

# TRISECTIONS I: EXISTENCE AND EXAMPLES

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Manifolds will be smooth, compact, connected and oriented. Trisections of (closed) 4-manifolds, due to Gay and Kirby [GK16], are a great way to encode the 4-dimensional properties into a simple diagrammatic setting, and in many regards, they are a generalization of these decompositions to the dimension above.

## 1. DEFINITION AND EXAMPLES

We define an  $n$ -dimensional 1-handlebody of genus  $k$  to be  $Z_k \cong \natural^k(\mathbf{S}^1 \times \mathbf{D}^3)$ , and we set  $Z_0 = \mathbf{D}^4$ . Similarly, a 3-dimensional 1-handlebody of genus  $g$  is  $Y_g \cong \natural^g(\mathbf{S}^1 \times \mathbf{D}^2)$ .  $\Sigma_g$  will denote the closed surface of genus  $g$ , with  $\partial Y_g \cong \Sigma_g$ .

**Definition 1.** A *trisection* of a closed 4-manifold  $X$  is a decomposition  $X = X_1 \cup X_2 \cup X_3$  into three embedded submanifolds  $X_1, X_2, X_3$  such that:

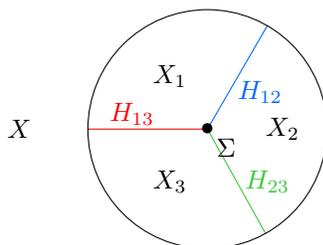
- (1)  $X_i \cong Z_{k_i}$  for  $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ .
- (2)  $H_{ij} := X_i \cap X_j \cong Y_g$  for  $i \neq j \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ .
- (3)  $\Sigma := X_1 \cap X_2 \cap X_3 \cong \Sigma_g$ .

The pieces  $X_1, X_2$  and  $X_3$  are called the **sectors** of the trisection, and  $\Sigma$  is the **trisecting surface**. The **genus** of the trisection is that of  $\Sigma$ , and we say that this decomposition is a trisection of **type**  $(g; k_1, k_2, k_3)$ .

The schematic way to represent a trisection is shown in Figure 1.

We can make the following observations:

- (1)  $\partial X_1 = H_{12} \cup H_{13}$  is a Heegaard splitting of genus  $g$ , and the associated Heegaard surface  $\Sigma$ .



**Figure 1.** The cartoon picture of a trisection.

- (2)  $\partial X_1 \cong \#^{k_1}(\mathbf{S}^1 \times \mathbf{S}^2)$ . Therefore  $k_1 \leq g$ .
- (3) The Waldhausen theorem asserts that  $\#^{k_1}(\mathbf{S}^1 \times \mathbf{S}^2)$  admits a *unique* Heegaard splitting of genus  $g \geq k_1$ , up to isotopy.

These observations, which can also be made for  $\partial X_2$  and  $\partial X_3$ , already imply some restrictions on the different pieces of the trisection.

One can also make use of the Inclusion-Exclusion principle, and read:

$$\chi(X) = 2 + g - (k_1 + k_2 + k_3). \quad (1)$$

The very first example is that of  $\mathbf{S}^4$ . Consider that  $\mathbf{S}^4 \subset \mathbf{C} \times \mathbf{R}^3$ , and cut  $\mathbf{C}$  into three sectors almost like in Figure 1:

$$R_i := \{re^{i\theta} \in \mathbf{C} \mid 2i\pi/3 \leq \theta \leq 2(i+1)\pi/3\}, \quad i \in \{1, 2, 3\}.$$

Then, set  $X_i = p^{-1}(R_i)$ , where  $p : \mathbf{S}^4 \rightarrow \mathbf{C}$  is the projection onto the first factor. It is an immediate verification to see that  $\mathbf{S}^4 = X_1 \cup X_2 \cup X_3$ , and that:

- (1)  $X_i \cong \mathbf{D}^4 \cong Z_0$ .
- (2)  $X_i \cap X_j \cong \mathbf{D}^3 \cong Y_3$ .
- (3)  $X_1 \cap X_2 \cap X_3 \cong \mathbf{S}^2$ .

