

# $p$ -adics and Their Problematic Antics

Get it?

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Who here knows anything about  $p$ -adics?

# $p$ -adic integers vs $p$ -adic numbers

Just a formal note at the beginning.

We'll be talking about  $p$ -adic integers, not  $p$ -adic numbers for simplicity's sake. While the difference is minor, you can safely ignore this slide if what I said doesn't make sense.

As always, you can always ask questions, but for more complicated topics, keep it until the end of the talk!

# A Simple Premise

There's many ways to introduce  $p$ -adics. Here's one way:

What if the rightmost digits were more significant than the leftmost digits...

# The Main Idea

Consider the number 495. Clearly, the most 'significant' digit is the leftmost digit, 4.

But what if we decide to make the most 'significant' digit the rightmost digit, 5?

How does this change anything, and how do we formalize this?

# Notation

The  $p$  in  $p$ -adic refers to a number. At our current level, this means what base we are working with.

For example, a 5-adic number is a base 5 number.

The number  $69 = 2 \cdot 5^2 + 3 \cdot 5 + 4$

Thus,  $69 = 234$  in base 5. We'll denote this as  $234_5$ .

$$123 = 443_5 = 11120_3 = 30_{41} = 234_7$$

# Base $p$

We formally state a base  $p$  number here:

Let  $p$  be given. Then, the base  $p$  representation of a number is:

$$a_0 + a_1 \cdot p + a_2 \cdot p^2 + \cdots + a_n p^n \text{ where } 0 \leq a_i < p$$

Or:

$$\sum_{i=0}^n a_i p^i \text{ where } 0 \leq a_i < p$$

Note that this is the reverse direction in which we read numbers. So  $1 + 2 \cdot 4 + 3 \cdot 4^2 = 321_4$ .

## Another (not-so easy but still relatively easy) Example

Consider 2 in the 5-adics. We can write this out as:

$$2_5 = \dots 00002_5$$

The reason is because like decimals, the number extends infinitely offwards to the left, but we cut it short.

We let addition, subtraction and multiplication be as we expect them.

What is  $2^{-1}$ ? i.e. What  $x$  has the property that  $2x = 1$ ? i.e. What  $x$  has the property that  $x + 2 = 0$ ?

Before that, what is  $-2$ ?



## Another (not-so easy but still relatively easy) Example Continued Part 1

$$-2_5 = \dots 44443_5.$$

Do you believe me? Let's add them and check!

## Another (not-so easy but still relatively easy) Example Continued Part 1.5

$$-2_5 = \dots 44443_5.$$

Do you believe me? Let's add them and check!

$$\begin{aligned} & \dots 44443_5 \\ + & \dots 00002_5 \\ = & \dots 44445_5 \\ = & \dots 44450_5 \\ = & \dots 44500_5 \\ = & \dots 45000_5 \\ = & \dots 00000_5 \end{aligned}$$

## Another (not-so easy but still relatively easy) Example Continued Part 2

$$2^{-1}_5 = \dots 22223_5.$$

Do you believe me? Let's multiply them and check!

## Another (not-so easy but still relatively easy) Example Continued Part 2.5

$$2^{-1}_5 = \dots 22223_5.$$

So you believe me. Let's multiply them and check!

$$\begin{aligned} & \dots 22223_5 \\ \times & \dots 00002_5 \\ = & \dots 22220_5 \\ \times & \dots 00002_5 + \dots 00011_5 \\ = & \dots 22200_5 \\ \times & \dots 00002_5 + \dots 00101_5 \\ = & \dots 22000_5 \\ \times & \dots 00002_5 + \dots 01001_5 \\ = & \dots 00001_5 \end{aligned}$$

## ...Maybe The Example Wasn't So Easy

This is the short term goal: Understand negatives and fractions in the  $p$ -adics.

# Negatives

As stated, we can define subtraction the exact same way. So let's look at  $-2_5$  in a different light. What is  $0 - 2$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} & \dots 00000_5 \\ - & \dots 00002_5 \\ = & \dots 44445_5 \\ - & \dots 00002_5 \\ = & \dots 44443_5 \end{aligned}$$

What is  $-1_p$ ?

When  $p = 5$ , we have that  $-1_5 = \dots 44444_5$ .

When  $p = 7$ , we have that  $-1_7 = \dots 66666_7$ .

