## Lecture 30: Vector spaces and determinants.

## 1. Some preliminaries and the free module on 0 generators

Exercise 30.1. Let $M$ be a left $R$-module. Show that

$$
r 0_{M}=0_{M}, \quad \text { and } \quad r(-x)=-r x
$$

Proof. By homework, an $R$-action on $M$ is the same thing as a ring homomorphism $R \rightarrow \operatorname{End}(M)$. In particular, every $r \in R$ determines an abelian group homomorphism. Hence scaling by $r$ preserves the additive identity of $M$, and additive inverses.

If you prefer a more computational proof, you can observe:

$$
r 0_{M}+r 0_{M}=r\left(0_{M}+0_{M}\right)=r 0_{M} .
$$

So by cancellation for abelian groups, we can subtract $r 0_{M}$ from both sides to obtain

$$
r 0_{M}=0_{M} .
$$

So

$$
r(-x)+r x=r(-x+x)=r 0_{M}=0_{M}
$$

which shows that $r(-x)$ is the additive inverse to $r x$.
Remark 30.2. We know what $R^{\oplus n}$ is for $n \geq 1$. But what about $n=0$ ?
Well, the proposition from last time tells us that we should look for an $R$-module $R^{\oplus 0}$ such that there is a bijection

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(R^{\oplus 0}, M\right) \cong \operatorname{Map}_{\text {Sets }}(\emptyset, M)
$$

But there is one and only one function from the empty set to any set; so we must look for a module $R^{\oplus 0}$ which has one and only one module homomorphism to any $M$. The only such module is the zero module - i.e., the trivial abelian group with the module action $r 0=0$.

## 2. Review of last time; dimension

Last time we studied finitely generated modules over a field $F$. We proved
Theorem 30.3. Let $V$ be a vector space over $F$-i.e., a module over $F$. If $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{m}$ is a linearly independent set, and $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ is a spanning set, then $m \leq n$.

We stated two corollaries:
Corollary 30.4. Any two bases of a finitely generated $F$ have the same number of elements in them.

Definition 30.5. Let $V$ be a finitely generated $F$-module - i.e,. a finitely generated vector space. We call such a $V$ a finite-dimensional vector space, and define the dimension of $V$

$$
\operatorname{dim}_{F} V
$$

to be the number of elements in any basis for $V$.
Example 30.6. The 0-dimensional vector space is the module given by the trivial abelian group, $M=\{0\}$.

The second corollary was:
Corollary 30.7. If $M$ is a finitely generated vector space, any linearly independent collection $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{m}$ can be completed to a basis-that is, we can find $w_{m+1}, \ldots, w_{n}$ so that the resulting collection $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}$ is both linearly independent and spanning.

Chit-chat 30.8. What are we going to do? Well, you have studied matrices whose entries are real numbers before. You did a lot with them-multiply them, add them, and also figure out when they're invertible. I claim that almost everything you could do with real matrices, you can pretty much do with matrices with coefficients in any field.

## 3. More corollaries

Corollary 30.9. Any finitely generated module over a field $F$ is isomorphic to $F^{n}$ for some $n$.

Proof. Begin with the linearly independent set 0 and complete to a basis. A basis defines an isomorphism from $F^{n}$ to your module.

Remark 30.10. This is definitely not true for $R$-modules if $R$ is not a fieldas we saw last time, $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$ is a $\mathbb{Z}$-module but doesn't even admit a linearly independent, non-empty collection of elements (let alone a basis).

Corollary 30.11. If $V^{\prime} \subset V$ is a subspace,

$$
\operatorname{dim} V^{\prime}=\operatorname{dim} V \Longleftrightarrow V=V^{\prime}
$$

Proof. One implication is obvious. For the other direction, let $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}$ be a basis for $V^{\prime}$. Since these vectors are linearly independent, they can be completed to a basis in $V$ by one of the corollaries above. But this basis must have exactly $n$ elements in it by the definition of dimension-in other words, the $y_{i}$ are already a basis.

Corollary 30.12. Let $V^{\prime} \subset V$ be a subspace. Then $\operatorname{dim} V^{\prime}+\operatorname{dim} V / V^{\prime}=$ $\operatorname{dim} V$.

