Advice to a Young Mathematician

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Warning

What follows is very much a personal view based on my own experience and reflecting my personality, the type of mathematics that I work on, and my style of work. However, mathematicians vary widely in all these characteristics and you should follow your own instinct. You may learn from others but interpret what you learn in your own way. Originality comes by breaking away, in some respects, from the practice of the past.

Motivation

A research mathematician, like a creative artist, has to be passionately interested in the subject and fully dedicated to it. Without strong internal motivation you cannot succeed, but if you enjoy mathematics the satisfaction you can get from solving hard problems is immense.

The first year or two of research is the most difficult. There is so much to learn. One struggles unsuccessfully with small problems and one has serious doubts about one’s ability to prove anything interesting. I went through such a period in my second year of research, and Jean-Pierre Serre, perhaps the outstanding mathematician of my generation, told me that he too had contemplated giving up at one stage.

Only the mediocre are supremely confident of their ability. The better you are, the higher the standards you set yourself—you can see beyond your immediate reach.

Many would-be mathematicians also have talents and interests in other directions and they may have a difficult choice to make between embarking on a mathematical career and pursuing something else. The great Gauss is reputed to have wavered between mathematics and philology, Pascal deserted mathematics at an early age for theology, while Descartes and Leibniz are also famous as philosophers. Some mathematicians move into physics (e.g., Freeman Dyson) while others (e.g., Harish Chandra, Raoul Bott) have moved the other way. You should not regard mathematics as a closed world, and the interaction between mathematics and other disciplines is healthy both for the individual and for society.

Psychology

Because of the intense mental concentration required in mathematics, psychological pressures can be considerable, even when things are going well. Depending on your personality this may be a major or only a minor problem, but one can take steps to reduce the tension. Interaction with fellow students—attending lectures, seminars, and conferences—both widens one’s horizons and provides important social support. Too much isolation and introspection can be dangerous and time spent in apparently idle conversation is not really wasted.

Collaboration, initially with fellow students or one’s supervisor, has many benefits and long-term collaboration with coworkers can be extremely fruitful both in mathematical terms and at the personal level. There is always the need for hard quiet thought on one’s own, but this can be enhanced and balanced by discussion and exchange of ideas with friends.

Problems versus Theory

Mathematicians are sometimes categorized as either “problem solvers” or “theorists.” It is certainly true that there are extreme cases that highlight this division (Erdős versus Grothendieck, for example) but most mathematicians lie somewhere in between, with their work involving both the solution of problems and the development of some theory. In fact, a theory that does not lead to the solution of concrete and interesting problems is not worth having. Conversely, any really deep problem tends to stimulate the development of theory for its solution (Fermat’s Last Theorem being a classic example).

What bearing does this have on a beginning student? Although one has to read books and papers and absorb general concepts and techniques (theory), realistically, a student has to focus on one or more specific problems. This provides something to chew on and to test one’s mettle. A definite problem, which one struggles with and understands in detail, is also an invaluable benchmark against which to measure the utility and strength of available theories.
Depending on how the research goes, the eventual PhD thesis may strip away most of the theory and focus only on the essential problem, or else it may describe a wider scenario into which the problem naturally fits.

**The Role of Curiosity**

The driving force in research is curiosity. When is a particular result true? Is that the best proof, or is there a more natural or elegant one? What is the most general context in which the result holds?

If you keep asking yourself such questions when reading a paper or listening to a lecture, then sooner or later a glimmer of an answer will emerge—some possible route to investigate. When this happens to me I always take time out to pursue the idea to see where it leads or whether it will stand up to scrutiny. Nine times out of ten it turns out to be a blind alley, but occasionally one strikes gold. The difficulty is in knowing when an idea that is initially promising is in fact going nowhere. At this stage one has to cut one’s losses and return to the main road. Often the decision is not clear-cut and in fact I frequently return to a previously discarded idea and give it another try.

Ironically, good ideas can emerge unexpectedly from a bad lecture or seminar. I often find myself listening to a lecture where the result is beautiful and the proof ugly and complicated. Instead of trying to follow a messy proof on the blackboard, I spend the rest of the hour thinking about producing a more elegant proof. Usually, but not always, without success, but even then my time is better spent, since I have thought hard about the problem in my own way. This is much better than passively following another person’s reasoning.

