Continuing the pre/review of the simple (!?) case... Some themes so far:

Riemann's explicit formula connects complex zeros of meromorphic continuations of zeta functions (and $L$-functions) to tangible, finitistic properties of primes.

Gauss' Quadratic Reciprocity is proven via Gauss sums, which are Lagrange resolvents for cyclotomic fields.

Dedekind zeta functions of quadratic extensions of $\mathbb{Q}$, and of cyclotomic fields, factor into products of Dedekind $L$-functions. These, too, are Reciprocity Laws.

Next: Solving equations $\bmod p^{n} \ldots$ and $p$-adic numbers. This is Hensel's Lemma, a version of Newton-Raphson in a different context.

Recall: solving linear equations $\bmod N$

We need just a simple case: for $\operatorname{gcd}(a, N)=1$, for the equation

$$
a x+b=0 \bmod N
$$

a solution $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ exists, and is unique up to multiples of $N$. Proof: recall (!) that there are integers $c, d$ such that

$$
\operatorname{gcd}(a, N)=c \cdot a+d \cdot N
$$

Since the $g c d$ is 1 , this is $1=c a+d N$. Thus, we have an inverse $c=a^{-1} \bmod N$ for $a \bmod N$. This gives existence and uniqueness all at once:

$$
a x+b=0 \bmod N \Longleftrightarrow x=-a^{-1} b \bmod N
$$

Comment: The case $N$ prime is conceptually simpler, since $\mathbb{Z} / p$ is provably a field. However, indeed, some part of the above discussion is exactly what proves $\mathbb{Z} / p$ is a field.

Example: Solving $x^{2}+1=0 \bmod 5^{n}$ for large $n$.

Since $4 \mid 5-1$ and $\mathbb{F}_{5}^{\times}$is cyclic, there exists an integer solution $x_{1} \bmod 5$. In fact, $x_{1}=2$ or $3 \bmod 5$.

Next, given $x_{1}$, try to adjust it by multiples of 5 to obtain a solution $x_{2} \bmod 5^{2}:$ let $x_{2}=x_{1}+5 y$ and solve for $y$ :

$$
0=x_{2}^{2}+1=\left(x_{1}+5 y\right)^{2}+1=x_{1}^{2}+10 x_{1} y+5^{2} y^{2}+1 \bmod 5^{2}
$$

The $y^{2}$ term has coefficient $0 \bmod 5^{2}$, so this becomes a linear equation in $y$ :

$$
0=x_{1}^{2}+10 x_{1} y+1 \bmod 5^{2}
$$

By design, $x_{1}^{2}+1$ is divisible by 5 , so we can divide through by 5 :

$$
\frac{x_{1}^{2}+1}{5}+2 x_{1} y=0 \bmod 5
$$

Since $2 x_{1}$ is invertible $\bmod 5$, there is a unique solution $y \bmod 5$. Thus, there is unique $x_{2} \bmod 5^{2}$ such that both $x_{2}=x_{1} \bmod 5$ and $x_{2}^{2}+1=0 \bmod 5^{2}$.

Induction to get a solution $x_{n+1} \bmod 5^{n+1}$ from a solution
$x_{n} \bmod 5^{n}$. Try to adjust $x_{n}$ by a multiple of $5^{n}: x_{n+1}=x_{n}+5^{n} y$. Solve for $y$ :

$$
0=x_{n+1}^{2}+1=x_{n}^{2}+2 \cdot 5^{n} x_{n} y+5^{2 n} y^{2}+1 \bmod 5^{n+1}
$$

Again, the coefficient of $y^{2}$ is $0 \bmod 5^{n+1}$, since $2 n \geq n+1$ for $n \geq$ 1 , giving a linear equation in $y$. By induction, $x_{n}^{2}+1=0 \bmod 5^{2}$, so divide through by $5^{n}$ :

$$
\frac{x_{n}^{2}+1}{5^{n}}+2 x_{n} y=0 \bmod 5
$$

For that matter, by induction, $x_{n}=x_{1} \bmod 5$, so

$$
y=-\left(2 x_{1}\right)^{-1} \cdot \frac{x_{n}^{2}+1}{5^{n}} \bmod 5
$$

A somewhat-more-general case:

