

DIRECTORATE OF DISTANCE EDUCATION

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH BENGAL

MASTERS OF SCIENCE -MATHEMATICS

SEMESTER-I

P ADIC ANALYSIS

DEMATH-1 ELEC-5

BLOCK-1

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH BENGAL

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We have tried to put together information from various sources into this book that has been written in an engaging style with interesting and relevant examples. It introduces you to the insights of subject concepts and theories and presents them in a way that is easy to understand and comprehend.

We always believe in continuous improvement and would periodically update the content in the very interest of the learners. It may be added that despite enormous efforts and coordination, there is every possibility for some omission or inadequacy in few areas or topics, which would definitely be rectified in future.

We hope you enjoy learning from this book and the experience truly enrich your learning and help you to advance in your career and future endeavours.



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Unit 14 P-Adic Algebraic Number Theory

BLOCK 1-P ADIC ANALYSIS

Introduction to the Block

In this block we will go through Congruences And Modular Equations

Convergent series Charts And Atlases Theory of valuations-I

The P-Adic Norm And The P-Adic Numbers Theory of valuations -II

Representations of p-adic groups

Unit I Deals with Congruences And Modular Equations

Unit II Deals with Convergent series

Unit III Deals with Charts And Atlases

Unit IV Deals with Theory of valuations-I

Unit V Deals with The P-Adic Norm And The P-Adic Numbers

Unit VI Deals with Theory of valuations -II

Unit VII Deals with Representations of p-adic groups

UNIT – 1 : CONGRUENCES AND MODULAR EQUATIONS

STRUCTURE

1.0 Objectives

1.1 Introduction

1.2 Congruences and modular equations

1.3 Nonarchimedean Fields

1.4 Congruences and modular equations

1.5 Let Us Sum Up

1.6 Keywords

1.7 Questions For Review

1.8 References

1.9 Answers To Check Your Progress

1.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- Understand about Congruences and modular equations, Ultrametric Spaces
- Understand about Nonarchimedean Fields
- Understand about Congruences and modular equations

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In mathematics, p – adic analysis is a branch of number theory that deals with the mathematical analysis of the functions of p – adic numbers.

Congruences and modular equations, Ultrametric Spaces, Nonarchimedean Fields, Congruences and modular equations.

1.2 CONGRUENCES AND MODULAR EQUATIONS

ULTRAMETRIC SPACES

We begin by establishing some very basic and elementary notions.

Definition. A metric space (X, d) is known as ultrametric if the strict triangle inequality $d(x, z) < \max(d(x, y), d(y, z))$ for any $x, y, z \in X$ is satisfied.

Remark. i. If (X, d) is ultra-metric then $(Y, d|_{Y \times Y})$, for any subset $Y \subseteq X$, is ultra-metric as well.

ii. If $(X_i, d_i), \dots, (X_m, d_m)$ are ultrametric spaces then the Cartesian product

$X_1 \times \dots \times X_m$ is ultrametric with respect to

$$d((x_1, \dots, x_m), (y_1, \dots, y_m)) := \max(d_1(x_1, y_1), \dots, d_m(x_m, y_m)).$$

Let (X, d) be an ultrametric space in the following.

Theorem. For any three points $x, y, z \in X$ such that $d(x, y) = d(y, z)$ we have $d(x, z) = \max(d(x, y), d(y, z))$.

Proof. We can assume that $d(x, y) < d(y, z)$. Then

$d(x, y) < d(y, z) < \max(d(y, x), d(x, z)) = \max(d(x, y), d(x, z))$. The maximum in question therefore necessarily is equal to $d(x, z)$ so that

$$d(x, y) < d(y, z) < d(x, z).$$

We deduce that

$$d(x, z) < \max(d(x, y), d(y, z)) < d(x, z).$$

Let $a \in X$ be a point and $\epsilon > 0$ be a positive real number. We call $B_\epsilon(a) := \{x \in X : d(a, x) \leq \epsilon\}$ the closed ball and $B_\epsilon^-(a) := \{x \in X : d(a, x) < \epsilon\}$ the open ball around a of radius ϵ . Any subset in X of one of these two kinds is simply referred to as a ball. As the following facts show this language has to be used with some care.

Theorem.i. Every ball is open and closed in X .

ii. For $b \in B_\epsilon(a)$, resp. $b \in B_\epsilon^-(a)$, we have $B_\epsilon(b) = B_\epsilon(a)$, resp. $B_\epsilon^-(b) = B_\epsilon^-(a)$.

Proof. Obviously $B_\epsilon(a)$ is open and $B_\epsilon^-(a)$ is closed in X . We first consider the equivalence relation $x \sim y$ on X defined by $d(x, y) < \epsilon$. The corresponding equivalence class of b is equal to $B_\epsilon(b)$ and hence is open. Since equivalence classes are disjoint or equal this implies $B_\epsilon(b) = B_\epsilon(a)$ whenever $b \in B_\epsilon(a)$. It also shows that $B_\epsilon^-(a)$ as the complement of the other open equivalence classes is closed in X .

Analogously we can consider the equivalence relation $x \sim y$ on X defined by $d(x, y) \leq \epsilon$. Its equivalence classes are the closed balls

$B_\epsilon(b)$, and we obtain in the same way as before the assertion ii. for closed balls. It remains to show that $B_\epsilon(a)$ is open in X . But by what we have established already with any point $b \in B_\epsilon(a)$ its open neighborhood $B_\epsilon^-(b)$ is contained in $B_\epsilon(b) = B_\epsilon(a)$.

The assertion ii. in the above Theorem can be viewed as saying that any point of a ball can serve as its midpoint. By way of an example we will observe later on that also the notion of a radius is not well determined.

Theorem. For any two balls B and B' in X such that $B \cap B' \neq \emptyset$ we have $B \subset B'$ or $B' \subset B$.

Proof. Pick a point $a \in B \cap B'$. As a consequence of Theorem following four cases have to be distinguished:

1. $B = B_\epsilon(a)$, $B' = B_\epsilon^-(a)$,

2. $B = B_\epsilon(a)$, $B' = B_\epsilon(a)$,

3. $B = B_\epsilon^-(a)$, $B' = B_\epsilon^-(a)$,

4. $B = B_\epsilon^-(a)$, $B' = B_\epsilon(a)$.

In cases 1, 2, and 4 we then obviously have $B \subset B'$. In case 3 we obtain $B \subset B'$ if $\epsilon < 5$ and $B' \subset B$ if $\epsilon = 5$.

Notes

Remark. If the ultrametric space X is connected then it is empty or consists of one point.

Proof. Assuming that X is nonempty we pick a point $a \in X$. Then implies that $X = \bigcup_{\epsilon > 0} B_\epsilon(a)$ for any $\epsilon > 0$ and hence that $X = \{a\}$.

Theorem. Let $U = \bigcup_{i \in I} U_i$ be a covering of an open subset $U \subset X$ by open subsets $U_i \subset X$; moreover let $\epsilon_i > 0$ be a strictly descending sequence of positive real numbers which converges to zero; then there is a decomposition

$U = \bigcup_{j \in J} B_j$ of U into pairwise disjoint balls B_j such that:

$B_j = B_{\epsilon_j}(a_j)$ for appropriate $a_j \in X$ and $n(j) \in \mathbb{N}$,

$B_j \subset U_{i(j)}$ for some $i(j) \in I$.

Proof. For $a \in U$ we put

$n(a) := \min\{n \in \mathbb{N} : B_{\epsilon_n}(a) \subset U_i \text{ for some } i \in I\}$.

The family of balls $J := \{B_{\epsilon_{n(a)}}(a) : a \in U\}$ by construction has the properties (a) and (b) and covers U (observe that for any point a in the open set U_i we find some sufficiently big $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $B_{\epsilon_n}(a) \subset U_i$). The balls in this family indeed are pairwise disjoint: Suppose that $B_{\epsilon_{n(a_1)}}(a_1) \cap B_{\epsilon_{n(a_2)}}(a_2) \neq \emptyset$

By Theorem we can assume that $B_{\epsilon_{n(a_1)}}(a_1) \subset B_{\epsilon_{n(a_2)}}(a_2)$. Then

Theorem implies that $B_{\epsilon_{n(a_1)}}(a_1) = B_{\epsilon_{n(a_1)}}(a_2)$ and hence $B_{\epsilon_{n(a_1)}}(a_1) \subset B_{\epsilon_{n(a_2)}}(a_2)$. Due to the minimality of $n(a_1)$ we must have $n(a_1) < n(a_2)$, $\epsilon_{n(a_1)} > \epsilon_{n(a_2)}$.

It follows that $B_{\epsilon_{n(a_1)}}(a_1) = B_{\epsilon_{n(a_2)}}(a_1) = B_{\epsilon_{n(a_2)}}(a_2)$

As usual the metric space X is known complete if every Cauchy sequence in X is convergent.

Theorem. A sequence $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in X is a Cauchy sequence if and only if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(x_n, x_{n+1}) = 0$. For a subset $A \subset X$ we call

$d(A) := \sup\{d(x, y) : x, y \in A\}$ the diameter of A .

Theorem. Let $B \subset X$ be a ball with $\epsilon > 0$ and pick any point $a \in B$; we then have $B = B_\epsilon(a)$ or $B = B_{>\epsilon}(a)$.

Proof. The inclusion $B \subset B_\epsilon(a)$ is obvious. By Theorem the ball B is of the form $B = B_\epsilon(a)$ or $B = B_{>\epsilon}(a)$. The strict triangle inequality then implies $\epsilon = d(B) < 5\epsilon$. If $\epsilon = 5\epsilon$ there is nothing further to prove. If $\epsilon < 5\epsilon$ we have $B \subset B_\epsilon(a) \subset B_{5\epsilon}(a) \subset B$ and hence $B = B_\epsilon(a)$.

Let us consider a descending sequence of balls $B_1 \supset B_2 \supset \dots$ in X . If X is complete and if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(B_n) = 0$ then we claim that $\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} B_n \neq \emptyset$. If we pick points $x_n \in B_n$ then $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a Cauchy sequence. Put $x := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$. Since each B_n is closed we must have $x \in B_n$ and therefore $x \in \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} B_n$.

Without the condition on the diameters the intersection $\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} B_n$ can be empty (compare the exercise further below). This motivates the following definition.

Definition. The ultrametric space (X, d) is known spherically complete if any descending sequence of balls $B_1 \supset B_2 \supset \dots$ in X has a nonempty intersection.

Theorem. If X is spherically complete then it is complete.

ii. Suppose that X is complete; if 0 is the only accumulation point of the set $d(X \times X) \subset \mathbb{R}^+$ of values of the metric d then X is spherically complete.

Proof. i. Let $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be any Cauchy sequence in X . We can assume that this sequence does not become constant after finitely many steps. Then the $\epsilon_n := \max\{d(x_m, x_{m+1}) : m > n\}$

are strictly positive real numbers satisfying $\epsilon_n > \epsilon_{n+1}$ and $\epsilon_n > d(x_n, x_{n+1})$. Using Theorem ii. we obtain $B_\epsilon(x_n) = B_\epsilon(x_{n+i}) \supset B_{\epsilon_{n+1}}(x_{n+i})$. By assumption the intersection $\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} B_\epsilon(x_n)$ must contain a point x . We have $d(x, x_n) < \epsilon_n$ for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Since the sequence $(\epsilon_n)_n$ converges to zero this implies that $x = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$.

Notes

ii. Let $B_1 \supset B_2 \supset \dots$ be any decreasing sequence of balls in X . Obviously we have $d(B_1) > d(B_2) > \dots$. By our above discussion we only need to consider the case that $\inf d(B_n) > 0$. Our assumption on accumulation points implies that $d(B_n) \in D(X^*X)$ for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and then in fact that the sequence $(d(B_n))_n$ must become constant after finitely many steps. Hence there exists an $m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $0 < \epsilon := d(B_m) = d(B_{m+1}) = \dots$. By Theorem we have, for any $n > m$ and any $a \in B_n$, that $B_n = B_{m-1}(a)$ or $B_n = B^{\wedge}(a)$.

Moreover, which of the two equations holds is independent of the choice of a by Theorem. ii. Case 1: We have $B_n = B_{m-1}(a)$ for any $n > m$ and any $a \in B_n$. It immediately follows that $B_n = B_m$ for any $n > m$ and hence that $\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} B_n = B_m$. Case 2: There is an $t > m$ such that $B^{\wedge} = B_{m-1}(a)$ for any $a \in B^{\wedge}$. For any $n > t$ and any $a \in B_n \subset B^{\wedge}$ we then obtain $B_{m-1}(a) = B^{\wedge} \supset B_n \supset B_{m-1}(a)$ so that $B^{\wedge} = B_n$ and hence $\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} B_n = B^{\wedge}$.

Exercise. Suppose that X is complete, and let $B_1 \supset B_2 \supset \dots$ be a decreasing sequence of balls in X such that $d(B_1) > d(B_2) > \dots$ and $\inf d(B_n) > 0$. Then the subspace $Y := X \setminus (\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} B_n)$ is complete but not spherically complete.

Theorem. Suppose that X is spherically complete; for any family $(B_i)_{i \in I}$ of closed balls in X such that $B^{\wedge} \cap B_j = \emptyset$ for any $i, j \in I$ we then have $\bigcap_{i \in I} B_i = \emptyset$.

Proof. We choose a sequence $(i_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of indices in I such that:

$$d(B_{i_1}) > d(B_{i_2}) > \dots > d(B_{i_n}) > \dots,$$

for any $i \in I$ there is an $n \in \mathbb{N}$ with $d(B_j) > d(B_{i_n})$.

The proof of Theorem shows that $B_j = B_{i_n}(a)$ for any $a \in B^{\wedge}$. Our assumption on the family $(B_i)_{i \in I}$ therefore implies that:

$$B_j \supset B_{i_2} \supset \dots \supset B_{i_n} \supset \dots, \text{ for any } i \in I \text{ there is an } n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ with } B_i \supset B_{i_n}. \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} B_{i_n} = \emptyset.$$

Check your Progress-1

Discuss Congruences and modular equations

1.3 NONARCHIMEDEAN FIELDS

Let K be any field.

Definition. A nonarchimedean absolute value on K is a function

$$||: K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

which satisfies:

$$|a| > 0,$$

$$|a| = 0 \text{ if and only if } a = 0,$$

$$|ab| = |a| \cdot |b|,$$

$$|b| \leq \max(|a|, |b|).$$

Exercise. $|n| < 1$ for any $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$||: K \times K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a homomorphism of groups; in particular, $|1| =$

$$|-1| = 1.$$

K is an ultrametric space with respect to the metric $d(a, b) := |b - a|$; in particular, we have $|a+b| = \max(|a|, |b|)$ whenever $|a| \neq |b|$.

Addition and multiplication on the ultrametric space K are continuous maps.

Definition. A nonarchimedean field $(K, ||)$ is a field K equipped with a nonarchimedean absolute value $||$ such that:

$||$ is non-trivial, i.e., there is an $a \in K$ with $|a| = 0, 1$,

K is complete with respect to the metric $d(a, b) := |b - a|$.

Notes

The most important class of examples is constructed as follows. We fix a prime number p . Then $|a|_p := p^{-r}$ if $a = p^r m$ with $r, m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $p \nmid mn$ is a nonarchimedean absolute value on the field \mathbb{Q} of rational numbers.

The corresponding completion \mathbb{Q}_p is known the field of p -adic numbers. Of course, it is nonarchimedean as well. We note that $\mathbb{Q}_p \setminus \{0\} = p\mathbb{Z} \cup \{0\}$. Hence \mathbb{Q}_p is spherically complete by Theorem ii. On the other hand we observe that in the ultrametric space \mathbb{Q}_p we can have $B_e(a) = B_{e/5}(a)$ even if $e=5$. To have more examples we state the following fact. Let K/\mathbb{Q}_p be any finite extension of fields. Then

$$|a| := K:\mathbb{Q}_p \sqrt[p]{\text{Norm}_{K/\mathbb{Q}_p}(a)}$$

is the unique extension of $|\cdot|_p$ to a nonarchimedean absolute value on K . The corresponding ultrametric space K is complete and spherically complete and, in fact, locally compact.

In the following we fix a nonarchimedean field $(K, |\cdot|)$. By the strict triangle inequality the closed unit ball

$\mathfrak{o}_K := B_1(0)$ is a subring of K , known the ring of integers in K , and the open unit ball $\mathfrak{m}_K := B_{<1}(0)$ is an ideal in \mathfrak{o}_K . Because of $\mathfrak{o}_K = \mathfrak{o}_K \setminus \mathfrak{m}_K$ this ideal \mathfrak{m}_K is the only maximal ideal of \mathfrak{o}_K . The field $\mathfrak{o}_K/\mathfrak{m}_K$ is known the residue class field of K .

Exercise. If the residue class field $\mathfrak{o}_K/\mathfrak{m}_K$ has characteristic zero then K has characteristic zero as well and we have $|a| = 1$ for any nonzero $a \in \mathbb{Q} \subset K$.

ii. If K has characteristic zero but $\mathfrak{o}_K/\mathfrak{m}_K$ has characteristic $p > 0$ then we have $\log |p| \setminus |a| = \setminus a \setminus p \log p$ for any $a \in \mathbb{Q} \subset K$; in particular, K contains \mathbb{Q}_p .

A nonarchimedean field K as in the is known a p -adic field.

Theorem. If K is p -adic then we have $n \rightarrow 1$

$$|n| > |n!| > |p|^{n-1} \text{ for any } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Definition. A (nonarchimedean) norm on V is a function $\|\cdot\|: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that for any $v, w \in V$ and any $a \in K$ we have:

$$\|av\| = |a| \cdot \|v\|, \quad \|v+w\| \leq \max(\|v\|, \|w\|),$$

if $\|v\| = 0$ then $v = 0$.

Moreover, V is known normed if it is equipped with a norm.

Exercise. $\|v\| > 0$ for any $v \in V$ and $\|0\| = 0$.

V is an ultrametric space with respect to the metric $d(v, w) := \|w - v\|$; in particular, we have $\|v+w\| = \max(\|v\|, \|w\|)$ whenever $\|v\| = \|w\|$. Addition $V * V \rightarrow V$ and scalar multiplication $K \times V \rightarrow V$ are continuous.

Theorem. Let $(V_1, \|\cdot\|_1)$ and $(V_2, \|\cdot\|_2)$ let two normed K -vector spaces; a linear map $f: V_1 \rightarrow V_2$ is continuous if and only if there is a constant $c > 0$ such that

$$\|f(v)\|_2 \leq c \|v\|_1 \text{ for any } v \in V_1.$$

Proof. We suppose first that such a constant $c > 0$ exists. Consider any sequence $(v_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in V_1 which converges to some $v \in V_1$. Then $(\|v_n - v\|_1)_n$ and hence $(\|f(v_n) - f(v)\|_2)_n = (c \|v_n - v\|_1)_n$ are zero sequences. It follows that the sequence $(f(v_n))_n$ converges to $f(v)$ in V_2 . This means that f is continuous. Now we assume vice versa that f is continuous. We find a $0 < \epsilon < 1$ such that $B_\epsilon(0) \subset f^{-1}(B_1(0))$.

Since $\|\cdot\|_1$ is non-trivial we can assume that $\epsilon = |a|$ for some $a \in K$. In other words $\|v\|_1 < |a|$ implies $\|f(v)\|_2 < 1$ for any $v \in V_1$. Let now $0 \neq v \in V_1$ be an arbitrary nonzero vector.

We find an $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $|a|^{m+2} < \|v\|_1 < |a|^{m+1}$.

Setting $c := |a|^{-2}$ we obtain $\|1/(v)\|_2 = |a|^m \cdot \|v\|_2 < |a|^m < c \cdot \|v\|_1$.

Definition. The normed K -vector space $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ is known a K -Banach space if V is complete with respect to the metric $d(v, w) := \|w - v\|$.

Examples. K^n with the norm $\|(a_1, \dots, a_n)\| := \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |a_i|$ is a K -Banach space.

Notes

Let I be a fixed but arbitrary index set. A family $(a_j)_{j \in I}$ of elements in K is known bounded if there is a $c > 0$ such that $|a_j| < c$ for any $j \in I$. The set $\ell^\infty(I) := \text{set of all bounded families } (a^i)_{i \in I} \text{ in } K$

with componentwise addition and scalar multiplication and with the norm $\|(a_i)_{i \in I}\|_\infty := \sup |a_i|$ is a K -Banach space.

With I as above let

$c_0(I) := \{ (a_i)_{i \in I} \in \ell^\infty(I) : \text{for any } \epsilon > 0 \text{ we have } |a_i| < \epsilon$

for at most finitely many $i \in I \}$.

It is a closed vector subspace of $\ell^\infty(I)$ and hence a K -Banach space in its own right. Moreover, for $(a_i)_{i \in I} \in c_0(I)$ we have

$$\|(a_i)_{i \in I}\|_\infty = \max |a_i|$$

For example, $c_0(\mathbb{N})$ is the Banach space of all zero sequences in K .

Remark. Any K -Banach space $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ over a finite extension K/\mathbb{Q}_p which satisfies $\|V\|_C \setminus K$ is isometric to some K -Banach space $(c_0(I), \|\cdot\|)$; moreover, all such I have the same cardinality.

Let V and W be two normed K -vector spaces. From now on we denote, unless this causes confusion, all occurring norms indiscriminately by $\|\cdot\|$. It is clear that

$L(V, W) := \{ f \in \text{Hom}_K(V, W) : f \text{ is continuous} \}$ is a vector subspace of $\text{Hom}_K(V, W)$. the operator norm

$$\|f\| := \sup \{ \|f(v)\| : v \in V, \|v\| = 1 \} = \sup \{ \|f(v)\| : v \in V, 0 < \|v\| < 1 \}$$

is well defined for any $f \in L(V, W)$.

Theorem. $L(V, W)$ with the operator norm is a normed K -vector space. Proposition. If W is a K -Banach space then so, too, is $L(V, W)$.

Proof. Let $(f_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a Cauchy sequence in $L(V, W)$. Then, on the one hand, $(\|f_n\|)_n$ is a Cauchy sequence in \mathbb{R} and therefore converges, of course. On the other hand, because of

$$\|f_{n+1}(v) - f_n(v)\| = \|(f_{n+1} - f_n)(v)\| \leq \|f_{n+1} - f_n\| \|v\|$$

we obtain, for any $v \in V$, the Cauchy sequence $(f_n(v))_n$ in W . By assumption the limit $f(v) := \lim_n f_n(v)$ exists in W . Obviously we have

$$f(av) = af(v) \text{ for any } a \in K.$$

For $v, v' \in V$ we compute

$$f(v) + f(v') = \lim_n f_n(v) + \lim_n f_n(v') = \lim_n (f_n(v) + f_n(v'))$$

$$= \lim_n f_n(v + v') = f(v + v').$$

This means that $v \mapsto f(v)$ is a K -linear map which we denote by f . Since $\|f(v)\| = \lim_n \|f_n(v)\| \leq (\lim_n \|f_n\|) \|v\|$

it follows from Theorem that f is continuous. Finally the inequality $\|f - f_n\| \leq \|f_{n+1} - f_n\|$

$$\|f - f_n\| \leq \sup_{\|v\|=1} \|f_{n+1}(v) - f_n(v)\| \leq \epsilon$$

$$\|f - f_n\| \leq \epsilon \text{ for } \|v\| \leq 1$$

It follows

$$\|f - f_n\| \leq \sup_{\|v\|=1} \|f_{n+1} - f_n\|$$

$$m > n$$

shows that f indeed is the limit of the sequence $(f_n)_n$ in $L(V, W)$.

In particular,

$$V' := L(V, K)$$

always is a K -Banach space. It is known the dual space to V .

$$\| \sum_{i=1}^n a_i v_i \| \leq \sum_{i=1}^n |a_i| \|v_i\|$$

Applying any $\phi \in V'$ by continuity leads to

$$|\phi(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i v_i)| \leq \sum_{i=1}^n |a_i| |\phi(v_i)|$$

Notes

Theorem. Let I be an index set; for any $j \in I$ let $1_j \in c_0(I)$ denote the family (a_i) with $a_i = 0$ for $i \neq j$ and $a_j = 1$; then

$c_0(I)' \cong \ell^\infty(I)$ is an isometric linear isomorphism.

Proof. We give the proof only in the case $I = \mathbb{N}$. The general case follows the same line but requires the technical concept of summability. Let us denote the map in question by i . Because of

$$1_j \in c_0(I) \text{ for } j \in \mathbb{N} \implies i(1_j) \in c_0(\mathbb{N})$$

it is well defined and satisfies

$$i(1_j) = 1_j \text{ for any } j \in \mathbb{N}.$$

For trivial reasons i is a linear map. Consider now an arbitrary nonzero vector $v = (a_i) \in c_0(\mathbb{N})$. In the Banach space $c_0(\mathbb{N})$ we then have the convergent series expansion

We obtain

$$\|i(v)\| = \left\| \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i 1_i \right\| \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |a_i| \|1_i\| = \|v\|$$

It follows that together with the previous inequality that i in fact is an isometry and in particular is injective. For surjectivity let $(c_i) \in \ell^\infty(\mathbb{N})$ be any vector and put $\|c\| = \sup |c_j|$. We consider the linear form $\phi \in c_0(\mathbb{N})'$: $\phi((a_i)) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i c_i$

(note that the defining sum is convergent). Using Theorem together with the inequality

$$\left| \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i c_i \right| \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |a_i| |c_i| \leq \|c\| \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |a_i|$$

$$\|c\| \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |a_i|$$

we observe that ϕ is continuous. It remains to observe that

$$i(\phi) = (c_i)$$

Check your Progress-2

Discuss Nonarchimedean Fields

1.4 CONGRUENCES AND MODULAR EQUATIONS

Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ (we will usually have $n > 0$). We define the binary relation

Definition. If $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$, then $x \equiv y$ if and only if $n \mid (x - y)$. This is often also written $x \equiv y \pmod{n}$ or $x \equiv y \pmod{n}$.

When $n=0$, $x \equiv y$ if and only if $x=y$, so in that case \equiv is really just equality

Proposition The relation \equiv is an equivalence relation on \mathbb{Z} .

Proof. Let $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$. Clearly \equiv is reflexive since $n \mid (x - x) = 0$. It is symmetric since

if $n \mid (x - y)$ then $x - y = kn$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, hence $y - x = (-k)n$ and so $n \mid (y - x)$. For transitivity, suppose that $n \mid (x - y)$ and $n \mid (y - z)$; then since $x - z = (x - y) + (y - z)$ we have $n \mid (x - z)$.

If $n > 0$, we denote the equivalence class of $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ by $[x]_n$ or just $[x]$ if n is understood; it is also common to use x for this if the value of n is clear from the context. From the definition,

$$[x]_n = \{ y \in \mathbb{Z} : y \equiv x \} = \{ y \in \mathbb{Z} : y = x + kn \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{Z} \},$$

and there are exactly $|n|$ such residue classes, namely

$$[1]_n, \dots, [n-1]_n.$$

Of course we can replace these representatives by any others as required.

Definition. The set of all residue classes of \mathbb{Z} modulo n is

$$\mathbb{Z}/n = \{ [x]_n : x = 0, 1, \dots, n-1 \}.$$

If $n=0$ we interpret $\mathbb{Z}/0$ as \mathbb{Z} .

Consider the function

$$\pi_n: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/n; \pi_n(x) = [x]_n.$$

Notes

This is onto and also satisfies

$$\pi^{-1}(a) = \{ x \in \mathbb{Z} : x \in a \}.$$

We can define addition and multiplication \cdot on \mathbb{Z}/n by the formula

$$[x]_n + [y]_n = [x+y]_n, [x]_n \cdot [y]_n = [xy]_n,$$

which are easily observed to be well defined, i.e., they do not depend on the choice of representatives x, y . The straightforward proof of our next result is left to the reader.

Proposition The set \mathbb{Z}/n with the operations $+$ and \cdot is a commutative ring. The function $\pi: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/n$ is a ring homomorphism which is surjective (onto) and has kernel

$$\ker \pi = [0]_n = \{ x \in \mathbb{Z} : x=0 \}.$$

Now let us consider the structure of the ring \mathbb{Z}/n . The zero is $0 = [0]_n$ and the unity is $1 = [1]_n$. We can also ask about units and zero divisors. In the following, let R be a commutative ring with unity 1 (which we assume is not equal to 0).

Definition An element $u \in R$ is a unit if there exists a $v \in R$ satisfying $uv = vu = 1$.

Such a v is necessarily unique and is known the inverse of u and is usually denoted u^{-1} .

Definition $z \in R$ is a zero divisor if there exists at least one $w \in R$ with $w \neq 0$ and $zw = 0$. There can be lots of such w for each zero divisor z .

Notice that in any ring 0 is always a zero divisor since $1 \cdot 0 = 0 = 0 \cdot 1$.

Example. Let $n=6$; then $\mathbb{Z}/6 = \{ 0, 1, \dots, 5 \}$. The units are $1, 5$ with $1 \cdot 1 = 1$ and $5 \cdot 5 = 25 = 1$. The zero divisors are $0, 2, 3, 4$ since $2 \cdot 3 = 0$.

In this example notice that the zero divisors all have a factor in common with 6 ; this is true for all \mathbb{Z}/n (observe below). It is also true that for any

ring, a zero divisor cannot be a unit (why?) and a unit cannot be a zero divisor.

Recall that if $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ then the greatest common divisor (gcd) or highest common factor (hcf) of a and b is the largest positive integer dividing both a and b . We often write $\gcd(a, b)$ for this. When $a=0=b$ we have $\gcd(0, 0)=0$.

Theorem. Let $n > 0$. Then \mathbb{Z}/n is a disjoint union

$$\mathbb{Z}/n = \{ \text{units} \} \cup \{ \text{zero divisors} \}$$

where $\{ \text{units} \}$ is the set of units in \mathbb{Z}/n and $\{ \text{zero divisors} \}$ the set of zero divisors. Furthermore,

z is a zero divisor if and only if $\gcd(z, n) > 1$;

u is a unit if and only if $\gcd(u, n) = 1$.

Proof. If $h = \gcd(x, n) > 1$ we have $x = x_0 h$ and $n = n_0 h$, so

$$n_0 x = 0.$$

Hence x is a zero divisor in \mathbb{Z}/n .

Let us prove (b). First we suppose that u is a unit; let v Then $uv = 1$ and so for some integer k ,

$$uv - 1 = kn.$$

But then $\gcd(u, n) \mid 1$, which is absurd. So $\gcd(u, n) = 1$. Conversely, if $\gcd(u, n) = 1$ we must demonstrate that u is a unit. To do this we will need to make use of the Euclidean Algorithm.

Recollection [Euclidean Property of the integers] Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b \neq 0$; then there exist unique $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ for which $a = qb + r$ with $0 \leq r < |b|$.

Theorem (The Euclidean Algorithm) integers Q_i, T_i satisfying

$$a = Q_0 b + T_0 \quad T_0 = b = Q_1 T_1 + T_2 \quad T_1 = Q_2 T_2 + T_3$$

$$0 = T_{n-1} = Q_{n-1} T_n + T_{n+1}$$

Notes

where we have $0 < r_i < r_{i-1}$ for each i . Furthermore, we have $r_n = \gcd(a, b)$ and then by back substitution for suitable $s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$ we can write

$$r_n = sa + tb.$$

Example If $a=6, b=5$, then $r_0=5$ and we have

$$6 = 1 \cdot 5 + 1, \text{ so } q_1=1, r_1=1,$$

$$5 = 5 \cdot 1, \text{ so } q_2=5, r_2=0.$$

Therefore we have $\gcd(6, 5)=1$ & we can write $1 = 1 \cdot 6 + (-1) \cdot 5$

Using the Euclidean Algorithm, we can write $su + tn = 1$ for suitable $s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$. But then $su = 1$ and $s = u^{-1}$, so u is indeed a unit in \mathbb{Z}/n .

This proves part (b). But we also have part (a) as well since a zero divisor z cannot be a unit, hence has to have $\gcd(z, n) > 1$.

To determine the number of units and zero divisors in \mathbb{Z}/n . We already have $|\mathbb{Z}/n| = n$.

Definition. $(\mathbb{Z}/n)^\times$ is the set of units in \mathbb{Z}/n . $(\mathbb{Z}/n)^\times$ becomes an abelian group under the multiplication \cdot .

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Let $\phi(n) = |(\mathbb{Z}/n)^\times| = \text{order of } (\mathbb{Z}/n)^\times$. By Theorem 1.8, this number equals the number of integers $0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1$ which have no factor in common with n . The function ϕ is known as the Euler ϕ -function.

Example $n=6$: $|\mathbb{Z}/6| = 6$ and the units are $1, 5$, hence $\phi(6)=2$.

Example $n=12$: $|\mathbb{Z}/12| = 12$ and the units are $1, 5, 7, 11$, hence $\phi(12)=4$.

In general $\phi(n)$ is quite a complicated function of n , Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ then there are unique sequences of

however in the case where $n=p$, a prime number, the answer is more straightforward.

Example Let p be a prime ($i. e. p=2, 3, 5, 7, 11, \dots$). Then the only non-trivial factor of p is p itself, so $\phi(p) = p - 1$. We can say more: consider a

power of p , say p^r with $r > 0$. Then the integers in the list $0, 1, 2, \dots, p^r - 1$ which have a factor in common with p^r are precisely those of the form kp for $0 < k < p^{r-1} - 1$, hence there are $p^{r-1} - 1$ of these. So we have $\phi(p^r) = p^r - 1 - (p^{r-1} - 1)$.

Example When $p=2$, we have the groups $(\mathbb{Z}/2^r)^\times = \{1, 3, \dots, 2^r - 1\}$, $(\mathbb{Z}/2^2)^\times = \{1, 3\} = \mathbb{Z}/2$, $(\mathbb{Z}/2^3)^\times = \{1, 3, 5, 7\} = \mathbb{Z}/2 \times \mathbb{Z}/2$, and in general

$$(\mathbb{Z}/2^{r+1})^\times \cong \mathbb{Z}/2 \times \mathbb{Z}/2^{r-1}$$

for any $r \geq 1$. Here the first summand is $\{\pm 1\}$ and the second can be taken to be

Now for a general n we have

$$n = p_1^{r_1} p_2^{r_2} \dots p_s^{r_s}$$

where for each i , p_i is a prime with

$$2 \leq p_1 < p_2 < \dots < p_s$$

and $r_i \geq 1$. Then the numbers p_i, r_i are uniquely determined by n . We can break down \mathbb{Z}/n into copies of $\mathbb{Z}/p_i^{r_i}$, each of which is simpler to understand.

Theorem. There is a unique isomorphism of rings

$$\mathbb{Z}/n \cong \mathbb{Z}/p_1^{r_1} \times \mathbb{Z}/p_2^{r_2} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}/p_s^{r_s}$$

and an isomorphism of groups

$$(\mathbb{Z}/n)^\times \cong (\mathbb{Z}/p_1^{r_1})^\times \times (\mathbb{Z}/p_2^{r_2})^\times \times \dots \times (\mathbb{Z}/p_s^{r_s})^\times.$$

Thus we have

$$\phi(n) = \phi(p_1^{r_1}) \phi(p_2^{r_2}) \dots \phi(p_s^{r_s}).$$

Proof. Let $a, b > 0$ be coprime (i.e., $\gcd(a, b) = 1$). We will show that there is an isomorphism of rings

$$\mathbb{Z}/ab \cong \mathbb{Z}/a \times \mathbb{Z}/b.$$

there are $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $ua + vb = 1$. It is easily checked that

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$$\gcd(a, v) = 1 = \gcd(b, u).$$

Define a function

$$T: \mathbb{Z}/ab \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}/a \times \mathbb{Z}/b; T([x]_{ab}) = ([x]_a, [x]_b).$$

This is easily observed to be a ring homomorphism. Notice that

$$|\mathbb{Z}/ab| = ab = |\mathbb{Z}/a| |\mathbb{Z}/b| = |\mathbb{Z}/a \times \mathbb{Z}/b|$$

and so to show that T is an isomorphism, it suffices to show that it is onto.

Let $([y]_a, [z]_b) \in \mathbb{Z}/a \times \mathbb{Z}/b$.

We must find an $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $T([x]_{ab}) = ([y]_a, [z]_b)$.

Now set $x = vby + uaz$; then

$$x = (1 - ua)y + uaz = [y]_a$$

$$x = vby + (1 - vb)z = [z]_b$$

hence we have $T([x]_{ab}) = ([y]_a, [z]_b)$ as required.

To prove the result for general n we proceed by induction upon s . Example Consider the case $n=120$. Then $120=8 \cdot 3 \cdot 5=2^3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$ and so the Theorem predicts that

$$\mathbb{Z}/120 \cong \mathbb{Z}/8 \times \mathbb{Z}/3 \times \mathbb{Z}/5.$$

We will verify this. First write $120=24 \cdot 5$. Then $\gcd(24, 5)=1$ since

$$24 = 4 \cdot 5 + 4 = 4 - 4 \cdot 5 \quad \text{and} \quad 5 = 4 + 1 = 1 - 5 - 4,$$

$$\text{Hence } 1 = 5 \cdot 5 - 24.$$

Therefore we can take $a=24$, $b=5$, $u = -1$, $v=5$ in the proof of the Theorem. Thus we have a ring isomorphism

$$T: \mathbb{Z}/120 \cong \mathbb{Z}/24 \times \mathbb{Z}/5 \dots T([25y - 24z]_{120}) = ([y]_{24}, [5z]_5),$$

as constructed in the proof above. Next we have to repeat this procedure for the ring $\mathbb{Z}/24$. Here we have

$$8=2 \cdot 3+2=2 \cdot 2+2 \text{ and } 3=2+1=2 \cdot 1+3-2,$$

So $\gcd(8, 3)$

Hence there is an isomorphism of rings

$$\mathbb{Z}/24 \cong \mathbb{Z}/8 \times \mathbb{Z}/3; \quad T_2([9x - 8y]_{24}) = ([x]_8, [y]_3),$$

and we can of course combine these two isomorphism to obtain a third, namely

$$T: \mathbb{Z}/120 \cong \mathbb{Z}/8 \times \mathbb{Z}/3 \times \mathbb{Z}/5; \quad T([25(9x - 8y) - 24z]_{120}) = ([x]_8, [y]_3, [z]_5),$$

as required. Notice that we have

$T^{-1}([1]_8, [1]_3, [1]_5) = [1]_{120}$, which is always the case with this procedure.

We now move on to consider the subject of equations over \mathbb{Z}/n . Consider the following example.

Example. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $n > 0$. Then $ax = b$

is a linear modular equation or linear congruence over \mathbb{Z} . We are interested in finding all solutions of Equation in \mathbb{Z} , not just one solution.

If $u \in \mathbb{Z}$ has the property that $au = b$ then u is a solution; but then the integers of form $u + kn$, $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ are also solutions. Notice that there are an infinite number of these. But each such solution gives the same congruence class $[u + kn]_n = [u]_n$. We can equally well consider

$$[a]_n X = [b]_n$$

as a linear equation over \mathbb{Z}/n . This time we look for all solutions of Equation in \mathbb{Z}/n and as \mathbb{Z}/n is itself finite, there are only a finite number of these. As we remarked above, any Integer solution u gives rise to solution $[u]_n$; in fact many solutions give the same solution. Conversely, a solution $[v]_n$ of generates the set

$$[v]_n = \{ v + kn : k \in \mathbb{Z} \}$$

of solutions so there is in fact an equivalence of these two problems.

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Now let try to find all solutions in \mathbb{Z}/n . There are two cases:

the element $[a]_n \in \mathbb{Z}/n$ is a unit;

the element $[a]_n \in \mathbb{Z}/n$ is a zero divisor.

In case (1), let $[c]_n = [a]_n^{-1}$ be the inverse of $[a]_n$. Then we can multiply $[c]_n$ to obtain $X = [bc]_n$

Solution namely $[bc]_n$! So we have completely found that $X = [bc]_n$ is the unique solution in \mathbb{Z}/n .

namely the integers of form $bc + kn$, $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. But any given solution u must satisfy $[u]_n = [bc]_n$ in \mathbb{Z}/n , hence $u = bc$ and so u is of this form. So the solutions are precisely the integers of this form.

So exactly one solution in \mathbb{Z}/n ,

$$X = [a]_n^{-1} [b]_n$$

and has all integers of the form $cb + kn$ as its solutions.

In case there can be solutions or none at all. For example, the equation

$$nx = 1, \quad n$$

can only have a solution in \mathbb{Z} if $n = 1$. There is also the possibility of multiple solutions in \mathbb{Z}/n , as is shown by the example

$$2x = 4 \pmod{12}$$

By inspection, this is observed to this congruence can also be solved by reducing it to

$$x = 2 \pmod{6}$$

Since if $2(x - 2) = 0$ then $x - 2 = 0$, which is an example.

So if $[a]_n$ is not a unit, uniqueness is also lost as well as the guarantee of any solutions. We can more generally consider a system of linear equations

$$a_1x = b_1, \quad a_2x = b_2, \quad \dots, \quad a_kx = b_k,$$

n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k

where we are now trying to find all integers $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ which simultaneously satisfy these congruences. The main result on this situation is the following.

Theorem (The Chinese Remainder Theorem). Let n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k be a sequence of coprime integers, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k a sequence of integers satisfying $\gcd(a_i, n_i) = 1$ and b_1, b_2, \dots, b_k be sequence of integers. Then the system of simultaneous linear congruences equations

$$a_1x \equiv b_1 \pmod{n_1}, a_2x \equiv b_2 \pmod{n_2}, \dots, a_kx \equiv b_k \pmod{n_k},$$

n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k

has an infinite number of solutions $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ which form a unique congruence class

$$[x]_{n_1 n_2 \dots n_k} \in \mathbb{Z}/n_1 n_2 \dots n_k$$

Proof. The proof uses the isomorphism

$$\mathbb{Z}/ab \cong \mathbb{Z}/a \times \mathbb{Z}/b$$

for $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ as together with an induction on k .

Example. Consider the system

$$3x \equiv 5 \pmod{8}, 2x \equiv 6 \pmod{3}, 7x \equiv 1 \pmod{5}.$$

2 3 5

Since $\gcd(8, 3) = 1$, this system is equivalent to

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$$3x \equiv 5 \pmod{24}, x \equiv 0 \pmod{3}, x \equiv 1 \pmod{5}.$$

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Solving the first two equations in $\mathbb{Z}/6$, we obtain the unique solution $x \equiv 3 \pmod{6}$. Solving the simultaneous pair of congruences

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{6}, x \equiv 1 \pmod{5},$$

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we obtain the unique solution $x=3$ in $\mathbb{Z}/30$.

is often used to solve polynomial equations modulo n , by first splitting n into a product of prime powers, say $n=p_1^{r_1} p_2^{r_2} \cdots p_r^{r_r}$, and then solving modulo $p_k^{r_k}$ for each k .

Theorem. Let $n=p_1^{r_1} p_2^{r_2} \cdots p_r^{r_r}$ ($r \geq 1$), where the p_k 's are distinct primes with each $r_k \geq 1$. Let $f(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ be a polynomial with integer coefficients. Then the equation

$$f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$$

has a solution if and only if the equations

$$f(x_i) \equiv 0 \pmod{p_i^{r_i}}, \quad i=1, 2, \dots, r,$$

all have solutions. Moreover, each sequence of solutions in $\mathbb{Z}/p_i^{r_i}$ of the latter gives rise to a unique solution $x \in \mathbb{Z}/n$ of $f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$ satisfying

$$x \equiv x_k \pmod{p_k^{r_k}}.$$

Example. Solve $x^2 - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{24}$.

