

FORMAL GROUPS

N. P. STRICKLAND

1. INTRODUCTION

Definition 1.1. A *formal group law (FGL)* over a ring R is a formal power series $F(x, y) = \sum_{i,j \geq 0} a_{ij} x^i y^j \in R[[x, y]]$ that formally satisfies the axioms for a commutative group operation with 0 as the identity element. More precisely, we must have

- (a) $F(x, 0) = x \in R[[x]]$
- (b) $F(x, y) = F(y, x) \in R[[x, y]]$
- (c) $F(x, F(y, z)) = F(F(x, y), z) \in R[[x, y, z]]$
- (d) There is a power series $m(x) \in R[[x]]$ such that $m(0) = 0$ and $F(x, m(x)) = 0$.

We also write $x +_F y$ for $F(x, y)$ and $[-1](x)$ or $[-1]_F(x)$ for $m(x)$. If $k > 0$ we define $[k](x) = [k]_F(x) = x +_F \dots +_F x$, with k terms. We do not need any brackets because of condition (c). We also define $[-k](x) = [-1]([k](x))$ and $[0](x) = 0$. One checks that $[j + k](x) = [j](x) +_F [k](x)$ and $[jk](x) = [j]([k](x))$ for all $j, k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Remark 1.2. Here and elsewhere, rings are assumed to be commutative and to have a unit unless otherwise stated.

Remark 1.3. In conditions (c) and (d) we need to substitute one formal power series into another. This leads to nonsense if the power series involved have nonzero constant terms. For example, if we try to substitute the constant series 1 for x and y we get $\sum_{i,j} a_{ij}$ which typically makes no sense because we have no notion of convergence. However, if the constant terms are zero then there is no problem in expanding everything out formally.

Remark 1.4. We will later define *formal groups*, and it will turn out that a formal group law is what you get from a formal group with a specified coordinate. There are many advantages to the coordinate-free approach, but it is a bit abstract so we postpone it.

Definition 1.5. We write $\text{FGL}(R)$ for the set of all FGL's over R .

Example 1.6. 1. The simplest example is $F(x, y) = x + y$; this is called the additive FGL. It can be defined over any ring R .

2. If $u \in R$ then we can take $F(x, y) = x + y + uxy$, so that

$$1 + u(x +_F y) = (1 + ux)(1 + uy).$$

In the case $u = 1$, this is called the multiplicative FGL. It can again be defined over any ring R .

3. If c is an invertible element of R then we can define $F(x, y) = (x + y)/(1 + xy/c^2)$. We call this the Lorenz FGL; it is the formula for relativistic addition of parallel velocities, where c is the speed of light. We are implicitly using the fact that $(1 + xy/c^2)$ is invertible in $R[[x, y]]$, with inverse $\sum_{k \geq 0} (-xy/c^2)^k$.
4. If ϵ and δ are elements of R and 2 is invertible in R we can define the Jacobi FGL over R by

$$F(x, y) = \frac{x\sqrt{Q(y)} + y\sqrt{Q(x)}}{1 - \epsilon x^2 y^2},$$

where $Q(x) = 1 - 2\delta x^2 + \epsilon x^4$. We need to assume that 2 is invertible so we can use the usual power series expansion of $\sqrt{1+t}$ to define $\sqrt{Q(x)}$; one can check that the denominators of the coefficients in this series are all powers of 2. The real reason why $F(x, y)$ is a formal group law involves the theory of elliptic curves and elliptic integrals. For a more direct proof, one can check that

$$\sqrt{Q(F(x, y))} = \frac{2\epsilon xy(x^2 + y^2) + (x'y' - 2\delta xy)(1 + \epsilon x^2 y^2)}{(1 - \epsilon x^2 y^2)^2},$$

Date: April 29, 2003.

where $x' = \sqrt{Q(x)}$ and $y' = \sqrt{Q(y)}$. It follows that

$$F(F(x, y), z) = (2s_3(\epsilon p_2 + \delta(A + B + C - 4) - \epsilon^2 s_3^2) + \\ x'y'z(A + B - C) + y'z'x(B + C - A) + z'x'y(C + A - B)) / \\ (A^2 + B^2 + C^2 + 2\epsilon s_3^2(4\delta - \epsilon p_2) - 2),$$

where

$$A = 1 - \epsilon y^2 z^2 \\ B = 1 - \epsilon z^2 x^2 \\ C = 1 - \epsilon x^2 y^2 \\ p_2 = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \\ s_3 = xyz.$$

This expression is symmetric in x , y and z , and it follows that F is associative. The other axioms are easy.

5. Let p be a prime, and let $f(x)$ be a monic polynomial over \mathbb{Z} such that $f(x) = px \pmod{x^2}$ and $f(x) = x^{p^n} \pmod{p}$, for some $n > 0$. The fundamental result of Lubin-Tate theory is that there is a unique FGL over the ring \mathbb{Z}_p of p -adic integers such that $f(F(x, y)) = F(f(x), f(y))$, and that for this FGL we have $[p]_F(x) = f(x)$. Equivalently, this gives a compatible system of FGL's over \mathbb{Z}/p^k for all k . These FGL's are important in algebraic number theory (specifically, in local class field theory). One can understand the splitting field of f and its Galois theory quite explicitly in terms of the formal group structure.
6. In algebraic topology, one can consider a number of complex-orientable generalised cohomology theories. Such a theory assigns to each space X a graded ring E^*X , subject to various axioms. If L is a complex line bundle over X , one can define an Euler class $e(L) \in E^*X$, which is a useful invariant of L . There is a formal group law F over E^* (point) such that $e(L \otimes M) = F(e(L), e(M))$. In the case of ordinary cohomology, we get the additive FGL. In the case of complex K -theory, we get the multiplicative FGL. In the case of complex cobordism, we get Lazard's universal FGL (Quillen's theorem). This is the start of a very deep relationship between formal groups and the algebraic aspects of stable homotopy theory.

Exercise 1.7. Prove that $\sqrt{1+t}$ lies in $\mathbb{Z}[\frac{1}{2}][[t]]$. In other words, if $f(t) = \sum_{k \geq 0} a_k t^k \in \mathbb{Q}[[t]]$ is the unique power series such that $f(t)^2 = 1+t$ and $f(0) = 1$, show that for each k we can write a_k in the form $b/2^m$ for some integers b and m . One approach is to use the Newton-Raphson method: define $f_0(t) = 1$ and $f_{k+1}(t) = (f_k(t) + (1+t)/f_k(t))/2$ (checking that this makes sense). One can then show that $f_k(t)$ converges to $f(t)$ in a suitable sense. Another approach is to show that $a_k = b_{k-1} + b_k$, where $b_k = \binom{2k}{k}/(-4)^k$. Probably the best approach is to wait for Example 2.9, however.

2. BASIC RESULTS

One way to think of FGL's is as a recipe for defining honest groups. We now make this precise.

Definition 2.1. Let R be a ring. We say that an element $a \in R$ is *nilpotent* if $a^N = 0$ for some integer $N > 0$. We write $\widehat{\text{Nil}}^1(R)$ or $\text{Nil}(R)$ for the set of nilpotent elements of R .

Lemma 2.2. $\text{Nil}(R)$ is an ideal in R .

Proof. Suppose that $a, b \in \text{Nil}(R)$, say $a^N = 0 = b^M$. Then if $a^i b^j \neq 0$ we must have $i < N$ and $j < M$ so $i+j < N+M$. It follows that $(a+b)^{N+M} = \sum_{N+M=i+j} \binom{N+M}{i} a^i b^j = 0$, so $a+b \in \text{Nil}(R)$. Moreover, if c is an arbitrary element of R then $(ac)^N = a^N c^N = 0$, so $ac \in \text{Nil}(R)$. This shows that $\text{Nil}(R)$ is an ideal. \square

Suppose that $F(x, y) = \sum_{i,j} a_{ij} x^i y^j$ is an FGL over a ring R , and that R' is an algebra over R , so we have a specified ring map $u: R \rightarrow R'$ say. Let b and c be nilpotent elements of R' . Then $b^i c^j = 0$ for all but finitely many pairs (i, j) , so we can define $b +_F c = \sum_{i,j} u(a_{ij}) b^i c^j$ as a finite sum without worrying about any kind of convergence. This defines a group structure on $\text{Nil}(R')$, whose identity element is 0.

Definition 2.3. We write $\Gamma(G_F, R')$ or $\Gamma(G_F, R', u)$ for the group $\text{Nil}(R')$ equipped with the group law $+_F$ described above.

Remark 2.4. In the coordinate-free picture, it will be more natural to consider something a little different. Fix a ring R , and a FGL F over R . For any ring R' , we let $X(R')$ denote the set of ring homomorphisms $u: R \rightarrow R'$. We write $G_F(R') = \text{Nil}(R) \times X(R')$. There is an evident projection map $G_F(R') \rightarrow X(R')$, sending (a, u) to u , and the preimage of a point $u \in X(R')$ is the group $\Gamma(G_F, R', u)$. Thus $G_F(R')$ is a bundle of groups over $X(R')$, and everything depends naturally on R' . This is an example of a formal group over X (or over R).

Remark 2.5. We clearly have $\text{Nil}(\mathbb{Z}) = 0$, so we cannot tell the difference between different FGL's over \mathbb{Z} by just looking at $\Gamma(G_F, \mathbb{Z})$. However, we can tell the difference if we look at groups like $\Gamma(G_F, \mathbb{Z}[s, t]/(s^N, t^M))$ instead.

We now prove some basic lemmas, as practise in the use of formal power series.

Lemma 2.6. *If F is an FGL then $F(x, y) = x + y \pmod{xy}$.*

Proof. We have $F(x, y) = \sum_{i,j \geq 0} a_{ij} x^i y^j$ for some coefficients $a_{ij} \in R$. Condition (a) tells us that $a_{i0} = 0$ except for $a_{10} = 1$. Using (b) we see that $a_{0j} = 0$ except for $a_{01} = 1$. Thus

$$F(x, y) = x + y + xy \sum_{i,j > 0} a_{ij} x^{i-1} y^{j-1},$$

as required. □

Lemma 2.7. *Condition (d) in Definition 1.1 actually follow from conditions (a) and (b).*

Proof. Suppose that F satisfies (a) and (b). As in the previous lemma, we have $F(x, y) = x + y \pmod{xy}$. Define $b_1 = -1$ and $m_1(x) = -x$, so $F(x, m_1(x)) = 0 \pmod{x^2}$. Suppose that we have defined a polynomial $m_k(x)$ of degree k such that $F(x, m_k(x)) = 0 \pmod{x^{k+1}}$. There is then a unique element $b_{k+1} \in R$ such that $F(x, m_k(x)) = -b_{k+1}x^{k+1} \pmod{x^{k+2}}$. Define $m_{k+1}(x) = m_k(x) + b_{k+1}x^{k+1}$. It is easy to check that when $i > 0$ or $i = 0$ and $j > 1$ we have

$$x^i m_{k+1}(x)^j = x^i m_k(x)^j \pmod{x^{k+2}}.$$

Using this and the fact that $F(x, y) = x + y \pmod{xy}$, and working everywhere modulo x^{k+2} , we find that

$$\begin{aligned} F(x, m_{k+1}(x)) &= x + m_{k+1}(x) + \sum_{i,j > 0} a_{ij} x^i m_{k+1}(x)^j \\ &= F(x, m_k(x)) - ax^{k+1} \\ &= 0 \pmod{x^{k+2}}. \end{aligned}$$

By an evident recursion, we have now defined b_k and m_k for all k . We put $m(x) = \sum_{k > 0} b_k x^k$, so that $m(x) = m_k(x) \pmod{x^{k+1}}$ for all k , and thus $F(x, m(x)) = 0 \pmod{x^{k+1}}$ for all k , so $F(x, m(x)) = 0$ exactly. □

We next want to define homomorphisms between formal group laws. It is convenient to give some remarks about composition of formal power series first.

Lemma 2.8. *Let f be a formal power series over a ring R such that $f(0) = 0$ and $f'(0)$ is a unit in R . Then there is a unique series $g(x) \in R[[x]]$ such that $f(g(x)) = x = g(f(x))$. Moreover, we have $g'(0) = 1/f'(0)$. (This is just a formal version of the inverse function theorem.) We call this series the reverse of f .*

Proof. The proof is similar to that of Lemma 2.7. We define $a_1 = f'(0)$ and $b_1 = 1/a_1$ and $g_1(x) = b_1 x$. Then $f(g_1(x)) = x \pmod{x^2}$. Given a polynomial $g_k(x)$ of degree k such that $f(g_k(x)) = x \pmod{x^{k+1}}$, there is a unique element $c \in R$ such that $f(g_k(x)) = x + cx^{k+1} \pmod{x^{k+2}}$, and we define $b_{k+1} = -c/a_1$ and $g_{k+1}(x) = g_k(x) + b_{k+1}x^{k+1}$. One checks that $f(g_{k+1}(x)) = x \pmod{x^{k+2}}$. This gives a sequence of elements b_k for $k > 0$, and we define $g(x) = \sum_{k > 0} b_k x^k$. This satisfies $f(g(x)) = x$. By applying the same logic to g , we get a series h with $g(h(x)) = x$. Thus $f(g(h(x))) = f(x)$ but also $f(g(y)) = y$ so $f(g(h(x))) = h(x)$ so $f = h$ so $g(f(x)) = x$ as required. One can also check that g is unique. □

Example 2.9. Take $R = \mathbb{Z}[\frac{1}{n}]$ and $f(x) = (1+x)^n - 1$, so $f^{-1}(y) = (1+y)^{1/n} - 1$. The conclusion is that the coefficients of the usual Taylor expansion of $(1+y)^{1/n}$ lie in R . In particular, the coefficients of $\sqrt{1+y}$ lie in $\mathbb{Z}[\frac{1}{2}]$, giving another answer to Exercise 1.7.

Definition 2.10. We write $\text{RPS}(R)$ for the set of reversible power series over R , in other words the set of power series $f(x) \in R[[x]]$ such that $f(0) = 0$ and $f'(0)$ is a unit in R . This is clearly a group under composition. We write $\text{RPS}_1(R)$ for the subgroup of those f for which $f'(0) = 1$.

Definition 2.11. Let F_0 and F_1 be FGL's over a ring R . A *homomorphism* from F_0 to F_1 is a formal power series $f(x) \in R[[x]]$ such that $f(0) = 0$ and $f(x +_{F_0} y) = f(x) +_{F_1} f(y) \in R[[x, y]]$. We say that f is an *isomorphism* if there is a homomorphism g from F_1 to F_0 such that $f(g(x)) = x$. We say that f is a *strict isomorphism* if $f'(0) = 1$.

Remark 2.12. In the notation of Remark 2.4, a homomorphism f as above gives rise to a map $G_{F_0}(R') \rightarrow G_{F_1}(R')$ of bundles of groups over $X(R')$.

Remark 2.13. It follows from Lemma 2.8 that a homomorphism f is an isomorphism if and only if $f'(0)$ is a unit.

Example 2.14. In these examples we consider the following FGL's:

$$\begin{aligned} F_0(x, y) &= x + y \\ F_1(x, y) &= x + y + xy \\ F_2(x, y) &= (x + y)/(1 + xy). \end{aligned}$$

All these can be defined over any ring R .

1. If $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq R$ and $F_0(x, y) = x + y + xy$ and $F_1(x, y) = x + y$ then the series $f(x) = \log(1 + x) = -\sum_{k>0} (-x)^k/k$ gives an isomorphism from F_1 to F_0 .
2. If 2 is invertible in R then there is an isomorphism from F_1 to F_2 given by

$$f(x) = \frac{(1+x) - (1+x)^{-1}}{(1+x) + (1+x)^{-1}}.$$

3. If $2 = 0$ in R then $f(x) = x/(1+x^2)$ gives an isomorphism from F_2 to F_0 .

Exercise 2.15. Show that in the last example, we have $f^{-1}(y) = \sum_{k>0} y^{2^k-1}$. Hint: $(a+b)^2 = a^2 + b^2 \pmod{2}$.

3. FGL'S OVER \mathbb{Q} -ALGEBRAS

Proposition 3.1. *If R is a \mathbb{Q} -algebra, and F is an FGL over R , then there is a unique strict isomorphism $f: F \rightarrow F_a$, where F_a is the additive FGL, given by $F_a(x, y) = x + y$.*

Definition 3.2. This series $f(x)$ is called the *logarithm* of F , and is written $\log_F(x)$. Thus, we have $\log_F(x +_F y) = \log_F(x) + \log_F(y)$. We also write $\exp_F(x)$ for the inverse of $\log_F(x)$.

Proof. Suppose that $F(x, y) = \sum_{i,j} a_{ij} x^i y^j$. We write $F_2(x, y)$ for the partial derivative of F with respect to the second variable, in other words $F_2(x, y) = \sum_{i,j} j a_{ij} x^i y^{j-1}$. Because $F(x, y) = x + y \pmod{xy}$ we have $F_2(0, 0) = 1$ so $F_2(t, 0)$ is invertible in $R[[t]]$. As R is a \mathbb{Q} -algebra we can formally integrate and thus define

$$f(x) = \int_{t=0}^x \frac{dt}{F_2(t, 0)}.$$

More explicitly, if $1/F_2(t, 0) = \sum_k c_k t^k$ then we define $f(x) = \sum_k c_k t^{k+1}/k + 1$. (We need not try to interpret this in terms of Riemann sums or anything like that.) It is clear that $f(x) = x \pmod{x^2}$.

We are given that

$$F(F(x, y), z) = F(x, F(y, z)).$$

If we take partial derivatives with respect to z at $z = 0$ we obtain $F_2(F(x, y), 0) = F_2(x, y)F_2(y, 0)$, or equivalently $f'(F(x, y))^{-1} = F_2(x, y)f'(y)^{-1}$, or equivalently $f'(F(x, y))F_2(x, y) = f'(y)$. If we put $h(x, y) = f(F(x, y)) - f(x) - f(y)$ then we deduce that $\partial h(x, y)/\partial y = 0$. Thus, if $h(x, y) = \sum_{i,j} d_{ij} x^i y^j$ then $\sum_{i,j} j d_{ij} x^i y^{j-1} = 0$ in $R[[x, y]]$, which implies that $d_{ij} = 0$ when $j > 0$. On the other hand, it is clear that $h(x, 0) = 0$ so $d_{i0} = 0$ so $h = 0$. This means that $f(F(x, y)) = f(x) + f(y)$, so f is a homomorphism from F to F_a . It is a strict isomorphism, because $f(x) = x \pmod{x^2}$.

Now let g be another strict isomorphism, and let g^{-1} denote its reverse. Then the series $k(x) = f(g^{-1}(x))$ satisfies $k(x + y) = k(x) + k(y)$. We now expand this out and use the fact that

all binomial coefficients are invertible in \mathbb{Q} and thus in R . It follows easily that $k(x) = \lambda x$ for some $\lambda \in R$, but f and g were *strict* isomorphisms so $\lambda = 1$. This shows that $f = g$. \square

Corollary 3.3. *If R is a \mathbb{Q} -algebra then there is a bijection $\phi: \text{RPS}_1(R) \rightarrow \text{FGL}(R)$ given by*

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(f)(x, y) &= f^{-1}(f(x) + f(y)) \\ \phi^{-1}(F)(x) &= \log_F(x) = \int_0^x \frac{dt}{F_2(t, 0)}.\end{aligned}$$

Proof. Write $\psi(F) = \log_F$, so $\psi: \text{FGL}(R) \rightarrow \text{RPS}_1(R)$. The proposition shows that

$$\psi(F)(F(x, y)) = \psi(F)(x) + \psi(F)(y),$$

or in other words that $F = \phi\psi(F)$, so $\phi\psi = 1$. On the other hand, if $F = \phi(f)$ then f is certainly a homomorphism $F \rightarrow F_a$ with $f'(0) = 1$, and we have seen that \log_F is the *unique* such homomorphism, so $f = \psi\phi(f)$. \square

Example 3.4. 1. If $F(x, y) = x + y$ is the additive FGL then $\log_F(x) = x$.

2. If $F(x, y) = x + y + uxy$ is a multiplicative FGL then

$$\log_F(x) = \log(1 + ux)/u = \sum_{k>0} (-u)^{k-1} x^k / k.$$

3. If $F(x, y) = (x + y)/(1 + xy/c^2)$ is the Lorenz FGL then

$$\log_F(x) = \tanh^{-1}(x/c) = \frac{c}{2} \log \left(\frac{c + v}{c - v} \right).$$

4. Write $Q(x) = 1 - 2\delta x^2 + \epsilon x^4$, so we have a Jacobi formal group law $F(x, y) = (x\sqrt{Q(y)} + y\sqrt{Q(x)})/(1 - \epsilon x^2 y^2)$. The logarithm is then $\log_F(x) = \int_{t=0}^x Q(t)^{-1/2} dt$. This expression is called an *elliptic integral*; such things arise in the theory of planetary motion, for example. The definition of the logarithm gives the following transformation property of elliptic integrals:

$$\int_0^x \frac{dt}{\sqrt{Q(t)}} + \int_0^y \frac{dt}{\sqrt{Q(t)}} = \int_0^{F(x,y)} \frac{dt}{\sqrt{Q(t)}}.$$

5. Let F be an FGL over a p -adically complete ring R . In suitable circumstances **make this precise** we have

$$\log_F(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p^{-n} [p^n](x).$$

6. Let E be a 2-periodic generalised cohomology theory with a complex orientation in degree zero. We then have a fundamental class $[M] \in E^0$ for each stably almost complex manifold M . We also have a canonical formal group law F over E^0 , and it turns out that $\log_F(x) = \sum_{k \geq 0} [\mathbb{C}P^k] x^{k+1} / k + 1$.

4. AFFINE SCHEMES

Definition 4.1. A *functor* X from rings to sets is a rule which assigns to each ring R a set $X(R)$, and to each homomorphism $\alpha: R \rightarrow R'$ a map $X(\alpha): X(R) \rightarrow X(R')$, such that:

1. If $\alpha: R \rightarrow R'$ and $\alpha': R' \rightarrow R''$ then $X(\alpha'\alpha) = X(\alpha')X(\alpha): X(R) \rightarrow X(R'')$.
2. If $1: R \rightarrow R$ is the identity map, then $X(1): X(R) \rightarrow X(R)$ is the identity map.

Example 4.2. 1. Define $X(R) = \{(a, b) \in R^2 \mid b^2 = a^3 - a\}$ and $X(\alpha)(a, b) = (\alpha(a), \alpha(b))$.

This clearly gives a scheme. This is our version of the elliptic curve $y^2 = x^3 - x$.

2. We have a functor FGL, which sends a ring R to the set $\text{FGL}(R)$ of formal group laws over R . For any ring map $\alpha: R \rightarrow R'$, we have an associated map $\text{FGL}(\alpha): \text{FGL}(R) \rightarrow \text{FGL}(R')$: If $F(x, y) = \sum_{i,j \geq 0} a_{ij} x^i y^j \in \text{FGL}(R)$, then $\text{FGL}(\alpha)(F)(x, y) = \sum_{i,j \geq 0} \alpha(a_{ij}) x^i y^j$. We normally write α^F rather than $\text{FGL}(\alpha)(F)$.

3. Similarly, we have a functor RPS_1 , which sends a ring R to the set $\text{RPS}_1(R)$ of power series $f \in R[[x]]$ such that $f(x) = x \pmod{x^2}$. The maps $\text{RPS}(\alpha)$ are again given by applying α to the coefficients.

4. We have a functor \mathbb{A}^n defined by $\mathbb{A}^n(R) = R^n = R \times \dots \times R$. This contains the subfunctor $\widehat{\mathbb{A}}^n(R) = \text{Nil}(R)^n$. We also have a subfunctor $G_m \subset \mathbb{A}^1$ defined by $G_m(R) = R^\times$, the group of units of R .

5. We can define a functor T by $T(R) = R/2R$.
6. If X and Y are functors, then we can define a functor $X \times Y$ by $(X \times Y)(R) = X(R) \times Y(R)$ and $(X \times Y)(\alpha) = X(\alpha) \times Y(\alpha)$.

Definition 4.3. A *natural transformation* (or just *map*) $f: X \rightarrow Y$ of functors is a rule which assigns to each ring R a map $f_R: X(R) \rightarrow Y(R)$. We require that for any map $\alpha: R \rightarrow R'$ of rings, the following diagram must commute:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X(R) & \xrightarrow{X(\alpha)} & X(R') \\ f_R \downarrow & & \downarrow f_{R'} \\ Y(R) & \xrightarrow{Y(\alpha)} & Y(R') \end{array}$$

Example 4.4. 1. We can define a map $f: \mathbb{A}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^2$ by $f(a, b, c) = (a^2 + bc, c^3)$. It is easy to see that this gives a natural transformation. More generally, given any n -tuple of polynomials f_1, \dots, f_n in variables x_1, \dots, x_m over \mathbb{Z} , we get a map $f: \mathbb{A}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^n$ by

$$f(a_1, \dots, a_m) = (f_1(\underline{a}), \dots, f_n(\underline{a})).$$

We will see later that these are all the maps from \mathbb{A}^m to \mathbb{A}^n .

2. We have a map $\text{comp}: \text{RPS}_1 \times \text{RPS}_1 \rightarrow \text{RPS}_1$ defined by $\text{comp}(f, g)(x) = f(g(x))$. Using the naturality of this, one can check that the inversion map $\text{inv}: \text{RPS}_1 \rightarrow \text{RPS}_1$ (sending f to f^{-1}) is also natural.
3. We can define $\phi_R: \text{RPS}_1(R) \rightarrow \text{FGL}(R)$ by $\phi_R(f) = f^{-1}(f(x) + f(y))$, as in Corollary 3.3. This gives a map $\phi: \text{RPS}_1 \rightarrow \text{FGL}$.

Definition 4.5. For any ring A , we can define a functor $\text{spec}(A)$ from rings to sets by

$$\text{spec}(A)(R) = \text{Rings}(A, R),$$

where $\text{Rings}(A, R)$ denotes the set of ring homomorphisms from A to R . Given a homomorphism $\alpha: R \rightarrow R'$, the associated map $\alpha_* = \text{spec}(A)(\alpha): \text{Rings}(A, R) \rightarrow \text{Rings}(A, R')$ is just $\alpha_*(u) = \alpha \circ u$. We say that a functor X is an *affine scheme* if it is isomorphic to a functor of the form $\text{spec}(A)$ for some A .

