LOCAL FIELDS

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These notes have not been checked by Dr. T. Dokchitser and should not be regarded as official notes for the course. In particular, the responsibility for any errors is mine — please email Sebastian Pancratz (sfp25) with any comments or corrections.

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Valued Fields

An absolute value on a field K is a function $|\cdot| \colon K \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ such that

- (i) |x| = 0 if and only if x = 0;
- (ii) |xy| = |x||y|;
- (iii) $|x+y| \le |x| + |y|$.

Example. Take $K = \mathbb{Q}$, \mathbb{R} , or \mathbb{C} and let $|\cdot|$ be the usual absolute value, which we will denote $|\cdot|_{\infty}$.

Example. For any field K, let

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

called the *trivial absolute value* on K.

From (i) and (ii) it follows that |1| = |-1| = 1. Generally, if $x \in K$ such that $x^n = 1$ then |x| = 1. In particular, if $K = \mathbb{F}_{p^n}$ is a finite field, or $K = \overline{\mathbb{F}}_p$, then K has only trivial absolute value. Also note that |x/y| = |x|/|y| for $y \neq 0$ and $|x^n| = |x|^n$.

Example (*p*-adic Absolute Value on \mathbb{Q}). Fix a prime *p* and $0 < \alpha < 1$. Write $x \in \mathbb{Q}^*$ as

$$x = p^n \frac{a}{b}$$

with $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and a, b coprime to p. Then define $|x| = |p^n a/b| = \alpha^n$. This is called the *p*-adic absolute value on \mathbb{Q} . It is indeed an absolute value, for if $x = p^n a/b$, $y = p^m c/d$ then

$$|xy| = |p^{n+m} \frac{ac}{bd}| = \alpha^{m+n} = |x||y|$$
$$|x+y| = |p^{\min\{n,m\}} \frac{\star}{bd}| = |p^{\min\{n,m\}}||\frac{\star}{bd}|$$
$$\leq \alpha^{\min\{n,m\}} = \max\{|x|, |y|\} \leq |x| + |y|$$

So a rational number is small with respect to $|\cdot|$ if and only if it is divisible by a large power of p. To remove ambiguity in the choice of α , we make the following definition.

Definition. Two absolute values $|\cdot|$, $||\cdot||$ on K are *equivalent* if there exists c > 0 such that

$$|x| = ||x||^c$$

for all $x \in K$. The normalised *p*-adic absolute value is the one with $\alpha = 1/p$ and it is denoted $|\cdot|_p$.

Example. Let p = 5. Then

$$|5^{n}|_{5} = 5^{-n} \qquad |10|_{5} = \frac{1}{5}$$
$$|\frac{1}{10}|_{5} = 5 \qquad |\frac{2}{3}|_{5} = 1$$

If an absolute value on K satisfies the following stronger condition (iii)

 $|x+y| \le \max\{|x|, |y|\}$

we call it ultrametric or non-Archimedean. Otherwise, we say it is Archimedean.

Theorem 1.1 (Ostrowski). Any non-trivial absolute value $|\cdot|$ on \mathbb{Q} is equivalent to either $|\cdot|_{\infty}$ or $|\cdot|_p$ for some p.

Proof. Let a, b > 1 be integers and write b^n in base a,

 $b^{n} = c_{m}a^{m} + c_{m-1}a^{m-1} + \dots + c_{0}$ with $c_{i} \in [0, a-1]$. Let $M = \max\{|1|, \dots, |a-1|\}$. Then $|b^{n}| \leq |c_{m}||a|^{m} + \dots + |c_{0}|$ $\leq (m+1)M \max\{|a|^{m}, \dots, |1|\}$ $\leq (n \log_{a} b + 1)M \max\{1, |a|^{m}\}$

Taking *n*th roots and letting $n \to \infty$,

$$|b| \le \max\{1, |a|^{\log_a b}\}\tag{(*)}$$

Case 1. Assume |b| > 1 for some integer b > 1. By (*),

$$|b| \le \max\{1, |a|^{\log_a b}\} = |a|^{\log_a b}$$

so |a| > 1 for all a > 1. Interchanging a and b in (*),

$$|a| \le |b|^{\log_b a}$$

 \mathbf{SO}

$$|b|^{\frac{1}{\log b}} = |a|^{\frac{1}{\log a}}$$

Equivalently, $|a| = a^{\lambda}$ for all $a \ge 1$ and some λ independent of a, so $|\cdot| \sim |\cdot|_{\infty}$. **Case 2.** Suppose $|b| \le 1$ for all integers $b \ge 1$. Then there is a b > 1 such that |b| < 1, otherwise $|\cdot|$ is trivial. Take such a b and write $b = p_1^{n_1} \cdots p_k^{n_k}$. Then

$$1 > |b| = |p_1|^{n_1} \cdots |p_k|^{n_k}$$

so there exists p such that |p| < 1. It suffices to show that |q| = 1 for all primes $q \neq p$, and it then follows that $|\cdot| \sim |\cdot|_p$.

Suppose |p| < 1 and |q| < 1 for some $p \neq q$. Take $n, m \geq 1$ such that $|p^n| < 1/2$, $|q^m| < 1/2$. As p^n, q^m are coprime, $1 = xp^n + yq^m$ for some $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$, so

$$1 \le |x||p^n| + |y||q^m| < \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} = 1$$

contradiction.

We do not need the following result, but there is a complete classification of Archimedean absolute values.

Theorem 1.2. If $|\cdot|$ is an Archimedean absolute value on a field K then there exists an injection $K \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C}$ such that $|\cdot| \sim |\cdot|_{\infty}$ on \mathbb{C} .

Non-Archimedean Absolute Values and Valuations

From now on, $|\cdot|: K \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ is non-Archimedean and non-trivial. We sometimes say K is non-Archimedean with a fixed $|\cdot|$ in mind.

Pick $0 < \alpha < 1$ and write $|x| = \alpha^{v(x)}$, i.e., let $v(x) = \log_{\alpha} |x|$.

$$K^* \to \mathbb{R}_{>0} \xrightarrow{\log_{\alpha}} (\mathbb{R}, +)$$

Then v(x) is a *valuation*, an additive version of $|\cdot|$.

Definition. The map $v: K^* \to \mathbb{R}$ is a valuation if

- (i) $v(K^*) \neq \{0\};$
- (ii) v(xy) = v(x) + v(y);
- (iii) $v(x+y) \ge \min\{v(x), v(y)\}.$

Valuations v and cv, for c > 0 a real constant, are called *equivalent*. A valuation determines a non-trivial non-Archimedean absolute value and vice versa.

We extend v to K formally by letting $v(0) = \infty$. The image $v(K^*)$ is an additive subgroup of \mathbb{R} , the value group of v. If it is discrete, i.e., isomorphic to \mathbb{Z} , we say v is a discrete valuation. If $v(K^*) = \mathbb{Z}$, we call v normalised discrete valuation.

We will only study discrete valuations.

Example. Let $K = \mathbb{Q}$ and p a prime. Then

$$v_p = \operatorname{ord}_p \colon \mathbb{Q}^* \ni p^n \frac{a}{b} \mapsto n \in \mathbb{Z}$$

is the p-adic valuation,

$$|x|_p = \left(\frac{1}{p}\right)^{v_p(x)}$$

Alternatively,

$$v_p(x) = \max_{r \in \mathbb{Z}} \{r : x \in p^r \mathbb{Z}\}$$

Generally, if K is a number field with $[K : \mathbb{Q}] < \infty$, let $\{0\} \leq P \subset \mathcal{O}_K$ be a prime ideal. Then define

$$v_P \colon K \to \mathbb{Z}, x \mapsto \max_{r \in \mathbb{Z}} \{r : x \in P^r \mathcal{O}_K\}$$

This is a normalised discrete valuation and every valuation on K is of this form, i.e., there is an analogue of Ostrowski's theorem for number fields.

Example. Let K = k(t). Define

 $v_0\left(t^n \frac{p(t)}{q(t)}\right) = n$

where $p(0), q(0) \neq 0$. This is a normalised discrete valuation, the order of zeros or poles at t = 0. In fact, for any $a \in K$ we may define

$$v_a\left((t-a)^n \frac{p(t)}{q(t)}\right) = n$$

where $p(a), q(a) \neq 0$. For instance, let $f(t) = t^2(t-1)/(t-2)^5$. Then

$$v_0(f) = 2$$
 $v_1(f) = 1$ $v_2(f) = -5$ $v_a(f) = 0$

for all other $a \in k$. There is also

$$v_{\infty}\left(\frac{p(t)}{q(t)}\right) = \deg q(t) - \deg p(t) \in \mathbb{Z}$$

which again is a valuation, called the order at ∞ .

If $X = \mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\}$ is the Riemann sphere let $K = \mathbb{C}(z)$ be the field of meromorphic functions on X. The above valuation is

$$v_a(f) = \operatorname{ord}_{z=a} f(z)$$

for every $a \in X$, including ∞ .

If $k = \mathbb{C}$, or in general, an algebraically closed field, then these are the only valuations on K = k(t) with $v(k^*) = \{0\}$.

2.1 Aside on Algebraically Closed Fields

Definition. A field K is algebraically closed if the following equivalent conditions are satisfied.

- (i) Every polynomial of degree n over K has precisely n roots, counted with multiplicity.
- (ii) Every non-constant polynomial is a product of linear factors.
- (iii) If $f \in K[X]$ is non-constant and irreducible then f is linear.
- (iv) K has no non-trivial finite extensions.

Example. \mathbb{C} is algebraically closed. $\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{F}_{p^n}, k(t)$ are not algebraically closed.

Theorem 2.1. Let K be any field. Then there exists an algebraically closed field \overline{K} unique up to isomorphism such that $K \subset \overline{K}$ and every element of \overline{K} is algebraic over K. \overline{K} is called an *algebraic closure*.

Example. \mathbb{C} is algebraically closed so $\overline{\mathbb{C}} = \mathbb{C}$. $\overline{\mathbb{R}} = \mathbb{C}$. $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ is the set of $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ satisfying polynomials with rational coefficients.

Exercise 1. Show that \mathbb{Q} as defined above is an algebraically closed field. Further show that there exists a sequence $(K_n)_{n\geq 1}$ of finite Galois extensions $Q \subset K_1 \subset K_2 \subset \cdots$ such that $\overline{\mathbb{Q}} = \bigcup_{n>1} K_n$.

2.2 Algebraic Properties of Valuations

Let $v: K^* \to \mathbb{R}$ be a valuation corresponding to the absolute value $|\cdot|: K \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$. Then

$$\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{O}_v = \mathcal{O}_K = \{x \in K : v(x) \ge 0\} = \{x \in K : |x| \le 1\}$$

is a ring, called the *valuation ring* of v. K is its field of fractions, and

$$x \in K \setminus \mathcal{O} \implies \frac{1}{x} \in \mathcal{O}$$

The set of units in \mathcal{O} is

$$\mathcal{O}^{\times} = \{x \in K : v(x) = 0\} = \{x \in K : |x| = 1\}$$

 and

$$M = \{x \in K : v(x) > 0\} = \{x \in K : |x| < 1\}$$

is an ideal in \mathcal{O} . Because $\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{O}^{\times} \cup M$, M is a unique maximal ideal, so \mathcal{O} is *local*. $k = \mathcal{O}/M$ is a field, called the *residue field* of v or of K.

Suppose $v: K^* \to \mathbb{Z}$ is normalised discrete. Take $\pi \in M$ with $v(\pi) = 1$, called a *uniformiser*. Then every $x \in K^*$ can be written uniquely as

$$x = u\pi^{i}$$

for a unit $u \in \mathcal{O}^{\times}$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Every $x \in \mathcal{O}$ can be written uniquely as

$$x = u\pi'$$

for a unit $u \in \mathcal{O}^{\times}$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$. Every $x \in M$ can be written uniquely as

$$x = u\pi^r$$

for a unit $u \in \mathcal{O}^{\times}$ and $n \ge 1$. In particular, $M = (\pi)$ is principal. Moreover, every ideal $I \subset \mathcal{O}$ is principal,

$$\mathcal{O} \supset I \neq (0) \implies I = (\pi^n)$$

where $n = \min\{v(x) : x \in I\}$, so \mathcal{O} is a principal ideal domain (PID).

