

Miscellaneous notes for D. Huybrechts's Complex Geometry

Taper

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Abstract

Miscellaneous notes for D. Huybrechts's book *Introduction to Complex Geometry*, include some homeworks done.

Contents

| | | |
|----------|---|-----------|
| 1 | The structure of almost complex structures on \mathbb{R}^4 (exercise 1.2.1) | 1 |
| 1.1 | Understand $\frac{GL(2n, \mathbb{R})}{GL(n, \mathbb{C})}$ | 3 |
| 1.1.1 | Why $M_n = \frac{GL(2n, \mathbb{R})}{GL(n, \mathbb{C})}$ | 3 |
| 1.1.2 | Why $GL(n, \mathbb{C}) \hookrightarrow GL^+(2n, \mathbb{R})$ | 5 |
| 1.1.3 | Determinants of Block Matrices | 6 |
| 1.1.4 | Why $GL(n, \mathbb{C}) \hookrightarrow GL^+(2n, \mathbb{R})$ (continued) | 8 |
| 1.2 | Math.SE answer in M_2 is two copies of S^2 | 9 |
| 1.3 | Fibration | 10 |
| 2 | Anchor | 12 |
| 3 | License | 12 |

1 The structure of almost complex structures on \mathbb{R}^4 (exercise 1.2.1)

In exercise 1.2.1, it says that the set of all compatible almost complex structures on a euclidean space of dimension 4, is two copies of S^2 .

To show it, I tried first a straight calculation. Assuming the almost complex structure $I = (a_{ij})$. Then we have:

Section 1.2 of Intro to Complex Geometry.

Exercises:

1.2-1.

Q: Let (V, \langle, \rangle) : euclidian space of $\dim = 4$.

Show: $\{ \text{all compatible almost complex structures} \}$
 \cong
 $\text{two copies of } S^2 \cong \text{two balls.}$

Recap: compatible: $I: I^2 = -1, \langle I(v), I(w) \rangle = \langle v, w \rangle$.

Choose an orthogonal basis: e_1, \dots, e_4

Let $I = (a^i_j)$ $I^2 = a^i_j a^j_k = -\delta^i_k$

also $\langle, \rangle \cong \delta^i_j$ \otimes

$$\langle I(v), I(w) \rangle = (a^i_j v^j) \cdot \delta^i_k (a^k_l w^l) = v^j \delta^i_k a^k_l w^l$$

($\forall \vec{v}, \vec{w}$)

Hence $a^i_j \delta^i_k a^k_l = \delta_{jl}$ or $a^i_j a^i_k = \delta_{jk}$

For example:

$$\sum_j a^1_j a^j_2 = 0 = \sum_j a^j_1 a^j_2 \Rightarrow \sum_{j=2,4} a^1_j a^j_2 = \sum_{j=2} a^j_1 a^j_2$$

This can be generalized: $\sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq k}}^4 a^k_j a^j_l = \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq k}}^4 a^j_k a^j_l \quad (k \neq l)$ } 16 sets of eq.

also: $a^i_j \sum_{j=1}^4 a^j_i a^j_i = - \sum_{j=1}^4 a^j_i a^j_i$

Figure 1: Draft

Then I discover this too hard to work, because too many equations are involved, and none of them could be eliminated by other. Meanwhile, I found a post in Math.SE about this [2]. Here are several important concepts for understanding that post.

1.1 Understand $\frac{GL(2n, \mathbb{R})}{GL(n, \mathbb{C})}$

1.1.1 Why $M_n = \frac{GL(2n, \mathbb{R})}{GL(n, \mathbb{C})}$

This is a note of my question on Math.SE [5], which explains that we can identify the set of almost complex structures with $\frac{GL(2n, \mathbb{R})}{GL(n, \mathbb{C})}$.

First, I try to do it when $n = 1$. I inject a complex number $a + bi$ by identify it with $a\mathbb{I} + b\mathbb{J}$, where \mathbb{I} is the identify matrix and \mathbb{J} is $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. I take one set of basis of $GL(2, \mathbb{R})$ as:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

(I think this is a basis because the following matrix is non-singular:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

) Then the $\frac{GL(2n, \mathbb{R})}{GL(n, \mathbb{C})}$ becomes equivalent classes represented by

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$$

However, I don't know how to link this with an almost complex structure.

