

3 Topology of Valuated Fields

From the definition of a valuation $|\cdot|$ on a field k , it is obvious that k with $|\cdot|$ becomes a normed linear space over k itself. Therefore, all the facts of normed topology can be applied to k . In this section, we will review some basic topological facts of a valuated field which can be found in [8,9]. Also, we will discuss some new phenomena, especially, in the non-Archimedean case.

Theorem 3.1 *Let $(k, |\cdot|)$ be a valuated field. Then the function*

$$d : k \times k \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

defined by

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

for all $x, y \in k$, is a metric (distance function) on k , that is, d satisfies:

- (i) *For all $x, y \in k$, $d(x, y) \geq 0$, and $d(x, y) = 0$ if and only if $x = y$.*
- (ii) *For all $x, y \in k$, $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$.*
- (iii) *For all $x, y, z \in k$, $d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y)$.*

If, in addition, $|\cdot|$ is a non-Archimedean valuation on k , then d satisfies the strong triangle inequality: For all $x, y, z \in k$,

$$d(x, y) \leq \max\{d(x, z), d(z, y)\}.$$

Moreover, if $d(x, z) \neq d(z, y)$, then

$$d(x, y) = \max\{d(x, z), d(z, y)\}.$$

Proof. It follows from the definition of valuation and Proposition 2.7. □

Now, a valuated field is automatically a metric space induced by its valuation.

- Example 3.2**
1. The trivial valuation $|\cdot|_0$ on a field k induces the discrete metric space on k .
 2. The ordinary absolute value $|\cdot|_\infty$ on \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{C} induces the Euclidean topology on \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{C} , respectively.
 3. The ordinary absolute value $|\cdot|_\infty$ on \mathbb{Q} induces the induced topology of \mathbb{Q} in \mathbb{R} .
 4. The p -adic topology on \mathbb{Q} is the topology induced by the p -adic valuation on \mathbb{Q} .

Since every valuated field is a metric space, the following definitions are the same as in the case of metric space.

Definition 3.3 Let $(k, |\cdot|)$ be a valuated field. Given $a \in k$ and $r > 0$.

- (i) The set $B(a; r) = \{x \in k \mid |x - a| < r\}$ is called the open ball with center a and radius r .
- (ii) The set $\overline{B}(a; r) = \{x \in k \mid |x - a| \leq r\}$ is called the closed ball with center a and radius r .
- (iii) A sequence $\{a_n\}$ in k is said to converge if there exists $a \in k$ such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n - a| = 0$. Moreover, if $a = 0$, then $\{a_n\}$ is called a null sequence.
- (iv) A sequence $\{a_n\}$ in k is said to be Cauchy if, for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that, for all $n, m \geq N$, $|a_n - a_m| < \epsilon$.
- (v) A sequence $\{a_n\}$ in k is said to be bounded if there exists $M > 0$ such that $|a_n| \leq M$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

As in elementary analysis, if a sequence converges, then its limit is unique, and is also a Cauchy sequence. Also, every Cauchy sequence is bounded. Obviously, a Cauchy sequence may not be convergent. Furthermore, if $\{a_n\}$ is a null sequence and $\{b_n\}$ is a bounded sequence, then $\{a_n b_n\}$ is also a null sequence. Of course, the

general operations of convergent sequences hold in this case. In the classical case, if $\{a_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in \mathbb{R} , then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_{n+1} - a_n| = 0$ and $\{a_n\}$ converges. However, if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_{n+1} - a_n| = 0$, then $\{a_n\}$ may not converge. For example, let $a_n = \sqrt{n}$, $n = 1, 2, \dots$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_{n+1} - a_n| &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{n} \right| \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+1} + \sqrt{n}} \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Clearly, $\{a_n\}$ diverges.

The above example shows that the sequence $\{a_n\}$ in \mathbb{R} satisfying $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_{n+1} - a_n| = 0$ is not a Cauchy sequence in \mathbb{R} , hence it diverges. However, in the non-Archimedean case, the situation is quite different, in fact, we have the following theorem.

