#### Lecture 3

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#### There are no nontrivial solutions to

$$x^3 + y^3 = z^3.$$

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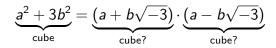
#### Lemma (Euler 1768)

If (a, b) = 1 and  $a^2 + 3b^2 = m^3$  then there exist  $s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $a = s(s^2 - 9t^2)$   $b = 3t(s^2 - t^2)$ .

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Proof

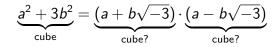
We have



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Proof

We have



If so, then put

$$a+b\sqrt{-3}=(s+t\sqrt{-3})^3.$$

Then

$$\underbrace{(s^2-9st^2)}_{a} + \underbrace{(3s^2t-3t^2)}_{b}\sqrt{-3}$$

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But is this true?

NO:

$$4 = 2 \cdot 2 = (1 + \sqrt{-3}) \cdot (1 - \sqrt{-3}).$$

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However, it is true for the ring

$$\mathbb{Z}[\frac{1+\sqrt{-3}}{2}].$$

To understand this, we need theory – algebraic number theory.

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Assuming Euler's lemma, consider

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Assuming Euler's lemma, consider

$$x^3 + y^3 = z^3.$$

We may assume that

• *x*, *y*, *z* are pairwise coprime

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- |x| is minimal, x = 2u

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- $x \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$  and  $y, z \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$
- |x| is minimal, x = 2u
- p := (z + y)/2, q := (z y)/2, both in  $\mathbb{Z}$ , (p, q) = 1, if one of them is even, the other is odd.

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$$x^{3} = z^{3} - y^{3} = ((p+q)^{3} - (p-q)^{3})$$
  
=  $6p^{2}q + 2q^{3} = 2q(q^{2} + 3p^{2})$ 

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$$x^3 = z^3 - y^3 = ((p+q)^3 - (p-q)^3)$$
  
=  $6p^2q + 2q^3 = 2q(q^2 + 3p^2)$ 

$$\Rightarrow u^{3} = \frac{q}{4} (\underbrace{q^{2} + 3p^{2}}_{\text{odd}})$$
$$\Rightarrow q \equiv 0 \pmod{4}, p \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$$

$$(rac{q}{4},q^2+3p^2)=1\Leftrightarrow (q,\underbrace{3p^2}_{(q^2+3p^2)-q^2)})=1\Leftrightarrow q
ot\equiv 0\pmod{3}$$

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Case 1.

If  $q \not\equiv 0 \pmod{3}$  then q/4 and  $q^2 + 3p^2$  are cubes, by Euler's lemma, we have

$$q = s(s^2 - 9t^2), \quad p = 3t(s^2 - t^2) \quad \text{odd.}$$

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It follows that t is odd, s is even, (s, t) = 1. Then 2q = 8q/4 is also a cube. Thus

$$2s(s^2 - 9t^2) = 2s(s - 3t)(s + 3t)$$
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Since  $q \not\equiv 0 \pmod{3}$ , we have

$$(2s, s-3t) = (2s, s+3t) = (s-3t, s+3t) = 1.$$

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Thus there exist  $x_1, y_1, z_1$  such that

$$x_1^3 = 2s$$
,  $y_1^3 = -(s+3t)$ ,  $z_1^3 = (s-3t)$ 

which implies that

$$x_1^3 + y_1^3 = z_1^3, \quad x_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$$

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But

$$x^{3} = 2q(q^{2} + 3p^{2}) \Rightarrow |\underbrace{q}_{s(s^{2} - 9t^{2})}| < |x^{3}/2|,$$

thus

$$|x_1|^3 = 2|s| < |x|^3,$$

which contradicts the assumption that x is minimal.

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Thus there exist  $x_1, y_1, z_1$  such that

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which contradicts the assumption that x is minimal. This is an instance of infinite descent.