I have a feeling that I might have been in the wrong direction. It was pointed out that $GL(2n, \mathbb{R})$ is not even a vector space. So what I did is in fact nonsense.

Below is one correct answer I got:

An almost-complex structure is a matrix J such that $J^2 = -I$ is the negative identity. As you said, one example of such a matrix J is

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & I \\ -I & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Interpreting $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ as a subgroup of $GL(2n; \mathbb{R})$ depends on having fixed such an almost-complex structure. Once we have a matrix J , we can call a matrix $A \in GL(2n; \mathbb{R})$ complex-linear if it commutes with J , i.e. $AJA^{-1} = J$.

(The idea is that \mathbb{C} -linear maps T are just real linear maps with the additional property that $T(iv) = iT(v)$ for all vectors v)

Given any matrix $A \in GL(2n; \mathbb{R})$, we get another almost-complex structure AJA^{-1} . This is the same almost-complex structure J if and only if $A \in GL(n; \mathbb{C})$. On the other hand, all almost-complex structures are similar (although it may take some work to be convincing that they are similar over \mathbb{R} and not only \mathbb{C}) since they are diagonalizable with the same eigenvalues $\pm i$. That gives you a bijection

$$GL(2n; \mathbb{R})/GL(n; \mathbb{C}) \longrightarrow \{\text{almost - complex structures}\}$$

under which a class $A \cdot GL(n; \mathbb{C})$ corresponds to the almost-complex structure AJA^{-1} .

I questioned him:

1. Why AJA^{-1} is the same almost-complex structure J if and only if $A \in GL(n; \mathbb{C})$.
2. Why all almost-complex structures are similar over \mathbb{R} .

He responded that:

1. is the definition of $GL(n; \mathbb{C})$ as matrices A with $AJA^{-1} = J$.
2. comes from the fact that any real matrices that are similar over \mathbb{C} are already similar over \mathbb{R} . This isn't trivial but it has been asked and answered many times on this site: here is one reference [6].

Inside that reference, the following theorem is proved:

Theorem 1.1. *Let E be a field, let F be a subfield, and let A and B be $n \times n$ matrices with coefficients in F . If A and B are similar over E , they are similar over F .*

However, I still have doubts about the following question: For $A \in GL(2n, \mathbb{R})$, if $AJA^{-1} = J$, can we conclude that A is inside $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$?

The following is my solution:

Lemma 1.1. *There exists a injection ϕ of $GL(n, \mathbb{C}) \hookrightarrow GL(2n, \mathbb{R})$ such that:*

$$\phi(iB) = \phi(i)\phi(B) \tag{1.1.1}$$

for any $B \in GL(n, \mathbb{C})$. Also, for any $A \in GL(2n, \mathbb{R})$ we have $AJA^{-1} = J$ if and only if $A \in \text{Im}(\phi)$, where $J \equiv \phi(i)$.

Proof. The ϕ is construct as follows. Let $J_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, define $H(x + iy)$ for $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ as

$$H(x + iy) = xI + yJ \tag{1.1.2}$$

Then:

$$\phi(A)_{ij} \equiv H(a_{ij}) \tag{1.1.3}$$

Then:

$$\phi(i) = \begin{pmatrix} J & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & J \end{pmatrix} \quad (1.1.4)$$

By direct simple calculation (remember to use the technique of block multiplication), we have: $\phi(iB) = \phi(i)\phi(B)$. for any $B \in GL(n, \mathbb{C})$. This also shows $BJB^{-1} = J$, since $iB = Bi$.

