

EXPLORING THE TOPOLOGY OF SPACES OF POLYNOMIALS VIA VECTOR BUNDLE THEORY

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ABSTRACT. This paper is partially expository but contains some original work. The results of this paper come out of joint work with Nir Gadish and Peter Haine. We give an exposition of a beautiful correspondence between configuration spaces, polynomials, and braid groups. This correspondence is used to show the existence of a real vector bundle ξ_n over the space of monic, square-free, degree n , polynomials $Poly_n(\mathbb{C})$. We then outline a trivialization atlas for ξ_n and use it to discuss $Poly_n(\mathbb{C})$ in the case $n = 2$.

CONTENTS

1. Background	1
1.1. The Artin Braid Group B_n	2
1.2. Connecting B_n to Polynomials	4
2. Preliminaries and Motivation	5
3. CW Complex Structure of $Poly_n(\mathbb{C})^*$	6
4. Local Trivializations of ξ_n	7
5. Examples and Computations	9
Appendix A. An algorithm for producing stripwise orders.	9
Acknowledgments	10
References	10

1. BACKGROUND

It would not take much to convince the reader that polynomials have been important objects of study for mathematicians for many years. It comes as a surprise that there is still much that we do not know about polynomials. This paper is the result of a project that aimed at using vector bundle theory to explore the topology of certain spaces of polynomials. This, on the surface, seems like a very strange idea. What do vector bundles have to do with polynomials? In order to see the connection, we need to explore a bit of background. The following is a retelling of a beautiful story that links certain classes of polynomials to other important mathematical structures.

This paper is concerned with the space of monic, square-free, degree n , polynomials with complex coefficients which we will call $Poly_n(\mathbb{C})$. The square-free condition in conjunction with the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra tells us that that polynomials in $Poly_n(\mathbb{C})$ factor into n *distinct* complex roots. A polynomial

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being square free is not enough to guarantee that these n distinct roots are unique to the polynomial. Non-monic polynomials can have the same roots as other polynomials (e.g. $x^2 - 1$ and $2x^2 - 2$). However, two monic polynomials have the same roots if and only if they are equal.

These spaces of polynomials are intimately connected to certain types of configuration spaces.

Definition 1.1. Let M be a connected manifold. The **ordered configuration space** of n elements is the subspace of M^n given by

$$\text{Conf}_n(\mathbb{C}) := \{(z_1, \dots, z_n) : z_i \in M, z_i \neq z_j \text{ for } i \neq j\}$$

Configuration spaces have found applications in many contexts inside and outside of mathematics including robotics and particle physics. The ordered configuration space is used when we want to distinguish two points in a configuration from each other. If one does not wish to distinguish the points in the configuration, one can simply factor out the action of the symmetric group.

Construction 1.2. The symmetric group on n elements, Σ_n , acts on $\text{Conf}_n(M)$ as follows

$$\sigma(z_1, \dots, z_n) = (z_{\sigma^{-1}(1)}, \dots, z_{\sigma^{-1}(n)}), \forall \sigma \in \Sigma_n$$

We define the **unordered configuration space**, $U\text{Conf}_n(M)$, as the orbit space $\text{Conf}_n(M)/\Sigma_n$ of this action. We write $U\text{Conf}_n(M) = \{Z \subset \mathbb{C} : |Z| = n\}$.

Now we will stop to think about $\text{Poly}_n(\mathbb{C})$. What is an element $p(x) \in \text{Poly}_n(\mathbb{C})$ but an unordered list of n complex roots? This data is all we need to characterize the polynomial. Thus, immediately, an interesting bridge between worlds appears.

Theorem 1.3. $U\text{Conf}_n\mathbb{C} \cong \text{Poly}_n(\mathbb{C})$ in the category of topological spaces

