The Taniyama-Weil conjecture predicts a similar relation for elliptic curves over $\mathbb{Q}$, namely $L(s, E) = L(s, f)$, for a felicitous choice of $f$. Even in this form the conjecture is of great appeal, for it permits the function $L(s, E)$ to be analytically continued. There is a similar conjecture for the Artin $L$-functions associated to tetrahedral, octahedral, and icosahedral representations. It is also very important, and in part established, but it does not have such concrete arithmetical consequences as that of Taniyama-Weil, nor is it part of a theory with such an ancient tradition. It can also be tested numerically [B], but not yet so readily [C]. Moreover the theory of Eichler-Shimura and of the Hecke operators acting on the curves $X$, and on their integrals, to which the last third of the book is devoted provides a rich, and relatively concrete, conceptual and computational context in which the Taniyama-Weil conjecture can be better formulated and more easily understood and appreciated by a broad spectrum of mathematicians.

Knapp's *Elliptic curves* is not the book from which to learn everything about elliptic curves. The deeper parts of the arithmetic theory, involving complex multiplication and cohomology, are absent; so is the more elaborate analytic part, involving theta functions or Jacobi elliptic functions. There is, nonetheless, a great deal of material that is presented carefully and is fun to read, and most of the basic techniques and open problems are there. Occasionally a word or two of further explanation would have made it easier for the reader to find his way through an argument, but such omissions are rare, and the author has promised to rectify them. The book can be recommended to students and to experienced mathematicians. There are few of us, even in closely related fields, who will not learn something from it.

**References**


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An integral (resp. rational) homology 3-sphere is a closed 3-manifold whose first integral (resp. rational) homology group vanishes. (We henceforth abbre-
violate these terms as \( ZHS \) and \( QHS \) respectively.) These represent an important and slippery class of 3-manifolds—including, for example, those 3-manifolds for which Thurston’s tantalizing Geometrization Conjecture has yet defied proof. Furthermore, such 3-manifolds are as plentiful as knots: Given any knot \( K \subset S^3 \), the various Dehn fillings obtained by attaching solid tori to the complement \( S^3 - K \) are all homology spheres. Before 1985 the principal invariant of a \( ZHS \) \( \Sigma^3 \) was the \( \mathbb{Z}/2 \)-valued Rohlin invariant \( \mu(\Sigma^3) \), derived from the signature of a bounding 4-manifold. At that time it seemed plausible that the Rohlin invariant could detect a possible counterexample to the Poincaré conjecture.

In 1985 Andrew Casson found a powerful \( \mathbb{Z} \)-valued invariant \( \lambda(\Sigma^3) \) of a \( ZHS \) \( \Sigma^3 \), which laid these hopes to rest. From its existence and basic properties follow some remarkable results in geometric topology, such as: there exist topological 4-manifolds which are not homeomorphic to simplicial complexes. A closely related result concerns the Poincaré conjecture: Casson’s invariant is defined in terms of the fundamental group and reduces modulo two to Rohlin’s invariant. In particular, Rohlin’s invariant cannot detect a counterexample to the Poincaré conjecture.

For an exposition of Casson’s original results, presented in three lectures at MSRI in spring 1985, we recommend the notes [1] of Akbulut and McCarthy. Other generalizations and extensions are noted in the bibliography.

Shortly thereafter, Cliff Taubes found a highly suggestive analytic interpretation [12] of Casson’s \( \lambda(\Sigma^3) \). Let \( \Sigma^3 \) be an oriented \( ZHS \), and consider the space \( \mathcal{A} \) of all connections on a fixed (trivial) \( SU(2) \)-bundle \( P \) over \( \Sigma^3 \). The group \( \mathcal{G} \) of gauge transformations of \( P \) is isomorphic to the group of all maps from \( \Sigma^3 \) into \( SO(3) \). Then the tangent space to \( \mathcal{A} \) at \( A \) is the space \( \Omega^1(\Sigma^3, g) \) of 1-forms on \( \Sigma^3 \) taking values in the bundle of Lie algebras associated to \( P \). The curvature \( F(A) \) of \( A \) is an exterior 2-form with values in \( g \), an element of \( \Omega^2(\Sigma^2, g) \). Using the invariant inner product on the Lie algebra of \( SU(2) \) and a volume form on \( \Sigma^3 \), the spaces \( T_A(\mathcal{A}) = \Omega^1(\Sigma^3, g) \) and \( \Omega^2(\Sigma^3, g) \) are canonically dual. Thus the operation assigning to a connection \( A \in \mathcal{A} \) its curvature \( F(A) \in \Omega^2(\Sigma^3, g) \) is a 1-form \( \Phi \) on \( \mathcal{A} \). Furthermore, \( \mathcal{G} \) acts on \( \mathcal{A} \) preserving \( \Phi \). The zeros of \( \Phi \) evidently correspond to flat connections. \( \mathcal{G} \)-orbits of flat connections correspond to equivalence classes of representations of the fundamental group into \( SU(2) \). Taubes defines a Poincaré-Hopf index of the 1-form \( \Phi \) on \( \mathcal{A} \) and shows that the resulting Euler characteristic equals Casson’s invariant.

