

Introduction to Algebraic Structure

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- ▶ **Algebra** (*meaning: reunion of broken parts*):
 - ▶ Algebra is the study of mathematical symbols and the rules for manipulating these symbols
 - ▶ It includes everything from elementary equation solving to the study of abstractions such as **groups**, **rings**, and **fields**.

Why Study Algebra?

- ▶ Algebra is a powerful tool, its use is widely applied in many domains.
- ▶ All modern technology relies on mathematics and algebra.
 - ▶ Numerical Methods, Image Processing, Machine Learning, etc.
- ▶ Studying algebra helps your mind to think logically and break down and solve problems.

Information

The values of the variables are the boolean values, true and false, usually denoted 1 and 0, respectively (or bit in computer).

The basic operations:

- ▶ AND (conjunction)
- ▶ OR (disjunction)
- ▶ NOT (negation)

bit \rightarrow byte

Information

Applications:

- ▶ Data Transfer: Bits and bytes are transmitted one at a time in serial transmission
- ▶ Storage: Bits and bytes are used to store data in digital devices
- ▶ Bar code: Barcode is a visual, machine-readable representation of data

Cryptography

Cryptography is the study of sending and receiving secret messages.

- ▶ The message to be sent is called the **plaintext** message. The disguised message is called the **ciphertext**.
- ▶ The plaintext and the ciphertext are both written in an **alphabet**, consisting of **letters** or **characters**.

Cryptography

A cryptosystem, or cipher:

- ▶ **encryption**, the process of transforming a plaintext message to a ciphertext message
- ▶ **decryption**, the reverse transformation of changing a ciphertext message into a plaintext message.

Cryptography

One of the first and most famous private key cryptosystems was the shift code used by Julius Caesar

- ▶ digitize the alphabet by letting $A = 00, B = 01, \dots, Z = 25$.
- ▶ encoding function $f(p) = p + 3 \pmod{26}$
- ▶ that is, $A \rightarrow D, B \rightarrow E, \dots, Z \rightarrow C$.

Cryptography

Suppose we receive the encoded message DOJHEUD. To decode this message, we have to digitize it:

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Cryptography

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$$3; 14; 9; 7; 4; 20; 3;$$

Next we apply the inverse transformation to get

$$0; 11; 6; 4; 1; 17; 0;$$

→ RSA Cryptosystem.

Coding theory

- ▶ A problem is raised when sending a message over a channel that could be affected by **noise**.
- ▶ The task is to encode and decode the information in a the manner that will allow the detection, and possibly the correction, of errors caused by noise.

Coding theory

- ▶ Suppose that the message to be encoded is a binary n -tuple (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)
 - ▶ The message is encoded into a binary $3n$ -tuple by simply repeating the message three times: $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \rightarrow (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n; x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n; x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$
-
- ▶ The original message is (0110) , then the transmitted message will be $(0110\ 0110\ 0110)$.
 - ▶ If the received codeword will be $(0110\ 1110\ 0110)$, which will be correctly decoded as (0110) .

A **statement** in logic or mathematics is an assertion that is either true or false.

- ▶ $5 + 3 - 1 * 0$
- ▶ All cats are black
- ▶ $5 < 0$
- ▶ $f(x) = x^3 + 2x + 10$

A **mathematical proof** is nothing more than a convincing **argument** about the accuracy of a statement.

Often a complex statement: *If p , then q* where p and q are both statements.

- ▶ p - **hypothesis**
- ▶ q - **conclusion**

Consider the following example: if $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ and $a \neq 0$, then

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

is the solution of the function

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if this entire statement is **true** and we can show that the hypothesis $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ with $a \neq 0$ is true, then the conclusion must be true.

- ▶ **Definition:** a precise and unambiguous description of the meaning of a mathematical term. It characterizes the meaning of a word by giving all the properties and only those properties that must be true.
- ▶ **Axiom:** a statement that is assumed to be true without proof. These are the basic building blocks from which all theorems are proved.

- ▶ **Theorem**: a mathematical statement that is proved using rigorous mathematical reasoning. In a mathematical paper, the term theorem is often reserved for the most important results.
- ▶ **Lemma**: a minor result whose sole purpose is to help in proving a theorem. It is a stepping stone on the path to proving a theorem.
- ▶ **Proposition**: a proved and often interesting result, but generally less important than a theorem.

