Introduction to Algebraic Structure

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Introduction to Algebraic Structure

- 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)

 $\mathsf{bit}\to\mathsf{byte}$

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 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.

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.

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, .., Z = 25.
- encoding function $f(p) = p + 3 \mod 26$
- that is, $A \rightarrow D, B \rightarrow E, .., Z \rightarrow C$.

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Next we apply the inverse transformation to get

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

 \rightarrow 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 (x₁, x₂, ..., x_n)

► The message is encoded into a binary 3n-tuple by simply repeating the message three times: (x₁, x₂, ..., x_n) → (x₁, x₂, ..., x_n; x₁, x₂, ..., x_n; x₁, x₂, ..., 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
- 2x = 6 when x = 4
- $f(x) = x^3 + 2x + 10$

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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

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

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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.

Consider the traditional number systems

$$\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$$
$$\mathbb{Z} = \{m - n | m, n \in \mathbb{N}\}$$
$$\mathbb{Q} = \{m/n | m, n \in \mathbb{N}, n \neq 0\}$$
$$\mathbb{R}$$
$$\mathbb{C}$$
and

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

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the natural numbers

the rational numbers the real numbers the complex numbers

the integers

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 R a zero, 0, for addition: a + 0 = 0 + a = a for all a ∈ R;
- For each a ∈ ℝ there exists an additive inverse -a ∈ 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 . b such that such that

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

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.

 $\mathbb C$ 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 $2 \cdot n = 1$

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								
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	$\overline{7}$
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	$\overline{7}$	4	1	6	3
6	0	6	4	2	0	6	4	2
7	0	$\overline{7}$	6	5	4	3	2	1

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

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The following examples illustrate integer arithmetic modulo n $7+1\equiv 3\ (\text{mod 5})$ $7+1\equiv 0\ (\text{mod 8})$ $7+1\equiv 8\ (\text{mod 9})$

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:

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

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,

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

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Example 1

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

$$1 + 2 + \dots + n + (n + 1) = \frac{n(n + 1)}{2} + n + 1$$
$$= \frac{n^2 + 3n + 2}{2}$$
$$= \frac{(n + 1)((n + 1) + 1)}{2}$$

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