

J. Milnor

Morse Theory

莫尔斯理论

PRINCETON UNIVERSITY PRESS

世界图书出版公司
www.wpcbj.com.cn

MORSE THEORY

BY

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Based on lecture notes by

M. SPIVAK and R. WELLS

PRINCETON, NEW JERSEY

PRINCETON UNIVERSITY PRESS

图书在版编目(CIP)数据

莫尔斯理论:英文/(美)米尔诺(Milnor,J.)著.

—影印本. —北京:世界图书出版公司北京公司,2011.7

书名原文:Morse Theory

ISBN 978-7-5100-3748-1

I. ①莫… II. ①米… III. ①Morse 理论—英文

IV. ①O231

中国版本图书馆CIP数据核字(2011)第138956号

书 名: Morse Theory

作 者: J. Milnor

中译名: 莫尔斯理论

责任编辑: 高蓉 刘慧

出 版 者: 世界图书出版公司北京公司

印 刷 者: 三河市国英印务有限公司

发 行 者: 世界图书出版公司北京公司(北京朝内大街137号 100010)

联系电话: 010-64021602, 010-64015659

电子信箱: kjb@wpcbj.com.cn

开 本: 24开

印 张: 7

版 次: 2012年8月

版权登记: 图字:01-2011-2321

书 号: 978-7-5100-3748-1/O·892

定 价: 29.00元

Annals of Mathematics Studies

Number 51

Copyright © 1963, © 1969, by Princeton University Press
All Rights Reserved
L.C. Card 63-13729
ISBN 0-691-06008-9

Third Printing, with corrections
and a new Preface, 1969
Fourth Printing, 1970
Fifth Printing, 1973

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PREFACE

This book gives a present-day account of Marston Morse's theory of the calculus of variations in the large. However, there have been important developments during the past few years which are not mentioned. Let me describe three of these

R. Palais and S. Smale have studied Morse theory for a real-valued function on an infinite dimensional manifold and have given direct proofs of the main theorems, without making any use of finite dimensional approximations. The manifolds in question must be locally diffeomorphic to Hilbert space, and the function must satisfy a weak compactness condition. As an example, to study paths on a finite dimensional manifold M one considers the Hilbert manifold consisting of all absolutely continuous paths $\omega: [0,1] \rightarrow M$ with square integrable first derivative. Accounts of this work are contained in R. Palais, Morse Theory on Hilbert Manifolds, *Topology*, Vol. 2 (1963), pp. 299-340; and in S. Smale, Morse Theory and a Non-linear Generalization of the Dirichlet Problem, *Annals of Mathematics*, Vol. 80 (1964), pp. 382-396.

The Bott periodicity theorems were originally inspired by Morse theory (see part IV). However, more elementary proofs, which do not involve Morse theory at all, have recently been given. See M. Atiyah and R. Bott, On the Periodicity Theorem for Complex Vector Bundles, *Acta Mathematica*, Vol. 112 (1964), pp. 229-247, as well as R. Wood, Banach Algebras and Bott Periodicity, *Topology*, 4 (1965-66), pp. 371-389.

Morse theory has provided the inspiration for exciting developments in differential topology by S. Smale, A. Wallace, and others, including a proof of the generalized Poincaré hypothesis in high dimensions. I have tried to describe some of this work in Lectures on the h-cobordism theorem, notes by L. Siebenmann and J. Sondow, Princeton University Press, 1965.

Let me take this opportunity to clarify one term which may cause confusion. In §12 I use the word "energy" for the integral

$$E = \int_0^1 \left\| \frac{d\omega}{dt} \right\|^2 dt$$

along a path $\omega(t)$. V. Arnol'd points out to me that mathematicians for the past 200 years have called E the "action" integral. This discrepancy in terminology is caused by the fact that the integral can be interpreted, in terms of a physical model, in more than one way.

Think of a particle P which moves along a surface M during the time interval $0 \leq t \leq 1$. The action of the particle during this time interval is defined to be a certain constant times the integral E . If no forces act on P (except for the constraining forces which hold it within M), then the "principle of least action" asserts that E will be minimized within the class of all paths joining $\omega(0)$ to $\omega(1)$, or at least that the first variation of E will be zero. Hence P must traverse a geodesic.

But a quite different physical model is possible. Think of a rubber band which is stretched between two points of a slippery curved surface. If the band is described parametrically by the equation $x = \omega(t)$, $0 \leq t \leq 1$, then the potential energy arising from tension will be proportional to our integral E (at least to a first order of approximation). For an equilibrium position this energy must be minimized, and hence the rubber band will describe a geodesic.

