1. (a) We begin by noting that:

$$0+0=0\in S+I$$

$$1 + 0 = 1 \in S + I$$

Let  $s_x + a_x, s_y + a_y \in S + I$ . We note that  $-s_x \in S$  and  $-1 \cdot a_x \in I$ . Thus:

$$-s_x + (-a_x) = -(s_x + a_x) \in S + I$$

For addition, we get that:

$$s_x + a_x + s_y + a_y = (s_x + s_y) + (a_x + a_y) \in S + I$$

For multiplication, we get that:

$$(s_x + a_x) \cdot (s_y + a_y) = (s_x s_y) + (s_y a_x + s_x a_y + a_x a_y) \in S + I$$

Thus, we conclude that S + I is a subring.

- (b) We begin by noting that  $0 \in I$  and  $0 \in S$ , so  $0 \in S \cap I$ . Let  $a, b \in S \cap I$ . We note that  $a+b \in S$  and  $a+b \in I$ . Thus,  $a+b \in S \cap I$ . Lastly, let  $s \in S$ . We note that  $as \in S$  and  $as \in I$ , so  $as \in S \cap I$ . This proves  $S \cap I$  is an ideal of S.
- (c) We first note that  $S \subseteq S+I$ . Thus, the natural projection map  $\pi: S \to (S+I)/I$  where  $s \mapsto [s]$  is a ring homomorphism.

We then note that for all  $x \in (S+I)/I$ , there exists a s+a such that  $s \in S$  and  $a \in I$  where x = [s+a] = [s] + [a] = [s] because  $I \mid a$ , which implies [a] = [0]. Thus,  $x = \pi(s)$ . Hence,  $\pi$  is surjective, so it implies  $\min(\pi) = (S+I)/(I)$ .

For  $x \in S \cap I$ ,  $\pi(x) = [x] = [0]$  as  $I \mid x$ , so  $x \in \ker(\pi)$ . Meanwhile, for  $x \in \ker(\pi)$ , we note that [x] = [0], which implies  $I \mid x$  or  $x \in I$ . Thus, we get  $x \in S \cap I$  and that  $\ker(\pi) = S \cap I$ .

By the First Isomorphism Theorem, we get that  $S/(S \cap I) \cong (S+I)/I$ .

- 2. (a) We note that  $[0] \in J'$ , so  $0 \in J$ . For  $a, b \in J$ , we get that  $[a], [b] \in J'$ , so  $[a+b] \in J'$  and  $a+b \in J$ . For  $r \in R$ , note that  $[r] \in R/I$ , so  $[ra] \in J'$  thus  $ra \in J$ . This proves J is an ideal of R.
  - (b) We note that  $0 \in J$ , so  $[0] \in J/I$ . For  $[a], [b] \in J/I$ , we note that  $a + b \in J$ , so  $[a+b] = [a] + [b] \in J/I$ . For  $[r] \in R/I$ , we note that  $ra \in J$ , so  $[ra] = [r] \cdot [a] \in J/I$ . This proves J/I is an ideal of R/I.
  - (c) We note that the natural projection map of  $\pi: R \mapsto R/I$  where  $r \mapsto [r]_I$  is a ring homomorphism. Meanwhile, the natural projection map of  $\hat{\pi}: R/I \to (R/I)/(J/I)$  where  $[r]_I \mapsto [[r]_I]_{J/I}$  is a ring homomorphism. Hence, if we denote  $\varphi = \hat{\pi} \circ \pi$ , we get that  $\varphi: R \mapsto (R/I)/(J/I)$  where  $r \mapsto [[r]]$  is a ring homomorphism.

For all  $x \in (R/I)/(J/I)$ , there exists an  $[r] \in R/I$  where x = [[r]] and consequently, an  $r \in R$  where  $[[r]] = \varphi(r)$ . This proves varphi is surjective, so  $im(\varphi) = (R/I)/(J/I)$ .