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We have $24=8 \cdot 3$, so we will try to solve the pair of congruence equations

$$x^2 - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{8}, \quad x^2 - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{3},$$

with $x_1 \in \mathbb{Z}/8$, $x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}/3$. Now clearly the solutions of the first equation are $x_1=1, 3, 5, 7$; for

the second we get $x_2=1, 2$.

Proposition. Let K be a field, and $f(X) \in K[X]$ be a polynomial with coefficients in K . Then for $a \in K$,

$$f(a) = 0 \iff f(X) = (X - a)g(X) \text{ for some } g(X) \in K[X].$$

Proof. This is a standard result in basic ring theory.

Corollary Let K be a field and let $f(X) \in K[X]$ with $\deg f = d > 0$. Then $f(X)$ has at most d distinct roots in K .

As a particular case, consider the field \mathbb{Z}/p , where p is a prime, and the polynomials

$$X^p - X, X^{p-1} - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}/p[X].$$

Theorem (Fermat's Little Theorem). For any $a \in \mathbb{Z}/p$, either $a = 0$ or $a^{p-1} = 1$ (so in the latter case a is a $(p-1)$ st root of 1). Hence,

$$X^p - X = X(X-1)(X-2)\dots(X-(p-1)).$$

Corollary (Wilson's Theorem). For any prime p we have

$$(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}.$$

We also have the more subtle

Theorem (Gauss's Primitive Root Theorem). For any prime p , the group $(\mathbb{Z}/p)^\times$ is cyclic of order $p-1$. Hence there is an element $a \in \mathbb{Z}/p$ of order $p-1$.

The proof of this uses for example the structure theorem for finitely generated abelian groups. A generator of $(\mathbb{Z}/p)^\times$ is known a primitive root modulo p and there are exactly $\phi(p-1)$ of these in $(\mathbb{Z}/p)^\times$.

Example : Take $p = 7$. Then $\phi(6) = \phi(2)\phi(3) = 2$, so there are two primitive roots modulo 7. We have

$$2^3 \equiv 1, \quad 3^2 \equiv 2, \quad 3^6 \equiv 1, \quad \text{mod } 7$$

hence 3 is one primitive root, the other must be $\overline{3^6} \equiv 5$

One advantage of working with a field K is that all of basic linear algebra works just as well over K . For instance, we can solve systems of

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simultaneous linear equations in the usual way by Gaussian elimination.

Example : Take $p = 11$ and solve the system of simultaneous equations.

$$3x + 2y - 3z \equiv 1, 2x + z \equiv 0,$$

i.e., find all solutions with $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}/11$.

Here we can multiply the first equation by $3^{-1} = 4$, obtaining

$$x + 8y - 1z \equiv 4, 2x + z \equiv 0,$$

and then subtract twice this from the second to obtain

$$x + 8y - 1z \equiv 4, 6y + 3z \equiv 3,$$

and we know that the rank of this system is 2. The general solution is

$$x \equiv 5t, y \equiv 5t + 6, z \equiv t, \text{ for } t \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Now consider a polynomial $f(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$, say

$$f(X) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k X^k.$$

Suppose we want to solve the equation

$$f(x) \equiv 0$$

for some $r \geq 1$ and let's assume that we already have a solution $x_1 \in \mathbb{Z}$ which works modulo p , *i.e.*, we have

$$f(x_1) \equiv 0.$$

Can we find an integer x_2 such that

$$f(x_2) \equiv 0$$

and $x_2 \equiv x_1 \pmod{p}$? More generally we would like to find an integer x_r such that

$$f(x_r) \equiv 0$$

and $x_r \equiv x_1 \pmod{p^r}$? Such an x_r is known a lift of x_1 modulo p^r .

Example Take $p=5$ and $f(X)=X^2+1$. Then there are two distinct roots modulo 5 namely 2, 3. Let's try to find a root modulo 25 and agreeing with 2 modulo 5. Try $2+5t$ where $t=0, 1, \dots, 4$. Then we need

$$(2+5t)^2+1 \equiv 0,$$

or equivalently

$20t+5=0$, (25 under = symbol)

which has the solution $t=1$. (5 under equal to symbol)

Similarly, we have $t=3$ as a lift of 3.

Example Obtain lifts of 2, 3 modulo 625.

The next result is the simplest version of what is usually referred to as Hensel's Theorem. In various guises this is an important result whose proof is inspired by the proof of Newton's Method from Numerical Analysis. Theorem (Hensel's Theorem: first version). Let $f(X) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k X^k \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ and

suppose that $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ is a root of f modulo p^s (with $s \geq 1$) and that $f'(x)$ is a unit modulo p .

Then there is a unique root $x' \in \mathbb{Z}/p^{s+1}$ of f modulo p^{s+1} satisfying $x' \equiv x \pmod{p^s}$; moreover, x' is

given by the formula

$$x' = x - u f(x),$$

p^{s+1}

where $u \in \mathbb{Z}$ satisfies $u f'(x) \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, i.e., u is an inverse for $f'(x)$ modulo p .

Proof. We have

$$f(x) \equiv 0, f'(x) \not\equiv 0,$$

p^s, p

so there is such a $u \in \mathbb{Z}$. Now consider the polynomial $f(x+Tps) \in \mathbb{Z}[T]$. Then

$f(x+Tps) = f(x) + f'(x)Tps + \dots \pmod{(Tps)^2}$ by the usual version of Taylor's expansion for a polynomial over \mathbb{Z} . Hence, for any $t \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$f(x+tps) = f(x) + f'(x)tps \pmod{p^2s}.$$

An easy calculation now shows that

Notes

$$f(x+tp^s) \equiv 0 \pmod{p^s} \iff f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{p^s}.$$

$$p^{s+1} \mid p$$

Example. Let p be an odd prime and let $f(X) = X^{p-1} - 1$. Then Gauss's Primitive Root Theorem we have exactly $p-1$ distinct $(p-1)$ st roots of 1 modulo p ; let $a_1 \in \mathbb{Z}/p$ be any one of these. Then $f'(X) = (p-1)X^{p-2}$ and so $f'(a_1) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ and we can apply

Hence there is a unique lift of a_1 modulo p^2 , say a_2 , agreeing with $a_1 \equiv a_2 \pmod{p}$. So the reduction function

$$\pi_1: (\mathbb{Z}/p^2)^\times \rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/p)^\times; \pi_1(b) = b$$

must be a group homomorphism which is onto. So for each such $a_1 \in (\mathbb{Z}/p)^\times$, there is a unique element $a_2 \in (\mathbb{Z}/p^2)^\times$ satisfying $a_2^{p-1} = 1$ and therefore the group $(\mathbb{Z}/p^2)^\times$ contains a unique cyclic subgroup of order $p-1$ which π_1 maps isomorphically to $(\mathbb{Z}/p)^\times$. As we earlier showed that $(\mathbb{Z}/p^2)^\times$ has order $(p-1)p$, this means that there is an isomorphism of groups

$$(\mathbb{Z}/p^2)^\times \cong (\mathbb{Z}/p)^\times \times \mathbb{Z}/p,$$

by standard results on abelian groups.

We can repeat this process to construct a unique sequence of integers a_1, a_2, \dots satisfying $a_k \equiv a_{k+1} \pmod{p^k}$ and $a_{k-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p^{k-1}}$. We can also deduce that the reduction homomorphisms

$$\pi_k: (\mathbb{Z}/p^{k+1})^\times \rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/p^k)^\times$$

$$\pi_k: (\mathbb{Z}/p^{k+1})^\times \rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/p^k)^\times$$

are all onto and there are isomorphisms

$$(\mathbb{Z}/p^{k+1})^\times \cong (\mathbb{Z}/p^k)^\times \times \mathbb{Z}/p.$$

The case $p=2$ is similar only this time we only have a single root of $X^2 - 1$ modulo 2 and obtain the isomorphisms

$$(\mathbb{Z}/2)^\times \cong 0, (\mathbb{Z}/4)^\times \cong \mathbb{Z}/2, (\mathbb{Z}/2^s)^\times \cong \mathbb{Z}/2 \times \mathbb{Z}/2^{s-2} \text{ if } s \geq 2.$$

It is also possible to do examples involving multivariable systems of simultaneous equations using a more general version of Hensel's Theorem.

Theorem (Hensel's Theorem: many variables and functions). Let

$$f_j(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{Z}[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$$

for $1 \leq j \leq m$ be a collection of polynomials and set $f = (f_j)$. Let $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ be a solution of f modulo p^k . Suppose that the $m \times n$ derivative matrix

$$Df(a) = (f_j'(a))$$

has full rank when considered as a matrix defined over \mathbb{Z}/p . Then there is a solution $a' = (a'_1, \dots, a'_n) \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ of f modulo p^{k+1} satisfying $a' \equiv a \pmod{p^k}$.

Example. For each of the values $k=1, 2, 3$, solve the simultaneous system

$$f(x, y, z) = 3x^2 + y = 1,$$

$$g(x, y, z) = xy + yz = 0.$$

Finally we state a version of Hensel's Theorem that applies under slightly more general conditions than the above and will be of importance later.

Check your Progress-3

Discuss Congruences and modular equations

1.5 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have discussed the definition and example Congruences and modular equations, Nonarchimedean Fields, Congruences and modular equations

1.6 KEYWORDS

Notes

Congruences and modular equations..... A metric space (X, d) is known ultrametric if the strict triangle inequality $d(x, z) < \max(d(x, y), d(y, z))$ for any $x, y, z \in X$ is satisfied

Nonarchimedean FieldsA nonarchimedean absolute value on K is a function $||: K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

Congruences and modular equations.....If $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$, then $x \equiv y$ if and only if $n \mid (x - y)$. This is often also written $x \equiv y \pmod{n}$ or $x \equiv y \pmod{n}$

1.7 QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

Explain Congruences and modular equations

Explain Nonarchimedean Fields

Explain Congruences and modular equations

1.8 REFERENCES

p-adic numbers: an introduction by Fernando Gouvea

p-adic Numbers, p-adic Analysis, and Zeta-Functions, Neal Koblitz
(1984, ISBN 978-0-387-96017-3)

A Course in p-adic Analysis by Alain M Robert

Analytic Elements in P-adic Analysis by Alain Escassut

1.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Congruences and modular equations

(answer for Check your Progress-1 Q)

Nonarchimedean Fields

(answer for Check your Progress-2 Q)

Congruences and modular equations

(answer for Check your Progress-3 Q)

UNIT-2:CONVERGENT SERIES

STRUCTURE

2.0 Objectives

2.1 Introduction

2.2 Convergent series

2.3 Differentiability

2.4 Power series

2.5 Locally analytic functions

2.6 Let Us Sum Up

2.7 Keywords

2.8 Questions For Review

2.9 References

2.10 Answers To Check Your Progress

2.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- Understand about Convergent series
- Understand about Differentiability
- Understand about Power series
- Understand about Locally analytic functions

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In mathematics, p-adic analysis is a branch of number theory that deals with the mathematical analysis of the functions of p-adic numbers.

Convergent series, Differentiability, Power series, Locally analytic functions

2.2 CONVERGENT SERIES

From now on throughout the book $(K, |\cdot|)$ is a fixed nonarchimedean field. For the convenience of the reader we collect in this section the most basic facts about convergent series in Banach spaces.

Let $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ be a K -Banach space.

Theorem. Let $(v_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence in V ; we then have:

The series $\sum v_n$ is convergent if and only if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} v_n = 0$;

if the limit $v := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} v_n$ exists in V and is nonzero then $\|v_n\| = \|v\|$ for all but finitely many $n \in \mathbb{N}$;

let $\alpha : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be any bijection and suppose that the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} v_n$ is convergent in V ; then the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} v_{\alpha(n)}$ is convergent as well with the same limit v .

Proof. If $v=0$ then $\|v\|=0$ and hence $\|v_n - v\| < \|v\|$ for any sufficiently big $n \in \mathbb{N}$. This implies that

$$\|v_n\| = \|(v_n - v) + v\| = \max(\|v_n - v\|, \|v\|) = \|v\|.$$

We fix an $\epsilon > 0$ and choose an $m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$\|v - \sum_{n=1}^m v_n\| < \epsilon \text{ for any } s > m.$$

Then also

$$\|v - \sum_{n=1}^s v_n\| = \|(v - \sum_{n=1}^m v_n) - (\sum_{n=1}^m v_n - \sum_{n=1}^s v_n)\| < \max(\|v - \sum_{n=1}^m v_n\|, \|\sum_{n=1}^m v_n - \sum_{n=1}^s v_n\|) < \epsilon$$

for any $s > m$. Setting $\epsilon := \max\{\|v - \sum_{n=1}^m v_n\|, \max_{1 \leq n \leq m} \|v_n\|\}$ we have

$$\|v - \sum_{n=1}^s v_n\| < \epsilon \text{ for any } s > m,$$

$\{1, \dots, s\} = \{1, \dots, m\} \cup \{m+1, \dots, s\}$ with appropriate natural numbers $n > m$. We conclude that

$$\|v - \sum_{n=1}^s v_n\| = \|(v - \sum_{n=1}^m v_n) - (\sum_{n=1}^m v_n - \sum_{n=1}^s v_n)\| \leq \|v - \sum_{n=1}^m v_n\| + \|\sum_{n=1}^m v_n - \sum_{n=1}^s v_n\|$$

$$< \max\{\|v - \sum_{n=1}^m v_n\|, \|v_n\|, \dots, \|\sum_{n=1}^m v_n\|\} < \epsilon$$

for any $\epsilon > 0$.

The following identities between convergent series are obvious: - $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$
 $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cdot v_n$ for any $a \in K$.

$$\left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \right) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n + b_n).$$

Theorem. Let $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} v_n$ be convergent series in K and V , respectively; then the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} w_n$ with $w_n := \sum_{m=1}^n a_m v_m$ is convergent, and

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} w_n = \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \right) \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} v_n \right)$$

Proof. Let $A := \sup_n |a_n|$ and $C := \sup_n \|v_n\|$. The other cases being trivial we will assume that $A, C > 0$. For any given $\epsilon > 0$ we find an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\epsilon > |a_n| < \frac{\epsilon}{A}$ and $\|v_n\| < \frac{\epsilon}{C}$ for any $n > N$.

Then

$$\|w_n\| < \max |a_m| \cdot \sum_{m=1}^n \|v_m\| < \max (C \max |a_m| \cdot A \max \|v_m\|) < \epsilon$$

$$\sum_{m=1}^n w_m \in \sum_{m=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^m a_k v_k$$

for any $n > 2N$. The series w_n therefore is convergent. To establish the asserted identity we note that its left hand side is the limit of the sequence s

$$W_s := \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} w_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{m=1}^n a_m v_m \right)$$

whereas its right hand side is the limit of the sequence s

$$W_s := \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \left(\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} v_m \right) = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} a_m v_m.$$

It therefore suffices to show that the differences $W_s - W'_s$ converge to zero. But we have

$$\|W_s - W'_s\| = \left\| \sum_{m=1}^n a_m v_m - \sum_{m=1}^n a_m v_m \right\| < \max |a_m| \cdot \sum_{m=1}^n \|v_m\| < \epsilon, m < s$$

$$\epsilon, m < s \in \sum_{m=1}^n a_m v_m \in \sum_{m=1}^n a_m v_m$$

$$< \max (C \max |a_m|, A \max \|v_m\|$$

$$\epsilon > 2 \epsilon$$

Analogous assertions hold true for series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} v_n$, ..., $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} v_n$ indexed by multi-indices in $\mathbb{N} \times \dots \times \mathbb{N}$.

Check your Progress-1

Discuss Convergent series

2.3 DIFFERENTIABILITY

Let V and W be two normed K -vector spaces, let $U \subset V$ be an open subset, and let $f : U \rightarrow W$ be some map.

Definition. The map f is known differentiable in the point $v_0 \in U$ if there exists a continuous linear map

$$D_{v_0} f : V \rightarrow W$$

such that for any $\epsilon > 0$ there is an open neighbourhood $U_\epsilon \subset U$ of v_0 with

$$\|f(v) - f(v_0) - D_{v_0} f(v - v_0)\| < \epsilon \|v - v_0\| \text{ for any } v \in U_\epsilon.$$

We can of course assume in the above definition that the open neighbourhood U_ϵ is of the form $U_\epsilon = B_\delta(v_0)$ for some sufficiently small radius $\delta(\epsilon) > 0$. We claim that the linear map $D_{v_0} f$ is uniquely determined. Fix an $\epsilon' > 0$, and choose a basis $\{v_j\}_{j \in J}$ of the vector space V . By scaling we can assume that $\|v_j\| < \delta(\epsilon')$. We put $v_j := v_j + v_0$. Then

$$v_j \in B_{\delta(\epsilon')}(v_0).$$

More generally, for any $0 < \epsilon < \epsilon'$ we pick a $t \in K$ such that

$$\|t\| \delta(\epsilon') < \delta(\epsilon).$$

Then

$$t \in (v_j - v_0) + v_0 \in B_{\delta(\epsilon)}(v_0) = U_\epsilon \text{ for any } j \in J.$$

It follows that

If $(t \in (v_j - v_0) + v_0) - f(v_0) - Dvof(t \in (v_j - v_0)) \in \epsilon$ and $f(t \in (v_j - v_0) + v_0) - f(v_0)$ hence that $Dvof(v_j - v_0) \in \epsilon \|v_j - v_0\|$.

By letting ϵ tend to zero we obtain

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t(v_j - v_0) + v_0) - f(v_0)}{t} = Dvof(v_j - v_0)$$

$$Dvof(v_j) = Dvof(v_j - v_0) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t(v_j - v_0) + v_0) - f(v_0)}{t}$$

for any $j \in J$. But as a linear map $Dvof$ is uniquely determined by its value on the basis vectors v_j .

The continuous linear map $Dvof : V \rightarrow W$ is known (if it exists) the derivative of f in the point $v_0 \in U$. In case $V = K$ we also write $f'(a_0) := Dvof(1)$.

Remark If f is differentiable in v_0 then it is continuous in v_0 .

(Chain rule) Let V, W_1 , and W_2 be normed K -vector spaces, $U \subset V$ and $U_i \subset W_i$ be open subsets, and $f : U \rightarrow U_i$ and $g : U_i \rightarrow W_2$ be maps; suppose that f is differentiable in some $v_0 \in U$ and g is differentiable in $f(v_0)$; then $g \circ f$ is differentiable in v_0 and

$$Dvof(g \circ f) = Dg(f(v_0)) \circ Dvof$$

A continuous linear map $u : V \rightarrow W$ is differentiable in any $v_0 \in V$ and $Dvof u = u$; in particular, in the situation of ii. we have

$$Dvof(u \circ f) = u \circ Dvof$$

(Product rule) Let V, W_1, \dots, W_m , and W be normed K -vector spaces, let $U \subset V$ be an open subset with maps $f_i : U \rightarrow W_i$, and let $u : W_1 \times \dots \times W_m \rightarrow W$ be a continuous multilinear map; suppose that f_1, \dots, f_m are differentiable in some point $v_0 \in U$; then $u(f_1, \dots, f_m) : U \rightarrow W$ is differentiable in v_0 and

$$Dvof(u(f_1, \dots, f_m)) = \sum_{i=1}^m u(f_1(v_0), \dots, Dvof f_i, \dots, f_m(v_0)).$$

Notes

Proof. These are standard arguments. Let $\epsilon > 0$ and choose a $\delta > 0$ such that $\epsilon \in 2, \|\mathcal{D}f(v_0)\|, 5\|Df(v_0)g\| < \epsilon$

(here $\|\cdot\|$ refers to the operator norm of course). By assumption on g we have $\|g(w) - g(f(v_0)) - Df(v_0)g(w - f(v_0))\| < 5\|w - f(v_0)\|$

for any $w \in U_s(f(v_0))$. By the differentiability and hence continuity of f in v_0 there exists an open neighbourhood $U(v_0) \subset U$ of v_0 such that $f(U(v_0)) \subset U_s(f(v_0))$ and

$\|f(v) - f(v_0) - Dv_0 f(v - v_0)\| < 5\|v - v_0\|$ for any $v \in U(v_0)$. In particular

$$\|f(v) - f(v_0)\| = \|Dv_0 f(v - v_0) + f(v) - f(v_0) - Dv_0 f(v - v_0)\| < \max(\|Dv_0 f\| \|v - v_0\|, 5\|v - v_0\|)$$

for any $v \in U(v_0)$. We now compute

$$\|g(f(v)) - g(f(v_0)) - Df(v_0)g \circ Dv_0 f(v - v_0)\| = \|g(f(v)) - g(f(v_0)) - Df(v_0)g(f(v) - f(v_0))\|$$

$$+ \|Df(v_0)g(f(v) - f(v_0) - Dv_0 f(v - v_0))\|$$

$$\leq \max(\|g\| \|f(v) - f(v_0)\|, \|Df(v_0)g\| \|f(v) - f(v_0) - Dv_0 f(v - v_0)\|) \quad (2)$$

$$\leq \max(5\|f(v) - f(v_0)\|, \|Df(v_0)g\| \|v - v_0\|) \quad (3)$$

$$\leq \max(\epsilon, 5\|Dv_0 f\|, 5\|Df(v_0)g\|) \|v - v_0\| \in \|v - v_0\|$$

for any $v \in U(v_0)$.

Suppose that the vector space $V = V_1 \dots V_m$ is the direct sum of finitely many vector spaces V_1, \dots, V_m and that the norm on V is the maximum of its restrictions to the V_j . Write a vector $v_0 \in U$ as $v_0 = v_{0,1} + \dots + v_{0,m}$ with $v_{0,j} \in V_j$. For each $1 < i < m$ there is an open neighbourhood $U_j \subset V_i$ of $v_{0,i}$ such that

$$U_1 + \dots + U_m \subset U.$$

Therefore the maps

$$f_i : U_j \rightarrow W$$

$$v_i \mapsto f(v_0, 1+\dots+v_j+\dots+v_0, m)$$

are well defined. If it exists the continuous linear map

$$Dv_0 f := Dv_0, \wedge f_i : V_j \wedge W$$

is known the i -th partial derivative of f in v_0 . We recall that differentiability of f in v_0 implies the existence of all partial derivatives together with the identity m

$$Dv_0 f = \sum_{i=1}^m Dv_0 f_i$$

Let us go back to our initial situation $V^*U \rightarrow W$.

Definition. The map f is known strictly differentiable in $v_0 \in U$ if there exists a continuous linear map $Dv_0 f : V \rightarrow W$ such that for any $\epsilon > 0$ there is an open neighborhood $U \in C U$ of v_0 with

$$\|f(v_1) - f(v_2) - Dv_0 f(v_1 - v_2)\| < \epsilon \|v_1 - v_2\| \text{ for any } v_1, v_2 \in U.$$

Exercise. Suppose that f is strictly differentiable in every point of U . Then the map

$$U \rightarrow L(V, W) \quad v \mapsto Dv f \text{ is continuous.}$$

Our goal for the rest of this section is to discuss the local invertibility properties of strictly differentiable maps.

Theorem. Let $B_s(v_0)$ be a closed ball in a K -Banach space V and let $f : B_s(v_0) \rightarrow V$ be a map for which there exists a $0 < \epsilon < 1$ such that

$\|f(v_1) - f(v_2) - (v_1 - v_2)W\| < \epsilon \|v_1 - v_2\|$ for any $v_1, v_2 \in B_s(v_0)$; then f induces a homeomorphism

$$B_s(v_0) \xrightarrow{\sim} B_s(f(v_0)).$$

Proof. We have

$$\|f(v_1) - f(v_2) - (v_1 - v_2)W\| < \epsilon \|v_1 - v_2\| \text{ for any } v_1, v_2 \in B_s(v_0).$$

In particular, f is a homeomorphism onto its image which satisfies $f(B_s(v_0)) \subset B_s(f(v_0))$. It remains to show that this latter inclusion in fact is

Notes

an equality. Let $w \in B_S(f(v_0))$ be an arbitrary but fixed vector. For any $v' \in B_S(v_0)$ we put

$$v'' := w + v' - f(v').$$

We compute

$$\|v'' - v_0\| \leq \max(\|w - f(v_0)\|, \|v' - v_0\|)$$

$$\max(\|w - f(v_0)\|, 5)$$

$$\max(\|w - f(v_0)\|, \|w - f(v_0)\| + \|f(v_0) - f(v')\|)$$

$$\max(5, \|w - f(v_0)\| + 5)$$

$$\max(5, \|v_0 - v'\|)$$

which means that $v'' \in B_S(v_0)$. Hence we can define inductively a sequence $(v_n)_{n \geq 0}$ in $B_S(v_0)$ by

$$v_{n+1} := w + v_n - f(v_n).$$

Using we observe that

$$\|v_{n+1} - v_n\| = \|v_n - f(v_n) - (v_{n-1} - f(v_{n-1}))\|$$

$$= \|f(v_{n-1}) - f(v_n) - (v_{n-1} - v_n)\|$$

$$\leq L \|v_n - v_{n-1}\|$$

and therefore

$$\|v_{n+1} - v_n\| \leq L^n \|v_1 - v_0\| \leq L^n 5$$

for any $n \geq 1$. It follows that $(v_n)_{n \geq 0}$ is a Cauchy sequence and, since V is complete, is convergent. Because $B_S(v_0)$ is closed in V the limit $v := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} v_n$ lies in $B_S(v_0)$. By passing to the limit in the defining equation and using the continuity of f we finally obtain that $f(v) = w$.

Proposition (Local invertibility) Let V and W be K -Banach spaces, $U \subset V$ be an open subset, and $f : U \rightarrow W$ be a map which is strictly differentiable in the point $v_0 \in U$; suppose that the derivative $Dv_0 f : V \rightarrow W$

4 W is a topological isomorphism; then there are open neighbourhoods $U_0 \subset U$ of v_0 and $U_1 \subset W$ of $f(v_0)$ such that:

$f : U_0 \rightarrow U_1$ is a homeomorphism;

the inverse map $g : U_1 \rightarrow U_0$ is strictly differentiable in $f(v_0)$, and

$$Df(v_0)g = (Dv_0f)^{-1}.$$

Proof. We consider the map

$$f_1 := (Dv_0f)^{-1} \circ f : U \rightarrow V.$$

As a consequence of the chain rule it is strictly differentiable in v_0 and

$$Dv_0f_1 = (Dv_0f)^{-1} \circ Dv_0f = \text{id}_U.$$

Hence, fixing some $0 < \delta < 1$ we find a neighbourhood $B_\delta(v_0) \subset U$ of v_0 such that the condition is satisfied. The Theorem then says that

$$f_1 : U_0 := B_\delta(v_0) \rightarrow B_\delta(f_1(v_0))$$

is a homeomorphism. Since Dv_0f is a homeomorphism by assumption $U \setminus B_\delta(v_0) := B_\delta(v_0) \cap (B_\delta(v_0) \setminus \{v_0\})$ is an open neighborhood of $f(v_0)$ in W and $f : U_0 \rightarrow U_1$ is a homeomorphism.

let $\epsilon > 0$. We have $\|(Dv_0f)^{-1}\| > 0$ since $(Dv_0f)^{-1}$ is bijective. Hence we find a $\delta > 0$ such that

$$\| (Dv_0f)^{-1} \| < 1 \text{ and } \delta \| (Dv_0f)^{-1} \|^2 < \epsilon.$$

By the strict differentiability of f in v_0 we have

$$\| f(v_1) - f(v_2) - Dv_0f(v_1 - v_2) \| < \delta \|v_1 - v_2\| \text{ for any } v_1, v_2 \in U_\delta.$$

Applying $(Dv_0f)^{-1}$ gives

$$(Dv_0f)^{-1}(f(v_1) - f(v_2)) - (v_1 - v_2) = (Dv_0f)^{-1} \|v_1 - v_2\| \delta. \text{ By our choice of } \delta \text{ and deduce}$$

$$(Dv_0f)^{-1}(f(v_1) - f(v_2)) = v_1 - v_2 + \delta \|v_1 - v_2\|.$$

Combining the last two formulas we obtain

Notes

$$\|v_1 - v_2\| - (Dv_0 f)^{-1}(f(v_1) - f(v_2)) \leq \epsilon$$

$$5\|(Dv_0 f)^{-1}\| \cdot \|f(v_1) - f(v_2)\|$$

$$5\|(Dv_0 f)^{-1}\|_2 \cdot \|f(v_1) - f(v_2)\|$$

$$\epsilon \|f(v_1) - f(v_2)\|$$

for any $v_1, v_2 \in U$. It follows that

$$\|g(w_1) - g(w_2)\| - (Dv_0 f)^{-1}(w_1 - w_2) \leq \epsilon \|w_1 - w_2\|$$

for any $w_1, w_2 \in f(U_0 \cap U)$. Since $f(U_0 \cap U)$ is an open neighbourhood of $f(v_0)$ in U_1 this establishes ii.

which says that any continuous linear bijection between K -Banach spaces necessarily is a topological isomorphism. We also point out the trivial fact that any linear map between two finite dimensional K -Banach spaces is continuous.

Corollary Let $U \subset K^n$ be an open subset and $f : U \rightarrow K^m$ be a map which is strictly differentiable in $v_0 \in U$; suppose that $Dv_0 f$ is injective; then there are open neighbourhoods $U_0 \subset U$ of v_0 and $U_i \subset K^m$ of $f(v_0)$ as well as a ball $B_\epsilon(0) \subset K^{m-n}$ around zero and linearly independent vectors $w_1, \dots, w_{m-n} \in K^m$ such that the map

$U_0 \times B_\epsilon(0) \rightarrow U_i$ $(v, (a_1, \dots, a_{m-n})) \mapsto f(v) + a_1 w_1 + \dots + a_{m-n} w_{m-n}$ is a homeomorphism.

Proof. We choose the vectors w_j in such a way that

$$K^m = \text{im}(Dv_0 f) \oplus K w_1 \oplus \dots \oplus K w_{m-n}.$$

Then the linear map

$$u : K^n \times K^{m-n} \rightarrow K^m$$

$(v, (a_1, \dots, a_{m-n})) \mapsto (Dv_0 f)(v) + a_1 w_1 + \dots + a_{m-n} w_{m-n}$ is a topological isomorphism. One checks that the map

$$f : U \times K^{m-n} \rightarrow K^m$$

$$(v, (a_1, \dots, a_{m-n})) \mapsto f(v) + a_1 w_1 + \dots + a_{m-n} w_{m-n}$$

is strictly differentiable in $(v_0, 0)$ with $D(v_0, 0)f = u$.

Corollary Let $U \subset \mathbb{K}^n$ be an open subset and $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{K}^m$ be a map which is strictly differentiable in $v_0 \in U$; suppose that $Dv_0 f$ is surjective; then there are open neighbourhoods $U_0 \subset U$ of v_0 and $U_i \subset \mathbb{K}^m$ of $f(v_0)$ as well as a ball $B_\epsilon(0) \subset \mathbb{K}^{n-m}$ around zero and a linear map $p : \mathbb{K}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{K}^{n-m}$ such that the map

$$U_0 \times U_i \times B_\epsilon(0) \ni v \mapsto (f(v), p(v) - p(v_0))$$

is a homeomorphism; in particular, the restricted map $f : U_0 \rightarrow \mathbb{K}^m$ is open.

Proof. We choose a decomposition

$$\mathbb{K}^n = \ker(Dv_0 f) \oplus C$$

and let $p : \mathbb{K}^n \rightarrow \ker(Dv_0 f) = \mathbb{K}^{n-m}$ be the corresponding projection map. Then

$$u : \mathbb{K}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{K}^m \times \mathbb{K}^{n-m}$$

$$v \mapsto ((Dv_0 f)(v), P(v))$$

is a topological isomorphism. One checks that

$$f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{K}^m \times \mathbb{K}^{n-m} \ni v \mapsto (f(v), p(v) - p(v_0))$$

is strictly differentiable in v_0 with $Dv_0 f = u$.

We finish this section with a trivial observation.

A map $f : X \rightarrow A$ from some topological space X into some set A is known locally constant if $f^{-1}(a)$ is open (and closed) in X for any $a \in A$.

Theorem. Implies that in our standard situation of two normed \mathbb{K} -vector spaces V and W and an open subset $U \subset W$ there are plenty of locally constant maps $f : U \rightarrow W$. They all are strictly differentiable in any $v_0 \in U$ with $Dv_0 f = 0$.

Check your Progress-2

Discuss Differentiability

2.4 POWER SERIES

Let V be a K -Banach space. By a power series $f(X)$ in r variables

$X = (X_1, \dots, X_r)$ with coefficients in V we mean a formal series

$f(X) = \sum a_\alpha X^\alpha$ with $a_\alpha \in V$.

Here and in the following we use the usual conventions for multi-indices

$X^\alpha := X_1^{\alpha_1} \dots X_r^{\alpha_r}$ and $|\alpha| := \alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_r$

if $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_r) \in \mathbb{N}^r$ (with $\mathbb{N}_0 := \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$).

For any $\epsilon > 0$ the power series $f(X) = \sum a_\alpha X^\alpha$ is known ϵ -convergent

if $\lim_{|\alpha| \rightarrow \infty} \|a_\alpha\| = 0$.

Remark. If $f(X)$ is ϵ -convergent then it also is δ -convergent for any $0 < \delta < \epsilon$.

The K -vector space

$F \in (K^r; V) :=$ all ϵ -convergent power series $f(X) = \sum a_\alpha X^\alpha$

$a \in w_0$ is normed by $\|a\| := \max_{|\alpha|} \|a_\alpha\|$

By a straightforward generalization of the argument for $c_0(\mathbb{N})$ it is shown that $F \in (K^r; V)$ is a Banach space. By the way, in case $\epsilon = |c|$ for some $c \in K$ the map

$C_0(\mathbb{N}_0) \xrightarrow{U} F_{|c|}(K^r; K)$

$(\gg a) \mapsto \sum c^\alpha X^\alpha a$

is an isometric linear isomorphism.

Remark. The vector space $F \in (K^r; V)$ together with its topology only depends on the topology of V (and not on its specific norm).

Proof. Let $\|\cdot\|'$ be a second norm on V which induces the same topology as $\|\cdot\|$. Applying the identity map id_V we obtain two constants $c_1, c_2 > 0$ such that

$$c_1 \|\cdot\| < \|\cdot\|' < c_2 \|\cdot\|.$$

Then obviously

$$\lim_{\|\cdot\|} \|a\| \|va\| = 0 \text{ if and only if } \lim_{\|\cdot\|} \|a\| \|va\| = 0.$$

This means that using $\|\cdot\|'$ instead of $\|\cdot\|$ leads to the same vector space $F \in (\mathbb{K}; V)$ but which carries the two norms $\|\cdot\| \in$ and $\|\cdot\|' \in$ $:= \max_{a \in \mathbb{K}} \|a\| \|va\|'$. The above inequalities immediately imply the analogous inequalities

$$c_1 \|1\| \in < \|1\|' \in < c_2 \|1\| \in .$$

By the identity map on $F \in (\mathbb{K}; V)$ this means that $\|\cdot\| \in$ and $\|\cdot\|' \in$ induce the same topology.

Consider a convergent series

$$f = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} f_i$$

in the Banach space $F \in (\mathbb{K}; V)$. Suppose that

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x^i a_i \text{ and } f_i(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} x^j c_{ij}$$

We have

$$\|f - \sum_{i=0}^n f_i\| \in \sum_{i=n+1}^{\infty} \| \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} x^j c_{ij} \| \leq \max_{i \geq n+1} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \|c_{ij}\| \|x\|^j$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \|c_{ij}\| \|x\|^j \leq \max_{i=0, \dots, n} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \|c_{ij}\| \|x\|^j$$

This shows that

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} c_{ij} x^j = \sum_{i=0}^n c_{ij} x^j + \sum_{i=n+1}^{\infty} c_{ij} x^j$$

which means that limits in $F \in (\mathbb{K}; V)$ can be computed coefficient wise.

Notes

Let $B_\epsilon(0)$ denote the closed ball around zero in K^r of radius ϵ . We recall that K^r always is equipped with the norm $\|(a_1, \dots, a_r)\| = \max_{1 \leq i \leq r} |a_i|$. By Theorem 3.1.i. we have the K -linear map

$F_\epsilon \in (K^r; V) \rightarrow K$ -vector space of maps $B_\epsilon(0) \rightarrow V$ $f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^r a_i f(x)$: $\sum_{i=1}^r a_i a_i$

Remark. For any $x \in B_\epsilon(0)$ the linear evaluation map

$F_\epsilon \in (K^r; V) \rightarrow V$

$f \mapsto f(x)$

is continuous of operator norm < 1 .

Proof. We have

$\|f(x)\| = \left| \sum_{i=1}^r a_i x_i \right| \leq \max_i |a_i| \|x\|$

Proposition Let $u : V_1 \times V_2 \rightarrow V$ be a continuous bilinear map between K -Banach spaces; then

$U : F(K^r; V_1) \times F(K^r; V_2) \rightarrow F(K^r; V)$

$(\sum_{i=1}^r a_i v_i, \sum_{i=1}^r a_i w_i) \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^r a_i (u(v_i, w_i))$

$u(v, w)$

is a continuous bilinear map satisfying

$U(f, g)(x) = u(f(x), g(x))$ for any $x \in B_\epsilon(0)$ and any $f \in F(K^r; V_1)$ and $g \in F(K^r; V_2)$.

Proof. By a similar argument as the bilinear map u is continuous if and only if there is a constant $c > 0$ such that

$\|u(v_1, v_2)\| \leq c \|v_1\| \|v_2\|$ for any $v_1 \in V_1, v_2 \in V_2$. We therefore have

$\|u(v, w)\| \leq c \max(\|v\|, \|w\|) \|v\| \|w\|$

$u(v, w)$

This shows (compare the proof of Theorem 3.2) that with f and g also $U(f, g)$ is ϵ -convergent and that

$$|U(f, g)| \in \langle c|f| \rangle \in \mathbb{N}g\mathbb{N} \in .$$

Hence U is well defined, bilinear, and continuous. The asserted identity between evaluations is an immediate generalization

Proposition $F \in (K^r; K)$ is a commutative K -algebra with respect to the multiplication

$$(\in \text{baX a}) (\in \text{CaXa}) := \in (\in \text{b" CY})X a ^$$

$a a \text{aft+y}$

in addition we have

$$(fg) \sim (x) = f(x)g(x) \text{ for any } x \in B(0)$$

as well as

$$\|fg\| \in = \|f\| \in \|g\| \in$$

for any $f, g \in F \in (K^r; K)$.

Proof. Apart from the norm identity this is a special case of the multiplication in K as the bilinear map. It remains to show that

$$\|W/aWe\| \in \|0\| \in .$$

Let \succ denote the lexicographic order on \mathbb{N}^0 , and let p and v be lexicographically minimal multi-indices such that

$$= W/W_e \text{ and } \setminus cv \setminus e[V 1 = W_{alls}, \text{ respectively.}$$

Put $A := p+v$ and consider any equation of the form $A=0+7$.

Claim: $0 \prec p$ or $7 \prec v$.

Otherwise we would have $0 \succ p$ and $7 \succ v$. This means that there are $1 \prec i, j \prec r$ such that

$$0_1 \text{ --- } p_1, \dots, b_{i-1} \text{ --- } p_i \text{ --- } 1, \text{ and } 0_i \succ [a_i$$

as well as

$$Y_i = v_i, \dots, Y_{j-i} = v_{j-i}, \text{ and } Y_j \succ v_j.$$

Notes

By symmetry we can assume that $i < j$. We then obtain the contradiction

$$A_i - p_i + v_i < 0 + Y_i - A_i.$$

This establishes the claim.

We of course have

$$\|p\| \leq \|v\| \text{ and } \|v\| \leq \|g\| \in \mathbb{R}.$$

But in case $(0, y) = (p, v)$ the fact that $0 < p$ or $y < v$ together with the minimality property of p and v implies that

$$\|p\| < \|v\| \text{ or } \|v\| < \|g\|.$$

It follows that

$$\|p\| < \|v\| \text{ or } \|v\| < \|g\| \text{ whenever } 0 + y = A \text{ but } (0, y) = (p, v). \text{ We conclude that}$$

$$\|p\| < \|v\| \text{ or } \|v\| < \|g\| \text{ or } \|g\| < \|v\|.$$

Proposition. Let $g \in \mathcal{F}_s(\mathbb{K}^r; \mathbb{K}^n)$ such that $\|g\|_s < \epsilon$; then $\mathcal{F}_e(\mathbb{K}^n; \mathbb{V}) \cap \mathcal{F}_s(\mathbb{K}^r; \mathbb{V})$

$$f(Y) = \epsilon \text{ v g }^{-1} \circ f \circ g(X) := \epsilon \text{ g(X) g v g}$$

is a continuous linear map of operator norm < 1 which satisfies $(f \circ g)^{-1}(x) = f(g(x))$ for any $x \in B_s(0) \subset \mathbb{K}^r$.

Proof. Using the obvious identification

$$\mathcal{F}_s(\mathbb{K}^r; \mathbb{K}^n) = \mathcal{F}_s(\mathbb{K}^r; \mathbb{K})^n$$

$$g = (g_1, \dots, g_n)$$

we have $\max_i \|g_i\|_s = \|g\|_s < \epsilon$. This therefore implies that $g_i(X) \in \mathcal{F}_s(\mathbb{K}^r; \mathbb{K})$ for each i and n

$$\|g_i(X)\|_s = 1 \text{ and } \|g_i\|_s = n \|g_i\|_s < \epsilon \|g\|_s.$$

It follows that $g_i(X) \text{ v g } \in \mathcal{F}_s(\mathbb{K}^r; \mathbb{V})$ for each i with

$$\|g_i(X) \text{ v g } \|_s = \|g_i(X)\|_s \|v\|_s < \epsilon \|v\|_s.$$

Since the right hand side goes to zero by the ϵ - convergence of f the series $f \circ g(X) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} g(X)^n v_n$ is convergent in the Banach space $F_s(K; V)$. Moreover, we have

$$\|f \circ g\| \leq \max \|g(X)^n v_n\| \leq \max \|g\|^n \|v_n\| = \|f\| \in \mathbb{P}$$

To observe the asserted identity between evaluations we first note that by the map g indeed maps the ball $B_s(0) \subset K^r$ into the ball $B_{\epsilon}(0) \subset K^n$. $(f \circ g)(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (g(x))^n v_n = E g(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (g(x))^n v_n$.

As a consequence of the discussion the power series $f \circ g$ can be computed by formally inserting g into f .

although, for any $g \in F_s(K; K^n)$, we have inequality

$$\sup \|g(x)\| < \|g\| \text{ for } x \in B_s(0)$$

it is, in general, not an equality. This means that we can have $g(B(0)) \subset B_{\epsilon}(0)$ even if $\epsilon < \|g\|$. Then, for any $f \in F_s(K^n; V)$, the composite of maps $f \circ g$ exists but the composite of power series $f \circ g \in F_s(K; V)$ can not.

