

This discussion is adapted from two readily available sources.

Hensel lifting lemma – following Keith Conrad:

<https://kconrad.math.uconn.edu/blurbs/gradnumthy/hensel.pdf>

Ostrowski's Theorem – from Wikipedia following Shickof(2007)

https://en.m.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ostrowski%27s_theorem

Hensel's Lifting Lemma (1897)

If $f(X) \in \mathbf{Z}_p[X]$ and $a \in \mathbf{Z}_p$ satisfies

$$f(a) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}, f'(a) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

then there is a unique $\alpha \in \mathbf{Z}_p$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0$ in \mathbf{Z}_p and $\alpha \equiv a \pmod{p}$.

It is almost as good to consider $f(X) \in \mathbf{Z}[X]$ (that is, a polynomial with integer coefficients). The generalization to $f(X) \in \mathbf{Z}_p[X]$ (that is, p-adic integer coefficients) seems fairly clear but more cumbersome. It seems likely that a slightly simpler approach like this one came first.

For polynomials, the Binomial Theorem gives us a first order Taylor series:

$$f(x + y) = f(x) + f'(x)y + g(x, y)y^2$$

With $a = a_0$ we have the starting case for an induction approach.

So assume we have

$$a_n = \sum_{k=0}^n b_k p^k$$

With $b_0 = a$ and $0 \leq b_k < p$ and $n > 0$

$$f(a_n) \equiv 0 \pmod{p^{n+1}} \text{ and } f'(a_n) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p^{n+1}}$$

Then (mod p^{n+2})

$$\begin{aligned} f(a_n + r p^{n+1}) &\equiv f(a_n) + f'(a_n) r p^{n+1} + g(a_n, r p^{n+1}) r^2 p^{2n+2} \\ &\equiv s p^{n+1} + f'(a_n) r p^{n+1} + 0 \end{aligned}$$

This last item is zero (mod p^{n+2}) if

$$0 \equiv s + f'(a_n) r \pmod{p}$$

Of course, mod p , $a_n = a$ so that

$$b_{n+1} \equiv r \equiv -s[f'(a)]^{-1} \pmod{p}$$

And we are done.

The p-adics may have started as formal power series with the Lifting Lemma providing an impetus to think of a way to have Taylor series in p converge.

By using the idea of a norm on the p-adics with the norm of p less than 1, convergence resulted.

In 1916, Ostrowski was a student of Hensel and characterized the possible norms on \mathbf{Z} and \mathbf{Q} as the usual distance between two numbers and the p-adics (one for each prime).

A norm is a map from a set to the real line. The key properties of a norm $|\cdot|$ are these (given a, b in \mathbf{Q}):

$$|0| = 0$$

$$|1| = 1$$

$$|ab| = |a| |b|$$

$$|a + b| \leq |a| + |b| \text{ (triangle inequality)}$$

With the norm of a product equal to the product of the norms, it should be clear that unique factorization in \mathbf{Z} means that a norm on \mathbf{Q} is fully defined by the norms of primes.

The proof of Ostrowski's Theorem is in two stages:

- If there is an integer with norm greater than 1, then we get a norm equivalent to the usual distance (the norm of a number is its absolute value).
- Otherwise, there is a prime with norm less than 1 which gives us the p-adics for that prime.

Suppose we have an integer $n > 1$ with norm greater than 1. Let b and k be positive integers greater than 1. Write n^k in base b . Then there is a positive integer m and non-negative integers c_j for $j=0$ to m with:

$$n^k = \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} c_j b^j$$

Each c_j is at most $b-1$. Now $n^k > b^{m-1}$ so, taking logs, $m \leq 1 + k \log_b(n)$ or $m-1 \leq k \log_b(n)$.

From the triangle inequality

$$|c_j| \leq |1 + 1 + \dots + 1| \leq c_j \leq b - 1$$

Also, the norm of b is either less than or equal to 1 or greater than or equal to 1. so

$$|b|^i \leq \max(1, |b|^{m-1})$$

$$|n^k| = |n|^k = \left| \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} c_j b^j \right| \leq m (b - 1) \max(1, |b|^{m-1}) \leq (1 + k \log_b(n)) (b - 1) \max(1, |b|^{k \log_b n})$$

Raising to the $1/k$ power, we have

$$|n|^{\frac{1}{k}} \leq \left[(1 + k \log_b(n)) (b - 1) \right]^{1/k} \max(1, |b|^{\log_b n})^{\frac{1}{k}}$$

Letting k go to infinity, the term with k goes to 1 and we have

$$1 < |n|^{\frac{1}{k}} \leq \max(1, |b|^{\log_b n}) = |b|^{\log_b n}$$

Also $1 < |b|^{\frac{1}{k}}$.

From

$$|n|^{\frac{1}{k}} \leq |b|^{\log_b n}$$

Take \log_n of both sides:

$$\log_n |n|^{\frac{1}{k}} \leq \log_n (|b|^{\log_b n}) = \frac{1}{k} (\log_b n) \log_n |b|^{\frac{1}{k}} = \log_n |b|^{\frac{1}{k}} (\log_b n) = (\log_b n \log_n |b|^{\frac{1}{k}}) = \log_b |b|^{\frac{1}{k}}$$

As b and n are both positive integers greater than 1, we can reverse the process

$$\log_b |b|^{\frac{1}{k}} \leq \log_n |n|^{\frac{1}{k}}$$

So that

$$\log_b |b|^{\frac{1}{k}} = \log_n |n|^{\frac{1}{k}}$$

Fix any b (such as 2) and $\log_2 |2|^{\frac{1}{k}}$ determines this norm. In particular, if $\log_2 |2|^{\frac{1}{k}} = 1$ then the norm is the usual absolute value.

For the second part, for all integer n , we must have $|n| \leq 1$. If the norm is not trivial, there is n with $|n| < 1$. In particular, there is at least one prime with norm less than 1. We wish to show that there is only one. So, suppose p and q are distinct primes with norm less than 1.

(We will use Bezout's Theorem so a proof is given later.)

There is a positive integer k such that

$$|p^k| < \frac{1}{2} \text{ and } |q^k| < \frac{1}{2}$$

Bezout's Theorem tells us that there are integers a and b such that

$$ap^k + bq^k = 1$$

Then

$$1 = |ap^k + bq^k| \leq |ap^k| + |bq^k| = |a||p^k| + |b||q^k| \leq |p^k| + |q^k| < \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} = 1$$

$1 < 1$ gives us the necessary contradiction and establishes the second type of norm.

Bezout's Theorem has a number of generalizations but we need only the integer case.

Given (positive) integers a and b , there are integers x and y with $ax+by = \text{GCD}(a,b)$.

If a and b are relatively prime, then there are x and y with $ax+by = 1$.

Consider the set of values $ax+by$ as x and y vary. Let d be the smallest positive value in this set.

If d is not the $\text{GCD}(a,b)$ then there are integers n and r with $0 < r < d$ and

$$a = nd + r$$

Then $r = a - nd = a - n(ax+by) = a(1-nx) + b(-ny) < d$.

This contradicts the construction of d .