &= \{f \in \mathcal{O}_G^2(X, X) \mid f - I \text{ is a compact operator}\}, \\ R_G(X, X) &= \{f \in F_G(X, X) \mid \text{the zero orbits of } f \text{ all are regular}\}. \end{aligned} \quad (1.3)$$

Now, assume $f \in \mathcal{O}_G(X, X)$ and that N is an isolated zero orbit of f . Assume that $f - I$ is compact. Suppose that O is an isolated neighbourhood of N , i. e. O does not contain other zero points of f except N . The index of f with respect to N is defined as follows:

$$\text{ind}(f, N) = \deg(f, O, \theta). \quad (1.4)$$

It is easy to see (1.4) is independent of the choice of O .

Definition 1.1. Suppose that $f \in \mathcal{O}_G^1(X, X)$ and $N = G(x_0)$ is a zero orbit of f . N is called a regular zero orbit of f if

$$Df(x_0): X/T_{x_0}N \rightarrow \text{Ran } Df(x_0) \quad (1.5)$$

is an isomorphism.

* Our results are also true for Banach space X , the proof is referred to [22].

One can easily prove that the regular zero orbits are isolated. Below, we shall calculate the index of a regular zero orbit. Let N be a regular zero orbit of f with orbit type (H) . By orbit type (H) we mean $(H) = \{K \mid K \text{ is a subgroup of } G, K \text{ and } H \text{ are conjugate}\}$. And we say N has orbit type (H) if for $x \in N$, $(x_x) = (H)$, (cf. [2]). Moreover, if we denote the left coset space of H in G by G/H , then there is a diffeomorphism between N and G/H . Our main conclusion is as follows.

Theorem 1.1. *Let $f \in F_G(X, X)$. Suppose that N is a regular zero orbit of f with orbit type (H) , then there is a nonnegative integer ρ_0 such that*

$$\text{ind}(f, N) = (-1)^{\rho_0} \chi(N) = (-1)^{\rho_0} \chi(G/H), \quad (1.6)$$

where $\chi(N)$ is the Euler characteristic of N .

By means of G -equivariant tubular neighbourhood theorem (cf. [2]), denoting the tangent bundle of N by TN and the normal bundle by νN , then there is a orthogonal decomposition at each $x \in N$:

$$X = T_x N \oplus \nu_x N, \quad (1.7)$$

$\pi: \nu N \rightarrow N$ is G -equivariant projection. Moreover, there is a diffeomorphism \hat{i} :

$$\hat{i}: \nu N(\varepsilon) \rightarrow O_\varepsilon(N),$$

$$\hat{i}(x, v) = x + v, \quad x \in N, \quad v \in \pi^{-1}(x),$$

where

$$\nu V(\varepsilon) = \{(x, v) \mid \|v\| < \varepsilon\},$$

$$O_\varepsilon(N) = \{x \mid \text{dist}(x, N) < \varepsilon\}.$$

For any $x_0 \in N$, $S_{x_0} = \nu_{x_0} N(\varepsilon) = \{(x_0, v) \mid \|v\| < \varepsilon\}$ is a slice at x_0 and

$$\nu N(\varepsilon) = G(S_{x_0})$$

is a G -invariant tubular neighbourhood.

In the following we shall consider the problem on this neighbourhood.

We always write $T_x x = gx$ for the simplicity if there is no obscurity.

Lemma 1.1. *For any $g \in G$, $x \in N$ we always have*

$$Df(gx) = gDf(x)g^{-1}. \quad (1.8)$$

Moreover, $g: \text{Ker } Df(x) \rightarrow \text{Ker } Df(gx)$ and $g: \text{Ran } Df(x) \rightarrow \text{Ran } Df(gx)$ are isomorphisms.

Proof Differentiate the equality $f(gx) = gf(x)$, the result follows immediately.

Now, if N is a regular zero orbit, we fix a point $x_0 \in N$. Without loss of generality assume $G_{x_0} = H$ and write $Df(x_0) = A \in \mathcal{L}(X, X)$, where $A = I + K$ and K is a linear compact operator. Therefore, there is an orthogonal decomposition of X :

$$X = \text{Ker } A \oplus Z_1 = Z_2 \oplus \text{Ran } A, \quad (1.9)$$

where $Z_1 = \nu_{x_0} N$, $\dim Z_2 = \dim \text{Ker } A = \dim N < +\infty$.

From (1.8) and $hx_0 = x_0 \forall h \in H$, we have $Df(x_0)h = Df(hx_0)h = hDf(x_0)$. A then we have

Lemma 1.2. *$T(H)$ and A are commutative. Therefore, $\text{Ker } A$, $\text{Ran } A$, Z_1 and*

in (1.9) all are $T(H)$ -invariant subspaces of X .

Proposition 1.1. Assume that A is given as above. Then for any $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a near compact operator $\Theta \in \mathcal{L}(X, X)$ satisfying the following conditions:

- (i) $\|\Theta\|_{\mathcal{L}(X)} < \varepsilon$;
- (ii) $T(H)$ and Θ are commutative;
- (iii) $[\text{Ker}(I + \Theta)A] \cap [\text{Ran}(I + \Theta)A] = \{\theta\}$.

(1.10)

Its proof is rather technical and we give it in § 3. However, we now use this proposition to complete the proof of Theorem 1.1.

1°. On $\nu N(\varepsilon)$,

$$f(x) = f(\pi(x)) + Df(\pi(x))(x - \pi(x)) + o(\|x - \pi(x)\|) \text{ as } \|x - \pi(x)\| \rightarrow 0.$$

Since N is a regular zero orbit and N is compact, there is $\delta > 0$ independent of $x \in N$ s. t. for $x \in \nu N(\varepsilon)$, $\|Df(\pi(x))(x - \pi(x))\| \geq \delta \|x - \pi(x)\|$. Let $\tilde{f}(x) = Df(\pi(x))(x - \pi(x))$, then for $\varepsilon > 0$ small enough we have

$$\deg(f, \nu N(\varepsilon), \theta) = \deg(\tilde{f}, \nu N(\varepsilon), \theta). \quad (1.11)$$

