

Part I - Group Theory

December 22, 2025

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1 Introduction to Groups

1.1 Basic Axioms and Examples

1.1.1

(a) No. $(5 - 4) - 1 = 1 - 1 = 0$ but $5 - (4 - 1) = 5 - 3 = 2$

(b) Yes.

$$\begin{aligned}
 (a \star b) \star c &= (a + b + ab) \star c \\
 &= a + b + ab + c + (a + b + ab)c \\
 &= a + b + ab + c + ac + bc + abc && \text{Distributive property of } \mathbb{R} \\
 &= a + b + c + bc + ab + ac + abc && \text{Commutativity of } + \text{ in } \mathbb{R} \\
 &= a + b + c + bc + a(b + c + bc) \\
 &= a \star (b + c + bc) \\
 &= a \star (b \star c)
 \end{aligned}$$

(c) No. $(1 \star 2) \star 3 = \frac{1+2}{5} \star 3 = \frac{3}{5} \star 3 = \frac{\frac{3}{5}+3}{5} = \frac{18}{5}$. But $1 \star (2 \star 3) = 1 \star \frac{2+3}{5} = 1 \star 1 = \frac{1+1}{5} = \frac{2}{5}$.

(d) Yes.

$$\begin{aligned}
 [(a, b) \star (c, d)] \star (e, f) &= (ad + bc, bd) \star (e, f) \\
 &= ((ad + bc)f + (bd)e, (bd)f) \\
 &= (adf + bcf + bde, bdf) \\
 &= (a(df) + b(cf + de), b(df)) \\
 &= (a, b) \star (cf + de, df) \\
 &= (a, b) \star [(c, d) \star (e, f)]
 \end{aligned}$$

(e) No. $(1 \star 2) \star 3 = \frac{1}{2} \star 3 = \frac{\frac{1}{2}+3}{3} = \frac{7}{6}$. But $1 \star (2 \star 3) = 1 \star \frac{2}{3} = \frac{1+\frac{2}{3}}{3} = \frac{5}{9}$.

1.1.3

$$\begin{aligned}
 (\bar{a} + \bar{b}) + \bar{c} &= \overline{(a + b)} + \bar{c} \\
 &= \overline{(a + b) + c} \\
 &= \overline{a + (b + c)} && \text{associativity of } + \text{ in } \mathbb{Z} \\
 &= \bar{a} + \overline{b + c} \\
 &= \bar{a} + (\bar{b} + \bar{c})
 \end{aligned}$$

1.1.4

$$\begin{aligned}
 (\bar{a} \cdot \bar{b}) \cdot \bar{c} &= \overline{(a \cdot b)} \cdot \bar{c} \\
 &= \overline{(a \cdot b) \cdot c} \\
 &= \overline{a \cdot (b \cdot c)} && \text{associativity of } \cdot \text{ in } \mathbb{Z} \\
 &= \bar{a} \cdot \overline{b \cdot c} \\
 &= \bar{a} \cdot (\bar{b} \cdot \bar{c})
 \end{aligned}$$

1.1.5

$\bar{0}$ has no multiplicative inverse

1.1.9

- (a)
- $(a + b\sqrt{2}) + (c + d\sqrt{2}) = a + b\sqrt{2} + c + d\sqrt{2} = a + c + b\sqrt{2} + d\sqrt{2} = (a + b) + (b + d)\sqrt{2} \in G$, so the operation is closed under addition.
 - Associativity follows directly from associativity in \mathbb{R}
 - $0 = 0 + \sqrt{2}$ is clearly an identity
 - $-a + (-b)\sqrt{2}$

(b) To help us, we prove the following lemma

Lemma 1. *Given $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$, $a + b\sqrt{2} \neq 0 \iff a \neq 0$ or $b \neq 0$*

Proof. For \implies , if we had both $a, b = 0$, then we'd have $a + b\sqrt{2} = 0 + 0\sqrt{2} = 0$. For \impliedby , assume without generality that $a \neq 0$. Then $a + b\sqrt{2} = 0$ would mean that $a = -b\sqrt{2}$. However, since b is rational, $-b\sqrt{2}$ is irrational. But a is rational, so they can't be equal. \square

- Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$ not both be zero and $c, d \in \mathbb{Q}$ not both be zero. Then $(a + b\sqrt{2})(c + d\sqrt{2}) = ac + bc\sqrt{2} + ad\sqrt{2} + 2bd = (ac + 2bd) + (ad + bc)\sqrt{2}$. The result is nonzero thanks to the zero product property in \mathbb{R} . Hence, the operation is closed under multiplication
- Associativity follows directly from associativity of multiplication in \mathbb{R}
- The identity is clearly $1 = 1 + 0\sqrt{2}$
- To find an inverse, we note that the inverse of $a + b\sqrt{2}$ in \mathbb{R} is $\frac{1}{a+b\sqrt{2}}$ (note, we have $a + b\sqrt{2} \neq 0$). Now we "rationalize.":

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{1}{a + b\sqrt{2}} \\
 &= \frac{1}{a + b\sqrt{2}} \left(\frac{a - b\sqrt{2}}{a - b\sqrt{2}} \right) && \text{Possible by lemma 1} \\
 &= \frac{a - b\sqrt{2}}{(a + b\sqrt{2})(a - b\sqrt{2})} \\
 &= \frac{a - b\sqrt{2}}{a^2 - 2b^2} \\
 &= \frac{a}{a^2 - 2b^2} + \frac{-b}{a^2 - 2b^2} \sqrt{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

1.1.15

Clearly this holds for $n = 1$. Now suppose $(a_1 \cdots a_{n-1})^{-1} = a_{n-1}^{-1} \cdots a_1^{-1}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 (a_n^{-1} a_{n-1}^{-1} \cdots a_1^{-1})(a_1 \cdots a_{n-1} a_n) &= a_n^{-1} (a_{n-1}^{-1} \cdots a_1^{-1})(a_1 \cdots a_{n-1}) a_n && \text{Associativity} \\
 &= a_n^{-1} (a_1 \cdots a_{n-1})^{-1} (a_1 \cdots a_{n-1}) a_n \\
 &= a_n^{-1} 1 a_n \\
 &= a_n^{-1} a_n \\
 &= 1
 \end{aligned}$$

1.1.16

- First suppose that $x^2 = 1$
 - Case: $x = 1$. Then $x^1 = 1$. Hence $|x| = 1$
 - Case: $x \neq 1$. Then $x^1 \neq 1$. But $x^2 = 1$. Hence $|x| = 2$
- Now suppose $|x| = 1$ or 2
 - Case: $|x| = 1$. Then $x^1 = 1 \implies x = 1$, and $x^2 = 1^1 = 1$
 - Case: $|x| = 2$. Then $x^2 = 1$ by definition

1.1.17

$$\begin{aligned} x^{n-1}x &= x^n \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Hence $x^{n-1} = x^{-1}$

1.1.19

(a)

$$\begin{aligned} x^a x^b &= \underbrace{(x \cdots x)}_{a \text{ times}} \underbrace{(x \cdots x)}_{b \text{ times}} \\ &= \underbrace{x \cdots x}_{a+b \text{ times}} \\ &= x^{a+b} \end{aligned}$$

And

$$\begin{aligned} (x^a)^b &= \underbrace{x^a \cdots x^a}_{b \text{ times}} \\ &= \underbrace{\underbrace{x}_{a \text{ times}} \cdots \underbrace{x}_{a \text{ times}}}_{b \text{ times}} \\ &= \underbrace{x \cdots x}_{a \cdot b \text{ times}} \\ &= x^{ab} \end{aligned}$$

(b) Clearly works for $a = 1$. Now suppose that $(x^{a-1})^{-1} = x^{-(a-1)}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} x^{-a} x^a &= \underbrace{(x^{-1} \cdots x^{-1})}_{a \text{ times}} x^a && \text{By definition} \\ &= (x^{-1} \underbrace{x^{-1} \cdots x^{-1}}_{a-1 \text{ times}}) x^{a-1} x \\ &= x^{-1} x^{-(a-1)} x^{a-1} x && \text{Definition} \\ &= x^{-1} (x^{a-1})^{-1} x^{a-1} x && \text{Inductive assumption} \\ &= x^{-1} 1 x \\ &= x^{-1} x \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

(c) Fuck my life bro. This is more annoying than it seems.

i We first show that $x^a x^b = x^{a+b}$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. We go by cases.

