

Proposition 0.1. (*Universal property for quotients*) Let R, S be rings and $I \subseteq R$ an ideal. Suppose we have a function $f : R \rightarrow S$, which vanishes on I and is an additive group homomorphism when restricted to I . Then there exists a uniquely determined function

$$\bar{f} : R/I \rightarrow S$$

such that the following diagram commutes

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & R & \\ \pi \swarrow & & \searrow f \\ R/I & \xrightarrow{\exists! \bar{f}} & S \end{array}$$

In this case we say that f descends to the quotient, R/I . If f is a ring map then so is \bar{f} .

Proof. If there is a map \bar{f} so that the diagram commutes then what that means is that we have, for all $r \in R$

$$\bar{f}(\pi(r)) = f(r)$$

But π is surjective so this condition forces how \bar{f} is defined, and hence \bar{f} is unique if it exists. Suppose now that $x, y \in R$ so that $\bar{x} = \bar{y}$. Then $x - y \in I$ and so $f(x - y) = 0$, so $f(x) = f(y)$ as f is an additive homomorphism when restricted to I . Hence \bar{f} is well defined. If f is a ring map, then \bar{f} also be a ring map because the diagram commutes. \square

Suppose that v is a valuation as above. Let us briefly go through some important properties. Note first that property 2. above makes v into a homomorphism $v : K^* \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Thus, if $x \in K^*$ has finite order, then also $v(x)$ has finite order. But then $v(x) = 0$ as 0 is the only element in \mathbb{R} that has finite order with respect to addition. In particular, $v(-1) = 0$ so $v(-x) = v(-1) + v(x) = v(x)$ for all $x \in K$. It follows that $v(x + y) = v(y)$ if $v(x) > v(y)$, since

$$v(y) = v(x + y - x) \geq \min\{v(x + y), v(x)\} \geq \min\{v(x), v(y)\} = v(y)$$

There is another, perhaps more down-to-earth way of characterizing the completion of a field. But

Now for the alternative characterization.

Proposition 0.2. Let K be a valued field, \hat{K} a complete valued field and $\hat{\iota} : K \rightarrow \hat{K}$ a homomorphism preserving the absolute value. Then $(\hat{K}, \hat{\iota})$ is a completion of K if and only if K is dense in \hat{K} .

Proof. Assume first that the pair $(\hat{K}, \hat{\iota})$ is in fact the completion of K and let us show that K is dense in \hat{K} , by which we of course mean that the image $\hat{\iota}(K)$

is dense in \hat{K} . Now, as \hat{K} is complete also $\overline{K}(=\overline{\hat{K}})$ is complete since it is closed and contained in \hat{K} . Also, as K is dense in \overline{K} the inclusion is a subfield of \hat{K} (SHOW THIS). Thus, we have the inclusion map $\psi : \overline{K} \rightarrow \hat{K}$. This shows that $(\overline{K}, \hat{\iota})$ satisfies the same universal property as $(\hat{K}, \hat{\iota})$ and hence $(\overline{K}, \hat{\iota})$ is the completion of K . (THIS PART IS UNFINISHED)

Let us now prove the converse. So suppose that $\hat{\iota}(K)$ is dense in \hat{K} and that (L, ι) is a pair as in (??). \square

Let us now look at some examples. We have already mentioned that \mathbb{R} is the completion of \mathbb{Q} . We have the inclusion $\mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which preserves absolute values, so this statement follows if we are willing to accept that \mathbb{R} is complete and that \mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R} . Here is another example. Suppose that K is a field and consider the formal power series $K[[x]]$. As we have mentioned already this is a local ring with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{p} = (x)$. Consider the valuation v_m on $K[[x]]$ defined by

Theorem 0.1 (Ostrowski). *Suppose that K is field which is complete with respect to an archimedian valuation. Then there is an isomorphism σ from K into \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} and a constant $s \in (0, 1]$ so that*

$$|x| = |\sigma(x)|^s$$

for all $x \in K$.