To prove the converse, we see that the following matrices forms a basis of 2×2 real matrices:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

They are denoted, from left to right as I, J_0, K, L . Let any $A \in GL(2n, \mathbb{R})$, we can partition A into a matrix of 2×2 matrices (a_{ij}) . Each matrix can be expressed as $a_{ij} = x_{ij}I + y_{ij}J_0 + z_{ij}K + t_{ij}L$. Then if $AJA^{-1} = J$, by direct calculation we find:

$$(z_{ij}K + t_{ij}L)J_0 = J_0(z_{ij}K + t_{ij}L)$$

then also by direct calculation, it can be easily found that $z_{ij} = t_{ij} = 0$. Hence $A \in \text{Im}(\phi)$. \square

1.1.2 Why $GL(n, \mathbb{C}) \hookrightarrow GL^+(2n, \mathbb{R})$

To understand that post [2], I also read this [3]. In it, it asks how to prove that

$$GL(n, \mathbb{C}) \hookrightarrow GL^+(2n, \mathbb{R}) \quad (1.1.5)$$

for any n . The questioner gives the intuition for this fact:

how about since as Lie groups, $GL(n, \mathbb{C}) \subset GL(2n, \mathbb{R})$ and $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ is connected but $GL(2n, \mathbb{R})$ has two connected components, one for positive determinant and one for negative determinant? And the identity has positive determinant, so it must lie in that component.

Someone answered that question:

The claim is: If V is an n -dimensional complex vector space with underlying $2n$ -dimensional real vector space W , then the canonical group monomorphism $GL(V) \rightarrow GL(W)$ lands inside $GL^+(W) = \{f \in GL(W) : \det(f) > 0\}$. The purpose of this abstract reformulation is that we may use operations on vector spaces in order to simplify the problem: If V' is another finite-dimensional complex vector space with underlying real vector space W' , the diagram

Fun fact:
 $[K, J_0] = \sigma_z$, $[L, J_0] = \sigma_x$, the pauli matrices!

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
\mathrm{GL}(V) \times \mathrm{GL}(V') & \rightarrow & \mathrm{GL}(W) \times \mathrm{GL}(W') \\
\downarrow & & \downarrow \\
\mathrm{GL}(V \oplus V') & \rightarrow & \mathrm{GL}(W \oplus W')
\end{array} \tag{1.1.6}$$

commutes, and the image of $\mathrm{GL}^+(W) \times \mathrm{GL}^+(W')$ is contained in $\mathrm{GL}^+(W \oplus W')$. Therefore, if some element in $\mathrm{GL}(V \oplus V')$ lies in the image of $\mathrm{GL}(V) \times \mathrm{GL}(V')$, it suffices to consider the components. Combining this with the fact that $\mathrm{GL}(V)$ is generated by elementary matrices (after choosing a basis of V), we may reduce the whole problem to the following three types of matrices:

- the 1×1 -matrices (λ) ,
- the 2×2 -matrices $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \lambda & 1 \end{pmatrix}$,
- and the 2×2 -matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$.

Write $\lambda = a + ib$ with $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$. Then, the complex 1×1 -matrix (λ) becomes the real 2×2 -matrix $\begin{pmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{pmatrix}$, which has determinant $a^2 + b^2 > 0$. The complex 2×2 -matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \lambda & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

becomes the real 4×4 -matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ a & -b & 1 & 0 \\ b & a & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, which has

determinant 1. Finally, the complex 2×2 -matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ be-

comes the real 4×4 -matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, which has deter-

minant 1.

However, this proof is not complete because, to build the proof from \mathbb{R}^2 to \mathbb{R}^{2n} , it requires, in his argument, that any element in $\mathrm{GL}(V \oplus V)$ is in the image of $\mathrm{GL}(V) \times \mathrm{GL}(V')$, which is not the case.

On the other hand, it seems that this property can be proved directly by calculation. The following will be a notes of a paper [4], which one comment mentions in the Math.SE post [3].

1.1.3 Determinants of Block Matrices

This paper tries to prove the theorem:

Theorem 1.2. *Let R be a commutative subring of ${}^n F^n$, where F is a field (or a commutative ring), and let $M \in {}^m R^m$. Then*

$$\det_F \mathbf{M} = \det_F(\det_R \mathbf{M}) \tag{1.1.7}$$

In particular, we have:

$$\det_F \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix} = \det_F(AD - BC) \quad (1.1.8)$$

Note that, that the ring being is commutative excludes some ambiguity. For example, when the ring $\mathbb{4}$ is not commutative, then the quantity:

$$\det_F \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix} \quad (1.1.9)$$

is not well-defined. It can be $AD - BC$, or $DA - CB$, etc.

