

# Quadratic forms and cohomological operations

Alexander Vishik



$k$ -field,  $\text{char}(k) \neq 2$

$(V_q, q)$  – quadratic form over  $k$ ,

where  $V_q$  is a  $k$ -vector space and  $V_q \xrightarrow{q} k$  is the diagonal part of some symmetric bi-linear form on  $V_q$ .

We are interested in non-degenerate forms only.

$k$ -field,  $\text{char}(k) \neq 2$

$(V_q, q)$  – quadratic form over  $k$ ,

where  $V_q$  is a  $k$ -vector space and  $V_q \xrightarrow{q} k$  is the diagonal part of some symmetric bi-linear form on  $V_q$ .

We are interested in non-degenerate forms only.

Over  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{C}$  such structures are close to trivial, but over an arbitrary field they are really rich.

$k$ -field,  $\text{char}(k) \neq 2$

$(V_q, q)$  – quadratic form over  $k$ ,

where  $V_q$  is a  $k$ -vector space and  $V_q \xrightarrow{q} k$  is the diagonal part of some symmetric bi-linear form on  $V_q$ .

We are interested in non-degenerate forms only.

Over  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{C}$  such structures are close to trivial, but over an arbitrary field they are really rich.

In contrast to vector spaces they have "forms":

$$p \not\cong q, \quad \text{but} \quad p_{\bar{k}} \cong q_{\bar{k}}.$$

$k$ -field,  $\text{char}(k) \neq 2$

$(V_q, q)$  – quadratic form over  $k$ ,

where  $V_q$  is a  $k$ -vector space and  $V_q \xrightarrow{q} k$  is the diagonal part of some symmetric bi-linear form on  $V_q$ .

We are interested in non-degenerate forms only.

Over  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{C}$  such structures are close to trivial, but over an arbitrary field they are really rich.

In contrast to vector spaces they have "forms":

$$p \not\cong q, \text{ but } p_{\bar{k}} \cong q_{\bar{k}}.$$

Moreover, all quadratic forms of a given dimension  $n$  are "forms" of a fixed one (say, a sum of squares  $x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$ ), and are described by the orthogonal group  $O(n)$ :

The set of isom. classes of  $n$  – dim. forms =  $H_{\text{et}}^1(k, O(n))$ ,

where the latter is the 1-st cohomology of the absolute Galois group  $G$  of  $k$  with coefficients in  $O(n; \bar{k})$ .

In the 1950's Kaplansky had introduced two invariants:

In the 1950's Kaplansky had introduced two invariants:

$$s(k) = \max. n \text{ s.t. } x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2 \text{ is "anisotropic" over } k$$

(does not represent 0 non-trivially)

In the 1950's Kaplansky had introduced two invariants:

$$s(k) = \max. n \text{ s.t. } x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2 \text{ is "anisotropic" over } k$$

(does not represent 0 non-trivially)

$$u(k) = \max. \text{ dim. of anisotropic quadr. form over } k.$$

## Examples:

## Examples:

$$1) u(\mathbb{C}) = s(\mathbb{C}) = 1;$$

## Examples:

$$1) u(\mathbb{C}) = s(\mathbb{C}) = 1;$$

$$2) u(\mathbb{R}) = s(\mathbb{R}) = \infty;$$

## Examples:

1)  $u(\mathbb{C}) = s(\mathbb{C}) = 1$ ;

2)  $u(\mathbb{R}) = s(\mathbb{R}) = \infty$ ;

3)  $u(\mathbb{F}_q) = 2$ , which follows from the fact that any **3**-dimensional form over a finite field is isotropic, while  $\mathbb{F}_q^*/(\mathbb{F}_q^*)^2 \cong \mathbb{Z}/2$ ;

## Examples:

1)  $u(\mathbb{C}) = s(\mathbb{C}) = 1$ ;

2)  $u(\mathbb{R}) = s(\mathbb{R}) = \infty$ ;

3)  $u(\mathbb{F}_q) = 2$ , which follows from the fact that any **3**-dimensional form over a finite field is isotropic, while  $\mathbb{F}_q^*/(\mathbb{F}_q^*)^2 \cong \mathbb{Z}/2$ ;

4)  $u(\mathbb{Q}_p) = 4$ .

## Conjecture (Kaplansky, 1953)

**Conjecture** (Kaplansky, 1953)

1) The only values of  $s(k)$  are  $2^r$  and  $\infty$ ;

**Conjecture** (Kaplansky, 1953)

- 1) The only values of  $s(k)$  are  $2^r$  and  $\infty$ ;
- 2) The only values of  $u(k)$  are  $2^r$  and  $\infty$ .

**Conjecture** (Kaplansky, 1953)

- 1) The only values of  $s(k)$  are  $2^r$  and  $\infty$ ;
- 2) The only values of  $u(k)$  are  $2^r$  and  $\infty$ .

This conjecture demonstrates how little was known about quadratic forms back then. People did not see much difference between the sum of squares and arbitrary quadratic form.

### Conjecture (Kaplansky, 1953)

- 1) The only values of  $s(k)$  are  $2^r$  and  $\infty$ ;
- 2) The only values of  $u(k)$  are  $2^r$  and  $\infty$ .

This conjecture demonstrates how little was known about quadratic forms back then. People did not see much difference between the sum of squares and arbitrary quadratic form.

Now we know that the world of quadratic forms is much more complex. But in 1953 even the class of the "best possible" forms was not discovered yet. These are "Pfister forms" introduced in the middle of 60-s.

## Pfister forms

## Pfister forms

An  $n$ -fold Pfister form is a  $2^n$ -dimensional form

$$\langle\langle a_1, \dots, a_n \rangle\rangle := \langle\langle a_1 \rangle\rangle \otimes \dots \otimes \langle\langle a_n \rangle\rangle,$$

where  $\langle\langle a \rangle\rangle = \langle 1, -a \rangle = x^2 - ay^2$ ,  $a \in k^*$ .

