

# Basic Morse Theory

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## 1 Introduction

Morse theory is mainly about how Morse functions can reflect the topology of a manifold. Here, I will start with basic definitions, then show there are abundant Morse functions by the theorem of existence. Finally, I will talk about handle decomposition, which, from my point of view, is the heart of Morse theory.

## 2 Morse Function

### 2.1 Basic Definition

**Definition** (Critical points)

Let  $f : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be a smooth function, where  $\mathcal{M}$  is a smooth manifold with dimension  $m$ . A point  $p_0$  is called critical point of  $f$  if

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x^1} = 0, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^2} = 0, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^m} = 0$$

where  $(x^1, x^2, \dots, x^m)$  is a local coordinate system.

There are 2 kinds of critical points, which can be determined by the Hessian matrix  $H_f(p) = [\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^i \partial x^j}](p)$ . A critical point  $p_0$  is called non-degenerate if  $H_f(p_0) \neq 0$ , degenerate if  $H_f(p_0) = 0$ .

**Definition** (Morse function)

$f : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is a Morse function if every critical point of  $f$  is non-degenerate.

The reason why we need non-degenerate critical points is because of stability. Generally speaking, we can always perturb a smooth function to make degenerate critical points vanish. For example,  $x = 0$  is the degenerate critical point for  $f(x) = x^3$ . If we perturb this function linearly  $f(x) = x^3 + \epsilon x$ , then either there is no critical point ( $\epsilon > 0$ ), or split into 2 non-degenerate critical points  $x = \pm \sqrt{\frac{-\epsilon}{3}}$  ( $\epsilon < 0$ ).

### 2.2 Morse Lemma

Morse functions have a nice behavior locally, here is an example.

**Theorem** (Morse lemma)

Let  $p_0$  be a non-degenerate critical point of  $f : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ , then we can choose a local coordinate system  $(x^1, \dots, x^m)$  such that  $f$  locally has the standard form:

$$f = -(x^1)^2 - (x^2)^2 - \dots - (x^\lambda)^2 + (x^{\lambda+1})^2 + \dots + (x^m)^2 + c$$

where  $p_0$  correspond the origin and  $c = f(p_0)$ .

We then call  $\lambda$  the index of  $p_0$ , which is an integer between 0 and  $m$ .

This theorem means  $f$  locally looks like a quadratic form near a critical point. Here I give a brief proof.

Proof.

It will be easy if we assume  $f$  is replaced by  $f - f(p_0)$ . i.e.  $f(p_0) = 0$ . Moreover, let  $p_0 = (0 \dots 0) = \bar{0}$ .

For  $f(0 \dots 0) = 0$ , there exist  $m$  smooth functions  $g_i$  with local coordinate  $x^1 \dots x^m$  s.t.

$$f(x^1 \dots x^m) = \sum_{i=1}^m x^i g_i(x^1 \dots x^m) \quad \& \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i}(\bar{0}) = g_i(\bar{0})$$

Since  $p_0$  is critical point, then  $g^i(\bar{0}) = 0$ , which means we can apply the same procedure:

$$g_i(x^1 \dots x^m) = \sum_{j=1}^m x^j h_{ij}(x^1 \dots x^m) \quad \& \quad \frac{\partial g_i}{\partial x^j}(\bar{0}) = h_{ij}(\bar{0})$$

Thus, we have

$$f(x^1 \dots x^m) = \sum_{i,j=1}^m x^i x^j h_{ij}(x^1 \dots x^m)$$

Since  $p_0$  is non-degenerate,  $\det H_f(\bar{0}) \neq 0$ . WLOG, we can assume  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^1 \partial x^1}(\bar{0}) \neq 0$  (we can do this since  $\exists j$  such that  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^1 \partial x^j}(\bar{0}) \neq 0$ , then just reorder the index). Let  $H_{ij} = \frac{h_{ij} + h_{ji}}{2}$ , can check  $H_{11}(\bar{0}) \neq 0$ . Since  $H$  is continuous, we can find a neighborhood of  $\bar{0}$  s.t.  $H_{11} \neq 0$ .

