

# Permanents of $2 \times 2$ Matrices Modulo $n$

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**Abstract** - In this article we compute the number of invertible  $2 \times 2$  matrices with integer entries modulo  $n$  whose permanents are congruent modulo  $n$  to a given integer  $x$ .

**Keywords** : modular arithmetic; permanents; determinants

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## 1 Introduction and Preliminaries

Let us see why counting the matrices described in the abstract is a natural idea.

Let  $\mathbb{Z}_n = \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$  denote the ring of integers modulo  $n$ . We will denote  $\text{GCD}(a, b)$  by  $(a, b)$ .

Lockhart and Wardlaw compute in [1] the number of square matrices with entries in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  with given determinant  $x$ . Trying to do the same after replacing the determinant by the permanent looks like a daunting task, so let us examine the case of  $2 \times 2$  matrices.

Let  $M_2(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  denote the ring of all  $2 \times 2$  matrices with entries from  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ .

**Definition 1.1** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \in M_2(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ . The permanent of  $A$ , denoted  $\text{perm}(A)$ , is defined as

$$\text{perm}(A) = ad + bc \pmod{n}.$$

If  $n, x \in \mathbb{N}$ , define

$$D_n(x) = \{A \in M_2(\mathbb{Z}_n) \mid \det(A) \equiv x \pmod{n}\}.$$

The number of elements of  $D_n(x)$ ,  $|D_n(x)|$ , was found in [1]. If we now define

$$F_n(x) = \{A \in M_2(\mathbb{Z}_n) \mid \text{perm}(A) \equiv x \pmod{n}\},$$

and try to find  $|F_n(x)|$ , there is good news and bad news. The bad news is that it is easy to see that this will be the same number: the sets  $F_n(x)$  and  $D_n(x)$  are in bijection via the map sending  $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ . The good news is that  $|F_n(x)|$  shares the properties of  $|D_n(x)|$  [1], such as :



1. Multiplicativity in  $n$  : If  $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $(a, b) = 1$ , then

$$|F_{ab}(x)| = |F_a(x)| \times |F_b(x)|$$

2. GCD invariance : If  $n, x, y \in \mathbb{N}$ , then

$$|F_n(x)| = |F_n(y)| \text{ whenever } (n, x) = (n, y)$$

For example, this allows us to conclude that

$$|M_2(\mathbb{Z}_n)| = \sum_{d|n} \varphi\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) |F_n(d)|.$$

Denote by  $GL_2(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  the group of units of  $M_2(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ . If we now set

$$G_n(x) = \{A \in GL_2(\mathbb{Z}_n) | perm(A) \equiv x \pmod{n}\} \text{ and } g_n(x) = |G_n(x)|,$$

we will see that computing the values of  $g_n(x)$  for every  $n$  and  $x$  is an interesting problem.

It is known that  $|GL_2(\mathbb{Z}_p)| = (p^2 - p)(p^2 - 1)$ . If  $\psi : GL_2(\mathbb{Z}_{p^k}) \rightarrow GL_2(\mathbb{Z}_p)$  is the group homomorphism induced by the natural ring homomorphism  $M_2(\mathbb{Z}_{p^k}) \rightarrow M_2(\mathbb{Z}_p)$ , then it is easy to check that  $|ker\psi| = p^{4(k-1)}$ . From the surjectivity of  $\psi$ , we have

$$|GL_2(\mathbb{Z}_{p^k})| = p^{4(k-1)} |GL_2(\mathbb{Z}_p)| = p^{4(k-1)} (p^2 - p)(p^2 - 1) \quad (1)$$

(Note that a similar formula holds in arbitrary dimension [1].)

## 2 The Function $g_n(x)$

We start this section with the following remark related to  $G_n(0)$ , which we will use frequently.

**Remark 2.1** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \in G_n(0)$ . Then  $perm(A) \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$  and  $(det(A), n) = (ad - bc, n) = 1$ . We claim that each of  $a, b, c, d$  is relatively prime to  $n$ . Suppose it were not true, without loss of generality assume that  $(a, n) = r > 1$ . Then there is a prime  $p$  such that  $p|r$ . As a consequence  $p|a$ , now  $p$  is prime and  $p|ad + bc$  implies  $p|b$  or  $p|c$  which contradicts the fact that  $(ad - bc, n) = 1$ .