## Pfister forms

An  $n$ -fold Pfister form is a  $2^n$ -dimensional form

$$\langle\langle a_1, \dots, a_n \rangle\rangle := \langle\langle a_1 \rangle\rangle \otimes \dots \otimes \langle\langle a_n \rangle\rangle,$$

where  $\langle\langle a \rangle\rangle = \langle 1, -a \rangle = x^2 - ay^2$ ,  $a \in k^*$ .

For  $n = 1, 2, 3$  these are norms/reduced norms in the quadratic extension  $k(\sqrt{a})$ ,  
the (generalized) quaternion algebra

$$\text{Quat}(\{a, b\}; k) = k \langle u, v \rangle / (u^2 = a, v^2 = b, uv = -vu),$$

and the (generalized) octonion algebra  $\mathbb{O}(\{a, b, c\}; k)$ ,  
respectively.

## Pfister forms

An  $n$ -fold Pfister form is a  $2^n$ -dimensional form

$$\langle\langle a_1, \dots, a_n \rangle\rangle := \langle\langle a_1 \rangle\rangle \otimes \dots \otimes \langle\langle a_n \rangle\rangle,$$

where  $\langle\langle a \rangle\rangle = \langle 1, -a \rangle = x^2 - ay^2$ ,  $a \in k^*$ .

For  $n = 1, 2, 3$  these are norms/reduced norms in the quadratic extension  $k(\sqrt{a})$ ,  
the (generalized) quaternion algebra

$$\text{Quat}(\{a, b\}; k) = k \langle u, v \rangle / (u^2 = a, v^2 = b, uv = -vu),$$

and the (generalized) octonion algebra  $\mathbb{O}(\{a, b, c\}; k)$ ,  
respectively.

More explicitly, these forms are given by:  $\langle 1, -a \rangle$ ,  
 $\langle 1, -a, -b, ab \rangle$ , and  $\langle 1, -a, -b, -c, ab, bc, ca, -abc \rangle$ .

In particular, on Pfister forms of foldness 0, 1, 2, 3 we have a multiplicative structure: a bilinear map

$$V_q \times V_q \xrightarrow{\mu} V_q, \quad \text{such that} \quad q(\mu(u, v)) = q(u) \cdot q(v).$$

And no other forms have this property.

In particular, on Pfister forms of foldness 0, 1, 2, 3 we have a multiplicative structure: a bilinear map

$$V_q \times V_q \xrightarrow{\mu} V_q, \quad \text{such that} \quad q(\mu(u, v)) = q(u) \cdot q(v).$$

And no other forms have this property.

Pfister forms of foldness  $\geq 4$  do not have a multiplicative structure, but they satisfy:

$$\forall L/k, \quad \pi_L - \text{isotropic} \Leftrightarrow \pi_L - \text{hyperbolic} \quad (\cong x_1y_1 + \dots + x_r y_r \text{ in appr. coord.})$$

In particular, on Pfister forms of foldness 0, 1, 2, 3 we have a multiplicative structure: a bilinear map

$$V_q \times V_q \xrightarrow{\mu} V_q, \quad \text{such that} \quad q(\mu(u, v)) = q(u) \cdot q(v).$$

And no other forms have this property.

Pfister forms of foldness  $\geq 4$  do not have a multiplicative structure, but they satisfy:

$$\forall L/k, \quad \pi_L - \text{isotropic} \Leftrightarrow \pi_L - \text{hyperbolic} \quad (\cong x_1y_1 + \dots + x_r y_r \text{ in appr. coord.})$$

In other words, as soon as we have an isotropic vector, we have a totally isotropic subspace of half the dimension.

In particular, on Pfister forms of foldness 0, 1, 2, 3 we have a multiplicative structure: a bilinear map

$$V_q \times V_q \xrightarrow{\mu} V_q, \quad \text{such that} \quad q(\mu(u, v)) = q(u) \cdot q(v).$$

And no other forms have this property.

Pfister forms of foldness  $\geq 4$  do not have a multiplicative structure, but they satisfy:

$$\forall L/k, \quad \pi_L - \text{isotropic} \Leftrightarrow \pi_L - \text{hyperbolic} \left( \cong x_1y_1 + \dots + x_r y_r \right. \\ \left. \text{in appr. coord.} \right)$$

In other words, as soon as we have an isotropic vector, we have a totally isotropic subspace of half the dimension.

This is the main property of **Pfister forms**, and (modulo scalar factors) no other forms possess it.

## Definition

## Definition

A subform  $p \subset \pi$  of a Pfister form whose dimension is  $> \frac{\dim(\pi)}{2}$  is called a "Pfister neighbor".

## Definition

A subform  $p \subset \pi$  of a Pfister form whose dimension is  $> \frac{\dim(\pi)}{2}$  is called a "Pfister neighbor".

In such a situation, we have:

$$\forall L/k, \quad p_L - \text{isotropic} \Leftrightarrow \pi_L - \text{isotropic}.$$

## Definition

A subform  $p \subset \pi$  of a Pfister form whose dimension is  $> \frac{\dim(\pi)}{2}$  is called a "Pfister neighbor".

In such a situation, we have:

$$\forall L/k, \quad p_L - \text{isotropic} \Leftrightarrow \pi_L - \text{isotropic}.$$

( $\Rightarrow$ ) Evident.

## Definition

A subform  $p \subset \pi$  of a Pfister form whose dimension is  $> \frac{\dim(\pi)}{2}$  is called a "Pfister neighbor".

In such a situation, we have:

$$\forall L/k, \quad p_L - \text{isotropic} \Leftrightarrow \pi_L - \text{isotropic}.$$

( $\Rightarrow$ ) Evident.

