## Introduction to chromatic homotopy

Neil Strickland

January 8, 2024

## Ordinary cohomology

- For any space $X$ we have a cohomology ring $H^{*}(X)$
- For many spaces this can be described explicitly: for example, if $X=\left\{\right.$ two-dimensional subspaces of $\left.\mathbb{C}^{4}\right\}$ then
$H^{*}(X)=\mathbb{Z}\left[c_{1}, c_{2}\right] /\left(c_{1}^{3}-2 c_{1} c_{2}, c_{1}^{2} c_{2}-c_{2}^{2}\right)=\mathbb{Z}\left\{c_{1}^{i} c_{2}^{j} \mid i+j<3\right\}$.
- We can also consider the scheme $X_{H}=\operatorname{spec}\left(H^{*}(X)\right)$, so $H^{*}(X)$ is the ring of functions on $X_{H}$.
- Now $f: X \rightarrow Y$ gives $f_{H}: X_{H} \rightarrow Y_{H}$ (depending only on the homotopy class) and $(X \amalg Y)_{H}=X_{H} \amalg Y_{H}$ and $(X \times Y)_{H} \sim X_{H} \times Y_{H}$.
$\Rightarrow$ How good an invariant is this?
- If $f_{H}: X_{H} \rightarrow Y_{H}$ is an isomorphism then $f$ is a homotopy equivalence (subject to mild conditions).
- The map $\left[X, Y^{\prime}\right] \rightarrow$ Schemes $\left(X_{H}, Y_{H}\right)=$ Rings( $\left.H^{*}\left(Y^{\prime}\right), H^{*}(X)\right)$ is typically far from being injective or surjective.
- If $X_{H} \simeq Y_{H}$, that is only weak evidence for $X \simeq Y$.

How to find better invariants?
(a) Use Steenrod operations on $H^{*}\left(X ; \mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$
(b) Use generalised cohomology theories.

- But (a) is really part of (b).


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## Generalised cohomology

- A generalised cohomology theory is a contravariant, homotopy invariant functor $E^{*}$ : Spaces $\rightarrow$ Rings* with properties similar to $H^{*}$, but $E^{*}(1)$ need not be $\mathbb{Z}$. It takes work to provide interesting examples.
- We often work with even periodic theories where $E^{1}(1)=0$ and $E^{-2}(1)$ contains a unit. Here it is natural to focus on $E^{0}(X)$.
$\Rightarrow$ Given an even periodic theory $E$ we put $X_{E}=\operatorname{spf}\left(E^{0} X\right)$.
$\checkmark$ There is an even periodic theory $K U$ with $K U^{*}(1)=\mathbb{Z}\left[u, u^{-1}\right]$ (where $|u|=-2)$ and $K U^{0}(X)$ is the ring of virtual complex vector bundles on $X$.
$\Rightarrow$ Put $M P(n)=\left\{(v, V) \mid v \in V \leq \mathbb{C}^{2 n}\right\} \infty$ and $\Sigma^{m} X=\left(\mathbb{R}^{m} \times X\right)_{\infty}$ and $M P^{k}(X)={\underset{\longrightarrow}{n}}_{\lim _{n}}\left[\Sigma^{2 n-k} X, M P(n)\right]$.
This gives an even periodic theory with $M P^{*}(1)=\mathbb{Z}\left[a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, \ldots\right]$.
This is called periodic complex cobordism.
- The Nilpotence (pre)Theorem of Hopkins-Devinatz-Smith: if $M P^{*}(u)=0$ then $u^{k}=0$ for large $k$. This is the most powerful known theorem of the type algebra $\Rightarrow$ topology.
$\Rightarrow$ Fix a prime $p$ and an integer $n>0$. There is then an even periodic theory $K(p, n)$ with $K(p, n)^{*}(1)=\mathbb{F}_{p}\left[u, u^{-1}\right]$. This is called Morava K-theory.
- The $K(p, n)$ 's together carry roughly the same information as MP.


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- The $K(p, n)$ 's together carry roughly the same information as MP.


