ISSN: 2454-9940

INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF APPLIED SCIENCE ENGINEERING AND MANAGEMENT

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www.ijasem.org

INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF APPLIED SCIENCE ENGINEERING AND MANAGEMENT

ISSN2454-9940
www.ijsem.org
Vol 10, Issuse. 3 Sep 2019

The Use of Group Theory Essential Ideas for Modern Algebra

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ABSTRACT

The goal of this work is to provide basic ideas in contemporary algebra in a clear and comprehensive manner using group theory and its applications. Rather than rules and processes for manipulating their individual members, modern algebra, sometimes known as abstract algebra, is a discipline of mathematics concerned with the general algebraic structure of diverse sets (such as real numbers, complex numbers, matrices, and vector spaces). The study of sets in which any two members can be multiplied or added together to get a third element of the same set was made possible by significant mathematical advancements during the second half of the 19th century.

Numbers, functions, or other objects could be the elements of the concerned sets. It made sense to think of the sets—rather than their components—as the main focus because the procedures involved were comparable. The Dutch mathematician Bartel van der Waerden wrote Modern Algebra, a seminal treatise, in 1930. Since then, the topic has profoundly impacted nearly every area of mathematics. Although the first two chapters of this research work are likely understandable to well-prepared undergraduates, the intended audience for this work is first-year graduate students studying mathematics. This research covers a wide range of subjects related to algebraic extension fields, finite fields, groups, rings, and modules in modern algebra.

This work starts with an overview that gives the reader a roadmap of the topics that will be covered. We compile activities that go over and reinforce the information covered in the respective parts at the end of each chapter. These activities vary in difficulty from simple material applications to reader-challenging puzzles. A list of "Questions for Further Study" that address issues appropriate for research projects leading to master's degrees is also included.

Keywords: Abstract Algebra, Modern Algebra, algebraic extension fields.

1.Introduction

Fields of elementary algebraic structures

Being little more than a precisely specified collection of mathematical objects, a set is not particularly helpful in and of itself.

Nonetheless, a set becomes extremely helpful when one or more operations (like addition and multiplication) are specified for its elements. The set will have

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INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF APPLIED SCIENCE ENGINEERING AND MANAGEMENT

ISSN2454-9940
www.ijsem.org
Vol 10, Issuse. 3 Sep 2019

an especially —rich‖ algebraic structure if the operations meet well-known arithmetic criteria (such as distributivity, commutativity, and associativity). Fields are sets that have the richest algebraic structure. Real numbers (rational and irrational numbers), rational numbers (fractions a/b where a and b are positive or negative whole integers), and rational numbers are common examples of fields. The complex numbers (numbers in the format a + bi, where i2 = -1) and a and b are real numbers. ℚ for the rationals, ℝ for the reals, and ℂ for the complex numbers represent each of them since they are significant enough to deserve their own unique symbols. Compared to other uses of the term, such vector fields in mathematics or magnetic fields in physics, the algebraic definition of field is very different. Some languages manage to avoid this terminology clash; for instance, in French and German, a field in the algebraic sense is referred to as a corps and a Körper, respectively, with both words meaning "body."

Apart from the previously listed fields, which are all infinitely large, there are other fields that contain a finite number of elements (which are always some power of a prime number), and these are extremely significant, especially in the context of discrete mathematics. Actually, the early development of abstract algebra was driven by finite fields. There are only two elements in the most basic finite field: 0 and 1, where 1 + 1 = 0. Data communication and coding theory are two areas where this discipline is applicable.

Axioms of structure

The table displays the fundamental principles, or axioms, for addition and multiplication. A set that complies with each of the ten principles is referred to as a field. A set is referred to as a ring if it meets all seven axioms and a ring with unity if it also satisfies axiom 9. A commutative ring is one that satisfies the commutative law of multiplication (axiom 8). A set is said to exist when axioms 1 through 9 are true and there are no suitable divisors of zero, meaning that whenever ab = 0, either a = 0 or b = 0. For instance, axiom 10 fails, therefore **even if the set of integers**

{…, −2, −1, 0, 1, 2, …} is a commutative ring with unity, it is not a field. A set is referred to as a division ring or skew field if only axiom 8 breaks.

