

DMV-Seminar Part 1 Group Rings: Units and the Isomorphism Problem.

Set A set is a collection of unique elements. The definition of a specific set determines which elements are members of the set. Elements not specifically defined as members of a set are not in the set. The cardinality of a set is the count of the number of elements in a set based on the sets definition. The cardinality may be finite or infinite. The cardinality of the set of dwarfs in the Snow White story is 7. The cardinality of the set of integers is NOT the same as the cardinality of the set of real numbers. The set with no elements is denoted by the Greek letter Phi and has a cardinality of zero. $|S|$ is the notation for the cardinality of the set S Set union: The complement may be written as the set name with a superscript c. Cartesian product or cross product: A is a subset of B if all elements in A are in B. Set of all subsets of a set: The subsets include the empty set Phi, the sets with exactly one element of A, the sets with exactly two elements of A,.. The set does not have to be numeric. The operation can be applied to any two elements of the group and the result is an element of the group. The identity element must be a member of the group and is its own inverse. The identity element is provably unique, there is exactly one identity element. Every element of the group has an inverse element in the group. A theorem for a group with a multiplicative operator is: The inverse of a product is the product of the inverses in reverse order. The set of all multiples of any integer is an Ideal. The set of Integers is a Principal Ideal ring. Every finite field is isomorphic to some Galois Field. A partial ordering means some pairs elements of the set can not be compared. Algebra An algebra is a set of elements and a set of laws that apply to the elements. One way to define various types of algebras such as rings, fields, Galois Fields and the like, is to list the possible laws axioms, postulates, rules that might apply, then define each algebra in terms of which laws apply. The particular symbols and the particular operations are not important. Addition and multiplication are commonly used for convenience, yet the logical operations "and" and "or" could be used, the set operations union and intersection could be used, as well as many other pairs of operations.

Chapter 2 : What is a Ring Group and what can I do with it? - 8x8 Support Knowledge Base

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These groups appeared in the theory of quadratic forms: This gave a finite abelian group, as was recognised at the time. Later Kummer was working towards a theory of cyclotomic fields. We now recognise this as part of the ideal class group: Somewhat later again Dedekind formulated the concept of ideal, Kummer having worked in a different way. At this point the existing examples could be unified. It was shown that while rings of algebraic integers do not always have unique factorization into primes because they need not be principal ideal domains, they do have the property that every proper ideal admits a unique factorization as a product of prime ideals that is, every ring of algebraic integers is a Dedekind domain. The size of the ideal class group can be considered as a measure for the deviation of a ring from being a principal ideal domain; a ring is a principal domain if and only if it has a trivial ideal class group. Here the notation a means the principal ideal of R consisting of all the multiples of a . It is easily shown that this is an equivalence relation. The equivalence classes are called the ideal classes of R . Ideal classes can be multiplied: The principal ideals form the ideal class $[R]$ which serves as an identity element for this multiplication. Thus a class $[I]$ has an inverse $[J]$ if and only if there is an ideal J such that IJ is a principal ideal. In general, such a J may not exist and consequently the set of ideal classes of R may only be a monoid. However, if R is the ring of algebraic integers in an algebraic number field, or more generally a Dedekind domain, the multiplication defined above turns the set of fractional ideal classes into an abelian group, the ideal class group of R . The group property of existence of inverse elements follows easily from the fact that, in a Dedekind domain, every non-zero ideal except R is a product of prime ideals. Properties[edit] The ideal class group is trivial i . In this sense, the ideal class group measures how far R is from being a principal ideal domain, and hence from satisfying unique prime factorization Dedekind domains are unique factorization domains if and only if they are principal ideal domains. The number of ideal classes the class number of R may be infinite in general. In fact, every abelian group is isomorphic to the ideal class group of some Dedekind domain. This is one of the main results of classical algebraic number theory. This result gives a bound, depending on the ring, such that every ideal class contains an ideal norm less than the bound. In general the bound is not sharp enough to make the calculation practical for fields with large discriminant, but computers are well suited to the task. Higher K groups can also be employed and interpreted arithmetically in connection to rings of integers. Relation with the group of units[edit] It was remarked above that the ideal class group provides part of the answer to the question of how much ideals in a Dedekind domain behave like elements. The other part of the answer is provided by the multiplicative group of units of the Dedekind domain, since passage from principal ideals to their generators requires the use of units and this is the rest of the reason for introducing the concept of fractional ideal, as well: This is a group homomorphism; its kernel is the group of units of R , and its cokernel is the ideal class group of R . The failure of these groups to be trivial is a measure of the failure of the map to be an isomorphism: If k is a field, then the polynomial ring $k[X_1, X_2, X_3]$, It has a countably infinite set of ideal classes. This is a special case of the famous class number problem. Computational results indicate that there are a great many such fields. However, it is not even known if there are infinitely many number fields with class number 1. It does not possess unique factorization; in fact the class group of R is cyclic of order 2.