- Example 4.6.** 1. Recall the functor $G_m(R) = R^\times$. Consider the ring $A = \mathbb{Z}[x, x^{-1}]$ of Laurent series over \mathbb{Z} in one variable x . We claim that $\text{spec}(A) \simeq G_m$. Given an element $u \in \text{spec}(A)(R)$ (in other words, a map $u: A \rightarrow R$) we define $\phi(f) = u(x)$. Given $v \in G_m(R) = R^\times$, we define $\psi(v): A \rightarrow R$ by $\psi(v)(\sum_k a_k x^k) = \sum_k a_k v^k$. It is easy to check that these constructions give the required bijection. Thus, G_m is an affine scheme.
2. Similar arguments show that $\mathbb{A}^n = \text{spec}(\mathbb{Z}[x_1, \dots, x_n])$, so this is a scheme.
 3. Inside \mathbb{A}^2 , we have the affine elliptic curve C defined by $C(R) = \{(a, b) \in R^2 \mid b^2 = a^3 - a\}$. It is easy to check that $C = \text{spec}(\mathbb{Z}[x, y]/(y^2 - x^3 + x))$.
 4. Let 1 denote any one-point set. We then have

$$\text{spec}(\mathbb{Q})(R) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if every } n > 0 \text{ is invertible in } R \\ \emptyset & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Similarly, we have

$$\text{spec}(\mathbb{F}_p)(R) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p = 0 \text{ in } R \\ \emptyset & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

5. The functor $T(R) = R/2R$ is not an affine scheme. Indeed, if X is an affine scheme then one sees easily that the inclusion $\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Q}$ gives an injective map $X(\mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow X(\mathbb{Q})$, but clearly there is no injection $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}/2\mathbb{Q} = \{0\}$.

Definition 4.7. For any functor X , we let \mathcal{O}_X be the class of natural transformations from X to \mathbb{A}^1 . In the cases of interest this will always be a set rather than a proper class. More explicitly, an element $f \in \mathcal{O}_X$ gives (for each ring R) a map $f: X(R) \rightarrow R$, such that $f(X(\alpha)(x)) = \alpha(f(x))$ for all $x \in X(R)$ and $\alpha: R \rightarrow R'$. We can make \mathcal{O}_X into a ring by defining $(f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$ and $(fg)(x) = f(x)g(x)$ in the usual way. It is called the *ring of functions on X* .

Proposition 4.8 (The Yoneda Lemma). *For any functor X and any ring A , the set of natural transformations from $\text{spec}(A)$ to X bijects with $X(A)$.*

Proof. The basic point is that a natural map $f: \text{spec}(A) \rightarrow X$ is freely and uniquely determined by its “universal example”, which is the element $f_A(1_A) \in X(A)$. We proceed to explain this more fully.

Write T for the set of natural transformations from $\text{spec}(A)$ to X . If $f \in T$ then we have a map

$$f_R: \text{Rings}(A, R) = \text{spec}(A)(R) \rightarrow X(R)$$

for each ring R . In particular, we have a map $f_A: \text{Rings}(A, A) \rightarrow X(A)$, so we can define $\phi(f) = f_A(1_A) \in X(A)$. This gives us a map $\phi: T \rightarrow X(A)$. Next, suppose we have an element $x \in X(A)$. For any ring R and any map $u: A \rightarrow R$, we have a map $X(u): X(A) \rightarrow X(R)$, because X is a functor. We can thus define $g_R(u) = X(u)(x)$. This construction gives a function

$$g_R: \text{spec}(A)(R) = \text{Rings}(A, R) \rightarrow X(R).$$

We claim that these maps give a natural transformation $g: \text{spec}(A) \rightarrow X$. If we have another map $\alpha: R \rightarrow R'$ of rings, we need to check that $X(\alpha)(g_R(u)) = g_{R'}(\alpha_*(u))$. This is clear because

$$X(\alpha)(g_R(u)) = X(\alpha)(X(u)(x)) = X(\alpha u)(x) = g_{R'}(\alpha_*(u)).$$

Because the definition of g depended on x , it makes sense to write $\psi(x) = g$. This gives a map $\psi: X(A) \rightarrow T$. We claim that this is inverse to ϕ . Indeed, we have

$$\phi(\psi(x)) = g_A(1_A) = X(1_A)(x) = x,$$

so $\phi\psi = 1$. In the other direction, suppose that $f \in T$, and define $x = \phi(f) = f_A(1_A)$, so that the map g defined above is $\psi(\phi(x))$. We need to show that $g = f$. In other words, given a ring R and an element $u \in \text{spec}(A)(R) = \text{Rings}(A, R)$, we need to show that $f_R(u) = g_R(u) = X(u)(x) = X(u)(f_A(1_A))$. For this, we notice that $u = u_*(1_A)$, where

$$u_* = \text{spec}(A)(u): \text{spec}(A)(A) \rightarrow \text{spec}(A)(R).$$

Because f is natural, we have

$$f_R(u) = f_R(u_*(1_A)) = X(u)(f_A(1_A))$$

as required. □

Corollary 4.9. *If A is any ring then $\mathcal{O}_{\text{spec}(A)} \simeq A$.*

Proof. By definition, $\mathcal{O}_{\text{spec}(A)}$ is the set of natural transformations from $\text{spec}(A)$ to \mathbb{A}^1 . By the Yoneda lemma, this bijects with $\mathbb{A}^1(A) = A$. □

Corollary 4.10. *If X is a scheme then X is isomorphic to $\text{spec}(\mathcal{O}_X)$.*

Proof. By the definition of a scheme, X is isomorphic to $\text{spec}(A)$ for some A , but the previous corollary tells us that $A \simeq \mathcal{O}_X$, so $X \simeq \text{spec}(\mathcal{O}_X)$. □

Exercise 4.11. Exhibit a map $X \rightarrow \text{spec}(\mathcal{O}_X)$ which is defined naturally for all functors X , and is an isomorphism when X is a scheme. (There are some set-theoretical problems here, but I suggest that you just ignore them.)

Corollary 4.12. *If A and B are rings then there is a canonical bijection between maps $\text{spec}(A) \rightarrow \text{spec}(B)$ of schemes, and ring maps $B \rightarrow A$.*

Proof. This is the case of Proposition 4.8 in which $X = \text{spec}(B)$. □

Example 4.13. 1. We have $\mathbb{A}^m = \text{spec}(\mathbb{Z}[x_1, \dots, x_m])$, so the Yoneda lemma tells us that maps from \mathbb{A}^m to \mathbb{A}^n biject with elements of $\mathbb{A}^n(\mathbb{Z}[x_1, \dots, x_m])$, or in other words with n -tuples of polynomials in m variables. This proves that all maps $\mathbb{A}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^n$ are of the form considered in Example 4.4.

2. We have maps $\pi_m^\pm: G_m \rightarrow G_m$ defined by $\pi_m^\pm(a) = \pm a^m$. We claim that these are all the maps from G_m to itself. To see this, note that $\mathcal{O}_{G_m} = \mathbb{Z}[u, u^{-1}]$. By the Yoneda lemma, we need only check that the elements $\pm u^m$ are all the units in this ring, which is elementary.

3. The functor RPS_1 is a scheme. Indeed, let A be the polynomial ring $\mathbb{Z}[b_2, b_3, \dots]$ in countably many variables over \mathbb{Z} . We have an element $u(x) = x + \sum_{k>1} b_k x^k \in \text{RPS}_1(A)$, and by the Yoneda Lemma this corresponds to a map $\text{spec}(A) \rightarrow \text{RPS}_1$. It is easy to see that this is an isomorphism. Explicitly, for any reversible power series $v(x) = x + \sum_{k>1} c_k x^k$ over any ring R , there is a unique homomorphism $\alpha: A \rightarrow R$ sending b_k to c_k for all k , and thus sending $u(x)$ to $v(x)$.
4. By a similar argument, we have $\text{RPS} = \text{spec}(\mathbb{Z}[b_1, b_2, \dots][b_1^{-1}])$.

Exercise 4.14. Show that $\text{spec}(A \otimes B) = \text{spec}(A) \times \text{spec}(B)$, and thus that any finite product of schemes is a scheme.

Exercise 4.15. Let $E(R)$ be the set of 2×2 -matrices M over R such that $M^2 = M$. Show that this defines an affine scheme, and investigate the structure of \mathcal{O}_E . You may want to consider the maps $e_0, e_2: E \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^1$ given by $e_0(M) = \det(1 - M)$ and $e_2(M) = \det(M)$.

Proposition 4.16. *The functor FGL is an affine scheme.*

Proof. Let $L_0 = \mathbb{Z}[a_{ij} \mid i, j > 0]$ be a polynomial algebra over \mathbb{Z} on countably many indeterminates $a_{i,j}$, one for each pair (i, j) of positive integers. Define $F_0(x, y) = x + y + \sum_{i,j} a_{ij} x^i y^j$, and define elements $b_{ijk} \in L_0$ by the equation

$$F_0(F_0(x, y), z) - F_0(x, F_0(y, z)) = \sum_{i,j,k} b_{ijk} x^i y^j z^k.$$

Let I be the ideal in L_0 generated by the elements $a_{ij} - a_{ji}$ (for $i, j > 0$) and the elements b_{ijk} , and put $L = L_0/I$. Let F be the image of F_0 in $L[[x, y]]$. It is clear that this is a formal group law over L . We thus have a map $\text{spec}(L)(R) = \text{Rings}(L, R) \rightarrow \text{FGL}(R)$, sending α to αF . We claim that this is a natural isomorphism. Indeed, let F' be an FGL over R , say $F'(x, y) = x + y + \sum_{i,j>0} a'_{ij} x^i y^j$. There is then a unique homomorphism $\alpha_0: L_0 \rightarrow R$ such that $\alpha_0(a_{ij}) = a'_{ij}$, so that $\alpha_0 F_0 = F'$. It follows that $\alpha_0(b_{ijk})$ is the coefficient of $x^i y^j z^k$ in $F'(F'(x, y), z) - F'(x, F'(y, z))$, but this series is just zero because F' is a formal group law. Thus $\alpha_0(b_{ijk}) = 0$, and similarly $\alpha_0(a_{ij} - a_{ji}) = 0$, so there is a unique induced map $\alpha: L = L_0/I \rightarrow R$ with $\alpha F = F'$. Thus, we have $\text{FGL} = \text{spec}(L)$, as required. \square

Definition 4.17. The ring $L = \mathcal{O}_{\text{FGL}}$ is called the *Lazard ring*.

Remark 4.18. In topology, it turns out that one can naturally identify FGL with $\text{spec}(MU_*)$ and RPS_1 with $\text{spec}(H_*MU)$, in such a way that the Hurewicz map $MU_* \rightarrow H_*MU$ induces the map $\phi: \text{RPS}_1 = \text{spec}(H_*MU) \rightarrow \text{spec}(MU_*) = \text{FGL}$.

5. BASE SCHEMES AND BASE CHANGE

We will often have a scheme X and want to consider other schemes equipped with a map to X , which we refer to as schemes over X . We have a correspondence between rings and schemes given by $A \mapsto \text{spec}(A)$; this gives a correspondence between \mathcal{O}_X -algebras and schemes over X .

Consider two functors V, W equipped with maps $p: V \rightarrow X$ and $q: W \rightarrow X$. A *map from V to W of schemes over X* means a map $f: V \rightarrow W$ of schemes such that $qf = p$. We define the *pullback* of V and W by

$$(V \times_X W)(R) = V(R) \times_{X(R)} W(R) = \{(v, w) \in V(R) \times W(R) \mid p(v) = q(w)\}.$$

We also write p^*W for $V \times_X W$, considered as a scheme over V using the projection map $(v, w) \mapsto v$. Given a ring A and two A -algebras B and C , one can check that

$$\text{spec}(B) \times_{\text{spec}(A)} \text{spec}(C) = \text{spec}(B \otimes_A C).$$

It follows that when V, W and X are all affine schemes, the pullback is again an affine scheme, and we have

$$\mathcal{O}_{V \times_X W} = \mathcal{O}_V \otimes_{\mathcal{O}_X} \mathcal{O}_W.$$

Definition 5.1. Let X be an affine scheme, and Y a functor equipped with a map $p: Y \rightarrow X$. A *system of formal coordinates* on Y is a collection of maps $x_1, \dots, x_n: Y \rightarrow \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^1$ such that the resulting map $a \mapsto (x_1(a), \dots, x_n(a), p(a))$ gives an isomorphism $Y \rightarrow \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^n \times X$. An *n -dimensional formal scheme* over X is a functor which admits such a system of coordinates.

Let A be a ring, and $f(x, y)$ a power series in $A[[x, y]]$. Write $X = \text{spec}(A)$. Given a point $u \in X(R)$ (in other words, a homomorphism $u: A \rightarrow R$) we define a power series uf over R in the obvious way, and then define

$$Y(R) = \{(u, x, y) \in X(R) \times \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^2(R) \mid (uf)(x, y) = 0\}.$$

We would like to know when this is a formal scheme over X . For this, we need a formal version of the implicit function theorem.

Proposition 5.2. *Let $f_2(x, y)$ denote the partial derivative of f with respect to the second variable. If $f(0, 0) = 0$ and $f_2(0, 0)$ is a unit in A then the map $(u, x, y) \mapsto (u, x)$ is an isomorphism $Y \simeq X \times \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^1$, and thus Y is a one-dimensional formal scheme over X .*

Proof. We will construct a power series $g(x) \in A[[x]]$ such that $g(0) = 0$ and $f(x, g(x)) = 0$, by the usual process of successive approximation. We start with $g_0(x) = 0$. Suppose we have constructed a polynomial g_k of degree k such that $g_k(0) = 0$ and $f(x, g_k(x)) = 0 \pmod{x^{k+1}}$, say $f(x, g_k(x)) = ax^{k+1} \pmod{x^{k+2}}$. We then have

$$f(x, g_k(x) + bx^{k+1}) = f(x, g_k(x)) + bx^{k+1}f_2(x, g_k(x)) \pmod{x^{2k+2}},$$

but $x^{k+1}f_2(x, g_k(x)) = x^{k+1}f_2(0, g_k(0)) = x^{k+1}f_2(0, 0) \pmod{x^{k+2}}$ so $f(x, g_k(x) + bx^{k+1}) = (a + bf_2(0, 0))x^{k+1} \pmod{x^{k+2}}$. Thus, we must take $g_{k+1}(x) = g_k(x) - ax^{k+1}/f_2(0, 0)$. If we let g be the formal power series such that $g(x) = g_k(x) \pmod{x^{k+1}}$ for all k , then we find that $f(x, g(x)) = 0$. We can thus define a map $\phi: X \times \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^1 \rightarrow Y$ by $\phi(u, x) = (u, x, (ug)(x))$. If we write π for the map $(u, x, y) \mapsto (u, x)$ then clearly $\pi\phi = 1$. Now consider the series $h(x, z) = f(x, g(x) + z) \in A[[x, z]]$. We have $h(x, 0) = f(x, g(x)) = 0$, so $h(x, z) = zk(x, z)$ for some series k . Moreover, we have $k(0, 0) = f_2(0, 0)$, which is a unit in A , so $k(x, z)$ is a unit in $A[[x, z]]$. Now suppose that $(u, x, y) \in Y(R)$ for some ring R . Writing $z = y - (ug)(x)$, we find that $(uh)(x, z) = (uf)(x, y) = 0$, so $z(uk)(x, z) = 0$ but k is invertible so $(uk)(x, z)$ is invertible in R so $z = 0$. This shows that $y = (ug)(x)$, and thus that $(u, x, y) = \phi\pi(u, x, y)$, so $\phi\pi = 1$. \square

Exercise 5.3. Generalise this to cover more variables and more equations.

Example 5.4. Take $X = \mathbb{A}^1$, and let Z be the subfunctor of $X \times \mathbb{A}^2$ whose fibre over a point $\rho \in X(R)$ is the set of pairs (a, b) such that $(a^2 + b^2)\rho = b$. This should be thought of as a circle of diameter $1/\rho$ which is tangent to the x -axis at the origin. Where $\rho = 0$ this degenerates to a straight line. Let $Y(R)$ be the subset where a and b are nilpotent. This should be thought of as an infinitesimal neighbourhood of the origin in Z . It seems intuitively clear that the vertical projection should give an isomorphism of Y with an infinitesimal neighbourhood of the origin in the x -axis. The proposition gives us a rigorous formulation and proof of this (take $A = \mathbb{Z}[\rho]$ and $f(x, y) = (x^2 + y^2)\rho - y$).

Example 5.5. Let A be a ring, suppose that $a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_6 \in A$, and consider the standard homogeneous Weierstrass cubic

$$g(x, y, z) = y^2z + a_1xyz + a_3yz^2 - x^3 - a_2x^2z - a_4xz^2 - a_6z^3.$$

This defines an elliptic curve C in the projective plane (provided that a certain expression $\Delta(a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_6)$ is invertible; otherwise we have a ‘‘generalised elliptic curve’’). We write $X = \text{spec}(A)$. The *formal completion* of C is the functor \widehat{C} defined by

$$\widehat{C}(R) = \{(u, x, z) \in X(R) \times \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^2(R) \mid (ug)(x, 1, z) = 0\}.$$

If we define $f(x, z) = g(x, 1, z)$ then one checks easily that $f(0, 0) = 0$ and $f_2(0, 0) = 1$ so Proposition 5.2 shows that \widehat{C} is a one-dimensional formal scheme over X .

We now show that all maps between formal schemes over a fixed base are given by formal power series.

Proposition 5.6. *Let $f: X \times \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^n \rightarrow X \times \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^m$ be a map of formal schemes over $X = \text{spec}(A)$. Then there are unique formal power series $f_1, \dots, f_m \in A[[x_1, \dots, x_n]]$ such that for all rings R and all $(u, a_1, \dots, a_n) \in X(R) \times \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^n(R)$ we have*

$$f(u, a_1, \dots, a_n) = (u, (uf_1)(a_1, \dots, a_n), \dots, (uf_m)(a_1, \dots, a_n)).$$

Moreover, the elements $f_i(0, \dots, 0) \in A$ are nilpotent. Conversely, given any m -tuple of series f_i whose constant terms are nilpotent, the above formula defines a map $X \times \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^n \rightarrow X \times \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^m$ of formal schemes over X .

Proof. Write $B_k = A[x_1, \dots, x_n]/(x_1^k, \dots, x_n^k)$. Let u_k be the obvious map $A \rightarrow B_k$, considered as an element of $X(B_k)$. Let t_k be the tuple (x_1, \dots, x_n) , considered as an element of $\widehat{\mathbb{A}}^n(B_k)$. We thus have an element $f(u_k, t_k) \in X(B_k) \times \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^n(B_k)$. As f is supposed to be a map of formal schemes over X , the first component of $f(u_k, t_k)$ must be u_k . The remaining components are elements of $\widehat{\mathbb{A}}^1(B_k)$, in other words nilpotent elements of B_k . If b is an element of B_k with constant term b_0 then it is clear that $b - b_0$ lies in the ideal (x_1, \dots, x_n) and each x_i is nilpotent so $b - b_0$ is nilpotent. Thus, b is nilpotent if and only if $b - b_0$ is nilpotent. It follows that there are polynomials $f_{k,1}, \dots, f_{k,m}$, of degree less than k in each of the variables x_1, \dots, x_n , whose constant terms are nilpotent, such that $f(u_k, t_k) = (u_k, f_{k,1}, \dots, f_{k,m})$. Now consider the evident quotient map $\pi: B_{k+1} \rightarrow B_k$. Clearly, the induced map $X(B_{k+1}) \times \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^n(B_{k+1}) \rightarrow X(B_k) \times \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^n(B_k)$ sends (u_{k+1}, t_{k+1}) to (u_k, t_k) . As f is natural, we see that π must send $f(u_{k+1}, t_{k+1})$ to $f(u_k, t_k)$, which means that $f_{k+1,j} = f_{k,j} \bmod (x_1^k, \dots, x_n^k)$ for all j . Thus, there are unique power series f_j such that $f_j = f_{k,j} \bmod (x_1^k, \dots, x_n^k)$ for all k .

Now consider an arbitrary ring R and a point $(u, \underline{a}) = (u, a_1, \dots, a_n) \in X(R) \times \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^n(R)$. The elements a_i are nilpotent, so there is an integer k such that $a_j^k = 0$ for all j . Let $\alpha: B_k \rightarrow R$ be the unique ring homomorphism such that $\alpha(a) = u(a)$ for $a \in A \subset B_k$ and $\alpha(x_j) = a_j$ for all j . It is clear that α sends $(u_k, t_k) \in X(B_k) \times \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^n(B_k)$ to (u, \underline{a}) . As f is natural, we conclude that α sends $f(u_k, t_k) = (u_k, f_{k,1}, \dots, f_{k,m})$ to $f(u, \underline{a})$. However, α sends $f_{k,j}$ to $(uf_{k,j})(a_1, \dots, a_n)$, which is the same as $(uf_j)(a_1, \dots, a_n)$ because $a_i^k = 0$ for all i . Thus, we have

$$f(u, \underline{a}) = (u, (uf_1)(\underline{a}), \dots, (uf_m)(\underline{a}))$$

as claimed. \square

Definition 5.7. A *formal group* over an affine scheme X is a one-dimensional formal scheme G over X (with projection map $\pi: G \rightarrow X$ say), with a specified Abelian group structure on $\pi^{-1}\{x\}$ for each ring R and point $x \in X(R)$. These structures are required to depend naturally on R . More precisely, we require that addition in G comes from a natural map $\sigma: G \times_X G \rightarrow G$, and that the map $\zeta: X \rightarrow G$ (sending x to the zero element in $\pi^{-1}\{x\}$) is also natural.

Example 5.8. Define

$$\widehat{G}_m(R) = \{a \in R \mid a = 1 \pmod{\text{Nil}(R)}\}.$$

One checks that any $a \in \widehat{G}_m(R)$ is invertible. Indeed, if $(1 - a)^k = 0$ then $a^{-1} = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} (1 - a)^j$. It follows that $\widehat{G}_m(R)$ is a group under multiplication. Moreover, the function $x(a) = 1 - a$ gives an isomorphism $\widehat{G}_m \simeq \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^1$, which shows that \widehat{G}_m is a formal group over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{Z})$.

Example 5.9. We can also define $\widehat{G}_a(R) = \text{Nil}(R)$, with the usual addition. This is clearly a formal group over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{Z})$.

Example 5.10. If F is a formal group law over A then we have a formal group G_F over $X = \text{spec}(A)$ defined by $G_F = X \times \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^1$. If $x \in X(R)$ then x gives a map $A \rightarrow R$, which we use to regard R as an A -algebra, so we can define $a +_F b$ for $a, b \in \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^1(R) = \pi^{-1}\{x\}$. This makes $\pi^{-1}\{x\}$ into an Abelian group, and thus G_F into a formal group, as required. The identity element is just 0. In the case $F(x, y) = x + y - xy$ we have an isomorphism $G_F \simeq \widehat{G}_m$ of formal groups, given by $a \mapsto 1 + a$.

Example 5.11. The formal scheme \widehat{C} of Example 5.5 has a natural group structure. More precisely, we have a map $\nu: \widehat{C} \rightarrow \widehat{C}$ given by

$$\nu(u, x, z) = (u, -x/(1 + u(a_1)x + u(a_3)z), -z/(1 + u(a_1)x + u(a_3)z)).$$

We will often allow ourselves to abbreviate things like this as

$$\nu(x, z) = (-x/(1 + a_1x + a_3z), -z/(1 + a_1x + a_3z)).$$

The group structure is characterised by the following properties:

- (a) The identity element is $(0, 0)$ (or in other words, $\zeta(u) = (u, 0, 0)$).
- (b) The negation map is $-(x, z) = \nu(x, z)$.
- (c) If $(x_0, z_0) + (x_1, z_1) + (x_2, z_2) = (0, 0)$ then the following determinant vanishes:

$$\begin{vmatrix} x_0 & 1 & z_0 \\ x_1 & 1 & z_1 \\ x_2 & 1 & z_2 \end{vmatrix} = 0.$$

Informally, this means that the points (x_0, z_0) , (x_1, z_1) and (x_2, z_2) are collinear.

Example 5.12. Let E be a 2-periodic complex orientable generalised cohomology theory. Write $X = \text{spec}(E^0)$, and let $G(R)$ be the set of ring homomorphisms $E^0\mathbb{C}P^\infty \rightarrow R$ that factor through $E^0\mathbb{C}P^k$ for some finite k . One can choose an element x such that $E^0\mathbb{C}P^\infty = E^0[[x]]$ and $E^0\mathbb{C}P^k = E^0[[x]]/x^{k+1}$, and using this we see that G is a formal group over X .

Definition 5.13. Let G be a formal group over a scheme X , with projection $\pi: G \rightarrow X$ and zero-section $\zeta: X \rightarrow G$. A *normalised coordinate* on G is a coordinate x such that $x(0) = 0$.

Proposition 5.14. *Let G be a formal group over a scheme X . Then G admits a normalised coordinate x . Moreover, for any such coordinate, there is a unique formal group law $F(x, y) = \sum_{i,j} a_{ij}x^i y^j \in \text{FGL}(\mathcal{O}_X)$ with the following property. For any ring R , any $t \in X(R)$, and any $u, v \in G(R)$ with $\pi(u) = \pi(v) = a$, we have*

$$x(u + v) = \sum_{i,j} a_{ij}(t)x(u)^i x(v)^j.$$

(We will allow ourselves to write this as $x(u + v) = F(x(u), x(v))$.)

Proof. First let x_0 be an arbitrary coordinate, and put $x = x_0 - (x_0 \circ \zeta \circ \pi)$, or less formally $x = x_0 - x_0(0)$. It is easy to check that x is a normalised coordinate. Consider the function $f(u, v) = x(u + v)$, so $f \in \mathcal{O}_{G \times_X G}$. We see from Proposition 5.6 that $\mathcal{O}_{G \times_X G} = \mathcal{O}_X[[x', x'']]$, where $x'(a, b) = x(a)$ and $x''(a, b) = x(b)$. It follows that there is a unique formal power series F such that $x(u + v) = F(x(u), x(v))$. As $x(0) = 0$, we find that $F(0, x(v)) = x(v)$. As the group structure of G is commutative and associative, we see that F is formally commutative and associative, so it is a formal group law as claimed. \square

6. THE SYMMETRIC COCYCLE LEMMA

We now start working towards Lazard's classification of formal group laws.

Definition 6.1. Let $L = \mathcal{O}_{\text{FGL}}$ be the Lazard ring, and let $a_{ij} \in L$ be the coefficient of $x^i y^j$ in the universal formal group law over L . Let $\epsilon: L \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ correspond to the additive formal group law $x + y$ under the isomorphism $\text{Hom}(L, \mathbb{Z}) = \text{FGL}(\mathbb{Z})$, so that $\epsilon(a_{ij}) = 0$ when $i + j > 1$. Write $I = \ker(\epsilon) \leq L$.

The main work is to determine the structure of the Abelian group I/I^2 . For this, we need the notion of a symmetric 2-cocycle.

Definition 6.2. Let A be an Abelian group, and let $A[[x, y]]$ denote the group of formal power series of the form $\sum_{i,j \geq 0} a_{ij}x^i y^j$ with $a_{ij} \in A$. This is not naturally a ring unless A is a ring, but this will not matter for our purposes here.

A *symmetric 2-cocycle* with coefficients in A is a power series $f(x, y) \in A[[x, y]]$ such that $f(x, y) = f(y, x)$ and $f(x, 0) = 0$ and

$$f(y, z) - f(x + y, z) + f(x, y + z) - f(x, y) = 0.$$

We write $Z(A)$ for the set of such f 's. We also write $Z_d(A)$ for the subset consisting of homogeneous polynomials of degree d , so that $Z(A) = \prod_{d > 1} Z_d(A)$. (It is easy to check that $Z_0(A) = Z_1(A) = 0$.)