( $\Leftarrow$ )  $\pi_L$ -isotropic  $\Rightarrow \pi_L$ -hyperbolic, that is, it has a totally isotropic subspace of dimension  $= \frac{\dim(\pi)}{2}$ . But such a subspace will intersect  $V_p \subset V_\pi$ . □

The sum of squares  $x_1^2 + \dots + x_m^2$  is always a **Pfister neighbor** of some  $x_1^2 + \dots + x_{2r}^2 = \langle\langle -1, \dots, -1 \rangle\rangle$ , and these two forms will be isotropic simultaneously.

The sum of squares  $x_1^2 + \dots + x_m^2$  is always a Pfister neighbor of some  $x_1^2 + \dots + x_{2^r}^2 = \langle\langle -1, \dots, -1 \rangle\rangle$ , and these two forms will be isotropic simultaneously.

So, if the sum of  $2^{l+1}$  squares represents zero non-trivially, then so does the sum of  $2^l + 1$  of them. This proves the first part of the Conjecture of Kaplansky - due to Pfister ('60-s).

The general quadratic form is a much more complex object. One would want to have some sort of classification, which would permit to compare quadratic forms among themselves, and would enable one to answer various open questions.

The general quadratic form is a much more complex object. One would want to have some sort of classification, which would permit to compare quadratic forms among themselves, and would enable one to answer various open questions.

”qualitative” behavior  $\longrightarrow$  ”discrete invariants”

The general quadratic form is a much more complex object. One would want to have some sort of classification, which would permit to compare quadratic forms among themselves, and would enable one to answer various open questions.

”qualitative” behavior  $\longrightarrow$  ”discrete invariants”

The simplest example is the *Witt index*  $i_W(q)$  - measures the maximal dimension of totally isotropic subspace in  $V_q$ .

The general quadratic form is a much more complex object. One would want to have some sort of classification, which would permit to compare quadratic forms among themselves, and would enable one to answer various open questions.

”qualitative” behavior  $\longrightarrow$  ”discrete invariants”

The simplest example is the *Witt index*  $i_W(q)$  - measures the maximal dimension of totally isotropic subspace in  $V_q$ .

$$q = \underbrace{(\mathbb{H} \perp \dots \perp \mathbb{H})}_{i_W(q)} \perp q_{an}, \quad \mathbb{H} = x^2 - y^2$$

The general quadratic form is a much more complex object. One would want to have some sort of classification, which would permit to compare quadratic forms among themselves, and would enable one to answer various open questions.

”qualitative” behavior  $\longrightarrow$  ”discrete invariants”

The simplest example is the *Witt index*  $i_W(q)$  - measures the maximal dimension of totally isotropic subspace in  $V_q$ .

A much more sophisticated invariant is provided by the *Splitting Pattern*  $SP(q)$  - the collection of all possible Witt indices of  $q$  over all field extensions  $F/k$ .

The general quadratic form is a much more complex object. One would want to have some sort of classification, which would permit to compare quadratic forms among themselves, and would enable one to answer various open questions.

”qualitative” behavior  $\longrightarrow$  ”discrete invariants”

The simplest example is the *Witt index*  $i_W(q)$  - measures the maximal dimension of totally isotropic subspace in  $V_q$ .

A much more sophisticated invariant is provided by the *Splitting Pattern*  $SP(q)$  - the collection of all possible Witt indices of  $q$  over all field extensions  $F/k$ .

$r$  – fold Pfister :  $SP(q) = (0, 2^{r-1})$ ;

”generic” of dimension  $n$  :  $SP(q) = (0, 1, 2, \dots, [n/2])$ .

The general quadratic form is a much more complex object. One would want to have some sort of classification, which would permit to compare quadratic forms among themselves, and would enable one to answer various open questions.

”qualitative” behavior  $\longrightarrow$  ”discrete invariants”

The simplest example is the *Witt index*  $i_W(q)$  - measures the maximal dimension of totally isotropic subspace in  $V_q$ .

A much more sophisticated invariant is provided by the *Splitting Pattern*  $SP(q)$  - the collection of all possible Witt indices of  $q$  over all field extensions  $F/k$ .

Still, some important information is not detected by  $SP(q)$ .

## Discrete invariants - Geometric approach

## Discrete invariants - Geometric approach

$$q \longrightarrow Q = G(Q; 0), G(Q; 1), \dots, G(Q, d)$$

- the homogeneous varieties (quadratic Grassmannians) associated to our quadratic form. Here  $d = \lfloor \frac{\dim(Q)}{2} \rfloor$ .

## Discrete invariants - Geometric approach

$$q \longrightarrow Q = G(Q; 0), G(Q; 1), \dots, G(Q, d)$$

- the homogeneous varieties (quadratic Grassmannians) associated to our quadratic form. Here  $d = \lfloor \frac{\dim(Q)}{2} \rfloor$ .

## Generic Discrete Invariant

## Discrete invariants - Geometric approach

$$q \longrightarrow Q = G(Q; 0), G(Q; 1), \dots, G(Q, d)$$

- the homogeneous varieties (quadratic Grassmannians) associated to our quadratic form. Here  $d = \lfloor \frac{\dim(Q)}{2} \rfloor$ .

### Generic Discrete Invariant

Over algebraic closure,  $G(Q; i)_{\bar{k}}$  is a "cellular variety" (can be cut into pieces isomorphic to  $\mathbb{A}^j$ ).

## Discrete invariants - Geometric approach

$q \longrightarrow Q = G(Q; 0), G(Q; 1), \dots, G(Q, d)$

- the homogeneous varieties (quadratic Grassmannians) associated to our quadratic form. Here  $d = \lfloor \frac{\dim(Q)}{2} \rfloor$ .

### Generic Discrete Invariant

Over algebraic closure,  $G(Q; i)_{\bar{k}}$  is a "cellular variety" (can be cut into pieces isomorphic to  $\mathbb{A}^j$ ).

Hence,  $\text{CH}^*(G(Q; i)_{\bar{k}})$  is a free abelian group with generators parametrized by some sort of Young diagrams which is identical to the singular cohomology of the respective complex variety.