So it seems that

$$-1_p = \dots (p-1)(p-1)(p-1)(p-1)(p-1)_p.$$

Note, these are digits, not multiplication!

## A Cool Trick

Take for example  $x = \dots 00013501_7 = 3676$ .

Let  $x_i$  be the  $i$ th digit. Then, set  $-x_i$  so that  $x_i + (-x_i) = p - 1$ .

String these together to get:

$$x - 1 = \dots (-x_5)(-x_4)(-x_3)(-x_2)(-x_1)_p$$

Then,  $-x = x - 1 + 1 = \dots 66653165_7 + \dots 0001_7 = \dots 66653166_7 = -3676$ .

So  $-x$  with  $p = 8$  would be:  $\dots 77764277_8 = -5953$



# What Next?

Computing inverses is tedious and time-consuming. But it helps us get a better understanding of fractions, so we must trek onwards.

# Concept

We find the inverse of an integer directly by repeated division, but we'll use modulo. Then, we call this inverse the corresponding fraction. For example,

$$\frac{1}{3} = 3^{-1} = 3^{-1}_p.$$

Let's find this inverse in the 10-adics! (Yes, we can use non-prime bases, but you'll see why we don't in a bit...)

# Find The First Digit!

Our target is the following number:  $\dots 00001_{10}$

We want the first digit to be 1. So, what  $x$  has the following property:  $3x \equiv 1 \pmod{10}$ ?

# Keep Crunching!

Set  $x = 7$ . Then  $3x = 21$ . So, our inverse must end with 7.

Now, we want the second digit to be 0. But we already have a 2 there! So, what  $x$  has the following property:  
 $3x + 2 \equiv 0 \pmod{10} \Rightarrow 3x \equiv 8 \pmod{10}$ ?

## Crunching...

So  $x = 6$  works, and we get that  $6x + 2 = 20$ . But wait, we have a 2 again! So the same  $x$  works!

I claim  $\frac{1}{3}_{10} = \dots 66667_{10}$ .

If we truncate this infinite expansion, indeed, we have:  
 $666\dots 667 \cdot 3 = 2000\dots 0001$ . Thus, this works!

## Let's Try A Similar Example

What is  $\frac{2}{3}_{10}$ ? We want it to end in 2...

But we have the advantage of working in base 10. What number multiplied thrice is  $x0000\dots0002$  for some  $x$ ?

How about:  $x.00002$ ? Well,  $x = 1$  works! Then,  
 $0.33334 \cdot 3 = 1.00002$ !

So,  $\frac{2}{3}_{10} = \dots 33334_{10}$ .

## Arbitrary $p$ . Arbitrary fraction.

Let's say we want to find  $\frac{11}{4}_5$ . How would we do so?

First, find  $\frac{3}{4}_5$  and add 2! Since arithmetic is well defined.

Our target number is  $\dots 000003_5$ .

## Solving for $4x = \dots 000003_5$

First digit:  $4x \equiv 3 \pmod{5} \Rightarrow x = 2$ . Then,  
 $4x = 8 = 13_5$ .

Second digit:  $4x + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{5} \Rightarrow x = 1$ . Then,  
 $4x = 4_5$ . But here,  $x$  is in the fives column, and we add  
with the previous term. We get:  $40_5 + 13_5 = 103_5$ .

Third digit:  $4x + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{5} \Rightarrow x = 1$ . Thus, the  
process repeats.

In the end:  $\frac{3}{4}_5 = \dots 111112_5$ .

Thus,  $\frac{11}{4}_5 = \dots 111114_5$ .



# Particular Inverses

Consider 7 in base 7. This is  $10_7$ . What's the inverse of  $10_7$ ? i.e. what number multiplied with  $10_7$  gives us  $\dots 0001_7$ ?

Unfortunately, No number multiplied with 0 gives us 1 under our rules. Unless... maybe we change the rules a bit...

Solution: Add digits to the right. We won't concern ourselves with this. We'll just look at  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ , the  $p$ -adic integers.

## Why is $p$ Usually Prime?

What issues arise when we use non-prime bases?  
Insolvability.

We can never have  $2x \equiv 1 \pmod{10}$ . Thus,  $\frac{1}{2}_{10}$  cannot exist in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ , the  $p$ -adic integers.

Recall: if  $p$  is prime, then  $\gcd(x, p) = 1$  if  $1 < x < p$ .