Proof. Given a set of distinct unordered points $\{z_1, \dots, z_n\} \in U\text{Conf}_n(\mathbb{C})$ we construct the polynomial $p(x) = \prod_{i=1}^n (x - z_i)$. This polynomial is obviously monic and square-free by construction. Moreover, $\deg p(x) = n$ and thus $p(x) \in \text{Poly}_n(\mathbb{C})$. Now, take $f(x) \in \text{Poly}_n(\mathbb{C})$. Since \mathbb{C} is algebraically closed, we may assume $f(x) = \prod_{i=1}^n (x - z_i)$. We let $z = \{z_i\}$ the set of roots of $f(x)$. Since $f(x)$ is square free, each z_i is distinct and thus $z \in U\text{Conf}_n(\mathbb{C})$. Using the above processes, we can construct a continuous bijective function: $g : \text{Poly}_n(\mathbb{C}) \rightarrow U\text{Conf}_n(\mathbb{C})$ with continuous inverse $g^{-1} : U\text{Conf}_n(\mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \text{Poly}_n(\mathbb{C})$ making g a homeomorphism. \square

Now we know that we can discuss unordered point configurations in the complex plane and certain types of polynomials as one and the same. Visualizing a polynomial as an unordered configuration of its roots in the complex plane gives us a convenient way to discuss the shape of $\text{Poly}_n(\mathbb{C})$.

1.1. **The Artin Braid Group B_n .** In a world seemingly separate from Polynomials and configuration spaces we have the Artin Braid Group on n strands. This group, denoted B_n can be intuitively defined with a few pictures. Imagine taking two strands and crossing one over the other. We then lock the endpoints of the strands in place. The result might look something like this:

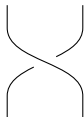


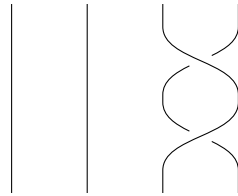
Figure 1: A “braid” or an element $\sigma \in B_2$.

Indeed, B_n has the structure of a group. We compose two braids on n strands by gluing the ends of the strands of one braid to the top of the strands of the other.



The result of gluing σ above to itself

Finally, we want to say that two braids are equivalent if we can deform one into the other without permuting the endpoints.



Two equivalent braids.

We can “comb” the right braid until it looks like the left.

The above description of B_n is intuitive but not rigorous. We would like a formalism that would allow us to unambiguously define B_n in a way that still fits our intuition. There are many ways to do this, but the most illuminating formalism for our purposes is its realization as particle dances which we borrow from [7].

Definition 1.4. An n -particle dance is a trajectory of complex numbers beginning and ending at integer points $\{1, \dots, n\}$ i.e. a function $\beta : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^n$:

$$\beta(t) = (\beta_1(t), \dots, \beta_n(t)), \beta_i(t) \neq \beta_j(t) \text{ for } i \neq j$$

with $\beta(0) = (1, \dots, n)$ and $\beta(1) = (\sigma^{-1}(1), \dots, \sigma^{-1}(n))$ for some unique $\sigma \in \Sigma_n$. σ is called the permutation of the particle dance.

With a bit of thought, one can convince themselves that particle dances trace out braid-like objects in the space $[0, 1] \times \mathbb{C}$. Using this formalism we can define our group operation: composition of particle dances.

Remark 1.5. Given two particle dances $\alpha(t)$ and $\beta(t)$, we can construct another particle dance $\gamma(t)$ given by:

$$\gamma(t) = \begin{cases} \alpha(2t) & \text{for } 0 \leq t < 1/2 \\ \beta(2t - 1) & \text{for } 1/2 \leq t \leq 1 \end{cases}$$

We write $\gamma = \alpha * \beta$

Now to formalize equivalent braids. Obviously similar trajectories will result in similar particle dances. We need a bit of language from homotopy theory to discuss this similarity.

Definition 1.6. A homotopy between two continuous maps of spaces $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$ is a continuous function $h : I \times X \rightarrow Y$ such that $h(0, x) = f(x)$ and $h(1, x) = g(x)$. If such a function exists, we say f is homotopic to g and write $f \simeq g$.

Remark 1.7. \simeq is an equivalence relation on the set of continuous maps $X \rightarrow Y$. The equivalence classes of this relation are called homotopy classes.

Now we have a simple definition.

Definition 1.8. A braid b is a representative of a homotopy class of particle dances. Thus two braids are equivalent if their corresponding particle dances belong to the same homotopy class.

We can now make a simple observation.

Proposition 1.9. *Two equivalent particle dances, and thus braids, have the same permutation.*

Construction 1.10. The braid group on n strands, denoted B_n , is the group of braids under group operation $*$ (particle dance composition).