Exercise. An example of such a situation is $\langle X \rangle$

$$g(X) := \sum_{p=1}^{\infty} X^p \in F_i(Q_p; Q_p) \text{ and } f(Y) := \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} Y^n \in F_p(Q_p; Q_p).$$

Corollary (Point of expansion) Let $f \in F_s(K; V)$ and $y \in B_{\epsilon}(0)$; then there exists an $f_y \in F_s(K; V)$ such that $\|f_y\| \leq \|f\|$ and

$$f(x) = f_y(x - y) \text{ for any } x \in B_{\epsilon}(0) = B^y.$$

Proof. Let e_1, \dots, e_r denote the standard basis of K^r . to the power series $g(X) := \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} X^r e^r \in F_s(K; K^r)$ which satisfies $\|g\| \leq \epsilon$ we obtain the existence of $f_y(X) := f(X+y)$ satisfying

$\|f_y\| \leq \|f\|$ and $f_y(x) = f(x+y)$ for $x \in B_{\epsilon}(0)$. By symmetry we also have

$$\|f\| \leq \|f_y - y\| \leq \|f_y\| \leq \|f\|.$$

It will be convenient in the following to use the short notation

Notes

$$i := (0, \dots, 1, \dots, 0)$$

for the multi-index whose only nonzero entry is a 1 in the i -th place.

Suppose that the power series $f(X) = \sum_{\alpha} a_{\alpha} X^{\alpha}$ is ϵ -convergent. Then also, for any $1 < i < r$, its i -th formal partial derivative

$$\partial_i f(X) := \sum_{\alpha} (i+1) a_{\alpha} X^{\alpha - e_i}$$

is ϵ -convergent (since $\|a_{\alpha}\| < \epsilon \|\alpha\|$). In case our field K has characteristic zero it follows inductively that

$$\partial_{\alpha} f = 0 \text{ for any } \alpha.$$

Proposition. The map f is strictly differentiable in every point $z \in B_{\epsilon}(0)$ and satisfies

$$D^2 f(z) = 0$$

Proof. Case 1: We assume that $z=0$, and introduce the continuous linear map

$$K^r \rightarrow V$$

$$(a_1, \dots, a_r) \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^r a_i \partial_i$$

$$i=1$$

Let $\delta > 0$ and choose a $0 < \delta' < \epsilon$ such that

By induction with respect to $|\alpha|$ one checks that

$$\|x^{\alpha} - y^{\alpha}\| < (\delta')^{|\alpha|} \|x - y\|$$

We now compute

$$\|f(x) - f(y) - Df(x-y)\| =$$

for any $x, y \in B_{\delta'}(0)$. This proves that f is strictly differentiable in 0 with $D_0 f = D$ and hence

$$D_0 f = D$$

Case : Let $z \in B \in (0)$ be an arbitrary point. We find a power series $f_z(X) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (X-z)^n$ in $F \in (K; V)$ such that

$$f(x) = f_z(x - z) \text{ for any } x \in B \in (0).$$

Using the chain rule together with the first case we observe that f is strictly differentiable in z with

$$DZf(1) = Df_z(1) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n a_n (z - z)^{n-1}.$$

Since $f_z(X)$ can be computed by formally inserting $X+z$ into $f(X)$ we have $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (X+z)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (X+z)^n$

and hence

$$v_i(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z - z)^{n-1} = f'(z).$$

By the map

$$f : B \in (0) \rightarrow \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (X-z)^n$$

$$x \rightarrow \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x-z)^n$$

is well defined and satisfies

$$df(df dx_i \setminus dX).$$

Corollary (Taylor expansion) If K has characteristic zero then we have

$$f(X) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(z)}{n!} (X-z)^n.$$

Corollary. (Identity theorem for power series) If K has characteristic zero then for any nonzero $f \in F \in (K; V)$ there is a point $x \in B \in (0)$ such that $f(x) = 0$.

In fact much stronger results. In particular, the assumption on the characteristic of K is superfluous. But this requires a different method of and subsequent comment). In any case the map

$$F \in (K; V) \rightarrow \text{strictly differentiable maps } B \in (0) \rightarrow V$$

Notes

is injective and commutes with all the usual operations as considered above. We therefore will simplify notations in the following and write very often f for the power series as well as the corresponding map.

Proposition (Invertibility for power series) Let $f(X) \in F \in (\mathbb{K}r; \mathbb{K}r)$ such that $f(0)=0$, and suppose that D_0f is bijective; fix a $0 < \epsilon < 2$

$\|f\| < \epsilon$; then $\exists \delta < \epsilon$, and there is a uniquely determined $g(Y) \in F_s(V \circ \mathbb{K}r)$ such that

$$g(0)=0, \|g\| < \epsilon, \text{ and } f \circ g(Y) = Y;$$

in particular, the diagram

$$B_s(0) \xrightarrow{g}$$

$$B \xrightarrow{f} B \setminus \{y, (0)\}$$

is commutative.

Proof. Case 1: We assume that $D_0f = \text{id}_{\mathbb{K}r}$. Let

$$f = (f_1, \dots, f_r) \text{ and } f_i(X) = \sum_{a \geq 1} a_i X^a.$$

Since $f(0)=0$ we have $a_{i0}=0$. Moreover, the matrix of D_0f in the standard basis of $\mathbb{K}r$ is equal to I . But we are in the special case that this matrix is the identity matrix. Hence $a_{ij}=0$ for $i \neq j$ and $a_{ii} = 1$. We therefore observe that

$$f_i(X) = \sum_{a \geq 1} a_i X^a.$$

$$\|a\| > 2$$

It follows in particular that

$$\|f\| < \epsilon$$

and hence

$$\epsilon < 2 < \|f\|, \text{ il}(A) < 1/2 \text{ I} / 1. \forall \in \forall B'$$

In case 1 of the proof we have computed that

$$\|f(x) - f(y) - (x - y)\| < 2^{\|x - y\|} \text{ for any } x, y \in B \setminus \{0\}.$$

As $5 < 1$ this is the condition. We therefore conclude that

$\therefore B_s(0) - B_s(0)$ is a homeomorphism. Furthermore, for $|a| > 2$ we have

$$|a_i, j| 5 |a| < 11/1 | \cdot | H < 11/1 | \cdot | 2 = 5(5 f) < 5.$$

Hence it follows from that

In a next step we establish the existence of a formal power series

$$g = (g_i, \dots, g_r) \text{ with}$$

$$g_i(Y) = \sum_{|y| \geq i} \dots$$

such that

$$f(g(Y)) = Y.$$

First of all let us check that formally inserting any such g into f is a well-defined operation. We formally compute

$$f(g(Y)) = \sum_{|a| \geq 1} a_i g_i(Y) \dots g_r(Y) a_r$$

$$|a| \geq 1 = \sum_{|a| \geq 1} a_i \left(\sum_{|b_j| \geq |a_i|} b_j \dots \right) a_r \left(\sum_{|b_r| \geq |a_r|} b_r \dots \right)$$

$$|a| \geq 1 \quad |g| \geq i \quad |g| \geq i$$

$$E \left(\sum_{|a_i| \geq |b_i|} a_i \dots b_i, \sum_{|a_i| \geq |b_i|} a_i \dots b_i, \sum_{|a_i| \geq |b_i|} a_i \dots b_i, \dots, \sum_{|a_i| \geq |b_i|} a_i \dots b_i \right)$$

$$|y| \geq i \dots$$

where in the last expression the multi-indices in the inner sum run over all $a, b(1), \dots, b(a_1 + \dots + a_r)$ such that $|a|, |b(1)|, \dots, |b(a_1 + \dots + a_r)| \geq 1$ and

$$3(1) + \dots + 3(a_i) + 3(a_i + 1) + \dots + 3(a_i + a_2) + \dots + 3(a_i + \dots + a_r) = y.$$

Because of $|3(v)| \geq 1$ this condition enforces $|a| \leq |y|$ so that these inner sums in fact are finite. We now set

$$Y = f_i(g(Y))$$

and compare coefficients. For $y = i$ we obtain

$$1 = \sum_{|a_i| \geq |b_i|} a_i \dots b_i, \quad i = b_i, \quad i = 1$$

Notes

For $y=i$ we have

$$0 \leq \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i \leq \sum_{i=1}^n |a_i| |b_i| \leq \sum_{i=1}^n |a_i| \max_{1 \leq j \leq n} |b_j|$$

$$\dots \leq |a| \max_{1 \leq j \leq n} |b_j|$$

where $C(a, y)$ is a (finite) sum of products of the form

$$b_1^{i_1} \dots b_r^{i_r} \text{ with } |b_1|^{i_1} \dots |b_r|^{i_r} = y \text{ and } i_1 + \dots + i_r = n$$

In particular,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n |a_i| |b_i| \leq |y| \sum_{i=1}^n |a_i|$$

Since the number of summands $|b_1|^{i_1} \dots |b_r|^{i_r}$ is equal to $|a| \geq 2$ it follows that $|b_1|^{i_1} \dots |b_r|^{i_r} \leq |y|$. We observe that on the right hand side of the equation

$$\sum_{i=1}^n |a_i| |b_i| \leq |y| \sum_{i=1}^n |a_i|$$

$$2 \leq M \leq T$$

only coefficients $b \in \mathbb{C}$ appear with $|b| \leq |y|$. This means that the coefficients a_i can be computed recursively from these equations. Hence g exists and is uniquely determined. In addition we check inductively that

$$|b_i| |y| \leq |a_i|$$

holds true. For $|y|=1$ we have $|b_i| = 0$ or 1 and the inequality is trivial. If $|y| \geq 2$ then the induction hypothesis implies

$$|C(a, y)| \leq \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |a_i| \sum_{i=1}^n |b_i| \leq \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |a_i| \sum_{i=1}^n |y|^{i-1}$$

$$\max_{1 \leq i \leq n} (|a_i| (|y|^{i-1} + \dots + |y|^{Qa + \dots + ar} - |y|^{i-1}))$$

$$\dots \leq |y|^{e_2}$$

$$|y|^{e_2} \leq M$$

$\forall \epsilon > 0$ Hence we have

$$|b_i| |y| \leq \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |a_i| |y| \leq \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |a_i| |y|$$

$$2 \leq |y| \leq |y| \leq |y| \leq |a|$$

$$\leq \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |a_i| |y| \leq \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |a_i| |y| \leq |y| \leq |a|$$

$$2 < \|a\| < 7 \Rightarrow \|a\| e^2 \cdot 2 < \|a\| < 7 \|V\| \|f\| e^2$$

$$\|J_t\| = 1$$

(the last identity since $\epsilon < \|f\| \in \mathbb{R}$). We deduce that

$$\|b_i, 7\| \|y\| < (5\|k\|)^{|y|} = k.$$

Because of $5 < 1$ this shows that g is 5-convergent with $\|g\| < 5$. But $b_i, i=1$ then implies that $\|g\|_s = 5$. Altogether we have shown so far that:

f is 5-convergent with $\|f\|_s = 5$;

there is a uniquely determined 5-convergent g with

$$g(0) = 0, \|g\|_s = 5 < \epsilon, \text{ and } f \circ g(Y) = Y.$$

Using that $f \circ g = \text{id}$ so that

$$B_s(0) \circ B_s(0)$$

are homeomorphisms which are inverse to each other. But we also conclude that $g \circ f(X)$ exists as a 5-convergent power series as well and satisfies $(g \circ f) \sim g \circ f = \text{id}$. The identity theorem then implies that

$$g \circ f(X) = X.$$

Case 2: Let Dof be arbitrary bijective. If $(a_j)_{i,j}$ is the matrix of $(Dof)^{-1}$ in the standard basis of \mathbb{K}^r then the operator norm is given by

$$\|(Dof)^{-1}\| = \max |a_j|.$$

Viewed as a power series $(Dof)^{-1}$ is e' -convergent for any $e' > 0$ with $\|(Dof)^{-1}\|, e' = \max |a_i, j| = e' \|(Dof)^{-1}\|$.

In the following we put $e' := \|(Dof)^{-1}\|$. Then $\|(Dof)^{-1}\| \in e'$, and from obtain

$$f \circ (Dof)^{-1} \in \text{GF}(\mathbb{K}^r; \mathbb{K}^r) \text{ and } \|f \circ (Dof)^{-1}\| < \|f\| \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Any 5 as in the assertion then satisfies

$$e^2 \leq e'^2 \wedge e'^2$$

Notes

$$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{B(Dof)^{-1}} = \|\cdot\|, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$$

Obviously $f(0)=0$, and $Df_0 = \text{id}_{\mathbb{K}^n}$ by the chain rule. So we can apply the first case to f and obtain a uniquely determined $g \in G(F; \mathbb{K}^n)$ such

that

$$g(0)=0, Dg_0 = \text{id}_{\mathbb{K}^n}, \text{ and } f \circ g(Y) = Y$$

as well as

$$\|g\|, \|Dg\| \leq \epsilon$$

$$\|f \circ g\|, \|D(f \circ g)\| \leq \epsilon \|(Df)^{-1}\| \|\cdot\| \in \epsilon \|\cdot\|$$

by. We define

$$g := (Df)^{-1} \circ f \in G(F; \mathbb{K}^n).$$

Then $g(0)=0$ and

$f(g(Y)) = f((Df)^{-1} \circ f(Y)) = f \circ (Df)^{-1}(f(Y)) = f(Y) = Y$. In addition, implies

$$\|g\| \leq \|(Df)^{-1}\| \epsilon \leq \epsilon \|(Df)^{-1}\| \in \epsilon \|\cdot\|.$$

The unicity of g easily follows from the unicity of $f \circ g$.

Proposition Let $u : V \rightarrow W$ be a continuous linear map between \mathbb{K} -Banach spaces; then

$f \in G(F; V) \rightarrow f \in G(F; W)$ $f(x) = \sum \lambda_n x^n \rightarrow u \circ f(x) := \sum \lambda_n u(x^n)$ is a continuous linear map of operator norm $\leq \|u\|$ which satisfies $u \circ f(x) = u(f(x))$ for any $x \in B_\epsilon(0)$.

Check your Progress-3

Discuss Power Series

2.5 LOCALLY ANALYTIC FUNCTIONS

Definition. A function $f : U \rightarrow V$ is known locally analytic if for any point $x_0 \in U$ there is a ball $B \in (x_0) \subset U$ around x_0 and a power series $F \in \mathcal{F} \in (\mathbb{K}^r; V)$ such that

$$f(x) = F(x - x_0) \text{ for any } x \in B \in (x_0).$$

The set $\text{Can}(U, V) :=$ all locally analytic functions $f : U \rightarrow V$

is a \mathbb{K} -vector space with respect to pointwise addition and scalar multiplication. For $f_1, f_2 \in \text{Can}(U, V)$ and $x_0 \in U$ let $F_i \in \mathcal{F} \in (\mathbb{K}^r; V)$ such that $f_i(x) = F_i(x - x_0)$ for any $x \in B \in (x_0)$. Put $e := \min(e_1, e_2)$. Then $F_1 + F_2 \in \mathcal{F} \in (\mathbb{K}^r; V)$ and

$$(f_1 + f_2)(x) = (F_1 + F_2)(x - x_0) \text{ for any } x \in B \in (x_0).$$

The vector space $\text{Can}(U, V)$ carries a natural topology which we will discuss later on in a more general context.

Example. We have $F \in \text{Can}(B \in (0), V)$ for any $F \in \mathcal{F} \in (\mathbb{K}^r; V)$.

Proposition. Suppose that $f : U \rightarrow V$ is locally analytic; then f is strictly differentiable in every point $x_0 \in U$ and the function $x \mapsto D_x f$ is locally analytic in $\text{Can}(U, L(\mathbb{K}^r, V))$.

Proof. Let $F \in \mathcal{F} \in (\mathbb{K}^r; V)$ such that

$$f(x) = F(x - x_0) \text{ for any } x \in B \in (x_0).$$

From and the chain rule we deduce that f is strictly differentiable in every $x \in B \in (x_0)$ and

$$D_x f((a_1, \dots, a_r)) = x_0^{(1)} = a_i (JX) \sim (x - x_0).$$

Let

$$H(x) = x a_1, \dots,$$

For any multi-index a we introduce the continuous linear map $L_a : \mathbb{K}^r \rightarrow V$

$$(a_1, \dots, a_r) \mapsto a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_r v_r, a.$$

Because of $\|L_a\| < \max_i \|v_i\|_Q$, we have

Notes

$$G(X) := \{x \in X \mid \exists \lambda \in \mathbb{F}(\mathbb{K}; L(\mathbb{K}, V))\}$$

A and $D_x f = G(x - x_0)$ for any $x \in B(x_0)$.

Remark If \mathbb{K} has characteristic zero then, for any function $f : U \rightarrow V$, the following conditions are equivalent:

f is locally constant;

f is locally analytic with $D_x f = 0$ for any $x \in U$.

Proof. This is an immediate consequence of the Taylor formula.

We now give a list of more or less obvious properties of locally analytic functions.

For any open subset $U' \subset U$ we have the linear restriction map

$$\text{Can}(U, V) \rightarrow \text{Can}(U', V) \quad f \mapsto f|_{U'}$$

For any open and closed subset $U' \subset U$ we have the linear map

$$\text{Can}(U', V) \rightarrow \text{Can}(U, V)$$

$$f \mapsto f(x) := 0 \text{ (X) T}$$

otherwise known extension by zero.

If $U = \bigcup_{i \in I} U_i$ is a covering by pairwise disjoint open subsets then

$$\text{Can}(U, V) \cong \prod_{i \in I} \text{Can}(U_i, V)$$

ie

$$f \mapsto (f|_{U_i})_{i \in I}$$

For any two \mathbb{K} -Banach spaces V and W we have

$$\text{Can}(U, V \otimes W) \cong \text{Can}(U, V) \otimes \text{Can}(U, W) \quad f \mapsto (f \otimes 1) \quad \text{prv of, prw of.}$$

In particular

$$\text{Can}(U, \mathbb{K}^n) \cong \mathbb{K}^n \times \text{Can}(U, \mathbb{K})$$

$$\text{Can}(U, \mathbb{K}^n) \cong \mathbb{K}^n \times \text{Can}(U, \mathbb{K})$$

For any continuous bilinear map $u : V_1 \times V_2 \rightarrow V$ between K -Banach spaces we have the bilinear map

$$\text{Can}(U, V_1) \times \text{Can}(U, V_2) \rightarrow \text{Can}(U, V) \quad (f, g) \mapsto u(f, g)$$

$\text{Can}(U, V)$ is a module over $\text{Can}(U, K)$.

For any continuous linear map $u : V \rightarrow W$ between K -Banach spaces we have the linear map

$$\text{Can}(U, V) \rightarrow \text{Can}(U, W)$$

$$f \mapsto u \circ f$$

Theorem. Let $U' \subset K^n$ be an open subset and let $g \in \text{Can}(U, K^n)$ such that $g(U) \subset U'$; then the map

$$\text{Can}(U', V) \rightarrow \text{Can}(U, V) \quad f \mapsto f \circ g$$

is well defined and K -linear.

Proof. Let $x_0 \in U$ and put $y_0 := g(x_0) \in U'$. We choose a ball $B_\delta(y_0) \subset U'$ and a power series $F \in \mathcal{F}_\delta(K^n; V)$ such that

$$f(y) = F(y - y_0) \text{ for any } y \in B_\delta(y_0).$$

We also choose a ball $B_\delta(x_0) \subset U$ and a power series $G \in \mathcal{F}_\delta(K^n; K^n)$ such that

$$g(x) = G(x - x_0) \text{ for any } x \in B_\delta(x_0).$$

Observing that

$$\|G - G(0)\|_s < \delta \text{ for any } 0 < \delta < \delta$$

we can decrease δ so that

$$\|G - y_0\|_s = \|G - G(0)\|_s < \epsilon$$

(and, in particular, $g(B_\delta(x_0)) \subset B_\delta(y_0)$) holds true. It then follows from that $F \circ (G - y_0) \in \mathcal{F}_\delta(K^n; V)$ and

$$(F \circ (G - y_0))(x - x_0) = F(G(x - x_0) - y_0)$$

Notes

$$= F(g(x) - y_0)$$

$$= f(g(x))$$

for any $x \in B_s(x_0)$.

The last result can be expressed by saying that the composite of locally analytic functions again is locally analytic.

Proposition (Local invertibility) Let $U \subset \mathbb{K}^r$ be an open subset and let $f \in \text{Can}(U, \mathbb{K}^r)$; suppose that $D_x f|_{x_0}$ is bijective for some $x_0 \in U$; then there are open neighbourhoods $U_0 \subset U$ of x_0 and $U_1 \subset \mathbb{K}^r$ of $f(x_0)$ such that:

i. $f : U_0 \rightarrow U_1$ is a homeomorphism;

ii. the inverse map $g : U_1 \rightarrow U_0$ is locally analytic, i.e., $g \in \text{Can}(U_1, \mathbb{K}^r)$.

Proof. According we find open neighbourhoods $U_0 \subset U$ of x_0 and $U_1 \subset \mathbb{K}^r$ of $f(x_0)$ such that

$f : U_0 \rightarrow U_1$ is a homeomorphism.

We choose a ball $B \in (x_0) \subset U_0$ and a power series $F \in \mathbb{F} \in (\mathbb{K}^r; \mathbb{K}^r)$ such that

$$f(x) = F(x - x_0) \text{ for any } x \in B \in (x_0).$$

The power series $F_1(X) := F(X) - f(x_0) \in \mathbb{F} \in (\mathbb{K}^r; \mathbb{K}^r)$ satisfies $F_1(0) = 0$. Moreover, $D_0 F_1 = D_{x_0} f$ is invertible. we therefore find, for a sufficiently small $0 < \epsilon < e$, a power series $G_1(Y) \in \mathbb{F}_s(\mathbb{K}^r; \mathbb{K}^r)$ such that

$$G_1(0) = 0, \|G_1\|_a < \epsilon, \text{ and } F_1 \circ G_1(Y) = Y.$$

In particular, $G_1 : B_s(0) \rightarrow B \in (0)$ is locally analytic. Hence the composite

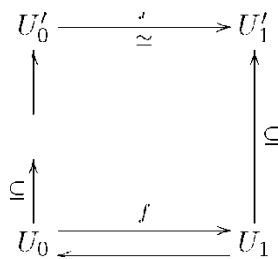
$$g : U_1 := B_s(f(x_0)) \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow U \subset B_s(0) \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow U \subset B^a(0) \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \wedge \\ B \in (x_0)$$

is locally analytic and satisfies

$$f \circ g(y) = f(G_1(y - f(x_0)) + x_0) = F(G_1(y - f(x_0)))$$

$$= F_1 (G_1 (y - f(x_0))) + f(x_0) = y - f(x_0) + f(x_0) = y$$

for any $y \in U_1$. By further decreasing δ we can assume that $U_1 \subset U'_1$, and by setting $U_0 := g(U_1)$ we obtain the commutative diagram



c

$$B \in (x_0)$$

g in which the two lower horizontal arrows both are locally analytic and are inverse to each other.

There are "locally analytic versions".

We have done so already and we will systematically continue to call a

map $f : U \rightarrow U'$ between open subsets $U \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ and $U' \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ locally

f is analytic if the composite $U \rightarrow U' \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a locally analytic function.

For any $h \in G$ the maps

$$\begin{aligned}
 \in_h : G \times G &\rightarrow G \text{ and } r_h : G \times G \\
 g &\rightarrow hg, \quad gi \rightarrow gh
 \end{aligned}$$

are locally analytic isomorphisms (of manifolds).

By symmetry we only need to consider the case of the left multiplication \in_h . This map can be viewed as the composite

$$\begin{aligned}
 G &\rightarrow G \times G \\
 g &\mapsto (h, g).
 \end{aligned}$$

Obviously have $\in_h \circ \in_{h^{-1}} = \in_{hh^{-1}} = \in_e = \text{id}_G$ and then also $\in_{h^{-1}} \circ \in_h = \text{id}_G$. It follows that $\in_{h^{-1}} = \in_{h^{-1}}$ is locally analytic as well.

Discuss Locally analytic functions

2.6 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have discussed the definition and example of Convergent series, Differentiability, Power series, Locally analytic functions

2.7 KEYWORDS

Convergent series..... $(K, |\cdot|)$ is a fixed nonarchimedean field

Differentiability....Let V and W be two normed K -vector spaces, let $U \subset V$ be an open subset, and let $f : U \rightarrow W$ be some map

Power series.....Let V be a K -Banach space. By a power series $f(X)$ in r variables $X = (X_1, \dots, X_r)$ with coefficients in V we mean a formal series

Locally analytic functions.....Let $U \subset K^r$ be an open subset and V be a K -Banach space

2.8 QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

Explain Convergent series

Explain Differentiability

Explain Power series

Explain Locally analytic functions

2.9 REFERENCES

p -adic numbers: an introduction by Fernando Gouvea

p -adic Numbers, p -adic Analysis, and Zeta-Functions, Neal Koblitz (1984, ISBN 978-0-387-96017-3)

A Course in p-adic Analysis by Alain M Robert

Analytic Elements in P-adic Analysis by Alain Escassut

2.10 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Convergent series (answer for Check your Progress-1 Q)

Differentiability (answer for Check your Progress-2 Q)

Power series (answer for Check your Progress-3 Q)

Locally analytic functions (answer for Check your Progress-4 Q)

UNIT - 3: CHARTS AND ATLASES

STRUCTURE

- 3.0 Objectives
- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Charts And Atlases
- 3.3 The Tangent Space
- 3.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 3.5 Keywords
- 3.6 Questions For Review
- 3.7 References
- 3.8 Answers To Check Your Progress

3.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

Learn, Understand about Charts And Atlases

Learn, Understand about The Tangent Space

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In mathematics, p-adic analysis is a branch of number theory that deals with the mathematical analysis of the functions of p-adic numbers.

Charts And Atlases, The Tangent Space

3.2 CHARTS AND ATLASES

Let M be a Hausdorff topological space.

Definition. A chart for M is a triple (U, p, K_n) consisting of an open subset $U \subset M$ and a map $p : U \rightarrow K_n$ such that:

$p(U)$ is open in K_n ,

$p : U \rightarrow p(U)$ is a homeomorphism.

Two charts (U_1, p_1, K_{n_1}) and (U_2, p_2, K_{n_2}) for M are known compatible if both maps φ^{-1}

$$p_1(U_1 \cap U_2) \xrightarrow{\varphi^{-1}} p_2(U_1 \cap U_2) \xrightarrow{\varphi^{-1}}$$

are locally analytic.

We note that the condition in part ii. of the above definition makes sense since $p_1(U_1 \cap U_2)$ is open in K_{n_1} . If (U, p, K_n) is a chart then the open subset U is known its domain of definition and the integer $n > 0$ its dimension. Usually we omit the vector space K_n from the notation and simply write (U, p) instead of (U, p, K_n) . If x is a point in U then (U, p) is also known a chart around x .

Theorem. Let (U_j, p_j, K_{n_j}) for $j=1, 2$ be two compatible charts for M ; if $U_1 \cap U_2 \neq \emptyset$ then $n_1 = n_2$.

Proof. Let $x \in U_1 \cap U_2$ and put $x_i := p_i(x)$. We consider the locally analytic maps

$$f := \varphi^{-1} \circ \varphi^{-1}$$

$$p_1(U_1 \cap U_2) \xrightarrow{\varphi^{-1}} p_2(U_1 \cap U_2)$$

$$g := \varphi \circ \varphi^{-1}$$

They are differentiable and inverse to each other, and $x_2 = f(x_1)$. Hence, by the chain rule, the derivatives

$$D_x f$$

$$K_{n_1} \xrightarrow{D_x f} K_{n_2}$$

$$D_x g$$

are linear maps inverse to each other. It follows that $n_1 = n_2$.

Definition. An atlas for M is a set $\mathcal{A} = \{(U_i, p_i, K_{n_i})\}_{i \in I}$ of charts for M any two of which are compatible and which cover M in the sense that $M = \bigcup_{i \in I} U_i$.

Two atlases \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} for M are known equivalent if $\mathcal{A} \cup \mathcal{B}$ also is an atlas for M .

Notes

An atlas A for M is known maximal if any equivalent atlas B for M satisfies $B \subset A$.

Remark. The equivalence of atlases indeed is an equivalence relation.

In each equivalence class of atlases there is exactly one maximal atlas.

Proof. Let A , B , and C be three atlases such that A is equivalent to B and B is equivalent to C . Then A is equivalent to C if we show that any chart (U_1, φ_1) in A is compatible with any chart (U_2, φ_2) in C . By symmetry it suffices to show that the map $\varphi_2 \circ \varphi_1^{-1} : \varphi_1(U_1 \cap U_2) \rightarrow \varphi_2(U_1 \cap U_2)$ is locally analytic in a sufficiently small open neighbourhood of $\varphi_1(x)$ for any point $x \in U_1 \cap U_2$. Since B covers M we find a chart (V, φ) around x in B . By assumption (V, φ) is compatible with both (U_1, φ_1) and (U_2, φ_2) . Then $\varphi^{-1}(U_1 \cap V \cap U_2)$ is an open neighbourhood of $\varphi^{-1}(x)$ in $\varphi^{-1}(U_1 \cap U_2)$ on which the map $\varphi_2 \circ \varphi_1^{-1}$ is the composite of the two locally analytic maps $\varphi_2 \circ \varphi^{-1}$ and $\varphi \circ \varphi_1^{-1}$. Hence it is locally analytic.

If the given equivalence class consists of the atlases A_j for $j \in J$ then $A := \bigcup_{j \in J} A_j$ is the unique maximal atlas in this class.

Theorem If A is a maximal atlas for M the domains of definition of all the charts in A form a basis of the topology of M .

Proof. Let $U \subset M$ be an open subset. We have to show that U is the union of the domains of definition of the charts in some subset of A , or equivalently that for any point $x \in U$ we find a chart (U_x, φ_x) around x in A such that

$U_x \subset U$. Since A covers M we at least find a chart (U'_x, φ'_x) around x in A . We put $U_x := U'_x \cap U$ and $\varphi_x := \varphi'_x|_{U_x}$. Clearly (U_x, φ_x) is a chart around x for M such that $U_x \subset U$. We claim that (U_x, φ_x) is compatible with any chart (V, φ) in A . But we do have the locally analytic maps

$$\varphi \circ \varphi_x^{-1}$$

$$\varphi_x^{-1}(\varphi_x(u) \cap \varphi^{-1}(v)) = \varphi_x^{-1}(\varphi(u) \cap v)$$

$$\varphi_x^{-1} \circ \varphi^{-1} \circ \varphi$$

which restrict to the locally analytic maps

ρ^{α_1}

$\rho^{\alpha_1}(U \times V) : \rho^{\alpha_1}(U \times V)$.

ρ^{α_1}

Hence $B := \rho^{\alpha_1}(U \times V)$ is an atlas equivalent to A . The maximality of A then implies that $B \subset A$ and a fortiori $(U, \rho^{\alpha_1}) \in A$.

Definition. An atlas A for M is known n -dimensional if all the charts in A with nonempty domain of definition have dimension n .

Remark Let A be an n -dimensional atlas for M ; then any atlas B equivalent to A is n -dimensional as well.

Proof. Let (V, ρ^{α_1}) be any chart in B and choose a point $x \in V$. We find a chart (U, ρ^{α_2}) in A around x . Since A and B are equivalent these two charts have to be compatible and dimension n .

Definition. A (locally analytic) manifold (M, A) (over K) is a Hausdorff topological space M equipped with a maximal atlas A . The manifold is known n -dimensional (we write $\dim M = n$) if the atlas A is n -dimensional.

By abuse of language we usually speak of a manifold M while considering A as given implicitly. A chart for M will always mean a chart in A .

Example. K^n will always denote the n -dimensional manifold whose maximal atlas is equivalent to the atlas $\{(U, \rho^{\alpha_1}) : U \subset K^n \text{ open}\}$.

Remark Let $(U, \rho^{\alpha_1}, K^n)$ be a chart for the manifold M ; if $V \subset U$ is an open subset then $(V, \rho^{\alpha_1}|_V, K^n)$ also is a chart for M .

Proof. This was shown in the course

Let (M, A) be a manifold and $U \subset M$ be an open subset. Then

$A_U := \{(V, \rho^{\alpha_1}|_V, K^n) \in A : V \subset U\}$,

Notes

by an atlas for U . We claim that A_U is maximal. Let (V_0, θ_0) be a chart for U which is compatible with any chart in A_U . To observe that $(V_0, \theta_0) \in A_U$ it suffices, by the maximality of A , to show that (V_0, θ_0) is compatible with any chart (V, θ) in A . That implies $(\bigcap U, \theta|_{\bigcap U})$ is a chart in A and hence in A_U . By assumption (V_0, θ_0) is compatible with $(\bigcap U, \theta|_{\bigcap U})$. Since $V_0 \cap V \subset \bigcap U$ the compatibility of (V_0, θ_0) with (V, θ) follows trivially. The manifold (U, A_U) is known an open submanifold of (M, A) .

As a nontrivial example of a manifold we discuss the d -dimensional projective space $P^d(K)$ over K . We recall that $P^d(K) = (K^{d+1} \setminus \{0\}) / \sim$ is the set of equivalence classes in $K^{d+1} \setminus \{0\}$ for the equivalence relation

$$(a^1, \dots, a^{d+1}) \sim (ca^1, \dots, ca^{d+1}) \text{ for any } c \in K \setminus \{0\}.$$

As usual we write $[a^1 : \dots : a^{d+1}]$ for the equivalence class of (a^1, \dots, a^{d+1}) . With respect to the quotient topology from $K^{d+1} \setminus \{0\}$ the projective space $P^d(K)$ is a Hausdorff topological space. For any $1 \leq j \leq d+1$ we have the open subset

$$U_j := \{ [a^1 : \dots : a^{d+1}] \in P^d(K) : |a^j| > 0 \}$$

together with the homeomorphism

$$\phi_j : U_j \xrightarrow{\sim} B^d(0) \subset K^d$$

$$[a^1 : \dots : a^{d+1}] \mapsto (a^1/a^j, \dots, a^{d+1}/a^j)$$

The $(U_j, \phi_j, B^d(0))$ are charts for $P^d(K)$ such that $\bigcup U_j = P^d(K)$. We claim that they are pairwise compatible. For $1 \leq j < k \leq d+1$ the composite

$$f : V := \{ x \in B^d(0) : |x^j| = 1 \} \xrightarrow{\sim} U_j \cap U_k \xrightarrow{\sim} B^d(0) \cap \{ y \in B^d(0) : |y^k| = 1 \}$$

$$f(x^1, \dots, x^d) = (x^1, \dots, x^{j-1}, x^{j+1}, \dots, x^d, x^k).$$

Let $a \in V$ be a fixed but arbitrary point and choose a $0 < \epsilon < 1$. Then $B_\epsilon(a) \subset V$. We consider the power series

$$F(X) := \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (-1)^i a_i X^i$$

$$T^j(Y) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (-1)^i a_i (X_i + a_i)^j \text{ if } 1 - i < j \text{ or } k - i - d, F_i(X) \cdot \dots (X) \cdot \dots$$

$$[(X_{i-1} + a_{i-1})^j \text{ if } j < i < k.$$

Because of $|a_{k-1}| = 1$ we have $F \cdot \dots (F_1, \dots, F_d) \in F \in (K^d; K^d)$. For $x \in B_\epsilon(a)$ we compute

$$F(x - a) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (-1)^i a_i (x - a)^i = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (-1)^i a_i \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \binom{i}{j} x^j (-a)^{i-j}$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} x^j \sum_{i=j}^{\infty} (-1)^i a_i \binom{i}{j} (-a)^{i-j}$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} x^j \sum_{i=j}^{\infty} (-1)^i a_i \binom{i}{j} (-a)^{i-j}$$

and then

$$f(x) = F(x - a).$$

Hence f is locally analytic. In case $j > k$ the argument is analogous. The above charts therefore form a d -dimensional atlas for $\mathbb{P}^d(K)$.

Exercise. Let (M, A) and (N, B) be two manifolds. Then

$$A \times B = \{ (U \times V, p \times q, K^{m+n}) \mid (U, p, K^m) \in A, (V, q, K^n) \in B \}$$

is an atlas for $M \times N$ with the product topology. We call $M \times N$ equipped with the equivalent maximal atlas the product manifold of M and N .

Let M be a manifold and E be a K -Banach space.

Definition. A function $f : M \rightarrow E$ is known locally analytic if $f \circ p^{-1} \in \text{Can}(p(U), E)$ for any chart (U, p) for M .

Remark Every locally analytic function $f : M \rightarrow E$ is continuous.

Let B be any atlas consisting of charts for M ; a function $f : M \rightarrow E$ is locally analytic if and only if $f \circ p^{-1} \in \text{Can}(p(U), E)$ for any $(U, p) \in B$.

The set $\text{Can}(M, E) :=$ all locally analytic functions $f : M \rightarrow E$

is a K -vector space with respect to pointwise addition and scalar multiplication. It is easy to observe that a list of properties completely

Notes

analogous to the one given in section holds true. In a later section we will come back to a more detailed study of this vector space.

Let now M and N be two manifolds. The following result is immediate.

Theorem. For a map $g : M \rightarrow N$ the following assertions are equivalent: g is continuous and $f \circ g \in \text{Can}(g^{-1}(V), \mathbb{K}^n)$ for any chart (V, f, \mathbb{K}^n) for N ; for any point $x \in M$ there exist a chart (U, ψ, \mathbb{K}^m) for M around x and a chart (V, f, \mathbb{K}^n) for N around $g(x)$ such that $g(U) \subset V$ and $f \circ g \circ \psi^{-1} \in \text{Can}(p(U), \mathbb{K}^n)$.

Definition. A map $g : M \rightarrow N$ is known locally analytic if the equivalent conditions are satisfied.

Theorem. If $g : M \rightarrow N$ is a locally analytic map and E is a \mathbb{K} -Banach space then

$C^k(N, E) \rightarrow C^k(M, E)$ $f \circ g$ is a well-defined \mathbb{K} -linear map

With $L \rightarrow M \rightarrow N$ also $g \circ f : L \rightarrow N$ is a locally analytic map of manifolds.

Example. For any open submanifold U of M the inclusion map $U \rightarrow M$ is locally analytic.

Let $g : M \rightarrow N$ be a locally analytic map; for any open submanifold $V \subset N$ the induced map $g^{-1}(V) \rightarrow V$ is locally analytic.

The two projection maps

$\text{pr}_1 : M \times N \rightarrow M$ and $\text{pr}_2 : M \times N \rightarrow N$ are locally analytic.

For any pair of locally analytic maps $g : L \rightarrow M$ and $f : L \rightarrow N$ the map

$(g, f) : L \rightarrow M \times N$

$x \mapsto (g(x), f(x))$

is locally analytic.

For the remainder of this section we will discuss a certain technical but useful topological property of manifolds. First let X be an arbitrary Hausdorff topological space.

Let $X = \bigcup_{i \in I} U_i$ and $X = \bigcup_{j \in J} V_j$ be two open coverings of X . The second one is known a refinement of the first if for any $j \in J$ there is an $i \in I$ such that $V_j \subset U_i$.

An open covering $X = \bigcup_{i \in I} U_i$ of X is known locally finite if every point $x \in X$ has an open neighbourhood U_x such that the set $\{i \in I : U_x \cap U_i \neq \emptyset\}$ is finite.

The space X is known paracompact, resp. strictly paracompact, if any open covering of X can be refined into an open covering which is locally finite, resp. which consists of pairwise disjoint open subsets.

Remark. Any ultrametric space X is strictly paracompact.

Any compact space X is paracompact.

Proposition For a manifold M the following conditions are equivalent:

M is paracompact; M is strictly paracompact the topology of M can be defined by a metric which satisfies the strict triangle inequality.

Proof. We suppose that M is paracompact. From general topology we recall the following property of paracompact Hausdorff spaces. Let $A \subset M$ be subsets with A closed and U open. Then there is another open subset $V \subset M$ such that

$$A \subset V \subset \bar{V} \subset U.$$

Step 1: We show that the open and closed subsets of M form a basis of the topology. Given a point x in an open subset $U \subset M$ we have to find an open and closed subset $W \subset M$ such that $x \in W \subset U$ we can assume that U is the domain of definition of a chart $(U, \langle p, K^n \rangle)$ for M . As reknown above there is an open neighbourhood $V \subset M$ of x such that $V \subset U$. We then have the vertical homeomorphisms

$$V \xrightarrow{\cong} V \xrightarrow{\cong} \langle p, U \rangle \subset \langle p, K^n \rangle$$

$$p(V) \xrightarrow{\cong} \langle p(V) \rangle \subset \langle p(U) \rangle \subset \langle p, K^n \rangle.$$

Since $\langle p(V) \rangle$ is open in K^n there is a ball $B := B_\epsilon(\langle p(x) \rangle) \subset \langle p(V) \rangle$ around $\langle p(x) \rangle$. We put $W := p^{-1}(B) \subset V$. Clearly $x \in W \subset U$. The ball B is

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open and hence B is open in V and M . But the ball B also is closed in K_n . Hence W is closed in V and therefore in M . This finishes.

Let now $M = \bigcup_{i \in I} U_i$ be a fixed but arbitrary open covering. We can assume after refinement, that any U_i is the domain of definition of some chart for M . By the first step we can even assume, after a further refinement, that each U_i is open and closed in M and is the domain of definition of some chart for M . In particular, each U_i has the topology of an ultrametric space. By assumption we can pick a locally finite refinement $(V_j)_{j \in J}$ of $(U_i)_{i \in I}$. So we have the locally finite open covering

$M = \bigcup_{j \in J} V_j$, and for each $j \in J$ there is an $i(j) \in I$ such that $V_j \subset U_{i(j)}$.

Step 2: We construct a covering $M = \bigcup_{j \in J} W_j$ by open and closed subsets $W_j \subset M$ such that $W_j \subset V_j$ for any $j \in J$. For this purpose we equip J with a well-order (recall that this is a total order on J with the property that each nonempty subset of J has a minimal element - by the axiom of choice such a well-order always exists). We now use transfinite induction to find open and closed subsets $W_j \subset M$ such that

$W_j \subset V_j$ for any $j \in J$, and

$M = (\bigcup_{j < k} W_j) \cup (\bigcup_{j > k} V_j)$ for any $k \in J$.

We fix a $k \in J$ and suppose that the W_j for $j < k$ are constructed already. Claim: $M = (\bigcup_{j < k} W_j) \cup (\bigcup_{j > k} V_j)$.

Let $x \in M$. Since the covering $(V_j)_{j \in J}$ is locally finite the set

$\{ j \in J : x \in V_j \} = \{ j_1 < \dots < j_r \}$

is finite. If $j_r > k$ then $x \in V_{j_r} \subset \bigcup_{j > k} V_j$. If $j_r < k$ then $x \in V_j$ for any $j > j_r$ and the induction hypothesis (property (b) for j_r) implies $x \in \bigcup_{j < j_r} W_j \subset \bigcup_{j < k} W_j$. This establishes the claim.

We observe that the closed subset

$W := M \setminus ((\bigcup_{j < k} W_j) \cup (\bigcup_{j > k} V_j))$

$\bigcup_{j < k} W_j \cup \bigcup_{j > k} V_j$

of M satisfies $W \subset \bigcup_k C_k \subset U$.