Theorem 3.4 *Let $\{a_n\}$ be a sequence in a non-Archimedean valued field k . Then $\{a_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence if and only if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_{n+1} - a_n| = 0$.*

Proof. Suppose that $\{a_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence. Then, given $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that, for all $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$|a_m - a_n| < \epsilon.$$

In particular, for all $n \geq N$, $|a_{n+1} - a_n| < \epsilon$ which implies that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_{n+1} - a_n| = 0.$$

To prove the converse, suppose that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_{n+1} - a_n| = 0$. Then, given $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that, for all $n \geq N$,

$$|a_{n+1} - a_n| < \epsilon.$$

Then, for all $m > n \geq N$,

$$\begin{aligned} |a_m - a_n| &= \left| \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} (a_{n+i} - a_{n+i-1}) \right| \\ &\leq \max_{1 \leq i \leq m-1} |a_{n+i} - a_{n+i-1}| \\ &< \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

So $\{a_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in k . □

Example 3.5 Consider the p -adic valuation on \mathbb{Q} .

1. $\{p^n\}$ is a null sequence in \mathbb{Q} with respect to $|\cdot|_p$. In fact,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |p^n - 0|_p &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |p^n|_p \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p^{-n} \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

So $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p^n = 0$.

2. Let $x_n = a_0 + a_1p + \cdots + a_np^n$, $n = 1, 2, \dots$, where $0 \leq a_i \leq p - 1$ for all $0 \leq i \leq n$. Then $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in \mathbb{Q} with respect to $|\cdot|_p$. In fact,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |x_{n+1} - x_n|_p &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_{n+1}p^{n+1}|_p \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |p^{n+1}|_p \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p^{-(n+1)} \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

By Theorem 3.4, $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence. We will see in section 6 that it converges in the p -adic number field \mathbb{Q}_p .

3. Let $\{p_n\}$ be the sequence of all prime integers, and define

$$a_n = \prod_{i=1}^n p_i^n, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

Then $\{a_n\}$ is a null sequence in \mathbb{Q} with respect to $|\cdot|_p$. In fact, let $p = p_{n_0}$ and then $p^n | a_n$ for all $n \geq n_0$. So

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n - 0|_p = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n|_p = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p^{-n} = 0$$

which implies that $\{a_n\}$ is a null sequence in \mathbb{Q} .

In the remaining of this section, we will concentrate on the metric topology of the valuations defined in Example 2.17. Since their proofs are the same, we may only consider the p -adic valuation on \mathbb{Q} . The strange topological properties are due to the fact that the value group $|\mathbb{Q}^*|_p = \{p^n | n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is discrete.

Theorem 3.6 *Let $\{a_n\}$ be a sequence in \mathbb{Q} . Then we have*

- (i) *If $\{a_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence with respect to $|\cdot|_p$, then either $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n|_p = 0$ or there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $|a_n|_p = |a_{n_0}|_p$ for all $n \geq n_0$.*
- (ii) *If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a$ with respect to $|\cdot|_p$, then either $a = 0$ or there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $|a_n|_p = |a|_p$ for all $n \geq n_0$.*

Proof. Suppose that $\{a_n\}_p$ is a Cauchy sequence with respect to $|\cdot|_p$. Then, by (iv) of Proposition 2.4, $\{|a_n|_p\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in \mathbb{R} , hence $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n|_p = c$. If $c = 0$, then we are done. Now, assume that $c > 0$. We have two cases:

Case 1. $c \in \{p^n | n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$

In this case, choose $\epsilon > 0$ small enough such that

$$(c - \epsilon, c + \epsilon) \cap \{p^n | n \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{c\}.$$

Since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n|_p = c$, there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $|a_n|_p \in (c - \epsilon, c + \epsilon)$ for all $n \geq n_0$. Since $|a_n|_p \in \{p^n | n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we conclude that $|a_n|_p = c$ for all $n \geq n_0$.

Case 2. $c \notin \{p^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$

In this case, choose $\epsilon > 0$ small enough such that

$$(c - \epsilon, c + \epsilon) \cap \{p^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \emptyset.$$

By $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n|_p = c$, there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $|a_n|_p \in (c - \epsilon, c + \epsilon)$ for all $n \geq n_0$ which is impossible.

