# Matrix Differentiation

( and some other stuff )

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### 1 Introduction

Throughout this presentation I have chosen to use a *symbolic matrix notation*. This choice was not made lightly. I am a strong advocate of index notation, when appropriate. For example, index notation greatly simplifies the presentation and manipulation of differential geometry. As a rule-of-thumb, if your work is going to primarily involve differentiation with respect to the spatial coordinates, then index notation is almost surely the appropriate choice.

In the present case, however, I will be manipulating large systems of equations in which the matrix calculus is relatively simply while the matrix algebra and matrix arithmetic is messy and more involved. Thus, I have chosen to use symbolic notation.

## 2 Notation and Nomenclature

**Definition 1** Let  $a_{ij} \in \mathfrak{R}$ , i = 1, 2, ..., m, j = 1, 2, ..., n. Then the ordered rectangular array

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$
 (1)

is said to be a real *matrix* of dimension  $m \times n$ .

When writing a matrix I will occasionally write down its typical element as well as its dimension. Thus,

$$\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}], \qquad i = 1, 2, \dots, m; \ j = 1, 2, \dots, n,$$
 (2)

denotes a matrix with  $\mathfrak{m}$  rows and  $\mathfrak{n}$  columns, whose typical element is  $\mathfrak{a}_{ij}$ . Note, the first subscript locates the *row* in which the typical element lies while the second subscript locates the *column*. For example,  $\mathfrak{a}_{jk}$  denotes the element lying in the jth row and kth column of the matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ .

**Definition 2** A *vector* is a matrix with only one column. Thus, all vectors are inherently column vectors.

#### Convention 1

Multi-column matrices are denoted by boldface uppercase letters: for example,  $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{X}$ . Vectors (single-column matrices) are denoted by boldfaced lowercase letters: for example,  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{x}$ . I will attempt to use letters from the beginning of the alphabet to designate known matrices, and letters from the end of the alphabet for unknown or variable matrices.

#### Convention 2

When it is useful to explicitly attach the matrix dimensions to the symbolic notation, I will use an underscript. For example,  $\underset{m \times n}{\textbf{A}}$ , indicates a known, multi-column matrix with m rows and n columns.

A superscript <sup>T</sup> denotes the matrix transpose operation; for example,  $\mathbf{A}^T$  denotes the transpose of  $\mathbf{A}$ . Similarly, if  $\mathbf{A}$  has an inverse it will be denoted by  $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$ . The determinant of  $\mathbf{A}$  will be denoted by either  $|\mathbf{A}|$  or  $\det(\mathbf{A})$ . Similarly, the rank of a matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is denoted by rank( $\mathbf{A}$ ). An identity matrix will be denoted by  $\mathbf{I}$ , and  $\mathbf{0}$  will denote a null matrix.

## 3 Matrix Multiplication

**Definition 3** Let **A** be  $m \times n$ , and **B** be  $n \times p$ , and let the product **AB** be

$$C = AB \tag{3}$$

then **C** is a  $m \times p$  matrix, with element (i, j) given by

$$c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} b_{kj} \tag{4}$$

for all i = 1, 2, ..., m, j = 1, 2, ..., p.

**Proposition 1** Let A be  $m \times n$ , and x be  $n \times 1$ , then the typical element of the product

$$z = Ax \tag{5}$$

is given by

$$z_{i} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} x_{k} \tag{6}$$

for all i = 1, 2, ..., m. Similarly, let **y** be  $m \times 1$ , then the typical element of the product

$$\mathbf{z}^{\mathsf{T}} = \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} \tag{7}$$

is given by

$$z_{i} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \alpha_{ki} y_{k} \tag{8}$$

for all i = 1, 2, ..., n. Finally, the scalar resulting from the product

$$\alpha = \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \tag{9}$$

is given by

$$\alpha = \sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \alpha_{jk} y_j x_k \tag{10}$$

Proof: These are merely direct applications of Definition 3. q.e.d.

