

# THE GEOMETRY OF SURFACES AND 3-MANIFOLDS

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*Note: Most of the illustrations in these notes are omitted. Please draw your own!*

## 4. A 3-MANIFOLD BESTIARY

How does all of this generalize to three-dimensional manifolds? In general, the picture is a lot more complicated, because 3-manifolds are a lot more complicated. So let's start with some examples.

A surface (or 2-manifold) is a space where every point has a neighborhood which looks like a plane locally — every point has a neighborhood topologically equivalent to part of the plane. A 3-manifold is a space where every point has a neighborhood that looks like part of 3-space. So what are some examples?

First, easy examples:

- 3-space
- The 3-torus (a cube with opposite faces glued together)
- The 3-sphere (two balls with surface glued together, or a sphere in 4-space, or  $\mathbb{R}^3$  plus a point at infinity)
- 3-dimensional hyperbolic space

Intermediate examples:

- Quotients of the above by group actions.

For example, while every rotation of the 2-sphere has an axis, there are “rotations” of the 3-sphere without fixed points. Recall that rotations in the plane have matrices like:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

If we combine a rotation by  $\theta$  in the  $xy$ -plane with a rotation by  $\phi$  in the  $zw$ -plane, we get:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta & 0 & 0 \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cos \phi & \sin \phi \\ 0 & 0 & -\sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{pmatrix}$$

If  $\theta \neq 0$  and  $\phi \neq 0$ , this has no fixed points. Furthermore, if we take  $\phi = \theta = \frac{2\pi}{n}$ , then repeating the rotation  $n$  times takes us back to the identity. The quotient by this action is a *lens space*.

- There are weirder examples too. For example, there's a manifold called the Poincaré homology sphere which is the quotient of  $S^3$  by a group which is isomorphic to the group of symmetries of the icosahedron.

Combinations of manifolds:

- Products: If we have a surface  $\Sigma$ , we can make a 3-manifold out of it in a couple different ways. First, consider the space consisting of

pairs of points, one in the surface and one in the real line. This is a 3-manifold called  $\Sigma \times \mathbb{R}$ .

There are a couple ways to think about this – either it’s a collection of lines, one for each point in the surface, or a collection of surfaces, one for each point in  $\mathbb{R}$ . This is just one example of a *bundle*.

Similarly, we can take  $\Sigma \times S^1$ , the product of  $\Sigma$  with a circle.

- There are more complicated ways to construct bundles. For example, say I want to construct a bundle of surfaces over a circle. We’ve seen one of these – the product  $\Sigma \times S^1$  has one surface for every point in  $S^1$ .

Here’s another: cut  $\Sigma \times S^1$  along one circle, then glue it back along some different map. There are a *lot* of different maps, for example:

- Symmetries of surfaces: for example, you can embed the surface of genus 2 in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  so that a rotation by  $2\pi/3$  is a symmetry.
- Dehn twists: cut one of the handles, twist, and reglue.
- Puncture-dragging: If you have a punctured surface, you can “drag” the puncture around the surface to get a map from the surface to itself. You can drag handles, too.

So there are a lot of manifolds that come from this construction.

- The previous bundle had one surface for every point on the circle. Here’s an example of a bundle with one circle for every point on a surface: Consider the space of directions on a surface. Then every point is associated with the circle of directions at that point, so there’s one circle for each point. We can check that this is a 3-manifold. This is called the *unit tangent bundle*.

Advanced examples: The techniques above only construct some 3-manifolds, but there are a few different constructions that lead to every 3-manifold.

- Any 3-manifold can be triangulated, so we can construct manifolds out of polyhedra and gluings.

(Warning: We have to be a little more careful here than when we were working with triangulations of surfaces. With surfaces, as long as every edge is glued to exactly one other edge, you have a surface, but not for 3-manifolds – you need to check that the neighborhood of each vertex is homeomorphic to part of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . Example: dodecahedron with opposite faces glued.)

- Some of our constructions involved cutting up a manifold and then gluing it back together. This is sometimes called *surgery*.

