

Math 417 Intro to abstract algebra

Lecture 1

What is abstract algebra?

"Abstract": from Latin "abstrahō" meaning "to pull away."

"Algebra": from title of 9th Century treatise:

الكتاب الْمُخْتَصَرُ فِي حِسَابِ الْجَبْرِ وَالْمُقَابَلَةِ

by al-Khwarizmi. The word means "restoring broken parts" and originally referred to one particular method but now represents the whole subject.

Example of abstraction:

$$\{ \text{stick figure 1}, \text{stick figure 2}, \text{stick figure 3} \} \cup \{ \text{stick figure 4}, \text{stick figure 5} \} = \{ \text{stick figure 1}, \text{stick figure 2}, \text{stick figure 3}, \text{stick figure 4}, \text{stick figure 5} \}$$

3 people 2 people 5 people

$$3 + 2 = 5$$

$$\{ \text{donut 1}, \text{donut 2}, \text{donut 3} \} \cup \{ \text{donut 4}, \text{donut 5} \} = \{ \text{donut 1}, \text{donut 2}, \text{donut 3}, \text{donut 4}, \text{donut 5} \}$$

3 donuts 2 donuts 5 donuts

$$3 + 2 = 5$$

When we learn to count, we "draw away" from the particular kind of objects (people, donuts) and consider only their number.

Addition has various properties

- $(a+b)+c = a+(b+c)$
- $a+0 = 0+a = a$
- $a+(-a) = (-a)+a = 0$
- $a+b = b+a$

These rules hold no matter what numbers a, b, c are. We can apply them without knowing the specific values.

Abstract algebra takes this to another level: we don't even assume that a, b, c are numbers, but merely some things that can be combined so that certain rules hold.

A set of objects
 + one or more operations
 + a list of rules

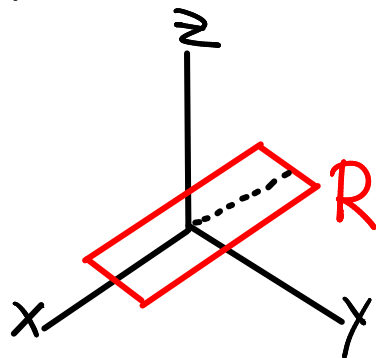
} Algebraic Structure

Algebraic structures in 417:
 Groups, Rings, and Fields
 (most of the course deals with groups)

Groups: Start by considering some examples.

1. Symmetries

Imagine a rectangle R sitting in xy -plane in 3D space.



Consider the rotations of 3D space that bring R back to itself.

