

$= 5$ , 3 is a generator since  $3^1 = 3$ ,  $3^2 = 9 \neq 4$ ,  $3^3 = 27 \neq 2$ , and  $3^4 = 81 \equiv 1 \pmod{10}$ .

Some cyclic groups have an infinite number of elements. In these groups, for every non-zero element  $a$ , all the powers of  $a$  are distinct; despite the name "cyclic group", the powers of the elements do not cycle. An infinite cyclic group is isomorphic to  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ , the group of integers under addition introduced above. As these two prototypes are both abelian, so is any cyclic group.

The study of finitely generated abelian groups is quite mature, including the fundamental theorem of finitely generated abelian groups; and reflecting this state of affairs, many group-related notions, such as center and commutator, describe the extent to which a given group is not abelian.

## == Symmetry groups ==

Symmetry groups are groups consisting of symmetries of given mathematical objects, be they of geometric nature, such as the introductory symmetry group of the square, or of algebraic nature, such as polynomial equations and their solutions. Conceptually, group theory can be thought of as the study of symmetry. Symmetries in mathematics greatly simplify the study of geometrical or analytical objects. A group is said to act on another mathematical object  $X$  if every group element performs some operation on  $X$  compatibly to the group law. In the rightmost example below, an element of order 7 of the  $(2, 3, 7)$  triangle group acts on the tiling by permuting the highlighted warped triangles (and the other ones, too). By a group action, the group pattern is connected to the structure of the object being acted on.

In chemical fields, such as crystallography, space groups and point groups describe molecular symmetries and crystal symmetries. These symmetries underlie the chemical and physical behavior of these systems, and group theory enables simplification of quantum mechanical analysis of these properties. For example, group theory is used to show that optical transitions between certain quantum levels cannot occur simply because of the symmetry of the states involved.

Not only are groups useful to assess the implications of symmetries in molecules, but surprisingly they also predict that molecules sometimes can change symmetry. The Jahn-Teller effect is a distortion of a molecule of high symmetry when it adopts a particular ground state of lower symmetry from a set of possible ground states that are related to each other by the symmetry operations of the molecule.

Likewise, group theory helps predict the changes in physical properties that occur when a material undergoes a phase transition, for example, from a cubic to a tetrahedral crystalline form. An example is ferroelectric materials, where the change from a paraelectric to a ferroelectric state occurs at the Curie temperature and is related to a change from the high-symmetry paraelectric state to the lower symmetry ferroelectric state, accompanied by a so-called soft phonon mode, a vibrational lattice mode that goes to zero frequency at the transition.

Such spontaneous symmetry breaking has found further application in elementary particle physics, where its occurrence is related to the appearance of Goldstone bosons.

Finite symmetry groups such as the Mathieu groups are used in coding theory, which is in turn applied in error correction of transmitted data, and in CD players. Another application is differential Galois theory, which characterizes functions having antiderivatives of a prescribed form, giving group-theoretic criteria for when solutions of certain differential equations are well-behaved. Geometric properties that remain stable under group actions are investigated in (geometric) invariant theory.

## == General linear group and representation theory ==

Matrix groups consist of matrices together with matrix multiplication. The general linear group  $GL(n, R)$  consists of all invertible  $n$ -by- $n$  matrices with real entries. Its subgroups are referred to as matrix groups or linear groups. The dihedral group example mentioned above can be viewed as a (very small) matrix group. Another important matrix group is the special orthogonal

group  $SO(n)$ . It describes all possible rotations in  $n$  dimensions. Via Euler angles, rotation matrices are used in computer graphics.

Representation theory is both an application of the group concept and important for a deeper understanding of groups. It studies the group by its group actions on other spaces. A broad class of group representations are linear representations, i.e. the group is acting on a vector space, such as the three-dimensional Euclidean space  $R^3$ . A representation of  $G$  on an  $n$ -dimensional real vector space is simply a group homomorphism

$$\rho: G \rightarrow GL(n, R)$$

from the group to the general linear group. This way, the group operation, which may be abstractly given, translates to the multiplication of matrices making it accessible to explicit computations.

