

# Dummit & Foote Abstract Algebra 3rd Ed

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## Chapter 0

### 0.1.1

This exercise is contained within 0.1.4

### 0.1.2

$$(Q + P)X = QX + PX = XQ + XP = X(Q + P) \text{ Thus } (Q + P) \in B$$

### 0.1.3

$$(QP)X = Q(PX) = Q(XP) = (QX)P = (XQ)P = X(QP) \text{ Thus } (QP) \in B$$

### 0.1.4

Take  $p, q, r, s \in \mathfrak{R}$  s.t.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} p & q \\ r & s \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } AX = XA \implies \begin{pmatrix} p & p+q \\ r & r+s \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p+r & q+s \\ r & s \end{pmatrix}$$

From here, we compare the entries on either side; we see  $p = p + r \implies r = 0$ ,  
and  $p + q = q + s \implies p = s$

Thus the general form for  $A \in B$  is  $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix}$

As a sanity check, we check  $AX = XA$  and get  $\begin{pmatrix} a & a+b \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & a+b \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix}$

### 0.1.5

(a) No, take  $f(1/2) = 1$  and  $f(2/4) = 2$ , thus  $a = a \not\Rightarrow f(a) = f(a)$

(b) Yes, since there is no information lost in this map, it must be well defined (i.e. you aren't throwing away any piece of the input)

### 0.1.6

This is a well defined map; each real number has a unique decimal representation, thus there is no way to change the first digit after the decimal point.

### 0.1.7

This relation is predicated on the  $=$  relation under the image of  $f$ , so this is clearly a equivalence relation, but we will show the properties nonetheless:

Reflexive -  $a \sim a \implies f(a) = f(a) \checkmark$

Symmetric -  $a \sim b \implies f(a) = f(b) \implies f(b) = f(a) \implies b \sim a \checkmark$

Transitive -  $a \sim b, b \sim c \implies f(a) = f(b), f(b) = f(c) \implies f(a) = f(c) \implies a \sim c \checkmark$

This relation is the definition of a fiber, as it relates all elements of the domain with the same value under  $f$ . If  $f$  were not surjective, we could find some element  $b \in B$  such that  $f(a) \neq b \forall a \in A$ , and the fiber of  $f$  over  $b$  is the empty set. This empty set breaks our equivalence partitioning for our relation; however if we restrict  $f$  to surjection, the relation partitions  $A$  nicely into equivalence classes!

### 0.2.1

Syntax:  $ax + by = gcd; lcm = (xy)/gcd$

(a)  $2 * 20 + (-3) * 13 = 1; lcm = (20 * 13)$

(b)  $27 * 69 + (-5) * 372 = 3; lcm = (23 * 372)$

(c)  $8 * 792 + (-23) * 275 = 11; lcm = (792 * 25)$

(d)  $(-126) * 11391 + 253 * 5673 = 3; lcm = (3797 * 5673)$

(e)  $(-105) * 1761 + 118 * 1567 = 1; lcm = (1761 * 1567)$

(f)  $(-17) * 507885 + 142 * 60808 = 691; lcm = (735 * 60808)$

### 0.2.2

We have for  $a, b, n, m \in \mathbb{Z}; a = nk; b = mk \implies as + bt = (nk)s + (mk)t = k(ns + mt)$  and  $k$  divides  $as + bt \forall s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$

### 0.2.3

We have  $n = mk$  for some  $m, k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Take  $a = mq$  and  $b = kp$  where  $k \nmid q$  and  $m \nmid p$ , thus  $n \nmid a$  and  $n \nmid b$ . Consider  $ab = mqp = (mk)qp = n(qp) \implies n \mid ab$

### 0.2.4

$ax + by = a(x_0 + \frac{b}{d}t) + b(y_0 - \frac{a}{d}t) = ax_0 + \frac{ab}{d}t + by_0 - \frac{ab}{d}t = ax_0 + by_0 + (\frac{ab}{d} - \frac{ab}{d})t = ax_0 + by_0 + 0t$ ; this is clearly invariant under choice of  $t$  and represents a valid solution space.