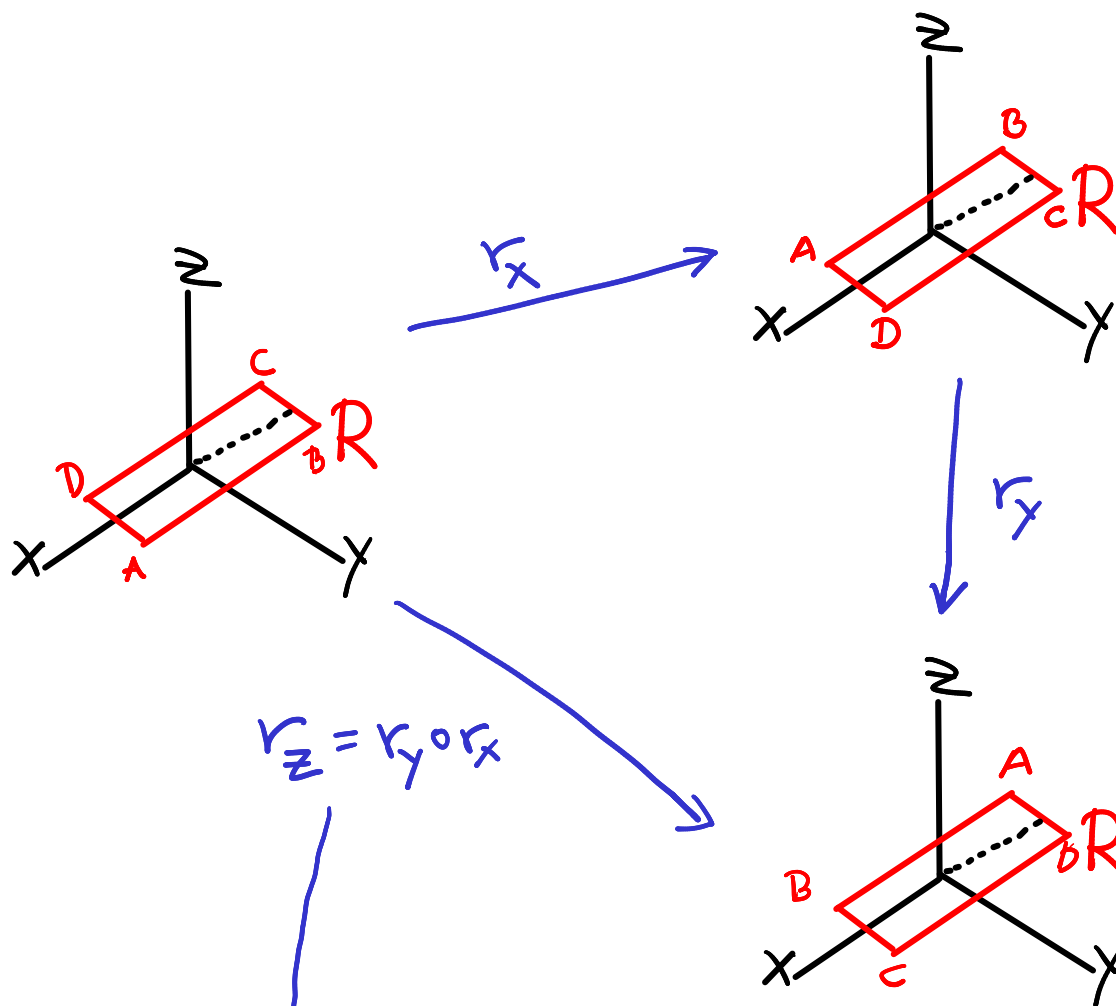
r_x = Rotation by π around x -axis

r_y = Rotation by π around y -axis

r_z = Rotation by π around z -axis

I = do nothing "Identity transformation"

What if we do one rotation r that takes $R \rightarrow R$ followed by another rotation r' that takes $R \rightarrow R$? We write $r' \circ r$ for this transformation, the composition of r and r' . Then $r' \circ r$ is another rotation that takes $R \rightarrow R$.



$$r_z = r_y \circ r_x$$

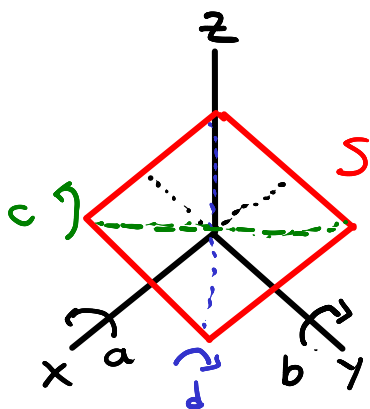
	I	r_x	r_y	r_z
I	I	r_x	r_y	r_z
r_x	r_x	I		
r_y	r_y	r_z	I	
r_z	r_z			I

"multiplication" table:
entry in row r' and
column r is $r' \circ r$

Symmetries of $R = \{I, r_x, r_y, r_z\}$

This is an example of a group

$S = \text{square}$. More "symmetric" than R , so has more symmetries.