## Generalised cohomology

- A generalised cohomology theory is a contravariant, homotopy invariant functor $E^{*}$ : Spaces $\rightarrow$ Rings* with properties similar to $H^{*}$, but $E^{*}(1)$ need not be $\mathbb{Z}$. It takes work to provide interesting examples.
- We often work with even periodic theories where $E^{1}(1)=0$ and $E^{-2}(1)$ contains a unit. Here it is natural to focus on $E^{0}(X)$.
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## Formal groups - what are they good for?

- Every even periodic theory $E$ gives a formal group $P_{E}$
- The functor $E \mapsto P_{E}$ is not too far from being an equivalence.
- The most elementary examples of formal groups are the additive and multiplicative formal groups; these correspond to HP and KU. (Here $H P^{i}(X)=\prod_{j} H^{i+2 j}(X)$.)
$\Rightarrow$ Steenrod operations in $H P^{0}\left(X ; \mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ and Adams operations in $K U^{0}(X)$ are closely related to endomorphisms of the associated formal groups.
- The ring $M P^{0}(1)$ is naturally isomorphic to the Lazard ring, which plays a central role in formal group theory.
- The Morava $K$-theories $K(p, n)$ all have different formal groups.
- Together with $H P^{0}\left(X ; \mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ and $H P^{0}(X ; \mathbb{Q})$ this gives all formal groups over fields up to Galois twisting.
- For many spaces $X$ the scheme $X_{E}$ can be described naturally in terms of $P_{E}$. For example, if $X=B U(n)=\left\{n\right.$ - dimensional subspaces of $\left.\mathbb{C}^{\infty}\right\}$ then $X_{E}=\left(P_{E}^{n}\right) / \Sigma_{n}$.


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## Examples of formal groups

- For any ring $R$ we define commutative groups as follows:
$\Rightarrow G_{a}(R)=\{a \in R \mid a$ is nilpotent $\}$ (under addition)
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$\Rightarrow G_{r}(R)=\left\{\left.A=\left[\begin{array}{cc}c & -s \\ s & c\end{array}\right] \in M_{2}(R) \right\rvert\, c^{2}+s^{2}=1, c-1\right.$ nilpotent $\}$
$\rightarrow G_{e}(R)=\left\{(u, v) \in \operatorname{Nil}(R)^{2} \mid v-u^{3}+u v^{2}=0\right\}$ (an elliptic curve)
- These are all functorial in $R$.
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- This is a commutative topological monoid (with inverses up to homotopy).
$\Rightarrow$ So $P_{E}$ is a formal group scheme over $1_{E}=\operatorname{spec}\left(E^{0}(1)\right)$.
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- Now fix a prime $p$ and let $\pi: P \rightarrow P$ be the $p$ 'th power map and put $B=(\mathbb{C}[t] \backslash\{0\}) / C_{p}$.
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## The Lazard ring

- Consider a formal power series $F(s, t)=\sum_{i, j} b_{i j} s^{i} t^{j} \in k \llbracket s, t \rrbracket$. When is this an FGL?
$\Rightarrow$ For $F(s, 0)=s$ we need $b_{i 0}=\delta_{i, 1}$. For $F(s, t)=F(t, s)$ we need $b_{i j}=b_{j i}$.
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- There are no more relations: any power series of the above form satisfies the FGL conditions up to errors of order 5 .
- Lazard's theorem: we can continue to define $a_{4}, a_{5}, \ldots$ so that $F(s, t)$ can be expressed in terms of the $a_{i}$, and no further relations are required to make the associativity axiom hold.
- Reformulation: over the Lazard ring $L=\mathbb{Z}\left[a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots\right]$ there is a universal formal group law $F_{u}$ such that the resulting map $\operatorname{Rings}(L, k) \rightarrow \operatorname{FGL}(k)$ is bijective for all $k$.