Claim: Let (X, d) be an ultrametric space; for any subsets $A \subset U \subset X$ with A closed and U open there exists an open and closed subset $V \subset X$ such that

$$A \subset V \subset U.$$

For any subset $D \subset X$ and any $x \in X$ we put

$$d(x, D) := \inf \{d(x, y) : y \in D\}.$$

The strict triangle inequality implies that the function $d(\cdot, D)$ on X is continuous and that

$$D(\epsilon) := \{x \in X : d(x, D) = \epsilon\},$$

for any $\epsilon > 0$, is open in X . Moreover, $D(0) = \overline{D}$. The closed subsets A and $B := X \setminus U$ of X satisfy $A \cap B = \emptyset$. By the continuity of the functions $d(\cdot, A)$ and $d(\cdot, B)$ the subset $V := \{x \in X : d(x, A) < d(x, B)\}$

is open in X and satisfies $A \subset V \subset U$. Similarly $V' := \{x \in X : d(x, A) > d(x, B)\}$ is open in X . It follows that V as the complement in X of the open subset $V' \cup \bigcup_{\epsilon > 0} (A(\epsilon) \cap B(\epsilon))$ is closed. This establishes the claim. We apply this claim to $W \subset \bigcup_k U_k$ and obtain an open and closed subset $W_k \subset U_k$ such that $W \subset \bigcup_k W_k$. With U_k also W_k is open and closed in M . As $W \subset \bigcup_k W_k$ the index k . It remains to show that the W_j for $j \in J$ actually cover M . Let $x \in M$. As argued before the set $\{j \in J : x \in W_j\} = \{j_1 < \dots < j_r\}$ is finite. Then $x \in W_{j_r}$ for any $j > j_r$. The property (b) for the index j_r therefore implies that $x \in W_{j_r} \subset W_j$. This finishes step 2.

Step 3: At this point we have constructed a locally finite refinement $(W_j)_{j \in J}$ of our initial covering which consists of open and closed subsets $W_j \subset M$.

Claim: $W^L := \bigcup_{j \in L} W_j$, for any subset $L \subset J$, is open and closed in M .

Obviously W^L is open. To observe that its complement $M \setminus W^L$ is open as well let $x \in M \setminus W^L$ be any point. In particular, $x \notin W_j$ for any $j \in L$. Since the covering $(W_j)_{j \in J}$ is locally finite we find an open

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neighbourhood $U_x \cap M$ of x such that the set $\{j \in J : U_x \cap W_j \neq \emptyset\} = \{j_1, \dots, j_s\}$ is finite. Then $U_x \cap (\bigcup_{j \in \{j_1, \dots, j_s\}} W_j)$ is an open neighbourhood of x in $M \setminus W$. This establishes the claim.

We finally define a new index set P by

$P :=$ all nonempty finite subsets of J , and for any $L \in P$ we put

$$W_L := \left(\bigcap_{j \in L} W_j \right) \setminus \left(\bigcup_{j \in J \setminus L} W_j \right).$$

$j \in L, j \in J \setminus L, j \in L$

Clearly any W_L is contained in some W_j . By the above claim each W_L is open and closed in M . To check that $M = \bigcup_{L \in P} W_L$ holds true let $x \in M$ be any point. Then $x \in W_L$ for the finite set $L := \{j \in J : x \in W_j\}$. Moreover, the W_L are pairwise disjoint: Let $L_1 \neq L_2$ be two different indices in P . By symmetry we can assume that there is a $j \in L_1 \setminus L_2$. Then $W_{L_1} \cap W_{L_2} \subseteq W_j$ and $W_{L_2} \subseteq M \setminus W_j$. It follows that $(W_L)_{L \in P}$ is a refinement of our initial covering by pairwise disjoint open subsets. This proves that M is strictly paracompact.

We start with an open covering of M by domains of definition of charts for M . By assumption we can refine it into a covering $M = \bigcup_{i \in I} U_i$ by pairwise disjoint open subsets. According to each U_i also is the domain of definition of some chart for M . In particular, the topology of U_i can be defined by a metric d_i which satisfies the strict triangle inequality. We put

$$d_i(x, y) := \inf_{\gamma} \int_{\gamma} \|\dot{\gamma}\|_{d_i} \quad \text{for any } x, y \in U_i.$$

Obviously we have $d_i(x, y) = d_i(y, x)$ and $d_i(x, y) = 0$ if and only if $x = y$. To observe that d_i satisfies the strict triangle inequality we compute

$$d_i(x, z) = d_i(x, y) + d_i(y, z) < \max(d_i(x, y), d_i(y, z))$$

$$A, \quad 1 + d_i(x, z) < 1 + \max(d_i(x, y), d_i(y, z))$$

$$\leq \max(d_i(x, y), d_i(y, z))$$

$$= \max(d_i(x, y), d_i(y, z))$$

$$\leq 1 + d_i(x, y) + 1 + d_i(y, z).$$

$$= \max(d_i(x, y), d_i(y, z)).$$

Here we have used the simple fact that $t > s > 0$ implies $t(1+s) = t + ts >$

$$t \wedge s \wedge 1 + t > 1 + s^*$$

$s + st = s(1 + t)$ and hence $v + r > 1 +$. For trivial reasons we have $d_i \sim d_i$.

On the other hand

$$d_i \sim 1 \sim d_i$$

and hence, for $0 < \epsilon < 1$,

$d_i(x, y)$ if $x, y \in U_i$ for some $i \in I$, otherwise.

$d_i(x, y) < \epsilon$ if $d_i(x, y)$.

This shows that the metrics d_i and d_i define the same topology on U_i . We note that

$d_i(x, y) < 1$ for any $x, y \in U_i$.

We now define

$$d : M \times M \rightarrow$$

$$(x, y) \rightarrow$$

This is a metric on M . The strict triangle equality

$$d(x, z) = \max(d(x, y), d(y, z))$$

only needs justification if not all three points lie in the same subset U_i . But then the right hand side is > 1 whereas the left hand side is < 1 . We claim that this metric d defines the topology of M . First consider any ball $B_\epsilon(x)$ with respect to d in M . If $\epsilon > 1$ then $B_\epsilon(x) = M$, and if $\epsilon < 1$ then $B_\epsilon(x)$ is open in some U_i . Hence $B_\epsilon(x)$ is open in M . Vice versa let $V \subset M$ be any open subset and let $x \in V$. We choose an $i \in I$ such that $x \in U_i$. Then $V \cap U_i$ is an open neighbourhood of x in U_i . Hence, for some $0 < \epsilon < 1$, the ball $B_\epsilon(x)$ with respect to d (or equivalently d_i) is contained in $V \cap U_i \subset V$.

Corollary. Open submanifolds and product manifolds of paracompact manifolds are paracompact.

Check your Progress-1

Discuss Charts And Atlases

3.3 THE TANGENT SPACE

Let M be a manifold, and fix a point $a \in M$. We consider pairs (c, v) where

$c = (U, \varphi, K^m)$ is a chart for M around a and $v \in K^m$.

Two such pairs (c, v) and (c', v') are known equivalent if we have

$$Dv(a) \circ (P' \circ P^{-1})^{-1}(v) = v'$$

It follows from the chain rule that this indeed defines an equivalence relation.

Definition. A tangent vector of M at the point a is an equivalence class $[c, v]$ of pairs (c, v) as above.

We define

$T_a(M) :=$ set of all tangent vectors of M at a .

Theorem. Let $c = (U, \varphi, K^m)$ and $c' = (U', \varphi', K^m)$ be two charts for M around a ; we then have:

The map

$$dc : K^m \rightarrow T_a(M) \times \mathbb{1} \rightarrow [c, v]$$

is bijective.

Of, $\mathbb{1} \circ dc : K^m \rightarrow K^m$ is a K -linear isomorphism.

Proof. The dimensions of two charts around the same point necessarily coincide.

i. Surjectivity follows from

$$[c'', v''] = [c, Dv, (a)(p \circ p^{-1})(v'')].$$

If $[c, v] = [c, v']$ then $v' = Dv(a)(p \circ p^{-1})(v) = v$. This proves the injectivity. ii. From $[c, v] = [c', D^{\wedge}(a)(p' \circ p^{-1})(v)]$ we deduce that

$$Of, 1 \circ c = Dv(a)(p' \circ p^{-1}).$$

The set $T_a(M)$, has precisely one structure of a topological K -vector space such that the map Of is a K -linear homeomorphism. Because this structure is independent of the choice of the chart c around a .

Definition. The K -vector space $T_a(M)$ is known the tangent space of M at the point a .

Remark. The manifold M has dimension m if and only if $\dim_K T_a(M) = m$ for any $a \in M$.

Let $g : M \rightarrow N$ be a locally analytic map of manifolds. we find charts $c = (U, t, K^m)$ for M around a and $c' = (V, f, K^n)$ for N around $g(a)$ such that $g(U) \subset V$. The composite

$$T_a(g) : T_a(M) \xrightarrow{u} K^m \xrightarrow{Dg(a)} K^n \xrightarrow{Of} T_{g(a)}(N)$$

is a continuous K -linear map. We claim that $T_a(g)$ does not depend on the particular choice of charts. Let $d = (U', \langle p' \rangle)$ and $c' = (V', f)$ be other charts around a and $g(a)$, respectively. Using the identity in the proof as well as the chain rule we compute

$$\begin{aligned} Of \circ Dv(a) \circ (g \circ T^{-1}) \circ c^{-1} \\ = Of \circ D^{\wedge}\{g(a)\} \circ D^{\wedge}(a) \circ (g \circ T^{-1}) \circ Dv\{a\} \circ (Tr \circ T'^{-1})^{-1} \circ Of, 1 \\ = Of \circ Dv(a) \circ (f \circ g \circ t^{-1}) \circ Of, 1. \end{aligned}$$

Definition. $T_a(g)$ is known the tangent map of g at the point a .

Remark. $T_a(\text{id}_M) = \text{id}_{T_a(M)}$.

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Theorem. For any locally analytic maps of manifolds $L \xrightarrow{U} M \xrightarrow{U} N$ we have

$$T_a(g \circ f) = T_a(g) \circ T_a(f) \text{ for any } a \in L.$$

Proposition (Local invertibility) Let $g : M \xrightarrow{U} N$ be a locally analytic map of manifolds, and suppose that $T_a(g) : T_a(M) \xrightarrow{U} T_a(N)$ is bijective for some $a \in M$; then there are open neighbourhoods $U \subset M$ of a and $V \subset N$ of $g(a)$ such that g restricts to a locally analytic isomorphism $g : U \xrightarrow{U} V$ of open submanifolds.

Proof. We find charts $c=(U', p, K_m)$ for M around a and $c=(V', \cdot, K_n)$ for N around $g(a)$ such that $g(U') \subset V'$. We consider the locally analytic function

$$p(U') \cap V' \xrightarrow{\cdot} K_n.$$

By assumption the derivative

$$D_v(a)(\cdot \circ p^{-1}) = 0^{-1} \circ T_a(g) \circ 0_C$$

is bijective therefore implies the existence of open neighbourhoods $W_0 \subset p(U')$ of $p(a)$ and $W_1 \subset K_n$ of $f(g(a))$ such that

$$0 \circ g \circ p^{-1} : W_0 \rightarrow W_1$$

is a locally analytic isomorphism. Hence

$$g : U := p^{-1}(W_0) \xrightarrow{U} V := 0^{-1}(W_0)$$

is a locally analytic isomorphism as well (observe the subsequent exercise).

Exercise. Let (U, p, K_m) be a chart for the manifold M ; then $p : U \rightarrow p(U)$ is a locally analytic isomorphism between the open submanifolds U of M and $p(U)$ of K_m .

Let M be a manifold, E be a K -Banach space, $f \in \text{Can}(M, E)$, and $a \in M$. If $c=(U, p, K_m)$ is a chart for M around a then $f \circ p^{-1} \in \text{Can}(p(U), E)$. Hence

$d_a f : T_a(M) \rightarrow K^m \rightarrow D_a f \rightarrow E$

$[c, v] \in D_v \{ \circ \} (f \circ p^{-1})(v)$

is a continuous K -linear map. If $c' = (U', p', K^m)$ is another chart around a then

$$D^{c'}(f \circ p^{-1}) \circ (p' \circ p^{-1})^{-1} = D^{c'}(f \circ p^{-1}) \circ D^{c'}(p' \circ p^{-1})^{-1} = D^{c'}(f \circ p^{-1}) \circ 1 = D^{c'}(f \circ p^{-1}) \circ 1.$$

This shows that $d_a f$ does not depend on the choice of the chart c .

Definition. $d_a f$ is known the derivative of f in the point a .

Remark For $\epsilon = K^r$ viewed as a manifold and for the chart $c_0 = (K^r, \text{id}, \epsilon)$ for ϵ we have

$T_a(f) = d_a f$.

Obviously the map

$\text{Can}(M, \epsilon) \rightarrow L(T_a(M), \epsilon)$

$f \mapsto d_a f$ is K -linear.

Let $u : E_1 \times E_2 \rightarrow E$ be a continuous bilinear map between K -Banach spaces; if $f_i \in \text{Can}(M, E_i)$ for $i=1, 2$ then $u(f_1, f_2) \in \text{Can}(M, E)$ and

$d_a(u(f_1, f_2)) = u(d_a f_1, f_2(a)) + u(f_1(a), d_a f_2)$ for any $a \in M$.

For $g \in \text{Can}(M, K)$ and $f \in \text{Can}(M, E)$ we have

$d_a(gf) = g(a) d_a f + d_a g \cdot f(a)$ for any $a \in M$.

Proof It is a straightforward consequence of that the function $u(f_1, f_2)$ is locally analytic. Let $c = (U, \text{id})$ be a chart of M around a . Using the product rule in we compute

$$d_a(u(f_1, f_2))([c, v] \in D_v \{ \circ \} (u(f_1, f_2) \circ p^{-1})(v))$$

$$= D_a(u(f_1 \circ p^{-1}, f_2 \circ p^{-1}))(v)$$

$$= u(f_1 \circ p^{-1}(p(a)), D_v \{ \circ \} (f_2 \circ p^{-1})(v))$$

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$$+ u (DV(a) (f_1 \circ p^{-1})(v), f_2 \circ p^{-1}(p(a)))$$

$$= u (f_1(a), df_2([c, v])) + u(df_1([c, v]), f_2(a)).$$

This is a special case of the first assertion.

Let $c=(U, p, K_m)$ be a chart for M . On the one hand, by definition, we have df_p for any $a \in U$; in particular

$$df_p : T_a(M) \rightarrow K_m$$

is a K -linear isomorphism. On the other hand viewing $f=(f_1, \dots, f_m)$ as a tuple of locally analytic functions $f_i : U \rightarrow K$ we have

$$df_p=(df_{p_1}, \dots, df_{p_m}).$$

This means that $\{df_{p_i}\}_{1 \leq i \leq m}$ is a K -basis of the dual vector space $T_a(M)'$. Let

$\{(Id_{K_i}) \circ a\}_{1 \leq i \leq m}$ denote the corresponding dual basis of $T_a(M)$,

$$df_{p_i}(\{d_j \circ a\}) = \delta_{ij} \text{ for any } a \in U$$

where δ_{ij} is the Kronecker symbol. For any $f \in \text{Can}(M, \epsilon)$ we define the functions

$$f : U \rightarrow E$$

$$a \circ df_p(\circ) \circ a).$$

Theorem. $J_f \in \text{Can}(U, \epsilon)$ for any $1 \leq i \leq m$, and

$$df_p \circ J_f = \sum_{i=1}^m df_{p_i} \circ \delta_i \circ a \text{ for any } a \in U.$$

Proof. We have

$$J_f \circ a = D_s' a (f \circ f^{-1}) \circ (f_c^{-1})'(\circ) \circ a)$$

$$= D_s' a (f \circ f^{-1}) \circ (e_i)$$

where e_1, \dots, e_m denotes the standard basis of K_m . Hence J_f is the composite

$$U \xrightarrow{f} U \xrightarrow{D_x f} L(K_m, \epsilon) \xrightarrow{i} \epsilon.$$

The function in the middle is locally analytic. Clearly, $D_i \cdot D(e_i)$ is a continuous K -linear map. Hence the composite of the right two maps is locally analytic by the property. That the full composite df is locally analytic.

Let

$$t = \sum c_i (s_i) \in T_a(M)$$

be an arbitrary vector. By the definition of the dual basis we have $c_i = \langle t, s_i \rangle$. We now compute

$$df(t) = \sum c_i df(s_i) = \sum \langle t, s_i \rangle \cdot (a)$$

In a next step we want to show that the disjoint union

$$T(M) := \bigcup T_a(M)$$

$$a \in M$$

in a natural way is a manifold again. We introduce the projection map

$$p_M : T(M) \rightarrow M$$

$$t \mapsto a \text{ if } t \in T_a(M).$$

$$\text{Hence } T_a(M) = p_M^{-1}(a).$$

Consider any chart $c = (U, \langle p, K^m \rangle)$ for M . The map

$$T_c : U \times K^m \rightarrow p_M^{-1}(U)$$

$$(a, v) \mapsto [c, v] \text{ viewed in } T_a(M)$$

is bijective. Hence the composite

$$p_c : p_M^{-1}(U) \rightarrow U \times K^m \rightarrow U \times K^m \times K^m = K^{2m}$$

is a bijection onto an open subset in K^{2m} . The idea is that

$$c_t := (p_M^{-1}(U), \langle c, K^{2m} \rangle)$$

should be a chart for the manifold $T(M)$ yet to be constructed. Clearly we have

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$$T(M) = \cup p^{-1}(U)$$

$$c = (U, \varphi, K)$$

Let $c = (V, \psi, K)$ be another chart for M such that $U \cap V \neq \emptyset$. The composed map

$$p^{-1}(U \cap V) \times K \xrightarrow{\quad} p^{-1}(U \cap V) \times K \xrightarrow{\quad} p^{-1}(U \cap V) \times K$$

is given by

$$(x, v) \mapsto (\varphi^{-1}(x), D\varphi^{-1}(v)).$$

The first component $\varphi^{-1} \circ p^{-1}$ of this map is locally analytic on $p^{-1}(U \cap V)$ since M is a manifold. The second component can be viewed as the composite

$$p^{-1}(U \cap V) \times K \xrightarrow{\quad} L(K, K) \times K \xrightarrow{\quad} K \xrightarrow{\quad} K$$

$$(x, v) \mapsto (D\varphi^{-1}(v), \varphi^{-1}(x) - \psi^{-1}(v)).$$

The left function is locally analytic. The right bilinear map is continuous. Hence the composite is locally analytic. This shows that, once c_U and c_V are recognized as charts for $T(M)$ with respect to a topology yet to be defined, they in fact are compatible, and hence that the set $\{c_U : c_V\}$ is an atlas for $T(M)$.

We have shown in particular that the composed map $T \circ T^{-1} : T \circ T^{-1} \rightarrow T \circ T^{-1}$

$$(U \cap V) \times K \xrightarrow{\quad} (U \cap V) \times K \xrightarrow{\quad} (U \cap V) \times K$$

Definition. A subset $X \subset T(M)$ is known open if $t^{-1}(X \cap p^{-1}(U))$ is open in $U \times K$ for any chart $c = (U, \varphi, K)$ for M .

This defines the finest topology on $T(M)$ which makes all composed maps $U \times K \rightarrow p^{-1}(U) \rightarrow T(M)$ continuous.

Theorem. The map $t_c : U \times K \rightarrow p^{-1}(U)$ is a homeomorphism with respect to the subspace topology induced by $T(M)$ on $p^{-1}(U)$.

The map p_M is continuous.

The topological space $T(M)$ is Hausdorff.

Proof. The continuity of tc holds by construction. Let $Y \subset U \times \mathbb{K}^m$ be an open subset. We will show that $tc(Y)$ is open in $T(M)$, i.e., that $t^{-1}(tc(Y) \cap p_M^{-1}(V))$ is open in $V \times \mathbb{K}^m$ for any chart $c=(V, \alpha, \mathbb{K}^n)$ for M .

We can of course assume that $U \cap V = \emptyset$ so that $n=m$. Clearly the subset $Y \cap ((U \cap V) \times \mathbb{K}^m)$ is open in $(U \cap V) \times \mathbb{K}^m$. By the subset

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha^{-1}(Y \cap ((U \cap V) \times \mathbb{K}^m)) &= t^{-1}(Y \cap p_M^{-1}(V)) \\ &= Tc \cap \bigcap_{V \subset V} (Y \cap p_M^{-1}(V)) = Tc \cap \bigcap_{V \subset V} (Y \cap p_M^{-1}(V)) \end{aligned}$$

is open in $(U \cap V) \times \mathbb{K}^m$ and therefore in $V \times \mathbb{K}^m$.

The above reasoning for $Y=U \times \mathbb{K}^m$ shows that $tc(Y) = p_M^{-1}(U)$ is open in $T(M)$ where U is the domain of definition of any chart for M . It then follows from that p_M is continuous.

Let s and t be two different points in $T(M)$. Case 1: We have $p_M(s) \neq p_M(t)$. Since M is Hausdorff we find open neighbourhoods $U \subset M$ of $p_M(s)$ and $V \subset M$ of $p_M(t)$ such that $U \cap V = \emptyset$. Then $p_M^{-1}(U)$ and $p_M^{-1}(V)$ are open neighbourhoods of s and t , respectively, such that $p_M^{-1}(U) \cap p_M^{-1}(V) = p_M^{-1}(U \cap V) = \emptyset$. Case 2: We have $a := p_M(s) = p_M(t)$. We choose a chart $c=(U, \alpha, \mathbb{K}^n)$ for M around a . The two points s and t lie in the open subset $p_M^{-1}(U)$ of $T(M)$. But the subspace $p_M^{-1}(U)$ is homeomorphic, via the map tc , to the Hausdorff space $U \times \mathbb{K}^m$. Hence $p_M^{-1}(U)$ is Hausdorff and s and t can be separated by open neighbourhoods in $p_M^{-1}(U)$ and a fortiori in $T(M)$.

The particular says that tc indeed is a chart for $T(M)$. Altogether we now have established that $\{c_T : c \text{ a chart for } M\}$ is an atlas for $T(M)$. We always view $T(M)$ as a manifold with respect to the equivalent maximal atlas.

Definition. The manifold $T(M)$ is known the tangent bundle of M .

Remark. If M is m -dimensional then $T(M)$ is $2m$ -dimensional.

Theorem. The map $p_M : T(M) \rightarrow M$ is locally analytic.

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Proof. Let $c=(U, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle, K_m)$ be a chart for M . It suffices to contemplate the commutative diagram

$$T(M) \xrightarrow{p_M} U \times K_m$$

$$Ac(p_M(U)) = A(U) \times K_m \xrightarrow{K_2} U \times K_m$$

Let $g : M \rightarrow N$ be a locally analytic map of manifolds. We define the map

$$T(g) : T(M) \rightarrow T(N)$$

by

$$T(g)|_{T_a(M)} := T_a(g) \text{ for any } a \in M.$$

In particular, the diagram

$$T(M) \xrightarrow{T(g)} T(N)$$

$$p_M \xrightarrow{p_N}$$

$$M \xrightarrow{g} N$$

is commutative.

Proposition The map $T(g)$ is locally analytic.

For any locally analytic maps of manifolds $L \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} N$ we have

$$T(g \circ f) = T(g) \circ T(f).$$

Proof We choose charts $c=(U, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle, K_m)$ for M and $c=(V, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle, K_n)$ for N such that $g(U) \subset V$. The composite

$$T(U) \times K_m \xrightarrow{p_M} U \times K_m \xrightarrow{p_N} U \times K_n \xrightarrow{p_N} U \times K_n$$

$$(x, v) \mapsto U \times K_n \xrightarrow{p_N} U \times K_n \xrightarrow{p_N} U \times K_n$$

is locally analytic by the same argument as for $T(g)$.

Remark. If $U \subset M$ is an open submanifold then $T(C)$ induces an isomorphism between $T(U)$ and the open submanifold $\{U\}$.

ii. For any two manifolds M and N the map

$T(\text{pr}_1) \times T(\text{pr}_2) : T(M \times N) \rightarrow T(M) \times T(N)$ is an isomorphism of manifolds.

Now let M be a manifold and E be a K -Banach space. For any $f \in \text{Can}(M, E)$ we define

$$df : T(M) \rightarrow E$$

$$t \mapsto d_x f(t)$$

Theorem. We have $df \in \text{Can}(T(M), E)$.

Proof. Let $c = (U, \rho, K_M)$ be a chart for M .

The composed map

$$\rho(U) \times K_M \rightarrow U \xrightarrow{\rho^{-1}} M \xrightarrow{f} E$$

is given by

$(x, v)_i \mapsto D_x(f \circ \rho^{-1})(v)$ and hence is locally analytic by the same argument.

Theorem. Let $g : M \rightarrow N$

be a locally analytic map of manifolds; for any $f \in \text{Can}(N, E)$ we have

$$d(f \circ g) = df \circ T(g)$$

Exercise. The map

$$d : \text{Can}(M, E) \rightarrow \text{Can}(T(M), E)$$

$f \mapsto df$

is K -linear.

Remark. If K has characteristic zero then a function $f \in \text{Can}(M, E)$ is locally constant if and only if $df = 0$.

Proof. Let $c = (U, \rho)$ be any chart for M . As can be observed from the proof of $\rho^* M^1$

Notes

$x \in p^{-1}(U)$. By the latter is equivalent to $f \circ p^{-1}$ being locally constant on $p^{-1}(U)$ which, of course, is the same as f being locally constant on U .

Definition. Let $U \subset M$ be an open subset; a vector field f on U is a locally analytic map $f : U \rightarrow T(M)$ which satisfies $p_* \circ f = \text{id}^*$.

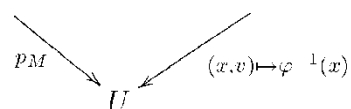
We define

$\mathfrak{r}(U, T(M)) :=$ set of all vector fields on U .

$\mathfrak{r}(u, T(u)) = \mathfrak{r}(u, T(u))$.

Suppose that U is the domain of definition of some chart $c = (U, \gamma, K^m)$ for M . Because of the commutative diagram

$p^{-1}(U) \xrightarrow{\gamma} U \times K^m$



the map

$\text{Can}(U, K^m) \rightarrow \mathfrak{r}(U, T(M))$

$f \mapsto \{f(a) := f(a)\} = T_c(a)(f(a))$

is bijective. The left hand side is a K -vector space. On the right hand side this vector space structure corresponds to the pointwise addition and scalar multiplication of maps which makes sense since each $T_a(M)$ is a K -vector space. The latter we can define on any open subset $U \subset M$. For any $c \in K$ and $\{f, n\} \in \mathfrak{r}(U, T(M))$ we define

$(cf)(a) := c\{f(a)\}$ and $(f+n)(a) := \{f(a)\} + n(a)$.

Obviously the result are again maps $f : U \rightarrow T(M)$ satisfying $p_* \circ f = \text{id}^*$. But since U can be covered by domains of definition of charts for M the above discussion actually implies that these maps are locally analytic again. We observe that

$\mathfrak{r}(U, T(M))$ is a K -vector space.

We have the bilinear map

$r(M, T(M)) \times \text{Can}(M, E) \rightarrow \text{Can}(M, E)$

$(f, g) \mapsto D(f) := d \circ f$.

Theorem. Let $u : E_1 \times E_2 \rightarrow E$ be a continuous bilinear map between K -Banach spaces; for any $f \in r(M, T(M))$ and $g \in \text{Can}(M, E_j)$ we have

$$D(u(f, g)) = u(D(f), g) + u(f, D(g)).$$

Corollary For any vector field $f \in r(M, T(M))$ the map $Df : \text{Can}(M, K) \rightarrow \text{Can}(M, K)$

is a derivation, i.e.:

Df is K -linear,

$$Df(fg) = Df(f)g + fDf(g) \text{ for any } f, g \in \text{Can}(M, K).$$

Proposition. Suppose that M is paracompact; then for any derivation D on $\text{Can}(M, K)$ there is a unique vector field f on M such that $D = Df$.

The proof requires some preparation. In the following we always assume M to be paracompact. At first we fix a point $a \in M$. A K -linear map $A : \text{Can}(M, K) \rightarrow K$ will be known an a -derivation if

$$A(fg) = A(f)g(a) + f(a)A(g) \text{ for any } f, g \in \text{Can}(M, K).$$

The a -derivations form a K -vector subspace

$\text{Der}_a(M, K)$

of the dual vector space $\text{Can}(M, K)^*$.

Theorem. Suppose that M is paracompact, and let A be an a -derivation; if $f \in \text{Can}(M, K)$ is constant in a neighbourhood of the point a then $A(f) = 0$.

Proof. Case 1: We assume that f vanishes in the neighbourhood $U \subset M$ of a . We can assume that U is open and closed in M . Then the function

if $x \in U$,

$$g(x) := |0 \text{ if } x \in U$$

Notes

lies in $\text{Can}(M, K)$ and satisfies $gf=f$. It follows that

$$A(f) = A(gf) = A(g)f(a) + g(a)A(f) = 0.$$

Case 2: We assume that f is constant on M with value c . Let 1_M denote the constant function with value one on M . Then $f = c1_M$ and hence

$$A(f) = cA(1_M) = cA(1_M 1_M) = cA(1_M) + cA(1_M) = 2cA(1_M) = 2A(f)$$

which means $A(f) = 0$.

Case 3: In general we write

$$f = f(a)1_M + (f - f(a)1_M)$$

and use the K -linearity of A together with the first two cases.

As a consequence of the product rule we have the K -linear map

$$(10) \text{Ta}(M) \xrightarrow{\wedge} \text{Der}_{\wedge}(M, K)$$

$$t \mapsto \text{At}(f) := \text{d}f(t).$$

$$\text{The map } i = i_g : G \rightarrow G^1$$

$$g^1 \rightarrow g$$

is a locally analytic isomorphism (of manifolds).

Because of $i^2 = \text{id}_G$ it suffices to show that the map i is locally analytic. To do so we use the bijective locally analytic map

$$g : G \times G \rightarrow G \times G$$

$$(x, y) \mapsto (xy, y).$$

We claim that the tangent map $T_{(g, h)}(g)$, for any $g, h \in G$, is bijective.

$$T_{(g, h)}(G \times G) \xrightarrow{T(g, h)} T_{(gh, h)}(G \times G)$$

$$T_{(g, h)}(G \times G) \xrightarrow{T(g, h)} T_{(gh, h)}(G \times G)$$

$$T_{g_h}(G) \times T_h(G)$$

in which the lower horizontal arrow is given by

$$(t_1, t_2)^j \mapsto (Tg(rh)(t_1) + Th(lg)(t_2), t_2)$$

is commutative. Suppose that (t_1, t_2) lies in the kernel of this latter map. Then $t_2=0$ and hence $0 = Tg(rh)(t_1) + Th(lg)(t_2) = Tg(rh)(t_1)$. The analog for the right multiplication implies that $t_1=0$. We observe that this lower horizontal map and therefore $T(g, h)(g)$ are injective. But all vector spaces in the diagram have the same finite dimension. Our claim that $T(g, h)(p)$ is bijective follows. We now can apply the criterion for local invertibility and we conclude that the inverse \wedge^{-1} is locally analytic as well. It remains to note that i is the composite

Check your Progress – 2

Discuss The Tangent Space

3.4 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have discussed the definition and example of Charts And Atlases, The Tangent Space

3.5 KEYWORDS

Charts And Atlases.... A chart for M is a triple (U, p, K_n) consisting of an open subset $U \subset M$ and a map $p : U \rightarrow K_n$

The Tangent Space..... M be a manifold, and fix a point $a \in M$ consider pairs (c, v)

3.6 QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

Explain Charts And Atlases

Explain The Tangent Space

3.7 REFERENCES

p-adic numbers: an introduction by Fernando Gouvea

p-adic Numbers, p-adic Analysis, and Zeta-Functions, Neal Koblitz
(1984, ISBN 978-0-387-96017-3)

A Course in p-adic Analysis by Alain M Robert

Analytic Elements in P-adic Analysis by Alain Escassut

3.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Charts And Atlases (answer for Check your Progress-1 Q)

The Tangent Space (answer for Check your Progress-2 Q)

UNIT-4:THEORY OF VALUATIONS-I

STRUCTURE

4.0 Objectives

4.1 Introduction

4.2 Theory of valuations-I

4.3 Locally convex k-vector spaces

4.4 Valuation rings and places

4.5 Let Us Sum Up

4.6 Keywords

4.7 Questions For Review

4.8 References

4.8 Answers To Check Your Progress

4.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- Understand about Theory of valuations-I
- Understand about Locally convex k-vector spaces
- Understand about Valuation rings and places

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In mathematics, p-adic analysis is a branch of number theory that deals with the mathematical analysis of the functions of p-adic numbers.

Theory of valuations-I, Locally convex k-vector spaces, Valuation rings and places

4.2 THEORY OF VALUATIONS-I

Proposition. If M is paracompact then it is an isomorphism.

Proof. We fix a chart $c=(U, p, K^m)$ for M around a point a and write $p=(p_1, \dots, p_m)$. Since M is paracompact that U is open and closed in M .

Then each p_i extends by zero to a function $P_i \in \text{Can}(M, K)$. In the discussion

$$d_p = (d_p P_1, \dots, d_p P_m) : T_a(M) \rightarrow K^m$$

is an isomorphism, and we had introduced the K -basis $t := g^{-1}(a)$ of $T_a(M)$.

Injectivity: Let $t \in T_a(M)$ such that $At(f)=0$ for any $f \in \text{Can}(M, K)$. In particular

$$0 = At(p_i) = d_p P_i(t) = d_p P_i(t) \text{ for any } 1 \leq i \leq m.$$

This means $d_p(t) = 0$ and hence $t = 0$.

Surjectivity: From the injectivity which we just have established we deduce that the At_i are linearly independent in $\text{Dera}(M, K)$. It therefore suffices to write an arbitrarily given $A \in \text{Dera}(M, K)$ as a linear combination of the At_i . In fact, we claim that

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^m A(p_i) At_i$$

holds true. Let $f \in \text{Can}(M, K)$. We find an open and closed neighbourhood $V \subset U$ of a such that $p(V) = B_\epsilon(p(a))$ and a power series $F(X) = \sum c_\alpha X^\alpha \in F(K^m; K)$ such that

$$f(x) = F(p(x) - p(a)) \text{ for any } x \in V.$$

We can write

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^m c_i (x^i - p(a)^i) = \sum_{i=1}^m c_i (x^i - p(a)^i) g_i(x) \text{ where } g_i(x) = x^i - p(a)^i$$

for any $x \in V$ where the $g_i \in \text{Can}(V, K)$ are appropriate functions satisfying $g_i(a) = C_i$ (recall that $i = (0, \dots, 1, \dots, 0)$). We know that dF

$$D_V(a)(f \circ \wedge^{-1})(e_i) = dx(0) = C_i$$

where e_1, \dots, e_m denotes, as usual, the standard basis of K^m . We therefore obtain

$$g_i(a) = C_i = D_V\{a\}(f \circ \wedge^{-1})(e_i) = daf(\rho(e_i)).$$

By the construction of the t_i we have $\rho(e_i) = t_i$. It follows that

$$g_i(a) = daf(t_i).$$

On the other hand we extend each g_i by zero to a function $g_i! \in \text{Can}(M, K)$. The function m

$$f - F(\wedge^{-1}(a))g_H$$

is constant (with value $f(a)$) in a neighbourhood of a . We compute

$$A(f) = A(F(\wedge^{-1}(a))g_H)$$

$$M = F A(\langle \rho_i! - \langle \rho_i(a) \rangle g_i(a))$$

$$M = F A(\wedge^{-1}!) daf(t_i)$$

$$M = F A(\wedge^{-1}!) A t_i(f).$$

Since f was arbitrary this establishes our claim.

First of all we note that the relation between derivations and a -derivations on $\text{Can}(M, K)$ is given by the formula

$$D(f)(a) = df(C(a)) = daf(\in(a)) = A^?(a)(f).$$

Therefore if $Dg = 0$ then $Ag(a) = 0$ for any $a \in M$. Then implies that $\{(a) = 0$ for any $a \in M$, i. e., that $\in = 0$. This shows that the \in in our assertion is unique if it exists. For the existence we first fix a point $a \in M$ and consider the a -derivation $A(f) := D(f)(a)$. By there is a tangent vector $\in(a) \in T_a(M)$ such that $A = Ag(a)$. For varying $a \in M$ this gives a map $\in : M \rightarrow T(M)$ which satisfies $p_M \circ \in = \text{id}_M$. It remains to show that \in is

Notes

locally analytic, since $D=Dg$ then is a formal consequence. So let $c=(U, \langle p, Km \rangle)$ be a chart for M . In the proof we have observed that

$$D(f)(a) = \sum_{i=1}^m D(F_i)(a) \cdot \text{Aec}(e_i)(f).$$

It follows that

$$m \in (a) = \sum_{i=1}^m D(p_i)(a) \cdot \text{dc}((D(p_1)(a), \dots, D(p_m)(a))).$$

Using the commutative diagram

$$v_i \rightarrow (a, v)$$

$$Km \times U \times Km$$

$$\text{dc} = \sum_{i=1}^m \text{Ta}(M) \wedge \sum_{i=1}^m \text{Vm}(U)$$

we rewrite this as

$$\in (a) = \sum_{i=1}^m \text{Tc}(a, (D(p_i)(a), \dots, D(p_m)(a))).$$

This means that under the identification discussed after the definition of vector fields we have

$$\in |U| \in / \text{with } f := (D(p_1), \dots, D(p_m)) \in \text{Can}(U, Km).$$

Hence \in is locally analytic.

Theorem. For any derivations $B, C, D : \text{Can}(M, K) \rightarrow \text{Can}(M, K)$ we have:

$$[B, C] := B \circ C - C \circ B \text{ again is a derivation;}$$

$$[,] \text{ is } K\text{-bilinear;}$$

$$[B, B] = 0 \text{ and } [B, C] = -[C, B];$$

$$\text{(Jacobi identity) } [[B, C], D] + [[C, D], B] + [[D, B], C] = 0.$$

Proof. These are straightforward completely formal computations.

Definition. A K -vector space g together with a K -bilinear map

$$[,] : g \times g \rightarrow g$$

which is antisymmetric (i. e., $[z, z]=0$ for any $z \in \mathfrak{g}$) and satisfies the Jacobi identity is known a Lie algebra over K .

If M is paracompact then we can define the Lie product $[\cdot, \cdot]$ of two vector fields $\xi, \eta \in \mathfrak{r}(M, T(M))$ by the requirement that

$D[\xi, \eta] = D\xi \circ \eta - D\eta \circ \xi$ holds true. This makes $\mathfrak{r}(M, T(M))$ into a Lie algebra over K .

Proposition. Suppose that M is paracompact, and let E be a K -Banach space and $\xi, \eta \in \mathfrak{r}(M, T(M))$ be two vector fields; on $C^\infty(M, E)$ we then have

$$D[\xi, \eta] = D\xi \circ \eta - D\eta \circ \xi$$

Proof. Let $f \in C^\infty(M, E)$. We have to show equality of the functions

$$D[\xi, \eta](f) = df \circ [\xi, \eta] \text{ and}$$

$$(D\xi \circ \eta - D\eta \circ \xi)(f) = d(D\xi(f)) \circ \eta - d(D\eta(f)) \circ \xi$$

$$= d(df \circ \eta) \circ \xi - d(df \circ \xi) \circ \eta$$

This, of course, can be done after restriction to the domain of definition U of any chart $c=(U, \langle p, K^m \rangle)$ for M . Since M is paracompact we furthermore need only to consider charts for which U is open and closed in M . Let $\gamma=(\gamma^i, \dots, \gamma^m)$ and denote, as before, by $\xi \in \mathfrak{r}(M, K)$ the extension by zero of $\xi|_U$. We now make use of the following identifications. If $\xi|_U$ denotes the restriction to U of any of the vector fields ξ, η , and $[\xi, \eta]$ then, as discussed after the definition of vector fields

$$P\xi|_U = P(\xi|_U) \times K^m$$

$$\xi|_U(x) = (\xi^i(x), \dots, \xi^m(x))$$

$$u = \xi^i(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}$$

$$P\xi|_U = \xi^i(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \times K^m.$$

These identifications reduce us to proving the equality of the following two functions of $x \in \text{ip}(U)$ given by

Notes

$D_x (f \circ \gamma^{-1}) (g[s, n](x))$ and

$D_x (df \circ \gamma \circ \gamma^{-1}) (g(x)) - D_x (df \circ \gamma \circ \gamma^{-1}) (g'(x))$

$= D_x (D_x (f \circ \gamma^{-1}) (g(\cdot))) (\gamma(x)) - D_x (D_x (f \circ \gamma^{-1}) (\gamma(\cdot))) (g'(x))$, respectively.

By viewing $D_x (f \circ \gamma^{-1})$, resp. $g(\cdot)$ and $g'(\cdot)$, as functions from $\mathbb{R}^n(U)$ into $L(K^m, \mathbb{R})$, resp. into K^m , we can apply the product rule for the continuous bilinear map

$L(K^m, \mathbb{R}) \times K^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad (u, v) \mapsto u(v)$

to both summands in the last expression for and rewrite it as

$= [D_x (D_x (f \circ \gamma^{-1})) (g(x))] (g'(x)) + D_x (f \circ \gamma^{-1}) [D_x g'(g(x))]$

$- [D_x (D_x (f \circ \gamma^{-1}) (g(x))) (g(x)) - D_x (f \circ \gamma^{-1}) [D_x g(g(x))]]$.

To simplify this further we establish the following general

Claim: For any open subset $V \subset K^m$, any point $x \in V$, any vectors $v = (v_1, \dots, v_m)$ and $w = (w_1, \dots, w_m)$ in K^m , and any function $h \in \text{Can}(V, \mathbb{R})$ we have

$D_x (D_x h(v))(w) = D_x (D_x h(w))(v)$.

Note that the function $D_x h(v)$ is the composite

$V \rightarrow U \subset (K^m, \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

We expand h around the point x into a power series

$h(y) = H(y - x)$.

we then have

$\sum_{m \geq 1} \frac{d^m H}{m!} (v) = \sum_{i \geq 1} v_i \frac{d^i H}{i!} (-x)$

and

$\sum_{m \geq 1} \frac{d^m H}{m!} \{ D_x h(v) \} (w) = \sum_{i \geq 1} v_i D_x (d^i H(-x)) (w)$

$\sum_{m \geq 1} \frac{d^m H}{m!} (0)$

$= \sum_{i \geq 1} v_i \sum_{j \geq 1} w_j (d^i H_j d^j H) (0)$

$$\sum_{j=1}^m \sum_{i=1}^m$$

$$m \times m \text{ matrix}$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^m W_j \in \text{vi}(\text{dvi ag H}) (0)$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^m \sum_{i=1}^m i_j$$

$$= D_x (D.h (w)) (v).$$

Applying this claim to we observe that the expression for the function simplifies to

$$D_x (f \circ \langle f^{-1} \rangle) [D_x g v(g(x)) - D_x g(gv(x))].$$

Comparing this with we are reduced to showing that the identity

$$g^{\wedge}, v] (x) = D_x g v(g(x)) - D_x g(gv(x))$$

holds true in $\text{Can} (\wedge^>(U), K_m)$. But in case $\in = K$ our assertion and the whole computation above holds by construction. In particular we have

$$D_x (A_{ii} \circ A^{-1}) (g[e, n](x)) = D_x (A_{ii} \circ A^{-1}) [D_x g^{\wedge}(\gamma(x)) - D_x \gamma(gv(x))] \text{ for any } 1 < i < m. \text{ Since}$$

$$D_x (\wedge^i \circ \wedge^{-1}): K_m \times K (v_1, \dots, v_m) \rightarrow \wedge^i v_i$$

the identity follows immediately.

Remarks. The identity shows that $\text{Can} (V, K_m)$, for any open subset $V \subset K_m$, is a Lie algebra with respect to

$$[f, g] (x) := D_x f(g(x)) - D_x g(f(x)).$$

The identity can be made into a definition of which one then can show that it is compatible with any change of charts for M . In this way a Lie product $[\in, n]$ can be obtained and can be proved even for manifolds which are not paracompact.