Remark 1.11. B_n satisfies all the properties of a group.

1.2. Connecting B_n to Polynomials. As we stated before, this paper is about polynomials. We will now justify the exposition of braids by reconnecting them to $Poly_n(\mathbb{C})$. This is done via the theory of classifying spaces which we will now outline.

Definition 1.12. A topological group G is a group that is also a topological space. In addition, we require that the group operation $*$: $G \times G \rightarrow G$ and inversion $()^{-1} : G \rightarrow G$ are continuous functions.

Remark 1.13. Every group is a topological group when given the discrete topology.

We can associate to each topological group G a topological space called the “classifying space” of G which we will denote by BG . A classical construction of the classifying space of G is Milnor’s construction first outlined in [9]. For our purposes, the most important part of the theory of classifying spaces is that they are functorial. Given a group homomorphism ϕ between two topological groups G and H , we may associate a continuous function $B\phi : BG \rightarrow BH$ between their classifying spaces. We will use functoriality in Section 2.

If G is given the discrete topology, a classifying space BG is an example of an important object in algebraic topology, a $K(G, 1)$ space. These spaces are completely characterized by their homotopy type.

Definition 1.14. The n th homotopy group of a path-connected space X , $\pi_n(X, x_0)$, is the group of homotopy classes of maps $g : [0, 1]^n \rightarrow X$ such that $g(\partial[0, 1]^n) = x_0 \in X$ with group operation $*$ defined by:

$$(f * g)(t) = \begin{cases} f(2t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n) & \text{for } 0 \leq t_1 < 1/2 \\ g(2t_1 - 1, t_2, \dots, t_n) & \text{for } 1/2 \leq t_1 \leq 1 \end{cases}$$

A space is said to be weakly contractible if all of its homotopy groups are trivial.

Remark 1.15. $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ is the group of homotopy classes of loops beginning and ending at x_0 .

Definition 1.16. A $K(G, 1)$ -space X is a path-connected space with $\pi_1(X) = G$ and $\pi_i(X) = 0, \forall i > 1$.

Indeed, the importance of these spaces is apparent with the following construction.

Construction 1.17. (Mod 2 Group Cohomology) We define the group cohomology with coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ as

$$H^*(G; \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) := H^*(K(G, 1); \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})$$

Because group cohomology of G is defined as the cohomology of $K(G, 1)$ spaces, the study of these spaces is motivated by the study of their corresponding groups. With the following theorem, we will connect the world of braids to the world of polynomials.

Theorem 1.18. $UConf_n(\mathbb{C})$ is a classifying space for B_n and thus a $K(B_n, 1)$ space.

There are many proofs of this statement which go beyond the scope of this paper. We would like to point the reader to [1] for one example of a proof. The reader however can see this intuitively. It's easy to see that $UConf_n(\mathbb{C})$ is path connected. Thus our choice of x_0 is arbitrary. If we choose $x_0 = \{1, \dots, n\} \in UConf_n(\mathbb{C})$ we can see that a loop beginning and ending at x_0 is, by definition, a particle dance. Thus it is easy to see that $\pi_1(UConf_n(\mathbb{C})) \cong \pi_1(Poly_n(\mathbb{C})) = B_n$.

V.I. Arnol'd demonstrated and used this theorem in [2] in order to study the Cohomology of B_n with integer coefficients. This theorem was also used to study polynomials in [3] via Theorem 1.3. This paper builds on some of the work of D.B. Fuks in order to study polynomials from the perspective of vector bundle theory.

2. PRELIMINARIES AND MOTIVATION

We require a bit of the language from the theory of vector bundles in order to discuss how we can use the information described in the background to study polynomials. We begin by defining a vector bundle.

Definition 2.1. A **real vector bundle** is a 4-tuple (F, E, B, π) where $\pi : E \rightarrow B$ is a continuous map of spaces, $F_b := \pi^{-1}(b) \cong F$, and F has the structure of a real n -dimensional vector space. In addition, for every x , there exists an open neighborhood U of x and a homeomorphism $\phi : U \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \pi^{-1}(U)$, called a local trivialization, such that $\phi|_b : \{b\} \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \pi^{-1}(b)$ is an isomorphism of vector spaces. F is called the **fibre**, E the **total space**, B the **base space**, and π the **bundle map**.