Example. Let $K = \mathbb{Q}, v = v_p$. Then

$$\mathcal{O} = \left\{ \frac{x}{y} : (y, p) = 1 \right\}$$
$$M = \left\{ \frac{x}{y} : (y, p) = 1, p \mid x \right\} = (p)\mathcal{O}$$
$$\mathcal{O}/M = k \cong \mathbb{F}_p, \frac{x}{y} \mapsto \frac{x \mod p}{y \mod p}$$

Example. Let K = k(T) and consider v_a for some $a \in k$. Then

$$\mathcal{O} = \left\{ \frac{f}{g} : g(a) \neq 0 \right\}$$
$$M = \left\{ \frac{f}{g} : g(a) \neq 0, f(a) = 0 \right\}$$
$$\mathcal{O}/M \xrightarrow{\sim} k, f \mapsto f(a)$$

the evaluation map.

Definition. A discrete valuation ring (DVR) is a local integral PID, which is not a field.

- **Theorem 2.2.** (i) Suppose $v: K^* \to \mathbb{Z}$ is a valuation. Then \mathcal{O}_v is a DVR.
 - (ii) If R is a DVR then there exists a unique valuation v on its field of fractions K such that $R = \mathcal{O}_v$.
- *Proof.* (i) $\mathcal{O}_v \subset K$ is a subring, hence is an integral domain; we have already shown it is local and a PID. $\pi^{-1} \in K \setminus \mathcal{O}$, so \mathcal{O} is not a field.
 - (ii) Let R be a DVR. R is local so has a unique maximal ideal M, and R is a PID so $M = (\pi)$ for some $\pi \in R$. (Recall that if R is a PID then R is also a UFD.) If π' is another irreducible element then (π') is maximal, hence $(\pi) = (\pi')$ so π' is associate to π . As R is a UFD, every element is uniquely of the form $u\pi^n, u \in R$ a unit.

Now define v on R by letting $v(u\pi^n) = n$, and extend to K by v(x/y) = v(x) - v(y). Check it is a valuation.

Definition. Let $R \subset S$ be rings. Then $x \in S$ is *integral* over R if

$$x^{n} + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_{1}x + a_{0} = 0$$

for some $a_i \in R$. The *integral closure* of R in S is

$$\{x \in S : x \text{ integral over } R\}$$

This is a ring, contained in S and containing R.

Example. Let $R = \mathbb{Z}$, $S = \mathbb{C}$. Then the integral closure is the ring of algebraic integers.

A domain R is *integrally closed* if R is its integral closure in its field of fractions. Equivalently, for all $y \in \operatorname{Frac}(R)$, y is integral over R if and only if $y \in R$.

Theorem 2.3. Let R be a domain. Then R is a DVR if and only if R is Noetherian, integrally closed, and has a unique non-zero prime ideal.

Proof. Suppose R is a DVR. We know every ideal is principal and hence finitely generated, so R is Noetherian.

Now take $x \in Frac(R) = K$, $x \notin R$, i.e., v(x) = m < 0, but satisfying

$$x^{n} + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_{1}x + a_{0} = 0$$

Then

$$mn = v(x^n) = v(-x^n) = v(a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1x + a_0) \ge m(n-1)$$

a contradiction.

Every ideal $(0) \neq I \subset R$ is of the form $I = (\pi^k)$, and (π^m) is prime if and only if m = 1. Thus (π) is the unique non-zero prime ideal. This completes one direction of the proof.

Lemma 2.4 (Poor Man's Factorisation). Let R be Noetherian and $I \subset R$ an ideal. Then there exists prime ideals P_1, \ldots, P_n such that

$$I \subset P_i, \qquad \prod_{i=1}^n P_i \subset I$$

Proof. Let S be the set of ideals I not having this property. Assume $S \neq \emptyset$ and take $I \in S$ to be a maximal element, which is possible as R is Noetherian. Prime ideals are not in S, so I is not prime, i.e., there exist $a, b \in R$ such that $a, b \notin I$ and $ab \in I$. As I is maximal,

$$I \subsetneq I + (a), I \subsetneq I + (b) \implies I + (a), I + (b) \notin S$$

Thus there exist P_i, Q_j such that

$$\prod_{i} P_{i} \subset I + (a) \qquad P_{i} \supset I + (a) \supset I$$
$$\prod_{j} Q_{j} \subset I + (b) \qquad Q_{j} \supset I + (b) \supset I$$

Now

$$\left(\prod_{i} P_{i}\right) \left(\prod_{j} Q_{j}\right) \subset (I+(a))(I+(b)) \subset I$$

a contradiction.

Proof (of Theorem 2.3). Conversely, let M be the unique non-zero prime ideal. Then R is maximal and local. It is now enough to show that M is principal since then every ideal is principal.

Let $y \in M$, $y \neq 0$. Poor man's factorisation gives

$$M^n \subset (y) \subset M$$

for some n. Let n be the smallest such. Then

$$M^n \subset (y), M^{n-1} \not\subset (y)$$

Let $x \in M^{n-1} \setminus (y)$. Set $z = x/y \in Frac(R), z \notin R$. (At this stage, morally, $z = \pi^{-1}$.) Then

$$xM \subset M^n \subset (y) \implies zM \subset R$$

so zM is an ideal in R. Either zM = R, so $M = (z^{-1})R$ and hence M is principal. Or zM is a proper ideal, $zM \subset M$. As R is Noetherian, M is finitely generated. Let $M = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$, say. Multiplying by z,

$$\begin{pmatrix} zx_1\\ \vdots\\ zx_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}x_1 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n\\ \vdots\\ a_{n1}x_1 + \dots + a_{nn}a_n \end{pmatrix}$$

with $a_{ij} \in R$, i.e.,

$$A(x_i) = z(x_i)$$

working over $\operatorname{Frac}(R)$. This means $\det(A - zI) = 0$. Note $\det(A - zI)$ is a monic polynomial in z with coefficients in R. Since R is integrally closed, $z \in R$.

Exercise 2. Show that if M is principal then every ideal is principal.

Example. (i) $R = \{m/n \in \mathbb{Q} : (n, p) = 1\};$ (ii) $R = \{f/q \in k(t) : g(a) \neq 0\}.$

- **Example.** (i) Let $R = \mathbb{Z}$, or $R = \mathcal{O}_K$ where K is a number field. This is Noetherian and integrally closed, but has many non-zero prime ideals.
 - (ii) Let $v: K^* \to \mathbb{R}$ be a non-discrete valuation. Then \mathcal{O}_K is integrally closed and has a unique non-zero prime ideal, but is not Noetherian.
- (iii) Let $v: \mathbb{Q}^* \to \mathbb{Z}$ be the 2-adic valuation and \mathcal{O}_v be its valuation ring. Then $R = \mathcal{O}_v[2i]$ is local, Noetherian and has a unique non-zero prime ideal, but is not integrally closed.

Completion

Suppose K, $|\cdot|$ is any valued field. Then K is a metric and topological space, with metric

$$d(x,y) = |x-y|$$

and the topology defined by the open balls

$$B_{a,r} = \{ x \in K : |x - a| < r \}$$

We say $x_n \to x$ if $|x_n - x| \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$ and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = A$ if $\sum_{n=1}^{N} a_n \to A$ as $N \to \infty$. Properties of the absolute value imply that if $x_n \to x, y_n \to x$ then $x_n \pm y_n \to x \pm y, x_n y_n \to xy$, and $1/x_n \to 1/x$ provided $x \neq 0$. Hence $+, \times : K \times K \to K$ and $(\cdot)^{-1} : K^* \to K^*$ are continuous maps.

Definition. $\{x_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ is a Cauchy sequence if $|x_n - x_m| \to 0$ as $n, m \to \infty$, i.e.,

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \quad \forall m, n > N \quad |x_n - x_m| < \varepsilon$$

K is complete with respect to $|\cdot|$ is every Cauchy sequence converges.

Example. $\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|_{\infty}$ and $\mathbb{C}, |\cdot|_{\infty}$ are the only two Archimedean complete fields. $\mathbb{Q}, |\cdot|_{\infty}$ is non complete, $\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|_{\infty}$ is its completion. $\mathbb{Q}, |\cdot|_p$ is not complete.

Exercise 3. Argue by countability that $\mathbb{Q}, |\cdot|_{\infty}$ and $\mathbb{Q}, |\cdot|_p$ are not complete since there are uncountably many Cauchy sequences.

The topological completion of K with respect to $|\cdot|$ can be made into a field, called the *completion* \hat{K} of K with respect to $|\cdot|$. This is constructed as follows.

Let C be the set of Cauchy sequences in K, and note this is a ring containing the ideal I of Cauchy sequences tending to 0. Define $\hat{K} = C/I$, which is a ring.

Then $(x_k) \in \hat{K}^*$ is a Cauchy sequence with $x_k \not\to 0$. Thus for some $\varepsilon > 0$ and sufficiently large $k, |x_k| > \varepsilon$. Hence $(1/x_k)$ is a Cauchy sequence in \hat{K}^* and so \hat{K} is a field.

Note there is a natural injection $K \hookrightarrow \hat{K}$ by $x \mapsto (x, ...)$. We can extend $|\cdot|$ from K to \hat{K} by

$$|(x_n)| = \lim_{n \to \infty} |x_n|$$

Properties 3.1

- (i) \hat{K} is a complete valued field, $|\cdot|_{\hat{K}}$ extends $|\cdot|_{K}$;
- (ii) $K \hookrightarrow \hat{K}$ is dense; (iii) $K = \hat{K}$ if and only if K is complete;
- (iv) K is non-Archimedean if and only if \hat{K} is non-Archimedean;
- (v) Equivalent absolute values on K give rise to isomorphic completions (as fields and vector spaces);
- (vi) If $\phi \colon K \hookrightarrow L$ is an inclusion of valued fields then there exists a unique $\hat{\phi} \colon \hat{K} \hookrightarrow \hat{L}$ extending ϕ , and this is defined by $\hat{\phi}((x_n)_n) = (\phi(x_n))_n$.

Exercise 4. Check the above statements.

Example. Let K, $|\cdot|$ be non-Archimedean. Theorem 1.2 gives

$$\mathbb{Q}, |\cdot|_{\infty} \hookrightarrow K, |\cdot| \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C}, |\cdot|_{\infty}$$

Taking completions, $\mathbb{R} \subset \hat{K} \subset \mathbb{C}$ so $\hat{K} \cong \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{C} . In particular, \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{C} are the only complete Archimedean fields.

Local Fields

From now on, we assume every absolute value is non-trivial.

Definition. Let $K, |\cdot|$ be a valued field. $K, |\cdot|$ is a *local field* if it is locally compact as a topological space.

We recall the following properties of topological spaces.

- (i) A topological space X is *compact* if every open cover of X has a finite subcover.
- (ii) A topological space X is *locally compact* if for every open set $U \subset X$ and $x \in U$ there is an open set U_0 such that $x \in U_0 \subset U$ and U_0 has compact closure.
- (iii) A metric space X is locally compact if and only if for every $x \in X$ there exists R > 0 such that for all 0 < r < R the ball $B_r(x)$ is compact.

Lemma 4.1. The following statements are equivalent.

- (i) K is local.
- (ii) There exists a compact disc $B_{a,\leq r}$.
- (iii) All discs $B_{a,\leq r}$ are compact.

Proof. (iii) \implies (i) \implies (ii) is clear.

We now show (ii) \implies (iii). Take a compact disc $B_{a,\leq r}$. The translation $x \mapsto x + a$ is a homomorphism. Thus $B_{0,\leq r}$ is compact, so $B_{0,\leq s}$ is compact for all $0 < s \leq r$ as a closed subset of a compact set. Now $|\cdot|$ is non-trivial so there exists $\alpha \in K$ such that $|\alpha| > 1$. The map $K \to K, x \mapsto \alpha x$ is continuous so $B_{0,\leq |\alpha|^n r}$ is compact for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Hence $B_{0,\leq s}$ is compact for all 0 < s and again by translation we are done. \Box

Proposition 4.2. A local field $K, |\cdot|$ is complete.

Proof. Assume not. Pick $x \in \hat{K} \setminus K$ and a sequence $(x_n)_n$ in K with $x_n \to x$.