Introduction and Review of the Tame Case. Roggenkamp, Klaus W. (et al.) Pages

In the "new math" introduced during the s in the junior high grades of 7 through 9, students were exposed to some mathematical ideas which formerly were not part of the regular school curriculum. Elementary set theory was one of them. Another was abstract algebra, in which it was illustrated that operations resembling addition and multiplication could exist that had some of their properties. One of the simplest examples is modular arithmetic. Here is an addition table, and a multiplication table, for modulo-6 arithmetic: This means that if a number is not zero, in modulo 5 arithmetic, one can define the operation of dividing by that number. In both forms of modular arithmetic, one could define subtraction as well as addition. Abstract algebra deals with three kinds of object: A group is defined as: The operation, when given two elements of the set as arguments, always returns an element of the set as its result. It is thus fully defined, and closed over the set. One element of the set is an identity element. Every element of the set has an inverse element. The operation is associative. For any three elements of the set, $a \text{ op } b \text{ op } c$ always equals $a \text{ op } (b \text{ op } c)$. A consequence of the third property is that there are no duplicate elements in any row or column of the operation table for a group. A consequence of the fourth property, together with the others, is that every finite group can be expressed as a set of permutations of n objects for some n , where the operation for the group is applying the second permutation to the elements of the first permutation. There are many different kinds of finite groups, some with very complex structure. Most groups belong to families of groups with an infinite number of members. Thus, addition modulo 5 yields the cyclic group of order 5, and there are cyclic groups of every integer order starting with 2. A ring is a set of elements with two operations, one of which is like addition, the other of which is like multiplication, which we will call add and mul . It has the following properties: The elements of the ring, together with the addition operation, form a group. The word Abelian is also used for "commutative", in honor of the mathematician Niels Henrik Abel. The multiplication operation is associative. Multiplication distributes over addition: Addition and multiplication modulo 5 and modulo 6 both yield rings. Matrix multiplication also leads to rings as well. A field is a ring in which the elements, other than the identity element for addition, and the multiplication operator, also form a group. There are only two kinds of finite fields. One kind is the field formed by addition and multiplication modulo a prime number. The other kind of finite field has a number of elements that is a power of a prime number. The addition operator consists of multiple independent additions modulo that prime. The elements of the field can be thought of as polynomials whose coefficients are numbers modulo that prime. In that case, multiplication is polynomial multiplication, where not only are the coefficients modulo that prime, but the polynomials are modulo a special kind of polynomial, known as a primitive polynomial. All finite fields, but particularly those of this second kind, are known as Galois fields. Finite fields whose number of elements is a power of 2 have the bitwise exclusive-OR operation as their addition operation. This page explains why such fields are found useful in cryptography. One of the simplest families of non-Abelian groups or non-commutative groups are the dihedral groups: Since flipping the polygon over makes its previous rotations have the effect of a subsequent rotation in the opposite direction, this group is not commutative. The dihedral groups of order 3 the dihedral group of order 3, D_3 , is also the permutation group of order 3, S_3 and order 4 are often seen in introductory books on abstract algebra: Each symbol can be thought of as standing both for one position of the pentagonal card, and as the rotation with a possible flip that obtains that position from the starting position, with red pointing upwards and yellow pointing to the right. The symbol in the leftmost column indicates the first manipulation, and the symbol in the top row indicates the second manipulation. Another interesting class of groups is based on directly considering the rules by which groups are built. For example, the free Burnside group with 2 generators and exponent 3, which has 27 elements, is formed as follows: One starts creating the group by beginning with two elements, a and b . The result of performing the operation associated with the group is usually just the concatenation of the names of the two elements: However, there is one rule making the group more than merely an arbitrary collection of strings: This rule is important to keep in mind, because otherwise this group would have an