Theorem: (Hensel) For $f$ monic in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, for prime $p$, if there is $x_{1} \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $f\left(x_{1}\right)=0 \bmod p$ but $f^{\prime}\left(x_{1}\right) \neq 0 \bmod p$, then there is a unique $x_{n} \bmod p^{n}$ such that $f\left(x_{n}\right)=0 \bmod p^{n}$ and $x_{n}=x_{1} \bmod p$. Specifically, with $f^{\prime}\left(x_{1}\right)$ inverted $\bmod p$,

$$
x_{n+1}=x_{n}-\frac{f\left(x_{n}\right)}{f^{\prime}\left(x_{1}\right)} \quad \bmod p^{n+1}
$$

Proof: As in the example, given $x_{n}$, solve for $y \bmod p$ so that $x_{n+1}=x_{n}+p^{n} y$ is a solution $\bmod p^{n+1}$. Taylor series for polynomials are legitimate:

$$
\begin{gathered}
0=f\left(x_{n+1}\right)=f\left(x_{n}+p^{n} y\right) \\
=f\left(x_{n}\right)+\frac{f^{\prime}\left(x_{n}\right)}{1!} p^{n} y+\frac{f^{\prime \prime}\left(x_{n}\right)}{2!}\left(p^{n} y\right)^{2}+\ldots \bmod p^{n+1}
\end{gathered}
$$

The sum is finite, but division by factorials...? In fact, for $f \in$ $\mathbb{Z}[x], f^{(k)}(x)$ has coefficients divisible by $k!(!)$ It suffices to prove this for monomials:

$$
\frac{d^{k}}{d x^{k}} x^{n}=n(n-1)(n-2) \ldots(n-k+1) \cdot x^{n-k}
$$

Hopefully, we recognize

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{n(n-1)(n-2) \ldots(n-k+1)}{k!} & =\frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!} \\
=\text { binomial coefficient } & \in \mathbb{Z}
\end{aligned}
$$

As $2 n \geq n+1$ for $n \geq 1$, the equation becomes linear in $y$ :

$$
0=f\left(x_{n+1}\right)=f\left(x_{n}+p^{n} y\right)=f\left(x_{n}\right)+\frac{f^{\prime}\left(x_{n}\right)}{1!} p^{n} y \bmod p^{n+1}
$$

Inductively, $x_{n}=x_{1} \bmod p$, so $f^{\prime}\left(x_{n}\right)=f\left(x_{1}\right) \bmod p$. Thus, it is invertible $\bmod p$, and $\bmod p^{n+1}$. Then

$$
p^{n} y=-\frac{f\left(x_{n}\right)}{f^{\prime}\left(x_{n}\right)} \bmod p^{n+1}
$$

Using $f\left(x_{n}\right)=0 \bmod p^{n}$,

$$
y=-\frac{f\left(x_{n}\right)}{p^{n} \cdot f^{\prime}\left(x_{1}\right)} \bmod p
$$

Thus,

$$
x_{n+1}=x_{n}+p^{n} y=x_{n}-\frac{f\left(x_{n}\right)}{f^{\prime}\left(x_{n}\right)}=x_{n}-\frac{f\left(x_{n}\right)}{f^{\prime}\left(x_{1}\right)} \bmod p^{n+1}
$$

Done.

The sequence of solutions $x_{n+1}$ looks like

$$
\begin{aligned}
x_{1} & =x_{1} \\
x_{2} & =x_{1}+p y_{1} \\
x_{3} & =x_{1}+p y_{1}+p^{2} y_{2} \\
x_{4} & =x_{1}+p y_{1}+p^{2} y_{2}+p^{3} y_{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

The adjustments $y_{i}$ can be in the range $\{0,1,2, \ldots, p-1\}$ if we want.

From $x_{n}$ we can recover all the earlier ones: $x_{n-1}, x_{n-2}, \ldots, x_{2}, x_{1}$, at least modulo the respective $p^{k}$ 's.