Common Axioms

- ▶ An operation \circ is commutative if $x \circ y = y \circ x$ for every x, y in the algebraic structure
- ▶ An operation \circ is associative if $(x \circ y) \circ z = x \circ (y \circ z)$
- ▶ An operation \circ is distributive with respect to another operation \star

$$x \circ (y \star z) = x \circ y \star x \circ z$$

$$(x \star y) \circ z = x \circ z \star y \circ z$$

Structures

- ▶ Group structures: one binary operation.
- ▶ Ring structures: Ring, Integral Domain, Fields, two binary operations.
- ▶ Lattice structures: two or more binary operations.

Consider the traditional number systems

$$\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$$

the natural numbers

$$\mathbb{Z} = \{m - n \mid m, n \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

the integers

$$\mathbb{Q} = \{m/n \mid m, n \in \mathbb{N}, n \neq 0\}$$

the rational numbers

\mathbb{R}

the real numbers

\mathbb{C}

the complex numbers

and

$$\mathbb{N} \subset \mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{R} \subset \mathbb{C}$$

Addition for each pair of real numbers a and b there exists a unique real number $a + b$ such that

- ▶ $+$ is a commutative and associative operation;
- ▶ there exists in \mathbb{R} a zero, 0 , for addition: $a + 0 = 0 + a = a$ for all $a \in \mathbb{R}$;
- ▶ for each $a \in \mathbb{R}$ there exists an additive inverse $-a \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $a + (-a) = (-a) + a = 0$.

Multiplication for each pair of real numbers a and b there exists a unique real number $a \cdot b$ such that

- ▶ \cdot is a commutative and associative operation;
- ▶ there exists in \mathbb{R} an identity, 1 , for multiplication:
 $a \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot a = a$ for all $a \in \mathbb{R}^* = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$;
- ▶ for each $a \in \mathbb{R}^*$ there exists a multiplicative inverse $a^{-1} \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $a \cdot a^{-1} = a^{-1} \cdot a = 1$

Order properties: \mathbb{R} come with an order relation: for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, we have exactly one possibility of $a > b$, $a < b$ or $a = b$

Completeness axiom: equivalent to the statement that any infinite string of decimal digits.

Number Systems: Properties of \mathbb{C}

\mathbb{C} has arithmetic properties just the same as those for \mathbb{R} except order.

polynomials (with real or complex coefficients) always have a full complement of roots in \mathbb{C} (working for quadratic polynomial function when $\Delta < 0$).

Properties of \mathbb{Q}

\mathbb{Q} has the same arithmetic properties and order as those for \mathbb{R} except completeness order.

Properties of \mathbb{Z}

In \mathbb{Z} , multiplication does not have the same properties, e.g. there is no $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $2.n = 1$

The Integers

The integers mod n also partition \mathbb{Z} into n different equivalence classes; we will denote the set of these equivalence classes by \mathbb{Z}_n . We can have a table called a Cayley table

Multiplication table for \mathbb{Z}_8

\cdot	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	0	2	4	6	0	2	4	6
3	0	3	6	1	4	7	2	5
4	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	4
5	0	5	2	7	4	1	6	3
6	0	6	4	2	0	6	4	2
7	0	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Build a Cayley table for addition in \mathbb{Z}_5

The following examples illustrate integer arithmetic modulo n

$$7 + 1 \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$$

$$7 + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{8}$$

$$7 + 1 \equiv 8 \pmod{9}$$

A mathematical proof technique requires:

- ▶ The **base case** proves that the property holds for a certain number (often $n = 0$ or 1).
- ▶ The **induction step**, proves that, if the property holds for one natural number n , then it holds for the next natural number $n + 1$.

Example 1

We wish to prove that:

$$1 + 2 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

This formula is true for $n = 1$ since

$$1 = \frac{1(1+1)}{2}$$

We suppose that it is true for the first n cases,

$$1 + 2 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

Example 1

then we have to prove that it is true for $(n + 1)$ th case

$$\begin{aligned}1 + 2 + \dots + n + (n + 1) &= \frac{n(n + 1)}{2} + n + 1 \\ &= \frac{n^2 + 3n + 2}{2} \\ &= \frac{(n + 1)((n + 1) + 1)}{2}\end{aligned}$$