15-251: Great Theoretical Ideas in Computer Science Fall 2018, Lecture 22	
Group Theory	
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Group Theory	
Children of a summarian and transformations	
Study of symmetries and transformations of mathematical objects.	
Also, the study of abstract algebraic	
objects called ' groups '.	
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What is group theory good for?	
In theoretical computer science:	
 Cryptography: Fully homomorphic encryption, 	
obfuscation	
Quantum algorithms	
Mulmuley's approach to P vs. NP Charles and a second of the second	
Checksums, error-correction schemes	
Minimizing space usage of algorithmsDerandomization	
Derandonization	

What is group theory good for? In puzzles and games: "15 Puzzle" Rubik's Cube SET Tangles

What is group theory good for?

In math:

There's a quadratic formula:

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

What is group theory good for?		
In math:		
There's a cubic formula:		
$x_1 = -\frac{b_3}{3a}$ $-\frac{1}{3a}\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\left[2b^3 - 9abc + 27a^3d + \sqrt{(2b^3 - 9abc + 27a^3d)^2 - 4\left(b^2 - 3ac\right)^3}\right]}$ $-\frac{1}{3a}\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\left[2b^3 - 9abc + 27a^3d - \sqrt{(2b^3 - 9abc + 27a^3d)^2 - 4\left(b^2 - 3ac\right)^3}\right]}$		
$x_2 = -\frac{1}{3a} \sqrt{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} \left[2b^3 - 9abc + 27a^2 d + \sqrt{(2b^3 - 9abc + 27a^2 d)^2 + 4(b^2 - 3ac)^2} \right] + \frac{1 + i\sqrt{3}}{6a} \sqrt{\frac{3}{2} \left[2b^3 - 9abc + 27a^2 d + \sqrt{(2b^3 - 9abc + 27a^2 d)^2 + 4(b^2 - 3ac)^2} \right]}$		
$+\frac{1-(\sqrt{3})^{\frac{3}{2}}}{6a}\left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\left[2b^{3}-9abc+27a^{2}d-\sqrt{\left(2b^{3}-9abc+27a^{2}d\right)^{2}-4\left(b^{2}-3ac\right)^{2}}\right]}{x_{3}=-\frac{b}{3a}}$		
$\begin{aligned} &+\frac{1-(\sqrt{3})}{6a}\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}\left[2b^2-9abc+27a^2d+\sqrt{(2b^2-9abc+27a^2d)^2-4\left(b^2-3ac\right)^3}\right]} \\ &+\frac{1+(\sqrt{3})}{6a}\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}\left[2b^2-9abc+27a^2d-\sqrt{(2b^2-9abc+27a^2d)^2-4\left(b^2-3ac\right)^3}\right]} \end{aligned}$		

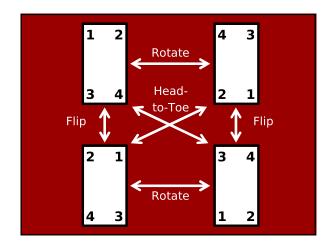
What is group theory good for?	
In math:	
There's a quartic formula:	
$\frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right] $ $= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right] $ $= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right] $ $= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right] $ $= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right] $ $= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right] $ $= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right] $ $= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right] $ $= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right] $ $= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right] $ $= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right] $ $= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right] $ $= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right] $ $= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right] $ $= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right] $ $= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right] $ $= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac$	
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(That's just the first of four roots, actually.)	
What is group theory good for?	
In math:	
There is NO quintic formula.	
There is No quille formula.	
	-
What is group theory good for?	
imatis group areary good for	
In physics:	
Predicting the existence of elementary	
particles before they are discovered.	

What is group theory good for? In entertainment: Driving the plot of S06E10 of Futurama, "The Prisoner of Benda" So: What **is** group theory? **Rotate**



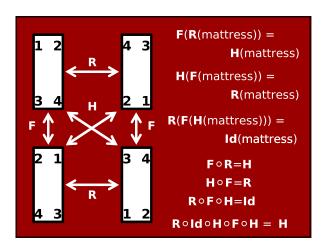




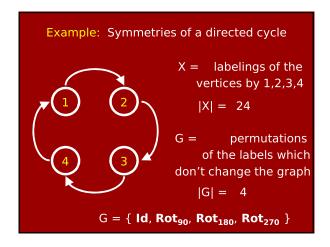


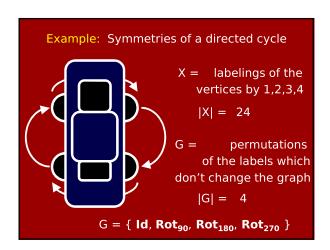
Group theory is not so much about **objects** (like mattresses).