## Discrete invariants - Geometric approach

$$q \longrightarrow Q = G(Q; 0), G(Q; 1), \dots, G(Q, d)$$

- the homogeneous varieties (quadratic Grassmannians) associated to our quadratic form. Here  $d = \lfloor \frac{\dim(Q)}{2} \rfloor$ .

### Generic Discrete Invariant

Over algebraic closure,  $G(Q; i)_{\bar{k}}$  is a "cellular variety" (can be cut into pieces isomorphic to  $\mathbb{A}^j$ ).

Hence,  $\text{CH}^*(G(Q; i)_{\bar{k}})$  is a free abelian group with generators parametrized by some sort of Young diagrams which is identical to the singular cohomology of the respective complex variety.

$$GDI(Q; i) := \text{image}(\text{CH}^*(G(Q; i))/2 \rightarrow \text{CH}^*(G(Q; i)_{\bar{k}})/2)$$

## Discrete invariants - Geometric approach

$$q \longrightarrow Q = G(Q; 0), G(Q; 1), \dots, G(Q, d)$$

- the homogeneous varieties (quadratic Grassmannians) associated to our quadratic form. Here  $d = \lfloor \frac{\dim(Q)}{2} \rfloor$ .

### Generic Discrete Invariant

Over algebraic closure,  $G(Q; i)_{\bar{k}}$  is a "cellular variety" (can be cut into pieces isomorphic to  $\mathbb{A}^j$ ).

Hence,  $\text{CH}^*(G(Q; i)_{\bar{k}})$  is a free abelian group with generators parametrized by some sort of Young diagrams which is identical to the singular cohomology of the respective complex variety.

$$GDI(Q; i) := \text{image}(\text{CH}^*(G(Q; i))/2 \rightarrow \text{CH}^*(G(Q; i)_{\bar{k}})/2)$$

This invariant of geometric nature contains most of known discrete invariants.

The "Generic Discrete Invariant" contains the most important information about quadratic form, and has a lot of structure provided by natural geometric correspondences between various Grassmannians, and by Steenrod operations. But it is rather complicated to work with.

The "Generic Discrete Invariant" contains the most important information about quadratic form, and has a lot of structure provided by natural geometric correspondences between various Grassmannians, and by Steenrod operations. But it is rather complicated to work with.

Elementary Discrete Invariant

The "Generic Discrete Invariant" contains the most important information about quadratic form, and has a lot of structure provided by natural geometric correspondences between various Grassmannians, and by Steenrod operations. But it is rather complicated to work with.

### Elementary Discrete Invariant

Here we study the "rationality" not of all elements of  $CH^*(G(Q; i)_{\bar{k}})$ , but only of the "good" ones.

The "Generic Discrete Invariant" contains the most important information about quadratic form, and has a lot of structure provided by natural geometric correspondences between various Grassmannians, and by Steenrod operations. But it is rather complicated to work with.

### Elementary Discrete Invariant

Here we study the "rationality" not of all elements of  $CH^*(G(Q; i)_{\bar{k}})$ , but only of the "good" ones.

### Elementary classes

The "Generic Discrete Invariant" contains the most important information about quadratic form, and has a lot of structure provided by natural geometric correspondences between various Grassmannians, and by Steenrod operations. But it is rather complicated to work with.

### Elementary Discrete Invariant

Here we study the "rationality" not of all elements of  $\text{CH}^*(G(Q; i)_{\bar{k}})$ , but only of the "good" ones.

#### Elementary classes

For each  $i$ , the ring  $\text{CH}^*(G(Q; i)_{\bar{k}})$  is generated by the so-called "elementary classes"  $y_{i,j}, j = 0, \dots, d$  and the Chern classes of the tautological vector bundle. Here the Chern classes do not represent any interest for us, as they are always defined over  $k$ . In contrast, the rationality of "elementary classes" carries a very interesting information about  $q$ .

For  $G(Q; 0) = Q$  the elementary class  $y_{0,j}$  is  $l_j$ -the class of projective subspace of dimension  $j$  on  $Q_k$ .

For  $G(Q; 0) = Q$  the elementary class  $y_{0,j}$  is  $l_j$ -the class of projective subspace of dimension  $j$  on  $Q_{\bar{k}}$ .

And for an arbitrary Grassmannian these classes are obtained from those on  $Q$ . Namely, we have natural forgetful maps

$$G(Q; 0) \xleftarrow{\alpha} F(Q; 0, i) \xrightarrow{\beta} G(Q; i)$$

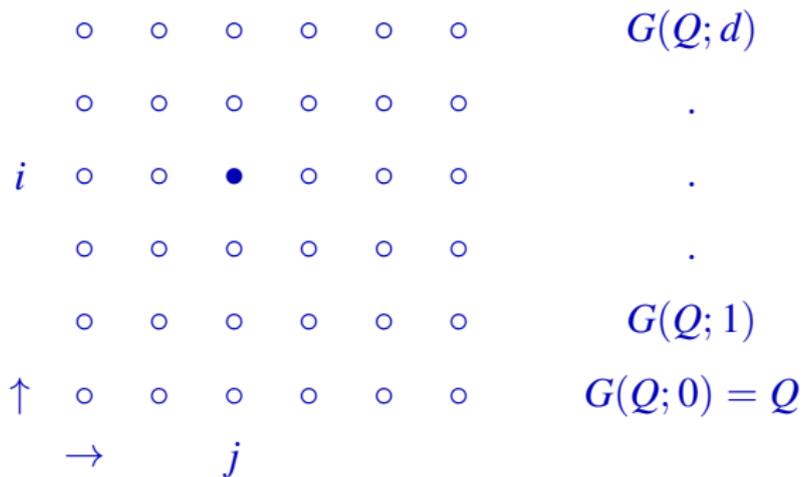
from the flag variety of pairs  $(\pi_0 \subset \pi_i)$  to the quadric and the Grassmannian. Then  $y_{i,j} := \beta_* \alpha^*(l_j)$ . In other words, the class  $y_{i,j}$  is given by the locus of those  $i$ -dimensional planes on  $Q_{\bar{k}}$  which intersect a given  $j$ -dimensional plane.