Before the proof of the main theorem, it establishes several facts:

$$\det_F \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix} = \det_F \mathbf{A} \det_F \mathbf{D} \quad (1.1.10)$$

$$\det_F \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix} = \det_F \mathbf{A} \det_F \mathbf{D} \quad (1.1.11)$$

$$\det_F \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{0} \end{pmatrix} = \det_F -\mathbf{C} \det_F \mathbf{B} \quad (1.1.12)$$

$$\det_F \mathbf{A} \det_F \mathbf{D} = \det_F \mathbf{I}_n \det_F(\mathbf{AD}) \quad (1.1.13)$$

He first builds up a seemingly simplified, but is actually different version of the main theorem:

Theorem 1.3. *Let $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D} \in {}^n F^n$. Let $\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix}$.*

If $\mathbf{CD} = \mathbf{DC}$, then,

$$\det_F \mathbf{M} = \det_F(\mathbf{AD} - \mathbf{BC}) \quad (1.1.14)$$

and similar results:

$$\text{if } \mathbf{AC} = \mathbf{CA} \text{ then, } \det_F \mathbf{M} = \det_F(\mathbf{AD} - \mathbf{CB}) \quad (1.1.15)$$

$$\text{if } \mathbf{BD} = \mathbf{DB} \text{ then, } \det_F \mathbf{M} = \det_F(\mathbf{DA} - \mathbf{BC}) \quad (1.1.16)$$

$$\text{if } \mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{BA} \text{ then, } \det_F \mathbf{M} = \det_F(\mathbf{DA} - \mathbf{CB}) \quad (1.1.17)$$

These equalities can be proved easily by the following:

$$\begin{pmatrix} D & 0 \\ -C & i \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} AD - BC & B \\ CD - DC & D \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} AD - BC & B \\ 0 & D \end{pmatrix} \text{ when } C, D \text{ commutes}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} D & -B \\ 0 & i \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} DA - BC & DB - BD \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} DA - BC & 0 \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} \text{ when } D, B \text{ commutes.}$$

The author also gives an illuminative explanation for why

$$(\det_F \mathbf{M} - \det_F(\mathbf{AD} - \mathbf{BC})) \det_F \mathbf{D} = 0$$

necessarily implies:

$$\det_F \mathbf{M} = \det_F(\mathbf{AD} - \mathbf{BC})$$

However, I am dubious about this conclusion, since I think it needs in addition that the polynomial ring $F[x]$ has not nonzero zero divisor.

Having demonstrated the above simple case, the author continues to prove the main theorem. He proves by induction. He first uses:

$$\begin{pmatrix} A & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} dI & 0 \\ -c & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_0 & b \\ 0 & d \end{pmatrix} \quad (1.1.18)$$

where $A, A_0 \in {}^{m-1}R^{m-1}, b \in {}^{m-1}R, c \in R^{m-1}, d \in R$. Therefore, (let $M = \begin{pmatrix} A & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$) with similar reason mentioned before, he shows if:

$$\det_F \mathbf{A}_0 = \det_F(\det_{\mathbf{R}} \mathbf{A}_0) \quad (1.1.19)$$

(which is true by induction) then:

$$\det_F \mathbf{M} = \det_F(\det_{\mathbf{R}} \mathbf{M}) \quad (1.1.20)$$

Proof completes.

He also mentions a corollary:

Corollary 1.1. *Let $\mathbf{P} \in {}^n F^n$ and $\mathbf{Q} \in {}^m F^m$, then*

$$\det_F(\mathbf{P} \otimes \mathbf{Q}) = (\det_F \mathbf{P})^m (\det_F \mathbf{Q})^n \quad (1.1.21)$$

The proof is quite straightforward and is omitted.

1.1.4 Why $GL(n, \mathbb{C}) \hookrightarrow GL^+(2n, \mathbb{R})$ (continued)

With above theorem, the proof of equation 1.1.5 is straight forward. Since for $(a_{ij}) = A \in GL(n, \mathbb{C})$, it injects into $GL(2n, \mathbb{R})$ as matrices of the form:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & H a_{ij} & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots \end{pmatrix}$$

where:

$$H(z \equiv x + iy) = \begin{pmatrix} x & -y \\ y & x \end{pmatrix}$$

Since $H(a_{ij})$ commutes with each other (proved by calculation), we can use the theorem in previous part to show that:

$$\det_{\mathbb{R}}(A) = \det_{\mathbb{R}}(\det_{\mathbb{C}}(A)) = \det_{\mathbb{R}}(aI + bJ) = \det \begin{pmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{pmatrix} \geq 0$$

Notice that I have been sloopy in language, but the meaning should be clear.