For  $x \in J$ ,  $\varphi(x) = [[x]]$ . We also note that  $[x] \in J/I$ , so [[x]] = [[0]] thus  $x \in \ker(\varphi)$ . Meanwhile, for  $x \in \ker(\varphi)$ ,  $\varphi(x) = [[0]]$ , so  $[x] \in J/I$ , which further implies  $x \in J$ . Thus,  $\ker(\varphi) = J$ .

By the First Isomorphism Theorem,  $R/J \cong (R/I)/(J/I)$ .

- 3. (a) A proper ideal I is prime ideal if and only if  $ab \in I$  then  $a \in I$  or  $b \in I$ 
  - (b) Assume (r) is a prime ideal. By contradiction, we assume r is not prime. Then there exists  $a, b \in R$  where  $r \mid ab$  but  $r \nmid a$  and  $r \nmid b$ . We note that  $ab \in (r)$ . This implies either  $a \in (r)$  or  $b \in (r)$ . If we assume  $a \in (r)$ , then there exists a  $q \in R$  where rq = a, but that would mean  $r \mid a$ , a contradiction. Thus, if (r) is a prime ideal, then r is prime.
    - Assume r is prime. By contradiction, we assume (r) is not a prime ideal, so there exists an  $ab \in (r)$  where  $a, b \notin (r)$ . Since  $ab \in (r)$ , there exists a  $q \in R$  where ab = rq, so  $r \mid ab$ . This implies either  $r \mid a$  or  $r \mid b$ . We assume  $r \mid a$ , so there exists a  $q' \in R$  where q'r = a. However, this implies  $a \in (r)$ , a contradiction. Thus, if r is prime, then (r) is a prime ideal.
  - (c) Assume I is a prime ideal of R. By contradiction, we assume R/I is not an integral domain, so there exists  $[a], [b] \neq [0]$  and [ab] = [0]. Since [ab] = [0],  $I \mid ab$ . This implies either  $I \mid a$  or  $I \mid b$ , so either [a] = [0] or [b] = [0], a contradiction. Thus, if I is a prime ideal, R/I is an integral domain.
    - Assume R/I is an integral domain. By contradiction, I is not a prime ideal of R. Thus, there exists  $a,b \notin I$  but  $I \mid ab$ . This implies [ab] = [0]. However, R/I is an integral domain, so either [a] = [0] or [b] = [0]. But that implies either  $I \mid a$  or  $I \mid b$ , a contradiction. Thus, if R/I is an integral domain, then I is a prime ideal of R.
  - (d) We note that  $\mathbb{Z}$  is a PID. Thus, for all prime ideals I of  $\mathbb{Z}$ , there exists an  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$  where I = (x). From b), x must be prime. By Euclid's Lemma, all prime numbers are prime, so their principal ideals are also prime ideals. However, 0 satisfies the definition of prime because  $\mathbb{Z}$  is an integral domain, so if  $0 \mid ab$  then either a or b must be zero, so (0) is also a prime ideal. Thus, all prime ideals of  $\mathbb{Z}$  are principal ideals of prime numbers and 0.
  - (e) From 1b), we note that  $S \cap I$  is an ideal. For  $a, b \in S$ , if  $ab \in S \cap I$ , then  $ab \in I$ , which implies either  $a \in I$  or  $b \in I$ . In other words, we get that either  $a \in S \cap I$  or  $b \in S \cap I$ . Thus,  $S \cap I$  is a prime ideal.