- (1) Case: $a = 0$ or $b = 0$. Assume $a = 0$ without loss of generality. Then $x^a x^b = x^0 x^b = 1x^b = x^b = x^{0+b} = x^{a+b}$.
- (2) Case: Both $a, b < 0$. Then let $c = -a, d = -b$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 x^a x^b &= x^{-c} x^{-d} \\
 &= (x^{-1})^c (x^{-1})^d && \text{Definition} \\
 &= (x^{-1})^{c+d} && \text{By (a)} \\
 &= x^{-(c+d)} && \text{Definition} \\
 &= x^{-c-d} \\
 &= x^{a+b}
 \end{aligned}$$

- (3) Case: One is negative, one is positive. Assume without loss of generality that $a < 0, b > 0$. We proceed by induction on b . We can take $b = 0$ to be the base case (we've already shown it in the Case (1)) and then assume that $x^a x^{b-1} = x^{a+b-1}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 x^a x^b &= x^a x^{b-1} x \\
 &= x^{a+b-1} x
 \end{aligned}$$

Okay, so if $a + b - 1 > 0$, this is just (a). If $a + b - 1 = 0$, this is just Case (1). So we have to deal with the case $a + b - 1 < 0$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 x^{a+b-1} x &= \underbrace{x^{-1} \cdots x^{-1}}_{-(a+b-1) \text{ times}} \\
 &= \underbrace{x^{-1} \cdots x^{-1}}_{1-a-b \text{ times}} x \\
 &= \underbrace{x^{-1} \cdots x^{-1}}_{1-a-b-1 \text{ times}} \\
 &= \underbrace{x^{-1} \cdots x^{-1}}_{-a-b \text{ times}} \\
 &= \underbrace{x^{-1} \cdots x^{-1}}_{-(a+b) \text{ times}} \\
 &= \underbrace{x \cdots x}_{a+b \text{ times}}
 \end{aligned}$$

ii Alright, now time for $(x^a)^b = x^{ab}$. We proceed by cases again

- (1) Case: $a = 0$. Then $(x^a)^b = (x^0)^b = 1^b = 1 = x^0 = x^{0b} = x^{ab}$
- (2) Case: $b = 0$. Then $(x^a)^b = (x^a)^0 = 1 = x^0 = x^{a0} = x^{ab}$
- (3) Case: $a < 0, b > 0$. Let $c = -a$ Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 (x^a)^b &= (x^{-c})^b \\
 &= ((x^{-1})^c)^b && \text{Definition} \\
 &= (x^{-1})^{cb} && \text{By (a)} \\
 &= x^{-cb} && \text{Definition} \\
 &= x^{ab}
 \end{aligned}$$

- (4) Case: $a > 0, b < 0$. Let $c = -b$. I REGRET DOING THIS EXERCISE. I REGRET DOING THIS

EXERCISE. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 (x^a)^b &= (x^a)^{-c} \\
 &= ((x^a)^c)^{-1} && \text{By (b)} \\
 &= ((x^{ac})^{-1})^{-1} && \text{By (a)} \\
 &= x^{-ac} && \text{By (b)} \\
 &= x^{ab}
 \end{aligned}$$

(5) Case: $a, b < 0$. Let $c = -a$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 (x^a)^b &= (x^{-c})^b \\
 &= ((x^{-1})^c)^b && \text{Definition} \\
 &= (x^{-1})^{cb} && \text{By the previous case, Case (4)} \\
 &= x^{-cb} && \text{Definition} \\
 &= x^{ab}
 \end{aligned}$$

And we're done. I regret doing this exercise.

We will use the results of this exercise without referring to it from here on.

1.1.20

- Suppose $|x| = \infty$. Then suppose $|x^{-1}| = n$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 (x^{-1})^{-1} &= (x^{-1})^{n-1} && \text{by 1.1.17} \\
 \implies x &= x^{-n+1} \\
 \implies x^{n-1}x &= x^{n-1}x^{-n+1} \\
 \implies x^n &= x^{n-1-n+1} \\
 &= x^0 \\
 &= 1
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence $|x| \leq n$, a contradiction. So we can't have $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, so $n = \infty$

- Suppose $|x| = n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Then let $|x^{-1}| = l$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 (x^{-1})^l &= x^{-l} \\
 \implies l &= (x^l)^{-1} \\
 \implies x^l &= x^l(x^l)^{-1} \\
 \implies x^l &= 1
 \end{aligned}$$

So $l = kn$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. I.e. $l \geq n$. But

$$\begin{aligned}
 (x^{-1})^n &= x^{-n} \\
 &= (x^n)^{-1} \\
 &= 1^{-1} \\
 &= 1
 \end{aligned}$$

