# Intersection numbers, Embedded spheres and Geosphere laminations for free groups 

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## 0. PREFACE

Topological and geometric methods have played a major role in the study of infinite groups since the time of Poincaré and Klein, with the work of Nielsen, Dehn, Stallings and Gromov showing particularly deep connections with the topology of surfaces and three-manifolds. This is in part because a surface or a 3-manifold is essentially determined by its fundamental group, and has a geometric structure due to the Poincaré-Köbe-Klein uniformisation theorem for surfaces and Thurston's geometrisation conjecture, which is now a theorem of Perelman, for 3 -manifolds.

A particularly fruitful instance of such an interplay is the relation between intersection numbers of simple curves on a surface and the hyperbolic geometry and topology of the surface. This has reached its climax in the classification of finitely generated Kleinian groups by Yair Minsky and his collaborators, who along the way developed a deep understanding of the geometry of the curve complex.

Free (nonabelian) groups and the group of their outer automorphisms have been extensively studied in analogy with (fundamental groups of) surfaces and the mapping class groups of surfaces.

In my thesis, we study the analogue of intersection numbers of simple curves, namely the Scott-Swarup algebraic intersection number of splittings of a free group and we also study embedded spheres in 3manifold of the form $M=\sharp_{n} S^{2} \times S^{1}$. The fundamental group of $M$ is a free group of rank $n$. This 3 -manifold will be our model for free groups. We construct geosphere laminations in free group which are analogues of geodesic laminations on a surface.
CHAPTER 1 In this chapter, we introduce basic concepts related to free product, free groups and splittings of groups.

CHAPTER 2 In this chapter, we study geometric intersection number of simple closed curves on a surface. In particular, we see its applications to study geometric properties of curve complex of the surface. We also study topological properties of curve complex. We shall see how curve complex is used to study mapping class group of surfaces. The geometric intersection number has been used to study Thurston's compactification of Teichmüller space of surface and the boundary of Teichmüller space, namely the space of projectivized measured laminations. At the end of this chapter, we study its analogue sphere complex of a 3-manifold and its topological properties.

CHAPTER 3 In this chapter, we study the model 3-manifold $M=\sharp_{k} S^{2} \times S^{1}$. We also see how a partition of ends of the space $\widetilde{M}$, the universal cover of $M$, corresponds to an embedded spheres in $\widetilde{M}$. We also discuss the intersection number of a proper path in $\widetilde{M}$ with a homology class in $H_{2}(\widetilde{M})$. At the end of this chapter, we see how embedded spheres in $M$ correspond to splittings of the fundamental group of $M$.

ChAPTER 4 Scott and Swarup [39] introduced an algebraic analogue, called the algebraic intersection number, for a pair of splittings of groups. This is based on the associated partition of the ends of a group [42]. Splittings of groups are the natural analogue of simple closed curves on a surface $F$ - splittings of $\pi_{1}(F)$ corresponding to homotopy classes of simple closed curves on $F$. Scott and Swarup showed that, in the case of surfaces, the algebraic and geometric intersection numbers coincide.

Embedded spheres in $M$ correspond to splittings of the free group. Hence, given a pair of embedded spheres in $M$, we can consider their geometric intersection number as well as the algebraic intersection number of Scott and Swarup for the corresponding splittings. Our main result is that, for embedded spheres in $M$ these two intersection numbers coincide. The principal method we use is the normal form for embedded spheres developed by Hatcher. The results in this chapter are the outcome of joint work with my adviser Siddhartha Gadgil.

CHAPTER 5 In this chapter, we study embedded spheres in $M=\sharp_{k} S^{2} \times S^{1}$ and $\widetilde{M}$, the universal cover of $M$. In the Section 5.1, we see how a partition $A$ of the set of ends of $\widetilde{M}$ corresponds to an embedded sphere in $\widetilde{M}$ which is in normal form in the sense of Hatcher, by specifying the data determining the partition $A$ and the normal sphere. Given a properly embedded path $c: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \widetilde{M}$ and a homology class $A \in H_{2}(\widetilde{M})$, we have an intersection number $c \cdot A$. Further, this depends only on the ends $c_{ \pm}$of the path $c$. In the Section 5.2, we prove that the class $A \in H_{2}(\widetilde{M})$ can be represented by an embedded sphere in $\widetilde{M}$ if and only if, for each proper map $c: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \widetilde{M}, c \cdot A \in\{0,1,-1\}$. We also constructively prove that the class $A \in \pi_{2}(M)$ can be represented by an embedded sphere in $M$ if and only if $A$ can be represented by an embedded sphere in $\widetilde{M}$ and for all deck transformations $g \in \pi_{1}(M), A$ and $g A$ do not cross. The results in this chapter are the outcome of joint work with my adviser Siddhartha Gadgil.

CHAPTER 6 Geodesic laminations (and measured laminations) on surfaces have proved to be very fruitful in three-manifold topology, Teichmüller theory and related areas. In this chapter, we construct analogously geosphere laminations for free groups. They have the same relation to (disjoint unions of) embedded spheres in the connected sum $M=\sharp_{n} S^{2} \times S^{1}$ of $n$ copies of $S^{2} \times S^{1}$ as geodesic laminations on surfaces have to (disjoint unions of) simple closed curves on surfaces. The manifold $M$ has fundamental group the free group on $n$ generators, and is a natural model for the study of free groups.

Laminations for groups (including free groups) have been constructed and studied in various contexts. However, they are one-dimensional objects, corresponding to geodesics. We study here objects of codimension one, which correspond to splittings. In the case of surfaces, dimension one and codimension one coincide. Our main result is a compactness theorem for the space of (non-trivial) geosphere laminations. We also show that embedded spheres in $M$ are geosphere laminations. Hence sequences of spheres, in particular under iterations of an outer automorphism of the free group, have subsequences converging to geosphere laminations. It is such limiting constructions that make geodesic laminations for surfaces a very useful construction.

Our construction is based on the normal form for disjoint unions of spheres in $M$ due to Hatcher. The normal form is relative to a decomposition of $M$ with respect to a maximal collection of spheres in $M$. This is in many respects analogous to a normal form with respect to an ideal triangulation of a punctured surface. In particular, isotopy for spheres in normal form implies normal isotopy, i.e., the normal form is unique. As in the case of normal curves on surfaces and normal surfaces in three-manifolds, we can associate the number of pieces of each type to a collection of spheres in Hatcher's normal form. However, these numbers do not determine the (collection of) spheres up to isotopy. We instead proceed by considering lifts of normal spheres to the universal cover $\widetilde{M}$ of $M$. In the universal cover $\widetilde{M}$, a normal sphere is determined by a finite subtree $\tau$ of a tree $T$ associated to $\widetilde{M}$ together with some additional data. We construct geospheres in $\widetilde{M}$ by dropping the finiteness condition. We construct an appropriate topology on the space of geospheres and show that the space is locally compact and totally disconnected. The lift of a normal sphere in $M$ to its universal cover satisfies an additional condition, namely it is disjoint from all its translates. This can be reformulated in terms of the notion of crossing of spheres in $\widetilde{M}$, following Scott-Swarup, which depends on the corresponding partition of ends of $\widetilde{M}$. We show that there is an appropriate notion of crossing for geospheres, which is defined in terms of the appropriate partition of ends (into three sets in this case). Our main technical result is that crossing is an open condition. We recall that this is the case for crossing of geodesics in hyperbolic space, and that this plays a central role in the study of geodesic laminations. The proof of compactness of the space of geospheres uses the result that crossing is open. The construction based on normal forms is not intrinsic, as it depends on the maximal collection of spheres with respect to which $M$ is decomposed. However, we show that geospheres can be described in terms of their associated partitions. This gives an intrinsic definition. The results in this chapter are the outcome of joint work with my adviser Siddhartha Gadgil.

Chapter 7 In this chapter, we discuss the natural questions arising out of this thesis and further directions for research.

## 1. FREE PRODUCTS, FREE GROUPS AND SPLITTINGS OF GROUPS

In this chapter, we introduce basic concepts related to free products, free groups and splittings of groups.

### 1.1 Free Products of Groups

We shall see the concept of the free product of groups. For more details, see [38].
Let $G$ be a group. If $\left\{G_{\alpha}\right\}_{\alpha \in J}$ is a family of subgroups of $G$, we say that these groups generate $G$ if every element $x$ of $G$ can be written as a finite product of elements of the groups $G_{\alpha}$. This means that there is a finite sequence $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ of elements of $G_{\alpha}$ such that $x=x_{1} \cdots x_{n}$. Such a sequence is called a word of length $n$ in groups $G_{\alpha}$; it is said to represent the element $x$ of $G$. As we lack commutativity, we can not rearrange the factors in the expression for $x$ so as to group together factors that belong to a single one of the groups $G_{\alpha}$. However, if in the expression for $x, x_{i}$ and $x_{i+1}$ both belong to the same group $G_{\alpha}$, we can group them together, thereby obtaining the word ( $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{i-1}, x_{i} x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}, \ldots, x_{n}$ ) of length $n-1$, which also represents $x$. Furthermore, if any $x_{i}$ equals 1 , we can delete $x_{i}$ from the sequence, again obtaining a shorter word that represents $x$.

Applying these reduction operations repeatedly, one can in general obtain a word representing $x$ of the form $\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{m}\right)$, where no group $G_{\alpha}$ contains both $y_{i}$ and $y_{i+1}$, and $y_{i} \neq 1$, for all $i$. Such a word is called reduced word. This discussion does not apply, however, if $x$ is the identity element of $G$. For, in that case, one might represent $x$ by a word such as $\left(a, a^{-1}\right)$, which reduces successively to the word $\left(a a^{-1}\right)$ of length 1 , and then disappear altogether. Accordingly, we make the convention that the empty set is considered to be reduced word of length zero that represents the identity element of $G$. With this convention, it is true that if the groups $G_{\alpha}$ generate $G$, then every element of $G$ can be represented by a reduced word in the elements of group $G_{\alpha}$. If $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ and $\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{m}\right)$ are words representing $x$ and $y$, respectively, then $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{m}\right)$ is a word representing $x y$. Even if two words are reduced words, however, the third will not be a reduced word unless none of the groups contains both $x_{n}$ and $y_{1}$.

Definition 1.1.1. Let $G$ be a group, let $\left\{G_{\alpha}\right\}_{\alpha \in J}$ be a family of subgroups of $G$ that generates $G$. Suppose that $G_{\alpha} \cap G_{\beta}$ consists of identity alone whenever $\alpha \neq \beta$. We say that $G$ is the free product of the groups $G_{\alpha}$ if for each $x \in G$, there is only one reduced word in the groups $G_{\alpha}$ that represents $x$. In this case, we write $G=*_{\alpha \in J} G_{\alpha}$ or in the finite case, $G=G_{1} * \cdots * G_{n}$.

The free product satisfies an extension condition:

Proposition 1.1.2. Let $G$ be a group, let $\left\{G_{\alpha}\right\}$ be a family of subgroups of $G$. If $G$ is the free product of the groups $G_{\alpha}$, then $G$ satisfies the following condition:

Given any group $H$ and any family of homomorphisms $h_{\alpha}: G_{\alpha} \rightarrow H$, there exists a homomorphism $h: G \rightarrow H$ whose restriction to $G_{\alpha}$ equals $h_{\alpha}$, for each $\alpha$.

Furthermore, $h$ is unique.
For proof, see [38, Lemma 68.1].
We now consider the problem of taking an arbitrary family of groups $\left\{G_{\alpha}\right\}$ and finding a group $G$ that contains subgroup $G_{\alpha}^{\prime}$ isomorphic to the groups $G_{\alpha}$, such that $G$ is free product of the groups $G_{\alpha}^{\prime}$.

Definition 1.1.3. Let $\left\{G_{\alpha}\right\}$ be an indexed family of groups. Suppose that $G$ is a group and that $i_{\alpha}$ : $G_{\alpha} \rightarrow G$ is a family of monomorphisms, such that $G$ is the free product of the groups $i_{\alpha}\left(G_{\alpha}\right)$. Then, we say that $G$ is the external free product of the groups $G_{\alpha}$, relative to the monomorphisms $i_{\alpha}$.

The group $G$ is not unique. We shall see later that it is unique up to isomorphism. Now, we shall see a construction of $G$.

Theorem 1.1.4. Given a family $\left\{G_{\alpha}\right\}_{\alpha \in J}$ of groups, there exists a group $G$ and a family of monomorphisms $i_{\alpha}: G_{\alpha} \rightarrow G$ such that $G$ is the free product of the groups $i_{\alpha}(G \alpha)$.

We can assume that the groups $G_{\alpha}$ are disjoint as sets. Then as before, we define a word (of length $n$ ) in the elements of the groups $G_{\alpha}$ to be an $n$-tuple $w=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ of elements of $\cup G_{\alpha}$. It is called a reduced word if $\alpha_{i} \neq \alpha_{i+1}$, for all $i$, where $\alpha_{i}$ is the index such that $x_{i} \in G_{\alpha}$, and if for each $i, x_{i}$ is not the identity element of $G_{\alpha_{i}}$. We define the empty set to be the unique reduced word of length zero. We denote the element $w$ as $w=x_{1} \cdots x_{n}$.

Let $W$ denote the set of all reduced words in the elements of the groups $G_{\alpha}$. We define the group operation in $W$ as juxtaposition,

$$
\left(x_{1} \cdots x_{n}\right)\left(y_{1} \cdots y_{m}\right)=x_{1} \cdots x_{n} y_{1} \cdots y_{m}
$$

This product may not be reduced, however: if $x_{n}$ and $y_{1}$ belong to the the same $G_{\alpha}$, then they should be combined into single letter $\left(x_{n} y_{1}\right)$ according to the multiplication in $G_{\alpha}$ and if this new letter $x_{n} y_{1}$ happens to be the identity of $G_{\alpha}$, then it should be canceled from the product. This may allow $x_{n-1}$ and $y_{2}$ to be combined, and possibly canceled too. Repetition of this process eventually produces a reduced word. For example, in the product $\left(x_{1} \cdots x_{m}\right)\left(x_{m}^{-1} \cdots x_{1}^{-1}\right)$ everything cancels and we get the identity element of $W$, the empty word. One can easily see that $W$ with this group operation forms a group. For detailed proof of this, see [38, Theorem 68.2]. We denote $W=G=*_{\alpha} G_{\alpha}$. Each group $G_{\alpha}$ is naturally identified with a subgroup of $G$, the subgroup consisting of the empty word and the nonidentity one-letter word $x \in G_{\alpha}$. From this point of view, the empty word is the common identity element for all the subgroups $G_{\alpha}$, which are otherwise disjoint. Thus, we can easily see that we get a family of monomorphisms $i_{\alpha}: G_{\alpha} \rightarrow G$ such that $G$ is the free product of the groups $i_{\alpha}(G \alpha)$.

The extension condition for ordinary free products translates immediately into an extension condition for external free product. For proof, see [38, Lemma 68.3].

Lemma 1.1.5. Let $\left\{G_{\alpha}\right\}$ be a family of groups; let $G$ be a group; let $i_{\alpha}: G_{\alpha} \rightarrow G$ be a family of homomorphisms. If each $i_{\alpha}$ is a monomorphism and $G$ is the free product of the groups $i_{\alpha}\left(G_{\alpha}\right)$, then $G$ satisfies the following condition:

Given a group $H$ and a family of homomorphisms $h_{\alpha}: G_{\alpha} \rightarrow H$, there exists a homomorphism $h: G \rightarrow$ $H$ such that $h \circ i_{\alpha}=h_{\alpha}$ for each $\alpha$.

Furthermore, $h$ is unique.
An immediate consequence is a uniqueness theorem for (external) free products:
Theorem 1.1.6. Let $\left\{G_{\alpha}\right\}$ be a family of groups. Suppose $G$ and $G^{\prime}$ are groups and $i_{\alpha}: G_{\alpha} \rightarrow G$ and $i_{\alpha}^{\prime}: G_{\alpha} \rightarrow G^{\prime}$ are families of monomorphisms, such that the families $\left\{i_{\alpha}\left(G_{\alpha}\right)\right\}$ and $\left\{i_{\alpha}^{\prime}\left(G_{\alpha}\right)\right\}$ generate $G$ and $G^{\prime}$, respectively. If both $G$ and $G^{\prime}$ have the extension property stated in the preceding lemma, then there is a unique isomorphism $\phi^{\prime}: G \rightarrow G^{\prime}$ such that $\phi^{\prime} \circ i_{\alpha}=i_{\alpha}^{\prime}$, for all $\alpha$.

For proof, see [38, Theorem 68.4].
Now, we state the following result which shows that the extension condition characterizes free products:
Theorem 1.1.7. Let $\left\{G_{\alpha}\right\}$ be a family of groups; let $G$ be a group; let $i_{\alpha}: G_{\alpha} \rightarrow G$ be a family of homomorphisms. If the extension condition of the Lemma 1.1.5 holds, then each $i_{\alpha}$ is a monomorphism and $G$ is the free product of the groups $i_{\alpha}\left(G_{\alpha}\right)$.

For detailed proof, see [38, Lemma 68.5].

### 1.2 Free Groups

Let $G$ be a group; let $\left\{a_{\alpha}\right\}$ be a family of elements of $G$, for $\alpha \in J$, where $J$ is some index set. We say that the elements $\left\{a_{\alpha}\right\}$ generate $G$ if every element of $G$ can be written as a product of powers of the elements $a_{\alpha}$. If the family $\left\{a_{\alpha}\right\}$ is finite, we say $G$ is finitely generated.

Definition 1.2.1. Let $\left\{a_{\alpha}\right\}$ be a family of elements of a group $G$. Suppose each $a_{\alpha}$ generates an infinite cyclic subgroup $G_{\alpha}$ of $G$. If $G$ is the free product of the groups $\left\{G_{\alpha}\right\}$, then $G$ is said to be a free group, and the family $\left\{a_{\alpha}\right\}$ is called a system of free generators for $G$.

In this case, for each element $x$ of $G$, there is a unique reduced word in the elements of the groups $G_{\alpha}$ that represents $x$. This says that if $x \neq 1$, then $x$ can be written uniquely in the form $x=\left(a_{\alpha_{1}}^{n_{1}}\right) \cdots\left(a_{\alpha_{k}}^{n_{k}}\right)$, where $\alpha_{i} \neq \alpha_{i+1}$ and $n_{i} \neq 0$, for each $i$. The integers $n_{i}$ may be negative.

Free groups are characterized by the following extension property:
Lemma 1.2.2. Let $G$ be a group; let $\left\{a_{\alpha}\right\}$ be a family of elements of $G$. If $G$ is a free group with system of free generators $\left\{a_{\alpha}\right\}$, then $G$ satisfies the following condition:

Given any group $H$ and any family $\left\{y_{\alpha}\right\}$ of elements of $H$, there is a homomorphism $h: G \rightarrow H$ such that $h_{\alpha}\left(a_{\alpha}\right)=y_{\alpha}$ for each $\alpha$.

Furthermore, $h$ is unique. Conversely, if the above extension condition holds, then $G$ is a free group with system of free generators $\left\{a_{\alpha}\right\}$.

For the proof see [38, Lemma 68.1].
In other words, a free group is the free product of any number of copies of $\mathbb{Z}$, finite or infinite, where $\mathbb{Z}$ is the group of integers. The elements of a free group are uniquely representable as reduced words in the powers of generators of the various copies $\mathbb{Z}$, with one generator of each $\mathbb{Z}$. These generators are called basis for the free group, and the number of basis elements is the rank of the free group. The abelianization of a free group is the a free abelian group with basis the same set of generators (images in the abelianization), so since the rank of a free abelian group is well defined, independent of the choice of basis, the same is true for the rank of a free group. For details, see [38, section 69].

An example of a free product that is not a free group is $\mathbb{Z}_{2} * \mathbb{Z}_{2}$.
We have the following result for subgroups of a free group.
Proposition 1.2.3. Every subgroup of a free group is free.
For proof, see [38, Theorem 85.1].

### 1.3 Presentation of a group

One method of defining a group is by a presentation. One specifies a set $S$ of generators so that every element of the group can be written as a product of some of these generators, and a set $R$ of relations among those generators. We then say $G$ has presentation $\langle S \mid R\rangle$.

Informally, $G$ has the above presentation if it is the "freest group" generated by $S$ subject only to the relations $R$. Formally, the group $G$ is said to have the above presentation if it is isomorphic to the quotient of a free group on $S$ by the normal subgroup generated by the relations $R$.

As a simple example, the cyclic group of order $n$ has the presentation $\left\langle a \mid a^{n}=1\right\rangle$, where 1 is the group identity. This may be written equivalently as $\left\langle a \mid a^{n}\right\rangle$, since terms that don't include an equals sign are taken to be equal to the group identity.

Every group $G$ has a presentation. To see this consider the free group $\langle G\rangle$ on $G$. Since $G$ clearly generates itself, one should be able to obtain it by a quotient of $\langle G\rangle$. Indeed, by the universal property of free groups, there exists a unique group homomorphism $\phi:\langle G\rangle \rightarrow G$ which covers the identity map. Let $K$ be the kernel of this homomorphism. Then, $G$ clearly has the presentation $\langle G \mid K\rangle$.

Every finite group has a finite presentation, in fact, many different presentations.
A presentation is said to be finitely generated if $S$ is finite and finitely related if $R$ is finite. If both are finite it is said to be a finite presentation. A group is finitely generated (respectively, finitely related,
finitely presented) if it has a presentation that is finitely generated (respectively, finitely related, a finite presented).

Some more examples of group presentations include the following.

1. The presentation $\left\langle x, y \mid x^{2}=1, y^{n}=1,(x y)^{n}=1\right\rangle$ defines a group, isomorphic to the dihedral group $D_{n}$ of finite order $2 n$, which is the group of symmetries of a regular $n$-gon.
2. The fundamental group of a surface of genus $g$ has the presentation:
$\left\langle x_{1}, y_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{g}, y_{g} \mid\left[x_{1}, y_{1}\right]\left[x_{2}, y_{2}\right] \ldots\left[x_{g}, y_{g}\right]=1\right\rangle$.

### 1.4 Amalgamated Free products and HNN-Extension

Free products of groups are generalized by a notion of amalgamated products of groups joined together along specified subgroups. For the sake of concreteness, we will carry out this construction for an amalgamated product of two groups. Suppose, we have two groups $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ and homomorphisms $f_{1}: H \rightarrow G_{1}$ and $f_{2}: H \rightarrow G_{2}$. We define:

Definition 1.4.1. The amalgamated product $G_{1} *_{H} G_{2}$ is defined as follows: let $N$ be the normal subgroup of $G_{1} * G_{2}$ generated by elements of the form $f_{1}(h)\left(f_{2}(h)\right)^{-1}$ for $h \in H$; then

$$
G_{1} *_{H} G_{2}:=\left(G_{1} * G_{2}\right) / N
$$

Note that $G_{1} * G_{2}$ can be expressed as the special case of the amalgamated product where $H$ is trivial. The amalgamated product satisfies a natural universal property generalizing the one for the free product:

Proposition 1.4.2. For a group $G^{\prime}$, write $\operatorname{Hom}\left(G_{1}, G^{\prime}\right) \times_{H} \operatorname{Hom}\left(G_{2}, G^{\prime}\right)$ for $\left\{\left(g_{1}, g_{2}\right) \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(G_{1}, G^{\prime}\right) \times\right.$ $\left.\operatorname{Hom}\left(G_{2}, G^{\prime}\right): f_{1} \circ g_{1}=f_{2} \circ g_{2}\right\}$. Then, the natural map induced by composition with $G_{1} \rightarrow G_{1} *_{H} G_{2}$ and $G_{2} \rightarrow G_{1} *_{H} G_{2}$ induces a bijection $\operatorname{Hom}\left(G_{1} *_{H} G_{2}, G^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(G_{1}, G^{\prime}\right) \times_{H} \operatorname{Hom}\left(G_{2}, G^{\prime}\right)$.

For a proof, see [41].
The amalgamated product also arises naturally in topology: the fundamental group of the gluing of two topological spaces along given subspaces is the amalgamated product of the fundamental groups of the two spaces, over the fundamental group of the subspaces being glued.

Definition 1.4.3. Let $G$ be a group with presentation $G=\langle S \mid R\rangle$, and let $\alpha$ be an isomorphism between two subgroups $H$ and $K$ of $G$. Let $t$ be a new symbol not in $S$, and define

$$
G *_{\alpha}=\left\langle S, t \mid R, t h t^{-1}=\alpha(h), \forall h \in H\right\rangle
$$

The group $G *_{\alpha}$ is called the HNN- extension of $G$ relative to $\alpha$. The original group $G$ is called the base group for the construction, while the subgroups $H$ and $K$ are the associated subgroups. The new generator $t$ is called the stable letter. Sometimes, we also write $G *_{H}$ for $G *_{\alpha}$.

Since the presentation for $G *_{\alpha}$ contains all the generators and relations from the presentation for $G$, there is a natural homomorphism, induced by the identification of generators, which takes $G$ to $G *{ }_{\alpha}$.

Higman, Neumann and Neumann proved that this homomorphism is injective, that is, an embedding of $G$ into $G *_{\alpha}$. A consequence is that two isomorphic subgroups of a given group are always conjugate in some over group; the desire to show this was the original motivation for the construction. In terms of the fundamental group in algebraic topology, the HNN- extension is the construction required to understand the fundamental group of a topological space $X$ that has been 'glued back' on itself by a mapping $f$.

### 1.5 Graph of groups

We now introduce the terminology, due to Serre, of a graph of groups. A graph $\Gamma$ is a 1-dimensional CW-complex, so that a it may contain a loop, i.e., an edge with its two endpoints identified. This gives rise to difficulties with orientations of such an edge. In order to avoid these difficulties, we first introduce the idea of an abstract graph. Essentially this has twice many edges as $\Gamma$, one for each orientation of an edge of $\Gamma$.

Definition 1.5.1. An abstract graph $\Gamma$ consists of two sets $E(\Gamma)$ and $V(\Gamma)$ called the edges and vertices of $\Gamma$, an involution on $E(\Gamma)$ which sends $e$ to $\bar{e}$, where $\bar{e} \neq e$ and a map $\partial_{0}: E(\Gamma) \rightarrow V(\Gamma)$.

We define $\partial_{1} e=\partial_{0} \bar{e}$ and say that $e$ joins $\partial_{0} e$ to $\partial_{1} e$.
An abstract graph $\Gamma$ has an obvious geometric realization $|\Gamma|$ with vertices $V(\Gamma)$ and edges corresponding to pairs $(e, \bar{e})$. When we say that $\Gamma$ is connected or has some topological property, we shall mean that the realization of $\Gamma$ has the appropriate property. An orientation of an abstract graph is a choice of one edge out of each pair $(e, \bar{e})$.

A graph of groups consists of an abstract graph $\Gamma$ together with a function assigning to each vertex $v$ of $\Gamma$ a group $G_{v}$ and to each edge $e$ a group $G_{e}$, with $G_{\bar{e}}=G_{e}$, and an injective homomorphism $f_{e}: G_{e} \rightarrow G_{\partial_{0} e}$.

Similarly, we may define a graph $\chi$ of topological spaces, or of spaces with preferred base point: here, it is not necessary for the map $X_{e} \rightarrow X_{\partial_{0} e}$ to be injective, as we can use the mapping cylinder construction to replace the maps by inclusions and this does not alter the total space defined below. But, we will suppose for the convenience that the spaces are CW-complexes and maps are cellular.

Given a graph $\chi$ of spaces, we can define total space $\chi_{\Gamma}$ as the quotient of $\cup\left\{X_{v}: v \in V(\Gamma)\right\} \cup\left\{\cup\left\{X_{e} \times I\right.\right.$ : $e \in E(\Gamma)\}\}$ by identifications,

$$
\begin{gathered}
X_{e} \times I \rightarrow X_{\bar{e}} \times I \text { by }(x, t) \rightarrow(x, 1-t) \\
X_{e} \rightarrow X_{\partial_{0} e} \text { by }(x, 0) \rightarrow f_{e}(x)
\end{gathered}
$$

If $\chi$ is a graph of (connected) based spaces, then by taking fundamental groups we obtain a graph $\Sigma$ of groups (with the same underlying abstract graph $\Gamma$ ). The fundamental group $G_{\Gamma}$ of the graph of groups is defined to be the fundamental group of the total space $\chi_{\Gamma}$. One can show that $G_{\Gamma}$ is independent of the
choice of $\chi$. Observe that in the case when $\Gamma$ has just one pair $(e, \bar{e})$ of edges and two vertices $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$, if groups associated to $v_{1}, v_{2}$ and $(e, \bar{e})$ are $A, B$ and $C$, respectively, the fundamental group $G_{\Gamma}$ is $A *_{C} B$. In the case when $\Gamma$ has just one pair $(e, \bar{e})$ of edges and one vertex $v$, if the associated groups are $C$ and $A$, respectively, then the fundamental group $G_{\Gamma}$ is $A *_{C}$. For more details, see [40].

### 1.6 Splittings of a group

A group $G$ is said to split over a subgroup $H$ if $G$ is isomorphic to $A *_{H}$ or to $A *_{H} B$, with $A \neq H \neq B$. We will need a precise definition of a splitting of $G$.

Definition 1.6.1. We shall say that a splitting of $G$ consists either of proper subgroups $A$ and $B$ of $G$ and a subgroup $H$ of $A \cap B$ such that the natural map $A *_{H} B \rightarrow G$ is an isomorphism, or it consists of a subgroup $A$ of $G$ and subgroups $H_{0}$ and $H_{1}$ of $A$ such that there is an element $t$ of $G$ which conjugates $H_{0}$ to $H_{1}$ and the natural map $A *_{H} \rightarrow G$ is an isomorphism.

If $G$ splits over some subgroup, we say $G$ is splittable. For example, $Z$ is splittable as $Z=\{1\} *_{\{1\}}$.
A collection of $n$ splittings of a group $G$ is compatible if $G$ can be expressed as the fundamental group of graph of groups with $n$ edges, such that, for each $i$, collapsing all edges but $i$-th, yields the $i$-th splitting of $G$. For more details, see [39].

### 1.7 Some Important theorems

Two of most important theorems about free products are the theorems of Grushko (1940) and Neumann (1943) and that of Kurosh (1934) [33].

Theorem 1.7.1. Let $F$ be a free group, and let $\phi: F \rightarrow * A_{\alpha}$. Then, there is a factorization of $F$ as a free product, $F=* F_{\alpha}$ such that $\phi\left(F_{\alpha}\right)=A_{\alpha}$.

It has a following important corollary:
Corollary 1.7.2. If $G=A_{1} * \ldots * A_{n}$ and the rank (minimal number of generators) of $A_{i}$ is $r_{i}$, then the rank of $G$ is $r_{1}+\cdots+r_{n}$.

Theorem 1.7.3. Let $G=* A_{\alpha}$, and let $H$ be a subgroup of $G$. Then, $H$ is a free product, $H=F *\left(* H_{\beta}\right)$, where $F$ is a free group and each $H_{\beta}$ is the intersection of $H$ with a conjugate of some factor $A_{\alpha}$ of $G$.

### 1.8 Kneser conjecture on free products

Now, we shall prove that each splitting of the fundamental group of a 3-manifold as a free product is induced by splitting of the manifold as a connected sum. We need the following definitions:

Definition 1.8.1. The connected sum $M_{1} \sharp M_{2}$ of $n$-manifolds $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ is formed by deleting the interiors of $n$-balls $B_{i}^{n}$ in $M_{i}^{n}$ and attaching the resulting punctured manifolds $M_{i}-\operatorname{int}\left(B_{i}\right)$ to each other by a homeomorphism $h: \partial B_{2} \rightarrow \partial B_{1}$, so $M_{1} \sharp M_{2}=\left(M_{1}-\operatorname{int}\left(B_{1}\right)\right) \cup_{h}\left(M_{2}-\operatorname{int}\left(B_{2}\right)\right)$.

The $n$-balls $B_{i}$ is required to be interior to $M_{i}$ and $\partial B_{i}$ bicollared in $M_{i}$ to ensure that the connected sum is a manifold.

An incompressible surface, heuristically, is a surface, embedded in a 3-manifold, which has been simplified as much as possible while remaining "nontrivial" inside the 3-manifold.

Definition 1.8.2. Suppose that $S$ is a compact surface properly embedded in a 3 -manifold $M$. Suppose that $D$ is a disk, also embedded in $M$, with $D \cap S=\partial D$.

Suppose that the curve $\partial D$ in $S$ does not bound a disk inside of $S$. Then, $D$ is called a compressing disk for $S$ and we also call $S$ a compressible surface in $M$. If no such disk exists and $S$ is not the 2 -sphere, then we call $S$ incompressible (or geometrically incompressible).

There is also an algebraic version of incompressibility: Suppose $\iota: S \rightarrow M$ is a proper embedding of a compact surface. Then, $S$ is $\pi_{1}$-injective (or algebraically incompressible) if the induced map on fundamental groups $\iota_{\star}: \pi_{1}(S) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(M)$ is injective. The loop theorem then implies that a two-sided, properly embedded, compact surface (not a 2 -sphere) is incompressible if and only if it is $\pi_{1}$-injective.

An incompressible sphere is a 2 -sphere in a 3 -manifold that does not bound a 3 -ball. Thus, such a sphere either does not separate the 3 -manifold or gives a nontrivial connected sum decomposition. Since this notion of incompressibility for a sphere is quite different from the above definition for surfaces, often an incompressible sphere is instead referred to as an essential sphere or reducing sphere.

Definition 1.8.3. For a 3 -manifold $M$ and a space $X$, we say that two maps $f, g: M \rightarrow X$ are $C$-equivalent if there are maps $f=f_{0}, \ldots, f_{n}=g$ of $M$ to $X$ with either $f_{i}$ homotopic to $f_{i-1}$ or $f_{i}$ agreeing with $f_{i-1}$ on $M-B$ for homotopy 3-cell $B \subset M$ with $B \cap \partial M$ empty or a 2-cell.

If $\pi_{3}(X)=0, C$-equivalent maps are homotopic. In any case, $C$-equivalent maps induce the same homomorphism $\pi_{1}(M) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(X)$ up to choices of base point and inner automorphisms. Now, we see the following theorem from [25].

Theorem 1.8.4. Let $M$ be a compact 3-manifold such that each component of $\partial M$ (possibly empty) is incompressible in $M$. If $\pi_{1}(M) \cong G_{1} * G_{2}$, then $M=M_{1} \sharp M_{2}$, where $\pi_{1}\left(M_{i}\right) \cong G_{i}$, for $i=1,2$.

Proof. Choose complexes $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ with $\pi_{1}\left(X_{i}\right) \cong G_{i}$ and $\pi_{2}\left(X_{i}\right)=0$. Join a point of $X_{1}$ to a point of $X_{2}$ by a 1-simplex $A$ to form a complex $X=X_{1} \cup A \cup X_{2}$. Note that $\pi_{1}(X) \cong G_{1} * G_{2}$ and $\pi_{2}(X)=0$. Thus, we can construct a map $f: M \rightarrow X$ such that $f_{*}: \pi_{1}(M) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(X)$ is an isomorphism (which can be preassigned). Choose $x_{0} \in \operatorname{int}(A)$. We may assume that each component of $f^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)$ is a 2 -sided incompressible surface properly embedded in $M$. If $F$ is a component of $f^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)$, then since $\operatorname{ker}\left(\pi_{1}(F) \rightarrow\right.$ $\left.\pi_{1}(M)\right)=1, f_{*}$ is injective, and $f(F)=x_{0}$, we must have $\pi_{1}(F)=1$. If some component $F$ of $f^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)$
is a (incompressible) 2-cell, then by hypothesis $\partial F$ bounds a 2-cell $D \subset \partial M$. The 2-sphere $F \cup D$ can be pushed slightly into $\operatorname{int}(M)$ to obtain an incompressible 2 -sphere $F^{\prime}$. Since, $\pi_{2}\left(X_{i}\right)=0, f$ can be modified by a C-equivalence, to a map which replaces $F$ by $F^{\prime}$ as a component of the inverse of $x_{0}$. By this reasoning, we may now assume that each component of $f^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)$ is an incompressible 2-sphere in $\operatorname{int}(M)$. If $f^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)$ is connected, we are done. If not, there is a path $\beta: I \rightarrow M$ such that $\beta(0)$ and $\beta(1)$ lie in different components of $f^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)$. Now, $f \circ \beta$ is a loop in $X$ and since $f_{*}$ is surjective, there is a loop $\gamma$ based at $\beta(1)$ such that $[f \circ \gamma]=[f \circ \beta]^{-1}$. Then, $\alpha=\beta \gamma$ is a path satisfying

1. $\alpha(0)$ and $\alpha(1)$ are in different components of $f^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)$,
2. $[f \circ \alpha]=1 \in \pi_{1}(X)$.

We may assume that $\alpha$ is a simple path which crosses $f^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)$ transversely at each point of $\alpha(\operatorname{int}(I)$. Of all such paths satisfying the above conditions, we assume that $\sharp\left(\alpha^{-1}\left(f^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)\right)\right)$ is minimal. We must have $\alpha(\operatorname{int}(I)) \cap f^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)=\emptyset$. For if not, we can write $\alpha=\alpha_{1} \alpha_{2} \cdots \alpha_{k} \quad(k \geq 2)$ where for each $i$, $\alpha_{i}\left(\operatorname{int}(I) \cap f^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)=\emptyset\right.$ and $\alpha_{i}(\partial I) \subset f^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)$. Then, $\left[f \circ \alpha_{1}\right]\left[f \circ \alpha_{2}\right] \cdots\left[f \circ \alpha_{k}\right]$ is a representation of the identity element as an alternating product in the free product $G_{1} * G_{2}$. Thus, for some $i,\left[f \circ \alpha_{i}\right]=1$. If $\alpha_{i}(0)$ and $\alpha_{i}(1)$ lie in the same component of $f^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)$, we could reduce $\sharp \alpha^{-1}\left(f^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)\right)$. If not, we contradict our minimality assumption. Thus, we have $\alpha(\operatorname{int}(I)) \cap f^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)=\emptyset$. Let $F_{j}(j=0,1)$ be the component of $f^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)$ containing $\alpha(j)$. Let $C$ be a small regular neighborhood of $\alpha(I)$ such that $C \cap F_{j}=D_{j}$ is a spanning 2-cell of $C$ and $C \cap f^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)=D_{0} \cup D_{1}$. Let $B$ be the annulus in $\partial C$ bounded by $\partial D_{0} \cup \partial D_{1}$. Push $\operatorname{int}(B)$ slightly into $\operatorname{int}(C)$ to obtain an annulus $B^{\prime}$ with $\partial B^{\prime}=\partial B$ and $B \cup B^{\prime}$ the boundary of a solid torus $T$. We define a map $f_{1}: M \rightarrow X$ as follows. Put $f_{1}|M-\operatorname{int}(C)=f| M-\operatorname{int}(C)$ and $f_{1}\left(B^{\prime}\right)=x_{0}$. Since, $[f \circ \alpha]=1$, we can extend $f_{1}$ across a meridional 2 -cell $E$ of $T$. Now, it remains to extend $f_{1}$ across the remaining two open 3 -cells; this can be done since $\pi_{2}\left(X_{i}\right)=0$, for $i=1,2$. The extension can be done so that $f_{1}^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right) \cap C=B^{\prime}$. Thus, $f_{1}$ is C-equivalent to $f$ and $f_{1}^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)=\left(F^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)-\left(D_{0} \cup D_{1}\right)\right) \cup B^{\prime}$ has one less component than $f^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)$. The proof is completed by induction.