Now change the coordinate, let

$$y^1 = \sqrt{|H_{11}|}(x^1 + \sum_{i=2}^m x^i \frac{H_{1i}}{H_{11}})$$

We can check the determinant of Jacobian of  $(y^1, x^2, \dots, x^m)$  is nonzero, thus it's a local coordinate system. Combine the formula of  $y^1$  with  $f(x^1 \dots x^m) = \sum_{i,j=1}^m x^i x^j H_{ij}(x^1 \dots x^m)$ , we get:

$$f = \pm (y^1)^2 + \sum_{i,j=2}^m x^i x^j H_{ij} - (\sum_{i=2}^m x^i \frac{H_{1i}}{H_{11}})^2$$

Then we can do the coordinate transform of  $y^2, \dots, y^m$  by induction. In the case of 2 dimension,  $y^2 = \sqrt{|\frac{H_{11}H_{22} - H_{12}^2}{H_{11}}|}x^2$ . Q.E.D.

### 2.3 Existence of Morse Function

Till now, what we did is defining Morse function. However, to make Morse theory useful, we wish we can always find a Morse function given a smooth manifold  $\mathcal{M}$ .

**Theorem** (Existence of Morse function)

Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a smooth compact closed manifold and  $f : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is a smooth function. Then there exist a Morse function  $g : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ , and  $g$  is a  $(C^2, \epsilon)$  approximation of  $f$ . (i.e. under  $C^2$  topology)

**Definition** ( $(C^2, \epsilon)$  approximation)

$f, g$  are defined on a compact set  $K$ , then  $f$  is a  $(C^2, \epsilon)$  approximation of  $g$  if for  $\forall \epsilon > 0$

$$|f^{(k)}(p) - g^{(k)}(p)| < \epsilon$$

$\forall p \in K, \forall 0 \leq k \leq 2$ , where  $k$  is the order of derivation.

This theorem means whenever there is a smooth function  $\mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ , there is a Morse function. Here is a sketch of proof.

Proof. First, we need a lemma:

**Lemma** Let  $U$  be an open set in  $\mathbf{R}^m$ , and  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is smooth. Then exist  $a_1, \dots, a_m$  such that  $g(x^1 \dots x^m) = f(x^1 \dots x^m) - (a_1 x^1 + \dots + a_m x^m)$  is a Morse function. And  $|a_1|, \dots, |a_m|$  can be arbitrarily small.

To prove the lemma, define  $h : U \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^m$   $(x^1, \dots, x^m) \mapsto (\frac{\partial f}{\partial x^1}, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^m})$ . Then the Jacobian of  $h$  becomes the Hessian of  $f$ . We know that  $p_0$  is the critical point of  $h$  if and only if the Jacobian is 0. i.e.  $\det H_f(p_0) = 0$ . By Sard's Theorem, the set of critical points of  $h$  has measure zero, which suggests we can always choose  $(a_1, \dots, a_m)$  not a critical value of  $h$  with arbitrarily small absolute value.

Suppose  $p_0$  is the critical point of  $g$ , then can check  $h(p_0) = (a_1 \dots a_m)$ . Choose  $(a_1 \dots a_m)$  s.t.  $p_0$  is not a critical point of  $h$ . i.e.  $H_f(p_0) \neq 0$ . Then  $H_g(p_0) = H_f(p_0) \neq 0$ . Thus  $p_0$  is a non-degenerate critical point of  $g$ . This completes the proof of lemma.

Now since  $\mathcal{M}$  is compact, we can choose finite charts  $U_1 \dots U_k$  that cover  $\mathcal{M}$ .

We prove this theorem inductively. Suppose  $f_{i-1}$  is a Morse function defined on  $C_{i-1}$ , where  $C_i = U_1 \cup \dots \cup U_i$ . Define:

$$f_i = f_{i-1} + (a_1 x^1 + \dots + a_m x^m) h_i(x^1 \dots x^m)$$

where  $h_i$  is a smooth function defined on  $C_i$ ,  $0 \leq h_i \leq 1$ . For two neighborhood  $V, K$  of  $C_{i-1}$  ( $C_{i-1} \subset V \subset K \subset C_i$ ),  $h_i = 1$  in  $V$  and  $h_i = 0$  outside  $K$ . Thus,  $f_i$  is smooth on  $C_i$ .

