MATH 361: NUMBER THEORY — SIXTH LECTURE

Let d be a positive integer. Consider a polynomial in d variables with integer coefficients,

$$f \in \mathbb{Z}[X_1, \dots, X_d] \stackrel{\text{call}}{=} \mathbb{Z}[X].$$

Consider also a succession of conditions, each stronger than the next:

- (A) The equation f(X) = 0 has solutions in \mathbb{Z}^d .
- (B) For all $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, the congruence $f(X) = 0 \mod m$ has solutions.
- (C) For all $p \in \mathcal{P}$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, the congruence $f(X) = 0 \mod p^n$ has solutions.

(D) For each $p \in \mathcal{P}$ there exists some $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ such that the congruence $f(X) = 0 \mod p^n$ has solutions.

Thus we have the three implications

$$(A) \implies (B) \implies (C) \implies (D),$$

and we naturally wonder about their converses. The converse implication (C) \implies (B) follows from the Sun Ze Theorem. This lecture discusses the converse implication (D) \implies (C). The main result is called *Hensel's Lemma*.

1. Hensel's Lemma

Recall the Newton-Raphson method of finding roots by sliding along tangents: Given a suitably smooth function f(x), and given an initial guess x_1 , iterate

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - f(x_n)/f'(x_n).$$

If x_1 is close enough to a root x of f such that $f'(x) \neq 0$, then the iteration converges to x.

Hensel's Lemma is closely analogous to the Newton–Raphson method. Fix a prime p, and work now with one variable rather than the d variables above. (With d variables we may always freeze all but one of them.) The idea is that

Small means congruent to zero modulo a high power of p.

Thus:

- To say that f(x) is small is to say that $f(x) = 0 \mod p^n$ for some suitable n.
- To say that f'(x) is not so small is to say that $f'(x) \neq 0 \mod p^{k+1}$ for some suitable k.
- Given such x, n, and k, we would like to find some y close to x so that f(y) is smaller than f(x) but f'(y) is no smaller than f'(x). To say that y is close to x is to say that $y = x \mod p^m$ for some suitable m.
- We generate y from x by essentially the Newton–Raphson method.

Theorem 1.1 (Hensel's Lemma). Let $f \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ be a polynomial with integer coefficients. Suppose that we have $k, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $0 \leq 2k < n$ and $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$\begin{cases} f(x) = 0 \mod p^n \\ f'(x) = 0 \mod p^k \\ f'(x) \neq 0 \mod p^{k+1} \end{cases}$$

Then there exists $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$\begin{cases} y = x \mod p^{n-k} \\ f(y) = 0 \mod p^{n+1} \\ f'(y) = 0 \mod p^k \\ f'(y) \neq 0 \mod p^{k+1} \end{cases}$$

Before the proof, it deserves mention that the easiest and most common case is k = 0. In this case, if we have $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ such that

$$f(x) = 0 \mod p^n, \qquad f'(x) \neq 0 \mod p$$

then we get y such that

$$y = x \mod p^n$$
, $f(y) = 0 \mod p^{n+1}$, $f'(y) \neq 0 \mod p$

The second most common case, k = 1 and $n \ge 3$, arises naturally for p = 2 when f is quadratic.

A second remark before the proof is that for any integer-coefficient polynomial $\varphi[X] \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ and any integer a, we have (exercise, in which it suffices by linearity to take $\varphi(X) = X^m$, so that $\varphi^{(n)}(a)/n! = {m \choose n} a^{m-n}$)

$$\varphi(a+H) = \sum_{n=0}^{\deg \varphi} \frac{\varphi^{(n)}(a)}{n!} H^n \quad \text{in } \mathbb{Z}[H].$$

For quick reference we call this result Taylor's theorem for polynomials.

Proof. Provisionally define

 $y = x + zp^{n-k}$, z to be determined.

Then $y = x \mod p^{n-k}$ independently of z, and the first of the four desired conditions is established.