An immediate consequence of above remark is that for an odd prime  $p$  and  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  we have

$$g_{p^k}(0) = \phi(p^k)^3 = (p^k - p^{k-1})^3 \quad (2)$$

The following result shows that  $g_n(x)$  is multiplicative in  $n$ , which is a direct consequence of the proof that  $|F_n(x)|$  is multiplicative in  $n$  [1]. We are including the proof for the sake of completeness. With Proposition 2.2 and Proposition 2.3 we can compute  $g_n(x)$  for every  $n$  and  $x$ . In the process we show that  $g_{p^k}(x)$  assumes only two values. In

particular, we show that  $g_{p^k}(x) = \begin{cases} g_{p^k}(0) & \text{if } p|x, \\ g_{p^k}(1) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$



**Proposition 2.2** Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$  be such that  $(a, b) = 1$ . Then for every  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$g_{ab}(x) = g_a(x) \times g_b(x).$$

**Proof.** We make use of the bijection we already have from  $F_{ab}(x) \rightarrow F_a(x) \times F_b(x)$  in [1] which takes  $[c_{ij}] \mapsto ([c_{ij} \pmod{a}], [c_{ij} \pmod{b}])$ . Consider the same map from  $G_{ab}(x) \rightarrow G_a(x) \times G_b(x)$ . It is injective on the restricted domain since it is injective on the superset  $F_{ab}(x)$ . The range of the map is clearly contained in  $G_a(x) \times G_b(x)$  since a unit  $\pmod{ab}$  is also a unit  $\pmod{a}$  and  $\pmod{b}$  when  $(a, b) = 1$ . Now given  $(R, S) \in G_a(x) \times G_b(x)$  we have a pre-image  $T \in F_{ab}(x)$ . We claim that this  $T$  lies in  $G_{ab}(x)$ . For if it was not, then  $\det(T)$  would be a zero divisor in  $\mathbb{Z}_{ab}$ , that would contradict  $R$  and  $S$  both being invertible. Thus the map is surjective on the restricted domain as well and hence a bijection from  $G_{ab}(x) \rightarrow G_a(x) \times G_b(x)$ . Thus  $g_n(x)$  is multiplicative.  $\square$

The next result describes  $g_n(x)$  when  $n$  is a power of a prime.

**Proposition 2.3** Let  $p \in \mathbb{N}$  be a prime number and  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then:

- (i) for every  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $p|x$ ,  $g_{p^k}(x) = g_{p^k}(0)$ . Furthermore, if  $p = 2$ , then  $g_{2^k}(0) = 0$ .
- (ii) if  $p \nmid x$ , then  $g_{p^k}(x) = g_{p^k}(1)$ .

**Proof.** (i) We first construct a bijection from  $G_{p^k}(0)$  to  $G_{p^k}(p^i)$ :

$$\lambda : G_{p^k}(0) \rightarrow G_{p^k}(p^i) \text{ by } \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d + a^{-1}p^i \end{bmatrix}.$$

It is easy to check that the above map is injective. Given  $A \in G_{p^k}(0)$ ,  $\lambda(A) \in G_{p^k}(p^i)$ . For  $\gcd(ad - bc, p^k) = 1 \implies \gcd((ad - bc) + p^i, p^k) = \gcd(\det(\lambda(A)), p^k) = 1$ . Furthermore,  $\lambda$  is a surjective map as well. This is because given  $B = \begin{bmatrix} a' & b' \\ c' & d' \end{bmatrix} \in G_{p^k}(p^i)$ , we are guaranteed the existence of the multiplicative inverse  $(a')^{-1} \in \mathbb{Z}_{p^k}$  (this can be proved in the same way as Remark 2.1). Now consider  $C = \begin{bmatrix} a' & b' \\ c' & d' - (a')^{-1}p^i \end{bmatrix} \in G_{p^k}(0)$ . Clearly,  $\lambda(C) = B$  and thus

$$|G_{p^k}(0)| = |G_{p^k}(p^i)| \implies g_{p^k}(0) = g_{p^k}(p^i).$$

Now, if  $p \nmid m$ , define  $h_m : G_{p^k}(p^i) \rightarrow G_{p^k}(mp^i)$  by  $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} ma & mb \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ . This is a bijection, since  $(m, p^k) = 1$  there exists  $t \in \mathbb{Z}_{p^k}$  such that  $mt \equiv 1 \pmod{p^k}$ , and the map  $h_t : G_{p^k}(mp^i) \rightarrow G_{p^k}(p^i)$  defined as  $\begin{bmatrix} p & q \\ r & s \end{bmatrix} \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} tp & tq \\ r & s \end{bmatrix}$  is the inverse of  $h_m$ . Thus

$$g_{p^k}(0) = g_{p^k}(p^i) = g_{p^k}(mp^i).$$



Now consider the case when  $p = 2$  and let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \in G_{2^k}(0)$ , so  $ad + bc \equiv 0 \pmod{2^k}$  and  $2 \nmid \det(A) \equiv ad - bc$ . Since  $2 \mid ad + bc$ , both  $ad$  and  $bc$  have the same parity, so  $2 \mid ad - bc$  as well, a contradiction. Thus