Proposition 6.3. *There is a natural isomorphism $Z(A) = \text{Hom}(I/I^2, A)$, for all Abelian groups A .*

Proof. Write $R = \mathbb{Z} \oplus A$, and make this into a ring by defining $(n, a).(m, b) = (nm, nb + ma)$. Then the projection map $\pi: R \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is a ring homomorphism, the kernel is A (which is thus an ideal in R), and $A^2 = 0$. Let $Y(A)$ be the set of formal group laws F over R such that $(\pi F)(x, y) = x + y$. This means that $F(x, y) = x + y + f(x, y)$ for some $f(x, y) \in A[[x, y]]$. The conditions $F(x, 0) = x$ and $F(x, y) = F(y, x)$ are equivalent to $f(x, 0) = 0$ and $f(x, y) = f(y, x)$. Next, we have

$$F(F(x, y), z) = x + y + z + f(x, y) + f(x + y + f(x, y), z).$$

Because f has coefficients in A and $A^2 = 0$, we see that the last term is the same as $f(x + y, z)$. Given this, the associativity condition $F(x, F(y, z)) = F(F(x, y), z)$ is just $f(x, y) + f(x + y, z) = f(y, z) + f(x, y + z)$, which is equivalent to the cocycle condition. Thus, the map $F \mapsto f$ gives a bijection $Y(A) = Z(A)$.

On the other hand, formal group laws F over R biject with ring maps $\alpha: L \rightarrow R$. We clearly have $(\pi F)(x + y) = x + y$ if and only if $\pi\alpha(I) = 0$, or equivalently $\alpha(I) \leq A$. If so, then $\alpha(I^2) \leq A^2 = 0$, so α induces a homomorphism $I/I^2 \rightarrow A$. One checks easily that this gives a bijection $Y(A) = \text{Hom}(I/I^2, A)$, as required. \square

Lemma 6.4. *We have $(x + y)^p = x^p + y^p \pmod{p}$.*

Proof. Suppose that $0 < k < p$. Then $k!$ is a product of integers that are strictly less than p , so $k!$ is not divisible by p . Similarly, $(p - k)!$ is not divisible by p . However, $k!(p - k)! \binom{p}{k} = p!$ is divisible by p , so the binomial coefficient $\binom{p}{k}$ must be divisible by p . Thus $(x + y)^p = x^p + y^p + \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \binom{p}{k} x^k y^{p-k} = x^p + y^p \pmod{p}$. \square

Lemma 6.5. *We have $(x + y)^d = x^d + y^d \pmod{p}$ if and only if d is a power of p .*

Proof. If $d = p^k$ then we see from Lemma 6.4 and induction on k that $(x + y)^d = x^d + y^d \pmod{p}$. If d is not a power of p then we can write $d = p^k e$ for some k and e , where $e > 1$ and p does not divide e . We thus have

$$(X + Y)^e = X^e + eX^{e-1}Y + \dots + Y^e \not\equiv X^e + Y^e \pmod{p}.$$

It follows that

$$(x + y)^d = (x^{p^k} + y^{p^k})^e \not\equiv x^d + y^d \pmod{p},$$

as claimed. \square

Definition 6.6. Let d be an integer greater than 1. If d is a power of a prime number p , then we define $\nu(d) = p$; otherwise, we define $\nu(d) = 1$. We also define

$$b_d(x, y) = (x + y)^d - x^d - y^d = \sum_{i=1}^{d-1} \binom{d}{i} x^i y^{d-i},$$

and $c_d(x, y) = b_d(x, y)/\nu(d)$. It follows from Lemma 6.5 that $c_d(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$. One can check directly that $c_d(x, y)$ is a symmetric cocycle, so $c_d \in Z_d(\mathbb{Z})$. For any A , we define $\phi_A: A \rightarrow Z_d(A)$ by $\phi_A(a) = ac_d(x, y)$.

Exercise 6.7. Show that if $\Phi_d(x)$ is the d 'th cyclotomic polynomial (so that $x^n - 1 = \prod_{d|n} \Phi_d(x)$ for all $n > 0$) then $\nu(d) = \Phi_d(1)$. It would be nice to give an alternate approach to the results of this section based on this fact, but I have not managed to find one.

Proposition 6.8. *The map $\phi_A: A \rightarrow Z_d(A)$ is always an isomorphism.*

This will be proved at the end of the section.

Lemma 6.9. *If $a = b \pmod{p^j}$ (with $j > 0$) then $a^{p^k} = b^{p^k} \pmod{p^{j+k}}$ for all $k \geq 0$.*

Proof. We can reduce by induction to the case $k = 1$. We have $a = b + p^j c$ for some c , so

$$a^p - b^p = \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} \binom{p}{i} p^{ij} b^i c^j + p^{pj} c^p.$$

All the binomial coefficients are divisible by p (by the proof of Lemma 6.4) and $pj \geq j + 1$ so the right hand side is zero mod p^{j+1} , as required. \square

Lemma 6.10. *If p is prime and $k \geq 0$ then*

$$c_{p^{k+1}}(x, y) = c_p(x^{p^k}, y^{p^k}) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

Proof. We have seen that $(x + y)^{p^k} = x^{p^k} + y^{p^k} \pmod{p}$, so Lemma 6.9 tells us that $(x + y)^{p^{k+1}} = (x^{p^k} + y^{p^k})^p \pmod{p^2}$. The left hand side is $x^{p^{k+1}} + y^{p^{k+1}} + pc_{p^{k+1}}(x, y)$, and the right hand side is $x^{p^{k+1}} + y^{p^{k+1}} + pc_p(x^{p^k}, y^{p^k})$, so we conclude that $pc_{p^{k+1}}(x, y) = pc_p(x^{p^k}, y^{p^k}) \pmod{p^2}$, so $c_{p^{k+1}}(x, y) = c_p(x^{p^k}, y^{p^k}) \pmod{p}$. We have $c_p(X, Y) = \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{(p-1)!}{k!(p-k)!} X^k Y^{p-k}$, and the coefficients here are built from numbers strictly less than p so they are nonzero mod p . It follows that $c_p(x^{p^k}, y^{p^k}) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ as claimed. \square

Exercise 6.11. Show that $c_p(x, y) = -\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} (-x)^k y^{p-k}/k \pmod{p}$.

Corollary 6.12. *For each $d > 1$, the greatest common divisor of the coefficients of $c_d(x, y)$ is 1.*

Proof. It is equivalent to say that there is no prime p such that $c_d = 0 \pmod{p}$. Suppose that such a prime p exists. Then clearly $b_d = 0 \pmod{p}$, so $(x + y)^d = x^d + y^d \pmod{p}$. Thus, Lemma 6.5 tells us that $d = p^{k+1}$ for some $k \geq 0$, but then Lemma 6.10 tells us that $c_d(x, y) \neq 0 \pmod{p}$, a contradiction. \square

Definition 6.13. The corollary implies that we can choose integers λ_{di} for all $0 < i < d$ such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{d-1} \lambda_{di} \binom{d}{i} / \nu(d) = 1$$

for all $d > 1$. We fix such a system of λ 's once and for all. We also define a map $\pi_A: Z_d(A) \rightarrow A$ by

$$\pi_A\left(\sum_{i=1}^{d-1} a_i x^i y^{d-i}\right) = \sum_i \lambda_{di} a_i.$$

Lemma 6.14. *We have $\pi_A \phi_A = 1: A \rightarrow A$ for all A and all $d > 1$. Thus, ϕ_A is always a split monomorphism.*

Proof. This is clear from the definitions and the choice of the λ 's. \square

Given this,

Lemma 6.15. *$Z_d(A)$ is the set of polynomials $f(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^{d-1} a_i x^i y^{d-i}$ with $a_i \in A$ such that $a_i = a_{d-i}$ and*

$$(i, j)a_{i+j} = (j, d-i-j)a_i$$

whenever $i > 0$ and $j \geq 0$ and $i + j < d$. (Here $(i, j) = (i + j)!/i!j!$.)

Proof. Just expand everything out. \square

Lemma 6.16. *If A is a vector space over \mathbb{Q} then the map $\phi_A: A \rightarrow Z_d(A)$ is an isomorphism for all $d > 1$, with inverse π_A .*

Proof. Define $\psi: Z_d(A) \rightarrow A$ by $\psi(f) = \nu(d)a_1/d$ (where $f(x, y) = \sum_i a_i x^i y^{d-i}$). It is easy to check that $\psi(c_d) = 1$, so that $\psi\phi_A = 1$. We next claim that ψ is injective. Indeed, suppose that $\psi(f) = 0$, so that $a_{1,d-1} = 0$. The case $j = 1$ in Lemma 6.15 gives $a_{i+1} = (d-i)a_i/(i+1)$, so we see inductively that $a_i = 0$ for all i so $f = 0$ as required. We have seen that $\psi\phi = 1$ so $\psi\phi\psi = \psi$ but ψ is injective so $\phi\psi = 1$. Thus ϕ is an isomorphism as claimed. We know that $\pi_A\phi_A = 1$, so we must have $\pi_A = \psi = \phi_A^{-1}$. \square

Corollary 6.17. *If A is a torsion-free Abelian group then the map $\phi_A: A \rightarrow Z_d(A)$ is an isomorphism for all $d > 1$.*

Proof. Write $A' = \mathbb{Q} \otimes A$; because A is torsion-free we have $A \leq A'$. It is easy to see that $Z_d(A) = A[x, y] \cap Z_d(A')$, and we know that $\phi_{A'}$ is an isomorphism by the lemma. It thus suffices to check that if $a \in A'$ and $\phi_{A'}(a) \in A[x, y]$ then $a \in A$. This is clear because $a = \pi_{A'}\phi_{A'}(a)$ and $\pi_{A'}$ sends $Z_d(A)$ to A by construction. \square

Lemma 6.18. *Let A be a vector space over \mathbb{Z}/p and suppose that $f \in Z_d(A)$. Write $f_2(x, y)$ for the partial derivative of f with respect to the second variable and suppose that $f_2(x, 0) = 0$. Then $f(x, y) = g(x^p, y^p)$ for some $g \in Z_{d/p}(A)$, which means that $f = 0$ if d is not divisible by p .*

Proof. We have the cocycle identity

$$f(y, z) - f(x + y, z) + f(x, y + z) - f(x, y) = 0.$$

If we differentiate with respect to z at $z = 0$ we obtain $f_2(y, 0) - f_2(x + y, 0) + f_2(x, y) = 0$. As $f_2(x, 0) = 0$, we conclude that $f_2(y, 0) = f_2(x + y, 0) = 0$ and thus $f_2(x, y) = 0$. If $f(x, y) = \sum_{i+j=d} a_{ij} x^i y^j$ then $f_2(x, y) = \sum_{i+j=d} j a_{ij} x^i y^{j-1}$ so we conclude that $a_{ij} = 0$ unless p divides j . As $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$ we see that $a_{ij} = 0$ unless p divides both i and j . If p does not divide d , we see that $a_{ij} = 0$ for all i, j and thus that $f = 0$. If p does divide d we see that $f(x, y) = g(x^p, y^p)$ for some homogeneous symmetric polynomial g of degree d/p . As $(x + y)^p = x^p + y^p \pmod{p}$ we see that $g(y^p, z^p) - g(x^p + y^p, z^p) + g(x^p, y^p + z^p) - g(x^p, y^p) = 0$, and it follows that $g(Y, Z) - g(X + Y, Z) + g(X, Y + Z) - g(X, Y) = 0 \in A[X, Y, Z]$, so $g \in Z_{d/p}(A)$. \square

Lemma 6.19. *Suppose that p divides d but that d is not a power of p . Then if $f \in Z_d(A)$ we have $f(x, y) = g(x^p, y^p)$ for some $g \in Z_{d/p}(A)$.*

Proof. Because f is homogeneous of degree d and $dA = 0$ we have $xf_1(x, y) + yf_2(x, y) = df(x, y) = 0$. Write $g(x) = xf_2(x, 0)$. As $f(x, y) = f(y, x)$ we also have $g(x) = xf_1(0, x)$. If we differentiate the cocycle identity with respect to z at $z = 0$ we obtain

$$f_2(y, 0) - f_2(x + y, 0) + f_2(x, y) = 0.$$

If we exchange x and y and then use the symmetry of f we obtain

$$f_1(0, x) - f_2(x + y, 0) + f_1(x, y) = 0.$$

We now multiply these two equations by y and x respectively, and add them together using the relation $xf_1 + yf_2 = 0$. This gives $g(x + y) = g(x) + g(y)$. Moreover, it is clear that g is homogeneous of degree d , say $g(x) = ax^d$ for some $a \in A$. It follows that $\binom{d}{i}a = 0$ for $0 < i < d$, and d is not a power of p so we must have $a = 0$. Thus $f_2(x, 0) = 0$, and the conclusion follows from Lemma 6.18. \square

Lemma 6.20. *If $d = p^k > p$ and $f \in Z_d(A)$ then we have $f(x, y) = g(x^p, y^p)$ for some $g \in Z_{d/p}(x, y)$.*

Proof. Write $f(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^{d-1} a_i x^i y^{d-i}$. If we apply Lemma 6.15 with $i = 1$ and $j = p - 1$ we find that $\binom{p^k-1}{p-1} a_1 = pa_p = 0$. On the other hand, we have

$$\binom{p^k-1}{p-1} = \prod_{t=1}^{p-1} \frac{p^k - t}{t},$$

which is easily seen to be nonzero mod p . It follows that $a_1 = 0$, so $f_2(x, 0) = a_1 x^{d-1} = 0$, and the conclusion again follows from Lemma 6.18. \square

Exercise 6.21. Give another proof of Lemma 6.19 along the same lines as that of Lemma 6.20.

Lemma 6.22. *The map $\phi_{\mathbb{Z}/p, d}: \mathbb{Z}/p \rightarrow Z_d(\mathbb{Z}/p)$ is an isomorphism for all primes p and all $d > 1$.*

Proof. We have seen that ϕ_A is a split monomorphism for all A , so it suffices to show either that $\phi_{\mathbb{Z}/p, d}$ is surjective, or that $Z_d(\mathbb{Z}/p)$ has dimension at most one over \mathbb{Z}/p . First suppose that d is not divisible by p . Then for any $f \in Z_d(\mathbb{Z}/p)$ we have $f_2(x, 0) = a_1 x^{d-1}$ for some $a_1 \in \mathbb{Z}/p$ and it follows from Lemma 6.18 that the map $f \mapsto a_1$ gives an injection $Z_d(\mathbb{Z}/p) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/p$, so $\phi_{\mathbb{Z}/p, d}$ is an isomorphism. Now consider the case $d = p$. Again, if $a_1 = 0$ we see that $f(x, y) = g(x^p, y^p)$ for some $g \in Z_1(\mathbb{Z}/p)$, but $Z_1(A) = 0$ for all A by easy arguments, so $f = 0$. It follows as before that $\phi_{\mathbb{Z}/p, p}$ is an isomorphism.

Now suppose that $d > p$ is divisible by p . We can then write $d = p^k e$ for some $k > 0$ and $e > 1$ with either $e = p$ or $e \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. By repeatedly applying Lemma 6.19, we find that $f(x, y) = g(x^{p^k}, y^{p^k})$ for some $g \in Z_e(\mathbb{Z}/p)$. It follows that the map $g \mapsto g(x^{p^k}, y^{p^k})$ gives a surjection from Z_e to Z_d , and we know that $Z_e \simeq \mathbb{Z}/p$, so Z_d has dimension at most one, so $\phi_{\mathbb{Z}/p, d}$ is an isomorphism. \square

Lemma 6.23. *The map $\phi_{\mathbb{Z}/p^k}: \mathbb{Z}/p^k \rightarrow Z_d(\mathbb{Z}/p^k)$ is an isomorphism for all $k > 0$ and $d > 1$.*

Proof. We argue by induction, using the previous lemma for the case $k = 1$. Suppose that $f \in Z_d(\mathbb{Z}/p^{k+1})$. By the inductive hypothesis applied to the image of f in $Z_d(\mathbb{Z}/p^k)$, we see that there exists $a \in \mathbb{Z}/p^{k+1}$ such that $f - \phi(a) = 0 \pmod{p^k}$, say $f = \phi(a) + p^k g$ for some g . The polynomial g is well-defined mod p , and it is easy to check that it gives an element of $Z_d(\mathbb{Z}/p)$. Thus, by the case $k = 1$, we see that $g = \phi(b)$ for some $c \in \mathbb{Z}/p$, and thus $f = \phi(a + p^k b)$. This shows that ϕ is surjective, and we have already seen that it is injective. \square

Proof of Proposition 6.8. We know from Corollary 6.17 and Lemma 6.23 that ϕ_A is an isomorphism when $A = \mathbb{Z}$ or $A = \mathbb{Z}/p^k$. Any finitely generated Abelian group can be written as a direct sum of groups of these types, and it is easy to see that $Z_d(A \oplus B) = Z_d(A) \oplus Z_d(B)$, so we see that ϕ_A is an isomorphism whenever A is finitely generated. Now let A be a general Abelian group, and suppose that $f \in Z_d(A)$. Let B be the subgroup of A generated by the coefficients of f , so that B is finitely generated and $f \in Z_d(B)$. As ϕ_B is an isomorphism, we have some $b \in B \leq A$ such that $f = \phi_B(b) = \phi_A(b)$. Thus, ϕ_A is surjective, and we also know from Lemma 6.14 that it is injective. \square

7. THE STRUCTURE OF THE LAZARD RING

Recall the Lazard ring $L = \mathcal{O}_{\text{FGL}}$ constructed in the proof of Proposition 4.16. In this section, we investigate the structure of L . In principle, this gives a classification of all formal group laws.

Definition 7.1. Fix integers λ_{di} as in definition 6.13, and write $a_d = \sum_{i=1}^d \lambda_{di} a_{i,d-i} \in L$.

Theorem 7.2. *The Lazard ring L is a polynomial algebra over \mathbb{Z} on the generators a_d for $d > 1$. In other words, we have*

$$L = \mathbb{Z}[a_2, a_3, a_4, \dots].$$

This will be proved at the end of this section.

It is technically convenient in the proof to regard L as a graded ring, so we pause to explain some basic ideas about gradings.

Definition 7.3. A *grading* on a ring R is a sequence of additive subgroups R_k for $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $1 \in R_0$ and $R_i R_j \subseteq R_{i+j}$ and $R = \bigoplus_k R_k$. If $a \in R_k$ for some k then we say that a is a homogeneous element of degree k .

Definition 7.4. Recall that we have an affine scheme G_m defined by $G_m(R) = R^\times$. An *action* of G_m on a scheme X is a map of schemes $\alpha: G_m \times X \rightarrow X$ such that $\alpha(1, x) = x$ and $\alpha(u, \alpha(v, x)) = \alpha(uv, x)$ for all rings R and all $x \in X(R)$ and $u, v \in R^\times$. We will often write $u.x$ rather than $\alpha(u, x)$.

Example 7.5. We have an action of G_m on RPS_1 by $(u.f)(x) = u^{-1}f(ux)$. We also have an action of G_m on FGL by $(u.F)(x, y) = u^{-1}F(ux, uy)$.

Proposition 7.6. *An action of G_m on an affine scheme $X = \text{spec}(A)$ gives a grading of $\mathcal{O}_X = A$.*

Proof. Recall that $A = \mathcal{O}_X$ can be seen as the set of natural maps $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^1$. We let A_k be the set of those maps that satisfy $f(u.x) = u^k f(x)$ (for all rings R and all $x \in X(R)$ and $u \in R^\times$). It is clear that A_k is an additive subgroup of A , that $1 \in A_0$ and that $A_i A_j \subseteq A_{i+j}$. Thus, it suffices to check that $A = \bigoplus_k A_k$. Suppose that $f \in A$. We then have a map $g: G_m \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^1$ given by $g(u, x) = f(u.x)$. This is an element of the ring

$$\mathcal{O}_{G_m \times X} = \mathcal{O}_{G_m} \otimes \mathcal{O}_X = \mathbb{Z}[u, u^{-1}] \otimes A = A[u, u^{-1}].$$

There are thus unique elements $f_k \in A$ for $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $g = \sum_k u^k f_k$, or in other words $f(u.x) = \sum_k u^k f_k(x)$ for all x and u . Note that $f \in A_k$ if and only if $f = f_k$. Moreover, the associativity of the action gives

$$\sum_k u^k v^k f_k(x) = f((uv).x) = f(u.(v.x)) = \sum_{i,j} u^i v^j f_{ij}(x).$$

By the same argument that gives the uniqueness of the f_i 's, we can conclude that $f_k = f_{kk}$, so $f_k \in A_k$. Moreover, we have $f(x) = f(1.x) = \sum_k f_k(x)$, so $f = \sum_k f_k$. This shows that $A = \sum_k A_k$, and the uniqueness of the f_k 's shows that the sum is direct. Thus, we have a grading on A . \square

Example 7.7. Our action of G_m on FGL gives a grading of the Lazard ring L . For any formal group law F we have $F(x, y) = x + y + \sum_{i,j>0} a_{ij}(F)x^i y^j$, so $(u.F)(x, y) = x + y + \sum_{i,j>0} u^{i+j-1} a_{ij}(F)x^i y^j$, so $a_{ij}(u.F) = u^{i+j-1} a_{ij}(F)$, so $a_{ij} \in L_{i+j-1}$. It follows that $a_k \in L_{k-1}$. Note that L is a quotient of the polynomial ring generated by the elements a_{ij} . These all have strictly positive degree, and for any integer d there are only finitely many generators a_{ij} whose degree is less than d . It follows easily that each homogeneous piece L_k is a finitely generated Abelian group. It is this finiteness property that makes the grading useful for us.

Lemma 7.8. *There are elements $b_k \in \mathbb{Q} \otimes L_{k-1}$ for $k > 0$ such that $b_1 = 1$ and $\mathbb{Q} \otimes L = \mathbb{Q}[b_2, b_3, \dots]$.*

Proof. Let M be the ring $\mathbb{Z}[b_2, b_3, \dots]$, so we claim that $\mathbb{Q} \otimes L \simeq \mathbb{Q} \otimes M$. As we saw in Example 4.6, we can identify RPS_1 with $\text{spec}(M)$. We now want to describe $\text{spec}(\mathbb{Q} \otimes M)$. Notice that if every integer $n \neq 0$ becomes invertible in R then there is a unique homomorphism $\mathbb{Q} \rightarrow R$, and in any other case there are no homomorphisms $\mathbb{Q} \rightarrow R$. It follows that $\text{spec}(\mathbb{Q} \otimes M)(R)$ is $\text{RPS}_1(R)$ if R admits a \mathbb{Q} -algebra structure, and \emptyset otherwise. We have a similar description of $\text{spec}(\mathbb{Q} \otimes L)$ in terms of $\text{spec}(L) = \text{FGL}$, so we conclude that the map ϕ in Corollary 3.3 induces an isomorphism

$\text{spec}(\mathbb{Q} \otimes M) \simeq \text{spec}(\mathbb{Q} \otimes L)$. As maps between schemes biject with maps between rings in the opposite direction (Corollary 4.12) we conclude that there is an isomorphism $\phi^*: \mathbb{Q} \otimes L \simeq \mathbb{Q} \otimes M$. If we let G_m act on RPS_1 and FGL as in Example 7.5 then one can check that $\phi(u.f) = u.\phi(f)$ and thus that $\phi^*(L_k) \leq M_k$. One can also see that $b_k \in M_{k-1}$, so the preimage of b_k in $\mathbb{Q} \otimes L$ lies in L_{k-1} . This proves the lemma.

We can be a little more explicit if desired: under the various implicit identifications, the element $b_k \in \mathbb{Q} \otimes L$ is just the coefficient of x^k in the logarithm of the universal formal group law F over L . The map $\phi^*: L \rightarrow M$ is the unique map that sends F to $f^{-1}(f(x) + f(y))$, where $f(x) = x + \sum_{k>0} b_k x^k \in M[[x]]$. \square

Definition 7.9. Recall that I is the kernel of the map $L \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ that sends a_{ij} to 0 when $i + j > 1$. It is easy to check that $I = \bigoplus_{k>0} L_k$. We also write $Q = I/I^2$, and Q_d for the part of Q in degree d , which is just

$$Q_d = L_d / \sum_{k=1}^{d-1} L_k L_{d-k}.$$

Lemma 7.10. *For each $d > 1$, the group Q_d is freely generated by a_d .*

Proof. We know from Proposition 6.3 that $Z(A) = \text{Hom}(Q, A)$, and one can deduce easily that $Z_d(A) = \text{Hom}(Q_d, A)$. We also know that the map $\pi_d: Z_d(A) \rightarrow A$ is an isomorphism. If we identify $Z_d(A)$ with $\text{Hom}(Q_d, A)$, then this becomes the map $\alpha \mapsto \alpha(a_d)$. As this is an isomorphism, we conclude that Q_d is freely generated by a_d . \square

Proof of Theorem 7.2. Let L' be the polynomial ring $\mathbb{Z}[a'_2, a'_3, \dots]$, and define a map $\phi: L' \rightarrow L$ by $\phi(a'_k) = a_k$. There is a unique grading on L' such that a'_k is homogeneous of degree $k - 1$ for all k , and if we use this then $\phi(L'_k) \leq L_k$ for all k . We now let I' be the ideal generated by $\{a'_k \mid k > 1\}$, so that $I' = \bigoplus_{k>0} L'_k$, and we put $Q' = I'/(I')^2$. This is the direct sum of its homogeneous pieces Q'_d , and it is easy to see that Q'_d is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z} , freely generated by a'_{d+1} . It follows easily that the induced map $\phi: I'/(I')^2 \rightarrow I/I^2$ is an isomorphism, and thus that $I = \phi(I') + I^2$. We now claim that $\phi: L'_d \rightarrow L_d$ is surjective for all d . Indeed, this is clear for $d = 0$. Suppose that it holds for degrees less than d , where $d > 0$. If $a \in L_d$ then $a \in I$ so we have $a = \phi(b) + c$ for some $b \in I'$ and $c \in I^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{d-1} L_i L_{d-i}$. By induction we know that $\phi: L'_i \rightarrow L_i$ is surjective for $0 < i < d$ and it follows that c is in the image of ϕ , and thus that a is in the image of ϕ . This shows that ϕ is surjective. Next, consider the induced map $\mathbb{Q} \otimes L' \rightarrow \mathbb{Q} \otimes L$. It follows from the above that this is again surjective. On the other hand, we know from Lemma 7.8 that $\mathbb{Q} \otimes L \simeq \mathbb{Q}[b_2, b_3, \dots]$, with b_k homogeneous of degree $k - 1$. It follows that $\mathbb{Q} \otimes L'_d$ and $\mathbb{Q} \otimes L_d$ have the same, finite, dimension as vector spaces over \mathbb{Q} . As $\phi: \mathbb{Q} \otimes L'_d \rightarrow \mathbb{Q} \otimes L_d$ is surjective, we conclude easily that it must be an isomorphism. On the other hand, L'_d is a free Abelian group, so the evident map $L'_d \rightarrow \mathbb{Q} \otimes L'_d$ is injective. If $a \in L'_d$ satisfies $\phi(a) = 0 \in L_d$ then the image under the composite $L'_d \rightarrow \mathbb{Q} \otimes L'_d \xrightarrow{\phi} \mathbb{Q} \otimes L_d$ is also zero, but this composite is injective so $a = 0$. It follows that $\phi: L' \rightarrow L$ is injective. We have already seen that it is surjective, so it is an isomorphism as required. \square

8. THE FUNCTIONAL EQUATION LEMMA

The functional equation lemma gives sufficient conditions under which a formal group law defined over a ring of the form $\mathbb{Q} \otimes R$ is actually defined over R . We shall not formally state the lemma, but we will prove two results that implicitly use it.

