### LINEAR ALGEBRA -II

B V Rajarama Bhat

Indian Statistical Institute, Bangalore

### Lecture 4: Determinants of partitioned matrices

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- ▶ (i) Non-negative matrices and applications, R B Bapat and T E S Raghavan
- (ii) Books on 'Markov Chains'. (For stochastic matrices).

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So if A is upper triangular, then it has the form:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ 0 & a_{22} & a_{23} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33} & \dots & a_{3n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}.$$

▶ Theorem 4.2: If a matrix  $A = [a_{ij}]$  is upper triangular or lower triangular then the determinant of A is the product of its diagonal entries:

$$\det(A) = a_{11}a_{22}\cdots a_{nn}.$$

$$\det(A) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \epsilon(\sigma) a_{1\sigma(1)} a_{2\sigma(2)} \dots a_{n\sigma(n)}.$$

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Proof. We have Liebnitz formula:

$$\det(A) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \epsilon(\sigma) a_{1\sigma(1)} a_{2\sigma(2)} \dots a_{n\sigma(n)}.$$

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- ▶ But the only permutation  $\sigma$  which satisfies  $i \leq \sigma(i)$  for all i, is the identity permutation (Why?). Now the result follows.
- ▶ Alternatively, we may expand the determinant of *A* using first column and use induction.
- ► A similar proof works for lower triangular matrices through expansion using first row.



#### Partitioned vectors

▶ Fix  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Consider a vector  $z \in \mathbb{R}^{m+n}$ :

$$z = \left(\begin{array}{c} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ \vdots \\ z_{m+n} \end{array}\right).$$

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- ► So we write

$$z = \left(\begin{array}{c} x \\ y \end{array}\right)$$

where

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ \vdots \\ z_m \end{pmatrix}, \quad y = \begin{pmatrix} z_{m+1} \\ z_{m+2} \\ \vdots \\ z_{m+n} \end{pmatrix}.$$

► Conversely, given any  $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we get a vector  $z \in \mathbb{R}^{m+n}$  as

$$z = \left(\begin{array}{c} x \\ y \end{array}\right).$$

Conversely, given any  $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we get a vector  $z \in \mathbb{R}^{m+n}$  as

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So in a way, we can think of  $\mathbb{R}^{m+n}$  as constructed out of  $\mathbb{R}^m$  and  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . We say that  $\mathbb{R}^{m+n}$  is direct sum of  $\mathbb{R}^m$  and  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

### Partitioned matrices or block matrices

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- Now consider a matrix  $P = [p_{ij}]_{1 \le i,j \le (m+n)}$  considered as a linear map on  $\mathbb{R}^{m+n}$ .
- ▶ We partition *P* as

$$P = \left[ \begin{array}{cc} A & B \\ C & D \end{array} \right],$$

where  $A_{m\times m}$ ,  $B_{m\times n}$ ,  $C_{n\times m}$ ,  $D_{n\times n}$  are given by

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} p_{11} & \cdots & p_{1m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ p_{m1} & \cdots & p_{mm} \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} p_{1(m+1)} & \cdots & p_{1(m+n)} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ p_{m(m+1)} & \cdots & p_{m(m+n)} \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$C = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} P_{(m+1)1} & \cdots & P_{(m+1)m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ P_{(m+n)1} & \cdots & P_{(m+n)(m)} \end{array} \right],$$

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$$D = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} p_{(m+1)(m+1)} & \cdots & p_{(m+1)(m+n)} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ p_{(m+n)(m+1)} & \cdots & p_{(m+n)(m+n)} \end{array}\right]$$

## The action of partitioned matrices on vectors

▶ Under notation as above, with

$$Pz = \left[ \begin{array}{cc} A & B \\ C & D \end{array} \right] \left( \begin{array}{c} x \\ y \end{array} \right) = \left( \begin{array}{c} Ax + By \\ Cx + Dy \end{array} \right).$$

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Note that  $A: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $B: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $C: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $D: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ .

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- Proof. The proof is by direct multiplication.