For convenience, we will refer to vector bundles by their bundle maps. We will primarily be concerned with the construction of new vector bundles from old ones. The most important way of doing so, for our purposes, is via pullback bundles.

Construction 2.2. Suppose we have a vector bundle $\xi : E \rightarrow B$ and a map $f : B' \rightarrow B$. We define $E' = \{(b, e) \in B' \times E : f(b) = \xi(e)\}$. Then there exists a new bundle $f^*\xi : E' \rightarrow B'$ (called the **pullback bundle** of f) and map $\pi_2 : E' \rightarrow E$ defined by $f^*\xi(b, e) = b$ and $\pi_2(b, e) = e$, respectively. We have the following commutative diagram.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E' & \xrightarrow{\pi_2} & E \\ \downarrow f^*\xi & & \downarrow \xi \\ B' & \xrightarrow{f} & B \end{array}$$

Thus the existence of a vector bundle over a space B and a map of spaces $B' \rightarrow B$ is sufficient to construct a vector bundle over B' . We want to construct a vector bundle over $Poly_n(\mathbb{C})$ and see what it can tell us about its topology. We first need an existing vector bundle before we can even think about pullbacks. For reasons that will become clear later, the canonical bundle over the Grassmanians is precisely the bundle we need.

Definition 2.3. The **Grassmanian** $Gr(r, V)$ is the space of r -dimensional subspaces of V . For Euclidean spaces, we let $Gr(r, n) := Gr(r, \mathbb{R}^n)$. We may think of $Gr(r, n)$ as r -planes through the origin in Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n with $n = r + k$ for some k .

The reader should think of the Grassmanians as a generalization of projective space.

Example 2.4. If $n < \infty$ then $Gr(1, n + 1) \cong \mathbb{R}P^n$

Construction 2.5. Let \mathbb{R}^∞ denote the vector space of real sequences that are eventually 0. We define $Gr(r, \infty) := Gr(r, \mathbb{R}^\infty)$ which we can think of as r -planes through the origin in \mathbb{R}^∞ .

This gives us all that we need to define a simple n -dimensional vector bundle.

Construction 2.6. Let $E = \{(V, x) \in Gr(n, \infty) \times \mathbb{R}^\infty : x \in V\}$. We define $\gamma_n : E \rightarrow Gr(n, \infty)$ by $\gamma_n(V, x) = V$. Then γ_n is a real vector bundle over $Gr(n, \infty)$. We call this the **canonical \mathbb{R}^n bundle**.

Now that we have our vector bundle over $Gr(n, \infty)$, we just need a map $Poly_n(\mathbb{C}) \rightarrow Gr(n, \infty)$ in order to produce a pullback bundle. The following theorem will help us find it.

Theorem 2.7. *Let $O(n)$ be the orthogonal group (i.e. $GL(n)$ matrices Q such that $QQ^T = Q^TQ = I$). Then $Gr(n, \infty)$ is a classifying space $BO(n)$.*

Now for the crescendo. We have a sequence of group homomorphisms.

$$B_n \rightarrow \Sigma_n \rightarrow O(n)$$

The map $B_n \rightarrow \Sigma_n$ is the map that sends a braid to its permutation (in other words, it “forgets” braiding).

The map $\Sigma_n \rightarrow O(n)$ is the regular representation of Σ_n in $O(n)$ from representation theory. For $\sigma \in \Sigma_n$, this is just the matrix that results from permuting the columns of the identity matrix according to σ .

The functoriality of classifying spaces BG ensures that this chain of homomorphisms induces a chain of continuous maps.

$$BB_n \rightarrow B\Sigma_n \rightarrow BO(n)$$

As has been already established, $BB_n = Poly_n(\mathbb{C})$ and $BO(n) = Gr(n, \infty)$. Thus we have a map

$$Poly_n(\mathbb{C}) \rightarrow Gr(n, \infty)$$

This, in conjunction with the existence of γ_n , induces a vector bundle on $Poly_n(\mathbb{C})$. We call this vector bundle ξ_n .