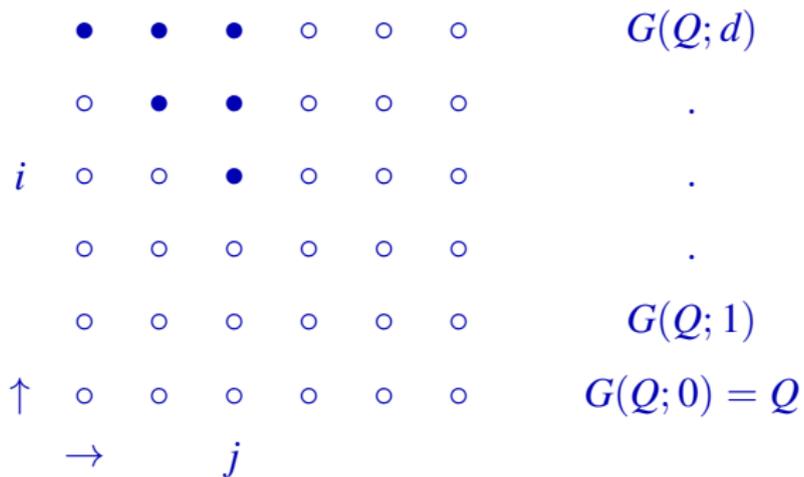
For  $G(Q; 0) = Q$  the elementary class  $y_{0,j}$  is  $l_j$ -the class of projective subspace of dimension  $j$  on  $Q_{\bar{k}}$ .

And for an arbitrary Grassmannian these classes are obtained from those on  $Q$ . Namely, we have natural forgetful maps

$$G(Q; 0) \xleftarrow{\alpha} F(Q; 0, i) \xrightarrow{\beta} G(Q; i)$$

from the flag variety of pairs  $(\pi_0 \subset \pi_i)$  to the quadric and the Grassmannian. Then  $y_{i,j} := \beta_* \alpha^*(l_j)$ . In other words, the class  $y_{i,j}$  is given by the locus of those  $i$ -dimensional planes on  $Q_{\bar{k}}$  which intersect a given  $j$ -dimensional plane. The  $EDI(Q)$  measures which classes  $y_{i,j}$  are defined over  $k$ . It can be visualized as a  $d \times d$ -square, where integral nodes are marked if the respective elementary classes are  $k$ -rational.





Examples:  $k = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $q = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$

**Examples:**  $k = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $q = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$

$n = 2$



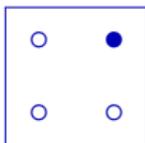
**Examples:**  $k = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $q = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$

$n = 3$



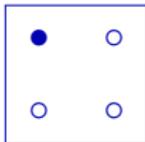
**Examples:**  $k = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $q = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$

$n = 4$



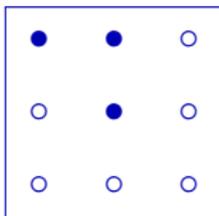
**Examples:**  $k = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $q = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$

$n = 5$



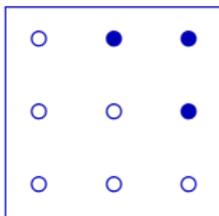
**Examples:**  $k = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $q = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$

$n = 6$



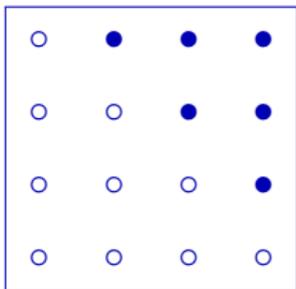
**Examples:**  $k = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $q = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$

$n = 7$



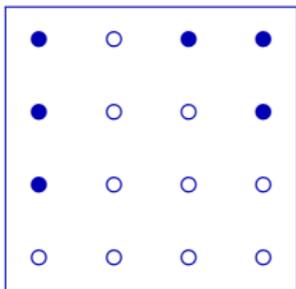
**Examples:**  $k = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $q = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$

$n = 8$



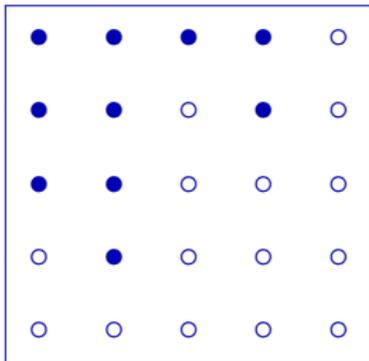
**Examples:**  $k = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $q = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$

$n = 9$



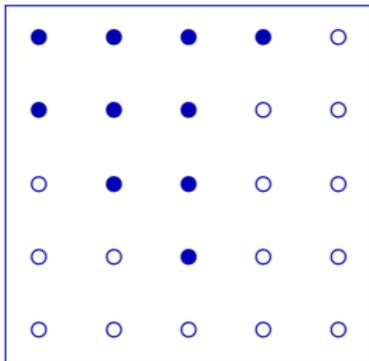
**Examples:**  $k = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $q = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$

$n = 10$



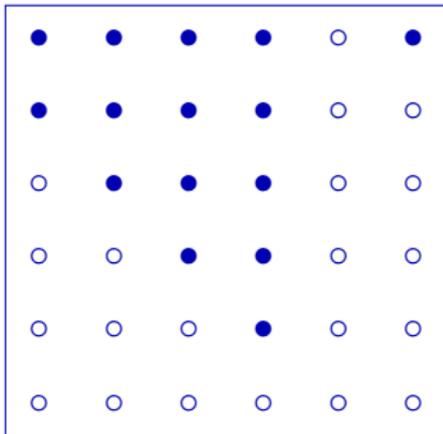
**Examples:**  $k = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $q = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$