It's about the **transformations** on objects and how they (inter)act.



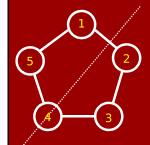
The kinds of questions asked: What is RoldoHoFoH ? Do transformations **A** and **B** "commute"? I.e., does $\mathbf{A} \circ \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} \circ \mathbf{A}$? What is the "order" of transformation **A**? I.e., how many times do you have to apply **A** before you get to **Id**? Definition of a group of transformations Let X be a set. Let G be a set of **bijections** $p: X \rightarrow X$. We say G is a **group of transformations** if: 1. If \mathbf{p} and \mathbf{q} are in \mathbf{G} then so is $\mathbf{p} \circ \mathbf{q}$. G is "closed" under composition. 2. The 'do-nothing' bijection Id is in G. 3. If p is in G then so is its inverse, p^{-1} . G is "closed" under inverses. Example: Rotations of a rectangular mattress X = set of all physical points of the mattress G = { Id, Rotate, Flip, Head-to-toe } Check the 3 conditions: 1. If **p** and **q** are in G then so is **p** o **q**. 2. The 'do-nothing' bijection Id is in G. 3. If **p** is in G then so is its inverse, p^{-1} .





Example: Symmetries of a directed cycle
X = labelings of directed 4-cycle
$G = \{\ Id, Rot_{90}, Rot_{180}, Rot_{270}\ \}$
Check the 3 conditions:
1. If p and q are in G then so is p \circ q .
2. The 'do-nothing' bijection Id is in G. 🗸
3. If p is in G then so is its inverse, p^{-1} .
"Cyclic group of size 4"

Example: Symmetries of **undirected** n-cycle



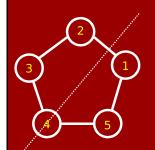
X = labelings of the
vertices by 1,2, ..., n

$$|X| = n!$$

G = permutations of the labels which don't change the graph

$$|G| = 2n$$

Example: Symmetries of undirected n-cycle



X = labelings of the
vertices by 1,2, ..., n

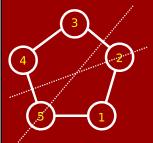
$$|X| = n!$$

G = permutations of the labels which don't change the graph

$$|G| = 2n$$

+ one clockwise twist

Example: Symmetries of undirected n-cycle



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$$|G| = 2n$$

+ one clockwise twist =

Example: Symmetries of undirected n-cycle



X = labelings of the vertices by 1,2, ..., n

$$|X| = n!$$

G = permutationsof the labels which
don't change the graph |G| = 2n

G = { Id, n-1 'rotations', n 'reflections' }

"Dihedral group of size 2n"

Example: "All permutations"

$$X = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$$

G = all permutations of X

e.g., for n = 4, a typical element of G is:

$$\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\
\downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \\
4 & 2 & 1 & 3
\end{array}\right)$$

"Symmetric group, Sym(n)"

More groups of transformations

Motions of 3D space: translations + rotations (preserve laws of Newtonian mechanics)

Translations of 2D space by an integer amount horizontally and an integer amount vertically

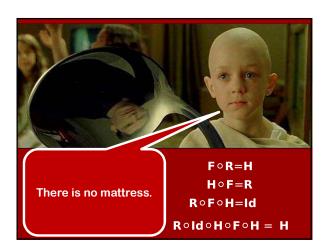
Rotations which preserve an old-school soccer ball.





Group theory is not so much about **objects** (like mattresses).

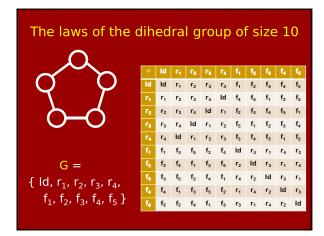
It's about the **transformations** on objects and how they (inter)act.



The laws of mattress rotation

 $G = \{ Id, R, F, H \}$

 $Id \circ Id = Id$ $F \circ Id = F$ $\mathsf{Id} \, \circ \, \mathsf{R} = \mathsf{R}$ $F \circ R = H$ Id \circ F = F $F \circ F = Id$ $\mathsf{Id} \, \circ \, \mathsf{H} = \mathsf{H}$ $F \circ H = R$ $R \circ Id = R$ $H \circ Id = H$ $R \circ R = Id$ $H \circ R = F$ $R \circ F = H$ $H \circ F = R$ $R \circ H = F$ $H \circ H = Id$