2°. Let $x_0 \in N$ be the point fixed as above. By Lemma 1.1,

$$Df(\pi(gx)) = Df(g\pi(x)) = gDf(\pi(x))g^{-1},$$

i. e. for $x \in \nu_{x_0}N(\varepsilon)$, $Df(\pi(gx)) = gAg^{-1}$. Define a map $F: N \cong G/H \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(X, X)$ by

$$F(gH) = g(I + \Theta)g^{-1}, \quad (1.12)$$

where Θ is given in Proposition 1.1. From the property (ii) of Θ one can easily check that F is well defined on N . Let $\pi': G \rightarrow G/H$ be the projection of Lie group G onto its homogeneous space G/H ; it is easy to see that $F \circ \pi'(g) = g(I + \Theta)g^{-1}$ is a smooth map from G into $\mathcal{L}(X, X)$, so $F: G/H \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(X, X)$ is also smooth. Now let

$$E(x) = F(\pi(x))\tilde{f}(x) = F(\pi(x)) \circ Df(\pi(x))(x - \pi(x)). \quad (1.3)$$

Note that

$$\begin{aligned} & \sup_{x \in \nu N(\varepsilon)} \|E(x) - \tilde{f}(x)\| \\ & \leq \sup_{x \in \nu N(\varepsilon)} \|F(\pi(x)) - I\| \|Df(\pi(x))(x - \pi(x))\| \\ & \leq \sup_{x \in G, x \in \nu_{x_0}N(\varepsilon)} \|g\Theta g^{-1}\| \|Df(gx)\| \|g(x - \pi(x))\| \leq \varepsilon \|\Theta\| \|A\|. \end{aligned}$$

So if $\|\Theta\|$ is small enough, it suffices to consider $\deg(E, \nu N(\varepsilon), \theta)$. In addition, we declare that for any $x \in \nu N(\varepsilon)$,

$$\text{Ker}[F(\pi(x)) \circ Df(\pi(x))] \cap \text{Ran}[F(\pi(x)) \circ Df(\pi(x))] = \{\theta\}. \quad (1.14)$$

In fact, by the definition of F for $x \in \nu_{x_0}N$,

$$F(\pi(gx)) \circ Df(\pi(gx)) = g(I + \Theta)Ag^{-1}, \quad \forall g \in G.$$

Nevertheless

$$\text{Ker}[g(I + \Theta)Ag^{-1}] = g \text{Ker}[(I + \Theta)A]$$

and

$$\text{Ran}[g(I + \Theta)Ag^{-1}] = g \text{Ran}[(I + \Theta)A].$$

And the (1.14) follows from

$$\begin{aligned}
& g \operatorname{Ker}[(I + \Theta)A] \cap g \operatorname{Ran}[(I + \Theta)A] \\
& = g \{ \operatorname{Ker}[(I + \Theta)A] \cap \operatorname{Ran}[(I + \Theta)A] \} \\
& = \{ \theta \} \text{ (by Proposition. 1.1 (iii))}.
\end{aligned}$$

3°. From (1.14) one can see that

$$P(\pi(x))F(\pi(x))Df(\pi(x))P(\pi(x))$$

is a linear isomorphism of $\nu_{\pi(x)}N$ onto itself, where $P(\pi(x))$ is the orthogonal projection onto the normal space $\nu_{\pi(x)}N$ at $\pi(x)$. Define a homotopy map

$$J: [0, 1] \times \nu N(\varepsilon) \rightarrow X \text{ by}$$

$$J_t(x) = (1-t)E(x) + t(P(\pi(x))E(x) + V(\pi(x))),$$

where V is a smooth vector field on N , i. e. a smooth section of TN . By Sard's lemma we may assume that the zero points of V are nondegenerate, that is, if $V(x) = 0$, $DV(x)$ is a linear isomorphism (cf. [12]). So V has only finite zero points, say $\{x_1, \dots, x_m\}$, $m < +\infty$.

We verify $J_t(x) \neq \theta$ for any $(t, x) \in [0, 1] \times \partial(\nu N(\varepsilon))$, $t=0$ it is true. If

$$(t, x) \in (0, 1] \times \partial(\nu N(\varepsilon)), J(t, x) = \theta,$$

then $P(\pi(x))E(x) = \theta$ and $tP^\perp(\pi(x))E(x) + (1-t)V(\pi(x)) = \theta$, where P^\perp is the projection onto the tangent space $T_{\pi(x)}N$ at $\pi(x)$. But from the above observation, $P(\pi(x))E(x) = \theta$ implies $x = \pi(x) \in N$, this is a contradiction.

Now, $J_1(x) = P(\pi(x))E(x) + V(\pi(x))$, the two terms are orthogonal sum, and the zero set of J_1 is precisely $\{x_1, \dots, x_m\}$. Thus

$$\deg(E, \nu N(\varepsilon), \theta) = \deg(J_1, \nu N(\varepsilon), \theta) = \sum_{j=1}^m \operatorname{ind}(J_1, x_j). \quad (1.15)$$

4°. Take $Z \in X$, it is easily verified that

$$\begin{aligned}
DJ_1(x_j)(Z) &= \tilde{D}(\operatorname{PFDf}(\pi(x_j)) \circ D\pi(x_j)(Z)(x_j - \pi(x_j)) + DV \circ D\pi(x_j)(Z) \\
&\quad + P(\pi(x_j))F(\pi(x_j))Df(\pi(x_j))(Z - D\pi(x_j)Z) \\
&= P(\pi(x_j))F(\pi(x_j))Df(\pi(x_j))P(\pi(x_j))(Z) \\
&\quad + DV(\pi(x_j))P^\perp(\pi(x_j))(Z),
\end{aligned}$$

where \tilde{D} denotes the differentiation along the tangent space of N . And we have used $x_j - \pi(x_j) = 0$ and $D\pi(x_j) = P^\perp(\pi(x_j))$. By (1.14) and the assumption on V , we see that $\{x_1, \dots, x_m\}$ are nondegenerate zero points of J_1 . By (1.1) and (1.15),

$$\operatorname{ind}(f, N) = \sum_{j=1}^m (-1)^e (DJ_1(x_j)). \quad (1.16)$$

By the expression of $DJ_1(x_j)$ we have

$$\rho(DJ_1(x_j)) = \rho(D(PE(x_j))) + \rho(D(V \circ \pi)(x_j)).$$

Let $x_j = g_j x_0$, then

$$\begin{aligned}
D(PE(x_j)) &= P(x_j)F(x_j)Df(x_j)P(x_j) \\
&= g_j P(x_0)(I + \Theta)AP(x_0)g_j^{-1}.
\end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\rho(D(PE)(x_j)) = \rho(P(x_0)(I + \Theta)AP(x_0)).$$

Set $O = P(x_0)(I + \Theta)AP(x_0): \nu_{x_0}N \rightarrow \nu_{x_0}N$, then O is an isomorphism and $O - I$ is compact operator (by Proposition 1.1(i)). Let $\rho(O) = \rho_0(\nu_{x_0}N$ as a closed subspace of X), then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ind}(f, N) &= \sum_{j=1}^m (-1)^{\rho(D(P\mathcal{E})(x_j))} \cdot (-1)^{\rho(D(V \circ \pi)(x_j))} \\ &= (-1)^{\rho_0} \sum_{j=1}^m (-1)^{\rho(DV(x_j))} = (-1)^{\rho_0} \chi(N). \end{aligned}$$

The last equality is due to the Poincaré-Hopf theorem (cf. [12]).