It would be conceptually economical if the sequence $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, \ldots$ had a limit, $x_{\infty}$, which somehow solved the equation modulo $p^{\infty}$, from which we could recover solutions modulo $p^{n}$ for all finite $n$.

There are at least two different-looking ways to make the limiting process legitimate.

The more popular, more accessible approach is by making up a metric, the $p$-adic metric $d(-,-)$, coming from the $p$-adic norm $|*|_{p}$, in which $p^{n}$ get smaller as $n$ gets larger. Then the $p$-adic integers $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ are the completion of $\mathbb{Z}$ with respect to the $p$-adic metric, and the $p$-adic rational numbers $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$ are the completion of $\mathbb{Q}$. We'll do this first.

The other approach, perhaps less popular, because it is less elementary, is nevertheless more revealing of the true workings of $p$-adic numbers and other things arising in a similar fashion: $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ is the (projective) limit of the $\mathbb{Z} / p^{n}$. We'll look at this second.

The $p$-adic norm $|*|_{p}$ is defined on $\mathbb{Q}$ by

$$
\left|p^{n} \cdot \frac{a}{b}\right|_{p}=p^{-n} \quad(\text { with } a, b \text { prime to } p, n \in \mathbb{Z})
$$

The $p$-adic metric is made from the norm in the same way that the usual ("real") metric on $\mathbb{Q}$ is made from the usual absolute value: $d(x, y)=|x-y|_{p}$. It is obviously symmetric and reflexive, but the triangle inequality

$$
d(x, z) \leq d(x, y)+d(y, z)
$$

takes a bit of thought. Yes, $|k|_{p} \leq 1$ for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Examples:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& |5|_{2}=1 \quad|5|_{5}=\frac{1}{5} \quad|5|_{3}=1 \\
& |10|_{2}=\frac{1}{2} \quad|10|_{5}=\frac{1}{5} \quad|10|_{3}=1 \\
& \left|\frac{2}{3}\right|_{2}=\frac{1}{2} \quad\left|\frac{2}{3}\right|_{5}=1 \quad\left|\frac{2}{3}\right|_{3}=3 \\
& \left|\frac{35}{18}\right|_{2}=2 \quad\left|\frac{35}{18}\right|_{5}=\frac{1}{5} \quad\left|\frac{35}{18}\right|_{3}=9
\end{aligned}
$$

A metric space is complete if every Cauchy sequence has a limit.

The completion $\tilde{X}, \tilde{d}$ of a metric space $X, d$ can be characterized as a complete metric space with an inclusion $j: X \rightarrow \widetilde{X}$ preserving the metric, that is, $\tilde{d}(j x, j y)=d(x, y)$, and such that $X$ is dense, that is, every point of $\widetilde{X}$ is a limit of a Cauchy sequence in $X$.

Completions $\widetilde{X}$ are proven to exist by giving a construction: $\widetilde{X}$ is Cauchy sequences in $X$ modulo the equivalence relation $\left\{x_{n}\right\} \sim\left\{y_{n}\right\}$ when $\lim _{n} d\left(x_{n}, y_{n}\right)=0$. The metric on this model is $\tilde{d}\left(\left\{x_{n}\right\},\left\{y_{n}\right\}\right)=\lim _{n} d\left(x_{n}, y_{n}\right)$. There are things to be checked to certify that this construction succeeds in making a completion.

Another characterization of the completion $j: X \rightarrow \widetilde{X}$, which makes it easy to prove uniqueness, is that any metric-preserving $\operatorname{map} f: X \rightarrow Y$ to a complete metric space $Y$ factors through $j: X \rightarrow \widetilde{X}$, in the sense that there is a unique metric-preserving $F: \widetilde{X} \rightarrow Y$ such that

(metric-preserving maps)

The ring of $p$-adic integers $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ is the completion of $\mathbb{Z}$ with respect to $|*|_{p}$.

The field of $p$-adic rationals $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$ is the completion of $\mathbb{Q}$ with respect to $|*|_{p}$.

