# Local Fields

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# 1 Basic Theory

Suppose we have a diophantine polynomial  $f(x_1, \ldots, x_r) \in \mathbb{Z}[x_1, \ldots, x_r]$ . Then we might want to find integer solutions to the equation  $f(x_1, \ldots, x_r) = 0$ . However, it turns out this can be very difficult to do, for instance showing  $x^n + y^n - z^n = 0$  has no solutions for  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$  took hundreds of years and a lot of advanced mathematics.

Instead, we study congruences of the form  $f(x_1, \ldots, x_r) \equiv 0 \mod p^n$ , for prime p and integer n. This then becomes a finite computation, and hence a much easier problem. Local fields will give us a way to package all this information together.

# 1.1 Absolute Values

**Definition 1.1.** Let K be a field. An absolute value on K is a function  $|\cdot|: K \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  such that:

- 1.  $|x| = 0 \iff x = 0$
- 2.  $|xy| = |x||y| \ \forall x, y \in K$
- 3.  $|x + y| \le |x| + |y| \ \forall x, y \in K$

We say that  $(K, |\cdot|)$  is a valued field.

# Examples:

- 1.  $K = \mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$  with  $|\cdot|$  the usual absolute value. We write  $|\cdot|_{\infty}$  for this absolute value.
- 2. K is any field. The *trivial absolute value* on K is defined by:

$$|x| = \begin{cases} 0 & x = 0\\ 1 & x \neq 0 \end{cases} \tag{1}$$

We will ignore this absolute value in this course.

3.  $K = \mathbb{Q}$ , p a prime. For  $0 \neq x \in \mathbb{Q}$ , we can write  $x = p^n \frac{a}{b}$ , where  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , (a, p) = 1, and (b, p) = 1. The **p-adic absolute value** is defined to be:

$$|x|_p = \begin{cases} 0 & x = 0\\ p^{-n} & x = p^n \frac{a}{b} \end{cases}$$

We check the axioms.

- 1. Clear from the definition.
- 2.  $|xy|_p = |p^{m+n} \frac{ac}{bd}|_p = p^{-m-n} = |x|_p |y|_p$

3. Wlog, 
$$m \ge n$$
.  $|x + y|_p = \left| p^n \left( \frac{ad + p^{m-n}bc}{bd} \right) \right|_p \le p^{-n} = \max(|x|_p, |y|_p)$ 

An absolute value on K induces a metric d(x,y) = |x-y| on K, and hence induces a topology on K. As an exercise, check that +,  $\cdot$  are continuous.

**Definition 1.2.** Let  $|\cdot|, |\cdot|'$  be absolute values on a field K. We say that  $|\cdot|, |\cdot|'$  are equivalent if they induce the same topology on K. An equivalence class of absolute values is called a place.

**Proposition 1.3.** Let  $|\cdot|, |\cdot|'$  be non-trivial absolute values on K. The following are equivalent:

- 1.  $|\cdot|, |\cdot|'$  are equivalent.
- $2. |x| < 1 \iff |x|' < 1 \ \forall x \in K.$
- 3.  $\exists c \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$  s.t.  $|x|^c = |x|' \ \forall x \in K$

Proof.

 $1. \Longrightarrow 2.$ 

$$|x| < 1 \iff x^n \to 0 \text{ w.r.t. } |\cdot|$$
 (2)

$$\iff x^n \to 0 \text{ w.r.t. } |\cdot|'$$
 (3)

$$\iff |x|' < 1$$
 (4)

 $\underline{2. \Longrightarrow 3.}$  Let  $a \in K^{\times}$  s.t. |a| < 1, which exists since  $|\cdot|$  is non-trivial. We need to show that, for all  $x \in K^{\times}$ , we have:

$$\frac{\log|x|}{\log|a|} = \frac{\log|x|'}{\log|a|'}$$

Assume  $\frac{\log |x|}{\log |a|} < \frac{\log |x|'}{\log |a|'}$ . Then choose  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$  so that  $\frac{\log |x|}{\log |a|} < \frac{m}{n} < \frac{\log |x|'}{\log |a|'}$ . Then we have:

$$n \log |x| < m \log |a|$$
  
 $n \log |x|' > m \log |a|'$ 

and hence  $|\frac{x^n}{a^m}|<1, |\frac{x^n}{a^m}|'>1, \frac{t}{2}$  .

 $3. \Longrightarrow 1$ . This is clear, as open balls in one topology will also be open balls in the other, hence the topologies will be the same.