Proof. Let $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{\operatorname{dim} V^{\prime}}$ be a basis for $V^{\prime}$. Let $\overline{u_{1}}, \ldots, \overline{u_{\operatorname{dim} V / V^{\prime}}}$ be a bsis for $V / V^{\prime}$. Then choosing representatives $u_{i}$ for $\overline{u_{i}}$, the set

$$
v_{1}, \ldots, v_{\operatorname{dim} V^{\prime}}, u_{1}, \ldots, u_{\operatorname{dim} V / V^{\prime}}
$$

is a basis for $V$. It obviously spans since for each $a \in V, \bar{a}$ is a linear combination of $\overline{u_{i}}$, hence $a$ is in the $V^{\prime}$-orbit of some linear combination of the $u_{i}$. It is linearly independent because if we have that

$$
0=a_{1} v_{1}+\ldots a_{\operatorname{dim} V^{\prime}} v_{\operatorname{dim} V^{\prime}}+b_{1} u_{1}+\ldots+b_{\operatorname{dim} V / V^{\prime}} u_{\operatorname{dim} V / V^{\prime}}
$$

then

$$
\overline{0}=a_{1} \bar{v}_{1}+\ldots a_{\operatorname{dim} V^{\prime}} \overline{v_{\operatorname{dim} V^{\prime}}}+b_{1} \overline{u_{1}}+\ldots b_{\operatorname{dim} V / V^{\prime}} \overline{u_{\operatorname{dim} V / V^{\prime}}}
$$

The $a_{i}$ terms go to zero since $\bar{v}_{i}=0$, hence we get an equation saying a linear combination of the $\bar{u}_{i}$ is zero. This means each $b_{i}$ must be zero by linear independence of the $\bar{u}_{i}$. The original equation then says that $0=\sum a_{i} v_{i}$, so by linear independence of the $v_{i}$, the $a_{i}$ must be zero.

Corollary 30.13 (Rank-nullity theorem). Let $f: V \rightarrow W$ be a map of $F$-modules and assume $V$ is finitely generated. Then $\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{ker} f+\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{im} f=$ $\operatorname{dim} V$.

Proof. By the first isomorphism theorem, we know there is a group isomorphism $V / \operatorname{ker} f \cong \operatorname{im} f$. But this homomorphism is also an $F$-module map, as you can check by hand. Thus $\operatorname{im} f \cong V / \operatorname{ker} f$.

Corollary 30.14 (Criterion for isomorphisms). Let $f: V \rightarrow W$ be a linear map between finite-dimensional vector spaces. Then $f$ is an isomorphism if and only if $f$ is injective and $\operatorname{dim} V=\operatorname{dim} W$.

Proof. By the rank-nullity theorem, the image of $f$ has dimension $V$ since $f$ is injective.

## 4. The take-away

The take-away from all the above is how powerful the notion of dimension is. Whether your field be something familiar like $\mathbb{R}$, or something foreign (for now) like $\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$; whether the linear map be something as familiar as a matrix, or something that you didn't realize was linear like evaluating polynomial functions (see homework), we have a powerful way of studying linear maps.

## 5. Determinants

The other powerful tool we have from linear algebra is the notion of determinant. Well, the determinant only required a notion of multiplying by -1 (taking additive inverses), multiplying entries of a matrix, and adding things together. So we should be able to define a determinant for any matrix with coefficients in a ring $R$.

As it turns out, some formulas may not hold true if the ring $R$ isn't commutative - the order of multiplication is important - so we'll restrict ourselves to commutative rings.

Definition 30.15. Let $R$ be a commutative ring. A $k \times k$ matrix in $R$ is a collection of elements

$$
A_{i j} \in R
$$

where $i \in 1, \ldots, k$ and $j \in 1, \ldots, k$. We'll represent a matrix by the symbol

$$
A=\left(A_{i j}\right)
$$

Example 30.16. A $3 \times 3$ matrix in $R$ can be drawn in the usual way:

$$
\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\
A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{23} \\
A_{31} & A_{32} & A_{33}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Definition 30.17. The ring of $k \times k$ matrices in $R$, denoted $M_{k \times k}(R)$, has addition given by

$$
\left(A_{i j}\right)+\left(B_{i j}\right)=\left(A_{i j}+B_{i j}\right) \quad\left(A_{i j}\right)\left(B_{i j}\right)=\left(\sum_{l=1}^{k} A_{i l} B_{l j}\right) .
$$

That is, addition is the usual entry-by-entry addition. In the product, the $i, j$ th entry is given by taking the $j$ th column of $B$ and pairing it with the $i$ th row of $A$.

