

## 11 BINARY OPERATIONS

In this section we abstract concepts such as addition, multiplication, intersection, etc. which give you a means of taking two objects and producing a third. This gives rise to sophisticated mathematical constructions such as groups and fields.

### 11.1 Binary operations

A *binary operation*  $*$  on a set  $S$  is a function

$$* : S \times S \rightarrow S.$$

For convenience we write  $a * b$  instead of  $*(a, b)$ .

#### Examples:

(i) Let  $S = \mathbb{R}$  and  $*$  be  $+$ . For  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $a * b = a + b$ , addition (note that  $a + b \in \mathbb{R}$ ). This is a binary operation.

(ii) Let  $S = \mathbb{Z}$  and  $*$  be  $\times$ . For  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $a * b = ab$ , multiplication (note that  $ab \in \mathbb{Z}$ ). This is a binary operation.

(iii) Let  $S = \mathbb{Z}$  and  $a * b = \max\{a, b\}$ , the largest of  $a$  and  $b$ . This is a binary operation.

(iv) Let  $S = \mathbb{Q}$  and define  $*$  by  $a * b = a$ . This is a binary operation.

(v) Let  $S = \mathbb{Z}$  and  $a * b = \frac{a}{b}$ . This is **not** a binary operation, as it's not defined when  $b = 0$ , and also  $\frac{a}{b}$  need not be in  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

(vi) Let  $S = \{f : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}\}$ , with  $*$  composition of functions. This is a binary operation.

(vii) Let  $S = \mathbb{N}$ , with  $*$  defined by  $a * b = a^b$  (e.g.,  $2 * 3 = 2^3 = 8$ ). This is a binary operation.

### 11.2 Multiplication tables

For small sets, we may record a binary operation using a table, called the *multiplication table* (whether or not the binary operation is multiplication).

For example, let  $S = \{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\}$ . We may define a binary operation  $*$  as follows:

$*$	$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\gamma$
$\alpha$	$\alpha$	$\gamma$	$\beta$
$\beta$	$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\beta$
$\gamma$	$\beta$	$\alpha$	$\gamma$

where we take the row first and then the column. So, for example,  $\alpha * \beta = \gamma$ ,  $\beta * \alpha = \alpha$ , etc.

In general, if  $S = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$ , then the entry in the row labeled by  $a_j$  and column labeled by  $a_i$  is  $a_j * a_i$ .

**Example:**

Take  $S = \mathbb{Z}_4$  and  $*$  =  $\oplus$ . This has multiplication table

$\oplus$	0	1	2	3
0	0	1	2	3
1	1	2	3	0
2	2	3	0	1
3	3	0	1	2

### 11.3 Commutative and associative binary operations

Let  $*$  be a binary operation on a set  $S$ . There are a number of interesting properties that a binary operation may or may not have. Specifying a list of properties that a binary operation must satisfy will allow us to define deep mathematical objects such as groups.

$*$  is *commutative* if

$$\forall a, b \in S, a * b = b * a.$$

$*$  is *associative* if

$$\forall a, b, c \in S, a * (b * c) = (a * b) * c.$$

**Examples:**

(i) Let  $S = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $a * b = a + b$ . Let  $a, b, c \in S$ . Then  $a * b = a + b = b + a = b * a$ , so  $*$  is commutative. Also  $a * (b * c) = a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c = (a * b) * c$ , so  $*$  is associative.

(ii) Let  $S = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $a * b = a$ . Then  $2 * 1 = 2 \neq 1 = 1 * 2$ , so  $*$  is not commutative. However, if  $a, b, c \in S$ , then  $a * (b * c) = a = a * b = (a * b) * c$ , so  $*$  is associative.

(iii)  $S = \mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}$ ,  $a * b = \frac{a}{b}$ . Then  $1 * 2 = \frac{1}{2} \neq 2 = 2 * 1$ , so  $*$  is not commutative. Also

$$1 * (2 * 3) = 1 * \left(\frac{2}{3}\right) = \frac{3}{2} \neq \frac{1}{6} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) * 3 = (1 * 2) * 3,$$

so  $*$  is not associative.