4. (a) If  $[x]^2 = [x]$  for  $0 \le x \le 2024$ , then it implies  $[x^2 - x] = [0]$  or  $2025 \mid x(x - 1)$ . We then note that  $2025 = 81 \cdot 25$  and that  $\gcd(81, 25) = 1$ . Thus, we can apply Theorem 7.11, where m = 81 and n = 25 and note that:

$$[x(x-1)]_{2025} \mapsto [x(x-1)]_{81} \times [x(x-1)]_{25}$$
  
 $[0] \mapsto [0]_{81} \times [0]_{25}$ 

We also note that this map is a ring homomorphism, so since  $[x^2 - x] = [0]$ , it implies that  $[x(x-1)] = [0]_{81}$  and  $[x(x-1)] = [0]_{25}$ . In other words, we get that  $81 \mid x(x-1)$  and  $25 \mid x(x-1)$ . We then note that 25 is a prime power of  $5^2$ . By Euclid's Lemma, either  $5 \mid x$  or  $5 \mid x-1$ . Since  $\gcd(x-1,x)=1$ , only one of the factors could be divisible by 5 and will be the one also divisible by 25. A similar argument can be applied that only one of the factors is divisible by 81. Thus, we get that either and  $25 \mid x$  or  $25 \mid x-1$  and  $81 \mid x$  or  $81 \mid x-1$ . This gives us 4 possible combinations.

Case 1 If  $25 \mid x$  and  $81 \mid x$ , since 81 and 25 are co-prime, we get that  $2025 \mid x$ . The only x that satisfies this is if x = 0.

Case 2 If  $25 \mid x-1$  and  $81 \mid x-1$ , since 81 and 25 are co-prime, we get that  $2025 \mid x-1$ . The only x that satisfies this is if x-1=0 or x=1.

Case 3 If  $25 \mid x-1$  and  $81 \mid x$ , it implies there exist  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  where 25a = x-1 and 81b = x. Thus:

$$25a = 81b - 1$$
$$1 = 81b + 25(-a)$$

We apply the Division Algorithm strategy back in Claim 2.7 to compute that b=21, so  $x=21\cdot 81=1701$ .

Case 4 If 25 | x and 81 | x-1, it implies there exist  $a,b\in\mathbb{Z}$  where 25a=x and 81b=x-1. Thus:

$$81b = 25a - 1$$
$$1 = 25a + 81(-b)$$

We apply the same strategy to compute that a = 13 thus  $x = 13 \cdot 25 = 325$ 

Hence, there are 4 idempotent elements in  $\mathbb{Z}/2025\mathbb{Z}$ .

(b) We note that  $0^2 = 0$  and  $1^2 = 1$ , so  $0, 1 \in S$ . For  $a, b \in S$ , we note that:

$$(a+b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2$$
$$= a^2 = 2 \cdot 1 \cdot ab + b^2$$
$$= a^2 + b^2$$
$$= a + b$$

Thus,  $a + b \in S$ . Meanwhile::

$$(ab)^2 = a^2b^2$$
$$= ab$$

Thus,  $ab \in S$ . Lastly, we note that:

$$a + a = 2a$$
$$= 2 \cdot 1 \cdot a$$
$$= 0$$

Thus, we note that -a = a and since  $a \in S$ , we get that  $-a \in S$ . We proved S is a subring of R.

(c) We first note that  $(0) = \{r0 : r \in R\} = \{0\}$ . Meanwhile, we note that the map  $\varphi : R \to R$  where  $r \mapsto r$  is a ring homomorphism. Meanwhile, the  $\operatorname{im}(\varphi) = R$  and that  $\ker(\varphi) = \{0\} = (0)$ . By the First Isomorphism Theorem, we get that  $R/(0) \cong R$ .

For (e) + (1 - e), we note that for all  $r \in R$  that

$$er + (1 - e)r = 1r = r$$

Hence,  $r \in (e) + (1 - e)$  and (e) + (1 - e) = R. This allows us to apply Theorem 8.24 to get that  $R/((e)(1 - e)) \cong R/(e) \times R/(1 - e)$ . We then note that for any  $a, b \in R$ , we get that

$$(1-e)a \cdot (e)b = (e-e^2)ab = 0ab = 0$$

This implies that any finite sum in the form of  $\sum (e)a_i(1-e)b_i$  is a sum of finitely many zeros, which sums to zero. Hence,  $(1-e)(e)=\{0\}=(0)$  and we get that  $R \cong R/(0) \cong R/(e) \times R/(1-e)$  or  $R \cong R/(e) \times R/(1-e)$  as desired.

