## 1. Introduction

Definition 1.1. Suppose $G$ is a group. A $G$-set is a pair $(X, \rho)$ where $X$ is a set and $\rho: G \rightarrow$ $A(X)$ is a group homomorphism.
1.2. Suppose $(X, \rho)$ is a $G$-set. If $g \in G$ and $x \in X$, then we write $g x$ for $\rho(g)(x)$. Note that, for $g, h \in G,(g h) x=\rho(g h)(x)=\rho(g)(\rho(h)(x))=g(h x)$. Since we can use the notation $g x$ instead of $\rho(g)(x)$, we do not always need to explicitly name the group homomorphism $\rho$. So, we often refer to a $G$-set simply as $X$ instead of as the pair $(X, \rho)$. If $(X, \rho)$ is a $G$-set, then the map

$$
\begin{aligned}
a: G \times X & \rightarrow X \text { given by } \\
(g, x) & \mapsto g x
\end{aligned}
$$

is called the action map. Note that the action map determines $\rho$ because $\rho(g)(x)=a(g, x)$ for all $x \in X$.

Note also that $a(g h, x)=\rho(g h)(x)=\rho(g)(\rho(h)(x))=a(g, a(h, x))$, and that $a(e, x)=$ $\rho(e)(x)=\operatorname{id}_{X}(x)=x$ for all $x \in X$.
Proposition 1.3. Suppose $X$ is a set, $G$ is a group, and suppose $a: G \times X \rightarrow X$ is a map satisfying

$$
\begin{align*}
a(g, a(h, x)) & =a(g h, x) ;  \tag{1.3.1}\\
a(e, x) & =x \tag{1.3.2}
\end{align*}
$$

for $g, h \in G$ and $x \in X$. For $g \in G$, set $\rho(g)(x)=a(g, x)$. Then $(X, \rho)$ is a $G$-set with action map $a$.

Proof. Suppose $g \in G$ and $x \in X$. Then $\rho(g) \rho\left(g^{-1}\right)(x)=a\left(g, a\left(g^{-1}, x\right)\right)=a\left(g g^{-1}, x\right)=$ $a(e, x)=x$. Therefore $\rho(g) \circ \rho\left(g^{-1}\right)=$ id. So $\rho(g) \in A(X)$. We have $\rho(g h)(x)=a(g h, x)=$ $a(g, a(h, x))=\rho(g)(\rho(h)(x))=(\rho(g) \circ \rho(h))(x)$. So $\rho(g h)=\rho(g) \circ \rho(h)$. Therefore, $\rho: G \rightarrow$ $A(X)$ is a group homomorphism.

Definition 1.4. Suppose $X$ is a $G$-set. A sub- $G$-set is a subset $Y$ of $X$ such that, for all $y \in Y$ and $g \in G, g y \in Y$.

Proposition 1.5. Suppose $X$ is a $G$-set and $\left\{Y_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ are sub- $G$-sets. Then $\cap_{i \in I} Y_{i}$ is a sub- $G$ set.

Proof. Suppose $y \in \cap_{i \in I} Y_{i}$ and $g \in G$. Then, for each $g \in G, g y \in Y_{i}$. So $g y \in \cap_{i \in I} Y_{i}$.
Definition 1.6. Suppose $X$ is a $G$-set and $x \in X$. The stabilizer of $x$ is $G_{x}:=\{g \in G: g x=$ $x\}$. The orbit of $x$ is the set $G x:=\{g x: g \in G\}$.
Proposition 1.7. Suppose $X$ is a $G$-set and $x \in X$.
(1) $G_{x} \leq G$;
(2) The orbit of $x$ is a the intersection of all sub- $G$-sets of $X$ containing $x$.

Proof. (1): Clearly, $e \in G_{x}$, since $e x=x$. Suppose $g, h \in G_{x}$. Then $g h^{-1} x=g h^{-1} h x=$ $g x=x$. So $g h^{-1} \in G_{x}$. Therefore $G_{x} \leq G$.
(2): First we show that $G x$ is a sub- $G$-set. To see this, suppose $g x \in G x$ with $g \in G$ and $x \in X$. Then, if $h \in G, h(g x)=(h g) x \in G x$. So $G x$ is a sub- $G$-set and clearly $G x$ contains $x$. On the other hand, suppose $Y$ is a sub- $G$-set of $X$ containing $x$. Then, for any $g \in G$, $g x \in Y$. So $Y$ contains $G x$. (2) follows.

