At the moment the function  $\log_p(z)$  is defined only when  $|z - 1|_p < 1$ . For any  $\beta \in \mathbb{Z}_p$  with  $|\beta|_p = 1$ , there exists an integer b with  $b \equiv \beta \pmod{p}$  and  $b \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . Therefore, by Fermat's little theorem,  $\beta^{p-1} \equiv b^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ , and so  $\log_p(\beta^{p-1})$  is well-defined. Taking our lead from exercise 16.6.5(c) we therefore define

$$\log_p(\beta) := \frac{\log_p(\beta^{p-1})}{p-1} = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{\beta^{p^k(p-1)} - 1}{p^k(p-1)}.$$

**Exercise 16.6.6.** Assume that  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ .

- (a) Prove that  $\log_p(-\alpha) = \log_p(\alpha)$ .
- (b) Prove that  $\log_p(\alpha\beta) = \log_p(\alpha) + \log_p(\beta)$ .

Any  $\gamma \in \mathbb{Z}_p$  can be written in the form  $\gamma = p^e \beta$  where  $|\beta|_p = 1$ , so we define<sup>3</sup>  $\log_p(\gamma) = e \log_p(p) + \log_p(\beta).$ 

## 16.7. The *p*-adic dilogarithm

For each  $k \geq 1$ , define

$$\mathcal{L}_k(x) := \sum_{m \ge 1} \frac{x^m}{m^k}.$$

The case k = 2 is the dilogarithm function.

**Exercise 16.7.1.** (a) Prove that the sum defining  $\mathcal{L}_k(x)$  converges for all  $x \in \mathbb{C}$  with  $|x|_{\infty} \leq 1$ for all  $k \ge 2$ , and for  $|x|_p < 1$  in the *p*-adics. (b) Establish that  $\mathcal{L}_k(x) + \mathcal{L}_k(-x) = 2^{1-k} \mathcal{L}_k(x^2)$  when  $|x|_p < 1$ .

**Theorem 16.5.** If  $|1 - z|_p < 1$  then

(16.7.1) 
$$\mathcal{L}_2(1-z) + \mathcal{L}_2(1-z^{-1}) = -\frac{1}{2}(\log_p z)^2.$$

In particular  $\mathcal{L}_2(2) = 0$  in the 2-adics.

**Proof.** For  $|x|_p < 1$ , we have

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\mathcal{L}_2(x)}{\mathrm{d}x} = \frac{1}{x} \sum_{m \ge 1} \frac{x^m}{m} = -\frac{\log_p(1-x)}{x} ,$$

and so, by the chain rule, we have

$$\frac{d}{dz}(\mathcal{L}_2(1-z) + \mathcal{L}_2(1-z^{-1})) = -\mathcal{L}_2'(1-z) + z^{-2}\mathcal{L}_2'(1-z^{-1})$$
$$= \frac{\log_p(z)}{1-z} - z^{-2}\frac{\log_p(z^{-1})}{1-z^{-1}} = -\frac{\log_p z}{z}.$$

Integrating yields  $\mathcal{L}_2(1-z) + \mathcal{L}_2(1-z^{-1}) = -\frac{1}{2}(\log_p z)^2 + C$  for some constant C. Taking z = 1 we see that C = 0, yielding (16.7.1).

Replacing z by  $z^2$ , we obtain

 $\mathcal{L}_2(1-z^2) + \mathcal{L}_2(1-z^{-2}) = -2(\log_p z)^2 = 4(\mathcal{L}_2(1-z) + \mathcal{L}_2(1-z^{-1})).$ When p = 2 we may take z = -1 in this equation and so  $8\mathcal{L}_2(2) = 2\mathcal{L}_2(0) = 0$ .  $\Box$ **Exercise 16.7.2.** Let p = 2 and  $|z - 1|_2 < 1$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>We can select any value for  $\log_p(p)$ ; we do not have to let it be 1.

- (a) Prove that  $\mathcal{L}_2(1-z) + \mathcal{L}_2(1+z) = \frac{1}{2}\mathcal{L}_2(1-z^2) + C$  for some constant C. (b) Prove that C = 0 using (16.7.1).
- (c) Deduce (again) that  $\mathcal{L}_2(2) = 0$ .

We have now seen that

$$\sum_{n \ge 1} \frac{2^n}{n} = \sum_{n \ge 1} \frac{2^n}{n^2} = 0$$

in the 2-adics. It is interesting to see how rapidly this convergence happens. If  $n\geq N\geq 2^k$  then  $v_2(2^n/n)\geq 2^k-k$  so that

$$\sum_{n < N} \frac{2^n}{n} = -\sum_{n \ge N} \frac{2^n}{n} \equiv 0 \pmod{2^{2^k - k}}$$

and similarly

$$\sum_{n < N} \frac{2^n}{n^2} \equiv 0 \pmod{2^{2^k - 2k}}.$$

It looks like there might be a pattern here. How about  $\sum_{n\geq 1} 2^n/n^3$ ? Unfortunately the n = 4 term gives the unique maximum,  $2^2$ , of  $|2^n/n^3|_2$ , and so  $|\sum_{n\geq 1} 2^n/n^3|_2 = 1$ 4, not 0.

**Exercise 16.7.3.** Prove that if  $|x|_p, |y|_p < 1$  then

$$\mathcal{L}_2(x) + \mathcal{L}_2(y) - \mathcal{L}_2(xy) - \mathcal{L}_2\left(\frac{x(1-y)}{1-xy}\right) - \mathcal{L}_2\left(\frac{y(1-x)}{1-xy}\right) = \log_p\left(\frac{1-x}{1-xy}\right)\log_p\left(\frac{1-y}{1-xy}\right).$$

## Further reading on *p*-adics

[1] Richard M. Hill, Introduction to number theory, World Scientific, Singapore (2018), chapter 4.