Case 2.

$$q = 3r$$
,  $r \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ 

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Then

$$q = 3r, \quad r \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$$
  
 $u^3 = \frac{3}{4}r(9r^2 + 3p^2) = \frac{9}{4}r(3r^2 + p^2)$ 

Lecture 3

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We have

$$q = 3r, \quad r \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$$
  
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and both are cubes.

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Case 2.

$$q = 3r, r \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$$

Then

$$u^{3} = \frac{3}{4}r(9r^{2} + 3p^{2}) = \frac{9}{4}r(3r^{2} + p^{2})$$

We have

$$(\frac{9}{4}r,(3r^2+p^2))=1,$$

and both are cubes. By Euler's lemma

$$p = s(s^2 - 9t^2), \quad r = 3t(s^2 - t^2)$$

with t even and s odd.

Thus

$$\frac{8}{27} \cdot \frac{9}{4} \cdot r = \frac{2}{3}r = 2t(s^2 - t^2) \qquad \qquad 2t(s+t)(s-t)$$

and the factors are coprime, thus all cubes.

Thus

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and the factors are coprime, thus all cubes.

As before, there exist  $x_1, y_1, z_1$  such that

$$x_1^3 = 2t, \quad y_1^3 = s - t, \quad z_1^3 = s + t$$

with

$$x_1^3 + y_1^3 = z_1^3$$

and

$$|x_1|^3 < 2|t| \le \frac{2}{3}|r| = \frac{2}{9}|q| < 2|q| < |x|^3,$$

contradiction.

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Let  $f \in \mathbb{Z}[t, x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ . Consider

$$f(t, x_1, \ldots, x_n) = 0,$$

either as an equation in the unknowns  $t, x_1, \ldots, x_n$  or as an algebraic family of equations in  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  parametrized by  $t \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Examples:

• 
$$x^{2} + r(t)y^{2} = q(t)z^{2}$$
, with  $r, q \in \mathbb{Z}[t]$   
•  $x^{3} + y^{3} = tz^{3}$   
•  $x^{3} + y^{3} + z^{3} = t$  (e.g.,  $t = 3$ )

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Given a diophantine equation with any number of unknown quantities and with rational integral numerical coefficients: To devise a process according to which it can be determined by a finite number of operations whether the equation is solvable in rational integers

#### Theorem

The set of  $t \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $f(t, ..., x_n) = 0$  is solvable is not decidable, i.e., there is no algorithm to decide whether or not a diophantine equation is solvable in integers.

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#### Theorem

There exists an  $f \in \mathbb{Z}[t_1, t_2, x_0, ..., x_n]$ , with  $n \leq 13$ , such that  $f(a, n, z_0, \dots, z_n) = 0$  for some  $z_0, \dots, z_n \in \mathbb{N}$  iff  $a \in \mathcal{D}_n$ , where  $\mathcal{D}_0, \mathcal{D}_1, \dots$  is a list of all recursively enumerable  $\mathcal{D}_j \subset \mathbb{N}$ .

Conjecture:  $n \leq 3$ .

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The solubility of diophantine equations is not decidable.

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The solubility of diophantine equations is not decidable.

There is a single equation

$$F(t, x_1, \ldots, x_n) = 0$$

with coefficients in  $\mathbb{Z}$ , which is equivalent to all of (formal mathematics): the statement #t is provable if and only if the above equation is solvable in  $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

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#### Theorem

# The set of $t \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $f_t = 0$ has infinitely many primitive solutions is algorithmically random.

Abstract: One normally thinks that everything that is true is true for a reason. I've found mathematical truths that are true for no reason at all. These mathematical truths are beyond the power of mathematical reasoning because they are accidental and random. Using software written in Mathematica that runs on an IBM RS/6000 workstation, I constructed a perverse 200-page algebraic equation with a parameter t and 17,000 unknowns. For each whole-number value of the parameter t, we ask whether this equation has a finite or an infinite number of whole number solutions. The answers escape the power of mathematical reason because they are completely random and accidental.