infinite number of elements, because there are an infinite number of strings made up of just a and b that have no sequence in them repeated three times. But while the potential number of elements of this group is infinite, this rule shows that they all belong to a limited set of distinct categories, or equivalence classes. For example, aa when followed by a makes the null string, but that is equally true of babab or abaabaab, so aa, babab, and abaabaab must all be equivalent. The possible distinct strings are noted by single letter symbols for compactness using the representation shown in the following table, which also includes several important string equivalencies: The two remaining elements are noted by x and X, and have a large number of synonyms, as noted below: In this notation, the table for the group is: This means that "aaba" concatenated with "aabb" forms "aa". It may be easier to see what is going on with a slightly less compact notation. Here is the table for this group in that form, with the elements in a different order each element is immediately followed by its inverse instead of the inverses being put in the other half of the table: Novikov from , in which it was proven that if, instead of removing any string repeated three times, one removed strings when they were repeated times, the resulting group would be infinite; and it would also be infinite if any odd number larger than was used as the criterion. The Mathieu group M 11 , the smallest of the 26 sporadic finite simple groups, there are, of course, an infinite number of finite simple groups, but most belong to several classes each of which has an infinite number of members can be represented as the group of the permutations of 11 objects generated by the following two permutations: A particularly beautiful and symmetric set of permutations that yields the 95, member group M 12 is given in Numbers, groups, and codes by Humphreys and Prest: These days, texts to be encrypted tend to be in binary form. A group formed from operations on disjoint parts of its elements, such as the group formed by the operation XOR on the individual bits of an 8-bit value, is called an affine group. Obvious groups on strings of bits could be formed by performing XOR on some of their bits and addition on other groups of bits. But other possibilities are available; the dihedral groups on polygons of four sides, eight sides and so on are another one. As it happens, there are many more possibilities than this. There are 49,, distinct non-isomorphic groups of order 1,, and these groups are the overwhelming majority of groups of order below 2, For more manageable possibilities, there are 10,, groups of order , 56, groups of order , 2, groups of order , groups of order 64, 51 groups of order 32, and only 14 groups of order 16 and 5 groups of order 8. XOR, addition, and the dihedral group for a quadrilateral provide three of the five possibilities for order 8, and a fourth obvious possibility is provided by the affine group involving adding two of the bits, and XORing the third. The remaining possibility is the quaternion group. Of the 14 such groups, the ones that either were obvious, or which have become obvious from the list of groups of order 8 above, are: There are six others, and here they are, worked out from their "presentations":

Chapter 4 : Sets, Groups, Rings and Algebras

transactions of the american mathematical society Volume , August CLASS GROUPS OF INTEGRAL GROUP RINGS(X) BY I. REINER AND S. ULLOM ABSTRACT.

Select the Right Ring Pattern Using the 8x8 Ring Groups feature A Ring Group is a feature that allows you to have multiple phones ring when one extension or number is dialed. It is often used to efficiently distribute calls to specific departments such as Sales, Customer Support and Accounting. Ring groups allow your employees to be more productive and help decrease customer hold time. The Ring Group feature is provided free of charge with your 8x8 Virtual Office service with the option to configure up to nine different Ring Groups! Here are some examples of how a business can use ring groups: When a call comes in, you could have all four extensions ring simultaneously so whoever picks up first takes the call. Or set up the ring group so the phones ring in a specific order to better distribute the workload. When a call comes in to your sales number, you can set it up to ring the sales reps in a certain order so they each get a turn to answer incoming calls. Or set it up so all the phones in the group ring simultaneously so whoever answers the phone fastest gets the sale! Set up ring groups for Sales, Technical Support, Shipping, etc. Then you can either set up your Auto Attendant to route calls to these ring groups e. Each Ring Group can have any type of number assigned to it. It can also be answered by the auto attendant or by another extension. Enterprise-class services like Ring Groups can help take your business to the next level by improving employee efficiency and delivering better customer service. You can select from three ring patterns to configure your Ring Group. Cyclic”Also known as rollover. A Cyclic pattern allows an equal distribution of calls, making sure all extensions in the Ring Group assist in answering the calls. You can set the number of times the call cycles through the extensions before sending it to voicemail. For a 3-line Ring Group, the first call rings ext. Second call rings ext. Cyclic Repetitive”A Cyclic Repetitive pattern allows calls to be distributed among all extensions in the group in the order that the extensions are entered. Third call rings ext. Simultaneous Ring”The Simultaneous Ring pattern rings all extensions at the same time when a call is received. The first extension to pick up the phone will answer the call. Once the call is picked up, all other extensions in the Ring Group will display a missed call.

Chapter 5 : Groups, Rings, and Fields

In number theory, the ideal class group (or class group) of an algebraic number field K is the quotient group $J K / P K$ where $J K$ is the group of fractional ideals of the ring of integers of K , and $P K$ is its subgroup of principal ideals.

Chapter 6 : Group ring - Wikipedia

CLASS GROUPS AND AUTOMORPHISM GROUPS OF GROUP RINGS by KENNETH A. BROWN (Received 13 February,) 1. Introduction. () This paper is a sequel to [2].

Chapter 7 : Ideal class group - Wikipedia

The notion of class groups of orders \hat{I} is a natural generalisation of the notion of class groups of rings of integers R in number fields F as well as of class groups of group-rings RG where G is.

Chapter 8 : Ullom : Nontrivial lower bounds for class groups of integral group rings

Problems and Solutions in GROUPS & RINGS William J. DeMeo November 2, Abstract This document contains solutions to some of the problems appearing on comprehensive exams given by the.