Lemma 1.8. Suppose $X$ is a $G$ set. Let $R$ be the set of all pairs $(x, y) \in X \times X$ such that $x=$ gy for some $g \in G$. Then
(1) $R$ is an equivalence relation on $X$.
(2) If $x \in X$, then the equivalence class $[x]$ of $x$ is the orbit $G x$.

Proof. (1): Write $x \sim y$ if $(x, y) \in R$. Then, for $x \in X, x \sim x$ since $x=e x$. If $x \sim y$, then $x=g y$ so $y=g^{-1} x$. So $y \sim x$. Similarly, if $x \sim y$ and $y \sim z$, then $x=g y$ and $y=h z$ for some $g, h \in G$. So $x=g(h z)=(g h) z$. So $x \sim z$.
(2): We have $y \in[x]$ if and only if $y=g x$ for some $g \in G$. By definition, this holds if and only if $y \in G x$.
Corollary 1.9. Suppose $X$ is a $G$-set. Then the set $\{G x: x \in X\}$ of $G$-orbits of $X$ is a partition of $X$.

Proof. Follows directly from Lemma 1.8.
Definition 1.10. Suppose $X$ is a $G$-set. We write $G \backslash X$ for the set of $G$-orbits of $X$. By Lemma 1.8, this is the same as $X / R$ (where $R$ is the equivalence relation of Lemma 1.8). We say that $X$ is a transitive $G$-set if $X$ has exactly one orbit.

Example 1.11. Suppose $G=\mathbf{O}(2)$ and $X=\mathbb{R}^{2}$. Then $G$ actions on $X$ by multiplication. If $\mathbf{v}=(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$, then the $G$-orbit of $\mathbf{v}$ is the circle of radius $|\mathbf{v}|$ centered at the origin. We have $G_{0}=G$. On the other hand, if $\mathbf{v} \neq 0$, then the stabilizer $G_{\mathbf{v}}$ is the group $K$ of order 2 generated by the reflection in the line from the origin though $\mathbf{v}$.

Definition 1.12. Suppose $G$ is a group and $H$ is a subgroup. Define maps $L: H \rightarrow E(G)$, $R: H \rightarrow E(G)$ and $I: H \rightarrow E(G)$ as follows:
(1) $L(h)(g)=h g$;
(2) $R(h)(g)=g h^{-1}$;
(3) $I(h)(g)=h g h^{-1}$.

Proposition 1.13. Suppose $H$ is a subgroup of a group G. The maps L, R and I defined above are all group homomorphisms from $H$ to $A(G)$. Consequently, each defines an action of $H$ on $G$. The action defined by $L$ is called the left action, the action defined by $R$ is called the right action and the action defined by I is called the inner action.
Proof. We have $L(h k)(g)=h k g=L(h)(L(k) g)$. So $L(h k)=L(h) \circ L(k)$. So $L\left(h h^{-1}\right)=$ $L(e)=\mathrm{id}_{G}$. Thus $L(h)^{-1}=L(h)^{-1}$. So $L: G \rightarrow A(G)$, and $L$ is a group homomorphism.

We have $R(h k)(g)=g(h k)^{-1}=g k^{-1} h^{-1}=R(h)(R(k) g)=(R(h) \circ R(k))(g)$. So $R(h k)=$ $R(h) \circ R(k)$. Since $R(e)=\operatorname{id}_{G}$, this shows that $R(G) \subset A(G)$ and that $R: G \rightarrow A(G)$ is a group homomorphism.

