Appendix A: Matrix Algebra

As a two-dimensional array we define a quadratic and rectangular matrix. First, we review matrix algebra with respect to two inner and one external relation, namely multiplication of a matrix by a scalar, addition of matrices of the same order, matrix multiplication of type Cayley, Kronecker-Zehfuss, Khatri-Rao and Hadamard. Second, we introduce special matrices of type symmetric, antisymmetric, diagonal, unity, null, idempotent, normal, orthogonal, orthonormal (special facts of representing a 2×2 orthonormal matrix, a general $n\times n$ orthonormal matrix, the Helmert representation of an orthonormal matrix with examples, special facts about the representation of a Hankel matrix with examples, the definition of a Vandermonde matrix), the permutation matrix, the commutation matrix. Third, scalar measures like rank, determinant, trace and norm. In detail, we review the Inverse Partitional Matrix /IPM/ and the Cayley inverse of the sum of two matrices. We summarize the notion of a division algebra. A special paragraph is devoted to vector-valued matrix forms like vec, vech and veck. Fifth, we introduce the notion of eigenvalue-eigenvector decomposition (analysis versus synthesis) and the singular value decomposition. Sixth, we give details of generalized inverse, namely g-inverse, reflexive g-inverse, reflexive symmetric ginverse, pseudo inverse, Zlobec formula, Bjerhammar formula, rank factorization, left and right inverse, projections, bordering, singular value representation and the theory solving linear equations.

A1 Matrix-Algebra

A matrix is a rectangular or a quadratic array of numbers,

$$\mathbf{A} := [a_{ij}] = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1m-1} & a_{1m} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2m-1} & a_{2m} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ a_{n-11} & a_{n-12} & \dots & a_{n-1m-1} & a_{n-1m} \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nm-1} & a_{nm} \end{bmatrix}, \ a_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}, [a_{ij}] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}.$$

The format or "order" of **A** is given by the number n of rows and the number of the columns.

$$O(\mathbf{A}) := n \times m$$
.

Fact:

Two matrices are identical if they have identical format and if at each place (i,j) are identical numbers, namely

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B} \Leftrightarrow a_{ij} = b_{ij} \begin{bmatrix} i \in \{1, ..., n\} \\ j \in \{1, ..., m\}. \end{bmatrix}$$

Beside the identity of two matrices the transpose of an $m \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$ is the $m \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{A}' = [a_{ii}]$ whose ij element is a_{ii} .

Fact:

$$(\mathbf{A}')' = \mathbf{A}.$$

A matrix algebra is defined by the following operations:

- multiplication of a matrix by a *scalar* (external relation)
- addition of two matrices of the same order (internal relation)
- multiplication of two matrices (internal relation)

Definition (matrix additions and multiplications):

(1) Multiplication by a scalar

$$\mathbf{A} = [a_{ii}], \ \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow \alpha \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} \alpha = [\alpha a_{ii}].$$

(2) Addition of two matrices of the same order

$$\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}], \ \mathbf{B} = [b_{ij}] \Rightarrow \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} := [a_{ij} + b_{ij}]$$

$$\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A} \quad (commutativity)$$

$$(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) + \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} + (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) \quad (associativity)$$

$$\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A} + (-1)\mathbf{B}$$
 (inverse addition).

Compatibility

$$(\alpha + \beta)\mathbf{A} = \alpha\mathbf{A} + \beta\mathbf{A}$$

$$\alpha(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) = \alpha\mathbf{A} + \alpha\mathbf{B}$$

$$(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B})' = \mathbf{A}' + \mathbf{B}'.$$

- (3) Multiplication of matrices
 - 3(i) "Cayley-product" ("matrix-product")

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}], \ O(\mathbf{A}) = n \times l \\ \mathbf{B} = [b_{ij}], \ O(\mathbf{B}) = l \times m \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{C} := \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = [c_{ij}] := \sum_{k=1}^{l} a_{ik} b_{kl}, O(\mathbf{C}) = n \times m$$