Therefore, this decomposition of  $\mathbf{S}^4$  is a genus zero trisection, and it has type  $(0; 0, 0, 0)$ .

One can also build a trisection of  $\mathbf{S}^1 \times \mathbf{S}^3$  in the same fashion: embed  $\mathbf{S}^3 \subset \mathbf{C} \times \mathbf{R}^2$ , and consider this time the map  $p : \mathbf{S}^1 \times \mathbf{S}^3 \rightarrow \mathbf{C}$  that projects onto the  $\mathbf{C}$ -coordinate in the  $\mathbf{S}^3$  factor. Set  $X_i = p^{-1}(R_i)$  just as before. This time, we see that:

- (1)  $X_i \cong \mathbf{S}^1 \times \mathbf{D}^3$ .
- (2)  $X_i \cap X_j \cong \mathbf{S}^1 \times \mathbf{D}^2$ .
- (3)  $X_1 \cap X_2 \cap X_3 \cong \mathbf{T}^2$ .

The trisection has genus one, and type  $(1; 1, 1, 1)$ .

Given a trisected closed 4-manifold  $X = X_1 \cup X_2 \cup X_3$ , define the **spine** of the trisection to be the union

$$Y = H_{12} \cup H_{13} \cup H_{23}.$$

We will use the following theorem from [LP72]:

**Theorem 2** (Laudenbach–Poénaru). *Any diffeomorphism of  $\#^k(\mathbf{S}^1 \times \mathbf{S}^2)$  extends to  $\natural^k(\mathbf{S}^1 \times \mathbf{D}^3)$ .*

In particular, given a 2-handlebody (a union of 0-, 1- and 2-handles), there is a unique way to cap it off into a closed 4-manifold. Moreover, to go from the spine  $Y$  to the whole manifold  $X$ , it reduces to attaching such 3- and 4-handles. As such, we have the following:

**Corollary 3.** *A spine uniquely determines a trisected 4-manifold (up to isotopy).*

Here, the uniqueness is up to equivalence of trisections, which consists in a diffeomorphism of trisected manifolds that maps each piece of one to the corresponding piece of the other.

Now, any handlebody  $H_{ij}$  can be uniquely described by a cut system, formed of meridian disks. Denote as  $\mathcal{D}_{ij}$  such a choice of a system for  $H_{ij}$ , and set  $\alpha = \partial\mathcal{D}_{13}$ ,

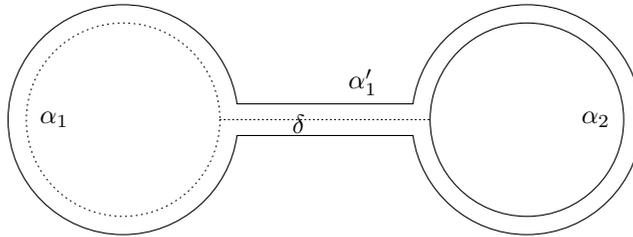
$\beta = \partial\mathcal{D}_{12}$  and  $\gamma = \partial\mathcal{D}_{23}$ . Note that  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  are three sets of  $g$  curves that live on the trisecting surface  $\Sigma$ .

The data  $(\Sigma; \alpha, \beta, \gamma)$  is sufficient to recover a unique trisected 4-manifold, by the previous observations. Note that any choice of a pair of curves determines a Heegaard diagram for the boundary of the corresponding sector. For instance,  $(\Sigma; \alpha, \beta)$  is a Heegaard diagram for  $\partial X_1$ .

Any two choices of diagrams for isotopic trisection of the *same* 4-manifold are related by a sequence of handle slides, which translate to sliding the curves on the diagrams. This operation consists of:

- (1) Take two distinct curves (in the same system), say  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$ .
- (2) Join them by an arc  $\delta$ .
- (3) Consider a regular neighborhood of  $\alpha_1 \cup \delta \cup \alpha_2$  on the surface  $\Sigma$ . It has three components, one of which is not isotopic to either  $\alpha_1$  or  $\alpha_2$ .
- (4) Keeping  $\alpha_2$ , replace  $\alpha_1$  with that third component.