**Examples**

If you are, like me, someone who prefers large vistas and powerful theories (I was influenced but not converted by Grothendieck) then it is essential to be able to test general results by applying them to simple examples. Over the years I have built up a large array of such examples, drawn from a variety of fields. These are examples where one can do concrete calculations, sometimes with elaborate formulas, that help to make the general theory understandable. They keep your feet on the ground. Interestingly enough, Grothendieck eschewed examples, but fortunately he was in close touch with Serre who was able to rectify this omission. There is no clear-cut distinction between example and theory. Many of my favourite examples come from my early training in classical projective geometry: the twisted cubic, the quadric surface, or the Klein representation of lines in 3-space. Nothing could be more concrete or classical and all can be looked at algebraically or geometrically, but each illustrates and is the first case in a large class of examples which then become a theory: the theory of rational curves, of homogeneous spaces, or of Grassmannians.

Another aspect of examples is that they can lead off in different directions. One example can generalize in several different ways or illustrate several different principles. For instance, the classical conic is a rational curve, a quadric, and a Grassmannian all in one.

But most of all a good example is a thing of beauty. It shines and convinces. It gives insight and understanding. It provides the bedrock of belief.

**Proof**

We are all taught that “proof” is the central feature of mathematics, that Euclidean geometry with its careful array of axioms and propositions has provided the essential framework for modern thought since the Renaissance. Mathematicians pride themselves on absolute certainty, in comparison with the tentative steps of natural scientists, let alone the woolly thinking of other areas.

It is true that, since Gödel, absolute certainty has been undermined, and the more mundane assault of computer proofs of interminable length has induced some humility. Despite all this, proof retains its cardinal role in mathematics and a serious gap in your argument will lead to your paper being rejected.

However, it is a mistake to identify research in mathematics with the process of producing proofs. In fact, one could say that all the really creative aspects of mathematical research precede the proof stage. To take the metaphor of the “stage” further, you have to start with the idea, develop the plot, write the dialogue, and provide the theatrical instructions. The actual production can be viewed as the “proof”: the implementation of an idea.

In mathematics, ideas and concepts come first, then come questions and problems. At this stage the search
for solutions begins, one looks for a method or strategy. Once you have convinced yourself that the problem has been well-posed, and that you have the right tools for the job, you then begin to think hard about the technicalities of the proof.

Before long you may realize, perhaps by finding counterexamples, that the problem was incorrectly formulated. Sometimes there is a gap between the initial intuitive idea and its formalization. You left out some hidden assumption, you overlooked some technical detail, you tried to be too general. You then have to go back and refine your formalization of the problem. It would be an unfair exaggeration to say that mathematicians rig their questions so that they can answer them, but there is undoubtedly a grain of truth in the statement. The art in good mathematics, and mathematics is an art, is to identify and tackle problems that are both interesting and solvable.

Proof is the end product of a long interaction between creative imagination and critical reasoning. Without proof the program remains incomplete, but without the imaginative input it never gets started. One can see here an analogy with the work of the creative artist in other fields: writer, painter, composer, or architect. The vision comes first, it develops into an idea that gets tentatively sketched out, and finally comes the long technical process of erecting the work of art. But the technique and the vision have to remain in touch, each modifying the other according to its own rules.

**Strategy**

In the previous section I discussed the philosophy of proof and its role in the whole creative process. Now let me turn to the most down-to-earth question of interest to the young practitioner. What strategy should one adopt? How do you actually go about finding a proof?

This question makes little sense in the abstract. As I explained in the previous section a good problem always has antecedents: it arises from some background, it has roots. You have to understand these roots in order to make progress. That is why it is always better to find your own problem, asking your own questions, rather than getting it on a plate from your supervisor. If you know where a problem comes from, why the question has been asked, then you are half way towards its solution. In fact, asking the right question is often as difficult as solving it. Finding the right context is an essential first step.

So, in brief, you need to have a good knowledge of the history of the problem. You should know what sort of methods have worked with similar problems and what their limitations are.