Given a group action, this gives further means to study the object being acted on. On the other hand, it also yields information about the group. Group representations are an organizing principle in the theory of finite groups, Lie groups, algebraic groups and topological groups, especially (locally) compact groups.

== Galois groups ==

Galois groups were developed to help solve polynomial equations by capturing their symmetry features. For example, the solutions of the quadratic equation  $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$  are given by

<formula>

Exchanging "+" and "-" in the expression, i.e. permuting the two solutions of the equation can be viewed as a (very simple) group operation. Similar formulae are known for cubic and quartic equations, but do not exist in general for degree 5 and higher. Abstract properties of Galois groups associated with polynomials (in particular their solvability) give a criterion for polynomials that have all their solutions expressible by radicals, i.e. solutions expressible using solely addition, multiplication, and roots similar to the formula above.

The problem can be dealt with by shifting to field theory and considering the splitting field of a polynomial. Modern Galois theory generalizes the above type of Galois groups to field extensions and establishes via the fundamental theorem of Galois theory a precise relationship between fields and groups, underlining once again the ubiquity of groups in mathematics.

== Finite groups ==

A group is called finite if it has a finite number of elements. The number of elements is called the order of the group. An important class is the symmetric groups  $S_N$ , the groups of permutations of  $N$  letters. For example, the symmetric group on 3 letters  $S_3$  is the group consisting of all possible orderings of the three letters ABC, i.e. contains the elements ABC, ACB, ..., up to CBA, in total 6 (or 3 factorial) elements. This class is fundamental insofar as any finite group can be expressed as a subgroup of a symmetric group  $S_N$  for a suitable integer  $N$  (Cayley's theorem). Parallel to the group of symmetries of the square above,  $S_3$  can also be interpreted as the group of symmetries of an equilateral triangle.

The order of an element  $a$  in a group  $G$  is the least positive integer  $n$  such that  $a^n = e$ , where  $a^n$  represents

<formula>

i.e. application of the operation  $\cdot$  to  $n$  copies of  $a$ . (If  $\cdot$  represents multiplication, then  $a^n$  corresponds to the  $n$ th power of  $a$ .) In infinite groups, such an  $n$  may not exist, in which case the order of  $a$  is said to be infinity. The order of an element equals the order of the cyclic subgroup generated by this element.

More sophisticated counting techniques, for example counting cosets, yield more precise statements about finite groups: Lagrange's Theorem states that for a finite group  $G$  the order of any finite subgroup  $H$  divides the order of  $G$ . The Sylow theorems give a partial converse.

The dihedral group (discussed above) is a finite group of order 8. The order of  $r_1$  is 4, as is the

order of the subgroup  $R$  it generates ( see above ) . The order of the reflection elements  $f_v$  etc. is 2 . Both orders divide 8 , as predicted by Lagrange 's theorem . The groups  $F_p \times$  above have order  $p - 1$  .

== Classification of finite simple groups ==

Mathematicians often strive for a complete classification ( or list ) of a mathematical notion . In the context of finite groups , this aim leads to difficult mathematics . According to Lagrange 's theorem , finite groups of order  $p$  , a prime number , are necessarily cyclic ( abelian ) groups  $Z_p$  . Groups of order  $p^2$  can also be shown to be abelian , a statement which does not generalize to order  $p^3$  , as the non-abelian group  $D_4$  of order 8 = 2<sup>3</sup> above shows . Computer algebra systems can be used to list small groups , but there is no classification of all finite groups . An intermediate step is the classification of finite simple groups . A nontrivial group is called simple if its only normal subgroups are the trivial group and the group itself . The Jordan - Hölder theorem exhibits finite simple groups as the building blocks for all finite groups . Listing all finite simple groups was a major achievement in contemporary group theory . 1998 Fields Medal winner Richard Borcherds succeeded in proving the monstrous moonshine conjectures , a surprising and deep relation between the largest finite simple sporadic group - the " monster group " - and certain modular functions , a piece of classical complex analysis , and string theory , a theory supposed to unify the description of many physical phenomena .