### 1.9 The mapping class group of a surface and $\operatorname{Out}\left(\mathbb{F}_{n}\right)$

Definition 1.9.1. Let $\Sigma=\Sigma_{g, n}$ be a compact oriented surface of genus $g$ and with $n$ boundary components. The mapping class group $M_{g, n}=M(\Sigma)$ is the group of isotopy classes of homeomorphisms of $\Sigma$.

Definition 1.9.2. The outer automorphism group $O u t\left(\mathbb{F}_{n}\right)$ is group whose elements are equivalence classes of automorphisms $\Phi: \mathbb{F}_{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{n}$, where two automorphism are equivalent if they differ by an inner automorphism.

The outer automorphism group $\operatorname{Out}\left(\mathbb{F}_{n}\right)$ of the free group of rank $n$ is naturally maps onto $G L_{n}(Z)$ and contains as a subgroup of the mapping class group of a compact surface with fundamental group $\mathbb{F}_{n}$. It is not surprising then to expect $\operatorname{Out}\left(\mathbb{F}_{n}\right)$ to exhibit the phenomena present in both linear groups and
mapping class groups. Much of the recent of $\operatorname{Out}\left(\mathbb{F}_{n}\right)$ has focused on developing tools and proving results known in other two categories.

### 1.9.1 Dehn-Nielsen-Baer theorem

Theorem 1.9.3. Let $S$ be a closed surface of positive genus. Then, the mapping class group of $S$ is isomorphic to the group of outer automorphisms of $\pi_{1}(S)$.

This is a beautiful example of the interplay between topology and algebra in the mapping class group. For proof, see [29].

## 2. GEOMETRIC INTERSECTION NUMBER, CURVE COMPLEX AND SPHERE COMPLEX

### 2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, we study geometric intersection number of simple closed curves on a surface. In particular, we see its applications to study geometric properties of curve complex of the surface. We also study topological properties of curve complex. We shall see how curve complex is used to study mapping class group of surfaces. The geometric intersection number of curves on surfaces has been used to study Thurston compactification of Teichmüller space of a surface and the boundary of Teichmüller space, namely the space of projectivized measured laminations. At the end of this chapter, we study its analogue sphere complex of a 3-manifold and its topological properties.

### 2.2 Intersection numbers of curves on surfaces

(1) Let $\Sigma$ be an orientable surface.

Definition 2.2.1. A simple closed curve in $\Sigma$ is said to be essential if it does not bound a disk in $\Sigma$.
Henceforth, we shall deal with essential simple closed curves only.
Definition 2.2.2. Given two isotopy classes $\alpha$ and $\beta$ of essential simple closed curves in $\Sigma$, we define the geometric intersection number $I(\alpha, \beta)$ as the minimal of the cardinality of $|\alpha \cap \beta|$ among all the realizations of $\alpha$ and $\beta$ in $\Sigma$, i.e.,

$$
I(\alpha, \beta)=\min \{\mid a \cap b \| a \in \alpha, b \in \beta\}
$$

Here, $a$ and $b$ are simple closed curves on $\Sigma$ representing the isotopy classes $\alpha$ and $\beta$ respectively.
It is clear that this number is symmetric in the sense that it is independent of the order of $\alpha$ and $\beta$. Also, $I(\alpha, \beta)=0$ if and only if there exists representatives $a$ and $b$ of $\alpha$ and $\beta$, respectively, such that $a$ and $b$ are disjoint simple closed curves in $\Sigma$.
(2) We can also define intersection number $\dot{I}(\alpha, \beta)$ of $\alpha$ and $\beta$ as follows:

One can always choose representatives $a$ and $b$ of $\alpha$ and $\beta$ respectively, to be shortest closed geodesic in some Riemannian metric with negative curvature on $\Sigma$ so that they automatically intersect minimally.

Let $G$ denote $\pi_{1}(\Sigma)$. Let $H$ denote the infinite cyclic subgroup of $G$ carried by $a$, and let $\Sigma_{H}$ denote the cover of $\Sigma$ with fundamental group equal to $H$. Then $a$ lifts to $\Sigma_{H}$ and we denote its lift by $a$ again. Let $\widetilde{a}$ denote the pre-image of this lift in the universal cover $\widetilde{\Sigma}$ of $\Sigma$. The full pre-image of $a$ in $\widetilde{\Sigma}$ consists of disjoint lines which we call $a$-lines, which are all translates of $\widetilde{a}$ by the left action of $G$. Similarly, we define $K, \Sigma_{K}$, the line $\widetilde{b}$ and $b$-lines in $\widetilde{\Sigma}$. Now, we consider the images of the $a$-lines in $\Sigma_{K}$. Each $a$-line has image in $\Sigma_{K}$ which is a line or circle. Then we define $I^{\prime}(\alpha, \beta)$ to be the number of images of $a$-lines in $\Sigma_{k}$ which meet $\widetilde{b}$. Similarly, we define $I(\beta, \alpha)$ to be the number of images of $b$-lines in $\Sigma_{H}$ which meet $a$. Using the assumption that $a$ and $b$ are shortest closed geodesics, that each $a$-line in $\Sigma_{k}$ crosses $b$ at most once, and similarly for $b$-lines in $\Sigma_{H}$. It follows that $I^{\prime}(\alpha, \beta)$ and $I^{\prime}(\beta, \alpha)$ are each equal to the number of points of $a \cap b$, and so they are equal to each other.
(3) We can define geometric intersection number for surfaces with nonempty boundary as follows:

Given a compact orientable surface $\Sigma=\Sigma_{g, n}$ of genus $g$ with $n$ boundary components, a curve system on $\Sigma$ is a proper 1-dimensional sub-manifold so that each component of it is not null homotopic and not relatively homotopic into the boundary. The space of all isotopy classes of curve systems on $\Sigma$ is denoted by $C S(\Sigma)$. This space was introduced by Max Dehn in 1938 who called it the arithmetic field of the topological surface.

Definition 2.2.3. Given two classes $\alpha$ and $\beta$ in $C S(\Sigma)$, their geometric intersection number $I(\alpha, \beta)$ is defined to be $\min \{|a \cap b| \mid a \in \alpha, b \in \beta\}$.

### 2.3 Curve complex

The complex of curves of a surface $\Sigma$ is the simplicial complex with vertices isotopy classes of simple closed curves on $\Sigma$ and simplices disjoint families of simple closed curves on $\Sigma$. The complex of curves is used in the study of 3 -manifolds and mapping class groups. This complex was considered by Harer from homological point of view (with applications to the homology of the mapping class group). In particular, Harer determined the homotopy type of the curve complex [15], [16]. Ivanov used the curve complex to determine the structure of the mapping class group [27]. Masur and Minsky [36] showed that the curve complex is $\delta$-hyperbolic in the sense of Gromov. Hempel and others used the curve complex for studying 3 -manifolds.

A particularly useful tool in studying the complex of curves is intersection numbers. For instance, these have been used to prove geometric property of curve complex like hyperbolicity of the curve complex. Feng Luo has been used intersection number of curves on a surface to study Thurston's compactification of Teichmüller space of a surface [35]. The intersection numbers of curves on a surface has been used to give important constructions like Thurston's space of measured laminations. Now, we shall see precise definitions.

### 2.3.1 The curve complex

Let $\Sigma$ be a closed orientable surface and let $\pi \subset \Sigma$ be a (possibly empty) finite set. Harvey associated a curve complex to ( $\Sigma, \pi$ ) as follows:

The vertex set $X=X(\Sigma, \pi)$, consists of the set of isotopy classes of essential simple closed curves in $\Sigma \backslash \pi$ (which we refer to simply as curves). A set of curves is deemed to span a simplex in the curve complex if they can be realized disjointly in $\Sigma \backslash \pi$.

There are a few exceptional cases (sporadic cases) namely,
(1) If $\Sigma$ is a 2 -sphere and $|\pi| \leq 3$, then $\mathrm{X}=\phi$.
(2) If $\Sigma$ is either a 2 - sphere with $|\pi|=4$ or a torus with $|\pi|=1$, then the associated curve complex is just a countable set of points.

For non-exceptional cases $(\Sigma, \pi)$, one can see that the curve complex is connected and has dimension $3 g(\Sigma)+|\pi|-4$, where $g(\Sigma)=$ genus of $\Sigma$. We define complexity of $\mathrm{C}(\Sigma, \pi)=3 g(\Sigma)+|\pi|-4$, where $\mathrm{C}(\Sigma, \pi)$ is the curve complex associated to $(\Sigma, \pi)$.

The curve complex is locally infinite. The finiteness of dimension follows by an Euler characteristic argument. The maximal dimensional simplex in the curve complex is called Fenchel- Nielsen system (or pants decomposition).

People have used topology and geometric properties of the curve complex to study various objects like mapping class groups and Teichmüller spaces. Now, we shall see how topology of curve complex has been used.

### 2.4 Topology of curve complex

The homotopy type of the curve complex was determined by Harer [16].
Theorem 2.4.1. Let $\Sigma=\Sigma_{g, n}$ be compact orientable surface with genus $g$ and $n$ boundary components, then the curve complex associated to it is homotopically equivalent to a wedge of spheres of dimension $r$, where
(i) $r=2 g+n-3$ if $g>0$ and $n>0$.
(ii) $r=2 g-2$ if $n=0$.
(iii) $r=n-4$ if $g=0$.

This shows that the curve complex is simply connected and not contractible. Topology of curve complex has been used by Harer to compute the virtual cohomological dimension of the mapping class group of surface $\Sigma=\Sigma_{g, n}^{r}$ of genus $g$ with $n$ boundary components and $r$ punctures.

Theorem 2.4.2. For $2 g+s+r>2$, the mapping class group $M_{g, n}^{r}=M\left(\Sigma=\Sigma_{g, n}^{r}\right)$ is a virtual duality group of dimension $d(g, r, s)$, where $d(g, 0,0)=4 g-5, d(g, r, s)=4 g+2 r+s-4, g>0$ and $r+s>0$, and $d(O, r, s)=2 r+s-3$. In particular, the virtual cohomological dimension of $M_{g, n}^{r}$ is $d(g, r, s)$.

For proof, see [16].

### 2.5 Mapping class group and the curve complex

We recall the definition of mapping class group of surfaces.

### 2.5.1 Mapping class group:

Let $\Sigma=\Sigma_{g, n}$ be a compact oriented surface of genus $g$ and $n$ boundary components. The mapping class groups $M_{g, n}=M(\Sigma)$ is the group of homeomorphisms of $\Sigma$ which are identity on boundary $\partial \Sigma$ modulo isotopy. Here, isotopies leave points on $\partial \Sigma$ fixed.

The mapping class group has a natural simplicial action on the curve complex $C(\Sigma)$, where vertices are isotopy classes of essential unoriented non boundary parallel simple loops in $\Sigma$.

If $[h] \in M(\Sigma)$ and $\alpha=[a] \in C(\Sigma)$, then $[h] \cdot \alpha=[h(a)]$. Here, simplicial action means simplicial structure preserving action.

A natural question one would like to ask is whether every automorphism of the curve complex is induced by a homeomorphism of the surface.

In 1989, Ivanov [28] sketched a proof the result that if the genus of a surface is at least 2, then any automorphism of the curve complex $C(\Sigma)$ is induced by a homeomorphism of the surface.

Feng Luo [32] has settled the automorphism problem for the rest of the surfaces. His proof does not distinguish the case genus $g \geq 2$ from the case genus $g \leq 1$.

Theorem 2.5.1. (a)If the dimension $3 g+n-4$ of the curve complex is at least 1 and $(g, n) \neq(1,2)$, then any automorphism of $C\left(\Sigma_{g, n}\right)$ is induced by a self homeomorphism of the surface.
(b)Any automorphism of $C\left(\Sigma_{1,2}\right)$ preserving the set of vertices represented by separating loops is induced by the self homeomorphism of the surface.
(c)There is an automorphism of $C\left(\Sigma_{1,2}\right)$ which is not induced by any homeomorphism of the surface $\Sigma_{1,2}$.

This proof uses the work of Harer on homotopy type of the curve complex. An important step is to show that any automorphism of $C(\Sigma)$ preserving the multiplicative structure (See [32]) on $C(\Sigma)$ is induced by the homeomorphism of the surface. For proof, see [32].

### 2.6 Geometric properties of the curve complex

Among others, Masur, Minsky, Bowditch, Feng Luo have studied geometric properties of curve complex. Geometry of curve complex plays a central role in recent work on the geometry of non-compact hyperbolic 3- manifolds, in particular by Minsky and his collaborators towards proving Thurston's ending lamination conjecture. Now, we see some of the geometric properties of curve complex and how these are used.

### 2.6.1 Intersection numbers and Hyperbolicity of the Curve Complex

Let $\Sigma$ be a closed orientable surface and $\pi$ be a (possibly empty) finite. The 1 -skeleton of the curve complex $C(\Sigma)$ is a graph which we denote by $G=G(\Sigma, \pi)$. We write $d$ for the induced combinatorial path metric on $X$ which assigns unit length to each edge of $G$. Thus, $(G, d)$ is a metric space, which is actually a path connected metric space. Mazur and Minsky [36] showed that the curve complex $C(\Sigma)$ associated with the surface is hyperbolic in the sense of Gromov. This geometric property of curve complex is useful in studying mapping class group of surfaces. To prove hyperbolicity of the curve complex, we require a simple inequality relating intersection number to distances in the curve complex. The inequality is :

Lemma 2.6.1. If the complexity of $C(\Sigma)$ is positive, then $\forall \alpha, \beta \in X$ we have,

$$
d(\alpha, \beta) \leq I(\alpha, \beta)+1
$$

Now, we recall notions of geodesic metric space and hyperbolicity. The notion of hyperbolic metric space is due to Gromov.

## Hyperbolicity :

1.A geodesic metric space $X$ is a path-connected metric space in which any two points $x$ and $y$ are connected by an isometric image of an interval in the real line, called a geodesic and denoted by $[x y]$.
2. We say that $X$ satisfies the " thin triangle condition "if there exists some $\delta$ such that for any geodesic triangle $[x y] \cup[y z] \cup[x z]$ in $X$ each side is contained in a $\delta$ - neighborhood of the other two. This is one of the several equivalent conditions for $X$ to be $\delta$ hyperbolic in the sense of Gromov or negatively curved in the sense of Cannon.

Examples :

1. Classical Hyperbolic Spaces.
2. All simplicial trees.
3. Cayley Graphs of the fundamental groups of a closed negatively curved manifolds.
4. Every finite diameter space is trivially hyperbolic space with $\delta$ equal to diameter.

Bowditch [5] has given another proof of the same result. The constructions in his proof are more combinatorial in nature and allow for certain refinements and elaborations. Mazur and Minsky has not given an explicit estimate of the hyperbolicity constant, but Bowditch has shown that the hyperbolicity constant is bounded by a logarithmic function of complexity. Thus, hyperbolic constant depends on $(\Sigma, \pi)$.

Any upper bound on $d(\alpha, \beta)$ in terms of $I(\alpha, \beta)$ is enough to prove hyperbolicity.
The logarithmic bound on the hyperbolicity constant is obtained by the bound on $d(\alpha, \beta)$ in the following lemma:

Lemma 2.6.2. There is a function $F: N \rightarrow N$ with $F(n)=O(\operatorname{logn})$ such that if complexity of curve complex is positive and $\alpha, \beta \in X$, then

$$
d(\alpha, \beta) \leq F(I(\alpha, \beta))
$$

### 2.6.2 Infinite diameter of the curve complex

All this would be rather trivial if the curve complex had finite diameter because a space of finite diameter is obviously hyperbolic. Feng Luo has given a simple argument which shows that any non-exceptional curve complex has infinite diameter [36]. We will see the sketch of this proof.

The sketch of the proof: Let $\mu$ be a maximal geodesic lamination and $\lambda_{i}$ be any sequence of closed geodesics converging geometrically to $\mu$. Then, if $d\left(\gamma_{0}, \gamma_{n}\right)$ remains bounded, then after restricting to a subsequence, we may assume that $d\left(\gamma_{0}, \gamma_{n}\right)=N, \forall n \geq 0$. For each $\gamma_{n}$, we may then find $\beta_{n}$ such that $d\left(\beta_{n}, \alpha_{n}\right)=1$ and $d\left(\gamma_{0}, \beta_{n}\right)=N-1$. But $\gamma_{n} \rightarrow \mu$ and $\mu$ is maximal implies that $\beta_{n} \rightarrow \mu$ as well, since $\gamma_{n}$ and $\beta_{n}$ are disjoint in $\Sigma$. Proceeding inductively, we arrive at the case $N=1$ and in this case the conclusion is that $\beta_{n} \rightarrow \mu$ and $\beta_{n}=\gamma_{0}$, which is a contradiction .

The basic idea to prove hyperbolicity of curve complex is to construct a preferred family of of paths connecting any pair of vertices in $G$. Thus, if $\alpha, \beta \in X$, we have a path $\pi_{a b}$ in $G$ from $\alpha$ to $\beta$. Then, we show that any triangle formed by three paths $\pi_{\alpha \beta}, \pi_{\beta \gamma}$ and $\pi_{\gamma \alpha}$ is "thin" in an appropriate sense. In particular, there is a "center", $\phi(\alpha, \beta, \gamma) \in X$, which is a bounded distance from all three sides. A key point in the argument is to show that if $\gamma, \delta \in X$ are adjacent, then $d(\phi(\alpha, \beta, \gamma), \phi(\alpha, \beta, \delta))$ is bounded. Given this one sees that the paths $\pi_{\alpha, \beta}$ are uniformly quasigeodesic. From this the hyperbolicity of $G$ follows via a subquadratic isoperimetric inequality .

The curve complex encodes the asymptotic geometry of the Teichmüller space of a surface. We shall also see how geometric intersection number of curve curves on a surface is used to give various important constructions like Thurston's space of measured laminations. Now, we shall see what is the Teichmüller space of a surface.

### 2.7 Teichmüller space of surface and Thurston's compactification of Teichmüller space

Let $\Sigma=\Sigma_{g, n}$ be a compact, connected, orientable surface of genus $g$ and $n$ boundary components ( $n$ may be 0 ) and of negative Euler characteristic. By a hyperbolic metric on the surface $\Sigma$, we mean a Riemannian metric of curvature -1 on the surface $\Sigma$ so that its boundary components are geodesics. The Teichmüller space $T(\Sigma)$ is the space of all isotopy classes of hyperbolic metrics on the surface $\Sigma$. Two hyperbolic metrics are isotopic if there is an isometry between the two metrics which is isotopic to identity.

Thurston introduced the space of projective measured laminations on $\Sigma$, which will be denoted by $P M L(\Sigma)$, and a compactification of $T(\Sigma)$ whose boundary is equal to $P M L(\Sigma)$. Thurston boundary $P M L(\Sigma)$ is a natural boundary of $T(\Sigma)$, in the sense that the action of mapping class group of $\Sigma$ extends continuously to the Thurston compactification $\overline{T(\Sigma)}=T(\Sigma) \cup P M L(\Sigma)$.

## Intersection number and Thurston's space of measured laminations

Recall from [35], given a compact, orientable surface $\Sigma$ with possibly non empty boundary, space of all isotopy classes of curve system on $\Sigma$ is denoted by $C S(\Sigma)$. Thurston observed that the pairing $I($,$) :$ $C S(\Sigma) \times C S(\Sigma) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ behaves like a non-degenerate bilinear form in the sense that
(1) Given any $\alpha$ in $C S(\Sigma)$, there is $\beta$ in $C S(\Sigma)$ so that their intersection number $I(\alpha, \beta)$ is non-zero.
(2) $I\left(k_{1} \alpha_{1}, k_{2} \alpha_{2}\right)=k_{1} k_{2} I\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}\right)$, for $k_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}, \alpha_{i} \in C S(\Sigma)$, where $k_{i} \alpha_{i}$ is the collection of $k_{i}$ copies of $\alpha_{i}$.

Thurston's space of measured laminations on the surface $\Sigma$, denoted by $M L(\Sigma)$ is defined to be the completion of the pair $(C S(\Sigma), I()$,$) in the following sense : Given \alpha$ in $C S(\Sigma)$, let $\pi(\alpha)$ be the map sending $\beta$ to $I(\alpha, \beta)$. This gives an embedding $\pi: C S(\Sigma) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{C S(\Sigma)}$, where the target has product topology. The space $M L(\Sigma)$ is defined to be the closure of $\mathbb{Q}_{>0} \times \pi(C S(\Sigma))=\left\{r \pi(x): r \in \mathbb{Q}_{>0}, x \in C S(\Sigma)\right\}$

Using notion of train tracks, Thurston showed that $M L(\Sigma)$ is homeomorphic to a Euclidean space and intersection pairing $I($,$) extends to a continuous homogeneous map from M L(\Sigma) \times M L(\Sigma)$ to $\mathbb{R}$. See [35].

### 2.7.1 Thurston's compactification of Teichmüller spaces

Consider a fixed hyperbolic structure $\sigma$ on $\Sigma$.
Definition 2.7.1. A geodesic lamination $\mu$ is a closed subset of $\Sigma$, which is a disjoint union of simple geodesics which are called leaves of $\mu$. The leaves of a geodesic lamination are complete, i.e., each leaf is either closed or has infinite length in both of its ends, and a geodesic lamination is determined by its support, i.e., a geodesic lamination is a union of geodesics in just one way.

We write $G L(\Sigma)$ to denote the space of geodesic laminations on $\Sigma$, which is equipped with the Hausdorff metric on closed subsets. Note that $G L(\Sigma)$ is compact and therefore, in particular, every infinite sequence of nontrivial simple closed geodesics has a convergent subsequence.

A transverse measure on a geodesic lamination $\mu$ is a rule, which assigns to each transverse arc $\alpha$ a measure that is supported on $\mu \cap \alpha$, which is invariant under a map from $\alpha$ to another arc $\beta$ if it takes each point of intersection of $\alpha$ with a leaf of $\mu$ to a point of intersection of $\beta$ with the same leaf. A measured lamination on $\Sigma$ is a geodesic lamination $\mu$ with a transverse measure of full support, i.e., if $(\alpha \cap \mu) \neq \phi$ then $\alpha$ has nonzero measure for any transverse arc $\alpha$. For example, a simple closed geodesic equipped with counting measure is a measured lamination. We write $M L(\Sigma)$ to denote the space of measured laminations on $\Sigma$. There is a natural action of $\mathbb{R}^{+}$on $M L(\Sigma)$. Suppose that $r>0$. The measured lamination $r \mu$ has the same geodesic lamination as $\mu$ with the transverse measure scaled by $r$. We write $P M L(S)$ to denote the set of equivalence classes of projective measured laminations.

Then, Thurston's compactification of $T(\Sigma)$ is $\overline{T(\Sigma)}=T(\Sigma) \cup P M L(\Sigma)$, with appropriate topology. See [30].

Now, we study one dimensional higher analogue of curve complex, namely sphere complex.

### 2.8 Sphere complex

The sphere complex associated to $M=\not \sharp_{k} S^{2} \times S^{1}$, i.e., the connected sum of $k$ copies of $S^{2} \times S^{1}$, is a simplicial complex whose vertices are the isotopy classes of embedded spheres in $M$. A set of isotopy classes of embedded spheres in $M$ is deemed to span a simplex if they can be realized disjointly in $M$. This is an analogue of the curve complex associated to a surface. The topological properties of the sphere complex have been studied by Hatcher, Hatcher-Vogtmann and Hatcher-Wahl in [17], [20], [21], [22], [23], [24].

Definition 2.8.1. A smooth, embedded 2-sphere in $M$ is said to be essential if it does not bound a 3-ball in $M$.

Definition 2.8.2. A system of 2 -spheres in $M$ is defined as a finite collection of disjointly embedded, pair-wise non-isotopic, essential smooth 2-spheres $S_{i} \subset M$.

Definition 2.8.3. The sphere complex $\mathbb{S}(M)$ associated to $M$ is a simplicial complex whose vertices are the isotopy classes of essential embedded 2 -spheres in $M$. A set of isotopy classes of embedded spheres in $M$ is deemed to span a simplex in the sphere complex if they can be realized disjointly in $M$.

The maximal simplices of $\mathbb{S}(M)$ all have the same dimension, namely $3 n+s-4$, as one sees by Euler characteristic considerations using the fact that the complementary regions of a maximal system of 2 -spheres are all 3 -punctured spheres.

### 2.8.1 Topology of sphere complex

In [17], Hatcher has proved that the sphere complex $\mathbb{S}(M)$ is contractible. This is proved by imitating the simple proof in [19] of contractibility of the analogous complex of arcs on a punctured surface. However, for this scheme to work one needs the fact that sphere systems can be isotoped into a fairly canonical normal form with respect to a decomposition of $M$ into "pairs of pants", i.e., 3 -punctured $S^{3}$ 's. This normal form is analogue of a well-known property of curves on a surface. We shall discuss "normal forms of sphere systems" in details in the Chapter 4. Culler and Vogtmann [7], introduced a space $X_{n}$ on which the group $\operatorname{Out}\left(\mathbb{F}_{n}\right)$ acts with finite point stabilizers, and proved that $X_{n}$ is contractible. Peter Shalen later invented the name " Outer space" for $X_{n}$. Outer space with the action of $\operatorname{Out}\left(\mathbb{F}_{n}\right)$ can be thought of as free group analogous to the Teichmüller space of a surface with the action of the mapping class group of the surface. Culler and Morgan have constructed a compactification of Outer space much like Thurston's compactification of Teichmüller space [6].

Now, we see the connection between the sphere complex and the outer space.

### 2.8.2 Sphere complex and Outer space

The points of the rank $n$ Outer Space $X_{n}$ of Culler-Vogtmann are equivalence classes of homotopy equivalences $f: X_{0} \rightarrow X$, where $X_{0}$ is a bouquet of $n$ circles and $X$ is a metric graph which doesn't deformation
retract onto any subgraph, the metric being normalized so that the total length of all the edges is 1 . The equivalence relation on such "marked metric graphs" $f: X_{0} \rightarrow X$ is given by homotopy of $f$ and composition with isometries $X \rightarrow X^{\prime}$. Fixing the topological type of $X$ and varying only the lengths of its edges traces out an open simplex in $X_{n}$. Passing to faces of this simplex corresponds to letting the lengths of some edges go to zero. Depending on which edges are collapsing in this way, the face might or might not belong to $X_{n}$. Let $\mathbb{S}=\mathbb{S}(M)$, and let $\mathbb{S}_{\infty}$ be the subcomplex of $\mathbb{S}$ consisting of sphere systems having at least one non simply-connected complementary component in $M$. A sphere System $S$ has a dual graph $G(S)$ having vertices the components of $M-S$ and edges the spheres of $S$. We may view $G(S)$ as embedded in $M$ by choosing a vertex point in each component of $M-S$ and connecting these vertices by edges crossing the spheres of $S$, each sphere having a single edge crossing it exactly once. Some what more canonically, $G(S)$ is also a quotient of $M$, obtained by thickening $S$ to a product $S \times[-1,1] \subset M$, then collapsing the components of $M-(S \times(0,1))$ to points and also the components of $S \times t$, for each $t \in(0,1)$. If $S$ is in $\mathbb{S}-\mathbb{S}_{\infty}$, then both maps $G(S) \rightarrow M$ and $M \rightarrow G(S)$ are isomorphisms on $\pi_{1}$.

Fixing a System $S_{0}$ with $G\left(S_{0}\right)=X_{0}$, the composition $G\left(S_{0}\right) \rightarrow M \rightarrow G(S)$ is then a homotopy equivalence. The barycentric coordinates of a point in the open simplex of $\mathbb{S}$ determined by $S$ give weights on the components of $S$ and hence lengths on the corresponding edges of $G(S)$. In this way we obtain a map $\Theta: \mathbb{S}-\mathbb{S}_{\infty} \rightarrow X_{n}$ sending the weighted system $S$ to $G\left(S_{0}\right) \rightarrow G(S)$. On each open simplex of $\mathbb{S}-\mathbb{S}_{\infty}, \Theta$ is a linear homeomorphism onto an open simplex of $X_{n}$, and $\Theta$ is continuous when we pass to faces of simplices, hence $\Theta$ is continuous everywhere. Also, $\Theta$ is equivariant with respect to the natural action of $\operatorname{Out}\left(\mathbb{F}_{n}\right)$ on $\mathbb{S}-\mathbb{S}_{\infty}$ and $X_{n}$. This maps actually turns out be a homeomorphism. See [17].

The space $X_{n}$ has dimension $3 n-4$, and Culler-Vogtmann describe a nice "spine" of $X_{n}$ which is a contractible subcomplex of dimension $2 n-3$ on which $\operatorname{Out}\left(\mathbb{F}_{n}\right)$ acts with finite stabilizers and finite quotient. Using this they prove that $\operatorname{Out}\left(\mathbb{F}_{n}\right)$ has finitely generated homology groups and virtual cohomological dimension $2 n-3$. See [7].

## 3. THE MODEL 3-MANIFOLD $M$ AND ENDS

### 3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, we study the model 3-manifold $M=\sharp_{k} S^{2} \times S^{1}$. We also see how a partition of ends of the space $\widetilde{M}$, the universal cover of $M$, corresponds to an embedded sphere in $\widetilde{M}$. We also discuss the intersection number of a proper path in $\widetilde{M}$ with a homology class in $H_{2}(\widetilde{M})$. In the last section of this chapter, we discuss splittings of the fundamental group of $M$.

### 3.2 The model 3-manifold $M$

Consider the 3-manifold $M=\sharp_{k} S^{2} \times S^{1}$, i.e., the connected sum of $k$ copies of $S^{2} \times S^{1}$. A description of $M$ can be given as follows: Consider the sphere $S^{3}$ and let $A_{i}, B_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq k$, be a collection of $2 k$ disjoint embedded balls in $S^{3}$. Let $P$ be the complement of the union of the interiors of these balls and let $S_{i}$ (respectively, $T_{i}$ ) denote the boundary of $A_{i}$ (respectively, $B_{i}$ ). Then, $M$ is obtained from $P$ by gluing together $S_{i}$ and $T_{i}$ with an orientation reversing diffeomorphism $\varphi_{i}$ for each $i, 1 \leq i \leq k$. Let $\Sigma_{i}^{\prime}=S_{i} \bigsqcup_{\varphi_{i}} T_{i}$, for $1 \leq i \leq k$. The fundamental group $\pi_{1}(M)=G$ of $M$, which is a free group of rank $k$, acts freely on the universal cover $\widetilde{M}$ of $M$ by deck transformations.

Let $\Sigma=\cup_{j} \Sigma_{j}$ be a maximal system of 2-sphere in $M$. Splitting $M$ along $\Sigma$, then produces a finite collection of 3-punctured 3-spheres $P_{k}$. Here, a 3-punctured 3-sphere is the complement of the interiors of three disjointly embedded 3 -balls in a 3 -sphere.

We recall some constructions from [17]. First, we associate a tree $T$ to $\widetilde{M}$ corresponding to the decomposition of $M$ by $\Sigma$. Let $\widetilde{\Sigma}$ be the pre-image of $\Sigma$ in $\widetilde{M}$. The closure of each component of $\widetilde{M}-\widetilde{\Sigma}$ is a 3 -punctured 3 -sphere $\widetilde{P_{k}}$ which is a lift of a $P_{k}$. The vertices of the tree are of two types, with one vertex corresponding to the closure of each component of $\widetilde{M}-\widetilde{\Sigma}$ and one vertex for each component of $\widetilde{\Sigma}$. An edge of $T$ joins a pair of vertices if one of the vertices corresponds to the closure of a component $X$ of $\widetilde{M}-\widetilde{\Sigma}$ and the other vertex corresponds to a component of $\widetilde{\Sigma}$ that is in the boundary of $X$. Thus, we have a $Y$-shaped subtree corresponding to each complementary component. We pick an embedding of $T$ in $\widetilde{M}$ respecting the correspondences. This tree has bivalent and trivalent vertices. Bivalent vertices correspond to components of $\widetilde{\Sigma}$. We call components of $\widetilde{\Sigma}$ as standard spheres in $\widetilde{M}$.

Let $\tau=\tau_{1} \subset \tau_{2} \subset \ldots$ be an exhaustion of $T$ by finite subtrees of $T$ such that all the terminal vertices of each $\tau_{i}$ are bivalent in $T$. Let $K_{\tau}$ be the union of closures of $\widetilde{P_{k}}$ 's which corresponds to vertices in $\tau$ which
are trivalent in $T$. Then, one can easily see that $K_{\tau}$ is a compact, simply-connected space homeomorphic to a space of the form $S^{3}-\cup_{j=1}^{n} i n t\left(D_{j}\right)$ with $D_{j}$ disjoint embedded balls in $S^{3}$.

We observe that $\pi_{2}(M)=\pi_{2}(\widetilde{M})=H_{2}(\widetilde{M})$. This follows from Hurewicz theorem which we state below:
Theorem 3.2.1. If a $C W$-complex $X$ is $(n-1)$-connected, $n \geq 2$, then $\pi_{n}(X)$ is isomorphic to $H_{n}(X)$.
A topological space $X$ is said to be $m$-connected if and only if it is path-connected and its first $m$ homotopy groups vanish identically, that is,

$$
\pi_{i}(X)=0,1 \leq i \leq m
$$

So a class in $\pi_{2}(M)$ can be considered as a class in $\pi_{2}(\widetilde{M})$ as well as a class in $H_{2}(\widetilde{M})$. We shall implicitly use this identification throughout. For reference, see [18].

### 3.3 Ends of $\widetilde{M}$

We recall the notion of ends of a topological space: Let $X$ be a topological space. For a compact set $K \subset X$, let $C(K)$ denote the set of components of $X-K$. For $L$ compact with $K \subset L$, we have a natural map $C(L) \rightarrow C(K)$. Thus, as compact subsets of $X$ define a directed system under inclusion, we can define the set of ends $E(X)$ as the inverse limit of the sets $C(K)$. Further, we can compute the inverse limit with respect to any exhaustion by compact sets.

It is easy to see that a proper map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ induces a map $E(f): E(X) \rightarrow E(Y)$ and that if $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and $g: Y \rightarrow Z$ are proper maps, then $E(g \circ f)=E(g) \circ E(f)$. In particular, the real line $\mathbb{R}$ has two ends which can be regarded as $\infty$ and $-\infty$. Hence, a proper map $c: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow X$ gives a pair of ends $c_{-}$and $c_{+}$of $X$ which may be equal.

Now, consider proper maps $c: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \widetilde{M}$. As $\widetilde{M}$ is a union of the simply-connected compact sets $K_{\tau}$, the following lemma is straightforward.

Lemma 3.3.1. There is a one-one correspondence between proper homotopy classes of maps $c: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \widetilde{M}$ and pairs $\left(c_{-}, c_{+}\right) \in E(\widetilde{M}) \times E(\widetilde{M})$.

### 3.3.1 Topology on the set $E(\widetilde{M})$

To define topology on $E(\widetilde{M})$, we use compact subsets of $\widetilde{M}$. If $K$ is any compact subset of $\widetilde{M}$, then $\widetilde{M}-K$ has finitely many components. Then, we have the set of ends of a component of $\widetilde{M}-K$ whose closure is non-compact to be a basis element. We can easily see that the collection of all the sets of ends of components of $\widetilde{M}-K$ whose closures are non-compact, for all compact subsets $K$ of $\widetilde{M}$, forms a basis for a topology on $E(\widetilde{M})$.

The set $E(\widetilde{M})$ is homeomorphic to a Cantor set, hence compact. Note that the set $E(T)$ of ends of $T$ can be identified with the set $E(\widetilde{M})$.

### 3.4 Embedded spheres in $\widetilde{M}$ and partitions of ends of $\widetilde{M}$

Fix an orientation of $M$ and hence, of $\widetilde{M}$.
Lemma 3.4.1. Let $S$ is an embedded sphere in $\widetilde{M}$. Then, $S$ separates $\widetilde{M}$.
Proof. Suppose $S$ is non-separating. Choose a regular neighborhood $V=S^{2} \times[-1,1]$ of $S$ and an embedded path $\gamma$ in $M-V$ from a point of $S^{2} \times-1$ to a point $S^{2} \times 1$. The sphere $S^{\prime}$ which is the connected sum of $S^{2} \times-1$ with $S^{2} \times 1$ along with the boundary of a regular neighborhood $U$ of $\gamma$, clearly bounds $U \cup V$ in $\widetilde{M}$. Thus, $\widetilde{M}=(U \cup V) \cup(M-(U \cup V))$. Then, $U \cup V$ is $\left(S^{2} \times S^{1}\right)-B^{3}$ with boundary $S^{\prime}$, where $B^{3}$ is a 3 -ball and $(M-(U \cup V))$ is a 3 -manifold with boundary $S^{\prime}$. Thus, $\widetilde{M}$ is a connected sum of $S^{2} \times S^{1}$ with some three manifold. This implies, by applying Van-Kampen theorem, that the fundamental group of $\widetilde{M}$ is non-trivial, which is a contradiction. So, $S$ separates $\widetilde{M}$.

If $S$ is an embedded sphere in $\widetilde{M}$, then $S$ separates $\widetilde{M}$ into two components, say $V^{+}$and $V^{-}$, with $V^{+}$on the positive side of $S$ according to the given orientations on $S$ and $\widetilde{M}$. If the closure of one of these components is compact, then $S$ is homologically trivial. If the closures of both the components are non-compact, then we get a partition of the set $E(\widetilde{M})$ of ends of $\widetilde{M}$ into two non-empty subsets $E^{ \pm}(S)$ of $E(\widetilde{M})$. The sets $E^{ \pm}(S)$ are the sets $E\left(V^{ \pm}\right)$of ends components $V^{ \pm}$.