In this course, we will be mainly interested in the following types of absolute values:

**Definition 1.4.** An absolute value  $|\cdot|$  on K is said to be **non-archimedean** if it satisfies the ultrametric inequality  $|x+y| \leq \max(|x|,|y|)$ 

If  $|\cdot|$  is not non-archimedean, then it is archimedean. Examples:

- 1.  $|\cdot|_{\infty}$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  is archimedean.
- 2.  $|\cdot|_p$  is a non-archimedean absolute value on  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

**Lemma 1.5** (All triangles are isosceles). Let  $(K, |\cdot|)$  be a non-archimedean valued field, and  $x, y \in K$ . If |x| < |y|, then |x - y| = |y|.

*Proof.* Observe that  $|1| = |1 \cdot 1| = |1| \cdot |1|$ , and so |1| = 1 or 0. But  $1 \neq 0$ , so |1| = 1. Similarly, |-1| = 1, and so |-y| = |y| for all  $y \in K$ .

Then if |x| < |y|,  $|x - y| \le \max(|x|, |y|) = |y|$ .

At the same time  $|y| \le \max(|x|, |x - y|) \implies |y| \le |x - y|$ .

Hence 
$$|y| = |x - y|$$
.

**Proposition 1.6.** Let  $(K, |\cdot|)$  be non-archimedean, and  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence in K.

If  $|x_n - x_{n+1}| \to 0$ , then  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is Cauchy.

In particular, if K is in addition complete, then  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges.

*Proof.* For  $\epsilon > 0$ , choose N such that  $|x_n - x_{n+1}| < \epsilon \ \forall n > N$ .

Then for N < n < m, we have:

$$|x_n - x_m| = |(x_n - x_{n+1}) + (x_{n+1} - x_{n+1}) + \dots + (x_{m-1} - x_m)| < \epsilon$$

And so the sequence is Cauchy.

For example, if p = 5, construct the sequence  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  such that:

- 1.  $x_n^2 + 1 \equiv 0 \mod 5^n$
- $2. \ x_n \equiv x_{n+1} \mod 5^n$

as follows:

Take  $x_1 = 2$ . Suppose we have constructed  $x_n$ . Let  $x_n^2 + 1 = a5^n$ , and set  $x_{n+1} = x_n + b5^n$ . Then  $x_{n+1}^2 + 1 = x_n^2 + 2b5^n x_n + b^2 5^{2n} + 1 = a5^n + 2b5^n x_n + b^2 5^{2n}$ .

We choose b such that  $a+2bx_n \equiv 0 \mod 5$ , i.e.  $b \equiv -\frac{a}{2x_n} \mod 5$ , and then we have  $x_{n+1}^2+1 \equiv 0 \mod 5^{n+1}$  as desired.

The second property implies that  $|x_{n+1}-x_n|_5 < 5^{-n} \to 0$ , and so the sequence is Cauchy. Now suppose that  $x_n \to L \in \mathbb{Q}$ . Then  $x_n^2 \to L^2$ . But the first property then gives us that  $x_n^2 \to -1 \implies L^2 = -1 \mbox{$\rlap/$$}$ . So  $(\mathbb{Q}, |\cdot|_5)$  is not complete.

**Definition 1.7.** The p-adic numbers  $\mathbb{Q}_p$  is the completion of  $\mathbb{Q}$  with respect to  $|\cdot|_p$ .

We have an analogy with  $\mathbb{R}$ , in that  $\mathbb{R}$  is the completion of  $\mathbb{Q}$  with respect to  $|\cdot|_{\infty}$ .

If  $(K, |\cdot|)$  is a valued field, for  $x \in K, r \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ , we define:

$$B(x,r) = \{ y \in K : |x - y| < r \}$$
$$\overline{B}(x,r) = \{ y \in K : |x - y| \le r \}$$

and call these the open and closed balls of radius r centred at x, respectively.

**Lemma 1.8.** Let  $(K, |\cdot|)$  be non-archimedean. Then:

1. If 
$$z \in B(x,r)$$
, then  $B(z,r) = B(x,r)$ .

- 2. If  $z \in \overline{B}(x,r)$ , then  $\overline{B}(z,r) = \overline{B}(x,r)$ .
- 3. B(x,r) is closed.
- 4.  $\overline{B}(x,r)$  is open.

## Proof.

- 1. Let  $y \in B(x,r)$ . Then  $|x-y| < r \implies |z-y| = |(z-x) + (x-y)| \le \max(|z-x|, |x-y|) < r$ .
- 2. Same as in 1., but with  $\leq$  instead of <.
- 3. Let  $y \notin B(x,r)$ . We need to show there is an open neighbourhood of y not intersecting B(x,r). If  $z \in B(x,r) \cap B(y,r)$ , then B(x,r) = B(z,r) = B(y,r). But then  $y \in B(x,r) \not \downarrow$ . So B(x,r) and B(y,r) are disjoint, and so B(x,r) is closed.
- 4. If  $z \in \overline{B}(x,r)$ , then we need to show there is an open neighbourhood of z contained in  $\overline{B}(x,r)$ . But  $B(z,r) \subseteq \overline{B}(z,r) = \overline{B}(x,r)$ , and so  $\overline{B}(x,r)$  is open.

