Solutions Manual to Accompany Introduction to ABSTRACT ALGEBRA

Fourth Edition

W. KEITH NICHOLSON



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Chapter 0

Preliminaries

0.1 PROOFS

- 1. (a) (1) If n = 2k, k an integer, then $n^2 = (2k)^2 = 4k^2$ is a multiple of 4.
 - (2) The converse is true: If n^2 is a multiple of 4 then n must be even because n^2 is odd when n is odd (Example 1).
 - (c) (1) Verify: $2^3 6 \cdot 2^2 + 11 \cdot 2 6 = 0$ and $3^3 6 \cdot 3^2 + 11 \cdot 3 6 = 0$.
 - (2) The converse is false: x = 1 is a counterexample. because

$$1^3 - 61^2 + 11 \cdot 1 - 6 \neq 0$$

- 2. (a) Either n = 2k or n = 2k + 1, for some integer k. In the first case $n^2 = 4k^2$; in the second $n^2 = 4(k^2 + k) + 1$.
 - (c) If n = 3k, then $n^3 n = 3(9k^3 k)$; if n = 3k + 1, then $n^3 - n = 3(9k^3 + 9k^2 + 2k)$.

if n = 3k + 2, then $n^3 - n = 3(9k^3 + 18k^2 + 11k + 2)$.

- 3. (a) (1) If n is not odd, then n = 2k, k an integer, $k \ge 1$, so n is not a prime.
 - (2) The converse is false: n = 9 is a counterexample; it is odd but is not a prime.
 - (c) (1) If $\sqrt{a} > \sqrt{b}$ then $(\sqrt{a})^2 > (\sqrt{b})^2$, that is a > b, contrary to the assumption.
 - (2) The converse is true: If $\sqrt{a} \leq \sqrt{b}$ then $(\sqrt{a})^2 \leq (\sqrt{b})^2$, that is $a \leq b$.
- 4. (a) If x > 0 and y > 0 assume $\sqrt{x+y} = \sqrt{x} + \sqrt{y}$. Squaring gives $x + y = x + 2\sqrt{xy} + y$, whence $2\sqrt{xy} = 0$. This means xy = 0 so x = 0 or y = 0, contradicting our assumption.

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2 0. Preliminaries

- (c) Assume all have birthdays in different months. Then there can be at most 12 people, one for each month, contrary to hypothesis.
- 5. (a) n = 11 is a counterexample because then $n^2 + n + 11 = 11 \cdot 13$ is not prime. Note that $n^2 + n + 11$ is prime if $1 \le n \le 9$ as is readily verified, but n = 10 is also a counterexample as $10^2 + 10 + 11 = 11^2$.
 - (c) n = 6 is a counterexample because there are then 31 regions. Note that the result holds if $2 \le n \le 5$.

0.2 SETS

- 1. (a) $A = \{x \mid x = 5k, k \in \mathbb{Z}, k \ge 1\}$
- 2. (a) $\{1, 3, 5, 7, \ldots\}$
 - (c) $\{-1, 1, 3\}$
 - (e) $\{ \} = \emptyset$ is the empty set by Example 3.
- 3. (a) Not equal: $-1 \in A$ but $-1 \notin B$.
 - (c) Equal to $\{a, l, o, y\}$.
 - (e) Not equal: $0 \in A$ but $0 \notin B$.
 - (g) Equal to $\{-1, 0, 1\}$.
- 4. (a) \emptyset , {2}
 - (c) $\{1\}, \{3\}, \{1,2\}, \{1,3\}, \{2,3\}, \{1,2,3\}$
- 5. (a) True. $B \subseteq C$ means each element of B (in particular A) is an element of C.
 - (c) False. For example, $A = \{1\}, B = C = \{\{1\}, 2\}.$
- 6. (a) Clearly $A \cap B \subseteq A$ and $A \cap B \subseteq B$; If $X \subseteq A$ and $X \subseteq B$, then $x \in X$ implies $x \in A$ and $x \in B$, that is $x \in A \cap B$. Thus $X \subseteq A \cap B$.
- 7. If $x \in A \cup (B_1 \cap B_2 \cap \ldots \cap B_n)$, then $x \in A$ or $x \in B_i$ for all *i*. Thus $x \in A \cup B_i$ for all *i*, that is $x \in (A \cup B_1) \cap (A \cup B_2) \cap \ldots \cap (A \cup B_n)$. Thus

 $A \cup (B_1 \cap B_2 \cap \ldots \cap B_n) \subseteq (A \cup B_1) \cap (A \cup B_2) \cap \ldots \cap (A \cup B_n),$

and the reverse argument proves equality. The other formula is proved similarly.

