

# OSTROWSKI'S THEOREM FOR $\mathbf{Q}$

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Hensel created the  $p$ -adic numbers towards the end of the 19th century, and it wasn't until about 20 years later that Ostrowski [1] proved a fundamental theorem that explained in retrospect why Hensel's idea was natural: every nontrivial absolute value on  $\mathbf{Q}$  is a power of the ordinary (archimedean) absolute value or a power of a  $p$ -adic absolute value for some prime number  $p$ , so every completion of  $\mathbf{Q}$  with respect to a nontrivial absolute value is either  $\mathbf{R}$  or some  $\mathbf{Q}_p$ .

**Theorem 1** (Ostrowski, 1916). *If  $|\cdot|$  is a nontrivial absolute value on  $\mathbf{Q}$  then there is  $t > 0$  such that either  $|\cdot| = |\cdot|_\infty^t$  or  $|\cdot| = |\cdot|_p^t$  for a prime  $p$ .*

*Proof.* An absolute value on  $\mathbf{Q}$  is determined by its values on the positive integers, so it suffices to show there is a  $t > 0$  such that  $|n| = n^t$  for all  $n$  in  $\mathbf{Z}^+$  or  $|n| = |n|_p^t$  for some prime  $p$  and all  $n$  in  $\mathbf{Z}^+$ .

Since  $|\cdot|$  is nontrivial,  $|n| \neq 1$  for some positive integer  $n$ . We consider two cases:  $|n| > 1$  for some  $n \geq 2$  or  $|n| \leq 1$  for all  $n \geq 2$ . We will show in the first case that  $|\cdot|$  is a power of the ordinary absolute value on  $\mathbf{Q}$  and in the second case that  $|\cdot|$  is a power of some  $p$ -adic absolute value.

Case 1:  $|n| > 1$  for some  $n \geq 2$ .

First we prove that  $|n| > 1$  for all  $n \geq 2$  by proving the contrapositive: if  $|n_0| \leq 1$  for some  $n_0 \geq 2$  then  $|n| \leq 1$  for all  $n \geq 2$ . Write  $n$  in base  $n_0$ :

$$n = a_0 + a_1 n_0 + \cdots + a_d n_0^d$$

where  $0 \leq a_i \leq n_0 - 1$  and  $a_d \neq 0$ , so  $n_0^d \leq n < n_0^{d+1}$ . We have  $|a_i| \leq |1 + 1 + \cdots + 1| \leq |1| + |1| + \cdots + |1| = a_i < n_0$ , so

$$(1) \quad |n| \leq |a_0| + |a_1| |n_0| + \cdots + |a_d| |n_0|^d < n_0 + n_0 |n_0| + \cdots + n_0 |n_0|^d.$$

From  $|n_0| \leq 1$ , (1) implies  $|n| \leq n_0(d+1) \leq n_0(\log_{n_0}(n) + 1)$ . Replace  $n$  by  $n^k$  in this inequality to get  $|n|^k \leq n_0(k \log_{n_0}(n) + 1)$ , so

$$(2) \quad |n| \leq \sqrt[k]{n_0(k \log_{n_0}(n) + 1)}.$$

We have  $\log_{n_0}(n) > 0$  since  $n_0 > 1$  and  $n > 1$ , so letting  $k \rightarrow \infty$  in (2) shows us that  $|n| \leq 1$ , and  $n$  was arbitrary.

The replacement of  $n$  with  $n^k$  is an idea we will use again. Let's call it the "power trick."

For any integers  $m$  and  $n$  that are greater than 2,  $|m| > 1$  and  $|n| > 1$ . Picking  $d \geq 0$  so that  $m^d \leq n < m^{d+1}$ , writing  $n$  in base  $m$  implies (in the same way that we proved (1) above)

$$|n| \leq m(1 + |m| + \cdots + |m|^d).$$

Since  $|m| > 1$ , summing up the finite geometric series on the right gives us

$$|n| \leq m(1 + |m| + \cdots + |m|^d) = m \frac{|m|^{d+1} - 1}{|m| - 1} < m \frac{|m|^{d+1}}{|m| - 1} = \frac{m|m|}{|m| - 1} |m|^d.$$