# 2 Valuation Rings

**Definition 2.1.** Let K be a field. A valuation on K is a function  $v: K^{\times} \to \mathbb{R}$  such that:

- 1. v(xy) = v(x) + v(y)
- 2.  $v(x+y) \le \min(v(x), v(y))$

Fix  $0 < \alpha < 1$ . If v is a valuation on K, then  $|x| = \begin{cases} \alpha^{v(x)} & x \neq 0 \\ 0 & x = 0 \end{cases}$  determines a non-archimedean absolute value. Conversely, a non-archimedean absolute value determines a valuation  $v(x) = \log_{\alpha}|x|$ .

We will ignore the trivial valuation  $v(x) \equiv 0$ , which corresponds to the trivial absolute value.

We say  $v_1, v_2$  are **equivalent** if  $\exists c \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$  such that  $v_1(x) = cv_2(x) \ \forall x \in K^{\times}$ .

# Examples:

- $K = \mathbb{Q}, v_p() = -\log_p |x|_p$  is the *p*-adic valuation.
- k any field, K = k(t) = Frac(k[t]), the rational function field.  $v\left(t^n \frac{f(t)}{g(t)}\right) = n$  where  $f, g \in k[t], f(0), g(0) \neq 0$ . This is the t-adic valuation.
- K = k((t)) = Frac(k[[t]]), the field of **formal Laurent series over k**. Then we have  $v\left(\sum_{i} a_i t^i\right) = \min\{i : a_i \neq 0\}$  is the t-adic valuation on K.

**Definition 2.2.** Let  $(K, |\cdot|)$  be a non-archimedean valued field. The valuation ring of K is defined to be:

$$\mathcal{O}_K = \{ x \in K : |x| \le 1 \} \quad (= \bar{B}(0, 1))$$
  
=  $\{ x \in K^\times : v(x) \ge 0 \} \cup \{ 0 \}$ 

#### Proposition 2.3.

- 1.  $\mathcal{O}_K$  is an open subring of K.
- 2. The subsets  $\{x \in K : |x| \le r\}$  and  $\{x \in K : |x| < r\}$  for  $r \le 1$  are open ideals in  $\mathcal{O}_K$ .
- 3.  $\mathcal{O}_K^{\times} = \{ x \in K : |x| = 1 \}.$

## Proof.

- 1. |1| = 1, |0| = 0, so  $1, 0 \in \mathcal{O}_K$ . |-x| = |x|, so  $x \in \mathcal{O}_K \implies -x \in \mathcal{O}_K$ . If  $x, y \in \mathcal{O}_K$ , then  $|x + y| \le \max(|x|, |y|) \le 1$ , and so  $x + y \in \mathcal{O}_K$ , and  $|xy| = |x||y| \le 1$ , so  $xy \in \mathcal{O}_K$ . Since  $\mathcal{O}_K = \bar{B}(0, 1)$ , it is open.
- 2. The proof of this is the same as 1.
- 3. Note that  $|x||x^{-1}| = |xx^{-1}| = 1$ . So  $|x| = 1 \iff |x^{-1}| = 1$ . This can happen if and only if  $x, x^{-1} \in \mathcal{O}_K$ , i.e.  $x \in \mathcal{O}_K^{\times}$ .

As a point of notation, we will define  $m := \{x \in \mathcal{O}_K : |x| < 1\}$ , a maximal ideal of  $\mathcal{O}_K$ , and  $k := \mathcal{O}_K/m$  to be the **residue field**.

Corollary 2.4.  $\mathcal{O}_K$  is a local ring with a unique maximal ideal m.

*Proof.* Suppose  $x \in \mathcal{O}_K \setminus m$ . Then |x| = 1, so  $x^{-1} \in \mathcal{O}_K$ , and so any ideal containing x contains  $x^{-1}x = 1$ , i.e. is all of  $\mathcal{O}_K$ , and hence m is the unique maximal ideal in  $\mathcal{O}_K$ .

# Examples:

- K = k(t),  $\mathcal{O}_K = k[[t]]$ , m = (t), and the residue field is k.
- $K = \mathbb{Q}$  with  $|\cdot|_p$ .  $\mathcal{O}_K = \mathbb{Z}_{(p)}, m = p\mathbb{Z}_{(p)}, k = \mathbb{F}_p$ .