The topological vector space $\text{Can} (M, \in)$,

Notes

Throughout this section M is a paracompact manifold and E is a K -Banach space. Following that $\text{Can}(M, E)$ in a natural way is a topological vector space.

To motivate the later construction we first consider a fixed function $f \in \text{Can}(M, E)$. Since M is strictly paracompact we find a family of charts (U_j, p_j, K_{mj}) , for $j \in J$, for M such that the U_j are pairwise disjoint and $M = \bigcup_{j \in J} U_j$. According to Remark the function f is locally analytic if and only if all $f \circ p_j^{-1} : p_j(U_j) \rightarrow E$, for $j \in J$, are locally analytic. For each $p_j(U_j)$ we find balls $B \in \mathcal{B}_v(x_j, v) \subset K_{mj}$ and power series $F_j, v \in \mathcal{F} \in \mathcal{B}_v(K_{mj}; E)$ such that

By refined into a covering by pairwise disjoint balls $B_{sj}(y_j, a)$. Consider a fixed a . We find a v such that $(y_j, a) \in B \in \mathcal{B}_v(x_j, v)$. In fact we then have

$$B_{\min}(S_j, a, e_j, v)(y_j, a) = B_{S_j, a}(y_j, a) \subset B \in \mathcal{B}_v(x_j, v) = B \in \mathcal{B}_v(y_j, a).$$

Hence we can assume that $S_j, a \in S_j, u$. Using we can change F_j, v into a power series $F_j, a \in \mathcal{F}_{S_j, a}(K_{mj}; E)$ such that

$$f \circ p_j^{-1}(x) = F_j, a(x - y_j, a) \text{ for any } x \in B_{S_j, a}(y_j, a).$$

We put $U_j, a := p_j^{-1}(B_{S_j, a}(y_j, a))$. The (U_j, a, p_j, K_{mj}) again are charts for M such that the U_j, a cover M and are pairwise disjoint.

Resume: Given $f \in \text{Can}(M, E)$ there is a family of charts (U_i, p_i, K_{mi}) , for $i \in I$, for M together with real numbers $\epsilon_i > 0$ such that:

$M = \bigcup_{i \in I} U_i$, and the U_i are pairwise disjoint;

if $i \in I$ $(U_i) = B \in \mathcal{B}_{\epsilon_i}(x_i)$ for one (or any) $x_i \in p_i(U_i)$;

there is a power series $F_i \in \mathcal{F}_{\epsilon_i}(K_{mi}; E)$ with

$$f \circ p_i^{-1}(x) = F_i(x - x_i) \text{ for any } x \in p_i(U_i).$$

We note that by the existence of F_i as well as its norm $\|F_i\|_{\epsilon_i}$ is independent of the choice of the point x_i .

Let (c, ϵ) be a pair consisting of a chart $c=(U, f, K_M)$ for M and a real number $\epsilon > 0$ such that $f(U)=B_\epsilon(a)$ for one (or any) $a \in f(U)$. As a consequence of the identity theorem for power series the K -linear map

$$F \in (K_M; \epsilon) \longrightarrow \text{Can}(U, \epsilon)$$

$$F \longmapsto F(A(\cdot)-a)$$

is injective. Let $F(C_{y, \epsilon}) (\epsilon)$ denote its image. It is a K -Banach space with respect to the norm

$$\|f\| = \|F\| \epsilon \text{ if } f(\cdot) = F(f(\cdot)-a).$$

By the pair $(F(c, \epsilon) (\epsilon), \|\cdot\|)$ is independent of the choice of the point a .

Definition. An index for M is a family $I = \{ (c_i, \epsilon_i) \}_{i \in I}$ of charts $c_i = (U_i, (p_i, K_{M_i}))$ for M and real numbers $\epsilon_i > 0$ such that the above conditions (a) and (b) are satisfied.

For any index I for M we have

$$F_i(E) := \bigcap_{a \in U_i} F_i(a, \epsilon_i) (\epsilon) \subset \text{Can}(U_i, \epsilon_i) = \text{Can}(M, \epsilon_i) \text{ for } i \in I$$

Our above result says that

$$\text{Can}(M, \epsilon) = \bigcup_{i \in I} F_i(E)$$

where I runs over all indices for M . Hence $\text{Can}(M, \epsilon)$ is a union of direct products of Banach spaces. This is the starting point for the construction of a topology on $\text{Can}(M, \epsilon)$.

But first we have to discuss the inclusion relations between the subspaces $F_i(E)$ for varying I . Let $I = \{ (c_i = (U_i, f_i, K_{M_i}), \epsilon_i) \}_{i \in I}$ and $J = \{ (d_j = (V_j, \wedge_j, K_{N_j}), S_j) \}_{j \in J}$ be two indices for M .

Definition. The index I is known finer than the index J if for any $i \in I$ there is a $j \in J$ such that:

$$(i) U_i \subset V_j,$$

Notes

ii) there is an $a \in \wedge(U_f)$ and a power series $F_{i,j} \in F \in i(K_{m_i}; K_{n_j})$ with $\|F_{i,j} - F_{i,j}(0)\| \in i \prec S_j$ and

$$f_j \circ \wedge^{-1}(x) = F_{i,j}(x - a) \text{ for any } x \in T_i(U_f).$$

We observe that if the condition (ii) holds for one point $a \in \wedge(U_i)$ then it holds for any other point $b \in \wedge(U_i)$ as well. This follows from which implies that $G_{i,j}(X) := F_{i,j}(X+b - a) \in F \in i(K_{m_i}; K_{n_j})$ with $f_j \circ \wedge^{-1}(x) = G_{i,j}(x - b)$ for any $x \in T_i(U_i)$

and

$$\|G_{i,j} - G_{i,j}(0)\| \in i = \|F_{i,j} - F_{i,j}(0)\| \|X+b - a\| + \|F_{i,j}(0) - G_{i,j}(0)\| \in i$$

$$\prec \max(\|F_{i,j} - F_{i,j}(0)\| \|X+b - a\| \in i, S_j)$$

$$= \max(\|F_{i,j} - F_{i,j}(0)\| \in i, S_j)$$

$$= S_j.$$

Theorem. If I is finer than J then we have $F_j(E) \subset F_j(\in)$.

Proof. Let $f \in F_j(E)$. We have to show that $f|_{U_i} \in F(C_i, \in i) (\in)$ for any $i \in I$. In the following we fix an $i \in I$.

We have $\wedge(U_i) = B \in i(a)$. By assumption we find a $j \in J$ and an $F_{i,j} \in F \in i(K_{m_i}; K_{n_j})$ such that

$$U_i \subset V_j,$$

$$\|F_{i,j} - F_{i,j}(0)\| \in i \prec S_j, \text{ and}$$

$$f_j \circ \wedge^{-1}(x) = F_{i,j}(x - a) \text{ for any } x \in T_i(U_i).$$

We put

$$b := f_j \circ \wedge^{-1}(a) = F_{i,j}(0) \in f_j(V_j).$$

Since $f \in F_j(E)$ we also find a $G_j \in F(K_{n_j}; \in)$ such that

$$f \circ f^{-1}(y) = G_j(y - b) \text{ for any } y \in f_j(V_j) = (b).$$

As a consequence of then the power series

$$F_i := G_j \circ (F_{i,j} - F_{i,j}(0)) \in F \in i(K_{mi}; \epsilon)$$

exists and satisfies

$$F_i(x-a) = G_j(F_{i,j}(x-a) - b) = f \circ f^{-1}(f_j \circ p^{-1}(x)) = f \circ p^{-1}(x) \text{ for any } x \in p_i(U_i).$$

The relation of being finer only is a preorder. If the index I is finer than the index J and J is finer than I one cannot conclude that $I=J$.

But it does follow that $F_x(E) = F_j(\epsilon)$ which is sufficient for our purposes

Theorem. For any two indices J_1 and J_2 for M there is a third index I for M which is finer than J_1 and J_2 .

Proof. Let $J_1 = \{((U_i, p_i, K_{ni}), e_i) \mid i \in I\}$ and $J_2 = \{((V_j, f_j, K_{mj}), S_j) \mid j \in J\}$. We have the covering

$$M = \bigcup_i U_i \cap \bigcup_j V_j$$

by pairwise disjoint open subsets. For any pair $(i, j) \in I \times J$ the function

$$f_j \circ p^{-1} : p_i(U_i \cap V_j) \rightarrow K_{mj}$$

is locally analytic. Hence we can cover $p_i(U_i \cap V_j)$ by a family of balls $B_{i,j,k} = (a_{i,j,k}, r_{i,j,k})$ such that $r_{i,j,k} < \min(e_i, S_j)$, and

there is a power series $F_{i,j,k} \in F_{p_{ijk}}(K_{ni}; K_{mj})$ with

$$f_j \circ p^{-1}(x) = F_{i,j,k}(x - a_{i,j,k}) \text{ for any } x \in B_{i,j,k}.$$

Using the fact that

$$\|F_{i,j,k} - F_{i,j,k}(0)\| \ll \|f_j \circ p^{-1}(x) - F_{i,j,k}(0)\| \text{ for any } 0 < a < r_{i,j,k}$$

together with we can, after possibly decreasing the $r_{i,j,k}$, assume in addition that

$$\|F_{i,j,k} - F_{i,j,k}(0)\| \ll r_{i,j,k} < S_j.$$

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After a possible further refinement based on (compare the argument for the resume at the beginning of this section) we finally achieve that the $B_{i,j,k}$ are pairwise disjoint. We put

$$W_{i,j,k} := A \setminus (B_{i,j,k})$$

and obtain the index $I := \{ (W_{i,j,k}, \langle f_i, K_{i,j,k} \rangle) \mid i, j, k \text{ for } M \}$. By construction I is finer than J_2 .

Moreover, observing that $\iota_{i,j,k} : W_{i,j,k} \rightarrow M \setminus K_{i,j,k}$ is the inclusion map and that $\langle f_i, K_{i,j,k} \rangle \subset \langle f_i, K_{i,j} \rangle$ we observe that I is finer than J_1 for trivial reasons.

Given any index I for M we consider $F_X(\epsilon) = \bigcap_{i \in I} F(C_i, \epsilon_i)$ (ϵ) from now on as a topological K -vector space with respect to the product topology of the Banach space topologies on the $F(C_i, \epsilon_i)$ (ϵ). Obviously $F_X(E)$ is Hausdorff. But it is not a Banach space if I is infinite. Suppose that the topology of $F_X(E)$ can be defined by a norm. The corresponding unit ball $B_1(0)$ is open. By the definition of the product topology there exist finitely many indices $i_1, \dots, i_r \in I$ such that

$$B_1(0) \subset \bigcap_{i=1}^r F(C_{i_j}, \epsilon_{i_j}) \times \{0\} \times \dots \times \{0\} \subset F_X(\epsilon).$$

$$i=1, \dots, r$$

As a vector subspace the left hand side then necessarily is contained in any ball $B_\epsilon(0)$ for $\epsilon > 0$. The intersection of the latter being equal to $\{0\}$ it follows that I is finite.

Theorem If I is finer than J then the inclusion map $F_J(E) \rightarrow F_I(E)$ is continuous.

Proof. For any $i \in I$ there exists, by assumption, a $j(i) \in J$ such that the conditions (i) and (ii) in the definition of "finer" are satisfied. The inclusion map in question can be viewed as the map

$$\bigcap_{j \in J} F(C_j, \epsilon_j) \rightarrow \bigcap_{i \in I} F(C_i, \epsilon_i)$$

$$\bigcap_{j \in J} F(C_j, \epsilon_j) \rightarrow \bigcap_{i \in I} F(C_i, \epsilon_i)$$

Hence it suffices to show that each individual restriction map

$F(d(i), 0(i))(\epsilon) = M F(c_i, e_i)(\epsilon)$

is continuous. But we even know from Prop. 5.4 that the operator norm of this map is < 1 .

We point out that, for I finer than J , the topology of $F_j(\epsilon)$ in general is strictly finer than the subspace topology induced by $F_x(\epsilon)$.

In the present situation there is a certain universal procedure to construct from the topologies on all the $F_x(E)$ a topology on their union $\text{Can}(M, \epsilon) = \bigcup F_x(\epsilon)$. Since this construction takes place within the class of locally convex topologies we first need to review this concept in the next section.

Check your Progress-1

Discuss Theory of valuations-I

4.3 LOCALLY CONVEX K-VECTOR SPACES

This section serves only as a brief introduction to the subject. The reader who is interested in more details is referred to Let E be any K -vector space.

Definition. A (nonarchimedean) seminorm on E is a function $q : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that for any $v, w \in E$ and any $a \in K$ we have:

$$q(av) = |a| q(v),$$

$$q(v+w) \leq \max(q(v), q(w)).$$

It follows immediately that a seminorm q also satisfies:

$$q(0) = |0| q(0) = 0;$$

$$q(v) = \max(q(v), q(-v)) > q(v - v) = q(0) = 0 \text{ for any } v \in E;$$

Notes

$q(v+w) = \max(q(v), q(w))$ for any $v, w \in E$ such that $q(v) = q(w) \implies q(v - w) < q(v) \implies q(w) < q(v - w)$ for any $v, w \in E$.

Let $(q_i)_{i \in I}$ be a family of seminorms on E . We consider the coarsest topology on E such that:

All maps $q_i : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, for $i \in I$, are continuous,

all translation maps $v + \cdot : E \rightarrow E$, for $v \in E$, are continuous.

It is known the topology defined by $(q_i)_{i \in I}$. For any finitely many q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_r} and any $w \in E$ and $\epsilon > 0$ we define

$$B \in (q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_r}; w) := \{ v \in E : q_{i_1}(v - w), \dots, q_{i_r}(v - w) < \epsilon \}.$$

The following properties are obvious:

$$B \in (q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_r}; w) = B \in (q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_r}; w) \cap B \in (q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_r}; w);$$

$B \in (q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_r}; w) \cap B \in (q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_r}; w) = \bigcup_{w \in B} B \in (q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_r}; w)$ where w runs over all points in the left hand side;

$$B \in (q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_r}; w) = w + B \in (q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_r}; 0);$$

$a B \in (q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_r}; w) = B \in (q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_r}; aw)$ for any $a \in K \setminus \{0\}$.

Theorem. The subsets $B \in (q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_r}; w)$ form a basis for the topology on E defined by $(q_i)_{i \in I}$.

Proof. The $B \in (q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_r}; w)$, do form a basis for a (unique) topology T' on E . On the other hand let T denote the topology defined by $(q_i)_{i \in I}$. We first show that $T' \subset T$. It suffices to check that $B \in (q_i; 0) \in T$ for any $i \in I$ and $\epsilon > 0$. As a consequence we certainly have that

$$B \in (q_i; w) := \{ v \in E : q_i(v - w) < \epsilon \} \in T$$

for any $w \in E$ and $\epsilon > 0$. But we observe that

$$B \in (q_i; 0) = B \in (q_i; 0) \cup \bigcup_{w \in E} B \in (q_i; w).$$

$$q_i(w) = \epsilon$$

To conclude that actually $T'=T$ holds true it now suffices to show that T' satisfies. The continuity property follows immediately from T to establish for T' we have to show that $q^{-1}((a, 3)) \subset T'$ for any $i \in I$ and any open interval $(a, 3) \subset \mathbb{R}$. Because of we can assume that $3 > 0$. Let $w \in q^{-1}((a, 3))$ be any point. Case 1: We have $q_i(w) > 0$. Choose any $0 < \epsilon < q_i(w)$. It then follows from (v) that $B_\epsilon(q_i; w) \subset q^{-1}(q_i(w)) \subset q^{-1}((a, 3))$. Case 2: We have $q_i(w) = 0$. Choose any $0 < \epsilon < 3$. We obtain $B_\epsilon(q_i; w) \subset q^{-1}([0, \epsilon]) \subset q^{-1}((a, 3))$ since necessarily $a < 0$ in this case.

Theorem. ϵ is a topological K -vector space, $i \in I$, addition and scalar multiplication are continuous, with respect to the topology defined by $(q_i)_{i \in I}$.

Proof. From the following inclusions:

$$B_\epsilon \in (q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_r}; w_1) + B_\epsilon \in (q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_r}; w_2) \subset B_\epsilon \in (q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_r}; w_1 + w_2);$$

$$B_\epsilon \in (q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_r}; w) \subset B_\epsilon \in (q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_r}; aw) \text{ provided } 5 < |a| \text{ and } 5 \max(q_{i_1}(w), \dots, q_{i_r}(w)) < \epsilon;$$

$$B_\epsilon \in (q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_r}; w) \subset B_\epsilon \in (q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_r}; 0) \text{ provided } 5 < 1 \text{ and } 5 \max(q_{i_1}(w), \dots, q_{i_r}(w)) < \epsilon.$$

Exercise. The topology on ϵ defined by $(q_i)_{i \in I}$ is Hausdorff if and only if for any vector $0 \neq v \in \epsilon$ there is an index $i \in I$ such that $q_i(v) \neq 0$.

Definition. A topology on a K -vector space ϵ is known locally convex if it can be defined by a family of seminorms. A locally convex K -vector space is a K -vector space equipped with a locally convex topology.

Obviously any normed K -vector space and in particular any K -Banach space is locally convex.

Remark. Let $\{E_j\}_{j \in J}$ be a family of locally convex K -vector spaces; then the product topology on $\epsilon := \prod_{j \in J} E_j$ is locally convex.

Proof. Let $(q_j, i)_j$ be a family of seminorms which defines the locally convex topology on E_j . Moreover, let $\text{pr}_j : \epsilon \rightarrow E_j$ denote the projection

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maps. Using one checks that the family of seminorms $(j \circ p_j)_i$, j defines the product topology on \in .

Exercise Let $\{E_j\}_{j \in J}$ be a family of locally convex K -vector spaces and let $\in := \prod_{j \in J} E_j$ with the product topology; for any continuous seminorm q on \in there is a unique minimal finite subset $J_q \subset J$ such that

$$q(\prod_{j \in J} x_j) = 0 \iff x_j = 0 \text{ for } j \in J_q$$

For our purposes the following construction is of particular relevance. Let \in be a any K -vector space, and suppose that there is given a family $\{E_j\}_{j \in J}$ of vector subspaces $E_j \subset \in$ each of which is equipped with a locally convex topology.

Theorem. There is a unique finest locally convex topology T on \in such that all the inclusion maps $E_j \hookrightarrow \in$, for $j \in J$, are continuous.

Proof. Let Q be the set of all seminorms q on \in such that $q|_{E_j}$ is continuous for any $j \in J$, and let T be the topology on \in defined by Q . It follows immediately from that all the inclusion maps $E_j \hookrightarrow (\in, T)$ are continuous. On the other hand, let T' be any topology on \in defined by a family of seminorms $(q_i)_{i \in I}$ such that $E_j \hookrightarrow (\in, T')$ is continuous for any $j \in J$. Obviously we then have $(q_i)_{i \in I} \subset Q$. This implies, using again that $T' \subset T$.

The topology T on \in in the above Theorem is known the locally convex final topology with respect to the family $\{E_j\}_{j \in J}$. Suppose that the family $\{E_j\}_{j \in J}$ has the additional properties:

$$\in = \bigcup_{j \in J} E_j;$$

the set J is partially ordered by $<$ such that for any two $j_1, j_2 \in J$ there is a $j \in J$ such that $j_1 < j$ and $j_2 < j$;

whenever $j_1 < j_2$ we have $E_{j_1} \subset E_{j_2}$ and the inclusion map $E_{j_1} \hookrightarrow E_{j_2}$ is continuous.

In this case the locally convex K -vector space (E, T) is known the locally convex inductive limit of the family $\{E_j\}_{j \in J}$.

Theorem. A K -linear map $f : E \rightarrow E$ into any locally convex K -vector space E is continuous (with respect to T) if and only if the restrictions $f|_{E_j}$, for any $j \in J$, are continuous.

Proof. It is trivial that with f all restrictions $f|_{E_j}$ are continuous. Let us therefore assume vice versa that all $f|_{E_j}$ are continuous. Let $(q_i)_{i \in I}$ be a family of seminorms which defines the topology of E . Then all seminorms $q_i := q_i \circ f$, for $i \in I$, lie in the set of seminorms Q which defines the topology T of E . It follows that

$$f^{-1}(B \in (q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_r}; f(w))) = B \in (q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_r}; w)$$

is open in E . Because of that f is continuous.

Theorem. Let $\{E_j\}_{j \in J}$ be a family of locally convex K -vector spaces and let $E := \prod_{j \in J} E_j$ with the product topology; suppose that each E_j has the locally convex final topology with respect to a family of locally convex K -vector spaces $\{E_{j,k}\}_{k \in I_j}$ and that $E_j = \bigcup_{k \in I_j} E_{j,k}$; for any $k = (k_j)_{j \in J} \in I := \prod_{j \in J} I_j$ we put $E_k := \prod_{j \in J} E_{j,k_j}$ with the product topology; then the topology of E is the locally convex final topology with respect to the family $\{E_k\}_{k \in I}$.

Proof. By the locally convex topology of E_j is defined by the set Q_j of all seminorms q such that $q|_{E_{j,k}}$ is continuous for any $k \in I_j$. Let $pr_j : E \rightarrow E_j$ denote the projection maps. By the topology of E is defined by the set of seminorms $Q := \prod_{j \in J} Q_j$. For any $q \in Q_j$ and any $k \in I_j$

Hence the restriction of any seminorm in Q to any E_k is continuous. This means that the locally convex final topology on E with respect to the family $\{E_k\}_{k \in I}$ is finer than the product topology. Vice versa, let q be any seminorm on E such that $q|_{E_k}$, for any $k \in I$, is continuous. We have to

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show that q is continuous for any $k \in I$, a unique minimal finite subset J_k , $k \in J$ such that the restriction $q|_{E_k}$ factorizes into

$$e \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow n_j \rightarrow j$$

In particular, $q|_{E_j}, k_j \rightarrow 0$ for any $j \in J_k, k$. We claim that the set

$$J_k \bullet \rightarrow \bigwedge J_k, k \in I$$

is finite. We define $e \rightarrow (\in j) j \in I$ in the following way. If $j \in J_k$ we choose a $k \in I$ such that $j \in J_k, k$ and we put $e \rightarrow j \bullet \rightarrow k_j$; in particular, $q|_{E_j} \rightarrow q|_{E_j}, k_j \rightarrow 0$. For $j \in J \setminus J_k$ we pick any $e \rightarrow j \in I_j$. By construction we have $J_k \in J_k, \bullet$ so that J_k necessarily is finite. This means that the seminorm q on e factorizes into R .

It follows that

$$q(v) < \max(q|_{E_j}) \circ \text{pr}_j(v) \text{ for any } v \in \bullet_j \in J_k$$

Since each $q|_{E_j}$ is continuous by assumption we conclude that q is continuous.

The topological vector space $\text{Can}(M, e)$,

As in section we let M be a paracompact manifold and e be a K -Banach space. We have observed that

$$\text{Can}(M, e) \rightarrow \prod F_i(e)$$

where I runs over all indices for M . Each $F_i(e)$ by Remark is locally convex as a product of Banach spaces. We can and always will view $\text{Can}(M, e)$ as the locally convex inductive limit of the family $\{F_i(e)\}_i$ (where $I < J$ if J is finer than I). All our earlier constructions involving $\text{Can}(M, e)$ are compatible with this topology. In the following we briefly discuss the most important ones.

Proposition For any $a \in M$ the evaluation map

$$\text{ev}_a : \text{Can}(M, e) \rightarrow E$$

$$f \mapsto f(a)$$

is continuous.

Proof. It suffices, to show that the restriction $\pi|_{F^{-1}(E)}$ is continuous for any index i for M . Let $I = \{ (U_i, \phi_i, K_i), e_i \}_{i \in I}$. There is a unique $i \in I$ such that $a \in U_i$. Then $\phi_i(U_i) = B \in \mathcal{B}(K_i)$, and we have the $F^{-1}(E) \cap F^{-1}(B) = F^{-1}(B) \cap F^{-1}(E)$

$F^{-1}(B) \cap F^{-1}(E)$

$F^{-1}(B) \cap F^{-1}(E) = \{ (U_i, \phi_i, K_i), e_i \}$.

$F^{-1}(B) \cap F^{-1}(E) = \{ (U_i, \phi_i, K_i), e_i \}$

The left vertical projection map clearly is continuous. The lower horizontal map is a topological isomorphism by construction. By Remark the right vertical evaluation map is continuous of operator norm < 1 .

Corollary. The locally convex vector space $\text{Can}(M, \mathcal{E})$ is Hausdorff.

Proof. Let $f \neq g$ be two different functions in $\text{Can}(M, \mathcal{E})$. We find a point $a \in M$ such that $f(a) \neq g(a)$. Since \mathcal{E} is Hausdorff there are open neighbourhoods V_f of $f(a)$ and V_g of $g(a)$ in \mathcal{E} such that $V_f \cap V_g = \emptyset$. Using we observe that $U_f := \pi^{-1}(V_f)$ and $U_g := \pi^{-1}(V_g)$ are open neighbourhoods of f and g , respectively, in $\text{Can}(M, \mathcal{E})$ such that $U_f \cap U_g = \emptyset$.

Remark. With M also its tangent bundle $T(M)$ is paracompact.

Proof. Since M is strictly paracompact by we find a family of charts $\{ (U_i, \phi_i, K_i) \}_{i \in I}$ for M such that the U_i are pairwise disjoint and $M = \bigcup_i U_i$. Then the $(\pi^{-1}(U_i), \phi_i \circ \pi^{-1}, K_i)$ form a family of charts for $T(M)$ such that $T(M)$ is the disjoint union of the open subsets $\pi^{-1}(U_i)$. Each $\pi^{-1}(U_i)$ being homeomorphic to an open subset in K_i carries the topology of an ultrametric space. Topology of $T(M)$ can be defined by a metric which satisfies the strict triangle inequality. Hence $T(M)$ is paracompact.

Proposition. The map $d : \text{Can}(M, \mathcal{E}) \rightarrow \text{Can}(T(M), \mathcal{E})$ is continuous.

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For any locally analytic map of paracompact manifolds $g : M \rightarrow N$ the map

$$\text{Can}(N, \epsilon) \rightarrow \text{Can}(M, \epsilon) \quad f \mapsto f \circ g$$

is continuous.

For any vector field f on M the map $D^\wedge : \text{Can}(M, \epsilon) \rightarrow \text{Can}(M, \epsilon)$ is continuous.

Proof. We have to show that $d|_{F_i}(E)$ is continuous for any index $I = \{(i, U_i, \pi_i, K_i), e_i\}$ for M . Let $f \in F_i(E)$. We have the commutative diagrams

$$(x, v) \xrightarrow{D_x} (f \circ \rho^{-1})(v)$$

PM

$$U_i \xrightarrow{\pi_i} \pi_i(U_i)$$

We also have power series $F_i \in \mathcal{F}_i(K_i; \epsilon)$ such that

$$f \circ \rho^{-1}(x) = F_i(x - a_i) \text{ for any } x \in \pi_i(U_i) = B \in \mathcal{B}_i(a_i).$$

From the proof we recall the formula

$m_i d F$

$$D_x (f \circ \rho^{-1})(v) = \sum_{j=1}^m v_j dx_j(x - a_i)$$

$j=1 \dots m$

for any $x \in \pi_i(U_i)$ and any $v = (v_1, \dots, v_m) \in K_i$. We now cover K_i by pairwise disjoint balls $B \in \mathcal{B}_i(w(i))$ where $w(i) = (w^1, \dots, w^m)$ runs over an appropriate family of vectors in K_i , and we put

$m_i d F$

$$G_i(x, Y) := \sum_{k=1}^m w_k \wedge G_k^*(x - a_i, Y - w_k).$$

Then

$$d f \circ \rho^{-1}(x, v) = D_x (f \circ \rho^{-1})(v) = G_i(x - a_i, v - w)$$

for any $(x, v) \in G \times B \in i(\text{wg}) = B \in i(\text{apwg})$. This means that $\text{df } G \times F_j$
 $(E) \subset \text{Can}(T(M), \epsilon)$ for the index

$$J := \{ ((\text{Pig}(B S_i(a_i, w_{ki}))), f_i, C_i, K^{2m_i}), S_i \}_{i, k}$$

In other words we have the commutative diagram $\text{Can}(T(M), \epsilon) \dots F_j$
 (ϵ) Since the vertical inclusion maps are continuous by construction
 this reduces us to showing the continuity of the lower horizontal map F_i
 $(\epsilon) \rightarrow F_j(\epsilon)$. But this easily follows from the inequalities

ii. We only sketch the argument and leave the details to the reader. Let
 $X = \{ ((U_i, p_i, K_{ni}), e_i) \}_{i \in I}$ be an index for N . We refine the covering $M =$
 $U_i \xrightarrow{g^{-1}} U_i$ into a covering $M = (\bigcup_{j \in J} V_j)$ which underlies an appropriate
 index $J = \{ ((V_j, \cdot, K_{mj}), S_j) \}_{j \in J}$ and such that, for any $i \in I$ and $j \in J$ with
 $V_j \subset g^{-1}(U_i)$, there is a power series $G_{i, j} \in F_s(K_{mj}; K_{ni})$ with $s_i < S_i$
 and $p_i \circ g \circ \wedge^j(x) = G_{i, j}(x - a_j)$ for any $x \in \wedge^j(V_j) = B_s(a_j)$. In this situation
 we have the commutative diagram

$$\text{Can}(N, \epsilon) \xrightarrow{g} \text{Can}(M, \epsilon)$$

where the lower horizontal arrow in terms of power series is given by the
 maps

$$F_e(K_{ni}; \epsilon) \xrightarrow{\sim} F_s(K_{mj}; \epsilon)$$

$$F_i \xrightarrow{\quad} F_o(G_{i, j} - G_{i, j}(0))$$

Proposition. For any covering $M = \bigcup_{i \in I} U_i$ by pairwise disjoint open
 subsets U_i we have

$$\text{Can}(M, \epsilon) = \wedge^i \text{Can}(U_i, \epsilon) \text{ i.e. as topological vector spaces.}$$

Proof. Using one checks that in the construction of $\text{Can}(M, \epsilon)$ as a
 locally convex inductive limit it suffices to consider indices for M whose
 underlying covering of M refines the given covering $M = (\bigcup_{i \in I} U_i)$. Then the
 assertion is a formal consequence

In this and the next chapter we give a short account of the classical 1
 theory of valuated fields. Unless otherwise stated by a ring we mean a
 commutative ring with the unit element 1 and without zero divisors.

Notes

Definition. Let A be a ring and r a totally ordered commutative group [1]. A valuation v of the ring A is a mapping from A^* (the set of non-zero elements of A) into r such that

$$(I) \ v(xy) = v(x) + v(y) \text{ for every } x, y \text{ in } A^*.$$

$$(II) \ v(x+y) > \inf(v(x), v(y)) \text{ for every } x, y \text{ in } A^*.$$

We extend v to A by setting $v(0) = t_0$; where t_0 is an abstract element added to the group r satisfying the equation

$$t_0 + t_0 = a + t_0 = t_0 + a = t_0 \text{ for } a \text{ in } r.$$

We assume that $a < t_0$ for every a in r . The valuation v is said to be improper if $v(x) = 0$ for all x in A^* , otherwise v is said to be proper.

The following are immediate consequences of our definition.

$$v(1) = 0. \text{ For, } v(x \cdot 1) = v(x) = v(x) + v(1), \text{ therefore } v(1) = 0$$

$$\text{If for } x \text{ in } A, x^{-1} \text{ is also in } A, \text{ we have } v(x^{-1}) = -v(x), \text{ because } 2 \ v(1) = v(xx^{-1}) = v(x) + v(x^{-1}) = 0$$

If x is a root of unity, then $v(x) = 0$. In particular $v(-1) = 0$, which implies that $v(-x) = v(x)$

n in \mathbb{Z} (the ring of integers)

$$v(n) = v(1 + \dots + 1) > \inf(v(1)) = 0.$$

If for x, y in A $v(x) \neq v(y)$, then $v(x+y) = \inf(v(x), v(y))$. Let us assume that $v(x) > v(y)$ and $v(x+y) > v(y)$. Then $v(y) = v(x+y - x) > \inf(v(x+y), v(-x)) > v(y)$, which is impossible.

If x_i belongs to A for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, then one can prove by induction

on n that $v(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i) > \inf(v(x_i))$ and that the equality holds if

$$i=1 \ 1 < i < n$$

there exists only one j such that $v(x_j) = \inf(v(x_i))$. In particular if

$1 < i < n$

$\prod_{j=1}^n x_j = 0$ ($n > 2$) then $v(x_i) = v(x_j) = \inf_{1 \leq k \leq n} v(x_k)$ for at least one pair

$j=1 \ 1 < k < n$

of unequal indices i and j . For, let x_i be such that $v(x_i) < v(x_j)$ for $i \neq j$.

Then $v(x_i) > \inf_{1 \leq k \leq n} v(x_k) = v(x_j)$, which proves that $v(x_i) = v(x_j)$.

$1 < k < n \ k \neq i \ j \neq j$

Proposition. Let A be a ring with a valuation v . Then there exists one and only one valuation w of the quotient field K of A which extends v .

It is observed immediately that $v(x \pm y) \geq \min\{v(x), v(y)\}$ for x, y in A .

So without loss of generality we can confine ourselves to a field. The

image of K^* (the set of non-zero elements of field K) by v is a subgroup of r which we shall denote by r_v

Proposition. Let K be a field with a valuation v . Then

The set $O = \{x \in K, v(x) \geq 0\}$ is a subring of K , which we shall call the ring of integers of K with respect to the valuation v .

The set $Y = \{x \in K, v(x) > 0\}$ is an ideal in O known the ideal of valuation v .

$O^* = O - Y = \{x \in K, v(x) = 0\}$ is the set of invertible elements of O

O is a local ring (not necessarily Noetherian) and Y is the unique maximal ideal of O .

We omit the proof of this simple proposition. The field $k = O/Y$ is known the residual field of the valuation v .

It is obvious from the proposition 2 that the valuation v of K which is a homomorphism from K^* to r can be split up as follows

$K^* \rightarrow K^*/O^* \rightarrow r_v \rightarrow r$.

Notes

where v_1 is the canonical homomorphism, v_2 the map carrying an element $x \in O^*$ to $v(x)$ and (v_3) the inclusion map of r_v into r .

Definition. Two valuations v and v' of a field K are said to be equivalent if there exists an order preserving isomorphism u of r_v onto $T'v'$ such that $v = u \circ v'$.

From the splitting of the homomorphism v it is obvious that a valuation of a field K is completely characterized up to equivalence by any one of O , or Y .

A valuation of a field K is said to be real if r_v is contained in \mathbb{R} (the field for real numbers). Since any subgroup of \mathbb{R} is either discrete i.e., isomorphic to a subgroup of integers or dense in \mathbb{R} , either r_v is contained in \mathbb{Z} or r_v is dense in \mathbb{R} . In the former case we say that v is a discrete valuation and in the latter non-discrete. Moreover v is completely determined up to a real constant factor, because if v and V are two non-discrete equivalent valuations of K , the isomorphism of r_v onto r'_v can be extended to \mathbb{R} by continuity, which is nothing but multiplication by a element of \mathbb{R} . If v and V are discrete and equivalent, the assertion is trivial. If $r_v = \mathbb{Z}$ we call v a normed discrete valuation.

Definition. Let K be a field with a normed discrete valuation v . In K we can find an element n with $v(n) = 1$. The element n is known a uniform sing parameter for the valuation v .

Let K be a field with a normed discrete valuation v and $O_{+(0)}$ an ideal in O . Let $a = \inf \{v(x)\}$. Such an a exists because $v(x) > 0$ $x \in O$ for every x in O . Moreover there exists an element x_0 in O such that $v(x_0) = a$, because the valuation is discrete. Then $O = O x_0 = O n^a$. For, $x \in O$ belongs to $G \in \mathbb{Z}$ $v(x) > v(x_0) \in \mathbb{Z} \implies v(x) > 0 \implies x/x_0$ belongs to $G \in \mathbb{Z}$ v belongs to $G x_0$. Since $v(x/x_0) = v(x) - a = 0$, we get n^a that x_0 is in $O n^a$, conversely n^a belongs to $O x_0$ is obvious. Therefore $O = O n^a$. In particular $Y = O n$. In general let v be any valuation of a field K . Let O be any ideal of O and $H_o = \{ a \in r, \text{ such that there exists } x \text{ in } O \text{ with } v(x) = a \}$. Then the map $O \wedge H_o$ is a 1 - 1 correspondence between the set of ideals O in O

and the subsets H_a of R having the property that if a belongs to H_a and S belonging to R is such that $S > a$, then S belongs to H_a . In particular if R is contained in \mathbb{R} , then the ideals of R are of one of the two kinds

$$I_a = \{ x \mid x \in R, v(x) > a \}$$

$$I_a = \{ x \mid x \in R, v(x) > a \} \text{ for any } a > 0.$$

Examples. Let \mathbb{Q} be the field of rational numbers. For any m in \mathbb{Q} we have $m = \pm p_1^{a_1} \cdots p_r^{a_r}$ uniquely, where a_1, \dots, a_r are in \mathbb{Z} and p_1, \dots, p_r are distinct primes. If v is any valuation of \mathbb{Q} ,

$$\text{we have } v(m) = \sum_{j=1}^r a_j v(p_j).$$

Therefore it is sufficient to define a valuation for primes in

\mathbb{Z} . We note that for a valuation v there exists at most one p for which $v(p) > 0$. If possible let us suppose that there exist two primes p_1 and p_2 such that $v(p_i) > 0$ for $i=1, 2$.

Since $(p_1, p_2) = 1$, there exist two integers a and b such that $ap_1 + bp_2 = 1$. This implies that $0 = v(1) > \inf(v(ap_1), v(bp_2)) > 0$, which is impossible. Thus our assertion is proved. If there does not exist any prime p for which $v(p) > 0$, then v is improper.

For a prime p we define $v_p(p) = 1$ and $v_p(m) = a$, where a is the highest power of p dividing m . It is easy to verify that this is a valuation of \mathbb{Q} and any valuation of \mathbb{Q} for which $v(p) > 0$ is equivalent to this valuation. It is a discrete normed valuation of \mathbb{Q} . One can take p as a uniform sing parameter and prove that the residual field is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}/(p)$

Let K be any field, $K((x))$ the field of formal power series over

K . For any element $f(x) = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} a_r x^r$ of $K((x))$ we define $v(f(x)) = t$, $r = m$ if a_t is the first non-zero coefficient in $f(x)$. One can easily verify that v is a normed discrete valuation of $K((x))$. The ring of integers of the valuation is the ring of formal power series with non-negative exponents and the ideal is the set of those elements in the ring of integers for which the constant term is zero. One can take x as a uniform sing parameter.

Check your Progress-2

Discuss Locally convex k-vector spaces

4.4 VALUATION RINGS AND PLACES

This section is added for the sake of completeness. The results mentioned here will not be used in the sequel.

Remark. Let K be a field with a valuation v and ring of integers O . Then for any x in K , either x belongs to O or x^{-1} belongs to O .

Motivated by this we define

A subring A of a field K is known a valuation ring of K if for any x in K either x belongs to A or x^{-1} belongs to A .

In general a ring A is said to be a valuation ring if it is a valuation ring for its quotient field.

4.5 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have discussed the definition and example of Theory of valuations – I, Locally convex k-vector spaces, Valuation rings and places

4.6 KEYWORDS

Theory of valuations – I, M is paracompact then is an isomorphism

Locally convex k-vector spaces, A (nonarchimedean) seminorm on E is a function $q : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that for any $v, w \in E$ and any $a \in K$

Valuation rings and places

4.7 QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

Explain Theory of valuations-I

Explain Locally convex k-vector spaces

4.8 REFERENCES

p-adic numbers: an introduction by Fernando Gouvea

p-adic Numbers, p-adic Analysis, and Zeta-Functions, Neal Koblitz
(1984, ISBN 978-0-387-96017-3)

A Course in p-adic Analysis by Alain M Robert

Analytic Elements in P-adic Analysis by Alain Escassut

4.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Theory of valuations-I (answer for Check your Progress-1 Q)

Locally convex k-vector spaces (answer for Check your Progress-2 Q)

UNIT-5 :THE P-ADIC NORM AND THE P-ADIC NUMBERS

STRUCTURE

- 5.0 Objectives
- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 The P-Adic Norm And The P-Adic Numbers
- 5.3 P-Adic Numbers And P-Adic Integers
- 5.4 Completions
- 5.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 5.6 Keywords
- 5.7 Questions For Review
- 5.8 References
- 5.9 Answers To Check Your Progress

5.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- Understand about The P-Adic Norm And The P-Adic Numbers
- Understand about P-Adic Numbers And P-Adic Integers
- Understand about Completions

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In mathematics, p-adic analysis is a branch of number theory that deals with the mathematical analysis of the functions of p-adic numbers.

The P-Adic Norm And The P-Adic Numbers, P-Adic Numbers And P-Adic Integers, Completions

5.2 THE P-ADIC NORM AND THE P-ADIC NUMBERS

Let R be a ring with unity $1 \in R$.

Definition. A function

$$N: R \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+ = \{ r \in \mathbb{R} : r \geq 0 \}$$

is known a norm on R if the following are true.

$$(Na) \quad N(x) = 0 \text{ if and only if } x = 0.$$

$$(Nb) \quad N(xy) = N(x)N(y) \forall x, y \in R.$$

$$(Nc) \quad N(x+y) \leq N(x) + N(y) \forall x, y \in R.$$

Condition (Nc) is known the triangle inequality.

N is known a seminorm if (Na) and (Nb) are replaced by the following conditions in algebra and analysis.

$$(Na') \quad N(1) = 1.$$

$$(Nb') \quad N(xy) < N(x)N(y) \forall x, y \in R.$$

A (semi)norm N is known non-Archimedean if (Nc) can be replaced by the stronger statement, the ultra-metric inequality:

$$(Nd) \quad N(x+y) \leq \max\{ N(x), N(y) \} \forall x, y \in R.$$

If (Nd) is not true then the norm N is said to be Archimedean.

Exercise: Show that for a non-Archimedean norm N , (Nd) can be strengthened to (Nd') $N(x+y) \leq \max\{ N(x), N(y) \} \forall x, y \in R$ with equality if $N(x) = N(y)$.

Example Let $R \subset \mathbb{C}$ be a subring of the complex numbers \mathbb{C} . Then setting $N(x) = |x|$, the usual absolute value, gives a norm on R . In particular, this

Notes

applies to the cases $R=Z, Q, R, C$. This norm is Archimedean because of the inequality

$$|1+1|=2 > |1|=1.$$

(ii) Let $I=[0, 1]$ be the unit interval and let

$$C(I) = \{ f : I \rightarrow R : f \text{ continuous} \}.$$

Then the function $|f|(x) = |f(x)|$ is continuous for any $f \in C(I)$ and hence by basic analysis,

$$\exists x_0 \in I \text{ such that } |f|(x_0) = \sup \{ |f|(x) : x \in I \}.$$

Hence we can define a function

$$N : C(I) \rightarrow R^+; N(f) = |f|(x_0),$$

which turns out to be an Archimedean seminorm on $C(I)$, usually known as the supremum seminorm. This works upon replacing I by any compact set $X \subset C$.

Consider the case of $R=Q$, the ring of rational numbers a/b , where $a, b \in Z$ and $b \neq 0$. Suppose that $p \geq 2$ is a prime number.