A nonarchimedian absolute value $|\cdot|$ on a field K extends to a nonarchimedian absolute value on $K(t)$ by setting $|f| = \max |a_0|, \dots, |a_n|$ where $f \in K[x]$ and $f(x) = a_n x^n + \dots + a_0$. For an arbitrary element $\frac{g}{h} \in K(x)$ where $h \neq 0$ we then define $|\frac{g}{h}| = |g| - |h|$.

Theorem 0.2. *Let $F(x, y)$ be a form of degree k in two variables and let α be any root of $F(x, 1)$ and set $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$. Then*

$$F(x, y) = N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(x + \alpha y)$$

In particular, F is decomposable.

Proof. We can assume without loss of generality that $F(x, 1)$ is monic. Start by writing

$$F(x, y) = \sum_{i=0}^k a_i x^{k-i} y^i$$

where the a_i are in \mathbb{Q} . Since $F(x, 1)$ is monic we have $a_k = 1$. Now

$$F(x, 1) = \sum_{i=0}^k a_i x^{k-i}$$

Which can be written as

$$\prod_{i=1}^k (x - \alpha_i)$$

in the splitting field for $F(x, 1)$. The coefficients are symmetric functions of the roots, which we denote by $s_1(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k), \dots, s_k(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k)$. Notice that $s_i(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k)$ is a monomial of degree i in the variables α_i . Hence $s_i(\alpha_1 y, \dots, \alpha_k y) = y^i s_i(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k)$ become the coefficients of

$$\prod_{i=1}^k (x - \alpha_i y)$$

But these are exactly the coefficients of $F(x, y)$, when regarded as a polynomial in x with coefficients in $\mathbb{Q}[y]$. Thus, the above expression is in fact equal to $F(x, y)$ and is a factorization of it in terms of linear factors and hence it decomposable. \square

Let F be the Galois closure of K and let $G = (F/\mathbb{Q})$ and let $H = (F/K)$. Set now $n = [G : H] = [K : \mathbb{Q}]$ and find $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n$ so that $G = \cup_{i=1}^n \sigma_i H$ is a disjoint union. For ease of notation, let us denote by N the field norm $N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}$. For $x_1, \dots, x_k \in \mathbb{Z}$ we now define $F(x_1, \dots, x_k) := N(x_1 \mu_1 + \dots + x_k \mu_k)$.

Let now $\sigma \in G$. Of course $\sigma \sigma_i \in G$ so there is a unique $j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ so that $\sigma \sigma_i \in \sigma_j H$. If both $\sigma \sigma_i$ and $\sigma \sigma_{i'}$ were in $\sigma_j H$ then we would have $i = i'$ and therefore there is a permutation $\tau : \{1, \dots, n\} \rightarrow \{1, \dots, n\}$, depending on σ so that $\sigma \sigma_i \in \sigma_{\tau(i)} H$. In other words, we can write $\sigma \sigma_i = \sigma_{\tau(i)} h_i$ for a suitable $h_i \in H$. But then as h_i fixes K we have

$$\sigma \sigma_i(\mu_j) = \sigma_{\tau(i)} h_i(\mu_j) = \sigma_{\tau(i)}(\mu_j)$$

And therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma \prod_{i=1}^n (x_1 \sigma_i(\mu_1) + \dots + x_k \sigma_i(\mu_k)) &= \prod_{i=1}^n (x_1 \sigma \sigma_i(\mu_1) + \dots + x_k \sigma \sigma_i(\mu_k)) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n (x_1 \sigma_{\tau(i)}(\mu_1) + \dots + x_k \sigma_{\tau(i)}(\mu_k)) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n (x_1 \sigma_i(\mu_1) + \dots + x_k \sigma_i(\mu_k)) \end{aligned}$$

Once we have a module, we can of course consider the norm of the elements in it. Let $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n$ be the n embeddings of K into \mathbb{C} . We then have

$$N(x_1 \mu_1 + \dots + x_k \mu_k) = \prod_{i=1}^n \sigma_i(x_1 \mu_1 + \dots + x_k \mu_k) = \prod_{i=1}^n x_1 \sigma_i(\mu_1) + \dots + x_k \sigma_i(\mu_k)$$