(d) Let |R| = 2 where  $R = \{0,1\}$ . By Theorem 7.16,  $|R| \cdot 1 = 0$ . Thus,  $\operatorname{char}(R) = 2$  (we note that  $\operatorname{char}(R) = 1$  is impossible because it implies 0 = 1). By Exercise 7.5 (I proved it in HW5 1c), since  $\operatorname{char}(R) = |R|$ , we get that  $R \cong \mathbb{F}_2$ . By induction, we assume all finite commutative ring R where every element is idempotent with  $2 \leq |R| \leq k$  for  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  is isomorphic to a product of  $\mathbb{F}_2$ . We now assume such ring R where |R| = k + 1.

If there exists an  $e \in R$  where it is non-zero and non-unit, by c), we get that  $R \cong R/(e) \times R/(1-e)$ . For all  $r \in R$ , we note that:

$$[r]_e^2 = [r^2]_e = [r]_e$$
$$[r]_{1-e}^2 = [r^2]_{1-e} = [r]_{1-e}$$

Since the natural projections  $R \to R/(e)$  and  $R \to R/(1-e)$  are surjective, we note that all elements in both rings are idempotent. Since both (e) and (1-e) are the kernels of their respective natural projections, by the pigeonhole principle, a non-injective but surjective map implies |R/(e)|, |R/(1-e)| < |R|. Hence, by the induction hypothesis, both are isomorphic to a product of  $\mathbb{F}_2$ . Hence, we get that:

$$R \cong (\mathbb{F}_2 \times \dots \times \mathbb{F}_2) \times (\mathbb{F}_2 \times \dots \times \mathbb{F}_2)$$
$$R \cong \mathbb{F}_2 \times \dots \times \mathbb{F}_2$$

Meanwhile, if there is no non-zero and non-unit element in R, then R must be a field because every non-zero element is a unit. For all  $a \in R^{\times}$ , there exists a  $b \in R^{\times}$  where ab = 1. This implies a(ab) = a, but  $a^2b = ab$ , so 1 = ab = a. Thus,  $R^{\times} = \{1\}$ . Since R is a field, we get that  $R = \{0,1\}$ , which contradicts our assumption of |R| = k + 1, making it impossible.

We proved that all finite commutative rings R where every element is idempotent is isomorphic to a product of  $\mathbb{F}_2$ .

5. (a) We first prove that  $\operatorname{im}(ev_a)$  is a subring of  $\mathbb C$ . We note that  $1,0\in\mathbb Z[x]$ , so  $0,1\in\operatorname{im}(ev_a)$ . For all  $d,e\in\operatorname{im}(ev_a)$ , there exists a  $f,g\in\mathbb Z[x]$  where f(a)=d and g(a)=e. We note that  $-f\in\mathbb Z[x]$ , so  $-f(a)=-d\in\operatorname{im}(ev_a)$ . Meanwhile,  $f+g,fg\in\mathbb Z[x]$ , so  $f(a)+g(a)=d+e,f(a)g(a)=de\in\operatorname{im}(ev_a)$ . This proves  $\operatorname{im}(ev_a)$  is a subring of  $\mathbb C$ . We also note  $x\in\mathbb Z[x]$ , so  $a\in\operatorname{im}(ev_a)$ .

We now prove it is the smallest subring containing a. For any subring S containing a, for all  $x \in \operatorname{im}(ev_a)$ , there also exists an  $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  where f(a) = x. f is a polynomial and S is closed under addition and multiplication for all of its elements. We also note  $\mathbb{Z} \subseteq S$  because we can add  $1, -1 \in S$  and we can add them indefinitely. This implies  $f(a) = x \in S$ , so  $\operatorname{im}(ev_a) \subseteq S$ . Since all subrings S containing a contains  $\operatorname{im}(ev_a)$ , it is the smallest subring containing a, which implies  $\operatorname{im}(ev_a) = \mathbb{Z}[a]$ .