While we can solve this problem by adding digits to the right, another issue arises later down the line. We get a form of non-zero dividers which destroys the formalization of the  $p$ -adics. Thus,  $p$  needs to be prime.

TL;DR: While 10-adics exist, they aren't useful to study. Same with every composite number.

Time for a 15-second break!

# Number Theory Time!

Let's introduce another way you might think about these  $p$ -adics.

# Solving Polynomials Congruence Modulo $p$

We love congruence modulo in Number Theory. A very common problem is this: What are the solutions to polynomials modulo  $p$ ?

We look at a specific example.  $X^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{p^n}$  where we take  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . We'll use  $X$  to denote the polynomial and reserve  $x$  for variables.

Fun Fact: This section of MAT315 is where I first heard of  $p$ -adics in an academic context!

$$X^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{p}$$

Let  $p = 7$  and start with  $n = 1$ . Then, what  $x$  solves  $X^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$ ?

$$X^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{p^2}$$

The answer is 3.

Continue with  $n = 2$ . Then, what  $x$  solves  $X^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{7^2}$ ?

$$X^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{p^3}$$

The answer is 10. We'll do this one more time before we list out all of the numbers.

Continue with  $n = 3$ . Then, what  $x$  solves  $X^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{7^3}$ ?



I need a funny title name here

The answer is 108.

We can keep continuing this process.

Enter, Mathematica

```
For[i = 1, i < 20, i++,  
Print[Solve[x2 == 2, Modulus - > 7i]]]
```

$x \equiv 3, x \equiv 4$

$x \equiv 10, x \equiv 39$

$x \equiv 108, x \equiv 235$

$x \equiv 2166, x \equiv 235$

$x \equiv 4567, x \equiv 12240$

$x \equiv 38181, x \equiv 79468$

$x \equiv 155830, x \equiv 667713$

$x \equiv 24862120, x \equiv 15491487$

$x \equiv 266983762, x \equiv 15491487$

$x \equiv 1961835256, x \equiv 15491487$

⋮

## Getting Our Sequence

More Mathematica Code:

```
L = {3,10,108,2166,4567,38181,155830,  
1802916,24862120,266983762,1961835256,  
5916488742,19757775943,116646786350,  
116646786350,9611769806236,42844700375837,  
275475214363044,6789129606004840}
```

More code:

```
For[i=1, i<20, i++, Print[BaseForm[Part[L,i],7]]]
```



# $p$ -adics Unlock New Worlds

So,  $\sqrt{2}$  exists in the 7-adics.

We denote the 7-adics as  $\mathbb{Q}_7$  ( $p$ -adic numbers) or  $\mathbb{Z}_7$  ( $p$ -adic integers).

So,  $\sqrt{2} = \dots 1266421216213_7$ .

And indeed,

$$1266421216213^2_7 = 2015621634410000000000002_7$$

And indeed,  $-\sqrt{2} = 5400245450454^2_7 =$   
 $430241642501200000000000002_7$

Let's find out what  $\mathbb{Q}_7$  is!

Another 15-second break

# Absolute Values

We continue in what seems a very distant land...

# Properties of an Absolute Values

Given a field  $\mathbb{F}$ , define a function  $|\cdot| : \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

$|\cdot|$  is an absolute value if it has the following properties:

- Positive Definiteness
- Homogeneity
- Triangle Inequality

We'll let our field be  $\mathbb{Q}$  for any applications.



# Positive Definiteness

For all  $x \in \mathbb{F}$ ,  $|\cdot|$  is positive definite if:

$$|x| \geq 0 \text{ and } |x| = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0$$

# Homogeneity

For all  $x, y \in \mathbb{F}$ ,  $|\cdot|$  is homogeneous if:

$$|xy| = |x||y|$$

# Triangle Inequality

For all  $x, y \in \mathbb{F}$ ,  $|\cdot|$  has the Triangle Inequality if:

$$|x + y| \leq |x| + |y|$$

## Why Is This Useful?

Traditionally, a norm denotes 'distance' of some kind. And absolute value is a norm. But is there any way we can define 'distance' in a meaningful way so that leftmost digits are insignificant?

# The Traditional Absolute Value

The traditional absolute value, which we'll denote  $|\cdot|_\infty$  is defined as follows:

$$|x|_\infty = \begin{cases} x & x \geq 0 \\ -x & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

This absolute value tells us how far away we are from 0. Namely, our leftmost digits have the greatest impact.