Since the 1st and 2nd derivative of  $h$  is bounded, we can take arbitrarily small  $(a_1, \dots, a_m)$  to make  $f_i$  is a  $(C^2, \epsilon)$  approximation of  $f_{i-1}$ . By induction,  $f_k = g$  is the Morse function we need. Q.E.D.

### 3 Handle Decomposition

We have discussed some properties of Morse functions. Now, it's time to see how they are related to the topology of manifolds. In this section, we will show a manifold could be built with some basic blocks.

**Theorem** Let  $f : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be a Morse function and  $\mathcal{M}$  is a closed manifold. If  $f$  has no critical values in  $[a, b]$ , then  $\mathcal{M}_{[a, b]} \cong f^{-1}(a) \times [0, 1]$ . ( $\mathcal{M}_{[a, b]} = \{p \in \mathcal{M} | a \leq f(p) \leq b\}$ )

Note that two manifolds  $\mathcal{N} \cong \mathcal{M}$  means  $\exists$  diffeomorphism  $f : \mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$ .

Before beginning our proof, I give a theorem about gradient-like vector field without proof.

**Theorem**(Gradient-like vector field)

$f : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is Morse function on compact manifold  $\mathcal{M}$ , then there exist a gradient like vector field  $X$  for  $f$ . Where

(i)  $Xf > 0$  if not at critical points

(ii)  $X = -2x^1 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^1} - \dots - 2x^\lambda \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\lambda} + \dots + 2x^m \frac{\partial}{\partial x^m}$  on a neighborhood of critical points.

Proof. Def  $Y = \frac{X}{Xf}$  since there is no critical value in  $[a, b]$ .  $\forall p \in f^{-1}(a)$ , we can always find a curve  $c_p(t)$  with  $\frac{d}{dt}f(c_p(t)) = \frac{dc}{dt}f = Y_{c(t)}f = 1$ . We can check  $c_p(t)$  is the diffeomorphism between  $f^{-1}(a) \times [0, b-a]$  and  $\mathcal{M}_{[a, b]}$  since different  $c_p(t)$  will never meet.

**Corollary** Let  $f : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be a Morse function and  $\mathcal{M}$  is a closed manifold. If  $f$  has no critical values in  $[a, b]$ , then  $\mathcal{M}_a \cong \mathcal{M}_b$ . ( $\mathcal{M}_t = \{p \in \mathcal{M} | f(p) \leq t\}$ , called the sublevel set).

Proof. Similarly, since there is no critical value in  $[a, b]$ , then we can let the curve flow along the gradient-like vector field. And after a finite time,  $\mathcal{M}_a$  meets  $\mathcal{M}_b$ .

This tells us if the shape of  $\mathcal{M}_t$  wouldn't change unless  $t$  pass a critical value. But how does the shape change exactly? We then need the theorem of handle decomposition.

**Definition**( $\lambda$  handle)

A  $\lambda$  handle is the Cartesian product of a  $\lambda$  disk and  $m - \lambda$  disk:  $D^\lambda \times D^{m-\lambda}$ . Here, the  $\lambda$  is the index of critical points and  $m$  is the dimension of manifold.  $D$  represents disk.

**Theorem**

Let  $c_i$  be critical value with index  $\lambda$ . Then  $\mathcal{M}_{c_i+\epsilon} \cong \mathcal{M}_{c_i-\epsilon} \cup (D^\lambda \times D^{m-\lambda})$ .

