

1 Groups

1.1 Definitions and Properties

A **permutation** of a set X is a bijective function whose domain and range are X . In other words, it is a bijective function:

$$\pi : X \rightarrow X$$

A **group** consists of a set G and a composition law:

$$G \times G \rightarrow G \quad (g_1, g_2) \rightarrow g_1 \cdot g_2$$

Satisfying the following axioms:

Identity Axiom: There exists an element $e \in G$ such that, for all $g \in G$:

$$e \cdot g = g \cdot e = g$$

Inverse Axiom: For all $g \in G$ there is an element $g^{-1} \in G$ such that:

$$g \cdot g^{-1} = g^{-1} \cdot g = e$$

Associative Law: For all $g_1, g_2, g_3 \in G$, we have that:

$$g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot g_3) = (g_1 \cdot g_2) \cdot g_3$$

Commutative Law: While this is not necessary for G to be a group, if for all $g_1, g_2 \in G$ we have the following, G is **commutative** or **abelian**:

$$g_1 \cdot g_2 = g_2 \cdot g_1$$

Let G be a group. Then:

- (a): G has exactly one identity element.
- (b): Each element of G has exactly one inverse.
- (c): Let $g, h \in G$. Then $(g \cdot h)^{-1} = h^{-1} \cdot g^{-1}$.
- (d): Let $g \in G$. Then $(g^{-1})^{-1} = g$.

The **order of a group** G , denoted $\#G$, is the cardinality of the set of elements of G .

The **order of an element** $g \in G$ is the smallest integer $n \geq 1$ such that $g^n = e$. If no n exists, then g has infinite order.

Let G be a group, let $g \in G$. The order of g divides the order of G .

1.2 Examples of Groups

The set of integers modulo m , denoted $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$, form the **group of integers modulo m** with addition as the group law.

The set of real numbers \mathbb{R} , the set of rational numbers \mathbb{Q} , and the set of complex numbers \mathbb{C} all form groups with addition as the group law. The set of positive or non-zero real numbers also form groups with multiplication as the group law.

A group G is a **cyclic group** if there is an element $g \in G$ such that $G = \{\dots g^{-1}, e, g, g^2, \dots\}$. In other words, all other elements are generated by g , and g is called the **generator of G** . We denote the cyclic groups of the integers up to n as \mathcal{C}_n .

The **symmetric group** of X , denoted S_X , is the collection of all permutations of X , with the group law being the composition of permutations.

The group of $n \times n$ matrices, A , such that $\det(A) \neq 0$ is the **general linear group**, denoted $GL_n(X)$, where X is the group where the entries live in.

The group of symmetries of a regular n -gon is the **n 'th dihedral group**, denoted \mathcal{D}_n . There are exactly n rotations and n flips in this group.

The **quaternion group** \mathcal{Q} is a non-commutative group with eight elements with operations you can look up:

$$\mathcal{Q} = \{\pm 1, \pm i, \pm j, \pm k\}$$

1.3 Group Homomorphisms

Let G and G' be groups. A **group homomorphism from G to G'** is a function $\phi : G \rightarrow G'$ such that, for all $g_1, g_2 \in G$:

$$\phi(g_1 \cdot g_2) = \phi(g_1) \cdot \phi(g_2)$$

The above is sufficient to prove the following two properties:

- (a): Let $e \in G$ be the identity element of G . Then $\phi(e)$ is the identity element of G' .
- (b): Let $g \in G$. Then $\phi(g^{-1}) = \phi(g)^{-1}$.

Let G_1 and G_2 be groups. These groups are **isomorphic** if there exists a bijective homomorphism $\phi : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$, which we call an **isomorphism**. In this case, G_1 and G_2 are the same group, just relabelled.

1.4 Subgroups, Cosets, and Lagrange's Theorem

Let G be a group. A **subgroup of G** is a subset $H \subset G$ that is also a group under G 's group law. That is, H satisfies:

- (a): For all $h_1, h_2 \in H$, $h_1 \cdot h_2 \in H$.
- (b): $e \in H$.
- (c): For all $h \in H$, $h^{-1} \in H$.

We note that all groups have two trivial subgroups, $\{e\}$ and G itself.

Let G be a group, let $g \in G$ have order n . The **cyclic subgroup of G generated by g** is:

$$\langle g \rangle = \{\dots g^{-1}, e, g, g^2 \dots\}$$

It is isomorphic to the cyclic group \mathcal{C}_n .