Any term in this product occurs from choosing one of the k terms in each of the n factors, so multiplying this expression out, we get a homogenous polynomial in the variables x_1, \dots, x_n . Let us think about what the coefficients of this polynomial are. Any term will have the form

$$x_{i_1} \sigma_1(\mu_{i_1}) \dots x_{i_n} \sigma_n(\mu_{i_n}) = x_{i_1} \dots x_{i_n} \sigma_1(\mu_{i_1}) \dots \sigma_n(\mu_{i_n})$$

where the i_j signify which of the k terms in the n factors we chose. There could be many choices that lead to the same monomial, $x_{i_1} \dots x_{i_n}$. As such, the coefficient of this monomial will be

$$\sum_i \sigma_1(\mu_{i_1}) \dots \sigma_n(\mu_{i_n})$$

where each i in the sum corresponds to a unique way of choosing the k terms in the n factors. Acting with an embedding on the set of all embeddings will simply permute them. Thus, acting with an embedding on the above sum will just permute the order in which the terms are added. Thus, the sum is fixed by all embeddings. But this means that all coefficients are fixed by every single embedding, which means that the coefficients are in \mathbb{Q} . Hence,

$$F(x_1, \dots, x_k) = N(x_1\mu_1 + \dots + x_k\mu_k)$$

is a form, and we call it the form associated to the generators μ_1, \dots, μ_k , of the module. Since there may be many generators that lead to the same module, the forms achieved in this way may not be equal. However, it turns out that they are equivalent. If ν_1, \dots, ν_s is another set of generators for the same module, then we can write each ν_i as a \mathbb{Z} -linear combination of the μ_i 's, i.e. for $j = 1, \dots, s$, we have $\nu_j = \sum_{i=1}^k a_{ij}\mu_i$. Set for each $j = 1, \dots, k$

$$x_j = \sum_{i=1}^s a_{ji}y_i$$

We see that

$$\sum_{i=1}^s y_i \nu_i = \sum_{i=1}^s y_i \sum_{j=1}^k a_{ji}\mu_j = \sum_{j=1}^k \left(\sum_{i=1}^s a_{ji}y_i \right) \mu_j = \sum_{j=1}^k x_j \mu_j$$

Which means that the forms associated to the generators μ_1, \dots, μ_k and ν_1, \dots, ν_s are equivalent.

We have seen that it is possible to construct forms from modules. The other direction is also possible. We have the theorem

Theorem 0.3.

Because of this correspondence between forms and norms of elements, we will now spend some more time investigating norms.

In general, if we have a basis for N , say μ_1, \dots, μ_m and we choose to consider \mathbb{Q} -linear combinations of these, say

$$a_1\mu_1 + \dots + a_m\mu_m = 0 \tag{1}$$

Then we can always find an integer $c \neq 0$ so that ca_i is an integer for all i . For example we can choose c to be the product of all denominators of the a_i , all of which are non-zero. So if $m > n$ then we would be able to choose

at least one of the a_i to be non-zero. But that would mean that multiplying (??) by a suitable c would yield a non-trivial \mathbb{Z} -linear combination, which is a contradiction. Hence the rank of a module has to be smaller than or equal to n . If we have $m = n$, then N is a full module, because multiplication by $c \neq 0$ in (??) will give a \mathbb{Z} -linear combination of the μ_i 's which is zero, which implies that the ca_i 's are all zero, which forces the a_i to be zero. On the other hand, if N is a full module, then it has rank n since a basis for K over \mathbb{Q} is in particular also linearly independent over \mathbb{Z} . But then the μ_i must be a basis for N , so it has rank n . Thus the full modules are exactly the modules of rank n , and the nonfull modules are those of rank less than n .