# Convergence

We need to talk about convergence to understand how we can create an alternate absolute value.

We say a sequence  $(x_n)$  converges to some point  $x$  if: for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , we can find a natural number  $N$  so that:  $|x_n - x| < \epsilon$  for all  $n > N$ .

i.e. Our sequence of numbers after some point  $N$  has a small 'distance' to  $x$ , the point we are converging to.

We want some notion of convergence so that our rightmost digits are most significant...

# What Do We Want?

We'll drop the purple text color for numbers in base  $p$ .  
No more hand holding.

We want

$$|\dots 11110_p| > |\dots 11100_p| > |\dots 11000_p| > \dots$$

However, this depends on our choice of  $p$   
( $10000 = 41104_7$ ). So our absolute value will depend on  
 $p$ .

# A Suggestive Sequence

There's one particular sequence that very well describes what we want.

Let  $p$  be given. Consider  $p^n$  for  $n \geq 0$ . We get:

$$p^0 = 1_p$$

$$p^1 = 10_p$$

$$p^2 = 100_p$$

$$p^3 = 1000_p$$

$$p^4 = 10000_p$$

$$\vdots$$

$$p^n = \dots 000_p$$



## How Do We Frame This?

So we want  $p^n \rightarrow 0$ . i.e.  $|p^n| \rightarrow 0$ . And maybe you notice that we can attribute the number of zeroes some value. Now we'll define the  $p$ -adic absolute value.

# The $p$ -adic Absolute Value

Let  $p$  be prime. Let  $x \in \mathbb{Q}$ . Then write  $x = p^r \cdot x'$  so that  $p \nmid x'$ . i.e.  $r$  is the exponent of  $p$  in the prime factorization of  $x$ . Then  $v_p(x) = r$ . This is called the valuation.

Then we claim that  $|x|_p = x^{-v_p(x)}$  is an absolute value. We call this the  $p$ -adic absolute value.

We'll postpone the proof until later.

# Why Does The $p$ -adic Absolute Value Work?

There's a little bit of magic that goes into constructing this absolute value from scratch. As in, why it's a negative exponent or why there's an exponent. I'll keep that mystery hidden (we can chat later if you want). I'd rather investigate *how* this works.

## Here's Why It Works

Consider the sequence  $p^n$  again. Recall,  $|x|_p = p^{-v_p(x)}$ .  
Then:

$$|p^0|_p = |1|_p = p^0 = 1$$

$$|p^1|_p = |10_p|_p = p^{-1} = \frac{1}{p}$$

$$|p^2|_p = |100_p|_p = p^{-2} = \frac{1}{p^2}$$

$$|p^3|_p = |1000_p|_p = p^{-3} = \frac{1}{p^3}$$

$$|p^4|_p = |10000_p|_p = p^{-4} = \frac{1}{p^4}$$

$$|p^5|_p = |100000_p|_p = p^{-5} = \frac{1}{p^5}$$

# Correlation

The  $p$ -adic absolute value tells us how many zeroes there are in the base  $p$  expansion of our number!

This is partially the truth. It gets quite complicated for certain rationals, and this 'intuition' doesn't explain how divergence to  $p$ -adic infinity works.

This absolute value tells us that  $\frac{1}{p^n}$  should diverge  $p$ -adically, but once again, the inverse doesn't exist.

# Proving The $p$ -adic Absolute Value

Positive Definiteness: Clearly,  $|x|_p = p^{v_p(x)} \geq 0$ .

If  $x = 0$ , then  $v_p(x) = \infty \Rightarrow |x|_p = p^{-\infty} = 0$ . Yes, this is allowed.

If  $x \neq 0$ , then  $v_p(x) = c < \infty \Rightarrow |x|_p = p^c \neq 0$ .

Thus,  $|\cdot|_p$  is Positive Definite

# Proving The $p$ -adic Absolute Value

Homogeneity. Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$ . Then,

$$|x|_p |y|_p = p^{v_p(x)} \cdot p^{v_p(y)} = p^{v_p(xy)} = |xy|_p$$

# Proving The $p$ -adic Absolute Value

Triangle Inequality: We'll prove a stronger version, the Strong Triangle Inequality:  $|x + y|_p \leq \max\{|x|_p, |y|_p\}$ .

We'll first prove the Strong Triangle Inequality for integers. Let  $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then we'll show that the Strong Triangle Inequality will hold.