It is a good idea to start thinking hard about a problem as soon as you have fully absorbed it. To get to grips with it, there is no substitute for a hands-on approach. You should investigate special cases and try to identify where the essential difficulty lies. The more you know about the background and previous methods, the more techniques and tricks you can try. On the other hand, ignorance is sometimes bliss. J. E. Littlewood is reported to have set each of his research students to work on a disguised version of the Riemann hypothesis, letting them know what he had done only after six months. He argued that the student would not have the confidence to attack such a famous problem directly, but might make progress if not told of the fame of his opponent! The policy may not have led to a proof of the Riemann hypothesis, but it certainly led to resilient and battle-hardened students.

My own approach has been to try to avoid the direct onslaught and look for indirect approaches. This involves connecting your problem with ideas and techniques from different fields that may shed unexpected light on it. If this strategy succeeds, it can lead to a beautiful and simple proof, which also “explains” why something is true. In fact, I believe the search for an explanation, for understanding, is what we should really be aiming for. Proof is simply part of that process, and sometimes its consequence.

As part of the search for new methods it is a good idea to broaden your horizons. Talking to people will extend your general education and will sometimes introduce you to new ideas and techniques. Very occasionally you may get a productive idea for your own research or even for a new direction.

If you need to learn a new subject, consult the literature but, even better, find a friendly expert and get instruction “from the horse’s mouth”—it gives more insight more quickly.

As well as looking forward, and being alert to new developments, you should not forget the past. Many powerful mathematical results from earlier eras have
got buried and have been forgotten, coming to light only when they have been independently rediscovered. These results are not easy to find, partly because terminology and style change, but they can be gold mines. As usual with gold mines, you have to be lucky to strike one, and the rewards go to the pioneers.

**Independence**

At the start of your research your relationship with your supervisor can be crucial, so choose carefully, bearing in mind subject matter, personality, and track record. Few supervisors score highly on all three. Moreover, if things do not work out well during the first year or so, or if your interests diverge significantly, then do not hesitate to change supervisors or even universities. Your supervisor will not be offended and may even be relieved!

Sometimes you may be part of a large group and may interact with other members of the faculty, so that you effectively have more than one supervisor. This can be helpful in that it provides different inputs and alternative modes of work. You may also learn much from fellow students in such large groups, which is why choosing a department with a large graduate school is a good idea.

Once you have successfully earned your PhD you enter a new stage. Although you may still carry on collaborating with your supervisor and remain part of the same research group, it is healthy for your future development to move elsewhere for a year or more. This opens you up to new influences and opportunities. This is the time when you have the chance to carve out a niche for yourself in the mathematical world. In general, it is not a good idea to continue too closely in the line of your PhD thesis for too long. You have to show your independence by branching out. It need not be a radical change of direction but there should be some clear novelty and not simply a routine continuation of your thesis.

**Style**

In writing up your thesis your supervisor will normally assist you in the manner of presentation and organization. But acquiring a personal style is an important part of your mathematical development. Although the needs may vary, depending on the kind of mathematics, many aspects are common to all subjects. Here are a number of hints on how to write a good paper.

1. Think through the whole logical structure of the paper before you start to write.
2. Break up long complex proofs into short intermediate steps (lemmas, propositions, etc.) that will help the reader.
3. Write clear coherent English (or the language of your choice). Remember that mathematics is also a form of literature.
4. Be as succinct as it is possible to be while remaining clear and easy to understand. This is a difficult balance to achieve.
5. Identify papers that you have enjoyed reading and imitate their style.
6. When you have finished writing the bulk of your paper go back and write an introduction that explains clearly the structure and main results as well as the general context. Avoid unnecessary jargon and aim at a general mathematical reader, not just a narrow expert.
7. Try out your first draft on a colleague and take heed of any suggestions or criticisms. If even your close friend or collaborator has difficulty understanding it, then you have failed and need to try harder.
8. If you are not in a desperate hurry to publish, put your paper aside for a few weeks and work on something else. Then return to your paper and read it with a fresh mind. It will read differently and you may see how to improve it.
9. Do not hesitate to rewrite the paper, perhaps from a totally new angle, if you become convinced that this will make it clearer and easier to read. Well-written papers become “classics” and are widely read by future mathematicians. Badly written papers are ignored or, if they are sufficiently important, they get rewritten by others.