== Groups with additional structure ==

Many groups are simultaneously groups and examples of other mathematical structures . In the language of category theory , they are group objects in a category , meaning that they are objects ( that is , examples of another mathematical structure ) which come with transformations ( called morphisms ) that mimic the group axioms . For example , every group ( as defined above ) is also a set , so a group is a group object in the category of sets .

== Topological groups ==

Some topological spaces may be endowed with a group law . In order for the group law and the topology to interweave well , the group operations must be continuous functions , that is ,  $g \mapsto h$  , and  $g \mapsto 1$  must not vary wildly if  $g$  and  $h$  vary only little . Such groups are called topological groups , and they are the group objects in the category of topological spaces . The most basic examples are the reals  $\mathbb{R}$  under addition ,  $( \mathbb{R} \setminus \{ 0 \} , \cdot )$  , and similarly with any other topological field such as the complex numbers or  $p$ -adic numbers . All of these groups are locally compact , so they have Haar measures and can be studied via harmonic analysis . The former offer an abstract formalism of invariant integrals . Invariance means , in the case of real numbers for example :

<formula>

for any constant  $c$  . Matrix groups over these fields fall under this regime , as do adèle rings and adelic algebraic groups , which are basic to number theory . Galois groups of infinite field extensions such as the absolute Galois group can also be equipped with a topology , the so-called Krull topology , which in turn is central to generalize the above sketched connection of fields and groups to infinite field extensions . An advanced generalization of this idea , adapted to the needs of algebraic geometry , is the étale fundamental group .

== Lie groups ==

Lie groups ( in honor of Sophus Lie ) are groups which also have a manifold structure , i.e. they are spaces looking locally like some Euclidean space of the appropriate dimension . Again , the additional structure , here the manifold structure , has to be compatible , i.e. the maps corresponding to multiplication and the inverse have to be smooth .

A standard example is the general linear group introduced above : it is an open subset of the space of all  $n \times n$  matrices, because it is given by the inequality

$$\det(A) \neq 0,$$

where  $A$  denotes an  $n \times n$  matrix.

Lie groups are of fundamental importance in modern physics : Noether's theorem links continuous symmetries to conserved quantities . Rotation , as well as translations in space and time are basic symmetries of the laws of mechanics . They can , for instance , be used to construct simple models imposing , say , axial symmetry on a situation will typically lead to significant simplification in the equations one needs to solve to provide a physical description . Another example are the Lorentz transformations , which relate measurements of time and velocity of two observers in motion relative to each other . They can be deduced in a purely theoretical way , by expressing the transformations as a rotational symmetry of Minkowski space . The latter serves in the absence of significant gravitation as a model of space time in special relativity . The full symmetry group of Minkowski space , i.e. including translations , is known as the Poincaré group . By the above , it plays a pivotal role in special relativity and , by implication , for quantum field theories . Symmetries that vary with location are central to the modern description of physical interactions with the help of gauge theory .

== Generalizations ==

In abstract algebra , more general structures are defined by relaxing some of the axioms defining a group . For example , if the requirement that every element has an inverse is eliminated , the resulting algebraic structure is called a monoid . The natural numbers  $\mathbb{N}$  ( including 0 ) under addition form a monoid , as do the nonzero integers under multiplication  $(\mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}, \cdot)$  , see above . There is a general method to formally add inverses to elements to any ( abelian ) monoid , much the same way as  $(\mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}, \cdot)$  is derived from  $(\mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}, \cdot)$  , known as the Grothendieck group . Groupoids are similar to groups except that the composition  $a \circ b$  need not be defined for all  $a$  and  $b$  . They arise in the study of more complicated forms of symmetry , often in topological and analytical structures , such as the fundamental groupoid or stacks . Finally , it is possible to generalize any of these concepts by replacing the binary operation with an arbitrary  $n$ -ary one ( i.e. an operation taking  $n$  arguments ) . With the proper generalization of the group axioms this gives rise to an  $n$ -ary group . The table gives a list of several structures generalizing groups .

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