Proposition 3.4.2. The sets $E^{ \pm}(S)$ are open in $E(\widetilde{M})$.
Proof. Suppose $\tau$ is finite subtree of $T$ with all of its terminal vertices bivalent such that $S$ is contained in $K_{\tau}$. Then, $K=K_{\tau}$ is a compact, 3 -dimensional, connected manifold contained in $\widetilde{M}$ such that the closure $W_{i}$ of each complementary component of $K$ is non-compact. As $\widetilde{M}$ is simply-connected and $K$ is connected, $N_{i}=\partial W_{i}$ is connected for each $W_{i}$. Note that there are finitely many sets $W_{i}$ and $E(\widetilde{M})$ is partitioned into the sets $E\left(W_{i}\right)$. The space $K$ is $S^{3}$ - interior of finitely many disjointly embedded 3 -balls with boundary spheres $N_{i}$. The sphere $S$ separates $K$ and gives a partition of the collection $\left\{N_{i}\right\}$ ). Note that interior of each $W_{i}$ is completely contained either in $V^{+}$or $V^{-}$and hence each set $E\left(W_{i}\right)$ lies entirely either inside $E^{+}$or inside $E^{-}$. Thus, both $E^{+}$and $E^{-}$are unions of basis elements, hence they are open.

As the sets $E^{ \pm}(S)$ give partition of $E(\widetilde{M})$, both $E^{+}$and $E^{-}$are closed subsets of $E(\widetilde{M})$. As $E(\widetilde{M})$ is compact, both $E^{+}$and $E^{-}$are compact subsets of $E(\widetilde{M})$.

Proposition 3.4.3. If $S^{\prime}$ is an embedded sphere in $\widetilde{M}$, homologous to $S$, then both $S$ and $S^{\prime \prime}$ give the same partition of the set of ends of $\widetilde{M}$.

Proof. As $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ are embedded spheres in $\widetilde{M}$, there exist a finite subtree $\tau$ of $T$ with all of its terminal vertices bivalent in $T$, such that both $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ are contained in $K_{\tau}$. The space $K=K_{\tau}$ is a compact,

3-dimensional, connected manifold contained in $\widetilde{M}$ such that the closure $W_{i}$ of each complementary component of $K$ is non-compact. As $\widetilde{M}$ is simply-connected and $K$ is connected, $N_{i}=\partial W_{i}$ is connected for each $W_{i}$. There are finitely many sets $W_{i}$ and $E(\widetilde{M})$ is partitioned into the sets $E\left(W_{i}\right)$. The space $K$ is $S^{3}$ - interior of finitely many 3 -balls with boundary spheres $N_{i}$. As each $W_{i}$ is non-compact and the boundary sphere $N_{i}$ is non-trivial in $H_{2}\left(W_{i}\right)$, an algebraic topology argument implies that spheres $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ are homologous in $\widetilde{M}$ if and only if they are homologous in $K$. Now, we claim the following:

The embedded spheres $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ in $K$ are homologous in $K$ if and only if they give the same partition of the collection of boundary spheres $N_{i}$.

Let $K-S=K_{1} \cup K_{2}$ and $K-S^{\prime}=K_{1}^{\prime} \cup K_{2}^{\prime}$. Let $\partial \bar{K}_{1}-S=N_{1} \cup \cdots \cup N_{r}$ and $\partial \bar{K}_{2}-S=N_{r+1} \cup \cdots \cup N_{k}$. Let $A_{1}=N_{1} \cup \cdots \cup N_{r}$ and $A_{2}=N_{r+1} \cup \cdots \cup N_{k}$. We have $\partial K=A_{1} \bigsqcup A_{2}$. Similarly, let $\partial \bar{K}_{1}^{\prime}-S^{\prime}=A_{1}^{\prime}$ and $\partial \bar{K}_{2}-S=A_{2}^{\prime}$, where each $A_{i}^{\prime}$ is a disjoint union boundary spheres and $\partial K=A_{1}^{\prime} \bigsqcup A_{2}^{\prime}$. It follows that $S$ is homologous to $A_{1}$ and also to $A_{2}$. Similarly, $S^{\prime}$ is homologous to $A_{1}^{\prime}$ and also to $A_{2}^{\prime}$.

If $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ are homologous in $K$, then $A_{i}$ is homologous $A_{j}^{\prime}$, for all $1 \leq j, k \leq 2$. Note $H_{2}(K)$ is generated by the homology classes $\left[N_{i}\right]$ of the boundary spheres $N_{i}$ with the relation $\sum_{i}\left[N_{i}\right]=0$. Now, $A_{1}$ is homologous to $A_{1}^{\prime}$ and if $A_{1} \neq A_{1}^{\prime}$, then $A_{1}^{\prime}=A_{2}$, as the class $B=\left[A_{1}\right]-\left[A_{2}\right]=0$ can be represented by union of boundary spheres $N_{i}$. From this, it clear that both $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ give the same partition of the collection of boundary spheres.

Conversely, if $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ give the same partition $\left\{A_{1}, A_{2}\right\}$ of the collection of boundary spheres $N_{i}$ of $K$. Then, both $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ are homologous to $A_{1}$. Hence, $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ are homologous in $K$.

Now, if $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ are homologous in $\widetilde{M}$, then they are homologous in $K$. So, they give the same partition of the collection of boundary spheres $N_{i}$ of $K$. Therefore, they give the same partition of the collection $\left\{E\left(W_{i}\right)\right\}$ and hence, give the same partition of the set $E(\widetilde{M})$.

## Conversely,

Proposition 3.4.4. If $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ are two embedded spheres in $\widetilde{M}$ such that they give the same partition $\left(E^{+}, E^{-}\right)$of the set $E(\widetilde{M})$ of ends of $\widetilde{M}$, then $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ are homologous in $\widetilde{M}$.

Proof. As $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ are embedded spheres in $\widetilde{M}$, there exist a finite subtree $\tau$ of $T$ with all of its terminal vertices bivalent in $T$, such that both $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ are contained in $K_{\tau}$. The space $K=K_{\tau}$ is a compact, 3-dimensional, connected manifold contained in $\widetilde{M}$ such that the closure $W_{i}$ of each complementary component of $K$ is non-compact. Let $N_{i}=\partial W_{i}$. There are finitely many sets $W_{i}$ and $E(\widetilde{M})$ is partitioned into the sets $E\left(W_{i}\right)$. The space $K$ is $S^{3}$ - interior of finitely many 3-balls with boundary spheres $N_{i}$. The sphere $S$ separates $K$ and gives a partition of the boundary spheres of $K$ into two sets. This partition of boundary sphere into two sets gives a partition of the collection $\left\{E\left(W_{i}\right)\right\}$ into two sub collections. Each set $E\left(W_{i}\right)$ lies entirely either inside $E^{+}$or $E^{-}$and theses two sub collections of $\left\{E\left(W_{i}\right)\right\}$ determine the sets $E^{+}$and $E^{-}$. Similarly, this is true for $S^{\prime}$. This implies $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ give the same partition of the boundary spheres of $K$. Hence, $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ are homologous in $K$ and therefore, homologous in $\widetilde{M}$.

Proposition 3.4.5. Given a partition of the set $E(\widetilde{M})$ into two infinite closed (hence open) sets $E^{+}$and $E^{-}$, there exist an embedded sphere $S$ in $\widetilde{M}$, which gives the same partition of $E(\widetilde{M})$.

Proof. Suppose that $E^{+}$and $E^{-}$are two disjoint closed subsets of $E(\widetilde{M})$, which give a partition of $E(\widetilde{M})$. If $\tau \subset T$ is a tree such that all the terminal vertices of $\tau$ are bivalent in $T$, then $K=K_{\tau}$ is a compact, 3-dimensional, connected manifold contained in $\widetilde{M}$ such that the closure $W_{i}$ of each complementary component of $K$ is non-compact. Let $N_{i}=\partial W_{i}$.

Suppose that we can choose a subtree $\tau \subset T$ with all the terminal vertices of $\tau$ bivalent in $T$ such that each $E\left(W_{i}\right)$ lies entirely either in $E^{+}$or $E^{-}$. We can assign signs to $N_{i},+$ or - depending upon whether $E\left(W_{i}\right)$ lies inside $E^{+}$or $E^{-}$. Then, we can choose a sphere $S$ in $K$ which separates all positive signed $N_{i}$ from all negative signed $N_{i}$, as $K$ is $S^{3}$ - interior of finitely many 3-balls with boundary spheres $N_{i}$. Then, one can easily see that $S$ gives the partition of $E(\widetilde{M})$ into the sets $E^{+}$and $E^{-}$.

Now, we see how to choose such a tree $\tau$. We have both $E^{+}$and $E^{-}$are both open and closed. As the set $E(\widetilde{M})$ is compact, both $E^{+}$and $E^{-}$are compact. Let $e \in E^{+}$. As $E^{+}$is open, we can choose a finite tree $\tau \subset T$ such that $e$ is an element of the set $U_{e}$ of the ends of a component of $\widetilde{M}-K_{\tau}$ and $U_{e} \subset E^{+}$. We can choose such a basic open set $U_{e}$ for each $e \in E^{+}$. As $E^{+}$is compact, there exists finitely many basic open sets $U_{e_{1}}, \ldots, U_{e_{n}}$ such that $E^{+}=\cup_{i=1}^{n} U_{e_{i}}$. Let $\tau_{i}$ be finite subtree of $T$ with all their terminal vertices bivalent such that $U_{e_{i}}$ is the set of ends of a component of $\widetilde{M}-K_{\tau_{i}}$, for each $i=1, \ldots, n$. Let $W_{i}$ be the closure of the component of $\widetilde{M}-K_{\tau_{i}}$ such that $U_{e_{i}}=E\left(W_{i}\right)$, the set of ends of $W_{i}$. Let $N_{i}=\partial W_{i}$. Then, $N_{i}$ corresponds to a terminal vertex $v_{i}$ of $\tau_{i}$. If for some $1 \leq j, k \leq n, N_{k}$ lies in $W_{j}$, then we have $W_{k} \subset W_{j}$ and $U_{k}=E\left(W_{k}\right) \subset E\left(W_{j}\right)=U_{j}$. Then, we discard the vertex $v_{k}$ corresponding to $N_{k}$ from the collection of bivalent vertices $\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}$ of $T$. So finally, we get bivalent vertices $v_{j_{1}}, \ldots, v_{j_{m}}$ such that the sets $W_{j_{1}}, \ldots, W_{j_{m}}$ are disjoint. Then, we have the sets $U_{j_{1}}, \ldots, U_{j_{m}}$ are disjoint and $E^{+}=\cup_{i=1}^{m} U_{j_{i}}$. Note that given any two bivalent vertices $v_{j_{i}}$ and $v_{j_{k}}, 1 \leq i, k \leq m$, the reduced path joining them does not contain any other $v_{j_{l}}, j \neq l \neq k$. We consider the subtree $\tau^{\prime}$ of $T$ which is the span of the vertices $v_{i}$. Then, all $v_{j_{i}}$, $1 \leq i \leq m$, are the terminal vertices of $\tau^{\prime}$. We enlarge the tree $\tau^{\prime}$ to the subtree $\tau$ of $T$ by taking unions of those $Y$ 's which have non-empty intersection with the interior of the tree $\tau^{\prime}$. The tree $\tau$ is a subtree of $T$ with all the terminal vertices of $\tau$ are bivalent in $T$ and all the $V_{j_{i}}$ 's are terminal vertices of $\tau$. Now, one can easily see that $\tau$ has the required property. For, if $K=K_{\tau}, K$ is $S^{3}$ - interior of finitely many 3-balls with boundary spheres $N_{j_{1}}, \ldots, N_{j_{m}}, N_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, N_{l}^{\prime}$. The boundary sphere $N_{j_{i}}$ corresponds to the vertex $v_{j_{i}}$. The space $\widetilde{M}-K$ has components with closures $W_{j_{1}}, \ldots, W_{j_{m}}, W_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, W_{l}^{\prime}$. For each $1 \leq i \leq m, N_{j_{i}}=\partial W_{j_{i}}$ and for each $1 \leq k \leq l, N_{k}^{\prime}=\partial W_{k}^{\prime}$. As the sets $U_{j_{1}}, \ldots, U_{j_{m}}$ are disjoint and $E^{+}=\cup_{i=1}^{m} U_{j_{i}}$, for each $1 \leq k \leq l, E\left(W_{k}^{\prime}\right) \subset E^{-}$. Thus, we have $\tau \subset T$ with all the terminal vertices of $\tau$ bivalent in $T$ such that each the set of ends of the closure of each complementary component of $K$ lies entirely either in $E^{+}$or $E^{-}$.

### 3.5 Crossings of spheres in $\widetilde{M}$

Let $A$ and $B$ be two homology classes in $H_{2}(\widetilde{M})$ represented by embedded spheres in $\widetilde{M}$. We saw a homology classes $A$ of embedded spheres $S$ in $\widetilde{M}$ is completely determined by a partition of $E(\widetilde{M})$ into two open subsets of $E(\widetilde{M})$. If $S$ gives partition of $E(\widetilde{M})$ into two open subsets $E^{+}(S)$ and $E^{-}(S)$ of $E(\widetilde{M})$, then we can write $E^{+}(A)=E^{+}(S)$ and $E^{-}(A)=E^{-}(S)$.

Definition 3.5.1. We say that $A$ and $B$ cross each of the four sets $E^{\varepsilon}(A) \cap E^{\eta}(B) \neq \phi$, for $\varepsilon$ and $\eta$ obtained by choosing signs $\varepsilon$ and $\eta$ in $\{+,-\}$ is non-empty.

Suppose $A$ and $B$ do not cross, then for some choice of sign $E^{\varepsilon}(A) \supset E^{\eta}(B)$. It follows that $E^{\bar{\varepsilon}}(A) \subset$ $E^{\bar{\eta}}(B)$, where $\bar{\varepsilon}$ and $\bar{\eta}$ denote the opposite signs. Further, if $A \neq B$, then the inequalities are strict.

Definition 3.5.2. We say that $B$ is on the positive side of $A$ if $E^{+}(A) \supset E^{\eta}(B)$ for some sign $\eta$. Otherwise, we say that $B$ is on the negative side of $A$. In general, we say that $B$ is on the $\varepsilon$-side of $A$ for the appropriate $\operatorname{sign} \varepsilon$.

Proposition 3.5.3. Let $A$ and $B$ be two homology classes in $H_{2}(\widetilde{M})$ represented by embedded spheres in $\widetilde{M}$. Then $A$ and $B$ can be represented by disjoint embedded spheres in $\widetilde{M}$ if and only if $A$ and $B$ do not cross.

Proof. Suppose $A$ and $B$ can be represented by embedded spheres $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ respectively. Denote the closures of the components of the complement of $S$ (respectively, $S^{\prime}$ ) by $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ (respectively, $Y_{1}$ and $Y_{2}$ ) so that $E\left(X_{1}\right)=E^{+}(A)=E^{+}(S)$ and $E\left(X_{2}\right)=E^{-}(A)=E^{-}(S)$ (respectively, $E\left(Y_{1}\right)=E^{+}(B)=E^{+}\left(S^{\prime}\right)$ and $\left.E\left(Y_{2}\right)=E^{-}(B)=E^{-}\left(S^{\prime}\right)\right)$. Suppose $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ are disjoint embedded spheres in $\widetilde{M}$. Suppose $S^{\prime}$ is contained in the interior of $X_{1}$. Then, the component $Y_{i}$ which does not intersect $S$ is completely contained inside $X_{1}$. Let this component be $Y_{1}$. Then, $E^{+}(B)=E\left(Y_{1}\right) \subseteq E\left(X_{1}\right)=E^{+}(A)$. This implies $E^{+}(B) \cap E^{-}(A)=\phi$. Similarly, we can see in all other cases at least one of the four sets $E^{\varepsilon}(A) \cap E^{\eta}(B)$, for $\varepsilon$ and $\eta$ obtained by choosing signs $\epsilon$ and $\eta$ in $\{+,-\}$, is empty.

Conversely, suppose $A$ and $B$ do not cross. We shall show that $A$ and $B$ can be represented by disjoint embedded spheres in $\widetilde{M}$. Let $\tau$ be a finite subtree of $T$ with all of its terminal vertices bivalent in $T$, such that both $A$ and $B$ are supported in $K=K_{\tau}$. The space $K=K_{\tau}$ is a compact, 3-dimensional, connected manifold contained in $\widetilde{M}$ such that the closure $W_{i}$ of each complementary component of $K$ is non-compact. Let $N_{i}=\partial W_{i}$. Note that there are finitely many sets $W_{i}$ and $E(\widetilde{M})$ is partitioned into the sets $E\left(W_{i}\right)$. Note $K$ is $S^{3}-$ interior of finitely many 3-balls with boundary spheres $N_{i}$. Each set $E\left(W_{i}\right)$ is completely contained either in $E^{+}(A)$ or $E^{-}(A)$ (respectively, each set $E\left(W_{i}\right)$ is completely contained either in $E^{+}(B)$ or $E^{-}(B)$ ). We can assign signs to $N_{i},+_{A}$ or $-_{A}$ depending upon whether $E\left(W_{i}\right)$ lies inside $E^{+}(A)$ or $E^{-}(A)$ (respectively, we can assign signs to $N_{i},+_{B}$ or $-_{B}$ depending upon whether $E\left(W_{i}\right)$ lies inside $E^{+}(B)$ or $\left.E^{-}(B)\right)$. Thus, the collection of boundary spheres $N_{i}$ of $K$ get partitioned into two sets $U_{A}^{+}$ and $U_{A}^{-}$containing $+_{A}$ signed and $-_{A}$ signed boundary spheres, respectively. Similarly, the collection of boundary spheres $N_{i}$ of $K$ get partitioned into two sets $U_{B}^{+}$and $U_{B}^{-}$containing $+_{B}$ signed and $-_{B}$ signed
boundary spheres, respectively. As $A$ and $B$ do not cross, we can assume that for some choice of sign, $E^{\varepsilon}(A) \supset E^{\eta}(B)$. Suppose $E^{+}(A) \subset E^{+}(B)$. This implies $U_{A}^{+} \subset U_{B}^{+}$. Then, inside $K$, we can choose disjointly embedded spheres $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ which give partitions $\left\{U_{A}^{+}, U_{A}^{-}\right\}$and $\left\{U_{B}^{+}, U_{B}^{-}\right\}$of boundary spheres $N_{i}$ of $K$, respectively. Thus, we get two disjointly embedded spheres $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ representing the homology classes $A$ and $B$, respectively. Similarly, we can consider all the other cases.

### 3.6 Intersection number of a proper path and homology classes

Let $A \in H_{2}(\widetilde{M})=\pi_{2}(\widetilde{M})$. Represent $A$ by a (not necessarily connected) surface in $\widetilde{M}$ (also denoted $A$ ). Given a proper map $c: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \widetilde{M}$ which is transversal to $A$, we consider the algebraic intersection number $c \cdot A$. This depends only on the homology class of $A$ and the proper homotopy class of $c$. Now we shall discuss this intersection number in details: The proper map $c: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \widetilde{M}$ gives a pair of ends $c_{-}$and $c_{+}$of $\widetilde{M}$. We shall refer $c$ as a proper path from $c_{-}$to $c_{+}$or as a proper path joining $c_{-}$and $c_{+}$. We denote such a path $c$ by $\left(c_{-}, c_{+}\right)$. This is well defined up to proper homotopy. In particular, for a homology class $A \in H_{2}(\widetilde{M})$, the intersection number $\left(c_{-}, c_{+}\right) \cdot A$ (which we define in detail below) is well defined and can be computed using any proper path joining $c_{-}$and $c_{+}$. We shall use this implicitly throughout.

For a proper path $c: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \widetilde{M}$ and an element $A \in H_{2}(\widetilde{M})$, we can define the algebraic intersection number $c \cdot A$ by making $c$ transversal to $A$ and computing the intersection number. We formalize this using the exhaustion of $\widetilde{M}$ by the sets $K_{\tau}$. Namely, if $c: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \widetilde{M}$ is a proper path, then there is an interval $[-L, L]$ such that $c^{-1}\left(K_{\tau}\right) \subset[-L, L]$. It follows that $\left.c\right|_{[-L, L]}$ gives an element in $H_{1}\left(\widetilde{M}, \widetilde{M}-\operatorname{int}\left(K_{\tau}\right)\right)=$ $H_{1}\left(K_{\tau}, \partial K_{\tau}\right)=H^{2}\left(K_{\tau}\right)$, where the first isomorphism is by excision and the second by Poincaré duality. On passing to inverse limits, we see that $c$ gives an element of $H^{2}(\widetilde{M})$. Evaluating this element on $A$ gives $c \cdot A$.

Note that every class $A \in H_{2}(\widetilde{M})$ is supported in $K_{\tau}$ for some finite tree $\tau$, and a proper path $c$ gives an element of $H^{2}\left(K_{\tau}\right)$. Further, as the closures of the complementary components of $K_{\tau}$ in $M$ are all noncompact, any proper path $\alpha:[0,1] \rightarrow K_{\tau}$ can be extended to a proper path $c: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \widetilde{M}$ whose intersection with $K_{\tau}$ is $\alpha$. In particular, the cohomology class in $H^{2}\left(K_{\tau}\right)=H_{1}\left(K_{\tau}, \partial K_{\tau}\right)$ corresponding to $\alpha$ is the image under the map induced by inclusion of the class corresponding to $c$. It follows that $\alpha \cdot A=c \cdot A$ for $A \in H_{2}\left(K_{\tau}\right)$.

We use the above observations and the fact that $K_{\tau}$ is a compact, simply-connected space homeomorphic to $S^{3}$ with finitely many balls deleted, with the boundary components corresponding to the edges in $\delta \tau$ to deduce some elementary results concerning the homology of $\widetilde{M}$.

As $H_{2}\left(K_{\tau}\right)$ is generated by its boundary components of $K_{\tau}$, it follows that these spheres generate $H_{2}(\widetilde{M})$.

Next, note that if $A$ and $B$ are two homology classes, then for some finite subtree $\tau \subset T$, they are both supported by $K_{\tau}$. If $A$ is not homologous to $B$, then as $H_{1}\left(K_{\tau}\right)=0$, by Poincaré duality there exists a
proper path $\alpha$ in $K_{\tau}$ such that $\alpha \cdot A \neq \alpha \cdot B$. By extending $\alpha$ to a proper path $c: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \widetilde{M}$, we deduce that there is a proper path $c: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \widetilde{M}$ with $c \cdot A \neq c \cdot B$. Thus, an element $A \in H_{2}(\widetilde{M})$ is determined by the intersection numbers $c \cdot A$, for proper paths $c: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \widetilde{M}$.

If $S$ is an embedded sphere in $M$, then $S$ separates $\widetilde{M}$ into two components. If the closure of one of these is compact, then $S$ is homologically trivial. Otherwise, we can find a proper path $c: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \widetilde{M}$ with $c \cdot S=1$, from which it follows that $S$ is primitive.

### 3.7 Splitting of the fundamental group and embedded spheres

Recall from section 3.2, the description of $M$. Fix a base point $x_{0}$ away from $\Sigma_{i}^{\prime}$. For each $1 \leq i \leq k$, consider the element $\alpha_{i} \in \pi_{1}(M)$ represented by a closed path $\gamma_{i}$ starting from $x_{0}$ of $M$, going to $A_{i}$, piercing $\Sigma_{i}^{\prime}$, and returning to the base point from $B_{i}$. We choose this closed path $\gamma_{i}$ such that it does not intersect any $\Sigma_{j}^{\prime}, j \neq i$. Then, the collection $\left\{\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{k}\right\}$ forms a free basis of $G=\pi_{1}(M)=\left\langle\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{k}\right\rangle$ which is a free group of rank $k$. Any directed closed path in $M$ hitting the $\Sigma_{i}^{\prime}$ transversely represents a word in $\left\{\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{k}\right\}$ by the way it pierces each $\Sigma_{i}^{\prime}$ and the order in which it does so. Without a base point chosen, such a closed path represents a conjugacy class, or equivalently the cyclic word. We call the basis $\left\{\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{k}\right\}$ as a standard basis and spheres $\Sigma_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, \Sigma_{k}^{\prime}$ as standard basic spheres.

Group theoretically, embedded spheres in $M$ correspond to splittings of the fundamental group of $M$. Now, we shall see how an embedded sphere in $M$ corresponds to a splitting of $G$.

Let $S$ is an embedded sphere in $M$. If $S$ separates $M$, then using Van-Kampen's theorem, we can easily get a splitting of the fundamental group $G$ of $M$. Now, suppose $S$ is non-separating. Choose a regular neighborhood $V=S^{2} \times[-1,1]$ of $S$ and an embedded path $\gamma$ in $M-V$ from a point of $S^{2} \times-1$ to a point $S^{2} \times 1$. The sphere $S^{\prime}$ which is the connected sum of $S^{2} \times-1$ with $S^{2} \times 1$ along with the boundary of a regular neighborhood $U$ of $\gamma$, clearly bounds $U \cup V$ in $M$. We have $M=U \cup V \cup(M-(U \cup V))$. The set $U \cup V$ is $\left(S^{2} \times S^{1}\right)-B^{3}$ with boundary $S^{\prime}$ and $(M-(U \cup V))$ is a 3-manifold $M^{\prime}-B^{3}$ with boundary $S^{\prime}$. Thus, $M$ is a connected sum of $S^{2} \times S^{1}$ with the three manifold $M^{\prime}$. Then, we get a spitting of $G=G^{\prime} *\langle t\rangle$, where $\pi_{1}\left(M^{\prime}\right)=G^{\prime}$ and $\pi_{1}\left(S^{2} \times S^{1}\right)=\langle t\rangle$. Thus, $G$ can be viewed as an HNN-extension of $G^{\prime}$ over the trivial subgroup $\{1\}$ of $G^{\prime}$.

Now, we shall see that given a splitting of $G$, there exists an embedded sphere $S$ in $M$ which gives that splitting of $G$. It follows from 1.8. Here, we give another proof of this in $M$. There are two cases depending on whether the splitting is an amalgamated free product or a HNN extension over the trivial group.

Suppose $G=F_{1} * F_{2}$. As subgroups of free group are free, both $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$ are free. Choose free bases $\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right\}$ and $\left\{b_{m+1}, \ldots, b_{m+n}\right\}$ of $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$, respectively. The set $\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}, b_{m+1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right\}$ forms a free basis for $G$. Therefore, $m+n=k$. Any two bases of a free group are equivalent in the sense that there exists an automorphism of that free group sending one basis to another. So, we have an automorphism $\phi$ of $G$ sending the basis $\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}, b_{m+1}, \ldots, b_{k}\right\}$ to the standard basis with $\phi\left(a_{i}\right)=\alpha_{i}$, for $1 \leq i \leq m$
and $\phi\left(b_{m+j}\right)=\alpha_{m+j}$, for $1 \leq j \leq n$. Every automorphism of a free group is finite composition of Nielsen automorphisms and every Nielsen automorphism of $G$ is induced by a homeomorphism of $M$, [33], [42]. Thus, every automorphism of $G$ is induced by a homeomorphism of $M$ fixing the base point. Let $h$ be a homeomorphism of $M$ which fixes the base point and induces the automorphism $\phi$ on $G$. The element $\phi\left(a_{i}\right)=h_{*}\left(a_{i}\right)=\alpha_{i}$, for $1 \leq i \leq m$, corresponds to the basic standard sphere $\Sigma_{i}^{\prime}$ and $\phi\left(b_{m+j}\right)=h_{*}\left(b_{m+j}\right)=$ $\alpha_{m+j}$, for $1 \leq j \leq n$ corresponds to the basic standard sphere $\Sigma_{m+j}^{\prime}$. We can choose an embedded sphere $S$, disjoint from all $\Sigma_{i}^{\prime}$ such that it partitions the collection of basic standard spheres into two sets, namely, $\left\{\Sigma_{i}^{\prime}, \ldots, \Sigma_{m}^{\prime}\right\}$ and $\left\{\Sigma_{m+1}^{\prime}, \ldots, \Sigma_{m+n}^{\prime}\right\}$. Then, $S$ gives a free splitting of $G=A * B$, where $A=\left\langle\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}\right\rangle$ and $B=\left\langle\alpha_{m+1}, \ldots, \alpha_{m+n}\right\rangle$. Now, the sphere $h^{-1}(S)=S^{\prime}$ gives partition of the collection of spheres $\left\{h^{-1}\left(\Sigma_{1}^{\prime}\right), \ldots, h^{-1}\left(\Sigma_{m+n}^{\prime}\right)\right\}$ into two sets $\left\{h^{-1}\left(\Sigma_{i}^{\prime}\right), \ldots, h^{-1}\left(\Sigma_{m}^{\prime}\right)\right\}$ and $\left\{h^{-1}\left(\Sigma_{m+1}^{\prime}\right), \ldots, h^{-1}\left(\Sigma_{m+n}^{\prime}\right)\right\}$. The sphere structure $\left\{h^{-1}\left(\Sigma_{1}^{\prime}\right), \ldots, h^{-1}\left(\Sigma_{m+n}^{\prime}\right)\right\}$ corresponds to the basis $\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}, b_{m+1}, \ldots, b_{m+n}\right\}$. Then, by applying Van-Kampen theorem, we can see that $S^{\prime}$ gives the splitting $G=F_{1} * F_{2}$.

Note that if $G$ is an HNN-extension of a subgroup $G^{\prime}$ of $G$ relative to the subgroups $H, K$ of $G^{\prime}$ and an isomorphism $\theta: H \rightarrow K$, then $H=K=\{1\}$ and $G^{\prime}$ is a subgroup of rank $n-1$. Thus, $G=G^{\prime} *\langle t\rangle$, where $t \in G$. We choose a basis $\left\{c_{1}, \ldots, c_{k-1}\right\}$ of $G^{\prime}$. The set $\left\{c_{1}, \ldots, c_{k-1}, t\right\}$ forms a basis of $G$. Then, we have an isomorphism $\phi^{\prime}$ of $G$ sending the basis $\left\{c_{1}, \ldots, c_{k-1}, t\right\}$ to the standard basis with $\phi^{\prime}\left(c_{i}\right)=\alpha_{i}$, for $1 \leq i \leq k-1$ and $\phi^{\prime}(t)=\alpha_{k}$. Let $h^{\prime}$ be a homeomorphism of $M$ which fixes the base point and induces the automorphism $\phi^{\prime}$ on $G$. The element $\phi^{\prime}\left(c_{i}\right)=h_{*}^{\prime}\left(c_{i}\right)=\alpha_{i}$, for $1 \leq i \leq k-1$, corresponds to the basic standard sphere $\Sigma_{i}^{\prime}$ and $\phi^{\prime}(t)=h_{*}^{\prime}(t)=\alpha_{k}$ corresponds to the basic sphere $\Sigma_{k}^{\prime}$. The sphere structure $\left\{h^{\prime-1}\left(\Sigma_{1}^{\prime}\right), \ldots, h^{\prime-1}\left(\Sigma_{k-1}^{\prime}\right), h^{\prime-1}\left(\Sigma_{k}^{\prime}\right)\right\}$ corresponds to the basis $\left\{c_{1}, \ldots, c_{k-1}, t\right\}$ of $G$. Now, one can easily see that the sphere $h^{\prime-1}\left(\Sigma_{k}^{\prime}\right)$ gives a splitting of $G$ as an HNN-extension of $G^{\prime}$ over the trivial subgroup $\{1\}$. Thus, embedded spheres in $M$ corresponds to splittings of the fundamental group of $M$.

## 4. ALGEBRAIC AND GEOMETRIC INTERSECTION NUMBERS FOR FREE GROUPS

The geometric intersection number of homotopy classes of (simple) closed curves on a surface is the minimum number of intersection points of curves in the homotopy classes. In Chapter 2, we saw that this is a much studied concept and has proved to be extremely useful in low-dimensional topology.

Scott and Swarup [39] introduced an algebraic analogue, called the algebraic intersection number, for a pair of splittings of groups. This is based on the associated partition of the ends of a group [42]. Splittings of groups are the natural analogue of simple closed curves on a surface $F$ - splittings of $\pi_{1}(F)$ corresponding to homotopy classes of simple closed curves on $F$. Scott and Swarup showed that, in the case of surfaces, the algebraic and geometric intersection numbers coincide.

We show here that the analogous result holds for free groups, viewed as the fundamental group of the connected sum $M=\not \sharp_{n} S^{2} \times S^{1}$ of $n$ copies of $S^{2} \times S^{1}$. Thus, the manifold $M$ can be regarded as a model for studying the free group and its automorphisms.

Embedded spheres in $M$ correspond to splittings of the free group. Hence, given a pair of embedded spheres in $M$, we can consider their geometric intersection number (defined below) as well as the algebraic intersection number of Scott and Swarup for the corresponding splittings. Our main result is that, for embedded spheres in $M$ these two intersection numbers coincide. The principal method we use is the normal form for embedded spheres developed by Hatcher.

Before stating our result, we recall the definition of the intersection numbers.

### 4.1 Intersection numbers

Definition 4.1.1. Let $A$ and $B$ be two isotopy classes of embedded spheres $S$ and $S^{\prime}$, respectively, in $M$. The geometric intersection number $I(A, B)$ of $A$ and $B$ is defined as the minimum of the number of components $\left|S \cap S^{\prime}\right|$ of $S \cap S^{\prime}$ over embedded transversal spheres $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ representing the isotopy classes $A$ and $B$, respectively.

This is clearly symmetric. Further, for an embedded sphere $S$, if $A=[S]$, then $I(A, A)=0$.
We consider next the algebraic intersection number. Let $\widetilde{M}$ be the universal cover of $M$. Observe that $\pi_{2}(M)=\pi_{2}(\widetilde{M})=H_{2}(\widetilde{M})$. The fundamental group $\pi_{1}(M)=G$ of $M$, which is a free group of rank $n$, acts freely on the universal cover $\widetilde{M}$ of $M$ by deck transformations. Homotopy classes of spheres in $M$
correspond to equivalence classes of elements in $H_{2}(\widetilde{M})$ up to the action of deck transformations. For embedded spheres, we can consider isotopy classes instead of homotopy classes as the homotopy classes of embedded spheres are the same as isotopy classes of embedded spheres [31].

For an embedded sphere $S \in M$ with lift $\widetilde{S} \in \widetilde{M}$, all the translates of $\widetilde{S}$ are embedded and disjoint from $\widetilde{S}$. In particular, if $\widetilde{A}=[\widetilde{S}]$ is the isotopy class represented by $\widetilde{S}$, then $\widetilde{A}$ and $g \widetilde{A}$ can be represented by disjoint embedded spheres for each deck transformation $g \in G$.

Definition 4.1.2. Let $A=[S]$ and $B=\left[S^{\prime}\right]$ be two isotopy classes of embedded spheres $S$ and $S^{\prime}$, respectively, in $M$. Let $\widetilde{A}=[\widetilde{S}]$ and $\widetilde{B}=\left[\widetilde{S^{\prime}}\right]$, where $\widetilde{S}$ and $\widetilde{S}^{\prime}$ are the lifts of $S$ and $S^{\prime}$, respectively, to $\widetilde{M}$. The algebraic intersection number $\widetilde{I}(A, B)$ of $A$ and $B$ is defined as the number of translates $g \widetilde{B}$ of $\widetilde{B}$ such that $\widetilde{A}$ and $g \widetilde{B}$ can not be represented by disjoint embedded spheres in $\widetilde{M}$.

It was shown in [11] that this coincides with the algebraic intersection number of Scott and Swarup.
Definition 4.1.3. We say that two isotopy classes $\widetilde{A}=[\widetilde{S}]$ and $\widetilde{B}=\left[\widetilde{S}^{\prime}\right]$ of embedded spheres in $\widetilde{M}$ cross if they cannot be represented by disjoint embedded spheres.

Thus, the algebraic intersection number is the number of elements $g \in \pi_{1}(M)$ such that $\widetilde{A}$ and $g \widetilde{B}$ cross. We shall also say that $\widetilde{S}$ and $\widetilde{S^{\prime}}$ cross if the classes they represent cross.

It is immediate that $\widetilde{A}$ and $g \widetilde{B}$ cross if and only if $g^{-1} \widetilde{A}$ and $\widetilde{B}$ cross. It follows that $\tilde{I}(A, B)=\tilde{I}(B, A)$. Thus, the algebraic intersection number is symmetric.

Clearly, for all but finitely many translates $g \widetilde{B}$ of $\widetilde{B}, \widetilde{A}$ and $g \widetilde{B}$ can be represented by disjoint embedded spheres in $\widetilde{M}$. This is because, for any pair of embedded spheres $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ in $M$, all but finitely many translates of $\widetilde{S}^{\prime}$ are disjoint from $\widetilde{S}$ in $\widetilde{M}$. Hence, $\widetilde{I}(A, B)$ is finite for all isotopy classes $A$ and $B$ of embedded spheres in $M$.

As was shown in [11], it follows from results of Scott and Swarup that if the algebraic intersection number between classes $A$ and $B$ as above vanishes, then they can be represented by disjoint embedded spheres, i.e., their geometric intersection number vanishes. The converse is an easy observation.

We prove here a much stronger result that the algebraic and geometric intersection numbers are equal.
Theorem 4.1.4. For isotopy classes $A$ and $B$ of embedded spheres in $M, \widetilde{I}(A, B)=I(A, B)$.
Our proof is based on the normal form for spheres in $M$ due to Hatcher [17], which we recall in Section 4.2. We extend a sphere $\Sigma$ in the isotopy class $B$ to a maximal system of spheres and consider a sphere $S$ in the isotopy class of $A$ in normal form with respect to this system. We then show in Section 4.3 that, when $S$ is in normal form, the number of components of intersection between $S$ and $\Sigma$ is the algebraic intersection number between the isotopy classes $A=[S]$ and $B$.

Our methods also show that, if $A_{1}, \ldots A_{n}$ is a collection of isotopy classes of embedded spheres, each pair of which can be represented by disjoint spheres, then all the classes $A_{i}$ can be simultaneously represented by disjoint spheres. We prove this in Theorem 4.3.3.

An important ingredient of our proofs is the observation that if $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ are embedded spheres in $M$ and $S$ is in normal form with respect to a maximal system of spheres containing $S^{\prime}$, then $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ intersect minimally. This is somewhat analogous to results for geodesics and least-area surfaces [9],[10]. Further the components of intersection correspond to crossing. This is very similar to the case of geodesics, where intersections correspond to linking of end points.

### 4.2 Normal spheres

We recall the notion of normal sphere systems from [17].
Let $\Sigma=\cup_{j} \Sigma_{j}$ be a maximal system of 2 -sphere in $M$. Splitting $M$ along $\Sigma$, then produces a finite collection of 3-punctured 3-spheres $P_{k}$. Here a 3 -punctured 3-sphere is the complement of the interiors of three disjointly embedded 3 -balls in a 3 -sphere.