So $l \leq n$. So we must have $l = n$

1.1.21

Since n is odd, let $n = 2s + 1$ for $s \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} x^n &= x^{2s+1} \\ \implies 1 &= x^{2s+1} \\ \implies x &= x^{2s+2} \\ &= x^{2(s+1)} \\ &= (x^2)^{s+1} \end{aligned}$$

1.1.23

Let $|x^s| = r$. Then $(x^s)^t = x^{st} = x^n = 1$, so $r \leq t$. But note that $k = r$ is the lowest positive integer for which

$$(x^s)^k = 1 \tag{1}$$

holds. However, we showed that $k = t$ also makes the equation true, so $t \geq r$. Hence $t = r$.

1.1.25

Given $a, b \in G$,

$$\begin{aligned} (ab)(ba) &= ab^2a \\ &= a1a \\ &= a^2 \\ &= 1 \\ \implies (ab)(ab)(ba) &= ab \\ \implies (ab)^2(ba) &= ab \\ \implies 1(ba) &= ab \\ \implies ba &= ab \end{aligned}$$

1.1.26

- Closure under the operation is given by the definition
- Associativity is directly inherited from G
- Inverses exist as given by the definition
- The identity exists. Note that by definition, H is closed under the operation and inverses. We were also given that H is nonempty, so we can take some $h \in H$, and note that $h^{-1} \in H$ as well. So $hh^{-1} \in H$, i.e. $1 \in H$.

1.1.27

Let $H = \{x^n | n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$.

- H is closed under the operation. Let $x^n, x^m \in H$. then $x^n x^m = x^{n+m} \in H$.
- H is closed under inverses. Given x^n , note that $x^{-n} \in H$, which is clearly its inverse.

1.1.29

- \Leftarrow : If A, B abelian, given $(a, b), (c, d) \in A \times B$, we have $(a, b)(c, d) = (ac, bd) = (ca, db) = (c, d)(a, b)$
- \Rightarrow : Now assume without loss of generality that B is not abelian (e.g. space of invertible matrices), and take any $b, d \in B$ such that $bd \neq db$. Then $(a, b)(c, d) = (ac, bd)$. But $(c, d)(a, b) = (ca, db) = (ac, db)$. Note that by definition of $A \times B$, since $bd \neq db$, we have $(ac, bd) \neq (ac, db)$.

1.1.30

$(a, 1)(1, b) = (a \cdot 1, 1 \cdot b) = (1 \cdot a, b \cdot 1) = (1, b)(a, 1)$, so these elements commute. Note let $A = |a|, B = |b|, l = |(a, b)|$. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= (a, b)^l \\ &= [(a, 1)(1, b)]^l \\ &= (a, 1)^l(1, b)^l && \text{By the commutativity we just proved} \\ &= (a^l, 1)(1, b^l) \\ \iff (1, 1) &= (a^l, b^l) \end{aligned}$$

Which happens iff $a^l = 1, b^l = 1$. I.e. iff $l = qA = tB$, for some positive integers q, t . I.e. iff l is a multiple of both A and B , i.e. l is a common multiple of A, B . But l is the *smallest* positive integer for which this holds, i.e. l must be the *least* common multiple of A and B .

1.1.31

We follow the hint and let $t(G) = \{g \in G | g \neq g^{-1}\}$. Note that the elements of $t(G)$ come in pairs (g and g^{-1}), hence its cardinality must be even.

Now let $g \in G - t(G)$ with $g \neq 0$. Does such an element exist? Since $1 \in t(G)$, we do have $|G| > t(G)$. If $|G| = t(G) + 1$, then G would be odd, a contradiction. So we must have $|G| \geq t(G) + 2$, i.e. $G - t(G)$ has at least one nonidentity element g , and for this element we have $g = g^{-1} \implies g^2 = 1$.

1.1.32

Suppose $x^k = x^l$, with $0 \leq k \leq l \leq n - 1$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} x^k &= x^l \\ \implies 1 &= x^{l-k} \\ \implies l - k &= rn \end{aligned}$$

Where $r \in \mathbb{Z}$. Since $l \geq k$, we must have $r \geq 0$. Now suppose $r > 0$. Then $l = rn + k > n - 1$, a contradiction. Hence $r = 0$ and $l - k = 0$ i.e. $l = k$.

Now if $|x| > |G|$, then the elements $1, x, \dots, x^{n-1}$ would comprise $n > |G|$ distinct elements in G , which is impossible.