Remark 1.1. For a given group we may use the index formula to give much more information. For example, if $G = T^n = S^1 x \cdots x S^1$ (n times) and N is a nontrivial regular zero orbit of f , then $\text{ind}(f, N) = 0$.

Remark 1.2. Some results related to our work can be found in [14], [18], in which the index for general zero manifolds was discussed. For potential operators we obtained some slightly better results in [20].

Remark 1.3. The result (1.6) might be true for a continuous action $T(G)$. In [6] Dancer obtained a result which implies the zero orbit of a smooth map should be smooth even if the action is not smooth.

§ 2. Global Result-Generalized Borsuk Theorem

We begin to consider the global calculation of degree for equivariant operators, and our main result is the following one which we call generalized Borsuk theorem.

Theorem 2.1 *Let X be a Hilbert space^{*} and $T(G)$ be a smoothly isometric representation of compact Lie group G on X . $\Omega \subset X$ is a G -invariant bounded open set. Denote the orbit types of $T(G)$ in Ω by (G_i) , $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$, where $G_0 = G$. Assume that $f: \Omega \rightarrow X$ is a continuous G -equivariant map and that $f - \text{Id}$ is compact. If $\theta \notin f(\partial\Omega)$, we have*

$$\begin{aligned} \deg(f, \Omega, \theta) &= \deg(f|_{\text{Fix}_G \cap \Omega}, \text{Fix}_G \cap \Omega, \theta) \\ &\quad + \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i \chi(G/G_i), \end{aligned} \tag{2.1}$$

where $\{\alpha_i\}_{i=1}^k$ is a group of integers depending on f .

Remark 2.1. It was proved that the orbit types of $T(G)$ are finite when X is a finitely dimensional Euclidean space (cf. [2]). When X is infinitely dimensional, while there may be an infinite number of isotropy groups G_i (i. e. an infinite number of orbit types) it can be shown that $\chi(G/G_i)$ can only take a finite number of values (cf. [5]).

Before proving it we point out that Theorem 2.1 implies the classical Borsuk

^{*} We have proved this theorem in [22] for X being a Banach space and $T(G)$ being a continuous isometric representation.

theorem (cf. § 0) and a series of previous generalizations to S^1 , T^n and finite groups. For the simplicity, we introduce a nonnegative integer $\nu_{T(G)}(\Omega)$.

Definition 2.1. Let $T(G)$ be an isometric representation of G on X . $\Omega \subset X$ is an invariant set. If for any $x \in \Omega \setminus \text{Fix}_G$, $\chi(G(x)) = 0$, define $\nu_{T(G)}(\Omega) = 0$. Otherwise, define $\nu_{T(G)}(\Omega) =$ the greatest common divisor of $\{\chi(G(x)) \mid x \in \Omega \setminus \text{Fix}_G\}$. $\nu_{T(G)}$ is short for $\nu_{T(G)}(X)$.

Corollary 2.1. Let the assumptions in Theorem 2.1 hold, then

$$\deg(f, \Omega, \theta) = \deg(f|_{\text{Fix}_G \cap \Omega}, \text{Fix}_G \cap \Omega, \theta) + \alpha \cdot \nu_{T(G)}(\Omega). \quad (2.2)$$

In particular, if $\text{Fix}_G = \{\theta\}$ and $\theta \in \Omega$, then

$$\deg(f, \Omega, \theta) = 1 + \alpha \cdot \nu_{T(G)}(\Omega), \quad (2.3)$$

where α is an integer depending on f .

Remark 2.2. In fact, ν is a kind of measure for the uniformity of the topology of orbits. Below we can see (2.2) and (2.3) include all previous work in this field. Take $G = Z_2$ and then $\nu_{T(G)} = 2$. (2.3) is just the famous Borsuk theorem (cf. § 0). Take $G = S^1$ and note that all nontrivial orbits of S^1 action are homeomorphic to S^1 then $\nu_{T(G)} = 0$. And (2.3) is just the S^1 -Borsuk theorem (cf. [1], [8], etc.). Take $G = T$ and similarly $\nu_{T(G)} = 0$ (cf. [11]). Take $G = Z_p$, then $\nu_{T(G)} = p$ provided p is prime. Take G a finite group and denote the order of G by $|G|$, then $\nu_{T(G)} =$ the G. C. D. of all divisors of $|G|$ which are less than $|G|$ (cf. [15], [11], etc.). When $\text{Fix}_G \neq \emptyset$ corresponding to the above various group actions, (2.2) was discussed in [7], [9] [13]. Further references can be found in these papers.

Corollary 2.2. Let the assumptions in Theorem 2.1 hold. In addition, assume that there are only two orbit types $G_0 = G$, $G_1 = \{e\}$. Then

$$\deg(f, \Omega, \theta) = \deg(f|_{\text{Fix}_G}, \text{Fix}_G \cap \Omega, \theta) + \alpha \cdot \chi(G). \quad (2.4)$$

In particular, if $\dim G \geq 1$, then

$$\deg(f, \Omega, \theta) = \deg(f|_{\text{Fix}_G}, \text{Fix}_G \cap \Omega, \theta). \quad (2.5)$$

Example 2.1. Let X be a Hilbert G -space and $\dim G \leq 3$. Assume that the number of connected components of G is 2^m for a certain $m \in \mathbb{N}$. Assume that $\Omega \subset X$ is an invariant set, and that all orbits of the G -action in Ω are orientable. Then $\nu_{T(G)}(\Omega)$ is even.

In fact, since $\dim G \leq 3$ for every nontrivial orbit N $\dim N \leq 3$. If $\dim N = 1$ or 3 by virtue of Poincaré's duality theorem (cf. [10]) $\chi(N) = 0$. If $\dim N = 2$, it follows from Corollary (26.11) in [10] that $\chi(N)$ is even. If $\dim N = 0$, by the assumption N contains 2^t points for a certain $1 \leq t \leq m$, so $\chi(N)$ is even.