Lemma 0.1. *If M is a full module then there exists a non-zero integer b so that $bM \subseteq \mathfrak{D}$.*

Proof. By (??) we can find a non-zero integer c_i for every μ_i so that $c_i\mu_i$ is in \mathfrak{D} . We can then take b to be the product of all the c_i 's. This will be a non-zero integer, satisfying that $b\mu_i$ is in \mathfrak{D} for all i . It now follows from (??) that bx is in \mathfrak{D} for all $x \in M$, meaning that $bM \subseteq \mathfrak{D}$. \square

As all the μ_i belong to K we can by (??) find b_i so that $b_i\mu_i \in \mathfrak{D}$. Taking This means that we can find non-zero integer b , so that $b\mu_1, \dots, b\mu_n$ are all in \mathfrak{D} . This is clearly still a basis for K over \mathbb{Q} , which means that \mathfrak{D} is full, and so

Suppose we have a finite extension of fields, K/k . Multiplication by an element, α , in K can be regarded as a k -linear map, $\phi_\alpha(x) = \alpha x$, from K to itself, and we have that $\phi_\alpha^k(x) = \alpha^k x$, for $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Hence, $\phi_\alpha^k(1) = \alpha^k$. The characteristic polynomial, χ_{ϕ_α} , of ϕ_α is then a monic polynomial with coefficients in k and we have $\chi_{\phi_\alpha}(\phi_\alpha) = 0$. In words, this means that $\chi_{\phi_\alpha}(\phi_\alpha)$ is the zero map. Hence evaluating it in 1 gives a polynomial expression in α with coefficients in k which equals 0. This means that α is a root of χ_{ϕ_α} . We will therefore call the polynomial χ_{ϕ_α} the characteristic polynomial of α relative to the extension K/k .

If now K is instead a number field with degree n over \mathbb{Q} . If α now is an element in an order $\mathfrak{D} \subseteq K$, and μ_1, \dots, μ_n is a basis for \mathfrak{D} then we can write each $\alpha\mu_i \in \mathfrak{D}$ as a linear combination with coefficients in \mathbb{Z} , which means that the matrix representation of $x \mapsto \alpha x$ has integer entries, so the characteristic polynomial of α has integer coefficients. But as we saw above, α is a root of this polynomial, which is monic. Hence α is an algebraic integer and therefore \mathfrak{D} is a subring of the ring of algebraic integers, \mathcal{O} . We therefore already know some things about \mathfrak{D} . All its units are characterized by having norm ± 1 , the norm and trace of an element in \mathfrak{D} are integers, and if $\alpha \in \mathfrak{D}$ then α divides $N(\alpha)$ in \mathfrak{D} . But perhaps more interestingly, Dirichlet's unit theorem generalizes to orders, such as \mathfrak{D} . We have the following result.

1 Solutions to $N(\mu) = a$, where μ is in a full module

Let \mathfrak{D} be the coefficient ring of a full module M and assume that

$$N(\mu) = a,$$

for some μ in M . We have that $\epsilon\mu$ is in M if and only if ϵ is in \mathfrak{D} . So take now $\epsilon\mu \in M$ with $\epsilon \in \mathfrak{D}$. We get

$$N(\epsilon\mu) = N(\epsilon)N(\mu) = aN(\epsilon)$$

This means that a single solution to So if ϵ has norm 1, also $\epsilon\mu$ will be a solution. The units of \mathfrak{D} are the elements with norm ± 1 .

Maybe all we really need to show is what all of these solutions are like. Maybe we do not need all the other parts.

We obtain the following corollary

Corollary 1.1. *Assume $x_1, \dots, x_k \in K$ and that $|x_i| > |x_j|$ for all $i \neq j$. Then $|x_1 + \dots + x_k| = |x_i|$.*

Proof. This follows by induction and the base case is clear. Suppose we have $x_1, \dots, x_{k+1} \in K$ and assume without loss of generality that x_1 has absolute value strictly larger than all the other k elements. Set now $A = x_2 + \dots + x_{k+1}$. We have $|A| \leq \max\{|x_2|, \dots, |x_{k+1}|\}$ so $|x_1| > |A|$. By the above proposition we now have || \square

Since all the ideals of O are powers of the maximal ideal, and the maximal ideal is generated by a single element, so every ideal is finitely generated. As O is an integral domain, this means that it is in fact a Dedekind domain.