### 0.2.5

$\varphi(1) = 1; \varphi(2) = 1; \varphi(3) = 2; \varphi(4) = 2; \varphi(5) = 4;$

$\varphi(6) = 2; \varphi(7) = 6; \varphi(8) = 4; \varphi(9) = 6; \varphi(10) = 4;$

$\varphi(11) = 10; \varphi(12) = 4; \varphi(13) = 12; \varphi(14) = 6; \varphi(15) = 8;$

$\varphi(16) = 8; \varphi(17) = 16; \varphi(18) = 6; \varphi(19) = 18; \varphi(20) = 8;$

$\varphi(21) = 12; \varphi(22) = 10; \varphi(23) = 22; \varphi(24) = 8; \varphi(25) = 20;$

$\varphi(26) = 12; \varphi(27) = 18; \varphi(28) = 12; \varphi(29) = 28; \varphi(30) = 8;$

### 0.2.6

Take  $S \subset \mathbb{N}$  and  $P$  to be the complement of  $S$  with  $1 \in S$  and  $s \in S \implies s+1 \in S$   
 Now take  $p \in P$  such that  $p$  is the minimal element in  $P$ . We know  $p \neq 1$  since  $1 \in S$   
 Thus  $p-1$  exists and can't be in  $P$  since  $p$  is the minimal element of  $P$ .  $p-1 \notin P \implies p-1 \in S \implies p-1+1 = p \in S$ . From here we see  $p$  is in  $S$  and the complement of  $S$  and can not exist, Thus  $P$  must be empty and  $S = \mathbb{N}$

### 0.2.7

The power of  $p$  in  $pb^2$  is bound to be odd, where the power of  $p$  in  $a^2$  is bound to be even.  
 More explicitly, taking  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  we can write  $a = k_1^{a_1} \dots k_n^{a_n} p^{a_p}$ ;  $b = q_1^{b_1} \dots q_n^{b_n} p^{b_p}$  where  $q_i, k_i$  are primes. This means  $a^2 = k_1^{2a_1} \dots k_n^{2a_n} p^{2a_p}$  and  $pb^2 = q_1^{2b_1} \dots q_n^{2b_n} p^{2b_p+1}$ , so we need to find  $a_p, b_p$  s.t.  $2a_p = 2b_p + 1$  though this is impossible.

### 0.2.8

First we start by counting up to  $n$  by multiples of  $p$ . Note there are  $\left\lfloor \frac{n}{p} \right\rfloor$  such numbers. At this point, we have counted up all single multiples of  $p$ , though we have yet to account for the multiples of  $p^2$  (i.e. every  $p^{th}$  multiple of  $p$ ). In order to get the number of  $p^2$  terms, we count up to  $n$  over multiples of  $p^2$  for a total number of  $\left\lfloor \frac{n}{p^2} \right\rfloor$  (looks familiar). This counting method continues up to the  $i^{th}$  power. Now to arrive at the largest power of  $p$  that divides into  $n$ , we sum up all these terms:  $\sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p^i} \right\rfloor$

### 0.2.9

Haskell implementation

*linearGCD* :: Integer -> Integer -> (Integer, Integer, Integer)

*linearGCD* a b = (d, u, v) where

(d, x, y) = eGCD 0 1 1 0 (abs a) (abs b)

u | a < 0 = negate x

| otherwise = x

v | b < 0 = negate y

| otherwise = y

eGCD n1 o1 n2 o2 r s

| (s == 0) = (r, o1, o2)

| otherwise = case r 'quotRem' s of

(q, t) -> eGCD (o1 - q \* n1) n1 (o2 - q \* n2) n2 s t

### 0.2.10

Let  $p$  be a prime larger than  $N + 1$  such that  $\varphi(p^k) = (p - 1)(p^{k-1}) > N$ . Therefore any prime  $q$  dividing  $n$  is no larger than  $N + 1$  and there are only finitely many choices for this  $q$ . Furthermore, we know  $\varphi(n) = \varphi(q^k)\varphi(m)$  for some number  $m$  that is not divisible by  $q$ . Note that  $\varphi(m)$  is constant, so this equation relies on  $k$ . This limits  $k \leq \log_q(\frac{N}{m})$ . Now we see that both the choice for  $q$  and  $k$  are of a finite set, thus there are finitely many numbers such that  $\varphi(n) = N$ .