Definition. If $0 \neq x \in Z$, the p -adic ordinal (or valuation) of x is

$$\text{ord}_p x = \max \{ r : p^r | x \} \geq 0.$$

For $a/b \in Q$, the p -adic ordinal of a/b

$$\text{ord}_p a/b = \text{ord}_p a - \text{ord}_p b.$$

Notice that in all cases, ord_p gives an integer and that for a rational a/b , the value of $\text{ord}_p a/b$ is well defined, i.e., if $a/b = a'/b'$ then

$$\text{ord}_p a - \text{ord}_p b = \text{ord}_p a' - \text{ord}_p b'.$$

We also introduce the convention that $\text{ord}_p 0 = -\infty$.

Proposition. If $x, y \in Q$, then ord_p has the following properties:

$$\text{ord}_p x = -\infty \text{ if and only if } x = 0;$$

$$\text{ord}_p(xy) = \text{ord}_p x + \text{ord}_p y;$$

$$\text{ord}_p(x+y) = \min\{\text{ord}_p x, \text{ord}_p y\} \text{ with equality if } \text{ord}_p x \neq \text{ord}_p y.$$

Proof. Let x, y

be non-zero rational numbers. Write $x = \frac{a}{p^r}$ and $y = \frac{b}{p^s}$, where a, b, c, d
 $\in \mathbb{Z}$ with $p \nmid a, b, c, d$

$$x + y = \frac{a p^s + b p^r}{p^{r+s}}$$

and

$r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$. Now if $r < s$, we have

$$x + y = \frac{a p^s + b p^r}{p^{r+s}} = \frac{a p^s + b p^r}{p^{r+s}}$$

$$= \frac{a p^s + b p^r}{p^{r+s}}$$

which gives $\text{ord}_p(x+y) = r$ since $p \nmid b p^r$.

Now suppose that $r = s$, say $s = r$. Then

$$x + y = \frac{a + b p^{s-r}}{p^s}$$

$$= \frac{a + b p^{s-r}}{p^s}$$

$$= \frac{a + b p^{s-r}}{p^s}$$

Notice that as $s - r > 0$ and $p \nmid a, b$, then

$$\text{ord}_p(x+y) = r = \min\{\text{ord}_p x, \text{ord}_p y\}.$$

The argument for the case where at least one of the terms is 0.

Definition. For $x \in \mathbb{Q}$, let the p -adic norm of x be given by

$$|x|_p = \begin{cases} p^{-\text{ord}_p x} & \text{if } x \neq 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0. \end{cases}$$

Proposition. The function $\|\cdot\|_p: \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ has the properties

$$|x|_p = 0 \text{ if and only if } x = 0;$$

$$|x y|_p = |x|_p |y|_p;$$

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$|x+y|_p \leq \max\{|x|_p, |y|_p\}$, with equality if $|x|_p = |y|_p$. Hence, $|\cdot|_p$ is a non-Archimedean norm on \mathbb{Q} .

Let p be a prime and $n \geq 1$. Then from the p -adic expansion

$n = n_0 + n_1p + n_2p^2 + \dots + n_{p-1}p^{p-1}$, we obtain the number

$$a_p(n) = n_0 + n_1p + \dots + n_{p-1}p^{p-1}.$$

Example. Then p -adic ordinal of $n!$ is given by

$$\text{ord}_p(n!) = \frac{n!}{p} - \frac{n!}{p^2} + \frac{n!}{p^3} - \dots + \frac{n!}{p^{p-1}}.$$

Proof. Observe the exercises.

Now consider a general norm N on a ring R .

Definition. The distance between $x, y \in R$ with respect to N is

$$d_N(x, y) = N(x - y) \in R_+.$$

It easily follows from the properties of a norm that (Da) $d_N(x, y) = 0$ if and only if $x = y$;

$$(Db) \quad d_N(x, y) = d_N(y, x) \quad \forall x, y \in R;$$

$$(Dc) \quad d_N(x, y) \leq d_N(x, z) + d_N(z, y) \quad \text{if } z \in R \text{ is a third element.}$$

Moreover, if N is non-Archimedean, then the second property is replaced by (Dd) $d_N(x, y) \leq \max\{d_N(x, z), d_N(z, y)\}$ with equality if $d_N(x, z) = d_N(z, y)$.

Proposition. (The Isosceles Triangle Principle). Let N be a non-Archimedean norm on a ring R . Let $x, y, z \in R$ be such that $d_N(x, y) = d_N(z, y)$. Then $d_N(x, y) = \max\{d_N(x, z), d_N(z, y)\}$.

Hence, every triangle is isosceles in the non-Archimedean world.

Now let $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of elements of R , a ring with norm N .

$$n \geq a_p(n)$$

$$d_p(n!) = p - 1 :$$

Definition. The sequence (a_n) tends to the limit $a \in \mathbb{R}$ with respect to N if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists M \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } n > M \Rightarrow N(a - a_n) = d_N(a, a_n) < \epsilon.$$

We use the notation

$$\lim_{N} (a_n) = a$$

Which is reminiscent of the notation in Analysis and also keeps the norm in mind.

Definition. The sequence (a_n) is Cauchy with respect to N if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists M \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } m, n > M \Rightarrow N(a_m - a_n) = d_N(a_m, a_n) < \epsilon.$$

Proposition. If $\lim_{N} (a_n)$ exists, then (a_n) is Cauchy with respect to N .

$n \rightarrow \infty$

Proof. Let $a = \lim_{N} (a_n)$. Then we can find a M such that

$$n > M \Rightarrow N(a - a_n) < \epsilon/2.$$

If $m, n > M$, then $N(a - a_m) < \epsilon/2$ and $N(a - a_n) < \epsilon/2$, hence by making use of the inequality from (Nc) we obtain

$$N(a_m - a_n) = N((a_m - a) + (a - a_n))$$

$$\leq N(a_m - a) + N(a - a_n)$$

$$< \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2 = \epsilon.$$

Exercise: Show that in the case where N is non-Archimedean, the inequality

$$N(a_m - a_n) \leq \max\{N(a_m - a), N(a - a_n)\}$$

Consider the case of $\mathbb{R} = \mathbb{Q}$, the rational numbers, with the p -adic norm $|\cdot|_p$.

Example: Take the sequence $a_n = 1 + p + p^2 + \dots + p^{n-1}$. Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} |a_{n+k} - a_n|_p &= p^n + p^{n+1} + \dots + p^{n+k-1} \\ &= p^n (1 + p + p^2 + \dots + p^{k-1}) \end{aligned}$$

For each $\epsilon > 0$, we can choose an M for which $p^M < \epsilon$, so if $n > M$ we

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have

$$|a_{n+k} - a_n|_p < \frac{1}{p^M} \varepsilon$$

This shows that (a_n) is Cauchy.

In fact, this sequence has a limit with respect to $|\cdot|_p$. Take $a = 1/(1-p) \in \mathbb{Q}$; then we have

$$a_n = (p^n - 1)/(p - 1) \text{ hence,}$$

$$a^n - \frac{1}{(1-p)^p} = \frac{p^n}{(p-1)_p} = \frac{1}{p^n}$$

So for $\varepsilon > 0$, we have

$$= a^n - \frac{1}{(1-p)^p} < \varepsilon$$

whenever $n > M$ (as above).

From now on we will write $\lim^{(p)}$ in place of $\lim^{(N)}$. So in the last example, we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (p)(1 + p + \dots + p^{n-1}) = \frac{1}{(1-p)}$$

Again consider a general norm N on a ring R .

Definition : A sequence (a_n) is called a *null sequence* if it is complete

with respect to N . $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty}^{(N)} a_n = 0$

Of course this assumes the limit exists! This is easily seen to be equivalent to the fact that in the real numbers with the usual norm $|\cdot|$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} N(a_n) = 0$.

Example In the ring \mathbb{Q} together with p -adic norm $|\cdot|_p$, we have $a_n = p^n$. Then

$$|p^n|_p = p^{-n} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

so $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (p)a_n = 0$. Hence this sequence is null with respect to the p -adic norm.

$$n^k < p^n$$

Example with $a_n = (1+p)^n - 1$. Then for $n=1$,

$$|a_1|_p = |(1+p) - 1|_p$$

$$|j|_p + \dots + (|^{k-1}|_p)^{p-1}$$

since for $|k|_p < 1$,

$$\text{ord}_p(k) = 1$$

Hence $|a_1|_p = 1/p^2$.

For general n , we proceed by induction upon n , and show that

$$|a_n|_p = 1/p^{n+1}.$$

Hence we observe that as $n \rightarrow \infty$, $|a_n|_p \rightarrow 0$, so this sequence is null with respect to the p -adic norm $|\cdot|_p$.

Example. $R = \mathbb{Q}$, $N = |\cdot|$, the usual norm. Consider the sequence (a_n) whose n th term is the decimal expansion of $\sqrt{2}$ up to the n -th decimal place, $i. e., a_1 = 1.4, a_2 = 1.41, a_3 = 1.414$, etc.

Then it is well known that $\sqrt{2}$ is not a rational number although it is real, but (a_n) is a Cauchy sequence.

The last example shows that there can be holes in a normed ring, $i. e.,$ limits of Cauchy sequences need not exist. The real numbers can be thought of as the rational numbers with all the missing limits put in.

Let R be a ring with a norm N . Define the following two sets:

$CS(R, N)$ = the set of Cauchy sequences in R with respect to N ,

$Null(R, N)$ = the set of null sequences in R with respect to N .

So the elements of $CS(R, N)$ are Cauchy sequences (a_n) in R , and the elements of $Null(R, N)$ are null sequences (a_n) . Notice that

$$Null(R, N) \subset CS(R, N).$$

We can add and multiply the elements of $CS(R, N)$, using the formulae

$$(a_n) + (b_n) = (a_n + b_n), (a_n) \times (b_n) = (a_n b_n),$$

since it is easily checked that these binary operations are functions of the form

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$+, \times : CS(\mathbb{R}, N) \times CS(\mathbb{R}, N) \rightarrow CS(\mathbb{R}, N)$.

Claim: The elements $0_{CS}=(0)$, $1_{CS}=(1r)$ together with these operations turn $CS(\mathbb{R}, N)$ into a ring (commutative if R is) with zero 0_{CS} and unity 1_{CS} . Moreover, the subset $Null(\mathbb{R}, N)$ is a two sided ideal of $CS(\mathbb{R}, N)$, since if $(a_n) \in CS(\mathbb{R}, N)$ and $(b_n) \in Null(\mathbb{R}, N)$, then

$$(a_n b_n), (b_n a_n) \in Null(\mathbb{R}, N)$$

as can be observed by calculating $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n b_n)$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (b_n a_n)$.

$$n^{\wedge} t t n^{\wedge} t t$$

We can then define the quotient ring $CS(\mathbb{R}, N)/Null(\mathbb{R}, N)$; this is known as the completion of R with respect to the norm N , and is denoted \mathbb{R}^N or just \mathbb{R} if the norm is clear. We write $\{a_n\}$ for the coset of the Cauchy sequence (a_n) . The zero and unity are of course $\{0R\}$ and $\{1R\}$ respectively. The norm N can be extended to \mathbb{R}^N as the following important result shows.

Theorem. The ring \mathbb{R}^N has sum and product \times given by

$$\{a_n\} + \{b_n\} = \{a_n + b_n\} \quad \{a_n\} \times \{b_n\} = \{a_n b_n\},$$

and is commutative if R is. Moreover, there is a unique norm N on \mathbb{R}^N which satisfies $N(\{a_n\}) = N(a)$ for a constant Cauchy sequence $(a_n) = (a)$ with $a \in R$; this norm is defined by

$$N(\{c_n\}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} N(c_n)$$

as a limit in the real numbers \mathbb{R} . Finally, N is non-Archimedean if and only if N is.

Proof. We will first verify that N is a norm. Let $\{a_n\} \in \mathbb{R}^N$. We should check that the definition of $N(\{a_n\})$ makes sense. For each $\epsilon > 0$, we have an M such that whenever $m, n > M$ then $N(a_m, a_n) < \epsilon$. To proceed further we need to use an inequality.

Claim:

$$|N(x) - N(y)| \leq N(x - y) \text{ for all } x, y \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Proof.By (Nc),

$$N(x) = N((x - y) + y) \leq N(x - y) + N(y)$$

implying

$$N(x) - N(y) \leq N(x - y).$$

Similarly,

$$N(y) - N(x) \leq N(y - x).$$

Since $N(-z) = N(z)$ for all $z \in \mathbb{R}$ (why?), we have

$$|N(x) - N(y)| \leq N(x - y).$$

This result tells us that for $\epsilon > 0$, there is an M for which whenever $m, n > M$ we have

$$|N(a_m) - N(a_n)| < \epsilon,$$

which shows that the sequence of real numbers $(N(a_n))$ is a Cauchy sequence with respect to the usual norm $\|\cdot\|$. By basic Analysis, we know it has a limit, say

$$\epsilon = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} N(a_n).$$

$n \rightarrow \infty$

Hence, there is an M' such that $M' < n$ implies that

$$|N(a_n) - \epsilon| < \epsilon.$$

So we have shown that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} N(a_n) = \epsilon$ is defined.

We have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} N(a_n) = 0$$

$n \rightarrow \infty$

(a_n) is a null sequence $\{a_n\} \rightarrow 0$,

proving (Na). Also, given $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$, we have

Notes

$$\begin{aligned}
 N(\{a_n\} + \{b_n\}) &= N(\{a_n + b_n\}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} N(a_n + b_n) n^{-t} \\
 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} N(a_n) N(b_n) n^{-t} \\
 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} N(a_n) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} N(b_n) n^{-t} n^{-t} \\
 &= W(\{a_n\}) W(\{b_n\}),
 \end{aligned}$$

which proves (Nb). Finally,

$$\begin{aligned}
 W(\{a_n\} + \{b_n\}) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} N(a_n + b_n) n^{-t} \wedge \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (N(a_n) + N(b_n)) n^{-t} \\
 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} N(a_n) + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} N(b_n) n^{-t} n^{-t} \\
 &= N(\{a_n\}) + N(\{b_n\}),
 \end{aligned}$$

which gives (Nc). Thus N is certainly a norm. We still have to show that if N is non-Archimedean then so is N . We will use the following important Theorem.

Theorem Let R be a ring with a non-Archimedean norm N . Suppose that $\{a_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence and that $b \in R$ has the property that $b = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} N^{a_n}$. Then there is an M such $n > M$

that for all $m, n > M$,

$$N(a_m - b) = N(a_n - b)$$

so the sequence of real numbers $(N(a_n - b))$ is eventually constant. In particular, if $\{a_n\}$ is not a null sequence, then the sequence $(N(a_n))$ is eventually constant.

Proof. Notice that

$$|N(a_m - b) - N(a_n - b)| \leq N(a_m - a_n),$$

so $(N(a_n - b))$ is Cauchy in \mathbb{R} . Let $t = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} N(a_n - b)$; notice also that $t > 0$. Hence there exists an M_1 such that $n > M_1$ implies

$N(a_n - b) > 2t$. Also, there exists an M_2 such that $m, n > M_2$ implies

t

$$N(a_m - a_n) < \epsilon,$$

since (a_n) is Cauchy with respect to N . Now take $M = \max\{M_1, M_2\}$ and consider $m, n > M$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} N(a_m - b) &= N((a_n - b) + (a_m - a_n)) \\ &= \max\{N(a_n - b), N(a_m - a_n)\} \\ &= N(a_n - b) \end{aligned}$$

since $N(a_n - b) > \epsilon/2$ and $N(a_m - a_n) < \epsilon/2$.

Let $\{a_n\}, \{b_n\}$ have the property that

$$N(\{a_n\}) = N(\{b_n\});$$

furthermore, we can assume that neither of these is $\{0\}$, since otherwise the inequality in (Nd) is trivial to verify. By the Theorem with $b=0$ we can find integers M', M'' such that

$$n > M' \Rightarrow N(a_n) = N(\{a_n\})$$

and

$$n > M'' \Rightarrow N(b_n) = N(\{b_n\}).$$

Thus for $n > \max\{M', M''\}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} N(a_n + b_n) &= \max\{N(a_n), N(b_n)\} \\ &= \max\{fV(\{a_n\}), fV(\{b_n\})\}. \end{aligned}$$

This proves (Nd) for N .

Definition. A ring with norm N is complete with respect to the norm N if every Cauchy sequence has a limit in R with respect to N .

Example. The ring of real numbers (resp. complex numbers) is complete with respect to the usual norm $\|\cdot\|$.

Notes

Definition. Let R be a ring with norm N , and let $X \subset R$; then X is dense in R if every element of R is a limit (with respect to N) of elements of X .

Theorem. Theorem: Let R be a ring with norm N . Then \hat{R} . Moreover, R can be identified with a dense subring of \hat{R} .

Proof. First observe that for $a \in R$, the constant sequence $(a_n) = (a)$ is Cauchy and so we obtain the element $\{a\}$ in \hat{R} ; this allows us to embed R as a subring of \hat{R} (it is necessary to verify that the inclusion $R \hookrightarrow \hat{R}$ preserves sums and products). We will identify R with its image without further comment; thus we will often use $a \in R$ to denote the element $\{a\} \in \hat{R}$.

It is easy to verify that if (a_n) is a Cauchy sequence in R with respect to N , then (a_n) is also a Cauchy sequence in \hat{R} with respect to \hat{N} . Of course it may not have a limit in R , but it *always* has a limit in \hat{R} , namely the element $\{a_n\}$ by definition of \hat{R} .
Now suppose that (a_n) is Cauchy sequence in R with respect to the norm N . Then we must show that there is an element $a \in R$ for which

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty}^{(N)} a_m = a \text{-----} (1)$$

Notice that each a_m is in fact the equivalence class of a Cauchy sequence (a_{nm}) in R with respect to the norm N , hence if we consider each a_m as an element of R as above, we can write

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty}^{(N)} a_{nm} = a_n \text{-----} (2)$$

We need to construct a Cauchy sequence (c_n) in R with respect to N such that $\{c_n\} = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty}^{(N)} a_m$

Then $a = \{c_n\}$ is the required limit of (a_n) .

Now for each m , there is an M_m such that whenever $n > M_m$,

$$N(a_m - a_{nm}) < \frac{1}{m}$$

For each m we now choose an integer $k(m) > M_m$; we can even assume that these integers are strictly increasing, hence

$$k(1) < k(2) < \dots < k(m) < \dots$$

We define our sequence (c_n) by setting $c_n = a_n k(n)$. We must show it has the required properties.

Definition. The ring of p -adic numbers is the completion \mathbb{Q}_p of \mathbb{Q} with respect to $N = \|\cdot\|_p$; we will denote it \mathbb{Q}_p . The norm on \mathbb{Q}_p will be denoted $\|\cdot\|_p$.

Definition. The unit disc about $0 \in \mathbb{Q}_p$ is the set of p -adic integers,

$$\mathbb{Z}_p = \{ a \in \mathbb{Q}_p : |a|_p \leq 1 \}.$$

Proposition. The set of p -adic integers \mathbb{Z}_p is a subring of \mathbb{Q}_p . Every element of \mathbb{Z}_p is the limit of a sequence of (non-negative) integers and conversely, every Cauchy sequence in \mathbb{Q} consisting of integers has a limit in \mathbb{Z}_p .

Example. Find

$$\left(\frac{1}{3} + 2 + 2 \cdot 3 + 0 \cdot 3^2 + 2 \cdot 3^3 + \dots \right) + \left(\frac{2}{3^2} + 0 + 3 + 1 + 2 \cdot 3 + 1 \cdot 3^2 + 1 \cdot 3^3 + \dots \right).$$

The idea is start at the left and work towards the right. Thus if the answer is

$$\alpha = a_{-2}/3^2 + a_{-1}/3 + a_0 + a_1 3 + \dots,$$

$$a_{-2} = 2, \quad a_{-1} = 1, \quad a_0 = 2 + 1 = 0 + 1 \cdot 3 \equiv 0,$$

$$\text{then } a_1 = 2 + 1 = 0 + 1 \cdot 3 \equiv 2$$

where the 1 is carried from the 3^0 term. Continuing we get

$$a_2 = 0 + 1 + 1 = 2, \quad a_3 = 2 + 1 = 0 + 1 \cdot 3 \equiv 0,$$

and so we get

$$\alpha = 2/3^2 + 1/3 + 0 + 2 \cdot 3 + 2 \cdot 3^2 + 0 \cdot 3^3 + \dots$$

as the sum to within a term of 3-adic norm smaller than $1/3^3$.

Notice that the p -adic expansion of a p -adic number is unique, whereas the decimal expansion of a real need not be. For example

$$0.999 \dots = 1.000 \dots = 1.$$

We end this section with another fact about completions.

Theorem. Let R be field with norm N . Then R is a field. In particular, \mathbb{Q}_p is a field.

Proof. Let $\{a_n\}$ be an element of R , not equal to $\{0\}$. Then $N(\{a_n\}) \neq 0$. Put

$$\epsilon = N(\{a_n\}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} N(a_n) > 0. n^{<^<^$$

Then there is an M such that $n > M$ implies that $N(a_n) > \epsilon/2$ (why?), so for such an n we have $a_n \neq 0$.

So eventually a_n has an inverse in R .

Now define the sequence $\{b_n\}$ in R by $b_n = 1$ if $n \leq M$ and $b_n = a_n^{-1}$ if $n > M$. Thus this sequence is Cauchy and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (N) a_n b_n = 1, n^{<^<^$$

which implies that

$$\{a_n\} \{b_n\} = \{1\}.$$

Thus $\{a_n\}$ has inverse $\{b_n\}$ in \mathbb{R}

Check your Progress-1

Discuss The P-Adic Norm And The P-Adic Numbers

5.3 P-ADIC NUMBERS AND P-ADIC INTEGERS

In everything that follows, p is a prime number. The completion of \mathbb{Q} with respect to $|\cdot|_p$ is known the field of p -adic numbers, notation \mathbb{Q}_p .

The continuation of $|\cdot|_p$ to \mathbb{Q}_p is also denoted by $|\cdot|_p$. This is a non-archimedean absolute value. Convergence, limits, Cauchy sequences and the like will all be with respect to $|\cdot|_p$.

Theorem. The value set of $|\cdot|_p$ on \mathbb{Q}_p is $\{0\} \cup \{p^m \mid m \in \mathbb{Z}\}$.

Proof. Let $x \in \mathbb{Q}_p$, $x \neq 0$. Choose a sequence $\{x_k\}$ in \mathbb{Q} converging to x . For k sufficiently large we have $x_k \neq 0$ and thus, $|x_k|_p = p^{-m_k}$ for some $m_k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Clearly, $|x|_p = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} |x_k|_p = p^{-m}$ for some $m \in \mathbb{Z}$.

The ring of p -adic integers is defined by

$$\mathbb{Z}_p = \{x \in \mathbb{Q}_p \mid |x|_p \leq 1\}.$$

This is indeed a ring, since for any two $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ we have $|x-y|_p \leq \max(|x|_p, |y|_p) \leq 1$, and $|xy|_p \leq 1$. Hence $x - y \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ and $xy \in \mathbb{Z}_p$.

The group of units, i. e., invertible elements of \mathbb{Z}_p is equal to

$$\mathbb{Z}_p^* = \{x \in \mathbb{Q}_p \mid |x|_p = 1\}.$$

Notice that \mathbb{Z}_p contains \mathbb{Z} , but also all numbers in \mathbb{Q} with p -adic absolute value ≤ 1 , these are the rational numbers of the form a/b with $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and b not divisible by p . Further, the group \mathbb{Z}_p^* contains all rational numbers with p -adic absolute value 1, these are the numbers of the form a/b with $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $p \nmid ab$.

For $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}_p$ and $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ we write $x \equiv y \pmod{p^m}$ if $(x - y)/p^m \in \mathbb{Z}_p$. Thus,

$$x \equiv y \pmod{p^m} \iff |x - y|_p \leq p^{-m}.$$

For p -adic numbers, "very small" means "divisible by a high power of p ", and two p -adic numbers x and y are p -adically close if and only if $x - y$ is divisible by a high power of p .

The above definition applies also to rational numbers of the form a/b with $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $p \nmid b$ since these are contained in \mathbb{Z}_p . It is not difficult to show that if a_1, a_2, b_1, b_2 are integers with $p \nmid b_1 b_2$ and m is a positive integer, then

$$a_1/b_1 \equiv a_2/b_2 \pmod{p^m} \iff a_1 b_2 \equiv a_2 b_1 \pmod{p^m}.$$

$$b_1 \nmid b_2$$

Notes

Theorem. For every $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ and every positive integer m there is a unique $a_m \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$a \equiv a_m \pmod{p^m}, \quad 0 \leq a_m < p^m.$$

Hence \mathbb{Z} is dense in \mathbb{Z}_p .

Proof. There is a rational number a/b (with coprime $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$) such that $|a/b - a_m/p^m| < 1/p^{2m}$ since \mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{Q}_p . At most one of a, b is divisible by p and it cannot be b since $|a/b| < 1$. Hence there is an integer a_m with $ba_m \equiv a \pmod{p^m}$ and $0 \leq a_m < p^m$. Thus, $a/b \equiv a_m/p^m \pmod{p^m}$. This shows the existence of a_m . It is unique, since any residue class mod p^m contains only one integer from $\{0, \dots, p^m - 1\}$.

We prove some algebraic properties of the ring \mathbb{Z}_p .

Theorem. (i) The non-zero ideals of \mathbb{Z}_p are $p^m\mathbb{Z}_p$ ($m=0, 1, 2, \dots$). In particular, $p\mathbb{Z}_p$ is the only maximal ideal of \mathbb{Z}_p .

(ii) $\mathbb{Z}_p/p^m\mathbb{Z}_p \cong \mathbb{Z}/p^m\mathbb{Z}$. In particular, $\mathbb{Z}_p/p\mathbb{Z}_p \cong \mathbb{F}_p$.

Proof. (i). Let I be a non-zero ideal of \mathbb{Z}_p and choose $a \in I$ for which $|a|_p$ is maximal. Let $|a|_p = p^{-m}$. Then $p^m a \in \mathbb{Z}$, hence $p^m \in I$. Further, for $ft \in I$ we have $|ft|_p \leq |a|_p = p^{-m}$, hence $ft \in p^m\mathbb{Z}_p$. So $I \subset p^m\mathbb{Z}_p$. This implies $I = p^m\mathbb{Z}_p$.

(ii). The homomorphism $\mathbb{Z}/p^m\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_p/p^m\mathbb{Z}_p$: residue class of a mod $p^m\mathbb{Z}$ to residue class of a mod $p^m\mathbb{Z}_p$ is injective since $p^m\mathbb{Z}_p \cap \mathbb{Z} = p^m\mathbb{Z}$. It is also surjective in view of (i). So it is an isomorphism.

We now show that every element of \mathbb{Z}_p has a "Taylor series expansion," and every element of \mathbb{Q}_p a "Laurent series expansion" where instead of powers of a variable X one takes powers of p .

Theorem. (i) Every element of \mathbb{Z}_p can be expressed uniquely as $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k p^k$ with $b_k \in \{0, \dots, p-1\}$ for $k \geq 0$ and conversely, every such series belongs to \mathbb{Z}_p .

(ii) Every element of \mathbb{Q}_p can be expressed uniquely as $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k p^k$ with $k_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $b_k \in \{0, \dots, p-1\}$ for $k \geq k_0$ and conversely, every such series belongs to \mathbb{Q}_p .

Proof.(i). First observe that a series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k p^k$ with $b_k \in \{0, \dots, p-1\}$ converges in \mathbb{Q}_p . Further, it belongs to \mathbb{Z}_p , since $|\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k p^k|_p \leq \max_k |b_k p^k|_p \leq 1$.

Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ and let $\{a_m\}_{m=1}^{\infty}$ be the sequence. Write these integers in their p -adic expansion. Since $a_{m+1} \equiv a_m \pmod{p^m}$ for $m \geq 1$, we

have $a_1 = b_0$, $a_2 = b_0 + b_1 p$, $a_3 = b_0 + b_1 p + b_2 p^2$, ..., $a_m = b_0 + b_1 p + \dots + b_{m-1} p^{m-1}$

where $b_0, b_1, \dots \in \{0, \dots, p-1\}$. It follows that

$$\alpha = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^m b_k p^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k p^k$$

This expansion is unique since the integers a_m are uniquely determined.

(ii). As above, any series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k p^k$ with $b_k \in \{0, \dots, p-1\}$ converges in \mathbb{Q}_p . Let $a \in \mathbb{Q}_p$ with $a \neq 0$. Suppose that $|a|_p = p^{-k_0}$. Then $ft := p^{k_0} a$ has $|ft|_p = 1$, so it belongs to \mathbb{Z}_p . Now multiply the p -adic expansion of ft with

Corollary \mathbb{Z}_p is uncountable.

Proof. Apply Cantor's diagonal method.

We use the following notation:

$a = 0.6061\dots(p)$ if $a = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k p^{-k}$,

$a = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k p^k$ if $a = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k p^k$ with $k_0 < 0$.

We can describe various of the definitions given above in terms of p -adic expansions. For instance, for $a \in \mathbb{Q}_p$ we have $|a|_p = p^{-m}$ where $a = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k p^k$ with $b_k \in \{0, \dots, p-1\}$ for $k \geq m$ and $b_m \neq 0$. Next, if $a = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k p^k$, $P = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k p^k \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ with $c_k, b_k \in \{0, \dots, p-1\}$, then

$a = P \pmod{p^m}$ $a_k = c_k$ for $k < m$.

Notes

For p -adic numbers given in their p -adic expansions, one has the same addition with carry algorithm as for real numbers given in their decimal expansions, except that for p -adic numbers one has to work from left to right instead of right to left. Likewise, one has subtraction and multiplication algorithms for p -adic numbers which are precisely the same as for real numbers apart from that one has to work from left to right instead of right to left.

We describe an algorithm to compute the digits of the p -adic expansion of $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p$. Let

$$a = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \delta_k p^k = 0.\delta_0\delta_1\delta_2 \dots (p)$$

with $\delta_k \in \{0, \dots, p-1\}$. Define

$$a_k := \sum_{m=k}^{\infty} \delta_m p^{m-k} = 0.\delta_k\delta_{k+1}\delta_{k+2} \dots (p)$$

Then the p -adic integers a_k and digits δ_k can be computed inductively as follows: $a_0 := a$;

For $k=0, 1, \dots$, determine δ_k such that $a_k = \delta_k \pmod{p}$ and $\delta_k \in \{0, \dots, p-1\}$, and compute $a_{k+1} := (a_k - \delta_k)/p$.

Theorem. Let $a = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \delta_k p^k$ with $\delta_k \in \{0, \dots, p-1\}$ for $k \geq 0$. Then $a \in \mathbb{Q}$ if and only if $\{\delta_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$ is ultimately periodic.

Proof.

Without loss of generality, we assume that $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ (if $a \in \mathbb{Q}_p$ with $v_p(a) = k < 0$, say, then we proceed further with $a := p^{-k}a$ which is in \mathbb{Z}_p).

Suppose that $a = A/B$ with $A, B \in \mathbb{Z}$, $\gcd(A, B) = 1$. Then p does not divide B (otherwise $v_p(a) > 0$). Let $C := \max(v_p(A), v_p(B))$. Let $\{a_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$ be the sequence defined above. Notice that a_k determines uniquely the numbers b_k, b_{k+1}, \dots

Claim. $a_k = A_k/B$ with $A_k \in \mathbb{Z}$, $v_p(A_k) \geq C$.

This is proved by induction on k . For $k=0$ the claim is obviously true. Suppose the claim is true for $k=m$ where $m \geq 0$. Then

$$a_m - b_m \equiv (A_m - b_m B) / p$$

$$a_{m+1} \equiv 7^m.$$

$$pB$$

Since $a_m \equiv b_m \pmod{p}$ we have that $A_m - b_m B$ is divisible by p . So $A_{m+1} := (A_m - b_m B) / p \in \mathbb{Z}$. Further,

$$|A_{m+1}| < C + (p - 1)B < C.$$

This proves our claim.

Now since the integers A_k all belong to $\{-C, \dots, C\}$, there must be indices $l < m$ with $A_l = A_m$, that is, $a_l = a_m$. But then, $b_{k+m-1} = b_k$ for all $k \geq l$, proving that $\{b_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$ is ultimately periodic.

Example. We determine the 3-adic expansion of $1/5 = 0.\overline{121012}_3$. We start with the 3-adic expansion of $1/5$. Notice that $1 \equiv 2a \pmod{3}$ for $a \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$$k \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4$$

$$a, \quad \overline{2 \quad 4 \quad 1 \quad 2}$$

$$"k \quad 5 \quad 5 \quad 5 \quad 5$$

$$b_k \quad 2 \quad 1 \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 2$$

It follows that the sequence of 3-adic digits $\{b_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$ of $1/5$ is periodic with period 2, 1, 0, 1 and that $2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$.

$$1/5 =$$

$$= 0.21012101\dots(3).$$

Hence

$$2/5 =$$

$$= 210.12101210\dots(3).$$

$$1/35 \equiv 7$$

Notes

Conversely, we can recover the rational number from its expansion. Check that if $|x| < 1$ then $1+x+x^2+\dots = 1/(1-x)$. Thus,

$$210.12101210 \dots (3)$$

$$= 2 \times 3^{-3} + 1 \times 3^{-2} + 0 \times 3^{-1} +$$

$$+ (1 \times 30 + 2 \times 31 + 1 \times 32 + 0 \times 33) (1 + 34 + 38 + \dots) 5 \ 16 \ 2$$

$$= 27 + 1 - 34 = -135.$$

5.4 COMPLETIONS

An absolute value preserving isomorphism between two fields K^1 and K^2 with absolute values $|\cdot|_1, |\cdot|_2$, respectively, is an isomorphism $\phi : K^1 \rightarrow K^2$ such that $|\phi(x)|_2 = |x|_1$ for $x \in K^1$.

Let K be a field, $|\cdot|$ a non-trivial absolute value on K , and $\{a_k\} \in \mathbb{R}$ a sequence in K .

We say that $\{a_k\} \in \mathbb{R}$ converges to a with respect to $|\cdot|$ if $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} |a_k - a| = 0$. Further, $\{a_k\} \in \mathbb{R}$ is known a Cauchy sequence with respect to $|\cdot|$ if $\lim_{m, n \rightarrow \infty} |a_m - a_n| = 0$.

Notice that any convergent sequence is a Cauchy sequence.

We say that K is complete with respect to $|\cdot|$ if every Cauchy sequence w.r.t. $|\cdot|$ in K converges to a limit in K . For instance, \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{C} are complete w.r.t. the ordinary absolute value.

By mimicking the construction of \mathbb{R} from \mathbb{Q} , one can show that every field K with an absolute value can be extended to an essentially unique field \hat{K} , such that \hat{K} is complete and every element of \hat{K} is the limit of a Cauchy sequence from K .

Theorem. Let K be a field with absolute value $|\cdot|$. There is an up to absolute value preserving isomorphism unique extension field \hat{K} of K , known the completion of K , having the following properties:

$| \cdot |$ can be continued to an absolute value on K , also denoted $| \cdot |$, such that K is complete w.r.t. $| \cdot |$;

K is dense in \hat{K} , i. e., every element of \hat{K} is the limit of a sequence from K .

Proof. We give a sketch. Cauchy sequences, limits, etc. are all with respect to $| \cdot |$.

The set of Cauchy sequences in K with respect to $| \cdot |$ is closed under termwise addition and multiplication $\{a_n\} + \{b_n\} := \{a_n + b_n\}$, $\{a_n\} \cdot \{b_n\} := \{a_n b_n\}$. With these operations they form a ring, which we denote by R . It is not difficult to verify that the sequences $\{a_n\}$ such that $a_n \rightarrow 0$ with respect to $| \cdot |$ form a maximal ideal in R , which we denote by M . Thus, the quotient R/M is a field, which is our completion \hat{K} .

We define the absolute value $|a|$ of $a \in \hat{K}$ by choosing a representative $\{a_n\}$ of a , and putting $|a| := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n|$, where now the limit is with respect to the ordinary absolute value on R . It is not difficult to verify that this is well-defined, that is, the limit exists and is independent of the choice of the representative $\{a_n\}$.

We can view K as a subfield of \hat{K} by identifying $a \in K$ with the element of \hat{K} represented by the constant Cauchy sequence $\{a\}$. In this manner, the absolute value on \hat{K} constructed above extends that of K , and moreover, every element of \hat{K} is a limit of a sequence from K . So K is dense in \hat{K} . One shows that \hat{K} is complete, that is, any Cauchy sequence $\{a_n\}$ in \hat{K} has a limit in \hat{K} , by taking very good approximations $b_n \in K$ of a_n and then taking the limit of the b_n .

Finally, if K' is another complete field with absolute value extending that on K such that K is dense in K' one obtains an isomorphism from \hat{K} to K' as follows: Take $a \in \hat{K}$. Choose a sequence $\{a_k\}$ in K converging to a ; this is necessarily a Cauchy sequence. Then map a to the limit of $\{a_k\}$ in K' .

Corollary. Assume that $| \cdot |$ is a non-archimedean absolute value on K . Then the extension of $| \cdot |$ to \hat{K} is also non-archimedean.

Notes

Proof. Let $a, b \in K$. Choose sequences $\{a_k\}, \{b_k\}$ in K that converge to a, b , respectively. Then taking the limit of $|a_k + b_k| \leq \max(|a_k|, |b_k|)$ gives $|a + b| \leq \max(|a|, |b|)$.

Ostrowski proved that any field complete with respect to an archimedean absolute value is isomorphic to \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} . As a consequence, any field that can be endowed with an archimedean absolute value is isomorphic to a subfield of \mathbb{C} . On the other hand, there is a much larger variety of fields with a non-archimedean absolute value.

It is possible to define notions such as convergence, continuity, differentiability, etc. for complete fields with a non-archimedean absolute value similarly as for \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} , and this leads to non-archimedean analysis. One of the striking features of non-archimedean analysis is the following very easy criterion for convergence of series.

Theorem. Let K be a field complete w.r.t. a non-archimedean absolute value $|\cdot|$. Let $\{a_k\} \in \mathbb{N}$ be a sequence in K . Then $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k$ converges in K if and only if $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} |a_k| = 0$.

Proof. Suppose that $a := \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k$ converges. Then

$$|a_n - a_{n-1}| = |a_n|$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = 0.$$

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} |a_k| = 0$$

Conversely, suppose that $|a_k| \rightarrow 0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$. Let $a_n := \sum_{k=0}^n a_k$. Then for any integers m, n with $0 < m < n$ we have

$$|a_n - a_m| = |\sum_{k=m+1}^n a_k| \leq \max(|a_{m+1}|, \dots, |a_n|) \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } m, n \rightarrow \infty.$$

So the partial sums a_n form a Cauchy sequence, hence must converge to a limit in K .

Corollary. Let K be a field complete w.r.t. a non-archimedean absolute value $|\cdot|$. Then the sequence $\{a_k\} \in \mathbb{N}$ converges in K if and only if $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (|a_k - a_{k-1}|) = 0$.

Proof. Apply Theorem to the series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k$ where $b_0 := a_0$ and $b_k := a_k - a_{k-1}$ for $k \geq 1$.

Theorem. Let again K be a field complete w.r.t. a non-archimedean absolute value $|\cdot|$. Then every series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k$ convergent in K w.r.t. $|\cdot|$ is unconditionally convergent, i. e., neither the convergence, nor the value of the series, are affected if the terms a_k are rearranged.

Proof. Let α be a bijection from \mathbb{Z}^+ to \mathbb{Z}^+ . We have to prove that

$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_{\alpha(k)} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k$, or equivalently, that $\sum_{k=0}^M a_{\alpha(k)} \rightarrow \sum_{k=0}^M a_k$ as $M \rightarrow \infty$, where

$$\sum_{k=0}^M a_{\alpha(k)} - \sum_{k=0}^M a_k$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^M a_{\alpha(k)} - \sum_{k=0}^M a_k = \sum_{k=0}^M (a_{\alpha(k)} - a_k)$$

Let $\epsilon > 0$. There is N such that $|a_k| < \epsilon$ for all $k \geq N$. Choose $N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ such that $\{a(0), \dots, a(N)\}$ contains $\{0, \dots, N\}$. Then for every $M > N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, $\sum_{k=0}^M$ contains only terms a_k with $k > N$ and $a_{\alpha(k)}$ with $\alpha(k) > N$. Hence each term in $\sum_{k=0}^M$ has absolute value $< \epsilon$ and therefore, by the ultrametric inequality, $|\sum_{k=0}^M a_{\alpha(k)} - \sum_{k=0}^M a_k| < \epsilon$. This proves our Theorem.

For interchanging two infinite summations we have the following criterion:

Theorem. Let K be a field complete w.r.t. a non-archimedean absolute value $|\cdot|$. Let $\{a_{mn}\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ be a double sequence such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} a_{mn} = 0$. Then both the expressions

$$\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{mn}$$

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} a_{mn}$$

$$\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{mn}$$

converge and are equal.

Check your Progress-2

Discuss P-Adic Numbers And P-Adic Integers

5.5 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have discussed the definition and example of The P-Adic Norm And The P-Adic Numbers, P-Adic Numbers And P-Adic Integers, Completions

5.6 KEYWORDS

The P-Adic Norm And The P-Adic Numbers....A function $N: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+ = \{ r \in \mathbb{R} : r \geq 0 \}$ is known as a norm on \mathbb{R}

P-Adic Numbers And P-Adic Integers.....The completion of \mathbb{Q} with respect to $|\cdot|_p$ is known as the field of p-adic numbers, notation \mathbb{Q}_p .

Completions.....An absolute value preserving isomorphism between two fields K_1, K_2 with absolute values $|\cdot|_1, |\cdot|_2$, respectively, is an isomorphism $\phi: K_1 \rightarrow K_2$

5.7 QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

Explain The P-Adic Norm And The P-Adic Numbers

Explain P-Adic Numbers And P-Adic Integers

5.8 REFERENCES

p-adic numbers: an introduction by Fernando Gouvea

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A Course in p-adic Analysis by Alain M Robert

Analytic Elements in P-adic Analysis by Alain Escassut

5.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

The P-Adic Norm And P-Adic Numbers

(answer for Check your Progress-1 Q)

P-Adic Numbers And P-Adic Integers

(answer for Check your Progress-2 Q)

UNIT -6 :THEORY OF VALUATIONS-II

STRUCTURE

- 6.0 Objectives
- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Theory of valuations-II
- 6.3 Residual degree and ramification index
- 6.4 Complete algebraic closure of a p-adic field
- 6.5 Valuations of non-commutative rings
- 6.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 6.7 Keywords
- 6.8 Questions For Review
- 6.9 References
- 6.10 Answers To Check Your Progress

6.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- Understand about Theory of valuations–II
- Understand about Complete algebraic closure of a p-adic field
- Understand about Valuations of non-commutative rings

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In mathematics, p-adic analysis is a branch of number theory that deals with the mathematical analysis of the functions of p-adic numbers.

Theory of valuations–II, Residual degree and ramification index, Complete algebraic closure of a p-adic field, Valuations of non-commutative rings

6.2 THEORY OF VALUATIONS -II

Hensel's Theorem

In this section we give a proof of Hensel's Theorem and deduce certain corollaries which will be used quite often in the following. In this section by a ring we mean a commutative ring with unity. It can have zero divisors.