3. CW COMPLEX STRUCTURE OF $Poly_n(\mathbb{C})^*$

We want to produce a trivialization atlas for ξ_n . To do this, we will turn to a paper by D.B. Fuks. In [4] Fuks gives $Poly_n(\mathbb{C})^*$, the one point compactification of $Poly_n(\mathbb{C})$, the structure of a CW-Complex for purposes of computing the cohomology of the B_n with $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ coefficients. This is done by passing to Poincare Isomorphism $H^*(B_n; \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) := H^*(Poly_n(\mathbb{C}); \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \cong H_*(Poly_n(\mathbb{C})^*; \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})$. We will use the ideas put forth in the cellular decomposition for purposes of trivializing our vector bundle. We elaborate Fuks' idea for the cells as follows:

Definition 3.1. A k -tuple of natural numbers $\lambda = (m_1, \dots, m_k)$ is called an **composition of n** if $\sum_{i=1}^k m_i = n$. We write $\lambda \vdash n$ and say "lambda composes n ".

Construction 3.2. Let $\lambda = (m_1, \dots, m_k) \vdash n$. An $(n + k)$ -cell of $Poly_n(\mathbb{C})^*$, $e(m_1, \dots, m_k)$, is the subset of $Poly_n(\mathbb{C})$ which consists of points $\{z_1, \dots, z_n\} \in Poly_n(\mathbb{C})$ such that the points z_1, \dots, z_n lie on k pairwise distinct vertical lines in the plane. Moreover we require that m_1 of the points lie on the leftmost line, m_2 to lie on the second leftmost line, and so on. We may also write $e(\lambda)$.

The following illustration will help the reader visualize the requirement in Construction 3.2:

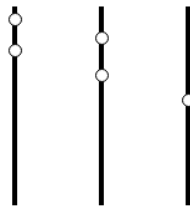


FIGURE 1. A point in $e(2, 2, 1) \subset Poly_5(\mathbb{C})$.
Lines added for reference.

The proof that the sets $e(\lambda)$ are cells in the sense of CW-Complexes as well as the boundary and attaching maps of the decomposition is outlined in [4]. The definition of the cells is all that we will need for trivializing ξ_n

4. LOCAL TRIVIALIZATIONS OF ξ_n

We will use Fuks' intuitive cellular decomposition to produce a trivialization atlas for ξ_n . As far as we are aware, a specific trivialization atlas for this bundle does not exist in the literature. This atlas will allow us to analyze the vector bundle in more intimate detail as well as do some computations. We define our atlas as follows:

Definition 4.1. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be a real number. An open strip of radius ε centered at z is a subset of \mathbb{C} defined by

$$V(z, \varepsilon) = \{w \in \mathbb{C} : |Re(w) - Re(z)| < \varepsilon\}$$

Construction 4.2. Let m_1, \dots, m_k be a composition of n . We define $U(m_1, \dots, m_k)$ as the subset of $UConfn(\mathbb{C})$ such that there exists k non-intersecting open strips $\{V_i\}$ such that m_i of the points lie in strip V_i ordered from left to right. "Left to right" should be understood to mean ascending order of the real part of the center

of the strips. In addition, we require that on each strip, no two points share the same imaginary part.

The original inspiration for the definition of these open sets came from the idea of “thickening” the lower dimensional cells in Fuks’ decomposition. This idea is echoed by the following remarks

Remark 4.3. $e(m_1, \dots, m_k) \subseteq U(m_1, \dots, m_k)$. In particular, $e(1, \dots, 1) = U(1, \dots, 1)$.

Remark 4.4. $U(m_1, \dots, m_k)$ strong deformation retracts onto $e(m_1, \dots, m_k)$.

Proof. Given $Z \in U(m_1, \dots, m_k)$, let $Z_k \subset Z$ be the m_i points in the i th strip ordered left to right. Let $r_i = \sum_{z \in Z_i} \operatorname{Re}(z)/m_i$. Define for each Z_i , $f_t : Z_i \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ by $f_t(z) = (\operatorname{Re}(z)(1-t) + r_i t) + \operatorname{Im}(z)i$. Note that $f_0(z) = z$ and $f_1(z) = r_i + \operatorname{Im}(z)i$. We also note that for every t , $\{f_t(z_i)\} \in U(m_1, \dots, m_k)$. It is clear that f_t is continuous. Now we define $F : U(m_1, \dots, m_k) \times I \rightarrow U(m_1, \dots, m_k)$ by $F(\{z_i\}, t) = \{f_t(z_i)\}$. Evidently, this map is a strong deformation retract. \square

Before we begin discussing the trivializations and transition maps in the general case, the reader may find it useful to have a motivating example to fall back on.