Let B be any closed disc that contains all x_n for $n \ge N$ and some $N \in \mathbb{N}$. (For example, there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $|x_n - x| < 1$ for all $n \ge N$; now take $B = B_{x_N, \le 2}$.) B is compact by the above lemma.

Let $U_n = \{y \in K : |y - x| > 1/n\}$. These are open sets and give an open cover of B,

$$B = \bigcup_{n \ge 1} (U_n \cap B)$$

but it has no finite subcover.

Corollary 4.3. \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{C} are the only Archimedean local fields.

Now suppose $K, |\cdot|$ is non-Archimedean. The following are consequences of the condition $|x+y| \leq \max\{|x|, |y|\}.$

- (i) If |y| < |x| then $|x \pm y| = |x|$;
- (ii) If $x_1 + \cdots + x_n = 0$ then the two largest absolute values are equal.
- (iii) $(x_n)_n$ is Cauchy if and only if $x_n x_{n-1} \to 0$.
- (iv) In a complete field, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n$ converges if and only if $x_n \to 0$.

4.1 Topological Properties

- (i) If $x \in B_{a,<r}$ then $B_{x,<r} = B_{a,<r}$, so every point in the disc is a centre.
- (ii) If B, B' are open discs with $B \cap B' \neq \emptyset$ then $B \subset B'$ or $B' \subset B$.
- (iii) Every open disc is also closed.

Proof. Let $K = \bigcup_{a \in K} B_{a, < r}$, a disjoint union of open discs. Then one is the complement of the union of all others (on choosing the radius appropriately small), so every one is closed.

Theorem 4.4. Suppose $K, |\cdot|$ is non-Archimedean and has the corresponding valuation v. Then the following are equivalent.

- (i) K is a local field.
- (ii) The valuation ring $\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{O}_v$ is compact.
- (iii) K is complete, v is discrete and the residue field $k = \mathcal{O}/M$ is finite.

Proof. (i) \iff (ii): $\mathcal{O} = \{x \in K : |x| \le 1\} = B_{0,\le 1}$, and now apply the lemma.

(i),(ii) \implies (iii): K is complete by Proposition 4.2. Write

$$\mathcal{O} = \bigcup_{x \in \mathcal{O}} x + M = \bigcup_{x \in \mathcal{O}} B_{x,<1}$$

a disjoint union of open discs. \mathcal{O} is compact so there exists a finite subcover, hence \mathcal{O}/M is finite. Now take $y \in M \setminus \{0\}$ and write

$$\mathcal{O} = \bigcup_{x \in \mathcal{O}} x + y\mathcal{O}$$

This is a finite union, so the valuation is discrete.

(iii) \implies (ii): Exercise.

Discrete Valuation Rings and Completions

Lemma 5.1. Let \mathcal{O} be a DVR and v a valuation of it. Let $K = \operatorname{Frac}(\mathcal{O}), M = (\pi)$ for a uniformiser π , and $\mathcal{O}/M = k$ the residue field.

Let $A = \{a_i\}$ be any set of representatives of \mathcal{O}/M , $a_i \in \mathcal{O}$, say $0 \in A$. Then every $x \in K^*$ can be written as

$$x = \pi^{v(x)} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \pi^n$$

with $a_n \in A$ and $a_0 \neq 0$. We say that a_i are the *digits* in the π -adic expansion of x.

Proof. Write $x = \pi^{v(x)} u$ for some unit $u \in \mathcal{O}^{\times}$. Reducing mod π ,

$$\mathcal{O}/M \xrightarrow{\sim} k$$
$$u \mapsto \bar{u}$$

There exists a unique $a_0 \in A$ such that $\bar{a}_0 = \bar{u}$, so $a_0 - u \in M$. Now write $u = a_0 + \pi u_1$ and reduce $u_1 \mod \pi$. Then there exists a unique $a_1 \in A$ such that $\bar{a}_1 = \bar{u}_1$. Now write $u = a_0 + \pi a_1 + \pi^2 u_2$ and proceed. We obtain partial sums

$$S_N = \sum_{n=0}^N a_n \pi^n \to u$$

in the topology defined by v, because $v(S_n - u) \ge N$ implies $S_N \to u$. Clearly the a_n are unique.

Remark. (i) The open balls in K are of the form $x + \pi^n \mathcal{O}$, which is the set of elements of K whose digits coincide with those of x up to a_{n-1} .

- (ii) A sequence $(x_k)_k$ in K is Cauchy if and only if the digits of x_k eventually stabilise.
- (iii) K is complete with respect to $|\cdot|$ if and only if every Cauchy sequence converges if and only if the inclusion given by the lemma,

$$K \hookrightarrow \left\{ \text{power series } \sum_{n=n_0}^{\infty} a_n \pi^n, \, a_n \in A \right\}$$

is an equality. In general, the RHS is equal to \hat{K} .

(iv) K, \mathcal{O}, M, v induce $\hat{K}, \hat{\mathcal{O}}, \hat{M}, \hat{v}$. From the description above, the valuation on \hat{K} is still discrete.



Exercise 5. $\mathcal{O}/M^n \to \hat{\mathcal{O}}/\hat{M}^n$ is an isomorphism. In particular, the residue fields are the same and uniformisers stay uniformisers.

p-adic Numbers

Consider \mathbb{Q} with the *p*-adic absolute value $|\cdot|_p$ and the *p*-adic valuation v_p . Then the valuation ring is $\mathcal{O} = \{a/b : p \nmid b\}$, the maximal ideal is M = (p) and the residue field is

$$\mathcal{O}/M \xrightarrow[\mod p]{\sim} \mathbb{F}_p$$

Definition. The field of p-adic numbers \mathbb{Q}_p is the completion of \mathbb{Q} with respect to $|\cdot|_p$. The ring of p-adic integers \mathbb{Z}_p is its valuation ring. Let $\pi = p$ and $A = \{0, 1, \ldots, p-1\}$ and apply Lemma 5.1.

$$\mathbb{Q} \hookrightarrow \left\{ \sum_{n=n_0}^{\infty} a_n p^n : a_n \in \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\} \right\} = \mathbb{Q}_p$$
$$\mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow \mathcal{O} \hookrightarrow \left\{ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n p^n : a_i \in \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\} \right\} = \mathbb{Z}_p$$
$$M_{\mathbb{Z}_p} = (p) = \left\{ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n p^n : a_i \in \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\} \right\}$$
$$\mathbb{Z}_p / M_{\mathbb{Z}_p} = \mathbb{F}_p$$

Example. Let p = 3 and take $A = \{0, 1, 2\}$.

- (i) $x = 106 = 1 + 2 \times 3 + 2 \times 3^2 + 3^4$. In general, if $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ with $x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n p^n$ then $x \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ if and only if this expansion terminates.
- (ii) $x = 1/2 \in \mathbb{Z}_3$. Then

$$\frac{1}{2} \mod 3 = \frac{\overline{1}}{\overline{2}} = \overline{2} \in \mathbb{F}_3$$

and this lifts to $2 \in A$, giving the 0th digit.

$$\frac{1}{2} = 2 + \frac{-3}{2} = 2 + 3\frac{-1}{2}$$

Now

$$\frac{-1}{2} \mod 3 = \frac{\overline{-1}}{\overline{2}} = \overline{1} \in \mathbb{F}_3$$

which lifts to $1 \in A$, giving the 1st digit. Continuing this process,

$$\frac{1}{2} = 2 + 1 \cdot 3 + \frac{-9}{2} = 2 + 1 \cdot 3 + 3^2 \frac{-1}{2} = 2 + 1 \cdot 3 + 1 \cdot 3^2 + 1 \cdot 3^3 + \cdots$$

Exercise 6. Suppose $x \in \mathbb{Q}_p$. Then $x \in \mathbb{Q}$ if and only if its *p*-adic expansion is eventually periodic.

Adddition and multiplication work as for decimal expansion, for example,

$$\frac{1}{2} = 2 + 3 + 3^2 + 3^3 + \dots$$
$$+\frac{1}{2} = 2 + 3 + 3^2 + 3^3 + \dots$$
$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} = 4 + 2 \cdot 3 + 2 \cdot 3^2 + 2 \cdot 3^3 + \dots$$
$$= (1+3) + 2 \cdot 3 + 2 \cdot 3^2 + 2 \cdot 3^3 + \dots = 1$$



where the first circle distinguishes the first digit, the second circle distinguishes the first two digits, etc.

 \mathbb{Z}_p is topologically homeomorphic to a Cantor set.

6.1 Power Series in \mathbb{Z}_p

(i) The geometric series

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + \cdots$$

converges (in any complete DVR) if and only |x| < 1 if and only if $x \in p\mathbb{Z}_p$. For example, in \mathbb{Z}_3 ,

$$\frac{1}{2} + 1 + \frac{1}{1-3} = 1 + (1+3+3^2+\cdots) = 2+3+3^2+3^3+\cdots$$

(ii) The *p*-adic logarithm has expansion

$$\log_p(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \cdots$$

It is left as an exercise to show this converges for $x \in \mathbb{Q}_p$ if and only if |x| < 1 if and only if $x \in p\mathbb{Z}_p$.

(iii) The exponential function

$$\exp(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

This converges on $p\mathbb{Z}_p$ for p > 2 and on $4\mathbb{Z}_2$ for p = 2.

6.2 Additive Structure of \mathbb{Z}_p

 $\mathbb{Z}_p \subset \mathbb{Q}_p$ is a subgroup of a field of characteristic 0, hence it is a torsion-free abelian group.

We have the following filtration by open and closed subgroups

$$\mathbb{Z}_p \supset p\mathbb{Z}_p \supset p^2\mathbb{Z}_p \supset \cdots$$

where

$$p^n \mathbb{Z}_p / p^{n+1} \mathbb{Z}_p \cong \mathbb{Z} / p\mathbb{Z}$$

 $x \mapsto n \text{th } p \text{-adic digit}$

6.3 Multiplicative Structure

We know

$$x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n p^n$$

is a unit, i.e., in \mathbb{Z}_p^* if and only if $a_0 \neq 0$. \mathbb{Z}_p^* the multiplicative group of units. We have a filtration of subsets

$$\mathbb{Z}_p^* \supset 1 + p\mathbb{Z}_p \supset 1 + p^2\mathbb{Z}_p \supset \cdots$$

and upon writing $U_0 = \mathbb{Z}_p^*$, $U_1 = 1 + p\mathbb{Z}_p$, $U_2 = 1 + p^2\mathbb{Z}_p$, etc. we have, for $n \ge 1$,

$$U_n = \ker \left(\mathbb{Z}_p^* \to (\mathbb{Z}/p^n \mathbb{Z})^*, x \mapsto x \mod p^n \right)$$

hence this is a subgroup.

$$U_0/U_1 \xrightarrow{\sim} (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^* \qquad n = 0$$
$$U_n/U_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\sim} (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}, +) \qquad n \ge 1$$

These are even isomorphisms of topological groups, under the convention that finite groups are equipped with the discrete topology.

Theorem 6.1. The following are isomorphisms of topological groups

$$\mathbb{Z}_p^* \cong U_1 \times (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^* \cong \mathbb{Z}_p \times (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^* \qquad p > 2$$
$$\mathbb{Z}_p^* \cong U_2 \times (\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z})^* \cong \mathbb{Z}_p \times \{\pm 1\} \qquad p = 2$$

Proof. In the cases p > 2 and p = 2, respectively, consider the maps

$$\begin{split} \exp\colon p\mathbb{Z}_p &\to 1 + p\mathbb{Z}_p = U_1 \\ \exp\colon p^2\mathbb{Z}_2 \to 1 + p^2\mathbb{Z}_p = U_2 \end{split} \quad \begin{array}{ll} \log\colon 1 + p\mathbb{Z}_p \to p\mathbb{Z}_p & p > 2 \\ \log\colon 1 + p^2\mathbb{Z}_p \to p^2\mathbb{Z}_p & p = 2 \end{split}$$

These are continuous homomorphisms of groups, and they are inverses to each other. Thus

$$U_1 \cong \mathbb{Z}_p \quad p > 2$$
$$U_2 \cong \mathbb{Z}_p \quad p = 2$$

To prove that the these are indeed inverses and homomorphisms, we need to check that

$$\exp(\log(1+z)) = 1+z$$
$$\log(\exp(z)) = z$$
$$\exp(z+w) = \exp(z)\exp(w)$$

formally as power series, e.g.,

$$\exp(\log(1+z)) = \sum_{m \ge 0} \frac{1}{m!} \left(\sum_{n \ge 1} \frac{(-z)^n}{n} \right)^m = 1 + z$$

This is true on \mathbb{R} , and now we can use uniqueness of Taylor series.] Also

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{Z}_p^*/U_1 &\cong (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^* & p > 2\\ \mathbb{Z}_p^*/U_2 &\cong (\mathbb{Z}/p^2\mathbb{Z})^* = (\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z})^* \cong \{\pm 1\} & p = 2 \end{aligned}$$

That is, we have an exact sequence of groups

$$0 \to \mathbb{Z}_p \to \mathbb{Z}_p^* \to (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^* \to 0$$

and we want to show that is *splits*.