Lemma 1.1. *Suppose that K is a number field and that v is a discrete valuation on K . Denote by O_v the valuation ring of v . Then $O_K \subset O_v$. In particular, the valuation ring of the completion of K with respect to v contains O .*

Proof. Let \overline{R}^S denote the integral closure of R in S . We know that O_K is the integral closure of \mathbb{Z} inside of K and also that the ring of fractions of O_K is K . Furthermore, $\mathbb{Z} \subseteq O_v$ and O_v is integrally closed in its field of fractions, F , since it is a Dedekind domain. We have something like

$$O_K = \overline{\mathbb{Z}}^K \subseteq \overline{O_v}^K \subseteq \overline{O_v}^F = O_v$$

\square

We know from ? that there is an n so that $\exp : \mathfrak{p}^n \rightarrow U^{(n)}$ and $\log : U^{(n)} \rightarrow \mathfrak{p}^n$ are inverses of each other. By the above lemma, we know that the ring $\kappa_n = \mathcal{O}/\mathfrak{p}^n$ is finite, so also κ_n^* is finite. So if $\alpha \in O$ is a unit then, since ring maps preserve units, $\bar{\alpha} \in \kappa_n$ is certainly also a unit. But then $\bar{\alpha}$ has finite

order, since κ_n^* is finite. In other words, we can find $k \in \mathbb{N}$ so that $\bar{\alpha}^k = \bar{1}$. But this is really just another way of saying that α^k is in $U^{(n)}$.

For elements $f \in K[[x]]$ we introduce the notation $[x^i]f$ to denote the i th coefficient of f . Suppose that we have a sequence $f_1, f_2, \dots \in K[[x]]$ with each f_i having the form

$$f_i = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_{ij} x^j$$

Define $P_{k,n} = \{a_{1h_1} \dots a_{nh_n} \mid h \in \mathbb{N}_0^n, |h| = k\}$, where we by $|h|$ mean the sum of the entries of $h \in \mathbb{N}_0^n$ and let $P_k = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}_0} P_{k,n}$. Let $g_n = \prod_{i=1}^n f_i$. We claim that $[x_k]g_n = \sum_{c \in P_{k,n}} c$; when expanding out the brackets in the product $\prod_{i=1}^n f_i$ one ends up with a bunch of terms of degree k and each such term corresponds exactly to an element in $P_{k,n}$. The process of collecting all of these terms is then just the number $[x_k]g_n$. Suppose that $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i x^i$ and let us now consider the simpler case where each $f_i = f$. If $a_0 \neq 0$ then P_0 contains infinitely many non-zero elements since a_0^n is non-zero for all n , as a_0 is a unit, and $a_0^n \in P_{0,n}$. If on the other hand $a_0 = 0$ then $P_{k,n} = \emptyset$ for all $n > k$. As each $P_{k,n}$ is finite it therefore follows that P_k is finite for all $k \in \mathbb{N}_0$, and so we conclude that P_k contains only finitely many non-zero elements. This shows that if $f \in (x)$ and $g \in K[[x]]$ where $g(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i x^i$ we can define

$$g(f(x)) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i f(x)^i$$

One way to think about this is that g induces a function $g : (x) \rightarrow K[[x]]$. Composition also makes sense if g is just a polynomial. In this case we can allow $f \in K[[x]]$. Observe that we can define the following elements in $K[[x]]$

$$\begin{aligned} \exp(x) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} \\ \log(1+x) &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^n}{n} \end{aligned}$$

These are of course just the usual power series for the logarithm and the exponential function. Defining $F(x) = \log(1+x)$ we have two induced functions $\exp : (x) \rightarrow K[[x]]$ and $F : (x) \rightarrow K[[x]]$. It is clear that $\exp(x) - 1 \in (x)$ and that $F(\exp(x) - 1) = \log(\exp(x)) = x$. Similarly $\exp(\log(1+x)) = 1+x$.