Proposition 8.1. *Let p be a prime, and let $n > 0$ be an integer. Define $l(x) = \sum_{k \geq 0} x^{p^{nk}} / p^k$ and $F(x, y) = l^{-1}(l(x) + l(y))$. Then F is a formal group law over \mathbb{Z} .*

Proof. It is clear that F is a formal group law over \mathbb{Q} , so it will be enough to show that it is integral, in other words that the coefficients lie in \mathbb{Z} . This is true mod $(x, y)^2$, because $F(x, y) = x + y \pmod{(x, y)^2}$. Suppose that F is integral mod $(x, y)^d$; it will be enough to deduce that it is integral mod $(x, y)^{d+1}$. Write $R_0 = \mathbb{Z}[[x, y]] / (x, y)^{d+1}$ and $R = \mathbb{Q} \otimes R_0 = \mathbb{Q}[[x, y]]$. Write $q = p^n$ and let ψ be the unique ring map from R to itself that sends x to x^q and y to y^q . From now on we work in R . Because F is integral mod $(x, y)^d$, we can write $F = A + B$ where $A \in R_0$ and B is homogeneous of degree d . Moreover, A actually lies in the ideal generated by x and y , so $AB = xB = yB = B^2 = 0$. We make the following claims:

- (a) $l(x) + l(y) = l(A + B) = l(A) + B$.
- (b) $l(x) = x + l(x^q)/p$.
- (c) $\psi(l(A)) = l(x^q) + l(y^q)$.
- (d) If $u, v \in R_0$ and $u - v \in pR_0$ then $l(u) - l(v) \in pR_0$ (although usually $l(u), l(v) \notin R_0$).
- (e) $\psi(A) - A^q \in pR_0$.
- (f) $\psi(l(A))/p - l(A^q)/p \in R_0$.

For claim (a), we note that $F = A + B$ and $l(x) + l(y) = l(F)$ by the definition of F . If we expand out $l(A + B)$ using the fact that $AB = B^2 = 0$, we get $l(A) + B$ as claimed. For claim (b), we recall that $l(x) = \sum_{k \geq 0} x^{p^{nk}}/p^k$; the $k = 0$ term is just x , and the sum of the remaining terms is $l(x^q)/p$. We next note that $\psi(B) = 0$ (because B is homogeneous of degree d). Thus, if we apply the homomorphism ψ to equation (a) we get claim (c). For claim (d), we use Lemma 6.9 to deduce that $u^{p^{nk}} = v^{p^{nk}} \pmod{p^{nk+1}R_0}$ and the result follows easily. For (e), we observe that ψ induces an endomorphism $\bar{\psi}$ of $\bar{R}_0 = R_0/pR_0 = \mathbb{F}_p[[x, y]]/(x, y)^{d+1}$. We also have an iterated Frobenius endomorphism $\phi^n: \bar{R}_0 \rightarrow \bar{R}_0$, and these two endomorphisms have the same effect on the generators x and y , so they must be the same. By applying them to A we see that $\psi(A) = A^q \pmod{pR_0}$ as claimed. Claim (f) follows immediately from (d) and (e).

We now have

$$\begin{aligned} B &= l(x) + l(y) - l(A) \\ &= (x + y - A) + (l(x^q) + l(y^q) - l(A^q))/p \\ &= (x + y - A) + (\psi(l(A)) - l(A^q))/p \\ &\in R_0. \end{aligned}$$

Indeed, the four lines above come from claims (a), (b), (c) and (f) respectively. This proves that B is integral, so F is integral mod $(x, y)^{d+1}$, as required. \square

We now use similar methods to construct a more complicated formal group law that is p -locally universal, in a sense that we will not make precise here.

Definition 8.2. Let B be the ring $\mathbb{Z}[v_1, v_2, \dots]$, and let $\psi: B \rightarrow B$ be the ring map that sends v_k to v_k^p for all k . There is a unique way to extend this to an endomorphism of $B[[x, y]]$ sending x to x^p and y to y^p ; we again write ψ for the extended map.

Now consider a sequence $I = (i_1, \dots, i_r)$ of strictly positive integers. We write $|I| = r$ and $\|I\| = i_1 + \dots + i_r$. We also write $\pi_t = \prod_{s < t} p^{i_s}$ and $v_I = \prod_{t=1}^r v_t^{\pi_t}$. We define

$$l(x) = \sum_I v_I x^{p^{\|I\|}} / p^{|I|}.$$

Here the sum runs over all such sequences, including the empty sequence, with $\|\emptyset\| = |\emptyset| = 0$ and $v_\emptyset = 1$. Finally, we write

$$F(x, y) = l^{-1}(l(x) + l(y)) \in (\mathbb{Q} \otimes B)[[x, y]].$$

Proposition 8.3. *The series F defined above is a formal group law over B .*

Proof. Every nonempty sequence I can be written in the form iJ for some $i > 0$ and some possibly empty sequence J . One checks that $|I| = 1 + |J|$ and $\|I\| = i + \|J\|$ and $v_I = v_i v_J^{p^i} = v_i \psi^i(v_J)$. It follows easily that

$$l(x) = x + \sum_{i > 0} v_i (\psi^i l)(x^{p^i})/p.$$

The rest of the proof is much the same as that of Proposition 8.1, except that we use the above equation in place of the equation $l(x) = x + l(x^q)/p$. \square

9. THE FROBENIUS MAP

In the next section, we will study formal group laws over \mathbb{F}_p -algebras, or equivalently rings R in which $p = 0$. As preparation for this, we need some generalities about schemes of the form $\text{spec}(R)$ for such rings R . These are of course just the schemes over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{F}_p)$.

Definition 9.1. If R is an \mathbb{F}_p -algebra, then we have a ring map $\phi = \phi_R: a \mapsto a^p$ from R to itself, called the *algebraic Frobenius map*. It is clear that if $f: R \rightarrow R'$ is a map of rings, then $f(a^p) = f(a)^p$, so $f\phi_R = \phi_{R'}f$, so the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} R & \xrightarrow{\phi_R} & R \\ f \downarrow & & \downarrow f \\ R' & \xrightarrow{\phi_{R'}} & R' \end{array}$$

This means that ϕ is a natural transformation from the identity functor to itself.

Definition 9.2. Let X be a functor with a map $X \rightarrow \text{spec}(\mathbb{F}_p)$, which just means that $X(R) = \emptyset$ if $p \neq 0$ in R . We then define a map $F_X: X \rightarrow X$ by $(F_X)_R = X(\phi_R): X(R) \rightarrow X(R)$. We call this the *geometric Frobenius map*. If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a map of functors over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{F}_p)$, we check easily (using the naturality of f_R with respect to maps of R) that the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{F_X} & X \\ f \downarrow & & \downarrow f \\ Y & \xrightarrow{F_Y} & Y. \end{array}$$

Proposition 9.3. *Let X be a functor over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{F}_p)$.*

1. *If $x \in X(R)$ and $f \in \mathcal{O}_X$ then $f(F_X(x)) = f(x)^p$.*
2. *If $X = \text{spec}(A)$, then $F_X = \text{spec}(\phi_A)$.*

Proof. The first claim follows by regarding f as a map $X \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^1$ and using the naturality of F . For the second claim, let $u: A \rightarrow R$ be a point of $X(R)$. Then $F_X(u) = X(\phi_R)(u) = \phi_R \circ u$ and $\text{spec}(\phi_A)(u) = u \circ \phi_A$, but these are the same because ϕ is natural. \square

Definition 9.4. Let $f: X' \rightarrow X$ be a map of affine schemes over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{F}_p)$, and let Y be a formal scheme over X . Let $q: Y \rightarrow X$ be the given projection map. We define a functor $Y' = f^*Y$ from rings to sets by $Y'(R) = \{(a', b) \in X'(R) \times Y(R) \mid f(a') = q(b)\}$. If $\{y_1, \dots, y_n\}$ is a system of formal coordinates on Y and $y'_i(a', b) = y_i(b)$ then one can easily check that $\{y'_1, \dots, y'_n\}$ is a system of formal coordinates on Y' , so Y' is a formal scheme over X' .

Remark 9.5. Let G be a formal group over an affine scheme X over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{F}_p)$, and let $f: X' \rightarrow X$ be a map of affine schemes. We can then make $G' = f^*G$ into a formal group over X' by defining $\sigma((a', b_0), (a', b_1)) = (a', \sigma(b_0, b_1))$ and $\zeta(a') = (a', \zeta(f(a')))$. Here we have used the fact that if (a', b_0) and (a', b_1) lie in $G'(R)$ then $q(b_0) = f(a') = q(b_1)$, so $\sigma(b_0, b_1)$ is defined. In a different notation, we could just write $(a', b_0) + (a', b_1) = (a', b_0 + b_1)$ and $\zeta(a') = (a', 0)$.

Remark 9.6. Now suppose that $X = \text{spec}(A)$ and $X' = \text{spec}(A')$, so that $f: X' \rightarrow X$ comes from a map $u: A \rightarrow A'$. Suppose also that $G = G_F$ for some formal group law F over A . We then have a formal group law uF over A' , and one can then identify G' with G_{uF} .

Definition 9.7. Let X be an affine scheme over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{F}_p)$, and Y a formal scheme over X , with projection map $q: Y \rightarrow X$. We then have a map $F_X: X \rightarrow X$ and thus a formal scheme F_X^*Y over X . We define the relative Frobenius map $F_{Y/X}: Y \rightarrow F_X^*Y$ by $F_{Y/X}(b) = (q(b), F_Y(b))$. (This lies in $F_{Y/X}(R)$ because of the naturality equation $q \circ F_Y = F_X \circ q$). If y_1, \dots, y_n are coordinates on Y , and y'_1, \dots, y'_n are coordinates on F_X^*Y as in Definition 9.4, then we see that $y'_i(F_{Y/X}(a)) = y_i(a)^p$.

Lemma 9.8. *If G is a formal group over X then the relative Frobenius map $F_{G/X}: G \rightarrow F_X^*G$ is a homomorphism.*

Proof. Consider the addition map $\sigma: G \times_X G \rightarrow G$, which is a map of schemes over X . As the relative Frobenius map is natural, we have $F_{G/X} \circ \sigma = \sigma \circ F_{G \times_X G/X}$, and one sees from the definitions that $F_{G \times_X G/X} = F_{G/X} \times_X F_{G/X}$. Thus, we have $F_{G/X}(a + b) = F_{G/X}(a) + F_{G/X}(b)$ whenever $a + b$ is defined (ie, whenever a and b lie over the same point of X). Thus, $F_{G/X}$ is a homomorphism. \square

We next introduce a formal version of differential forms.

Definition 9.9. Let X be an arbitrary affine scheme, and let Y be a formal scheme of dimension n over X . Then $Y \times_X Y$ is a formal scheme of dimension $2n$ over X . As usual, we let $\mathcal{O}_{Y \times_X Y}$ denote the ring of maps $Y \times_X Y \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^1$, and we let J denote the ideal of functions $g \in \mathcal{O}_{Y \times_X Y}$ such that $g(a, a) = 0$ for all points a of Y . We define $\Omega_{Y/X} = J/J^2$.

Remark 9.10. The analogy to think of is as follows. Let $q: Y \rightarrow X$ be a smooth map of smooth manifolds. Suppose this has the property that for each point $x \in X$, the preimage $Y_x = q^{-1}\{x\}$ is a submanifold of Y , diffeomorphic to \mathbb{R}^n . For any point $y \in Y$, let V_y be the cotangent space of the manifold $Y_{q(y)}$ at y . These vector spaces form a vector bundle of dimension n over Y , and we can define $\Omega_{Y/X}$ to be the space of global sections of this bundle. The proof of the next proposition will give some justification of why this is analogous to our definition for formal schemes.

Proposition 9.11. $\Omega_{Y/X}$ is a free module of rank n over \mathcal{O}_X .

Proof. First, suppose that $g \in J$ and that $h \in \mathcal{O}_Y$. We then have two functions $k_0(a, b) = h(a)g(a, b)$ and $k_1(a, b) = h(b)g(a, b)$, giving two different elements of J . However, the map $(a, b) \mapsto h(a) - h(b)$ lies in J , so $k_0 - k_1 \in J^2$, so k_0 and k_1 have the same image in $J/J^2 = \Omega_{Y/X}^1$. We can thus make $\Omega_{Y/X}$ into a module over \mathcal{O}_Y by defining $hg = k_0 = k_1$. We can also define a function $d: \mathcal{O}_Y \rightarrow \Omega_{Y/X}$ by $d(h)(a, b) = h(a) - h(b)$. We then have

$$d(hk)(a, b) = h(a) d(k)(a, b) + k(b) d(h)(a, b),$$

so $d(hk) = h d(k) + k d(h)$.

Now choose coordinates x_1, \dots, x_n on Y . Then each x_i is a map $Y \rightarrow \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^1 \subset \mathbb{A}^1$, and thus can be thought of as an element of \mathcal{O}_Y . We claim that the elements $d(x_1), \dots, d(x_n)$ form a basis for $\Omega_{Y/X}$ over \mathcal{O}_Y . To see this, define $x'_i, x''_i: Y \times_X Y \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^1$ by $x'_i(a, b) = x_i(a)$ and $x''_i(a, b) = x_i(b)$. We then have $\mathcal{O}_{Y \times_X Y} = \mathcal{O}_X \llbracket x'_i, x''_i \rrbracket$, and this is the same as $\mathcal{O}_X \llbracket x'_i, y_i \rrbracket$, where $y_i = x'_i - x''_i$. The diagonal inclusion $Y \rightarrow Y \times_X Y$ gives rise to a map $\mathcal{O}_{Y \times_X Y} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_Y$, which sends x'_i and x''_i to x_i and thus y_i to 0. The ideal J is by definition the kernel of this map, which is easily seen to be generated by the elements y_i . It follows that J^2 is generated by the elements $y_i y_j$, and thus that J/J^2 is a free module over \mathcal{O}_Y generated by the elements y_i . However, the image of y_i in $\Omega_{Y/X} = J/J^2$ is just $d(x_i)$, by examining the definitions. \square

Remark 9.12. Let $s: Y \rightarrow Z$ be a map of formal schemes over X . We then have an induced map $\mathcal{O}_{Z \times_X Z} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{Y \times_X Y}$, sending g to $g \circ (s \times_X s)$. This in turn induces a map $s^*: \Omega_{Z/X} \rightarrow \Omega_{Y/X}$. One checks that this satisfies $s^*d(g) = d(g \circ s)$ for $g \in \mathcal{O}_Z$, and $s^*(g\alpha) = (g \circ s) s^*(\alpha)$ for $\alpha \in \Omega_{Z/X}$.

Remark 9.13. Now suppose we choose coordinates y_1, \dots, y_n on Y and z_1, \dots, z_m on Z . There are then power series g_1, \dots, g_m over \mathcal{O}_X such that $z_i(s(a)) = g_i(y_1(a), \dots, y_n(a))$, and we have $s^*d(z_i) = \sum_j \partial g_i / \partial y_j d(y_j)$. Thus, the map $s^*: \Omega_{Z/X} \rightarrow \Omega_{Y/X}$ gives a coordinate-free encoding of the partial derivatives of the series g_i .

Proposition 9.14. Let $s: Y \rightarrow Z$ be a map of formal schemes over an affine scheme X , with projection maps $q: Y \rightarrow X$ and $r: Z \rightarrow X$. Suppose that the induced map $s^*: \Omega_{Z/X} \rightarrow \Omega_{Y/X}$ is zero.

- (a) If X is a scheme over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{Q})$, then there is a unique map $s': X \rightarrow Z$ such that $r \circ s' = 1$ and $s = s' \circ q$ (so s is constant along the fibres of Y).
- (b) If X is a scheme over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{F}_p)$ for some prime p then there is a unique map $s': F_X^* Y \rightarrow Z$ of schemes over X such that $s = s' \circ F_{Y/X}$.

Proof. Choose coordinates, as in Remark 9.13. As $s^* = 0$ we have $\partial g_i / \partial y_j = 0$ for all i and j . For the rest of the argument, we assume that Y and Z have dimension one; the general case is essentially the same, but with more elaborate notation. We thus have a single series $g(y)$ over \mathcal{O}_X with $g'(y) = 0$. If $g(y) = \sum_{k \geq 0} c_k y^k$ then we have $\sum_{k > 0} k c_k y^{k-1} = 0$ and thus $k c_k = 0$ for all $k > 0$. If X lies over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{Q})$ then \mathcal{O}_X is a \mathbb{Q} -algebra so $c_k = 0$ for all k . The analysis of proposition 5.6 shows that c_0 is nilpotent, or in other words that it is a map $X \rightarrow \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^1$. We know that z is a coordinate on Z so there is a unique map $s': X \rightarrow Z$ over X such that $z(s'(a)) = c_0(a)$. We then have $z(s'(q(b))) = c_0(q(b))$ but by the definition of g this is the same as $z(s(b))$ so $s'(q(b)) = s(b)$ as required.

Now suppose instead that X lies over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{F}_p)$. As $k c_k = 0$ for all k , we see that $c_k = 0$ unless p divides k , so $g(y) = h(y^p)$ for some series h , which gives a map $X \times \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^1 \rightarrow X \times \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^1$ as in Proposition 5.6. We identify the second copy of $X \times \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^1$ with Z using the coordinate z , and the first

one with F_X^*Y using the coordinate y' as in Definition 9.4. This gives a map $s': F_X^*Y \rightarrow Z$ such that $z(s'(b)) = h(y'(b))$. We also know that $y'(F_{Y/X}(a)) = y(a)^p$, so $z(s'(F_{Y/X}(a))) = h(y(a)^p) = g(y(a)) = z(s(a))$. This shows that $s = s' \circ F_{Y/X}$ as claimed. \square

Definition 9.15. Let G be a formal group over an affine scheme X . Let I be the ideal in \mathcal{O}_X of functions $g: X \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^1$ such that $g \circ \zeta = 0$ (or more informally, $g(0) = 0$).

Define $\omega_G = \omega_{G/X} = I/I^2$, and let $d_0(g)$ denote the image of g in $\omega_{G/X}$. We also define

$$\text{Prim}(\Omega_{G/X}) = \{\alpha \in \Omega_{G/X} \mid \sigma^*\alpha = \pi_0^*\alpha + \pi_1^*\alpha \in \Omega_{G \times_X G/X}\}.$$

Here $\pi_0, \pi_1: G \times_X G \rightarrow G$ are the two projections.

We now give a formal version of the fact that left-invariant differential forms on a Lie group biject with elements of the cotangent space at the identity element.

Proposition 9.16. $\omega_{G/X}$ is a free module on one generator over \mathcal{O}_X . Moreover, there are natural isomorphisms $\omega_{G/X} \simeq \text{Prim}(\Omega_{G/X})$ and $\Omega_{G/X} = \mathcal{O}_G \otimes_{\mathcal{O}_X} \omega_{G/X}$.

Proof. Let x be a normalised coordinate on G . We see from Proposition 5.6 that $\mathcal{O}_G = \mathcal{O}_X[[x]]$, and it is easy to check that $I = (x)$ so $I^2 = (x^2)$ so $\omega_{G/X}$ is freely generated over \mathcal{O}_X by $d_0(x)$.

Now let K be the ideal in $\mathcal{O}_{G \times_X G}$ of functions k such that $k(0,0) = 0$. In terms of the usual description $\mathcal{O}_{G \times_X G} = \mathcal{O}_X[[x', x'']]$, this is just the ideal generated by x' and x'' . Given $g \in I$, we define $\delta(g)(u, v) = g(u+v) - g(u) - g(v)$. We claim that $\delta(g) \in K^2$. Indeed, we clearly have $\delta(g)(0, v) = 0$, so $\delta(g)$ is divisible by x' . We also have $\delta(g)(u, 0) = 0$, so $\delta(g)$ is divisible by x'' . It follows easily that $\delta(g)$ is divisible by $x'x''$ and thus that it lies in K^2 as claimed.

Next, let J be as in Definition 9.9. For any function $g \in I$ we define $\lambda(g) \in J$ by $\lambda(g)(u, v) = g(u-v)$. As $g(0) = 0$ we see that $\lambda(g) \in J$, so λ induces a map $\omega_{G/X} \rightarrow \Omega_{G/X}$. We claim that $\lambda(g) \in \text{Prim}(\Omega_{G/X})$. To make this more explicit, let L be the ideal of functions l on $G \times_X G \times_X G \times_X G \times_X G$ such that $l(s, s, u, u) = 0$. The claim is that $\sigma^*\lambda(g) - \pi_0^*\lambda(g) - \pi_1^*\lambda(g) = 0$ in L/L^2 , or equivalently that the function

$$k: (s, t, u, v) \mapsto \lambda(g)(s+u, t+v) - \lambda(g)(s, t) - \lambda(g)(u, v)$$

lies in L^2 . To see this, note that $k = \delta(g) \circ \theta$, where $\theta(s, t, u, v) = (s-t, u-v)$. It is clear that $\theta^*K \subset L$ and thus that $\theta^*K^2 \subset L^2$, and we have seen that $\delta(g) \in K^2$ so $k \in L^2$ as claimed. Thus, we have a map $\lambda: \omega_{G/X} \rightarrow \text{Prim}(\Omega_{G/X})$.

Next, given a function $h(u, v)$ in J , we have a function $\mu(h)(u) = h(u, 0)$ in I . It is clear that μ induces a map $\Omega_{G/X} \rightarrow \omega_{G/X}$ with $\mu \circ \lambda = 1$. Now suppose that h gives an element of $\text{Prim}(\Omega_{G/X})$ and that $\mu(h) \in I^2$. Define $k(s, t, u, v) = h(s+u, t+v) - h(s, t) - h(u, v)$. The primitivity of h means that $k \in L^2$. Define $\phi: G \times_X G \rightarrow G \times_X G \times_X G \times_X G$ by $\phi(s, t) = (t, t, s-t, 0)$. One checks that $\phi^*L \subset J$ and that

$$h(s, t) = k(t, t, s-t, 0) + h(t, t) + h(s-t, 0).$$

Noting that $h(t, t) = 0$, we see that $h = \phi^*k + \psi^*\mu(h)$, where $\psi(u, v) = u-v$. As $\mu(h) \in I^2$ and $k \in L^2$ we conclude that $h \in J^2$. This means that μ is injective on $\text{Prim}(\Omega_{G/X})$. As $\mu\lambda = 1$, we conclude that λ and μ are isomorphisms.

Finally, we need to show that the map $f \otimes \alpha \mapsto f\lambda(\alpha)$ gives an isomorphism $\mathcal{O}_G \otimes_{\mathcal{O}_X} \omega_{G/X} \rightarrow \Omega_{G/X}$. As $\Omega_{G/X}$ is freely generated over \mathcal{O}_G by $d(x)$, we must have $\lambda(d_0(x)) = u(x)d(x)$ for some power series u . As $\omega_{G/X}$ is freely generated over \mathcal{O}_X by $d_0(x)$, it will suffice to check that u is invertible, or equivalently that $u(0)$ is a unit in \mathcal{O}_X . To see this, observe that $\mu(f d(g)) = f(0)d_0(g)$, so that $d_0(x) = \mu\lambda(d_0(x)) = \mu(u(x)d(x)) = u(0)d_0(x)$, so $u(0) = 1$. \square

Proposition 9.17. Let G and H be formal groups over an affine scheme X , and let $s: G \rightarrow H$ be a homomorphism. Suppose that the induced map $s^*: \omega_H \rightarrow \omega_G$ is zero.

- (a) If X is a scheme over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{Q})$, then $s = 0$.
- (b) If X is a scheme over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{F}_p)$ for some prime p then there is a unique homomorphism $s': F_X^*G \rightarrow H$ of formal groups over X such that $s = s' \circ F_{G/X}$.

Proof. It follows from the definitions that our identification of $\omega_{G/X}$ with $\text{Prim}(\Omega_{G/X})$ is natural for homomorphisms. Thus, if $\alpha \in \text{Prim}(\Omega_{H/X})$ then $s^*\alpha = 0$. We also know that $\Omega_{H/X} = \mathcal{O}_H \otimes_{\mathcal{O}_X} \omega_{H/X}$, so any element of $\Omega_{H/X}$ can be written as $f\alpha$ with $f \in \text{Prim}(\Omega_{H/X})$. Thus $s^*(f\alpha) = (f \circ s).s^*\alpha = 0$. Thus, Proposition 9.14 applies to s . If X lies over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{Q})$ then we conclude that s is constant on each fibre. As it is a homomorphism, it must be the zero map. Suppose instead that X lies over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{F}_p)$. In that case we know that there is a unique map

$s': G' = F_X^*G \rightarrow H$ such that $s = s' \circ F_{G/X}$, and we need only check that this is a homomorphism. In other words, we need to check that the map $t'(u, v) = s'(u+v) - s'(u) - s'(v)$ (from $G' \times_X G'$ to H) is zero. Because s and $F_{G/X}$ are homomorphisms, we see that $t' \circ F_{G \times_X G/X} = 0: G \times_X G \rightarrow H$. Using the uniqueness clause in Proposition 9.14, we conclude that $t' = 0$ as required. \square

Corollary 9.18. *Let G and H be formal groups over an affine scheme X , which lies over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{F}_p)$. Let $s: G \rightarrow H$ be a homomorphism. Then either $s = 0$ or there is an integer $n \geq 0$ and a homomorphism $s': (F_X^n)^*G \rightarrow H$ such that $s = s' \circ F_{G/X}^n$ and $(s')^*$ is nonzero on $\omega_{H/X}$.*

Before proving this, we reformulate it.

