

The third best trick in mathematics: count something two ways. The tenth best trick in mathematics: pull something out that won't work anywhere else.

## 1 Group Actions

**Defn:** A **group action** of a group  $G$  on a set  $A$  is a function

$$f : G \times A \rightarrow A$$

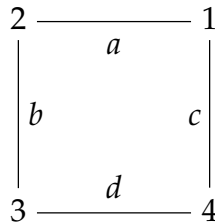
which satisfies the following properties:

- $f(1, a) = a$
- $f(g, f(h, a)) = f(gh, a)$ .

We will denote this as  $1 \cdot a = f(1, a)$  and  $g \cdot (h \cdot a) = (gh) \cdot a$ .

**Ex:** Invertible  $n \times n$  matrices act on size  $n$  vectors by multiplication. The group of units in a field also acts on vectors.

**Ex:** Recall our old friend  $D_4 = \{\sigma_0, \sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3, \rho_1, \rho_2, \rho_3, \rho_4\}$ , the dihedral group of symmetries of a square.



If we label the vertices and edges of the square as shown above, then we have

$$\sigma_3 \cdot 2 = 1 \quad \rho_2 \cdot 4 = 3$$

$$\sigma_1 \cdot c = a \quad \rho_2 \cdot d = d$$

and so on.

**Theorem:** An action of  $G$  on  $A$  is equivalent to a homomorphism from  $G$  to  $S_A$ , the symmetric group on  $A$ .

**Proof:** Let  $f : G \times A \rightarrow A$  be an action. Define  $\phi : G \rightarrow S_A$  by  $\phi(g)(a) = g \cdot a$ . Why is  $\phi(g)$  a permutation? Because  $\phi(g)$  is a bijective map from  $A$  to itself. We can see this since  $\phi(g^{-1})$  is its inverse:  $\phi(g^{-1}) \circ \phi(g)(a) = g^{-1} \cdot (g \cdot a) = (g^{-1}g) \cdot a = 1_G \cdot a = a$ . Is  $\phi$  a homomorphism? Yes, because  $\phi(gh)(a) = (gh) \cdot a = g \cdot (h \cdot a) = \phi(g) \circ \phi(h)(a)$ . ■

**Ex:** Consider  $D_4$  acting on the edges of a square. This gives the homomorphism:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \sigma_0 \mapsto e & \rho_1 \mapsto (ac)(bd) \\ \sigma_1 \mapsto (abcd) & \rho_2 \mapsto (bc) \\ \sigma_2 \mapsto (ad)(bc) & \rho_3 \mapsto (ab)(cd) \\ \sigma_3 \mapsto (acdb) & \rho_4 \mapsto (ad) \end{array}$$

**Theorem:** Let  $G$  act on  $A$ . Then:

1. The **kernel** of the action, defined as

$$\{g \in G \mid g \cdot a = a \forall a \in A\}$$

is a normal subgroup of  $G$ .

2. For every  $a \in A$ , the set

$$G_a = \{g \in G \mid g \cdot a = a\}$$

is a subgroup of  $G$ .

**Proof:** The group in part (1) is the kernel of the corresponding homomorphism. For part (2), let  $g, h \in G_a$ . Then  $(gh) \cdot a = g \cdot (h \cdot a) = a$ . The proof of closure under inverses is left for the reader. ■

**Theorem:** Cayley's Theorem. Every group  $G$  is isomorphic to a subgroup of a symmetric group. Specifically,  $S_G$ .

**Proof:** Let the group  $G$  act on the set  $G$  by left multiplication:  $g \cdot h = gh$ . This gives a homomorphism from  $G$  to  $S_G$ . We want to show that this homomorphism is injective. So assume  $g$  is in the kernel of this map. This means  $g \cdot h = h$  for all  $h \in G$ . So  $gh = h$ , so  $g$  is the identity. Since the kernel of the homomorphism is just the identity, the map is injective. ■

But what does a group action tell us about a set? For starters, it gives an equivalence relation on elements of the set:  $x \sim y \iff x = g \cdot y$ . We call these equivalence classes **orbits**.

**Theorem:** If a finite group  $G$  acts on  $A$ , then the sizes of the orbits divide  $|G|$ . Specifically,  $|G| = |G_a| \cdot |\text{Orb}(a)|$ .

**Proof:** We claim that  $xG_a = yG_a$  if and only if  $x \cdot a = y \cdot a$ . If  $x \cdot a = y \cdot a$ , then  $a = (x^{-1}y) \cdot a$ . So  $x^{-1}y \in G_a$ , which gives  $x^{-1}yG_a = G_a$ . Hence  $yG_a = xG_a$ . Each step works backwards. Thus the map

$$\{g \cdot a \mid g \in G\} \rightarrow \{g \cdot G_a \mid g \in G\}$$

defined by

$$g \cdot a \mapsto g \cdot G_a$$

is a well-defined bijection. Thus, there are as many cosets as there are elements of the orbit, so Lagrange's Theorem gives the desired result. ■

What happens if  $|G| = p^a$ ? The equivalence classes on  $A$  have sizes that are powers of  $p$ . Let  $n_i$  be the number of orbits of size  $p^i$ . Now,  $|A| = n_0 + n_1p + n_2p^2 + \dots + n_ap^a$ . So then  $|A| \equiv n_0 \pmod{p}$ . We introduce notation such that  $|A| = |A_G| \pmod{p}$ , where  $A_G = \{a \in A \mid g \cdot a = a \forall g \in G\}$  (the set of elements that aren't moved by anything).

**Theorem:** Cauchy's Theorem. Let  $G$  be a group and  $p$  a prime with  $p \mid |G|$ . Then  $G$  contains an element of order  $p$ .

**Proof:** Let  $X = \{(g_1, g_2, \dots, g_p) \mid g_1g_2 \dots g_p = 1, g_i \in G\}$ . Notice  $g_p = (g_1g_2 \dots g_{p-1})^{-1}$ . So  $|X| = |G|^{p-1} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . Consider  $\langle (123 \dots p) \rangle \subseteq S_p$ . We have  $|\langle (123 \dots p) \rangle| = p$ . This group acts on  $X$ :

$$(123 \dots p) \cdot (g_1, g_2, \dots, g_p) = (g_p, g_1, g_2, \dots, g_{p-1}).$$

Check: does  $g_p(g_1g_2 \dots g_{p-1}) = 1$ ? Yes, since  $g_p = (g_1g_2 \dots g_{p-1})^{-1}$ . Now, what is  $X_G$ ? What are the things fixed by the action of this group? If  $(g_1, g_2, \dots, g_p) \in X_G$ , then  $(g_1, g_2, \dots, g_p) = (g_p, g_1, \dots, g_{p-1})$ , so  $g_1 = g_2 = \dots = g_p$ . So,  $X_G = \{(g, g, \dots, g) \mid g^p = 1\}$ . Also,  $X_G$  is nonempty, since at least  $(1, 1, \dots, 1) \in X_G$ . But we know that  $|X| \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ , so we also have  $|X_G| \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . And since  $X_G$  has at least the identity, it must have at least  $p$  elements. So there is some  $g \in G$  such that  $g \neq 1$  and  $(g, g, \dots, g) \in X_G$ . Then  $g$  has order  $p$ . ■