(b) For each  $\beta_k$ , there exists a  $f_k \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  where  $f_k(a) = \beta_k$  from our result in (a). We then denote  $d = \max\{\deg(f_1), \cdots, \deg(f_k)\} + 1$ . Since  $-a^d \in \mathbb{Z}[a]$ , there exists,  $c_1, \cdots, c_n$  where  $c_1 f_1(a) + \cdots + c_n f_n(a) = -a^d$ . We construct the polynomial:

$$f(x) = x^d + c_1 f_1(x) + \dots + c_n f_n(x)$$

We note that f(a) = 0. Since  $\deg(x^d) \ge \deg(f_k)$  for all  $1 \le k \le n$ , the leading coefficient of f is 1. Thus, we constructed a monic polynomial where f(a) = 0.

(c) We denote  $C = \{c_0 + c_1 a + \dots + c_{d-1} a^{d-1} : c_0, c_1, \dots, c_{d-1} \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$ 

For all  $c \in \mathbb{Z}[a]$ , there exists  $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  with f(a) = c as proven in (a). By Proposition 9.4, f(x) = q(x)g(x) + r(x) for  $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  since g(x) is monic, so its leading coefficient is a unit and  $\deg r < \deg g$ . Since g(a) = 0, we get f(a) = r(a). Since  $\deg r \le d - 1$ , we get that r(a) is a sum of integer coefficients up to  $a^{d-1}$ , so  $r(a) = c \in C$ .

For all  $c \in C$ , we have  $c = c_0 + c_1 a + \cdots + c_{d-1} a^{d-1}$ . The polynomial  $f(x) = c_0 + c_1 x + \cdots + c_{d-1} x^{d-1} \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ , so  $f(a) = c \in \mathbb{Z}[a]$ . Hence,  $\mathbb{Z}[a] = C$ .

- 6. (a) We note that  $(0)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ ,  $(1)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in \lim_{\leftarrow} R_n$  because  $f_n(0) = 0$  and  $f_n(1) = 1$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ ,  $(b_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in \lim_{\leftarrow} R_n$ . We get that  $(a_n + b_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in \lim_{\leftarrow} R_n$  because  $f_n(a_{n+1} + b_{n+1}) = f_n(a_{n+1}) + f_n(b_{n+1}) = a_n + b_n$ . We also get that  $(a_n b_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in \lim_{\leftarrow} R_n$  because  $f_n(a_{n+1}b_{n+1}) = f_n(a_{n+1})f_n(b_{n+1}) = a_n b_n$ . Lastly, we get that  $-(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} = (-a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in \lim_{\leftarrow} R_n$  because  $f_n(-a_{n+1}) = -f_n(a_{n+1}) = -a_n$ . Thus,  $\lim_{\leftarrow} R_n$  is a subring of  $\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} R_n$ .
  - (b) By contradiction,  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  does not have characteristic 0. This implies there exist a positive integer m where  $m \cdot (1)_{n=1}^{\infty} = (0)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ . In other words, for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we get that  $m \cdot 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p^n}$ . However, there exist large enough a  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  where  $p^k > m$ , so  $m \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p^k}$ . This is a contradiction, so the characteristic of  $\operatorname{char}(\mathbb{Z}_p)$  must be 0.
  - (c) We prove that  $\varphi$  is injective. We assume  $\varphi((a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}) = \varphi((b_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}) = (r_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  for  $(r_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in \mathbb{Z}_p$  and  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}, ((b_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}) \in S^{\mathbb{N}}$ .