Definition 4.2.1. A system of 2-spheres $S=\cup_{i} S_{i}$ in $M$ is said to be in normal form with respect to $\Sigma$ if each $S_{i}$ either coincides with a sphere $\Sigma_{j}$ or meets $\Sigma$ transversely in a non empty finite collection of circles splitting $S_{i}$ into components called pieces, such that the following two conditions hold in each $P_{k}$ :

1. Each piece in $P_{k}$ meets each component of $\partial P_{k}$ in at most one circle.
2. No piece in $P_{k}$ is a disk which is isotopic, fixing its boundary, to a disk in $\partial P_{k}$.

From (1), it follows that the pieces are either disks, cylinders, or pairs of pants. A cylinder piece connects two components of $\partial P_{k}$ and a pants piece connects all three components of $\partial P_{k}$. A disk piece has boundary on one component of $\partial P_{k}$ and separates the other two components of $\partial P_{k}$, by (2). Hence a $P_{k}$ can not contain both disk and pants pieces, and all the disk pieces in a $P_{k}$ must have their boundaries on the same component of $\partial P_{k}$. Each individual cylinder or pants piece in a $P_{k}$ must be unknotted in $P_{k}$ since its boundary circles lie on different components of $\partial P_{k}$, but a collection of cylinder and pants pieces can be knotted and linked in a complicated fashion. However, since homotopic systems are isotopic, such knotting and linking can always be eliminated by an isotopy of the system in $M$, though the isotopy will generally have to move outside $P_{k}$.

Recall the following result from [17].
Proposition 4.2.2 (Hatcher). Every system $S \subset M$ can be isotoped to be in normal form with respect to $\Sigma$. In particular, every essential embedded sphere $S$ in $M$ can be isotoped to be in normal form with respect to $\Sigma$.

We recall some constructions from [17]. First, we associate a tree $T$ to $\widetilde{M}$ corresponding to the decomposition of $M$ by $\Sigma$. Let $\widetilde{\Sigma}$ be the pre-image of $\Sigma$ in $\widetilde{M}$. The closure of each component of $\widetilde{M}-\widetilde{\Sigma}$ is a 3 -punctured 3 -sphere. The vertices of the tree are of two types, with one vertex corresponding to the closure of each component of $\widetilde{M}-\widetilde{\Sigma}$ and one vertex for each component of $\widetilde{\Sigma}$. An edge of $T$ joins a pair of vertices if one of the vertices corresponds to the closure of a component $X$ of $\widetilde{M}-\widetilde{\Sigma}$ and the
other vertex corresponds to a component of $\widetilde{\Sigma}$ that is in the boundary of $X$. Thus, we have a $Y$-shaped subtree corresponding to each complementary component. We pick an embedding of $T$ in $\widetilde{M}$ respecting the correspondences.

Given a sphere $S$ in normal form with respect to $\Sigma$ and a lift $\widetilde{S}$ of $S$ to $\widetilde{M}$, we associate a tree $T(\widetilde{S})$ corresponding to the decomposition of $\widetilde{S}$ into pieces. The tree has two types of vertices, vertices corresponding to closures of components of $\widetilde{S}-\widetilde{\Sigma}$ (i.e., pieces) and vertices corresponding to each component of $\widetilde{S} \cap \widetilde{\Sigma}$. Edges join a pair of vertices if one of the vertices corresponds to a piece and the other to a boundary component of the piece.

In [17], it is shown that $T(\widetilde{S})$ is a tree. Moreover, the inclusion $\widetilde{S} \hookrightarrow \widetilde{M}$ induces a natural inclusion $\operatorname{map} T(\widetilde{S}) \hookrightarrow T$. So, we can view $T(\widetilde{S})$ as a subtree of $T$. The bivalent vertices of $T$ correspond to spheres components in $\widetilde{\Sigma}$, i.e., lifts of the spheres $\Sigma_{j}$ and their translates.

### 4.3 Algebraic and Geometric Intersection numbers

Consider now two isotopy classes $A$ and $B$ of embedded spheres in $M$. Choose an embedded sphere $\Sigma_{1}$ in the isotopy class $B$ and extend this to a maximal collection $\Sigma$ of spheres. Let $S$ be a representative for $A$ in normal form with respect to $\Sigma$. Theorem 4.1.4 is equivalent to showing that $\widetilde{I}\left(A,\left[\Sigma_{j}\right]\right)=I\left(A,\left[\Sigma_{j}\right]\right)$ for $j=1$. We begin by showing the non-trivial inequality here.

Lemma 4.3.1. If $A=[S]$ is the isotopy class of the embedded sphere $S$ in $M$, then for the isotopy class $\left[\Sigma_{j}\right]$ of $\Sigma_{j}$ in $M, \widetilde{I}\left(A,\left[\Sigma_{j}\right]\right) \geq I\left(A,\left[\Sigma_{j}\right]\right)$.

Proof. The sphere $S$, which is in normal form with respect to $\Sigma$, represents the class $A$. We shall show that the number of components of intersection of $S$ with $\Sigma_{j}$ is $\widetilde{I}\left(A,\left[\Sigma_{j}\right]\right)$. As the geometric intersection number is the minimum of the number of components of intersection of spheres in the isotopy classes, the lemma is an immediate consequence of this claim.

Fix a lift $\widetilde{S}$ of $S$. The components of $S \cap \Sigma_{j}$ are homotopically trivial circles in $M$. These lift to circles of intersection between $\widetilde{S}$ and components of the pre-image of $\Sigma_{j}$. These correspond to vertices of $T(\widetilde{S})$. As $T(\widetilde{S})$ is a tree which embeds in $T$, different circles of intersection of $S$ and $\Sigma_{j}$ correspond to intersections of $\tilde{S}$ with different components of the pre-image of $\Sigma_{j}$. It follows that the number of components of intersection of $S$ with $\Sigma_{j}$ is the number of components of the pre-image of $\Sigma_{j}$ that intersect $\widetilde{S}$.

The main observation needed is the following lemma.
Lemma 4.3.2. If $\widetilde{S}$ intersects a component $\widetilde{\Sigma_{j}}$ of the pre-image of $\Sigma_{j}$, then the spheres $\widetilde{S}$ and $\widetilde{\Sigma_{j}}$ cross.
Proof. Assume that $\widetilde{S}$ intersects the component $\widetilde{\Sigma_{j}}$ of the pre-image of $\Sigma_{j}$. The sphere $\widetilde{\Sigma_{j}}$ corresponds to a vertex $v_{0}$ of $T$. As $\widetilde{S}$ intersects $\widetilde{\Sigma_{j}}$ and $S$ is in normal form, the vertex $v_{0}$ is an interior vertex of $T(\widetilde{S})$.

We recall the notion of crossing due to Scott and Swarup, which by [11] is equivalent to the notion we use. The spheres $\widetilde{S}$ and $\widetilde{\Sigma_{j}}$ partition the ends of $\widetilde{M}$ into pairs of complementary subsets $E_{S}^{ \pm}$and $E_{\Sigma}^{ \pm}$,
corresponding to the components of the complement of the respective spheres in $\widetilde{M}$. The spheres $\widetilde{S}$ and $\widetilde{\Sigma_{j}}$ cross if all the four intersections $E_{S}^{ \pm} \cap E_{\Sigma}^{ \pm}$are non-empty.

A properly embedded path $c: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \widetilde{M}$ induces a map from the ends $\pm \infty$ of $\mathbb{R}$ to the ends of $\widetilde{M}$. Thus, we can associate to $c$ a pair of ends $c_{ \pm}$. We say that the path $c$ is a path from $c_{-}$to $c_{+}$. Poincaré duality gives a useful criterion for when two ends $E$ and $E^{\prime}$ of $\widetilde{M}$ are in different equivalence classes with respect to the partition corresponding to $\widetilde{S}$. Namely, $E$ and $E^{\prime}$ are in different equivalence classes if and only if there is a proper path $c$ from $E$ to $E^{\prime}$ so that $c \cdot \widetilde{S}= \pm 1$, with $c \cdot \widetilde{S}$ the intersection pairing obtained from the cup product using the duality between homology and cohomology with compact support.

The ends of $\widetilde{M}$ can be naturally identified with the ends of the tree $T$. The sets $E_{\Sigma}^{ \pm}$correspond to the ends of the two components of $T-\left\{v_{0}\right\}$. It is easy to see that $\widetilde{\Sigma_{j}}$ and $\widetilde{S}$ cross if and only if each of the sets $E_{\Sigma}^{ \pm}$contain pairs of ends $E_{1}$ and $E_{2}$ which are in different equivalence classes with respect to the partition corresponding to $\widetilde{S}$. By symmetry, it suffices to consider the case of $E_{\Sigma}^{+}$. Let $X$ denote the closure of the component of $\widetilde{M}-\widetilde{\Sigma}_{j}$ with $\operatorname{ends}(X)=E_{\Sigma}^{+}$.

As $v_{0}$ is an internal vertex of the tree $T(\widetilde{S})$, there is a terminal vertex $w$ of $T(\widetilde{S})$ contained in $X$. A terminal vertex of $T(\widetilde{S})$ corresponds to a piece which is a disc $D$ in a 3-punctured sphere $P$, with $P$ the closure of a component of $\widetilde{M}-\widetilde{\Sigma}$. Let $Q_{1}$ and $Q_{2}$ denote the boundary components of $P$ disjoint from $D$ (hence from $S$ ). Then $D$ separates $Q_{1}$ and $Q_{2}$.

For $i=1,2$, let $W_{i}$ denote the closure of the component of $\widetilde{M}-Q_{i}$ which does not contain $S$. As $Q_{i}$ is the lift of an essential sphere, and $\widetilde{M}$ is simply-connected, $Q_{i}$ is non-trivial as an element of $H_{2}(\widetilde{M})$. Hence $W_{i}$ is non-compact. By construction $W_{i} \subset X$, hence the ends of $W_{i}$ are contained in $E_{\Sigma}^{+}$.

As $D$ separates $Q_{1}$ and $Q_{2}$, (after possibly interchanging $Q_{1}$ and $Q_{2}$ ) there is a path $c:[0,1] \rightarrow P$ intersecting $S$ transversely in one point (with the sign of the intersection +1 ) so that $c(0) \in Q_{1}$ and $c(1) \in Q_{2}$. As $W_{1}$ and $W_{2}$ are non-compact, we can extend $c$ to a proper function $c: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \widetilde{M}$ with $c((-\infty, 0)) \subset W_{1}$ and $c((1, \infty)) \subset W_{2}$.

The ends $E_{1}$ and $E_{2}$ of $c$ are ends of $X$ (as $W_{i} \subset X$ for $i=1,2$ ). Further, by construction $c \cdot \widetilde{S}=1$. It follows that the ends $E_{1}, E_{2} \subset E_{\Sigma}^{+}$are in different components with respect to the partition corresponding to $\widetilde{S}$. By symmetry, we can find a similar pair of ends in $E_{\Sigma}^{-}$. It follows that $\widetilde{S}$ and $\widetilde{\Sigma}$ cross.

We now complete the proof of Lemma 4.3.1. We have seen that the number of components of $S \cap \Sigma_{j}$ is the number of components of the pre-image of $\Sigma_{j}$ which intersect $\widetilde{S}$. For a fixed lift $\widetilde{\Sigma_{j}}$ of $\Sigma_{j}$, the components of the pre-images of $\Sigma_{j}$ are the translates $g \widetilde{\Sigma_{j}}$ of $\widetilde{\Sigma_{j}}$.

By Lemma 4.3.2, it follows that if $\widetilde{S}$ intersects $g \widetilde{\Sigma_{j}}$, then $\widetilde{S}$ crosses $g \widetilde{\Sigma_{j}}$. The converse of this is obvious. By the definition of algebraic intersection number, Lemma 4.3.1 follows.

Proof of Theorem 4.1.4. We have seen that it suffices to consider the case when $A=[S], B=\left[\Sigma_{1}\right]$ and $S$ is in normal form with respect to $\Sigma$. By Lemma 4.3.1, $\widetilde{I}(A, B) \geq I(A, B)$.

Conversely, let $S$ and $\Sigma_{1}$ be embedded spheres with $A=[S], B=\left[\Sigma_{1}\right]$ and $I(A, B)=\left|S \cap \Sigma_{1}\right|$. Let $\widetilde{S}$ and $\widetilde{\Sigma_{1}}$ be lifts of $S$ and $\Sigma_{1}$, respectively, to $\widetilde{M}$. Observe that (distinct) components of intersection of $S$ with $\Sigma_{1}$ lift to (distinct) components of intersection of $\widetilde{S}$ with translates of $\widetilde{\Sigma_{1}}$. Hence the number of translates of $\widetilde{\Sigma_{1}}$ that intersect $\widetilde{S}$ is at most $I(A, B)$. As $\tilde{I}(A, B)$ is the number of translates of $\widetilde{\Sigma_{1}}$ that cross $\widetilde{S}$, and components that cross must intersect, it follows that $\tilde{I}(A, B) \leq I(A, B)$.

This completes the proof of the theorem.

Our methods also yield the following result. This also follows from the work of Scott and Swarup, see [39].

Theorem 4.3.3. If $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}$ are isotopy classes of embedded spheres in $M$ such that, for $1 \leq i, j \leq n, A_{i}$ and $A_{j}$ can be represented by disjoint spheres, then there exist disjointly embedded spheres $S_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq n$, such that $A_{i}=\left[S_{i}\right]$.

Proof. We prove this by induction on $n$. For $n=1,2$, the conclusion is immediate from the hypothesis. Assume that the result holds for $n=k$ and consider a collection $A_{i}$ as in the hypothesis with $n=k+1$.

Suppose one of the spheres, which we can assume without loss of generality is $A_{n}$, is not essential. By the induction hypothesis, there are disjoint embedded spheres $S_{i}, 1 \leq i<n$, with $\left[S_{i}\right]=A_{i}$. Choose a 3-ball disjoint from the spheres $S_{i}, 1 \leq i<n$ and let $S_{n}$ be its boundary. Then, the spheres $S_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq n$, give the required collection.

Thus, we may assume that all the isotopy classes $A_{i}$ of spheres are essential. By induction hypothesis, there are disjoint embedded spheres $S_{i}, 1 \leq i<n$, with $\left[S_{i}\right]=A_{i}$. As these are essential by our assumption, we can extend the collection $S_{i}$ to a maximal system of spheres. We let $S_{n}$ be a sphere in normal form with respect to this collection. By hypothesis, $I\left(S_{n}, S_{i}\right)=0$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. By the proof of Lemma 4.3.1, it follows that $S_{n}$ is disjoint from $S_{i}$. Thus, $S_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq n$, is a collection of disjoint embedded spheres with $A_{i}=\left[S_{i}\right]$.

Remark 4.3.4. The above theorem shows that the sphere complex associated to $M$ is a full complex in the sense that if $V_{1}, V_{2}, \ldots, V_{k}$ are the vertices of the sphere complex and if there is an edge between every pair $V_{i}, V_{j}$ of vertices, where $1 \leq i, j \leq k$, then these vertices bound a simplex in the sphere complex.

The geometric intersection number of curves on a surface has been used to give constructions like the space of measured laminations whose projectivization is the boundary of Teichmüller space, [35], as well as to study geometric properties, including hyperbolicity of the curve complex in [5], [36]. One may hope that the geometric intersection number of embedded spheres in $M$ might be useful to give such constructions in case sphere complex and Outer space.

## 5. EMBEDDED SPHERES, NORMAL FORM AND PARTITIONS OF ENDS

In this chapter, we study embedded spheres in $M=\sharp k S^{2} \times S^{1}$ and $\widetilde{M}$, the universal cover of $M$. In the Section 5.1, we see how a partition $A$ of the set of ends of $\widetilde{M}$ corresponds to an embedded sphere in $\widetilde{M}$ which is in normal form in the sense of Hatcher, by specifying the data determining the partition $A$ and the normal sphere. Given a properly embedded path $c: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \widetilde{M}$ and a homology class $A \in H_{2}(\widetilde{M})$, we have an intersection number $c \cdot A$. Further, this depends only on the ends $c_{ \pm}$of the path $c$. In the Section 5.2, we prove that the class $A \in H_{2}(\widetilde{M})$ can be represented by an embedded sphere in $\widetilde{M}$ if and only if, for each proper map $c: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \widetilde{M}, c \cdot A \in\{0,1,-1\}$. We also constructively prove that the class $A \in \pi_{2}(M)$ can be represented by an embedded sphere in $M$ if and only if $A$ can be represented by an embedded sphere in $\widetilde{M}$ and for all deck transformations $g \in \pi_{1}(M), A$ and $g A$ do not cross.

### 5.1 Partition of ends and normal forms

This section is devoted to associating to a partition $A=\left(E^{+}(A), E^{-}(A)\right)$ of the space $E(\widetilde{M})$ of ends of $\widetilde{M}$ into open sets, an embedded sphere $S$ in $\widetilde{M}$ which is in normal form in the sense of Hatcher, so that $E^{ \pm}(S)=E^{ \pm}(A)$. Along the way, we see what data determines a sphere in normal form in $\widetilde{M}$ and the relation between this data, partitions of ends and crossings. Specifically, we prove the following:

Theorem 5.1.1. Given a partition $A=\left(E^{+}(A), E^{-}(A)\right)$ of the set $E(\widetilde{M})$ of ends of $\widetilde{M}$ into two open sets, there is a normal sphere $S$ in $\widetilde{M}$ so that $A$ is the partition given by the ends of the components of $\widetilde{M}-S$.

In this case, we say $S$ represents $A$. We recall the notion of crossing of two such partitions $A$ and $B$.
Definition 5.1.2. We say that $A$ and $B$ cross if each of the four sets $E^{\epsilon}(A) \cap E^{\eta}(B)$ is non-empty, for $\epsilon$ and $\eta$ obtained by choosing signs $\epsilon$ and $\eta$ in $\{+,-\}$.

Suppose $A$ and $B$ do not cross, then for some choice of sign, $E^{\epsilon}(A) \supset E^{\eta}(B)$. It follows that $E^{\bar{\epsilon}}(A) \subset$ $E^{\bar{\eta}}(B)$, where $\bar{\epsilon}$ and $\bar{\eta}$ denote the opposite signs. Further, if $A \neq B$, then the inequalities are strict.

Definition 5.1.3. We say that $B$ is on the positive side of $A$ if $E^{+}(A) \supset E^{\eta}(B)$ for some sign $\eta$. Otherwise, we say that $B$ is on the negative side of $A$. In general, we say that $B$ is on the $\epsilon$-side of $A$, for the appropriate $\operatorname{sign} \epsilon$.

Note also that if $A$ and $B$ do not cross, then either $E^{+}(A) \subset E^{\eta}(B)$ for some sign $\eta$ or $E^{-}(A) \subset E^{\eta}(B)$ for some sign $\eta$. Further, these are exclusive unless $A=B$.

We shall need the following elementary observation.
Lemma 5.1.4. If $B$ is on the $\epsilon$-side of $A$ and $C$ is on the $\bar{\epsilon}$-side, then $B$ and $C$ do not cross.
Proof. For appropriate signs $\eta$ and $\xi, E^{\eta}(B) \subset E^{\epsilon}(A)$ and $E^{\xi}(C) \subset E^{\bar{\epsilon}}(A)$. Hence, $E^{\eta}(B) \cap E^{\xi}(C)=\phi$, which shows that $B$ and $C$ do not cross.

If $B$ is on the $\epsilon$-side of $A$ and $C$ is on the $\bar{\epsilon}$-side, then we say that $A$ is between $B$ and $C$.
Given a sphere $S$ in $\widetilde{M}$, we have a natural partition of ends of $\widetilde{M}$ associated to it. So, we can talk about crossing of a partition $A$ of $E(\widetilde{M})$ and sphere $S$. We now turn to the construction of the normal sphere in $\widetilde{M}$ representing $A$.

We recall the notion of normal sphere systems from [17].
Let $\Sigma=\cup_{j} \Sigma_{j}$ be a maximal system of 2 -sphere in $M$. We recall that splitting $M$ along $\Sigma$, then produces a finite collection of 3 -punctured 3 -spheres $P_{k}$. Here, a 3 -punctured 3 -sphere is the complement of the interiors of three disjointly embedded 3 -balls in a 3 -sphere.

Definition 5.1.5. A system of 2-spheres $S=\cup_{i} S_{i}$ in $M$ is said to be in normal form with respect to $\Sigma$ if each $S_{i}$ either coincides with a sphere $\Sigma_{j}$ or meets $\Sigma$ transversely in a non-empty finite collection of circles splitting $S_{i}$ into components called pieces, such that the following two conditions hold in each $P_{k}$ :

1. Each piece in $P_{k}$ meets each component of $\partial P_{k}$ in at most one circle.
2. No piece in $P_{k}$ is a disk which is isotopic, fixing its boundary, to a disk in $\partial P_{k}$.

Similarly, we can define sphere systems in normal form with respect to the pre-image $\widetilde{\Sigma}$ of $\Sigma$ in $\widetilde{M}$.
We call each sphere $\Sigma_{i}$ as a standard sphere in $M$ and $\widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}$ as standard sphere in $\widetilde{M}$.
Given a sphere $S$ in normal form with respect to $\Sigma$ in $M$ and a lift $\widetilde{S}$ of $S$ to $\widetilde{M}$, we associate a tree $T(\widetilde{S})$ corresponding to the decomposition of $\widetilde{S}$ into pieces. We consider the dual tree $T(\tilde{S})$ to $\tilde{S} \cap \tilde{\Sigma}$ in $\tilde{S}$, having a vertex for each component of $\tilde{S} \backslash \tilde{\Sigma}$ and an edge for each circle of $\tilde{S} \cap \tilde{\Sigma}$.

In [17], it is shown that $T(\widetilde{S})$ is a tree. Moreover, the inclusion $\widetilde{S} \hookrightarrow \widetilde{M}$ induces a natural inclusion $\operatorname{map} T(\widetilde{S}) \hookrightarrow T$. So, we can view $T(\widetilde{S})$ as a subtree of $T$. The bivalent vertices of $T$ correspond to spheres components in $\widetilde{\Sigma}$, i.e., lifts of the spheres $\Sigma_{j}$ and their translates. This shows that each $\widetilde{P}_{k}$ contains at the most one piece of $\widetilde{S}$. Similarly, one can easily see that if $S^{\prime}$ is a normal sphere in $\widetilde{M}$, then each $\widetilde{P_{k}}$ contains at the most on piece of $S^{\prime}$. If $S$ is a standard sphere (or can be isotoped to standard sphere), then the associated tree $T(\widetilde{S})$ is single vertex in $T$ corresponding to that standard vertex.

Our construction is motivated by the following lemma from [12].
Lemma 5.1.6. Let $S$ be a normal sphere in $\widetilde{M}$ and let $\widetilde{\Sigma}_{i}$ be a standard sphere.

- The spheres $S$ and $\widetilde{\Sigma}_{i}$ intersect if and only if they cross.
- If $S$ and $\widetilde{\Sigma}_{i}$ intersect, they intersect transversally in a circle $S^{1}$.

Thus, if $A$ is represented by a normal sphere $S$ in $\widetilde{M}$, we can determine the intersection of $S$ with each standard sphere in $\widetilde{M}$, in terms of crossings. The standard spheres in $\widetilde{M}$ correspond to the bivalent vertices of the tree $T$. We call them as "standard vertices". We can talk about the crossing of $A$ with the classes of standard spheres in $\widetilde{M}$. Now, we associate a subgraph $\tau$ of $T$ to $A$ as follows: If $A$ crosses standard sphere $\widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}$, then $\tau$ contains the bivalent vertex $v_{i}$ corresponding to $\widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}$ and the edges $e_{1}^{i}$ and $e_{2}^{i}$ containing that vertex $v_{i}$. The other end vertex $v_{j}^{i}$ of each edge $e_{j}^{i}, j=1,2$ is a trivalent vertex in $T$ which corresponds to a component of $\widetilde{M}-\widetilde{\Sigma}$. Each $v_{j}^{i}$ may be a bivalent or univalent or a trivalent vertex in $\tau$. If $A$ does not cross some standard sphere in $\widetilde{M}$, then $\tau$ does not contain the standard vertex corresponding this standard sphere and hence, it does not contain the edges containing this standard vertex. Note that any edge $e$ in $T$ has a unique end vertex which is a standard bivalent vertex in $T$.

Lemma 5.1.7. Suppose $A=\left(E^{+}, E^{-}\right)$is a partition of $E(\widetilde{M})$ into two open sets such that $E^{+} \neq \phi \neq E^{-}$. Suppose no standard sphere crosses $A$. Then, there exists a standard sphere $\Sigma_{0}$ such that $E^{ \pm}=E^{ \pm}\left(\Sigma_{0}\right)$.

Proof. By hypothesis, if $v$ is a standard bivalent vertex of $T$, the standard sphere $\Sigma(v)$ corresponding to $v$ does not cross $A$. Hence, after choosing orientations appropriately, either $E^{+}(\Sigma(v)) \subset E^{+}$or $E^{-}(\Sigma(v)) \subset$ $E^{-}$. If $\Sigma(v)=\Sigma_{0}$ satisfies both the conditions, then $E^{ \pm}=E^{ \pm}\left(\Sigma_{0}\right)$.

Suppose no $\Sigma(v)$ satisfies both the above conditions, we get a partition of bivalent vertices of $T$ as

$$
V^{+}=\left\{v: E^{+}(\Sigma(v)) \subset E^{+}\right\}
$$

and

$$
V^{-}=\left\{v: E^{-}(\Sigma(v)) \subset E^{-}\right\}
$$

Let $X^{ \pm}$is the union of all the edges $e$ in $T$ such that the bivalent vertex of $e$ lies in $V^{ \pm}$. Then $X^{ \pm}$ are closed and $T=X^{+} \cup X^{-}$. Hence, $X^{+} \cap X^{-} \neq \phi$. By construction, $X^{+} \cap X^{-}$consists of trivalent vertices of $T$. Let $w \in X^{+} \cap X^{-}$and let $v_{1}, v_{2}$ and $v_{3}$ be bivalent vertices adjacent to $w$. Note that at least one $v_{i} \in X^{+}$and at least one $v_{j} \in X^{-}$. Without loss of generality, suppose $v_{1}, v_{2} \in X^{+}$and $v_{3} \in X^{-}$. Let $N(w)$ denote the set of all the points in $T$ distance at most 1 from $w$. Then, $T-N(w)$ has three components $V_{1}, V_{2}$ and $V_{3}$ whose closures contain the vertices $v_{1}, v_{2}$ and $v_{3}$, respectively. It is easy to see that $E\left(V_{1}\right) \subset E^{+}, E\left(V_{2}\right) \subset E^{+}$and $E\left(V_{3}\right) \subset E^{-}$. It follows that $E^{+}\left(\Sigma\left(v_{3}\right)\right)=E^{+}\left(\Sigma\left(v_{1}\right)\right) \cup E^{+}\left(\Sigma\left(v_{2}\right)\right)$. This implies $E^{+}\left(\Sigma\left(v_{3}\right)\right) \subset E^{+}$. As $v_{3} \in X^{-}, E^{-}\left(\Sigma\left(v_{3}\right)\right) \subset E^{-}$. But then, $v_{3} \in V^{+} \cap V^{-}$. This is a contradiction as $V^{+}$and $V^{-}$are disjoint. Hence, there must exist a standard sphere $\Sigma_{0}$ such that $E^{ \pm}=E^{ \pm}\left(\Sigma_{0}\right)$.

Thus, if $A$ does not cross any standard sphere, the tree $\tau$ associated to $A$ is a standard vertex corresponding to the standard sphere representing $A$.

A normal sphere $S$ in $\widetilde{M}$ has connected intersection with each set $\widetilde{P_{k}}$. The set $S \cap \widetilde{P_{k}}$ (which we call a piece) is a disc $D$, an annulus (which we call a tube) $A$ or a thrice punctured 2-sphere $Y$ (which we call a
$Y$-piece or pant piece) according as the number of edges in $\tau(S)$ adjoining $v$ corresponding to $\widetilde{P_{k}}$ is 1,2 or 3. We first make some observations about these cases.

Firstly, suppose $v$ is a vertex of $\tau$ adjacent to a single edge $e_{0} \in \tau$, i.e., a terminal vertex of $\tau$. Let $v_{0} \in \tau$ be the other end vertex of $e_{0}$ and $\Sigma_{0}$ be the standard sphere in $\widetilde{M}$ corresponding to $v_{0}$. Then, $A$ crosses $\Sigma_{0}$. Let the other edges adjacent to $v$ in $T$ be $e_{1}$ and $e_{2}$ with other end vertices $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$, respectively. Consider the standard spheres $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}=\tilde{\Sigma}\left(v_{i}\right)$ corresponding to vertices $v_{i}$, with orientations chosen so that for $i=1,2$, the set $E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}\right)$ is the set of ends of the component of $\widetilde{M}-\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}$ that does not contain $\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}$. We can orient $\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}$ so that $E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}\right)=E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{1}\right) \cup E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{2}\right)$.

Lemma 5.1.8. For some sign $\epsilon, E^{\epsilon}(A) \supset E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{1}\right)$ and $E^{\bar{\epsilon}}(A) \supset E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{2}\right)$.
Proof. First note that we cannot have $E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}\right) \supset E^{\eta}(A)$, for $i=1,2$, as this would imply that $E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}\right) \supset$ $E^{\eta}(A)$, contradicting the hypothesis that $A$ crosses $\left[\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}\right]$. Hence, as $A$ does not cross the spheres $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}$, for appropriate signs $\epsilon_{i}, E^{\epsilon_{i}}(A) \supset E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}\right)$ for $i=1,2$. Finally, if $\epsilon_{1}=\epsilon_{2}=\epsilon$, then $E^{\epsilon}(A) \supset E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}\right)$ as $E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}\right)=E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{1}\right) \cup E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{2}\right)$, contradicting the hypothesis that $A$ crosses $\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}$.

Thus, one of the spheres $\tilde{\Sigma}_{1}$ and $\tilde{\Sigma}_{2}$ is on the positive side of $A$ and the other on the negative side. In the case of a vertex $v$ of valence 2 of $\tau$, either it is a bivalent vertex (standard vertex) of $T$ or there is an edge $e_{v}$ of $T$ adjacent to $v$ which is not in $\tau$. The standard sphere $\tilde{\Sigma}\left(e_{v}\right)$ corresponding to the other end vertex of the edge $e_{v}$ is either on the positive side of $A$ or on the negative side.

We shall see that $\tau$ is a tree and the partition $A$ is determined by $\tau$ together with data of the above form at terminal and non-standard bivalent vertices of $\tau$. The standard bivalent vertices of $\tau$ are standard (bivalent) vertices of $T$. We begin by showing that $\tau$ is a tree. As this is a subgraph of a tree $T$, it suffices to show that $\tau$ is connected.

Lemma 5.1.9. The subgraph $\tau \subset T$ is connected, hence a tree.
Proof. Suppose $\tau$ is not connected. As $\tau$ is a subgraph of $T$, there is a standard vertex $v \notin \tau$ such that both components $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ of $T-v$ intersect $\tau$. Let $\tau_{i}=\tau \cap X_{i}$, for $i=1,2$. Let $\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}=\tilde{\Sigma}(v)$.

As $v \notin \tau, A$ does not cross $\tilde{\Sigma}$. Hence, we can orient $\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}$ so that for some sign $\epsilon, E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}\right) \subset E^{\epsilon}(A)$. Without loss of generality, $E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}\right)$ is the set of ends of $X_{1}$.

Let $\tau^{\prime}$ be the convex hull of the vertex $v$ and $\tau_{1}$. As $\tau$ is a finite graph, $\tau^{\prime}$ is a finite tree. Let $w$ be a terminal vertex of $\tau^{\prime}$ distinct from $v$. Then, $w$ is a vertex of $\tau$ by Lemma 5.1.8, there is an adjacent edge $e^{\prime} \notin \tau$ with its other end vertex $v^{\prime}$ such that $E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}\left(v^{\prime}\right)\right) \subset E^{\bar{\epsilon}}(A)$, with the orientation chosen so that $E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}\left(v^{\prime}\right)\right)$ is the set of ends of the component of $\widetilde{M}-\tilde{\Sigma}\left(v^{\prime}\right)$ that does not intersect $\tau$. It follows that $E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}\left(v^{\prime}\right)\right) \subset E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}\right)$, and hence, $E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}\right) \cap E^{\bar{\epsilon}}(A) \neq \phi$, a contradiction.

We next see that $\tau$ is a finite tree.
Lemma 5.1.10. The tree $\tau$ is compact, hence finite.

Proof. If $\tau$ is not compact, then some end $P \in E(\widetilde{M})=E(T)$ is an end of $\tau$. Without loss of generality $P \in E^{+}(A)$. As $E^{+}(A)$ is open in the space of ends of $T$, there is a finite connected tree $\kappa \subset T$ and a component $V$ of $T-\kappa$ so that $P \in E(V) \subset E^{+}(A)$. We shall show that no edge of $V$ is contained in $\tau$, contradicting the assumption that $P$ is an end of $\tau$.

Let $e$ be an edge of $T$ contained in $V=T-\kappa$. Then, as $\kappa$ is connected, some component $W$ of $T-e$ is disjoint from $\kappa$, and hence contained in $V$. Suppose $v$ is the end vertex of $e$ such that $v$ is a standard bivalent vertex in $T$. Let $\Sigma(v)$ be the standard sphere corresponding to $v$, then it follows that for some $\operatorname{sign} \varepsilon, E^{\varepsilon}(\Sigma(v)) \subset E(V) \subset E^{+}(A)$, and hence, $\Sigma(v)$ does not cross $A$. This implies $v$ is not in $\tau$. It follows that $e$ is not in $\tau$. Thus, no edge of $V$ is in $\tau$, as required.

Thus, we have a finite tree $\tau$ associated to the partition $A$. Note that the terminal vertices of $\tau$ are trivalent vertices in $T$. We shall next show that the partition $A$ is determined by the tree together with additional data for vertices adjoining the tree.

Let $N(\tau)$ be the subgraph of $T$ consisting of points with distance at most 1 from $\tau$. Then, $N(\tau)$ is a tree, which is the union of $\tau$ with the following two kinds of edges:

1. For each terminal vertex $v$ of $\tau$, we have a pair of edges $e_{1}(v) \notin \tau$ and $e_{2}(v) \notin \tau$ with $v$ as an end-vertex. Let $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ be the other end vertices of $e_{1}$ and $e_{2}$, respectively.
2. For each non-standard bivalent vertex $w$ of $\tau$, we have an edge $e(w) \notin \tau$ with $w$ as an end-vertex. Let $w_{1}$ be its other end vertex.

By Lemma 5.1.8, for a terminal vertex $v$, the sphere corresponding to one of $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ is on the positive side of $\tau$ (positive side of $A$ ). The vertices $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ are end vertices of $e_{1}$ and $e_{2}$ respectively. So, we can assign positive or negative signs to these edges accordingly. We denote this by $e_{+}(v)$ and denote the other edge (which is on the negative side) by $e_{-}(v)$. We denote the standard spheres corresponding to $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ by $\tilde{\Sigma}\left(v_{1}\right)=\tilde{\Sigma}\left(e_{1}\right)$ and $\tilde{\Sigma}\left(v_{2}\right)=\tilde{\Sigma}\left(e_{2}\right)$, respectively. For a non-standard bivalent vertex $w$ of $\tau$, we can associate a $\operatorname{sign} \epsilon(w)$ so that $\tilde{\Sigma}\left(w_{1}\right)=\tilde{\Sigma}(e(w))$ is on the $\epsilon(w)$-side of $A$.

We show that the tree $\tau$ together with the additional data determines a partition of the ends, which coincides with the given partition.

Lemma 5.1.11. The partition $A$ is determined by $\tau$ together with the functions $e_{+}(v)$ and $\epsilon(w)$, where $v^{\prime} s$ is univalent vertices of $\tau$ and $w^{\prime} s$ is non-standard bivalent vertices of $\tau$.

Proof. We show that the partition of the ends of $\widetilde{M}$ into $E^{ \pm}(A)$ is determined by the given data. The spheres $\tilde{\Sigma}\left(e_{ \pm}(v)\right)$ for terminal vertices of $\tau$ together with $\tilde{\Sigma}(e(w))$ for non-standard bivalent vertices of $\tau$ separate $\widetilde{M}$ into a compact component corresponding to $\tau$ and one non-compact component for each such sphere $\tilde{\Sigma}$. We can orient the spheres $\tilde{\Sigma}$ so that $A$ is on the negative side of $\tilde{\Sigma}$. Then, the set of ends of the non-compact component is $E^{+}(\tilde{\Sigma})$. Hence, we have a partition

$$
E(\widetilde{M})=\cup_{v}\left(E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}\left(e_{+}(v)\right)\right) \cup E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}\left(e_{-}(v)\right)\right)\right) \cup_{w} E^{+}(\tilde{\Sigma}(e(w)))
$$

By construction, $E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}\left(e_{+}(v)\right)\right) \subset E^{+}(A)$ and $E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}\left(e_{-}(v)\right)\right) \cap E^{+}(A)=\phi$, for each terminal vertex $v$ of $\tau$. For each non-standard bivalent vertex $w$ of $\tau, E^{+}(\tilde{\Sigma}(e(w))) \subset E^{+}(A)$ if $\epsilon(w)=+$ and $E^{-}(\tilde{\Sigma}(e(w))) \cap$ $E^{+}(A)=\phi$ otherwise. Hence,

$$
E(A)=\cup_{v} E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}\left(e_{+}(v)\right)\right) \cup_{\{w: \epsilon(w)=+\}} E^{+}(\tilde{\Sigma}(e(w)))
$$

This is determined by the given data. Hence, the partition $A$ is determined by the given data.

It is now easy to construct a normal sphere $S$ in $\widetilde{M}$ representing the same the partition $A$. Note that a normal sphere $S$ represents the partition $A$ if and only if $E^{ \pm}(S)=E^{ \pm}(A)$.

We can associate to an oriented normal sphere $S$ data very similar to that associated to the partition $A$. Firstly, the sphere $S$ has a support which is a subtree $\tau$. A terminal vertex $v$ of $\tau$ corresponds to a disc pieces in a thrice-punctured 3 -sphere $P(v)$, which separates the two other boundary components of $P(v)$. Exactly one of these lies on the positive side. Thus, as the boundary components correspond to vertices of $T$ adjacent to $v$, we get a pair of edges $e_{ \pm}(v)$. A non-standard bivalent vertex $w$ of $\tau$ corresponds to an annulus piece (cylinder piece) in $P(w)$. The boundary component of $P(w)$ not intersecting the annulus is on either the positive or the negative side of $S$, giving a $\operatorname{sign} \epsilon(w)$. A trivalent vertex $w^{\prime}$ corresponds to a pant piece in the 3 -punctured 3 -sphere $P\left(w^{\prime}\right)$.