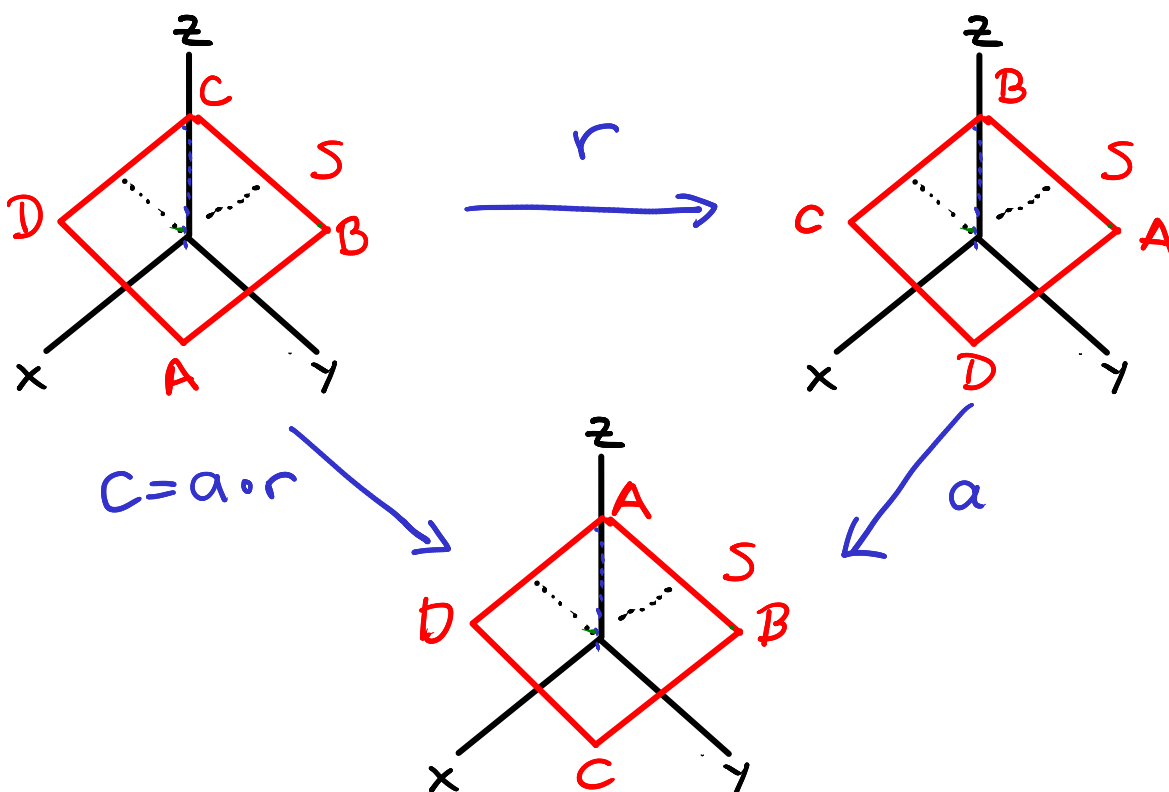


$I = \text{do nothing}$
 $r = \text{rotate by } \pi/2 \text{ around } z\text{-axis.}$
 $r^2 = \text{rotate by } \pi \text{ around } z\text{-axis.}$
 $r^3 = \text{rotate by } 3\pi/2 \text{ around } z\text{-axis.}$
 $a = \text{rotate by } \pi \text{ around } x\text{-axis.}$
 $b = \text{rotate by } \pi \text{ around } y\text{-axis.}$