We'll also want to be sure that addition, multiplication, and inversion (of non-zero things) are continuous on $\mathbb{Q}$ in the $p$-adic metric, so that it is legitimate to extend by continuity to define addition and multiplication on $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\lim _{n} a_{n}\right) \cdot\left(\lim _{n} b_{n}\right) & =\lim _{n}\left(a_{n} \cdot b_{n}\right) \\
\left(\lim _{n} a_{n}\right)+\left(\lim _{n} b_{n}\right) & =\lim _{n}\left(a_{n}+b_{n}\right) \\
\left(\lim _{n} a_{n}\right)^{-1} & =\lim _{n}\left(a_{n}^{-1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

By design, the sequence of solutions $x_{n}$ to $f\left(x_{n}\right)=0 \bmod p^{n}$,

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
x_{1}=x_{1} \\
x_{2}=x_{1}+p y_{1} \\
x_{3}=x_{1}+p y_{1}+p^{2} y_{2} \\
x_{4}=x_{1}+p y_{1}+p^{2} y_{2}+p^{3} y_{3} & \left.\quad \text { (with } x_{1}, y_{i} \text { in } \mathbb{Z}\right)
\end{array}
$$

...
is Cauchy in the $p$-adic metric: for $m \leq n$,

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left|x_{n}-x_{m}\right|_{p}=\left|p^{m+1} y_{m+1}+\ldots p^{n} y_{n}\right|_{p} \\
=\left|p^{m+1}\right|_{p} \cdot\left|y_{m+1}+\ldots p^{n-m-1} y_{n}\right|_{p} \leq\left|p^{m+1}\right|_{p} \cdot 1=\frac{1}{p^{m+1}}
\end{gathered}
$$

since $y_{m+1}+\ldots p^{n-m-1} y_{n} \in \mathbb{Z}!!!$

For example, 2-adically,

$$
\begin{gathered}
1+2+4+8+16+\ldots=\lim _{n}\left(1+2+\ldots+2^{n}\right) \\
=\lim _{n} \frac{1-2^{n+1}}{1-2}=\frac{1-0}{1-2}=-1
\end{gathered}
$$

Generally, $p$-adically,

$$
1+p+p^{2}+p^{3}+\ldots=\frac{1}{1-p}
$$

In contrast, the usual exponential series

$$
e^{x}=1+\frac{x}{1!}+\frac{x^{2}}{2!}+\ldots
$$

converges $p$-adically only for $|x|_{p}$ small, because the factorials hurt, rather than help the convergence.

Warning: Yes, it is possible to write $p$-adic integers in a form that makes them look like power series:
$\alpha=a_{o}+a_{1} p^{1}+a_{2} p^{2}+a_{3} p^{3}+\ldots \quad\left(\right.$ with $\left.a_{i} \in\{0,1,2, \ldots, p-1\}\right)$
In fact, this is what Hensel originally emphasized. However, neither addition nor multiplication treat such expressions as power series: the basic discrepancy is that no number of $x^{k}$ s can add up to $x^{k+1}$, but adding $p p^{k}$ 's gives $p^{k+1}$.

Hensel's analogy to power series is correct, but not quite in the naive way one might think.

Therefore, while the possibility of such expressions is genuine, they do not reflect the behavior of $p$-adic numbers very well!!!

Another viewpoint: Even though the $p$-adic norm and metric succeed in making the sequences produced by Hensel's lemma convergent, there might seem an elementy of whimsicality.

One ambiguity is that many different metrics can give the same topology.

The true state of affairs, addressed candidly, is that Hensel's recursion produces a sequence $x_{n}$ fitting into a picture

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \cdots \longrightarrow x_{n+1} \longrightarrow x_{2} \longrightarrow x_{1} \\
& \cdots \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z} / p^{n+1} \xrightarrow{\bmod p^{n}} \cdots \xrightarrow{\bmod p^{2}} \mathbb{Z} / p^{2} \xrightarrow{\bmod p} \mathbb{Z} / p
\end{aligned}
$$