By Taylor's Theorem for polynomials with $\varphi = f$ and a = x and $H = zp^{n-k}$,

$$f(y) = f(x) + f'(x)zp^{n-k} \mod p^{2n-2k},$$

and so, because $2n - 2k \ge 2n - (n - 1) = n + 1$, it follows that

$$f(y) = f(x) + f'(x)zp^{n-k} \mod p^{n+1}.$$

But we are given that $f(x) = bp^n$ for some b, and that $f'(x) = ap^k$ for some $a \neq 0 \mod p$, so the previous display gives

$$f(y) = (az+b)p^n \mod p^{n+1}, \quad a \neq 0 \mod p.$$

Thus, setting $z = -a^{-1}b \mod p$ gives $f(y) = 0 \mod p^{n+1}$, and the second of the four desired conditions is established. Note that finding z required only solving a congruence modulo p, independently of k and n, not modulo a higher power of p.

Again by Taylor's Theorem for polynomials, this time with $\varphi = f'$ and a = xand $H = zp^{n-k}$,

$$f'(y) = f'(x) \mod p^{n-k},$$

and so, because $n - k \ge 2k + 1 - k = k + 1$, it follows that

$$f'(y) = f'(x) \mod p^{k+1}.$$

Thus $f'(y) = f'(x) = 0 \mod p^k$ and $f'(y) = f'(x) \neq 0 \mod p^{k+1}$, and the third and fourth desired conditions are established. Incidentally the proof has shown that that the value $a^{-1} \mod p$ in the congruence $z = -a^{-1}b \mod p$ that determines $y = x + zp^{n-k}$ from x can be reused in setting the next x to y, iterating n, and repeating the procedure to get the next y, as many times as desired.

With Hensel's Lemma proved, we return to the analogy between it and the Newton–Raphson method. The proof of Hensel's Lemma took x and found a corresponding y such that

$$f(x) + (y - x)f'(x) = 0 \quad \text{in } \mathbb{Z}/p^{n+1}\mathbb{Z}.$$

Meanwhile, the Newton–Raphson formula for the next iterate $y = x_{n+1}$ in terms of the current iterate $x = x_n$ is

$$y = x - f(x)/f'(x),$$

or, almost identically to the formula from proving Hensel's Lemma,

$$f(x) + (y - x)f'(x) = 0 \quad \text{in } \mathbb{R}.$$

The algebra of the two methods is very similar, but it is not quite identical. On the one hand, we can in some sense better quantify the difference f(y) - f(x) - f'(x)(y-x) in the number-theoretic context than in the real number system setting, because we know that it vanishes up to a certain power of p. On the other hand, we can divide by f'(x) in the real number system but not in the integers, because \mathbb{R} is a field while \mathbb{Z} is only a ring. However, the number theoretic context actually has a certain advantage in this regard. In the Newton–Raphson method, we divide by $f'(x_1)$ to get x_2 , then by $f'(x_2)$ to get x_3 , and so on. In the number-theoretic context, closer inspection of the proof just given shows that to find x_{n+1} (y in the lemma) given x_n (x in the lemma), the only inverse that we really need is $a^{-1} \mod p$ where $f'(x_1) = ap^k$. The presence of x_1 rather than x_n in the previous equality means that using Hensel's Lemma to generate a sequence $\{x_n\}$ requires only one inversion modulo p.

As mentioned earlier, usually we start with n = 1 and k = 0 in Hensel's Lemma, i.e., usually we start with some $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $f(x) = 0 \mod p$ and $f'(x) \neq 0 \mod p$. The repeatedly applying Hensel's Lemma gives a sequence $\{x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots\}$ in \mathbb{Z} such that

$$\begin{cases} x_1 = x \\ f(x_n) = 0 \mod p^n & \text{for all } n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \\ x_{n+1} = x_n \mod p^n & \text{for all } n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \end{cases}$$

For example, if we let $f(X) = X^2 + 1$ and take p = 5 and x = 2 then the sequence is

 $\{2, 7, 57, 182, 2057, 14557, 45807, 280182, 280182 \text{ (yes, again)}, 6139557, \dots \}$