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### Points

• Basic rings: R

$$\mathbb{F}_{p} = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}$$
 or  $\mathbb{C}[t]...$ 

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• Basic geometric objects:  $\mathbb{A}^n$  and  $\mathbb{P}^n = \left(\mathbb{A}^{n+1} \setminus 0\right) / \mathbb{G}_m$ 

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- Varieties: X<sup>affine</sup> ⊂ A<sup>n</sup> (system of polynomial equations with coefficients in R), resp. X<sup>projective</sup> ⊂ P<sup>n</sup> (system of homogeneous polynomial equations with coefficients in R)

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- *R*-valued points:  $X^{\text{affine}}(R)$ , resp.  $X^{\text{projective}}(R)$ . Note

$$X^{ ext{projective}}(\mathbb{Z}) = X^{ ext{projective}}(\mathbb{Q}).$$

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$$X^{ ext{projective}}(\mathbb{Z}) = X^{ ext{projective}}(\mathbb{Q}).$$

- for now: work projectively
- first nontrivial variety:  $X_f := \{f(x) = 0\} \subset \mathbb{P}^n$ , a hypersurface

$$ax^r + by^r + cz^r = 0,$$

with  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $abc \neq 0$ , and  $r \geq 2$ .

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• r = 2 - no solutions or infinitely many solutions

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- r = 3 none, finitely many or infinitely many solutions

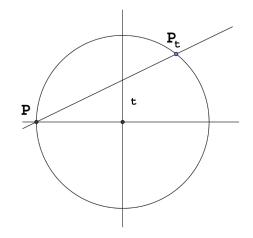
$$ax^r + by^r + cz^r = 0,$$

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- r = 2 no solutions or infinitely many solutions
- r = 3 none, finitely many or infinitely many solutions
- $r \ge 4 at$  most finitely many solutions

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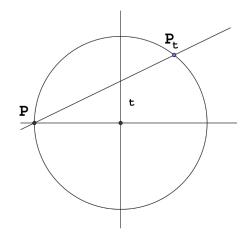
# Conics: geometry



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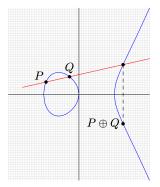


This is how one derives formulas for Pythagorean triples.

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### Cubic equations: geometry



This is how one adds rational points.

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$$ax^r + by^r = cz^r + dt^r$$
,  
with  $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $abcd \neq 0$ , and  $r \ge 2$ .  
•  $r = 2$  - no solutions or a dense set of solutions

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- r = 3 no solutions or a dense set of solutions

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- r = 2 no solutions or a dense set of solutions
- r = 3 no solutions or a dense set of solutions
- *r* ≥ 4 ???

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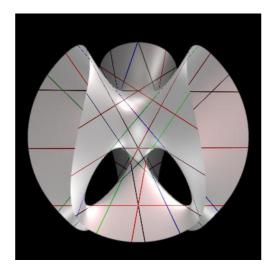
# Quadric surface



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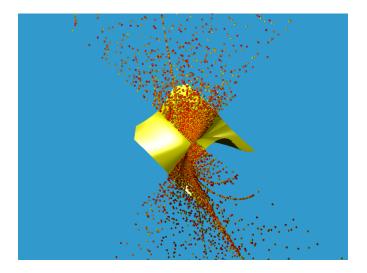
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### Cubic surface



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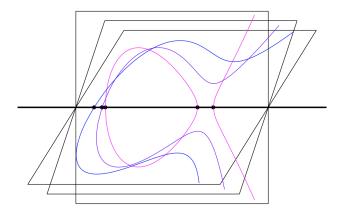
### Cubic surface



# Quartic surface



# Quartic surface - sliced



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# Quartic surface - sliced

Consider

$$ax^4 + by^4 + cz^4 + dt^4 = 0$$

Assume that *abcd* is a square in  $\mathbb{Q}$  and

$$a+b+c+d=0$$

but no two of the coefficients sum to zero. Then  $\mathbb{Q}$ -rational points are dense.

Special case of a general theorem of Bogomolov-T., worked out by Logan, McKinnon, van Luijk in 2010.