The proof for $I$ is similar.
Remark 1.14. Suppose $H \leq G$ and $g \in G$. The $H$-orbit of $g$ under the action $L$ is the right coset $H g$. The $H$-orbit of $g$ under the action $R$ is the right coset $g H$. If $H=G$, then the $H$-orbit of $g$ under the action $I$ is the conjugacy class of $G$.
Definition 1.15. Suppose $G$ is a group and $X$ and $Y$ are $G$-sets. A morphism of $G$-sets is a map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ such that, for $g \in G$ and $x \in X, f(g x)=g f(x)$.
Proposition 1.16. Suppose $G$ is a group and $X, Y$ and $Z$ are $G$-sets.
(1) If $\alpha: X \rightarrow Y$ and $\beta: Y \rightarrow Z$ are morphisms of $G$-sets, then so is $\beta \circ \alpha$.
(2) If $\alpha: X \rightarrow Y$ is a morphism of $G$-sets which is one-one and onto then $\alpha^{-1}: Y \rightarrow X$ is also a morphism of $G$-sets.

Proof. (1): For $x \in X$ and $g \in G$, we have $(\beta \circ \alpha)(g x)=\beta(\alpha(g x))=\beta(g \alpha(x))=g \beta(\alpha(x))=$ $g(\beta \circ \alpha)(x)$.
(2): Set $\beta=\alpha^{-1}$. Pick $y \in Y$ and set $x=\beta(y)$. Then $\beta(g y)=\beta(g \alpha(x))=\beta(\alpha(g x))=$ $g x=g \beta(y)$.
1.17. Suppose $X$ and $Y$ are two $G$-sets. An isomorphism of $G$-sets from $X$ to $Y$ is a morphism $\alpha: X \rightarrow Y$ of $G$-sets which is one-one and onto. By Proposition 1.16, if $\alpha: X \rightarrow Y$ is an isomorphism of $G$-sets, then so is $\alpha^{-1}: Y \rightarrow X$. We say that two $G$-sets $X$ and $Y$ are isomorphic and write $X \cong Y$ if there exists an isomorphism of $G$-sets from $X$ to $Y$. Clearly, $X \cong X$, and, by Proposition 1.16, if $X \cong Y$ and $Y \cong Z$, then $X \cong Z$.
1.18. Suppose $G$ is a group and $H \leq G$. Then for $x, y \in G$, we have $x(y H)=(x y) H$. So we can define a map

$$
\begin{aligned}
a: G \times G / H & \rightarrow G / H \text { given by } \\
(x, y H) & \mapsto x(y Y) .
\end{aligned}
$$

It is very easy to see that this map satisfies the conditions of Proposition 1.3. So it defines an action of $G$ on $G / H$. This is the only action we will consider on $G / H$ (unless otherwise specified). Clearly $G / H$ is a transitive $G$-set with this action.
Theorem 1.19 (Orbit-Stabilizer Theorem). Suppose $X$ is a transitive $G$-set and $x \in X$. Then there is a map $\varphi: G / G_{x} \rightarrow X$ satisfying $\varphi\left(g G_{x}\right)=g x$. Moreover, $\varphi$ is an isomorphism of $G$-sets.

Proof. Suppose $g_{1}, g_{2} \in G$ and that $g_{1} G_{x}=g_{2} G_{x}$. Then $g_{1}=g_{2} h$ for some $h \in G_{x}$. So $g_{1} x=\left(g_{2} h\right) x=g_{2}(h x)=g_{2} x$. Therefore, we can define a $\operatorname{map} \varphi: G / G_{x} \rightarrow X$ by setting $\varphi\left(g G_{x}\right)=g x$.

The map $\varphi$ is surjective because $X$ is transitive. So, if $y \in X$, there exists $g \in G$ such that $\varphi\left(g G_{x}\right)=g x=y$.

To see that $\varphi$ is a morphism of $G$-sets, suppose $a, b \in G$. Then $\varphi\left(a\left(b G_{x}\right)\right)=\varphi\left((a b) G_{x}\right)=$ $a b x=a(b x)=a \varphi\left(b G_{x}\right)$.

Finally, to show that $\varphi$ is one-one, suppose $\varphi\left(a G_{x}\right)=\varphi\left(b G_{x}\right)$. Then $a x=b x$. So $x=a^{-1} b x$. So $a^{-1} b \in G_{x}$. Therefore, $b \in a G_{x}$. So $a G_{x}=b G_{x}$.