The procedure is depicted in Figure 2.

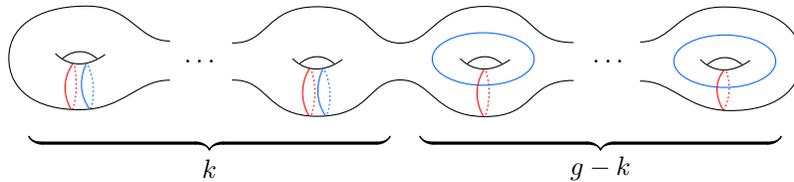


**Figure 2.** Sliding the  $\alpha_1$  curve over the  $\alpha_2$  curve by means of the arc  $\delta$  to obtain a new curve  $\alpha'_1$ .

We say that two diagrams are **equivalent** if they are related by a sequence of curve sliding and by a diffeomorphism of the surface. Again, we are only allowed to slide  $\alpha$ -curves with  $\alpha$ -curves, and the same for  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  curves.

Waldhausen's theorem translates to saying that any Heegaard diagram of genus  $g \geq k$  for  $\#^k(\mathbf{S}^1 \times \mathbf{S}^2)$  is curve-slide equivalent that of Figure 3:

We therefore define:



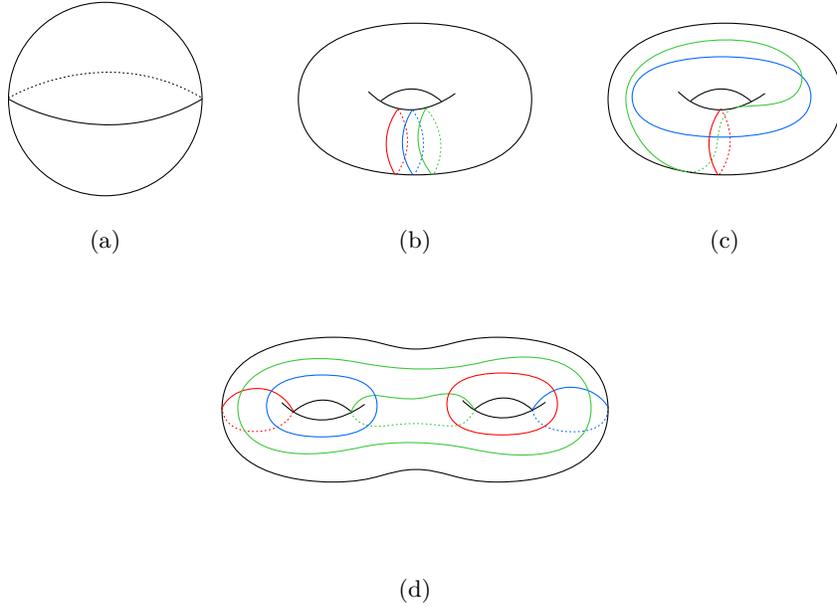
**Figure 3.** The standard genus  $g$  Heegaard diagram for  $\#^k(\mathbf{S}^1 \times \mathbf{S}^2)$ .

**Definition 4.** A *trisection diagram* is a tuple  $(\Sigma_g; \alpha, \beta, \gamma)$  where  $\alpha, \beta$  and  $\gamma$  are sets of  $g$  curves on  $\Sigma_g$ , and such that any pair of curves  $(\Sigma_g; \alpha, \beta)$ ,  $(\Sigma_g; \alpha, \gamma)$  and  $(\Sigma_g; \beta, \gamma)$  is curve-slide equivalent to that of Figure 3 for some  $k$ .

By the previous observations, such a diagram uniquely determines a trisected 4-manifold, and conversely, a trisected 4-manifold determines a unique diagram, up to equivalence. That is:

$$\text{diagrams} / \text{equivalence} \sim \text{trisections} / \text{isotopy}.$$

The diagrams for the two trisections of  $\mathbf{S}^4$  and  $\mathbf{S}^1 \times \mathbf{S}^3$  are as in Figure 4.