3(ii) "Kronecker-Zehfuss-product"

$$\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}], O(\mathbf{A}) = n \times m$$

$$\mathbf{B} = [b_{ij}], O(\mathbf{B}) = k \times l$$

$$\Rightarrow$$
 C := **B** \otimes **A** = [c_{ij}], **B** \otimes **A** := [b_{ij} **A**], O (**C**) = O (**B** \otimes **A**) = $kn \times l$

3(iii) "Khatri-Rao-product"

(of two rectangular matrices of identical column number)

$$\mathbf{A} = [a_1, ..., a_m], \ O(\mathbf{A}) = n \times m$$

$$\mathbf{B} = [b_1, ..., b_m], \ O(\mathbf{B}) = k \times m$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{C} := \mathbf{B} \odot \mathbf{A} := [b_1 \otimes a_1, ..., b_m \otimes a_m], \ O(\mathbf{C}) = kn \times m$$

3(iv) "Hadamard-product"

(of two rectangular matrices of the same order; elementwise product)

$$\mathbf{G} = [g_{ij}], O(\mathbf{G}) = n \times m$$

$$\mathbf{H} = [h_{ij}], O(\mathbf{H}) = n \times m$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{K} := \mathbf{G} * \mathbf{H} = [k_{ii}], k_{ii} := g_{ii}h_{ii}, O(\mathbf{K}) = n \times m.$$

The existence of the product $A \cdot B$ does not imply the existence of the product $B \cdot A$. If both products exist, they are in general not equal. Two *quadratic* matrices A and B, for which holds $A \cdot B = B \cdot A$, are called *commutative*.

Laws
(i)
$$(A \cdot B) \cdot C = A \cdot (B \cdot C)$$

$$A \cdot (B + C) = A \cdot B + A \cdot C$$

$$(A + B) \cdot C = A \cdot C + B \cdot C$$

$$(A \cdot B)' = (B' \cdot A').$$
(ii)
$$(A \otimes B) \otimes C = A \otimes (B \otimes C) = A \otimes B \otimes C$$

$$(A + B) \otimes C = (A \otimes B) + (B \otimes C)$$

$$A \otimes (B + C) = (A \otimes B) + (A \otimes C)$$

$$(A \otimes B) \cdot (C \otimes D) = (A \cdot C) \otimes (B \cdot D)$$

$$(A \otimes B)' = A' \otimes B'.$$
(iii)
$$(A \otimes B) \otimes C = A \otimes (B \otimes C) = A \otimes B \otimes C$$

$$(A + B) \otimes C = (A \otimes C) + (B \otimes C)$$

$$A \otimes (B + C) = (A \otimes C) + (B \otimes C)$$

$$A \otimes (B + C) = (A \otimes B) + (A \otimes C)$$

$$(A \cdot C) \otimes (B \cdot D) = (A \otimes B) \cdot (C \otimes D)$$

$$A \otimes (B \cdot D) = (A \otimes B) \cdot D, \text{ if } d_{ii} = 0 \text{ for } i \neq j.$$

The transported *Khatri-Rao-product* generates a *row product* which we do not follow here.

(iv)
$$\mathbf{A} * \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} * \mathbf{A}$$
$$(\mathbf{A} * \mathbf{B}) * \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} * (\mathbf{B} * \mathbf{C}) = \mathbf{A} * \mathbf{B} * \mathbf{C}$$
$$(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) * \mathbf{C} = (\mathbf{A} * \mathbf{C}) + (\mathbf{B} * \mathbf{C})$$
$$(\mathbf{A}_1 \cdot \mathbf{B}_1 \cdot \mathbf{C}_1) * (\mathbf{A}_2 \cdot \mathbf{B}_2 \cdot \mathbf{C}_2) = (\mathbf{A}_1 \odot \mathbf{A}_2)' \cdot (\mathbf{B}_1 \otimes \mathbf{B}_2) \cdot (\mathbf{C}_1 \odot \mathbf{C}_2)$$
$$(\mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{A}) * (\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{D}) = \mathbf{D} \cdot (\mathbf{A} * \mathbf{B}) \cdot \mathbf{D}, \text{ if } d_{ij} = 0 \text{ for } i \neq j$$
$$(\mathbf{A} * \mathbf{B})' = \mathbf{A}' * \mathbf{B}'.$$

A2 Special Matrices

We will collect special matrices of symmetric, antisymmetric, diagonal, unity, zero, idempotent, normal, orthogonal, orthonormal, positive-definite and positive-semidefinite, special orthonormal matrices, for instance of type *Helmert* or of type *Hankel*.