The sequence

$$0 \to A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \to 0$$

of abelian groups is *exact* if $A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B$ is injective and

$$B/A \xrightarrow{\sim}_{\beta} C$$

An exact sequence *splits* if there exists a map $\gamma: C \to B$ such that $\beta \circ \gamma = \iota$, or equivalently, if $A \times C \xrightarrow{\sim} B$ via $(a, c) \mapsto \alpha(a) + \gamma(c)$.

For example,

$$0 \to \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{i_1} \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{p_2} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \to 0$$

splits but

$$0 \to \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\times 2} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\mod 2} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \to 0$$

does not split.

Consider first the case p = 2. $\{\pm 1\} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_p^*$. It is clear that

$$\{\pm 1\} \subset \mathbb{Z}^* \subset \mathbb{Z}_p^*, \{\pm 1\} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2^* \xrightarrow{\mod 4} \{\pm 1\}$$

is the identity.

Now assume p > 2. We want $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^* \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_p^* \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Q}_p^*$, i.e., what we want is the group of (p-1)th roots of unity inside \mathbb{Q}_p . Let $1 \leq a \leq p-1$. The details of the following argument are left as an exercise.

Suppose $(a^{p^n})_{n\geq 1}$ is a Cauchy sequence. Then, as \mathbb{Q}_p is complete, $a^{p^n} \to x \in \mathbb{Q}_p$; in fact $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ as $\mathbb{Z}_p \subset \mathbb{Q}_p$ is closed. From $x \equiv a \pmod{p}$ and by continuity, we see that there

are at least p-1 (p-1)th roots of unity in \mathbb{Q}_p , namely one for each a. Now use that \mathbb{Q}_p is a field to deduce there are precisely p-1 of them. They form a group μ_{p-1} under multiplication.

This gives maps

$$(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^* \xrightarrow{a \mapsto \lim a^{p^n}} \mathbb{Z}_p^* \qquad \qquad \mathbb{Z}_p^* \xrightarrow{\mod p} (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$$

and the composition is the identity.

Corollary 6.2.

$$\mathbb{Q}_p^* \cong \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}_p^* \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}_p \times (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^* & p > 2\\ \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}_p \times \{\pm 1\} & p = 2 \end{cases}$$

Corollary 6.3. There are exactly p-1 roots of unity in \mathbb{Q}_p for p > 2, and 2 in \mathbb{Q}_2 .

Proof. Note that \mathbb{Z} and \mathbb{Z}_p are torsion-free.

Corollary 6.4. For p > 2,

$$\mathbb{Q}_p^*/\mathbb{Q}_p^{*2} \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}_p/2\mathbb{Z}_p \times (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*/(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^{*2} \cong \{1, p, \eta, \eta p\}$$

for a non-residue η , upon writing $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \cong \{1, p\}, \mathbb{Z}_p/2\mathbb{Z}_p \cong \{1\}$ as 2 is a unit in \mathbb{Z}_p^* , and $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*/(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^{*2} \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \cong \{1, \eta\}.$

For p = 2,

$$\mathbb{Q}_p^* / \mathbb{Q}_p^{*2} \cong \{\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 5, \pm 10\}$$

Corollary 6.5. \mathbb{Q}_p has three quadratic extensions $\mathbb{Q}_p(\sqrt{p})$, $\mathbb{Q}_p(\sqrt{\eta})$, and $\mathbb{Q}_p(\sqrt{\eta p})$ for p > 2. For p = 2, \mathbb{Q}_p has seven quadratic extensions.

Remark. Compare the last corollary with the following. $\mathbb{R}^*/\mathbb{R}^{*2} = \{\pm 1\}$, \mathbb{R} has one quadratic extension $\mathbb{R}(i) = \mathbb{C}$, and $\mathbb{Q}^*/\mathbb{Q}^{*2}$ is infinite.

Note 1. Suppose K is a field with $char(K) \neq 2$. Then quadratic extensions of K are in one-to-one correspondence with non-trivial elements of K^*/K^{*2} via

$$K(\sqrt{d}) \mapsto d$$
$$K[X]/(X^2 + aX + b) \longleftrightarrow a^2 - nb$$

Note 2. Suppose $p \neq 2$. Under the logarithm map,

$$U_1 = 1 + p\mathbb{Z}_p \to p\mathbb{Z}_p$$
$$U_n = 1 + p^n\mathbb{Z}_p \to p^n\mathbb{Z}_p$$

and $p\mathbb{Z}_p \supset p^n\mathbb{Z}_p$ is the unique subgroup of index p^{n-1} as this is true on the LHS.

Corollary 6.6. Suppose $p \neq 2$. Then

$$(\mathbb{Z}/p^n\mathbb{Z})^* \cong \mathbb{Z}_n^*/U_n \cong (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^* \times (\mathbb{Z}/p^{n-1}\mathbb{Z})$$

where for the last group on the RHS, $U_1/U_n \cong p\mathbb{Z}_p/p^n\mathbb{Z}_p$. The RHS is a product of cyclic groups of coprime order, so $(\mathbb{Z}/p^n\mathbb{Z})^*$ is cyclic, which is important in basic number theory.

Corollary 6.7. Suppose p = 2. Then

$$(\mathbb{Z}/2^n\mathbb{Z})^* \cong (\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/2^{n-2}\mathbb{Z})$$

generated by -1 and 5.

Note 3. Let $u \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$. The following are equivalent.

- (i) u is a square.
- (ii) $u \mod p^n$ is a square in $(\mathbb{Z}/p^n\mathbb{Z})^*$ for all $n \ge 1$.
- (iii) If p > 2, $u \mod p$ is a square in $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$. Otherwise, if p = 2, $u \mod 8$ is a square in $(\mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z})^*$.

Lemma 6.8. Consider the following system of polynomial equations in \mathbb{Z} or \mathbb{Z}_p ,

$$V: \begin{cases} f_1(x_1, \dots, x_k) = 0\\ \vdots\\ f_r(x_1, \dots, x_k) = 0 \end{cases}$$

Then V has p-adic solution $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^k$ if and only if V has a solution modulo p^n for all $n \ge 1$. In different notation, $V(\mathbb{Z}_p) \neq \emptyset$ if and only if $V(\mathbb{Z}/p^n\mathbb{Z}) \neq \emptyset$ for all $n \ge 1$.

Proof. The 'if' direction is obvious. For the 'only if' direction, take $x^{(n)} \in \mathbb{Z}_p^k$ with $f_i(x^{(n)}) \equiv 0 \pmod{p^n}$ for all $i = 1, \ldots, r$. As \mathbb{Z}_p^k is compact, there exists a convergent subsequence $x^{(n_i)} \to x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^k$, and by continuity $f_i(x) = 0$ for $i = 1, \ldots, r$.

We now consider the following setting. Let K be complete with respect to the non-Archimedean absolute value $|\cdot|$ and let $\mathcal{O} = \{x \in K : |x| \leq 1\}$ be its valuation ring.

Theorem 6.9 (Hensel's Lemma, Version 1). Let $f(X) \in \mathcal{O}[X]$ be monic and suppose there exists $x_1 \in \mathcal{O}$ such that

$$|f(x_1)| < 1 \qquad (\iff f(x_1) \in M) |f'(x_1)| = 1 \qquad (\iff f'(x_1) \in \mathcal{O}^{\times} = \mathcal{O} \setminus M)$$

Then there exists a unique $x \in \mathcal{O}$ such that f(x) = 0 and $|x - x_1| \leq |f(x_1)|$.

Proof. Choose any $\pi \in M \setminus \{0\}$, not necessarily a uniformiser, such that $\pi \mid f(x_1)$ in \mathcal{O} . We proceed by induction on n. Given x_n such that $|x_n - x_1| < |f(x_1)|$ and $f(x_n) \equiv 0 \pmod{\pi^n}$, we want a unique $x_{n+1} \equiv x_n \pmod{\pi^n}$ such that $|x_{n+1} - x_1| < |f(x_1)|$ and $f(x_{n+1}) \equiv 0 \pmod{\pi^{n+1}}$. Then, as $(x_n)_n$ is Cauchy, we take $x = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n$ and by continuity have f(x) = 0. Consider

$$\mathcal{O}_K[T] \ni f(x_n + \pi^n T) = \sum_{j=0}^{\deg(f)} \frac{f^{(j)}(x_n)}{j!} \pi^{nj} T^j$$
$$\equiv f(x_n) + f'(x_n) \pi^n T \pmod{\pi^{n+1}}$$

and recall $f(x_n) \equiv 0 \pmod{\pi^n}$ and $f'(x_n)$ is a unit, as $|f'(x_1)| = 1$ and x_1 is close to x_n . In order to force this to be $0 \mod \pi^{n+1}$ set $T = -f(x_n)/(f'(x_n)\pi^n) \in \mathcal{O}$, and this is a unique choice modulo T. In other words, if we let

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}$$

then $f(x_{n+1}) \equiv 0 \pmod{\pi^{n+1}}$.

Theorem 6.10 (Hensel's Lemma, Version 2). Let $f_1, \ldots, f_r \in \mathcal{O}[x_1, \ldots, x_d], r \leq d$. Suppose $x_1 \in \mathcal{O}^d$ is such that

$$f_i(x_1) \equiv 0 \pmod{M}$$
$$\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(x_1) \mod M = r$$

where $\partial f_i / \partial x_i \in M_{r \times d}(k), \ k = \mathcal{O}/M$, for every *i*, *j*. Then there exists $x \in \mathcal{O}^d$, not in general unique, such that $x \equiv x_1 \pmod{M}$ and $f_i(x) = 0$ for all $i = 1, \ldots, r$.

Proof. Similar.

Theorem 6.11 (Hensel's Lemma, Version 3). Suppose $f \in \mathcal{O}[X]$ is monic and $x_1 \in \mathcal{O}$ is such that $|f(x_1)| < |f'(x_1)|^2$. Then there exists a unique $x \in \mathcal{O}$ such that f(x) = 0and $|x - x_1| < |f(x_1)|/|f'(x_1)|$.

Proof. Similar.

Example (Square Roots of Unity). This gives an alternative proof that for $u \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$, if $u \mod p \in \mathbb{F}_p^{*2}$ then $u \in \mathbb{Z}_p^{*2}$.

Suppose $p \neq 2$ and let $u \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$. Suppose

$$u \equiv \bar{u} = y^2 \pmod{p}$$

in \mathbb{F}_{p}^{*} . Look at $f(x) = x^{2} - u$ and reduce modulo M = (p),

$$\bar{f}(x) = x^2 - \bar{u} = (x - y)(x + y)$$

This has roots y, -y in \mathbb{F}_p . Lift y to any element $Y \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ such that Y mod p = y. Then

$$f(Y) = Y^2 - u \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

$$f'(Y) = 2Y \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

so as u is a unit, Y is a unit and 2Y is a unit. By Hensel's Lemma, there exists $X \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ such that $X^2 = u$ so $f(x) = x^2 - u = (x - X)(x + X)$ factorises over \mathbb{Z}_p .

This does not work for p = 2 as 2 is not a unit in \mathbb{Z}_2 , but Hensel's Lemma (Version 3) still applies.

Exercise 7. A solution modulo 8 lifts to a solution in \mathbb{Z}_2 .