9. $A = \{1, 2\}, B = \{1, 3\}, C = \{2, 3\}.$

- 10. (a) Let $A \times B = B \times A$, and fix $a \in A$ and $b \in B$ (since these sets are nonempty). If $x \in A$, then $(x, b) \in A \times B = B \times A$. This implies $x \in B$; so $A \subseteq B$. Similarly $B \subseteq A$.
 - (c) If $x \in A \cap B$, then $x \in A$ and $x \in B$, so $(x, x) \in A \times B$. If $(x, x) \in A \times B$, then $x \in A$ and $x \in B$, so $x \in A \cap B$.
- 11. (a) $(x,y) \in A \times (B \cap C)$

 $\begin{array}{ll} \text{if and only if} & x \in A \text{ and } y \in (B \cap C) \\ \text{if and only if} & (x,y) \in A \times B \text{ and } (x,y) \in A \times C \\ \text{if and only if} & (x,y) \in (A \times B) \cap (A \times C). \end{array}$

(c) $(x, y) \in (A \cap B) \times (A' \cap B')$ if and only if $x \in A \cap B$ and $y \in A' \cap B'$ if and only if $(x, y) \in A \times A'$ and $(x, y) \in (B \times B')$ if and only if $(x, y) \in (A \times A') \cap (B \times B')$.

0.3 MAPPINGS

- 1. (a) Not a mapping: $\alpha(1) = -1$ is not in \mathbb{N} .
 - (c) Not a mapping: $\alpha(-1) = \sqrt{-1}$ is not in \mathbb{R} .
 - (e) Not a mapping: $\alpha(6) = \alpha(2 \cdot 3) = (2, 3)$ and $\alpha(6) = \alpha(1 \cdot 6) = (1, 6)$.
 - (g) Not a mapping: $\alpha(2)$ is not defined.
- 2. (a) Bijective. $\alpha(x) = \alpha(x_1)$ implies $3 4x = 3 4x_1$, so $x = x_1$, and α is one-to-one. Given $y \in \mathbb{R}$, $y = \alpha \left[\frac{1}{4}(3-y)\right]$, so α is onto.
 - (c) Onto: If $m \in N$, then $m = \alpha(2m 1) = \alpha(2m)$. Not one-to-one: In fact we have $\alpha(1) = 1 = \alpha(2)$.
 - (e) One-to-one: $\alpha(x) = \alpha(x_1)$ implies $(x + 1, x 1) = (x_1 + 1, x_1 1)$, whence $x = x_1$. Not onto: $(0,0) \neq \alpha(x)$ for any x because (0,0) = (x + 1, x 1) would give x = 1 and x = -1.
 - (g) One-to-one: $\alpha(a) = \alpha(a_1)$ implies $(a, b_0) = (a_1, b_0)$ implies $a = a_1$. Not onto if $|B| \ge 2$ since no element (a, b) is in $\alpha(A)$ for $b \ne b_0$.
- 3. (a) Given $c \in C$, let $c = \beta \alpha(a)$ with $a \in A$ (because $\beta \alpha$ is onto). Hence $c = \beta(\alpha(a))$, where $\alpha(a) \in B$, so β is onto.
 - (c) Let $\beta(b) = \beta(b_1)$. Write $b = \alpha(a)$ and $b_1 = \alpha(a_1)$ (since α is onto). Then $\beta\alpha(a) = \beta(\alpha(a)) = \beta(b) = \beta(b_1) = \beta(\alpha(a_1)) = \beta\alpha(a_1)$, so $a = a_1$ (because $\beta\alpha$ is one-to-one), and hence $b = b_1$ as required.
 - (e) Let $b \in B$. As α is onto, let $b = \alpha(a), a \in A$. Hence

$$\beta(b) = \beta(\alpha(a)) = \beta\alpha(a) = \beta_1\alpha(a) = \beta_1(\alpha(a)) = \beta_1(b).$$

Since $b \in B$ was arbitrary, this shows that $\beta = \beta_1$.