Let's define an abstract group .					
Let G be a set.					
Let ∘ be a " binary operation " on G;					
think of it as defining a "multiplication table".					
E.g., if $G = \{ a, b, c \}$ then	0	а	b	C	
is a binary operation.		b			
	_				
is a billary operation.	b	а	b	С	
This means that $c \circ a = b$.	b c	a b	b c	c a	

Definition of an (abstract) group			
We say G is a "group under operation o" if:			
1. Operation ∘ is associative :			
i.e., $a \circ (b \circ c) = (a \circ b) \circ c \forall a,b,c \in G$			
2. There exists an element e∈G			
(called the "identity element") such that			
a∘e = a, e∘a = a ∀a∈G			
3. For each $a \in G$ there is an element $a^{-1} \in G$			
(called the "inverse of a") such that			
$a \circ a^{-1} = e$, $a^{-1} \circ a = e$			

Examples of (abstract) groups

Any group of transformations is a group.

(Only need to check that composition of functions is associative.)

E.g., the 'mattress group' (AKA Klein 4-group)

0	ld	R	F	Н
Id	ld	R	F	Н
R	R	Id	н	F
F	F	Н	ld	R
Н	Н	F	R	ld

identity element is Id

$$R^{-1} = R$$

$$\mathsf{F}^{-1}=\mathsf{F}$$

$$H^{-1} = H$$

Examples of (abstract) groups

Any group of transformations is a group.

 \mathbb{Z} (the integers) is a group under operation +

Check:

- 0. + really is a binary operation on \mathbb{Z}
- 1. + is associative: a+(b+c) = (a+b)+c
- 2. "e" is 0: a+0=a, 0+a=a
- 3. " a^{-1} " is -a: a+(-a)=0, (-a)+a=0

Examples of (abstract) groups

Any group of transformations is a group.

- \mathbb{Z} (the integers) is a group under operation +
- \mathbb{R} (the reals) is a group under operation +
- \mathbb{R}^+ (the positive reals) is a group under \times
- $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ is a group under \times
- \mathbb{Z}_n (the integers mod n) is a group under +

NONEXAMPLES of groups G = {all odd integers}, operation + + is not a binary operation on G! Z, operation — - is not associative! Z \ {0}, operation × 1 is the only possible identity element; but then most elements don't have inverses! Abstract algebra on groups Theorem 1: If (G, °) is a group, identity element is unique. Proof:

Abstract algebra on groups

Suppose f and g are both identity elements.

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Since g is identity, $f \circ g = f$. Since f is identity, $f \circ g = g$.

Therefore f = g.

Theorem 2:

In any group (G, °), inverses are unique.

Proof:

Given a∈G, suppose b, c are both inverses of a. Let e be **the** identity element.

By assumption, $a \circ b = e$ and $c \circ a = e$.

Now: $c = c \circ e = c \circ (a \circ b)$

 $= (c \circ a) \circ b = e \circ b = b$

Abstract algebra on groups	
Theorem 3:	
For all a in group G we have $(a^{-1})^{-1} = a$.	-
Theorem 4: For $a,b \in G$ we have $(a \circ b)^{-1} = b^{-1} \circ a^{-1}$.	
Theorem 5: In group (G, °), it doesn't matter how you put parentheses in an expression like	
a ₁ oa ₂ oa ₃ o···oa _k ("generalized associativity").	
Notation	
In abstract groups, it's tiring to always write o.	
So we often write ab rather than a ob.	
Sometimes write 1 instead of e for the identity.	
For $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$, write a^n instead of aaa \cdots a (n times). Also a^{-n} instead of $a^{-1}a^{-1}\cdots a^{-1}$, and a^0 means 1.	
Then $a^j a^k = a^{j+k}$ holds for all $j,k \in \mathbb{Z}$.	
	-
Algebra practice	
Droblems In the matteres area (2. D. F. II)	
Problem: In the mattress group $\{1, R, F, H\}$, simplify the element $R^2 (H^3 R^{-1})^{-1}$	
One (slightly roundabout) solution:	
$H^3 = H H^2 = H 1 = H$, so we reach $R^2 (H R^{-1})^{-1}$.	
$(H R^{-1})^{-1} = (R^{-1})^{-1} H^{-1} = R H$, so we get $R^2 R H$.	
But $R^2 = 1$, so we get $1 R H = R H = F$.	
Moral: the usual rules of multiplication, except	-

Commutativity?

In a group we do NOT NECESSARILY have

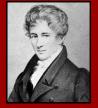
 $a \circ b = b \circ a$

Actually, in the mattress group we do have this for all elements. E.g., RF = FR (=H).

Definition:

"a,b∈G commute" means ab = ba.
"G is commutative" means all pairs commute.