We prove by induction that  $a_n = b_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . For n = 1, we note that  $[a_1]_p = [b_1]_p$ , so  $a_1 - b_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p^n}$ . However,  $a_1, b_1 \in S$ , so  $-(p-1) \leq a_1 - b_1 \leq p-1$ . This only option for  $p \mid a_1 - a_2$  is that  $a_1 - b_1 = 0$  or  $a_1 = b_1$ . Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . We assume that the induction hypothesis holds true for all  $1 \leq m \leq k$ . For n = k+1, we get that:

$$[a_1 + \dots + a_{k+1}p^k]_{p^{k+1}} = [b_1 + \dots + b_{k+1}p^k]_{p^{k+1}}$$

or that:

$$(a_1 - b_1) + \dots + (a_{k+1} - b_{k+1})p^k \equiv 0 \pmod{p^{k+1}}$$

Because of the induction hypothesis that all  $1 \le m \le k$  has  $a_m - b_m = 0$ . Thus:

$$(a_{k+1} - b_{k+1})p^k \equiv 0 \pmod{p^{k+1}}$$

This implies that  $p \mid a_{k+1} - b_{k+1}$ . It follows from the same reasoning from n = 1 that  $a_{k+1} - b_{k+1}$  must be equal to 0, thus  $a_{k+1} = b_{k+1}$ . This proves that  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} = (b_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  and that  $\varphi$  is injective.

We now prove that  $\operatorname{im}(\varphi) = \mathbb{Z}_p$ . Let  $(r_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in \operatorname{im}(\varphi)$ . We get that  $r_{n+1} = [a_1 + \cdots + a_{n+1}p^n]_{p^{n+1}}$ . We then note that:

$$f_n(r_{n+1}) = [a_1 + \dots + a_n p^{n-1} + a_{n+1} p^n]_{p^n} = [a_1 + \dots + a_n p^{n-1}]_{p^n} = r_n$$

Thus, we proved that  $(r_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ , so  $\operatorname{im}(\varphi) \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_p$ . Meanwhile for  $(r_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ , we note that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we get that  $r_n = [x_n]_{p^n}$  where  $0 \le x_n \le p^n - 1$ . We then denote  $a_n = \lfloor x_n/p^{n-1} \rfloor$  and note that  $0 \le a_n \le p - 1$ , so  $a_n \in S$ . We note that

$$r_n = a_n p^{n-1} + x_n \% p^{n-1}$$

Observe that  $f_{n-1}(r_n) = [x\%p^{n-1}]_{p^{n-1}} = r_{n-1}$ , so we get that  $x\%p^{n-1} = x_{n-1}$ . We repeat the same procedure for  $r_{n-1}$  and get that  $x_{n-1} = a_{n-1} + x_{n-1}$ . We can repeat this until we reach  $x_1$  where  $x_1 = a_1 \cdot p^0 = a_1 = x_2\%p$ . Hence we get that:

$$r_n = [a_n p^n - 1 + a_{n-1} p^{n-2} + \dots + a_1]_{p^n}$$

Note that for all  $1 \leq k \leq n$ ,  $a_k \in S$  by our construction. Hence, there exists a  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in S^{\mathbb{N}}$  where  $\varphi((a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}) = (r_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ . Hence,  $(r_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in \operatorname{im}(\varphi)$ , so  $\operatorname{im}(\varphi) \supseteq \mathbb{Z}_p$  and we conclude that  $\operatorname{im}(\varphi) = \mathbb{Z}_p$ .

(d) **Lemma:** For  $(r_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ ,  $(r_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a unit iff  $r_1 \neq 0$ .

We assume  $r_1 = 0$ , so there does not exist an element a in  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  where  $a \cdot r_1 = 1$  because  $a \cdot r_1 = 0$ . We note that  $1 = (1)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ . Since there does not exist a  $(\hat{r}_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in \mathbb{Z}_p$  where  $r_1 \cdot \hat{r}_1 = 1$ , the inverse of  $(r_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  does not exist, so it is not a unit. Hence, we get that if  $(r_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a unit, then  $r_1 \neq 0$ .