To our eyes the sequence may not appear to be converging, but it *is* converging in the sense that

for all
$$n, m \ge 1$$
, $x_n = x_m \mod 5$ and $x_n^2 = x_m^2 = -1 \mod 5$,
for all $n, m \ge 2$, $x_n = x_m \mod 5^2$ and $x_n^2 = x_m^2 = -1 \mod 5^2$,
for all $n, m \ge 3$, $x_n = x_m \mod 5^3$ and $x_n^2 = x_m^2 = -1 \mod 5^3$,

and so on. The sequence is **5-adically Cauchy**. However, the integers \mathbb{Z} are not complete with respect to 5-adic convergence. The obvious remedy is to complete them. Thus

Definition 1.2. The ring of **p**-adic integers \mathbb{Z}_p is the completion of the ring of integers with respect to p-adic convergence. The field of **p**-adic numbers \mathbb{Q}_p is the field of quotients of \mathbb{Z}_p .

The ring of *p*-adic integers is similar to the usual ring of integers in some regards but very different in others. The sequence $\{2, 7, 57, \ldots\}$ from above converges to a square root of -1 in \mathbb{Z}_5 . The only prime of \mathbb{Z}_p is *p*. All \mathbb{Z}_p -sided triangles are isosceles. The exponential series does not converge everywhere, but the exponential series and the logarithm series do invert each other where they do converge.

The *p*-adic integers also have a construction as a *limit*,

$$\mathbb{Z}_p = \lim_n \mathbb{Z}/p^n \mathbb{Z} = \lim \left(\cdots \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}/p^3 \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}/p^2 \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}/p \mathbb{Z} \right).$$

The limit is a mathematical structure (a group and a compact topological space, with the group multiplication and inversion continuous under the topology) that maps to all the quotients $\mathbb{Z}/p^n\mathbb{Z}$ compatibly with how they map to one another.

Many texts on the *p*-adic numbers exist, e.g., the book by Koblitz. Chapter 1 of **Number Theory** by Borevich and Shafarevich proves the following result.

Theorem 1.3 (Hasse–Minkowski Principle). Consider a quadratic form with rational coefficients,

$$f(X_1,\ldots,X_d) = \sum_{i \le j} a_{ij} X_i X_j.$$

Then f has a nonzero root in \mathbb{Q}^d if and only if f has a nonzero root in \mathbb{Q}_p^d for each prime p and f has a nonzero root in \mathbb{R}^d .

The field \mathbb{Q}_p in the theorem is similar to the ring \mathbb{Z}_p except that it has been augmented by denominators. The virtue of the principle is that each \mathbb{Q}_p and \mathbb{R} is a complete field where it suffices to find an approximate solution and then iterate using Hensel's Lemma in \mathbb{Q}_p and the Newton–Raphson method in \mathbb{R} .

The word *quadratic* in the theorem is crucial. Selmer showed that the equation

$$3X^3 + 4Y^3 + 5Z^3 = 0$$

has nonzero solutions in each \mathbb{Q}_p and in \mathbb{R} , but not in \mathbb{Q} .

As an exercise with Hensel's Lemma 2-adically, let p be a 1 mod 8 prime, and let q be an odd prime. Consider a function of one variable,

$$f(X) = pX^2 + qy^2 - z^2$$
 where $y = 0$ and $z = 1$.

That is, $f(X) = pX^2 - 1$. Set x = 1, so that

 $f(x) = p - 1 = 0 \mod 2^3$, $f'(x) = 2p = 0 \mod 2$, $f'(x) = 2p \neq 0 \mod 2^2$.

Thus Hensel's Lemma with (n, k) = (3, 1) gives a 2-adic root of the three-variable polynomial $F(X, Y, Z) = pX^2 + qY^2 - Z^2$. Continuing in this vein, one can show that for distinct odd primes p and q, the equation

$$pX^2 + qY^2 = Z^2$$

has a nonzero solution in \mathbb{Z}_2^3 if at least one of p and q is 1 mod 4. More elementary considerations, using the surjection $\mathbb{Z}_p \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}/p^e \mathbb{Z}$ with p = 2 and a well-chosen e, show that it doesn't have a nonzero solution in \mathbb{Z}_2^3 if p and q are 3 mod 4. Soon we will encounter the same condition on p and q,

Yes if at least one of p and q is 1 mod 4, No if both are 3 mod 4, in a context that seems entirely different. The connection is explained in a later writeup.