**Proposition 11.1** *Let  $A$  be a set and let  $S = \{f : A \rightarrow A\}$  be the set of functions  $A \rightarrow A$ . Let  $*$  be composition of functions.*

*Then  $*$  is associative.*

**Remark:**

If  $*$  is associative, then we can write  $a * b * c$ , meaning  $(a * b) * c$  and  $a * (b * c)$ . More generally, we may define longer expressions  $a_1 * \dots * a_n$ . Hence for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $a \in S$ , we may define

$$a^n = \underbrace{a * \dots * a}_n.$$

**Examples:**

(i)  $S = \mathbb{Z}_8$ ,  $*$  =  $\odot$ .

$$1^3 = 1 \odot 1 \odot 1 = 1$$

$$3^2 = 3 \odot 3 = 1$$

$$3^3 = 3 \odot 3 \odot 3 = 1 \odot 3 = 3$$

$$2^3 = 2 \odot 2 \odot 2 = 4 \odot 2 = 0.$$

(ii)  $S = \mathbb{Z}_8$ ,  $*$  =  $\oplus$ .

$$1^3 = 1 \oplus 1 \oplus 1 = 3$$

$$1^8 = \underbrace{1 \oplus \cdots \oplus 1}_8 = 0$$

$$4^2 = 4 \oplus 4 = 0$$

$$4^3 = 0 \oplus 4 = 4.$$

(iii)  $S = \{\text{permutations of } \mathbb{N}_5\}$ ,  $*$  =  $\circ$ . Note that composition of functions is associative.

$$(12345)^3 = (12345)^2(12345) = (13524)(12345) = (14253)$$

$$(1234)^4 = i_{\mathbb{N}_5}.$$

## 11.4 Identity elements

Consider  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Note that  $0 + a = a + 0 = a$  for all  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Also note that  $1 \times a = a \times 1 = a$  for all  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

These two binary operations are said to have an identity element. We want to generalise this idea.

**Definition 11.2** Let  $*$  be a binary operation on a set  $S$ . We say that  $e \in S$  is an identity element for  $S$  (with respect to  $*$ ) if

$$\forall a \in S, e * a = a * e = a.$$

If there is an identity element, then it's unique:

**Proposition 11.3** Let  $*$  be a binary operation on a set  $S$ . Let  $e, f \in S$  be identity elements for  $S$  with respect to  $*$ . Then  $e = f$ .

PROOF. Since  $e$  is an identity element and  $f \in S$ , we have  $e * f = f$ .  
 Since  $f$  is an identity element and  $e \in S$ , we have  $e * f = e$ .  
 Hence  $e = e * f = f$ . □

**Examples:**

(i) 0 is the identity element for  $S = \mathbb{R}$  when  $* = +$ .

(ii) 1 is the identity element for  $S = \mathbb{R}$  when  $* = \times$ .

(iii) Let  $S = \mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}$  and  $a * b = \frac{a}{b}$ . Then there is no identity element.

Suppose that  $e \in \mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}$  is an identity element. Then  $e * 1 = 1 * e = 1$ . Now  $e * 1 = \frac{e}{1} = e$ , so  $e = 1$ . But  $1 * 2 = \frac{1}{2} \neq 2$ , so 1 cannot be an identity element.

(iv)  $S = \{a, b, c, d\}$ , and define a binary operation  $*$  on  $S$  by the multiplication table

	$a$	$b$	$c$	$d$
$a$	$c$	$a$	$a$	$d$
$b$	$d$	$c$	$b$	$a$
$c$	$a$	$b$	$c$	$d$
$d$	$d$	$b$	$d$	$a$

In this case  $c$  is an (the) identity element.

## 11.5 Groups

Let  $G$  be a non-empty set and  $*$  a binary operation on  $G$ . We call  $(G, *)$  a *group* if the following hold:

(G1)  $*$  is associative

(G2)  $G$  has an identity element  $e$  with respect to  $*$

(G3)  $\forall g \in G, \exists h \in G$  such that  $g * h = h * g = e$ .

[We sometimes say  $G$  forms a group under  $*$ .]

**Remark:**

In (G3), the element  $h$  is called an *inverse* to  $g$ . It is unique, since suppose  $h_1, h_2 \in G$  with

$$g * h_1 = h_1 * g = e,$$

$$g * h_2 = h_2 * g = e.$$

Then

$$h_1 * (g * h_2) = h_1 * e = h_1$$

and

$$h_1 * (g * h_2) = (h_1 * g) * h_2 = e * h_2 = h_2$$

since  $*$  is associative.

Hence  $h_1 = h_2$ .