In group theory, "commutative groups" are usually called **abelian** groups.



Niels Henrik Abel (1802–1829)
Norwegian
Died at 26 of tuberculosis ⊗
Age 22: proved there is
no quintic formula.



Evariste Galois (1811−1832)
French
Died at 20 in a duel ⊕
One of the main inventors
of group theory.

Some abelian groups:

"Mattress group" ("Klein 4-group")
Symms of a **directed** cycle ("cyclic group")

 $(\mathbb{R}, +)$

Some nonabelian groups:

Symms of an **undirected** cycle ("dihedral group") Motions of 3D space

Sym(n) ("symmetric group on n elements")

Another fun group: Quaternion group

$$Q_8 = \{ 1, -1, i, -i, j, -j, k, -k \}$$

Multiplication 1 is the identity

defined by: $(-1)^2 = 1$, (-1)a = a(-1) = -a

 $i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1$

ij = k, ji = -k

jk = i, kj = -iki = j, ik = -j

Exercise: valid def. of a (nonabelian) group.

Application to computer graphics

"Quaternions": expressions like 3.2 + 1.4i - .5j + 1.1k

which generalize complex numbers (\mathbb{C}).

Suppose we store points (x,y,z) in 3D space as quaternions xi + yj + zk.

To rotate point p an angle of θ around an axis defined by unit vector (u,v,w), let $q = \cos(\theta/2) + \sin(\theta/2)u$ i $+ \sin(\theta/2)v$ j $+ \sin(\theta/2)w$ k.

Then the rotated point is qpq^{-1} .

Isomorphism Here's a group: V = { 00, 01, 10, 11 } ⊕ (bitwise XOR) is the operation There's something familiar about this group... V same The mattress

		٧			same	Th	ne r	nat	tre	SS
⊕	00	01	10	11	after	0	ld	R	F	Н
00	00	01	10	11	renaming: 00↔Id	ld	ld	R	F	Н
01	01	00	11	10	0007d 01↔R	R	R	ld	Н	F
10	10	11	00	01	10↔F	F	F	Н	Id	R
11	11	10	01	00	11 ↔ H	Н	Н	F	R	Id

Isomorphism

Groups (G, ∘) and (H, •) are "**isomorphic**" if there is a way to rename elements so that they have the same multiplication table.

Fundamentally, they're the "same" abstract group.

Isomorphism and orders

Obviously, if G and H are isomorphic we must have |G| = |H|.

|G| is called the **order** of G.

E.g.: Let C_4 be the group of transformations preserving the directed 4-cycle.

$$|C_4| = 4$$

Q: Is C_4 isomorphic to the mattress group V?

Isomorphism and orders

Q: Is C_4 isomorphic to the mattress group V?

A: No!



 $a^2 = 1$ for every element $a \in V$.

But in C₄, $Rot_{90}^2 = Rot_{270}^2 \neq Rot_{180}^2 = Id^2$

Motivates studying powers of elements.

Order of a group element

Let G be a finite group. Let $a \in G$.

Look at 1, a, a^2 , a^3 , ... till you get some repeat.

Say $a^k = a^j$ for some k > j.

Multiply this equation by a^{-j} to get $a^{k-j} = 1$.

So the first repeat is always 1.

Definition: The order of a, denoted |a|, is the

smallest $m \ge 1$ such that $a^m = 1$.

Note that a, a^2 , a^3 , ..., a^{m-1} , $a^m=1$ all distinct.

Examples:

In mattress group (order 4),

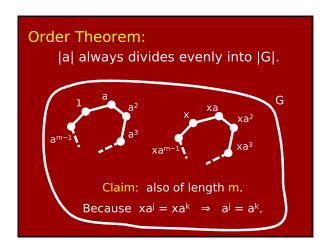
$$|Id| = 1$$
, $|R| = |F| = |H| = 2$.

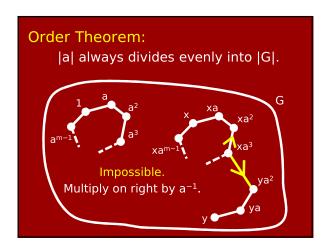
In directed-4-cycle group (order 4),

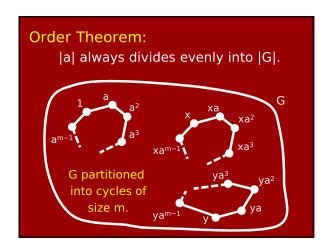
|Id| = 1, $|Rot_{180}| = 2$, $|Rot_{90}| = |Rot_{270}| = 4$.

In dihedral group of order 10 (symmetries of undirected 5-cycle)

|Id| = 1, $|any\ rotation| = 5$, $|any\ reflection| = 2$.