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Number theory studies systems of (homogeneous or inhomogeneous) equations with coefficients in  $\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\mathbb{Q}$ , or more general rings or fields. We will mostly focus on homogeneous equations. (Geometrically, on rational points on algebraic varieties.)

The simplest such systems consist of one equation, e.g.,

$$ax^2 + by^2 = cz^2$$
,  $x^3 + y^3 + z^3 = t^3$ , ...

The corresponding varieties are called hypersurfaces.

$$X_f \subset \mathbb{P}^n$$
 over  $\mathbb{F}_q$ 

#### Consider

$$f(x_0,\ldots,x_n)=\sum_{|\mathbf{d}|=d}a_{\mathbf{d}}x^{\mathbf{d}},$$

in multi-index notation.

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#### Consider

$$f(x_0,\ldots,x_n)=\sum_{|\mathbf{d}|=d}a_{\mathbf{d}}x^{\mathbf{d}},$$

in multi-index notation.

Theorem [Chevalley-Warning (1936)] If  $d \le n$  then  $X(\mathbb{F}_q) \ne \emptyset$ .

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Step 1. 
$$\delta$$
 - function :  $\sum_{x=1}^{p-1} x^d = \begin{cases} -1 \pmod{p} & \text{if } p-1 \mid d \\ 0 \pmod{p} & \text{if } p-1 \nmid d \end{cases}$ 

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Step 1. 
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 - function :  $\sum_{x=1}^{p-1} x^d = \begin{cases} -1 \pmod{p} & \text{if } p-1 \mid d \\ 0 \pmod{p} & \text{if } p-1 \nmid d \end{cases}$   
Step 2. Let  $\phi \in \mathbb{Z}[x_0, \dots, x_n]$ , with  $\deg(\phi) \le n(p-1)$ . Then
$$\sum_{x_0, \dots, x_n} \phi(x_0, \dots, x_n) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

Proof: For monomials, we have

$$\sum_{x_0,\ldots,x_n} x_0^{d_0}\cdots x_n^{d_n} = \prod (\sum x_j^{d_j}), \quad \text{with} \quad d_0+\ldots+d_n \leq n(p-1).$$

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For some j, we have  $0 \le d_j , and we apply Step 1.$ 

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# Step 3. Let $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$ with $\deg(f) \le n$ then $N(f) := \#\{x \mid f(x) = 0\} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$

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**Proof:** For  $\phi(x) = 1 - f(x)^{p-1}$  we have  $\deg(\phi) \le \deg(f) \cdot (p-1)$ . Apply 2:

$$N(f)=\sum_{x_0,\ldots,x_n}\phi(x).$$

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Step 3. Let 
$$f \in \mathbb{Z}[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$$
 with  $\deg(f) \leq n$  then  
 $N(f) := \#\{x \mid f(x) = 0\} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$ 

**Proof:** For  $\phi(x) = 1 - f(x)^{p-1}$  we have  $\deg(\phi) \le \deg(f) \cdot (p-1)$ . Apply 2:  $N(f) = \sum \phi(x)$ .

$$x_0,...,x_n$$

Step 4. The homogeneous equation f(x) = 0 has a trivial solution. It follows that

$$N(f) > 1$$
 and  $X_f(\mathbb{F}_p) \neq \emptyset$ .

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 $X_f \subset \mathbb{P}^n$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ 

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### Theorem [Birch (1961)]

$$n \geq (\deg(f) - 1) \cdot 2^{\deg(f)},$$

and f is smooth, then  $X_f$  satisfies the local-global (Hasse) principle.

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- better bounds for *n* for small deg(f)

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**Hope:** reasonable at least when  $n + 1 - d \ge 0$ .