Hence we may refer to *the* (unique) inverse to  $g$ , and write  $g^{-1}$ .

**Examples:**

(i)  $G = \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $* = +$ . We have already seen that the identity element is 0, and that  $*$  is associative. Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $(-a) + a = a + (-a) = 0$ , so  $-a$  is the inverse of  $a$  (i.e.,  $a^{-1} = -a$ ). Hence  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$  forms a group.

(ii) Let  $G = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ , with  $* = \times$ .

1 is the identity element, since  $\forall a \in \mathbb{R}, a \times 1 = 1 \times a = a$ .

Multiplication is associative.

Let  $a \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ . Then  $(\frac{1}{a})a = a(\frac{1}{a}) = 1$ . So  $a^{-1} = \frac{1}{a}$ .

Hence  $(\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, \times)$  forms a group.

(iii) Let  $G = \{-1, 1, -i, i\} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ , with  $*$  multiplication of complex numbers.

Then  $-1 * 1 = -1$ ,  $-1 * i = -i$ ,  $i * i = -1$ , etc.

$*$  forms a binary operation, with the following multiplication table:

$*$	1	-1	$i$	$-i$
1	1	-1	$i$	$-i$
-1	-1	1	$-i$	$i$
$i$	$i$	$-i$	-1	1
$-i$	$-i$	$i$	1	-1

The identity element is 1. Also  $1^{-1} = 1$ ,  $(-1)^{-1} = -1$ ,  $i^{-1} = -i$  and  $(-i)^{-1} = i$ , so each element has an inverse. Since multiplication is associative, it follows that  $*$  is associative. Hence  $(G, *)$  forms a group.

## 11.6 Cancellation in groups

Let  $(G, *)$  be a group. Let  $g, h_1, h_2 \in G$ .

Suppose that  $g * h_1 = g * h_2$ . Then

$$g^{-1} * (g * h_1) = g^{-1} * (g * h_2).$$

Since  $*$  is associative, this means

$$(g^{-1} * g) * h_1 = (g^{-1} * g) * h_2.$$

$g^{-1} * g = e$ , so  $h_1 = e * h_1 = e * h_2 = h_2$ .

We have shown that  $g * h_1 = g * h_2 \Rightarrow h_1 = h_2$ . Hence in any given row of the multiplication table for  $(G, *)$  we cannot have any repetitions. Further, each row must contain every element, since in the row labeled by  $g$  the element  $h$  occurs as  $g * (g^{-1} * h)$ .

Similarly  $h_1 * g = h_2 * g \Rightarrow h_1 = h_2$ , and each column of the multiplication table must contain every element of  $G$ , with no repetition.

## 11.7 Commutative groups

**Definition 11.4** A group  $(G, *)$  is called commutative if  $*$  is commutative, i.e.,  $\forall g, h \in G, g * h = h * g$ .

All the groups in the above set of examples are commutative.

A group is commutative iff its multiplication table is symmetrical about the leading diagonal.

## 11.8 Integers modulo $n$ under addition

Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , and write  $G = \mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, \dots, n-1\}$ . Let  $*$  =  $\oplus$  (addition modulo  $n$ ).

Note that  $|G| = n$ .

The identity element is 0.

Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ . If  $a \neq 0$ , then  $a^{-1} = n-a$ , since  $(n-a)+a = a+(n-a) = n \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$ .

We also have  $0^{-1} = 0$ . Hence every element has an inverse.

Addition is associative and commutative, so  $(\mathbb{Z}_n, \oplus)$  forms a commutative group.

**Example:**

$$G = (\mathbb{Z}_5, \oplus).$$

$\oplus$	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	1	2	3	4
1	1	2	3	4	0
2	2	3	4	1	2
3	3	4	0	1	2
4	4	0	1	2	3

## 11.9 Integers modulo a prime under multiplication

Let  $p$  be a prime.

Define  $\mathbb{Z}_p^* = \mathbb{Z}_p \setminus \{0\} = \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$ .

Consider  $\odot$ , multiplication modulo  $p$ .

The identity element is 1.

$\odot$  is associative since multiplication is associative.

$\odot$  is commutative since multiplication is commutative.

Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ . Then  $\gcd(a, p) = 1$ . So by Lemma 8.3, there is  $b \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $ab \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  (and  $ba \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ ).

Now  $b \equiv r \pmod{p}$  for some  $r \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ . Hence  $a$  has inverse  $r$ , i.e.,  $a^{-1} = r$ .