**Figure 4.** (a) The  $(0;0,0,0)$  trisection of  $\mathbf{S}^4$ . (b) The  $(1;1,1,1)$  trisection of  $\mathbf{S}^1 \times \mathbf{S}^3$ . (c) A  $(1;0,0,0)$  trisection diagram for  $\mathbf{CP}^2$ . (d) A  $(2;0,0,0)$  trisection of  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{S}^2$ .

## 2. AROUND A PROOF OF EXISTENCE

We show the following:

**Theorem 5.** *Any closed 4-manifold admits a trisection.*

*Proof.* Consider a self-indexing Morse function  $f$  on  $X$ ; that is,  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is Morse and the index  $i$  critical points are on the level  $f^{-1}(i)$ . Let  $k_i$  denote the number of index  $i$  critical points. Without loss of generality, we can assume that  $k_0 = k_4 = 1$ .

Denote as  $L$  the  $k_2$ -component link that is the attachment link for the 2-handles. We can assume that  $L$  lives inside  $f^{-1}(3/2)$ . Consider an open regular neighborhood  $\nu(L)$  of  $L$  inside  $f^{-1}(3/2)$ , and pick a relative handle decomposition of  $f^{-1}(3/2) \setminus \nu(L)$  which consists only of 1-, 2- and 3-handles. Let  $H_1$  be the union of the 2-

and 3-handles, and let  $H_2$  be  $\overline{\nu(L)}$  together with the 1-handles. Then  $H_1$  and  $H_2$  are both handlebodies which meet along some central surface  $\Sigma$  of genus  $g$ . This means that  $f^{-1}(3/2) = H_1 \cup_{\Sigma} H_2$  is a genus  $g$  Heegaard splitting.

$L$  lies completely in  $H_2$ , by construction. Therefore, we can flow along a gradient-like vector field for  $f$ , and consider the cylinder  $H_1 \times [3/2, 5/2]$ . Define:  $X_1 = f^{-1}([0, 3/2]) \cup H_1 \times [3/2, 2]$ ,  $X_3 = f^{-1}(5/2, 4) \cup H_1 \times [2, 5/2]$ . Finally, define  $X_2$  to be the complement  $X_2 = X \setminus [X_1 \overset{\circ}{\cup} X_3]$ . Then,  $X_1$  is a genus  $k_1$  handlebody, and  $X_3$  is a genus  $k_3$  handlebody.

Finally,  $X_2$  is diffeomorphic to  $H_2 \times I \cup \{2\text{-handles}\}$ , where  $H_2 \times I$  is a genus  $g$  handlebody obtained from  $\nu(L)$  by attaching some 1-handles, and the 2-handles are attached along  $L$  so they cancel uniquely  $k_2$  1-handles. Therefore,  $X_2$  is diffeomorphic to a genus  $g - k_2$  handlebody.

The intersections are as follows:  $X_1 \cap X_2 = H_2$ ,  $X_2 \cap X_3 = H_1$  and  $X_1 \cap X_3$  is the result of surgery on  $H_2$  along the link  $L \subset \overset{\circ}{H}_2$ . All three are genus  $g$  3-dimensional handlebodies, and the triple intersection is  $\Sigma$ . ■

Note that we started with a handle decomposition with a unique 0- and a unique 4-handle, and  $k_i$   $i$ -handles, and we constructed a  $(g; k_1, g - k_2, k_3)$ -trisection, where  $g$  was a sufficiently large genus of a Heegaard splitting of  $\partial X_1$ . The converse is also true:

**Proposition 6.** *If  $X$  admits a  $(g; k_1, k_2, k_3)$ -trisection, then  $X$  admits a handle decomposition with  $k_1$  1-handles,  $g - k_2$  2-handles and  $k_3$  3-handles.*

In particular, we see that if  $X$  has a  $(g; k_1, k_2, k_3)$ -trisection, then:

- (1)  $k_1, k_2, k_3 \geq \text{rk}(\pi_1(X))$ . In particular, from  $\chi(X) = 2 + g - (k_1 + k_2 + k_3)$ , we obtain:

$$g \geq \chi(X) - 2 + 3\text{rk}(\pi_1(X)).$$

- (2) If one of the  $k_i = 0$ , then  $X$  is simply-connected.
- (3) If  $k_1 = k_2 = k_3 = g$ , then  $X$  has a handle decomposition with no 2-handles, and as many 1- and 3-handles. Then, by [LP72] again, we get that  $X \cong \#^g(\mathbf{S}^1 \times \mathbf{S}^3)$ .