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•  $\delta$ -function:

$$\int_0^1 e^{2\pi i \alpha f(x)} d\alpha = \begin{cases} 1 & f(x) = 0\\ 0 & f(x) \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

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$$N(f,B) := \#\{x \in \mathbb{Z}^{n+1} | f(x) = 0, \|x\| \le B\}$$

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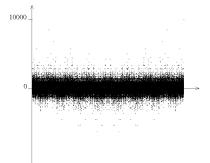
$$N(f,B) := \sum_{\|x\| \leq B} \int_0^1 e^{2\pi i \alpha f(x)} d\alpha = \int_0^1 S(\alpha) d\alpha,$$

where

$$S(\alpha) := \sum_{\|x\| \le B} e^{2\pi i \alpha f(x)}$$

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# Circle method II: $S(\alpha)$



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$$\mathfrak{M} := \bigcup_{(a,q)=1,q \leq B^{\Delta}} \mathfrak{M}_{a,q}$$
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• Input: Weyl's bounds (1916), e.g,  $|\sum_{1 \le x \le B} e^{2\pi i \alpha x^d}|$  "small" when  $|\alpha - a/q|$  "large".

 $X_f \subset \mathbb{P}^n$  over  $\mathbb{C}(t)$ 

## Theorem

If 
$$d = \deg(f) \leq n$$
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• Low-degree (Fano varieties) - many rational points

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- Low-degree (Fano varieties) many rational points
- Intermediate
- High-degree (varieties of general type) few rational points

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## Main results

• Mordell's conjecture /Faltings' theorem: curves of general type have finitely many rational points. E.g., any (smooth) curve in  $\mathbb{P}^2$ , with equation

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• Fano threefolds (Harris, Bogomolov, T.): all have (potentially) dense sets of rational points, with the possible exception of

$$w^2 = f(x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3), \quad \deg(f) = 6.$$

 (nontrivial) solutions of homogeneous equations over fields F give F-rational points X(F) on corresponding projective algebraic varieties X

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- (nontrivial) solutions of homogeneous equations over fields F give F-rational points X(F) on corresponding projective algebraic varieties X
- properties of the sets X(F) reflect the geometric/algebraic complexity of X (e.g., dimension, degree) and the structure of F (e.g., topology, analytic structure)

How does one pass from number theory to geometry?

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## $\mathbb{Q} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}.$

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## How does one pass from number theory to geometry? By viewing

## $\mathbb{Q} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}.$

#### Are there other possibilities? Indeed, there are: *p*-adic numbers!

## Ordered abelian groups

## (Γ,+)

#### Examples: $\Gamma = \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}$

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#### Examples: $\Gamma = \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}$

# $$\label{eq:gamma} \begin{split} \mathsf{\Gamma}_\infty &:= \mathsf{\Gamma} \cup \{\infty\} \\ \gamma + \infty &= \infty + \infty = \infty \quad \forall \gamma \in \mathsf{\Gamma} \end{split}$$

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## Valuations

Let F be a field, e.g.,  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,  $\mathbb{C}(t)$ . A valuation with value group  $\Gamma$  is a map

$$\nu: F \to \Gamma_{\infty}$$

such that

•  $\nu$  is a surjective homomorphism on  $F^{\times}$ , i.e.,  $\nu(xy) = \nu(x) + \nu(y)$  for all  $x, y \in F^{\times}$ .

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• the triangle inequality holds:

$$u(x+y) \geq \min(\nu(x), \nu(y)), \quad \forall x, y,$$

$$\nu(0) = \infty.$$

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$$\nu_{p}: \mathbb{Z} \setminus \mathbf{0} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad n = p^{\nu_{p}(n)} \cdot n', \quad \text{with } (n', p) = 1$$
$$\nu_{p}: \mathbb{Q} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$$
$$\nu_{p}(\frac{a}{b}) = \nu_{p}(a) - \nu_{p}(b),$$
$$\Gamma = \mathbb{Z}.$$

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# Valuations: Example $F = \mathbb{C}(x)$

$$u : \mathbb{C}[x] \setminus 0 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z},$$

$$f = \sum_{n=0}^{N} a_n x^n$$

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 $f(x, y) = \sum_{n, m \ge 0} a_{n, m} x^n y^m$ 