Hence  $(\mathbb{Z}_p^*, \odot)$  is a commutative group.

**Example:**

$$(\mathbb{Z}_5^*, \odot).$$

$\odot$	1	2	3	4
1	1	2	3	4
2	2	4	1	3
3	3	1	4	2
4	4	3	2	1

**Remark:** Compare this to

*	1	$i$	$-i$	$-1$
1	1	$i$	$-i$	$-1$
$i$	$i$	$-1$	1	$-i$
$-i$	$-i$	1	$-1$	$i$
$-1$	$-1$	$-i$	$i$	1

Identifying  $2 \leftrightarrow i$ ,  $3 \leftrightarrow -i$ ,  $4 \leftrightarrow -1$  gives the same multiplication table (these two groups are said to be *isomorphic* - this will be defined precisely in Algebraic Structures I).

In greater generality, if  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then we define  $\mathbb{Z}_n^* = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}_n : \gcd(n, x) = 1\}$  (the group of *units* in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ ).

Then  $(\mathbb{Z}_n^*, \odot)$  forms a group. Note that if  $n = p$ , then this coincides with our previous definition of  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$ .

**Example:**

$$(\mathbb{Z}_8^*, \odot).$$

$\odot$	1	3	5	7
1	1	3	5	7
3	3	1	7	5
5	5	7	1	3
7	7	5	3	1

### 11.10 The symmetric group

Recall Section 5.7. Fix  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Write  $\mathbb{N}_n = \{1, \dots, n\}$ .

Write  $S_n$  for the set of permutations  $f : \mathbb{N}_n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_n$ . Recall that by Theorem 6.9 we have  $|S_n| = n!$ .

Consider the binary operation  $\circ$  given by composition of permutations.

The identity map  $i_{\mathbb{N}_n} : \mathbb{N}_n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_n$  given by  $i_{\mathbb{N}_n}(a) = a$  for all  $a$  is the identity element. Write  $e = i_{\mathbb{N}_n}$ .

Composition of functions is associative, so the binary operation is associative.

We saw in 5.5 that every permutation has an inverse.

Hence  $S_n$  forms a group under  $\circ$ . This is called the *symmetric group*.

When  $f, g \in S_n$ , we often write  $fg$  instead of  $f \circ g$ .

**Example:**

Let  $(G, *) = (S_6, \circ)$ . The elements  $(132645)$  and  $(143)(26)$  both have order six.

The element  $(13645)$  has order five. The elements  $(13)$ ,  $(24)(56)$  and  $(12)(34)(56)$  all have order two.

### 11.11 More on inverses in groups

Let  $(G, *)$  be a group. Let  $g, h \in G$ .

What is  $(g * h)^{-1}$ ?

Notice that

$$(g * h) * (h^{-1} * g^{-1}) = g * (h * h^{-1}) * g^{-1} = g * e * g^{-1} = g * g^{-1} = e$$

and

$$(h^{-1} * g^{-1}) * (g * h) = h^{-1} * (g^{-1} * g) * h = h^{-1} * e * h = h^{-1} * h = e,$$

so  $h^{-1} * g^{-1} = (g * h)^{-1}$ .

**Example:**

Let  $(G, *) = (S_6, \circ)$ . We have

$$((1234)(2346))^{-1} = (12463)^{-1} = (13642)$$

and

$$(2346)^{-1}(1234)^{-1} = (2643)(1432) = (13642).$$

By induction, if  $g_1, g_2, \dots, g_n \in G$ , then

$$(g_1 * g_2 * \dots * g_n)^{-1} = g_n^{-1} * \dots * g_1^{-1}.$$

### 11.12 Another example

Let  $G = \{e, (12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(23)\} \subseteq S_4$ , with composition as the binary operation.

$((12)(34))^{-1} = (12)(34)$ ,  $((13)(24))^{-1} = (13)(24)$  and  $((14)(23))^{-1} = (14)(23)$ . We check that  $G$  forms a group.

Write  $a = (12)(34)$ ,  $b = (13)(24)$  and  $c = (14)(23)$ . Then the multiplication table is

	$e$	$a$	$b$	$c$
$e$	$e$	$a$	$b$	$c$
$a$	$a$	$e$	$c$	$b$
$b$	$b$	$c$	$e$	$a$
$c$	$c$	$b$	$a$	$e$

Hence  $\circ$  is a binary operation, and  $G$  forms a group.