1.2 Math.SE answer in M_2 is two copies of S^2

Following is an answer [7] in Math.SE about this question:

As you noted, M is *not* diffeomorphic to $S^2 \amalg S^2$ for dimension reasons.

On the other hand, what is true is M is homotopy equivalent to $S^2 \amalg S^2$.

(The following argument is partly adapted from a [paper][1] of Montgomery)

To see this, it's enough to show that $Gl^+(4, \mathbb{R})/Gl(2, \mathbb{C})$ is homotopy equivalent to S^2 , where Gl^+ denotes those matrices of positive determinant.

Now, consider the subgroups $U(2) \subseteq Gl(2, \mathbb{C})$ and $SO(4) \subseteq Gl^+(4, \mathbb{R})$.

It's relatively well known that $Gl(2, \mathbb{C})$ is diffeomorphic to $U(2) \times \mathbb{R}^4$ and that $Gl^+(4, \mathbb{R})$ is diffeomorphic to $SO(4) \times \mathbb{R}^{10}$. Further, in the usual inclusion $Gl(2, \mathbb{C}) \rightarrow Gl^+(4, \mathbb{R})$, $U(2)$ becomes a subgroup of $SO(4)$.

Now, the chain of subgroups $U(2) \subseteq SO(4) \subseteq Gl^+(4, \mathbb{R})$ gives rise to a homogeneous fibration

$$SO(4)/U(2) \rightarrow Gl^+(4, \mathbb{R})/U(2) \rightarrow Gl^+(4, \mathbb{R})/SO(4).$$

In light of the above diffeomorphisms, $Gl^+(4, \mathbb{R})/SO(4)$ is diffeomorphic to \mathbb{R}^{10} . Since Euclidean spaces are contractible, it follows that the fibration is trivial, so $Gl^+(4, \mathbb{R})/U(2)$ is diffeomorphic to $SO(4)/U(2) \times \mathbb{R}^{10}$. In particular, $SO(4)/U(2)$ is homotopy equivalent to $Gl^+(4, \mathbb{R})/U(2)$.

Now, consider the chain of subgroups $U(2) \subseteq Gl(2, \mathbb{C}) \subseteq Gl^+(4, \mathbb{R})$. This gives rise to a homogeneous fibration

$$Gl(2, \mathbb{C})/U(2) \rightarrow Gl^+(4, \mathbb{R})/U(2) \rightarrow Gl^+(4, \mathbb{R})/Gl(2, \mathbb{C}).$$

In this case, the fiber is diffeomorphic to \mathbb{R}^4 , which immediately implies that $Gl^+(4, \mathbb{R})/U(2)$ is homotopy equivalent to $Gl^+(4, \mathbb{R})/Gl(2, \mathbb{C})$.

(Paused reading here)

Putting the last two paragraphs together, we now know that $SO(4)/U(2)$ is homotopy equivalent to $Gl^+(4, \mathbb{R})/Gl(2, \mathbb{C})$.

To finish off the argument, we need to show that $SO(4)/U(2)$ is diffeomorphic to S^2 . To see this, first note that $U(2)$ intersects the center $Z(SO(4)) = \{\pm I\}$ of $SO(4)$. It follows that

$$SO(4)/U(2) \cong [SO(4)/Z(SO(4))]/[U(2)/(Z(SO(4)) \cap U(2))].$$

But $SO(4)/Z(SO(4)) \cong SO(3) \times SO(3)$ and $U(2)/(Z(SO(4)) \cap U(2)) \cong SO(3) \times S^1$. So, $SO(4)/U(2) \cong (SO(3) \times SO(3))/(SO(3) \times S^1) \cong SO(3)/S^1$.

But the standard action of $SO(3)$ on S^2 is transitive with stabilizer S^1 , so $SO(3)/S^1 \cong S^2$.