Prime factorization

The 19th-century work on number theory also laid the groundwork for some other essential ideas of modern algebra, especially in relation to efforts to extend the application of the theorem of (unique) prime factorization outside the natural numbers. This theorem stated that, with the possible exception of order (24 = 2√2√2√3), every natural number may be expressed as a unique product of its prime factors. Since Euclid's day, this attribute of the natural numbers has been understood, if not explicitly. Mathematicians attempted to apply a variant of this theorem to complex numbers during the 1800s. Therefore, it should come as no surprise to see Gauss' name mentioned in this context. The factorization features of numbers of the kind a + ib (a and b integers and i = Square root of √−1), commonly known as Gaussian integers, were discovered by Gauss in his classical investigations on arithmetic. By doing this, Gauss not only demonstrated how to employ complex numbers to solve an ordinary integer problem—a noteworthy accomplishment in and of itself—but he also paved the way for a thorough examination of unique subdomains of the complex numbers. A generalized version of the factorization theorem, which required the prime

INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF APPLIED SCIENCE ENGINEERING AND MANAGEMENT
ISSN2454-9940
www.ijsem.org
Vol 10, Issuse. 3 Sep 2019

factors to be specifically defined in this domain, was satisfied by the Gaussian integers, as demonstrated by Gauss in 1832.

Ernst Eduard Kummer, a German mathematician, expanded these findings into new, even more expansive categories of complex numbers in the 1840s. These included numbers in the form of a + ⍰b, where $\sigma 2 = n$ for n fixed integers, or a + ρb, where $\rho n = 1$, $\rho \neq 1$, and $n > 2$. The prime factorization theorem was ultimately shown to be invalid in such broad domains, notwithstanding Kummer's intriguing discoveries. The difficulty is seen in the example below.

2.Research Approaches

In contemporary algebra, group theory is the study methodology of systems made up of a set of elements and a binary operation that may be applied to two of the set's members that together meet a set of axioms. They are as follows: the group must be closed under the operation (any two elements added together yield another element in the group), follow the associative law, have an identity element (which, when added to any other element, leaves the latter unchanged), and have an inverse for each element (which, when combined with another element, yields the identity element). A group is referred to as commutative, or abelian, if it also satisfies the commutative law. An abelian group is the set of integers under addition where the inverse is the negative of a positive number or vice versa and the identity member is 0. Groups are essential to contemporary algebra since many mathematical phenomena share their fundamental structure. In geometry, groups are used to express concepts like symmetry and specific kinds of transformations. In physics, chemistry, and computer science, group theory is useful. It can even be used to solve puzzles like the Rubik's Cube. On the lighter side, group theory has been applied to solve puzzles like the Rubik's Cube and the 15-puzzle. Group theory offers the intellectual foundation needed to solve these types of difficulties. To be fair, just as you can learn to drive a car without knowing automotive mechanics, you can also learn an algorithm for solving Rubik's cube without knowing group theory (just take a look at this 7-year-old cubist). Naturally, you need to know what's actually going on under the hood of an automobile in order to comprehend how it operates. Underneath the Rubik's cube lies group theory, which includes symmetric groups, conjugations, commutators, and semi-direct products. Crystals and other periodic materials have translational symmetry. The lattice remains invariant after the translation process.

Procedures & Content

In order to achieve the greatest possible outcome, we have tried to find the most recent research on the fundamental goals in this paper. Both the current and initial work on these guidelines have been completed. Algebraic mathematical puzzles have been solved by group theory. Mathematicians discovered quadratic formula analogues for the roots of generic polynomials of degrees three and four throughout the Renaissance. Similar to the quadratic formula, the cubic and quartic formulas express all degree 3 and degree 4 polynomials' roots in terms of the polynomial coefficients and root extractions (square, cube, and fourth roots). It proved impossible to find an analogue of the quadratic formula for the roots of any polynomial of degree five or more. In the 19th century, Evariste Galois found a subtle algebraic symmetry in the roots of a polynomial, which explained why such comprehensive formulae had not been found. He discovered a way to associate a finite group with every polynomial f(x). Specifically, when the group associated with f(x) meets a technical criterion

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ISSN2454-9940
www.ijsem.org
Vol 10, Issuse. 3 Sep 2019

too complex to go into here, there is an equivalent of the quadratic formula for every root of f(x). By using this method, Galois could provide explicit examples of fifth degree polynomials, like x5 - x - 1, whose roots cannot be given by anything resembling the quadratic formula, even though not all groups satisfy the technical criteria. A second semester in abstract algebra would be a good place to learn about this application of group theory to polynomial root formulas.

