

Lecture 5: Algebra

Quadratic equation

We first look at the quadratic equation $x^2 + bx + c = 0$ which can be solved by completing the square an idea by **Mohammed ben Musa Al-Khwarizmi**:

$$x = \frac{-b + \sqrt{b^2 - 4c}}{a}$$

Example: $x^2 - 4x - 5$ has the root $(4 + \sqrt{16 + 20})/2 = 5$ or $(4 - \sqrt{16 + 20})/2 = -1$.
The use of **variables** and so **elementary algebra** was introduced only in the 16'th century.

1 The cubic equation

Niccolo Tartaglia and **Gerolamo Cardano** showed how to solve the cubic equation $X^3 + aX^2 + bX + c = 0$.

Write $X = x - a/3$ to get the **depressed cubic** $x^3 + px + q$. With $x = u - p/(3u)$, we get the quadratic equation $(u^6 + qu^3 - p^3/27) = 0$.

Example: Start with $X^3 + 2X^2 - 13X + 10 = 0$. With $X = x - 2/3$ we get $x^3 - 43x/3 + 520/27$.
With $x = u + 43/(9u)$ we end up with $u^6 + 520u^3/27 + 79507/729 = 0$ which is a quadratic equation for w^3 .

2 Higher order equations

Lodovico Ferrari shows that the quartic equation can be reduced to the cubic. For **quintic equations**, no formulas could be found. It was **Paolo Ruffini**, **Niels Abel** and **Évariste Galois** who realized that there are no formulas in general in terms of roots if the degree of the polynomial is 5 or higher.

The main tool to show this was **group theory**.

There are no formulas in general for the solution of polynomial equations of degree 5 or higher.

Symmetry groups

In a **group** G one has an operation $*$, an inverse a^{-1} and a one-element 1 such that $a * (b * c) = (a * b) * c$, $a * 1 = 1 * a = a$, $a * a^{-1} = a^{-1} * a = 1$.

For example, the nonzero fractions p/q with multiplication operation $*$ and inverse $1/a$ form a group. The integers with addition and inverse $a^{-1} = -a$ and "1"-element 0 form a group too.

Here is a group which is not commutative: let G be the set of all rotations in space, which leave the unit cube invariant. There are $3*3=9$ rotations around each major coordinate axes, then 6 rotations around axes connecting midpoints of opposite edges, then $2*4$ rotations around diagonals. Together with the identity rotation e , these are 24 rotations. The group operation is the composition of these transformations.

An other example of a group is the set of all permutations of four numbers $(1, 2, 3, 4)$. If $g : (1, 2, 3, 4) \rightarrow (2, 3, 4, 1)$ is a permutation and $h : (1, 2, 3, 4) \rightarrow (3, 1, 2, 4)$ is an other permutation, then we can combine the two and define $h * g$ as the permutation which does first g and then h . We end up with the permutation $(1, 2, 3, 4) \rightarrow (1, 2, 4, 3)$.

Puzzles

The first really popular puzzle was the **15-puzzle**. It was invented in 1874 by **Noyes Palmer Chapman** in the state of New York. If the hole is given the number 0, then the task of the puzzle is to order a given random start permutation of the 16 pieces. To do so, the user is allowed to transposes 0 with a neighboring piece. Since every step changes the signature s of the permutation and changes the taxi-metric distance d of 0 to the end position by 1, only situations with even $s + d$ can be reached. It was **Sam Loyd** who suggested to start with an impossible solution and offer 1000 dollars for a solution.



The **Rubik cube** is an other famous puzzle, which is a group too. Exactly 100 years after the invention of the 15 puzzle, the Rubik puzzle was introduced in 1974.

Many puzzles are groups.

Probably the simplest example of a Rubik type puzzle is the **pyramorphix**. It is a puzzle based on the tetrahedron. Its group is the group of all possible permutations of the 4 elements.