The text which follows is identical with that of the first printing except for a few corrections. I am grateful to V. Arnol'd, D. Epstein and W. B. Houston, Jr. for pointing out corrections.

J.W.M.

Los Angeles, June 1968.

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PART I

NON-DEGENERATE SMOOTH FUNCTIONS ON A MANIFOLD.

§1. Introduction.

In this section we will illustrate by a specific example the situation that we will investigate later for arbitrary manifolds. Let us consider a torus M , tangent to the plane V , as indicated in Diagram 1.

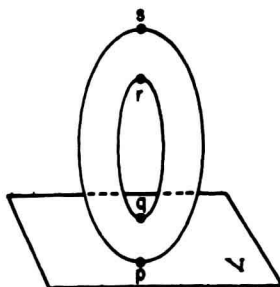
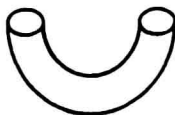


Diagram 1.

Let $f: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ (\mathbb{R} always denotes the real numbers) be the height above the V plane, and let M^a be the set of all points $x \in M$ such that $f(x) \leq a$. Then the following things are true:

- (1) If $a < 0 = f(p)$, then M^a is vacuous.
- (2) If $f(p) < a < f(q)$, then M^a is homeomorphic to a 2-cell.
- (3) If $f(q) < a < f(r)$, then M^a is homeomorphic to a cylinder:



- (4) If $f(r) < a < f(s)$, then M^a is homeomorphic to a compact manifold of genus one having a circle as boundary:



(5) If $f(s) < a$, then M^a is the full torus.

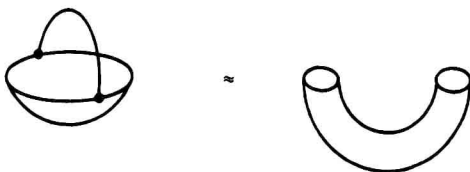
In order to describe the change in M^a as a passes through one of the points $f(p), f(q), f(r), f(s)$ it is convenient to consider homotopy type rather than homeomorphism type. In terms of homotopy types:

(1) \rightarrow (2) is the operation of attaching a 0-cell. For as far as homotopy type is concerned, the space M^a , $f(p) < a < f(q)$, cannot be distinguished from a 0-cell:

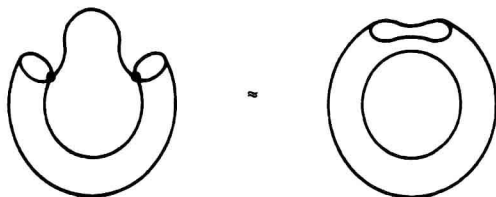


Here " \approx " means "is of the same homotopy type as."

(2) \rightarrow (3) is the operation of attaching a 1-cell:



(3) \rightarrow (4) is again the operation of attaching a 1-cell:



(4) \rightarrow (5) is the operation of attaching a 2-cell.

The precise definition of "attaching a k -cell" can be given as follows. Let Y be any topological space, and let

$$e^k = \{x \in \mathbf{R}^k : \|x\| \leq 1\}$$

be the k -cell consisting of all vectors in Euclidean k -space with length ≤ 1 .

The boundary

$$\dot{e}^k = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^k : \|x\| = 1\}$$

will be denoted by S^{k-1} . If $g: S^{k-1} \rightarrow Y$ is a continuous map then

$$Y \cup_g e^k$$

(Y with a k -cell attached by g) is obtained by first taking the topological sum (= disjoint union) of Y and e^k , and then identifying each $x \in S^{k-1}$ with $g(x) \in Y$. To take care of the case $k = 0$ let e^0 be a point and let $\dot{e}^0 = S^{-1}$ be vacuous, so that Y with a 0-cell attached is just the union of Y and a disjoint point.

As one might expect, the points p, q, r and s at which the homotopy type of M^a changes, have a simple characterization in terms of f . They are the critical points of the function. If we choose any coordinate system (x, y) near these points, then the derivatives $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ are both zero. At p we can choose (x, y) so that $f = x^2 + y^2$, at s so that $f = \text{constant} - x^2 - y^2$, and at q and r so that $f = \text{constant} + x^2 - y^2$. Note that the number of minus signs in the expression for f at each point is the dimension of the cell we must attach to go from M^a to M^b , where $a < f(\text{point}) < b$. Our first theorems will generalize these facts for any differentiable function on a manifold.

REFERENCES

For further information on Morse Theory, the following sources are extremely useful.