- 5. (a) If $\alpha^2 = \alpha$, let $x \in \alpha(A)$, say $x = \alpha(a)$. Then $\alpha(x) = \alpha^2(a) = \alpha(a) = x$. Conversely, let $\alpha(x) = x$ for all $x \in \alpha(A)$. If $a \in A$, write $\alpha(a) = x$. Then $\alpha^2(a) = \alpha(\alpha(a)) = \alpha(x) = x = \alpha(a)$, so $\alpha^2 = \alpha$.
 - (c) $\alpha^2 = (\beta\gamma)(\beta\gamma) = \beta(\gamma\beta)\gamma = \beta(1_A)\gamma = \beta\gamma = \alpha.$
- 7. (a) If $y \in \mathbb{R}$, write $\alpha^{-1}(y) = x$. Hence $y = \alpha(x)$, that is y = ax + b. Solving for x gives $\alpha^{-1}(y) = x = \frac{1}{a}(y-b)$. As this is possible for all $y \in \mathbb{R}$, this shows that $\alpha^{-1}(y) = \frac{1}{a}(y-b)$ for all $y \in \mathbb{R}$.
 - (c) First verify that $\alpha^2 = 1_{\mathbb{N}}$, that is $\alpha \alpha = 1_{\mathbb{N}}$. Hence $\alpha^{-1} = \alpha$ by the definition of the inverse of a function.
- 9. Let $\beta \alpha = 1_A$. Then α is one-to-one because $\alpha(a) = \alpha(a_1)$ implies that $a = \beta \alpha(a) = \beta \alpha(a_1) = a_1$; and β is onto because if $a \in A$ then $a = \beta \alpha(a) = \beta(\alpha(a))$ and $\alpha(a) \in B$. Hence both are bijections as |A| = |B| (Theorem 2), and hence α^{-1} and β^{-1} exist. But then $\beta^{-1} = \beta^{-1} \mathbf{1}_A = \beta^{-1}(\beta \alpha) = \alpha$. Similarly $\alpha^{-1} = \beta$.

- 4 0. Preliminaries
- 11. Let $\varphi(\alpha) = \varphi(\alpha_1)$ where α and α_1 are in M. Then $(\alpha(1), \alpha(2)) = (\alpha_1(1), \alpha_1(2))$, so $\alpha(1) = \alpha_1(1)$ and $\alpha(2) = \alpha_1(2)$. Thus $\alpha = \alpha_1$ (by Theorem 1), so φ is oneto-one. Conversely, let $(x, y) \in B \times B$, and define $\alpha_2 : \{1, 2\} \to B$ by $\alpha_2(1) = x$ and $\alpha_2(2) = y$. Then $\alpha_2 \in M$, and $\varphi(\beta) = (\alpha_2(1), \alpha_2(2)) = (x, y)$. Thus φ is onto. Then $\varphi^{-1} : B \times B \to M$ has action $\varphi^{-1}(x, y) = \alpha_2$ where $\alpha_2(1) = x$ and $\alpha_2(2) = y$.
- 13. For each $a \in A$ there are *m* choices for $\alpha(a) \in B$. Since |A| = n, there are m^n choices in all, and they all lead to different functions α because α is determined by these choices.
- 15. (a) \Rightarrow (b) Given $b \in B$, write $A_b = \{a \in A \mid \alpha(a) = b\}$. Then $A_b \neq \emptyset$ for each b (α is onto), so choose $a_b \in A_b$ for each $b \in B$. Then define $\beta : B \to A$ by $\beta(b) = a_b$. Then $\alpha\beta(a) = \alpha(\beta(b)) = \alpha(a_b) = b$ for each b; that is $\alpha\beta = 1_B$.
 - (c) \Rightarrow (a) If $b_0 \in B \alpha(A)$, we deduce a contradiction. Choose $a_0 \in A$, and define $\beta : B \to B$ by:

$$\beta(b) = \begin{cases} b & \text{if } b \neq b_0\\ \alpha(a_0) & \text{if } b = b_0 \end{cases}$$

Then $\alpha(a) \neq b_0$ for all $a \in A$, so

$$\beta\alpha(a) = \beta(\alpha(a)) = \alpha(a) = 1_B(\alpha(a)) = 1_B\alpha(a)$$

for all $a \in A$. Hence, $\beta \alpha = 1_B \alpha$, so $\beta = 1_B$ by (c). Finally then $b_0 = \beta(b_0) = \alpha(a_0)$, a contradiction.