Let's say there is some number  $M$  such that  $\varphi(n) < M \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Since we are mapping an infinite set,  $\mathbb{N}$ , onto a finite set, we are bound to break the finite ceiling we set in the last previous portion (i.e. at least one of the numbers from  $1 \dots M$  will have an infinite amount of numbers mapped to it). Thus we may not incur a maximum  $M$ .

### 0.2.11

Take  $d = p_1^{a_1} \dots p_n^{a_n}$  where  $p_i$  is a prime that divides  $d$ . Since  $d|n$ ,  $n = p_1^{b_1} \dots p_n^{b_n} q$  where  $a_i \leq b_i$ . From here,  $\varphi(d) = \varphi(p_1^{a_1}) \dots \varphi(p_n^{a_n}) = p_1^{a_1-1} \dots p_n^{a_n-1} (p_1 - 1) \dots (p_n - 1)$  and  $\varphi(n) = \varphi(p_1^{b_1}) \varphi(p_2^{b_2}) \dots \varphi(p_n^{b_n}) \varphi(q) = p_1^{b_1-1} \dots p_n^{b_n-1} (p_1 - 1) \dots (p_n - 1) \varphi(q)$ . Now since  $a_i - 1 \leq b_i - 1$ ,  $\varphi(d) | \varphi(n)$

### 0.3.1

$$\mathbb{Z}/18\mathbb{Z} = \{\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \bar{2}, \bar{3}, \bar{4}, \bar{5}, \bar{6}, \bar{7}, \bar{8}, \bar{9}, \bar{10}, \bar{11}, \bar{12}, \bar{13}, \bar{14}, \bar{15}, \bar{16}, \bar{17}\}$$

$$\text{Where } \bar{a} = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} | x = 18k + a\}$$

### 0.3.2

For some  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ , we have  $a = qn + r \implies a \equiv r \pmod{n} \implies \bar{a} = \bar{r}$ . Since  $0 \leq r < n$ ,  $\bar{a} \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ ; if we take  $0 \leq a, b < n$  where  $a \neq b$  and  $a - b > 0 \implies n \nmid a - b \implies \bar{a} \neq \bar{b}$  thus the residue classes are distinct.

### 0.3.3

First, note that  $10 \equiv 1 \pmod{9}$  so  $10^n \equiv 1^n \pmod{9}$ .

$$\text{Now we have } a \equiv \overline{a_n 10^n + a_{n-1} 10^{n-1} + \dots + a_0} \equiv \overline{a_n 10^n} + \dots + \overline{a_0} \equiv \overline{a_n 10^n} + \dots + \overline{a_0} \equiv \overline{a_n} + \dots + \overline{a_0} \pmod{9}$$

### 0.3.4

$$37 \equiv 8 \pmod{29}; 8^2 \equiv 6 \pmod{29}; 8^4 \equiv 7 \pmod{29}; 8^8 \equiv 20 \pmod{29};$$

$$8^{16} \equiv 23 \pmod{29}; 8^{32} \equiv 7 \pmod{29}; 8^{64} \equiv 20 \pmod{29}$$

$$8^{100} = 8^{64} 8^{32} 8^4 \equiv 20 * 7 * 7 \pmod{29} \equiv 23 \pmod{29}$$

### 0.3.5

$$9^5 \equiv 49 \pmod{100}; 9^{10} \equiv 1 \pmod{100}; (9^{10})^{150} \equiv (1)^{150} \equiv 1 \pmod{100}$$

### 0.3.6

$$0 * 0 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}; 1 * 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}; 2 * 2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}; 3 * 3 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$$

### 0.3.7

As seen in the previous exercise, the addition of any two squares can only equal 0, 1, and 2.