- M. Morse, "The calculus of variations in the large," American Mathematical Society, New York, 1934.
- H. Seifert and W. Threlfall, "Variationsrechnung im Grossen," published in the United States by Chelsea, New York, 1951.
- R. Bott, The stable homotopy of the classical groups, Annals of Mathematics, Vol. 70 (1959), pp. 313-337.
- R. Bott, Morse Theory and its application to homotopy theory, Lecture notes by A. van de Ven (mimeographed), University of Bonn, 1960.

§2. Definitions and Lemmas.

The words "smooth" and "differentiable" will be used interchangeably to mean differentiable of class C^∞ . The tangent space of a smooth manifold M at a point p will be denoted by TM_p . If $g: M \rightarrow N$ is a smooth map with $g(p) = q$, then the induced linear map of tangent spaces will be denoted by $g_*: TM_p \rightarrow TN_q$.

Now let f be a smooth real valued function on a manifold M . A point $p \in M$ is called a critical point of f if the induced map $f_*: TM_p \rightarrow TR_{f(p)}$ is zero. If we choose a local coordinate system (x^1, \dots, x^n) in a neighborhood U of p this means that

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x^1}(p) = \dots = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^n}(p) = 0.$$

The real number $f(p)$ is called a critical value of f .

We denote by M^a the set of all points $x \in M$ such that $f(x) \leq a$. If a is not a critical value of f then it follows from the implicit function theorem that M^a is a smooth manifold-with-boundary. The boundary $f^{-1}(a)$ is a smooth submanifold of M .

A critical point p is called non-degenerate if and only if the matrix

$$\left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^i \partial x^j} \right) (p)$$

is non-singular. It can be checked directly that non-degeneracy does not depend on the coordinate system. This will follow also from the following intrinsic definition.

If p is a critical point of f we define a symmetric bilinear functional f_{**} on TM_p , called the Hessian of f at p . If $v, w \in TM_p$ then v and w have extensions \tilde{v} and \tilde{w} to vector fields. We let $f_{**}(v, w) = \tilde{v}_p(\tilde{w}(f))$, where \tilde{v}_p is, of course, just v . We must show that this is symmetric and well-defined. It is symmetric because

$$\tilde{v}_p(\tilde{w}(f)) - \tilde{w}_p(\tilde{v}(f)) = [\tilde{v}, \tilde{w}]_p(f) = 0$$

where $[\tilde{v}, \tilde{w}]$ is the Poisson bracket of \tilde{v} and \tilde{w} , and where $[\tilde{v}, \tilde{w}]_p(f) = 0$

* Here $\tilde{v}(f)$ denotes the directional derivative of f in the direction \tilde{v} .

since f has p as a critical point.

Therefore f_{**} is symmetric. It is now clearly well-defined since $\tilde{v}_p(\tilde{v}(f)) = v(\tilde{v}(f))$ is independent of the extension \tilde{v} of v , while $\tilde{w}_p(\tilde{v}(f))$ is independent of \tilde{v} .

If (x^1, \dots, x^n) is a local coordinate system and $v = \sum a_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \Big|_p$, $w = \sum b_j \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} \Big|_p$ we can take $\tilde{v} = \sum b_j \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j}$ where b_j now denotes a constant function. Then

$$f_{**}(v, w) = v(\tilde{w}(f))(p) = v(\sum b_j \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^j}) = \sum_{i,j} a_i b_j \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^i \partial x^j}(p);$$

so the matrix $(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^i \partial x^j}(p))$ represents the bilinear function f_{**} with respect to the basis $\frac{\partial}{\partial x^1} \Big|_p, \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial x^n} \Big|_p$.

We can now talk about the index and the nullity of the bilinear functional f_{**} on TM_p . The index of a bilinear functional H , on a vector space V , is defined to be the maximal dimension of a subspace of V on which H is negative definite; the nullity is the dimension of the null-space, i.e., the subspace consisting of all $v \in V$ such that $H(v, w) = 0$ for every $w \in V$. The point p is obviously a non-degenerate critical point of f if and only if f_{**} on TM_p has nullity equal to 0. The index of f_{**} on TM_p will be referred to simply as the index of f at p . The Lemma of Morse shows that the behaviour of f at p can be completely described by this index. Before stating this lemma we first prove the following:

LEMMA 2.1. Let f be a C^∞ function in a convex neighborhood V of 0 in \mathbb{R}^n , with $f(0) = 0$. Then

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i g_i(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

for some suitable C^∞ functions g_i defined in V , with $g_i(0) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(0)$.