$n = 11$



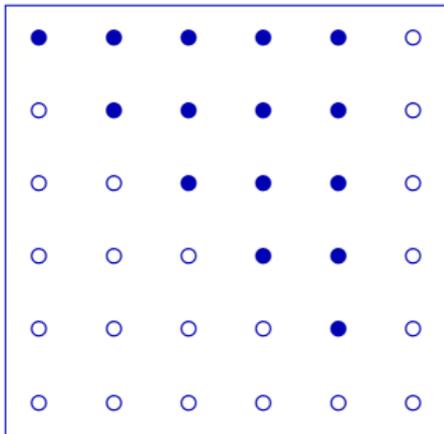
**Examples:**  $k = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $q = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$

$n = 12$



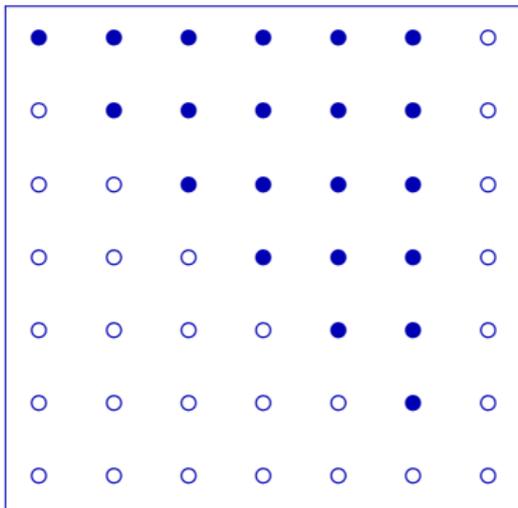
**Examples:**  $k = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $q = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$

$n = 13$



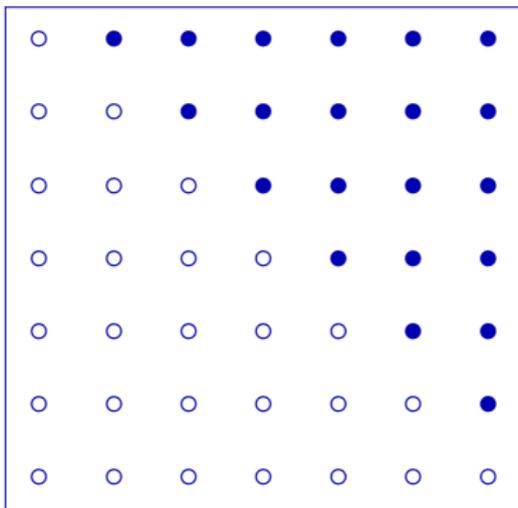
**Examples:**  $k = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $q = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$

$n = 14$



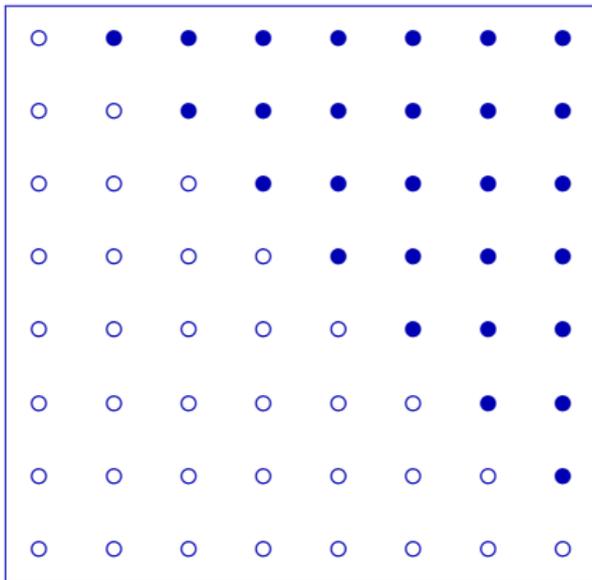
**Examples:**  $k = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $q = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$

$n = 15$



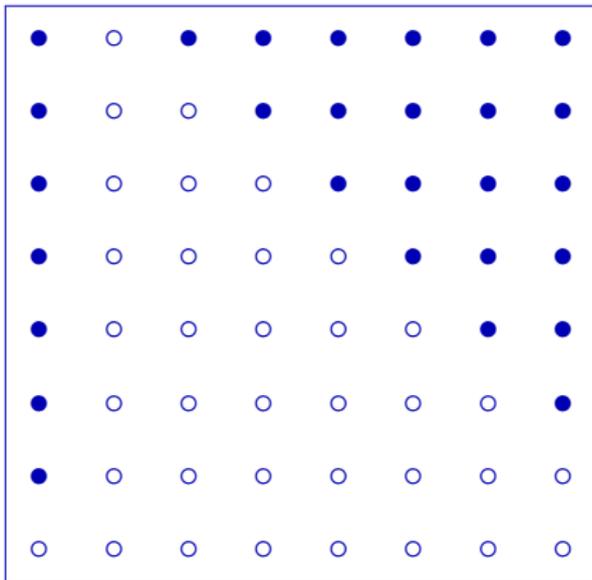
**Examples:**  $k = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $q = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$