Let $\phi : G \rightarrow G'$ be a group homomorphism. The **kernel of ϕ** is the set:

$$\ker(\phi) = \{g \in G : \phi(g) = e'\}$$

Let $\phi : G \rightarrow G'$ be a group homomorphism. Then:

- (a): $\ker(\phi)$ is a subgroup of G .
- (b): ϕ is injective if and only if $\ker(\phi) = \{e\}$.

Let G be a group, and let $H \subset G$ be a subgroup of G . For all $g \in G$, the **(left) coset of H attached to g** is the set:

$$gH = \{gh : h \in H\}$$

Let G be a finite group, and let $H \subset G$ be a subgroup of G . Then:

- (a): Every element of G is in some coset of H .
- (b): Every coset of H has the same number of elements.
- (c): Let $g_1, g_2 \in G$. Then either:

$$g_1H = g_2H \quad \text{or} \quad g_1H \cap g_2H = \emptyset$$

Lagrange's Theorem: Let G be a finite group, and let $H \subset G$ be a subgroup of G . Then the order of H divides the order of G .

Let G be a group and let $H \subset G$ be a subgroup of G . The **index of H in G** , denoted $(G : H)$, is the number of distinct cosets of H .

Let G be a finite group, and let $g \in G$. Then the order of g divides the order of G .

Let p be a prime and let G be a group of order p . Then G is isomorphic to \mathcal{C}_p . In other words, G is a cyclic group.

Let p be a prime and let G be a group of order p^2 . Then G is an abelian group.

(Sylow's Theorem): Let G be a finite group, let p be prime, and suppose that $p^n \mid \#G$ for some $n \geq 1$. Then G has a subgroup of order p^n .

1.5 Products of Groups

Let G_1 and G_2 be groups. The **product** of G_1 and G_2 is the group:

$$G_1 \times G_2 = \{(a, b) : a \in G_1, b \in G_2\}$$

Where:

$$(a, b) \cdot (a', b') = (a \cdot a', b \cdot b')$$

(Structure Theorem for Finite Abelian Groups): Let G be a finite abelian group. Then there are integers $m_1 \dots m_r$ where each m_i is a prime power such that:

$$G \cong (\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z}) \times \dots \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_r\mathbb{Z})$$

2 Rings

A **ring** R is a set with two operations, called **addition** ($a + b$) and **multiplication** ($a \cdot b$), satisfying the following axioms:

- (a): **Addition Properties:** The set R with addition law $+$ is an abelian group with identity 0_R .
- (b): **Multiplication Properties:** The set R with multiplication law \cdot satisfies Identity Law and Associative Law.
- (c): **Distributive Law:** For all $a, b, c \in R$ we have:

$$a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$$

$$(b + c) \cdot a = b \cdot a + c \cdot a$$

- (d): While this is not necessary for R to be a ring, if for all $a, b \in R$, $a \cdot b = b \cdot a$, the ring is **commutative**.

Let R be a ring. Then:

- (a): For all $a \in R$, $0_R \cdot a = 0_R$.
- (b): For all $a, b \in R$, $(-a) \cdot (-b) = a \cdot b$.

Let R and R' be rings. A **ring homomorphism** from R to R' is a function $\phi : R \rightarrow R'$ satisfying:

- (a): $\phi(1_R) = 1_{R'}$.
- (b): $\phi(a + b) = \phi(a) + \phi(b)$.
- (c): $\phi(a \cdot b) = \phi(a) \cdot \phi(b)$.

We say that R and R' are **isomorphic** if there is a bijective ring homomorphism $\phi : R \rightarrow R'$, called an **isomorphism**.

The **kernel** of ϕ is the set of elements:

$$\ker(\phi) = \{a \in R : \phi(a) = 0_{R'}\}$$

2.1 Examples of Rings

The following are rings.

$$\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$$

$$\mathbb{Z}[i] = \{a + bi : a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

$$R[x] = \{\text{polynomials with coefficients in } R.\}$$

$$\mathbb{H} = \{a + bi + cj + dk : a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

Let R be a ring. There is a unique homomorphism $\phi : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow R$.

2.2 Properties of Rings

A **field** is a commutative ring R where every non-zero element of R has a multiplicative inverse.