# Proving The $p$ -adic Absolute Value

Note that since integers will only have non-negative exponents, we must have that:  $|x_1 + x_2|_p \leq 1$ . Let  $|x_1 + x_2|_p$  be given so that  $v_p(x_1 + x_2) = i$ . Then,  $x_1 + x_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{p^i}$  and  $x_1 + x_2 \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p^{i+1}}$ .

Thus, either (a)  $p^{i+1} \nmid x_1$  and  $p^{i+1} \mid x_2$ ,  
(b)  $p^{i+1} \nmid x_2$  and  $p^{i+1} \mid x_1$   
or (c)  $p^{i+1} \nmid x_1, x_2$ .

In case (a),  $|x_1|_p \leq \frac{1}{p^i}$ .

In the case of (b),  $|x_2|_p \leq \frac{1}{p^i}$ .

In the case of (c),  $|x_1|_p \leq \frac{1}{p^i}$ .

## Proving The $p$ -adic Absolute Value

Now, prove the Strong Triangle Inequality for all rationals. Let  $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{Q}$ . Then, we can write  $x_1 = \frac{a}{b}$  and  $x_2 = \frac{c}{d}$  with  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $c, d \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then, we have:

# Proving The $p$ -adic Absolute Value

$$\begin{aligned} |x_1 + x_2|_p &= \left| \frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} \right|_p \\ &= \left| \frac{ad + bc}{bd} \right|_p \\ &= \left| \frac{1}{bd} \right|_p \cdot |ad + bc|_p \\ &\leq \left| \frac{1}{bd} \right|_p \cdot \min\{|ad|_p, |bc|_p\} \\ &= \min\left\{ \left| \frac{ad}{bd} \right|_p, \left| \frac{bc}{bd} \right|_p \right\} \\ &= \min\left\{ \left| \frac{a}{b} \right|_p, \left| \frac{c}{d} \right|_p \right\} \\ &= \min\{x_1, x_2\} \end{aligned}$$

# A Curious Case Of Choosing Canonical Constants

The astute among you might have noticed something interesting. The base of the absolute value doesn't matter!

Specifically, we could have defined  $|x|_p = c^{v_p(x)}$  for any  $c > 1$ . So why choose  $p$ ? If you're curious, ask me later!

# The Upshot

This absolute value is a norm. That means metrics.  
That means topology on a 'well behaved' space.

Here's what it's all been building up to.

## $p$ -adic Topology Something Witty

Who?  $p$ -adic Topology

When?  $p$ -adic Topology

## O7s in the chat plz

I'm so sorry my dear first-years. This is the conclusion of the talk. So bare with me for a few more slides.

# Motivating $\mathbb{Q}_p$

There's two ways to construct  $\mathbb{Q}_p$ , the  $p$ -adic numbers.

1. Start with  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  and add in the inverses.
2. Start with  $\mathbb{Q}$  and complete it with respect to the metric. I prefer method 2 because it's all analysis, no algebra. i.e. only MAT257 is required.



# Completion

Informally, we take  $\mathbb{Q}$  and represent it as an equivalence class of limit points of sequences inside  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Then, we add all the Cauchy sequences that exist using the  $p$ -metric to  $\mathbb{Q}$  to get  $\mathbb{Q}_p$ .

If  $(x_i) \rightarrow x$ , then  $\|x\|_p = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \|x_i\|_p$ . Since  $x_i \in \mathbb{Q}$ , this is well defined.

So  $\mathbb{Q}_p$  is the equivalence classes of limits of all Cauchy sequences.

# Interesting Properties

Now that  $\mathbb{Q}_p$  is a complete metric space, what interesting properties can we say about  $\mathbb{Q}_p$  for all prime  $p$ ?

- 1 Every ball is clopen.
- 2 Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}_p$  and  $r \in \mathbb{R}$ . If  $y \in B(x, r)$ , then  $B(x, r) = B(y, r)$ .
- 3  $\mathbb{Q}_p$  is totally disconnected. i.e. Only singletons are connected.
- 4  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  is the unit ball of  $\mathbb{Q}_p$  centered at 0 for all  $p$ .

The first three properties come directly from the Strong Triangle Inequality. And metric spaces with the Strong Triangle Inequality are called ultrametric spaces and the metric is considered an ultrametric. The fourth property is just fun.

# That was long...

That's it! Thanks for taking some time out of your day to enjoy some  $p$ -adics!

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