In general, let K be a complete non-Archimedean field with \mathcal{O} , M and $k = \mathcal{O}/M$. Suppose $f(X) \in \mathcal{O}[X]$ is monic and $\overline{f} = f \mod M$ is separable, i.e., \overline{f} has no repeated roots in \bar{k} , or equivalently, $gcd(\bar{f}, \bar{f}') = 1$ in k[X]. Then, as \mathcal{O} is integrally closed,

$$\{\text{roots of } f(X) \text{ in } K\} = \{\text{roots of } f(X) \text{ in } \mathcal{O}\}$$
$$\leftrightarrow \{\text{roots of } \bar{f} \text{ in } k\}$$

where the two maps are reduction modulo M and Hensel lifting.

Example ((p-1)th Roots of Unity in \mathbb{Z}_p^*). Let $f(X) = X^p - X$ so $\overline{f}(X) = X(X - 1) \cdots (X - (p-1))$. By Hensel's Lemma, $X^p - X$ has p distinct roots $[0], [1], \dots, [p-1]$ and

$$[\cdot] \colon \mathbb{F}_p^* \to \mathbb{Z}_p^*$$

is a group homomorphism, called Teichmüller lift.

Example. Consider p = 5, \mathbb{Q}_5 , \mathbb{Z}_5 , $k = \mathbb{F}_5$. Then

$$[0] = 0 \qquad [1] = 1 \qquad [-1] = 2$$

$$[2] = 2 + 1 \cdot 5 + 2 \cdot 5^{2} + 1 \cdot 5^{3} + 3 \cdot 5^{4} + \cdots$$

$$[3] = 3 + 3 \cdot 5 + 2 \cdot 5^{2} + 3 \cdot 5^{3} + 1 \cdot 5^{4} + \cdots$$

In general, let K be a complete non-Archimedean field with \mathcal{O} , M and suppose $k = \mathcal{O}/M$ is finite (or injects into \bar{F}_p). Then there exists a unique group homomorphism

$$[\cdot]: k^* \to K^*$$

such that $[x] \mod M = x$, called the Teichmüller lift. To see this, apply Hensel's Lemma to $X^{|k|} - X$.

Local Fields

Suppose K is a local, non-Archimedean field with \mathcal{O} , M, $|\cdot|$ and discrete valuation v, uniformiser π , and $\mathcal{O}/M = k \cong \mathbb{F}_{p^n}$.

By considering Teichmüller lifts, $\{[a] : a \in k\}$ is a set of representatives for \mathcal{O}/M , so

$$K = \left\{ \sum_{n=n_0}^{\infty} [a_n] \pi^n : a_n \in k \right\}$$

where $[a_n]$ are called *Teichmüller digits*.

Now suppose char(K) = q > 0. Then since char(K) = char(k), we have q = p. Then $\mathbb{F}_p \hookrightarrow K$ and, by Hensel's Lemma, K contains the roots of $X^{p^n} - X$. Thus K contains $\mathbb{F}_p(\text{roots of } X^{p^n} - X) = \mathbb{F}_{p^n}$, that is,

$$[\cdot] \colon \mathbb{F}_{p^n} \hookrightarrow K$$

in this case is a field inclusion.

Calling $t = \pi$,

$$K = \left\{ \sum_{m=m_0}^{\infty} a_m t^m : a_m \in \mathbb{F}_{p^n} \right\} = \mathbb{F}_{p^n}((t))$$
$$\mathcal{O} = \left\{ \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} a_m t^m : a_m \in \mathbb{F}_{p^n} \right\} = \mathbb{F}_{p^n}[[t]]$$

So we have a unique local field of positive characteristic, with given residue field \mathbb{F}_{p^n} , namely $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}((t))$.

Theorem 7.1. Suppose K is a local field. Then one of the following three cases applies.

- (i) $K \cong \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{C} (Archimedean);
- (ii) $K \cong \mathbb{F}_q((t))$ for a unique $q = p^n$ (Equal Characteristic);
- (iii) $[K:\mathbb{Q}_p] < \infty$ for a unique p (Mixed Characteristic).

Proof. We have already seen the two cases K is Archimedean and K is non-Archimedean with char(K) > 0.

So suppose K is local, non-Archimedean and $\operatorname{char}(K) = 0$. Then $\mathbb{Q} \hookrightarrow K$, and so $|\cdot|$ restricts to $\mathbb{Q} \subset K$. Note $|\cdot|_{\mathbb{Q}}$ is non-Archimedean and non-trivial, for otherwise $\mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow \mathcal{O}$

is an infinite discrete set, hence closed, contradicting that \mathcal{O} is compact. By Ostrowski's Theorem, $|\cdot|_{\mathbb{Q}}$ is $|\cdot|_p$ for some p, so

$$\mathbb{Q}, |\cdot|_p \hookrightarrow K, |\cdot|$$

Taking completions, $\mathbb{Q}_p \hookrightarrow K$, and it suffices to show $[K : \mathbb{Q}_p] < \infty$. Let $k = \mathcal{O}/M$, $k \supset \mathbb{F}_p$, and call $[k : \mathbb{F}_p] = f$. Say k has \mathbb{F}_p -basis $\bar{v}_1, \ldots, \bar{v}_f$ and lift these to arbitrary $v_1, \ldots, v_f \in \mathcal{O}$.

The valuation is discrete, and we may assume it is normalised so $v(\pi) = 1$.

$$K^* \xrightarrow{v} \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\int_{\mathbb{Q}_p^*} g \xrightarrow{v} e > 0$$

for some integer e > 0, because $p \in M_{\mathbb{Q}_p} \subset M_K$ so v(p) > 0. We claim that $[K : \mathbb{Q}_p] \leq ef$ (in fact, it is equal to ef), and $v_i \pi^j$ generate K over \mathbb{Q}_p . Multiplying by a suitable power of p, it is enough to show that, for every $x \in \mathcal{O}$,

$$x = \sum_{\substack{1 \le i \le f \\ 1 \le j \le e}} A_{ij} v_i \pi^j$$

for some $A_{ij} \in \mathbb{Z}_p$. Clearly,

$$x = \sum_{\substack{1 \le i \le f \\ 1 \le j \le e}} a_{ij} v_i \pi^j + p \cdot \mathcal{O}$$

for unique $a_{ij} \in \{0, 1, ..., p-1\}$, and

$$=\sum_{\substack{1\leq i\leq f\\1\leq j\leq e}}a_{ij}v_i\pi^j+p\sum_{\substack{1\leq i\leq f\\1\leq j\leq e}}a'_{ij}v_i\pi^j+\cdots$$

which is a combination of $v_i \pi^j$ with \mathbb{Z}_p -coefficients.

We know that if K is local, non-Archimedean and char(K) = 0 then

$$[K:\mathbb{Q}_p]<\infty$$

Conversely, we will show that every finite extension K of \mathbb{Q}_p has a *unique* structure as a local field, i.e., $|\cdot|_p$ extends to a unique absolute value on K, and K is complete with respect to it.

Inverse Limits

Instead of considering

$$\mathbb{Q}, |\cdot|_p \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathbb{Q}_p \xrightarrow{\text{valutation ring}} \mathbb{Z}_p$$

we consider, given \mathbb{Z} and (p) the quotients $\mathbb{Z}/p^i\mathbb{Z}$ for $i \in \mathbb{N}$ and the projections $\mathbb{Z}/p^i\mathbb{Z} \twoheadrightarrow \mathbb{Z}/p^j\mathbb{Z}$ for $j \leq i$.

We call I a *directed set* if I is a set equipped with a partial order \leq . Let $(A_i)_{i \in I}$ be a sequence of groups (resp. rings). Let $\pi_{ij} : A_i \to A_j$ be group homomorphism (resp. ring homomorphisms) for $j \leq i$ such that $\pi_{ii} = \iota$ and $\pi_{jk} \circ \pi_{ij} = \pi_{ik}$ for $k \leq j \leq i$.

Definition. The inverse limit is defined as

$$A = \varprojlim_{i \in I} (A_i, \pi_{ij}) = \varprojlim_{i \in I} A_i = \{ (a_i)_{i \in I} : \pi_{ij}(a_i) = a_j \ \forall j \le i \}$$

This is a group (resp. ring).

Example. \mathbb{N} can be made a directed set via (\mathbb{N}, \leq) or $(\mathbb{N}, |)$.

Example. Let $I = (\mathbb{N}, \leq), (A_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}} = (\mathbb{Z}/p^i \mathbb{Z})_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ for some prime p, and let

$$\pi_{ij} \colon \mathbb{Z}/p^i\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}/p^j\mathbb{Z}$$

for $j \leq i$. Then

$$\mathbb{Z}_p = \lim_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{Z}/p^i \mathbb{Z}$$

Similarly,

$$k[[t]] = \lim_{i \in \mathbb{N}} k[t]/(t^i)$$

where π_{ij} is truncation modulo t^j .

Example. Let $I = (\mathbb{N}, |), A_i = \mathbb{Z}/i\mathbb{Z}$, and

$$\pi_{ij} \colon \mathbb{Z}/i\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\mod j} \mathbb{Z}/j\mathbb{Z}$$

for $j \mid i$. Then

$$\lim_{i\in\mathbb{N}}\mathbb{Z}/i\mathbb{Z}=\hat{\mathbb{Z}}$$

is a ring. It is left as an exercise to also show

$$\hat{\mathbb{Z}} = \prod_{p \text{ prime}} \mathbb{Z}_p$$

Remark. (i) $A = \lim_{i \in I} (A_i, \pi_{ij})$. This has the universal property that we have projections $A \xrightarrow{p_i} A_i$ such that $p_i \pi_{ij} = p_j$. For any B with such maps $B \xrightarrow{q_i} A_i$, $q_i \pi_{ij} = q_j$ there exists a unique $\phi: B \to A$



(ii) If the A_i have a topology, the *inverse limit topology* on $A = \varprojlim_{i \in I} A_i$ is the weakest topology that makes all $A \xrightarrow{p_i} A_i$ continuous.

Example. On \mathbb{Z}_p the inverse limit topology coincides with the *p*-adic topology. The LHS is generated by preimages of points under $\mathbb{Z}_p \to \mathbb{Z}/p^i\mathbb{Z}$, and the RHS is generated by open balls $a + p^i\mathbb{Z}_p$.

Let $K, |\cdot|$ be non-Archimedean with \mathcal{O}, M , and corresponding valuation v. Choose $\pi \in M \setminus \{0\}$ and normalise such that $v(\pi) = 1$.

Proposition 8.1. K is complete with respect to $|\cdot|$ if and only if

$$\mathcal{O} \to \varprojlim_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \mathcal{O}/\pi^i \mathcal{O}, x \mapsto (x \mod \pi^i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$$
(*)

is an isomorphism.

Note 4. $\lim_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \mathcal{O}/\pi^i \mathcal{O}$ is the completion of the ring \mathcal{O} with respect to the ideal (π) .

Note 5. If (*) is an isomorphism, we say \mathcal{O} is (π)-adically complete (cf. surjective) and separated (cf. injective).

Proof. Write $K = \bigcup_x x + \mathcal{O}$ as a disjoint union of open and closed sets, where x runs over coset representatives of \mathcal{O} in K. Note that K is complete with respect to $|\cdot|$ if and only if each $x + \mathcal{O}$ is complete with respect to $|\cdot|$ if and only if \mathcal{O} is complete with respect to $|\cdot|$. Equivalently,

$$\forall (x_n)_n \text{ in } \mathcal{O} \text{ with } |x_n - x_{n+1}| \to 0 \quad \exists x \in \mathcal{O} \quad |x_n - x| \to 0 \tag{A}$$

and such an x is necessarily unique.

Now (*) is an isomorphism if and only if

$$\forall (x_i)_i \text{ in } \mathcal{O} \text{ with } v(x_{i+1} - x_i) \ge i \quad \exists ! x \in \mathcal{O} \quad v(x - x_i) \ge i$$
(B)

But every sequence in (A) has a subsequence as in (B), so they are equivalent. \Box

8.1 Profinite Groups

Let I be a directed set and $\pi_{ij}: G_i \to G_j$ group homomorphisms. Suppose $(G_i)_{i \in I}$ be a directed system of finite groups, all with the discrete topology. Then

$$G = \varprojlim_{i \in I} G_i$$

is a *profinite group* with the inverse limit topology, called the profinite topology.