This invariant depends on the Fredholm structure of the moduli space of flat \( SU(2) \)-connections on \( \Sigma^3 \). The “instanton homology” (see [6]) invented by Floer is a homology theory associated to \( \Sigma^3 \) whose Euler characteristic equals \( \lambda(\Sigma^3) \). However, the Floer homology has been rather difficult to compute except in the simplest examples, while \( \lambda(\Sigma^3) \) can be computed simply in terms of a surgery formula discovered by Casson. This remarkable formula is the key to calculating Casson’s invariant. If \( K \subset M \) is a knot in a \( ZHS \), and \( K_{1/n} \) denotes \( 1/n \)-Dehn surgery on \( M \) along \( K \) (so that \( K_{1/n} \) remains a \( ZHS \) and \( K_{1/0} = M \); see below), then

\[
\lambda(K_{1/n}) = \lambda(M) + n\Delta_K'(1)
\]

where \( \Delta_K'' \) denotes the second derivative of the Alexander polynomial \( \Delta_K \) of \( K \) in \( M \).
Given the power of this invariant, it was natural to try to extend it in various directions. The book under review describes an extension of \( \lambda(\Sigma^3) \) to the case when \( \Sigma^3 \) is a QHS. If \( K \subset S^3 \) is a knot, then its “complement” is a compact 3-manifold \( N^3 \) with boundary a 2-torus (whose interior is homeomorphic to \( S^3 - K \)). One obtains a rational homology sphere \( N_{p/q} \) by attaching to \( M^3 \) a solid torus \( T \approx S^1 \times D^2 \) by gluing the meridian \( \{s\} \times \partial D^2 \) of \( T \) to a \( (p, q) \)-curve on \( \partial N^3 \). A \( (p, q) \)-curve on \( \partial N^3 \) is defined as any curve in the homology class corresponding to \( (p, q) \in \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} \cong H_1(\partial N) \) which is the linear combination: \( p \) times a generator \( (1, 0) \) of the image of

\[
\mathbb{Z} \cong H_1(N) \rightarrow H_1(\partial N)
\]

plus \( q \) times an element \( (0, 1) \) projecting to a generator under

\[
H_1(\partial N) \rightarrow H_1(\partial N)/H_1(N) \cong \mathbb{Z}.
\]

In particular, \( N_{1/q} \) is a ZHS for each \( q \in \mathbb{Z} \) while every \( N_{p/q} \) is a QHS.

Casson's original definition and Walker's generalization each involve the moduli space \( \text{Hom}(\pi_1(\Sigma^3), \text{SU}(2))/\text{SU}(2) \) of equivalence classes of representations of the fundamental group \( \pi_1(\Sigma) \) into \( \text{SU}(2) \). The representations themselves form a real algebraic set upon which the inner automorphisms of \( \text{SU}(2) \) act algebraically. Accordingly, the moduli space is a real analytic space and stratifies into analytic submanifolds. Roughly, Casson's invariant counts—algebraically—the points in \( \text{Hom}(\pi_1(\Sigma^3), \text{SU}(2))/\text{SU}(2) \) where \( \Sigma^3 \) is a closed oriented ZHS.

The actual counting is a bit more involved. Following Casson, one decomposes the 3-manifold \( \Sigma^3 \) as a union of two solid handlebodies \( W_1 \cup_F W_2 \) of genus \( g \geq 1 \) along a closed surface \( F \) and computes the space \( \text{Hom}(\pi_1(\Sigma^3), \text{SU}(2))/\text{SU}(2) \) in terms of this Heegaard decomposition. The space of interest \( \text{Hom}(\pi_1(\Sigma^3), \text{SU}(2))/\text{SU}(2) \) is embedded in the larger space

\[
X = \text{Hom}(\pi_1(F), \text{SU}(2))/\text{SU}(2)
\]

corresponding to the surface \( F \subset \Sigma^3 \) under the natural restriction map, but there is considerably more space (and geometry) in \( X \) to study \( \text{Hom}(\pi_1(\Sigma^3), \text{SU}(2))/\text{SU}(2) \). Then the space of equivalence class of representations

\[
\text{Hom}(\pi_1(\Sigma^3), \text{SU}(2))/\text{SU}(2) \subset X
\]

(alternately, the space of gauge-equivalence classes of flat connections) is the intersection of the images \( Q_i \) of

\[
\text{Hom}(\pi_1(W_i), \text{SU}(2))/\text{SU}(2) \rightarrow X.
\]

The orientation of \( \Sigma^3 \) induces orientations of \( W_1, W_2, F \subset \Sigma^3 \), which in turn induce orientations on the various spaces \( Q_1, Q_2 \subset X \), and Casson's invariant \( \lambda(\Sigma^3) \) is a kind of oriented intersection number \( Q_1 \cdot Q_2 \).