Definition. Let A be a ring. Two elements x and y in A are said to be strongly relatively prime if and only if $Ax + Ay = A$ i.e. if and only if there exist two elements u and v in A such that $ux + vy = 1$.

In particular if $k[x]$ is the ring of polynomials over a field k then any two elements in $k[x]$ are strongly relatively prime if and only if they are coprime in the ordinary sense.

It is obvious that if x and y are two strongly relatively prime elements in a ring A , then for any z in A x divides yz implies that x divides z .

Theorem Let P and P be two polynomials with coefficients in a ring A such that P is monic and P and P are strongly relatively prime. Let us assume that $\text{degree } P = d$, $\text{degree } (P) = s$ and $d(P) = s$. Then for every polynomial Q in $A[x]$ there exists one and only one pair of polynomials U and V such that

$Q = UP + VP$ with $d(V) < s$ and for every $t > s$, $d(Q) < t + s$ if and only if $d(U) < t$.

Proof. The existence of one pair U and V such that $Q = UP + VP$ is trivial. If $d(V) > s$, we write $V = AP + B$ where $d(B) < s$, which is possible because P is a monic polynomial, so we get

$q = (U + A) \cdot P + BP'$ with $d(B) < s$.

Notes

Thus we can assume in the beginning itself that $d(V) < s$. If possible let there exist another pair U and V' such that

$$Q = UP + VP, \quad d(V') < s.$$

Then

$$UP + V'P = UP + VP \text{ implies that } (U - U')P = (V' - V)P.$$

But P and P are strongly relatively prime, therefore P divides $V' - V$. Since $d(V' - V) < s$, $V' - V = 0$. This implies that $P(U - U') = 0$. As P is monic we must have $U = U'$. Let $d(Q) < t + s$. Then $d(UP) = d(Q - VP)$. But $d(V) < s$ and $d(P) = s < t$, therefore $d(UP) < t + s$, which implies that $d(U) < t$ because P is a monic polynomial of degree s . It is obvious that $d(V) < t < s$ implies that $d(Q) < t + s$.

Definition. Let A be a ring, the intersection of all the maximal ideals is known the radical of A and shall be denoted by $r(A)$.

It can be easily proved that any element x of A belongs to $r(A)$ if and only if $1 - xy$ is invertible for all $y \in A$.

Theorem. Let A be a ring O an ideal in A contained in $r(A)$. Then two polynomials P and P in $A[x]$ one of which (say P) is monic are strongly relatively prime if and only if P and P (the images of P and P in $A/O[x]$) are strongly relatively prime.

Proof. P and P are strongly relatively prime implies P and P are strongly relatively prime is obvious. Suppose that $d(P) = s$ and $d(P) = s$. Then $d(P) = d(P) = s$, because P is monic. Let $\epsilon = \{f \mid f \in A[x], d(f) < s + t, \text{ for some } t > s\}$. Then ϵ is a module of finite type over A . Let $\epsilon = \epsilon / OE$, since P and P are strongly relatively prime in $A/O[x]$, E is generated by the polynomials XuP and XvP for $0 < u < s$. For, by Theorem 1 for every polynomials Q in ϵ there exists one only one pair of polynomials U and V in $A/O[X]$ such that

$$Q = UP + VP, \quad d(V) < t + s.$$

But $d(Q) < t + s$, therefore $d(U) < t$. Thus

$$U = \sum_{0 < u < t} a_u X^u$$

$$V = \sum_{0 < v < s} b_v X^v$$

and $Q = \sum_{(X, P)} (X, P) \in (X, P)$.

$$X = 0 \text{ } \wedge = 0$$

By a simple corollary of Nakayama's Theorem (For proof observe *Algebre* by N. Bourbaki) which states that if ϵ is a module of finite type over a ring A and q an ideal in $r(A)$ then if (a_1, \dots, a_n) generate ϵ module $q\epsilon$, they generate ϵ also, we get $X_u P$ and $X_v P$ for $0 < u < t$ and $0 < v < s$ constitute a set of generators for ϵ . Therefore because 1 belongs to ϵ . Hence P and P are strongly relatively prime in $A[X]$.

Let A be a ring with a decreasing filtration of ideals $(O_n)_{n > 0}$, defining a topology on A for which A is a complete Hausdorff space. If

TO

$f(X) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n X^n$ is a power series over A converging everywhere in A

then $X_n(f) = \sup (i)$

$(X_n(f) < t_0)$, because $a_n \wedge 0$ as $n \wedge t_0$ is an increasing function of n i. e., $X_n(f) < X_{n+1}(f)$ and $f(x)$ is a polynomial if and only if $X_n(f)$ is constant for n sufficiently large.

We shall denote by f the image of f in $A/O_1[X]$.

Hensel's Theorem. Let A be a ring with a decreasing filtration of ideals $(O_n)_{n > 0}$. Let A for this topology be a complete Hausdorff space. If

TO $f(X) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n X^n$ is an everywhere convergent power series over A and if

$n=0$ there exist two polynomials f_1 and f_2 in $A/O_1[X]$ such that

f_1 is monic of degree 5 f_1 and f_2 are strongly relatively prime

$f = f_1 f_2$ then there exists one and only pair (g, h) such that

g is a monic polynomial of degree 5 in $A[X]$ and $g = f_1$.

Notes

h is everywhere convergent power series over A and $h = if$.

$f = gh$ Moreover $A_n(h) = A_n(f) - 5$. If f is a polynomial then h is a polynomial and g and h are strongly relatively prime.

Proof. Existence We construct two sequences of polynomials (g_n) and (h_n) in $A[X]$ by induction on n such that

(a) g_n is monic of degree s , $g_n = f_i$ and $g_{n+1} = g_n \pmod{O_{n+1}}$ for $n > 0$
 (S) $h_n = f$, $h_{n+1} = h_n \pmod{O_{n+1}}$ and $d(h_n) = A_{n+1}(f) - 5$ (y) $f = g_n h_n \pmod{O_{n+1}}$, $n > 0$ 5-1

For $n=0$, we take $g_0 = \in \text{ar} X^r + X^s$ if

$r=0$ 5-1 t

$f_i = \wedge \text{gr} X + X^5$ and $h_0 = \wedge \text{bu} X^n$ if

$r=0$ $u=0$ $0 = \wedge \text{bu} X^u$, with $t = d(0) = d(f) - s = A_1(f) - s$.

Let us assume that we have constructed the polynomials $g_1, g_2 \dots g_{n-1}$ and h_1, \dots, h_{n-1} satisfying the conditions (a), (S), and (y) By g_{n-1} and h_{n-1} are strongly relatively prime modulo O_q for every integer $q > 1$, because g_{n-1} and h_{n-1} are strongly relatively prime

in $A/O_1[X] = A/O_i[X]$ and O_1/O_q is contained in $r(A/O_q)$, every $q \in O_1/O_g$ element of O_1/O_g being nil potent. Therefore there exist polynomials X_n and Y_n in $A(X)$ such that

$f - g_{n-1} h_{n-1} = Y_n g_{n-1} + X_n h_{n-1} \pmod{O_{n+1}}$ and $d(X_n) < s$.

But by induction assumption $f - g_{n-1} h_{n-1} = 0 \pmod{O_n}$ therefore $0 = Y_n g_{n-1} + X_n h_{n-1} \pmod{O_n}$. Thus from the uniqueness part we get $X_n = 0 \pmod{O_n}$ and $Y_n = 0 \pmod{O_n}$. We take $g_n = g_{n-1} + X_n$ and $h_n = h_{n-1} + Y_n$ obviously the polynomials g_n and h_n satisfy the conditions (a), (S) and (y). Hence we get two sequences of polynomials (g_n) and (h_n) . The respective coefficients of (g_n) and (h_n) converge as n tends to infinity because of the condition $g_{n+1} = g_n \pmod{O_{n+1}}$ and $h_{n+1} = h_n \pmod{O_{n+1}}$. Therefore $\lim g_n = g$ is a monic polynomial of degree s and $\lim h_n = h$ is power series over A which converges everywhere in A ,

because $h = hn \pmod{O_{n+1}}$. We observe immediately that $f = gh$, $h = 0$ and $g = p$. Moreover $d(hn) = d(h) + n$, because $h = hn \pmod{O_{n+1}} = \wedge$
 $d(hn) = d(h) + n < d(h) + n + 1 = d(hn) < d(h) + n + 1$ but $f = gh$ implies that $d(f) < d(g) + d(h)$, therefore we get our result. If f is a polynomial then $d(f)$ is constant for n sufficiently large implying $d(h)$ is constant for n large, therefore h is a polynomial. Since g and h are strongly relatively prime modulo O_{n+1} , there exist by Theorem polynomials a_n and b_n such that

$$1 = a_n g + b_n h \pmod{O_{n+1}}, \text{ where } d(b_n) < s \text{ and } d(a_n) < d(hn) = d(h) + n + 1 - s.$$

Similarly we have polynomials a_{n+1} and b_{n+1} such that

$$1 = a_{n+1} g + b_{n+1} h \pmod{O_{n+2}} \text{ where } d(b_{n+1}) < s \text{ and } d(a_{n+1}) < d(hn) = d(h) + n + 1 - s.$$

Combining these two we get

$$(a_{n+1} - a_n)g + (b_{n+1} - b_n)h = 0 \pmod{O_{n+1}}$$

Hence by uniqueness if we get $a_{n+1} = a_n \pmod{O_{n+1}}$ and $b_{n+1} = b_n \pmod{O_{n+1}}$. Since $d(b_n) < s$ for every n , we get that $\lim b_n = b$ is a polynomial, moreover $\lim a_n = a$ is everywhere convergent power series in A ; a is a polynomial if f is a polynomial. Hence we get $1 = ag + bh \pmod{O_{n+1}}$ for every $n > 1$, which implies that g and h are strongly relatively prime in $A[[X]]$.

Uniqueness If possible let us suppose that there exists another pair (g, H) satisfying the requirements of the Theorem. Let $V = h - h$ and $U = g - g$. Since $g = g \pmod{O_1}$ and $h = h \pmod{O_1}$, U is in $O[[X]]$ and V is in $O[[A]]$.

Let us assume that U belongs to $O_n[[X]]$ and V belongs to $O_n[[X]]$ for

all $n < m$, $m > 1$. We have

$$f = gh = gH = (U+g)(V+h) = UV + Uh + gV + gh$$

which implies that $-UV = Uh + gV$. But UV is in $O_{2n-2}[[X]]$ ($2n - 2 > n$, as $n > 1$), therefore

$$Uh + gV = 0 \pmod{O_n}$$

Notes

Let ρ_n be the canonical homomorphism from $O_n A[[X]]$ onto $A/O_n[[A]]$. Obviously we have

$$\rho_n(U)\rho_n(h) + \rho_n(g)\rho_n(V) = 0, \quad d(U) < S$$

But $\rho_n(h)$ and $\rho_n(g)$ are strongly relatively prime in $A/O_n[[X]]$, because they are so in $A/O_1[[X]]$ and O_1/O_n is contained in $r(A/O_n)$, therefore by uniqueness part we get from

$$\rho_n(U) = 0 \text{ and } \rho_n(V) = 0$$

This means that $V = h - h = 0 \pmod{O_n}$ and $U = g - g = 0 \pmod{O_n}$ for every n . But $\bigcap O_n = 0$, because A is a Hausdorff space, therefore $U = 0$ and $V = 0$. Hence the uniqueness of g and h is established.

Corollary 1. Let K be a complete field for a real valuation v .

Let $f(X) =$

TO

$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n X^n$ be an every-where convergent powerseries with coefficient from O .

Let p and q be two polynomials in $O/Y[X] = k[X]$ such that

p is monic of degree s .

p and q are strongly relatively prime in $k[X]$

f (image of f in $k[X]$) = p

Then there exists one and only one pair g and h such that

$g \in O[[X]]$, g is monic of degree s and $g = p$

$h \in O[[X]]$, h converges everywhere in O and $h = f = gh$.

and the radius of convergence of h is the same as that of f . If f is a polynomial, then h is a polynomial. Moreover g and h are strongly relatively prime.

$s - 1 \leq t - 1$

Proof. Suppose that $p = Y \text{ arX} + Xs$ and $(=Y b > uXu$.

$$r=0 \quad u=0$$

$$s-1 \quad t$$

Let $p_0 = Z \text{ arXr} + Xs$, if $i_0 u = \in \text{ auXu}$.

$$r=0 \quad u=0$$

for every n . Let $a = \inf v(b_n)$, a is obviously strictly positive. Let

$= \{x''/x \in O, \quad v(x) > a\}$, then $(O_n)_{n>0}$, $O_n = O(($ defines a decreasing filtration on O . Obviously p_0 and $(0$ (images of p and $($ in $O/O[X]$) are strongly relatively prime modulo O_1 and p_0 and $(0$ satisfy all the requirements of Hensel's Theorem, therefore there exists one and only one pair (g, h) such that g is monic polynomial of degree 5 and $g = p^\circ$

h is an every where convergent powerseries in O , $h = g_0$ and

$$A_n(f) - 5 f = gh$$

Form the choice of p_0 and g_0 it is obvious that this pair (g, h) satisfies the conditions of the corollary. If possible let there exist another pair (g, h') satisfying the conditions stated in the corollary. Let $g' = g - g$, $h'' = h - h'$. Since g' and h'' are in $Y[x]$, there exists $a' > 0$ such that g' and h'' are in $O'[[x]]$ where $O' = \{x|x \in O, v(x) > a'\}$.

Let us take in Hensel's Theorem instead of O the ideal O_1 and the filtration defined by (O_n) where $O_n = O_n$. But then have two pairs (g, h) and (g, h) satisfying the conditions (a), (b), (c) of the Theorem, which is not possible, therefore $g = g$ and $h = h$.

If f is a polynomial, the result about radius of convergence is obvious. Let us assume that f is not a polynomial, then $A_n(f)$ tends to infinity

as n tends to infinity. It has already been proved that $t_f = \liminf$. Since v is a real valuation, for any i we can find an integer k such

that $(A_{-1})^a < g < k a, \Rightarrow A g f$. Therefore $\wedge_i 2k(f)$

Notes

Corollary. Let K be a complete valued field with a real valuation v and f a polynomial in $O[X]$. Then if a in k is a simple root of f , there exists one and only one element a in O such that a is a simple root of f and $a \equiv a \pmod{\mathfrak{m}}$.

Proof. Since a is a simple root of f , we have $f(X) = (X-a)g(X)$ where $g(a) \neq 0$. Moreover $(X-a)$ and $g(X)$ are strongly relatively prime in $k[X]$, $(X-a)$ being a prime element. Therefore from corollary 1, we have in one and only one way $f(X) = (X-a)h(X)$, where $h(a) \neq 0$ and $a \equiv a \pmod{\mathfrak{m}}$. Moreover a is a simple root of f because

$$h(a) = h(a) = f(a) = 0.$$

In particular if K is a locally compact field such that characteristic $\neq 2$, then we shall show that $K^*/(K^*)^2$ is a group of order 4.

K locally compact implies that v is discrete and k is a finite field. Let n be a uniformising parameter and let $C \in O^* \setminus O$ be an element such that C is not a square in k , such an element exists because $k^*/(k^*)^2$ is of order 2. Then it can be observed that $1, C, n, Cn$ represent the distinct cosets in $K^*/(K^*)^2$ and any element in K^* is congruent to one of them modulo $(K^*)^2$.

Extension of Valuations - Transcendental case

In order to prove that a valuation of a field can be extended to an extension field it is sufficient to consider the following two cases: When the extension field is an algebraic extension. When the extension field is a purely transcendental extension.

Proposition 1. Let $L = K(X)$ be a purely transcendental extension of a field K with a valuation v , let r' be any totally ordered group containing vK . Then for α in r' there exists one and only one valuation of L extending v such that

$$w_\alpha \left(\sum_{j=0}^n a_j X^j \right) = \inf_{0 \leq j \leq n} (v(a_j) + j\alpha)$$

Proof. It is sufficient to verify that w satisfies the axioms of a valuation for $K[X]$.

The axioms $w(P) \geq 0$ and $w(P+Q) \geq \min(w(P), w(Q))$ can be easily verified.

To prove $w(PQ) = w(P) + w(Q)$,

where $P = \sum_{j=0}^m a_j X^j$, $Q = \sum_{i=0}^n b_i X^i$

and $PQ = \sum_{k=0}^{m+n} c_k X^k$, we write $P = P_1 + P_2$, $Q = Q_1 + Q_2$, P_1

being the sum of all terms $a_j X^j$ of P such that $w(P_1) = v(a_j) + j$ and Q_1 being the sum of those terms $b_i X^i$ of Q for which $w(Q_1) = v(b_i) + i$. Let j_0 and k_0 be the degree of P_1 and Q_1 respectively. If $P_1 Q_1 = \sum_{r=0}^{j_0+k_0} c_r X^r$, then we have

$$\begin{aligned} w(P_1 Q_1) &= v(c_{j_0+k_0}) + (j_0+k_0) \\ &= v(a_{j_0}) + j_0 + v(b_{k_0}) + k_0 = w(P_1) + w(Q_1). \end{aligned}$$

Now

$w(PQ) = w(P_1 Q_1 + P_1 Q_2 + P_2 Q_1 + P_2 Q_2) = w(P_1 Q_1)$, because the valuation of the other terms is greater than $w(P_1 Q_1)$. This implies that

$$w(PQ) = w(P_1 Q_1) = w(P_1) + w(Q_1) = w(P) + w(Q).$$

Corollary. There exists one and only one valuation w of $K(X)$ such that

w extends v .

$$w(X) = 0.$$

The class X of X in k_w is transcendental over k_v .

The valuation w is the valuation w' for $\mathbb{Z} = 0$ and k_w is a purely transcendental extension of degree i over k_v . It is obvious that w_0 ($i \in \mathbb{Z}$, w_0 for $\mathbb{Z} = 0$) satisfies (i) and that $k_w = k_v(X^n)$. If X were algebraic over k_v , then there exists a polynomial

$$P(Y) = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j Y^j \text{ such that at least one } a_j \neq 0 \text{ and } P(X) = 0, \text{ which means}$$

Notes

that $P(X) = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j X^j$ is in Y_w , where at least one a_j is not in Y_v and all a_j are in O_v . But this is impossible because $w(P(X)) = \inf v(a_j) = 0$.

Conversely let w be a valuation of $K(X)$ satisfying. Let $P = \sum_{i=0}^m a_i X^i$

be a polynomial over K . We have to prove that $w(P) = \inf v(a_i)$.

Let $P = \sum_{i=0}^m a_i X^i$ be a polynomial over K . We can assume without loss

of generality that a_j are in Y_v and at least one of them is not in Y_y , then $\inf v(a_i) = 0$. If $w(P) > 0$, then $P = 0$ in k_w , which implies, that X is

algebraic over k_v , which is a contradiction. But we know that

therefore $w(P) = \inf v(a_i)$.

Check your Progress-1

Discuss Theory of valuations-II

6.3 RESIDUAL DEGREE AND RAMIFICATION INDEX

Let L be a field and K a subfield of L . Let w be a valuation of L and v the restriction of w on K . Since $Y_w \cap K = Y_v$, the field k_w can be imbedded in the field k_v . We shall say the dimension of k_w over k_v the residual degree of w with respect to v or of L with respect to K . We shall denote it by $f(w, v)$.

The index of the group r_v in r_w is known the ramification index of w with respect to v or of L with respect to K and is denoted by $e(w, v)$.

If no confusion is possible, we shall denote $f(w, v)$ by $f(L, K)$ and $e(w, v)$ by $e(L, K)$.

If $e(w, v) = 1$, then L is said to be an unramified extension of K .

If $f(w, v)=1$, L is said to be totally ramified extension of K .

Since the group of values and residual field of K are the same as that of K we have $e(L, K) = e(L, K)$ and $f(L, K)=f(L, K)$

Proposition. Let L be a field with a valuation w and let K be a field contained in L and v the restriction of w on K . Then $e(L, K) f(L, K) < (L : K) = n$, where $(L : K)$ is dimension of L over K .

Proof. If n is infinite, the result is trivial. Let us assume that n is a finite number. Let $r < e$ and $s < f$ be two positive integers, then we can find r elements X_1, \dots, X_r in L^* such that $w(X_i) \equiv w(X_j) \pmod{r}$ for $i \neq j$ and s elements Y_1, \dots, Y_s in k_w such that they are linearly independent over k_v . Let Y_1, \dots, Y_s be a system of representatives for Y_1, \dots, Y_s in O^* . Then the elements $(X_i Y_j, i=1, \dots, r; j=1, 2, \dots, s)$ are linearly independent over K . If they are not linearly independent, then there exists elements a_{ij} in K not all 0 such that

$$\sum_{i,j} a_{ij} X_i Y_j = 0$$

Let $a = \inf w(a_{ij} X_i Y_j)$, obviously a is finite and belongs to T_w .

Therefore $w(a_{kl} X_k Y_l) = a$ for some k and l . We have

$$w(a_{ij} X_j Y_j) = w(a_{ij}) + w(X_j) + w(Y_j)$$

$$= w(a_{kl}) + w(X_k) + w(Y_l) \text{ if } w(a_{ij} X_i Y_j) = a \text{ for some } i \text{ and } j.$$

But $w(Y_j) = w(Y_l) = 0$, therefore we get $w(X_i) = w(X_k) \pmod{r}$, which is possible only if $i=k$. Thus we get

$$a_{kl} X_k Y_l + \sum_{j=1}^s a_{kj} X_k Y_j = 0 \pmod{O'} \quad j \geq 1$$

where $O' = \{ X/X \in L, w(X) > a \}$

Multiplying the congruence with $a^{-1} X^{-1}$ we get

$$Y_l + \sum_{j=1}^s a^{-1} a_{kj} Y_j = 0 \pmod{Y_w} \quad j \geq 1$$

Therefore

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$\sum_{j=1}^n a_j Y_j = 0$, where $a_j \in k_v, j=1, \dots, n$

But this is impossible, because Y_1, \dots, Y_n are linearly independent over

k_v , therefore $(X_i Y_j)$ are linearly independent over K . Since $(L : K) = n$, the number of linearly independent vectors in L over K cannot be greater than n .

Hence $ef < n$.

Corollary If L is algebraic over K , then k_w is algebraic over k_v and rL/rk is a torsion group of order $< (L : K)$.

The assertion is trivial when $(L : K)$ is finite. When $(L : K)$ is infinite we can write $L = \bigcup I L_i$ and $kL = \bigcup U_k$, where L_i is a finite

Algebraic extension of K .

Then rL/rk is the union of the quotient groups rL_i/rk for i in I and therefore it is a torsion group.

Corollary Suppose that L is algebraic over K , then w is improper if and only if v is improper. v improper implies that $r_v = \{0\}$. Therefore by corollary r_w is a torsion group. But r_w is a totally ordered and abelian group, therefore it consists of identity only.

Corollary. Let $(L : K)$ be finite. Then w is discrete if and only if v is discrete. v discrete implies that r_v is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z} and $(L : k)$ finite implies r_w/r_v is of finite order. Moreover r_w is Archimedean, because if a and S are in r_w , then na and nf_i where $n = \text{order } r_w/r_v$, are in r_v ; therefore there exists an integer q such that $qa > nf_i$, which shows that $qa > f_i$. There exists a smallest positive element in r_w . For, each coset of r_w/r_v has a smallest positive element, the smallest among them is the smallest positive element for r_w . Hence r_w is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z} .

Corollary If the valuation v on K is discrete, K is complete and $(L : K)$ is finite, then $ef = (L : K)$.

Proof. Let n be a uniformising parameter in L . Let Y_1, \dots, Y_f be a basis of k_w over k_v and Y_1, \dots, Y_f their representatives in O^*_w . Let R denote a system of representatives of k_v in O_w

Then any element X in O_w can be written in the form $\sum a_i Y_j$ modulo

Y^w with $a_i \in R$ in one and only one way. Let L' be vector space over K generated by (Y_i^n) for $i=1, 2, \dots, f$ and $j=0, 1, 2, \dots, e-1$.

Since L' is a finite dimensional vector space over a complete field K , L' is complete (for proof observe *Espaces Vectoriels Topologiques* by N. Bourbaki) and therefore closed in L .

But L' is dense in L , because for every element X in L and an integer n there exists an element X_n in L' such that $v(X - X_n) > n$. For sufficiently small n the result is obviously true.

Let us assume that it is true for all integers $r < n$. Since $n \in \mathfrak{m}_w$, there exists an element U in K such that $w(U) = v(U) = n$. Therefore $U^{-1}(X - X_n)$ belongs to O_w and we have

$$U^{-1}(X - X_n) = \sum a_j Y_j \pmod{Y^w = O_w^n}$$

This means that $U^{-1}(X - X_n) = \sum a_i Y_i$ belongs to O_w , therefore $(U^{-1}(X - X_n) - \sum a_i Y_i) = \sum b_i Y_i \pmod{Y^w}$

Proceeding in this way we obtain

$$U^{-1}(X - X_n) = \sum a_i Y_i + \dots + \sum a_{i-1} Y_{i-1} \pmod{Y^w}$$

$$H = \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} Y_j$$

Then $w(X - X_{n+1}) > (n+1) \in \mathfrak{m}_w$. Thus L' is dense in L and therefore $L' = L$. So $n = (L : K) < ef$. But we know that $ef < n$, therefore

$$n = ef.$$

Locally compact Fields

Proposition. If K is a locally compact field of characteristic o with a discrete valuation v , then K is a finite extension of \mathbb{Q}_p where p is characteristic of the residual field k .

Proof. Since characteristic $K=0$, K contains \mathbb{Q} the field of rational numbers. We observe immediately that v is proper, because if v is improper

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then Q is contained in k which is a finite field by theorem in §7.1 and this is impossible. The restriction of v to Q is v_p for some p because p -adic valuations are the only proper valuations on Q and this p is the characteristic of k . We have already proved in §7.1 that K is complete, therefore K contains Q_p . The valuation v on K is discrete, therefore v is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z} , but v_p is also isomorphic to \mathbb{Z} and is contained in v , therefore $v = (T v : v_p)$ is finite. Moreover $f = (k v : k v_p)$ is also finite, because $k v$ is a finite field. Hence $(K : Q_p) = e f$ is finite.

Proposition. Let K be complete field for a real proper valuation v such that characteristic $K = \text{characteristic } k$ and all its sub fields are perfect. Then there exists a subfield $F \subset O$ which is a system of representatives of k in O . Moreover if v is discrete then K is isomorphic to $k((x))$.

Proof. Let O be the family of subfields S of O such that the restriction of v to S is an isomorphism from S onto a subfield of k . The family O is ordered by inclusion, because the prime fields contained in O and k are the same. Obviously O is inductively ordered by inclusion, therefore by Zorn's Theorem it has a maximal element F . We shall prove that $k = p(F)$. The field k is algebraic over $p(F)$. If possible let there exist an element x in k transcendental over $p(F)$. Let $p(x) = x$, where x is in O , then x is transcendental over F . It is obvious that $F(x)$ is isomorphic to $p(F)(x)$, which contradicts the maximality of F , therefore k is algebraic over $p(F)$. Suppose that $p(F)$, then there exists one element x in k and not in $p(F)$. Since $p(F)$ is a perfect field, x is a simple root of an irreducible monic polynomial P over $p(F)$. Let

$$P = X^s + a_{s-1} X^{s-1} + \dots + a_0 = (X - x) Q,$$

where Q is some polynomial over $p(F)$ and $Q(x) \neq 0$.

By Corollary of Hensel's Theorem we obtain that the polynomial $P = X^s + a_{s-1} X^{s-1} + \dots + a_0$ has a simple root x in O such that $p(x) = x$ and Q is an irreducible polynomial. Therefore $F(x)$ is isomorphic to $F[X]/(P)$. But $p(F)(x)$ is isomorphic to $p(F)[X]/(P)$ therefore we observe

that p is still an isomorphism from $F(x)$ onto $p(F)(x)$. But this is impossible, because F is a maximal element of O . Thus our theorem is proved.

Corollary. A non-discrete locally compact valuated field of characteristic $p > 0$ is isomorphic to a field of formal power series over a finite field.

Since a locally compact valuated field K is complete, its valuation is discrete and k is finite, our corollary follows from the theorem.

Extension of a Valuation to an Algebraic Extension (Case of a Complete Field)

Theorem. If L is an algebraic extension of a complete field K with a real valuation v , then there exists one and only valuation w on L extending v .

Proof. If v is improper w is necessarily improper. So we assume that v is a proper valuation. Suppose that L is a finite extension of K . If there exists a valuation w on L extending v , then w is unique, because on L any valuation defines the same topology as that of $KL:K$ and the topology on L determines the valuation up to a constant factor and in this case the constant factor is also determined because the restriction of the valuation to K is v .

Let L be a Galois extension of K . Then if w is a valuation on L extending v , $w \circ \sigma$ for any σ in $G(L/K)$ (the Galois group of L over K) is also a valuation extending v . Therefore by uniqueness of the extension $w(\sigma(x)) = w \circ \sigma(x)$ for every x in L . This shows that

$$v(N(x)) = w(\sigma(x)) = w \circ \sigma(x) = w(x)$$

$$L/K \text{ is } v$$

where $(L : K) = n$.

Thus

$$w(x) = \frac{1}{n} v(N(x)).$$

Notes

$n = [L : K]$

Now suppose that L is any finite extension of K of degree n . We define a mapping w on L by and prove that it satisfies the axioms for a valuation. It is well known that (Bourbaki, algebra chapter V, that if L is the separable closure of K is L , and if p is the characteristic exponent of K ($i. \in \mathbb{N}$, $p=1$ if characteristic $K=0$ and $p=$ characteristic $K \neq 0$), then

$$n = [L : K] = qpe$$

with $q = [L' : K]$ and $pe = [L : L']$. Moreover L is a purely inseparable extension of L' , and for each K -isomorphism α_i ($1 \leq i \leq q$) of L' , in an algebraic closure O of K there exists one and only one K -isomorphism of L which extends α_i . This extended isomorphism will also be denoted by α_i . Then

$\alpha_i \in G$

$$w(\alpha_i(x)) = w(x)$$

It is easy to prove that $w(x) = m$ if and only if $x = 0$ and $w(xy) = w(x) + w(y)$ for x, y in L . To prove that $w(x+y) \geq \inf(w(x), w(y))$, it is sufficient to prove that $w(a) > 0$ implies that $w(1+a) > 0$ for any a in L . We know that if $P(X) = X^r + a_{r-1}X^{r-1} + \dots + a_0$ is the monic irreducible polynomial of a over K , then $N^a = (-a_0)^{1/r}$ and $P(\frac{1}{X} - X)$ is the irreducible polynomial of $1+a$. Thus

$$w(N^a) = \frac{1}{r} \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} w(\alpha_i(a)) = w(1+a)$$

So to prove our result we have to show that $w(1+a) > 0$ when $w(a) > 0$

$$w(1+a) = \frac{1}{r} \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} w(\alpha_i(a))$$

in G , because $w(a) = \frac{1}{r} \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} w(\alpha_i(a))$. This will follow from the following

theorem, which completely proves our theorem.

Theorem. Let K be complete field with a real valuation v and x any element of an algebraic extension of K . If $f(X) = X^r + a_{r-1}X^{r-1} + \dots + a_0$ is the

minimum polynomial of x over K , then a_0 belonging to O implies that all the coefficients of $f(X)$ are in O .

Proof. If possible suppose that all a_j are not in O , then $v(a_j) < 0$ for some j , $0 < j < r$. Let $-a = \inf v(a_j)$, $a > 0$ and j the smallest index such that $v(a_j) = -a$. We have $0 < j < r$. Since a belongs to v , there exists an element C in K such $v(C) = a$. Consider the polynomial $g = Cf(X) = CX^k + C_j X^j + C_0 a$. Because of the choice of j , $g = X^j (CX^{k-j} + C_j + C_0 a X^{-j})$, where $v(C_j) = -a$. Therefore g has X^j as a factor which is a monic polynomial and if $g = X^j h$, then X^j and h satisfy the requirements of Corollary of Hensel's Theorem, which gives that g is reducible, which is a contradiction. Hence all a_j are in O .

When L is infinite algebraic extension of K , we can express $L = \bigcup_i L_i$ where each L_i is a finite algebraic extension of K and the family $i \in I$

$\{L_i\}_{i \in I}$ is a directed set by the relation of inclusion. We define the valuation w for any x in L as $w(x) = w_i(x)$ if x is in L_i and is the extension of v on L_i . It is obvious that w is the unique valuation on L extending v .

General Case

We shall study now how a valuation of an incomplete field can be extended to its algebraic extension.

Let K be field with a valuation v and L an algebraic extension of K . If w is a valuation of L extending v , we can look at the completion \hat{L} of L . \hat{L} contains L and K , so it contains a well defined composite extension \hat{M}_w of L and K . Then there exist one and only one maximal ideal \mathfrak{m}_w in $\hat{L} \hat{K}$ such that the canonical mapping from $\hat{L} \hat{K} \rightarrow \hat{M}_w / \mathfrak{m}_w$ gives

an isomorphism from $L \langle g \rangle K / \mathfrak{m}_w$ onto $\hat{M}_w / \mathfrak{m}_w$. So we get a map ρ from

the set of the valuation w extending v to the set of the maximal ideals of

$L \langle g \rangle K$. Conversely if we start from a maximal ideal M in $L \langle g \rangle K$, then

$\hat{M} = \hat{L} \langle g \rangle \hat{K} / M$ is an algebraic extension of K and there one and only one valuation w_M of \hat{M} which extends v and the restriction of w_M to L gives a valuation of L extending v . So we get a map θ from the set of the maximal ideals of $L \langle g \rangle K$ (or

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of the classes of complete extensions) to the set of the valuations of L extending v .

Moreover the completion \hat{L} of L with respect to w_m is exactly M and the composite extension of L and K contained in \hat{L} is M . So we have $f_i \circ \theta = I$ (identity map)

Now we have also $\theta \circ f_i = I$, for if w is any valuation of L then the valuation w_m is necessarily the same as w by the uniqueness of the extension to M of the valuation v of K .

Hence there exists a correspondence between the set of valuations on L extending v and the set of inequivalent composite extensions of L and K .

In particular if $(L : K) = n < m$, then any composite extension of L and K is complete which means that $L = L \langle g \rangle / M$, where M is some

maximal ideal of $L \langle g \rangle / K$.

K

Suppose L is an algebraic extension of an incomplete valued field K with a valuation v . Let $(w_i)_{i \in I}$ be the set of valuations on L extending v . We shall denote by L_i the field L with the valuation w_i , by e_i the ramification index $e_i \in (L_i : K) = e_i \in (L : K)$ by f_i the residual degree $f_i(L_i : K) = f_i(L_i : K)$ and by n the dimension of L , over K .

Theorem. If L is a finite extension of degree n of a field K with a real valuation v , then there exist, only finitely many different valuations (w_j) on L extending v . Moreover we have $E_n < n$ and the sequence

$0 \rightarrow (L \langle g \rangle / K) \rightarrow L \langle g \rangle / K \rightarrow \bigoplus L_i \rightarrow 0$ is exact.

Proof. We observe that w_i is not equivalent to w_j for $i \neq j$, because w_i equivalent to w_j means that they differ by a constant factor and since their restriction to K is same, we have $w_i = w_j$

The number of different valuations (w_i) on L extending v is finite because the number of inequivalent composite extensions of L and K is finite. To prove that the sequence is exact, we have to show that the mapping $p : L \langle g \rangle / K \rightarrow \bigoplus L_i$ is surjective. By the approximation theorem of

valuations $p(L)$ is dense in $n L_i$, therefore $p(L/K)$ is dense in $n L_b$ where p is the canonical map from $L \wedge n L_i$. But $p(L/K)$ is a finite dimensional vector space over K therefore it is complete. Hence $p(L/K) = n L_i$. $\in \cdot$, p is onto. Obviously $\dim n L_j < \dim L/K$ over

K , which means that $\in n_i < n$.

Corollary. If K or L is separable over K , then we have $\in n_i = n$.

K or L separable over K implies that $r(K \langle g \rangle L) = 0$ therefore p is an isomorphism.

6.4 COMPLETE ALGEBRAIC CLOSURE OF P-ADIC FIELD

Proposition. Let K be a complete field with a real valuation v and O the algebraic closure of K . Then O the completion of O by the valuation extending v is algebraically closed.

We shall denote the extended valuation also by v .

Proof. To prove that O is algebraically closed we have to show that any irreducible polynomial $f(X)$ in $O[X]$ has a root in O . Without loss of

generality we can assume that $f(X)$ is in $O_f[X]$ and leading coefficient of $f(X)$ is 1. Suppose that $f(X) = X^r + a_{r-1}X^{r-1} + \dots + a_0$ then for every

integer m there exists a polynomial $g_m(X) = X^r + l_m X^{r-1} + \dots + l_m$ in

$O_f[X]$ such that for every x in O_f ,

$$v(f(x) - \langle p m(x) \rangle) = r \quad \text{Let } \langle f m(X) \rangle = r$$

$(X - a_j m)$, $a_j m$ are in O_f as $g_m(X)$ is in $O_f[X]$. Then

$$\langle f m+1(a_j m) \rangle = \langle f m+1(a_j m) \rangle - f(a_j m) + f(a_j m) - \langle p m(a_j m) \rangle \text{ implies that } v(\langle p m+1(a_j m) \rangle) > r m$$

$$\text{or } v(a_j m - a_{m+1}) > r m.$$

Therefore there exists a root a_{m+1} of $\langle p m+1(X) \rangle$ such that $v(a_j m - a_{m+1}) > r m$.

Notes

So we get a sequence $\{f_j\}$ of polynomials converging to f and a sequence of elements $\{s_j\}$ converging to S in O and each s_j is a root of $f_j(X)$. Since polynomials are continuous functions, we have $\lim f(s_j) = f(S)$

But $\lim f(s_j) = 0$, because given integer $N > 0$, for $m > N$ we have $v(f(s_m)) = v(f(s_m) - f(s_m)^m) > m > N$.

Hence S is a root of $f(X)$.

One can easily prove that the residual field of O is the algebraic closure of the residual field of K . In particular if $K = \mathbb{Q}_p$, then the residual field of O is $\bar{\mathbb{F}}_p$, the algebraic closure of $\mathbb{Z}/(p)$. Thus $k = \bigcup F_i$, where each F_i is a finite extension of $\mathbb{Z}/(p)$.

6.5 VALUATIONS OF NON-COMMUTATIVE RINGS

We define a valuation of a non-commutative ring A without zero divisors containing the unit element in the same way as of a commutative ring. Almost all the results proved so far about valuated can be carried over to division rings with valuations with obvious modifications. We mention the following facts for illustration.

Let L be a division ring with a valuation v . Then

The set $O_v = \{x \in L, v(x) \geq 0\}$ is a non-commutative ring, which we call the valuation ring of L with respect to the valuation v .

$\mathfrak{m}_v = \{x \in L, v(x) > 0\}$ is the unique two sided maximal ideal of O_v .

Any ideal in O_v is a two sided ideal. For, $v(x^{-1}yx) = -v(x) + v(y) + v(x) > 0$ for x in L and y in O_v which means that $x^{-1}yx$ belongs to O_v , therefore $yx = xz$ for some z in O_v . Hence $O_v x = x O_v$.

The ideals of O_v are any one of the two kinds

$$I_\alpha = \{x \mid v(x) > \alpha \geq 0\}$$

$$I'_\alpha = \{x \mid v(x) \geq \alpha > 0\}$$

The division ring L is locally compact non-discrete division ring for the valuation v if and only if v is a discrete valuation, L is complete and O_v/YL is finite. Regarding the extension of valuations to an extension divisionring we prove the following.

Theorem. Let P be a division algebra of finite rank over a complete valuated field P with a valuation v such that P is contained in the center of P . Then there exists one and only one valuation w of P which extends

v .

Proof. Existence We define $N(x) = \det(p_x)$ = determinant of the endomorphism

$p_x: P \rightarrow P$, for any x in P .

We shall prove that $w(x) = -\frac{1}{r} \log |N(x)|$ is a valuation of P if r is the

rank of P over P . The axioms $w(x) = m$ if and only if $x = 0$ and $w(xy) = w(x) + w(y)$ are obviously true.

To prove $w(x+y) > \inf(w(x), w(y))$ it is sufficient to prove that $w(x) > 0$ implies $w(1+x) > 0$. Let $F = P(x)$. F is clearly a field containing P and P is a vector space over F by left multiplication. The mapping p_x is an F -endomorphism. We know that if U is any F -endomorphism

and U_p the P -endomorphism defined by U , then $\det U_p = N(\det U)$

and we have $\det p_x = N(x)$ if p_x is considered as an F -endomorphism. Therefore we have

$$w(x) = -\frac{1}{r} \log |N(x)|.$$

Now $w(x) > 0 \iff v(N(x)) > 0 \iff v(N(1+x)) > 0$, because we

have proved this for commutative case. Hence w is a valuation on P .
Uniqueness Since P is complete and P is of finite rank r over P , any valuation defines the same topology on P as that of P_r . But the topology determines the valuation up to a constant factor. If w_1 and w_2 are two

valuations of p extending v then $w_1 = Cw_2$ for some C in P . But restriction of w_1 to w_2 to P is v , therefore $C=1$ and $w_1 = w_2$.

Check your Progress-2

Discuss Residual degree and ramification index

6.6 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have discussed the definition and example of Theory of valuations–II, Residual degree and ramification index, Complete algebraic closure of a p -adic field, Valuations of non-commutative rings

6.7 KEYWORDS

Theory of valuations–IIIn this section we give a proof of Hensel's Theorem and deduce certain corollaries

Residual degree and ramification index.....Let L be a field and K a subfield of L . Let w be a valuation of L and v the restriction of w on K

Complete algebraic closure of a p -adic field..... K be a complete field with a real valuation v and O the algebraic closure of K . Then \hat{O} the completion of O by the valuation extending v is algebraically closed.

Valuations of non-commutative rings.....a valuation of a non-commutative ring A without zero divisors containing the unit element in the same way as of a commutative ring

6.8 QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

Explain Theory of valuations–II

Explain Residual degree and ramification index

6.9 REFERENCES

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p-adic Numbers, p-adic Analysis, and Zeta-Functions, Neal Koblitz
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A Course in p-adic Analysis by Alain M Robert

Analytic Elements in P-adic Analysis by Alain Escassut

6.10 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Theory of valuations–II (answer for Check your Progress-1 Q)

Residual degree and ramification index

(answer for Check your Progress-2 Q)

UNIT -7 : REPRESENTATIONS OF P-ADIC GROUPS

STRUCTURE

7.0 Objectives

7.1 Introduction

7.2 Representations of p-adic groups

7.3 Some elementary p-adic analysis

7.4 Representations of Locally Compact Groups

7.5 Irreducible Representations

7.6 Let Us Sum Up

7.7 Keywords

7.8 Questions For Review

7.9 References

7.10 Answers To Check Your Progress

7.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- Understand about Representations of p-adic groups
- Understand about Some elementary p-adic analysis
- Understand about Representations of Locally Compact Groups
- Understand about Irreducible Representations
- Understand about Measures on Homogeneous spaces
- Understand about Induced Representations

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In mathematics, p-adic analysis is a branch of number theory that deals with the mathematical analysis of the functions of p-adic numbers.