Therefore, (i) is proved, and (ii) follows from (i) and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n|_p = |a|_p$ by (iv) of Proposition 2.4. \square

Remark. The properties stated in Theorem 3.6 are different from the classical case. For example, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{n+1} = 1$, but $|\frac{n}{n+1}|_\infty \neq 1$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Another strange properties say that all balls are both open and closed, and every point of a ball is the center of the ball.

Theorem 3.7 *In \mathbb{Q} with the p -adic topology. We have*

- (i) *Every open ball $B(a; r)$ is also closed.*
- (ii) *For all $b \in B(a; r)$, $B(b; r) = B(a; r)$.*
- (iii) *Every closed ball $\overline{B}(a; r)$ is also open.*
- (iv) *For all $b \in \overline{B}(a; r)$, $\overline{B}(b; r) = \overline{B}(a; r)$.*
- (v) *The boundary $\partial B(a; r) = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} \mid |x - a|_p = r\}$ is both open and closed in \mathbb{Q} .*

Proof. Note that, in arbitrary metric space, open balls are open, and closed balls are closed.

- (i) If $r = p^m$ for some $m \in \mathbb{Z}$, then choose $\epsilon > 0$ small enough such that

$$s = p^m - \epsilon \notin \{p^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

and $s > 0$. We have

$$B(a; r) = \overline{B}(a; s)$$

So $B(a; r)$ is closed.

(ii) Given $b \in B(a; r)$, for $x \in B(a; r)$,

$$\begin{aligned} |x - b|_p &= |x - a + a - b|_p \\ &\leq \max\{|x - a|_p, |a - b|_p\} \\ &< r, \end{aligned}$$

which implies that $x \in B(b; r)$. Therefore,

$$B(a; r) \subseteq B(b; r).$$

Similarly, $B(b; r) \subseteq B(a; r)$. Hence, $B(a; r) = B(b; r)$.

(iii) and (iv) can be proved as in (i) and (ii), and (v) follows from $\partial B(a; r) = \overline{B}(a; r) - B(a; r)$. \square

Remark. In (v) of Theorem 3.7, $\partial B(a; r)$ may be empty. In fact, if $r \notin \{p^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$, then $\partial B(a; r) = \phi$. Moreover, if $r = p^n$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, then $\partial B(a; p^n) = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} \mid |x - a|_p = p^n\}$.

Corollary 3.8 *Let $B(a; r)$ and $B(b; s)$ be two open balls in \mathbb{Q} . Then either $B(a; r) \cap B(b; s) = \phi$ or one is contained in the other. similarly for closed balls.*

Proof. Suppose that $c \in B(a; r) \cap B(b; s)$. Then, by (ii) of Theorem 3.7, $B(c; r) = B(a; r)$ and $B(c; s) = B(b; s)$. If $r < s$, then

$$\begin{aligned} B(a; r) &= B(c; r) \\ &\subseteq B(c; s) \\ &= B(b; s). \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, if $r > s$, then $B(b; s) \subseteq B(a; r)$. \square

Corollary 3.9 \mathbb{Q} can be expressed as countable disjoint union of open(closed) balls.

Proof. The collection $\mathcal{B} = \{B(a; p^n) \mid a \in \mathbb{Q}, n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ of open balls is countable. According to Theorem 3.7, \mathbb{Q} can be expressed as a union of a sub-collection of \mathcal{B} which consists of disjoint open balls. \square

Theorem 3.10 The p -adic topology on \mathbb{Q} is totally disconnected, i.e. every connected component in \mathbb{Q} is a singleton.

Proof. It suffices to show that if $A \subseteq \mathbb{Q}$ contains at least two points, then A is disconnected.

Let $x, y \in A$ and $x \neq y$. Then $r = |x - y|_p > 0$, $y \notin B(x; r)$. and

$$A = [B(x; r) \cap A] \cup [(\mathbb{Q} - B(x; r)) \cap A].$$

Since $B(x; r)$ is also closed by (i) of Theorem 3.7, A can be expressed as two non-empty disjoint open subsets of A . Therefore, A is disconnected. \square