**Proposition 2** Let **A** be  $m \times n$ , and **B** be  $n \times p$ , and let the product **AB** be

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B} \tag{11}$$

then

$$\mathbf{C}^{\mathsf{T}} = \mathbf{B}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} \tag{12}$$

Proof: The typical element of **C** is given by

$$c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} b_{kj} \tag{13}$$

By definition, the typical element of  $C^T$ , say  $d_{ij}$ , is given by

$$d_{ij} = c_{ji} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{jk} b_{ki}$$

$$\tag{14}$$

Hence,

$$\mathbf{C}^{\mathsf{T}} = \mathbf{B}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} \tag{15}$$

q.e.d.

**Proposition 3** Let A and B be  $n \times n$  and invertible matrices. Let the product AB be given by

$$C = AB \tag{16}$$

then

$$\mathbf{C}^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^{-1} \mathbf{A}^{-1} \tag{17}$$

Proof:

$$\mathbf{C}\mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{I} \tag{18}$$

q.e.d.

## 4 Partioned Matrices

Frequently, I will find it convenient to deal with *partitioned matrices* <sup>1</sup>. Such a representation, and the manipulation of this representation, are two of the relative advantages of the symbolic matrix notation.

**Definition 4** Let **A** be  $m \times n$  and write

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{B} & \mathbf{C} \\ \mathbf{D} & \mathbf{E} \end{bmatrix} \tag{19}$$

where **B** is  $m_1 \times n_1$ , **E** is  $m_2 \times n_2$ , **C** is  $m_1 \times n_2$ , **D** is  $m_2 \times n_1$ ,  $m_1 + m_2 = m$ , and  $n_1 + n_2 = n$ . The above is said to be a *partition* of the matrix **A**.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Much of the material in this section is extracted directly from Dhrymes (1978, Section 2.7).

Proposition 4 Let A be a square, nonsingular matrix of order m. Partition A as

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} & \mathbf{A}_{12} \\ \mathbf{A}_{21} & \mathbf{A}_{22} \end{bmatrix} \tag{20}$$

so that  $\mathbf{A}_{11}$  is a nonsingular matrix of order  $\mathbf{m}_1$ ,  $\mathbf{A}_{22}$  is a nonsingular matrix of order  $\mathbf{m}_2$ , and  $\mathbf{m}_1 + \mathbf{m}_2 = \mathbf{m}$ . Then

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \left( \mathbf{A}_{11} - \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{21} \right)^{-1} & -\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12} \left( \mathbf{A}_{22} - \mathbf{A}_{21} \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12} \right)^{-1} \\ -\mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{21} \left( \mathbf{A}_{11} - \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{21} \right)^{-1} & \left( \mathbf{A}_{22} - \mathbf{A}_{21} \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12} \right)^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$
(21)

Proof: Direct multiplication of the proposed  $A^{-1}$  and A yields

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I} \tag{22}$$

q.e.d.

### 5 Matrix Differentiation

In the following discussion I will differentiate matrix quantities with respect to the elements of the referenced matrices. Although no new concept is required to carry out such operations, the element-by-element calculations involve cumbersome manipulations and, thus, it is useful to derive the necessary results and have them readily available <sup>2</sup>.

#### Convention 3

Let

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{\psi}(\mathbf{x}),\tag{23}$$

where y is an m-element vector, and x is an n-element vector. The symbol

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{y}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix}
\frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_n} \\
\frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_n} \\
\vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\
\frac{\partial y_m}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial y_m}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial y_m}{\partial x_n}
\end{bmatrix}$$
(24)

will denote the  $m \times n$  matrix of first-order partial derivatives of the transformation from  $\boldsymbol{x}$  to  $\boldsymbol{y}$ . Such a matrix is called the Jacobian matrix of the transformation  $\psi()$ .

Notice that if  $\mathbf{x}$  is actually a scalar in Convention 3 then the resulting Jacobian matrix is a  $m \times 1$  matrix; that is, a single column (a vector). On the other hand, if  $\mathbf{y}$  is actually a scalar in Convention 3 then the resulting Jacobian matrix is a  $1 \times n$  matrix; that is, a single row (the transpose of a vector).

Proposition 5 Let

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \tag{25}$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Much of the material in this section is extracted directly from Dhrymes (1978, Section 4.3). The interested reader is directed to this worthy reference to find additional results.

where y is  $m \times 1$ , x is  $n \times 1$ , A is  $m \times n$ , and A does not depend on x, then

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{y}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A} \tag{26}$$

Proof: Since the ith element of **y** is given by

$$y_i = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} x_k \tag{27}$$

it follows that

$$\frac{\partial y_i}{\partial x_i} = a_{ij} \tag{28}$$

for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . Hence

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{y}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A} \tag{29}$$

q.e.d.