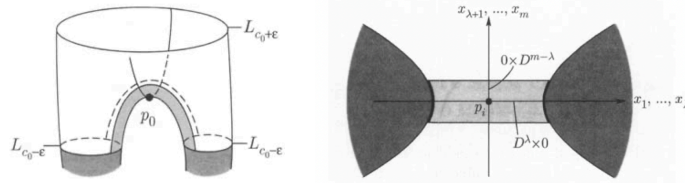


Figure1.[1]  $\mathcal{M}_{c_i-\epsilon}$  attached with a  $\lambda$  handle

An intuitive way of thinking is given the quadratic form of Morse function near critical point, the 'bridge' area could be thought as

$$(x^1)^2 + \dots + (x^\lambda)^2 - (x^{\lambda+1})^2 - \dots - (x^m)^2 \leq \epsilon$$

$$(x^{\lambda+1})^2 + \dots + (x^m)^2 \leq \delta \leq \epsilon$$

We could see such handles are building blocks of manifold. Here is the precise theorem about it:

**Definition**(Handle body)

Let  $D^m$  be a disk. After attaching handles one after one,

$$D^m \cup_{\varphi_1} (D^{\lambda_1} \times D^{m-\lambda_1}) \cup_{\varphi_2} \dots \cup_{\varphi_n} (D^{\lambda_n} \times D^{m-\lambda_n}) = \mathcal{H}(D^m, \varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_n)$$

Such a manifold is called  $m$ -dimensional handlebody.

Here,  $\cup_{\varphi_i}$  means using a 'gluing' diffeomorphism  $\varphi_i : \partial \mathcal{H}(D^m, \varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_{i-1}) \rightarrow \partial(D^{\lambda_i} \times D^{m-\lambda_i})$ . Note that after attaching, the manifold is then smoothed out.

**Theorem**(Handle decomposition)

$f : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is a Morse function defined on closed manifold  $\mathcal{M}$ , then a structure of handlebody is determined by  $f$ .

The index of handles corresponds to the critical points.

This theorem tells us that a closed manifold could be cut into several building blocks(handles).

Proof. By induction. For  $i = 0$ ,  $M_{c_0+\epsilon} \cong D^m$ . Assume that  $M_{c_{i-1}+\epsilon} \cong \mathcal{H}(D^m, \varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_{i-1})$ . Since there is no critical point in  $[c_{i-1} + \epsilon, c_i - \epsilon]$ ,  $M_{c_{i-1}+\epsilon} \cong M_{c_i-\epsilon}$ . By the theorem above,  $M_{c_i+\epsilon} \cong M_{c_i-\epsilon} \cup_{\varphi_i} (D^{\lambda_i} \times D^{m-\lambda_i})$ . Thus  $M_{c_i+\epsilon} \cong \mathcal{H}(D^m, \varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_i)$ . This completes the proof.

Note that there may be more than one way to glue handles. For example, as shown in fig2, in  $\mathbf{R}^2$ , there are two ways to attach a 1-handle  $D^1 \times D^1$  to a 2-handle  $D^2$ . We can check the first one is diffeomorphic to a cylinder, while the second one is diffeomorphic to a Mobius strip.

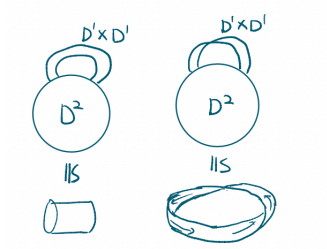


Figure2. two ways to attach a 1-handle of 2 dimension

We then show an example of handle decomposition to end this article. Fig3 shows the handle decomposition of a torus  $T^2$ .

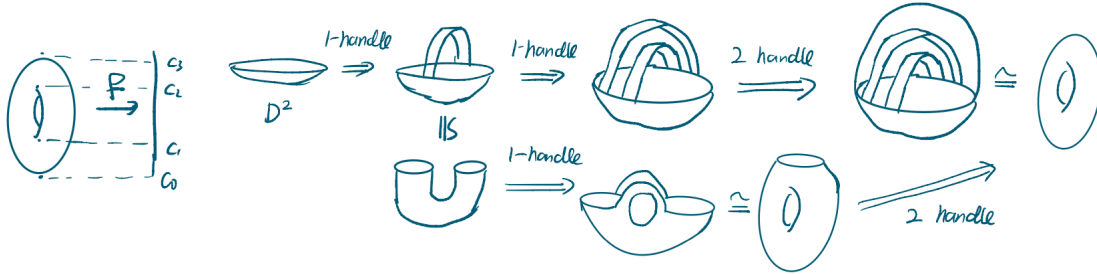


Figure3. handle decomposition of a torus  $T^2$

## 4 Reference

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