Let R be a commutative ring. R has the **cancellation property** if for all $a, b, c \in R$, the following holds:

$$ab = ac \wedge a \neq 0 \iff b = c$$

Let R be a ring. An element $a \in R$ is called a **zero divisor** if $a \neq 0$ and there exists a non-zero element $b \in R$ such that $ab = 0$. The ring R is an **integral domain** if it has no zero divisors.

2.3 Unit Groups and Product Rings

Let R be a commutative ring. The **group of units of R** is the subset $R^* \subset R$ defined by:

$$R^* = \{a \in R : \exists b \in R, ab = 1\}$$

Elements of R^* are called **units**.

The set of units R^* is a group with group law being ring multiplication.

Let $m \geq 1$ be an integer. Then:

$$(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^* = \{a \bmod m : \gcd(a, m) = 1\}$$

If p is a prime, then $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ is a field, denoted \mathbb{F}_p

Let $R_1 \dots R_n$ be rings. The **product** of $R_1 \dots R_n$ is the ring:

$$R_1 \times \dots \times R_n = \{(a_1, \dots, a_n) : a_1 \in R_1, \dots, a_n \in R_n\}$$

Let $R_1 \dots R_n$ be rings. Then:

$$(R_1 \times \dots \times R_n)^* \cong R_1^* \times \dots \times R_n^*$$

2.4 Ideals and Quotient Rings

Let R be a commutative ring. An **ideal** of R is a non-empty subset $I \subseteq R$ such that:

- (a): If $a, b \in I$, $a + b \in I$,
- (b): If $a \in I$ and $r \in R$, then $ra \in I$.

Let R be a commutative ring, and let $c \in R$. The **principal ideal generated by c** , denoted cR or (c) , is the set of all multiples of c :

$$cR = (c) = \{rc : r \in R\}$$

Let R be a commutative ring and let $I \subseteq R$ be an ideal of R . For each element $a \in R$, the **coset of a** is the set:

$$a + I = \{a + c : c \in I\}$$

If $a - b \in I$, we say that a is congruent to b modulo I , denoted:

$$a \equiv b$$

And we define addition and multiplication of cosets as follows:

$$(a + I) + (b + I) = (a + b) + I$$

$$(a + I) \cdot (b + I) = (a \cdot b) + I$$

And we denote the collection of distinct cosets by R/I , called a quotient ring.

Let R be a commutative ring, and let $I \subseteq R$ be an ideal of R . Then:

- (a): Let $a + I$ and $a' + I$ be two cosets. Then $a' + I = a + I$ if and only if $a' - a \in I$.
- (b): Addition and multiplication of cosets is well defined.
- (c): Addition and multiplication of cosets turns R/I into a commutative ring, called a **quotient ring**.

Let R be a commutative ring.

(a): Let $I \subseteq R$ be an ideal of R . Then the following map is a ring homomorphism whose kernel is I :

$$\psi : R \rightarrow R/I, a \rightarrow a + I$$

(b): Let $\phi : R \rightarrow R'$ be a ring homomorphism. Then:

(i): The kernel of ϕ is an ideal of R .

(ii): ϕ is injective if and only if $\ker(\phi) = \{0\}$

(iii): There is a well-defined injective ring homomorphism:

$$\bar{\phi} : R/I_\phi \rightarrow R', \bar{\phi}(a + I_\phi) = \phi(a)$$

Let R be a ring, and let $\phi : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow R$ be the unique homomorphism determined by the condition that $\phi(1) = 1_R$. Then, there is a unique integer $m \geq 0$, called the **characteristic** of R , such that:

$$\ker(\phi) = m\mathbb{Z}$$

Let p be prime, and let R be a commutative ring of characteristic p . Then the following map is a ring homomorphism, called the **Frobenius homomorphism** of R :

$$f : R \rightarrow R, f(a) = a^p$$

We notice also that for all $a, b \in R$ and all $n \geq 0$, we have:

$$(a + b)^{p^n} = a^{p^n} + b^{p^n}$$

2.5 Prime Ideals and Maximal Ideals

Let R be a commutative ring. An ideal $I \subseteq R$ is a **prime ideal** if $I \neq R$ and, if whenever $ab \in I$, either $a \in I$ or $b \in I$. Or, in other words, for two $a, b \notin I$, $ab \notin I$.

Let R be a commutative ring. An ideal I is called a **maximal ideal** if $I \neq R$ and if there is no ideal properly contained between I and R . In other words, if J is an ideal and $I \subseteq J \subseteq R$, either $J = I$ or $J = R$.