Order Theorem: a always divides evenly into C	<u> </u>
Corollary: If $ G = n$, then $a^n = 1$ for all a	n∈G.
Proof: Let $ a = m$. Write $n = mk$.	
Then $a^n = (a^m)^k = 1^k = 1$.	
A Group Theory Application	
Check Digits	
Say you have important strings of digi	ts:
credit card numbers	
EFT routing numbers UPC numbers	
money serial numbers book ISBNs	
People screw up when transcribing the	em

Check Digits Most common human screwups: single digit wrong (e.g., 6→8): 60-90% omitting/adding digit: 10-20% transposition (e.g., 35→53): 10-20% ≤ 5% other screwups: Instead of making them n random digits, make them n random digits + a 'check digit'. **Check Digits** Example: Book ISBNs before 2007. 1360429947 Desired id#: 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 dot-prod mod 11: $1 \times 10 + 3 \times 9 + 6 \times 8 + 0 \times 7 + 4 \times 6 + 2 \times 5 + 9 \times 4 + 9 \times 3 + 8 \times 2 = 4$ check digit: top it off to get 0 mod 11 Pros: You can detect any single-digit or transposition error. **Check Digits** Book ISBNs before 2007. Example: 1360429947 Desired id#: 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2

dot-prod mod 11: $1 \times 10 + 3 \times 9 + 6 \times 8 + 0 \times 7 + 4 \times 6 + 2 \times 5 + 9 \times 4 + 9 \times 3 + 8 \times 2 = 4$

Cons: Um, check digit should be 10? "Write X"!

Doesn't scale if you want longer id#'s.

check digit: top it off to get 0 mod 11

Verhoeff Check Digit Method	
Encode digits by elements of dihedral group of order 10.	
Let σ be the permutation $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 \\ \downarrow & \downarrow \\ 1 & 5 & 7 & 6 & 2 & 8 & 3 & 0 & 9 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$	
Given a desired id# $a_0 a_1 a_2 \cdots a_{n-1}$,	
choose unique check digit a_n satisfying group equation $\operatorname{enc}(\sigma^0(a_0)) \circ \operatorname{enc}(\sigma^1(a_1)) \circ \operatorname{enc}(\sigma^2(a_2)) \circ \cdots \circ \operatorname{enc}(\sigma^n(a_n)) = \operatorname{enc}$	
Pros: Detects single-digit & transposition errors.	
Uses just digits 0, 1, 2,, 9. Scales to any length of id#.	-
, g	<u> </u>
	1
Verhoeff Check Digit Method	
Encode digits by elements of dihedral group of order 10.	
Let σ be the permutation $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 \\ \downarrow & \downarrow$	
Given a desired id# $a_0 a_1 a_2 \cdots a_{n-1}$,	
choose unique check digit a_n satisfying group equation $\operatorname{enc}(\sigma^0(a_0)) \circ \operatorname{enc}(\sigma^1(a_1)) \circ \operatorname{enc}(\sigma^2(a_2)) \circ \cdots \circ \operatorname{enc}(\sigma^2(a_n)) = e$	
Cons: Can't really be done by a human.	
	I
Verhoeff Check Digit Method	
Encode digits by elements of dihedral group of order 10.	
Let σ be the permutation $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 5 & 7 & 6 & 2 & 8 & 3 & 0 & 9 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$	
Given a desired id# $a_0 a_1 a_2 \cdots a_{n-1}$, choose unique check digit a_n satisfying group equation	
$\operatorname{enc}(\sigma^0(a_0)) \circ \operatorname{enc}(\sigma^1(a_1)) \circ \operatorname{enc}(\sigma^2(a_2)) \circ \cdots \circ \operatorname{enc}(\sigma^2(a_n)) = e$	
Is this really a con?	
What human manually checksums credit cards? We have computers, you know.	

Verhoeff Check Digit Method Nevertheless, it's like the Dvorak keyboard of check digit methods. $\ \ \, \otimes$ German federal bank started using it for Deutsche Marks (with some letters?) in 1990. Then they went and got the euro (which uses a different scheme). The 10 is a good denomination for mathematicians. Leonhard Euler on the back of the old 10 Swiss franc note. The 10 is a good denomination for mathematicians. I do not know how this works.

Cahit Arf and an equation in the group \mathbb{Z}_2 starring on the back of a Turkish 10 lira.

Study Guide Groups Commutative/abelian Isomorphism Order Groups: Klein 4-, cyclic, dihedral, symmetric, quaternions Doing: Checking for groupness Computations in groups Theorem/proof: Order Theorem