Lemma 5.1.12. Given a finite tree $\tau$, associated data $e_{+}(v)$ and $\epsilon(w)$, and a oriented circle on the sphere $\tilde{\Sigma}\left(V^{\prime}\right)$ for each non-terminal vertex $v^{\prime}$ of $\tau$, there is an oriented normal sphere $S$ with corresponding data $\tau$, $e_{+}$and $\epsilon$ and whose restriction to each thrice-punctured 3 -sphere has boundary the corresponding oriented circles. Further, the partition corresponding to $S$ is the one corresponding to the data $\tau, e_{+}$and $\epsilon$.

Proof. To each standard bivalent vertex of the tree $\tau$, we associate a circle in the corresponding standard sphere which we co-orient according to the given partition. For each trivalent vertex $v$ of $\tau$, we associate a pants piece with boundary the circles in the standard sphere that have been constructed.

Next, if $v$ is a non-standard bivalent vertex of $\tau$, the two adjacent standard vertices correspond to circles on two standard spheres. We join them by an annulus so that the other standard sphere bounding the 3 -holed sphere corresponding to $v$ is on the side of the annulus given by $\epsilon(v)$. Similarly, for a terminal vertex of $\tau$ we consider a disc so that the standard spheres corresponding to adjacent vertices $e_{+}(v)$ of $T$ that is not in $\tau$ is on the positive side of the disc and the one corresponding to the other adjacent vertex is on the negative side.

### 5.2 Embedding classes, normal spheres and graphs of trees

In this section, we give proofs of theorems of [11] using normal forms.
We give a constructive proof of the following result from [11] giving a criterion for a class $A \in \pi_{2}(M)=$ $H_{2}(\widetilde{M})$ to be representable by an embedded sphere in $M$.

As $H_{1}(\widetilde{M})=0$, a homology class $A$ is determined by the intersection numbers $c \cdot A$, where $c: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \widetilde{M}$ is a proper path. The first result of [11] characterizes which classes in $H_{2}(\widetilde{M})$ can be represented by embedded spheres in $\widetilde{M}$.

Theorem 5.2.1. The class $A \in H_{2}(\widetilde{M})$ can be represented by an embedded sphere in $\widetilde{M}$ if and only if, for each proper map $c: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \widetilde{M}, c \cdot A \in\{0,1,-1\}$.

It is easy to see (for proofs see [11]) that if $S$ is an embedded sphere in $\widetilde{M}$, then $S$ partitions $\widetilde{M}$ into two components with closure of each component non- compact. Hence, the ends of $\widetilde{M}$ are partitioned into components $E^{ \pm}(S)$, so that if $c: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \widetilde{M}$ is a proper path, then

- If $c_{-} \in E^{-}(S)$ and $c_{+} \in E^{+}(S)$, then $c \cdot S=1$
- If $c_{-} \in E^{+}(S)$ and $c_{+} \in E^{-}(S)$, then $c \cdot S=-1$
- If $c_{-} \in E^{-}(S)$ and $c_{+} \in E^{-}(S)$, then $c \cdot S=0$
- If $c_{-} \in E^{+}(S)$ and $c_{+} \in E^{+}(S)$, then $c \cdot S=0$

In particular, $c \cdot S \in\{0,1,-1\}$.
Conversely, let $A$ be a homology class satisfying the hypothesis of the theorem. We shall construct a normal sphere in $\widetilde{M}$ that represents $A$.

The first step is the following Lemma whose proof is in [11].
Lemma 5.2.2. There is a partition $E^{ \pm}(A)$ of the set $E(\widetilde{M})$ of ends $\widetilde{M}$ so that

- If $c_{-} \in E^{-}(A)$ and $c_{+} \in E^{+}(A)$, then $c \cdot A=1$
- If $c_{-} \in E^{+}(A)$ and $c_{+} \in E^{-}(A)$, then $c \cdot A=-1$
- If $c_{-} \in E^{-}(A)$ and $c_{+} \in E^{-}(A)$, then $c \cdot A=0$
- If $c_{-} \in E^{+}(A)$ and $c_{+} \in E^{+}(A)$, then $c \cdot A=0$

Thus, we have a partition of the ends just as in the case of embedded spheres. By Theorem 5.1.1, this corresponds to the partition given by a normal sphere $S$ in $\widetilde{M}$. As homology classes are determined by their associated partitions, the sphere $S$ represents the homology class $A \in H_{2}(\widetilde{M})$ and the result follows.

We now turn to the question of when a class in $\pi_{2}(M)$ can be represented by an embedded sphere in $M$.

Theorem 5.2.3. The class $A \in \pi_{2}(M)$ can be represented by an embedded sphere in $M$ if and only if $A$ can be represented by an embedded sphere in $\widetilde{M}$ and for all deck transformations $g \in \pi_{1}(M), A$ and $g A$ do not cross.

If $A$ can be represented by an embedded sphere $S$ in $M$, then one can easily see that its lift $\widetilde{S}$ and all of its translates in $\widetilde{M}$ are disjoint. Therefore, $A$ and $g A$ can be represented by disjoint embedded spheres in $\widetilde{M}$, for all $g \in \pi_{1}(M)$, which implies $A$ and $g A$ do not cross, for all deck transformations $g \in \pi_{1}(M)$. Now, we give the constructive proof of the converse. This is based on graph of trees associated to normal spheres.

We recall from [8] that, a graph $\mathbb{T}$ consists of two sets $E(\mathbb{T})$ and $V(\mathbb{T})$, called the edges and vertices of $\mathbb{T}$, a mapping from $E(\mathbb{T})$ to $E(\mathbb{T})$, with $e \mapsto \bar{e}$, for which $e \neq \bar{e}$ and $\overline{\bar{e}}=e$, and a mapping from $E(\mathbb{T})$ to $V(\mathbb{T}) \times V(\mathbb{T}), e \mapsto(o(e), t(e))$ such that $\bar{e} \mapsto(t(e), o(e))$ for every $e \in E(\mathbb{T})$. An edge path in $\mathbb{T}$ is a sequence $e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{n}$ of edges, such that $t\left(e_{j}\right)=o\left(e_{i+1}\right), e_{i} \neq e_{i+1}$, for $i=1,2, \ldots, n-1$. If $e, f \in E(\mathbb{T})$, we write $e \leq f$ if there is an edge path $e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{n}$ for which $e_{1}=e$ and $e_{n}=f$. If $\mathbb{T}$ is a tree, then $\leq$ determines a partial ordering on on $E(\mathbb{T})$. In addition the following conditions are satisfied:

1. if $e \leq f$, then $\bar{f} \leq \bar{e}$;
2. if $e \leq f$, there are only finitely many $g$ for which $e \leq g \leq f$;
3. for any pair $e, f$, at least one of $e \leq f, e \leq \bar{f}, \bar{e} \leq f, \bar{e} \leq \bar{f}$ holds;
4. for no pair $e, f$ is $e \leq f$ and $e \leq \bar{f}$;
5. for no pair $e, f$ is $e \leq f$ and $\bar{e} \leq f$.

Theorem 5.2.4 (Dunwoody). Let $(E, \leq)$ be a partially ordered set with a mapping $E \rightarrow E$, $e \rightarrow \bar{e}$, for which $e=\overline{\bar{e}}$, and suppose above conditions (1)-(5) are satisfied. Then, there exists a tree $\mathbb{T}$ with $E=E(\mathbb{T})$, where $E(\mathbb{T})$ is the set of edges of $\mathbb{T}$ and the order relation on $E$ is precisely that determined by edge paths in $\mathbb{T}$ as above.

Our first step is to understand data specifying a normal sphere in $M$ (up to homotopy).
Suppose we are given an oriented (hence, co-oriented) normal sphere $S$ in $M$. Let $\widetilde{S}$ be a lift of $S$ in $\widetilde{M}$. Then, $S$ induces an orientation (hence, co-orientation) on $\widetilde{S}$ and on each of its translates $g \widetilde{S}, g \in \pi_{1}(M)$. The orientation on $\widetilde{S}$ (respectively, on $g \widetilde{S}$ ) determines the positive and negative complementary components of $\widetilde{S}$ (respectively, of $g \widetilde{S}$ ) in $\widetilde{M}$. The sets $E^{+}(\widetilde{S})$ and $E^{-}(\widetilde{S})$ (respectively, $E^{+}(g \widetilde{S})$ and $\left.E^{-}(g \widetilde{S})\right)$ correspond to the sets of ends of positive and negative complementary components of $\widetilde{S}$ (respectively, of $g \widetilde{S}$ ) in $\widetilde{M}$ respectively. As $S$ is in normal form with respect to the maximal system of 2-spheres $\Sigma=\cup_{i} \Sigma_{i}, \widetilde{S}$ and its translates $g \widetilde{S}$ are in normal form with respect to the inverse image $\widetilde{\Sigma}$ of $\Sigma$. The sphere $\widetilde{S}$ and all of its translates in $\widetilde{M}$ are disjoint from each other. If we consider the homology classes of any two translates, say $g_{1} \widetilde{S}$ and $g_{2} \widetilde{S}$ of $\widetilde{S}$, then they do not cross. So, the class $\left[g_{1} \widetilde{S}\right]$ is either on the positive side or on the negative side of $\left[g_{2} \widetilde{S}\right]$. Then accordingly, the sphere $g_{1} \widetilde{S}$ is either in the positive or negative complementary component of $g_{2} \widetilde{S}$ in $\widetilde{M}$. The positive and negative complementary components of a translate $g \widetilde{S}$ of $\widetilde{S}$ in $\widetilde{M}$ determines positive and negative complementary components of a piece inside a $\widetilde{P_{k}}$. If both the translates $g_{1} \widetilde{S}$ and $g_{2} \widetilde{S}$ intersect some $\widetilde{P_{k}}$, the piece of $g_{1} \widetilde{S}$ lies either on the positive side or negative side of the piece
of $g_{2} \widetilde{S}$ in $\widetilde{P_{k}}$, according to the sphere $g_{1} \widetilde{S}$ lies on the positive or negative side of $g_{2} \widetilde{S}$. Similarly, orientation on the translate $g \widetilde{S}$ determine the positive and negative side of the circle of intersection of $g \widetilde{S} \cap \tilde{\Sigma}_{i}$ in $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}$, where $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}$ is the boundary sphere of $\widetilde{P_{k}}$. Thus, orientation on $S$, (hence, co-orientation) determines co-orientation of each circle of intersection of $S \cap \Sigma_{i}$, for each $i$. The same is true for each piece of $S$ inside $P_{k}$.

We associate to $S$ a graph of trees structure as follows: The standard spheres $\Sigma_{i}$ decompose $M$ into components $P_{k}$. We have an associated graph $\Gamma$ with vertices $P_{k}$ and edges $\Sigma_{i}$. The graph of trees we consider is analogous to a graph of groups, with trees associated to edges and vertices and appropriate inclusion maps of the trees.

First, let $\Sigma_{i}$ be a standard sphere. Then, $S \cap \Sigma_{i}$ is a collection of disjoint circles. Consider the graph $t\left(\Sigma_{i}\right)$ whose edges $e$ correspond to the circles of intersection and vertices $v$ complementary components, with $v$ a vertex of $e$ if the boundary of the component corresponding to $v$ contains the circle corresponding to $e$. The co-orientation of $S$ induces co-orientations for each of the circles of intersection, hence for the edges of the graph $t\left(\Sigma_{i}\right)$.

Lemma 5.2.5. The graph $t\left(\Sigma_{i}\right)$ is a finite tree. Further, given a finite tree $t$, there is a collection of circles in $\Sigma_{i}$ with corresponding tree $t$.

Proof. Firstly, we shall prove that the graph $t\left(\Sigma_{i}\right)$ is a tree. We prove this by induction on number of circles of intersection of $S \cap \Sigma_{i}$ in $\Sigma_{i}$. If there is exactly one circle $c_{1}$ of intersection, then as it separates the 2 -sphere $\Sigma_{i}$ into two components with closure of each component is a disc with boundary $c_{1}$. Then, the corresponding graph contains exactly two vertices and an edge joining them which is clearly a tree.

Now, suppose the result is true for any $n$ circles of intersections of $S \cap \Sigma_{i}$ in $\Sigma_{i}$. A tree with $n$ edges contains $n+1$ vertices. So, these $n$ circles of intersections separates $\Sigma_{i}$ into $n+1$ components. Note that the terminal vertices of the tree $t\left(\Sigma_{i}\right)$ corresponds to disc components of the complements of these circles in $\Sigma_{i}$.

Now, suppose that there are $n+1$ circles of intersections in $\Sigma_{i}$, say $c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{n}, c_{n+1}$. For circles $c_{2}, c_{3}, \ldots, c_{n}, c_{n+1}$, we have the associated graph $t^{\prime}\left(\Sigma_{i}\right)$ is a tree with edges $e_{2}, e_{3}, \ldots, e_{n}, e_{n+1}$ and with vertices $v_{2}, v_{3}, \ldots, v_{n+1}, v_{n+2}$. These vertices corresponds to the components of $\Sigma \backslash\left(c_{2} \cup c_{3} \cup \cdots \cup c_{n} \cup c_{n+1}\right)$. We denote these components also by $v_{2}, v_{3}, \ldots, v_{n+1}, v_{n+2}$. Now, $c_{1}$ is disjoint from all $c_{2}, c_{3}, \ldots, c_{n}, c_{n+1}$. So, it lies completely in exactly one component, say $v_{k}$. It separates $\Sigma_{i}$ in two components such that the closure of each component is a disc with $c_{1}$ as boundary. Suppose these components are $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$. The circle $c_{1}$ separates $v_{k}$ into components $v_{k}^{\prime}=v_{k} \cap D_{1}$ and $v_{k}^{\prime \prime}=v_{k} \cap D_{2}$. So now, $\Sigma_{i} \backslash\left(\left(c_{1} \cup c_{2} \cup \cdots \cup c_{n} \cup c_{n+1}\right)\right.$ has components $v_{2}, v_{3}, \ldots, v_{k-1}, v_{k}^{\prime}, v_{k}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, v_{n+1}, v_{n+2}$. So, the associated graph $t\left(\Sigma_{i}\right)$ can be obtained from $t^{\prime}\left(\Sigma_{i}\right)$ by replacing the vertex $v_{k}$ by an edge $e$ joining $v_{k}^{\prime}$ and $v_{k}^{\prime \prime}$. Now, each edge in incidenting on $v_{k}$ in $t^{\prime}\left(\Sigma_{i}\right)$ either incident at $v_{k}^{\prime}$ or at $v_{k}^{\prime \prime}$. The tree $t^{\prime}\left(\Sigma_{i}\right)$ can be obtained from $t\left(\Sigma_{i}\right)$ by collapsing the edge $e$ to vertex $v_{k}$. Then, one can easily see that $t\left(\Sigma_{i}\right)$ is tree as, if it contains any loop or circuit, then collapsing the edge $e$ to a vertex $v_{k}$ gives a circuit in $t^{\prime}\left(\Sigma_{i}\right)$ which is impossible. Hence, the proof.

Now, we shall show that given a finite tree $t$, there is a collection of circles in $\Sigma_{i}$ with the corresponding
tree $t$. We again prove this by induction on number of edges in the tree $t$. Suppose $t$ contains exactly one edge $e$ with end vertices $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$. If we consider any circle $c$ on $\Sigma_{i}$, then it separates $\Sigma_{i}$ in two boundary components such that closure of each component is a disc with boundary $c$. Then, one can easily see the corresponding graph is $t$. Suppose the result is true for any tree $t$ containing $n$ edges. Now, consider a tree $t$ with $n+1$ edges. Let $v$ be a terminal vertex of $t$. Let $e$ be the edge in $t$ containing $v$ as its end vertex. Let the other end vertex be $v^{\prime}$. By deleting the edge $e$ from $t$, we get a tree $t^{\prime}$ with $n$ edges. By induction hypothesis, we get disjointly embedded circles $c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{n}$ in $\Sigma_{i}$ with corresponding graph $t^{\prime}$. Now, if we consider a circle $c_{1}$ which completely lies in the interior of the component $v^{\prime}$ corresponding to the vertex $v^{\prime}$ of $t^{\prime}$ such that $c_{1}$ bounds a disc in $v^{\prime}$. Then, one can easily see that the associated graph is $t$ in this case. Thus, for any tree $t$, we get a collection of disjoint circles in $\Sigma_{i}$ with corresponding tree $t$.

If the edges of $t$ are oriented, the circles can be co-oriented accordingly.
Let $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}$ be a lift of $\Sigma_{i}$ in $\widetilde{M}$. We can associate the same oriented tree $t\left(\Sigma_{i}\right)$ to the sphere $\widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}$, where each edge corresponds to the circle of intersection of $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}$ with a translate $g \widetilde{S}$ of $\widetilde{S}$. Let $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{n}$, where $g_{i} \in \pi_{1}(M)$, for $1 \leq i \leq n$, such that $g_{i} \widetilde{S}$ intersects $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}$. Let $B_{i}=\left[g_{i} \widetilde{S}\right]$, for $1 \leq i \leq n$, be the homology class in $H_{2}(\widetilde{M})$. Note that each $B_{i}$ crosses the class $\left[\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}\right]$. As any pair of translates $B_{i}$ and $B_{j}$ of $B=[\widetilde{S}]$ do not cross, $B_{j}$ is either on the positive or the negative side of $B_{i}$. Similarly, if $B_{i}, B_{j}$ and $B_{k}$ are translates of $B$, we can determine whether $B_{i}$ is between $B_{j}$ and $B_{k}$.

Given a tree $\tau$, we have a notion of when an edge $e_{1}$ of $\tau$ is between two other edges $e_{2}$ and $e_{3}$ of $\tau$. If $\tau$ is oriented, then we can speak of edges being on the positive side of $\tau$.

Using Theorem 5.2.4, the following lemma is an easy consequence.
Lemma 5.2.6. Let $B_{1}, \ldots, B_{n}$ be translates of $B$. Then, there is an associated oriented tree with edges $e_{i}$ corresponding to classes $B_{i}$ so that $e_{j}$ is on the positive side of $e_{i}$ if and only if $E^{+}\left(B_{j}\right) \subset E^{+}\left(B_{i}\right)$

Proof. We choose set $E$ as $\left\{B_{1}, \ldots, B_{n}, \bar{B}_{1}, \ldots \bar{B}_{n}\right\}$, where if $B_{i}$ is represented by oriented sphere $g_{i} \widetilde{S}$, then $\bar{B}_{i}$ is a homology class of $\overline{g \widetilde{S}}$, sphere $g \widetilde{S}$ with opposite orientation. We define $B_{i} \leq B_{j}$ if $E^{+}\left(B_{j}\right) \subset E^{+}\left(B_{i}\right)$. We can easily check " $\leq$ " turns out be a partial order relation satisfying the hypothesis of theorem 5.2.4. Hence, the result.

Note that the oriented tree in the above lemma 5.2.6 associated to $B_{1}, \ldots, B_{n}$ is the tree $t\left(\Sigma_{i}\right)$.
We can similarly associate an oriented tree $t\left(P_{k}\right)$ to a component $P_{k}$ (and to a lift $\widetilde{P_{k}}$ ), with edges as the pieces of $S$ in $P_{k}$ and vertices as their complementary components. If $\Sigma_{i}$ is a boundary sphere of $P_{k}$, there is a natural simplicial inclusion map from $t\left(\Sigma_{i}\right)$ to $t\left(P_{k}\right)$ which respects orientations. Each edge in the tree $t\left(P_{k}\right)$ associated to $\widetilde{P_{k}}$ corresponds to a piece of a translate of $\widetilde{S}$. There is at the most one piece of any translate of $\widetilde{S}$ in $\widetilde{P_{k}}$. If we consider the homology classes of the translates of $\widetilde{S}$ intersecting at least one boundary sphere of $\widetilde{P_{k}}$, then the oriented tree in the lemma 5.2.6 associated to these homology classes is the oriented tree $t\left(P_{k}\right)$. Given an oriented edge $e$, it has an initial vertex and a ending vertex. We can make the convention that initial and ending vertices of the edge $e$ correspond to negative and positive complementary components of the pieces of $S$ corresponding to $e$ inside $P_{k}$, respectively.

Each vertex $V$ of the graph $\Gamma$ is trivalent. We associate oriented trees to the vertices and edges of $\Gamma$ by taking the oriented trees associated to the corresponding component $P_{k}$ 's and standard spheres $\Sigma_{i}$ respectively. If $E_{1}, E_{2}$ and $E_{3}$ are three adjoining edges to $V$, we have simplicial inclusion maps $i_{j}: t\left(E_{j}\right) \rightarrow t(V)$ respecting the orientation. It is easy to see that the union of the images $i_{j}\left(t\left(E_{j}\right)\right)$ is all of $t(V)$. If $e$ is an edge in $t(V)$, then $e$ corresponds to a pants piece in $P_{k}$ corresponding to $V$ if and only if it has non-empty inverse image under all three inclusion maps $i_{j}$ 's. If $e$ has non-empty inverse image under exactly two inclusion maps, say $i_{j_{1}}$ and $i_{j_{2}}$, then $e$ corresponds to a tube piece in $P_{k}$ joining the standard spheres corresponding to the $t\left(E_{j_{1}}\right)$ and $t\left(E_{j_{2}}\right)$. Conversely, if $e$ corresponds to a tube piece in $P_{k}$, then $e$ has non-empty inverse image under exactly two inclusion maps $i_{j}$ 's. If $e$ has non-empty inverse image under exactly one inclusion map $i_{j}$, then $e$ corresponds to a disc piece with boundary on the standard sphere corresponding to $t\left(E_{j}\right)$ and, conversely.

To the edges in $t(V)=t\left(P_{k}\right)$, we associate the following data: If an edge $e$ in $t(V)$ corresponds to a tube piece in $P_{k}$ joining the boundary spheres, say $\Sigma_{j_{1}}$ and $\Sigma_{j_{2}}$. Then, the third boundary sphere $\Sigma_{j_{3}}$ lies either in positive or in negative complementary component of the tube in $P_{k}$. If the sphere $\Sigma_{j_{3}}$ lies in the positive component, then we assign this sphere to the ending vertex of the edge $e$, otherwise to the initial vertex. If an edge $e$ in $t(V)$ corresponds to a disc piece in $P_{k}$ with boundary circle on $\Sigma_{j_{1}}$, then it separates the other two boundary spheres $\Sigma_{j_{2}}$ and $\Sigma_{j_{3}}$. The sphere which lies in the positive component, we assign it to the ending vertex of $e$ and the other boundary sphere to the initial vertex of $e$. If an edge corresponds to a pants piece in $P_{k}$, then we do not associate any data to this edge. This is the graph of oriented trees structure associated to $S$.

Our goal is to associate a graph of oriented trees to a class $A$ satisfying the hypothesis of Theorem 5.2.3 and construct a corresponding normal sphere $S$. The class $A$ can be represented by an embedded sphere in $\widetilde{M}$, say $S^{\prime}$. Fix an orientation of $S^{\prime}$. Then, $S^{\prime}$ determines the the set $E^{+}(A)$ and $E^{-}(A)$. The orientation on $S^{\prime}$ induces an orientation on each translate $g S^{\prime}$ of $S^{\prime}$. It will then determine the sets $E^{+}(g A)$ and $E^{-}(g A)$ for each $g \in \pi_{1}(M)$.

Consider $\left(\widetilde{A}, \widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}\right)$, where $\widetilde{A}$ is a lift of $A$ and $\widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}$ is a lift of $\Sigma_{i}$ such that $\widetilde{A}$ crosses $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}$. We define $\left(\widetilde{A}, \widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}\right)$ is equivalent to $\left(g \widetilde{A}, g \widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}\right)$ for all $g \in \pi_{1}(M)$. Note that this is an equivalence relation. Given any lift $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}^{0}$ of $\Sigma_{i}$ and an equivalence class $\left[\left(\widetilde{A}, \widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}\right)\right]$, there is a unique representative $\left(\widetilde{A^{0}},{\widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}}^{0}\right)$ equivalent to $\left(\widetilde{A}, \widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}\right)$, where $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}^{0}=g \tilde{\Sigma}_{i}$ and $\widetilde{A}^{0}=g \widetilde{A}$. We define the partial order $" \leq "$ as $\left[\left(\widetilde{A}, \widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}\right)\right] \leq\left[\left(\widetilde{A^{\prime}}, \widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}\right)\right]$ if and only if $E^{+}\left(\widetilde{A^{\prime}}\right) \subset E^{+}(\widetilde{A})$. One can easily see that this is well defined.

Similarly, we can consider pairs $\left(\widetilde{A}, \widetilde{P_{k}}\right)$, where $\widetilde{A}$ is a lift of $A$ and $\widetilde{P_{k}}$ is a lift of $P_{k}$ such that $\widetilde{A}$ crosses at least one boundary sphere of $\widetilde{P_{k}}$. We define $\left(\widetilde{A}, \widetilde{P_{k}}\right)$ is equivalent to $\left(g \widetilde{A}, g \widetilde{P_{k}}\right)$ for all $g \in \pi_{1}(M)$. Note that this is an equivalence relation. Given any lift ${\widetilde{P_{k}}}^{0}$ of $P_{k}$ and an equivalence class $\left[\left(\widetilde{A}, \widetilde{P_{k}}\right)\right]$, there is a unique representative $\left(\widetilde{A^{0}},{\widetilde{P_{k}}}^{0}\right)$ equivalent to $\left(\widetilde{A}, \widetilde{P_{k}}\right)$, where ${\widetilde{P_{k}}}^{0}=g \widetilde{P_{k}}$ and $\widetilde{A}^{0}=g \widetilde{A}$. We define the partial order " $\leq "$ as $\left[\left(\widetilde{A}, \widetilde{P_{k}}\right)\right] \leq\left[\left(\widetilde{A^{\prime}}, \widetilde{P_{k}}\right)\right]$ if and only if $E^{+}\left(\widetilde{A^{\prime}}\right) \subset E^{+}(\widetilde{A})$. One can easily see that this is well defined.

Let $\Sigma_{i}$ be a standard sphere and let $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}$ be a lift to $\widetilde{M}$. Then, as $A$ has compact support, at most
finitely many translates of $A$ cross $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}$. Denote these translates $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}, \bar{A}_{1}, \ldots, \bar{A}_{n}$. By Lemma 5.2.6, we can associate an oriented tree $t\left(\Sigma_{i}\right)$ to the collection $\left\{\left[\left(A_{1}, \widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}\right)\right], \ldots,\left[\left(A_{n}, \widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}\right)\right],\left[\left(\overline{A_{1}}, \widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}\right)\right], \ldots,\left[\left(\bar{A}_{n}, \widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}\right)\right]\right\}$ respecting the relation $" \leq "$. We associate this oriented tree to the edge in $\Gamma$ corresponding to $\Sigma_{i}$. Next, consider a component $P_{k}$ and let $\widetilde{P_{k}}$ be a lift to $\widetilde{M}$. We consider the translates of $A$ that cross at least one of the boundary spheres of $\widetilde{P_{k}}$. Suppose these translates are $B_{1}, \ldots, B_{r}, \bar{B}_{1}, \ldots, \bar{B}_{r}$. Once more, we can associate an oriented tree $t\left(P_{k}\right)$ to collection $\left\{\left[\left(B_{1}, \widetilde{P_{k}}\right)\right], \ldots,\left[\left(B_{r}, \widetilde{P_{k}}\right)\right],\left[\left(\bar{B}_{1}, \widetilde{P_{k}}\right)\right], \ldots,\left[\left(\overline{B_{r}}, \widetilde{P_{k}}\right)\right]\right\}$ respecting the the relation " $\leq$ ". To each edge $e$ of $t\left(P_{k}\right)$ we associate the following data: Suppose that $e$ corresponds to a translate $B_{i}$ of $A$ and $B_{i}$ does not cross some boundary sphere $\widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}$ of $\widetilde{P_{k}}$. Then, the sphere $\widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}$ is either on the positive or negative side of $B_{i}$. If $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}$ is on the positive side of $B_{i}$, we associate the sphere $\Sigma_{i}$ (image of $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}$ ) to the ending vertex of $e$, otherwise to initial vertex of $e$. We associate this oriented tree to the vertex in $\Gamma$ corresponding to $P_{k}$. If $B_{i}$ crosses all the boundary spheres of $P_{k}$, then we do not associate any data to the edge $e$.

Lemma 5.2.7. Let $A_{i}, A_{j}$ and $A_{k}$ be translates of $A$ such that $A_{i} \leq A_{j} \leq A_{k}$. If $A_{i}$ and $A_{k}$ cross the homology class of the boundary sphere $\widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}$ of $\widetilde{P_{k}}$, so does $A_{j}$.

Proof. As $A_{j} \leq A_{k}, E^{+}\left(A_{k}\right) \subset E^{+}\left(A_{j}\right)$. As $A_{k}$ crosses the homology class [ $\widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}$ ] of the boundary sphere $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}$, we have $E^{ \pm}\left(\left[\Sigma_{i}\right]\right) \cap E^{+}\left(A_{k}\right) \neq \phi$. This implies $E^{ \pm}\left(\left[\Sigma_{i}\right]\right) \cap E^{+}\left(A_{j}\right) \neq \phi$.

As $A_{i} \leq A_{j}, E^{+}\left(A_{j}\right) \subset E^{+}\left(A_{i}\right)$ and hence, $E^{-}\left(A_{i}\right) \subset E^{-}\left(A_{j}\right)$. As $A_{i}$ crosses the homology class [ $\left.\widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}\right]$ of the boundary sphere $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}$, we have $E^{ \pm}\left(\left[\Sigma_{i}\right]\right) \cap E^{-}\left(A_{i}\right) \neq \phi$. This implies $E^{ \pm}\left(\left[\Sigma_{i}\right]\right) \cap E^{-}\left(A_{j}\right) \neq \phi$.

Thus, all the four intersections $E^{ \pm}\left(\left[\Sigma_{i}\right]\right) \cap E^{ \pm}\left(A_{j}\right)$ are non-empty. Hence, $A_{j}$ crosses the homology class of the boundary sphere $\widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}$ of $\widetilde{P_{k}}$.

We shall define a map on vertices of $t\left(\Sigma_{i}\right)$ to vertices of $t\left(P_{k}\right)$, where $\Sigma_{i}$ is a boundary sphere of $P_{k}$, as follows: Let $v$ be vertex in $t\left(\Sigma_{i}\right)$, Consider an edge $e$ with $v$ as its ending vertex. This edge $e$ corresponds to an equivalence class $\left[\left(A_{i}, \tilde{\Sigma}_{i}\right)\right]$. As $A_{i}$ crosses $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}, A_{i}$ crosses $\widetilde{P_{k}}$. So, the class $\left[\left(A_{i}, \widetilde{P_{k}}\right)\right]$ corresponds to an edge $e^{\prime}$ in $t\left(P_{k}\right)$. We map $v$ to the terminal vertex of $e^{\prime}$. Suppose $e^{\prime \prime}$ is another edge with $v$ as a terminal vertex. The edge $e^{\bar{\prime}}$ corresponds to a class $\left[\left(A_{j}, \widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}\right)\right]$. As the classes $A_{i}$ and $A_{j}$ cross $\Sigma_{i}$ and the edges $e$ and $e^{\prime \prime}$ are adjacent edges in $t\left(\Sigma_{i}\right)$, by Lemma 5.2.7, the classes $\left[\left(A_{i}, \widetilde{P_{k}}\right)\right]$ and $\left[\left(A_{j}, \widetilde{P_{k}}\right)\right]$ correspond to the adjacent edges $e^{\prime}$ and $e^{\prime \prime \prime}$ in $t\left(P_{k}\right)$. Thus, the edges $e^{\prime}$ and $e^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}$ have the same terminal vertex. This shows this map on vertices is well-defined. This map can be naturally extended on edges.

Thus, we have a natural simplicial inclusion maps from the trees associated to each boundary component of $P_{k}$ to the tree associated to $P_{k}$ respecting the orientation and the image under inclusion of the tree associated to a boundary sphere is a subtree of the tree associated to $P_{k}$. Thus, we have a graph of oriented trees associated to $A$.

We are now in a position to construct the normal sphere in $M$ representing $A$. By Lemma 5.2.5, we have a collection of disjoint co-oriented circles in each standard sphere $\Sigma_{i}$ corresponding to the edges in $t\left(\Sigma_{j}\right)$. We shall extend these to each component $P_{k}$ using the following lemma. We use the inclusion maps to regard the trees corresponding to the boundary spheres as subtrees of the trees corresponding to $P_{k}$.

Lemma 5.2.8. Given an oriented tree $t=t\left(P_{k}\right)$ associated to $P_{k}$ and orientation preserving simplicial inclusion maps $i_{j}$ of oriented trees $t\left(\Sigma_{j}\right)$ associated to the boundary spheres $\Sigma_{j}$ of $P_{k}$ so that the union of the images $i_{j}\left(t\left(\Sigma_{j}\right)\right)$ is all of $t\left(P_{k}\right)$, there is a collection of co-oriented disjoint pieces in $P_{k}$ whose restriction to each boundary sphere $\Sigma_{j}$ is the given collection of disjoint circles corresponding to edges in $t\left(\Sigma_{j}\right)$. Furthermore, using the data associated to each edge, we can choose each piece such that the boundary sphere not intersecting that piece lies in any specified component of the complement of that piece.

Proof. We proceed by induction on the size of the tree $t=t\left(P_{k}\right)$. Thus, if $t^{\prime}$ is obtained from $t\left(P_{k}\right)$ by deleting a terminal vertex $v$ and its adjoining edge $e$, there is a collection of co-oriented disjoint pieces in $P_{k}$ whose restriction to each boundary sphere is the given collection of disjoint circles except those associated to $e$. Also, using the data associated to each edge, each piece is chosen such that the boundary sphere not intersecting that piece lies in any specified component of the complement of that piece. We shall extend this using one more piece corresponding to the edge $e$.

Let $v^{\prime}$ be the vertex of $e$ in $t^{\prime}$. The edge $e$ has non-empty inverse image under the inclusion maps $i_{j}$ in one or two or all three oriented trees $t\left(\Sigma_{j}\right)$ associated to the boundary spheres $\Sigma_{j}$ of $P_{k}$. The same is true for vertex the $v$. Then, $e$ corresponds to a circle in each of those boundary components $\Sigma_{j}$ of $P_{k}$ for which $e$ has non-empty inverse image in $t\left(\Sigma_{j}\right)$. Consider such boundary spheres $\Sigma_{j}$ 's of $P_{k}$. As $v^{\prime}$ is a vertex of the tree $t\left(\Sigma_{j}\right)$, by the correspondence between circles and trees, the circle on $\Sigma_{j}$ corresponding to $e$ is in the component corresponding to $v^{\prime}$ in $\Sigma_{j}$ and it bounds a disc corresponding to $v$ in the component corresponding to $v^{\prime}$ in $\Sigma_{j}$. Note that $t\left(\Sigma_{j}\right)$ is a subtree of $t\left(P_{k}\right)$ and each component in $\Sigma_{j}$ corresponding to a vertex in $t\left(\Sigma_{j}\right)$ is the intersection of the component of $P_{k}$ corresponding to the same vertex with $\Sigma_{j}$. So, the circles corresponding to $e$ in $\Sigma_{j}$ 's and the discs corresponding to $v$ in $\Sigma_{j}$ 's lie inside the component of $P_{k}$ corresponding to $v^{\prime}$. Now, we can construct the piece as the neighborhood of a graph with terminal vertices in the discs corresponding to the vertex $v$, inside the component corresponding to $v^{\prime}$ in $P_{k}$. Further, using the data associated to the vertex $v$ or $v^{\prime}$, we can construct the piece so that any boundary sphere $\Sigma_{i}$ not intersecting the piece lies inside the appropriate component of $P_{k}-S$.

Now, we shall show that the graph of trees associated to the class $A \in \pi_{2}(M)$ represents a normal sphere $S$ in $M$ such that $S$ represents the class $A$. Fix a lift $\widetilde{A}$ of $A$. We associate a subgraph $\tau$ of $T$ to $\widetilde{A}$ as follows: If $\widetilde{A}$ crosses standard sphere $\widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}$, then $\tau$ contains the bivalent vertex $v_{i}$ corresponding to $\widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}$ and the edges $e_{1}^{i}$ and $e_{2}^{i}$ containing that vertex $v_{i}$. The other end vertex $v_{j}^{i}$ of each edge $e_{j}^{i}, j=1,2$ is a trivalent vertex in $T$ which corresponds to a component of $\widetilde{M}-\widetilde{\Sigma}$. Each $v_{j}^{i}$ may be a bivalent or univalent or a trivalent vertex in $\tau$. If $\widetilde{A}$ does not cross some standard sphere, then $\tau$ does not contain the standard vertex corresponding this standard sphere. Hence, $\tau$ contains no edges containing this standard vertex. By Lemmas 5.1.9, 5.1.10, $\tau$ is a finite tree. Consider a standard bivalent vertex of $\tau$. It corresponds to a standard sphere $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}$ in $\widetilde{M}$. Consider the image $\Sigma_{i}$ of $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}$. We associated a tree $t\left(\Sigma_{i}\right)$ to $\Sigma_{i}$. As $\tilde{A}$ crosses $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}$, there is an edge $e$ in $t\left(\Sigma_{i}\right)$ which corresponds to $\left[\left(\widetilde{A}, \tilde{\Sigma}_{i}\right)\right]$ and a circle in $\Sigma_{i}$. We consider lift of this circle to $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}$ (also to all the other translates of $\left.\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}\right)$. The edge $e$ is also in $t\left(P_{k}\right)$ and it corresponds to the class $\left[\left(\widetilde{A}, \widetilde{P_{k}}\right)\right]$, where $P_{k}$ is a 3 -punctured 3 -sphere with $\Sigma_{i}$ as a boundary sphere. If the vertex $v \in \tau$
corresponding to $\widetilde{P_{k}}$ of which $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}$ is a boundary sphere, is a non-standard bivalent vertex of $\tau$, then data associated $e$ in $t\left(P_{k}\right)$ determines the value of the function $\epsilon$ on the vertex $v$. If $v$ is terminal vertex of $\tau$, then data associated to $e$ determines the value of the function $e_{+}$on the vertex $v$. Thus, we have the triple $\left(\tau, \epsilon, e_{+}\right)$representing $\widetilde{A}$ in $\widetilde{M}$. We can construct pieces of a normal sphere in $\widetilde{M}$ representing $\widetilde{A}$ as follows: We have chosen a circle which correspond to the class $\left[\left(\widetilde{A}, \tilde{\Sigma}_{i}\right)\right]$ on each $\widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}$ as described above. We consider a 3 -punctured 3 -sphere $\widetilde{P_{k}}$ such that $\widetilde{A}$ crosses at least one boundary sphere of $\widetilde{P_{k}}$. Consider its image $P_{k}$. Consider the images (in $P_{k}$ ) of the chosen circles in the boundary spheres of $\widetilde{P_{k}}$. For each boundary sphere $\Sigma_{i}$ of $P_{k}$, we have a circle and this circle corresponds to an edge $e_{i}$ in $t\left(\Sigma_{i}\right)$. For each $i$, under the inclusion map from $t\left(\Sigma_{i}\right)$ to $t\left(P_{k}\right)$, the edge $e_{i}$ gets mapped to the same edge $e$ in $t\left(P_{k}\right)$. Corresponding to this edge $e$, there is a piece inside $P_{k}$ with boundary circles of the piece coinciding with the images of the chosen circles in the boundary spheres of $\widetilde{P_{k}}$, by Lemma 5.2 .8 . Consider the lift of this piece in $\widetilde{P_{k}}$ (and also to the translates of $\widetilde{P_{k}}$ ). Thus, we get a normal sphere $\widetilde{S}$ in $\widetilde{M}$ representing the class $\widetilde{A}$. The pieces of $\widetilde{S}$ get mapped to the pieces given by the the graph $\Gamma$ of trees associated to $A$. Similarly, we get get normal sphere for each translate of $\widetilde{A}$ such that the normal sphere representing $g \widetilde{A}$ is a translate $g \widetilde{S}$. Now, any piece $\mathbb{P}$ given by $\Gamma$ corresponds to an edge in $t(V)=t\left(P_{k}\right)$, for some $k$. This edge corresponds to some class $\left[\left(\widetilde{A^{\prime}}, \widetilde{P_{k}}\right)\right]$. If $g \widetilde{A^{\prime}}=\widetilde{A}$, then the lift of this piece $\mathbb{P}$ to $\widetilde{P_{k}}$ is a piece of the normal sphere $g \widetilde{S}$ representing $g \widetilde{A^{\prime}}$. Therefore, there is a piece $g^{-1} \mathbb{P}$ of $\widetilde{S}$ which is a $g^{-1}$ translate of $\mathbb{P}$, is mapped to the piece $\mathbb{P}$. Thus, each piece in $M$ given by $\Gamma$ is the image of a piece of the normal sphere $\widetilde{S}$. Hence, we get a normal sphere in $M$ representing the class $A$.