Corollary 9.19. *Let $s: G \rightarrow H$ be as above, and let x and y be normalised coordinates on G and H respectively. Let f be the unique series $f(t) \in \mathcal{O}_X[[t]]$ such that $y(s(a)) = f(x(a))$ for all points a of G . Then either $f = 0$, or there is an integer n and a power series g such that $f(t) = g(t^{p^n})$ and $g'(0) \neq 0$ (So we cannot have $f(t) = t^p + t^{p+1}$, for example).*

Proof. Proof of Corollary 9.18 Suppose that there is a largest integer n (possibly 0) such that s can be factored in the form $s = s' \circ F_{G/X}^n$. Write $G' = (F_X^n)^*G$, so that $s': G' \rightarrow H$. If $(s')^* = 0$ on $\omega_{H/X}$ then the proposition gives a factorisation $s' = s'' \circ F_{G'/X}$ and thus $s = s'' \circ F_{G/X}^{n+1}$ contradicting maximality. Thus $s' \neq 0$ as claimed. On the other hand, suppose that there is no largest n . Let $f(t)$ be as in Corollary 9.19. Then $f(0) = 0$ and f is a function of t^{p^n} for arbitrarily large n . It follows that $f = 0$, as required. \square

Definition 9.20. Let G and H be formal groups over an affine scheme X , which lies over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{F}_p)$. Let $s: G \rightarrow H$ be a homomorphism. If $s = 0$, we say that s has *infinite height*. Otherwise, the *height* of s is defined to be the integer n occurring in Corollary 9.18. The height of the group G is defined to be the height of the endomorphism $p_G: G \rightarrow G$ (which is just p times the identity map).

Definition 9.21. Let R be an \mathbb{F}_p -algebra, and F a formal group law over R . The *height* of F is the height of the formal group G_F over $\text{spec}(R)$. Equivalently, if $[p]_F(x) = 0$ then F has infinite height. Otherwise, there is a unique integer $n > 0$ such that $[p]_F(x) = g(x^{p^n})$ for some series g with $g'(0) \neq 0$, and then the height of F is n .

Lemma 9.22. *Let G be a formal group over X . For $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ we let $m_G: G \rightarrow G$ be the map $a \mapsto ma$. Then we have $m_G^* \alpha = m \alpha$ for all $\alpha \in \text{Prim}(\Omega_{G/X})$.*

Proof. We leave it to the reader to reduce to the case $m > 1$. Let $\delta: G \rightarrow G_X^m$ be the diagonal map, let $\sigma_m: G_X^m \rightarrow G$ be the addition map, and let $\pi_1, \dots, \pi_m: G_X^m \rightarrow G$ be the projection maps. By the definition of $\text{Prim}(\Omega_{G/X})$ we have $\sigma_m^* \alpha = \pi_1^* \alpha + \pi_2^* \alpha$. It follows inductively that $\sigma_m^* \alpha = \sum_{k=1}^m \pi_k^* \alpha$. We have $\sigma_m \delta = m_G$ and $\pi_k \delta = 1$ so $m_G^* \alpha = \delta^* \sigma_m^* \alpha = \sum_{k=1}^m \alpha = m \alpha$, as claimed. \square

Corollary 9.23. *If G is a formal group over a scheme X over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{F}_p)$, then $p_G^* = p = 0$ on ω_G , so G has height at least one.*

Example 9.24. 1. Take $G = \widehat{G}_a \times \text{spec}(\mathbb{F}_p)$, which is a formal group over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{F}_p)$. With the usual coordinate we have $F(x, y) = x + y$ so $[p](x) = px = 0$, so G has infinite height.
 2. Take $G = \widehat{G}_m \times \text{spec}(\mathbb{F}_p)$. We then have $p_G(u) = u^p = F_G(u)$, so $p_G = F_G$, so clearly G has height one.
 3. Take $F(x, y) = (x + y)/(1 + xy)$, considered as an FGL over \mathbb{F}_p . If $p = 2$ then this has infinite height, otherwise it has height one. This follows from the isomorphisms given in Example 2.14.
 4. Let C be an elliptic curve over a scheme X over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{F}_p)$, and let \widehat{C} be its formal completion. Then it turns out that \widehat{C} has height one or two. In the case where \mathcal{O}_X is a field, the curve is said to be *supersingular* if \widehat{C} has height two, and *ordinary* if \widehat{C} has height one.
 5. Let F be the formal group law over \mathbb{Z} with logarithm $\sum_{k \geq 0} x^{p^{nk}}/p^k$, as considered in Proposition 8.1. We shall show in a minute that the reduction of this formal group law mod p has height n .
 6. Let $f(x)$ be a monic polynomial over \mathbb{Z} such that $f(x) = px \pmod{x^2}$ and $f(x) = x^{p^n} \pmod{p}$, for some $n > 0$. We will see later that there is a unique FGL over the ring \mathbb{Z}_p of p -adic integers such that $f(F(x, y)) = F(f(x), f(y))$, and that for this FGL we have

$[p]_F(x) = f(x)$. If we write \overline{F} for the resulting FGL over $\mathbb{Z}_p/p\mathbb{Z}_p = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{F}_p$ then we see that $[p]_{\overline{F}}(x) = x^{p^n}$, so that \overline{F} has height n .

Proposition 9.25. *Let F be the formal group law over \mathbb{Z} such that $\log_F(x) = \sum_{k \geq 0} x^{p^{n_k}}/p^k$ (as considered in Proposition 8.1), and let \overline{F} be the resulting formal group law over \mathbb{F}_p . Then $[p]_{\overline{F}}(x) = x^{p^n}$, so that \overline{F} has height n .*

Proof. Write $q = p^n$. We observe from the definition that $p \log_F(x) = px + \log_F(x^q)$, and by applying \exp_F we find that $[p](x) = \exp_F(px) +_F x^q$. Write

$$f(x) = \log_F(px)/p = \sum_{k \geq 0} p^{p^{n_k} - k - 1} x^{p^{n_k}}.$$

One checks that $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[[x]]$ and $f(x) = x \pmod{x^2}$ so f is reversible in $\mathbb{Z}[[x]]$. The reverse is easily seen to be the series $g(x) = \exp_F(px)/p$, so we conclude that this series is integral, and thus that $\exp_F(px) \in p\mathbb{Z}[[x]]$. We can thus reduce the equation $[p](x) = \exp_F(px) +_F x^q \pmod{p}$ to obtain $[p]_{\overline{F}}(x) = x^q$, as claimed. \square

10. FORMAL GROUPS OF HEIGHT AT LEAST n

Definition 10.1. Fix a prime p . For any formal group law F and $k > 0$, we let $u_k(F)$ be the coefficient of x^k in $[p]_F(x)$, so $u_k \in \mathcal{O}_{\text{FGL}} = L$ and $u_1 = p$. If we define $(w.F)(x, y) = w^{-1}F(wx, wy)$ then $[p]_{w.F}(x) = w^{-1}[p]_F(wx)$, so $u_k(w.F) = w^{k-1}u_k(F)$, so u_k is a homogeneous element of degree $k-1$ with respect to the grading introduced in Examples 7.5 and 7.7. We also write $v_k = u_{p^k}$ (so that $v_0 = p$ and v_k has degree $p^k - 1$).

Definition 10.2. Now fix an integer $n > 0$, and let $\text{FGL}_{p,n}(R)$ be the set of formal group laws of height at least n over R . Write I_n for the ideal in L generated by the elements u_k for which k is not divisible by p^n . It is clear that a formal group law F has height at least n if and only if $u_k(F) = 0$ for all such k , and thus that $\text{FGL}_{p,n} = \text{spec}(L/I_n)$.

Lemma 10.3. *The ideal I_n is generated by $\{v_0, \dots, v_{n-1}\}$.*

Proof. Let F be a FGL of height $m > 0$. Then $[p]_F(x) = g(x^{p^m})$ for some series g with $g'(0) \neq 0$, say $g'(0) = a$. This means that $[p]_F(x) = ax^{p^m} \pmod{x^{p^m+1}}$, so $v_0(F) = \dots = v_{m-1}(F) = 0$ and $v_m(F) = a \neq 0$. It follows easily that F has height at least n if and only if $v_0(F) = \dots = v_{n-1}(F) = 0$, which means that $\text{FGL}_{p,n} = \text{spec}(L/(v_k \mid k < n))$ and thus that $I_n = (v_k \mid k < n)$. \square

Proposition 10.4. *We have*

$$L/p = \mathbb{F}_p[v_i \mid i > 0] \otimes_{\mathbb{F}_p}[a_k \mid k \text{ is not a power of } p],$$

and thus

$$\mathcal{O}_{\text{FGL}_{p,n}} = L/I_n = \mathbb{F}_p[v_i \mid i \geq n] \otimes_{\mathbb{F}_p}[a_k \mid k \text{ is not a power of } p].$$

The proof will be given after two lemmas.

Lemma 10.5. *Let A be an Abelian group, and $f(x, y) = \sum_{d > 1} a_d c_d(x, y)$ a symmetric cocycle over A . Make $R = \mathbb{Z} \oplus A$ into a ring as in the proof of Proposition 6.3, and let $F(x, y) = x + y + f(x, y)$ be the resulting FGL over R . Then for $m > 0$ we have*

$$[m]_F(x) = mx + \sum_{d > 1} (m^d - m)/\nu(d) a_d x^d,$$

and the numbers $(m^d - m)/\nu(d)$ are integers.

Proof. Using the fact that $m^p = m \pmod{p}$ for all primes p , we see that $(m^d - m)/\nu(d)$ is an integer.

Suppose that A is torsion-free. In this case it is clearly sufficient to work in $A' = \mathbb{Q} \otimes A$. Write $a'_d = a_d/\nu(d)$ and $g(x) = \sum_{d > 1} a'_d x^d$ so that $f(x, y) = g(x+y) - g(x) - g(y)$. As g has coefficients in A and $x +_F y = x + y \pmod{A}$ and $A^2 = 0$, this is the same as $g(x +_F y) - g(x) - g(y)$. After feeding this into the definition $F(x, y) = x + y + f(x, y)$ we find that $x +_F y - g(x +_F y) = x - g(x) + y - g(y)$, so the series $h(x) = x - g(x)$ is a homomorphism from F to the additive FGL. This implies that $h([m]_F(x)) = mh(x)$. Using $A^2 = 0$ again we see that $g([m]_F(x)) = g(mx)$ so

$$[m]_F(x) = mh(x) + g(mx) = mx + g(mx) - mg(x) = mx + \sum_{d > 1} (m^d - m)/\nu(d) a_d x^d,$$

as claimed.

Now let A be an arbitrary Abelian group. Write $A' = \bigoplus_{d>1} \mathbb{Z}$, and let a'_d be the evident basis vector in A' , and define $f' = \sum_d a'_d c_d \in Z(A')$. Let $\pi: A' \rightarrow A$ be the map that sends a'_d to a_d . The previous paragraph gives the conclusion for f' , and by applying π we can deduce the conclusion for f . \square

Lemma 10.6. *When $k > 0$ we have $v_k = -a_{p^k} \pmod{I^2 + (p)}$, where $I = \bigoplus_{k>0} L_k < L$ as usual.*

Proof. We reuse the ideas in the proof of Proposition 6.3. It will be enough to show that if F is an FGL of the type considered there, over a ring $R = \mathbb{F}_p \oplus A$ in which $pA = 0$, then $v_k(F) = -a_{p^k}(F)$. If $F(x, y) = x + y + \sum_{d>1} a_d c_d(x, y)$ then $a_{p^k}(F)$ is just a_{p^k} . On the other hand, Lemma 10.5 tells us that $[p]_F(x) = px + \sum_{d>1} (p^d - p)/\nu(d) a_d x^d$. It is clear that $(p^d - p)/\nu(d) = 0 \pmod{p}$ unless d is a power of p , in which case $(p^d - p)/\nu(d) = p^{d-1} - 1 = -1 \pmod{p}$. Thus $[p]_F(x) = -\sum_{k>0} a_{p^k} x^{p^k}$ and $v_k(F) = -a_{p^k}$, as required. \square

Proof. Proof of Proposition 10.4 Define

$$L' = \mathbb{F}_p[v'_i \mid i > 0] \otimes \mathbb{F}_p[a'_k \mid k \text{ is not a power of } p].$$

We can make this into a graded ring with v'_i in degree $p^i - 1$ and a'_k in dimension $k - 1$. We can define a map $\phi: L' \rightarrow L/p$ of graded rings by $\phi(v'_i) = v_i$ and $\phi(a'_k) = a_k$. Let I' be the ideal in L' generated by the elements v'_i and a'_k , and let \bar{I} be the image of I in L/p . It is easy to see from Lemma 10.6 that ϕ induces an isomorphism $I'/(I')^2 \simeq \bar{I}/\bar{I}^2$. It follows as in the proof of Theorem 7.2 that ϕ is surjective. On the other hand, L and L' are polynomial rings with generators in the same degrees, so we see that L'_k and L_k are vector spaces over \mathbb{F}_p with the same finite dimension, and $\phi: L'_k \rightarrow L_k$ is surjective so it must be an isomorphism. \square

Corollary 10.7. *For each $n > 1$, there is a formal group law over \mathbb{F}_p of height n .*

Proof. Using the proposition, we can define a map $\alpha_n: L/p \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_p$ sending v_n to 1 and all other generators to 0. If F_n is the FGL that corresponds to α_n under the bijection $\text{FGL}(\mathbb{F}_p) = \text{Hom}(L, \mathbb{F}_p)$, then it is clear that F_n has height n . \square

11. FORMAL GROUPS IN POSITIVE CHARACTERISTIC

Let $X = \text{spec}(R)$ be an affine scheme over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{F}_p)$. In this section, we attempt to classify formal groups over X up to isomorphism. We will succeed completely in the case where R is an algebraically closed field.

It is convenient to reformulate the problem slightly. We can let $\text{RPS}(R)$ act on $\text{FGL}(R)$ by $F^f(x, y) = f^{-1}F(f(x), f(y))$ (so that f is an isomorphism $F^f \rightarrow F$).

Exercise 11.1. The set of isomorphism classes of formal groups over $\text{spec}(R)$ bijects naturally with $\text{FGL}(R)/\text{RPS}(R)$.

We first observe that the answer does not have as simple a form as one might hope for.

Proposition 11.2. *The functor $T(R) = \text{FGL}(R)/\text{RPS}(R)$ is not a scheme.*

Proof. Corollary 10.7 tells us that $T(\mathbb{F}_p)$ is infinite. As L is a polynomial ring, it is easy to see that the map $\text{FGL}(\mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \text{FGL}(\mathbb{F}_p)$ is surjective, and thus the map $T(\mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow T(\mathbb{F}_p)$ is surjective, so $T(\mathbb{Z})$ is infinite. On the other hand, it follows from Proposition 3.1 that $T(\mathbb{Q})$ has only one element. Thus, the map $T(\mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow T(\mathbb{Q})$ cannot be injective. However, if X is a scheme then it is clear that the map $X(\mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow X(\mathbb{Q})$ is injective, because the map $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ is. \square

Despite this, we can obtain some interesting results. We now start working towards this.

Definition 11.3. If $f, g \in R[[x, y, z]]$ we write $f = g + O(k)$ if $f = g \pmod{(x, y, z)^k}$, and similarly for other sets of variables. A formal group law F is additive to order k if we have $F(x, y) = x + y + O(k + 1)$.

Lemma 11.4. *Let F and F' be two FGL's over a ring R , and suppose that $F(x, y) = F'(x, y) + O(k)$ for some $k > 0$. Then there is a unique element $u \in R$ such that*

$$F'(x, y) = F(x, y) + uc_k(x, y) + O(k + 1).$$

Proof. Clearly there is a unique homogeneous polynomial $f(x, y)$ of degree k such that $F'(x, y) = F(x, y) + f(x, y) + O(k+1)$, and by Proposition 6.8 it suffices to check that $f \in Z_k(R)$. As $F(x, y) = F(y, x)$ we have $f(x, y) = f(y, x)$. To check the cocycle condition, it suffices to work modulo $(x, y, z)^{k+1}$. To this accuracy, we have $xf(x, y) = yf(x, y) = 0$ and thus $F'(x, y) = x +_F y +_F f(x, y)$. It follows that

$$F'(x, F'(y, z)) = F'(x, y +_F z +_F f(y, z)) = x +_F y +_F z +_F f(y, z) +_F f(x, F'(y, z)).$$

On the other hand, because $F'(y, z) = y + z \pmod{yz}$ and f is homogeneous of degree $k+1$ we see that $f(x, F'(y, z)) = f(x, y + z)$ to our accuracy. It follows that

$$F'(x, F'(y, z)) -_F x -_F y -_F z = f(y, z) +_F f(x, y + z) = f(y, z) + f(x, y + z).$$

As F' is commutative and associative, the right hand side is invariant when we exchange x and z . We thus have

$$f(y, z) - f(z, x + y) + f(x, y + z) - f(y, x) = 0.$$

As f is symmetric, this gives the cocycle condition. \square

Corollary 11.5. *If $F \in \text{FGL}(R)$ is additive to order $k-1$ then there is a unique element $u \in R$ such that $F(x, y) = x + y + uc_k(x, y) + O(k+1)$.* \square

Lemma 11.6. *If $F(x, y) = x + y + ac_k(x, y) + O(k+1)$ and $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ then $n = (m^k - m)/\nu(k)$ is an integer and $[m]_F(x) = mx + nax^k + O(k+1)$.*

Proof. This is essentially the same as Lemma 10.5. \square

Corollary 11.7. *Let F be a formal group law over an \mathbb{F}_p -algebra R . If F is additive to order $p^r - 1$ and $r < \text{height}(F)$ then F is additive to degree p^r .*

Proof. We know from Corollary 11.5 that there is some element $u \in R$ such that $F(x, y) = x + y + uc_{p^r}(x, y) + O(p^r + 1)$. Lemma 11.6 tells us that $[p]_F(x) = -ux^{p^r} + O(p^r + 1)$. On the other hand, if F has height n then $[p](x) = 0 + O(p^n)$. If $n > r$ we conclude that $u = 0$, so that F is additive to order p^r . \square

Lemma 11.8. *If $f(x) = x + ax^k$ then $F^f(x, y) = F(x, y) - ab_k(x, y) + O(k+1)$, where $b_k(x, y) = (x + y)^k - x^k - y^k = \nu(k)c_k(x, y)$.*

Proof. Exercise. \square

Lemma 11.9. *Suppose that $F(x, y) = x + y + ac_k(x, y) + O(k+1)$ and $f(x) = vx$ for some unit $v \in R^\times$. Then $F^f(x, y) = x + y + av^{k-1}c_k(x, y) + O(k+1)$.*

Proof. Exercise. \square

Lemma 11.10. *Suppose that $F(x, y) = x + y + c_{p^n}(x, y) + O(p^n + 1)$, and $k > n$ and $f(x) = x +_F vx^{p^{k-n}}$. Then*

$$F^f(x, y) = F(x, y) + (v^{p^n} - v)c_{p^k}(x, y) + O(p^k + 1).$$

Proof. We work everywhere modulo $(x, y)^{p^{k+1}}$. Note that to this accuracy, if $w \in (x, y)$ and $z \in (x, y)^{p^k}$ then $wz = 0$ so $w +_F z = w + z$; we shall repeatedly use this without explicit mention. We put $c = c_{p^k}(x, y) \in (x, y)^{p^k}$. The right hand side of the displayed equation can be rewritten as $x +_F y +_F v^{p^n}c -_F vc$. We thus need to check that

$$f(x) +_F f(y) = f(x +_F y +_F v^{p^n}c -_F vc),$$

or equivalently

$$x +_F y +_F vx^{p^{k-n}} +_F vy^{p^{k-n}} = x +_F y +_F v^{p^n}c -_F vc +_F v(x +_F y)^{p^{k-n}}.$$

Here we have used the fact that $k > n$, so applying the p^{k-n} 'th power map kills the terms involving c . We now cancel the terms $x +_F y$ and use the approximation $F(X, Y) = X + Y + c_{p^n}(X, Y) \pmod{(X, Y)^{p^n+1}}$ and the fact that $c = c_{p^n}(x, y)^{p^{k-n}}$ (Lemma 6.10). We find that we need to check that

$$vx^{p^{k-n}} + vy^{p^{k-n}} + v^{p^n}c = v^{p^n}c -_F vc +_F v(x^{p^{k-n}} + y^{p^{k-n}} + c).$$

Finally, we observe that the formal sums can be rewritten as ordinary sums, and this makes the claim clear. \square

Theorem 11.11. *Let F be a formal group law over an \mathbb{F}_p -algebra R . If F has finite height n , then F is isomorphic to a formal group law F' that is additive to order $p^n - 1$. If F has infinite height then F is isomorphic to the additive formal group law $F_a(x, y) = x + y$.*

Proof. We start with the finite height case. We will recursively define formal group laws F_k for $2 \leq k \leq p^n$ such that F_k is additive to order $k - 1$. We start with $F_2 = F$, which clearly has the required form. Given F_k , we know from Corollary 11.5 that $F_k(x, y) = x + y + uc_k(x, y) + O(k + 1)$ for some $u \in R$. If k is a power of p and $k < p^n$ then Corollary 11.7 tells us that $u = 0$. In that case, we put $F_{k+1} = F_k$ and $f_k(x) = x$. If k is not a power of p then $\nu(k)$ is a unit in \mathbb{F}_p . We define $f_k(x) = x + ux^k/\nu(k)$ and $F_{k+1} = F_k^{f_k}$. Lemma 11.8 tells us that F_{k+1} is additive to order k . At the end of this process we have a formal group law $F' = F_{p^n}$ of the required form, and isomorphisms $f_k: F_{k+1} \rightarrow F_k$ so $F' \simeq F_2 = F$.

In the case where F has infinite height, we can define F_k and f_k for all k , by the same procedure as that given above. We then define $g_k(x) = f_2(f_3(\dots f_k(x)))$, so that $g_k: F_{k+1} \rightarrow F_2 = F$, so that $F^{g_k} = F_{k+1}$. We have $f_k(x) = x + O(k)$ for all k , so $g_k = g_{k-1} + O(k)$, so there is a unique series $g(x) \in R[[x]]$ such that $g(x) = g_{k-1}(x) + O(k)$ for all k . We thus have $F^g = F_k = x + y + O(k)$ for all k , so $F^g(x, y) = x + y = F_a(x, y)$. Thus g gives an isomorphism $F_a \simeq F$, as claimed. \square

Theorem 11.12. *Let K be an algebraically closed field of characteristic $p > 0$. Then any two formal group laws over K are isomorphic if and only if they have the same height.*

Proof. Let F and F' be two formal group laws over K . If they both have infinite height then they are both isomorphic to the additive FGL and thus to each other (by Theorem 11.11). We may thus assume that they have the same finite height n . Using Theorem 11.11 again, we may replace F and F' by isomorphic formal group laws that are additive to order $p^n - 1$. We thus have $F(x, y) = x + y + uc_{p^n}(x, y) + O(p^n + 1)$ for some $u \in K$. It follows that $[p]_F(x) = -ux^{p^n} + O(p^n + 1)$ and we know that F has height n so $u \neq 0$. As K is algebraically closed, we can choose $v \in K$ such that $v^{p^n - 1}u = 1$. Using Lemma 11.9, we can replace F by an isomorphic formal group law for which $u = 1$, or in other words $F(x, y) = x + y + c_{p^n}(x, y) \pmod{(x, y)^{p^n + 1}}$. We may also replace F' by an isomorphic formal group law of the same type. We now define recursively a sequence of formal group laws F_k (for $k > p^n$) and isomorphisms $f_k: F_{k+1} \rightarrow F_k$ such that $F_k(x, y) = F'(x, y) + O(k)$. We start with $F_{p^n + 1} = F$. Suppose we have defined F_k . We know from Lemma 11.4 that there is a unique element $u \in R$ such that $F'(x, y) = F_k(x, y) + uc_k(x, y) + O(k + 1)$. If k is not a power of p then $\nu(k)$ is a unit in \mathbb{F}_p so we can define $f_k(x) = x + ux^k/\nu(k)$ and $F_{k+1} = F_k^{f_k}$. It then follows from Lemma 11.8 that $F_{k+1}(x, y) = F'(x, y) + O(k + 1)$ as required. On the other hand, suppose that $k = p^r$ for some $r > n$. As K is algebraically closed, there is an element $v \in K$ such that $v^{p^n} - v = u$. We can thus define $f_k(x) = x +_{F_k} vx^{p^{k-n}}$ and $F_{k+1} = F_k^{f_k}$. It follows from Lemma 11.10 that $F_{k+1}(x, y) = F'(x, y) + O(k + 1)$.

Now define $g_{p^n}(x) = x$ and $g_{k+1}(x) = g_k(f_{k+1}(x))$ for all $k \geq p^n$. It is easy to see that the series $g_k(x)$ converges to a unique limit $g(x)$, in the sense that for any N we have $g(x) = g_k(x) + O(N)$ for $k \gg 0$. Moreover, we find that $F^g = F'$, so g is the required isomorphism from F' to F . \square

12. FORMAL GROUP LAWS OF INFINITE HEIGHT

Let $\text{FGL}_{p,\infty}(R)$ be the set of formal group laws of infinite height over R . This is an affine scheme over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{F}_p)$, and we see from Proposition 10.4 that the corresponding ring of functions is

$$L/I_\infty = L/(v_k \mid k \geq 0) = \mathbb{F}_p[a_k \mid k \text{ is not a power of } p].$$

This is a reasonably satisfactory picture, except that the generators a_k are not very explicit or easy to work with. In this section we give a different description of the scheme $\text{FGL}_{p,\infty}$, due to Steve Mitchell.

Definition 12.1. Write $C = \text{RPS}_1 \times \text{spec}(\mathbb{F}_p)$, which is a group scheme under composition over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{F}_p)$. Let A be the subgroup scheme consisting of formal power series $f(x)$ such that $f(x) = x \pmod{x^2}$ and $f(x + y) = f(x) + f(y)$. Using Lemma 6.5, we see that this is just the group of series of the form $f(x) = x + \sum_{k>0} a_k x^{p^k}$. We write $A(R) \setminus C(R)$ for the set of right cosets of $A(R)$ in $C(R)$.

Let $Y \subset C$ be the scheme of series of the form $\sum_{k>0} b_k x^k$ such that $b_{p^k} = 0$ for all $k > 0$. Given a series $f \in C$ we define $\phi(f)(x, y) = f^{-1}(f(x) + f(y))$. This is a formal group law, and f gives an isomorphism from $\phi(f)$ to the formal group law $F_a(x, y) = x + y$, so $\phi(f)$ has infinite height.

Theorem 12.2. *The map $(f, g) \mapsto f \circ g$ gives an isomorphism $A \times Y \rightarrow C$. The inclusion $Y \rightarrow C$ and the map $\phi: C \rightarrow \text{FGL}_{p,\infty}$ induce isomorphisms $Y(R) \rightarrow A(R) \setminus C(R) \rightarrow \text{FGL}_{p,\infty}(R)$. Thus, the functor $A \setminus C: R \mapsto A(R) \setminus C(R)$ is a scheme, and we have isomorphisms $Y \rightarrow A \setminus C \rightarrow \text{FGL}_{p,\infty}$.*

Proof. We may assume that R is an \mathbb{F}_p -algebra (otherwise the theorem merely claims a bijection between empty sets). We know from Theorem 11.11 that if $F \in \text{FGL}_{p,\infty}(R)$ then there exists an isomorphism $f: F \rightarrow F_a$. If $f'(0) = u \in R^\times$ then we can compose with the automorphism x/u of F_a and thus assume that $f'(0) = 1$, so that $f \in C(R)$. By assumption we have $f(F(x, y)) = f(x) + f(y)$, so $F = \phi(f)$. This shows that $\phi: C(R) \rightarrow \text{FGL}_{p,\infty}(R)$ is surjective. It is easy to see that if $g \in A(R)$ then $\phi(g \circ f) = \phi(f)$, so we get an induced map $A(R) \setminus C(R) \rightarrow \text{FGL}_{p,\infty}(R)$, which is again surjective. If $\phi(f) = \phi(g) = F$ then f and g give maps $F \rightarrow F_a$ so $h(x) = g(f^{-1}(x))$ defines a map $F_a \rightarrow F_a$, in other words an element of $A(R)$. As $g = h \circ f$ we see that f and g give the same element of $A(R) \setminus C(R)$, so our map $\phi: A \setminus C \rightarrow \text{FGL}_{p,\infty}$ is an isomorphism.