Note 6. If the G_i are compact (e.g. finite) then $G \subset \prod_{i \in I} G_i$ is compact and so G is compact in the profinite topology.

Example. $(\mathbb{Z}_p, +), (\mathbb{Z}_p^*, \times), (\mathbb{F}_{p^n}[[t]], +), (\hat{\mathbb{Z}}, +).$

8.2 Main Example

Let L/K be an extension of fields, possibly infinite, but the union of finite Galois extensions k/K. For example, $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}/\mathbb{Q}$, $\overline{\mathbb{F}}_p/\mathbb{F}_p$, recalling $\overline{\mathbb{F}}_p = \bigcup_{n \ge 1} \mathbb{F}_{p^n}$. Then

$$G = \operatorname{Gal}(L/K) = \operatorname{Aut}(L/K) = \varprojlim_k \operatorname{Gal}(k/K)$$

is a profinite group.

By the Fundamental Theorem of Galois Theory, extensions of K in L are in one-toone correspondence with closed subgroups of G, and finite extensions of K in L are in one-to-one correspondence with open subgroups of G.

Exercise 8. Show the following

$$\operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{F}_q/\mathbb{F}_q) \cong (\hat{Z}, +)$$

$$\operatorname{Frob}_q \colon x \mapsto x^q \leftrightarrow 1$$

$$\operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}\left(\bigcup_{n \ge 1} \mu_{p^n}\right)/\mathbb{Q}) \cong \mathbb{Z}_p^*$$

$$\operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}\left(\bigcup_{n \ge 1} \mu_n\right)/\mathbb{Q}) \cong \hat{Z}^*$$

Note $\operatorname{Gal}(\overline{\mathbb{Q}}/\mathbb{Q})$ is presently still unknown.

Extensions of Complete Fields

Example.

 $|\cdot|_5$ on \mathbb{Q} has two extensions to $\mathbb{Q}(i)$, $|\cdot|_{2+i}$ and $|\cdot|_{2-i}$. This cannot happen for complete fields. "Primes do not split".

Theorem 9.1. Suppose $K, |\cdot|$ is complete non-Archimedean and L/K is finite with [L:K] = d. Then

(i) There is a unique absolute value $|\cdot|_L$ on L extending $|\cdot|$ on K, and L is complete with respect to this.

(ii)
$$|x|_L = |N_{L/K}(x)|^{1/d}$$

(iii) \mathcal{O}_L is the integral closure of \mathcal{O}_K in L.

Proof. Uniqueness. We do more. Given $K, |\cdot|$ and a vector space V over K, a norm on V is a map $\|\cdot\|: V \to \mathbb{R}$ such that

- ||v|| = 0 if and only if v = 0;
- $\|\alpha v\| = |\alpha| \|v\|;$
- $||v + w|| \le \max\{||v||, ||w||\}.$

For example, $V = K^d$, $||v||_{\sup} = \max_i |v_i|$ for $v = (v_1, \ldots, v_d)$. We say two norms are *equivalent*, denoted $||\cdot||_1 \sim ||\cdot||_2$, if there exists $c, C \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ such that

$$c \| \cdot \|_1 \le \| \cdot \|_2 \le C \| \cdot \|_1$$

A norm defines a metric on V, and equivalent norms induce the same topology.

Proposition 9.2. Let K, $|\cdot|$ be complete non-Archimedean and V be a finite-dimensional K-vector space. Then any two norms on V are equivalent, and V is complete with respect to any of them.

Proof. By induction on $d = \dim V$. If d = 1 then $V = K \cdot e$, $||\alpha e|| = |\alpha|||e||$, so any two norms on V are multiples of each other.

Suppose d > 1, let $V = K^d$ with norm $\|\cdot\|$. We show that $\|\cdot\| \sim \|\cdot\|_{sup}$. This also proves that V is complete. Let e_1, \ldots, e_d be a basis of V, let $C = \max_i ||e_i||$. Then

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^{d} v_i e_i \implies \|v\| \le \max_i \|v_i e_i\| \le C \|v\|_{\sup}$$

It suffices to prove $c \|v\|_{\sup} \le \|v\|$ for some 0 < c. Suppose not and take a sequence $v^{(n)}$ in $V \setminus \{0\}$ such that

$$\frac{\|v^{(n)}\|}{\|v^{(n)}\|_{\sup}} \to 0$$

as $n \to \infty$. Then, for some $i \in \{1, \ldots, d\}$,

$$||v^{(n)}||_{\sup} = |v_i^{(n)}|$$

for infinitely many $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Without loss of generality assume i = d, replace $v^{(n)}$ by this subsequence and rescale

$$v^{(n)} \mapsto \frac{1}{v_d^{(n)}} v^{(n)}$$

so that

- (i) $v_d^{(n)} = 1$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$; (ii) $v^{(n)}$ is in $\mathcal{O}_K^d \subset K^d$, i.e., $\|v^{(n)}\|_{\sup} = 1$; (iii) $\|v^{(n)}\| \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.

Let $u^{(n)} = v^{(n)} - e_d \in \mathcal{O}_k^{d-1} \subset \mathcal{O}_K^d$. Then

$$||u^{(n+1)} - u^{(n)}|| = ||v^{(n+1)} - v^{(n)}|| \le \max\{||v^{(n+1)}||, ||v^{(n)}||\} \to 0$$

as $n \to \infty$. By induction, $(K^{d-1}, \|\cdot\|)$ is complete, so

$$u^{(n)} \to u \in K^{d-1}$$

and

$$|e_d + u|| = \lim_{n \to \infty} ||e_d + u^{(n)}|| = \lim ||v^{(n)}|| = 0$$

so $e_d + u = 0$ but $u \in K^{d-1}$, $e_d \notin K^{d-1}$, contradiction.

Now suppose $|\cdot|_1$, $|\cdot|_2$ are absolute values on L extending $|\cdot|$ on K. They are norms on L, hence equivalent, i.e.,

$$|x|_1 \le |x|_2 \le C|x|_1$$

But $|x^n|_1 = |x|_1^n$ and $|x^n|_2 = |x|_2^n$, so

$$c^{1/n}|x|_1 \le |x|_2 \le C^{1/n}|x|_1$$

As $c^{1/n}, C^{1/n} \to 1$ as $n \to \infty$,

$$|x|_1 = |x|_2$$

Existence. Let $|x|_L = |N_{L/K}(x)|^{1/d}$. We want to prove this is an absolute value on L. Clearly

(i) $|x|_L$ extends $|\cdot|$ on K;

- (ii) $|x|_L = 0$ if and only if x = 0;
- (iii) $|xy|_L = |x|_L |y|_L$.

It suffices to prove $|x + y|_L \le \max\{|x|_L, |y|_L\}$. Without loss of generality $|y|_L \le |x|_L$, so z = y/x has $|z|_L \le 1$, and

$$|x+y|_L \le |x|_L \iff |1+z|_L \le 1$$

so we claim

$$N_{L/K}(z) \in \mathcal{O}_K \implies N_{L/K}(1+z) \in \mathcal{O}_K$$

Let f be the minimal polynomial of z over K. Then

$$N_{L/K}(z) = \pm f(0)^m$$

where $m = [L:K]/\deg(f)$. Then, as f is monic irreducible in K[X] and $f(0)^m \in \mathcal{O}_K$ hence $f(0) \in \mathcal{O}$ (as \mathcal{O}_K is integrally closed), we deduce $f(z) \in \mathcal{O}_K[z]$ (see Question 23). Therefore,

$$N_{L/K}(1+z) \in \mathcal{O}_K$$

Finally, \mathcal{O}_L is the integral closure of \mathcal{O}_K in L, because we know that $N_{L/K}(z) \in \mathcal{O}_K$ if and only if z is integral over K.

9.1 Consequences

Suppose $K, |\cdot|$ is complete non-Archimedean. Then $|\cdot|$ extends uniquely to \overline{K} ,

$$\alpha \in \bar{K} \implies |\alpha| = |N_{K(\alpha)/K}(\alpha)|^{1/[K(\alpha):K]}$$

Note that, in general, \bar{K} is not complete, e.g., $\bar{\mathbb{Q}}_p$ is not. Its completion is $\mathbb{C}_p = \bar{\mathbb{Q}}_p$, which is complete and algebraically closed.

If $\alpha, \alpha' \in \overline{K}$ are Galois conjugates over K then $|\alpha| = |\alpha'|$. To see this, note that α, α' are Galois conjugates if and only if α, α' are roots of the same irreducible polynomials $f \in K[X]$, and then α, α' have the same norm.

Lemma 9.3 (Krasner's Lemma). Let $f(X) \in K[X]$ be irreducible and monic, say

$$f(x) = \prod_{i=1}^{d} (X - \alpha_i)$$

over \bar{K} . Suppose $\beta \in \bar{K}$ is such that $|\beta - \alpha_1| < |\beta - \alpha_i|$ for all i > 1. Then $\alpha_1 \in K(\beta)$.

Proof. $\alpha_1 \neq \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_d$, so α_1 is a simple root of f, so f is separable. Let $L = K(\beta)$, and note $L' = L(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_d)$ is a Galois extension of L. For $\sigma \in \text{Gal}(L'/L)$,

$$|\beta - \sigma(\alpha_1)| = |\sigma(\beta - \alpha_1)| = |\beta - \alpha_1| \neq |\beta - \alpha_i|$$

for all i > 1. Thus $\sigma(\alpha_1) \neq \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_d$, so $\sigma(\alpha_1) = \alpha_1$. Hence the minimal polynomial of α_1 over L has degree 1, so $\alpha_1 \in K(\beta)$.

As a consequence of this, \mathbb{Q}_p has only finitely many extensions of a given degree. Now suppose L/K is finite. We have

$$K, |\cdot| \hookrightarrow L, |\cdot|$$
$$\mathcal{O}_K \hookrightarrow \mathcal{O}_L$$
$$M_K \hookrightarrow M_L$$
$$k_K \hookrightarrow k_L$$

Proposition 9.4. Suppose [L : K] = d, L/K is separable and the valuations are discrete. Then

$$\mathcal{O}_L \cong \mathcal{O}_K^d$$

as \mathcal{O}_K -modules.

Remark. All conditions are necessary, and the result does not hold for general number fields.

Proof. We want to show that \mathcal{O}_L injects into a free \mathcal{O}_K -module of finite rank. Then, as \mathcal{O}_K is a PID, \mathcal{O}_L is free of finite rank, and since $\operatorname{Frac}(\mathcal{O}_K) = K$, $\operatorname{Frac}(\mathcal{O}_L) = L$ we conclude \mathcal{O}_L has rank [L:K] = d.

Let $B(x,y) = \text{Tr}_{L/K}(xy), L \times L \to K$. It is a non-degenerate K-bilinear form, where the non-degeneracy of this form is equivalent to the separability of L/K.

Pick $e_1, \ldots, e_d \in \mathcal{O}_L$ a basis for L/K, and let $e_1^\checkmark, \ldots, e_d^\checkmark \in L$ be the dual basis with respect to B, i.e., $B(e_i, e_j^\checkmark) = \delta_{ij}$. Then

$$\mathcal{O}_L \subset \{x \in L : B(x, y) \in \mathcal{O}_K \; \forall y \in \mathcal{O}_L\} =: \mathcal{O}_L^\checkmark$$

as $\operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(\mathcal{O}_L) \subset \mathcal{O}_K$, because $\mathcal{O}_L/\mathcal{O}_K$ is integral. Further,

$$\mathcal{O}_L^{\checkmark} \subset \bigoplus_{i=1}^d \mathcal{O}_k \cdot e_i^{\checkmark}$$

a finitely generated free \mathcal{O}_K -module.

Ramification and Inertia

Consider the following setting. Suppose we have K, $|\cdot|$, v_k , \mathcal{O}_K , M_K , k_K and L, $|\cdot|$, v_L , \mathcal{O}_L , M_L , k_L , where [L:K] = d, all with their usual meaning.

Suppose v_K is discrete and normalised. Assume k_K is *perfect*, i.e., every finite extension of k_K is separable. This is the case, e.g., for \mathbb{F}_q , $\overline{\mathbb{F}}_p$, fields of characteristic 0, or algebraically closed fields. It is not true for $\mathbb{F}_p(t)$.