As promised we will now look at an example of a field with valuation.

Example 1.1. Consider the ring \mathbb{Z} . This is a Dedekind domain with field of fractions \mathbb{Q} so we can apply prop: Valuations on Dedekind domains. So pick a prime ideal \mathfrak{p} in \mathbb{Z} . Since \mathbb{Q} is the field of fractions of \mathbb{Z} we get a valuation $v_{\mathfrak{p}} : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$. Since $\mathfrak{p} = (p)$ for some prime number p , we will typically denote $v_{\mathfrak{p}}$ simply as v_p . Look at

$$\{x \in \mathbb{Q} \mid v_p(x) \geq 0\}$$

Because v_p is a valuation, we see that the above is a ring.

Lemma 1.2. *A PID is a Dedekind domain.*

Proof. Assume R is a PID. Then any ideal I of R is generated by a single element, so in particular it is finitely generated. Also, we know that if I is prime then it is in fact maximal. R is in particular a UFD and we claim that these are integrally closed. Let K be the field of fractions of R and suppose $\frac{a}{b} \in K$ with $a, b \in R$, $b \neq 0$ so that $\gcd(a, b) = 1$. Suppose that we have

$$\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^n + c_{n-1}\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^{n-1} + \dots + c_1\left(\frac{a}{b}\right) + c_0 = 0$$

where the c_i are in R . Multiplying by b^n we get

$$a^n + c_{n-1}a^{n-1}b + \dots + c_1ab^{n-1} + c_0b^n = 0$$

which shows that $b \mid a^n$ in R , meaning that $b \mid a$ in R . But since $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, b has to be a unit and therefore $\frac{a}{b} \in R$. We conclude that R is a Dedekind domain. \square

Example 1.2. *Let F be a field. Then $O := F[x]$ has field of fractions $K := F(x)$. Since F is a field O is a PID so by lem: PID is Dedekind O is a Dedekind domain. The ideal $\mathfrak{p} = (x)$ is a maximal ideal since $F[x]/(x) \cong F$ so it is in particular a prime ideal so by prop: Valuations on Dedekind domains we get a discrete valuation $v_{\mathfrak{p}}$ on $K := F(x)$ that extends to a discrete valuation on $K_{\mathfrak{p}}$. The field $K(x)$ is dense in $K((x))$, $K((x))$ is complete and the inclusion $K(x) \hookrightarrow K((x))$ preserves absolute values. Thus $K((x)) \cong K_{\mathfrak{p}}$. Also, $O_{\mathfrak{p}} = K[[x]]$ and $\hat{\mathfrak{p}} = (x)O_{\mathfrak{p}}$ so $K((x))$ has residue field $O_{\mathfrak{p}}/\hat{\mathfrak{p}} \cong K$. Hence $K((x))$ is a local field if and only if K is a finite field.*

(REFER TO RESULTS USED IN THIS PROOF)

Proposition 1.1. *We have $\log((1+x)(1+y)) = \log(1+x) + \log(1+y)$ for all $x, y \in \mathfrak{p}$.*

Proof. First let us define

$$f(x) = \log(1+x)$$

Fix some $y \in \mathfrak{p}$ and define

$$g(x) = f(y + (1+y)x)$$

Note that $g(x) = \log((1+x)(1+y))$. Thus we want to show that $g(x) = f(x) + f(y)$. Observe first that g converges on \mathfrak{p} . Observe now that

$$f'(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^n = \frac{1}{1+x}$$

This sum converges on \mathfrak{p} because f converges on this set. Using the chain rule we get

$$g'(x) = f'(y + (1+y)x)(1+y) = \frac{1+y}{1+y+(1+y)x} = \frac{1}{1+x}$$

Thus $g(x) = f(x) + c$ for some $c \in K$. As $f(0) = 0$ we now have $f(y) = g(0) = f(0) + c = c$ meaning that $g(x) = f(x) + f(y)$, which is what we wanted to show. \square