We now define a map $\tau: C \rightarrow A$ by $\tau(\sum_{k>0} b_k x^k) = \sum_{k \geq 0} b_{p^k} x^{p^k}$. Note that $\tau(g)(x) = x$ if and only if $g \in Y$. If $f(x) = \sum_j a_j x^{p^j} \in A(R)$ and $g(x) = \sum_{k>0} b_k x^k \in C(R)$ then we have $f(g(x)) = \sum_{j,k} a_j b_k^{p^j} x^{k p^j}$ so

$$\tau(f \circ g) = \sum_{i,j} a_j b_{p^i}^{p^j} x^{p^{i+j}} = f \circ \tau(g).$$

Now define $\sigma(h) = \tau(h)^{-1} \circ h$, so that $h = \tau(h) \circ \sigma(h)$. By applying the above with $f = \tau(h)^{-1}$ and $g = h$, we see that $\tau(\sigma(h))(x) = \tau(h)^{-1}(\tau(h)(x)) = x$, so $\sigma(h) \in Y$. We thus have a map $(\tau, \sigma): C \rightarrow A \times Y$, which is easily seen to be inverse to the map $(f, g) \mapsto f \circ g$. \square

Remark 12.3. In topology, the group scheme A is naturally identified with $\text{spec}(P_*)$, where P_* is the polynomial part of the dual Steenrod algebra. If X is a space then the Steenrod algebra acts on $H^*(X; \mathbb{F}_p)$. If X is a finite CW complex and $H^*(X; \mathbb{F}_p)$ is concentrated in even degrees then this gives rise to an action of the group scheme A on the scheme $X_H = \text{spec}(H^*(X; \mathbb{F}_p))$. In the case $p = 2$, a similar construction gives an action of A on $\text{spec}(H_*(MO; \mathbb{F}_2))$, where MO is the spectrum representing unoriented bordism. This scheme can be identified with our scheme C , in a manner compatible with the action of A . Our A -equivariant isomorphism $C \simeq A \times Y$ implies that the Adams spectral sequence for $\pi_*(MO)$ collapses and thus that $\text{spec}(\pi_*(MO)) = Y = \text{FGL}_{2,\infty}$. This tells us the structure of the ring $\pi_*(MO)$. On the other hand, a theorem of René Thom tells us that $\pi_*(MO)$ is the ring of cobordism classes of compact closed manifolds. (Two manifolds M and N are said to be cobordant if $M \amalg N$ is the boundary of some manifold W ; addition is defined by disjoint union and multiplication by Cartesian product; this gives an algebra over \mathbb{F}_2 because $\partial(M \times I) = M \amalg M$.) Thus, the procedure outlined above contributes to a rather striking theorem in topology. If MU is the complex bordism spectrum then $\text{spec}(\pi_*(MU)) = \text{FGL}$ and $\text{spec}(H_*(MU; \mathbb{F}_p)) = C$ and if R denotes the image of the Hurewicz map $\pi_*(MU) \rightarrow H_*(MU; \mathbb{F}_p)$ then $\text{spec}(R) = \text{FGL}_{p,\infty}$.

13. THE p -ADIC INTEGERS

In this section we define and study the ring \mathbb{Z}_p of p -adic integers — in the next section we will develop the method of Lubin and Tate for studying formal group laws over \mathbb{Z}_p . This will in turn give formal group laws over $\mathbb{Z}_p/p\mathbb{Z}_p = \mathbb{F}_p$.

Definition 13.1. Let $\rho_k: \mathbb{Z}/p^k \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/p^{k-1}$ be the evident projection map. Let \mathbb{Z}_p be the set of sequences $a \in \prod_{k>0} \mathbb{Z}/p^k$ such that $\rho_k(a_k) = a_{k-1}$ for all $k > 1$. This is a ring under the obvious pointwise operations.

Definition 13.2. Let a be an integer. If $a = 0$ then we define $v_p(a) = \infty$, otherwise there is a largest number $k \geq 0$ such that p^k divides a and we define $v_p(a) = k$. Similarly, if $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ we let $v_p(a)$ be the largest k such that $a_k = 0 \in \mathbb{Z}/p^k$, or $v_p(a) = \infty$ if $a = 0$. These definitions are clearly compatible if we think of \mathbb{Z} as a subring of \mathbb{Z}_p . We also define $|a|_p = p^{-v_p(a)}$, and $d(a, b) = |a - b|_p$. One can check that this gives a metric on \mathbb{Z}_p and thus on $\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Z}_p$.

Theorem 13.3. *The topology on \mathbb{Z}_p induced by our metric $d(a, b) = |a - b|_p$ is the same as its topology as a subspace of the product of the discrete spaces \mathbb{Z}/p^k . It is a compact Hausdorff space, and can be identified with the completion of \mathbb{Z} with respect to d . Every element $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ has a unique expression as a convergent infinite sum $a = \sum_{k \geq 0} b_k p^k$ with $b_k \in \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$.*

Proof. Let a be an element of \mathbb{Z}_p , and suppose that $\epsilon > 0$, so $p^{-k} < \epsilon$ for some k . As \mathbb{Z}/p^k is discrete, the set $\{a_k\}$ is open in \mathbb{Z}/p^k so $U = \{b \in \mathbb{Z}_p \mid b_k = a_k\}$ is open in the product topology. If $b \in U$ then one sees from the definition of \mathbb{Z}_p that $b_j = a_j$ for $j \leq k$ so $v_p(b-a) \geq k$ so $|b-a|_p < \epsilon$. Thus, U is contained in the ball of radius ϵ round a , and it follows that every open set in the metric topology is open in the product topology. On the other hand, the basic neighbourhoods of A in the product topology are of the form $V = \mathbb{Z}_p \cap \prod_k V_k$, where $a_k \in V_k \subset \mathbb{Z}/p^k$ and $V_k = \mathbb{Z}/p^k$ for all but finitely many k . If $V_k = \mathbb{Z}/p^k$ for all $k \geq m$ then one checks easily that the ball of radius p^{-m} round a is contained in V . It follows easily that the metric topology is the same as the product topology.

Now let (a_1, a_2, \dots) be a Cauchy sequence in \mathbb{Z}_p . Then for any k there exists m such that $|a_i - a_j|_p < p^{-k}$ for $i, j \geq m$. This means that $a_{i,k} = a_{m,k}$ for all $i \geq m$. If we define $b_k = a_{m,k}$ then one can check that $b \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ and the sequence converges to b . Thus, \mathbb{Z}_p is complete under the metric. It is clear that any point $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ has distance at most p^{-k} from some integer $b \in \{0, \dots, p^k - 1\}$. It follows both that \mathbb{Z}_p is totally bounded, and that \mathbb{Z} is dense in \mathbb{Z}_p . Any complete, totally bounded metric space is compact Hausdorff, and is the completion of any dense subspace. This shows that \mathbb{Z}_p is a compact Hausdorff space, and is the completion of \mathbb{Z} .

Now let a be an element of \mathbb{Z}_p . One can easily prove by induction that there is a unique sequence of elements $b_k \in \{0, \dots, p-1\}$ for $k \geq 0$ such that $a_k = \sum_{j < k} b_j p^j \in \mathbb{Z}/p^k$, and it follows that $a = \sum_j b_j p^j \in \mathbb{Z}_p$. \square

Corollary 13.4. *For any $k \geq 0$ we have $\mathbb{Z}_p/p^k \mathbb{Z}_p = \mathbb{Z}/p^k$.*

Proof. Define $\rho: \mathbb{Z}_p \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/p^k$ by $\rho(a) = a_k$. The restriction of ρ to $\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Z}_p$ is clearly surjective, so ρ is surjective. If we write $a = \sum_j b_j p^j$ as in the theorem then $\rho(a) = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} b_j p^j$. If $\rho(a) = 0$ it is easy to see that $b_0 = \dots = b_{k-1} = 0$. As \mathbb{Z}_p is complete, the series $\sum_{j \geq k} b_j p^{k-j}$ converges to an element $c \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ and $a = p^k c \in p^k \mathbb{Z}_p$. Thus, ρ induces the claimed isomorphism. \square

Proposition 13.5. *An element $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ is invertible if and only if $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$.*

Proof. The corollary above shows that p is not invertible, so if $a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ then a is not invertible. Next, suppose that $a \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, say $a = 1 - pb$ for some $b \in \mathbb{Z}_p$. The series $\sum_{k \geq 0} p^k b^k$ then converges to an inverse for a . Finally, suppose merely that $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, so a has nontrivial image in $\mathbb{Z}_p/p\mathbb{Z}_p = \mathbb{Z}/p$. As \mathbb{Z}/p is a field, there is an integer b such that $ab \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, so ab is a unit in \mathbb{Z}_p , so a must also be a unit. \square

14. LUBIN-TATE THEORY

Fix a prime p and an integer $n > 0$. Let \mathcal{F} be the set of formal power series $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[[x]]$ such that

- (a) $f(x) \equiv px \pmod{x^2}$
- (b) $f(x) \equiv x^{p^n} \pmod{p}$.

For each such f , we will define a formal group law F_f over \mathbb{Z}_p . It will turn out that given another series $g \in \mathcal{F}$, there is a canonical isomorphism $u_{f,g}: F_f \rightarrow F_g$, and we can use these to define a formal group that is independent of any choices.

Remark 14.1. Suppose that $m(x)$ is a monic polynomial over \mathbb{Z}_p , whose reduction modulo p is irreducible over \mathbb{F}_p . Then $A = \mathbb{Z}_p[x]/m(x)$ is an integral domain, and $K = \mathbb{Q} \otimes A$ is a field, which is a finite algebraic extension of $\mathbb{Q}_p = \mathbb{Q} \otimes \mathbb{Z}_p$. Much of what we do in this section can be extended to give formal group laws over rings such as A . If we choose $f \in \mathcal{F}$ to be a monic polynomial and let L be the splitting field of f over K then one can use formal group theory to study the Galois group $G(L/K)$. In the simplest case, if $k = A/pA$ is a field of order p^n then $G(L/K)$ can be naturally identified with the group of units in k . This study is part of local class field theory, which contributes to global class field theory, which is the study of Abelian Galois extensions between finite extensions of the rationals.

All our arguments will rest on the following lemma:

Lemma 14.2. *Suppose that $f, g \in \mathcal{F}$ and that ϕ_1 is a linear form in k variables over \mathbb{Z}_p , say*

$$\phi_1(x_1, \dots, x_k) = \sum_i \alpha_i x_i$$

with $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ for all i . Then there is a unique power series $\phi \in \mathbb{Z}_p[[x_1, \dots, x_k]]$ such that

$$\phi = \phi_1 \pmod{(x_1, \dots, x_k)^2}$$

and

$$\phi(f(x_1), \dots, f(x_k)) = g(\phi(x_1, \dots, x_k)).$$

Proof. Write $I = (x_1, \dots, x_k) < \mathbb{Z}_p[[x_1, \dots, x_k]]$, and write $\phi \circ f^k$ for the series $\phi(f(x_1), \dots, f(x_k))$ and so on. We will construct recursively polynomials ϕ_m of degree at most m such that

$$\phi_m \circ f^k = g \circ \phi_m + O(m+1).$$

We are given ϕ_1 , which has the required property because $f(x) = px = g(x) + O(2)$. Suppose we have constructed ϕ_{m-1} . We next claim that

$$\phi_{m-1} \circ f^k = g \circ \phi_m \pmod{p}.$$

To see this, we work mod p until further notice. We thus have $g(x) = x^{p^n}$ and thus $g(x+y) = g(x) + g(y)$ and $g(xy) = g(x)g(y)$ and $g(a) = a$ for all $a \in \mathbb{Z}/p$. Because of this, applying g to the power series $\phi_{m-1}(x_1, \dots, x_k)$ is just the same as raising the variables x_i to the p^n th power, or equivalently applying f to them. This gives the congruence as claimed. Working integrally again and discarding terms of total degree greater than m , we see that there is a unique homogeneous polynomial ψ_m of degree m such that

$$\phi_{m-1} \circ f^k = g \circ \phi_m + p\psi_m + O(m+1).$$

Define $\psi'_m = \psi_m/(1-p^{m-1})$ (noting that $1-p^{m-1}$ is a unit in \mathbb{Z}_p) and $\phi_m = \phi_{m-1} + \psi'_m$. Because $g(x) = px + O(2)$ we have

$$g \circ \phi_m = g \circ \phi_{m-1} + p\psi'_m + O(m+1).$$

On the other hand, we have $f(x) = px + O(2)$ and ψ'_m is homogeneous of degree m so

$$\psi'_m \circ f^k = \psi'_m(px_1, \dots, px_k) = p^m \psi'_m + O(m+1).$$

Thus, working modulo I^{m+1} , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_m \circ f^k &= \phi_{m-1} \circ f^k + p^m \psi'_m \\ &= g \circ \phi_{m-1} + (p - p^m) \psi'_m + p^m \psi'_m \\ &= g \circ \phi_m \end{aligned}$$

as required. It follows that there is a unique power series ϕ such that $\phi = \phi_m + O(m+1)$ for all m . This series satisfies $\phi \circ f^k = g \circ \phi + O(m)$ for all m , so $\phi \circ f^k = g \circ \phi$. One can check by induction that ϕ is unique modulo I^m for all m , and thus is unique. \square

Proposition 14.3. *If $f \in \mathcal{F}$ then there is a unique formal group law $F_f(x, y)$ over \mathbb{Z}_p such that $f \circ F_f = F_f \circ f^2$, and moreover we have $[p]_{F_f}(x) = f(x)$.*

Proof. We start by applying Lemma 14.2 with $g = f$ and $\phi_1(x, y) = x + y$. This gives a unique series $F_f = \phi$ with $F_f \circ f^2 = f \circ F_f$ and $F_f(x, y) = x + y \pmod{(x, y)^2}$. We claim that this is a formal group law. Indeed, the series $F_f(y, x)$ has the defining property of $F_f(x, y)$ so $F_f(x, y) = F_f(y, x)$. Similarly, the series $F_f(F_f(x, y), z)$ and $F_f(x, F_f(y, z))$ are both equal to $x + y + z \pmod{(x, y, z)^2}$ and they both commute with f so the uniqueness clause in Lemma 14.2 implies that F_f is associative. Thus F_f is an FGL, so we can define $[p]_{F_f}(x)$. Both this and $f(x)$ are power series in one variable that commute with f and agree with px modulo x^2 . By the same kind of uniqueness argument, we have $[p]_{F_f} = f$. \square

Proposition 14.4. *Given two series $f, g \in \mathcal{F}$ there is a unique strict isomorphism $u_{f,g}: F_f \rightarrow F_g$. Given a third such series $h \in \mathcal{F}$, we have $u_{f,h} = u_{g,h} \circ u_{f,g}$, and $u_{f,f}(x) = x$.*

Proof. We start by applying Lemma 14.2 with $k = 1$ and $\phi_1(x) = x$. This gives a unique power series $u = u_{f,g}$ with $u \circ f = g \circ u$ and $u(x) = x \pmod{x^2}$. We claim that this is a homomorphism of formal group laws, or in other words that $u \circ F_f = F_g \circ u^2$. Indeed, Lemma 14.2 implies that there is a unique series $G(x, y)$ such that $G(x, y) = x + y \pmod{(x, y)^2}$ and $G \circ f^2 = g \circ G$, so it suffices to check that $u \circ F_f$ and $F_g \circ u^2$ both have these properties. As $u(x) = x \pmod{x^2}$ and $F_f(x, y) = F_g(x, y) = x + y \pmod{(x, y)^2}$, we see that $u(F_f(x, y)) = F_g(u(x), u(y)) = x + y \pmod{(x, y)^2}$. As $F_f \circ f^2 = f \circ F_f$ and $F_g \circ g^2 = g \circ F_g$ and $u \circ f = g \circ u$, we see that

$$u \circ F_f \circ f^2 = u \circ f \circ F_f = g \circ u \circ f$$

and

$$F_g \circ u^2 \circ f^2 = F_g \circ g^2 \circ u^2 = g \circ F_g \circ u^2,$$

as required. Thus, u is a homomorphism of FGL's. As $u(x) = x \pmod{x^2}$, it is even a strict isomorphism. If v is any other strict isomorphism $F_f \rightarrow F_g$ then we must have $v \circ [p]_{F_f} = [p]_{F_g} \circ v$, or in other words $v \circ f = g \circ v$. We must also have $v(x) = x \pmod{x^2}$, so $v = u$.

Now suppose we have a third series $h \in \mathcal{F}$. It is clear that $u_{g,h} \circ u_{f,g}$ is a strict isomorphism $F_f \rightarrow F_h$, so by uniqueness we must have $u_{g,h} \circ u_{f,g} = u_{f,h}$. A similar argument shows that $u_{f,f}(x) = x$. \square

Definition 14.5. Given any \mathbb{Z}_p -algebra R , we define

$$G(R) = (\mathcal{F} \times \text{Nil}(R)) / \sim,$$

where $(f, a) \sim (g, b)$ if and only if $u_{f,g}(a) = b$. We define a binary operation on $G(R)$ by

$$[f, a] + [g, b] = [g, F_g(u_{f,g}(a), b)],$$

so in particular we have

$$[f, a] + [f, b] = [f, F_f(a, b)].$$

Proposition 14.6. G is a formal group over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{Z}_p)$.

Proof. Fix $h \in \mathcal{F}$ and define $x: G \rightarrow \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^1$ by $x[f, a] = u_{f,h}(a)$. It is easy to check that this is well-defined and is an isomorphism. \square

15. DIVISORS

Definition 15.1. A *Weierstrass series* or *W-series* of degree n over a ring R is a power series $f(x) = \sum_k a_k x^k \in R[[x]]$ such that a_n is a unit and a_k is nilpotent for $k < n$. A *Weierstrass polynomial* or *W-polynomial* is a W-series that is also a monic polynomial of degree n .

Proposition 15.2. Let $f(x)$ be a W-series of degree $n > 0$ over a ring R . Then there is a unique map $\alpha: R[[y]] \rightarrow R[[x]]$ of R -algebras such that $\alpha(y) = f(x)$, and this makes $R[[x]]$ into a free module over $R[[y]]$ with basis $\{1, x, \dots, x^{n-1}\}$.

Proof. Write $f(x) = \sum_k a_k x^k$ and $I = (a_k \mid k < n)$, so I is a nilpotent ideal, say $I^N = 0$. After replacing $f(x)$ by $f(x)/a_n$ we may assume that $a_n = 1$. As I is nilpotent it is easy to see that $f(x)$ is nilpotent modulo x^N for any N . Thus, given any series $g(x) = \sum_k b_k y^k \in R[[y]]$ the series $g(f(x)) = \sum_k b_k f(x)^k$ converges in $R[[x]]$. We can thus define $\alpha(g) = g(f(x))$ to get the required map α .

We claim that $\{1, x, \dots, x^{n-1}\}$ is a basis for $R[[x]]$ over $R[[y]]$. To see this, we define elements z_m for $m \geq 0$ as follows. There is a unique way to write $m = nk + j$ with $0 \leq j < n$ and $k \geq 0$, and we put $z_m = f(x)^k x^j$. Our claim is easily equivalent to the statement that any element of $R[[x]]$ can be written uniquely in the form $\sum_m b_m z_m$ for some sequence of elements $b_m \in R$.

To prove this, it is convenient to consider a more general statement. For any R -module M we define a map

$$\theta_M: \prod_{m \geq 0} M \rightarrow M[[x]]$$

by $\theta(b) = \sum_m b_m z_m$. Thus, our claim is that θ_R is an isomorphism.

Suppose that $IM = 0$, and consider a series $c = \sum_k c_k x^k \in M[[x]]$. For any $b_m \in M$ we have $Ib_m = 0$ so $f(x)^k b_m = x^{nk} b_m \pmod{x^{n(k+1)}}$ so $z_m b_m = x^m b_m \pmod{x^{m+1}}$. Given this, an easy induction shows that there is a unique sequence of b_m 's such that $c = \sum_{j < m} b_j z_j \pmod{x^m}$ for all m . This proves that θ_M is an isomorphism when $IM = 0$.

Now suppose we have a short exact sequence $L \rightarrow M \rightarrow N$ of R -modules, and that θ_L and θ_N are isomorphisms. We then have a diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \prod_m L & \longrightarrow & \prod_m M & \longrightarrow & \prod_m N \\ \theta_L \downarrow \simeq & & \theta_M \downarrow & & \simeq \downarrow \theta_N \\ L[[x]] & \longrightarrow & M[[x]] & \longrightarrow & N[[x]] \end{array}$$

It is trivial to check that the rows are exact and a diagram chase shows that θ_M is also an isomorphism. We can now use that short exact sequences $I^k/I^{k+1} \rightarrow R/I^{k+1} \rightarrow R/I^k$ to show that θ_{R/I^k} is an isomorphism for all k . For $k \gg 0$ we have $I^k = 0$ and we conclude that θ_R is an isomorphism as claimed. \square

Corollary 15.3. *If $f(x) \in R[[x]]$ is a W-series of degree n then $f(x)$ is not a zero-divisor in $R[[x]]$, and $R[[x]]/f(x)$ is a free module over R with basis $\{1, x, \dots, x^{n-1}\}$.* \square

Corollary 15.4. *If $f(x) \in R[[x]]$ is a W-series of degree n then there is a unique factorisation of the form $f(x) = u(x)g(x)$ where $u(x) \in R[[x]]^\times$ and $g(x)$ is a W-polynomial of degree n .*

Proof. The previous corollary tells us that there are unique elements $b_j \in R$ such that $-x^n = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} b_j x^j \pmod{f(x)}$, and it is clear that $g(x) = x^n + \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} b_j x^j$ is the unique W-polynomial of degree n such that $f(x)$ divides $g(x)$, say $g(x) = f(x)v(x)$. As $f(x)$ is not a zero-divisor, the series $v(x)$ is uniquely characterised by this. Modulo I we know that x^n divides $f(x)$ and thus $g(x)$, but $g(x)$ is a monic polynomial of degree n so $g(x) = x^n \pmod{I}$. As $f(x)$ is a unit multiple of x^n modulo I , we see that $v(0) \in R^\times$ and thus $v(x) \in R[[x]]^\times$ so we can take $u(x) = 1/v(x)$. \square

Lemma 15.5. *Let f and g be monic polynomials of degree n and m over a ring R , such that $f(x)g(x) = x^{n+m}$. Then f and g are W-polynomials.*

Proof. Write $f(x) = \sum_{i \leq n} a_i x^i$ and $g(x) = \sum_{j \leq m} b_j x^j$, so $a_n = b_m = 1$. Fix k with $0 \leq k < n$; we may assume inductively that a_j is nilpotent for $j < k$. It will suffice to show that some power of a_k lies in the nilpotent ideal $I = (a_0, \dots, a_{k-1})$, so we can work modulo I and thus assume that $a_j = 0$ for $j < k$. By considering the coefficient of x^k in the equation $f(x)g(x) = x^{n+m}$ we see that $a_k b_0 = 0$. We claim that more generally we have $a_k^{i+1} b_i = 0$ for $i = 0, \dots, m$. Indeed, if this holds for $i < j$ then $a_k^j g(x) = a_k^j b_j x^j + O(j+1)$, so it also holds for $i = j$ by considering the coefficient of x^{k+i} in the equation $a_k^j g(x)f(x) = a_k^j x^{n+m}$. The case $j = m$ gives $a_k^m = 0$, as required. \square

Definition 15.6. A formal curve over a scheme X is a formal scheme C over X of dimension one, so that $C \simeq X \times \widehat{\mathbb{A}^1}$. Of course, a formal group is a formal curve, but in this section we will not need the group structure.

Definition 15.7. Let C be a formal curve over a scheme X .

(a) We define

$$N = \{f: C \rightarrow \widehat{\mathbb{A}^1}\} < \{f: C \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^1\} = \mathcal{O}_C.$$

This is clearly an ideal in \mathcal{O}_C .

(b) Given an ideal $J \leq \mathcal{O}_C$, we define a functor $V(J) \subset C$ by

$$V(J)(R) = \{c \in C(R) \mid f(c) = 0 \text{ for all } f \in J\}.$$

We also define

$$\sqrt{J} = \{f \in \mathcal{O}_C \mid f^K \in J \text{ for some } K\}.$$

(c) We put

$$D_n^+(C) = \{J \leq \mathcal{O}_C \mid N \leq \sqrt{J} \text{ and } \mathcal{O}_C/J \text{ is free of rank } n \text{ over } \mathcal{O}_X\}.$$

(d) We define $W_n^+(C)$ to be the set of functions $f \in \mathcal{O}_C$ such that the ideal (f) is an element of $D_n^+(C)$. Note that \mathcal{O}_C^\times acts on $W_n^+(C)$ by multiplication and we have a map $W_n^+(C)/\mathcal{O}_C^\times \rightarrow D_n^+(C)$ sending f to (f) .

Proposition 15.8. *Take $C = X \times \widehat{\mathbb{A}^1}$, write $R = \mathcal{O}_X$, and identify \mathcal{O}_C with $R[[x]]$ in the usual way. Then N is the set of series $f(x) \in R[[x]]$ such that $f(0)$ is nilpotent. Moreover, $W_n^+(C)$ is the set of W-series of degree n over R . Thus, if $P_n(R)$ denotes the set of W-polynomials of degree n over R , we have $W_n^+(C) \simeq P_n(R) \times \mathcal{O}_C^\times$ and $D_n^+(C) = W_n^+(C)/\mathcal{O}_C^\times \simeq P_n(R)$.*

Proof. The first statement follows from Proposition 5.6, and it follows in turn that $N \leq \sqrt{J}$ if and only if $x \in \sqrt{J}$.

Next, let f be a W-series of degree n . We claim that $J = (f) \in D_n^+(C)$, so that $f \in W_n^+(C)$. In view of Corollary 15.4, we may assume that f is a W-polynomial. As the lower coefficients of f are nilpotent, it is clear that x^n is nilpotent mod J , and thus that x is nilpotent mod J , and

thus that $N \leq \sqrt{J}$. We also know from Corollary 15.3 that $R[[x]]/f(x)$ is free of rank n over R , and the claim follows.