### Proposition 6 Let

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \tag{30}$$

where  $\mathbf{y}$  is  $\mathbf{m} \times 1$ ,  $\mathbf{x}$  is  $\mathbf{n} \times 1$ ,  $\mathbf{A}$  is  $\mathbf{m} \times \mathbf{n}$ , and  $\mathbf{A}$  does not depend on  $\mathbf{x}$ , as in Proposition 5. Suppose that  $\mathbf{x}$  is a function of the vector  $\mathbf{z}$ , while  $\mathbf{A}$  is independent of  $\mathbf{z}$ . Then

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{y}}{\partial \mathbf{z}} = \mathbf{A} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{z}} \tag{31}$$

Proof: Since the ith element of y is given by

$$y_i = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} x_k \tag{32}$$

for all i = 1, 2, ..., m, it follows that

$$\frac{\partial y_i}{\partial z_j} = \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_{ik} \frac{\partial x_k}{\partial z_j} \tag{33}$$

but the right hand side of the above is simply element (i,j) of  $\mathbf{A} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{z}}$ . Hence

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{y}}{\partial \mathbf{z}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{y}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{z}} = \mathbf{A} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{z}}$$
(34)

q.e.d.

**Proposition 7** Let the scalar  $\alpha$  be defined by

$$\alpha = \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \tag{35}$$

where  $\mathbf{y}$  is  $\mathbf{m} \times 1$ ,  $\mathbf{x}$  is  $\mathbf{n} \times 1$ ,  $\mathbf{A}$  is  $\mathbf{m} \times \mathbf{n}$ , and  $\mathbf{A}$  is independent of  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ , then

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} \tag{36}$$

and

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} \tag{37}$$

Proof: Define

$$\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} = \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} \tag{38}$$

and note that

$$\alpha = \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x} \tag{39}$$

Hence, by Proposition 5 we have that

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} = \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} \tag{40}$$

which is the first result. Since  $\alpha$  is a scalar, we can write

$$\alpha = \alpha^{\mathsf{T}} = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{y} \tag{41}$$

and applying Proposition 5 as before we obtain

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} \tag{42}$$

q.e.d.

**Proposition 8** For the special case in which the scalar  $\alpha$  is given by the quadratic form

$$\alpha = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$$

where x is  $n \times 1$ , A is  $n \times n$ , and A does not depend on x, then

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \left( \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} \right) \tag{44}$$

Proof: By definition

$$\alpha = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{ij} x_i x_j \tag{45}$$

Differentiating with respect to the kth element of  $\mathbf{x}$  we have

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial x_k} = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_{kj} x_j + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_{ik} x_i \tag{46}$$

for all  $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , and consequently,

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} + \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \left( \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} + \mathbf{A} \right)$$
 (47)

q.e.d.

**Proposition 9** For the special case where **A** is a symmetric matrix and

$$\alpha = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \tag{48}$$

where x is  $n \times 1$ , A is  $n \times n$ , and A does not depend on x, then

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = 2\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} \tag{49}$$

Proof: This is an obvious application of Proposition 8. q.e.d.

**Proposition 10** Let the scalar  $\alpha$  be defined by

$$\alpha = \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} \tag{50}$$

where y is  $n \times 1$ , x is  $n \times 1$ , and both y and x are functions of the vector z. Then

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \mathbf{z}} = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{y}}{\partial \mathbf{z}} + \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{z}}$$
 (51)

Proof: We have

$$\alpha = \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j y_j \tag{52}$$

Differentiating with respect to the kth element of  ${\bf z}$  we have

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial z_k} = \sum_{j=1}^n \left( x_j \frac{\partial y_j}{\partial z_k} + y_j \frac{\partial x_j}{\partial z_k} \right) \tag{53}$$

for all k = 1, 2, ..., n, and consequently,

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \mathbf{z}} = \frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \mathbf{y}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{y}}{\partial \mathbf{z}} + \frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{z}} = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{y}}{\partial \mathbf{z}} + \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{z}}$$
(54)

q.e.d.