Since  $d \leq \log_m(n)$ ,

$$|n| < \frac{m|m|}{|m| - 1} |m|^{\log_m(n)}.$$

Now it's time for the power trick. Replacing  $n$  with  $n^k$ ,

$$|n|^k < \frac{m|m|}{|m| - 1} |m|^{k \log_m(n)}.$$

Taking  $k$ th roots,

$$|n| < \sqrt[k]{\frac{m|m|}{|m| - 1}} |m|^{\log_m(n)},$$

and letting  $k \rightarrow \infty$ ,

$$(3) \quad |n| \leq |m|^{\log_m(n)}.$$

Writing  $|m| = m^s$  and  $|n| = n^t$  where  $s > 0$  and  $t > 0$ , we get from (3) that  $n^t \leq m^{s \log_m(n)} = n^s$ , so  $t \leq s$ . The roles of  $m$  and  $n$  in this calculation are symmetric, so by switching their roles we get  $s \leq t$  and thus  $|m| = m^t$  and  $|n| = n^t$ .

Case 2:  $|n| \leq 1$  for all  $n \geq 2$ .

For some  $n \geq 2$  we have  $|n| \neq 1$ , so  $0 < |n| < 1$ . Let  $p$  be the smallest such positive integer. Since  $0 < |p| < 1$  and also  $0 < 1/p < 1$ , we can write  $|p| = (1/p)^t$  for some  $t > 0$ . We will prove  $|n| = |n|_p^t$  for all  $n \geq 1$ .

The number  $p$  is prime, by contradiction: if  $p = ab$  where  $a$  and  $b$  are positive integers that are both smaller than  $p$  then  $|a| = 1$  and  $|b| = 1$ , so  $|p| = |a||b| = 1$ , which is false.

Next we show each positive integer  $m$  not divisible by  $p$  has  $|m| = 1$ . If  $|m| \neq 1$  then  $|m| < 1$ . We are going to use the power trick again: let's look at  $p^k$  and  $m^k$ . Since  $|p|$  and  $|m|$  are both between 0 and 1, for a large  $k$  we have  $|p|^k < 1/2$  and  $|m|^k < 1/2$ . Since  $p^k$  and  $m^k$  are relatively prime, there are  $x_k$  and  $y_k \in \mathbf{Z}$  such that  $1 = p^k x_k + m^k y_k$ . Take the absolute value of both sides:

$$1 = |p^k x_k + m^k y_k| \leq |p|^k |x_k| + |m|^k |y_k| \leq |p|^k + |m|^k < \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} = 1,$$

which is a contradiction.

For all integers  $n \geq 2$  pull out the largest power of  $p$ :  $n = p^e n'$  where  $e \geq 0$  and  $n'$  is not divisible by  $p$ . Then  $|n'| = 1$ , so  $|n| = |p^e n'| = |p|^e |n'| = |p|^e = (1/p)^{et}$ . Also  $|n|_p = (1/p)^e$ , so  $|n| = |n|_p^t$ .  $\square$

Here is a second proof that an absolute value  $|\cdot|$  on  $\mathbf{Q}$  such that  $|n| > 1$  for some positive integer  $n \geq 2$  must be a power of the ordinary absolute value on  $\mathbf{Q}$ .

First we show  $|2| > 1$  by an argument very close to that used already in Case 1, but we repeat it here to keep our argument self-contained. Assuming  $|2| \leq 1$  we will get a contradiction.

Write each integer  $n \geq 2$  in base 2:  $n = a_0 + a_1 \cdot 2 + \cdots + a_d 2^d$  where  $a_i$  is 0 or 1 and  $a_d = 1$ , so  $2^d \leq n < 2^{d+1}$ . Thus  $|a_i|$  is 0 or 1, so by the triangle inequality

$$|n| \leq \sum_{i=0}^d |a_i| |2|^i \leq \sum_{i=0}^d 1 = d + 1 \leq \log_2(n) + 1 \leq 2 \log_2(n).$$

This holds for all  $n \geq 2$ , so if we replace  $n$  throughout with  $n^k$  for  $k \geq 1$  then

$$|n^k| \leq 2 \log_2(n^k) = 2k \log_2(n),$$

so

$$|n|^k \leq 2k \log_2(n).$$

Taking  $k$ th roots of both sides,

$$|n| \leq \sqrt[k]{2k \log_2(n)}.$$

Letting  $k \rightarrow \infty$ , this inequality becomes  $|n| \leq 1$ . We have proved this for all  $n \geq 2$ , but that contradicts the assumption  $|n| > 1$  for some  $n \geq 2$ , so in fact we must have  $|2| > 1$ .