### 3. STABILIZATION MOVES AND UNIQUENESS

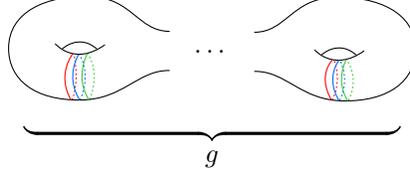
There is a way to “merge” two trisections together: taking their connected sum<sup>1</sup> (that is, it corresponds to taking the connected sum of each corresponding piece of both trisections). A trisection that can be split as the connected sum of two smaller ones is called **reducible**.

On the diagrams, it really corresponds to taking the connected sum of both diagrams. This means that, for instance,  $\#^g(\mathbf{S}^1 \times \mathbf{S}^3)$  has a  $(g; g, g, g)$ -trisection, with a diagram given in Figure 5.

There is a special kind of trisection: a stabilized one. **Stabilization** is the following operation: consider an arc  $a_{12} \subset H_{12}$  boundary parallel. Consider an

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<sup>1</sup>The choice of the ball on which to take connected sums is important, but I am omitting the details here.



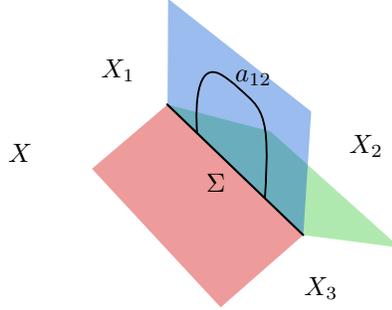
**Figure 5.** A trisection diagram for  $\#^g(\mathbf{S}^1 \times \mathbf{S}^3)$ .

open regular neighborhood  $\nu(a_{12})$  of  $a_{12}$  in  $X$ . Then, define:

$$X'_1 = X_1 \setminus \nu(a_{12}), \quad X'_2 = X_2 \setminus \nu(a_{12}) \text{ and } X'_3 = X_3 \cup \overline{\nu(a_{12})}.$$

The decomposition  $X = X'_1 \cup X'_2 \cup X'_3$  is a new stabilization of  $X$ , not isotopic to the first one, called the **3-stabilization**. We define 1- and 2-stabilizations similarly.

The situation is depicted in Figure 6.



**Figure 6.** The operation of 3-stabilizing a trisection.

If the starting trisection of  $X$  had type  $(g; k_1, k_2, k_3)$ , then the 3-stabilized one has type  $(g + 1; k_1, k_2, k_3 + 1)$ . Similar results hold for 1- and 2-stabilizations too.

We claim:

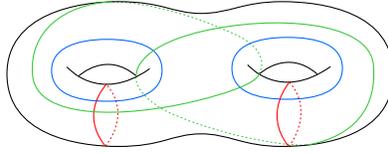
**Proposition 7.** *Given a trisection, the result of  $i$ -stabilization and then  $j$ -stabilization is isotopic to that of a  $j$ -stabilization and then an  $i$ -stabilization.*

Just like the Reidemeister–Singer theorem holds for Heegaard splittings, we have the following for trisections, due to [GK16]:

**Theorem 8 (Gay–Kirby).** *Any two trisections of the same manifold become isotopic after a certain number of stabilizations of each.*

#### 4. CONNECTIONS WITH KIRBY DIAGRAMS

We can always place the whole trisection diagram in standard red/blue position. That is: the  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  curves are as in Figure 3, and the green curves get moved along