Definition. The residue degree, or inertial degree, is $f = f_{L/K} = [k_L : k_K]$.

Let the valuations on K^* and L^* be given by $\log_{\alpha} |\cdot| \colon K^* \to \mathbb{Z}$ and $\log_{\alpha} |N_{L/K}(\cdot)|^{1/d} \colon L^* \to \mathbb{R}$ with image in $(1/d)\mathbb{Z}$, respectively. Then the image is a discrete subgroup, so v_L is discrete.

Definition. The index $[v_L(L^*) : v_L(K^*)]$ is called the *ramification index* of L/K, denoted $e = e_{L/K}$. Equivalently, $(\pi_K) = (\pi_L^e)$ in \mathcal{O}_L .

Remark. There are two possible conventions.

- (i) Normalise $v_L, |\cdot|_L$, but then $v_L|_{K^*} \neq v_K$ but $v_L|_{K^*} = ev_K$.
- (ii) Let $v_L: L^* \to (1/e)\mathbb{Z}$, then v_L is not normalised but $v_L|_{K^*} = v_K$.

Both are used.

Proposition 10.1.

$$e_{L/K}f_{L/K} = [L:K]$$

Proof. We know $\mathcal{O}_L \cong \mathcal{O}_K^d$ as \mathcal{O}_K -modules where d = [L:K]. Thus

$$\mathcal{O}_L/\pi_K\mathcal{O}_L\cong\mathcal{O}_K^d/\pi_K\mathcal{O}_K^d\cong(\mathcal{O}_K/\pi_K\mathcal{O})^d\cong k_K^d$$

as \mathcal{O}_K -modules. But

$$\mathcal{O}_L \supset \pi_L \mathcal{O}_L \supset \pi_L^2 \mathcal{O}_L \supset \cdots \supset \pi_L^e \mathcal{O}_L = \pi_K \mathcal{O}_L$$

and

$$\pi_L^i \mathcal{O}_L / \pi_L^{i+1} \mathcal{O}_L \cong \mathcal{O}_L / \pi_L \mathcal{O}_L, \quad x \mapsto x \mod \pi_L^i$$

as \mathcal{O}_K -modules, so these are also isomorphic to $k_L \cong k_K^f$ as \mathcal{O}_K -modules. Comparing dimensions, d = ef.

Definition. L/K is unramified if $e_{L/K} = 1$, or equivalently, $[L:K] = f_{L/K}$. L/K is totally ramified if $e_{L/K} = [L:K]$, or equivalently, $f_{L/K} = 1$, that is, $k_L \cong k_K$.

Note 7. Given extensions M/L/K,

$$f_{M/K} = f_{M/L} f_{L/K}$$

by the tower law for $k_M/k_L/k_K$, and

$$e_{M/K} = e_{M/L} e_{L/K}$$

by the tower law for M/L/K.

Example. Suppose $[L:\mathbb{Q}_p]=2$ for some $p\neq 2$. Then

$$L = \mathbb{Q}_p(\sqrt{d})$$

for some $d \in \{p, \eta p, \eta\}$ with $\bar{\eta} = \eta \mod p \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$ a non-residue.

- L = Q_p(√p), Q_p(√ηp) have e_{L/Q_p} ≥ 2 as p = √ηp²u for some unit u, so v(√ηp) = 1/2 in L. So e = 2, f = 1, and this is a totally ramified extension.
 L = Q_p(√η) has f_{L/Q_p} ≥ 2. L contains the roots of X² − η, so

$$k_L \supset \mathbb{F}_p(\text{roots of } X^2 - \bar{\eta}) = \mathbb{F}_{p^2}$$

as $X^2 - \bar{\eta}$ is irreducible over \mathbb{F}_p . So e = 1, f = 2 and this is an unramified extension.

Exercise 9. For L/\mathbb{Q}_2 , the extension $L = \mathbb{Q}_2(\mu_3) = \mathbb{Q}_2(\sqrt{-3}) = \mathbb{Q}_2(\sqrt{5})$ is unramified, but the other six quadratic extensions are ramified.

Unramified Extensions

Note that these are in one-to-one correspondence with extensions of the residue fields.

- **Theorem 11.1.** (i) Suppose L/K is a finite, unramified extension. Then $\mathcal{O}_L = \mathcal{O}_K[\alpha]$ (and so $L = K(\alpha)$) for any $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$ with $k_L = k_K(\bar{\alpha})$.
- (ii) Suppose ℓ/k_K is finite. There exists an unramified extension L/K with $k_L \cong \ell$ over k_K .
- (iii) Suppose L/K is a finite, unramified extension and let L'/K be any finite extension. Then

$$\operatorname{Hom}_K(L,L') \to \operatorname{Hom}_{k_K}(k_L,k_{L'})$$

is a bijection.

- Proof. (i) We know $\mathcal{O}_L \cong \mathcal{O}_K^d$ as \mathcal{O}_K -modules, where d = [L:K]. As the extension L/K is unramified, $\pi_L = \pi_K$. Now $k_L = k_K(\bar{\alpha})$ implies $1, \bar{\alpha}, \ldots, \bar{\alpha}^{d-1}$ generate $\mathcal{O}_L/\pi_L \mathcal{O}_L$. Therefore, by Nakayama's lemma, as \mathcal{O}_L is local, $1, \alpha, \ldots, \alpha^{d-1}$ generate \mathcal{O}_L as an \mathcal{O}_K -module.
 - (ii) Write ℓ = k_K(ā). We can do this since k_K is perfect and so ℓ/k_K is separable, hence there exists a primitive element.
 Lift the minimal polynomial ḡ(X) ∈ k_K[X] of ā to any monic polynomial g(X) ∈ O_K[X], so g(X) is irreducible. Now let L = K(roots of g) = K[X]/(g(X)).
- (iii) Write $L = K(\alpha)$ as in (ii); so $k_L = k_K(\bar{\alpha})$. Let g(X) be the minimal polynomial of α over K and let $\bar{g}(X)$ be its reduction over k_K . Given $\tilde{\phi} \colon k_L \to k_{L'}$, we find a root $\tilde{\phi}(\bar{\alpha})$ of $\bar{g}(X)$ in $k_{L'}$. By Hensel's Lemma, there exists a unique root of g(X) in L lifting to it, and hence there exists a unique $\phi \colon L \to L'$ lifting $\tilde{\phi}$.

Remark. Part (iii) implies the field L in (ii) is unique up to isomorphism.

Corollary 11.2. Suppose L/K is a finite, unramified extension. Then L/K is Galois if and only if k_L/k_K is Galois, and if this is the case then $\operatorname{Gal}(L/K) \cong \operatorname{Gal}(k_L/k_K)$.

Proof. K-automorphisms $\sigma: L \to L$ and k_K -automorphisms $\bar{\sigma}: k_L \to k_L$ are in one-toone correspondence under the maps reduction modulo M_K and its inverse by part (iii) of Theorem 11.1. So

$$\operatorname{Aut}(L/K) \cong \operatorname{Aut}(k_L/k_K)$$

In particular, L/K is Galois if and only if $|\operatorname{Aut}(L/K)| = [L:K]$ if and only if $|\operatorname{Aut}(k_L:k_K)| = [k_L:k_K] = [L:K]$ if and only if k_L/k_K is Galois.

Example. Suppose $K = \mathbb{Q}_p$. (The situation is similar for any local field K.) \mathbb{Q}_p has a unique ramified extension of degree $n \ge 1$,

$$L_n = \mathbb{Q}_p(\mu_{p^n-1})$$

 L_n/\mathbb{Q}_p is Galois with $\operatorname{Gal}(L_n/\mathbb{Q}_p) \cong \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$.

This is because \mathbb{F}_p has a unique extension of degree n,

$$\mathbb{F}_{p^n} = \mathbb{F}_p(\text{roots of } X^{p^n} - X) = \mathbb{F}_p(\mu_{p^n-1})$$

and $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}/\mathbb{F}_p$ is Galois with Galois group $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$.

Corollary 11.3. Suppose L/K is finite. There exists a unique maximal unramified extension K' of K in L, so



and every unramified extension of K in L is contained in K'.

Proof.



By part (iii) of Theorem 11.1, there exists an unramified extension K' of K with $k_{K'} \cong k_L$ over k_K . By part (ii) of Theorem 11.1, $K' \hookrightarrow L$ over K.

L/K' is totally ramified, i.e., $f_{L/K'} = 1$, and part (iii) of Theorem 11.1 gives the last claim.

Note 8. If L/K is Galois then K'/K is Galois.

Example. Suppose $p \neq 2$ is a prime and let $K = \mathbb{Q}_p$. Then



 $\mathbb{Q}_p(\sqrt{\eta})$ is the maximal unramified extension of \mathbb{Q}_p in L.

Totally Ramified Extensions

Proposition 12.1. Suppose L/K is totally ramified of degree $e, \pi = \pi_L$ is a uniformiser and v_L is a normalised valuation, i.e., $v_L(\pi) = 1$. Then

(i) π satisfies an Eisenstein polynomial of degree e over \mathcal{O}_K . (ii) $\mathcal{O}_L = \mathcal{O}_K[\pi].$

Conversely, if $g \in \mathcal{O}_K[X]$ is Eisenstein then L = K[X]/g(X) is totally ramified over K and $v_L(\text{root of } g) = 1$.

Recall that g(X) is *Eisenstein* if and only if

$$g(X) = X^{n} + a_{n-1}X^{n-1} + \dots + a_{0}$$

with $v(a_i) \ge 1$, $v(a_0) = 1$. Then g(X) is irreducible by Eisenstein's criterion.

Proof. (i) Consider the minimal polynomial of π over K,

$$\pi^n + a_{n-1}\pi^{n-1} + \dots + a_0 = 0$$

irreducible over K and $n \leq e = [L:K]$. π is integral over \mathcal{O}_K , so $a_i \in \mathcal{O}_K$ for all i = 0, ..., n - 1. Now consider the valuation of the LHS. The sum is 0 so two terms have the same smallest valuation.

$$v_L(a_i\pi^i) = i + ev_K(a_i) \equiv i \pmod{e}$$

So these are all distinct for i < e. Hence n = e, $v_L(a_0) = v_L(\pi^n) = n = e$, in other words, $v_K(a_0) = 1$, and $v_K(a_i) > 0$ because $v_K(a_0)$ and $v_K(a_n)$ are smallest. Thus g(X) is Eisenstein, irreducible, and $L = K(\pi)$. (ii) For $x \in L$ write $x = \sum_{i=0}^{e-1} b_i \pi^i$ with $b_i \in K$. Then

$$v_L(x) = \min_i \{i + ev_K(b_i)\}$$

as the elements $i + ev_K(b_i)$ all have distinct valuations. Now $x \in \mathcal{O}_L$ if and only if $v_L(x) \ge 0$ if and only if $v_K(b_i) \ge 0$ for all $i = 0, \ldots, e - 1$. So $\mathcal{O}_L = \mathcal{O}_K[\pi]$.

Conversely, if $g(X) \in \mathcal{O}_K[X]$ is Eisenstein, let

$$L = K[X]/g(X) \cong K(\text{root of } g) = K(\alpha)$$

for some $\alpha \in L$. Then

$$\alpha \in L \implies \alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$$

as \mathcal{O}_L is integrally closed, and as $g \mod M = X^n$,

$$\alpha \in M_L$$

so $v_L(\alpha) > 0$. Consider

$$\alpha^n + \underbrace{a_{n-1}\alpha^{n-1} + \dots + a_1\alpha}_{v_L(\cdot) > e_{L/K}} + \underbrace{a_0}_{v_L(\cdot) = e_{L/K}} = 0$$

so $v_L(\alpha^n) = e_{L/K}$, so $n = [L:K] | e_{L/K}$, but $e_{L/K} | n$. Thus $n = e_{L/K}$, L/K is totally ramified, and $v_L(\alpha) = 1$.

Inertia Group and Higher Ramification

Suppose L/K is Galois, G = Gal(L/K). Let K' be the maximal unramified extension of K in L and recall K'/K is also Galois.



We also have $\operatorname{Gal}(K'/K) = \operatorname{Gal}(k_L/k_K)$.