1.1.33

A lemma will help us here.

Lemma 2. For $i = 1, 2, \dots, n - 1$, if $x^i = x^{-i}$, then $2i = n$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} x^i &= x^{-i} \\ \implies x^{2i} &= 1 \\ \implies 2i &= rn && \text{for some } r \in \mathbb{Z} \end{aligned}$$

We must show that $r = 1$, and we're done. If $r \leq 0$, this would contradict $1 \leq i < n$.

If $r \geq 2$, then

$$\begin{aligned} 2i &= rn \\ \implies i &= \frac{r}{2}n \\ &> \frac{2}{2}n \\ &= n \end{aligned}$$

which again contradicts $1 \leq i < n$. So we must have $r = 1$ □

- (a) With n odd, suppose $x^i = x^{-i}$. Then applying the lemma yields $2i = n$, making n even, a contradiction.
- (b) With n even, for \implies , suppose $x^i = x^{-i}$. Applying the lemma again yields

$$\begin{aligned} 2i &= n \\ &= 2k \\ \implies i &= k \end{aligned}$$

Now for \Leftarrow , suppose $i = k$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= x^n \\ &= x^{2k} \\ &= x^{2i} \\ \implies x^{-i} &= x^i \end{aligned}$$

1.1.34

Let $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$. Assume $w.l.g.m \geq n$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} x^n &= x^m \\ \implies 1 &= x^{m-n} \end{aligned}$$

Since $m \geq n$, we have $m - n \geq 0$. If $m - n > 0$, then $|x| \leq m - n$, contradicting $|x| = \infty$. Hence $m - n = 0$, i.e. $m = n$

1.1.35

Let $l \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then by Euclidean division, $l = kn + r$ with $0 \leq r < n$. So

$$\begin{aligned} x^l &= x^{kn+r} \\ &= x^{kn} x^r \\ &= (x^n)^k x^r \\ &= (1)^k x^r \\ &= 1x^r \\ &= x^r \end{aligned}$$

1.4 Matrix Groups

1.4.1

Since $\mathbb{F}_2 = \{0, 1\}$, it's straightforward to exhaust the elements of $GL_2(\mathbb{F}_2)$ by "turning on/off" the entries. These elements are:

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ A &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ B &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ C &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ D &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ E &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Any other possible element's determinant is 0

1.4.2

We already listed the elements above. Simple computation gives us $|I| = 1$, $|A| = |C| = |D| = 2$, $|B| = |E| = 3$

1.4.3

We'll take the following lemma for granted moving forward:

Lemma 3. *In a field F , $0 \neq 1$*

Proof. If $0 = 1$ in F , then $F^\times = F - \{0\}$ does not contain the multiplicative identity, and therefore F^\times is not an abelian group, violating the first condition in the definition of a field. \square

Let $x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $y = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. Then the top left entry of xy is $2 = 0$ but the top left entry of yx is 1. Since $1 \neq 0$ in a field, $xy \neq yx$.

1.4.4

Let $n = ab$ where $a, b \neq 1$. Suppose there was some $l \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{a} \cdot \bar{l} &= \bar{1} \\ \implies \overline{al} &= \bar{1} \\ \implies \overline{al} - \bar{1} &= \bar{0} \\ \implies \overline{al - 1} &= \bar{0} \\ \implies al - 1 &= qn && \text{for some integer } q \\ &= qab \\ \implies al - abq &= 1 \\ \implies a(l - bq) &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Since $a \neq 1$ and $l - bq$ must be an integer, this is impossible. Thus \bar{a} does not have a multiplicative inverse, so $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ cannot be a field.

1.4.5

- \Leftarrow : If $|F| = q$ is finite, then there are at most q possibilities for each entry of an element from $GL_n(F)$, therefore $|GL_n(F)| \leq q^{n^2}$. In fact, since the 0 matrix is non-invertible, we can make this a strict inequality:

$$|GL_n(F)| < q^{n^2} \tag{2}$$

- \Rightarrow : If F is infinite consider the correspondence $F^\times \rightarrow GL_n(F)$ given by

$$f \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} f & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & f \end{pmatrix} \tag{3}$$

I.e. f on the diagonal and 0s everywhere else, in case that wasn't clear.

This is an injective group homomorphism, or just note that it clearly embeds F^\times into $GL_n(F)$ as a subgroup. Therefore, we have an infinite subgroup of $GL_n(F)$, making $GL_n(F)$ infinite.