▶ For instance, for  $1 \le i, j \le m$ ,

$$(PQ)_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{m+n} p_{ik} q_{kj} = \sum_{k=1}^{m} p_{ik} q_{kj} + \sum_{k=m+1}^{m+n} p_{ik} q_{kj}$$
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- More generally, if  $P = [A_{ij}]$ ,  $Q = [B_{kl}]$  are partitioned matrices, with matching orders, then PQ is a partitioned matrix  $[C_{ii}]$  with

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▶ Here, for the matrix multiplication to be meaningful, it is necessary that for fixed i, k, j, if the order of  $A_{ik}$  is  $a \times b$  then the order of  $B_{kj}$  should be  $b \times c$  for some c. This is what we mean by 'matching orders'.



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- ▶ This is easy to see by direct verification.
- More generally, if we have a partitioned matrix

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- In a similar way one can define block lower triangular matrices.

► Theorem 4.4: Consider a block upper triangular matrix

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where A, D are square matrices and C = 0. Then

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▶ Proof: Suppose P is of size  $(m + n) \times (m + n)$  and A, B, D are respectively of sizes  $m \times m$ ,  $m \times n$  and  $n \times n$ .

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$$\det(P) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_{m+n}} \epsilon(\sigma) P_{1\sigma(1)} P_{2\sigma(2)} \dots P_{(m+n)\sigma(m+n)}.$$

Now C=0, means that  $P_{j\sigma(j)}=0$  if  $(j,\sigma(j))$  are such that  $(m+1)\leq j\leq (m+n)$  and  $1\leq \sigma(j)\leq m$ .



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- Such permutations are precisely permutations of the form  $\tau \circ \eta$  where  $\tau$  is permutation of  $\{1,2,\ldots,m\}$  considered as a permutation of  $\{1,2,\ldots,(m+n)\}$  by taking  $\tau(j)=j$  for  $j\in\{m+1,\ldots(m+n)\}$  and  $\eta$  is a permutation of  $\{m+1,\ldots,m+n\}$  extended to  $\{1,\ldots,(m+n)\}$  by taking  $\eta(j)=j$  for  $1\leq j\leq m$ .

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- ▶ Note that the signature of a permutation does not change by considering such extensions.

► Then it is clear that,

$$\det(P)$$

$$= \sum_{\tau,\eta} \epsilon(\tau) \cdot \epsilon(\eta) p_{1\tau(1)} \dots p_{m\tau(m)} \cdot p_{m+1\eta(m+1)} \dots p_{m+n\eta(m+n)}$$

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Now by mathematical induction the determinant of a block upper triangular matrices (with square blocks on the diagonal) is the product of the determinants of diagonal blocks. That is,

$$\det( \left[ \begin{array}{ccccc} P_{11} & P_{12} & P_{13} & \dots & P_{1n} \\ 0 & P_{22} & P_{23} & \dots & P_{2n} \\ 0 & 0 & P_{33} & \dots & P_{3n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & P_{nn} \end{array} \right]) = \det(P_{11}) \dots \det(P_{nn}).$$

if  $P_{11}, P_{22}, \dots, P_{nn}$  are square blocks.



# Inverses of $2 \times 2$ upper triangular matrices.

▶ Theorem 4.5: Consider a block upper triangular matrix

$$P = \left[ \begin{array}{cc} A & B \\ 0 & D \end{array} \right]$$

where A,D are square matrices and C=0. Then P is invertible if and only if A and D are invertible and in such a case,

$$P^{-1} = \left[ \begin{array}{cc} A^{-1} & -A^{-1}BD^{-1} \\ 0 & D^{-1} \end{array} \right].$$

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- From the formula det(P) = det(A). det(D), we know that if P is invertible, then det(A) and det(D) are non-zero and hence A, D are invertible.
- The formula for the inverse can be confirmed by verifying:

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} A & B \\ C & D \end{array}\right] \cdot \left[\begin{array}{cc} A^{-1} & -A^{-1}BD^{-1} \\ 0 & D^{-1} \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{cc} I & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{array}\right].$$

► Corollary 4.6: For any matrix *B*,

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} I & B \\ 0 & I \end{array}\right]^n = \left[\begin{array}{cc} I & nB \\ 0 & I \end{array}\right]$$

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The matrix product becomes simple addition here.

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► END OF LECTURE 4.