Example 4.5. When $n = 2$, we have two open sets $U(1, 1)$ and $U(2)$. Our trivializing map $\phi_{1,1} : U(1, 1) \times \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \xi_2^{-1}(U(1, 1))$ is defined by

$$\phi_{1,1}(\{z_1, z_2\}, (r_1, r_2)) = \{(z_1, r_1), (z_2, r_2)\}$$

where $\operatorname{Re}(z_1) < \operatorname{Re}(z_2)$. We define $\phi_2 : U(2) \times \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \xi_2^{-1}(U(2))$ analogously with $\operatorname{Im}(z_1) < \operatorname{Im}(z_2)$.

Let $p = \{z_1, z_2\} \in U(1, 1) \cap U(2)$ such that $\operatorname{Re}(z_1) < \operatorname{Re}(z_2)$. Then there is a unique permutation σ such that $\operatorname{Im}(z_{\sigma^{-1}(1)}) < \operatorname{Im}(z_{\sigma^{-1}(2)})$. Thus, the transition map $\phi_2 \circ \phi_{1,1}^{-1} : U(1, 1) \cap U(2) \rightarrow GL(2)$ at the point p is given by the regular representation of σ . Similarly, $\phi_{1,1} \circ \phi_2^{-1}(p)$ is the regular representation of σ^{-1} .

Remark 4.6. The transition functions in Example 4.5 are continuous. To see why, note that any point $x \in U(1, 1) \cap U(2)$ belongs to one of two path-components. The transition functions are constant on each of these path-components.

The idea of the case $n = 2$ can be generalized to higher values of n . To do this, we must generalize our local orderings to work on more general open sets.

Definition 4.7. Let $(m_1, \dots, m_k) \vdash n$ and let $\{V_i\}$ be the strips as in Construction 4.2. Let $Z \in U(m_1, \dots, m_k)$. The **stripwise order** (\prec) of the points $z_i \in Z$ is the order defined as follows:

- (1) If $z_i, z_j \in V_k$ and $\operatorname{Im}(z_i) < \operatorname{Im}(z_j)$ then $z_i \prec z_j$
- (2) If $z_i \in V_k$ and $z_j \in V_l$ for some $l > k$, then $z_i \prec z_j$

All points within a strip are ordered by their imaginary parts. Additionally, points in one strip are viewed as being less than points in the strips to its right.

Remark 4.8. The stripwise order always emits a *unique* chain $z_1 \prec \dots \prec z_n$.

Remark 4.9. If $\lambda := (1, \dots, 1) \vdash n$, the stripwise order of $Z \in U(\lambda)$ is identical to ordering by real parts. The stripwise order of $Z \in U(n)$ is identical to ordering by imaginary parts.

Now we can define our trivialization and transition maps in general. These will work analogously to $n = 2$.

Construction 4.10. Let $\lambda \vdash n$ and let \prec_λ be the stripwise order of the points in $U(\lambda)$. We define our local trivialization $\phi_\lambda : U(\lambda) \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \pi^{-1}(U)$ by

$$\phi_\lambda(Z, (r_1, \dots, r_n)) = \{(z_1, r_1), \dots, (z_n, r_n)\}, \quad z_i \in Z$$

where $z_1 \prec_\lambda \dots \prec_\lambda z_n$.

Let $\lambda_1 := (m_1, \dots, m_k) \vdash n$ and $\lambda_2 := (l_1, \dots, l_j) \vdash n$. Pick $z_i = p \in U(\lambda_1) \cap U(\lambda_2)$ with stripwise orderings \prec_{λ_1} and \prec_{λ_2} . Then $\phi_{\lambda_2} \circ \phi_{\lambda_1}^{-1}(p)$ is the regular matrix representation given by the unique permutation σ such that $z_1 \prec_{\lambda_1} \dots \prec_{\lambda_1} z_n$ is taken to $z_{\sigma^{-1}(1)} \prec_{\lambda_2} \dots \prec_{\lambda_2} z_{\sigma^{-1}(n)}$.