Next, suppose that $J \in D_n(R)$. We claim that J is generated by a W-polynomial of degree n . To see this, $A = R[[x]]/J$. By assumption, this is a free module of rank n over R . Moreover, $x \in N \leq \sqrt{J}$ so $x^K = 0$ in A for some K .

For any element $z \in R[[x]]$ we define $\mu_z : A \rightarrow A$ by $\mu_z(a) = za$. If $p(t)$ is a polynomial over R then clearly $\mu_{p(z)} = p(\mu_z)$.

The map μ_x is an R -linear endomorphism of the free module A , so it has a characteristic polynomial $f(t)$, which is a monic polynomial of degree n over R . The Cayley-Hamilton theorem tells us that $\mu_{f(x)} = f(\mu_x) = 0$, so $f(x) = \mu_{f(x)}(1) = 0$ in A , so $f(x) \in J$. Next, recall that $x^K \in J$ for some K . Write $s = \sum_{j=0}^{K-1} x^j t^{K-j}$, so that $(t-x)s = t^K \in A[t]$. We can regard μ_{t-x} , μ_s and μ_t as $R[t]$ -linear endomorphisms of $A[t]$. If we let $g(t)$ be the determinant of μ_s then we find that $f(t)g(t) = t^{nK}$. It follows from Lemma 15.5 that $f(t)$ is a W-polynomial of degree n , so that $R[[x]]/f(x)$ is free of rank n over R . Moreover, A is a quotient of $R[[x]]/f(x)$ and A is also free of rank n , so $A = R[[x]]/f(x)$ and $J = (f)$ (by Lemma 15.9 below). Thus J is generated by a W-polynomial, as claimed.

Now suppose that $g \in W_n^+(C)$. Our previous claim shows that there is a W-polynomial f such that $(g) = (f)$, say $f = ug$ and $g = vf$. Then $f = uvf$ but f is not a zero-divisor so $uv = 1$ so u and v are units. It is not hard to see that any unit multiple of a W-polynomial is a W-series, and we conclude that $W_n^+(C)$ is precisely the set of W-series of degree n . We have also seen that every ideal in $D_n^+(C)$ is generated by a W-polynomial, so the map $W_n^+(C)/\mathcal{O}_C^\times \rightarrow D_n^+(C)$ is surjective. As Weierstrass series are not zero divisors, we see easily that any two of them generate the same ideal iff they differ by a unit, so the map $W_n^+(C)/\mathcal{O}_C^\times \rightarrow D_n^+(C)$ is actually a bijection. Moreover, Corollary 15.4 tells us that $W_n^+(C) = P_n(R) \times \mathcal{O}_C^\times$, and thus that $D_n^+(C) = P_n(R)$. \square

Lemma 15.9. *Let M and N be free modules of finite rank n over a ring R , and let $\alpha : M \rightarrow N$ be a surjective homomorphism. Then α is an isomorphism.*

Proof. We may assume that $M = N = R^n$, and write e_i for the i 'th basis vector. As α is surjective we can choose a_i with $\alpha(a_i) = e_i$, and then define $\beta : R^n \rightarrow R^n$ by $\beta(e_i) = a_i$. We then have $\alpha\beta = 1$ so $\det(\alpha)\det(\beta) = 1$ so $\det(\alpha)$ is a unit in R , so α is an isomorphism. \square

Corollary 15.10. *Let C be a formal curve over a scheme X .*

- (a) *If $J \in D_n^+(C)$ then J is a free module of rank one over \mathcal{O}_C .*
- (b) *$D_m^+(C) = W_m^+(C)/\mathcal{O}_C^\times$.*
- (b) *If also $K \in D_m^+(C)$ then $JK \in D_{n+m}^+(C)$.*
- (c) *If also $L \in D_m^+(C)$ and $JK = JL$ then $K = L$.*
- (d) *If $f \in W_n^+(C)$ and $g \in W_m^+(C)$ then $fg \in W_{n+m}^+(C)$.*

Proof. We may assume that $C = X \times \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^1$ and this makes everything fairly clear. Some points to note are as follows. Firstly, if $f \in W_n^+(C)$ and $g \in W_m^+(C)$ then we have a short exact sequence $\mathcal{O}_C/(f) \xrightarrow{\times g} \mathcal{O}_C/(fg) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_C/(g)$, which shows that $\mathcal{O}_C/(fg)$ is free of rank $n+m$ over \mathcal{O}_X . Moreover, if $h \in N$ then for large r we have $h^r \in (f)$ and $h^r \in (g)$ so $h^{2r} \in (fg)$. This shows that $fg \in W_{n+m}(C)$, as claimed in (d). Also, for any J and K as above one can check that $K = \{f \mid fJ \in JK\}$, so that J and JK determine K , which proves (c). \square

Remark 15.11. We can summarise this corollary by saying that $D^+(C) = \coprod_{n \geq 0} D_n^+(C)$ and $W^+(C) = \coprod_{n \geq 0} W_n^+(C)$ are commutative monoids under multiplication, in which cancellation is valid.

Proposition 15.12. *Let C be a formal curve over X , with projection map $\pi : C \rightarrow X$ say. Write $\Gamma(X, C)$ for the set of sections of C , in other words the set of maps $\sigma : X \rightarrow C$ such that $\pi\sigma = 1$. Then there is a natural isomorphism $\Gamma(X, C) \simeq D_1^+(C)$.*

Proof. Given a section σ , we define $J_\sigma = \{f : C \rightarrow \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^1 \mid f \circ \sigma = 0\}$, which is an ideal in \mathcal{O}_C . We claim that this lies in $D_1^+(C)$, and that the map $\sigma \mapsto J_\sigma$ is the required bijection. For this, we may assume that $C = X \times \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^1$. The sections are then the maps of the form $\sigma(a) = (a, u(a))$ where $u : X \rightarrow \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^1$, in other words $u \in \text{Nil}(\mathcal{O}_X)$. We also have $J_\sigma = \{f(x) \in \mathcal{O}_X[[x]] \mid f(u) = 0\}$. It is easy to see that this is generated by the W-polynomial $x - u$. We also know from Proposition 15.8 that every ideal in $D_1^+(C)$ is generated by a unique W-polynomial of degree one, and these clearly all have the form $x - u$. The proposition follows. \square

Definition 15.13. Let C be a formal curve over a scheme X . Given a ring R and a point $a \in C(R)$ we have a formal curve $C_a = \text{spec}(R) \times_X C$ over $\text{spec}(R)$, and we define

$$\text{Div}_n^+(C)(R) = \{(a, D) \mid a \in X(R) \text{ and } D \in D_n^+(C_a)\}.$$

This defines a functor $\text{Div}_n^+(C)$ from rings to sets.

Remark 15.14. It follows from Proposition 15.12 that $\text{Div}_1^+(C) = C$. Also, Corollary 15.10 gives product maps $\text{Div}_n^+(C) \times_X \text{Div}_m^+(C) \rightarrow \text{Div}_{n+m}^+(C)$. A choice of coordinate on C gives a natural bijection $D_n^+(C_a) \simeq P_n(R) \simeq \text{Nil}(R)^n$, and thus an isomorphism $\text{Div}_n^+(C) \simeq \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^n \times X$, showing that $\text{Div}_n^+(C)$ is a formal scheme of dimension n over X .

16. MEROMORPHIC FUNCTIONS

Definition 16.1. Let C be a formal curve over a scheme X . We define \mathcal{M}_C to be the ring obtained from \mathcal{O}_C by inverting all the elements of $W_n^+(C)$ for all n . (We shall see shortly that it is equivalent to choose a coordinate x and just invert x .) We write $W_0(C)$ for the subgroup of \mathcal{M}_C^\times consisting of elements f/g where $f, g \in W_n^+(C)$ for some n (the same n for f and g). We also write $D_0(C) = W_0(C)/\mathcal{O}_C^\times$. It is clear that $W_0(C)$ and $D_0(C)$ are groups under multiplication.

Remark 16.2. You should think of the elements of \mathcal{M}_C as meromorphic functions on C whose poles are infinitesimally close to the origin.

Definition 16.3. A *Weierstrass Laurent series* or *WL-series* of degree n over a ring R is a series $f(x) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} a_k x^k$ such that

1. $a_k = 0$ for $k \ll 0$
2. a_k is nilpotent for $k < n$
3. a_n is invertible.

Clearly $f(x)$ is a WL-series of degree n if and only if $x^m f(x)$ is a W-series of degree $m + n$ for $m \gg 0$.

We write $P(R)$ for the set of WL-series of degree 0 such that

1. $a_k = 0$ for $k > 0$
2. $a_0 = 1$.

Clearly $f(x) \in P(R)$ if and only if $x^m f(x)$ is a W-polynomial of degree m for $m \gg 0$.

Remark 16.4. You should again think of $f(x)$ as having poles infinitesimally close to the origin. Recall that a genuine meromorphic function of a complex variable has different Laurent expansions in different annuli, depending on where the poles are. Our formal Laurent series should be thought of as expansions valid outside a small disc that contains all the poles.

Proposition 16.5. Take $C = X \times \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^1$, write $R = \mathcal{O}_X$, and identify \mathcal{O}_C with $R[[x]]$ in the usual way. Then $\mathcal{M}_C = R[[x]][1/x]$, and $W_0(C)$ is the set of WL-series of degree 0. We also have $W_0(C) = \mathcal{O}_C^\times \times P(R)$ and thus $D_0(C) \simeq P(R)$.

Proof. Write $K = R[[x]][1/x]$. We have $P(R) \subset K$ and if $f(x) \in P(R)$ then $1 - f(x)$ is nilpotent, so $f(x)$ is invertible. Thus $P(R) \leq K^\times$. If $g(x)$ is a W-polynomial of degree n then $g(x)/x^n \in P(R)$ so $g(x) \in K^\times$. It now follows from Corollary 15.4 that every W-series becomes invertible in K . In view of Proposition 15.8, this means that $W_n^+(C) \subset K^\times$, and it follows easily that $K = \mathcal{M}_C$. Let V be the set of WL-series of degree 0. If $f(x) \in V$ then for some m we have $x^m f(x) \in W_m^+(C)$, so Corollary 15.4 gives a factorisation $f(x) = u(x)g(x)/x^m$ with $u(x) \in \mathcal{O}_C^\times$ and $g(x)/x^m \in P(R)$. Note that $P(R)$ and \mathcal{O}_C^\times are groups with trivial intersection, and that $P(R) \cdot \mathcal{O}_C^\times \subseteq V$. It follows that V is a group and that $V = P(R) \times \mathcal{O}_C^\times$. If $f(x), g(x) \in W_n^+(C)$ then it is clear that f/x^n and g/x^n lie in V , so $f/g = (f/x^n)/(g/x^n)$ lies in V . This implies that $W_0(C) = V = \mathcal{O}_C^\times \times P(R)$ as claimed. \square

Definition 16.6. Let C be a formal curve over a scheme X . Given a ring R and a point $a \in C(R)$ we have a formal curve $C_a = \text{spec}(R) \times_X C$ over $\text{spec}(R)$, and we define

$$\text{Div}_0(C)(R) = \{(a, D) \mid a \in X(R) \text{ and } D \in D_0(C_a)\}.$$

This defines a functor $\text{Div}_0(C)$ from rings to Abelian groups.

Remark 16.7. A choice of coordinate on C gives a natural bijection

$$D_0(C_a) \simeq P(R) \simeq \bigoplus_{k < 0} \text{Nil}(R),$$

and thus an isomorphism $\text{Div}_0(C) \simeq X \times \bigoplus_{k < 0} \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^1$. This is not a formal scheme according to our definitions, but one can set up a more general theory of formal schemes which does include $\text{Div}_0(C)$.

17. ELLIPTIC CURVES

Definition 17.1. A *Weierstrass cubic* over a ring R is a homogeneous polynomial $f(x, y, z)$ of degree three such that $f = y^2z \pmod{x, z^2}$ and $f = -x^3 \pmod{y, z}$. This means that there are elements $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \alpha_4, \alpha_6 \in R$ such that

$$f(x, y, z) = y^2z + \alpha_1xyz + \alpha_3yz^2 - x^3 - \alpha_2x^2z - \alpha_4xz^2 - \alpha_6z^3.$$

Remark 17.2. If R is an algebraically closed field then every nonzero irreducible homogeneous cubic can be put in this form by a suitable change of coordinates. For more general rings there is a more complicated statement which again essentially reduces the study of all cubics to that of Weierstrass cubics. Such a cubic defines a subscheme C of the projective plane, and there is a coordinate-free description of the schemes that can arise in this way. These are non-affine schemes, but with suitable definitions they can still be regarded as functors from rings to sets. We shall not give details here, however.

As in example 5.5, we can use a Weierstrass cubic $f(x, y, z)$ over \mathcal{O}_X to define a formal curve \widehat{C} over X by

$$\widehat{C}(R) = \{(u, a, c) \in X(R) \times \text{Nil}(R)^2 \mid f(a, 1, c) = 0\}.$$

Our main task in this section is to show that \widehat{C} has a canonical group structure.

Remark 17.3. The analytic analogy is as follows. If f is a Weierstrass cubic over \mathbb{C} and we write $\mathcal{C} = \{[x : y : z] \in \mathbb{C}P^2 \mid f(x, y, z) = 0\}$ then the classical analytic theory of elliptic curves gives an isomorphism $\mathcal{C} \simeq \mathbb{C}/\Lambda$ for some lattice $\Lambda \leq \mathbb{C}$, with the zero element in \mathbb{C}/Λ corresponding to $[0 : 1 : 0]$. This shows that \mathcal{C} has a natural group structure. We next explain a purely algebraic characterisation of this structure, which we can use to generalise the theory to rings other than \mathbb{C} . Let $\mathbb{Z}\{\mathcal{C}\}$ be the free Abelian group on the points of \mathcal{C} , and let $[c]$ denote the basis element corresponding to a point $c \in \mathcal{C}$. Any nonzero meromorphic function f on \mathcal{C} has zeros $\{a_i\}$ with multiplicities $\{n_i\}$, where poles count as zeros of negative multiplicity. This gives an element $\text{div}(f) = \sum_i n_i [a_i] \in \mathbb{Z}\{\mathcal{C}\}$, called the divisor of f . A fundamental result (which can be proved by contour integration, for example) says that an element $\sum_i n_i [a_i]$ arises in this way if and only if we have $\sum_i n_i = 0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\sum_i n_i a_i = 0 \in \mathcal{C}$. On the other hand, if we allow functions that are only meromorphic on an open subset of \mathcal{C} , we get all elements of $\mathbb{Z}\{\mathcal{C}\}$, and we only get the zero element if f is an invertible holomorphic function. Thus $\mathbb{Z}\{\mathcal{C}\}$ can be thought of as something like the group of local invertible meromorphic functions modulo local invertible holomorphic functions. We can define $D_0(\mathcal{C})$ to be the subgroup of elements $\sum_i n_i [a_i]$ with $\sum_i n_i = 0$ and $Q(\mathcal{C})$ to be the quotient by the group of divisors of global meromorphic functions. It is then easy to check that the map $c \mapsto [c] - [0]$ gives an isomorphism $\mathcal{C} \simeq Q(\mathcal{C})$ of groups, and this gives the required characterisation of the group structure on \mathcal{C} .

We write

$$A = \mathcal{O}_{\widehat{C}} = R[[x, z]]/f(x, 1, z) = R[[x]].$$

Note that

$$f(x, 1, z) = z + \alpha_1xz + \alpha_3z^2 - x^3 - \alpha_2x^2z - \alpha_4xz^2 - \alpha_6z^3,$$

so that $f(x, 1, x^3) = 0 \pmod{x^4}$. It follows from Proposition 5.2 and its proof that there is a unique power series $\xi(x) \in R[[x]]$ such that $z = \xi(x)$ in A , and moreover we have $\xi(x) = x^3 \pmod{x^4}$. We may thus write $\xi(x) = \sum_{k \geq 3} \xi_k x^k$, with $\xi_3 = 1$. We also have

$$\widehat{C}(R) = \{(u, a, \xi(a)) \mid u \in X(R) \text{ and } a \in \text{Nil}(R)\}.$$

Next, we write

$$\begin{aligned}
A' &= R[[z]] < A \\
B &= R[X, Y]/f(X, Y, 1) \\
B' &= R[Y] \\
U &= \{u \in B \mid u = 1 \pmod{\text{Nil}(R)B}\} \leq B^\times \\
U_1 &= 1 + \text{Nil}(R) = R^\times \cap U < U \\
K &= A[1/x] = A[1/z] = \mathcal{M}_{\widehat{C}} \\
K' &= A'[1/z] < K.
\end{aligned}$$

We know that z is a unit multiple of x^3 in A , which is why $A[1/x] = A[1/z]$. We see from Proposition 15.2 that A is a free module over A' with basis $\{1, x, x^2\}$, and thus that K is a free module over K' with the same basis. One can also check that $f(X, Y, 1)$ can be regarded as a monic polynomial of degree three in X over B' , and thus that B is a free module over B' with basis $\{1, X, X^2\}$.

Remark 17.4. The relevant analogies for elliptic curves over the complex numbers are as follows. The ring A is the ring of functions on an formal neighbourhood of the origin. The ring K consists of meromorphic functions on a formal neighbourhood, whose poles are concentrated in an infinitesimal neighbourhood (where “infinitesimal” is smaller than “formal”). The ring B consists of meromorphic functions on the whole curve, whose poles (if any) are concentrated in an infinitesimal neighbourhood of the origin. The group U consists of functions on the whole curve that are very close to 1 away from an infinitesimal neighbourhood of the origin, so all the zeros and poles are contained in such a neighbourhood.

Definition 17.5. We define a map $\alpha: B \rightarrow K$ by $\alpha(X) = x/z$ and $\alpha(Y) = 1/z$.

Lemma 17.6. *The map α is injective.*

Proof. Note that $\alpha(B') \leq K'$, that B is freely generated over B' by $\{1, X, X^2\}$, and that K is freely generated over K' by $\{\alpha(1), \alpha(X), \alpha(X^2)\}$. It will thus be enough to show that α is injective on B' , which is trivial. \square

From now on we will allow ourselves to think of B as a subring of K , and thus of B^\times and U as subgroups of K^\times .

Definition 17.7. We write $Q = Q(C) = D_0(\widehat{C})/U = W_0(\widehat{C})/A^\times \cdot U$. We also define a map $\phi: \Gamma(X, \widehat{C}) \rightarrow Q(C)$ by $\phi(c) = J_c/J_0$, where J_c is as in Proposition 15.12. If we use x as a coordinate to identify $\Gamma(X, \widehat{C})$ with $\text{Nil}(\mathcal{O}_X)$ then we have $(1 - c/x) \in W_0(\widehat{C})$ and our map becomes $\phi(c) = [1 - c/x]$.

Theorem 17.8. *The map $\phi: \Gamma(X, \widehat{C}) \rightarrow Q(C)$ is a bijection. As $Q(C)$ is a group, this gives a natural group structure on $\Gamma(X, \widehat{C})$.*

Lemma 17.9. *Suppose that $h \in W_{3m-1}^+(\widehat{C})$ for some $m > 0$. Then there exists $u \in U$ such that $z^m u \in Ah$, and u is unique modulo U_1 .*

Proof. We know that B has basis $\{X^i Y^j \mid i \geq 0, 3 > j \geq 0\}$ over R . Let U' be the subset of U consisting of elements $u = \sum_{i,j} u_{ij} X^i Y^j$ where $u_{00} = 1$ (and necessarily $u_{ij} \in \text{Nil}(R)$ for $(i, j) \neq (0, 0)$). This need not be a subgroup but we do have $U = U_1 \times U'$ so it will suffice to show that there is a unique choice of u lying in U' .

Write

$$\begin{aligned}
T &= \{(i, j) \mid m-1 > i \geq 0, 3 > j \geq 0\} \cup \{(m-1, 0), (m-1, 1)\} \\
&= \{(i, j) \mid i \geq 0, 3 > j \geq 0, 3i + j < 3m-1\} \\
&= \{(i, j) \mid m > i \geq 0, 3 > j \geq 0, i + j \leq m\}.
\end{aligned}$$

For each $k \in \{0, \dots, 3m-2\}$ there is a unique element $(i, j) \in T$ such that $z^i x^j = x^k \pmod{x^{k+1}}$, and it follows by the method of Proposition 15.2 that $\{z^i x^j \mid (i, j) \in T\}$ is a basis for A/hA over R . Thus, there are unique elements $a_{ij} \in R$ such that $-z^m = \sum_T a_{ij} z^i x^j \pmod{Ah}$. We define

$$u = 1 + \sum_T a_{ij} z^{i-m} x^j = 1 + \sum_T a_{ij} X^i Y^{m-i-j} \in B,$$

so that $z^m u \in Ah$. If h is a unit multiple of x^{3m-1} then clearly $z^m \in Ah$ and so $a_{ij} = 0$ for all (i, j) . We can always put ourselves in this situation by working modulo the nilpotent ideal generated by the lower coefficients of h , so we conclude that the elements a_{ij} are always nilpotent. Thus $u \in U'$.

Now suppose we have some other $v \in U'$ such that $z^m v \in Ah$. We can then write $w = v - u = \sum_{i,j} w_{ij} X^j Y^i$ where j runs from 0 to 2 and $w_{00} = 0$, and $z^m w \in Ah$. Note that $z^m w = \sum_{i,j} w_{ij} z^{m-i-j} x^j$. As K is freely generated over K' by $\{1, x, x^2\}$ one can check that $w_{ij} = 0$ when $i + j > m$. We also have $w_{00} = 0$, in other words $w_{ij} = 0$ when $i + j = 0$. If we write $k = m - i - j$ then we find that $w_{ij} = 0$ unless $0 \leq k < m$ and $0 \leq j < 3$ and $j + k = m - i \leq m$. Using our third description of T , we see that $z^m w$ lies in the span of $\{z^i x^j \mid (i, j) \in T\}$ but this set is a basis for A/Ah and $z^m w \in Ah$ so $z^m w = 0$ so $u = v$. \square

Proof of Theorem 17.8. Define $Y_m = \{g \in W_0(\widehat{C}) \mid x^{-1} z^m g^{-1} \in A\}$. If $g \in Y_m$ then $x^{-1} z^m g \in W_{3m-1}^+(\widehat{C})$ so the lemma gives an element $u \in U$ such that $z^m u \in z^m x^{-1} g^{-1} A$. Thus $u = x^{-1} g^{-1} k$ for some $k \in A$. As $u, g \in W_0(\widehat{C})$ one can check that $k \in W_1^+(\widehat{C})$, so Corollary 15.4 gives a unique factorisation $k = (x - c)v$ with $c \in \text{Nil}(R)$ and $v \in A^\times$. We define $\psi_m(g) = c$ (it is easy to see that this is well-defined even though u can be multiplied by an element of U_1). It is easy to check that the restriction of ψ_{m+1} to Y_m is ψ_m , and the union of the sets Y_m is $W_0(\widehat{C})$, so we get a map $\psi: W_0(\widehat{C}) \rightarrow \text{Nil}(R)$.

Now suppose that $g \in Y_m$ as above and $w \in U$ and $t \in A^\times$. Choose n large enough that $z^n w^{-1} \in A$. We then have $uw^{-1} \in U$ and $vt \in A^\times$ and

$$z^{n+m}(uw^{-1}) = z^{n+m} x^{-1} (twg)^{-1} (x - c)(vt),$$

which implies that $\psi_{m+n}(twg) = c$. Thus $\psi(twg) = \psi(g)$, so ψ induces a map $\bar{\psi}: Q(C) = W_0(\widehat{C})/UA^\times \rightarrow \text{Nil}(R)$.

Now identify $\text{Nil}(R)$ with $\Gamma(X, \widehat{C})$, so that ϕ becomes the map $c \mapsto [1 - c/x]$. If we take $g(x) = 1 - c/x$ then for $m \gg 0$ we have $z^m g^{-1} \in W_{3m-1}^+(\widehat{C})$ and $z^m \cdot 1 = z^m x^{-1} g^{-1} (x - c)$ so $\bar{\psi}(g) = c$. Thus $\bar{\psi}\phi = 1$.

On the other hand, if we start with $g \in Y_m$ and define u, v and c as above we find that $g = (1 - c/x)u^{-1}v \in (1 - c/x)UA^\times$, so $[g] = \phi(c)$ in $Q(C)$. Thus $\phi\bar{\psi} = 1$. \square

We now consider another characterisation of the group structure on an elliptic curve. The statement is simplest when $X = \text{spec}(k)$ for some algebraically closed field k . We then have a set

$$\mathcal{C} = \{[x : y : z] \in \mathbb{P}^2(k) \mid f(x, y, z) = 0\}.$$

The group structure on this is characterised by the facts that

- (a) The identity element is $[0 : 1 : 0]$.
- (b) If $P_i = [x_i : y_i : z_i] \in \mathcal{C}$ for $i = 0, 1, 2$ and $P_0 + P_1 + P_2 = 0$ then the P_i 's are collinear, or equivalently we have

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} x_0 & x_1 & x_2 \\ y_0 & y_1 & y_2 \\ z_0 & z_1 & z_2 \end{pmatrix} = 0.$$

In our context we need to do something a little more delicate, as many of our elements are nilpotent so we cannot divide by them. A key point is the following lemma:

Lemma 17.10. *Define*

$$\chi(x_0, x_1, x_2) = \sum_{i,j,k} \xi_{i+j+k+2} x_0^i x_1^j x_2^k,$$

where as usual $\xi(x) = \sum_{k \geq 3} \xi_k x^k$ is the series such that $f(x, 1, \xi(x)) = 0$. Then we have

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} x_0 & x_1 & x_2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \xi(x_0) & \xi(x_1) & \xi(x_2) \end{pmatrix} = (x_1 - x_0)(x_2 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)\chi(x_0, x_1, x_2),$$

and $\chi(x_0, x_1, x_2) = x_0 + x_1 + x_2 + O(2)$.