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$F(s, t)=s+t+b_{11} s t+b_{12}\left(s t^{2}+s^{2} t\right)+b_{22} s^{2} t^{2}+b_{13}\left(s t^{3}+s^{3} t\right)+O(5)$
- Using this we get
$F(F(s, t), u)-F(s, F(t, u))=\left(2 b_{11} b_{12}+3 b_{13}-2 b_{22}\right)(s-u) s t u+O(5)$
- For an FGL we must have $2 b_{11} b_{12}+3 b_{13}-2 b_{22}$. In terms of the parameters $a_{1}=b_{11}$ and $a_{2}=b_{12}$ and $a_{3}=b_{22}-b_{13}$ we get $F(s, t)=s+t+a_{1} s t+a_{2} s t(s+t)+2\left(a_{3}-a_{1} a_{2}\right) s t\left(s^{2}+s t+t^{2}\right)+a_{3} s^{2} t^{2}+O(5)$.
- There are no more relations: any power series of the above form satisfies the FGL conditions up to errors of order 5.
- Lazard's theorem: we can continue to define $a_{4}, a_{5}, \ldots$ so that $F(s, t)$ can be expressed in terms of the $a_{i}$, and no further relations are required to make the associativity axiom hold.
- Reformulation: over the Lazard ring $L=\mathbb{Z}\left[a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots\right]$ there is a universal formal group law $F_{u}$ such that the resulting map $\operatorname{Rings}(L, k) \rightarrow \operatorname{FGL}(k)$ is bijective for all $k$.


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- Recall that $\operatorname{FGL}(k)=\operatorname{Rings}(L, k)$ so we get a ring $\operatorname{map} L \rightarrow M P^{0}(1)$.
$\Rightarrow$ Quillen's theorem: this is an isomorphism (and $\left.M P^{1}(1)=0\right)$.
- Outline of proof:
- Assemble the spaces MP( $n$ ) into a single "spectrum" called MP. (This is the start of stable homotopy theory.)
- There are good methods for calcuating the homology of spaces defined using complex linear algebra, and one can use them to prove that

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H_{*}(M P)=\mathbb{Z}\left[b_{0}, b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots\right]\left[b_{0}^{-1}\right]
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- In fact this is $F(s, t)=f^{-1}\left(f(s)^{\prime}+f(t)\right)$, where $f(t)=\sum_{i} b t^{i+1}$. So $f$ gives an isomorphism from $F$ to the additive law $F_{a}(s, t)=s+t$.
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## The Spanier-Whitehead category

- A finite spectrum is an expression $\Sigma^{n} X$, where $X$ is a based finite simplicial complex, and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. (This can be interpreted as a space if $n \geq 0$, but not necessarily if $n<0$.) We write $\mathcal{F}$ for the class of finite spectra.
- We define $\mathcal{F}\left(\Sigma^{n} X, \Sigma^{m} Y\right)=\lim _{\rightarrow k}\left[\Sigma^{n+k} X, \Sigma^{m+k} Y\right]$. This has a natural structure as a (finitely generated) Abelian group. There is a composition rule making $\mathcal{F}$ an additive category.
This is an approximation to the homotopy category of finite complexes, and has a rich and interesting structure.
- Homology gives an isomorphism $\mathbb{Q} \otimes \mathcal{F}(X, Y) \rightarrow \operatorname{Vect}_{*}\left(H_{*}(X ; \mathbb{Q}), H_{*}(Y ; \mathbb{Q})\right)$.
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## The chromatic filtration

- Fact: if $K(p, n)_{*}(X)=0$, then $K(p, m)_{*}(X)=0$ for all $m<n$ (including $K(p, 0)_{*}(X)=H_{*}(X ; \mathbb{Q})$ ).
$\Rightarrow$ Also, if $K(p, n)_{*}(X)=0$ for all $p$ and $n$ then $X=0$.
- Say $X$ has type $n$ at $p$ if $K(p, n)_{*}(X) \neq 0$ and $K(p, m)_{*}(X)=0$ for $m<n$. Let $\mathcal{F}(p, n)$ be the category of $X$ of type at least $n$ at $p$.
$\Rightarrow$ Nilpotence theorem: if $u: \Sigma^{d} X \rightarrow X$ and $K(p, n)_{*}(u)=0$ for all $(p, n)$ then $u^{k}=0: \Sigma^{d k} X \rightarrow X$ for $k \gg 0$.
- Periodicity theorem: if $X \in \mathcal{F}(p, n)$ with $n>0$ then there is a map $v: \Sigma^{d} X \rightarrow X($ for some $d>0)$ giving an isomorphism on $K(p, n)_{*}(X)$ (and having a number of other properties, making it "almost unique").
- Thick subcategory theorem: if $\mathcal{C}$ is a subcategory of $\mathcal{F}$ satisfying some natural conditions, then it must be one of the categories $\mathcal{F}(p, n)$.
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