Definitions (special matrices):

A quadratic matrix $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$ of the order $O(\mathbf{A}) = n \times n$ is called

symmetric
$$\Leftrightarrow a'_{ij} = a_{ji} \forall i, j \in \{1,...,n\} : \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}'$$

antisymmetric
$$\Leftrightarrow$$
 $a_{ii} = -a_{ii} \forall i, j \in \{1,...,n\} : \mathbf{A} = -\mathbf{A}'$

unity
$$\Leftrightarrow \mathbf{I}_{n \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{ij} = 0 & \forall i \neq j \\ a_{ij} = 1 & \forall i \neq j \end{bmatrix}$$

zero matrix
$$\mathbf{0}_{n \times n}: \ a_{ij} = 0 \ \forall i, j \in \{1,...,n\}$$

$$\left[egin{aligned} a_{ij} &= 0 \ orall i > j \ a_{ij} &= 0 \ orall i < j \end{aligned}
ight]$$

idempotent if and only if $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}$ normal if and only if $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{A}' \cdot \mathbf{A}$.

Definition (orthogonal matrix):

The matrix **A** is called *orthogonal* if **AA**' and **A**'**A** are diagonal matrices. (The rows and columns of **A** are *orthogonal*.)

Definition (orthonormal matrix):

The matrix A is called *orthonormal* if AA' = A'A = I. (The rows and columns of A are *orthonormal*.)

Facts (representation of a 2×2 orthonormal matrix) $\mathbf{X} \in SO(2)$:

A 2×2 orthonormal matrix $\mathbf{X} \in SO(2)$ is an element of the special orthogonal group SO(2) defined by

$$SO(2) := \{ \mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2} \mid \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{I}_2 \text{ and det } \mathbf{X} = +1 \}$$

$$\{ \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \\ x_3 & x_4 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2} \quad \begin{vmatrix} x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1 \\ x_1 x_3 + x_2 x_4 = 0 \\ x_3^2 + x_4^2 = 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

(i)
$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \phi & \sin \phi \\ -\sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}, \ \phi \in [0, 2\pi]$$

is a trigonometric representation of $X \in SO(2)$.

(ii)
$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x & \sqrt{1-x^2} \\ -\sqrt{1-x^2} & x \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{2\times 2}, \quad x \in [+1, -1]$$

is an algebraic representation of $X \in SO(2)$

$$(x_{11}^2 + x_{12}^2 = 1, x_{11}x_{21} + x_{12}x_{22} = -x\sqrt{1 - x^2} + x\sqrt{1 - x^2} = 0, x_{21}^2 + x_{22}^2 = 1)$$

(iii)
$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1-x^2}{1+x^2} & +\frac{2x}{1+x^2} \\ -\frac{2x}{1+x^2} & \frac{1-x^2}{1+x^2} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{2\times 2}, \ x \in \mathbb{R}$$

is called a stereographic projection of **X** (stereographic projection of $SO(2) \sim \mathbb{S}^1$ onto \mathbb{L}^1).

(iv)
$$\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{I}_2 + \mathbf{S})(\mathbf{I}_2 - \mathbf{S})^{-1}, \ \mathbf{S} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & x \\ -x & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

where S = -S' is a *skew matrix* (antisymmetric matrix), is called a *Cayley-Lipschitz representation* of $X \in SO(2)$.

(v) $\mathbf{X} \in SO(2)$ is a commutative group ("Abel") (Example: $\mathbf{X}_1 \in SO(2)$, $\mathbf{X}_2 \in SO(2)$, then $\mathbf{X}_1\mathbf{X}_2 = \mathbf{X}_2\mathbf{X}_1$) (SO(n) for n=2 is the only commutative group, $SO(n \mid n \neq 2)$ is not "Abel").