0.4 EQUIVALENCES

1. (a) It is an equivalence by Example 4.

 $[-1] = [0] = [1] = \{-1, 0, 1\}, [2] = \{2\}, [-2] = \{-2\}.$

- (c) Not an equivalence. $x \equiv x$ only if x = 1, so the reflexive property fails.
- (e) Not an equivalence. $1 \equiv 2$ but $2 \not\equiv 1$, so the symmetric property fails.
- (g) Not an equivalence. $x \equiv x$ is *never* true. Note that the transitive property also fails.
- (i) It is an equivalence by Example 4. $[(a,b)] = \{(x,y) \mid y 3x = b 3a\}$ is the line with slope 3 through (a,b).
- 2. In every case $(a, b) \equiv (a_1, b_1)$ if $\alpha(a, b) = \alpha(a_1, b_1)$ for an appropriate function $\alpha : A \to \mathbb{R}$. Hence \equiv is the kernel equivalence of α .
 - (a) The classes are indexed by the possible sums of elements of U.

Sum is 2: $[(1,1)] = \{(1,1)\}$ Sum is 3: $[(1,2)] = [(2,1)] = \{(1,2), (2,1)\}$ Sum is 4: $[(1,3)] = [(2,2)] = [(3,1)] = \{(1,3), (2,2), (3,1)\}$ Sum is 5: $[(2,3)] = [(3,2)] = \{(2,3), (3,2)\}$ Sum is 6: $[(3,3)] = \{(3,3)\}.$ (c) The classes are indexed by the first components.

First component is 1: $[(1,1)] = [(1,2)] = [(1,3)] = \{(1,1), (1,2), (1,3)\}$ First component is 2: $[(2,1)] = [(2,2)] = [(3,2)] = \{(2,1), (2,2), (2,3)\}$ First component is 3: $[(3,1)] = [(3,2)] = [(3,3)] = \{(3,1), (3,2), (3,3)\}.$

- 3. (a) It is the kernel equivalence of $\alpha : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$ where $\alpha(n) = n^2$. Here $[n] = \{-n, n\}$ for each n. Define $\sigma : \mathbb{Z}_{\equiv} \to B$ by $\sigma[n] = |n|$, where |n| is the absolute value. Then $[m] = [n] \Leftrightarrow m \equiv n \Leftrightarrow |m| = |n|$. Thus σ is well-defined and one-to-one. It is clearly onto.
 - (c) It is the kernel equivalence of $\alpha : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ where $\alpha(x, y) = y$. Define $\sigma : (\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R})_{\equiv} \to B$ by $\sigma[(x, y)] = y$. Then

$$[(x,y)] = [(x_1,y_1)] \Leftrightarrow (x,y) \equiv (x_1,y_1) \Leftrightarrow y = y_1,$$

so σ is well-defined and one-to-one. It is clearly onto.

(e) Reflexive: $x \equiv x \in \mathbb{Z}$;

Symmetric: $x \equiv y \Rightarrow x - y \in \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow y - x \in \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow y \equiv x$; Transitive: $x \equiv y$ and $y \equiv z$ gives $x - y \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $y - z \in \mathbb{Z}$. Hence

$$x-z = (x-y) + (y-z) \in \mathbb{Z}$$
, that is $x \equiv z$.

Now define $\sigma : \mathbb{R}_{\equiv} \to B$ by $\sigma[x] = x - \lfloor x \rfloor$ where $\lfloor x \rfloor$ denotes the greatest integer $\leq x$. Then $[x] = [y] \Rightarrow x \equiv y \Rightarrow x - y = n, n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Thus x = y + n, so $\lfloor x \rfloor = \lfloor y \rfloor + n$. Hence,

$$x - \lfloor x \rfloor = (y + n) - (\lfloor y \rfloor + n) = y - \lfloor y \rfloor,$$

and σ is well-defined. To see that σ is one-to-one, let $\sigma[x] = \sigma[y]$, that is $x - \lfloor x \rfloor = y - \lfloor y \rfloor$. Then $x - y = \lfloor y \rfloor - \lfloor x \rfloor \in \mathbb{Z}$, so $x \equiv y$, that is $\lfloor x \rfloor = \lfloor y \rfloor$. Finally, σ is onto because, if $0 \leq x < 1$, $\lfloor x \rfloor = 0$, so $x = \sigma[x]$.