1.4.6

Already shown in the previous exercise by eq. (2).

1.4.7

The total number of 2×2 matrices over \mathbb{F}_p is clearly p^4 (as we went over in the above 2 exercises).

Now we count all the noninvertible matrices, taking note that a 2×2 is noninvertible \iff one row is a multiple of the other. Let's proceed by cases.

- Select for all the matrices whose top two entries are both nonzero: $(p-1)(p-1)$. To get the noninvertible matrices of this form, we take a multiple of the top row as the bottom row, so there are p choices for the bottom row (since there are p multiples of the top row), hence the total number of matrices in this case is $p(p-1)(p-1) = p^3 - 2p^2 + p$. The following cases proceed similarly.
- Matrices where top-left entry is 0 and top-right entry is nonzero: $p-1$ choices for the top row, and we take multiples for the bottom row so in total $p(p-1)$ matrices
- Matrices where top-left entry is nonzero and top-right entry is 0. Analogous to the above case, yielding again $p(p-1)$ matrices
- Lastly, consider the matrices where the top entries are both 0. Then any entries for the bottom row work. there are two entries in the bottom row, so p^2 matrices

Adding these all together, we get

$$\begin{aligned} (p^3 - 2p^2 + p) + (p^2 - p) + (p^2 - p) + p^2 &= p^3 - 2p^2 + p^2 + p^2 + p^2 + p - p - p \\ &= p^3 - 2p^2 + 3p^2 - p \\ &= p^3 + p^2 - p \end{aligned}$$

We subtract this result (number of noninvertible matrices) to the total number of matrices to obtain the number of invertible matrices:

$$p^4 - (p^3 + p^2 - p) = p^4 - p^3 - p^2 + p \quad (4)$$

1.4.8

We'll also take the following lemma for granted

Lemma 4. *In a nontrivial field F , $n \neq n+1$*

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} n &= n+1 \\ \implies 0 &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

which we can't have in a field □

Let p be the identity matrix except that the toprightmost entry is 1. Let q be the identity matrix except the bottomleftmost entry is 1. The topleft entry of qp is 1 but the topleft entry of pq is 2. They cannot be equal because of the lemma, and hence $qp \neq pq$

1.4.9

The following proof works for matrices over any field F

$$\begin{aligned} \left[\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{pmatrix} \right] \begin{pmatrix} i & j \\ k & l \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} ae + bg & af + bh \\ ce + dg & cf + dh \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} i & j \\ k & l \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} aei + bgi + afk + bhk & aej + bgj + afl + bhl \\ cei + dgi + cfk + dhk & cej + dgj + cfl + dhl \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} a(ei + fk) + b(gi + hk) & a(ej + fl) + b(gj + hl) \\ c(ei + fk) + d(gi + hk) & c(ej + fl) + d(gj + hl) \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} ei + fk & ej + fl \\ gi + hk & gj + hl \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \left[\begin{pmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} i & j \\ k & l \end{pmatrix} \right] \end{aligned}$$

1.4.10

(a)

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ 0 & c_1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_2 & b_2 \\ 0 & c_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 a_2 & a_1 b_2 + b_1 c_2 \\ 0 & c_1 c_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (5)$$

Since $a_1, a_2, c_1, c_2 \neq 0$, we have $a_1 a_2 \neq 0$ and $c_1 c_2 \neq 0$, so the result is still in G (So G is closed under matrix multiplication)

(b) Note: $a, c \neq 0$, and we need

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & c \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} e & f \\ 0 & g \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ \iff \begin{pmatrix} ae & af + bg \\ 0 & cg \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Which is true iff the following system of equations hold

$$\begin{aligned} ae &= 1 \\ af + bg &= 0 \\ cg &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Since $a, c \neq 0$, we can divide by them to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} e &= 1/a \\ f &= \frac{-bg}{a} \\ g &= 1/c \end{aligned}$$

We substitute $g = 1/c$ into the second equation to obtain $f = \frac{-b}{ac}$. Note that all the work can be connected by iffs. Hence, we have

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & c \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/a & \frac{-b}{ac} \\ 0 & 1/c \end{pmatrix} \quad (6)$$

(c) In exercise 1.1.26 we showed that closure under the operation and inverses means that it is a subgroup

(d) • Closure under multiplication: Take eq. (7) and make $c_1 = a_1$ and $c_2 = a_2$, so the result becomes

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ 0 & a_1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_2 & b_2 \\ 0 & a_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 a_2 & a_1 b_2 + b_1 c_2 \\ 0 & a_1 a_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (7)$$

which is clearly in G because the diagonal entries are equal.