Facts (representation of an $n \times n$ orthonormal matrix) $X \in SO(n)$:

An $n \times n$ orthonormal matrix $\mathbf{X} \in SO(n)$ is an element of the special orthogonal group SO(n) defined by

$$SO(n) := \{ \mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \mid \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{I}_n \text{ and det } \mathbf{X} = +1 \}$$
.

As a differentiable manifold SO(n) inherits a *Riemann structure* from the *ambient space* \mathbb{R}^{n^2} with a *Euclidean metric* (vec $\mathbf{X}' \in \mathbb{R}^{n^2}$, dim vec $\mathbf{X}' = n^2$). Any *atlas* of the special orthogonal group SO(n) has at least *four distinct charts* and there is one with exactly four charts. ("minimal atlas": *Lusternik – Schnirelmann category*)

- (i) $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{I}_n + \mathbf{S})(\mathbf{I}_n \mathbf{S})^{-1},$
 - where S = -S' is a *skew matrix* (antisymmetric matrix), is called a *Cayley-Lipschitz representation* of $X \in SO(n)$.

(n!/2(n-2)! is the number of independent parameters/coordinates of X)

(ii) If each of the matrices $\mathbf{R}_1, \dots, \mathbf{R}_k$ is an $n \times n$ orthonormal matrix, then their product

$$\mathbf{R}_{1}\mathbf{R}_{2}\cdots\mathbf{R}_{k-1}\mathbf{R}_{k} \in SO(n)$$

is an $n \times n$ orthonormal matrix.

Facts (orthonormal matrix: Helmert representation):

Let $\mathbf{a}' = [\mathbf{a}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{a}_n]$ represent any row vector such that $\mathbf{a}_i \neq \mathbf{0}$ $(i \in \{1, \cdots, n\})$ is any row vector whose elements are all nonzero. Suppose that we require an $n \times n$ orthonormal matrix, one row which is proportional to \mathbf{a}' . In what follows one such matrix \mathbf{R} is derived.

Let $[\mathbf{r}'_1, \dots, \mathbf{r}'_n]$ represent the *rows* of **R** and take the *first row* \mathbf{r}'_1 to be the row of **R** that is proportional to \mathbf{a}' . Take the *second row* \mathbf{r}'_2 to be proportional to the *n*-dimensional row vector

$$[\mathbf{a}_{1}, -\mathbf{a}_{1}^{2}/\mathbf{a}_{2}, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{0}, \cdots, \mathbf{0}],$$
 (H2)

the third row \mathbf{r}_3' proportional to

$$[\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, -(\mathbf{a}_1^2 + \mathbf{a}_2^2)/\mathbf{a}_3, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{0}, \cdots, \mathbf{0}]$$
 (H3)

and more generally the first through *n*th rows $\mathbf{r}'_1, \dots, \mathbf{r}'_n$ proportional to

$$[\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{k-1}, -\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \mathbf{a}_i^2 / \mathbf{a}_k, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{0}, \dots, \mathbf{0}]$$
 (Hn-1)

for
$$k \in \{2, \dots, n\}$$
,

respectively confirm to yourself that the n-1 vectors (\mathbf{H}_{n-1}) are orthogonal to each other and to the vector \mathbf{a}' . In order to obtain explicit expressions for $\mathbf{r}_1', \cdots, \mathbf{r}_n'$ it remains to *normalize* \mathbf{a}' and the vectors (\mathbf{H}_{n-1}). The *Euclidean norm* of the kth of the vectors (\mathbf{H}_{n-1}) is

$$\{\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \mathbf{a}_i^2 + (\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \mathbf{a}_i^2)^2 / \mathbf{a}_k^2\}^{1/2} = \{(\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \mathbf{a}_i^2)(\sum_{i=1}^k \mathbf{a}_i^2) / \mathbf{a}_k^2\}^{1/2}.$$

Accordingly for the *orthonormal vectors* $\mathbf{r}'_1, \dots, \mathbf{r}'_n$ we finally find

(1st row)
$$\mathbf{r}'_1 = \left[\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{a}_i^2\right]^{-1/2} (\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n)$$