5. (a) If $a \in A$, then $a \in C_i$ and $a \in D_j$ for some i and j, so $a \in C_i \cap D_j$. If $C_i \cap D_j \neq C_{i'} \cap D_{j'}$, then either $i \neq i'$ or $j \neq j'$. Thus

$$(C_i \cap D_j) \cap (C_{i'} \cap D_{j'}) = \emptyset$$

in either case.

- 7. (a) Not well defined: $\alpha(2) = \alpha\left(\frac{2}{1}\right) = 2$ and $\alpha(2) = \alpha\left(\frac{4}{2}\right) = 4$.
 - (c) Not well defined: $\alpha\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = 3$ and $\alpha\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \alpha\left(\frac{2}{4}\right) = 6$.
- 9. (a) $[a] = [a_1] \Leftrightarrow a \equiv a_1 \Leftrightarrow \alpha(a) = \alpha(a_1)$. The implication \Rightarrow proves σ is well defined; the implication \Leftarrow shows it is one-to-one. If α is onto, so is σ .
 - (c) If we regard $\sigma: A_{\equiv} \to a(A)$, then σ is a bijection.

Chapter 1

Integers and Permutations

1.1 INDUCTION

- 1. In each case we give the equation that makes p_k imply p_{k+1} .
 - (a) $k(2k-1) + (4k+1) = 2k^2 + 3k + 1 = (k+1)(2k+1)$
 - (c) $\frac{1}{4}k^2(k+1)^2 + (k+1)^3 = \frac{1}{4}(k+1)^2(k^2+4k+4) = \frac{1}{4}(k+1)^2(k+2)^2$
 - (e) $\frac{1}{12}k(k+1)(k+2)(3k+5) + (k+1)(k+2)^2$ = $\frac{1}{12}(k+1)(k+2)(3k^2+17k+24) = \frac{1}{12}(k+1)(k+2)(k+3)(3k+8)$
 - (g) $\frac{k}{3}(4k^2 1) + (2k+1)^2 = \frac{k}{3}(2k-1)(2k+1) + (2k+1)^2$ = $\frac{1}{3}(2k+1)[2k^2 + 5k+3] = \frac{1}{3}(2k+1)(k+1)(2k+3)$ = $\frac{1}{3}(k+1)[4(k+1)^2 - 1]$

(i)
$$1 - \frac{1}{(k+1)!} + \frac{k+1}{(k+2)!} = 1 - \frac{1}{(k+2)!} [(k+2) - (k+1)] = 1 - \frac{1}{(k+2)!}$$

- 2. In each case we give the inequality that makes p_k imply p_{k+1} .
 - (a) $2^{k+1} = 2 \cdot 2^k > 2 \cdot k \ge k+1.$
 - (c) If $k! \leq 2^{k^2}$, then $(k+1)! = (k+1)k! \leq (k+1)2^{k^2} \leq 2^{(k+1)^2}$ provided $k+1 \leq 2^{2k+1}$. This latter inequality follows, again by induction on $k \geq 1$, because $2^{2k+3} = 4 \cdot 2^{2k+1} \geq 4(k+1) \geq k+2$.

(e)
$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1}} + \dots + \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{k+1}} \ge \sqrt{k} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{k+1}} = \frac{\sqrt{k^2 + k} + 1}{\sqrt{k+1}} \ge \frac{k+1}{\sqrt{k+1}} = \sqrt{k+1}.$$

- 3. In each case we give the calculation that makes p_k imply p_{k+1} .
 - (a) If $k^3 + (k+1)^3 + (k+2)^3 = 9m$, then $(k+1)^3 + (k+2)^3 + (k+3)^3 = 9m k^3 + (k+3)^3 = 9m + 9k^2 + 27k + 27k$.
 - (c) If $3^{2k+1} + 2^{k+2} = 7m$, then $3^{2k+3} + 2^{k+3} = 9(7m - 2^{k+2}) + 2^{k+3} = 9 \cdot 7m - 2^{k+2}(9 - 2).$

Student Solution Manual to Accompany Introduction to Abstract Algebra, Fourth Edition. W. Keith Nicholson.

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