**Proposition 11** Let the scalar  $\alpha$  be defined by

$$\alpha = \mathbf{x}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{x}$$

where x is  $n \times 1$ , and x is a function of the vector z. Then

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \mathbf{z}} = 2\mathbf{x}^\mathsf{T} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{z}}$$

Proof: This is an obvious application of Proposition 10. q.e.d.

**Proposition 12** Let the scalar  $\alpha$  be defined by

$$\alpha = \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \tag{57}$$

where y is  $m \times 1$ , x is  $n \times 1$ , A is  $m \times n$ , and both y and x are functions of the vector z, while A does not depend on z. Then

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \mathbf{z}} = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{y}}{\partial \mathbf{z}} + \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{z}}$$
 (58)

(55)

Proof: Define

$$\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} = \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} \tag{59}$$

and note that

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha} = \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} \tag{60}$$

Applying Propositon 10 we have

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \mathbf{z}} = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{w}}{\partial \mathbf{z}} + \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{z}}$$
 (61)

Substituting back in for  $\mathbf{w}$  we arrive at

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \mathbf{z}} = \frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \mathbf{y}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{y}}{\partial \mathbf{z}} + \frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{z}} = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{y}}{\partial \mathbf{z}} + \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{z}}$$
(62)

q.e.d.

**Proposition 13** Let the scalar  $\alpha$  be defined by the quadratic form

$$\alpha = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \tag{63}$$

where  $\mathbf{x}$  is  $\mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{1}$ ,  $\mathbf{A}$  is  $\mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{n}$ , and  $\mathbf{x}$  is a function of the vector  $\mathbf{z}$ , while  $\mathbf{A}$  does not depend on  $\mathbf{z}$ . Then

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \mathbf{z}} = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \left( \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} \right) \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{z}} \tag{64}$$

Proof: This is an obvious application of Proposition 12. q.e.d.

Proposition 14 For the special case where A is a symmetric matrix and

$$\alpha = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \tag{65}$$

where  $\mathbf{x}$  is  $\mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{1}$ ,  $\mathbf{A}$  is  $\mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{n}$ , and  $\mathbf{x}$  is a function of the vector  $\mathbf{z}$ , while  $\mathbf{A}$  does not depend on  $\mathbf{z}$ . Then

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \mathbf{z}} = 2\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{z}} \tag{66}$$

Proof: This is an obvious application of Proposition 13. q.e.d.

**Definition 5** Let A be a  $m \times n$  matrix whose elements are functions of the scalar parameter  $\alpha$ . Then the derivative of the matrix A with respect to the scalar parameter  $\alpha$  is the  $m \times n$  matrix of element-by-element derivatives:

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial \alpha} = \begin{bmatrix}
\frac{\partial \mathbf{a}_{11}}{\partial \alpha} & \frac{\partial \mathbf{a}_{12}}{\partial \alpha} & \cdots & \frac{\partial \mathbf{a}_{1n}}{\partial \alpha} \\
\frac{\partial \mathbf{a}_{21}}{\partial \alpha} & \frac{\partial \mathbf{a}_{22}}{\partial \alpha} & \cdots & \frac{\partial \mathbf{a}_{2n}}{\partial \alpha} \\
\vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\
\frac{\partial \mathbf{a}_{m1}}{\partial \alpha} & \frac{\partial \mathbf{a}_{m2}}{\partial \alpha} & \cdots & \frac{\partial \mathbf{a}_{mn}}{\partial \alpha}
\end{bmatrix}$$
(67)

**Proposition 15** Let A be a nonsingular,  $m \times m$  matrix whose elements are functions of the scalar parameter  $\alpha$ . Then

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{A}^{-1}}{\partial \alpha} = -\mathbf{A}^{-1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial \alpha} \mathbf{A}^{-1} \tag{68}$$

Proof: Start with the definition of the inverse

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I} \tag{69}$$

and differentiate, yielding

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1}\frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial \alpha} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}^{-1}}{\partial \alpha} \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{0}$$
 (70)

rearranging the terms yields

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{A}^{-1}}{\partial \alpha} = -\mathbf{A}^{-1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial \alpha} \mathbf{A}^{-1} \tag{71}$$

q.e.d.

# 6 References

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