(kth row)
$$\mathbf{r}'_k = \left[\frac{\mathbf{a}_k^2}{(\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \mathbf{a}_i^2)(\sum_{i=1}^k \mathbf{a}_i^2)}\right]^{-1/2} (\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{k-1}, -\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \frac{\mathbf{a}_i^2}{\mathbf{a}_k}, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{0}, \dots, \mathbf{0})$$

(nth row)
$$\mathbf{r}'_{n} = \left[\frac{\mathbf{a}_{n}^{2}}{(\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \mathbf{a}_{i}^{2})(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{a}_{i}^{2})}\right]^{-1/2} \left[\mathbf{a}_{1}, \mathbf{a}_{2}, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{n-1}, -\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \frac{\mathbf{a}_{i}^{2}}{\mathbf{a}_{n}}\right].$$

The recipy is complicated: When $\mathbf{a}' = [1, 1, \dots, 1, 1]$, the *Helmert factors* in the 1st row, ..., kth row, ..., nth row simplify to

$$\mathbf{r}'_1 = n^{-1/2}[1, 1, \dots, 1, 1] \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$\mathbf{r}'_k = [k(k-1)]^{-1/2}[1, 1, \dots, 1, 1-k, 0, 0, \dots, 0, 0] \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$\mathbf{r}'_k = [n(n-1)]^{-1/2}[1, 1, \dots, 1, 1-n] \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

The orthonormal matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{r}_1' \\ \mathbf{r}_2' \\ \dots \\ \mathbf{r}_{k-1}' \\ \mathbf{r}_k' \\ \dots \\ \mathbf{r}_{n-1}' \\ \mathbf{r}_n' \end{bmatrix} \in SO(n)$$

is known as *the Helmert matrix* of order *n*. (Alternatively the transposes of such a matrix are called *the Helmert matrix*.)

Example (Helmert matrix of order 3):

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{3} & 1/\sqrt{3} & 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{6} & -2/\sqrt{6} \end{bmatrix} \in SO(3).$$

Check that the rows are orthogonal and normalized.

Example (Helmert matrix of order 4):

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 & 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{6} & -2/\sqrt{6} & 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{12} & 1/\sqrt{12} & 1/\sqrt{12} & -3/\sqrt{12} \end{bmatrix} \in SO(4).$$

Check that the rows are orthogonal and normalized.

Example (Helmert matrix of order n):

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{n} & 1/\sqrt{n} & 1/\sqrt{n} & 1/\sqrt{n} & \cdots & 1/\sqrt{n} & 1/\sqrt{n} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{6} & -2/\sqrt{6} & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \cdots & & & \cdots & & & \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{(n-1)(n-2)}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{(n-1)(n-2)}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{(n-1)(n-2)}} & \cdots & \cdots & \frac{1-(n-1)}{\sqrt{(n-1)(n-2)}} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{n(n-1)}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{n(n-1)}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{n(n-1)}} & \cdots & \cdots & \frac{1}{\sqrt{n(n-1)}} & \frac{1-n}{\sqrt{n(n-1)}} \end{bmatrix} \in SO(n).$$

Check that the rows are orthogonal and normalized. An example is the nth row

$$\frac{1}{n(n-1)} + \dots + \frac{1}{n(n-1)} + \frac{(1-n)^2}{n(n-1)} = \frac{n-1}{n(n-1)} + \frac{1-2n+n^2}{n(n-1)} =$$

$$= \frac{n^2 - n}{n(n-1)} = \frac{n(n-1)}{n(n-1)} = 1,$$

where (n-1) terms 1/[n(n-1)] have to be summed.

Definition (orthogonal matrix):

A rectangular matrix $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ii}] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ is called

"a Hankel matrix" if the n+m-1 distinct elements of **A**,

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & & & \\ a_{21} & & & \\ & \cdots & & \\ a_{n-11} & & & \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nm} \end{bmatrix}$$

only appear in the first column and last row.

Example: Hankel matrix of power sums

Let $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ be a $n \times m$ rectangular matrix ($n \le m$) whose entries are *power sums*.

$$\mathbf{A} := \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i x_i & \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i x_i^2 & \cdots & \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i x_i^m \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i x_i^2 & \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i x_i^3 & \cdots & \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i x_i^{m+1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i x_i^n & \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i x_i^{n+1} & \cdots & \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i x_i^{n+m-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

A is a Hankel matrix.