• Closure under inverses: Take eq. (6) and make $c = a$, so we get

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/a & \frac{-b}{a^2} \\ 0 & 1/a \end{pmatrix} \quad (8)$$

Again, the inverse is clearly in G because the diagonals are equal.

1.4.11

(a)

$$XY = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ 0 & 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & d & e \\ 0 & 1 & f \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (9)$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a+d & e+af+b \\ 0 & 1 & c+f \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (10)$$

Which is still clearly in $H(F)$, making it closed under matrix multiplication. Also note that

$$YX = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a+d & b+cd+e \\ 0 & 1 & c+f \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (11)$$

Now note that

$$\begin{aligned} XY &= YX \\ \iff e + af + b &= b + cd + e \\ \iff af &= cd \end{aligned}$$

So no matter what field F , we're using, we can let $a, f = 0$ and $c, d = 1$ to obtain $XY \neq YX$. Explicitly, an example of two matrices that don't commute is:

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad Y = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

(b) Using eq. (10), We need

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & a+d & b+cd+e \\ 0 & 1 & c+f \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (12)$$

i.e. we obtain a system of equations and solve:

$$\begin{aligned} a + d &= 0 & \iff d &= -a \\ c + f &= 0 & \iff f &= -c \\ e + af + b &= 0 & \iff e &= -af - b = ac - b \end{aligned}$$

I.e.

$$X^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -a & ac-b \\ 0 & 1 & -c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (13)$$

(c) Let X, Y be as given and let $Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & g & h \\ 0 & 1 & i \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Then, using eq. (10) again,

$$\begin{aligned} (XY)Z &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a+d & e+af+b \\ 0 & 1 & c+f \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & g & h \\ 0 & 1 & i \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & g+a+d & h+i(a+d)+e+af+b \\ 0 & 1 & i+c+f \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a+d+g & h+ia+id+e+af+b \\ 0 & 1 & c+f+i \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a+d+g & a(f+i)+b+h+id+e0 & 1 & c+f+i \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & & \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ 0 & 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & d+g & h+id+e0 & 1 & f+i \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & & \end{pmatrix} \\ &= X \begin{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & d & e \\ 0 & 1 & f \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & g & h \\ 0 & 1 & i \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= X(YZ) \end{aligned}$$

Given an element of $H(F)$, we have 3 entries to input, and we have $|F|$ choices for each entry, so the order is $|F|^3$ (any possible combination of the three entries yields a valid element, no noninvertible matrices or anything to cut out)

- (d) We're going to do some prep work here. Let's study the powers of elements from $H(F)$. We note that, by computation

$$\begin{aligned} X &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ 0 & 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ X^2 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2a & 2b+ac \\ 0 & 1 & 2c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ X^3 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3a & 3b+3ac \\ 0 & 1 & 3c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ X^4 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4a & 4b+6ac \\ 0 & 1 & 4c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ X^5 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 5a & 5b+10ac \\ 0 & 1 & 5c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

etc. We notice a pattern, which is fairly straightforward, except for the coefficient of ac . It follows the sequence $0, 1, 3, 6, 10, \dots$. I.e. start at 0, add 1, then add 2, then add 3, etc. We can describe the sequence recursively:

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 &= 0 \\ a_n &= a_{n-1} + n - 1 \end{aligned}$$

We would like to derive a closed form expression for a_n , and thus we expand:

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= a_{n-1} + n - 1 \\ &= a_{n-2} + (n-2) + (n-1) \\ &= a_{n-3} + (n-3) + (n-2) + (n-1) \\ &= \dots \\ &= a_{n-(n-1)} + (n-(n-1)) + \dots + (n-3) + (n-2) + (n-1) \\ &= a_1 + 1 + \dots + (n-3) + (n-2) + (n-1) \\ &= 0 + 1 + \dots + (n-3) + (n-2) + (n-1) \\ &= 0 + 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + (n-3) + (n-2) + (n-1) \end{aligned}$$