One type of surgery is *Dehn surgery*; if we have a curve in a manifold, we can thicken it into a solid torus. We can cut that torus out and glue it back in differently. Some gluings don’t change the manifold, but some gluings change it a lot – in fact, you can construct any closed 3-manifold by starting with a sphere and then applying repeated Dehn surgeries to it.

- Heegaard splittings: A genus- $g$  handlebody is a solid ball with  $g$  handles glued on – imagine a genus- $g$  surface embedded in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  plus its inside. This is a 3-manifold with boundary, and its boundary is a surface of genus  $g$ . It’s a theorem that any 3-manifold can be cut into two handlebodies: for example, you can cut the sphere  $S^3$  into two balls (handlebodies of genus 0) by cutting along an “equator”, or into two solid tori (handlebodies of genus 1) (try it!) A decomposition like this is called a Heegaard splitting.

So that means that we can make any 3-manifold by gluing the surfaces of two handlebodies! This gives us another way to turn a homeomorphism from a surface to itself into a 3-manifold.

Even if not all these constructions are clear, it's clear that there are a lot of 3-manifolds – certainly, that there are a lot more 3-manifolds than surfaces. Surfaces were simple enough that we could construct geometric structures essentially “by hand”, but 3-manifolds seem a lot more complicated.

That's why the Perelman-Thurston Theorem (which we'll talk about tomorrow) is so remarkable; it says that any 3-manifold can be cut into pieces, each of which has a geometric structure!

**4.1. Exercises.** In class, we discussed the lens space which comes from the action of

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos \frac{2\pi}{n} & \sin \frac{2\pi}{n} & 0 & 0 \\ -\sin \frac{2\pi}{n} & \cos \frac{2\pi}{n} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cos \frac{2\pi}{n} & \sin \frac{2\pi}{n} \\ 0 & 0 & -\sin \frac{2\pi}{n} & \cos \frac{2\pi}{n} \end{pmatrix}$$

on the 3-sphere. This is sometimes called  $L_{1,n}$ . These problems will help you visualize this space. (It may help to have a computer available to plot some of the things we'll describe.)

- (1) First, let's try to visualize rotations of the 3-sphere. Remember that we can think of the 3-sphere in two ways: as a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^4$ , namely

$$S^3 = \{(x, y, z, w) \mid x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + w^2 = 1\}$$

or as  $\mathbb{R}^3$  plus a “point at infinity”. Show that the map

$$f(x, y, z) = \frac{(2x, 2y, 2z, 1 - x^2 - y^2 - z^2)}{1 + x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$$

maps  $\mathbb{R}^3$  to  $S^3$ . What happens to the point at infinity? (This map is called a *stereographic projection*, and its inverse is the map:

$$f^{-1}(x, y, z, w) = \frac{(x, y, z)}{1 - w}$$

We'll use this map to visualize different parts of  $S^3$ .)

- (2) The rotation

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta & 0 & 0 \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cos \phi & \sin \phi \\ 0 & 0 & -\sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta & 0 & 0 \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cos \phi & \sin \phi \\ 0 & 0 & -\sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{pmatrix}$$

can be broken down into two rotations. Each of these is a rotation “around” a plane in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ . The first one is a rotation around the  $zw$ -plane and the second is a rotation around the  $xy$ -plane.

Which points in  $S^3$  are fixed by each rotation? What are their images in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ ? We can think of these as two axes of rotation in  $S^3$ .

- (3) What do rotations around these axes look like? For example:
- The orbit of a point under a rotation is a circle. What do these circles look like in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ ?
  - The rotation by angle  $\theta = 2\pi/n$  around the  $zw$ -plane generates an action of  $\mathbb{Z}/n$  on  $S^3$ . What's a fundamental domain for this action?
  - The rotation by angle  $\phi = 2\pi/n$  around the  $xy$ -plane generates an action of  $\mathbb{Z}/n$  on  $S^3$ . What's a fundamental domain for this action?

- (4) If you choose the fundamental domains in the previous question right, you get fundamental domains for the action of  $M$  on  $S^3$ . Use them to describe  $L_{1,n}$  as a polyhedron with some of its faces glued together.

Can you see where the name *lens space* comes from?