Let R be a commutative ring, and let I be an ideal with $I \neq R$. Then:

(a): I is a prime ideal if and only if the quotient ring R/I is an integral domain.

(b): I is a maximal ideal if and only if the quotient ring R/I is a field.

Corollary: Every maximal ideal is a prime ideal.

3 Vector Spaces

A **field** is a commutative ring F with the property that for every non-zero $a \in F$, there is an element $b \in F$ such that $ab = 1$.

Let F be a field. A **vector space with field of scalars** F , or, an **F -vector space**, is an abelian group V with a rule for multiplying a vector $v \in V$ by a scalar $c \in F$ to obtain a new vector $cv \in V$. Vector addition and scalar multiplication satisfy the following axioms:

Identity Law: For all $v \in V$:

$$1v = v$$

Distributive Law #1: For all $v_1, v_2 \in V, c \in F$:

$$c(v_1 + v_2) = cv_1 + cv_2$$

Distributive Law #2: For all $v \in V, c_1, c_2 \in F$:

$$(c_1 + c_2)v = c_1v + c_2v$$

Associative Law: For all $v \in V, c_1, c_2 \in F$:

$$(c_1c_2)v = c_1(c_2v)$$

Let V be an F -vector space. Then:

(a): For all $v \in V, 0v = 0$.

(b): For all $v \in V, (-1)v + v = 0$.

Let F be a field, and let V and W be F -vector spaces. A **linear transformation** from V to W is a function:

$$L : V \rightarrow W$$

Satisfying for all $v_1, v_2 \in V, c_1, c_2 \in F$:

$$L(c_1v_1 + c_2v_2) = c_1L(v_1) + c_2L(v_2)$$

3.1 Bases and Dimension

Let V be an F -vector space. A **finite basis for** V is a finite set of vectors $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\} \subset V$ such that every vector $v \in V$ can be uniquely written as a **linear combination** of elements in \mathcal{B} .

Let V be an F -vector space, and let $\mathcal{A} = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ be a set of vectors in V . Then:

(a): The set \mathcal{A} **spans** V if every vector in V is a linear combination of the vectors in \mathcal{A} . The set of linear combinations of vectors in \mathcal{A} is called the **span** of \mathcal{A} , denoted $Span(\mathcal{A})$.

(b): The set \mathcal{A} is **linearly independent** if the only solution to the following is the trivial solution:

$$a_1v_1 + \dots + a_nv_n = \vec{0}$$

Let V be an F -vector space, and let $\mathcal{A} = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ be a set of vectors in V . Then \mathcal{A} is a basis for V if and only if \mathcal{A} spans V and is linearly independent.

Let V be an F -vector space, let \mathcal{A} be a finite set of vectors in V that spans V , and let $\mathcal{L} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ be a subset of \mathcal{A} that is linearly independent. Then there is a basis for V satisfying:

$$\mathcal{L} \subseteq \mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$$

Let V be a vector space with a finite basis. Then every basis for V has the same number of elements.

Let V be a vector space with a finite basis. The **dimension** of V is the number of vectors in a basis of V , denoted $\dim_F(V)$. We know that this is well defined.

Let V be an F -vector space, let \mathcal{S} be a finite set of vectors in V that span V , and let \mathcal{L} be a set of vectors that is linearly independent. Then, given any vectors $v \in \mathcal{L} - \mathcal{S}$, we can find a vector $w \in \mathcal{S} - \mathcal{L}$ so that the following is still a spanning set:

$$(\mathcal{S} - \{w\}) \cup \{v\}$$

Let V be an F -vector space, let $\mathcal{S} \subset V$ be a finite set that spans V , and let $\mathcal{L} \subset V$ be a linearly independent set. Then:

$$\#\mathcal{L} \leq \#\mathcal{S}$$

4 Fields

A **field** is a commutative ring F with the property that for every non-zero $a \in F$ there is an element $b \in F$ such that $ab = 1$.

Let R be a commutative ring. The **unit group of R** is the group:

$$R^* = \{a \in R : \exists b \in R, ab = 1\}$$

We can use this define a field as:

$$F^* = \{a \in F : a \neq 0\} = F - \{0\}$$

Let F and K be fields, and let $\phi : F \rightarrow K$ be a ring homomorphism. Then:

(a): ϕ is injective.