Note that  $G$  is commutative.

### 11.13 Groups of a given size

Let  $(G, *)$  be a group with identity element  $e$ .

If  $G = \{e, a\}$ , then there is only one possible multiplication table:

	$e$	$a$
$e$	$e$	$a$
$a$	$a$	$e$

If  $G = \{e, a, b\}$ , then there is only one possible multiplication table:

	$e$	$a$	$b$
$e$	$e$	$a$	$b$
$a$	$a$	$b$	$e$
$b$	$b$	$e$	$a$

Note that  $b = a * a = a^2$ .

Now suppose  $|G| = 4$ . Then either  $\forall x \in G, x^2 = e$  or  $\exists x \in G, x^2 \neq e$ . Suppose that the latter occurs. Then we may write  $G = \{e, a, a^2, b\}$  for some  $b$ . In this case there is only one choice for the multiplication table for  $G$ :

	$e$	$a$	$a^2$	$b$
$e$	$e$	$a$	$a^2$	$b$
$a$	$a$	$a^2$	$b$	$e$
$a^2$	$a^2$	$b$	$e$	$a$
$b$	$b$	$e$	$a$	$a^2$

Note that  $b = a^3$ .

If  $\forall x \in G, x^2 = e$ , then there is only one possible type of group (up to renaming the elements).

So there are only two types of groups with four elements.

### 11.14 Cyclic groups

Let  $(G, *)$  be a group with identity element  $e$ . Note that  $\forall g \in G$  we have  $g^0 = e$ .

$G$  is *cyclic* if there is  $a \in G$  such that  $G = \{a^k : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ .

#### Examples:

(i)  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ , since  $\mathbb{Z} = \{1^k : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ .

$(\mathbb{Z}_n, \oplus)$ , where  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , since  $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{1^k : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ .

$(\mathbb{Z}_p^*, \odot)$ , where  $p$  is prime. Here  $\mathbb{Z}_p^* = \{2^k : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  if  $p \neq 2$  and  $\mathbb{Z}_2^* = \{1\}$ .

## 11.15 Fields

Consider the real numbers  $\mathbb{R}$ .

There is more than one natural binary operation on  $\mathbb{R}$ : we have  $+$  and  $\times$ .

We are interested in sets with two compatible binary operations.

**Definition 11.5** *Let  $F$  be a non-empty set and let  $+, *$  be binary operations on  $F$  (they need not be addition and multiplication).*

*We say  $(F, +, *)$  is a field if the following are satisfied:*

**(F1)**  $(F, +)$  is a commutative group. Write  $0$  for the identity.

**(F2)**  $(F \setminus \{0\}, *)$  is a commutative group. Write  $1$  for the identity.

**(F3)**  $\forall a, b, c \in F, a * (b + c) = (a * b) + (a * c)$ . ( $*$  is distributive over  $+$ ).

Note that  $F$  will have an identity element with respect to  $+$  (the additive identity) and a (usually different) identity element with respect to  $*$  (the multiplicative identity).

Each element  $a \in F$  has an inverse with respect to  $+$ , written  $-a$ .

Each element  $a \in F \setminus \{0\}$  has an inverse with respect to  $*$ , written  $a^{-1}$ .

$\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$  are both fields when  $+$  is addition and  $*$  is multiplication.

## 11.16 Some finite fields

Let  $p \in \mathbb{N}$  be a prime. Let  $F = \mathbb{Z}_p$ . Write  $\mathbb{Z}_p^* = \mathbb{Z}_p \setminus \{0\}$ .

Consider  $\oplus$  and  $\odot$  as the binary operations on  $F$ .

We saw that  $(\mathbb{Z}_p, \oplus)$  forms a commutative group (with identity element  $0$ ). Hence (F1) is satisfied.

We also saw that  $(\mathbb{Z}_p^*, \odot)$  is a commutative group (with identity element  $1$ ). Hence (F2) is satisfied.

It is clear that  $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}_p, a \odot (b \oplus c) = (a \odot b) \oplus (a \odot c)$  (since multiplication is distributive over addition in the integers).

Hence  $(F, \oplus, \odot)$  is a field. Note that  $F$  is finite.

$\mathbb{Q}$  and  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  are the fundamental examples of fields - in a sense every field 'contains' a copy of one of these.