Corollary 2.3. Let the assumptions in Theorem 2.1 hold. In addition, assume that G and Ω satisfy the conditions in the above example. If $f|_{\text{Fix}_G} = \text{id}$, then $\deg(f, \Omega, \theta)$ is odd.

Remark 2.3. The orientable condition in Example 2.1 is essential. For

ample, $G = SO(3)$ and $H = O(2)$, then $G/H = P^2$ is nonorientable and $\chi(P^2) = 1$.

Now, a generalized form of the classical Borsuk-Ulam theorem (cf. § 0) can be given as follows.

Theorem 2.2. Let $T(G)$ be a linear representation of compact Lie group G on \mathbb{R}^n . Assume that $R^k \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a $T(G)$ -invariant subspace $k < n$ and that $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a $T(G)$ -invariant bounded open set $\theta \in \Omega$ with $\nu_{T(G)}(\Omega) \neq 1$. If $f: \partial\Omega \rightarrow R^k$ is a $T(G)$ -equivariant continuous map satisfying $f|_{\text{Fix}_G} = \text{id}$, then f must vanish somewhere.

Proof Firstly, we extend f to $\tilde{f}: \Omega \rightarrow R^k \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ with $\tilde{f}|_{\partial\Omega} = f$, \tilde{f} being $T(G)$ -equivariant. Since $\tilde{f}|_{\text{Fix}_G \cap \partial\Omega} = \text{id}$ $\deg(\tilde{f}|_{\text{Fix}_G}, \text{Fix}_G \cap \Omega, \theta) = 1$. If $\theta \notin \tilde{f}(\partial\Omega) = f(\partial\Omega)$ by Corollary 2.1, $\deg(\tilde{f}, \Omega, \theta) \neq 0$. On the other hand, from $k < n$, we may choose $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus R^k$ and $\|\gamma\|$ small s. t. $\deg(\tilde{f}, \Omega, \theta) = \deg(\tilde{f}, \Omega, \gamma) = 0$, a contradiction.

Remark 2.4. Further discussions can be made for $\{\alpha_i\}_{i=1}^k$ in Theorem 2.1. To shorten the paper we do not consider them here.

In order to prove Theorem 2.1 we firstly give a density theorem which shows a kind of weak equivariant transversary property and is a generalization of Sard's lemma (or Sard-Smale's lemma) in the category of equivariant maps. It may be useful in some other situations. Let X be a complete G -Hilbert space with an isometric representation $T(G)$. Let $B \subset X$ be a G -invariant set, define

$$R_G(X, X; B) = \{f \in F_G(X, X) \mid \text{the zero orbits of } f \text{ in } B \text{ are regular}\}.$$

Theorem 2.3. $R_G(X, X)$ is dense in $F_G(X, X)$, where $R_G(X, X) = R_G(X, X; X)$.

Before proving Theorem 2.3, we use it to give the proof of Theorem 2.1.

Lemma 2.1. Let $f \in F_G(X, X)$ and Ω be a bounded G -invariant open set and that $\Omega \cap \text{Fix}_G = \emptyset$. If $\theta \notin f(\partial\Omega)$, then

$$\deg(f, \Omega, \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_i \chi(G/G_i), \quad (2.6)$$

where $\{\beta_i\}$ is a group of integers.

Proof By the homotopy invariance of degree and Theorem 2.3 we may assume $f \in R_G(X, X)$. Then it is easy to see f has only finite zero orbits which all are regular. Since $\Omega \cap \text{Fix}_G = \emptyset$, every zero orbit must be of form G/G_i , $1 \leq i \leq k$. By virtue of Theorem 1.1 the result follows.

Lemma 2.2. Let $f \in F_G(X, X)$. Assume $x_0 \in \text{Fix}_G$ is an isolated zero points of f , then

$$\text{ind}(f, x_0) = \text{ind}(f, x_0) = \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_i \chi(G/G_i) \quad (2.7)$$

where $\{\beta_i\}_{i=1}^k$ is a group of integers.

Proof Let P be the projection onto Fix_G and $Q = I - P$. For $\varepsilon_1 > 0$, $\varepsilon_2 > 0$, set

$$\Delta(\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2) = \{x \in X \mid \|Qx\| \leq \varepsilon_1, \|Px - x_0\| \leq \varepsilon_2\}.$$

Since $f(Px) \in \text{Fix}_G$, x_0 is also an isolated zero point of $f|_{\text{Fix}_G}$ and (2.7) makes sense. Let $h(x) = Qx + f(Px)$ and define

$$\tilde{f}(x) = (1 - \eta(\|Qx\|^2))h(x) + \eta(\|Qx\|^2)f(x), \quad (2.8)$$

where η is a nondecreasing smooth function such that $\eta(t) = 0$ if $0 \leq t \leq \delta_1$, $\eta(t) = 1$ if $\delta_2 \leq t \leq \varepsilon_1$; $0 < \delta_1 < \delta_2 < \varepsilon_1$ are determined in the sequel. Obviously, \tilde{f} is equivariant and $\tilde{f}(x) = f(x)$ if $\|Qx\| \geq \delta_2$. On the other hand, if δ_2 is small enough,

$$\begin{aligned} \|\tilde{f}(x) - f(x)\| &= (1 - \eta(\|Qx\|^2))\|h(x) - f(x)\| \\ &= \|Qx\| + \|Df(Px)\| \cdot \|Qx\| + o(\|Qx\|) \\ &= o(1) \text{ as } \delta_2 \rightarrow 0. \end{aligned}$$

So, if δ_2 is small enough, $\deg(f, \Lambda, \theta) = \deg(\tilde{f}, \Lambda, \theta)$. In $\Lambda(\delta_1, \varepsilon_2)$, $\tilde{f}(x) = h(x)$ and on $\partial(\Lambda(\delta_1, \varepsilon_2))$, $h \neq \theta$. In fact if $x \in \partial(\Lambda(\delta_1, \varepsilon_2))$, $h(x) = Qx + f(Px) = \theta$, the $Qx = \theta$, $f(Px) = \theta$ i. e. $x = Px \Rightarrow x = x_0$, a contradiction. So

$$\begin{aligned} \deg(\tilde{f}, \Lambda(\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2), \theta) \\ = \deg(\tilde{f}, \Lambda(\delta_1, \varepsilon_2), \theta) + \deg(\tilde{f}, \Lambda(\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2) \setminus \Lambda(\delta_1, \varepsilon_2), \theta). \end{aligned} \quad (2.9)$$

Obviously, $\Lambda(\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2) \setminus \Lambda(\delta_1, \varepsilon_2)$ is G -invariant and

$$[\Lambda(\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2) \setminus \Lambda(\delta_1, \varepsilon_2)] \cap \text{Fix}_G = \emptyset.$$

Then it follows from Lemma 2.1 that

$$\deg(\tilde{f}, \Lambda(\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2) \setminus \Lambda(\delta_1, \varepsilon_2), \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_i \chi(G/G_i). \quad (2.10)$$

Since $h(x) = Qx + f(Px)$, we can apply the product formula of degree (cf. [4]) to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \deg(h, \Lambda(\delta_1, \varepsilon_2), \theta) \\ = \deg(h|_{\text{Fix}_G}, \text{Fix}_G \cap \Lambda, \theta) \cdot \deg(h|_{(\text{Fix}_G)^c}, \text{Fix}_G^c \cap \Lambda, \theta) \\ = \deg(f|_{\text{Fix}_G}, \text{Fix}_G \cap \Lambda, \theta) = \text{ind}(f|_{\text{Fix}_G}, x_0). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the result follows immediately.