$n = 16$



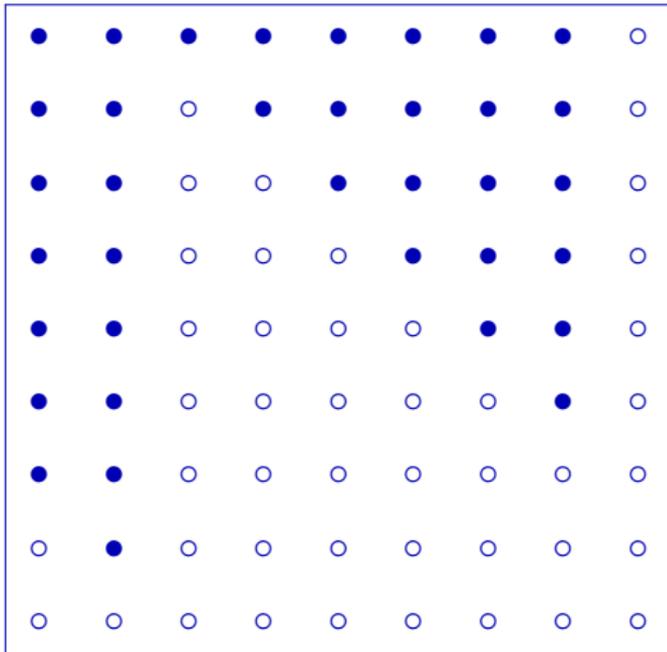
**Examples:**  $k = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $q = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$

$n = 17$



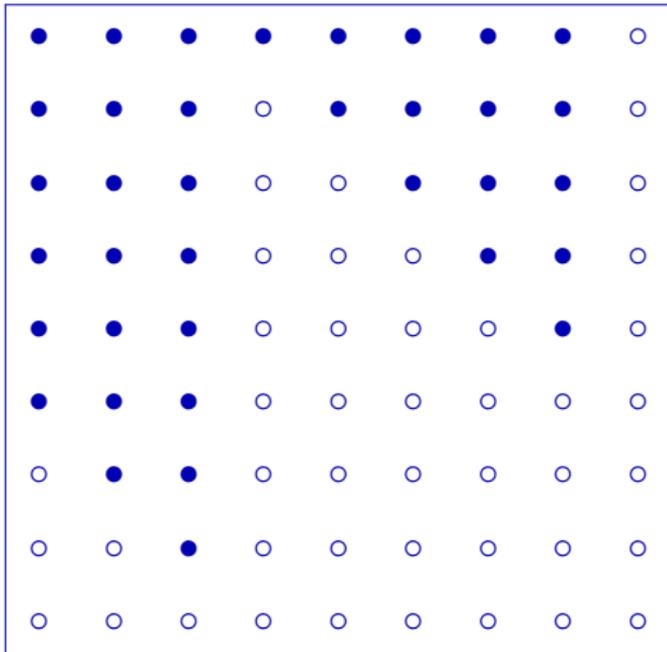
**Examples:**  $k = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $q = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$

$n = 18$



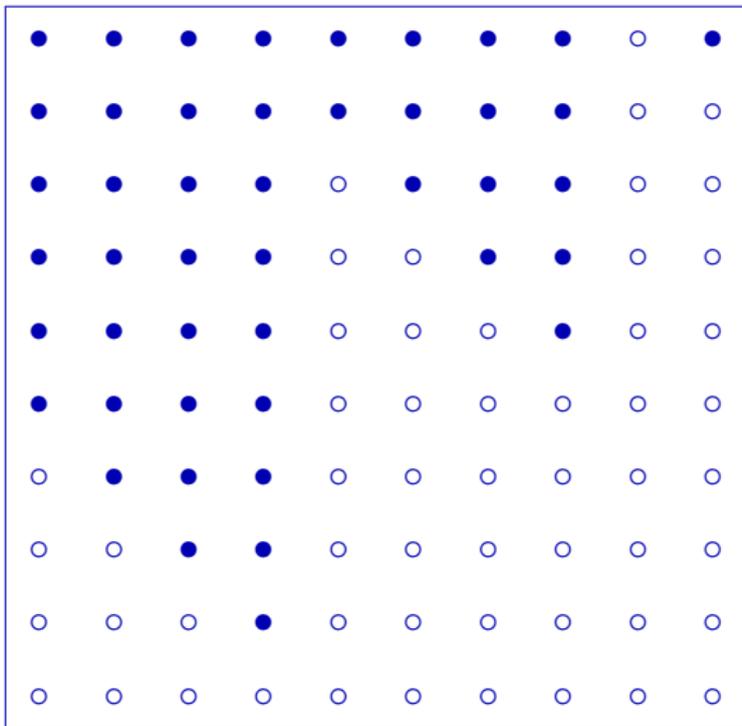
**Examples:**  $k = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $q = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$

$n = 19$



**Examples:**  $k = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $q = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$

$n = 20$



The **Elementary Discrete Invariant** can be applied to the  $u$ -invariant of fields.

The **Elementary Discrete Invariant** can be applied to the  $u$ -invariant of fields.

The second part of the Conjecture of Kaplansky was disproven by Merkurjev (1986) who showed that  $\forall n = 2m$  there exists a field with such  $u$ -invariant.

The **Elementary Discrete Invariant** can be applied to the  $u$ -invariant of fields.

The second part of the Conjecture of Kaplansky was disproven by Merkurjev (1986) who showed that  $\forall n = 2m$  there exists a field with such  $u$ -invariant.

Using our methods we can show:

### **Theorem A**

For any  $r \geq 3$  there exists a field of  $u$ -invariant  $2^r + 1$ .

The **Elementary Discrete Invariant** can be applied to the  $u$ -invariant of fields.

The second part of the Conjecture of Kaplansky was disproven by Merkurjev (1986) who showed that  $\forall n = 2m$  there exists a field with such  $u$ -invariant.

Using our methods we can show:

### **Theorem A**

For any  $r \geq 3$  there exists a field of  $u$ -invariant  $2^r + 1$ .

The case  $u = 9$  was done by Izhboldin (1999).

It is easy to see that  $u \neq 3, 5, 7$ .

Nothing else is known.

Aside from the Elementary Discrete Invariant, another major ingredient of the proof of Theorem A is the following result concerning the "field of definition" of the cohomology element.

Aside from the Elementary Discrete Invariant, another major ingredient of the proof of Theorem A is the following result concerning the "field of definition" of the cohomology element.