Modern Algebraic Structures

Groups, rings, and fields. This semester, we'll be studying a variety of algebraic structures, including minor variations of the three main types—fields in chapter 2, rings in chapter 3, and groups in chapter 4. First, let's review the definitions and look at a few examples. We won't prove anything right now; that will come in later chapters when we take a closer look at those structures. An observation regarding notation. We'll refer to different types of integers using standard notation. N is the set of all natural numbers, which are {0, 1, 2,}. Z is the symbol for the set of numbers {..., −2, −1, 0, 1, 2,} (for Zahlen, German for whole number). Q stands for "quotient." It is the set of rational numbers, or numbers of the type m n, where m is an integer and n is a nonzero integer. R is the set of all real numbers, which includes all positive, all negative, and 0 values. Furthermore, the set C represents the set of complex numbers, or numbers of the type x + iy, where x and y are real numbers and i 2 = −1.

Fields

In layman's terms, a field is a set that can do addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division with four operations that meet standard attributes. The other operations that R has, such as powers, roots, logs, and the plethora of other functions like sin x, are not required to be included in them. Interpretation 1.1 (Area). A field is a set that has two binary operations—addition and multiplication—that are both associative and commutative and are represented in the standard way. Multiplication has inverses of nonzero elements (the inverse of x indicated 1 x or x −1), distributes over addition, and 0 6= 1. Both have identity elements (the multiplicative identity denoted 1 and the additive identity denoted 0). There are inverse elements in addition; −x is the inverse of x.

3. Results and Findings

The idea of a group originated in the study of polynomial equations, with Évariste Galois being the first to do so in the 1830s. Galois established the name "groupe" (groupe in French) for the symmetry group of an equation's roots, which is today known as a Galois group. It was not until approximately 1870 that the group notion was solidified and generalized, thanks to contributions from other disciplines like geometry and number theory. Groups are studied independently in the field of active mathematics known as modern group theory.[a] Mathematicians have developed a number of ideas to divide groups into smaller, components that are easier to understand, like simple groups, quotient groups, and subgroups. Group theorists examine the various concrete expressions of groups in addition to their abstract characteristics, from the perspectives of computational group theory and representation theory, which is concerned with the group's representations. The categorization of finite simple groups, which was finished in 2004, is the result of the development of a theory for finite groups.[aa] Geometric group theory has become an active field in group theory since the mid-1980s, studying finitely generated groups as geometric objects.

ISSN2454-9940
www.ijsem.org
Vol 10, Issuse. 3 Sep 2019

The set of integers, which includes addition and the numbers..., −4, −3, −2, −1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4,...,[3], is one of the most well-known sets. The group axioms in the definition below are modeled by the following features of integer addition.

• The sum of any two integers, a and b, is also an integer. In other words, adding integers always results in an integer. Closure is the name given to this attribute under addition.

• (A + B) + C = a + (B + C) for all integers a, b, and c. Put another way, the property known as associativity states that adding a to b first and the result to c ultimately yields the same result as adding a to the sum of b and c.

• 0 + a = a + 0 = an if an is any integer. Because adding zero to any integer yields zero, it is referred to as the identity element of addition.

• There exists an integer b such that, for any integer a, a + b = b + a = 0. The inverse element of an integer, represented by the symbol −a, is the number b.

A group consists of a set, G, and an operation · (also known as the group rule of G) that takes any two elements, a and b, and creates a new element, ab or a · b. The set and operation, (G, ·), must meet four conditions referred to as the group axioms in order to be considered a group.

4. Conclusion

Many scholars from all around the world have been interested in the rough set theory, and they have made significant contributions to its advancement and use. Rough set theory has been applied worldwide and has grown rapidly in recent years. A great deal of study has been done to compare rough set theory with other theories of uncertainties. Algebra was one of the first few disciplines in both pure and applied mathematics to use the concept of a rough set. A few writers replaced the universal set with an algebraic structure and examined the irregularities in this new form. Conversely, a few writers investigated the idea of crude algebraic structures. Group theory saw the introduction of rough sets in 1994 by Biswas and Nanda [10]. A number of preliminary ideas concerning algebraic structure have been introduced starting with this book.

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ISSN2454-9940
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Vol 10, Issuse. 3 Sep 2019

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