$$g_{2^k}(0) = 0.$$

(ii) We prove, more generally, that  $g_n(k) = g_n(1)$  if  $(k, n) = 1$ . There exists  $\ell \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  such that  $k\ell \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ . The map  $h_k : G_n(1) \rightarrow G_n(k)$  defined by  $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} ka & kb \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ , has inverse  $h_\ell : G_n(k) \rightarrow G_n(1)$  defined by  $\begin{bmatrix} p & q \\ r & s \end{bmatrix} \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} \ell p & \ell q \\ r & s \end{bmatrix}$ .  $\square$

The following result follows immediately from Propositions 2.2 and 2.3

**Corollary 2.4** *Let  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_r$  be distinct odd primes.*

(i) *Let  $n = p_1^{a_1} \cdots p_r^{a_r} \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $g_n(x)$  takes  $2^r$  possible values.*

(ii) *Let  $n = 2^a p_1^{a_1} \cdots p_r^{a_r} \in \mathbb{N}$ , where  $a > 0$ . Then  $g_n(x)$  takes  $2^{r-1} + 1$  possible values.*

**Corollary 2.5** *Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $|GL_2(\mathbb{Z}_n)| = \sum_{d|n} \varphi\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) g_n(d)$ .*

**Proof.** We have

$$|GL_2(\mathbb{Z}_n)| = g_n(1) + g_n(2) + \dots + g_n(n),$$

so it is sufficient to prove that  $g_n(a) = g_n(b)$  whenever  $(a, n) = (b, n)$ . If  $n = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \cdots p_r^{a_r}$  and  $(k, n) = d > 1$ , then  $d = p_1^{b_1} p_2^{b_2} \cdots p_r^{b_r}$ , where  $0 \leq b_i \leq a_i$ , and from Proposition 2.2 we have

$$g_n(d) = \prod_{p_i | d} g_{p_i^{a_i}}(d) \prod_{p_j \nmid d} g_{p_j^{a_j}}(d).$$

Now from Proposition 2.3 we have

$$g_n(d) = \prod_{p_i | d} g_{p_i^{a_i}}(0) \prod_{p_j \nmid d} g_{p_j^{a_j}}(1) = g_n(k).$$

$\square$

**Corollary 2.6** *Let  $p$  be an odd prime and  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then:*

(i)  $g_{p^k}(0) = (p^k - p^{k-1})^3$

(ii)  $g_{p^k}(1) = p^{3(k-1)}(p-1)(p^2+1)$

(iii)  $g_{2^k}(0) = 0$

(iv)  $g_{2^k}(1) = 6 \times 8^{k-1}$ .

**Proof.** (i) is (2).

(ii) follows from (i), (1), Proposition 2.3, and Corollary 2.5.

(iii) is in Proposition 2.3 (i).

(iv) follows from (iii), (1), Proposition 2.3, and Corollary 2.5.  $\square$

We can now use the fact that  $g_n(x)$  is multiplicative in  $n$  and the previous corollary to find values of  $g_n(x)$  for all  $n, x \in \mathbb{N}$ . We illustrate this process with a couple of examples.



For the first example,  $g_{75}(x)$  can take four values:

1.  $g_{75}(0) = g_3(0)g_{25}(0) = 64,000$
2.  $g_{75}(1) = g_3(1)g_{25}(1) = 260,000$
3.  $g_{75}(3) = g_3(0)g_{25}(1) = 104,000$
4.  $g_{75}(5) = g_3(1)g_{25}(0) = 160,000$ .

Any other  $g_{75}(x)$  is equal to one of these four, e.g.

$$g_{75}(14) = g_3(14)g_{25}(14) = g_3(1)g_{25}(1) = 260,000$$

and

$$g_{75}(35) = g_3(35)g_{25}(35) = g_3(1)g_{25}(0) = 160,000.$$

For the second example, the three possible values of  $g_{24}(x)$  are :

1.  $g_{24}(0) = g_8(0)g_3(0) = 0$
2.  $g_{24}(1) = g_8(1)g_3(1) = 7,680$
3.  $g_{24}(3) = g_8(1)g_3(0) = 3,072$ .

Any other  $g_{24}(x)$  is equal to one of these three, e.g.

$$g_{24}(14) = g_8(14)g_3(14) = g_8(0)g_3(1) = 0 \cdot g_3(1) = 0$$

and

$$g_{24}(35) = g_{24}(11) = g_8(11)g_3(11) = g_8(1)g_3(1) = 7,680.$$

## References

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