### **Theorem B**

Let  $Y$  be a smooth variety,  $\bar{y} \in \text{CH}^m(Y_{\bar{k}})/2$ , and  $P$  be a smooth quadric of  $\dim(P) > 2m$ . Then

$\bar{y}$  is defined over  $k \iff \bar{y}$  is defined over  $k(P)$ .

Aside from the Elementary Discrete Invariant, another major ingredient of the proof of Theorem A is the following result concerning the "field of definition" of the cohomology element.

### **Theorem B**

Let  $Y$  be a smooth variety,  $\bar{y} \in \text{CH}^m(Y_{\bar{k}})/2$ , and  $P$  be a smooth quadric of  $\dim(P) > 2m$ . Then

$$\bar{y} \text{ is defined over } k \Leftrightarrow \bar{y} \text{ is defined over } k(P).$$

Thus, studying the rationality of  $\bar{y}$  we can assume that all sufficiently large quadratic forms are isotropic. This helps to compute  $EDI(Q)$ .

The proof of Theorem B is based on the use of "Symmetric Operations" in the Algebraic Cobordism  $\Omega^*$  of Levine-Morel (by the way, these operations were discovered in the study of  $GDI(Q)$ ).

The proof of Theorem B is based on the use of "Symmetric Operations" in the Algebraic Cobordism  $\Omega^*$  of Levine-Morel (by the way, these operations were discovered in the study of  $GDI(Q)$ ).

$\Omega^*$  – is an algebro-geometric analogue of  $MU^*$ .

- generators: classes  $[V \xrightarrow{\nu} X]$  of projective maps from smooth varieties + some relations
- $\Omega^*(\text{Spec}(k)) = MU^*(pt) = \mathbb{L} \cong \mathbb{Z}[x_1, x_2, \dots]$ ,  $\deg(x_i) = i$   
- the Lazard ring (the coefficient ring of the universal FGL).
- Chow groups (as well as  $K_0$ ) can be reconstructed out of  $\Omega^*$  by the change of coefficients:

$$\text{CH}^*(X) = \Omega^*(X)_{\otimes_{\mathbb{L}} \mathbb{Z}}, \quad \text{where } x_i \mapsto 0.$$

Idea of the proof of Theorem B:

Idea of the proof of Theorem B:

$$\bar{y}$$
$$\text{CH}^*(Y_{k(P)})$$

$$\text{CH}^*(Y)$$

Idea of the proof of Theorem B:

$$\bar{y}$$

$$\mathrm{CH}^*(Y_{k(P)}) \longleftarrow \mathrm{CH}^*(Y \times P)$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \uparrow \\ \mathrm{CH}^*(Y) \end{array}$$

Idea of the proof of Theorem B:

$\bar{y}$

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \mathrm{CH}^*(Y_{k(P)}) & \longleftarrow & \mathrm{CH}^*(Y \times P) & \longleftarrow & \Omega^*(Y \times P) \\ & & & & \downarrow \pi_* \\ \mathrm{CH}^*(Y) & \longleftarrow & & \longleftarrow & \Omega^*(Y) \end{array}$$

Idea of the proof of Theorem B:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \bar{y} & \xrightarrow{\text{lift}} & \xrightarrow{\text{lift}} \\
 \\
 \text{CH}^*(Y_{k(P)}) & \longleftarrow \text{CH}^*(Y \times P) \longleftarrow \Omega^*(Y \times P) \\
 \uparrow & & \downarrow \pi_* \\
 \text{CH}^*(Y) & \longleftarrow & \Omega^*(Y)
 \end{array}$$

Idea of the proof of Theorem B:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 \bar{y} & \xrightarrow{\text{lift}} & & \xrightarrow{\text{lift}} & \\
 & & & & \cdot h^r \\
 & & & & \downarrow \text{ } \\
 \text{CH}^*(Y_{k(P)}) & \longleftarrow & \text{CH}^*(Y \times P) & \longleftarrow & \Omega^*(Y \times P) \\
 & \uparrow & & & \downarrow \pi_* \\
 \text{CH}^*(Y) & \longleftarrow & & \longleftarrow & \Omega^*(Y)
 \end{array}$$

Idea of the proof of Theorem B:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 \bar{y} & \xrightarrow{\text{lift}} & & \xrightarrow{\text{lift}} & \\
 & & & & \cdot h^r \quad \text{coh.op-s} \\
 & & & & \begin{array}{c} \curvearrowright \\ \curvearrowleft \end{array} \\
 \text{CH}^*(Y_{k(P)}) & \longleftarrow & \text{CH}^*(Y \times P) & \longleftarrow & \Omega^*(Y \times P) \\
 \uparrow & & & & \downarrow \pi_* \\
 \text{CH}^*(Y) & \longleftarrow & & \longleftarrow & \Omega^*(Y) \\
 & & & & \begin{array}{c} \curvearrowleft \\ \curvearrowright \end{array} \\
 & & & & \text{coh.op-s}
 \end{array}$$

Idea of the proof of Theorem B:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 \bar{y} & \xrightarrow{\text{lift}} & & \xrightarrow{\text{lift}} & \\
 & & & & \cdot h^r \text{ coh.op-s} \\
 & & & & \begin{array}{c} \curvearrowright \\ \curvearrowleft \end{array} \\
 \text{CH}^*(Y_{k(P)}) & \longleftarrow & \text{CH}^*(Y \times P) & \longleftarrow & \Omega^*(Y \times P) \\
 \uparrow & & & & \downarrow \pi_* \\
 \text{CH}^*(Y) & \longleftarrow & & \longleftarrow & \Omega^*(Y) \\
 & & & & \begin{array}{c} \curvearrowleft \\ \curvearrowright \end{array} \\
 & & & & \text{coh.op-s}
 \end{array}$$

If  $\dim(P)$  is sufficiently large w.r. to the  $\text{codim}(\bar{y})$ , we can choose appropriate coefficients so that the result will not depend on any choices we made, and will give us the original element, but now defined over  $k$  instead of  $k(P)$ !

Thank you!