Definition (Vandermonde matrix):

Vandermonde matrix: $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$

$$\mathbf{V} := \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ x_1 & x_2 & \cdots & x_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ x_1^{n-1} & x_2^{n-1} & \cdots & x_n^{n-1} \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\det \mathbf{V} = \prod_{\substack{i,j \\ i>i}}^{n} (x_i - x_j).$$

Example: Vandermonde matrix $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{3\times 3}$

$$\mathbf{V} := \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \\ x_1^2 & x_2^2 & x_3^2 \end{bmatrix}, \det \mathbf{V} = (x_2 - x_1)(x_3 - x_2)(x_3 - x_1).$$

Example: Submatrix of a Hankel matrix of power sums

Consider the submatrix $\mathbf{P} = [a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n]$ of the *Hankel matrix* $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ $(n \le m)$ whose entries are *power sums*. The determinant of the power sums matrix \mathbf{P} is

$$\det \mathbf{P} = (\prod_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i) (\prod_{i=1}^{n} x_i) (\det \mathbf{V})^2,$$

where det V is the Vandermonde determinant.

Example: Submatrix $P \in \mathbb{R}^{3\times 3}$ of a 3×4 *Hankel* matrix of power sums (n=3, m=4)

$$\mathbf{A} =$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2 + \alpha_3 x_3 & \alpha_1 x_1^2 + \alpha_2 x_2^2 + \alpha_3 x_3^2 & \alpha_1 x_1^3 + \alpha_2 x_2^3 + \alpha_3 x_3^3 & \alpha_1 x_1^4 + \alpha_2 x_2^4 + \alpha_3 x_3^4 \\ \alpha_1 x_1^2 + \alpha_2 x_2^2 + \alpha_3 x_3^2 & \alpha_1 x_1^3 + \alpha_2 x_2^3 + \alpha_3 x_3^3 & \alpha_1 x_1^4 + \alpha_2 x_2^4 + \alpha_3 x_3^4 & \alpha_1 x_1^5 + \alpha_2 x_2^5 + \alpha_3 x_3^5 \\ \alpha_1 x_1^3 + \alpha_2 x_2^3 + \alpha_3 x_3^3 & \alpha_1 x_1^4 + \alpha_2 x_2^4 + \alpha_3 x_3^4 & \alpha_1 x_1^5 + \alpha_2 x_2^5 + \alpha_3 x_3^5 & \alpha_1 x_1^6 + \alpha_2 x_2^6 + \alpha_3 x_3^6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P = [a_1, a_2, a_3]$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2 + \alpha_3 x_3 & \alpha_1 x_1^2 + \alpha_2 x_2^2 + \alpha_3 x_3^2 & \alpha_1 x_1^3 + \alpha_2 x_2^3 + \alpha_3 x_3^3 \\ \alpha_1 x_1^2 + \alpha_2 x_2^2 + \alpha_3 x_3^2 & \alpha_1 x_1^3 + \alpha_2 x_2^3 + \alpha_3 x_3^3 & \alpha_1 x_1^4 + \alpha_2 x_2^4 + \alpha_3 x_3^4 \\ \alpha_1 x_1^3 + \alpha_2 x_2^3 + \alpha_3 x_3^3 & \alpha_1 x_1^4 + \alpha_2 x_2^4 + \alpha_3 x_3^4 & \alpha_1 x_1^5 + \alpha_2 x_2^5 + \alpha_3 x_3^5 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Definitions (positive definite and positive semidefinite matrices)

A matrix A is called positive definite, if and only if

$$\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} > \mathbf{0} \ \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \ \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}.$$

A matrix A is called positive semidefinite, if and only if

$$\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{0} \ \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$
.

An example follows.

Example (idempotence):

All *idempotent matrices* are *positive semidefinite*, at the time $\mathbf{B}'\mathbf{B}$ and $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}'$ for an arbitrary matrix \mathbf{B} .