Since  $|2|$  and 2 are both greater than 1, we can write  $|2| = 2^t$  for some  $t > 0$ . We will prove  $|n| = n^t$  for all  $n \geq 2$  by proving  $|n| \leq n^t$  (easier) and  $|n| \geq n^t$  (trickier).

As we have already done, write an integer  $n \geq 1$  in base 2:  $n = a_0 + a_1 \cdot 2 + \cdots + a_d 2^d$  with  $a_i$  equal to 0 or 1 and  $a_d = 1$ , so  $2^d \leq n < 2^{d+1}$ . An upper bound on  $n$  follows easily from the triangle inequality:

$$|n| \leq |a_0| + |a_1| |2| + \cdots + |a_d| |2|^d \leq 1 + |2| + \cdots + |2|^d = \frac{|2|^{d+1} - 1}{|2| - 1}.$$

Writing  $|2|$  as  $2^t$ ,

$$|n| \leq \frac{2^{t(d+1)} - 1}{2^t - 1} < \frac{2^{t(d+1)}}{2^t - 1} = \frac{2^t}{2^t - 1} 2^{td} \leq \frac{2^t}{2^t - 1} n^t.$$

It's time to use the power trick again: replacing  $n$  in this inequality by  $n^k$  with  $k \geq 1$ ,

$$|n|^k < \frac{2^t}{2^t - 1} n^{kt}.$$

Taking  $k$ th roots of both sides implies

$$|n| \leq \sqrt[k]{\frac{2^t}{2^t - 1} n^t}.$$

Letting  $k \rightarrow \infty$  (keeping  $n$  fixed), we get

$$(4) \quad |n| \leq n^t$$

for all  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$  (it is obvious at  $n = 1$ ).

To prove the reverse inequality  $|n| \geq n^t$  for  $n \geq 2$ , once again write  $n$  in base 2:  $n = a_0 + a_1 \cdot 2 + \cdots + a_d 2^d$  with  $a_i = 0$  or 1 and  $a_d = 1$ , so  $2^d \leq n < 2^{d+1}$ . Once again we use the triangle inequality, but in a less obvious way:

$$|2^{d+1}| = |2^{d+1} - n + n| \leq |2^{d+1} - n| + |n|.$$

On the left side,  $|2^{d+1}| = |2|^{d+1} = 2^{t(d+1)}$ . On the right side, since  $2^{d+1} - n$  is a positive integer we get  $|2^{d+1} - n| \leq (2^{d+1} - n)^t$  by (4), so

$$2^{t(d+1)} \leq (2^{d+1} - n)^t + |n|.$$

From this we obtain a *lower bound* on  $|n|$ :

$$|n| \geq 2^{t(d+1)} - (2^{d+1} - n)^t.$$

To decrease this lower bound we can increase  $2^{d+1} - n$ : since  $n$  is between  $2^d$  and  $2^{d+1}$ , we have  $2^{d+1} - n \leq 2^{d+1} - 2^d = 2^d$ , so

$$|n| \geq 2^{t(d+1)} - 2^{td} = (2^t - 1)2^{td} \leq (2^t - 1)n^t.$$

One more time we will use the power trick: replace  $n$  by  $n^k$  and take  $k$ th roots to get

$$|n| \geq \sqrt[k]{2^t - 1} n^t.$$

Letting  $k \rightarrow \infty$ , we get  $|n| \geq n^t$ . Since we already showed  $|n| \leq n^t$ , we have shown  $|n| = n^t$  for all  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ .

#### REFERENCES

- [1] A. Ostrowski, *Über einige Lösungen der Funktionalgleichung*, Acta Arith. **41** (1916), 271–284.