For the converse, we assume  $r_1 \neq 1$ . We will construct a  $(b_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in \mathbb{Z}_p$  where  $(r_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \cdot (b_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} = (1)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  to show that the inverse exists. For  $b_1$ , we note that  $r_1$  is non-zero and since  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  is a field, we can denote  $b_1 = r_1^{-1}$ . We then assume for  $b_n$  that  $b_n \cdot r_n = 1$ . For  $b_{n+1}$ , we first note that  $f_n(r_{n+1}) = r_n$  and  $f_n(b_{n+1}) = b_n$ . We then note that there exists  $r, b \in \mathbb{Z}_p$  where  $0 < r, b < p^n$  and  $r_n = [r]_{p^n}$  and  $b_n = [b]_{p^n}$ . This implies non-negative integers c, d that:

$$r_{n+1} = [cp^n + r]_{p^{n+1}}$$
  
 $b_{n+1} = [dp^n + b]_{p^{n+1}}$ 

Hence, we get that:

$$r_{n+1} \cdot b_{n+1} = [cdp^{2n} + drp^n + cbp^n + rb]_{p^{n+1}}$$
  
=  $[drp^n + cbp^n + rb]_{p^{n+1}}$ 

Since  $rb \equiv 1 \pmod{p^n}$  There exists a non-negative integer e where  $rb = ep^n + 1$ . Hence we now get that:

$$r_{n+1} \cdot b_{n+1} = [drp^n + cbp^n + ep^n + 1]_{p^{n+1}}$$
$$= [p^n(dr + cb + e) + 1]_{p^{n+1}}$$

To achieve the desired  $p^n(dr+cb+e)+1\equiv 1\pmod{p^{n+1}}$ , we need to make  $p\mid dr+cd+e$ . In other words, we can express this as  $[dr+cb+e]_p=[0]_p$  in  $\mathbb{Z}/\mathbb{Z}_p$ . We first note that  $[r]_p$  is non-zero because  $r_1$  is non-zero and  $r_1=f_1\cdots\circ f_{n-1}\circ f_n(r)=[r]_p$ , so  $[r]_p^{-1}$  exists. Hence, if we denote d as the positive integer where  $[d]_p=[r]_p^{-1}\cdot(-[cb+e])$ . We get that  $([r]_p^{-1}\cdot(-[cb+e]))[r]_p+[cb+e]_p=[0]_p$  as desired. Hence, by denoting  $b_{n+1}=[dp^n+b]_{p^{n+1}}$ , we get that  $b_{n+1}\cdot r_{n+1}=[(dp^n+b)(cp^n+r)]_{p^{n+1}}=[1]_{p^{n+1}}$ . We have inductively created  $(b_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  that serves as the inverse of  $(r_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ , so we proved  $(r_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  is a unit.

**Remark** For  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in S^{\mathbb{N}}$  where  $\varphi((a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty})$  is equal to  $(u_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ , we note that  $[a_1] = u_1$ . The Lemma implies that  $(u_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a unit iff  $a_1$  is non-zero.

We assume  $\nu_p(a) = m$ . Let  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in S^{\mathbb{N}}$  and  $\varphi((a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}) = a$ . By the definition of  $\nu_p$ , we note that  $a_1, \dots, a_m$  are all equal to 0. Hence, we note that:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n p^{n-1} = p^m \cdot \sum_{n=m+1}^{\infty} a_n p^{n-m-1}$$

Hence, we denote the series  $(a_{n+m})_{n=1}^{\infty}$ . Since  $a_{m+1}$  is non-zero, we note that  $\varphi((a_{n+m})_{n=1}^{\infty})$  is a unit from the Lemma. We now show that  $p^m \cdot \varphi((a_{n+m})_{n=1}^{\infty}) = a$ . For all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , if  $n \leq m$ , then it implies  $p^n \mid p^m$ , so we get that:

$$[p^m \sum_{k=m+1}^{n+m} a_k p^{k-m}]_{p^n} = [0]_{p^n} = [a_n p^{n-1} + \dots + a_1]_{p^n}$$

Since  $a_n, \dots, a_1$  are all zeros. Meanwhile, for n > m, we get that

$$[p^m \sum_{k=m+1}^{n+m} a_k p^{k-m}]_{p^n} = [\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k p^{k-1}]_{p^n}$$

This shows that  $p^m \cdot \varphi((a_{n+m})_{n=1}^{\infty}) = \varphi((a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}) = a$ .