To develop intuition for the nature of this invariant, consider the following simple analogue. Replace \( \text{SU}(2) \) by the circle group \( \text{U}(1) \). If \( \Sigma^3 \) is a ZHS, every representation \( \pi_1(\Sigma^3) \rightarrow \text{U}(1) \) is trivial, but for a more general QHS (say, one with cyclic fundamental group \( \mathbb{Z}_m \)), nontrivial representations \( \pi_1(\Sigma^3) \rightarrow \text{U}(1) \) will exist. For the purposes of this discussion (where only the
abelianization of the fundamental group matters), it suffices to consider the case that $\Sigma^3$ is a lens space: glue two solid tori $W_1$ and $W_2$ along a common bounding 2-torus $T$. The inclusions of the boundary $T \to \partial W_j \subset W_j$ induce homomorphisms

$$Z \oplus Z \cong \pi_1(T) \to \pi_1(W_j) \cong Z,$$

$$(x, y) \mapsto a_j x + b_j y$$

where $a_j$ and $b_j$ are relatively prime integers. Then the analogue $X'$ of $X$ is the torus $\text{Hom}(\pi_1(T), U(1))$ dual to $\pi_1(T)$. Explicitly, $X'$ consists of representations of the form

$$Z \oplus Z \to U(1)$$

$$(x, y) \mapsto e^{i(\alpha x + \beta y)}$$

where $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$. The analogues of the $Q_j$ are the circles $Q'_j$ (one-parameter subgroups with respect to the structure of $X$ as a group) defined by

$$\alpha = ta_j, \quad \beta = tb_j.$$ 

All of the intersections of $Q'_1$ and $Q'_2$ are transverse and have the same oriented intersection number. The cardinality of $Q'_1 \cap Q'_2$ is the determinant $m = a_1 b_2 - a_2 b_1$, the order of $\pi_1(\Sigma^3)$. Thus $\# \pi_1(\Sigma^3)$ may be regarded as an "abelian" analogue of Casson's invariant.

The book under review is a monograph describing Walker's extension of Casson's invariant to QHS. This was Walker's 1989 Berkeley doctoral thesis, and a summary of this work may be found in his research announcement [13]. The idea of Walker's generalization is similar to Casson's definition: sum local expressions over the intersections of $Q_1$ and $Q_2$ in $X$, after perhaps making a generic perturbation to make them transverse. However, the presence of singularities in these spaces produces significant technical problems. Using the symplectic geometry of $X$ (in which the $Q_j$ are Lagrangian), Walker defines local invariants which give a meaningful invariant. Section 1 is background information on the moduli spaces of representations and its symplectic geometry. Section 2 contains the definition of $\lambda(\Sigma^3)$, and §3 develops its elementary properties. Many of these were proved by Casson in ZHS case. Section 4 proves the surgery formula: how $\lambda(\Sigma^3)$ behaves when surgery is performed on a knot in a QHS. Conversely, uniqueness of Walker's invariant is proved in §5: any function of rational homology spheres vanishing on $S^3$ and satisfying the surgery formula must equal $\lambda(\Sigma^3)$. Section 6 contains various consequences of this theory. For example, Walker's $\lambda$ is additive under connected sum and relates to the Rohlin invariant of a spin QHS. Two appendices summarize results concerning Dedekind sums and Alexander polynomials which are needed in the main body of the monograph.

This is a fascinating subject, and Walker's book is informative and well written. Together with [1] it makes a rather pleasant introduction to a very active area in geometric topology.

REFERENCES


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Practically everyone is familiar with simple random walk (or the drunkard’s walk) on the integer lattice in $d$-space, $\mathbb{Z}^d$, in which the walker moves at each step from a site in $\mathbb{Z}^d$ to one of its $2d$ neighbors, picking each of the neighbors with the same probability $1/(2d)$. Denote the position of the walk after $n$ steps by $S_n$, and let the walk start at the origin ($S_0 = 0$). When the chemists started investigating certain polymer molecules (such as rubber), it was suggested that these might be long chains of carbon atoms with small side arms and that the chain of carbon atoms might be modelled by a random walk. As chemists well knew, actual carbon atoms in 3-space do not sit on the lattice $\mathbb{Z}^3$, but the angle between successive bonds is essentially $120^\circ$. So they used the so-called free flight model (described in [4, Chapter X] or [9, §§2.1–2.4]) with restrictions on the angles between successive bonds. Nowadays the chemical and physical literature, as well as the book by Madras and Slade, studies the self-avoiding walk problems on $\mathbb{Z}^d$. This first seems to have been suggested by Montroll [12]. If one prefers an angle of $120^\circ$ between successive bonds, then one can