Proof of Theorem 2.1 We firstly use a smooth map to approximate f , and then use the invariant Haar measure on Lie group G to average the approximated map and obtain a map $\tilde{f} \in F_G(X, X)$. Again using Theorem 2.3 we can assume $\tilde{f} \in R_G(X, X)$. And it has only finite zero orbits which all are regular. Denote the nontrivial zero orbits by N_1, \dots, N_m and the isolated zero points in Fix_G by x_1, \dots, x_l . Therefore, by the homotopy invariance of degree and Theorem 1.1 and Lemma 2.2,

$$\begin{aligned} \deg(f, \Omega, \theta) \\ = \deg(\tilde{f}, \Omega, \theta) = \sum_{j=1}^m \text{ind}(\tilde{f}, N_j) + \sum_{i=1}^l \text{ind}(\tilde{f}, x_i) \\ = \sum_{j=1}^m (-1)^{s_j} \chi(N_j) + \sum_{i=1}^l (\text{ind}(\tilde{f}|_{\text{Fix}_G}, x_i) + \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_i \chi(G/G_i)) \\ = \deg \tilde{f}|_{\text{Fix}_G}, \Omega \cap \text{Fix}_G, \theta + \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i \chi(G/G_i) \end{aligned}$$

$$= \deg(f|_{\text{Fix}_\theta}, \Omega \cap \text{Fix}_G, \theta) + \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i \chi(G/G_i).$$

Now we prove Theorem 2.3. We need the following lemmas.

Lemma 2.3. $F_G(X, X)$ is a closed subspace of $C^2(X, X)$. And then $F_G(X, X)$ is a second category complete metric space.

Lemma 2.4. Let $A = I + K$, K being a compact operator, then there is an $\varepsilon > 0$ such that for any $B = I + K'$ satisfying K' a linear compact operator and $\|B - A\|_{\mathcal{K}(X)} < \varepsilon$

$$\dim \text{Ker } B \leq \dim \text{Ker } A. \quad (2.11)$$

Lemma 2.5. Assume $x \in X$ and $N = G(x)$ is a G -orbit. Assume that S_x is a slice at x and that $GS_x = B$ is a tube of N . Then for any $y \in B$,

$$\dim G(y) \geq \dim N. \quad (2.12)$$

Lemma 2.6. Assume that $B \subset X$ is a bounded closed G -invariant subset and $f \in R_G(X, X; B)$. Then f has at most finite zero orbits in B .

The proofs of the above lemmas are usual arguments. We do not give them here to shorten the paper and the reader can refer to [21].

Lemma 2.7. Assume that $B \subset X$ is a G -invariant bounded closed set, then $R_G(X, X; B)$ is an open subset of $F_G(X, X)$.

Proof Let $f \in R_G(X, X; B)$. It suffices to prove that there is an $\varepsilon > 0$ such that for any $F \in F_G(X, X)$, if $\|F - f\|_{\mathcal{K}(X)} < \varepsilon$, then $F \in R_G(X, X; B)$.

By Lemma 2.6, f has finite zero orbits in B , say N_1, \dots, N_k . Take $x_i \in N_i$. Let S_{x_i} be an open slice at x_i , the radius of which is small enough such that for any $y \in S_{x_i}$, $\dim \text{Ker } Df(y) \leq \dim \text{Ker } Df(x_i) = \dim N_i$ (by Lemma 2.4). Thus, if $\|F - f\| < \varepsilon'$ is small, $\|DF(y) - Df(x_i)\| \leq \varepsilon' + \|Df(y) - Df(x_i)\|$ is also small. So by Lemma 2.4 again, for any $y \in S_{x_i}$, if $F(y) = 0$,

$$\begin{aligned} \dim \text{Ker } DF(y) &\leq \dim \text{Ker } Df(x_i) = \dim N_i \\ &\leq \dim G(y) \leq \dim \text{Ker } DF(y) \quad (\text{by Lemma 2.5}). \end{aligned} \quad (2.13)$$

This shows that $G(y)$ is a regular zero orbit.

Now, we can take $\varepsilon > 0$ small enough such that (2.13) holds and that F has no zero orbits in

$$B \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^k G(S_{x_i}).$$

That is to say $F \in R_G(X, X; B)$.

Now, we need a Palais's theorem (cf. [16]).

Lemma 2.8 (Palais). Let P be a statement valued function defined for all compact Lie groups. If whenever G is a compact Lie group the truth of $P(H)$ for all $H < G$ implies the truth of $P(G)$, then $P(G)$ is true for all compact Lie groups. Hence in a proof that $P(G)$ is valid for all compact Lie groups G it suffices to prove $P(G)$ for an arbitrary compact Lie group G under the assumption that $P(H)$ is valid whenever $H < G$. Here $H < G$ means H is a closed subgroup G and $H \neq G$.

Lemma 2.9. Let $x \in \text{Fix}_G$, then there is a closed slice S_x at x and the corresponding tubular neighbourhood $B_x = G(S_x)$ such that $R_G(X, X, B_x)$ is dense in $F_G(X, X)$.