[1]: <http://www.ams.org/journals/proc/1950-001-04/S0002-9939-1950-0037311-6/S0002-9939-1950-0037311-6.pdf>

I honestly know almost nothing about the concepts this response mentioned. Therefore, I try to dismantle the response into several parts:

Facts he mentioned that I am not familiar

1. $GL(2, \mathbb{C})$ is diffeomorphic to $U(2) \times \mathbb{R}^4$.
2. $GL^+(4, \mathbb{R})$ is diffeomorphic to $SO(4) \times \mathbb{R}^{10}$
3. In the usual inclusion $GL(2, \mathbb{C}) \rightarrow GL^+(4, \mathbb{R})$, $U(2)$ becomes a subgroup of $SO(4)$.

Concepts to be learnt:

1. fibration of above Lie groups
2. Highlight area 1: can fibration kill a subgroup?
3. Highlight area 2: contractible and fibration?
4. And the following sentence.
5. then the next sentence: diffeomorphism and homotopy?
6. How does a "chain of subgroups" gives rise to a fibration.

The following notes aim at understanding the above sentences.

1.3 Fibration

Lift of morphisms

Definition 1.1 (Lift of morphisms). *The **lift** of a morphism $f : Y \rightarrow B$ along an epimorphism¹. (or more general map) $p : X \rightarrow B$ is a morphism $\tilde{f} : Y \rightarrow X$ such that $f = p \circ \tilde{f}$.*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{p} & B \\ \tilde{f} \uparrow & \nearrow f & \\ Y & & \end{array}$$

Definition 1.2 (Lift property). *We say that f has a **left lifting property** w.r.t g , or equivalently that g has a **right lifting property** w.r.t f , if and only if for every commutative diagram below:*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} a & \xrightarrow{u} & c \\ \downarrow f & & \downarrow g \\ b & \xrightarrow{v} & d \end{array}$$

¹Epimorphism is the category analogy of surjective functions in set theory

there is an arrow γ , s.t. both triangles in the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} a & \xrightarrow{u} & c \\ \downarrow f & \nearrow \gamma & \downarrow g \\ b & \xrightarrow{v} & d \end{array}$$

Such an arrow γ is called a **lift** or a **solution** to the lifting problem (u, v) . If such γ is unique, i.e. we have:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} a & \xrightarrow{u} & c \\ \downarrow f & \nearrow \gamma & \downarrow g \\ b & \xrightarrow{v} & d \end{array}$$

Then we say f is **orthogonal** to g , denoted $f \perp g$.

Ref [8].

Definition 1.3 (Homotopy lifting property). Let C be a category with **products** and with **interval object** I . A morphism $E \rightarrow B$ has the homotopy lifting property if it has the right lifting property w.r.t all morphisms of the form $(Id, 0) : Y \rightarrow Y \times I$.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Y & \xrightarrow{f} & E \\ \downarrow & \nearrow \sigma & \downarrow p \\ Y \times I & \xrightarrow{F} & B \end{array}$$

Note: the term **products** and **interval object** mentioned above are category analogy of cartesian products and unit interval $[0, 1]$ in our daily mathematics. Since I will be concentrated in the case of a topological space, I will simply regard them just as topological products and the unit interval.

Remark 1.1. (From page 355, Fibration in chapter 11.)

If one defines the relationship as above, then one will find something interesting out of these relations.

If one defines $h_1 : Y \rightarrow B$ by $h_1(x) = F(x, 0)$, then f is a lifting of h_1 ; if one defines $h_2 : Y \rightarrow B$ by $h_2(x) = F(x, 1)$, then one sees F actually induces homotopy $h_1 \simeq h_2$. Similarly, σ is also a homotopy $f \simeq \tilde{f}$, where $\tilde{f} = \sigma(x, 1)$ is a lifting of

Fibrations

Definition 1.4 (Hurewicz fibration). A map p is called a Hurewicz fibration if it satisfies the homotopy lifting property w.r.t to all spaces X .

Definition 1.5 (Serre fibration). A map p is called a Serre fibration if it satisfies the homotopy lifting property w.r.t to all discs X .

Notes: by discs, I think he means closed discs, or closed balls, because he also mentioned "equivalently" closed cubes.

Ref [9].

2 Anchor

References

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