This is just the standard summation of the arithmetic sequence with common difference 1, and hence

$$a_n = \frac{n(n-1)}{2} \tag{14}$$

We now can derive a formula for X^n

Lemma 5. Given $X = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ 0 & 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \in H(F)$ and n a nonnegative integer,

$$X^n = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & na & nb + \frac{n(n-1)}{2}ac \\ 0 & 1 & nc \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \tag{15}$$

Proof. Base case: If $n = 0$, then this just reduces to the identity.
Now we suppose that

$$X^{n-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & (n-1)a & (n-1)b + \frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{2}ac \\ 0 & 1 & (n-1)c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (16)$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} X^n &= X^{n-1}X \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & (n-1)a & (n-1)b + \frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{2}ac \\ 0 & 1 & (n-1)c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ 0 & 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & (n-1)a + a & b + (n-1)ac + (n-1)b + \frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{2}ac \\ 0 & 1 & c + (n-1)c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & na & b + (n-1)b + (n-1)ac + \frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{2}ac \\ 0 & 1 & nc \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & na & nb + (n-1)ac + \frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{2}ac \\ 0 & 1 & nc \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & na & nb + ((n-1) + \frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{2})ac \\ 0 & 1 & nc \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Clearly, if we show that $(n-1) + \frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{2} = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$, we're done. But

$$\begin{aligned} (n-1) + \frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{2} &= \frac{2(n-1)}{2} + \frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{2} \\ &= \frac{2(n-1) + (n-1)(n-2)}{2} \\ &= \frac{2n-2 + n^2-3n+2}{2} \\ &= \frac{n^2+2n-3n+2-2}{2} \\ &= \frac{n^2-n}{2} \\ &= \frac{n(n-1)}{2} \end{aligned}$$

□

Now we actually find the order of each element of $H(\mathbb{F}_2)$. Note that from the previous part, $|H(\mathbb{F}_2)| = |\mathbb{F}_2|^3 =$

$2^3 = 8$, and we can exhaustively list the elements of $H(\mathbb{F}_2)$ by "turning the entries on/off":

$$I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$E = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$F = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$G = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Of course, $|I| = 1$. Note that in for any $x \in \mathbb{F}_2$, $2x = 0$ (in fact, nx for any even n). Now consider any element

$X = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ 0 & 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \in H(\mathbb{F}_2)$ where $ac = 0$. Then following lemma 5,

$$\begin{aligned} X^2 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2a & 2b + \frac{2(2-1)}{2}ac \\ 0 & 1 & 2c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 + \frac{2(1)}{2}ac \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & ac \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Hence $X^2 = I$ for any X where $ac = 0$. Hence, $|A| = |B| = |E| = |F| = |G| = 2$

The only two elements left to check are C and D , and we can actually prove the order of these elements simultaneously, by letting b be arbitrary. Let $X = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & b \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Clearly $X^1 \neq I$ and $X^2 \neq I$. Also, looking at lemma 5, odd numbered exponents would make $na = n1 = n$ and $nc = n$ nonzero, so we have to check the

next even-numbered exponent, i.e.

$$\begin{aligned}
X^4 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \cdot 1 & 4b + \frac{4(4-1)}{2} 1 \cdot 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \cdot 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\
&= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 + \frac{4(3)}{2} \cdot 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\
&= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 12 \cdot 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\
&= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}
\end{aligned}$$

So $|X| = 4$, and X could be either C or D , so $|C| = |D| = 4$

- (e) Given nonidentity X in $H(\mathbb{R})$, we must have either $a \neq 0$, $b \neq 0$, or $c \neq 0$. Now, given $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ an integer, suppose X^n is the identity matrix. I.e. using lemma 5, suppose

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & na & nb + \frac{n(n-1)}{2}ac \\ 0 & 1 & nc \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (17)$$

Which occurs iff the following system of equations holds:

$$\begin{aligned}
na &= 0 \\
nb + \frac{n(n-1)}{2}ac &= 0 \\
nc &= 0
\end{aligned}$$

We proceed by cases:

- Case: $a \neq 0$. Then since $n \neq 0$, the first equation cannot hold.
- Case: $c \neq 0$. Then since $n \neq 0$, the third equation cannot hold.
- Case: $b \neq 0$. Then consider the second equation. If it holds, then since n and b are both nonzero, we must have that $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}ac \neq 0$. And in \mathbb{R} , this means that we must have $n \neq 0$, $n-1 \neq 0$, $a \neq 0$, $c \neq 0$, but the latter two inequalities are covered in the first two cases.