Proof. Let $G_x = H$. From $x \in X \setminus \text{Fix}_G$, $H < G$. For any given $f \in F_G(X, X)$, $f \in F_H(X, X)$. By Lemma 2.8, we assume that $R_H(X, X; B_x)$ is dense in $F_H(X, X)$. Then for any $\varepsilon' > 0$ (determined below) there is an $f_1 \in R_H(X, X; B_x)$, $\|f_1 - f\| < \varepsilon'$. Using a similar construction as partition of unity without loss of generality we may assume $f_1 = f$ on $X \setminus B_x$. Let $f'_1 = f_1|_{S_x}$, then $f'_1 \in F_H(S_x, X)$ for S_x is H invariant. From $f_1 \in R_H(X, X; B_x)$ we have $f'_1 \in R_H(S_x, X)$. Define a map $\tilde{f}: X \rightarrow X$ by

$$\tilde{f}(z) = \begin{cases} gf'_1(y) & \text{if } z \in B_x, z = gy, y \in S_x, \\ f(z) & \text{if } z \in X \setminus B_x. \end{cases}$$

We shall prove that \tilde{f} is well defined and satisfies $\tilde{f} \in R_G(X, X; B_x)$ and $\|H\tilde{f} - f\|_{\varepsilon'} < \varepsilon'$ provided ε' is small enough. Firstly, in B_x if $g_1y_1 = g_2y_2$ then $g_1^{-1}g_2y_2 = y_1$. Thus $\exists h \in H$ $g_2 = g_1h$. Then $\tilde{f}(g_2y_2) = g_2f'_1(y_2) = g_1hf'_1(y_2) = g_1f'_1(hy_2) = g_1f'_1(y_1) = \tilde{f}(g_1y_1)$, and on ∂S_x $f'_1 = f$. So \tilde{f} is well defined and G -equivariant. For the smoothness, it suffices to verify the smoothness of \tilde{f} along the tangent space of orbit. This is guaranteed by the definition of \tilde{f} and the smoothness of G -action. The $\tilde{f} \in F_G(X, X)$.

Note that all orbits in B_x intersect S_x . Assume $y \in S_x$ and $\tilde{f}(y) = 0$. Then $X = T_yG(y) \oplus \nu_yG(y)$. One can easily verify that $\nu_yG(y)$ is the same as $\nu_yH(y)$ in T_y (where $T_yS_x = T_yH(y) \oplus \nu_yH(y)$). Since $f'_1 \in R_H(S_x, X)$, $\tilde{f} \in R_G(X, X; B_x)$ follow. Now, it is evident that

$$\|\tilde{f} - f\|_{\varepsilon'} = \sup_{g \in G, y \in S_x} \|gf'_1(y) - gf(y)\| \leq \|f_1 - f\|_{\varepsilon'} < \varepsilon'.$$

Again by Lemma 1.1, $D\tilde{f}(gy) = gD\tilde{f}(y)g^{-1}$. So it suffices to see the points in S_x . In this situation, the differentiation is divided into two parts: one part is parallel to the tangent space of S_x at y and the other part is vertical to the tangent space S_x . The former acts on f'_1 which is an approximation of f . The latter part can be seen as follows. Without loss of generality, assume $y = x$. Locally, f can be written as

$$f(gx) = F([g])f(x),$$

where $F([g]): G/H \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(X, X)$ is defined by $F([g])x = gx$. Then,

$$D_{T_xG(x)}f(x)Y = D_{T_xG(x)}F([e])Y \cdot f(x), \quad \forall Y \in T_xG(x).$$

Similarly,

$$D_{T_xG(x)}\tilde{f}(x)Y = D_{T_xG(x)}F([e])Y \cdot f'_1(x), \quad \forall Y \in T_xG(x).$$

Without loss of generality, assume there is an $M > 0$, $\|D_{T_xG(y)}F\| \leq M$ for $y \in S_x$ (if not, we can reduce the radius of S_x). Now, we have

$$\begin{aligned} & \sup_{y \in S_x} \|D_{T_y G(y)} \tilde{f}(y) - D_{T_y G(y)} f(y)\|_{\mathcal{X}(x)} \\ & \leq \sup_{y \in S_x} \sup_{\|Y\|=1} \|D_{T_y G(y)} F([e]) Y(f(y) - f_1(y))\| \\ & \leq M \cdot \sup_{y \in S_x} \|f(y) - f_1(y)\| \leq M \cdot \|f - f_1\|_{\mathcal{X}}. \end{aligned}$$

herefore,

$$\|D\tilde{f} - Df\|_{C^0} \leq M \|f - f_1\|_{C^0} + \|f - f_1\|_{C^1} \leq M \varepsilon^1.$$

In a similar way, one can prove $\|D^2 \tilde{f} - D^2 f\|_{C^0} \leq M_1 \varepsilon'$, where M_1 is a certain constant. Then, if we choose ε' small enough, we have

$$\|\tilde{f} - f\|_{F_G(X, X)} \leq \varepsilon',$$

e. $R_G(X, X; B_x)$ is dense in $F_G(X, X)$.

Remark 2.5. When $G = \{e\}$, it is a consequence of Sard-Smale theorem (cf. [7]) that $R_G(X, X)$ is dense in $F_G(X, X)$.

Lemma 2.10. Let $x \in \text{Fix}_G$, then there is a closed ball neighbourhood B_x of x in \mathcal{X}_G such that $R_G(X, X; B_x)$ is dense in $F_G(X, X)$.

Proof Since f is equivariant, $f_1 = f|_{\text{Fix}_G}: \text{Fix}_G \rightarrow \text{Fix}_G$. By Sard-Smale's lemma, we may take a point $a \in \text{Fix}_G$ with $\|a\|$ small enough such that if $y \in \text{Fix}_G$, $f_1(y) + a \neq 0$, then $Df_1(y): \text{Fix}_G \rightarrow \text{Fix}_G$ is an isomorphism.

Moreover, $f + a$ is also equivariant. Thus, without loss of generality assume f possesses this property. Then the zero points on Fix_G are isolated with respect to \mathcal{X}_G . Assume x is such a point. For simplicity, assume $x = \theta$. Take

$$B_x = \overline{B(\theta, \delta)} \cap \text{Fix}_G$$

such that f has no zero point except θ , $B(\theta, \delta) = \{x \in X \mid \|x\| < \delta\}$.

Since $f = I + K$ and K is compact, we have

$$Df(\theta) \begin{pmatrix} X \\ Y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} I + A & B \\ 0 & I + C \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} X \\ Y \end{pmatrix},$$

where $(X, Y) \in \text{Fix}_G \oplus (\text{Fix}_G)^\perp$, and $I + A: \text{Fix}_G \rightarrow \text{Fix}_G$ is an isomorphism. $Df(\theta)$ is commutative with G , and so do A and C . In addition, A and C are compact. Let $\eta \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}_+, \mathbb{R}_+)$ be a nonincreasing function such that $\eta(t) = 1$ if $0 \leq t \leq \delta$ and $\eta(t) = 0$ if $t \geq 2\delta$. Define

$$\tilde{f}(x) = f(x) + \varepsilon \eta(\|Qx\|^2) CQx$$

where $Q: X \rightarrow (\text{Fix}_G)^\perp$ is the orthogonal projection.