Definition. The *inertia group* $I = I_{L/K}$ is Gal(L/K'). Equivalently,

 $I = \{ \sigma \in G : \sigma \text{ maps to } \iota \text{ in } \operatorname{Gal}(k_L/k_K) \}$ $= \{ \sigma \in G : \sigma x \equiv x \pmod{M} \ \forall x \in \mathcal{O}_L \}$

Note 9. $I \triangleleft G_{L/K}, e = |I|$.

Example. Let $K = \mathbb{Q}_2$, let $L = \mathbb{Q}_2(\sqrt[3]{2}, \zeta\sqrt[3]{2}, \zeta\sqrt[3]{2})$ be the splitting field of $X^3 - 2$, where $\{1, \zeta, \zeta^2\} = \mu_3$.

We have $[L:K] \leq 3! = 6$. $\mu_3 \subset L$ so $k_L \supset \mathbb{F}_2(\mu_3) = \mathbb{F}_4$, so $f_{L/K} \geq 2$ and $2 \mid f_{L/K}$. $\sqrt[3]{2} \in L$ so $e_{L/K} \geq 3$ and $3 \mid e_{L/K}$. But now $[L:K] = f_{L/K}e_{L/K}$, so these are in fact equalities.



Note 10. $\sqrt[3]{2}$ is a uniformiser of L. 0, 1, ζ , ζ^2 are representatives for \mathcal{O}_L/M_L .

$$\mathcal{O}_L = \{a_0 + a_1\sqrt[3]{2} + a_2\sqrt[3]{2}^2 + a_3 \cdot 2 + \dots : a_i \in \{0, 1, \zeta, \zeta^2\}\}$$

is a free \mathbb{Z}_2 -modulo of rank 6 with basis $1, \zeta, \sqrt[3]{2}, \zeta\sqrt[3]{2}, \sqrt[3]{2}^2, \zeta\sqrt[3]{2}^2$, and $\operatorname{Gal}(L/K)$ permutes the elements — this is not true in general.

 $G = S_3$ is the set of permutations of $\{\sqrt[3]{2}, \zeta\sqrt[3]{2}, \zeta\sqrt[3]{2}\}$, i.e., the maps

$$\sqrt[3]{2} \mapsto \{\sqrt[3]{2}, \zeta\sqrt[3]{2}, \zeta^2\sqrt[3]{2}\}$$
$$\zeta \mapsto \{\zeta, \zeta^2\}$$

 $I = C_3$ is the set of even permutation, i.e., the maps

$$\begin{split} & \sqrt[3]{2} \mapsto \{\sqrt[3]{2}, \zeta\sqrt[3]{2}, \zeta^2\sqrt[3]{2}\} \\ & \zeta \mapsto \zeta \end{split}$$

Note 11. $\operatorname{Gal}(L/K) \to \operatorname{Gal}(k_L/k_K) = \operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{F}_4/\mathbb{F}_2) = \{\iota, (\zeta \leftrightarrow \zeta^2)\}.$ On

$$\mathcal{O}_L = \{a_0 + a_1\sqrt[3]{2} + a_2\sqrt[3]{2}^2 + a_3 \cdot 2 + \dots : a_i \in \{0, 1, \zeta, \zeta^2\}\}$$

elements of $G \setminus I \cong S_3 \setminus C_3$ act non-trivially on a_0 , and non-identity elements of C_3 act non-trivially on \mathcal{O}_L/M_L^2 .

More generally, we let

$$G_i = \{ \sigma \in G : \sigma x \equiv x \mod M_L^{i+1} \ \forall x \in \mathcal{O}_L \}$$

be the *i*th ramification group. Then

$$G \supset G_0 \supset G_1 \supset \cdots$$

and $G_0 = I_{L/K}$. In the example above,

$$S_3 = G \supset G_0 = C_3 \supset G_1 = \{\iota\} \supset G_2 = \{\iota\} \supset \cdots$$

Note that

$$G_i = \ker (G \hookrightarrow \operatorname{Aut} \mathcal{O}_L \to \operatorname{Aut} \mathcal{O}_L/(\pi_L)^{i+1})$$

so that G_i is normal in G for all $i \ge 0$.

Theorem 13.1. Let L/K be Galois, $\pi = \pi_L$ be a uniformiser, $v = v_L$ be normalised and G = Gal(L/K).

- (i) For $\sigma \in I$, $\sigma \in G_n$ if and only if $v(\pi \sigma \pi) > n$.
- (ii) $\bigcap_{n>0} G_n = \{\iota\}.$
- (iii) If we write, for $\sigma \in G_n$,

$$\sigma \pi = \alpha_{\sigma} \pi \qquad \qquad n = 0$$

$$\sigma \pi = \pi + \alpha_{\sigma} \pi^{n+1} \qquad \qquad n \ge 1$$

then $\sigma \mapsto \bar{\alpha}_{\sigma} = \alpha_{\sigma} \mod M$ defines an embedding

$$G_0/G_1 \hookrightarrow k_L^* \qquad \qquad n = 0$$

$$G_n/G_{n+1} \hookrightarrow (k_L, +) \qquad \qquad n \ge 1$$

(iv) If char(k_K) = p then G is the unique p-Sylow subgroup of $I = G_0$. If char(k_K) = 0 then $G_1 = \{\iota\}$.

- (i) The 'if' direction is clear by definition. For the 'only if' direction, recall that $\mathcal{O}_L = \mathcal{O}_K[\pi]$.
- (ii) If $\sigma \neq \iota$ then $\sigma \pi \neq \pi$ because $L = K(\pi)$, hence $\sigma \notin G_n$ for sufficiently large n.
- (iii) Let n = 0 and take $\sigma, \tau \in G_0 = I = G$. Writing

$$\sigma\pi = \alpha_{\sigma}\pi, \tau\pi = \alpha_{\tau}\pi$$

we see that

$$(\sigma\tau)\pi = \sigma\tau\pi = \sigma\alpha_{\tau}\pi = (\sigma\alpha_{\tau})\alpha_{\sigma}\pi \equiv \alpha_{\sigma}\alpha_{\tau}\pi \pmod{\pi^2}$$

as $\sigma \alpha_{\tau} \equiv \alpha_{\tau} \pmod{\pi}$ for $\sigma \in I$. So $\sigma \mapsto \bar{\alpha}_{\sigma}$ is a group homomorphism $G_0 \to k_L^*$. Clearly, $\ker(\sigma \mapsto \bar{\alpha}_{\sigma}) = G_1$ by part (i). Now let $n \geq 1$. Similarly,

$$(\sigma\tau)\pi = \sigma(\pi + \alpha_{\tau}\pi^{n+1})$$

= $\sigma(\pi(1 + \alpha_{\tau}\pi^{n}))$
= $(\pi + \alpha_{\sigma}\pi^{n+1})(1 + \underbrace{\sigma(\alpha_{\tau}\pi^{n})}_{\equiv \alpha_{\tau}\pi^{n} \mod \pi^{n+1}})$
= $(\pi + \alpha_{\sigma}\pi^{n+1})(1 + \alpha_{\tau}\pi^{n}) \pmod{\pi^{n+2}}$
= $\pi + (\alpha_{\sigma} + \alpha_{\tau})\pi^{n+1} \pmod{\pi^{n+2}}$

so here $G_n \to (k_L, +)$ via $\sigma \mapsto \bar{\alpha}_{\sigma}$ and by part (i) the kernel is G_{n+1} .

(iv) If char(k_L) = 0 then (k_L , +) has no finite subgroup, so for all n > 0, $G_n/G_{n+1} = \{\iota\}$, and hence $G_1 = \{\iota\}$.

If $\operatorname{char}(k_L) = p$ then

$$G_n/G_{n+1} \hookrightarrow (k_L, +)$$

is a \mathbb{F}_p -vector space. Thus G_1 is a p-group. $G_1 \triangleleft G_0 = G, G_1$ is a p-group. By part (iii),

$$G_0/G_1 \hookrightarrow k_L^*$$

But k_L is a field of characteristic p so has no elements of order p, so G_0/G_1 has order coprime to p. It follows that $G_1 \triangleleft G_0$ is its p-Sylow subgroup, and $G_1 \triangleleft G_0$ is normal hence unique.

Definition. G_1 is the wild interia group. G_0/G_1 is the tame inertia group. L/K is tamely ramified if $G_1 = \{\iota\}$ and wildly ramified otherwise.

We have the following picture for $char(k_K) = p$.



where

- K/K' is maximal unramified, $\operatorname{Gal}(K'/K) = G/G_0 = \operatorname{Gal}(k_L/k_K)$ and this is cyclic if K is local.
- Further, K'/K'' is totally tamely ramified, $\operatorname{Gal}(K''/K') \hookrightarrow k_L^*$, which is the tame inertia group, cyclic of order coprime to p.
- Finally, L/K'' is totally widly ramified, $\operatorname{Gal}(L/K'')$ is the wild inertia group; it is a *p*-group and quite complicated in general.

Corollary 13.2. G_n/G_{n+1} is abelian for all $n \ge 0$.

Corollary 13.3. I is soluble. If L/K is local then Gal(L/K) is soluble.

Corollary 13.4. If char(k_K) = 0, e.g., $K = \mathbb{Q}((t))$ or $\mathbb{C}((t))$, then every extension of K is tamely ramified.

13.1 Structure of Tamely Ramified Extensions

Lemma 13.5. Let L/K be Galois, totally and tamely ramified of degree n. Then

- (i) $\mu_n \subset K$ since $C_n \cong \operatorname{Gal}(L/K) \hookrightarrow k_K^*$;
- (ii) there exists a uniformiser π of K such that $L = K(\sqrt[n]{\pi})$, which follows from Kummer's theorem.

Proof. Exercise.

Example $(S_3$ -Extensions of $\mathbb{Q}((t)))$. Let $K = \mathbb{Q}((t))$. We describe all Galois extensions L of K with $\operatorname{Gal}(L/K) \cong S_3$. Let $\pi_K = t$, a uniformiser of K, and $k_K = \mathbb{Q}$. Recall that this is perfect as it has characteristic 0. Let $k_L = F$, some number field.

Case 1. Suppose L/K is unramified. Then L = F((t)) for some S_3 -extensions F/\mathbb{Q} .

Case 2. Suppose L/K is ramified. $I \triangleleft S_3$, $I \neq \{\iota\}$ and I is cyclic (cf. tame inertia). Thus $I = C_3$ and

$$G/I \cong C_2 \cong \operatorname{Gal}(F/\mathbb{Q})$$

 $\quad \text{and} \quad$

$$L$$

 $3 \mid$ totally ramified
 $K' = F((t))$
 $2 \mid$ unramified
 $K = \mathbb{Q}((t))$

with $[F:\mathbb{Q}]=2$.

L/K' is Galois, totally and tamely ramified so, by the previous lemma, $\mu_3 \subset \mathbb{F}^*$ and hence $F = \mathbb{Q}(\mu_3) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-3})$ as this is the only quadratic extension of \mathbb{Q} containing the cube roots of unity.

By the lemma,

$$L = K'(\sqrt[3]{f})$$

for some $f \in \mathbb{Q}(\mu_3)[[t]]$ of the form $f = ct + O(t^2) = ct(1 + \cdots)$. 1 + O(t) is a cube in K'. To see this, either apply Hensel's Lemma or write $(1 + \cdots)^{1/3} := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} {1/3 \choose n} (\cdots)^n$. So in fact

$$L = \mathbb{Q}(\mu_3)((t))(\sqrt[3]{ct})$$

for some $c \in \mathbb{Q}(\mu_3)$.

Exercise 10. By considering $\sqrt[3]{ct} \in L$, $c = \alpha + \beta \sqrt{-3}$, $\tilde{c} = \alpha - \beta \sqrt{-3}$ prove that in fact $L = K'(\sqrt[3]{ct})$ with $c \in \mathbb{Q}$.

This gives as the final answer that the S_3 -extensions of $K = \mathbb{Q}((t))$ are

- (i) F((t)) with F/\mathbb{Q} an S_3 -extension;
- (ii) $\mathbb{Q}(\mu_3)((t))(\sqrt[3]{ct}), c \in \mathbb{Q}$, i.e., splitting fields for $X^3 ct$ over K.