(b): Let $a \in F^*$. Then $\phi(a^{-1}) = \phi(a)^{-1}$.

A **skew field**, also called a **division ring**, is a ring where all non-zero elements have multiplicative inverses, but the ring is not necessarily commutative.

A famous result of Wedderburn says that all finite skew fields are fields.

4.1 Subfields and Extension Fields

Let K be a field. A **subfield** of K is a subset $F \subset K$ that it itself a field using the addition and multiplication operations from K .

Let F be a field. An **extension field** of F is a field K such that F is a subfield of K . We write K/F to indicate that K is an extension field of F .

Let L/F be an extension of fields, and let $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in L$. Then there is a unique field K such that:

(a): $F \subset K \subseteq L$.

(b): $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in K$.

(c): If K' is a field satisfying $F \subseteq K' \subseteq L$, $K \subseteq K'$.

Let K/F be an extension of fields. The **degree of K over F** , denoted $[K : F]$, is the dimension of K when viewed as an F -vector space. If $[K : F]$ is finite, then K/F is a **finite extension** - otherwise, K/F is an **infinite extension**.

Let $L/K/F$ be extensions of fields. Then:

$$[L : F] = [L : K][K : F]$$

As long as all of $[L : F], [L : K], [K : F]$ are finite, or if $[L : F]$ is infinite, then either $[L : K]$ or $[K : F]$ is infinite.

4.2 Polynomial Rings

Let F be a field, and let $f(x) \in F[x]$ be a non-zero polynomial, written as:

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_dx^d$$

The **degree** of f is:

$$\deg(f) = d$$

Moreover, if $a_d = 1$, then f is a **monic polynomial**.

Let $f_1(x), f_2(x) \in F[x]$ be non-zero polynomials. Then:

$$\deg(f_1 f_2) = \deg(f_1) + \deg(f_2)$$

Let F be a field, and let $f(x), g(x) \in F[x]$ be polynomials with $g(x) \neq 0$. Then there are unique polynomials $q(x), r(x) \in F[x]$ with $\deg(r) < \deg(g)$ satisfying:

$$f(x) = g(x)q(x) + r(x)$$

Let F be a field and let $I \subseteq F[x]$ be an ideal in the ring $F[x]$. Then I is a principal ideal.

4.3 Building Extension Fields

Let F be a field. A non-constant polynomial $f(x) \in F[x]$ is **reducible (over F)** if there exists non-constant polynomials $g(x), h(x) \in F[x]$ such that $f(x) = g(x)h(x)$. An **irreducible** polynomial is a non-constant polynomial that has no such non-trivial factorizations in $F[x]$.

Let F be a field, and let $f(x) \in F[x]$ be a non-zero polynomial. The following are equivalent:

- (a): The polynomial $f(x)$ is irreducible.
- (b): The principal ideal $f(x)F[x]$ generated by $f(x)$ is a maximal ideal.
- (c): The quotient ring $F[x]/f(x)F[x]$ is a field.

Let F be a field, let $f(x) \in F[x]$ be an irreducible polynomial, let $I_f = f(x)F[x]$ be the principal ideal generated by $f(x)$ and let $K_f = F[x]/I_f$ be the indicated quotient ring.

- (a): The ring K_f is a field.
- (b): The field K_f is a finite extension of the field of F . Its degree is given by:

$$[K_f : F] = \deg(f)$$

- (c): The polynomial $f(x)$ has a root in K_f .

4.4 Finite Fields

NOTE: We are missing some stuff with regards to counting polynomials, since it is painful. Refer to the textbook for this!

Let F be a finite field. Then,

- (a): The characteristic of F is prime.
- (b): Let $p = \text{char}(F)$. Then the finite field \mathbb{F}_p is a subfield of F , in the sense that there exists a unique injective homomorphism from \mathbb{F}_p to F .
- (c): The number of elements of F is given by:

$$\#F = p^{[F:\mathbb{F}_p]}$$

Let p be prime, and let $d \geq 1$. Then the ring $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$ contains an irreducible polynomial of degree d .

Let p be a prime and let $d \geq 1$. Then,

- (a): There exists a field F containing exactly p^d elements.
- (b): Any two fields containing p^d elements are isomorphic.