## 6. GEOSPHERE LAMINATIONS FOR FREE GROUPS

Geodesic laminations (and measured laminations) on surfaces have proved to be very fruitful in threemanifold topology, Teichmüller theory and related areas. In this chapter, we construct analogously geosphere laminations for free groups. They have the same relation to (disjoint unions of) embedded spheres in the connected sum $M=\sharp_{n} S^{2} \times S^{1}$ of $n$ copies of $S^{2} \times S^{1}$ as geodesic laminations on surfaces have to (disjoint unions of) simple closed curves on surfaces. The manifold $M$ has fundamental group the free group on $n$ generators, and is a natural model for the study of free groups.

Laminations for groups (including free groups) have been constructed and studied in various contexts. However, they are one-dimensional objects, corresponding to geodesics. We study here objects of codimension one, which correspond to splittings. In the case of surfaces, dimension one and codimension one coincide.

Our main result is a compactness theorem for the space of (non-trivial) geosphere laminations. We also show that embedded spheres in $M$ are geosphere laminations. Hence sequences of spheres, in particular under iterations of an outer automorphism of the free group, have subsequences converging to geosphere laminations. It is such limiting constructions that make geodesic laminations for surfaces a very useful construction.

Our construction is based on the normal form for disjoint unions of spheres in $M$ due to Hatcher. The normal form is relative to a decomposition of $M$ with respect to a maximal collection of spheres in $M$. This is in many respects analogous to a normal form with respect to an ideal triangulation of a punctured surface. In particular, isotopy for spheres in normal form implies normal isotopy, i.e., the normal form is unique.

As in the case of normal curves on surfaces and normal surfaces in three-manifolds, we can associate the number of pieces of each type to a collection of spheres in Hatcher's normal form. However, these numbers do not determine the (collection of) spheres up to isotopy. We instead proceed by considering lifts of normal spheres to the universal cover $\widetilde{M}$ of $M$.

In the universal cover $\widetilde{M}$, a normal sphere is determined by a finite subtree $\tau$ of a tree $T$ associated to $\widetilde{M}$ together with some additional data. We construct geospheres in $\widetilde{M}$ by dropping the finiteness condition. We construct an appropriate topology on the space of geospheres and show that the space is locally compact and totally disconnected.

The lift of a normal sphere in $M$ to its universal cover satisfies an additional condition, namely it is disjoint from all its translates. This can be reformulated in terms of the notion of crossing of spheres in $\widetilde{M}$,
following Scott-Swarup, which depends on the corresponding partitions of ends of $\widetilde{M}$. We show that there is an appropriate notion of crossing for geospheres, which is defined in terms of the appropriate partition of ends (into three sets in this case).

Our main technical result is that crossing is an open condition. We recall that this is the case for crossing of geodesics in hyperbolic space, and that this plays a central role in the study of geodesic laminations. The proof of compactness of the space of geospheres uses the result that crossing is open.

The construction based on normal forms is not intrinsic, as it depends on the maximal collection of spheres with respect to which $M$ is decomposed. However, we show that geospheres can be described in terms of their associated partitions. This gives an intrinsic definition.

### 6.1 Geospheres

To construct geosphere laminations in $M$, we first need the analogue of (not necessarily closed) geodesics in $M$. We first construct the analogue of geodesics in $\widetilde{M}$, which we call geospheres. We then consider when two such geospheres cross, and deduce basic properties of crossing. This allows us to study the appropriate notion of geospheres embedded in $M$. Our main technical lemma says that crossing is an open condition. This allows us to construct limiting laminations and prove a compactness theorem for geosphere laminations in $M$.

In Chapter 5 , we have seen that a normal sphere in $\widetilde{M}$ is determined by a triple $\left(\tau, \epsilon, e_{+}\right)$, with $\tau$ a finite subtree of $T$ with each univalent vertex of $\tau$ is a trivalent vertex of $T$ or $\tau$ is a standard vertex, $\epsilon$ an assignment of sign to each non-standard bivalent vertex of $\tau$ and $e_{+}$an assignment to each univalent vertex $v$ of $\tau$ an edge containing $v$ and not contained in $\tau$.

Geospheres are generalizations of such spheres where we drop the condition that $\tau$ is finite.
Definition 6.1.1. A geosphere $\sigma$ in $\widetilde{M}$ is a triple $\sigma=\left(\tau, \epsilon, e_{+}\right)$with

- $\tau$ a subtree of $T$ such that univalent (terminal) vertices of $\tau$ are trivalent vertices in $T$ or $\tau$ is a standard vertex of $T$.
- If $B(\tau)$ is the set of non-standard bivalent vertices of $\tau, \epsilon$ is a function $\epsilon: B(\tau) \rightarrow\{+,-\}$.
- If $C(\tau)$ the set of univalent vertices of $\tau, e_{+}: C(\tau) \rightarrow E D G E(T)$ is a function to the edges of $T$ so that for $v \in C(\tau), e_{+}(v) \in E D G E(T)$ is an edge containing $v$ and not contained in $\tau$.

Let $G S(\widetilde{M})$ be the set of such geospheres in $\widetilde{M}$. To construct a topology on $G S(\widetilde{M})$, we consider restrictions to compact subtrees $\kappa \subset T$ such that each of its univalent vertex is a trivalent vertex in $T$. We call a tree containing no edge as a trivial tree. We define for a non-trivial tree $\kappa, N(\kappa)$ is the set of points of distance at most 1 from $\kappa$. For a trivial tree $\kappa$, we define $N(\kappa)=\kappa$.

Henceforth, we consider only subtrees $\kappa$ of $T$ such that all univalent vertices of $\kappa$ are trivalent in $T$ or $\kappa$ is a trivial tree.

Definition 6.1.2. If $\sigma=\left(\tau, \epsilon, e_{+}\right)$is a geosphere, then the restriction $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}(\sigma)$ of $\sigma$ to $\kappa$ is the triple $\left.\sigma\right|_{\kappa}=\left(\tau \cap N(\kappa),\left.\epsilon\right|_{B(\tau) \cap \kappa},\left.e_{+}\right|_{C(\tau) \cap \kappa}\right)$.

Note that the valence of a vertex $v$ of $\tau$ such that $v \in \kappa$ is determined by $\tau \cap N(\kappa)$. Further, for univalent vertices $v$ of $\tau \cap \kappa$, the edges $e_{+}(v)$ (and $e_{-}(v)$ ) are in $N(\tau)$. Thus, we can view res $\left.\right|_{\kappa}$ as a map from $G S(\widetilde{M})$ to the set $G S(\kappa)$ defined as below:

Definition 6.1.3. For a subtree $\kappa \subset T$, we define $G S(\kappa)$ to be the set of triples $\sigma=\left(\tau, \epsilon, e_{+}\right)$with

- $\tau$ a subtree of $N(\kappa)$ or the empty graph.
- If $B(\tau)$ is the set of vertices $\tau \cap \kappa$ which are non-standard bivalent vertices in $\tau, \epsilon$ is a function $\epsilon: B(\tau) \rightarrow\{+,-\}$.
- If $C(\tau)$ is the set of vertices of $\tau \cap \kappa$ which are not standard vertices in $T$ and univalent in $\tau$, $e_{+}: C(\tau) \rightarrow E D G E(T)$ is a map to the edges of $T$ so that for $v \in C(\tau), e_{+}(v)$ is an edge containing $v$ and not contained in $\tau$.

Note that if $\kappa$ is a finite subtree of $T$, then the set $G S(\kappa)$ is finite. We say that an element $\sigma=\left(\tau, \epsilon, e_{+}\right)$ of $G S(\kappa)$ is non-trivial if $\tau$ is non-empty.

Suppose $\kappa^{\prime}$ is a subtree of $T$ such that $\kappa^{\prime} \supset \kappa$, then we can similarly define a restriction map $r e s_{\kappa, \kappa^{\prime}}$ : $G S\left(\kappa^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow G S(\kappa)$. Further, res $_{\kappa}=$ res $_{\kappa, \kappa^{\prime}} \circ$ res $_{\kappa^{\prime}}$. In particular, we can denote without ambiguity the map $r e s_{\kappa, \kappa^{\prime}}$ as simply $r e s_{\kappa}$.

We define a topology on $G S(\widetilde{M})$ using the restriction maps. Namely, for each subtree $\kappa$ of $T$ and each $\sigma_{0} \in G S(\kappa)$, consider the set

$$
U\left(\kappa, \sigma_{0}\right)=\left\{\sigma \in G S(\widetilde{M}): \operatorname{res}_{\kappa}(\sigma)=\sigma_{0}\right\}
$$

Lemma 6.1.4. The sets $U\left(\kappa, \sigma_{0}\right)$ for finite subtrees $\kappa$ of $T$ form a basis for a topology on $G S(\widetilde{M})$.
Proof. Showing that the sets $U\left(\kappa, \sigma_{0}\right)$ form a basis for a topology on $G S(\widetilde{M})$ is equivalent to showing that if $U\left(\kappa^{i}, \sigma_{0}^{i}\right), 1 \leq i \leq n$ is a finite collection of basic open sets and $\sigma \in \cap_{i} U\left(\kappa^{i}, \sigma_{0}^{i}\right)$, then there is a basic open set containing $\sigma$ and contained in each of the sets $U\left(\kappa^{i}, \sigma_{0}^{i}\right)$.

To show this, let $\kappa$ be the finite subtree of $T$ spanned by the subtrees $\kappa^{i}$, and let $\sigma_{0}=\left.\sigma\right|_{\kappa}$. Note that as $\sigma \in U\left(\kappa^{i}, \sigma_{0}^{i}\right), \operatorname{res}_{\kappa^{i}}(\sigma)=\sigma_{0}^{i}$. Hence, if $\sigma^{\prime} \in U\left(\kappa,\left.\sigma\right|_{\kappa}\right)$, as $\kappa \supset \kappa^{i}, \operatorname{res}_{\kappa^{i}}\left(\sigma^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{res}_{\kappa^{i}}(\sigma)=\sigma_{0}^{i}$. Thus, $U\left(\kappa,\left.\sigma\right|_{\kappa}\right) \subset U\left(\kappa^{i}, \sigma_{0}^{i}\right)$, for each $i$ as required.

Henceforth, consider $G S(\widetilde{M})$ with the topology whose basis is given by the sets $U\left(\kappa, \sigma_{0}\right)$ as above. By construction, $G S(\widetilde{M})$ is second countable. If $\kappa=\kappa_{1} \subset \kappa_{2} \subset \ldots$ is an exhaustion of $T$ by finite subtrees of $T$, then for each $i$, the collection $\left\{U\left(\kappa_{i}, \sigma\right): \sigma \in G S\left(\kappa_{i}\right)\right\}$ is finite. Hence, one can easily see that the collection $\cup_{i}\left\{U\left(\kappa_{i}, \sigma\right): \sigma \in G S\left(\kappa_{i}\right)\right\}_{i}$ gives a countable basis for the topology on $G S(\widetilde{M})$.

If $\kappa \subset T$ is a finite tree and $\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}$ are elements of $G S(\kappa)$ such that $\sigma_{1} \neq \sigma_{2}$, then $U\left(\kappa, \sigma_{1}\right) \cap U\left(\kappa, \sigma_{2}\right)=\phi$ and $G S(\widetilde{M})=\amalg U\left(\kappa, \sigma_{i}\right)$, where $\sigma_{i} \in G S(\kappa)$.

We see that the space $G S(\widetilde{M})$ is Hausdorff, in fact totally disconnected.
Lemma 6.1.5. The space $G S(\widetilde{M})$ is totally disconnected.
Proof. Let $\sigma^{i}=\left(\tau^{i}, \epsilon^{i}, e_{+}^{i}\right), i=1,2$, be two distinct points in $G S(\widetilde{M})$. It is easy to see that for some finite tree $\kappa$, $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\sigma^{1}\right) \neq \operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\sigma^{2}\right)$. As $G S(\kappa)$ is a finite set, it follows that we can partition $G S(\kappa)$ into finite sets $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$ with $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\sigma^{i}\right) \in S_{i}$, for $i=1,2$.

Let $U_{i}=\left\{\sigma \in G S(\widetilde{M}): \operatorname{res}_{\kappa}(\sigma) \in S_{i}\right\}, i=1,2$. Then, $U_{i}$ are disjoint (finite) unions of basic open sets with $\sigma^{i} \in U_{i}$. This shows $G S(\widetilde{M})$ is Hausdorff.

If $A$ is any subset of $G S(\widetilde{M})$ containing more than one point, then we can consider two distinct points $\sigma^{i}=\left(\tau^{i}, \epsilon^{i}, e_{+}^{i}\right), i=1,2$ in $A$. We can find open sets $U_{i}, i=1,2$, as above with $\sigma^{i} \in U_{i}$. Then, the sets $A \cap U_{1}$ and $A \cap U_{2}$ gives separation of $A$.

In fact, we can see that if $\sigma^{i}=\left(\tau^{i}, \epsilon^{i}, e_{+}^{i}\right), i=1,2$, are two distinct points in $G S(\widetilde{M})$, then we can find disjoint open sets $U_{i}, i=1,2$ with $\sigma^{i} \in U_{i}$ and $U_{1} \cup U_{2}=G S(\widetilde{M})$.

The main result we need about the topology is the following compactness theorem. This is the analogue of the fact that the set of geodesics in hyperbolic space (more generally, in any Riemannian manifold) that intersect a fixed compact set is compact.

Theorem 6.1.6. For a fixed finite subtree $\kappa \subset T$, the set of all geospheres whose restriction to $\kappa$ is non-trivial is compact.

Proof. Let $A$ be the set of all geospheres whose restriction to $\kappa$ is non-trivial. As $G S(\widetilde{M})$ is second countable and Hausdorff, it is metrizable. Hence, it suffices to show that every sequence in the given subspace $A$ has a convergent subsequence in $A$.

Let $\kappa=\kappa_{1} \subset \kappa_{2} \subset \ldots$ be an exhaustion of $T$ by finite subtrees of $T$. Let $\sigma_{i}$ be a sequence of geospheres in $\widetilde{M}$ whose restriction to $\kappa$ is non-trivial. We construct a convergent subsequence of $\sigma_{i}$.

Firstly, for each $i, \operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{1}}\left(\sigma_{i}\right) \in G S\left(\kappa_{1}\right)$ and $G S(\kappa)$ finite set. Hence, on passing to a subsequence (which we denote by $\sigma_{i}$, we can assume that $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{1}}\left(\sigma_{i}\right)$ is constant. Similarly, passing to a further subsequence, we can assume that $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{2}}\left(\sigma_{i}\right)$ is constant. Iterating this and passing to a diagonal subsequence, we obtain a sequence, which we also denote $\sigma_{i}$, so that the restriction of $\sigma_{i}$ to each of the sets $\kappa_{i}$ is eventually constant. More concretely, we can assume that for $j, k \geq i, \operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\sigma_{j}\right)=r e s_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\sigma_{k}\right)$.

We claim that the subsequence $\sigma_{i}$ constructed as above has a limit $\sigma=\left(\tau, \epsilon, e_{+}\right)$. Namely, to determine whether an edge $e$ is in $\tau$, consider $i$ large enough that $e \in \kappa_{i}$. Then, as $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\sigma_{j}\right)=\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\sigma_{i}\right)$ for $j \geq i$ (taking $k=i$ ), either $e \in \tau_{j}$ for all $j$ large enough or $e \notin \tau_{j}$ for all $j \geq i$, where $\tau_{j}$ is the tree corresponding to $\sigma_{j}$. In the former case, we declare $e \in \tau$ and in the latter case $e \notin \tau$. We can see $\tau_{1} \subset \tau_{2} \subset \ldots$ is an exhaustion of $\tau$. We similarly can decide what vertices are in $\tau$ and also the values of the functions $\epsilon$ and $e_{+}$.

As the restriction of each $\sigma_{i}$ is non-empty, the limiting subgraph $\tau$ is non-empty.
One can show that $\tau$ is connected. Namely, is $v$ and $w$ are vertices of $\tau$, for $j$ sufficiently large, $v$ and $w$ are contained in the tree $\tau_{j}$, hence there is a unique reduced path $\lambda$ between them. It follows that $\lambda \subset \tau$ by the definition of $\tau$.

Thus, $\sigma \in G S(\widetilde{M})$. Finally, as $\kappa_{i}$ is an exhaustion of $T$ by compact subtrees, any compact subtree $\kappa^{\prime}$ is contained in $\kappa_{j}$ for some $j$. Hence, for $k>j$, $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa^{\prime}}\left(\sigma_{k}\right)=\operatorname{res}_{\kappa^{\prime}}(\sigma)$. By the definition of the topology on $G S(\widetilde{M})$, we see that $\sigma_{i} \rightarrow \sigma$.

As a corollary, we see that $G S(\widetilde{M})$ is locally compact. In fact, every geosphere $\sigma$ is contained in a compact open subset of $G S(\widetilde{M})$.
Proposition 6.1.7. Any geosphere $\sigma$ is contained in a compact open subset $U$ of $G S(\widetilde{M})$.
Proof. It is easy to see that there is a finite tree $\kappa$ such that $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}(\sigma)$ is non-trivial. Let

$$
U=\left\{\sigma^{\prime} \in G S(\widetilde{M}): \operatorname{res}_{\kappa}(\sigma)=\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\sigma^{\prime}\right)\right\}
$$

By Theorem 6.1.6, $U$ is compact. The set $U$ is open by definition of the topology on $G S(\widetilde{M})$.
In Chapter 5 , we have seen that a normal sphere $S$ in $\widetilde{M}$ is determined by triple $\sigma=\left(\tau, \epsilon, e_{+}\right)$, with $\tau$ is a finite subtree of $T, \epsilon$ is an assignment of sign to each non-standard bivalent vertex of $\tau$ and $e_{+}$ an assignment to each univalent vertex of $\tau$ an edge containing $v$ and not contained in $\tau$. Hence, normal spheres $\widetilde{M}$ are geospheres.

Let $S(\widetilde{M})$ be the set of all normal spheres in $\widetilde{M}$, i.e., $S(\widetilde{M})$ is the set of all geospheres $\sigma=\left(\tau, \epsilon, e_{+}\right)$, where $\tau$ is a finite subtree of $T$.

Proposition 6.1.8. The set $S(\widetilde{M})$ is the set of isolated points of $G S(\widetilde{M})$ and is dense in $G S(\widetilde{M})$.
Proof. Let $\sigma^{0}=\left(\tau^{0}, \epsilon^{o}, e_{+}^{0}\right)$ be a normal sphere in $\widetilde{M}$. We see that $\operatorname{res} s_{\tau}^{0}\left(\sigma^{0}\right)=\sigma^{0}$. Consider $U\left(\tau^{0}, \sigma^{o}\right)$. If $\sigma^{\prime}=\left(\tau^{\prime}, \epsilon^{\prime}, e_{+}^{\prime}\right) \in U\left(\tau^{0}, \sigma^{0}\right)$, then $\operatorname{res}_{\tau}^{0}\left(\sigma^{\prime}\right)=\sigma^{0}$. By definition of res,

$$
\operatorname{res}_{\tau}^{0}\left(\sigma^{\prime}\right)=\left(\tau^{\prime} \cap N\left(\tau^{0}\right), \epsilon^{\prime}\left|B\left(\tau^{\prime}\right) \cap \tau^{0}, e_{+}^{\prime}\right|_{C\left(\tau^{\prime}\right) \cap \tau^{0}}\right)=\left(\tau^{0}, \epsilon^{0}, e_{+}^{0}\right)
$$

As $\tau^{\prime} \cap N\left(\tau^{0}\right)=\tau^{0}$, we have $\tau^{\prime}=\tau^{0}$ and $\epsilon^{\prime}=\epsilon^{0}, e_{+}^{\prime}=e_{+}^{0}$. Thus, $\sigma^{\prime}=\sigma^{0}$. This implies $U\left(\tau^{0}, \sigma^{o}\right)=\left\{\sigma^{0}\right\}$ and hence, $\sigma_{0}$ is an isolated point in $G S(\widetilde{M})$.

Let $\sigma=\left(\tau, \epsilon, e_{+}\right)$be a geosphere in $\widetilde{M}$, where $\tau$ is a subtree of $T$ with each univalent vertex of $\tau$ a trivalent vertex in $T$. We call such a geosphere as a non-trivial geosphere. Let $\kappa$ be subtree of $T$. We define $\operatorname{res}^{\kappa}(\sigma)$ to be the triple $\left(\tau \cap \kappa,\left.\epsilon\right|_{B(\tau) \cap \kappa},\left.e_{+}\right|_{C(\tau) \cap \kappa}\right)$. Suppose $\kappa$ is a finite subtree of $T$ such that $r e s^{\kappa}(\sigma)$ is non-trivial in the sense that $\tau \cap \kappa$ contains at least one edge. Let $\kappa=\kappa_{1} \subset \kappa_{2} \subset \ldots$ be an exhaustion of $T$ by finite subtrees of $T$. Let $\sigma_{i}=\operatorname{res}^{\kappa_{i}}(\sigma)=\left(\tau \cap \kappa_{i},\left.\epsilon\right|_{B(T) \cap \kappa_{i}},\left.e_{+}\right|_{C(T) \cap \kappa_{i}}\right)$. To each univalent vertex $v \notin C(\tau)$ of $\tau \cap \kappa_{i}$, we assign an edge $e_{+}^{\prime}(v)$ containing $v$ and contained in $\tau \backslash \kappa_{i}$. Note that a univalent
vertex of $\tau \cap \kappa_{i}$ is a trivalent vertex in $T$. Thus, we have a function $e_{+}^{\prime}: C\left(\tau \cap \kappa_{i}\right) \rightarrow E D G E(T)$ from univalent vertices of $\tau \cap \kappa_{i}$ to edge set of $T$ whose restriction on $C(\tau) \cap \kappa_{i}$ ie equal to $\left.e_{+}\right|_{C(\tau) \cap \kappa}$. Let $\sigma_{i}^{\prime}=\left(\tau \cap \kappa_{i},\left.\epsilon\right|_{B(T) \cap \kappa_{i}},\left.e_{+}^{\prime}\right|_{C(T) \cap \kappa_{i}}\right)$. Then, for each $i, \sigma_{i}^{\prime} \in S(\widetilde{M}) \subset G S(\widetilde{M})$ and $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\sigma_{i}^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}(\sigma)$. Therefore, $\sigma^{\prime} \in U\left(\kappa_{i}, \operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}(\sigma)\right)$, for each $i$.

Now, we claim that the sequence $\sigma_{i}$ converge to $\sigma$ in $G S(\widetilde{M})$. Let $\kappa^{\prime}$ be subtree of $T$. Consider the basic neighborhood $U\left(\kappa^{\prime}, \operatorname{res}_{\kappa^{\prime}}(\sigma)\right)$ of $\sigma$ in $G S(\widetilde{M})$. For large enough $i, \kappa^{\prime} \subset \kappa_{i}$. Then, $U\left(\kappa_{j}, \operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{j}}(\sigma)\right) \subset$ $U\left(\kappa^{\prime}, \operatorname{res}_{\kappa^{\prime}}(\sigma)\right)$ for all $j \geq i$. This implies $\sigma_{j}^{\prime} \in U\left(\kappa^{\prime}, \operatorname{res}_{\kappa^{\prime}}(\sigma)\right)$ for all $j \geq i$. Hence, the sequence $\sigma_{i}$ converge to $\sigma$ in $G S(\widetilde{M})$. This implies every geosphere $\sigma \notin S(\widetilde{M})$, is the limit of a sequence of points of $S(\widetilde{M})$ and hence, it is not an isolated point in $G S(\widetilde{M})$. This shows that the set $S(\widetilde{M})$ is the set of isolated points of $G S(\widetilde{M})$ and is dense in $G S(\widetilde{M})$.

### 6.2 Crossing of geospheres

As in the case of spheres, we can associate to a geosphere a partition of the ends of $\widetilde{M}$, which can be identified with the set of ends $E(T)$. However, in the case of a geosphere $\sigma=\left(\tau, \epsilon, e_{+}\right)$, we get a partition into three sets

$$
E(T)=E^{\infty}(\sigma) \amalg E^{+}(\sigma) \amalg E^{-}(\sigma)
$$

with $E^{\infty}(\sigma)$ closed and $E^{ \pm}(\sigma)$ open.
The set $E^{\infty}(\sigma)$ is defined to be the set of ends of $\tau$. It is easy to see that, as $\tau$ is a subtree of $T, \tau$ is closed. Hence, $E^{\infty}(\sigma)$ is closed in $E(T)$. Observe that $E^{\infty}(\sigma)$ can also be interpreted as the set of ends of $N(\tau)$.

The complement $V(\sigma)=T-N(\tau)$ of $N(\tau)$ is an open set. We shall partition the components of $V(\sigma)$ into sets $V^{+}(\sigma)$ and $V^{-}(\sigma)$ using the data for $\sigma$, in analogy with the case of spheres. We shall define $E^{ \pm}(\sigma)$ as the set of ends of $V^{ \pm}(\sigma)$.

Let $V_{0}$ be a component of $T-N(\tau)$. Then, as $\tau$ is a tree, the closure of $V_{0}$ contains exactly one vertex $w$ of $N(\tau)$, which in turn is a distance 1 from a unique vertex $v$ of $\tau$ which is either bivalent or univalent. If $v$ is bivalent, we say that $V_{0}$ is positive (and $w$ is on the positive side of $v$ ) if $\epsilon(v)=+$ and say that $V_{0}$ is negative otherwise. If $v$ is univalent, we say that $V_{0}$ is positive (and $w$ is on the positive side of $v$ ) if the edge $e_{+}(v)$ joins $v$ to $w$ and say that $V_{0}$ is negative otherwise.

By the above rule, each component of $V(\sigma)$ is assigned a sign. We define $V^{+}(\sigma)$ to be the union of the positive components and $V^{-}(\sigma)$ the union of negative components. We define $E^{ \pm}(\sigma)$ as the set of ends of $V^{ \pm}(\sigma)$.

Given two geospheres $\sigma_{1}$ and $\sigma_{2}$, we can define when they cross.
Definition 6.2.1. The geospheres $\sigma^{i}=\left(\tau^{i}, \epsilon^{i}, e_{+}^{i}\right), i=1,2$ cross if either each of the four sets

$$
E^{ \pm}\left(\sigma^{1}\right) \cap\left(E^{ \pm}\left(\sigma^{2}\right) \cup E^{\infty}\left(\sigma^{2}\right)\right)
$$

is non-empty or if each of the four sets

$$
E^{ \pm}\left(\sigma^{2}\right) \cap\left(E^{ \pm}\left(\sigma^{1}\right) \cup E^{\infty}\left(\sigma^{1}\right)\right)
$$

is non-empty.

We remark that it is necessary to consider both the above collections of four sets separately.
The above definition is motivated by the observation that if, for instance, $\sigma^{2}$ is on the positive side of $\sigma^{1}$, then all ends (in fact points) on either the negative side of $\sigma^{2}$ or the positive side of $\sigma^{2}$ (the side away from $\sigma^{1}$ ) are on the positive side of $\sigma^{1}$. Hence, one of the intersections $E^{-}\left(\sigma^{1}\right) \cap\left(E^{ \pm}\left(\sigma^{2}\right) \cup E^{\infty}\left(\sigma^{2}\right)\right)$ is empty.

Lemma 6.2.2. Let $\sigma^{i}=\left(\tau^{i}, \epsilon^{i}, e_{+}^{i}\right), i=1,2$ be geospheres. If $\tau^{1} \cap \tau^{2}=\phi$, then $\sigma^{1}$ and $\sigma^{2}$ do not cross.
Proof. As $\tau^{1}$ and $\tau^{2}$ are subtrees of $T$ and $\tau^{1} \cap \tau^{2}=\phi$, for some component $V_{0}^{1}$ of $T-N\left(\tau^{1}\right), \tau^{2}$ is contained in $V_{0}^{1}$. Let $v^{1}$ be the point in $\tau^{1}$ that is unit distance from $V_{0}^{1}$. Without loss of generality assume $V_{0}^{1}$ is positive.

As $\tau^{2}$ is contained in the closure of $V_{0}^{1}, E^{\infty}\left(\sigma^{2}\right)$ is contained in the ends of $V_{0}^{1}$, and hence is contained in $E^{+}\left(\sigma^{1}\right)$. Further, as $\tau^{1}$ is a tree, $\tau^{1}$ is contained in a component $V_{0}^{2}$ of $T-N\left(\tau^{2}\right)$ and all other components of $T-N\left(\tau^{2}\right)$ are contained in $V_{0}^{1}$. Hence, if $V_{0}^{2}$ is positive, then $E^{-}\left(\sigma^{2}\right)$ is contained in the ends of $V_{0}^{1}$, and hence is contained in $E^{+}\left(\sigma^{1}\right)$.

Thus, as $V_{0}^{1}$ and $V_{0}^{2}$ are positive, the intersection $E^{-}\left(\sigma^{1}\right) \cap\left(E^{-}\left(\sigma^{2}\right) \cup E^{\infty}\left(\sigma^{2}\right)\right)$ is empty. Considering other cases similarly, we see that in each case, at least one of the intersections $E^{ \pm}\left(\sigma^{1}\right) \cap\left(E^{ \pm}\left(\sigma^{2}\right) \cup E^{\infty}\left(\sigma^{2}\right)\right)$ is empty.

Reversing the roles of $\tau^{1}$ and $\tau^{2}$, we see that one of the four intersections $E^{ \pm}\left(\sigma^{2}\right) \cap\left(E^{ \pm}\left(\sigma^{1}\right) \cup E^{\infty}\left(\sigma^{1}\right)\right)$ is also empty. Thus, $\sigma^{1}$ and $\sigma^{2}$ do not cross.

Our main technical result is that crossing is an open condition.
Lemma 6.2.3. Suppose $\sigma^{i}=\left(\tau^{i}, \epsilon^{i}, e_{+}^{i}\right), i=1,2$ cross, then there are open sets $U^{i}, i=1,2$, with $\sigma^{i} \in U^{i}$ so that if $s^{i} \in U^{i}$ for $i=1,2$, then $s^{1}$ crosses $s^{2}$.

Proof. Without loss of generality, we assume that each of the four intersections

$$
E^{ \pm}\left(\sigma^{1}\right) \cap\left(E^{ \pm}\left(\sigma^{2}\right) \cup E^{\infty}\left(\sigma^{2}\right)\right)
$$

is non-empty. We shall construct open sets $U^{i}$ containing $\sigma^{i}$ so that for $s^{i} \in U^{i}$,

$$
E^{+}\left(s^{1}\right) \cap\left(E^{+}\left(s^{2}\right) \cup E^{\infty}\left(s^{2}\right)\right) \neq \phi
$$

We can similarly construct open sets for which each of the other three intersections is non-empty. The intersections of the four pairs of open sets thus constructed give the required neighborhoods of $\sigma^{i}$.

We first make some observations. Suppose $\xi \in E^{+}\left(\sigma^{1}\right)$ is an end. Then, there is a component $V_{0}$ of $T-N\left(\tau^{1}\right)$ so that $\xi \in E\left(V_{0}\right)$. The intersection of the closure of $V$ with $N\left(\tau^{1}\right)$ is a vertex $w$, which is unit distance from a unique vertex $v$ of $\tau^{1}$. Further, the vertex is bivalent or univalent, with $w$ on the positive side of $v$.

Let $\kappa$ be a finite tree containing $v$. Then, if $\left(\tau^{0}, \epsilon^{0}, e_{+}^{0}\right)$ is another geosphere with $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\sigma^{0}\right)=\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\sigma^{1}\right)$, then as $N(\kappa) \cap \tau^{0}=N(\kappa) \cap \tau^{1}$, w is a vertex of $N\left(\tau^{0}\right)-\tau^{0}, v$ is in $\tau^{0}$. As $\epsilon^{0}=\epsilon^{1}$ and $e_{+}^{0}=e_{1}^{+}, w$ is on the positive side of $v$ with respect to $\sigma^{0}$. It follows, as $\tau^{0}$ is connected, that $V_{0}$ is a component of $T-N\left(\tau^{0}\right)$ which is positive.

Suppose now that $\xi$ is an end in $E^{+}\left(\sigma^{1}\right) \cap\left(E^{+}\left(\sigma^{2}\right) \cup E^{\infty}\left(\sigma^{2}\right)\right)$. We consider two cases. Firstly, if $\xi \in E^{+}\left(\sigma^{1}\right) \cap E^{+}\left(\sigma^{2}\right)$, then as above we have positive components $V_{0}^{i}$ of $T-N\left(\tau^{i}\right)$ containing $\xi$ and corresponding vertices $v^{i}$ and $w^{i}$. Let $\kappa$ be a finite tree containing $v^{1}$ and $v^{2}$ and let $U^{i}=U\left(\kappa, r e s_{\kappa}\left(\sigma^{i}\right)\right)$.

Suppose $s^{i}=\left(t^{i}, \epsilon^{i}, e_{+}^{i}\right) \in U^{i}, i=1,2$, then, as above, $V_{0}^{i}$ is a component of $T-N\left(t^{i}\right)$ and is positive. Hence, $\xi \in E^{+}\left(s^{i}\right)$ for $i=1,2$, i.e., $\xi \in E^{+}\left(s^{1}\right) \cap E^{+}\left(s^{2}\right) \subset E^{+}\left(s^{1}\right) \cap\left(E^{+}\left(s^{2}\right) \cup E^{\infty}\left(s^{2}\right)\right)$.

Next, consider the case when $\xi \in E^{+}\left(\sigma^{1}\right) \cap E^{\infty}\left(\sigma^{2}\right)$. Let $V_{0}$ be the component of $T-N\left(\sigma^{1}\right)$ that has $\xi$ as an end and let $v$ and $w$ be as above. As $\xi \in E^{\infty}\left(\sigma^{2}\right)$, the intersection $\tau^{2} \cap V_{0}$ is infinite.

Note that as $\sigma^{1}$ and $\sigma^{2}$ cross, we cannot have $\tau^{1} \cap \tau^{2}=\phi$, as this would imply that one of the intersections $E^{-}\left(\sigma^{1}\right) \cap\left(E^{ \pm}\left(\sigma^{2}\right) \cup E^{\infty}\left(\sigma^{2}\right)\right)$ is empty. As $\tau^{2}$ is connected and $\tau^{1} \cap \tau^{2} \neq \phi \neq V_{0} \cap \tau^{2}$, it follows that $v$ and $w$ are vertices of $\tau^{2}$.

Let $\kappa$ be a finite tree containing $v$ and $w$ and let $U^{i}=U\left(\kappa, \operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\sigma^{i}\right)\right)$ and $s^{i}$ be as before. As in the first case, if $s^{1} \in U^{1}$, then $V_{0}$ is a positive component of $T-N\left(t^{1}\right)$. To complete the proof, we show that if $s^{2} \in U^{2}$, then the set of ends of $V_{0}$ contains either a point of $E^{\infty}\left(s_{2}\right)$ or a point of $E^{+}\left(s_{2}\right)$.

To see this, observe that as $\tau^{2} \cap V_{0}$ is infinite and $t^{2} \cap N(\kappa)=\tau^{2} \cap N(\kappa)$, with $\kappa$ a tree containing $w$, $t^{2} \cap V_{0}$ is non-empty. Suppose $t^{2} \cap V_{0}$ is infinite, then an end of $t^{2} \cap V_{0}$ lies in $V_{0} \cap E^{\infty}\left(s^{2}\right)$, as claimed. On the other hand, if $t^{2} \cap V_{0}$ is finite, it has a terminal vertex. By Lemma 5.1.8, a component of $T-N\left(t^{2}\right)$ is positive and contained in $V^{0}$. An end of this component gives an element $E^{+}\left(s_{2}\right)$ which is an end of $V_{0}$, hence in $E^{+}\left(s^{1}\right)$.

Thus, we have shown that in all cases $E^{+}\left(s^{1}\right) \cap\left(E^{+}\left(s_{2}\right) \cup E^{\infty}\left(s_{2}\right)\right)$ is non-empty for $s^{i} \in U^{i}$.

### 6.2.1 Geosphere laminations in $M$

We are now in a position to define geosphere laminations in $M$, which are the analogues of embedded geodesic laminations in a surface. Recall that the group $\pi_{1}(M)$ acts on $\widetilde{M}$ by deck transformations. Geosphere laminations are the natural completion of the inverse image in $\widetilde{M}$ of a sphere (or a collection of spheres) in $M$.

Definition 6.2.4. A subset $X \subset G S(\widetilde{M})$ is said to be embedded in $M$ if for $\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2} \in X, \sigma_{1}$ does not cross $\sigma_{2}$.