Proposition 1.2. *There is a uniquely determined group homomorphism taking multiplication to addition,*

$$\log : K^* \rightarrow K$$

so that $\log p = 0$ and for $(1 + z) \in U^{(1)}$ this function is given by

$$\log(1 + z) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{k+1} \frac{z^k}{k}$$

Proof. We only need to show existence and uniqueness. Suppose that $\alpha \in K^*$ and that $\pi \in K$ is an element so that $v_p(\pi) = 1$. By prop: Factorization of elements in K^* there exists a unique element $s_\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}$, $\zeta_\alpha \in \mu_{q-1}$ and $u_\alpha \in U^{(1)}$ (WHAT IS q ??) so that $\alpha = \pi^{s_\alpha} \zeta_\alpha u_\alpha$, and we have $v_p(\alpha) = s_\alpha$. $v_p = ev_p$. Note that $v_p(p) = e$. So as $p \in K^*$ we can write $p = \pi^e \zeta_p u_p$. Let us now define $\log \pi = -\frac{1}{e} \log u_p$. Since \log is 0 on all of $U^{(1)}$ we now get an extension of \log to all of K^* by setting

$$\log \alpha = v_p(\alpha) \log(\pi) + \log(u_\alpha)$$

This function is continuous because addition of continuous functions are continuous and it is also a homomorphism by inheritance. Furthermore we have that

$$\log p = e \log(\pi) + \log(u_p) = \frac{-e \log u_p}{e} + \log(u_p) = 0$$

Suppose that we have another extension, $\lambda : K^* \rightarrow K$, of \log so that $\lambda(p) = 0$ and which is also a homomorphism. Note first that for any $\alpha \in K^*$ we have

$$\lambda(\alpha) = \lambda(\pi^{v_p(\alpha)} \zeta_\alpha u_\alpha) = v_p(\alpha) \lambda(\pi) + \lambda(\zeta_\alpha) + \lambda(u_\alpha)$$

By assumption we know that $\log(u_\alpha) = \lambda(u_\alpha)$ since $u_\alpha \in U^{(1)}$. Hence

$$\lambda(\alpha) - \log(\alpha) = v_p(\alpha) (\lambda(\pi) - \log(\pi)) + \lambda(\zeta_\alpha)$$

So to show that $\lambda = \log$ it suffices to show that λ vanishes on μ_{q-1} and that $\lambda(\pi) = \log(\pi)$. Take any $\zeta \in \mu_{q-1}$. Since $\zeta^{q-1} = 1$ and $\lambda(1) = 0$ we see that

$$\lambda(\zeta) = \frac{1}{q-1} \lambda(\zeta^{q-1}) = 0$$

By assumption $0 = \lambda(p) - \log(p)$. Since $\lambda(\zeta_p) = 0$ and $v_p(p) = e \neq 0$ we must have $\lambda(\pi) - \log(\pi) = 0$. \square

(TALK ABOUT HOW THESE DEFINITION RELATE TO P-ADIC DEFINITIONS) (TODO) Next, see that $\exp f(u) = \exp f(u)$, where $f(u)$ is a p adic

number, \exp on the left hand side is the p adic exponential and \exp on the right is the formal power series exponential function

The ring $K[[x]]$ is in fact a PID and a local ring, with maximal ideal (x) . One might therefore wonder if this ring is the valuation ring of some valued field. It turns out that it is.

This ring has no zero divisors, so we can consider its field of fractions, which we will denote by $K((x))$. (THIS FIELD OCCURS AS THE COMPLETION OF $K[[x]]$) We now have a field extension $K((x))/K$, and hence we can think about which elements are algebraic over K . We have the following theorem

Proposition 1.3. *The completion of the rational functions $K(x)$ with respect to the valuation $v_{\mathfrak{p}}$, where $\mathfrak{p} = (x)$, is isomorphic to $K((x))$.*