5 Groups Continued

5.1 Normal Subgroups and Quotient Groups

Let G be a group and let H be a subgroup of G . We denote the set of (left) cosets of G by:

$$G/H = \{(\text{left}) \text{ cosets of } H\}$$

Let G be a group, let $H \subseteq G$ be a subgroup of G , and let \mathcal{C}_1 and \mathcal{C}_2 be cosets of H . We define the **product** of \mathcal{C}_1 and \mathcal{C}_2 by the rule:

$$\mathcal{C}_1 \cdot \mathcal{C}_2 = g_1 g_2 H$$

For some $g_1 \in \mathcal{C}_1$ and some $g_2 \in \mathcal{C}_2$. Note that this is only well defined if H is a normal subgroup.

Let G be a group, let $H \subseteq G$ be a subgroup of G , and let $g \in G$. The **g -conjugate** of H is the subgroup:

$$g^{-1}Hg = \{g^{-1}hg : g \in G\}$$

Let G be a group, let $H \subseteq G$ be a subgroup of G , and let $g \in G$. H is a **normal subgroup** of G is, for all $g \in G$,

$$g^{-1}Hg = H$$

If G is abelian, then all subgroups are normal. All groups G trivially have two normal subgroups, $\{e\}$ and G . If these are the only two subgroups, then G is called a **simple group**.

Let $\phi : G \rightarrow G'$ be a group homomorphism. Then $\ker(\phi)$ is a normal subgroup of G .

Let G be a group and let $H \subset G$ be a subgroup. Then:

- (a): If $g^{-1}Hg \subseteq H$ for all $g \in G$, then H is a normal subgroup of G .
- (b): For all $g \in G$, $g^{-1}Hg$ is a subgroup of G .
- (c): For all $g \in G$, the map $H \rightarrow g^{-1}Hg$ defined by $h \rightarrow g^{-1}hg$ is a group isomorphism.

Let G be a group, and let $H \subset G$ be a normal subgroup of G . Let $g_1, g'_1, g_2, g'_2 \in G$ be elements such that:

$$g'_1 H = g_1 H \quad \wedge \quad g'_2 H = g_2 H$$

Then:

$$g'_1 g'_2 H = g_1 g_2 H$$

Let G be a group, and let $H \subset G$ be a normal subgroup of G . Then:

(a): The collection of cosets G/H is a group with the well-defined group operation:

$$g_1H \cdot g_2H = g_1g_2H$$

(b): The following map is a homomorphism with $\ker(\phi) = H$:

$$\phi : G \rightarrow G/H, \phi(g) = gH$$

(c): Let $\psi : G \rightarrow G'$ be a homomorphism with $H \subseteq \ker(\psi)$. Then there is a unique homomorphism:

$$\lambda : G/H \rightarrow G' \text{ such that } \lambda(gH) = \psi(g)$$

(d): If we take $H = \ker(\psi)$ in (c), then λ is injective. In particular, the following is an isomorphism onto the image of λ :

$$\lambda : G/\ker(\psi) \rightarrow \lambda(G) \subseteq G'$$

5.2 Groups Acting on Sets

Let G be a group, and let X be a set. An **action of G on X** is a rule that assigns each element $g \in G$ and each element $x \in X$ another element $g \cdot x \in X$ such that:

(1): For all $x \in X$, $e \cdot x = x$.

(2): For all $x \in X$ and all $g_1, g_2 \in G$, $(g_1g_2)x = g_1(g_2x)$.

Alternatively, we can define an action of G on X as a group homomorphism:

$$\alpha : G \rightarrow \mathcal{S}_X$$

Given a group G acting on a set X , we get two important quantities.

The **orbit of x** is the set of elements in X that G sends x to:

$$Gx = \{gx : g \in G\}$$

The **stabilizer of x** is the set of elements in G that G leaves unchanged:

$$G_x = \{g \in G : gx = x\}$$

Let G be a group that acts on a set X . Then:

(a): Every element of X is in some orbit.

(b): Let $x \in X$. G_x is a subgroup of G .

(c): Let $x \in X$. Then:

$$\#G_x \cdot \#Gx = \#G$$

(d): Let $x_1, x_2 \in X$. Then the orbits Gx_1 and Gx_2 are either equal or disjoint.

We say that G acts **transitively** on X if, for all $x \in X$, $Gx = X$.

5.3 Orbit-Stabilizer Counting Theorem

(Orbit-Stabilizer Counting Theorem): Let G be a finite group that acts on a finite set X . Then:

$$\#X = \sum_{i=1}^n \#Gx_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\#G}{\#G_{x_i}}$$