It is easy to check that $\tilde{f} \in F_G(X, X)$ and $\tilde{f}|_{\text{Fix}_G} = f|_{\text{Fix}_G}$. Furthermore we declare that θ is a regular zero point of \tilde{f} . In fact, $D\tilde{f}(\theta) = Df(\theta) + \varepsilon CQ$. Because -1 is isolated in $\sigma(C)$, we may choose $\varepsilon > 0$ small enough so that

$$-\frac{1}{1+\varepsilon} \notin \sigma(C),$$

i. e. $I + (1+\varepsilon)C: (\text{Fix}_G)^\perp \rightarrow (\text{Fix}_G)^\perp$ is an isomorphism. Thus, $\tilde{f} \in R_G(X, X; B_x)$.

Proof of Theorem 2.3 For each $x \in X \setminus \text{Fix}_G$, choose a tube B'_x such that Lemma

2.9 holds. And for each $x \in \text{Fix}_G$ choose a ball B'_x in Fix_G such that Lemma 2.10 holds. Obviously, we may choose countable B'_x, B''_x so that they cover X . Rewrite them as B_1, B_2, \dots . By virtue of Lemmas 2.7, 2.9, 2.10, $R_G(X, X; B_i)$ is an open dense subset of $F_G(X, X)$ for $i=1, 2, \dots$. Since $F_G(X, X)$ is second category, by applying Baire's theorem (cf. [24]) we see that $\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} R_G(X, X; B_i)$ is dense in $F_G(X, X)$. Moreover, it is evident that

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} R_G(X, X; B_i) = R_G\left(X, X; \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i\right) = R_G(X, X).$$

The proof is completed.

In a similar way, we can give another approximation theorem.

Theorem 2.4. Suppose that X and G are given as above. In addition, assume $\dim G \geq 1$. Let $x \in X$ be a point with $F_x = \{e\}$, i. e. $N = G(x)$ is a free G -orbit. Assume $f \in F_G(X, X)$, and that N is a regular zero orbit of f . Then there are slice S_x at x a tube $B_x = G(S_x)$ of N so that for any given $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists an $\tilde{f} \in F_G(B_x, 2)$ satisfying (i) $\|\tilde{f} - f\|_{L^{\infty}} < \varepsilon$ and (ii) $\tilde{f}(y) \neq 0, \forall y \in B_x$.

Remark 2.6. This theorem shows that the zero orbit of an equivariant map can be removed by perturbations.

§ 3. The Proof of Proposition 1.1

In order to complete the proof, we shall construct the operator Θ step by step this section. And we continue to employ the notations in § 1.

Firstly, in (1.9) we decompose the space X further. In the following, if X' a subspace of X , $P_{X'}$ denotes the orthogonal projection onto X' . Let

$$Y_1 = \text{Ker } A \cap \text{Ran } A, \quad M_1 = Z_1 \cap \text{Ran } A,$$

$$\tilde{M}_2 = \text{the orthogonal complement of } Y_1 \oplus M_1 \text{ in } \text{Ran } A,$$

$$P_{\text{Ker } A} \tilde{M}_2 = Y_2, \quad P_{Z_1} \tilde{M}_2 = M_2.$$

We have the following orthogonal splitting:

$$X = \underbrace{Y_0 \oplus Y_2 \oplus Y_1 \oplus M_1 \oplus M_2 \oplus M_0}_{\text{Ker } A \oplus} \underbrace{\quad}_{Z_1} \quad (3.)$$

where Y_0, M_0 are the orthogonal complements of $Y_2 \oplus Y_1$ in $\text{Ker } A$ and $M_1 \oplus M_2, Z_1$ respectively.

Lemma 3.1. $\dim Y_2 = \dim M_2 = \dim \tilde{M}_2 < +\infty$.

Proof. If $y \in \tilde{M}_2$ and $P_{\text{Ker } A} y = 0$, then $y \in Z_1 \cap \text{Ran } A$, i. e. $y \in M_1$. Then by definition of \tilde{M}_2 , $y = 0$. Therefore, $P_{\text{Ker } A}: \tilde{M}_2 \rightarrow Y_2$ is an isomorphism. It follows that $\dim \tilde{M}_2 = \dim Y_2 \leq \dim \text{Ker } A < +\infty$. The other equality is similar.

Lemma 3.2. Let $Y \subset Z_1$ be a $T(H)$ -invariant subspace, then AY is also a $T(H)$ -invariant subspace. Moreover, if we denote $A = P_{AY}AP_X$, $h_Y = P_Y h P_Y$ and $h_{AY} =$

$A_Y h P_{AY}$ for $h \in H$, then the following formula holds:

$$\tilde{A} h_Y = h_{AY} \tilde{A}, \quad \forall h \in H. \quad (3.2)$$

Proof This can be derived from the fact that A is commutative with $T(H)$ (cf. lemma 1.2). We omit it here.

Since $Z_2 = Y_0 \oplus M_0 \oplus \tilde{M}_2^\perp$ (where \tilde{M}_2^\perp is the orthogonal complement of \tilde{M}_2 in $Z_2 \oplus M_2$) comparing this with (3.1) we have $\dim Y_1 = \dim M_0$. Assume $\dim Y_1 = n$. If $n = 0$, one may verify that $\Theta = 0$ satisfies the requirements. In $n > 0$, denote $L = Y_1 \subset Z_1$ (A^{-1} is well defined on $\text{Ran } A$) and then $\dim L = n$ and $\dim M_0 = n$. Let

$$M_0 \cap L = X_0, \quad M_0 \cap L^\perp = X_1,$$

X_2 = the orthogonal complement of $X_0 \oplus X_1$ in M_0 ,

$$P_L X_2 = \tilde{X}_0, \quad P_{L^\perp} X_2 = \tilde{X}_1.$$

In a similar way with the proof of Lemma 3.1 we have $\dim \tilde{X}_0 = \dim \tilde{X}_1 = m$. And we have

$$Z_1 = \underbrace{X_2 \oplus X_1 \oplus \tilde{X}_1}_{L^\perp} \oplus \underbrace{\tilde{X}_0 \oplus X_0 \oplus X_3}_L \quad (3.3)$$

Obviously, every space in (3.3) is $T(H)$ -invariant. Let $Q = P_J A P_{\tilde{x}_0 \oplus \tilde{x}_1}$: $\tilde{X}_0 \oplus \tilde{X}_1 \rightarrow J \subset Y_1$, where $J = A(\tilde{X}_0 \oplus X_0)$. From Lemma 3.2,

$$Q h_{\tilde{x}_0 \oplus \tilde{x}_1} = h_J Q \quad \forall h \in T(H). \quad (3.4)$$

Let $S = P_E A P_{\tilde{x}_1}$: $\tilde{x}_1 \rightarrow E \subset J \subset Y_1$, where $E = A \tilde{x}_1$. Similarly,

$$S h_{\tilde{x}_1} = h_E S, \quad \forall h \in T(H). \quad (3.5)$$

Moreover, $Q_{\tilde{x}_1} = S$.