Proof. Define $\zeta(x_0, x_1) = \sum_{i,j} \xi_{i+j+1} x_0^i x_1^j$. One can check directly that

$$(x_1 - x_0)\zeta(x_0, x_1) = \xi(x_1) - \xi(x_0)$$

$$(x_2 - x_1)\chi(x_0, x_1, x_2) = \zeta(x_0, x_2) - \zeta(x_0, x_1).$$

Of course we also have similar identities with the variables permuted. If we subtract the first column of our matrix from the second and third columns and then divide those columns by $(x_1 - x_0)$ and $(x_0 - x_2)$ respectively, we get the matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_0 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \xi(x_0) & \zeta(x_0, x_1) & -\zeta(x_0, x_2) \end{pmatrix}.$$

We can now expand with respect to the first column to get the claimed factorisation. As $\xi_k = 0$ for $k < 3$ and $\xi_3 = 1$ it is immediate from the definitions that $\chi(x_0, x_1, x_2) = x_0 + x_1 + x_2 + O(2)$. \square

Proposition 17.11. *If $a_0, a_1, a_2 \in \Gamma(X, \widehat{C})$ satisfy $a_0 + a_1 + a_2 = 0$ (using the group structure coming from Theorem 17.8) then $\chi(a_0, a_1, a_2) = 0$ and thus*

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} x_0 & x_1 & x_2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \xi(x_0) & \xi(x_1) & \xi(x_2) \end{pmatrix} = 0.$$

Proof. We need to show that $\phi(a_0)\phi(a_1)\phi(a_2) = 1$ in $Q(C)$, or equivalently that $(1 - a_0/x)(1 - a_1/x)(1 - a_2/x) \in UA^\times$. Consider the series $h(x) = \chi(a_0, a_1, x) \in A$. As $\chi(x_0, x_1, x_2) = x_0 + x_1 + x_2 + O(2)$, we see that h is a W-series of degree one, and $h(a_2) = 0$ so $h(x) = v(x)(x - a_2)$ for some $v \in A^\times$. Now consider

$$g(x) = (x - a_0)(x - a_1)(x - a_2)v(x) = (x - a_0)(x - a_1)\chi(a_0, a_1, x).$$

On the other hand, if $\zeta(x_0, x_1)$ is as in the proof of Lemma 17.10 we have

$$\begin{aligned} (x - a_0)(x - a_1)\chi(a_0, a_1, x) &= (x - a_0)(\zeta(a_0, x) - \zeta(a_0, a_1)) \\ &= z - \xi(a_0) - \zeta(a_0, a_1)x + a_0\zeta(a_0, a_1). \end{aligned}$$

This implies easily that $u(x) = g(x)/z \in U$ and of course $w(x) = z/x^3$ lies in A^\times , and so

$$(1 - a_0/x)(1 - a_1/x)(1 - a_2/x) = g(x)/(x^3v(x)) = u(x)w(x)/v(x) \in UA^\times,$$

as required. \square

Proposition 17.12. *If $a \in \Gamma(X, \widehat{C})$ then the inverse of a is $-a/(1 + \alpha_1 a + \alpha_3 \xi(a))$, where the coefficients α_i come from the defining Weierstrass cubic*

$$f(x, y, z) = y^2 z + \alpha_1 x y z + \alpha_3 y z^2 - x^3 - \alpha_2 x^2 z - \alpha_4 x z^2 - \alpha_6 z^3.$$

Proof. The basic point is that if a' is the inverse of a then $(a', \xi(a'))$ must lie on the line through the origin containing $(a, \xi(a))$, and it is easy to verify that

$$f(ta, 1, t\xi(a)) = \xi(a)t(1 - t)(1 + (1 + \alpha_1 a + \alpha_3 \xi(a))t).$$

If we could divide by $\xi(a)$ and $(1 - t)$ we could deduce the result, but these quantities are nilpotent so we need a more delicate argument.

We define $\theta(x) = \sum_k \xi_k x^{k-1}$, so that $\xi(x) = x\theta(x)$. We also define $g(x, t) = f(x, 1, tx)/x \in R[x, t]$. It is easy to check that $g(x, \theta(x)) = 0 \in R[[x]]$. Define

$$\begin{aligned} b &= \theta(a) \\ d &= \alpha_1 + \alpha_3 b \\ v &= 1 + ad = 1 + \alpha_1 a + \alpha_3 \xi(a) \\ u &= 1 + \alpha_2 b + \alpha_4 b^2 + \alpha_6 b^3 \\ c &= bdu^{-1} - a \end{aligned}$$

Note that u and v are invertible in R . Clearly $g(a, b) = 0$ and by writing this out we find that $vb = a^2 u$. Given this it is easy to verify that $g(x, b) = (x - a)(bd - u(x + a))$ and thus that

$$f(x, 1, bx) = xg(x, b) = -ux(x - a)(x - c).$$

Of course we also have $f(x, 1, z) = 0$ so modulo $z - bx$ we have $f(x, 1, bx) = 0$ so

$$x(x - a)(x - c) = (z - bx)w$$

for some $w \in A$. Modulo nilpotents we have $x^3 = zw$ and it follows easily that $w \in A^\times$. We also have $zx^{-3} \in A^\times$ and

$$(1 - a/x)(1 - c/x) = (1 - bX)w(zx^{-3}) \in UA^\times.$$

This shows that c is the inverse of a in $\Gamma(X, \widehat{C})$. On the other hand we have $vb = a^2$ so $vbd = au.ad = au(v-1) = auv - au$ so $bdu^{-1} = a - av^{-1}$ so $c = bdu^{-1} - a = -av^{-1} = -a/(1 + \alpha_1 a + \alpha_3 \xi(a))$ as claimed. \square

18. ADDITIVE EXTENSIONS

Definition 18.1. Let C and D be formal curves over a scheme X . Recall that \mathcal{O}_C is the ring of maps $C \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^1$ and let N_C be the ideal of maps $C \rightarrow \widehat{\mathbb{A}}^1$. We say that a map $q: C \rightarrow D$ is an *isogeny of degree d* if the resulting map $q^*: \mathcal{O}_D \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_C$ makes \mathcal{O}_C a free module of rank d over \mathcal{O}_D , and $N_C \leq \sqrt{q^* N_D}$.

Lemma 18.2. Let $q: C \rightarrow D$ be a map of formal curves over X , and let x and y be coordinates on C and D respectively. Let f be the unique power series over \mathcal{O}_X such that $q^*y = f(x)$. Then q is an isogeny of degree d if and only if f is a *W-series of degree d* . If this holds then $\{1, x, \dots, x^{d-1}\}$ is a basis for \mathcal{O}_C over \mathcal{O}_D .

Proof. First note that $N_C = \text{Nil}(\mathcal{O}_X) + x\mathcal{O}_X[[x]]$ so the condition $N_C \leq \sqrt{q^* N_D}$ is equivalent to the condition that $x^N = 0 \pmod{f(x)}$ for $N \gg 0$. It is clear from Proposition 15.2 that if f is a W-series then q is an isogeny, and that $\{1, x, \dots, x^{d-1}\}$ is a basis. Conversely, if q is an isogeny then \mathcal{O}_C is free of rank d over \mathcal{O}_D so $\mathcal{O}_C/f(x)$ is free of rank d over $\mathcal{O}_D/y = \mathcal{O}_X$ so $f(x) \in W_d^+(\mathcal{O}_X)$. We conclude from Proposition 15.8 that f is a Weierstrass series of degree d . \square

Lemma 18.3. Let $q: C \rightarrow D$ be an isogeny of formal curves over X . Then q is an epimorphism in the category of formal schemes over X . In other words, if $r, s: D \rightarrow E$ are maps of formal schemes over X and $rq = sq$ then $r = s$.

Proof. Choose coordinates x on C , y on D and z_1, \dots, z_r on E . We then have series f, g_i, h_i such that $q^*y = f(x)$ and $r^*z_i = g_i(y)$ and $s^*z_i = h_i(y)$, so $g_i(f(x)) = h_i(f(x))$ in $\mathcal{O}_X[[x]] = \mathcal{O}_C$. As $q^*: \mathcal{O}_D \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_C$ is injective we conclude that $g_i = h_i$ so $r = s$. \square

Definition 18.4. Let p be a prime, let X be a scheme such that p is nilpotent in \mathcal{O}_X , and let G be a formal group over X . We say that G has *Weierstrass height n* (or *W-height n*) if the map $p_G: G \rightarrow G$ is an isogeny of degree p^n . We say that G is *p -divisible* if it has W-height n for some n (where necessarily $0 < n < \infty$).

Remark 18.5. Write $X_{\text{red}} = \text{spec}(\mathcal{O}_X/\text{Nil}(\mathcal{O}_X)) \subseteq X$, which is a scheme over $\text{spec}(\mathbb{F}_p)$. Write $G_{\text{red}} = G \times_X X_{\text{red}}$, which is a formal group over X_{red} . This has height n for some n with $0 < n \leq \infty$; if $n < \infty$ then in terms of a coordinate we have $[p](x) = ux^{p^n} + \mathcal{O}(p^n + 1)$. It is easy to see that G has W-height n if and only if $n < \infty$ and u is invertible.

Definition 18.6. For the rest of this section, X will be a scheme such that p is nilpotent in \mathcal{O}_X and G will be a formal group of W-height n over X . The symbol \widehat{G}_a will really denote $\widehat{G}_a \times X$, considered as a formal group over X .

Lemma 18.7. We have $\text{Hom}(G, \widehat{G}_a) = 0$.

Proof. Let $s: G \rightarrow \widehat{G}_a$ be a homomorphism. For $N \gg 0$ we have $p^N = 0$ in \mathcal{O}_X so $p^N = 0$ as an endomorphism of \widehat{G}_a . By considering the following square, we see that $s \circ p_G^N = 0$.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} G & \xrightarrow{p_G^N} & G \\ s \downarrow & & \downarrow s \\ \widehat{G}_a & \xrightarrow{p^N=0} & \widehat{G}_a \end{array}$$

As p_G^N is an isogeny, it is an epimorphism, so $s = 0$. \square

Definition 18.8. An *additive extension* of G is a sequence of formal group schemes and homomorphisms $\widehat{G}_a \xrightarrow{j} E \xrightarrow{q} G$ such that $qj = 0$ and there exist maps $\widehat{G}_a \xleftarrow{r} E \xleftarrow{s} G$ (not necessarily homomorphisms) with $rj = 1_{\widehat{G}_a}$ and $jr + sq = 1_E$ and $qs = 1_G$. Such a pair (r, s) is a (*non-additive*) *splitting* of the extension.

Remark 18.9. Let E, j, q, r and s be as above. Note that j and s are monomorphisms and r and q are epimorphisms. Define maps $f: \widehat{G}_a \times G \rightarrow E$ and $g: E \rightarrow \widehat{G}_a \times G$ by $f(a, u) = j(a) + s(u)$ and $g(e) = (r(e), q(e))$. Then it is easy to check that $fg = jq + sr = 1_E$. Moreover, as q is a homomorphism with $qj = 0$ and $qs = 1$ we have $qf(a, u) = u$. Also, we have $jr f(a, u) = (1 - sq)f(a, u) = f(a, u) - s(u) = j(a)$ and j is a monomorphism so $rf(a) = a$. We now see that $gf = 1$, so that f and g are mutually inverse isomorphisms.

Definition 18.10. Let E and E' be additive extensions of G . A *morphism* from E to E' is a homomorphism $f: E \rightarrow E'$ of formal group schemes such that $fj = j'$ and $q'f = q$, so that the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \widehat{G}_a & \xrightarrow{j} & E & \xrightarrow{q} & G \\ \parallel & & \downarrow f & & \parallel \\ \widehat{G}_a & \xrightarrow{j'} & E' & \xrightarrow{q'} & G. \end{array}$$

If we choose splittings r, s, r' and s' and define $g = sq' + jr'(1 - fsq')$: $E' \rightarrow E$ then one can check that $fg = 1_{E'}$ and $gf = 1_E$ so f is automatically an isomorphism. We write $\text{Ext}(G, \widehat{G}_a)$ for the set of isomorphism classes of additive extensions of G .

Lemma 18.11. *If E and E' are additive extensions of G then there is at most one morphism from E to E' .*

Proof. Let $f_0, f_1: E \rightarrow E'$ be morphisms and put $\delta = f_0 - f_1$, so we need to show that $\delta = 0$. As $f_i j = j'$ and $q' f_i = q$ for $i = 0, 1$ we have $\delta j = 0$ and $q' \delta = 0$. Now put $\zeta = r' \delta s: G \rightarrow \widehat{G}_a$. As $1_E = sq + jr$ and $1_{E'} = s'q' + j'r'$ we have

$$\delta = (s'q' + j'r')\delta(sq + jr) = j'r'\delta sq = j'\zeta q.$$

As j' is monic and a homomorphism, and q is epic and a homomorphism, and $j'\zeta q$ is a homomorphism, it is not hard to check that ζ is a homomorphism. As $\text{Hom}(G, \widehat{G}_a) = 0$ we see that $\zeta = 0$ so $\delta = 0$ as required. In fact, we do not need to show that ζ is a homomorphism but merely that $\zeta \circ p_G = p_{\widehat{G}_a} \circ \zeta$, as one sees easily from the proof of Lemma 18.7. This is easier so we will give the details. We claim that

$$j'\zeta p_G q = j'\zeta q p_E = p_{E'} j'\zeta q = j' p_{\widehat{G}_a} \zeta q.$$

The three equalities use the fact that $q, j'\zeta q = \delta$ and j' respectively are homomorphisms. As j' is mono and q is epi we conclude that $\zeta p_G = p_{\widehat{G}_a} \zeta$ as required. \square

Definition 18.12. We write

$$\begin{aligned} Z(G) &= \{ \sigma: G \times_X G \rightarrow \widehat{G}_a \mid \sigma(u, v) = \sigma(v, u), \sigma(u, 0) = 0, \\ &\quad \sigma(v, w) - \sigma(u + v, w) + \sigma(u, v + w) - \sigma(u, v) = 0 \} \\ C(G) &= \{ \tau: G \rightarrow \widehat{G}_a \mid \tau(0) = 0 \}. \end{aligned}$$

We also define a map $\delta: C(G) \rightarrow Z(G)$ by

$$\delta(\tau)(u, v) = \tau(u + v) - \tau(u) - \tau(v).$$

We call $Z(G)$ the group of symmetric two-cocycles on G with values in \widehat{G}_a .

Remark 18.13. It is clear that $\delta: C(G) \rightarrow Z(G)$ is a homomorphism of \mathcal{O}_X -modules. The kernel is $\text{Hom}(G, \widehat{G}_a) = 0$, so δ is injective. We may thus think of $C(G)$ as a subgroup of $Z(G)$ and define the quotient module $Z(G)/C(G)$.

Definition 18.14. Given $\sigma \in Z(G)$ we define $E_\sigma = \widehat{G}_a \times G$ with group operation

$$(a, u) + (b, v) = (a + b - \sigma(u, v), u + v).$$

(The inverse of (a, u) is $(-a + \sigma(u, -u), -u)$.) We also define $\widehat{G}_a \xrightarrow{j} E_\sigma \xrightarrow{q} G$ and $\widehat{G}_a \xleftarrow{r} E_\sigma \xleftarrow{s} G$ by

$$\begin{aligned} j(a) &= (a, 0) \\ s(u) &= (0, u) \\ q(a, u) &= u \\ r(a, u) &= a. \end{aligned}$$

One can check directly that this gives an additive extension of G . We define a map $\theta: Z(G) \rightarrow \text{Ext}(G, \widehat{G}_a)$ by $\theta(\sigma) = E_\sigma$.

Proposition 18.15. *The map θ induces a bijection $Z(G)/C(G) \simeq \text{Ext}(G, \widehat{G}_a)$.*

Proof. First, suppose we have two symmetric cocycles σ and σ' with $\sigma - \sigma' = \delta(\tau)$. One can then check that the map $f(a, u) = (a + \tau(u), u)$ gives an isomorphism of extensions $E_\sigma \simeq E_{\sigma'}$, so that $\theta(\sigma) = \theta(\sigma') \in \text{Ext}(G, \widehat{G}_a)$. Thus, θ induces a map $\bar{\theta}: Z(G)/C(G) \rightarrow \text{Ext}(G, \widehat{G}_a)$.

Now suppose instead that we have symmetric cocycles σ and σ' and an isomorphism of extensions $f: E_\sigma \rightarrow E_{\sigma'}$. Define $\tau = r'fs: G \rightarrow \widehat{G}_a$ (using the usual splittings of E and E'). It is easy to see that $\tau(0) = 0$ so that $\tau \in C(G)$. As $q'f = q$ we have $f(0, u) = (\tau(u), u)$. As $fj = j'$ we have $f(a, 0) = (a, 0)$. As $(a, u) = (a, 0) + (0, u)$ we have $f(a, 0) = (a, 0) + (\tau(u), u) = (a + \tau(u), u)$. This gives $f((0, u) + (0, v)) = f(-\sigma(u, v), u + v) = (\tau(u + v) - \sigma(u, v), u + v)$. On the other hand we have $f((0, u) + (0, v)) = f(0, u) + f(0, v) = (\tau(u) + \tau(v) - \sigma'(u, v), u + v)$. By comparing these answers we see that $\sigma - \sigma' = \delta(\tau)$. It follows easily that our map $\bar{\theta}: Z(G)/C(G) \rightarrow \text{Ext}(G, \widehat{G}_a)$ is injective.

Finally, suppose we start with an additive extension E' . Choose splittings r' and s' in the usual way and define $\sigma(u, v) = r'(s'(u+v) - s'(u) - s'(v))$. We know that $q': E' \rightarrow G$ is a homomorphism with $q's' = 1$ so $q'(s'(u+v) - s'(u) - s'(v)) = 0$ and $j'r' = 1 - s'q'$ so we see that

$$j'\sigma(u, v) = (1 - s'q')(s'(u+v) - s'(u) - s'(v)) = s'(u+v) - s'(u) - s'(v).$$

From this it follows that $j'\sigma$ satisfies the symmetric cocycle conditions and j' is a monomorphism so σ satisfies the conditions, so $\sigma \in Z(G)$. We define $f: E_\sigma \rightarrow E'$ by $f(a, u) = j'(a) + s'(u)$. One can check directly that this is an isomorphism of extensions, so that the isomorphism class of E' lies in the image of $\bar{\theta}$. It now follows that $\bar{\theta}$ is an isomorphism. \square

Remark 18.16. If we choose a coordinate x on G (giving a formal group law $F(x, y)$) then $Z(G)$ becomes the set of power series $\sigma(x, y)$ such that $\sigma(x, y) = \sigma(y, x)$ and $\sigma(x, 0) = 0$ and

$$\sigma(y, z) - \sigma(x +_F y, z) + \sigma(x, y +_F z) - \sigma(x, y) = 0.$$

Lemma 18.17. *For any formal group law F over any ring R and any $k \geq 2$ there is a naturally defined symmetric cocycle $\sigma_k(F)(x, y)$ such that $\sigma_k(F)(x, y) = c_k(x, y) + O(k+1)$.*

Proof. Recall from Theorem 7.2 that the Lazard ring L is a polynomial ring on generators a_j for $j \geq 2$. The formal group law F over R corresponds to a ring map $\phi: L \rightarrow R$, sending a_j to α_j say. Define $R' = R[\epsilon]/\epsilon^2$. Let $\phi': L \rightarrow R'$ be the map that sends a_k to $\alpha_k + \epsilon$ and sends a_j to α_j for $j \neq k$. Let F' be the formal group law over R' coming from ϕ' , so $F' = F \pmod{\epsilon}$, so $(x +_{F'} y) -_F x -_F y$ has the form $\epsilon\sigma(x, y)$ for some series $\sigma \in R[[x, y]]$. It is easy to see that this is symmetric and $\sigma(x, 0) = 0$. Next note that when $x = x' \pmod{\epsilon}$ we have $\epsilon\sigma(x, y) = \epsilon\sigma(x', y)$, because $\epsilon^2 = 0$. We also have $\epsilon u +_F \epsilon v = \epsilon(u + v)$. It follows that

$$x +_{F'} y +_{F'} z = x +_F y +_F z +_F \epsilon(\sigma(x, y) + \sigma(x +_F y, z)).$$

Using the commutativity and associativity of F and F' it is easy to conclude that σ is a symmetric cocycle. We define $\sigma_k(F) = \sigma$.

We now need to prove that $\sigma(x, y) = c_k(x, y) + O(k+1)$. It will suffice to do this for the universal formal group law over L . We give L its usual grading and then give $L'[[x, y]]$ the grading extending this such that ϵ is homogeneous of degree $k-1$ and x and y are homogeneous of degree -1 . With these gradings one can check that $F(x, y)$ and $F'(x, y)$ are homogeneous of degree -1 and thus that $\sigma(x, y)$ is homogeneous of degree $-k$. This means that $\sigma(x, y) = \sum_{i,j} b_{ij} x^i y^j$ where $b_{ij} \in L$ is homogeneous of degree $k-i-j$. This means that $b_{ij} = 0$ when $i+j < k$ and that $b_{ij} \in \mathbb{Z}$ when $i+j = k$. Define $\sigma'(x, y) = \sum_{i+j=k} b_{ij} x^i y^j$. All that is left is to show that $\sigma'(x, y) = c_k(x, y)$. For this we note that $\sigma' = \sigma_k(F_a)$, where $F_a(x, y) = x + y$ is the additive

formal group law. One can see from the construction in Proposition 6.3 and the definition of a_k that $\sigma_k(F_a) = c_k$ as required. \square

We leave the proof of the next two lemmas to the reader.

Lemma 18.18. *If F is a formal group law over R and $\sigma(x, y)$ is a symmetric cocycle for F and $\sigma(x, y) = 0 + O(k)$ then there is a unique $a \in R$ such that $\sigma(x, y) = ac_k(x, y) + O(k + 1)$. \square*

Lemma 18.19. *We have $\delta(x^k) = b_k(x, y) + O(k + 1)$, where $b_k(x, y) = (x + y)^k - x^k - y^k = \nu(k)c_k(x, y)$. \square*

Now let G be a formal group over X of W-height n . It follows from Theorem 11.11 that we can choose a coordinate x on G_{red} such that the resulting formal group law is additive to order $p^n - 1$. The map $\mathcal{O}_G \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{G_{\text{red}}}$ is clearly surjective, so we can choose a coordinate on G extending x ; we call this coordinate x also. If $x +_F y = x + y + \sum_{i+j} a_{ij} x^i y^j$ and $I = (p) + (a_{ij} \mid i + j < p^n)$ we find that I is nilpotent and that there is an element $u \in \mathcal{O}_X$ such that $x +_F y = x + y + uc_{p^n}(x, y) + O(p^n + 1) \pmod{I}$. We see from Lemma 11.6 that $[p]_F(x) = -ux^{p^n} + O(p^n + 1) \pmod{I}$; as G has W-height n we deduce that u is a unit in \mathcal{O}_X . We now see that

$$\delta(x^{p^r}) = (x +_F y)^{p^r} - x^{p^r} - y^{p^r} = u^{p^r} c_{p^{n+r}}(x, y) + O(p^{n+r} + 1) \pmod{I}.$$

Proposition 18.20. *The group $\text{Ext}(G, \widehat{G}_a)$ is a free module of rank $n - 1$ over \mathcal{O}_X . If x is a coordinate as above and F is the resulting formal group law then $\{\sigma_{p^r}(F)(x, y) \mid 1 \leq r \leq n - 1\}$ is a basis for $\text{Ext}(G, \widehat{G}_a)$.*

Proof. Write $R = \mathcal{O}_X$, and let $u \in R^\times$ be as in the preceding discussion. For $k \geq 2$ we define $\tau_k(x, y) \in Z(G)$ by

$$\tau_k(x, y) = \begin{cases} \delta(x^k / \nu(k)) & \text{if } k \text{ is not a power of } p \\ \delta((x/u)^{p^{r-n}}) & \text{if } k = p^r \geq p^n \\ \sigma_{p^r}(F)(x, y) & \text{if } k = p^r < p^n. \end{cases}$$

Note that $\tau_k(x, y) = c_k(x, y) + O(k + 1) \pmod{I}$ for all k .

For any R -module M we let $Z(G; M)$ denote the set of formal power series $\sigma(x, y) \in M[[x, y]]$ that satisfy the symmetric cocycle conditions. Define a map $\theta_M: \prod_{k \geq 2} M \rightarrow Z(G; M)$ by $\theta(m) = \sum_k m_k \tau_k$ (one can check that this converges, because $\delta(x^k) = 0 + O(k)$ for all k). One can check using Lemma 18.18 that θ_M is an isomorphism when $IM = 0$. As in the proof of Proposition 15.2, we deduce that θ_{R/I^k} is iso for all k and thus that θ_R is iso. This implies that

$$Z(G) = R\{\sigma_p, \dots, \sigma_{p^{n-1}}\} \oplus \delta(C(G))$$

and thus that

$$\text{Ext}(G, \widehat{G}_a) = Z(G) / \delta(C(G)) = R\{\sigma_p, \dots, \sigma_{p^{n-1}}\}.$$

\square

Definition 18.21. Given a formal group scheme H of dimension d over X , we define $J = J_H = \{f \in \mathcal{O}_H \mid f(0) = 0\}$ and $\omega_H = J/J^2$ and $t_H = \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{O}_X}(\omega_H, \mathcal{O}_X)$. It is easy to see that ω_H and t_H are free modules of rank d over \mathcal{O}_X . Moreover, a map $q: G \rightarrow H$ induces a map $q_*: t_G \rightarrow t_H$ provided only that $q(0) = 0$; we do not need q to be a homomorphism.

Definition 18.22. Let $\widehat{G}_a \xrightarrow{j} E \xrightarrow{q} G$ be an additive extension. A *rigidification* of this extension is a pair of maps $\mathcal{O}_X = t_{\widehat{G}_a} \xleftarrow{r_0} t_E \xleftarrow{s_0} t_G$ such that $r_0 j_* = 1$ and $q_* s_0 = 1$ and $j_* r_0 + s_0 q_* = 1$.

Exercise 18.23. Show that if $r_0: t_E \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_X$ satisfies $r_0 j_* = 1$ then there is a unique map $s_0: t_G \rightarrow t_E$ such that (r_0, s_0) is a rigidification. Similarly, show that if s_0 satisfies $q_* s_0 = 1$ then there is a unique r_0 such that (r_0, s_0) is a rigidification.

Exercise 18.24. Show that if (r_0, s_0) is a rigidification and $u \in \omega_G = \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{O}_X}(t_G, \mathcal{O}_X)$ then $(r_0 + j_* u, s_0 - u q_*)$ is another rigidification, and this construction gives a bijection between ω_G and the set of rigidifications.

Exercise 18.25. Given a rigidification (r_0, s_0) , there is a splitting (r, s) such that $r_0 = r_*$ and $s_0 = s_*$.

Definition 18.26. A *rigidified additive extension* of G is an additive extension with a specified rigidification. An *isomorphism of rigidified extensions* is an isomorphism $f: E \rightarrow E'$ of extensions such that $r'_0 \circ f_* = r_0$ and $f_* \circ s_0 = s'_0$. We write $M(G) = \text{Ext}_{\text{rig}}(G, \widehat{G}_a)$ for the set of isomorphism classes of rigidified additive extensions of G . This is also called the *Dieudonné module* of G .

Exercise 18.27. Prove that there is a natural short exact sequence

$$\omega_G \rightarrow \text{Ext}_{\text{rig}}(G, \widehat{G}_a) \rightarrow \text{Ext}(G, \widehat{G}_a),$$

so that $\text{Ext}_{\text{rig}}(G, \widehat{G}_a)$ is a free \mathcal{O}_X -module of rank n .

Exercise 18.28. Define

$$C_{\text{rig}}(G) = \{\tau: G \rightarrow \widehat{G}_a \mid \tau(0) = 0 \text{ and } \tau_* = 0: t_G \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_X\}.$$

Prove that

$$\text{Ext}_{\text{rig}}(G, \widehat{G}_a) = Z(G)/C_{\text{rig}}(G) = \mathcal{O}_X\{\sigma_p, \dots, \sigma_{p^n}\}.$$