Definition 6.2.5. A geosphere lamination in $M$ is a subset $\Gamma \subset G S(\widetilde{M})$ such that

1. $\Gamma$ is closed in $G S(\widetilde{M})$.
2. $\Gamma$ is invariant under the action of $\pi_{1}(M)$.
3. $\Gamma$ is embedded in $M$.

We denote the set of geosphere laminations in $M$ by $L(M)$. We shall see that this contains all collections of disjoint, non-parallel spheres in $M$, and that the space of non-trivial geosphere laminations is compact. This allows us to consider limits of spheres in $M$.

We first observe that the condition that $\Gamma$ is closed is easy to achieve.
Lemma 6.2.6. Suppose $X \subset G S(\widetilde{M})$ is embedded in $M$, then so is its closure $\bar{X}$.
Proof. Suppose $\sigma_{1}$ and $\sigma_{2}$ are geospheres in $\bar{X}$ that cross. By Lemma 6.2.3, there are open sets $U_{i}$ with $\sigma_{i} \in U_{i}$ so that if $s_{i} \in U_{i}, i=1,2$, then $s_{1}$ and $s_{2}$ cross. As $\sigma_{i} \in \bar{X}$, there are elements $s_{i} \in X \cap U_{i}$, which thus cross. But, this contradicts the hypothesis that $X$ is embedded in $M$. Thus, $\bar{X}$ is embedded in M.

It is clear that the closure of a $\pi_{1}(M)$-invariant set in $G S(\widetilde{M})$ is $\pi_{1}(M)$-invariant. Thus, if $X$ is not closed but satisfies the other two conditions for being a geosphere lamination, then its closure is a geosphere lamination.

### 6.2.2 Topology on $L(M)$

We shall make the set $L(M)$ of sphere laminations in $M$ into a topological space by defining a topology on $L(M)$. To do this, we first define a topology on the set of closed subsets of $G S(\widetilde{M})$, which we denote by $C(\widetilde{M})$.

The topology we construct is analogous to the Hausdorff topology. Namely, if $\Gamma \subset G S(\widetilde{M})$ is closed and $\kappa$ is a finite subtree of $T$, consider the image $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}(\Gamma)$ of $\Gamma$ under the restriction map. For $S \subset G S(\kappa)$, consider the set

$$
\mathcal{U}(\kappa, S)=\left\{\Gamma \in C(\widetilde{M}): \operatorname{res}_{\kappa}(\Gamma)=S\right\} .
$$

Lemma 6.2.7. The sets $\mathcal{U}(\kappa, S)$ for finite subtrees $\kappa$ of $T$ form a basis for a topology on $C(\widetilde{M})$.
Proof. Showing that the sets $\mathcal{U}(\kappa, S)$ form a basis for a topology on $C(\widetilde{M})$ is equivalent to showing that if $\mathcal{U}\left(\kappa^{i}, S^{i}\right), 1 \leq i \leq n$ is a finite collection of basic open sets and $\Gamma \in \cap_{i} \mathcal{U}\left(\kappa^{i}, S^{i}\right)$, then there is a basic open set containing $\Gamma$ and contained in each of the sets $\mathcal{U}\left(\kappa^{i}, S^{i}\right)$.

To show this, let $\kappa$ be the finite subtree of $T$ spanned by the subtrees $\kappa^{i}$, and let $S_{0}=r e s_{\kappa}(\Gamma)$. Note that as $\Gamma \in \mathcal{U}\left(\kappa^{i}, S^{i}\right)$, $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa^{i}}(\Gamma)=S^{i}$. Hence, if $\Gamma^{\prime} \in \mathcal{U}\left(\kappa, S_{0}\right)$, as $\kappa \supset \kappa^{i}, \operatorname{res}_{\kappa^{i}}\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{res}_{\kappa^{i}}(\Gamma)=S^{i}$, for each i. Thus, $\mathcal{U}\left(\kappa, S_{0}\right) \subset \mathcal{U}\left(\kappa^{i}, \sigma_{0}^{i}\right)$, for each $i$ as required.

Thus, the sets $\mathcal{U}(\kappa, S)$ form the basis for a topology, which we take to be the topology on $C(\widetilde{M})$. Note that as $G S(\kappa)$ is finite, so is the collection of subsets of $G S(\kappa)$.

If $\kappa \in T$ is a finite tree and $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$ are subsets of $G S(\kappa)$ such that $S_{1} \neq S_{2}$, then $\mathcal{U}\left(\kappa, S_{1}\right) \cap \mathcal{U}\left(\kappa, S_{2}\right)=$ $\phi$ and $C(\widetilde{M})=\amalg \mathcal{U}\left(\kappa, S_{i}\right)$, where $S_{i}$ is a subset of $G S(\kappa)$.

We can easily see that $C(\widetilde{M})$ is second countable. We see that the topology is Hausdorff, in fact totally disconnected. This is based on the following lemma.

Lemma 6.2.8. If $\Gamma_{1}, \Gamma_{2} \subset G S(\widetilde{M})$ are closed sets with $\Gamma_{1} \neq \Gamma_{2}$, then for some finite subtree $\kappa$ of $T$, $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\Gamma_{1}\right) \neq \operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\Gamma_{2}\right)$.

Proof. As $\Gamma_{1} \neq \Gamma_{2}$, without loss of generality, there is a point $\sigma \in \Gamma_{1} \backslash \Gamma_{2}$. As $\Gamma_{2}$ is closed subset of $G S(\widetilde{M})$, there is a basic open set $\mathcal{U}=\mathcal{U}\left(\kappa, \sigma_{0}\right)$ with $\sigma \in U$ but $\mathcal{U} \cap \Gamma_{2}=\phi$. But this means that $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}(\sigma) \in \operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\Gamma_{1}\right) \backslash \operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\Gamma_{2}\right)$. Hence, $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\Gamma_{1}\right) \neq \operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\Gamma_{2}\right)$.

It is easy to deduce that the topology on $C(\widetilde{M})$ is totally disconnected. The proof is analogous to Lemma 6.1.5.

Lemma 6.2.9. Given $\Gamma_{1}, \Gamma_{2} \in C(\widetilde{M})$, there are disjoint open sets $\mathcal{U}_{1}, \mathcal{U}_{2} \subset C(\widetilde{M})$ with $\Gamma_{i} \subset \mathcal{U}_{i}$ so that $\mathcal{U}_{1} \cup \mathcal{U}_{2}=C(\widetilde{M})$.

We can consider $S(\widetilde{M})$ as a subset of $C(\widetilde{M})$. If $\sigma=\left(\tau, \epsilon, e_{+}\right) \in S(\widetilde{M})$, then $\{\sigma\} \in C(\widetilde{M})$ and $\operatorname{res}_{\tau}(\sigma)=\sigma \in G S(\tau)$. One can easily see that $\mathcal{U}(\tau,\{\sigma\})=\{\{\sigma\}\}$. For, any geosphere whose restriction to $\tau$ is $\sigma$ is equal to $\sigma$ only. Thus, every point of $S(\widetilde{M})$ is an isolated point of $C(\widetilde{M})$.

The topology on $C(\widetilde{M})$ restricts to one on $L(M)$. To study the restriction, the following lemma is useful.

Lemma 6.2.10. The subspace $L(M) \subset C(\widetilde{M})$ is closed.
Proof. As the topology on $C(\widetilde{M})$ is second countable and Hausdorff, it suffices to show that if $\Gamma_{0}$ is the limit of a sequence $\Gamma_{i} \in L(M)$, then $\Gamma_{0} \in L(M)$. Firstly, as $C(\widetilde{M})$ is Hausdorff, limits are well-defined. Hence, if $g \in \pi_{1}(M)$, as $g \Gamma_{i}=\Gamma_{i}$ and $g \Gamma_{i} \rightarrow g \Gamma_{0}$ (as the deck transformation $g$ is a homeomorphism), $g \Gamma_{0}=\Gamma_{0}$. Thus, $\Gamma_{0}$ is $\pi_{1}(M)$-invariant. Further, $\Gamma_{0}$ is closed as it is an element of $C(\widetilde{M})$. Thus, to complete the proof it suffices to show that $\Gamma_{0}$ is embedded in $M$.

Suppose $\Gamma_{0}$ is not embedded in $M$, then there are elements $\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}$ in $\Gamma_{0}$ that cross. By Lemma 6.2.3, there are open sets $\mathcal{U}_{i}$ with $\sigma_{i} \in \mathcal{U}_{i}$ so that if $s_{i} \in \mathcal{U}_{i}$, then $s_{1}$ and $s_{2}$ cross. By the definition of the topology on $G S(\widetilde{M})$, for some finite tree $\kappa, \mathcal{U}_{i}$ contains the open set $\mathcal{U}\left(\kappa, r e s_{\kappa}\left(\sigma_{i}\right)\right)$. As $\Gamma_{i} \rightarrow \Gamma_{0}$, for $i$ sufficiently large, $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\Gamma_{i}\right)=\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\Gamma_{0}\right)$, in particular, there are elements $s_{i} \in \Gamma_{i}$ with $s_{i} \in \mathcal{U}_{i}$. It follows that $s_{1}$ and $s_{2}$ cross, contradicting the hypothesis that $\Gamma_{i} \in L(M)$.

### 6.3 Constructing Geosphere laminations

In this section, we first see that (collections of) spheres in $M$ have associated geosphere laminations. We then see how limits of spheres give rise to geosphere laminations.

Suppose first that $\Sigma^{\prime}$ is a collection of disjoint, non-parallel spheres in $M$ which are in normal form with respect to $\Sigma$. Let $\tilde{\Sigma}^{\prime}$ be the collection of lifts of the spheres in $\Sigma^{\prime}$, i.e., the inverse image of $\Sigma^{\prime}$ under the covering map $\widetilde{M} \rightarrow M$. Each element of $\tilde{\Sigma}^{\prime}$ is a sphere, and hence, gives a geosphere. Thus, $\tilde{\Sigma}^{\prime}$ can be viewed as a subset of $G S(\widetilde{M})$.

It is immediate that the set $\tilde{\Sigma}^{\prime}$ is $\pi_{1}(M)$-invariant. The set $\tilde{\Sigma}^{\prime}$ is embedded in $M$ as it is a union of disjoint spheres. To see that $\tilde{\Sigma}^{\prime}$ gives an element in $L(M)$ ), it only remains to show that the set $\tilde{\Sigma}^{\prime}$ is a closed subset of $G S(\widetilde{M})$.

Lemma 6.3.1. The set $\tilde{\Sigma}^{\prime}$ is closed in $G S(\widetilde{M})$.
Proof. The tree $\tau$ corresponding to each element $\sigma \in \tilde{\Sigma}^{\prime}$ is finite, with diameter determined by the corresponding sphere in $M$. Hence, there is an integer $D>0$ such that the trees $\tau$ corresponding to elements $\sigma \in \tilde{\Sigma}^{\prime}$ have diameter at most $D$.

Suppose now $\sigma_{0}$ is in the closure of $\tilde{\Sigma}^{\prime}$, with $\tau_{0}$ the tree corresponding to $\sigma_{0}$. Let $v$ be a vertex of $\tau_{0}$ and let $\kappa$ be the tree consisting of all points of distance at most $D$ from $v$.

As $\sigma_{0}$ is in the closure of $\tilde{\Sigma}^{\prime}, \operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\sigma_{0}\right)=\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}(\sigma)$ for some $\sigma \in \tilde{\Sigma}^{\prime}$. If $\tau$ is the tree corresponding to $\sigma$, then $v \in \tau$ and $\tau$ has diameter at most $D$. It follows that $\tau \subset \kappa$, and hence, $\tau=\tau \cap N(\kappa)$ and is contained in the interior of $N(\kappa)$. As $\tau_{0} \cap N(\kappa)=\tau \cap N(\kappa), \tau_{0} \cap N(\kappa)$ is contained in the interior of $N(\kappa)$. Hence, as $\tau_{0}$ is connected, $\tau_{0}=\tau_{0} \cap N(\kappa)=\tau \cap N(\kappa)=\tau$. As $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\sigma_{0}\right)=\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}(\sigma)$, it follows that $\sigma_{0}=\sigma$, hence $\sigma_{0} \in \tilde{\Sigma}$. Thus, any element of the closure of $\tilde{\Sigma}^{\prime}$ is in $\tilde{\Sigma}^{\prime}$, showing that $\tilde{\Sigma}^{\prime}$ is closed.

Thus, given any embedded sphere $S$ in normal form with respect to $\Sigma$ in $M$, we have a geosphere lamination associated to it, namely, the inverse image of $S$ in $\widetilde{M}$ under the covering map. So, we can regard $S$ as a geosphere lamination in $M$. Let $S_{0}(M)$ be the set of isotopy classes spheres in $M$. Then, $S_{0}(M)$ can be considered as subset of $L(M)$.

Definition 6.3.2. Let $\Gamma$ be geosphere lamination in $M$. A geosphere $\sigma \in \Gamma$ is called a leaf of $\Gamma$.
Definition 6.3.3. A subset $\Gamma^{\prime}$ of a geosphere lamination $\Gamma$ is said to be sublamination of $\Gamma$ if $\Gamma^{\prime}$ itself is a geosphere lamination.

Definition 6.3.4. A geosphere lamination $\Gamma$ is said to be maximal if $\Gamma$ is not a proper sublamination of any geosphere lamination in $M$.

Definition 6.3.5. A geosphere lamination $\Gamma$ is said to be minimal if no proper subset of $\Gamma$ sublamination of $\Gamma$.

### 6.3.1 Example of a geosphere lamination as the limit of a sequence of spheres

Consider $M=\sharp_{2} S^{2} \times S^{1}$. Then, $\pi_{1}(M)=G$, which is a free group of rank 2. Fix a basis $\left\{\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}\right\}$ of $G$. Then, there exists a collection $\Sigma^{\prime}=\{A, B\}$ of disjoint, embedded 2-spheres in $M$, related to this basis: Each sphere $A$ and $B$ has two sides, denoted by $A^{+}$and $A^{-}$for $A$ and $B^{+}$and $B^{-}$for $B$. The element $\alpha_{1}$ is represented by a closed path $\gamma_{1}$ starting from the base point $x_{0}$ of $M$ which does not belong to $A$ and $B$, going to $A^{-}$piercing $A$, and returning to the base point from $A^{+}$. We can choose $\gamma_{1}$ such that it does not intersect $B$. Similarly, the element $\alpha_{2}$ is represented by a closed path $\gamma_{2}$ starting from the base point $x_{0}$ of $M$, going to $B^{-}$piercing $B$, and returning to the base point from $B^{+}$. Again, we can choose $\gamma_{2}$ such that $\gamma_{2}$ does not intersect $A$ and $\gamma_{1}$.

Extend the collection $\Sigma^{\prime}$ to a maximal collection $\Sigma=\{A, B, C\}$ of disjointly embedded 2- spheres in $M$. The sphere $C$ has two sides, denoted by $C^{+}$and $C^{-}$. Cutting $M$ along $\Sigma$, then produces two 3 -punctured 3 -spheres, say $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$. Suppose we have chosen sphere $C$ such that $P_{1}$ has boundary spheres $A^{+}, B^{+}, C^{+}$ and $P_{2}$ has boundary spheres $A^{-}, B^{-}, C^{-}$.

### 6.3.2 The universal cover $\widetilde{M}$ and the related tree $T$

Let $\widetilde{\Sigma}$ be the inverse image of $\Sigma$ in $\widetilde{M}$. To the pair $(\widetilde{M}, \tilde{\Sigma})$, we have the tree $T$ associated. For a lift $\widetilde{P_{1}}$ of $P_{1}$, we have $Y$-shaped subtree of $T$ such that the end vertices of this subtree correspond to lifts of $A^{+}, B^{+}$ and $C^{+}$. We denote these end vertices again by $A^{+}, B^{+}$and $C^{+}$. We call such subtrees as $Y_{P_{1}}$ type of subtree of $T$. Similarly, For a lift $\widetilde{P_{2}}$ of $P_{2}$, we have $Y$-shaped subtree of $T$ such that the end vertices of this subtree correspond to lifts of $A^{-}, B^{-}$and $C^{-}$. We denote these end vertices again by $A^{-}, B^{-}$and $C^{-}$. We call such trees as $Y_{P_{2}}$ type of subtrees of $T$.

Consider spheres $S_{n}$ in $M$ as follows (see figure 6.1): We construct $S_{n}$ by taking a copy of $A^{+}$in $P_{1}$ and a copy of $A^{-}$in $P_{2}$. We join them by a tube which represents $\alpha_{2}^{n} \alpha_{1}$. We get two disc pieces of $S_{n}$, one in $P_{1}$ with boundary on $C^{+}$and one disc piece in $P_{2}$ with boundary on $C^{-}$. $S_{n}$ has $n$ tube pieces in $P_{1}$ joining $B^{+}$to $C^{+}$and $n$ tube pieces joining $C^{-}$to $B^{-}$. We give an orientation to each $S_{n}$ such that if we consider the triple $\left(\tau^{n}, \epsilon^{n}, e_{+}^{n}\right)$ associated to a lift $\widetilde{S_{n}}$ has the following form : The tree $\tau^{n}$ is a finite subtree of $T$ and the terminal vertices of the tree $\tau^{n}$ are trivalent vertices in $T$. The tree $\tau^{n}$ has two terminal vertices: one terminal vertex $v_{1}$ in a $Y_{P_{1}}$ type of subtree of $T$ such that the edge in $\tau^{n}$ containing $v_{1}$ joins the vertex $v_{1}$ to the vertex $C^{+}$of $Y_{P_{1}}$ and the other terminal vertex $v_{2}$ in a $Y_{P_{2}}$ type of subtree of $T$ such that the edge in $\tau^{n}$ containing $v_{2}$ joins the vertex $v_{2}$ to the vertex $C^{-}$of $Y_{P_{2}}$. For all the other $Y_{P_{1}}$ type of subtrees with which $\tau^{n}$ has non-empty intersection with $Y_{P_{1}}, \tau^{n} \cap Y_{P_{1}}$ contains an edge joining the vertex $C^{+}$to the trivalent vertex of $Y_{P_{1}}$ and an edge joining the trivalent vertex of $Y_{P_{1}}$ to the vertex $B^{+}$of $Y_{P_{1}}$. Similarly, for all the other $Y_{P_{2}}$ type of subtrees with which $\tau^{n}$ has non-empty intersection, $\tau^{n} \cap Y_{P_{2}}$ contains an edge joining the vertex $C^{-}$to the trivalent vertex of $Y_{P_{1}}$ and an edge joining the trivalent vertex of $Y_{P_{2}}$ to the vertex $B^{-}$of $Y_{P_{2}}$.

For every non-standard bivalent vertex $v$ of $\tau^{n}, \epsilon^{n}(v)$ is positive. For terminal vertices $v_{1} \in a Y_{P_{1}}$ and $v_{2} \in a Y_{P_{2}}$ of $\tau^{n}, e_{+}^{n}\left(v_{1}\right)$ is the edge joining the vertex $B^{+}$and $e_{+}^{n}\left(v_{2}\right)$ is the joining the vertex $B^{-}$.

P1 P2


Fig. 6.1: The spheres $S_{n}$

### 6.3.3 The geosphere lamination $\Gamma$

Consider the set $\Gamma$ which consists of the followings geospheres:

1. A geosphere $\sigma=\left(\tau, \epsilon, e_{+}\right)$, where $\tau$ has exactly one terminal vertex $v$ in a $Y_{P_{1}}$ type of subtree of $T$ with $e_{+}(v)$ is the edge joining $v$ and the vertex $B^{+}$of that $Y_{P_{1}}$. The edge in $\tau$ containing the terminal vertex $v$ joins the vertex $v$ to the vertex $C^{+}$of $Y_{P_{1}}$. For all the other $Y_{P_{1}}$ type of subtrees of $T$ with which $\tau$ has non-empty intersection, $\tau \cap Y_{P_{1}}$ consists of two edges, one edge joining the vertex $B^{+}$and the trivalent vertex of $Y_{P_{1}}$ and the other edge joining the the trivalent vertex to $C^{+}$. For all the $Y_{P_{2}}$ type of subtrees of $T$ with which $\tau$ has non-empty intersection, $\tau \cap Y_{P_{2}}$ consists of two edges, one edge joining the vertex $C^{-}$and the trivalent vertex of $Y_{P_{2}}$ and the other edge joining the the trivalent vertex to $B^{-}$. For each non-standard bivalent vertex $v^{\prime}$ of $\tau, \epsilon\left(v^{\prime}\right)$ is positive. The set $\Gamma$ contains all the translates of $\sigma$.
2. A geosphere $\sigma^{\prime}=\left(\tau^{\prime}, \epsilon^{\prime}, e_{+}^{\prime}\right)$, where $\tau^{\prime}$ has exactly one terminal vertex $v^{\prime}$ in a $Y_{P_{2}}$ type of subtree of $T$ with $e_{+}^{\prime}\left(v^{\prime}\right)$ is the edge joining $v_{0}$ and the vertex $B^{-}$of the $Y_{P_{2}}$. The edge in $\tau^{\prime}$ containing the terminal vertex $v^{\prime}$ joins the vertex $v^{\prime}$ to the vertex $C^{-}$of $Y_{P_{2}}$. For all the other $Y_{P_{2}}$ type of subtrees of $T$ with which $\tau^{\prime}$ has non-empty intersection, $\tau \cap Y_{P_{2}}$ consists of two edges, one edge joining the vertex $C^{-}$and the trivalent vertex of $Y_{P_{2}}$ and the other edge joining the the trivalent vertex to $B^{-}$ of $Y_{P_{2}}$. For all the $Y_{P_{1}}$ type of subtrees of $T$ with which $\tau^{\prime}$ has non-empty intersection, $\tau^{\prime} \cap Y_{P_{1}}$ consists of two edges, one edge joining the vertex $B^{+}$and the trivalent vertex of $Y_{P_{1}}$ and the other edge joining the the trivalent vertex to $C^{+}$. For each non-standard bivalent vertex $v^{\prime}$ of $\tau^{\prime}, \epsilon^{\prime}\left(v^{\prime}\right)$ is positive. The set $\Gamma$ contains all the translates of $\sigma^{\prime}$.
3. A geosphere $\sigma^{\prime \prime}=\left(\tau^{\prime \prime}, \epsilon^{\prime \prime}, e_{+}^{\prime \prime}\right)$, where $\tau^{\prime \prime}$ has no terminal vertex. For all the $Y_{P_{1}}$ type of subtrees of $T$ with which $\tau^{\prime \prime}$ has non-empty intersection, $\tau^{\prime \prime} \cap Y_{P_{1}}$ consists of two edges, one edge joining the vertex $B^{+}$and the trivalent vertex of $Y_{P_{1}}$ and the other edge joining the the trivalent vertex to $C^{+}$. For all the $Y_{P_{2}}$ type of subtrees of $T$ with which $\tau^{\prime \prime}$ has non-empty intersection, $\tau^{\prime \prime} \cap Y_{P_{2}}$ consists of two edges, one edge joining the vertex $C^{-}$and the trivalent vertex of $Y_{P_{2}}$ and the other edge joining the the trivalent vertex to $B^{-}$. For each the non-standard bivalent vertex $v^{\prime}$ of $\tau^{\prime \prime}, \epsilon\left(v^{\prime}\right)$ is positive. The set $\Gamma$ contains all the translates of $\sigma^{\prime \prime}$.

Note that for any geosphere $\beta=\left(\tau^{\beta}, \epsilon^{\beta}, e_{+}^{\beta}\right) \in \Gamma$, the tree $\tau^{\beta}$ does not contain any vertex of type $A^{+}$ and $A^{-}$. Therefore, $\beta$ does not cross sphere $\widetilde{A}$ and its translates, where $\widetilde{A}$ is a lift of the sphere $A$. Now, clearly $\Gamma$ is $\pi_{1}$-invariant.

Lemma 6.3.6. The set $\Gamma$ is embedded in $M$.

Proof. We can easily see that given a type (1) geosphere $\sigma=\left(\tau, \epsilon, e_{+}\right)$, it is the limit of the sequence of geospheres $\widetilde{S_{n}}=\left(\tau^{n}, \epsilon^{n}, e_{+}^{n}\right)$, where $\widetilde{S_{n}}$ is a lift of $S_{n}$ such that each $\tau^{n}$ has a terminal vertex in the same subtree $Y_{P_{1}}$ of $T$ where $\tau$ has its terminal vertex, see Proposition 6.1.8. As crossing of geospheres is an open condition (Lemma 6.2.3), we can see that $\sigma$ and its translate $g \sigma$ do not cross, for any $g \in \pi_{1}(M)$. Similarly, we can show that for a type (2) geosphere $\sigma^{\prime}, \sigma^{\prime}$ and $g \sigma^{\prime}$ do not cross, for any $g \in \pi_{1}(M)$. Consider a type (1) geosphere $\sigma=\left(\tau, \epsilon, e_{+}\right)$and a type (2) geosphere $\sigma^{\prime}=\left(\tau^{\prime}, \epsilon^{\prime}, e_{+}^{\prime}\right)$. Then, there exists a sequence $\widetilde{S_{n}}=\left(\tau^{n}, \epsilon^{n}, e_{+}^{n}\right)$, where $\widetilde{S_{n}}$ is a lift of $S_{n}$ such that each $\tau^{n}$ has a terminal vertex in the same subtree $Y_{P_{1}}$ of $T$ where $\tau$ has its terminal vertex and the spheres $\widetilde{S_{n}}$ converges to $\sigma$ in $G S(\widetilde{M})$. Similarly, there exists a sequence $\widetilde{S_{n}^{\prime}}=\left(\tau^{\prime n}, \epsilon^{\prime n}, e_{+}^{\prime n}\right)$, where $\widetilde{S_{n}^{\prime}}$ is a lift of $S_{n}$ such that each $\tau^{\prime n}$ has a terminal vertex in the same subtree $Y_{P_{2}}$ of $T$ where $\tau^{\prime}$ has its terminal vertex and the spheres $\widetilde{S_{n}^{\prime}}$ converges to $\sigma^{\prime}$ in $G S(\widetilde{M})$. Again, using the fact that crossing is an open condition, we see that $\sigma$ and $\sigma^{\prime}$ do not cross. For type (3) geosphere $\sigma^{\prime \prime}$, the set $E^{-}\left(\sigma^{\prime \prime}\right)=\phi$. Given any translate $g \sigma^{\prime \prime},\left(E^{ \pm}\left(\sigma^{\prime \prime}\right) \cup E^{\infty}\left(\sigma^{\prime \prime}\right)\right) \cap E^{-}\left(g \sigma^{\prime \prime}\right)=\phi$ and $\left(E^{ \pm}\left(g \sigma^{\prime \prime}\right) \cup E^{\infty}\left(g \sigma^{\prime \prime}\right)\right) \cap E^{-}\left(\sigma^{\prime \prime}\right)=\phi$. Hence, $\sigma^{\prime \prime}$ and $g \sigma^{\prime \prime}$ do not cross, for any $g \in \pi_{1}(M)$. By similar argument, any geosphere of type (1) and type (3) do not cross, for $i=1,2$. Thus, the set $\Gamma$ is embedded in $M$.

Lemma 6.3.7. The set $\Gamma$ is a closed subset of $G S(\widetilde{M})$ and is the set of accumulation points of the set $\widetilde{\Sigma^{\prime \prime}}=\cup_{n}\left\{\right.$ inverse image of $S_{n}$ in $\left.\widetilde{M}\right\}$.

Proof. Suppose $\sigma_{0}=\left(\tau^{0}, \epsilon^{0}, e_{+}^{0}\right)$ is a geosphere in $\widetilde{M}$ such that $\sigma_{0} \notin \Gamma$. As $\sigma_{0}$ is not in $\Gamma$, we have the following possibilities:

1. The geosphere $\sigma_{0}$ crosses some lift $\widetilde{A}$ of $A$ in $\widetilde{M}$ : If $\sigma_{0}$ crosses $A$ (i.e., $\tau^{0}$ contains a vertex of the type $A^{+}$or $A^{-}$), then by Lemma 6.2.3, there are open sets $U^{i}, i=1,2$, with $\sigma_{0} \in U^{1}$ and $A \in U^{2}$ so that if $s^{i} \in U^{i}$ for $i=1,2$, then $s^{1}$ crosses $s^{2}$. If $\sigma_{0}$ is a limit point of $\Gamma$, there exists a sequence of geosphere $\beta_{n} \in \Gamma$ converging to $\sigma_{0}$. Therefore, there exists $\beta_{n} \in U^{1}$ for large $n$. But, then this
will imply that $\beta_{n}$ crosses $A$ which is absurd. Hence, $U^{1}$ is a neighborhood $\sigma_{0}$ in $G S(\widetilde{M})$ which is disjoint from $\Gamma$. So, in this case $\sigma_{0}$ can not be limit point of $\Gamma$.
2. The geosphere does not cross $A$ (i.e., $\tau^{0}$ does not contain any $A^{+}$or $A^{-}$vertex) and $\tau^{0}$ has a terminal vertex $v$ in some subtree $Y_{P_{1}}$ of $T$ such that the edge $e \in \tau^{0}$ containing $v$, joins $v$ and the vertex $B^{+}$of $Y_{P_{1}}$ : Consider a subtree $\kappa$ of $T$ containing this $Y_{P_{1}}$, then $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\sigma_{o}\right)$ is the triple $\left(\tau^{0} \cap N(\kappa),\left.\epsilon^{0}\right|_{B\left(\tau^{0}\right) \cap \kappa},\left.e_{+}^{0}\right|_{C\left(\tau^{0}\right) \cap \kappa}\right)$. Then, $\tau^{0} \cap N(\kappa)$ contains the edge $e$ and $v$ as a terminal vertex of $\tau^{0} \cap N(\kappa)$. For any geosphere $\beta=\left(\tau^{\beta}, \epsilon^{\beta}, e_{+}^{\beta}\right) \in \Gamma$, if we consider $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}(\beta)=$ $\left(\tau^{\beta} \cap N(\kappa),\left.\epsilon^{\beta}\right|_{B\left(\tau^{\beta}\right) \cap \kappa},\left.e_{+}^{\beta}\right|_{C\left(\tau^{\beta}\right) \cap \kappa}\right)$, then $\tau^{\beta} \cap N(\kappa)$ does not contain edge $e$ with $v$ as terminal vertex of $\tau^{\beta} \cap N(\kappa)$. So, we have $\beta \notin U\left(\kappa\right.$, $\left.^{\operatorname{res}} \kappa_{\kappa}\left(\sigma_{0}\right)\right)$, for any $\beta \in \Gamma$. So, we get a neighborhood of $\sigma_{0}$ in $G S(\widetilde{M})$ disjoint from $\Gamma$.
3. The geosphere does not cross $A$ (i.e., $\tau^{0}$ does not contain any $A^{+}$or $A^{-}$vertex) and $\tau^{0}$ has a terminal vertex $v$ in some subtree $Y_{P_{2}}$ of $T$ such that the edge $e \in \tau^{0}$ containing $v$, joins $v$ and the vertex $B^{-}$of $Y_{P_{2}}$ : Consider a subtree $\kappa$ of $T$ containing this $Y_{P_{2}}$, then $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\sigma_{o}\right)$ is the triple $\left(\tau^{0} \cap N(\kappa),\left.\epsilon^{0}\right|_{B\left(\tau^{0}\right) \cap \kappa},\left.e_{+}^{0}\right|_{C\left(\tau^{0}\right) \cap \kappa}\right)$. Then, $\tau^{0} \cap N(\kappa)$ contains the edge $e$ and $v$ as a terminal vertex of $\tau^{0} \cap N(\kappa)$. For any geosphere $\beta=\left(\tau^{\beta}, \epsilon^{\beta}, e_{+}^{\beta}\right) \in \Gamma$, if we consider $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}(\beta)=$ $\left(\tau^{\beta} \cap N(\kappa),\left.\epsilon^{\beta}\right|_{B\left(\tau^{\beta}\right) \cap \kappa},\left.e_{+}^{\beta}\right|_{C\left(\tau^{\beta}\right) \cap \kappa}\right)$, then $\tau^{\beta} \cap N(\kappa)$ does not contain edge $e$ with $v$ as terminal vertex of $\tau^{\beta} \cap N(\kappa)$. So, we have $\beta \notin U\left(\kappa\right.$, res $\left._{\kappa}\left(\sigma_{0}\right)\right)$, for any $\beta \in \Gamma$. So, we get a neighborhood of $\sigma_{0}$ in $G S(\widetilde{M})$ disjoint from $\Gamma$.
4. The geosphere does not cross $A$ (i.e., $\tau^{0}$ does not contain any $A^{+}$or $A^{-}$vertex) and $\tau^{0}$ has a terminal vertex $v$ in some subtree $Y_{P_{1}}$ of $T$ such that the edge $e \in \tau^{0}$ containing $v$, joins $v$ and the vertex $B^{+}$ of $Y_{P_{1}}$ and $e_{+}^{0}(v)$ is the edge joining $v$ and the vertex $A^{+}$of $Y_{P_{1}}$ : Consider a subtree $\kappa$ of $T$ containing this $Y_{P_{1}}$, then $r e s_{\kappa}\left(\sigma_{o}\right)$ is the triple $\left(\tau^{0} \cap N(\kappa),\left.\epsilon^{0}\right|_{B\left(\tau^{0}\right) \cap \kappa},\left.e_{+}^{0}\right|_{C\left(\tau^{0}\right) \cap \kappa}\right)$. Then, $\tau^{0} \cap N(\kappa)$ contains the edge $e$ and $v$ as a terminal vertex of $\tau^{0} \cap N(\kappa)$ and $e_{+}^{0}(v)$ is the edge joining $v$ and the vertex $A^{+}$of $Y_{P_{1}}$. For any geosphere $\beta=\left(\tau^{\beta}, \epsilon^{\beta}, e_{+}^{\beta}\right) \in \Gamma$, if we consider $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}(\beta)=\left(\tau^{\beta} \cap N(\kappa),\left.\epsilon^{\beta}\right|_{B\left(\tau^{\beta}\right) \cap \kappa},\left.e_{+}^{\beta}\right|_{C\left(\tau^{\beta}\right) \cap \kappa}\right)$, then $\tau^{\beta} \cap N(\kappa)$ does not contain edge $e$ with $v$ as terminal vertex of $\tau^{\beta} \cap N(\kappa)$ and $e_{+}^{\beta}(v)$ is the edge joining $v$ and the vertex $A^{+}$of $Y_{P_{1}}$. So, we have $\beta \notin U\left(\kappa, \operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\sigma_{0}\right)\right)$, for any $\beta \in \Gamma$. So, we get a neighborhood of $\sigma_{0}$ in $G S(\widetilde{M})$ disjoint from $\Gamma$.
5. The geosphere does not cross $A$ (i.e., $\tau^{0}$ does not contain any $A^{+}$or $A^{-}$vertex) and $\tau^{0}$ has a terminal vertex $v$ in some subtree $Y_{P_{2}}$ of $T$ such that the edge $e \in \tau^{0}$ containing $v$, joins $v$ and the vertex $B^{+}$ of $Y_{P_{2}}$ and $e_{+}^{0}(v)$ is the edge joining $v$ and the vertex $A^{-}$of $Y_{P_{2}}$ : Consider a subtree $\kappa$ of $T$ containing this $Y_{P_{2}}$, then $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\sigma_{o}\right)$ is the triple $\left(\tau^{0} \cap N(\kappa),\left.\epsilon^{0}\right|_{B\left(\tau^{0}\right) \cap \kappa},\left.e_{+}^{0}\right|_{C\left(\tau^{0}\right) \cap \kappa}\right)$. Then, $\tau^{0} \cap N(\kappa)$ contains the edge $e$ and $v$ as a terminal vertex of $\tau^{0} \cap N(\kappa)$ and $e_{+}^{0}(v)$ is the edge joining $v$ and the vertex $A^{-}$of $Y_{P_{2}}$. For any geosphere $\beta=\left(\tau^{\beta}, \epsilon^{\beta}, e_{+}^{\beta}\right) \in \Gamma$, if we consider $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}(\beta)=\left(\tau^{\beta} \cap N(\kappa),\left.\epsilon^{\beta}\right|_{B\left(\tau^{\beta}\right) \cap \kappa},\left.e_{+}^{\beta}\right|_{C\left(\tau^{\beta}\right) \cap \kappa}\right)$, then $\tau^{\beta} \cap N(\kappa)$ does not contain edge $e$ with $v$ as terminal vertex of $\tau^{\beta} \cap N(\kappa)$ and $e_{+}^{\beta}(v)$ is the edge joining $v$ and the vertex $A^{-}$of $Y_{P_{2}}$. So, we have $\beta \notin U\left(\kappa, r e s_{\kappa}\left(\sigma_{0}\right)\right)$, for any $\beta \in \Gamma$. So, we get a neighborhood of $\sigma_{0}$ in $G S(\widetilde{M})$ disjoint from $\Gamma$.
6. The tree $\tau^{0}$ is finite: In this case $\Sigma_{0}$ is a an isolated point. Hence, $\sigma_{o}$ can not be a limit point of $\Gamma$.

Thus, for any geosphere $\sigma_{0} \notin \Gamma$, we get a neighborhood of $\sigma_{0}$ in $G S(\widetilde{M})$ disjoint from $\Gamma$. This shows that $\Gamma$ is a closed subset of $G S(\widetilde{M})$. Similar, arguments will show that any geosphere $\sigma_{o} \notin \Gamma$ is not an accumulation point of the set $\widetilde{\Sigma^{\prime \prime}}$. Hence, $\Gamma$ is the set of accumulation points of the set $\widetilde{\Sigma^{\prime \prime}}$.

### 6.3.4 The set $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}(\Gamma)$

Suppose $\kappa$ is a finite nontrivial tree. The set $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}(\Gamma)$ consists of empty graph together with the following types of elements $\left(\tau, \epsilon, e_{+}\right) \in G S(\kappa)$ :

1. A subtree $\tau$ of $N(\kappa)$ having a terminal vertex $v$ which is a trivalent vertex in $T$ with $e_{+}(v)$ is the edge joining $v$ to a vertex $B^{+}$. There is an edge in $\tau$ joining the vertex $v$ and a vertex $C^{+}$. All the other edges in $\tau$ are edges joining a vertex $C^{-}$to $B^{-}$or a vertex $B^{+}$to $C^{+}$. For each non-standard bivalent vertex $v^{\prime} \in B(\tau), \epsilon\left(v^{\prime}\right)$ is positive. Note that $\tau$ has exactly one terminal vertex.
2. A subtree $\tau$ of $N(\kappa)$ having a terminal vertex $v$ which is a trivalent vertex in $T$ with $e_{+}(v)$ is the edge joining $v$ to a vertex $B^{-}$. There is an edge in $\tau$ joining the vertex $v$ and a vertex $C^{-}$. All the other edges in $\tau$ are edges joining a vertex $C^{-}$to $B^{-}$or a vertex $B^{+}$to $C^{+}$. For each non-standard bivalent vertex $v^{\prime} \in B(\tau), \epsilon\left(v^{\prime}\right)$ is positive. note that $\tau$ has exactly one terminal vertex.
3. A subtree $\tau$ of $N(\kappa)$ with all the edges are edges joining a vertex $C^{-}$to $B^{-}$and a vertex $B^{+}$to $C^{+}$. For each non-standard bivalent vertex $v^{\prime} \in B(\tau), \epsilon\left(v^{\prime}\right)$ is positive. Note that $\tau$ has two terminal vertices.