What are "permutation matrices" or "commutation matrices"? After their definitions we will give some applications.

Definitions (permutation matrix, commutation matrix)

A matrix is called a *permutation matrix* if and only if *each column* of the matrix A and *each row* of A has only one element 1. All other elements are zero. There holds AA' = I.

A matrix is called a *commutation matrix*, if and only if for a matrix of the order $n^2 \times n^2$ there holds

$$\mathbf{K} = \mathbf{K}'$$
 and $\mathbf{K}^2 = \mathbf{I}_{n^2}$.

The commutation matrix is symmetric and orthonormal.

Example (commutation matrix)

$$n = 2 \Rightarrow$$
 $\mathbf{K}_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{K}_4'.$

A general definition of matrices \mathbf{K}_{nm} of the order $nm \times nm$ with $n \neq m$ are to found in *J.R. Magnus and H. Neudecker* (1988 p.46-48). This definition does not lead to a symmetric matrix anymore. Nevertheless is the *transpose commutation matrix* again a *commutation matrix* since we have $\mathbf{K}'_{nm} = \mathbf{K}_{nm}$ and $\mathbf{K}_{nm}\mathbf{K}_{mn} = \mathbf{I}_{nm}$.

Example (commutation matrix)

$$\begin{array}{c} n=3\\ m=2 \end{array} \} \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{K}_{3\cdot 2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{K}_{3\cdot2}\,\mathbf{K}_{2\cdot3} = \mathbf{I}_6 = \mathbf{K}_{2\cdot3}\,\mathbf{K}_{3\cdot2}$$
.

A3 Scalar Measures and Inverse Matrices

We will refer to some *scalar measures*, also called *scalar functions*, *of matrices*. Beforehand we will introduce some classical definitions of type

- linear independence
- column and row rank
- rank identities.

Definitions (linear independence, column and row rank):

A set of vectors $\mathbf{x}_1, ..., \mathbf{x}_n$ is called *linear independent* if for an arbitrary linear combination $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i \mathbf{x}_i = 0$ only holds if *all scalars* $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n$ disappear, that is if $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = ... = \alpha_{n-1} = \alpha_n = 0$ holds.

For all vectors which are characterized by $\mathbf{x}_1,...,\mathbf{x}_n$ unequal from zero are called linear dependent.

Let **A** be a rectangular matrix of the order $O(\mathbf{A}) = n \times m$. The *column rank* of the matrix **A** is the largest number of linear *independent columns*, while the row rank is the largest number of *linear independent rows*. Actually the *column rank* of the matrix **A** is identical to its *row rank*. The *rank of a matrix* thus is called

Obviously,

$$\operatorname{rk} \mathbf{A} \leq \min\{n, m\}.$$

If $\operatorname{rk} \mathbf{A} = n$ holds, we say that the matrix \mathbf{A} has full *row ranks*. In contrast if the *rank identity* $\operatorname{rk} \mathbf{A} = m$ holds, we say that the matrix \mathbf{A} has *full column rank*.

We list the following important *rank identities*.

Facts (rank identities):

(i)
$$\operatorname{rk} \mathbf{A} = \operatorname{rk} \mathbf{A}' = \operatorname{rk} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A} = \operatorname{rk} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}'$$

(ii)
$$rk(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) \le rk \mathbf{A} + rk \mathbf{B}$$

(iii)
$$\operatorname{rk}(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}) \leq \min\{\operatorname{rk} \mathbf{A}, \operatorname{rk} \mathbf{B}\}\$$

(iv)
$$rk(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}) = rk \mathbf{A} \text{ if } \mathbf{B} \text{ has full } row \ rank,$$

(v)
$$rk(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}) = rk \mathbf{B} \text{ if } \mathbf{A} \text{ has full column rank.}$$

(vi)
$$rk(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C}) + rk \mathbf{B} \ge rk(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}) + rk(\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C})$$

(vii)
$$\operatorname{rk}(\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B}) = (\operatorname{rk} \mathbf{A}) \cdot (\operatorname{rk} \mathbf{B}).$$

If a rectangular matrix of the order $O(\mathbf{A}) = n \times m$ is fulfilled and, in addition, $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ holds for a certain vector $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$, then

$$\operatorname{rk} \mathbf{A} \leq m-1$$
.