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$$f(x, y) = \sum_{n, m \ge 0} a_{n, m} x^n y^m$$

$$\nu(f) = \min\{n + \sqrt{5}m \mid a_{nm} \neq 0\}$$

$$\nu(\frac{f}{g}) = \nu(f) - \nu(g)$$

$$\Gamma = \{n + \sqrt{5}m \mid n, m \in \mathbb{Z}\} \subset \mathbb{R}.$$

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# Valuations: $\mathbb{Q}$

Recall the usual absolute value:

$$|x| := \begin{cases} x & x \ge 0 \\ -x & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

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For  $F = \mathbb{Q}$  consider

$$|x|_p := p^{-\nu_p(x)}.$$

We have

$$|x + y|_{p} \le \max\{|x|_{p}, |y|_{p}\}, \quad |0|_{p} = 0.$$

The inequality is stronger!

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### Theorem (Ostrovski)

Up to equivalence, these are the only valuations on  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

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#### Product formula

$$\prod_{p} |x|_{p} \cdot |x| = 1, \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{Q}^{ imes}.$$

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# Topology

Let *F* be a field, with absolute value  $|\cdot|$ .

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Let F be a field, with absolute value  $|\cdot|$ . It induces a metric

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#### **Properties:**

d(x, y) ≥ 0
d(x, y) = d(y, x)
d(x, z) ≤ d(x, y) + d(y, z) - triangle inequality

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d(x, z) ≤ d(x, y) + d(y, z) - triangle inequality

This defines the structure of a metric space, F is a topological field.

For  $F = \mathbb{Q}$  and  $d = |\cdot|_p$  we have the stronger inequality  $d(x, z) \le \max\{d(x, y), d(y, z)\},\$ 

the corresponding space is called ultra-metric.

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

the corresponding space is called ultra-metric. We have the notions of intervals or balls:

$$\mathcal{B}(a,r) := \{x \in F \mid d(x,a) < r\} \subset \overline{\mathcal{B}}(a,r) := \{x \in F \mid d(x,a) \le r\},\$$

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# Topology: $\mathbb{Q}$

Let 
$$F = \mathbb{Q}$$
 and  $|\cdot| = |\cdot|_p$ . Then  
 $\overline{\mathcal{B}}(0,1) = \mathcal{B}(0,1) \cup \mathcal{B}(1,1) \cup \ldots \cup \mathcal{B}(p-1,1),$ 

so that  $\bar{\mathcal{B}}$  are open and closed.

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**Example:** Show that in  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,  $|\cdot|_5$  one has

$$\mathcal{B}(1,1)=\mathcal{B}(1,rac{1}{2})=\overline{\mathcal{B}}(1,rac{1}{5})$$

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• 
$$a, b \in F, r, s \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \Rightarrow \mathsf{lf}$$

$$\mathcal{B}(a,r)\cap\mathcal{B}(b,s)
eq \emptyset$$

then either

$$\mathcal{B}(a,r)\subseteq \mathcal{B}(b,s) \quad ext{ or } \quad \mathcal{B}(a,r)\supseteq \mathcal{B}(b,s).$$

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## Valuation theory

$$egin{aligned} \mathcal{O}_{
u} &:= \overline{\mathcal{B}}(0,1) & ext{valuation ring} \ \mathfrak{m}_{
u} &:= \mathcal{B}(0,1) & ext{valuation ideal} \ k_{
u} &:= \mathcal{O}_{
u}/\mathfrak{m}_{
u} & ext{residue field} \end{aligned}$$

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## Valuation theory

$$egin{aligned} \mathcal{F} &= \mathbb{Q}, \ |\cdot|_p. \ ext{In this case} \ &\mathcal{O}_{
u} &= \mathbb{Z}_{(p)} := \{rac{a}{b}, \ p 
mtode b\} \ &\mathfrak{m}_{
u} &= p\mathbb{Z}_{(p)} \ &k_{
u} &= \mathbb{F}_p = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \end{aligned}$$

to be continued ...

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