### 0.3.8

We can see right away the only way  $a^2, b^2, c^2 \in \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$  can satisfy this is if  $a^2 = b^2 = c^2 = 0$ . This means  $a, b, c$  are all even. We now see  $a^2, b^2, c^2$  all have a factor of  $2^2$  which implies there is a smaller solution available.

### 0.3.9

This problem reduces to showing that the odd elements of  $\mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z}$  square to  $\bar{1}$   
 $1 * 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{8}; 3 * 3 \equiv 1 \pmod{8}; 5 * 5 \equiv 1 \pmod{8}; 7 * 7 \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$

### 0.3.10

The elements in  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^*$  are all numbers with multiplicative inverses modulo  $n$ . In order for  $a^{-1}$  to exist,  $(a, n) = 1$ . By definition,  $\varphi(n)$  is the number of relatively prime numbers less than  $n$ . This will be hashed out in more detail in the following exercises!

### 0.3.11

Take  $a, b \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^* \implies \exists a^{-1}, b^{-1}$  such that  $a * b * b^{-1} * a^{-1} = a * 1 * a^{-1} = a * a^{-1} = 1$   
 Thus  $a * b \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^*$  where  $b^{-1} * a^{-1}$  is the inverse

### 0.3.12

We can write  $a = a_1 * (a, n); n = n_1 * (a, n); a * n_1 = a_1 * n_1 * (a, n) = a_1 * n \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$ . Now assume  $\exists c$  s.t.  $ac \equiv 1 \pmod{n} \implies \exists k$  s.t.  $kn = ac - 1$  Since  $(a, n) | ac - kn \forall c, k \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \implies (a, n) | 1 \implies (a, n) = 1$ . However, we have taken  $(a, n) > 1$  and a contradiction arises!

### 0.3.13

From Euclid's algorithm, we have  $ac + kn = (a, n) = 1$  for some  $c, k \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \implies ac \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

### 0.3.14

From 12 we see all relatively prime  $a$  can't have a multiplicative inverse in  $\mathbb{Z}$ , and from 13 we see all relatively prime  $a$  has an inverse that may be computed with Euclid's algorithm; thus we have  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^* = a | (a, n) = 1$  For a concrete example, we can provide elements that either send some  $a$  to 0, or 1

$1 * 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{12}; 2 * 6 \equiv 0 \pmod{12}; 3 * 4 \equiv 0 \pmod{12}; 5 * 5 \equiv 1 \pmod{12};$   
 $7 * 7 \equiv 1 \pmod{12}; 8 * 3 \equiv 0 \pmod{12}; 9 * 4 \equiv 0 \pmod{12}; 10 * 6 \equiv 0 \pmod{12}; 11 * 11 \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$

### 0.3.15

- (a)  $(13)^{-1} \equiv 17 \pmod{20}$
- (b)  $(69)^{-1} \equiv 40 \pmod{89}$
- (c)  $(1891)^{-1} \equiv 253 \pmod{3797}$
- (d)  $(6003722857)^{-1} \equiv 77695236753 \pmod{77695236973}$

### 0.3.16

Haskell implementation

*reduceMod* :: Integer -> Integer

*reduceMod* a n | (a < 0) = *reduceMod* (a + n) n  
                  | (a > n - 1) = *reduceMod* (a - n) n  
                  | otherwise = a

*multiMod* :: Integer -> Integer -> Integer -> Integer

*multiMod* a b n = *reduceMod* (a \* b) n

*addMod* :: Integer -> Integer -> Integer -> Integer

*addMod* a b n = *reduceMod* (a + b) n

*getInverse* :: Integer -> Integer -> Maybe Integer

*getInverse* a n = *relativePrime* where

*relativePrime* | (gcd == 1) = Just (*reduceMod* inverse n)  
                  | otherwise = Nothing  
(gcd, inverse, \_) = *linearGCD* a n

## Chapter 1

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