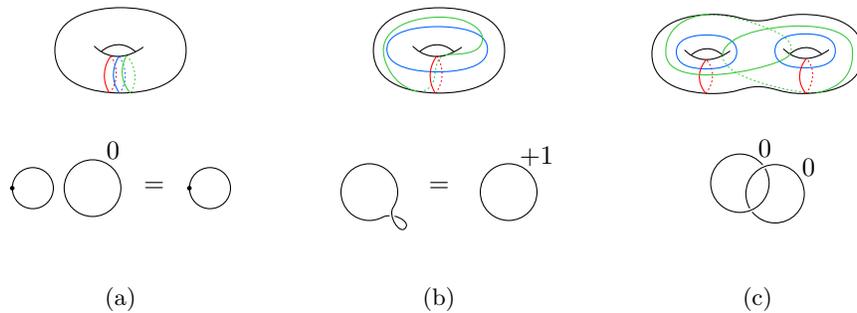
**Figure 7.** A trisection diagram for  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{S}^2$  in standard red/blue position.

in some position. For instance, all the diagrams in Figure 4 but that of  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{S}^2$  are in standard position. A standard diagram for it would be that of Figure 7.

Now, in the associated handle decomposition to a trisection, recall that  $X_1$  was the union of the 0- and the 1-handles. This  $X_1$  is obtained by the  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  curves. The 2-handles are attached along the  $\gamma$  curves, and the 3- and 4-handles are uniquely attached to that. This means that we can pass from a trisection diagram to a Kirby diagram by the following procedure:

- (1) Put the diagram into standard position.
- (2) Draw a 1-handle for each parallel pair of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  curves. Remove the dual  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  curves.
- (3) Each  $\gamma$  curve becomes a framed link for a 2-handle, with framing induced by the surface.

We can compute a Kirby diagram from the previous examples, see Figure 8.



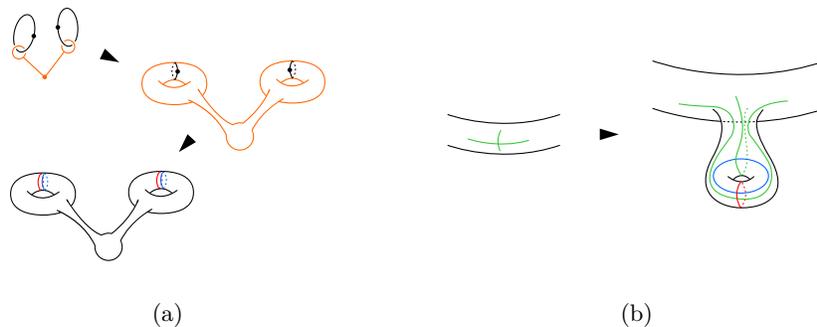
**Figure 8.** Obtaining a Kirby diagram from a trisection diagram for (a)  $\mathbf{S}^1 \times \mathbf{S}^3$ , (b)  $\mathbf{CP}^2$  and (c)  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{S}^2$ .

The other way is slightly more subtle: how to go from a Kirby diagram to a trisection diagram? The algorithm, presented (and proved) in [Kep21], goes as follows:

- (1) Start with a Kirby diagram. Draw all 1-handles as dotted circles.

- (2) Choose a meridian circle to all 1-handles, and connect those to form a wedge of circles.
- (3) Thicken this wedge into a surface, so that all 1-handle circles are meridian curves on that surface.
- (4) Replace each 1-handle circle with a parallel pair of red/blue curves.
- (5) Consider the framed link  $L$  of the attachment of the 2-handles. This can be pushed on the surface, but it will have crossings. Stabilize the surface enough so that this does not happen. When doing so, add a dual pair of red/blue curve. The projection of the link on the surface should have framing induced by that surface.
- (6) The projection of this link is the set of green curves.

The procedure at steps (2) and (5) are detailed in Figure 9.



**Figure 9.** (a) Transforming the circles of the 1-handles into a surface.  
 (b) Resolving crossings on the projection of  $L$  on the surface.

For examples of computation, Figure 8 can simply be read in reverse, and each Kirby diagram induces the corresponding trisection diagram. However, for wilder Kirby diagrams, this can become very messy...<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>2</sup>Added after the talk: the example I gave (that of  $\mathbf{S}^1 \times \mathbf{S}^3$ ) showed exactly this. In general, it is even wilder to compute, and the choice of the projection onto the surface is important. See [Kep21] for a full algorithm that does not depend on such choices.