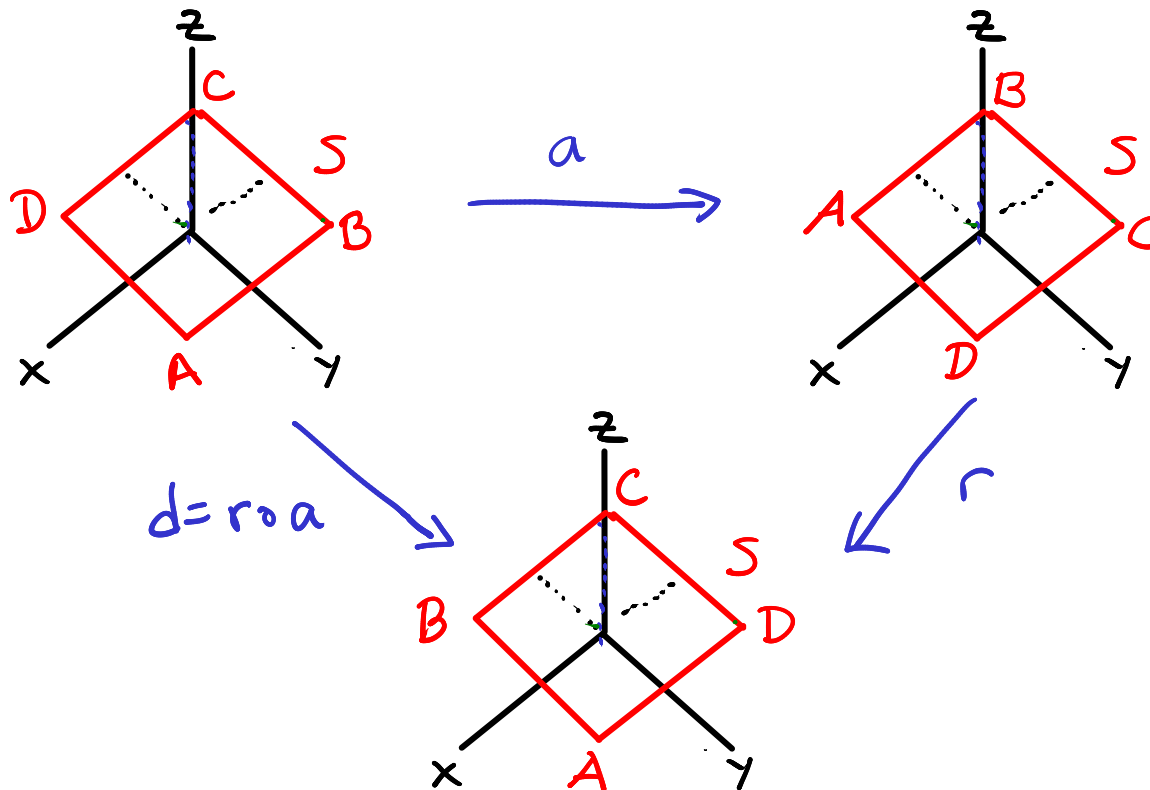
but now also:

$c = \text{rotate by } \pi \text{ around diagonal.}$
 $d = \text{rotate by } \pi \text{ around other diagonal.}$

Symmetries of $S = \{I, r, r^2, r^3, a, b, c, d\}$



Other order:



Multiplication table:

	I	r	r ²	r ³	a	b	c	d
I	I	r	r ²	r ³	a	b	c	d
r	r	r ²	r ³	I	d			
r ²	r ²	r ³	I	r				
r ³	r ³	I	r	r ²				
a	a	c						
b	b							
c	c							
d	d							

exercise: fill out the rest.

3D space = vector space \mathbb{R}^3 .

Rotations are linear transformations of \mathbb{R}^3 , so can be represented by 3×3 matrices.

composition \leftrightarrow matrix multiplication.