Definition 30.18 (Cofactor matrix). Let $A$ be a $k \times k$ matrix. The ( $i . j$ )th cofactor matrix of $A$ is the matrix obtained by deleting the $i$ th row and $j$ th column of $A$. When $A$ is implicit, we will write

$$
C_{i, j}
$$

for the $(k-1) \times(k-1)$ matrix given by the $(i, j)$ th cofactor matrix of $A$.
Definition 30.19. The determinant of a $1 \times 1$ matrix in $R$ is the unique element $A_{11}$ of the matrix.

Inductively: Let $A$ be a $k \times k$ matrix. Then the determinant of $A$ is defined to be the sum

$$
\operatorname{det} A=A_{11} \operatorname{det} C_{1,1}-A_{21} \operatorname{det} C_{2,1}+\ldots+(-1)^{1+k} A_{k 1} \operatorname{det} C_{k, 1}
$$

Using summation notation,

$$
\operatorname{det} A:=\sum_{i=1}^{k}(-1)^{i+1} A_{i 1} \operatorname{det} C_{i, 1}
$$

This defines a function

$$
\operatorname{det}: M_{k \times k}(R) \rightarrow R
$$

Example 30.20. If $A$ is a $2 \times 2$ matrix,

$$
\operatorname{det}(A)=A_{11} A_{22}-A_{12} A_{21}
$$

We won't prove the following theorems, but the same proofs you did for real numbers carries through:

Theorem 30.21. Let $A$ and $B$ be $k \times k$ matrices. Then

$$
\operatorname{det}(A) \operatorname{det}(B)=\operatorname{det}(A B)
$$

and

$$
\operatorname{det}\left(A^{T}\right)=\operatorname{det}(A)
$$

Theorem 30.22. Let $\operatorname{adj}(A)$ be the $k \times k$ matrix whose $(i, j)$ th entry is given by

$$
(-1)^{i+j} \operatorname{det} C_{j, i} .
$$

Then

$$
A \cdot(\operatorname{adj} A)=(\operatorname{adj} A) \cdot A=\operatorname{det} A \cdot I
$$

where $\operatorname{det} A \cdot I$ is the diagonal matrix with entries given by the element $\operatorname{det} A \in$ $R$.

Remark 30.23. In case you haven't seen this last statement before, let me give a small idea of how the proof goes. The $(i, j)$ th entry of the first multiplication is given by

$$
\sum_{l=1}^{k} A_{i l}(\operatorname{adj} A)_{l j}=\sum_{l=1}^{k} A_{i l}(-1)^{j+l} \operatorname{det} C_{j, l} .
$$

So for instance, the $(1,1)$ entry is precisely the definition of the determinant of $A$. By using properties about swapping rows only changing the determinant by a sign, you can prove that every diagonal entry is the determinant of $A$.

For the off-diagonal entry, you observe that the summation above becomes the determinant for a matrix with two equivalent rows; hence equals zero.

Corollary 30.24. Let $A \in M_{k \times k}(R)$. Then $A$ is an invertible matrix if and only if $\operatorname{det} A \in R$ has a multiplicative inverse.

Proof. Let $B=\operatorname{det} A^{-1} \operatorname{adj} A$. Then

$$
B A=\operatorname{det} A^{-1} \operatorname{adj} A \cdot A=\operatorname{det} A^{-1} \operatorname{det} A \cdot I=I
$$

Likewise for $B A$.
Example 30.25. If $A$ is a matrix with only integer entries, then there exists an inverse matrix with integer entries if and only if $\operatorname{det} A= \pm 1$.

Example 30.26. Let $A$ be a matrix with entries in $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$. It is invertible if and only if its determinant is relatively prime to $n$.