Note that X_2 is an m -subspace of the $2m$ -space $\tilde{X}_1 \oplus \tilde{X}_0$ (where $\dim X_2 = m$). Since $P_{x_1 x_2}$ and $P_{\tilde{x}_1 x_2}$ are isomorphic to X_2 , there is a nonsingular linear transformation B : $\tilde{X}_1 \rightarrow \tilde{X}_0$ such that if $(w, z) \in \tilde{X}_1 \oplus \tilde{X}_0$ then $(w, z) \in X_2 \Leftrightarrow z = Bw$. By the $T(H)$ -invariance of X_2 , we can find

$$h_{\tilde{x}_0} B = B h_{\tilde{x}_1}, \quad \forall h \in T(H). \quad (3.6)$$

Now, we give a part of definition of Θ as follows:

$$\Theta_1 x = \begin{cases} P_{\tilde{x}_0 \oplus \tilde{x}_1} \Theta_1 P_J x = \varepsilon Q^{-1} x, & x \in J, \\ P_{\tilde{x}_1} \Theta_1 P_E x = \varepsilon B^{-1} S^{-1} x, & x \in E, \\ 0, & \text{other cases.} \end{cases}$$

By (3.3) Θ_1 is well defined. Since Θ_1 is defined on a finitely dimensional space, Θ_1 is a compact operator. In addition, by the definition Θ_1 is commutative with $T(H)$. Unfortunately, at this time we can not guarantee Θ_1 satisfies the third property in Proposition 1.1, i. e. (1.10). Nevertheless, calculating directly we obtain

$$P_M \Theta_1 A: \tilde{x}_0 \oplus x_0 \rightarrow x_2 \oplus x_0 \subset M_0.$$

Hence, the orthogonal complement of $(I + \Theta_1) A Z_1$ in Z_1 is exactly X_1 . Then

$$\text{Ker}(A + \Theta_1 A) \cap \text{Ran}(A + \Theta_1 A) = (A + \Theta_1 A) X_3 = A X_3 \subset Y_1.$$

Up to now, if we take $(I + \Theta_1)A$ as the original A and continue on with the construction of Θ , we may assume that in (3.3) $\tilde{X}_1 = \tilde{X}_0 = X_0 = \{\theta\}$, i. e. $L = X_3$, $M_0 = X_1$. Moreover, we have $\dim L = \dim M_0 = \dim Y_1 = n_1$, where $Y_1 = AL$. If $n_1 = 0$, we have arrived at the end. If $n_1 > 0$, we take $A + \Theta_1 A$ as the original one to go on to work. From $AM_0 \cap \text{Ker } A = \{\theta\}$, $P_{Z_1}AM_0 = E_1$ is also an n_1 dimensional space. Let

$$F_0 = E_1 \cap L, \quad F_1 = E_1 \cap L^\perp,$$

F_2 = the orthogonal complement of $(F_0 \oplus F_1)$ in E_1 ,

$$\tilde{F}_0 = P_L F_2, \quad \tilde{F}_1 = P_{L^\perp} F_2.$$

We have

$$Z_1 = \underbrace{\tilde{Z}_1 \oplus F_1 \oplus \tilde{F}_1 \oplus M_0 \oplus \tilde{F}_0 \oplus F_0 \oplus \tilde{L}}_{L'} \oplus \underbrace{\quad}_{L} \quad (3.7)$$

If $\dim \tilde{F}_0 \oplus F_0 > 0$, by the same method as above we can construct a map $\Theta_2 \in \mathcal{L}(X, X)$ compact commutative with $T(H)$ such that $\Theta_2 A: \tilde{F}_0 \oplus F_0 \rightarrow F_2 \oplus F_0 \subset L$. And then the orthogonal complement of $P_{Z_1}((I + \Theta_2)A)Z_1$ in Z_1 , whose dimension is the same as the dimension of F_1 , is exactly the orthogonal complement of $A^{-1}(F_2 \oplus F_0)$ in M_0 . If $\dim F_2 \oplus F_0 > 0$, we can reduce the dimension of Y_1 to $n_1 - \dim F_2 \oplus F_0$. If $n_1 - \dim F_2 \oplus F_0 > 0$, we can repeat the above procedure to consider $E_2 = AF_1$. If $\dim P_L E_2 > 0$, we can construct a map Θ_3 so that the dimension of Y_1 is reduced to $n_1 - \dim F_2 \oplus F_0 - \dim P_L E_2$. We declare that by the above procedure there is an integer $j_0 > 0$ s.t. if we take

$$(I + \Theta_{j_0})(I + \Theta_{j_0-1}) \cdots (I + \Theta_1)A$$

as the previous one then we have $\dim M_0 = 0$. In other words $\dim Y_1 = 0$. Therefore when we write $I + \Theta = (I + \Theta_{j_0}) \cdots (I + \Theta_1)$, the above facts show precisely that satisfies all properties of Proposition 1.1.

If the above declaration does not hold, we deduce a contradiction as follows. First, there is a series of spaces E_j , $j = 0, 1, \dots$, such that $E_{j+1} = AE_j$ and $P_L AE_j = \{0\}$ where $E_0 = M_0$, $E_1 = F_1$. Let $E = \bigoplus_{j=0}^{\infty} E_j$, then $E \subset L^\perp$ is a subspace of Z_1 and $A: E \rightarrow E$. We have $Z_1 = \tilde{E} \oplus E \oplus L$ where \tilde{E} is the corresponding orthogonal complement. Now $\tilde{A} = P_{\tilde{E} \oplus L} A P_{\tilde{E} \oplus L}: \tilde{E} \oplus L \rightarrow \tilde{E} \oplus L$ is a surjection and $\text{Ker } \tilde{A} = L$. However, \tilde{A} is also a Fredholm operator with index 0 and this contradicts $\dim L = \dim M_0 > 0$. This shows that the above procedure can be completed with finite steps. So far, the proof is finished.

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