Proposition 6.3.8. The sequence $S_{n}$ of geosphere laminations in $L(M)$ converges to the the set $\Gamma$ in $C(\widetilde{M})$.

Proof. Let $\kappa$ be any subtree of $T$ such that each terminal vertex $\kappa$ is a trivalent vertex of $T$. If $\kappa$ is trivial, then $\kappa$ is a vertex $v$ of $T$ which is trivalent $T$. For such $\kappa$, we have $N(\kappa)=\kappa$. Then, the set $r e s_{\kappa}(\Gamma)=\{\kappa, \phi\}=\{\{v\}, \phi\}$. Then, for any geosphere lamination $S_{n}$, we have a lift $\widetilde{S_{n}}=\left(\tau^{n}, \epsilon^{n}, e_{+}^{n}\right)$ such that $v$ is a terminal vertex of $\tau^{n}$. So, the set $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(S_{n}\right)=\{\{v\}, \phi\}$ and hence, $S_{n} \in \mathcal{U}\left(\kappa, r e s_{\kappa}(\Gamma)\right)$, for all $n$.

Now, for a non-trivial finite subtree $\kappa$ of $T, N(\kappa)$ contains both $Y_{P_{1}}$ and $Y_{P_{2}}$ type of subtrees of $T$. If diameter of $N(\kappa)$ is $D$, then we consider all $n \geq 2 D+4$.

Let $\beta=\left(\tau^{\beta}, \epsilon^{\beta}, e_{+}^{\beta}\right)$ be an element of type (1) in $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}(\Gamma)$. We choose a lift $\widetilde{S_{n}}=\left(\tau^{n}, \epsilon^{n}, e_{+}^{n}\right)$ of $S_{n}$ such that $\tau^{n}$ has a terminal vertex (which is a trivalent vertex) in a $Y_{P_{1}}$ type of subtree of $N(\kappa)$ where $\tau^{\beta}$ has its terminal vertex. Then, as diameter of $\tau^{n} \geq 2 D+4$, the other terminal vertex of $\tau^{n}$ does not lie inside $N(\kappa)$ and $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\widetilde{S_{n}}\right)=\beta$. Similarly, given an element $\beta=\left(\tau^{\beta}, \epsilon^{\beta}, e_{+}^{\beta}\right)$ of type (2) in $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}(\Gamma)$, if we choose a lift $\widetilde{S_{n}}=\left(\tau^{n}, \epsilon^{n}, e_{+}^{n}\right)$ of $S_{n}$ such that $\tau^{n}$ has a terminal vertex (which is a trivalent vertex) in a $Y_{P_{2}}$ type of subtree of $N(\kappa)$ where $\tau^{\beta}$ has its terminal vertex, then $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\widetilde{S_{n}}\right)=\beta$.

Let $\beta=\left(\tau^{\beta}, \epsilon^{\beta}, e_{+}^{\beta}\right)$ be an element of type (3) in $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}(\Gamma)$. Let $v$ be terminal vertex of $\tau^{\beta}$. Note that $v$ is a standard bivalent vertex of $T$ and also a terminal vertex of $N(\kappa)$. If $v$ is a terminal vertex of a $Y_{P_{1}}$ type of subtree contained inside $N(\kappa)$, then $v$ is either a $B^{+}$or a $C^{+}$vertex in $N(\kappa) \cap Y_{P_{1}}$. If $v$ is a $C^{+}$vertex, then consider the $Y_{P_{2}}$ type subtree $P^{\prime}$ of $T$ containing $v$. Note that $P^{\prime}$ is such a unique $Y_{P_{2}}$ type of subtree. If we consider a lift $\widetilde{S_{n}}$ such that $\tau^{n}$ has a terminal vertex (which is a trivalent vertex) in $P^{\prime}$, then as diameter of $\tau^{n} \geq 2 D+4$, the other terminal vertex of $\tau^{n}$ also does not lie inside $N(\kappa)$ and $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\widetilde{S_{n}}\right)=\beta$. Now, Suppose $v$ is a $B^{+}$vertex. Let $P^{\prime \prime}$ be a $Y_{P_{2}}$ type of subtree of $T$ containing $v$ and let $P^{\prime \prime \prime}$ be a $Y_{P_{1}}$ type of subtree of $T$ such that $P^{\prime \prime}$ and $P^{\prime \prime \prime}$ share a vertex $v^{\prime}$ which corresponds to a $C^{-}$ vertex in $P^{\prime \prime}$ and $C^{+}$vertex in $P^{\prime \prime \prime}$. If we choose a lift $\widetilde{S_{n}}$ such that $\tau^{n}$ has a terminal vertex (which is a trivalent vertex) in $P^{\prime \prime \prime}$, then as diameter of $\tau^{n} \geq 2 D+4$, the other terminal vertex of $\tau^{n}$ also does not lie inside $N(\kappa)$ and $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\widetilde{S_{n}}\right)=\beta$.

Similarly, we consider the cases where $v$ corresponds to $B^{-}$and $C^{-}$type of vertices of some $Y_{P_{2}}$ contained in $N(K)$. As for a lift $\widetilde{S_{n}}=\left(\tau^{n}, \epsilon^{n}, e_{+}^{n}\right)$ of $S_{n}$ only finitely many translates of $\tau^{n}$ intersects $N(\kappa$, empty graph is also an element of $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\widetilde{S_{n}}\right)$. Thus, for any $n \geq 2 D+4, \operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\widetilde{S_{n}}\right)=r e s_{\kappa}(\Gamma)$. This implies $S_{n} \in \mathcal{U}\left(\kappa, \operatorname{res}_{\kappa}(\Gamma)\right)$, for all $n \geq 4 D+4$. Hence, the sequence $S_{n}$ of geosphere converges to $\Gamma$ in $C(\widetilde{M})$.

In the above example, the geosphere lamination $\Gamma$ is not minimal as it contains a sublamination $\Gamma^{\prime}$ which consists of all the geospheres of type (3). It is not maximal as it is a sublamination of the geosphere lamination $\Gamma \cup A$.
6.3.5 Example of a geosphere lamination not in the closure of $S_{0}(M)$

Now, consider a subset $\Gamma_{0}=\left\{\sigma_{o}\right\}$, where $\sigma_{o}=\left(\tau_{0}, \epsilon_{0}, e_{o+}\right)$ is geosphere such that $\tau_{0}=T$. Then, $\tau_{0}$ has no terminal as well as non-standard bivalent vertices. The set $\Gamma_{0}$ is clearly a geosphere lamination and it is minimal. For $\sigma_{o}, E^{\infty}\left(\sigma_{0}\right)=E(T)$ and $E^{+}\left(\sigma_{0}\right)=\phi=E^{-}\left(\sigma_{0}\right)$. For any type (3) geosphere $\sigma^{\prime \prime}, E^{\infty}\left(\sigma^{\prime \prime}\right)$ contains only two elements. The set $E^{+}\left(\sigma^{\prime \prime}\right)$ is non-empty and $E^{-}\left(\sigma^{\prime \prime}\right)=\phi$. Then, we have

$$
E^{ \pm}\left(\sigma_{0}\right) \cap\left(E^{ \pm}(\sigma) \cup E^{\infty}\left(\sigma^{2}\right)\right)=\phi
$$

and

$$
E^{-}\left(\sigma^{\prime \prime}\right) \cap\left(E^{ \pm}\left(\sigma_{0}\right) \cup E^{\infty}\left(\sigma_{0}\right)\right)=\phi .
$$

This implies $\sigma_{0}$ and any geosphere of type (3) do not cross. Thus, the geosphere lamination $\Gamma_{0}$ not maximal as the it is a sublamination of the geosphere lamination $\Gamma_{o} \cup \Gamma^{\prime}$.

For any subtree $\kappa$ of $T, \tau_{0} \cap N(\kappa)=N(\kappa)$. The set $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\Gamma_{o}\right)$ contains exactly one element which is not an empty graph of $G S(\kappa)$. But for any normal sphere $S$ in $M$, the set $r e s_{\kappa}(S)$, restriction of the geosphere lamination $S$ to $\kappa$, contains the element empty graph of $G S(\kappa)$. Thus, for any subtree $\kappa$ of $T$, $\mathcal{U}\left(\kappa, \operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(\Gamma_{0}\right)\right)$ does not contain any geosphere lamination given by a sphere in $M$. Hence, $\Gamma_{0}$ can not be limit of a sequence of geosphere laminations in $S_{0}(M) \subset L(M)$.

### 6.4 Compactness for geosphere laminations

Our main result concerning geosphere laminations is the following compactness theorem.
Theorem 6.4.1. The spaces $L(M)$ and $C(\widetilde{M})$ are compact.
Proof. First observe that as $L(M)$ is a closed subset of $C(\widetilde{M})$, it suffices to show that $C(\widetilde{M})$ is compact. Further, as $C(\widetilde{M})$ is second countable and Hausdorff, it suffices to show that any sequence $\Gamma_{i} \in C(\widetilde{M})$ has a convergent subsequence.

As in the proof of Theorem 6.1.6, let $\kappa_{i}$ be an exhaustion of $T$ by finite subtrees. Observe that $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{1}}\left(\Gamma_{i}\right) \in G S\left(\kappa_{i}\right)$ is contained in a finite set, namely the set of subsets of $G S\left(\kappa_{i}\right)$. Hence, passing to a subsequence, we can assume that this is constant. Similarly, passing to a further subsequence, we can assume that $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{j}}\left(\Gamma_{i}\right)$ is constant for each successive integer $j$. Iterating this and passing to a diagonal subsequence, we obtain a sequence, which we also denote $\Gamma_{i}$, so that the restriction of $\Gamma_{i}$ to each of the sets $\kappa_{i}$ is eventually constant. More concretely, we can assume that for $j, k \geq i, \operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\Gamma_{j}\right)=\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\Gamma_{k}\right)=\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\Gamma_{i}\right)$.

We claim that the subsequence $\Gamma_{i}$ constructed as above has a limit $\Gamma_{0}$. Let $X_{i}=\{\sigma \in G S(\widetilde{M})$ : $\left.\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}(\sigma) \in \operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\Gamma_{i}\right)\right\}$. It is immediate that $\Gamma_{i} \subset X_{i}$. We let $\Gamma_{0}=\cap_{i} X_{i}$.

We claim that $\Gamma_{i} \rightarrow \Gamma_{0}$. As the finite trees $\kappa_{i}$ form an exhaustion, it suffices to show that for $j$ sufficiently large, $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\Gamma_{j}\right)=\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\Gamma_{0}\right)$. We show this for $j \geq i$.

Observe that for $j \geq i, X_{j} \subset X_{i}$. This is because if $\sigma \in X_{j}$, by definition there is a geosphere $\sigma^{\prime} \in \Gamma_{j}$ with $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{j}}(\sigma)=\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{j}}\left(\sigma^{\prime}\right)$. As $\kappa_{i} \subset \kappa_{j}$, it follows that $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}(\sigma)=\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\sigma^{\prime}\right)$ and hence $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}(\sigma) \in$ $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\Gamma_{j}\right)=\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\Gamma_{i}\right)$, hence $\sigma \in X_{i}$. As $\sigma \in X_{j}$ was arbitrary, $X_{j} \subset X_{i}$.

Next, note that $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\Gamma_{j}\right)=\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\Gamma_{i}\right)$ for $j \geq i$. Hence, we are reduced to showing that $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\Gamma_{j}\right)=$ $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\Gamma_{0}\right)$. Firstly, as $\Gamma_{0} \subset X_{i}$ and for $\sigma \in X_{i}, \operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}(\sigma) \in \operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\Gamma_{i}\right)$, we have $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\Gamma_{0}\right) \subset \operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\Gamma_{i}\right)$.

Conversely, suppose $\sigma_{0} \in \operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\Gamma_{i}\right)$, and without loss of generality, $\sigma_{0}$ is not trivial. Then, as $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\Gamma_{j}\right)=$ $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\Gamma_{i}\right)$ for $j \geq i$ and $\Gamma_{j} \subset X_{j}, \sigma_{0} \in \operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(X_{j}\right)$. Hence, for $j \geq i$, there is an element $\sigma_{j} \in X_{j}$ with $r e s_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\sigma_{j}\right)=\sigma_{0}$.

By the compactness theorem, Theorem 6.1.6, there is a subsequence $\sigma_{n_{j}}$ that converges to a geosphere $\sigma$. By construction $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}(\sigma)=\sigma_{0}$. We finish the proof by showing that $\sigma \in \Gamma_{0}$, hence $\sigma_{0} \in \operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\Gamma_{0}\right)$.

Assume without loss of generality that $n_{j} \geq j$ for all $j$. Hence, if $j \geq i$ is fixed, for $k \geq j, \sigma_{n_{k}} \in$ $X_{n_{k}} \subset X_{j}$. As $X_{j}$ is closed and $\sigma_{n_{k}} \rightarrow \sigma, \sigma \in X_{j}$. As $j \geq i$ was arbitrary, $\sigma \in \cap_{j} X_{j}=\Gamma_{0}$. Thus, $\sigma_{0}=\operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}(\sigma) \in \operatorname{res}_{\kappa_{i}}\left(\Gamma_{0}\right)$.

Thus, we can extract limits of geosphere laminations, in particular those of collections of spheres. For this construction to be useful, one would like the limit to be non-trivial. This turns out to be automatic for geosphere laminations in $M$.

Proposition 6.4.2. The empty subset $\phi \in L(M)$ is an isolated point.

Proof. As $\pi_{1}(M)$ acts cocompactly on $T$, there is a finite tree $\kappa$ such that the translates of $\kappa$ cover $T$. Let $\mathcal{U}$ be the open set in $C(\widetilde{M})$ given by $\mathcal{U}=\left\{\Gamma \in C(\widetilde{M})\right.$ : $\left.\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}(\sigma)=\phi\right\}$. Clearly, $\phi \in \mathcal{U}$ for the empty lamination $\phi$. We shall show that if $\Gamma \in L(M)$ and $\Gamma \neq \phi$, then $\Gamma \notin \mathcal{U}$.

Suppose $\Gamma \in L(M)$ is non-trivial, and let $\sigma \in \Gamma$ be a geosphere. Let $v$ be a vertex in the tree $\tau$ corresponding to $\sigma$. Then, as the translates of $\kappa$ cover $T, v \in g \kappa$ for some $g \in \pi_{1}(M)$. Hence, $g^{-1} v \in \kappa$, which implies that $g^{-1} \tau \cap \kappa \neq \phi$.

It follows that $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}\left(g^{-1} \Gamma\right) \neq \phi$. But, as $\Gamma \in L(M), g^{-1} \Gamma=\Gamma$ and hence, $\operatorname{res}_{\kappa}(\Gamma) \neq \phi$, i.e., $\Gamma \notin \mathcal{U}$ as claimed.

### 6.5 Geospheres and partitions

The definition of geospheres a priori depends on the choice of standard spheres for $M$. However, we show that geospheres can be defined intrinsically by showing that they are determined by the partition of the space of ends.

As we have seen that every geosphere $\sigma=\left(\tau, \epsilon, e_{+}\right)$corresponds to a partition of the set of $E(\widetilde{M})$ of ends of $\widetilde{M}$ in to three sets $E^{+}(\sigma), E^{-}(\sigma)$ and $E^{\infty}(\sigma)$. If $\tau$ is a finite tree, then $E^{\infty}(\sigma)=\phi$. If $\tau=T$, then $E^{\infty}=E(\widetilde{M})$ and $E^{+}(\sigma)=E^{-}(\sigma)=\phi$. In general, we get a partition with $E^{ \pm}(\Sigma)$ open sets and $E^{\infty}(\Sigma)$ a closed set.

We show that any such partition corresponds to a geosphere.
Theorem 6.5.1. Given a partition $E(\widetilde{M})=E^{+} \cup E^{-} \cup E^{\infty}$ of the ends of $M$ (hence of $T$ ) into disjoint sets so that $E^{ \pm}$are open (and hence $E^{\infty}$ is closed) so that either $E^{\infty}$ has at least two points or both $E^{+}$ and $E^{-}$are non-empty, there is a geosphere $\sigma=\left(\tau, \epsilon, e_{+}\right)$so that $E^{ \pm}(\Sigma)=E^{ \pm}$and $E^{\infty}(\Sigma)=E^{\infty}$

The proof is a slight extension of the proof of Theorem 5.1.1. We denote this partition of $E(\widetilde{M})$ by $A=\left(E^{+}, E^{-}, E^{\infty}\right)=\left(E^{+}(A), E^{-}(A), E^{\infty}(A)\right)$. We note that it makes sense to talk of partitions crossing (as in the Definition 6.2.1).

Firstly, we associate a subgraph $\tau$ of $T$ to $A$ as in the Section 5.1 as follows: If $A$ crosses standard sphere $\widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}$, then $\tau$ contains the bivalent vertex $v_{i}$ corresponding to $\widetilde{\Sigma_{i}}$ and the edges $e_{1}^{i}$ and $e_{2}^{i}$ containing that vertex $v_{i}$. The other end vertex $v_{j}^{i}$ of each edge $e_{j}^{i}, j=1,2$, is a trivalent vertex in $T$ which corresponds to a component of $\widetilde{M}-\widetilde{\Sigma}$. Each $v_{j}^{i}$ may be a bivalent or univalent or a trivalent vertex in $\tau$. If $A$ does not cross some standard sphere in $\widetilde{M}$, then $\tau$ does not contain the standard vertex corresponding this standard sphere and hence, it does not contain the edges containing this standard vertex.

Lemma 6.5.2. If the partition $A$ does not cross any standard sphere in $\widetilde{M}$, then $E^{\infty}(A)=\phi$ and there exists a standard sphere $\Sigma_{0}$ such that $E^{ \pm}=E^{ \pm}\left(\Sigma_{0}\right)$.

Proof. Firstly we shall show that $E^{\infty}(A)=\phi$. Suppose $E^{\infty}(A) \neq \phi$. Let $P \in E^{\infty}$. Suppose $E^{\infty}$ has another point $Q$, we consider the geodesic $\gamma \subset T$ from $P$ to $Q$. Given any edge $e$ of $\gamma$, if $\Sigma(e)$ is the
standard sphere corresponding to the standard vertex of $e$ oriented appropriately, then $P \in E^{-}(\Sigma(e))$ and $Q \in E^{+}(\Sigma(e))$. Hence, $\Sigma(e)$ crosses the given partition $A$. This contradiction to the hypothesis as $A$ does not cross any standard sphere.

On the other hand, if $P$ is the only point in $E^{\infty}(A)$, then there are points $Q^{ \pm} \in E^{ \pm}(A)$. Let $\alpha$ be the geodesic from $Q^{-}$to $Q^{+}$and let $\gamma$ be the unique geodesic ray from a point of $\alpha$ to $P$ with the property that its interior is disjoint from $\alpha$. Given any edge $e$ of $\gamma$, if $\Sigma(e)$ is the standard sphere corresponding to the standard vertex of $e$ oriented appropriately, then $P \in E^{-}(\Sigma(e))$ and $Q^{ \pm} \in E^{+}(\Sigma(e))$. Hence, $\Sigma(e)$ crosses the given partition $A$. This is contradiction to hypothesis. Therefore, $E^{\infty}(A)=\phi$.

Now, by hypothesis, if $v$ is a standard bivalent vertex of $T$, the standard sphere $\Sigma(v)$ corresponding to $v$ does not cross $A$. Hence, after choosing orientations appropriately, either $E^{+}(\Sigma(v)) \subset E^{+}(A)$ or $E^{-}(\Sigma(V)) \subset E^{-}(A)$. If $\Sigma(v)=\Sigma_{0}$ satisfies both the conditions, then $E^{ \pm}(A)=E^{ \pm}\left(\Sigma_{0}\right)$.

Suppose no $\Sigma(v)$ satisfies both the above conditions, we get a partition of bivalent vertices of $T$ as

$$
V^{+}=\left\{v: E^{+}(\Sigma(v)) \subset E^{+}(A)\right\}
$$

and

$$
V^{-}=\left\{v: E^{-}(\Sigma(v)) \subset E^{-}(A)\right\}
$$

Let $X^{ \pm}$is the union of all the edges $e$ in $T$ such that the bivalent vertex of $e$ lies in $V^{ \pm}$. Then, $X^{ \pm}$ are closed and $T=X^{+} \cup X^{-}$. Hence, $X^{+} \cap X^{-} \neq \phi$. By construction, $X^{+} \cap X^{-}$consists of trivalent vertices of $T$. Let $w \in X^{+} \cap X^{-}$and let $v_{1}, v_{2}$ and $v_{3}$ be bivalent vertices adjacent to $w$. Note that at least one $v_{i} \in X^{+}$and at least one $v_{j} \in X^{-}$. Without loss of generality, suppose $v_{1}, v_{2} \in X^{+}$and $v_{3} \in X^{-}$. Let $N(w)$ denote the set of all the points in $T$ distance at most 1 from $w$. Then, $T-N(w)$ has three components $V_{1}, V_{2}$ and $V_{3}$ whose closures contain the vertices $v_{1}, v_{2}$ and $v_{3}$, respectively. It is easy to see that $E\left(V_{1}\right) \subset E^{+}, E\left(V_{2}\right) \subset E^{+}$and $E\left(V_{3}\right) \subset E^{-}$. It follows that $E^{+}\left(\Sigma\left(v_{3}\right)\right)=E^{+}\left(\Sigma\left(v_{1}\right)\right) \cup E^{+}\left(\Sigma\left(v_{2}\right)\right)$. This implies $E^{+}\left(\Sigma\left(v_{3}\right)\right) \subset E^{+}$. As $v_{3} \in X^{-}, E^{-}\left(\Sigma\left(v_{3}\right)\right) \subset E^{-}$. But then, $v_{3} \in V^{+} \cap V^{-}$. This is a contradiction as $V^{+}$and $V^{-}$are disjoint. Hence, there must exist a standard sphere $\Sigma_{0}$ such that $E^{ \pm}(A)=E^{ \pm}\left(\Sigma_{0}\right)$.

If $A$ does not cross any standard sphere, the tree $\tau$ associated to $A$ is a standard vertex corresponding to the standard sphere representing $A$. Note that any edge $e$ in $T$ has a unique end vertex which is a standard bivalent vertex in $T$.

We make the following observations :
If the partition $A=\left(E^{+}, E^{-}, E^{\infty}\right)$ of $E(\widetilde{M})$ crosses a sphere $S=\left(E^{+}(S), E^{-}(S)\right)$ in $\widetilde{M}$, where $\left(E^{+}(S), E^{-}(S)\right)$ is a partition of $E(\widetilde{M})$ given by $S$, then all the four intersections $E^{ \pm}(S) \cap\left(E^{ \pm} \cup E^{\infty}\right)$ are non-empty. For, if $E^{\varepsilon}(S) \cap\left(E^{\eta}(A) \cup E^{\infty}(A)\right)=\phi$, for some sign $\varepsilon$ and $\eta$, then $E^{\eta}(A) \subset E^{\bar{\varepsilon}}(S)$ and hence, $E^{\eta}(A) \cap E^{\varepsilon}(S)=\phi$. This is a contradiction to the fact the partition $A$ crosses $S$.

Lemma 6.5.3. The graph $\tau$ is connected and hence, a subtree of $T$.

Proof. Suppose $S, S^{\prime}$ and $S^{\prime \prime}$ are standard spheres in $\widetilde{M}$ such that the standard bivalent vertex $v^{\prime}$ in $T$ corresponding to $S^{\prime}$ lies on the reduced path in $T$ joining the standard bivalent vertices $v$ and $v^{\prime \prime}$ in $T$ corresponding to $S$ and $S^{\prime \prime}$, respectively. By giving appropriate orientations to $S, S^{\prime}$ and $S^{\prime \prime}$, we can assume that $E^{+}\left(S^{\prime \prime}\right) \subset E^{+}\left(S^{\prime}\right) \subset E^{+}(S)$ and $E^{-}(S) \subset E^{-}\left(S^{\prime}\right) \subset E^{-}\left(S^{\prime \prime}\right)$. Now, if $A$ crosses $S$ and $S^{\prime \prime}$, then we can easily see that $A$ crosses $S^{\prime}$. This shows that the reduced path in $T$ joining $v$ and $v^{\prime \prime}$ in $T$ is completely contained in $\tau$. From this, one easily see that $\tau$ is connected and hence a subtree of $T$.

Note that the terminal vertices of $\tau$ are trivalent vertices in $T$.
If $A$ does not cross a sphere $S=\left(E^{+}(S), E^{-}(S)\right)$ in $\widetilde{M}$, where $\left(E^{+}(S), E^{-}(S)\right)$ is a partition of $E(\widetilde{M})$ given by $S$, then $E^{\varepsilon}(S) \cap\left(E^{\eta}(A) \cup E^{\infty}(A)\right)=\phi$, for some sign $\varepsilon$ and $\eta$ obtained by choosing signs $\varepsilon$ and $\eta$ in $\{+,-\}$. Then, $E^{\varepsilon}(S) \subset E^{\bar{\eta}}(A)$ and $\left(E^{\eta}(A) \cup E^{\infty}(A)\right) \subset E^{\bar{\varepsilon}}(S)$. In this case, we say $S$ is on the $\bar{\eta}$-side of $A$ and $A$ is on $\bar{\varepsilon}$-side of $S$.

Note that the tree $\tau$ may or may not have terminal vertices. Suppose $v$ is a vertex of $\tau$ adjacent to a single edge $e_{0} \in \tau$, i.e., a terminal vertex of $\tau$. Let $v_{0} \in \tau$ be the other end vertex of $e_{0}$ and $\Sigma_{0}$ be the standard sphere in $\widetilde{M}$ corresponding to $v_{0}$. Then, $A$ crosses $\Sigma_{0}$. Let the other edges adjacent to $v$ in $T$ be $e_{1}$ and $e_{2}$ with other end vertices $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$, respectively. Consider the standard spheres $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}=\tilde{\Sigma}\left(v_{i}\right)$ corresponding to vertices $v_{i}$, with orientations chosen so that for $i=1,2$, the set $E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}\right)$ is the set of ends of the component of $\widetilde{M}-\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}$ that does not contain $\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}$. We can orient $\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}$ so that $E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}\right)=E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{1}\right) \cup E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{2}\right)$.

Lemma 6.5.4. For some sign $\varepsilon, E^{\varepsilon}(A) \supset E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{1}\right)$ and $E^{\bar{\varepsilon}}(A) \supset E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{2}\right)$.
Proof. First note that for each $i, i=1,2, E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}\right) \cap E^{\infty}(A)=\phi$. For, if $E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}\right) \cap E^{\infty}(A) \neq \phi$, then $E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}\right) \cap\left(E^{ \pm}(A) \cup E^{\infty}(A)\right) \neq \phi$. As $E^{-}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}\right) \subset E^{-}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}\right)$ and $A$ crosses $\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}$, we have $E^{-}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}\right) \cap\left(E^{ \pm}(A) \cup\right.$ $\left.E^{\infty}(A)\right) \neq \phi$. This implies that $A$ crosses $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}$, which is a contradiction. Thus, $E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}\right) \cap E^{\infty}(A)=\phi$.

As $A$ does not cross the spheres $\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}$, for appropriate signs $\varepsilon_{i},\left(E^{\varepsilon_{i}}(A) \cup E^{\infty}(A)\right) \cap E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}\right)=\phi$. Then, we have $E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{i}\right) \subset E^{\overline{\varepsilon_{i}}}(A)$, for $i=1,2$. Finally, if $\varepsilon_{1}=\varepsilon_{2}=\varepsilon$, then $E^{\bar{\varepsilon}}(A) \supset E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}\right)$ as $E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}\right)=$ $E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{1}\right) \cup E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{2}\right)$. As $E^{\infty}(A) \cap E^{\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}\right)}=\phi$, we get $E^{+}\left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}\right) \cap\left(E^{\varepsilon}(A) \cup E^{\infty}(A)\right)=\phi$, contradicting the hypothesis that $A$ crosses $\tilde{\Sigma}_{0}$. Therefore, $\varepsilon_{1} \neq \varepsilon_{2}$. Hence the result.

Thus, one of the spheres $\tilde{\Sigma}_{1}$ and $\tilde{\Sigma}_{2}$ is on the positive side of $A$ and the other on the negative side. In the case of a vertex $v$ of valence 2 of $\tau$, either it is a bivalent vertex (standard vertex) of $T$ or there is an edge $e_{v}$ of $T$ adjacent to $v$ which is not in $\tau$. The standard sphere $\tilde{\Sigma}\left(e_{v}\right)$ corresponding to the other end vertex of the edge $e_{v}$ is either on the positive side of $A$ or on the negative side.

Let $N(\tau)$ be the subgraph of $T$ consisting of points with distance at most 1 from $\tau$. Then, $N(\tau)$ is a tree, which is the union of $\tau$ with the following two kinds of edges:

1. For each terminal vertex $v$ of $\tau$, we have a pair of edges $e_{1}(v) \notin \tau$ and $e_{2}(v) \notin \tau$ with $v$ as an end-vertex. Let $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ be the other end vertices of $e_{1}$ and $e_{2}$, respectively.
2. For each non-standard bivalent vertex $w$ of $\tau$, we have an edge $e(w) \notin \tau$ with $w$ as an end-vertex. Let $w_{1}$ be its other end vertex.

By Lemma 6.5.4, for a terminal vertex $v$, the sphere corresponding to one of $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ is on the positive side of $\tau$ (positive side of $A$ ). The vertices $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ are end vertices of $e_{1}$ and $e_{2}$ respectively. So, we can assign positive or negative signs to these edges accordingly. We denote this by $e_{+}(v)$ and denote the other edge (which is on the negative side) by $e_{-}(v)$. We denote the standard spheres corresponding to $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ by $\tilde{\Sigma}\left(v_{1}\right)=\tilde{\Sigma}\left(e_{1}\right)$ and $\tilde{\Sigma}\left(v_{2}\right)=\tilde{\Sigma}\left(e_{2}\right)$, respectively. For a non-standard bivalent vertex $w$ of $\tau$, we can associate a $\operatorname{sign} \epsilon(w)$ so that $\tilde{\Sigma}\left(w_{1}\right)=\tilde{\Sigma}(e(w))$ is on the $\epsilon(w)$-side of $A$. Thus, we have a triple $\sigma=\left(\tau, \epsilon, e_{+}\right)$which is geosphere in $\widetilde{M}$.

Now we shall show that $\sigma$ gives the partition $A$ of $E(\widetilde{M})$.
Lemma 6.5.5. The partition $\left(E^{+}(\sigma), E^{-}(\sigma), E^{\infty}(\sigma)\right)$ of $E(\widetilde{M})$ given by the geosphere $\sigma$ is the same as the partition $A$ of $E(\widetilde{M})$.

Proof. Let $P \in E^{+}(A)$. As $E^{+}(A)$ is open in the space of ends of $T$, there is a finite connected tree $\kappa \subset T$ and a component $V$ of $T-\kappa$ so that $P \in E(V) \subset E^{+}(A)$. We shall show that no edge of $V$ is contained in $\tau$. Let $e$ be an edge of $T$ contained in $V=T-\kappa$. Then, as $\kappa$ is connected, some component $W$ of $T-e$ is disjoint from $\kappa$, and hence contained in $V$. Suppose $v$ is the end vertex of $e$ such that $v$ is a standard bivalent vertex in $T$. Let $\Sigma(v)$ be the standard sphere corresponding to $v$, then it follows that for some $\operatorname{sign} \varepsilon, E^{\varepsilon}(\Sigma(v)) \subset E(V) \subset E^{+}(A)$, and hence, $\Sigma(v)$ does not cross $A$. This implies $v$ is not in $\tau$. It follows that $e$ is not in $\tau$. Thus, no edge of $V$ is in $\tau$, as required.

Let $W_{0}$ be the component of $T-\tau$ that contains $V$. Then, the closure of $W_{0}$ intersects $\tau$ in a single vertex, which is either a terminal vertex or a non-standard bivalent vertex. In either case, $E\left(W_{0}\right) \subset E^{+}(\sigma)$ by construction of the partition associated to a geosphere. Then, as $P \in E(V) \subset E\left(W_{0}\right), P \in E^{+}(\sigma)$. Thus, $E^{ \pm} \subset E^{ \pm}(\sigma)$.

We next show that $E^{\infty}(A) \subset E^{\infty}(\sigma)$. Let $P \in E^{\infty}(A)$. Suppose $E^{\infty}(A)$ has another point $Q$, we consider the geodesic $\gamma \subset T$ from $P$ to $Q$. Given any edge $e$ of $\gamma$, if $\Sigma(e)$ is the standard sphere corresponding to the standard vertex of $e$ oriented appropriately, then $P \in E^{-}(\Sigma(e))$ and $Q \in E^{+}(\Sigma(e))$. Hence, $\Sigma(e)$ crosses the given partition $A$, so $v \in \tau$ and hence, $e \in \tau$. Thus, $\gamma \subset \tau$ and hence $P \in E^{\infty}(\tau)$.

On the other hand, if $P$ is the only point in $E^{\infty}(A)$, then there are points $Q^{ \pm} \in E^{ \pm}(A)$. Let $\alpha$ be the geodesic from $Q^{-}$to $Q^{+}$and let $\gamma$ be the unique geodesic ray from a point of $\alpha$ to $P$ with the property that its interior is disjoint from $\alpha$. Given any edge $e$ of $\gamma$, if $\Sigma(e)$ is the standard sphere corresponding to the standard vertex of $e$ oriented appropriately, then $P \in E^{-}(\Sigma(e))$ and $Q^{ \pm} \in E^{+}(\Sigma(e))$. Hence, $\Sigma(e)$ crosses the given partition $A$, so $e \in \tau$. Thus, $\gamma \subset \tau$ and hence, $P \in E^{\infty}(\tau)$.

This shows that $E^{\infty}(A) \subset E^{\infty}(\sigma)$. Thus, as $\left(E^{+}(\sigma), E^{-}(\sigma), E^{\infty}(\sigma)\right)$ and $A$ form partitions of $E(\widetilde{M})$, both are the same.

From this, Theorem 6.5.1 follows.

## 7. FURTHER DIRECTIONS...

In this chapter, we see our further plans of work
The geometric intersection number of curves on surfaces has been used to study Thurston compactification of Teichmüller space of a surface and the boundary of Teichmüller space, namely the space of projectivised measured laminations. Geodesic laminations (and measured laminations) on surfaces have proved to be very fruitful in three-manifold topology, Teichmüller theory and related areas and mapping class group of a surface. By Dehn-Nielsen-Baer theorem, the mapping class group of a surface $S$ of positive genus is isomorphic to the group of outer automorphisms of $\pi_{1}(S)$.

Culler and Vogtmann [7], introduced a space $X_{n}$ on which the group $\operatorname{Out}\left(\mathbb{F}_{n}\right)$ acts with finite point stabilizers, and proved that $X_{n}$ is contractible. Peter Shalen later invented the name "Outer space" for $X_{n}$. Outer space with the action of $\operatorname{Out}\left(\mathbb{F}_{n}\right)$ can be thought of as free group analogous to the Teichmüller space of a surface with the action of the mapping class group of the surface. Culler and Morgan have constructed a compactification of Outer space much like Thurston compactification of Teichmüller space [6].

We are trying to develop techniques to study sphere complex, $\operatorname{Out}\left(\mathbb{F}_{n}\right)$, Outer space of a free group analogous to simple closed curves on a surface, intersection numbers, geodesic laminations, measured laminations, curve complex used to study mapping class group of a surface.

We can ask the following questions:
(1) What are the isolated points of the space $L(M)$ of geosphere laminations of $M$ ? Given a space $X$, we can define $X_{w}$ to be the set of accumulation points of $X$. This inductively gives sequences $X \supset X_{w} \supset$ $\left(X_{w}\right)_{w} \supset \cdots$. What is this for $L(M)$ and for the space $G S(\widetilde{M})$ of geospheres in $\widetilde{M}$ ?
(2) Given any embedded sphere $S$ in normal form with respect to $\Sigma$ in $M$, we have a geosphere lamination associated to it, namely, the inverse image of $S$ in $\widetilde{M}$ under the covering map. So, we can regard $S$ as a geosphere lamination in $M$. Let $S_{0}(M)$ be the set of isotopy classes spheres in $M$. Then, $S_{0}(M)$ can be considered as subset of $L(M)$. What is the closure of $S_{0}(M)$ in $L(M)$ ?
(3) Geosphere can be defined as a partition of the set of ends of $\widetilde{M}$. Put appropriate topology on the set of such partitions and show that the topology on the geosphere defined earlier and this topology are the same. Define notion of geosphere laminations independent of the maximal sphere system in $M$. Study geosphere laminations in this set up.
(4) Define intersection number for geospheres and geosphere laminations and study this intersection
number.
(5) Introduce concept of measured geosphere laminations and study its connection with the boundary of Outer space of a free group.
(6) Use geosphere laminations and measured geosphere laminations to study $\operatorname{Out}\left(\mathbb{F}_{n}\right)$ and try to connect this with the work of Bestivina and Handle, [1], [3], [2], [4].
(7) Embedded sphere in $M$ corresponds to splittings of free group. What are geosphere in algebraic setting?
(8) The geometric intersection number of curves on a surface has been used to give constructions like the space of measured laminations whose projectivization is the boundary of Teichmüller space, [35], as well as to study geometric properties, including hyperbolicity of the curve complex in [5], [36]. One may hope that the geometric intersection number of embedded spheres in $M$ might be useful to give such constructions in case of the sphere complex and Outer space.

Study Scott-Swarup intersection number of spheres in more details.
(9) Define multiplicative structure of spheres and study it.
(10) Study hyperbolicity of sphere complex. See whether sphere complex is $\delta$-hyperbolic in the sense of Gromov or not.
(11) Define the analogue of geodesic currents so that the geosphere laminations are geodesic currents with self intersection number zero. Is there an analogue of Teichmüller space? (12) What is the structure of a geosphere lamination, in particular in terms of its sublaminations?
(13) Given $\phi \in \operatorname{Out}\left(\pi_{1}(M)\right)$, relate limits of $\phi^{n}(\Sigma)$, where $\Sigma$ is sphere in $M$, with the structure of outer automorphism.

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