Rectangle example:

$$r_x(x, y, z) = (x, -y, -z) \quad \leftrightarrow \quad r_x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$r_y(x, y, z) = (-x, y, -z) \quad \leftrightarrow \quad r_y = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$r_z(x, y, z) = (-x, -y, z) \quad \leftrightarrow \quad r_z = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$I(x, y, z) = (x, y, z) \quad \leftrightarrow \quad I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Now } r_x r_y = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = r_z$$

Square example:

$$r(x, y, z) = (y, -x, z) \quad \leftrightarrow \quad r = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$a(x, y, z) = (x, -y, -z) \leftrightarrow a = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Then } ra = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = d$$

$$ar = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = c.$$

Let us formalize the concept of "symmetries of an object $R \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ "

$$\text{Distance: } \vec{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3) \quad \vec{y} = (y_1, y_2, y_3)$$

$$d(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \|\vec{x} - \vec{y}\|$$

$$= \sqrt{(x_1 - y_1)^2 + (x_2 - y_2)^2 + (x_3 - y_3)^2}$$

Definition: An isometry of \mathbb{R}^3 is a function $T: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ that preserves distances between all pairs of points:

$$\forall \vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^3, \quad d(T(\vec{x}), T(\vec{y})) = d(\vec{x}, \vec{y}).$$

Definition: let $R \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ be a subset.

A symmetry of R is an isometry $T: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ that maps points in R to points in R :

$$T(R) \subset R.$$

If T_1 and T_2 are isometries then $T_1 \circ T_2$ is also an isometry.

Proof: $d(T_1 \circ T_2(\vec{x}), T_1 \circ T_2(\vec{y}))$

$$= d(T_1(T_2(\vec{x})), T_1(T_2(\vec{y})))$$

Def. of \circ

$$= d(T_2(\vec{x}), T_2(\vec{y}))$$

T_1 is isometry

$$= d(\vec{x}, \vec{y})$$

T_2 is isometry.

Also, if $T_1(R) \subset R$ and $T_2(R) \subset R$ then $T_1 \circ T_2(R) = T_1(T_2(R)) \subset T_1(R) \subset R$.

Conclusion: if T_1 and T_2 are symmetries of R , then $T_1 \circ T_2$ is also a symmetry of R .

Or, "the set of symmetries of R is closed under composition."

We can describe all possible isometries of \mathbb{R}^3

Write points as column vectors $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$

Theorem: A function $T: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ is an isometry if and only if it is an affine transformation

$$T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x} + \vec{b}$$

where A is a 3×3 orthogonal matrix and \vec{b} is a vector.

Recall the definition of an orthogonal matrix:

$A^T A = I = A A^T$, or $A^T = A^{-1}$, or columns of A form an orthonormal basis.

We will not present the proof of the preceding theorem here.

Consequence: If $T: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ is an isometry, then $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x} + \vec{b}$, and T has an inverse given by $T^{-1}(\vec{x}) = A^T \vec{x} - A^T \vec{b}$.

Check:

$$\begin{aligned} T^{-1}(T(\vec{x})) &= A^T (A\vec{x} + \vec{b}) - A^T \vec{b} \\ &= A^T A \vec{x} + A^T \vec{b} - A^T \vec{b} \\ &= A^T A \vec{x} = I \vec{x} = \vec{x} \end{aligned}$$

Define $\text{Sym}(\mathbb{R}) = \{ T: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3 \mid T \text{ is an isometry and } T(\mathbb{R}) \subset \mathbb{R} \}$
 the set of symmetries of \mathbb{R} .

This set has some key properties that we wish to abstract/pull away from this situation.

$\text{Sym}(\mathbb{R})$ has a binary operation, composition, under which it is closed:

$$T_1, T_2 \in \text{Sym}(\mathbb{R}) \Rightarrow T_1 \circ T_2 \in \text{Sym}(\mathbb{R}).$$

This operation is

(1) Associative: $T_1 \circ (T_2 \circ T_3) = (T_1 \circ T_2) \circ T_3$

(2) has identity: $T \circ I = I \circ T = T$

(3) has inverses: $T \in \text{Sym}(\mathbb{R}) \Rightarrow \exists T^{-1} \in \text{Sym}(\mathbb{R})$
 $T^{-1} \circ T = I = T \circ T^{-1}$

Remark The precise definition of a rotation of \mathbb{R}^3 is an isometry of the form

$$T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$$

where A is orthogonal and $\det(A) = 1$.