These open sets and trivializing maps give us a trivialization atlas for ξ_n . It becomes clear that this atlas is combinatorial in nature. This is due to the fact that trivializing the bundle over $Polyn(\mathbb{C})$ forces us to pick and maintain an ordering of the roots on some open set. We emphasize that this *cannot* be done in a canonical way; Otherwise, there would be a canonical ordering of the roots of polynomial equations which is absurd! The benefit of using this trivialization is it has an easy to visualize description that, in principle, can be analyzed using a computer (see Appendix A).

We apply our atlas to the case $n = 2$ in the next section.

5. EXAMPLES AND COMPUTATIONS

Example 5.1. $Polyn_2(\mathbb{C})$. Using the above methods, we have a trivialization atlas $\{U(1, 1), U(2)\}$. The intersection $U(1, 1) \cap U(2)$ has two different path components which we label P_1 and P_2 corresponding to the path components containing $\{0, 1 \pm i\}$ respectively. We will call P_1 the "regular component" and P_2 the "twisted component". We notice that any local sections defined on $U(1, 1)$ can be partially extended to $U(2)$ through the regular component. The obstruction preventing the extension of a local section to the rest of our space is the twisted component P_2 .

Example 5.2. $Polyn_2(\mathbb{C})$. The following argument uses techniques introduced in [8]. Let $\lambda_{Re} : \mathbb{C}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be defined by $\lambda_{Re}(z_1, z_2) = z_1 - z_2$ if $Re(z_1) > Re(z_2)$ and 0 otherwise. Define $\lambda_{Im} : \mathbb{C}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ analogously for $Im(z_1) > Im(z_2)$. Consider $\psi_{1,1} : U(1, 1) \times \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ and $\psi_2 : U(2) \times \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ defined componentwise by

$$\psi_{1,1}^1[\{(z_1, r_1), (z_2, r_2)\}] = r_1 \lambda_{Re}(z_1, z_2) + r_2 \lambda_{Re}(z_2, z_1)$$

$$\psi_{1,1}^2[\{(z_1, r_1), (z_2, r_2)\}] = r_2 \lambda_{Re}(z_1, z_2) + r_1 \lambda_{Re}(z_2, z_1)$$

$$\psi_2^1[\{(z_1, r_1), (z_2, r_2)\}] = r_1 \lambda_{Im}(z_1, z_2) + r_2 \lambda_{Im}(z_2, z_1)$$

$$\psi_2^2[\{(z_1, r_1), (z_2, r_2)\}] = r_2 \lambda_{Im}(z_1, z_2) + r_1 \lambda_{Im}(z_2, z_1)$$

This then gives us a map $\psi : E(\xi_n) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^4 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^\infty$ defined by

$$\psi(Z) = (\psi_{1,1}^1(Z), \psi_{1,1}^2(Z), \psi_2^1(Z), \psi_2^2(Z))$$

This map is linear and injective on each fiber. We can then construct a vector bundle map $f : \xi_n \rightarrow \gamma_n$ defined by:

$$f(e) = (\psi(\pi^{-1}(\pi(e))), \psi(e))$$

By the theory introduced in [8] this map classifies the bundle ξ_n .

APPENDIX A. AN ALGORITHM FOR PRODUCING STRIPWISE ORDERS.

Given a point $Z \in U(\lambda)$ for $\lambda = (m_1, \dots, m_k) \vdash n$, we perform the following procedure.

- (1) Order the points of Z lexicographically with order of real part taking precedence over imaginary part. Store this ordered list Z'
- (2) Partition Z' from left to right corresponding to $(m_1, \dots, m_k) \vdash n$. Store the resulting k lists Z_1, \dots, Z_k .
- (3) Sort each Z_i points by complex part and store the resulting lists as Z'_1, \dots, Z'_k .
- (4) Return the concatenation of the lists $Z'_1 Z'_2 \dots Z'_k$. This list is the points of Z sorted according to the stripwise order.

Thus we can compute the stripwise order of any point given a composition λ . In principle, we can compute the transition map between two open sets by finding the permutation that changes the list computed for one into the one computed for the other. This algorithm would allow us to compute all the transition maps for large n with a computer. The algorithm's complexity grows at most quadratically with n .

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