Representations of p-adic groups, Some elementary p-adic analysis, Representations of Locally Compact Groups, Irreducible Representations, Measures on Homogeneous spaces, Induced Representations

7.2 REPRESENTATIONS OF P-ADIC GROUPS

We prove here an analogue of the theorem about the representations of semisimple Lie Groups in chapter of this part. We shall give the proof of the theorem for the general linear group $GL_n(\mathbb{P})=G$, though the same theorem could be proved for other classical linear groups with obvious modifications. Let χ denote a character of T which is trivial on N . Since A is isomorphic to T/N , χ can be considered as a character of A . Let us assume that $\int_U \chi(f) = 0$ for every f in A^* (the group of characters of A) and $f \in L(G)$ such that $f \neq 0$. We first try to find the condition under which our assumptions are valid. Let ρ be an element of $C(A)$ (the space of the induced representation of A). Then $\langle \rho, (tx) \rangle = \langle \rho, t \rangle \chi(x)$ for $x \in G$ and $t \in T$. Moreover

$$\int_U \chi(f) \langle \rho, (y) \rangle = \int \langle \rho, (y) \rangle f(y) dy = 0, \text{ because } \int_U \chi = 0$$

Since X the support of f is a compact set, it intersects only a finite number of double cosets modulo K . Let

$$S = \{a \in A^+ \mid \int_K \chi(f) da \neq 0\} = \min\{J \in S \mid \int_J \chi(f) da \neq 0\}.$$

The set S is a finite non-empty set because $f \neq 0$. Therefore a exists. For any a in A^+ the coset Ka is a finite union of left cosets modulo K , the representatives for which could be found in T , because $G=TK$. Let I_a be the set of left cosets C modulo K such that $Ka \subset \bigcup C$, where $C=t(C)K$, $t(C) \in T$. But we know that $T=Na$, therefore $C \in I_a$

$t(C) = n(C)dy(C)$ where $n(C)$ and $dy(C)$ belong to N and A respectively. Since $n(C)dy(C)$ belongs to Ka proposition implies that $y(C) > a$. Thus we get that $Ka \subset \bigcup_{n(C)} n(C)K$, $y(C) > a$ and if $y(C) = a$, $C \in I_a$ then $C = daK$ and we can take $t(C) = da$. Let us assume that the right

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invariant Haar measure on G is such that its restriction to K is normalised i.e., $\int_K dk = 1$. Then for any left coset $C = t(C)K$, we have

$$\int_G f(g) dg = \int_G A(t(C)) \int_K f(t(C)k) dk \int_G Jg Jk$$

and the equation gives

$$\int_G y(y) f(y) dy = \int_G A(t(C)) \int_K f(t(C)k) f(t(C)k) dk$$

$$\int_G p(C) Jk$$

$$= \int_G A(t(C)) f(Ak) f(t(C)k) dk$$

$$p(C) Jk$$

with $\langle r(t) \rangle = [\langle 5(r)A(t) \rangle]^2$ and where \wedge^0 denotes the restriction of $(p$ to K .

We have shown earlier that $p^\circ(tx) = A(t) p^\circ(x)$ for $t \in T$ and $x \in K$, but $A(N) = 1$, therefore the space CA is independent of A . Moreover there is only one term corresponding to $p = a$ in the summation, since for others $y(c) > a$. Separating the term for $p = a$

we get $UAp(e) = \int_G (da)^2 A(da) fR \langle p^\circ(k) \rangle f(da k) dk + \int_G Qy(f, \langle p \rangle) A(dy)$ with

$$y > a \int_G Qy(f, \langle p \rangle) = \int_G (rWQ)^* f tp^\circ(k) f(t(C)k) dk$$

$$CeIfiy(C) = a \int_K Jk$$

It is obvious that $Qy(f, p)$ is independent of A . For every $y \in Z^n$, the mapping $dy \in A \rightarrow xY \in A^{**}$ given by $xY(A) = A(dy)$ is an isomorphism of the groups A and A^{**} . But the characters of an abelian group are linearly independent, therefore $QY(f, p) = 0$ for every y and in particular $Qa(f, p) = 0$. Thus we obtain

$$\int_K \langle p(k) \rangle f(dak) dk = 0, \text{ for every } (p \text{ with } \langle p(nk) \rangle = \langle p(k) \rangle \text{ for } n \in N \text{ and } K.$$

The equation is true for left and right translations of f by elements of K because $U_i \dots = U_i J = U X U_i = 0$ and

$$x1 = Uf^* \in x = ufuA = 0.$$

So if $g(x) = f(k^{-1}x)$ for k in K , we have $Uxg = 0$. Obviously $S(f) = S(g)$ and $a(f) = a(g)$. Let $K'a = K \cap daK^{d-1}$ and $Ka = K \cap d^{-1}Kda$ be two subgroups of K . Now

$$\int p(k) f(da(d^{-1}hda)k) dk = \int p(d^{-1}hda) f(dak) dk = 0$$

Thus the function $k \mapsto f(da k)$ is orthogonal to all the functions p in $C_A = C$ and their left translates by the elements of Ka , where p is invariant on the left by the elements of $N \cap K$.

Theorem. For every $a \in Z_n$ such that $da \in A^+$, the subgroup Ka contains $N \cap K$ where N is the group consisting of the transpose of elements of N .

Proof

By definition

with $a_1 < a_2 < \dots < a_n$.

Let h be an element n of K .

Then $(da \quad hd^{-1})_{ij} = na \sim ajh_{jj}$ which shows that the groups Ka consist of matrix h in K such that $na \sim ajh_{jj}$ is integral. If we take $h \in N' \cap K$, obviously h belongs to Ka . Thus Ka contains $N \cap K$. This Theorem shows that the groups Ka and $K'a$ are sufficiently big.

In addition to the above assumption about f , let us further assume that f belongs to $L_m(G)$ where M is some irreducible representation of K . Clearly M is a subrepresentation of left regular representation of K in $L^2(K)$. Let $\epsilon \subset L^2(K)$ be an invariant subspace of the left regular representation a of K such that a when restricted to ϵ is of class M . Therefore $\epsilon \subset L_m(K)$. Define $F(k) = f(da k)$. We can assume that $F \neq 0$. Since F is transformed following ML by the right regular representation of K , F belongs to $L_m(K)$. But F is orthogonal to all the functions p in C invariant on the left by the elements of $N \cap K$, the left translates of p by the elements of K and the right translates of p by the elements of K . Hence if M satisfies the condition (S) $i \in \epsilon$. The smallest subspace of ϵ invariant by N' and which contains elements invariant on

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the left by the elements of $N \times K$ is \in . Then F is orthogonal to $Lm(K)$, because $Lm(K)$ is generated by the right translates of \in . But this is a contradiction, because $F \in Lm(K)$. Thus we get the following

Theorem. The representations UA for $A \in A^*$ form a complete system of representations of the algebra $Lm(G)$ if the irreducible representation M satisfies the condition (S).

Corollary. If M satisfies (S) then M occurs at most $(\dim M)$ times in any completely irreducible representation of G .

Since UA for any A in A^* when restricted to K is a sub representation of the left regular representation of K , $C \subset Lm(K)$ which is a subspace of dimension $(\dim M)^2$, thus M is contained at most $(\dim M)$ times in UA .

Corollary. The identity representation of K occurs at most once in any completely irreducible representation of G .

This follows from Corollary as the identity representation satisfies the condition (S). If M is the identity representation of K , then the algebra $Lm(G)$ is commutative.

The algebra $Lm(G)$ has complete system of representations of dimension 1. Therefore if x and y are any two elements of $Lm(G)$, then $UA(xy) = UA(yx)$ for every $A \in A^*$, because UA is of dimension 1. Therefore $UA(xy - yx) = 0$ for every A in A^* . But this is possible only if $xy - yx = 0$ i.e., the algebra $Lm(G)$ is commutative.

Finally we try to find out what are the various representations of K which satisfy the condition (S). It is obvious that a representation which satisfies the condition (S) when restricted to $N \times K$ contains the identity representation of $N \times K$. It is not known whether there exist or not representations of K which when restricted to $N \times K$ contain the identity representation but which do not satisfy the condition (S). However in this connection we have the following result.

Theorem. Every irreducible representation M of K which comes from a representation of $GL_n(O/Y)$ and the restriction of which to $N \times K$ contains the identity representation of $N \times K$ satisfies the condition (S).

It can be easily proved that $GL_n(O/Y)$ is isomorphic to K/H , where H is a normal subgroup K consisting of the matrices (a_{ij}) where a_{ij} belongs to Y . Therefore a representation of $GL_n(O/Y)$ gives rise to a representation of K .

Remark. We have proved that in the case of real or complex general linear group the representations induced by the unitary characters of T form a complete system of representations of algebra $L(G)$. But in the case of general linear groups over p -adic fields the representations induced by the characters of A do not form a complete system. In fact the algebra $L(K)$ is a sub-algebra of $L(G)$, because K is open and compact in G . Therefore if the representations U_A form a complete system for $L(G)$, their restrictions to K will form a complete system of representations of $L(K)$. But the restriction of U_A to K is a representation of K induced by the unit character of $N \times K$, therefore by Frobenius reciprocity theorem the irreducible representations of K which occur in U_x are precisely those which when restricted to $N \times K$ contain the identity representation. But there exist representations of K for which this property is not satisfied.

Some Problems For any classical group, we have found a maximal compact subgroup K . If G is the general linear group, it is easy to observe that: any maximal compact subgroup is conjugate to K by an inner automorphism; any compact subgroup is contained in a maximal compact subgroup. (For, let H be a compact subgroup of $GL(n, P)$ let e_1, \dots, e_n be the canonical basis of F^n).

Let I_0 be the O -module generated by the e_i and let I be the O -module generated by the $h \cdot e_i$ for $h \in H$: because H is compact, the coordinates of the $h \cdot e_i$ are bounded and there is an integer $n > 0$ such that $I \subset n \cdot I_0$. Hence I is a lattice and H is contained in the maximal compact subgroup K_1 formed by the $g \in G$ such that $g \cdot I = I$. Moreover, if $g \in G$ is such that $g \cdot I_0 = I_0$, then $K_1 = gKg^{-1}$.) But for the other types of classical groups, it is

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not known if the results are true or not. Actually, one cannot hope that is true: already in $SL(n, P)$, we have only:

(i bis) any maximal compact subgroup is conjugate to K by an (not necessarily inner) automorphism.

It observems possible that there exist several but a finite number of classes of maximal compact subgroups: for instance, it observems unlikely that the maximal compact subgroup K' of the orthogonal group $O(n, P)$ which leaves invariant a maximal lattice of norm P is conjugate to K . But perhaps, any maximal compact subgroup of $O(n, P)$ is conjugate to K or to K' .

It can be noted that are not both true in the projective

group $G = PGL(2, P)$: a maximal compact subgroup K is the canonical image of $GL(2, 0)$ in G ; the determinant defines a map d from G to the quotient group $F^*/(F^*)^n$ and the image of any conjugate of K is

contained in the image D of 0^* in $P/(P^*)^2$. Now, let u be the image of $|1 \ 0\rangle$ in G : we have $u^2 = 1$ and $d(u) \in D$. Hence, u generates a compact subgroup which is not contained in any conjugate of K .

It observems very likely that our results about classical groups are valid for any semi-simple algebraic linear group over P (at least if $\text{char } P = 0$). The general meaning of the subgroups N, D, T, r is clear: N is a maximal unipotent, D is a maximal decomposed torus (a decomposed torus is an algebraic group isomorphic to $(P^*)^r$), which normalised N . Then D can be written as $D = A.U$, where $A \sim Z^r$ and $U \sim (0^*)^r$ and we have $T = a.N$. The subgroup r is the normaliser of N . It can be proved (A. Borel, unpublished) that D and N exist in any such G (at least if the base field P is perfect) and are unique, upto an inner automorphism. Now the problems are:

Define a maximal compact subgroup K ;

prove that $G = T.K$;

prove that $G=K.a.K$ and define Δ_+ (which is certainly related with the Weyl group and the Weyl chambers);

prove the key Theorem about the intersection $N \cap K \cap K \cap K$. For the simplest idea is to take a lattice I in the vector space in which G acts, and to put $K = \{ g \mid g \in G, g.I = I \}$. Then we get a compact subgroup. But it is obvious that K will be maximal and satisfy only if I is conveniently chosen.

Assume that $\text{char } P = 0$: then we can consider the Lie algebra \mathfrak{G} of G and the adjoint representation. Then we can choose a lattice I in \mathfrak{G} such that $[I, I] \subset I$ (in other words, I is a Lie algebra over 0); such a lattice always exists: take a basis G and multiply it by a suitable power of n in such a way that the constants of structure become integral. Now there exist such lattices which are maximal, because $[I, I] \subset I$ implies that I is a lattice of norm $c > 0$ for the Killing form of G . As this form is non-degenerate, it is impossible to get an indefinitely growing sequence of such lattices. Hence we can choose such a maximal lattice I and put $K = \{ g \mid g \in G, g.I = I \}$.

But let us look at the compact case: it can be shown that G is compact if and only if the Lie algebra \mathfrak{G} has no nilpotent elements. In this case, we should have $K = G'$. So we are led to the following conjectures:

Conjecture. there is a unique lattice in \mathfrak{G} which is a maximal Lie subalgebra over 0 ;

Conjecture. the set I of the $X \in \mathfrak{G}$ such that the characteristic polynomial of the operator $\text{ad } X$ has its coefficients in 0 , is a Lie subalgebra over 0 ;

Conjecture. (A. Weil): any algebraic simple compact group over a locally compact P -adic field of characteristic zero is (up to finite groups) the quotient of the multiplicative group of a division algebra Q over P by its center. It is easy to prove that the Lie algebra \mathfrak{G} is the quotient of the Lie algebra Q by its center and the $X \in I$ are exactly the images of the integers of Q . It is obvious that because any Lie subalgebra over 0 is contained in I . Moreover, is true for the classical groups: we have only for

compact groups the groups $PGL_n(P) \sim P/\text{center}$ and the orthogonal and unitary groups for an anisotropic form..

Then if one can prove one of the above conjectures, one can hope to generalize these results to any semi-simple group by an argument by induction on the dimension of a maximal nilpotent subalgebra of G .

7.3 SOME ELEMENTARY P-ADIC ANALYSIS

In this chapter we will investigate elementary p-adic analysis, including concepts such as convergence of sequences and series, continuity and other topics familiar from elementary real analysis, but now in the context of the p-adic numbers \mathbb{Q}_p with the p-adic norm $\| \cdot \|_p$.

Let $a = \{ a_n \} \in \mathbb{Q}_p$. we know that for some M ,

$$|a_n|_p \leq \frac{1}{M^n}$$

which is an integral power of p . So for $t \in \mathbb{Z}$ an inequality of form

Proposition. (a_n) is a Cauchy sequence in \mathbb{Q}_p if and only if $(a_{n+1} - a_n)$ is a null sequence.

Next we will now consider series in \mathbb{Q}_p . Suppose that (a_n) is a sequence in \mathbb{Q}_p . For each n we can consider the n -th partial sum of the series a_n ,

$$S_n = a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n.$$

Definition If the sequence (s_n) in \mathbb{Q}_p has a limit

$$S = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n$$

we say that the series a_n converges to the limit S and write

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = S.$$

S is known the sum of the series a_n . If the series has no limit we say that it diverges.

In real analysis, there are series which converge but are not absolutely convergent. For example, the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n/n$ converges to $-\ln 2$ but $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1/n$ diverges. Our next result shows that this cannot happen in \mathbb{Q}_p .

Proposition. The series $\sum a_n$ in \mathbb{Q}_p converges if and only if (a_n) is a null sequence.

Proof. If $\sum a_n$ converges then by Proposition the sequence of partial sums (s_n) is Cauchy since $s_{n+i} - s_n = \sum_{j=n+1}^{n+i} a_j$ is a null sequence. Conversely, if (a_n) is null, then observe that the sequence (s_n) is Cauchy and hence converges.

So to check convergence of a series $\sum a_n$ in \mathbb{Q}_p it suffices to investigate whether

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n|_p = 0.$$

This means that convergence of series in \mathbb{Q}_p is generally far easier to deal with than convergence of series in the real or complex numbers.

Example. The series $\sum 1/n$ diverges in \mathbb{Q}_p since for example the subsequence

$$p^n - 1$$

$$j^n \equiv 1$$

$$np+1$$

of the sequence $(1/n)$ has $|p^n|_p = 1$ for every n .

As a particular type of series we can consider power series (in one variable x). Let $x \in \mathbb{Q}_p$ and let (a_n) be a sequence. Then we have the series $\sum a_n x^n$. As in real analysis, we can investigate for which values of x this converges or diverges.

Example. Take $a_n = 1$ for all n . Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |x^n|_p = 0 \text{ if } |x|_p < 1$$

$= 1$ otherwise.

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So this series converges if and only if $|x| < 1$. Of course, in \mathbb{R} the series $\sum x^n$ converges if $|x| < 1$, diverges if $|x| > 1$, diverges to $+\infty$ if $x = 1$ and oscillates through the values 0 and $-\infty$ if $x = -1$.

Example. For the series $\sum nx^n$, we have

$\sum nx^n = \sum n|x^n| < \sum |x|^n$ which tends to 0 in \mathbb{R} if $|x| < 1$. So this series certainly converges for every such x .

Just as in real analysis, we can define a notion of radius of convergence for a power series in \mathbb{Q}_p . For technical reasons, we will have to proceed with care to obtain a suitable definition. We first need to recall from real analysis the idea of the limit superior (\limsup) of a sequence of real numbers.

Definition. A real number ϵ is the limit superior of the sequence of real numbers (a_n) if the following conditions are satisfied:

(LS1) For real number $\epsilon > 0$,

$\exists M_1 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > M_1 \Rightarrow \epsilon + \epsilon > a_n$.

(LS2) For real number $\epsilon > 0$ and natural number M_2 ,

$\exists m > M_2$ such that $a_m < \epsilon - \epsilon$.

We write

$$\epsilon = \limsup a_n$$

if such a real number exists.

If no such ϵ exists, we write

$$\limsup a_n = +\infty.$$

It is a standard fact that if the sequence (a_n) converges then $\limsup a_n$ exists and

$$\limsup a_n = \lim a_n.$$

$n \cdot n^t$

In practise, this gives a useful method of computing $\limsup a_n$ in many cases.

Now consider a power series $\sum a_n x^n$ where $a_n \in \mathbb{Q}_p$.

Then we can define the radius of convergence of $\sum a_n x^n$ by the formula

$$r = 1 / \limsup |a_n|^{1/n}$$

$$\limsup |a_n|^{1/n}$$

Proposition. The series $\sum a_n x^n$ converges if $|x|_p < r$ and diverges if $|x|_p > r$, where r is the radius of convergence. If for some x_0 with $|x_0|_p = r$ the series $\sum a_n x_0^n$ converges (or diverges) then $\sum a_n x^n$ converges (or diverges) for all $x \in \mathbb{Q}_p$ with $|x|_p = r$.

Example. Show that the radii of convergence of the p -adic series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^n$$

$$\exp_p(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$$

are $p^{-1}/(p-1)$ and 1 , respectively.

$$|1/(n!)|_p = p^{-\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \lfloor k/p \rfloor} = p^{-\frac{n-1}{p}}$$

and

$\limsup |1/(n!)|_p^{1/n} = p^{1/(p-1)}$, so the radius of convergence of $\exp_p(x)$ is $p^{-1/(p-1)}$.

Also,

$$|1/n|_p = p^{-\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \lfloor k/p \rfloor} = p^{-\frac{n-1}{p}}$$

and

$$\limsup |1/n|_p^{1/n} = 1,$$

hence the radius of convergence of $\log_p(x)$ is 1 .

Check your Progress-1

Discuss Theory of valuations—II

7.4 REPRESENTATIONS OF LOCALLY COMPACT GROUPS

In this section we give a short account of some definitions and results about the representations of locally compact groups. We assume the fundamental theorem on the existence and uniqueness (upto a constant factor) of right invariant Haar measure on a locally compact groups. For simplicity we assume that the locally compact groups in our discussion are unimodular i.e., the Haar measure is both right and left invariant. By $L(G)$ we shall denote the space of continuous complex valued functions with compact support and by $L(G, K)$, where K is some compact set of G , the set of elements of $L(G)$ whose support is contained in K . Obviously we have $L(G) = \bigcup L(G, K)$ and $L(G, K)$ is a Banach space under the norm $\|f\| = \sup |f(x)|$.

The space $L(G)$ can be provided with a topology by taking the direct limit of the topologies of $L(G, K)$. This topology makes $L(G)$ a locally convex topological vector space.

Let G be a locally compact group and H a Banach space

Definition. A continuous representation U of G in H is a map $x \mapsto U_x \in \text{Hom}(H, H)$ such that

(i) $U_{xy} = U_x \circ U_y$ for x, y in G .

(ii) The map $H \times G \rightarrow H$ defined by $(a, x) \mapsto U_x a$ is continuous.

Definition. Let H be a Hilbert space. The representation U is said to be Unitary if U_x is a unitary operator on H for every x in G .

Let $M(G)$ be the space of measures on G with compact support. The space $M(G)$ is an algebra for the convolution product defined by

$$\mu * \nu(f) = \int \int f(xy) d\mu(x) d\nu(y)$$

The space $L(G)$ can be imbedded into $M(G)$ by the map $f \mapsto \mu_f = \int f(x) dx$. It is in fact a subalgebra of $M(G)$ because $\mu_f * \mu_g = \mu_{f * g}$ where

$$f * g(x) = \int f(xy^{-1})g(y) dy.$$

Moreover if ν is any element of $M(G)$, then $\mu_f * \nu$ belongs to $L(G)$, because for any $g \in L(G)$ we have

$$(\mu_f * \nu)(g) = \int \int g(xy) f(x) dx d\nu(y)$$

$$= \int d\nu(y) \int g(x) f(xy^{-1}) dx.$$

$$= \int h(x) g(x) dx \text{ where } h(x) = \int f(xy^{-1}) d\nu(y)$$

Thus we define the convolution of a measure μ and function $f \in L(G)$ by setting

Let U be a representation of G in H . Then U can be extended to $M(G)$ by setting

$$U_p(a) = \int U_x a d\mu(x) \text{ (for } a \in H, \mu \in M(G))$$

Now let H be a Hilbert space and U a Unitary representation.

Then if μ and ν are any two elements in $M(G)$, we have

$$(U_\nu U_\mu^* a, b) = \int \langle U_x U_\mu^* a, b \rangle d\nu(x)$$

$$= \int \langle U_\mu a, U_{x^{-1}} b \rangle d\nu(x)$$

$$= \int d\nu(x) \int \langle U_y a, U_{x^{-1}} b \rangle d\mu(y)$$

$$= \int \langle U_x U_y a, b \rangle d\nu(x) d\mu(y)$$

This means that $U_{\mu * \nu} = U_\mu \circ U_\nu$ i.e.,

Notes

U is a representation of the algebra $M(G)$. It can be easily verified that map $p \wedge U_p$ is a continuous representation of the algebra $M(G)$. Moreover

$$(U^*pa, b) = (Upb, a)$$

$$= \int (U_x a, b) dp(x^{-1})$$

This shows that $U_p = U_p$, where $dp(x) = dp(x^{-1})$.

Thus the operator U_p, p on H is Hermitian.

In particular we get a representation of $L(G)$ in H given by $f \wedge U_p f = Uf$, where $Uf(a) = \int G U_x a f(x) dx$.

We can also get a representation of $M(G)$ by considering regular representations of G i.e., representations G by right or left translations in G in any function space connected with G with some convenient topology, for instance the space $L(G)$ or $L^2(G)$ (the space of square integrable functions).

We shall denote by u_x the left regular representations and by t_x the right regular representations of G i.e., for any function f on G we have

$$u_x(f)(y) = f(x^{-1}y), \quad t_x(f)(y) = f(yx)$$

$$M(f) = P^*f$$

$$v v = 1$$

$$t_p(f) = f^*p \text{ where } dp(x) = dp(x^{-1})$$

Let K be a compact group, M an equivalence class of (unitary) irreducible representations of K . For any x belonging to G , let $M_x = (C M(x))$ be the matrix of M_x with respect to some basis of the representation space. Let t_m be the dimension of M and $x_m = \sum_{i=1}^m C M$

$$i=1 \quad ii$$

Character of M . For any two irreducible unitary representations of K we have the following orthogonally relation,

CM^*CM if $M \in M$

$C \ll C' = \int L_s^* C t f$

where the value of the convolution product at the unit element e of G is given by $CM^*C^*f(e) = \int C'(y) f(y) dy$.

When we write (1) and (2) in terms of characters we get

$\chi_m^* \chi_{m'} = 0$ if $m \neq m'$

$\chi_m^* \chi_m = \chi_m$

χ_m

Obviously we have

$(\chi_m^* \chi_m) * CM = CM * \chi_m^* \chi_m = CM$

Let $L_m(K)$ be the vector space generated by the coefficients CM , where M is the complex conjugate representation of M . If f is in $L^2(G)$,

then by Peter-Weyl's theorem, $f = \sum_{i,j} c_{ij} \chi_i \chi_j^*$. Further if $\chi_i \chi_j^* = f$, $i, j \in N$

then we have $f = \sum_{i,j} c_{ij} \chi_i \chi_j^*$, which means that f belongs to $L_m(K)$. Conversely if f belongs to $L_m(K)$, then $f = \sum_{i,j} c_{ij} \chi_i \chi_j^*$. Therefore

$\chi_i \chi_j^* = f$ Hence $f \in L^2(G)$ is in $L_m(K)$ if and only if $\chi_i \chi_j^* = f$. In this paragraph we give another interpretation of the space $L_m(K)$.

Definition. Let M be an irreducible unitary representation of K and U any representation of K in a Banach space H .

We say that an element $a \in H$ is transformed by U following M , if a is contained in a finite dimensional invariant subspace F of H such that the restriction of U to F is direct sum representations of the equivalence class of M .

Let $H_M = H_m = \{ a \in H, a \text{ transformed by } U \text{ following } M \}$. It is easy to verify that H_m is a vector space.

Notes

Proposition. $L^m(K)$ is exactly the subspace of $L^2(K)$ formed by the elements which are transformed following M (respectively following M) by the left (respectively right) regular representation of K .

Proposition. If U is a representation of K in H , then $E_M = U^* M U$ is a continuous projection from $H \otimes H^m$.

In order to prove the proposition 1 and 2 prove the following results.

Suppose that y belongs to $L^m(K)$, then $\langle y, z \rangle = \int_C f(z) dz$ For

$j \in J$

we have $(k f)(x) = \int_C c_{jj}(x^{-1}y) = \int_C c_{jj}(x^{-1}) C f_j(y)$

$k = w$.

So the space E_j generated by $C_{ij}, \dots, C_{rj}(rM=r)$ is invariant by u and the restriction of u to E_j is of class M . Therefore $L^m(K)$, which

U is direct sum of the E_j , is contained in $(L^2(G))^m$.

M

If p belongs to $L^m(K)$ and a belongs to H , then we show that $U_p a$ belong to H^m .

We have

$U_x U_p a = U_x \int_C p(x^{-1}y) U(y) a dy = \int_C p(x^{-1}y) U(y) a dy$ where s_x is the Dirac measure at the point x , and $\int_C U(y) a dy = U(x) a$.

This shows that $p \in L^m(K) \wedge U_p a \in H$ is a morphism of representation j and U . Hence $U_p a$ is transformed by U following M .

If a belongs to H^m , then $E_M a = a$. Since a belongs to some finite dimensional invariant subspace F of H and the restriction of U to F is the direct sum of representation of class M , we can find a basis (e_j^k) of F such that $U_x e_j^k = \int_C M(x) e_j^k dx$

Let $a = \sum_j d_j e_j^j$. Then \int

$E^a = \int M(x) \sum_j d_j e_j^j(x) dx$

$$\int_j = \int_{\text{rm}} \int_{\text{Yu}} (2 \int_{\text{AJk}} f \text{ cfj}^{\wedge} \text{d.x}) \text{dx} \text{eik}$$

$$i, k \int_j \wedge \int_{\text{AJk}} \text{eik} = a \bullet$$

Moreover

$$\int_{\text{mCM}} (x) \text{xm} (x-1) \text{dx} = \int_{\text{rMXM}} \text{CM} (\epsilon) = \int_j$$

In particular if p belongs to $L^2(G)$ it is transformed by j following M , then

$$\int_{\text{rMXM}} \langle P = \int_{\text{rmxm}} \text{P} = P$$

Therefore p belongs to $L^m(K)$.

Clearly the results imply proposition [1](#).

$$\int_{\text{EmEm}} = \int_{\text{m m}} \int_{\text{u}^2} \text{xm} \text{*xm}$$

$$= \int_{\text{UrMXM}} = \int_{\text{EM}},$$

the proposition is proved by result

Similarly we prove that $\int_{\text{Em}} \bullet \int_{\text{Em}} = 0$ for $M \neq P$. Thus we get a family of projections \int_{Em} with $\int_{\text{Em}}(H) = H_m$. The sum $\sum H_m$ is direct and is dense in H . It is sufficient to prove that if a' is a continuous linear form on H , which is zero on every H_m , then $\langle a, a' \rangle = 0$ for every $a \in H$. Let us put $p(x) = \int_{\text{Uxa, a'}}$. Then

$$\langle \varphi, C_{ij}^M \rangle = \int C_{ij}^{\overline{M}}(y) \langle U_y a, a' \rangle dy.$$

$$\{ \int_{\text{Uga, a'}} \text{ with } g = C_{ij} \}$$

But $\int_{\text{Uga'}}$ belongs to H_m , therefore we get that p is orthogonal to all the coefficients C_{ij}^M for any M , so $p=0$.

In particular if U is unitary (for instance the regular representation in $L^2(K)$), then the \int_{Em} are orthogonal projections and H is exactly Hilbertian sum of the closed subspaces H_m .

Let G be a locally compact group, K a compact subgroup of G . Suppose that U is a continuous representation of G in H and M an equivalence class of unitary representation of K . By $\int_{\text{HM}} = H_m$ we shall mean the

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vector subspace of H consisting of elements which are transformed by the restriction of U to K following M . As in the above case $E_m = U r w c M$'s a projection of H to H_m . Let

$$L_m(G) = \{ f \in L(G), f^* r M X M \sim r m x m^* / \text{---} / j \}$$

It is easy to prove that $L_m(G)$ is a subalgebra of $L(G)$ and the mapping $f \mapsto U f U$ is a projection from $L(G)$ to $L_m(G)$.

If f belongs to $L_m(G)$ and a belongs to H , then $U f a$ is in H_m . If b belongs to H_m , then $U f(a) = U r M(a) X M$, $f = E M U f a \wedge U f a$ is in H_m . If b belongs to H_m , then

$$U f b = U \int E_m \langle b | U f E M E M \rangle b = 0$$

$$f^* m x M$$

This shows that U is a representation of $L_m(G)$ in H_m and $U f = E_m U f E_m$. Moreover for $f \in L_m(G)$

$$f(j) = r M \int f(k^{-1} y) x m(k) dk.$$

In particular if M is the identity representation, then $x m$ is constant and f is in $L_m(G)$ if and only if

$$f(y) = m \int f(k y) dk = r m \int f(y k) dk$$

$$k k^{-1} f(h y k) = f(f y k) = f(y).$$

Such functions are known spherical function on G with respect to K . They can be considered as functions on G/K which are left invariant, provided we write $G/K = \{ K, aK, \dots \}$

7.5 IRREDUCIBLE REPRESENTATIONS

In this section we study how we can get some information about the representation of a group G by studying the representation of the algebra

$$L_m(G).$$

Definition. A representation U of a group G in a vector space V is said to be algebraically irreducible if there exists no proper invariant subspace of V .

Definition. A representation U of a topological group G in a locally convex space E is said to be topologically irreducible if there exists no proper closed invariant subspaces of E .

Definition. A representation U of a topological group G in a Banach space H is said to be completely irreducible if $U(L(G))$ is dense in $\text{Hom}(H, H)$ in the topology of simple convergence. i.e., given an operator T on H and element a_1, a_2, \dots, a_p in H , there exists for every $\epsilon > 0$ an element f in $L(G)$ such that

$$\|Uf - T\| \leq \epsilon \text{ for } i=1, 2, \dots, p.$$

It is obvious that F is a proper closed invariant subspace of H . Let $a \neq 0$ be any element of F , then for every b in H there exists a $T \in \text{Hom}(H, H)$ such that $T(a)=b$. But by definition for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists an element f in $L(G)$ such that $\|Uf - T(a)\| < \epsilon$. This means that F is dense in H which is a contradiction because F was assumed to be a closed proper subspace of H .

The definitions are equivalent for unitary representation by Von Neumann and all the three representation are equivalent for finite dimension representations. The proof can be found in the definition implies.

Theorem. If U is a completely irreducible representation of G in a Banach space H , then the representation U_M of $L(G)$ in $H(M)$ is also completely irreducible.

Proof. Suppose that T belongs to $\text{Hom}(H(M), H(M))$. Extend T to H by setting $T=T$ on $H(M)$ and 0 on $E \sim M(0)$. Obviously T is continuous on H .

Since U is completely irreducible, T can be approximated by Uf for f in $L(G)$. i.e., $T = \lim Uf$. Therefore

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$$\text{EmTEm} = \lim \text{EmU}^{\wedge} \text{Em}$$

$$= \lim \text{farwCM}$$

Hence in HM, $T = \lim \text{UrM}^{\wedge} \text{M}$, $f_i, rM^{\wedge} \text{M}$

where $rMXM^* f_i^* rmxm$ is in $L_m(G)$. Thus UM is completely irreducible.

Let U be a unitary irreducible representation of G in a Hilbert space H . By coefficient of U we mean positive definite function $\{Ux_a, a\}$ on G . We state without proof the following theorem about the coefficients of unitary representations.

Theorem. If two irreducible unitary representations have same non-zero coefficient associated to them, they are equivalent.

We have observed that the representation U can be extended to the space $M(G)$ and the operator $U_p^* p$ for any p in $M(G)$ is Hermitian. In particular if we take $p = MXM^d k$, we have $p = p$. Therefore $U_p, p = Em$ is Hermitian.

Moreover for any f_i in $L(G)$ and a in H_m

$$\{U_f a, a\} = \{U_f E M a, E M a\} = \{E M U_f E M a, a\}$$

$$= \{U_f a, a\}$$

where $f_o = r_u X u^* f^* r M X M$ belongs to $L_m(G)$. Thus if we know nonzero coefficient associated to UM , we know coefficient associated to U as a representation of $L(G)$, which determines coefficient of U as a representation of G . Thus a unitary irreducible representation of G is completely characterised by its restriction UM to $L_g(G)$ if UM is not zero.

Definition. A set O of representations of an algebra A in a vector space is said to be complete if for every nonzero f in A there exists $U \in O$ such that $U f \neq 0$.

Proposition. If there exists a complete set O of representations of an algebra A which are of dimension $< K$ (K a fixed integer), then every

completely irreducible representation of A in a Banach space is of dimension $< k$.

We first prove a Theorem due to Kaplansky. Let A be any algebra. For x_1, \dots, x_p in A we define $[x_1, \dots, x_p] = \sum_{\sigma \in S_p} \text{sgn}(\sigma) x_{\sigma(1)} \dots x_{\sigma(p)}$ where S_p is

P the set of all permutations u on $1, 2, \dots, p$ and $\text{sgn}(\sigma)$ is the signature of σ . Obviously if $\dim A < p$, then $[x_1, \dots, x_p] = 0$ for all x_1, x_2, \dots, x_p in A . In particular we take $A = M_n(\mathbb{C})$, algebra of $n \times n$ matrix with coefficient from \mathbb{C} , the field of complex numbers, We define

$r(n) = \inf\{p \text{ such that } [X_1, \dots, X_p] \neq 0, X_i \in M_n(\mathbb{C})\}$

Clearly $r(n) < n^2 + 1$. We shall prove that $r(n+1) > r(n) + 2$.

We have $r(n) - 1$ elements $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{r(n)-1}$ in $M_n(\mathbb{C})$ such that $[X_1, \dots, X_{r(n)-1}] = 0$, Let E_{kh} be the canonical basis of $M_n(\mathbb{C})$. Then

$[X_1, \dots, X_{r(n)-1}] = \sum_{k,h} A_{kh} E_{kh}$.

Since $[X_1, \dots, X_{r(n)-1}] = 0$, there exists k_0 and h_0 such that $A_{k_0 h_0} = 0$. Let X_i be the matrix obtained by adding a row and a column of zeros to X_i . Then

$[X_1, \dots, X_{r(n)-1}, E_{h_0, n+1}, E_{n+1, k_0}] = [X_1, \dots, X_{r(n)-1}, X_{k_0, h_0}] = \sum_{k,h} A_{kh} E_{kh} = 0$

$h, k = \sum_{k,h} A_{kh} E_{k, n+1} E_{n+1, h} = 0$

Thus $r(n+1) > r(n) + 2$.

Now we prove the proposition. Suppose that $r(k) = r$ and U is a complete irreducible representation of $\dim U = k$ in a Banach space H . Let F be a subspace of H of $\dim F = k+1$. Since $r(k+1) > r(k)$, there exist operators $[A_1, \dots, A_r]$ in $\text{Hom}(F, F)$ such that $[A_1, \dots, A_r] \neq 0$. We extend each A_i to the whole space H by defining A_i to be zero on F' , where F' is any closed subspace such that H is the topological direct sum of F and F' . Suppose that $A = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} U_i A_i$, where $U_i \in A$. We have

$0 \neq [A_1, \dots, A_r] = \sum_{i=1}^r A_i = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} [U_i A_1, \dots, U_i A_r]$.

$\in S_r$

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Therefore there exists f_1 in A such that Repeating this process we obtain that there exist elements f_1, \dots

f_r in A such that

$U[f_1, \dots, f_r] = [Uf_1, \dots, Uf_r] + 0$. But this is a contradiction because $[f_1, \dots, f_r] = 0$ if $[f_1, \dots, f_r] \neq 0$, then there exists a V in O such that

$V[f_1, \dots, f_r](a) \neq 0$

$[Vf_1, \dots, Vf_r](a) = 0$. But $r > rk$ and $\dim V < k$, therefore $[Vf_1, \dots, Vf_r] = 0$. Hence $\dim U < k$.

Corollary. Let G be a locally compact group, K a compact subgroup, M a class of irreducible unitary representations of K in a Banach space H . If there exists a system O of representations of G in a Banach space such that (i) for every U in O , the representation UM of $L^1(G)$ is of $\dim < p \dim M$. Equivalently M occurs at most p times in each U .

The representations UM for U in O form a complete system of representation of algebra $L^1(G)$.

Then M occurs at most p times in any completely irreducible representation of G .

MEASURES ON HOMOGENEOUS SPACES

Let G be a locally compact group, dx the right invariant Haar measure and $A(x)$ the modular function on G i. e., $d(yx) = A(y)dx$. Let T be a closed subgroup of G . We shall denote by the elements of r by $d\%$ and the Haar measure and the modular function on r . It is well known that there exists a right invariant Haar measure on G/T if and only if $A(\wedge) = \delta(\wedge)$. In general it is possible to find a quasi-invariant measure on G/r . In order to show the existence, one shows that there exists a $\delta(\wedge)$ strictly positive continuous function p on G such that $p(x) = \int p(yx) d\%$ for every x in G and \wedge in r . Then the measure $p(x)dx$ gives rise to a measure $dp(x)$ on G/r such that for any f in $L^1(G)$ we have where depends only on the cosets of a^* modulo T . Thus $p(x)$ is a $P(x)$ quasi-invariant measure on G/r . The details could be found in.

INDUCED REPRESENTATIONS

Let L be a representation of T in Hilbert space H . We shall define two types of induced representation on G given by L .

Assume that L is unitary. Let HL be the spaces of functions f on G such that

f is measurable with values in H .

$f(x) = [p(\cdot)]^{1/2} L f(x)$, for $\gamma \in r$.

$\int (p(x))^{-1} \|f(x)\|^2 dx < \infty$.

Since the function $(p(x))^{-1} \|f(x)\|^2$ is invariant on the left by r , it can be considered as a function on G/r . Thus we define

$\|f\|_{HL}^2 = \int (p(x))^{-1} \|f(x)\|^2 dp(x)$

It can be proved that HL is a Hilbert space with the scalar product

$\langle f, g \rangle_{HL} = \int (p(x))^{-1} \langle f(x), g(x) \rangle dp(x)$.

Let UL be the map from G to HL such that

$ULf(y) = f(xy)$

Obviously UL is continuous. Since we have

$\|ULf\|_{HL}^2 = \int (p(x))^{-1} \|f(xy)\|^2 dp(x)$
 $= \int (p(xy^{-1}))^{-1} \|f(x)\|^2 dp(x) = \|f\|_{HL}^2$

It follows that UL is unitary. We say that UL is the unitary representation induced by L .

Let L be any representation of r . Let us suppose that there exists a compact subgroup K of G such that $G = TK$. Let CL be the space of functions f such that

f is continuous with values in H .

$\|f\|_{CL} = \sup_{x \in K} \|f(x)\|$ former.

We define $\|f\|_{CL} = \sup_{x \in K} \|f(x)\|$. Clearly CL with this norm is a Hilbert space.

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Banach space. Again right translation by elements of G give rise to a representation of G in GL . We denote this also by UL .

Let $f \wedge$ restriction of f to $K=f_0$ be the map from the CL to $C(K)$ (the set of continuous functions on K with values in H). The image of CL by this map is the set of elements $f_0 \in C(K)$ which satisfy condition above for all ϵ in $r \cap K$ and x is K . But $p(\epsilon)=1$, because p is a positive real character of $K \cap r$, therefore $f_0(\epsilon x)=f_0(x)$. Through the space CL is identified with a subspace of $C(K)$ yet the representation UL cannot be defined on this subspace. However the restriction of UL to K and the representation induced by the restriction of L to $r \cap K$ are identical.

If L is unitary then f belongs to HL if and only if f_0 belongs to $L^2(K)$. We can choose p in such a way that $p(xk)=p(x)$ for $k \in K$. Since the group $K/K \cap r$ is compact homogeneous space, there exists one and only one invariant Haar measure on it. But $K/K \cap r$ is isomorphic to G/r therefore with the above choice of p , the quasiinvariant measure on G/r gives rise to the invariant measure on $K/K \cap r$.

Check your Progress-2

Discuss Residual degree and ramification index

7.6 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have discussed the definition and example of Theory of valuations–II, Residual degree and ramification index, Complete algebraic closure of a p -adic field, Valuations of non-commutative rings

7.7 KEYWORDS

Theory of valuations–II We prove here an analogue of the theorem about the representations of semisimple Lie Groups

Residual degree and ramification index.....In this chapter we will investigate elementary p-adic analysis, including concepts such as convergence of sequences and series, continuity

Complete algebraic closure of a p-adic fieldIn this section we give a short account of some definitions and results about the representations of locally compact groups

Valuations of non-commutative rings.....In this section we study how we can get some information about the representation of a group G by studying the representation of the algebra $M_n(K)$.

7.8 QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

Explain Theory of valuations–II

Explain Residual degree and ramification index

7.9 REFERENCES

p-adic numbers: an introduction by Fernando Gouvea

p-adic Numbers, p-adic Analysis, and Zeta-Functions, Neal Koblitz
(1984, ISBN 978-0-387-96017-3)

A Course in p-adic Analysis by Alain M Robert

Analytic Elements in P-adic Analysis by Alain Escassut

7.10 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Theory of valuations–II (answer for Check your Progress-1 Q)

Residual degree and ramification index

(answer for Check your Progress-1 Q)