PROOF:

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \int_0^1 \frac{df(tx_1, \dots, tx_n)}{dt} dt = \int_0^1 \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(tx_1, \dots, tx_n) \cdot x_i dt.$$

Therefore we can let $g_i(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \int_0^1 \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(tx_1, \dots, tx_n) dt$.

Therefore, applying 2.1 to the g_j we have

$$g_j(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i h_{ij}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

for certain smooth functions h_{ij} . It follows that

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{i,j=1}^n x_i x_j h_{ij}(x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

We can assume that $h_{ij} = h_{ji}$, since we can write $\bar{h}_{ij} = \frac{1}{2}(h_{ij} + h_{ji})$, and then have $\bar{h}_{ij} = \bar{h}_{ji}$ and $f = \sum x_i x_j \bar{h}_{ij}$. Moreover the matrix $(\bar{h}_{ij}(0))$ is equal to $(\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^i \partial x^j}(0))$, and hence is non-singular.

There is a non-singular transformation of the coordinate functions which gives us the desired expression for f , in a perhaps smaller neighborhood of 0. To see this we just imitate the usual diagonalization proof for quadratic forms. (See for example, Birkhoff and MacLane, "A survey of modern algebra," p. 271.) The key step can be described as follows.

Suppose by induction that there exist coordinates u_1, \dots, u_n in a neighborhood U_1 of 0 so that

$$f = \pm (u_1)^2 \pm \dots \pm (u_{r-1})^2 + \sum_{i,j \geq r} u_i u_j H_{ij}(u_1, \dots, u_n)$$

throughout U_1 ; where the matrices $(H_{ij}(u_1, \dots, u_n))$ are symmetric. After a linear change in the last $n-r+1$ coordinates we may assume that $H_{rr}(0) \neq 0$. Let $g(u_1, \dots, u_n)$ denote the square root of $|H_{rr}(u_1, \dots, u_n)|$. This will be a smooth, non-zero function of u_1, \dots, u_n throughout some smaller neighborhood $U_2 \subset U_1$ of 0. Now introduce new coordinates v_1, \dots, v_n by

$$v_i = u_i \quad \text{for } i \neq r$$

$$v_r(u_1, \dots, u_n) = g(u_1, \dots, u_n) \left[u_r + \sum_{i>r} u_i H_{ir}(u_1, \dots, u_n) / H_{rr}(u_1, \dots, u_n) \right].$$

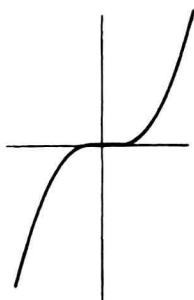
It follows from the inverse function theorem that v_1, \dots, v_n will serve as coordinate functions within some sufficiently small neighborhood U_3 of 0. It is easily verified that f can be expressed as

$$f = \sum_{i \leq r} \pm (v_i)^2 + \sum_{i,j > r} v_i v_j H'_{ij}(v_1, \dots, v_n)$$

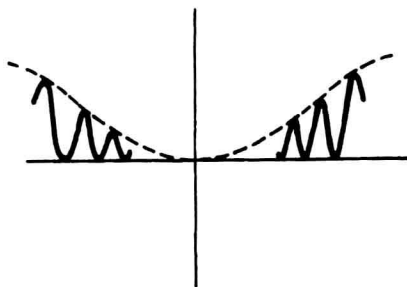
throughout U_3 . This completes the induction; and proves Lemma 2.2.

COROLLARY 2.3 Non-degenerate critical points are isolated.

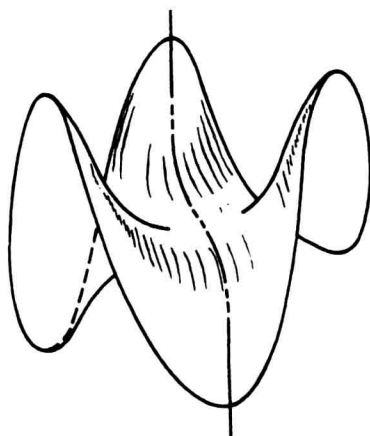
Examples of degenerate critical points (for functions on \mathbf{R} and \mathbf{R}^2) are given below, together with pictures of their graphs.



(a) $f(x) = x^3$. The origin is a degenerate critical point.



(b) $F(x) = e^{-1/x^2} \sin^2(1/x)$. The origin is a degenerate, and non-isolated, critical point.



(c) $f(x,y) = x^3 - 3xy^2 = \text{Real part of } (x + iy)^3$.

$(0,0)$ is a degenerate critical point (a "monkey saddle").