

ie for every pair, one from  $G$ , one from  $X$ , specify a unique element in  $X$

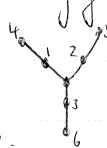
Group actions: let  $G$  be a group,  $X$  a non-empty set. An action of  $G$  on  $X$  is a map  $G \times X \rightarrow X$  (written  $(g, x) \mapsto g \cdot x$ ) such that (i)  $g \cdot (h \cdot x) = (gh) \cdot x \forall g, h \in G \forall x \in X$  (ii)  $e \cdot x = x \forall x \in X$ .

If  $x \in X$ , the orbit  $\text{orb}_G(x) = \{g \cdot x \mid g \in G\}$  "everything you can get by hitting  $x$  with elements of  $G$ ".  
The stabiliser  $\text{Stab}_G(x) = \{g \in G \mid g \cdot x = x\}$ .

Key result: orbit-stabiliser theorem: if  $G$  is finite group acting on a set  $X$ , and  $x \in X$ , then  $|\text{orb}_G(x)| \cdot |\text{Stab}_G(x)| = |G|$ .

- Uses: (1) practical; eg working out number of elements in a group (6.6.2, 4.5.10), Pólya counting  
(2) theoretical: information ~~of~~ conjugacy (class equation 5.3.1), Sylow's theorem, ...

Example. (Q4, 2008) Consider the graph



(i) Symmetry group of graph is isomorphic to  $S_3$ : any symmetry must fix the middle vertex, and is fully determined by a permutation of vertices 1, 2 and 3.

(ii) Calculate  $\text{orb}(1)$  and  $\text{Stab}(1)$ . The orbit containing 1 is (by definition) all vertices you can reach by applying symmetries to the vertex 1. Since symmetries preserve the valency of vertices,  $\text{orb}_G(1) \subseteq \{1, 2, 3\}$ .

Now let  $g = \text{rotation by } 2\pi/3$  then  $e \cdot 1 = 1$  (so  $e \in \text{orb}_G(1)$ )  
 $g \cdot 1 = 3$  (so  $3 \in \text{orb}_G(1)$ )  
 $g^2 \cdot 1 = 2$  (so  $2 \in \text{orb}_G(1)$ )

Hence  $\{1, 2, 3\} \subseteq \text{orb}_G(1)$ , so  $\text{orb}_G(1) = \{1, 2, 3\}$ .

[aside: similarly  $\{4, 5, 6\}$  is an orbit. Picture this with circles  $X = \{\text{middle}\} \cup \{1, 2, 3\} \cup \{4, 5, 6\}$  is disjoint union of orbits]

Now  $\text{Stab}_G(1) = \{g \in G \mid g \cdot 1 = 1\}$ . For 1 to be fixed, by (i) the symmetry must be  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$  or  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ , ie  $e$  or  $(23)$ . Hence  $\text{Stab}_G(1) = \{e, (23)\}$ .

[Note: check  $|\text{orb}_G(1)| \cdot |\text{Stab}_G(1)| = 3 \times 2 = 6$ , which equals  $|S_3| = |G|$ . Good!]

Conjugacy (special case of group actions)

$G$  acts on itself via the rule  $h \cdot g := hgh^{-1} \neq h, g \in G$ . This is called the conjugacy action. The orbits of this action are called the conjugacy classes: hence the conjugacy class containing a specified  $g \in G$

$$\text{is } \text{orb}_G(g) = \{h \cdot g \mid h \in G\} = \{hgh^{-1} \mid h \in G\}.$$

[To work out the conjugacy classes of a given group can be difficult (!). For symmetric groups there is an easy answer (6.5.2), and dihedral groups can be done directly (see Q5.8).]

Note: with the above action,  $\text{Stab}_G(g) = \{h \in G \mid h \cdot g = g\} = \{h \in G \mid hgh^{-1} = g\} = \{h \in G \mid hg = gh\} := C(g)$ , called the centralizer of  $g$ .  
Orbit-stabiliser  $\Rightarrow$  size of conjugacy class  $\times$  size of centralizer  $= |G|$ .

Note: we don't really see/use the full power of conjugacy classes in this course, so they might seem a bit bizarre.

One use: if  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , then  $H$  is a normal subgr<sup>5.2.1</sup>  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is a union of conjugacy classes

[here, if & you happen to know the conjugacy classes, eg for  $S_n$  or  $D_n$ , then working out which subgroups are normal is easy]

Isomorphic Groups To show  $G \cong H$ , possible techniques:

① (direct) write down a map  $G \xrightarrow{\phi} H$ . Show it's a group homomorphism (ie  $\phi(g_1 g_2) = \phi(g_1) \phi(g_2) \forall g_1, g_2 \in G$ ) which is bijective.

② (direct) write down a map  $H \xrightarrow{\psi} G$ . Show it's a group homomorphism which is bijective.

[Note: writing down a map  $H \rightarrow G$  might be easier than writing down a map  $G \rightarrow H$ !]

③ If you want to show  $G/K \cong H$ , use first isomorphism theorem:

First, write down map  $G \xrightarrow{\phi} H$ . Show that (i)  $\phi$  is gp homomorphism (ii)  $\phi$  is surjective (iii)  $\text{Ker } \phi = K$ , then by 1<sup>st</sup> Iso theorem  $G/\text{Ker } \phi \cong \text{Im } \phi \stackrel{(ii)}{\implies} G/K \cong H$ .

④ use non-explicit techniques, for example

(1) all cyclic gps of order  $n$  are isomorphic. Hence if  $G$  and  $H$  are both cyclic of order  $n$ ,  $G \cong H$ .

(2) all non-abelian gps of order  $2p$  (where  $p$  is odd prime) are isomorphic to  $D_p$  (§7.2.2)

(3) If  $H, K$  subgps of  $G$  with  $H \cap K = \{e\}$  and  $hk = kh \forall h \in H \forall k \in K$ , then  $HK \cong H \times K$ .

$\mathbb{Z}$  was used in §3.2.5 to show that  $D_6 \cong D_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ . (see also §3.2.6 parts 2 & 3)

To show  $G \not\cong H$  use following logic: if  $G \cong H$ , then  $G$  and  $H$  would have the same \_\_\_\_\_. Since they don't have the same \_\_\_\_\_,  $G \not\cong H$ .

eg 1. If  $G \cong H$ , then  $|G| = |H|$ . Hence  $|G| \neq |H| \Rightarrow G \not\cong H$ . (shows eg  $D_5 \not\cong D_4$ )

2. If  $G \cong H$ , then  $G$  and  $H$  have the same number of elements of order  $8$ . Hence if these numbers differ,  $G \not\cong H$  (eg  $\mathbb{Z}_4 \not\cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ )

3. : lots of possibilities.

eg: If  $G$  has no subgp of order 6 but  $H$  does, then  $G \not\cong H$  (shows  $A_4 \not\cong D_6$  see Q6.11)

If  $G$  has five elements of order 2 and  $H$  only has two elements of order 2, then  $G \not\cong H$  (shows  $D_4 \not\cong Q$  in Q7.6)