For the converse, we assume  $a = p^m u$  where u is a unit in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ . We note that we can express u as

$$u \mapsto \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n p^{n-1}$$

where  $a_1$  is non-zero from the Lemma since u is a unit. If we multiply  $p^m$ , we note that it is equivalent to:

$$p^m u \mapsto p^m \cdot \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n p^{n-1} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n p^{n+m-1}$$

Hence, we denote a  $(b_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in S^{\mathbb{N}}$  where for  $n \leq m$ , we get that  $b_n = 0$  and for n > m, we get that  $b_n = a_{n-m}$ . Hence,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n p^{n-1} = \sum_{n=1}^{m} 0p^{n-1} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n p^{n+m-1} \mapsto p^m u$$

Hence, we get that  $\nu_p(a) = \nu(p^m u) = \nu_p(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n p^{n-1}) = m+1-1 = m$  as desired as the first non-zero term is  $b_{m+1}$ .

(e) We first prove that  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  is an integral domain. Let  $a,b\in\mathbb{Z}_p$  and both are non-zero. We denote  $m=\nu_p(a)$  and  $n=\nu_p(b)$ . We also get that there exist units u,v where  $a=p^mu$  and  $b=p^nv$ . We then express  $u=(u_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  and  $v=(v_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ . Since  $u_1,v_1\in\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ . From the Lemma, since u and v are units,  $v_1$  and  $v_1$  are non-zeros, which implies  $v_1\cdot v_1$  is non-zero because all fields are integral domains. By the Lemma again, this further implies that  $v_1$  is a unit. Thus, we have that  $v_2$  is an integral domain that  $v_2$  is an end of  $v_2$  and  $v_3$  is non-zero. We then denote  $v_2$  is an end of  $v_3$  is non-zero. Hence,  $v_1$  is non-zero and  $v_2$  is an integral domain.

We can now prove that it is a Euclidean domain. We first denote  $\nu_p$  as the function tied to  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ . Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  where  $a \neq 0$ . We consider the cases as follow with  $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}_p$  for the form b = aq + r:

Case 1: If b = 0, then it follows that q = 0 and r = 0 where 0 = a0 + 0 = 0.

For the remaining cases, we assume  $b \neq 0$ . Thus, we can denote  $\nu_p(b) = m$  and  $\nu_p(a) = n$  and that  $b = p^m u$  and  $a = p^n v$  with u, v being units in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ .

Case 2: If m > n, then it follows that and r = 0 and  $q = p^{m-n}(v^{-1}u)$ . Thus,  $b = (p^n v)(p^{m-n}(v^{-1}u)) = p^m u = b$ . (Take notice that we had earlier shown with the integral domain proof that the multiplication between 2 arbitrary unit in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  is still a unit, so  $v^{-1}u$  is a unit.)

Case 3: If m = n, then it follows that and r = 0 and  $q = (v^{-1}u)$ . Thus,  $b = (p^n v)((v^{-1}u)) = p^m u = b$ .

Case 4: If m < n, then it follows that and  $r = p^m u$  and q = 0. Thus,  $b = (p^n v)0 + p^m u = p^m u = b$ . Since  $\nu_p(r) = m$ , we get that  $\nu_p(r) < \nu_p(a)$ .

We showed that in all cases, it is either r=0 or  $\nu_p(r)<\nu_p(a)$ . This proves that  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  is a Euclidean domain.