**Definition 2.5.** Let  $v: K^{\times} \to \mathbb{R}$  be a valuation. If  $v(K^{\times}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ , we say v is a discrete valuation, and K is said to be a discretely valued field. An element  $\pi \in \mathcal{O}_K$  is a uniformizer if  $v(\pi) = 0$  and  $v(\pi)$  generates  $v(K^{\times})$ .

<u>Remark:</u> If v is a discrete valuation, we can replace it with an equivalent one such that  $v(K^{\times}) = \mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ . Such v are called **normalized valuations**, and have  $v(\pi) = 1$  for  $\pi$  a uniformizer.

**Lemma 2.6.** Let v be a valuation on K. Then the following are all equivalent:

- 1. v is discrete.
- 2.  $\mathcal{O}_K$  is a PID.
- 3.  $\mathcal{O}_K$  is noetherian.
- 4. m is principal.

#### Proof.

 $\underline{1. \Longrightarrow 2.}$  Let  $I \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K$  be a non-zero ideal. Let  $x \in I$  such that  $v(x) = \min\{v(a) : a \in I\}$ , which exists since v is discrete. Then  $x\mathcal{O}_K = \{a \in O_K : v(a) \ge v(x)\} \subseteq I$ , and hence  $x\mathcal{O}_K = I$  by definition of x - if  $y \in I \setminus (x)$ , then  $v(y) < v(x) \notin I$ .

 $2. \implies 3$ . Every PID is noetherian, as all ideals are finitely generated (by a single element).

3.  $\Longrightarrow$  4. Write  $m = x_1 \mathcal{O}_K + \ldots + x_n \mathcal{O}_K$ . WLOG,  $v(x_1) \le v(x_2) \le \ldots \le v(x_n)$ . Then  $m = x_1 \mathcal{O}_K$ .

 $\underline{4. \Longrightarrow 1.}$  Let  $m = \pi \mathcal{O}_K$  for some  $\pi \in \mathcal{O}_K$ , and let  $c = v(\pi)$ . Then if v(x) > 0,  $x \in m$  and hence  $v(x) \geq c$ . Thus  $v(K^{\times}) \cap (0,c) = \emptyset$ . Since  $v(K^{\times})$  is a subgroup of  $(\mathbb{R},+)$ , we have  $v(K^{\times}) = c\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Lemma 2.7.** Let v be a discrete valuation on K, and  $\pi \in \mathcal{O}_K$  a uniformizer. Then for any  $x \in K^{\times}$  there exists  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $u \in \mathcal{O}_K^{\times}$  such that  $x = \pi^n u$ . In particular,  $K = \mathcal{O}_K \left[\frac{1}{x}\right]$  for any  $x \in m$  and hence  $K = \operatorname{Frac} \mathcal{O}_K$ .

*Proof.* For any  $x \in K^{\times}$ , let n be such that  $v(x) = v(\pi^n) = nv(\pi)$ , then  $v(x\pi^{-n}) = 0 \implies u = x\pi^{-n} \in \mathcal{O}_K^{\times}$ .

**Definition 2.8.** A ring R is called a discrete valuation ring (DVR) if it is a PID with exactly one non-zero prime ideal.

#### Lemma 2.9.

- 1. Let v be a discrete valuation on K. Then  $\mathcal{O}_K$  is a DVR.
- 2. Let R be a DVR. Then there is a valuation v on  $K := \operatorname{Frac}(R)$  such that  $R = \mathcal{O}_K$ .

### Proof.

- 1.  $\mathcal{O}_K$  is a PID by **2.6**. Let  $0 \neq I \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K$  be an ideal, then I = (x) for some x. If  $x = \pi^n u$  for  $\pi$  a uniformizer, then (x) is prime if and only if n = 1, and  $I = (\pi) = m$ .
- 2. Let R be a DVR with maximal ideal m. Then  $m=(\pi)$  for some  $\pi \in R$ . Since PIDs are UFDs, we may write  $x \in R \setminus \{0\}$  uniquely as  $\pi^n u, n \geq 0, u \in R^\times$ . Then any  $y \in K \setminus \{0\}$  can be written uniquely as  $\pi^m u, u \in R^\times, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then define  $v(\pi^m u) = m$ , and it is easy to check v is a valuation and  $\mathcal{O}_K = R$ .

### Examples:

- $\mathbb{Z}_{(p)}$  is a DVR, the valuation ring of  $|\cdot|_p$  on  $\mathbb{Q}$ .
- k[[t]] is a DVR, the valuation ring of the t-adic valuation on k((t)).
- $K = k(t), K' = K\left(t^{\frac{1}{2}}, t^{\frac{1}{4}}, t^{\frac{1}{8}}, \ldots\right)$ . The t-adic valuation extends to K', but we must have  $v(t^{\frac{1}{2^n}}) = \frac{1}{2^n}$ , which is not discrete.