Let us define what is a rank factorization, the column space, a singular matrix and, especially, what is division algebra.

Facts (rank factorization)

We call a rank factorization

$$A = G \cdot F$$
,

if rk A = rk G = rk F holds for certain matrices G and F of the order

$$O(\mathbf{G}) = n \times \text{rk } \mathbf{A}$$
 and $O(\mathbf{F}) = \text{rk } \mathbf{A} \times m$.

Facts

A matrix A has the column space

$$\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A})$$

formed by the *column vectors*. The dimension of such a vector space is dim $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}) = \operatorname{rk} \mathbf{A}$. In particular,

$$\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}) = \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}')$$

holds.

Definition (non-singular matrix versus singular matrix)

Let a quadratic matrix **A** of the order $O(\mathbf{A})$ be given. **A** is called *non-singular* or regular if $\operatorname{rk} \mathbf{A} = n$ holds. In case $\operatorname{rk} \mathbf{A} < n$, the matrix **A** is called *singular*.

Definition (division algebra):

Let the matrices **A**, **B**, **C** be quadratic and non-singular of the order $O(\mathbf{A}) = O(\mathbf{B}) = O(\mathbf{C}) = n \times n$. In terms of the *Cayley-product* an *inner relation* can be based on

$$A = [a_{ij}], B = [b_{ij}], C = [c_{ij}], O(A) = O(B) = O(C) = n \times n$$

(i)
$$(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}) \cdot \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C})$$
 (associativity)

(ii)
$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{A}$$
 (identity)

(iii)
$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{I}$$
 (inverse).

The non-singular matrix $A^{-1} = B$ is called *Cayley-inverse*. The conditions

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{I}_n \iff \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}_n$$

are *equivalent*. The *Cayley-inverse* A^{-1} is left and right identical. The Cayley-inverse is unique.

Fact: $(\mathbf{A}^{-1})' = (\mathbf{A}')^{-1}$: **A** is symmetric $\iff \mathbf{A}^{-1}$ is symmetric.

Facts: (Inverse Partitional Matrix /IPM/ of a symmetric matrix):

Let the *symmetric* matrix **A** be partitioned as

$$\mathbf{A} := \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} & \mathbf{A}_{12} \\ \mathbf{A}'_{12} & \mathbf{A}_{22} \end{bmatrix}, \ \mathbf{A}'_{11} = \mathbf{A}_{11}, \ \mathbf{A}'_{22} = \mathbf{A}_{22}.$$

Then its Cayley inverse A^{-1} is symmetric and can be partitioned as well as

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} & \mathbf{A}_{12} \\ \mathbf{A}'_{12} & \mathbf{A}_{22} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12} (\mathbf{A}_{22} - \mathbf{A}'_{12} \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12})^{-1} \mathbf{A}'_{12}] \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} & -\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12} (\mathbf{A}_{22} - \mathbf{A}'_{12} \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12})^{-1} \\ -(\mathbf{A}_{22} - \mathbf{A}'_{12} \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12})^{-1} \mathbf{A}'_{12} \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} & (\mathbf{A}_{22} - \mathbf{A}'_{12} \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12})^{-1} \end{bmatrix},$$

if
$$\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1}$$
 exists,

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} & \mathbf{A}_{12} \\ \mathbf{A}'_{12} & \mathbf{A}_{22} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} (\mathbf{A}_{11} - \mathbf{A}'_{12}\mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{12})^{-1} & -(\mathbf{A}_{11} - \mathbf{A}'_{12}\mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{12})^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{12}\mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \\ -\mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1}\mathbf{A}'_{12}(\mathbf{A}_{11} - \mathbf{A}'_{12}\mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{12})^{-1} & [\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1}\mathbf{A}'_{12}(\mathbf{A}_{11} - \mathbf{A}_{12}\mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1}\mathbf{A}'_{12})^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{12}]\mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \end{bmatrix},$$

if
$$\mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1}$$
 exists.

$$S_{11} := A_{22} - A'_{12}A_{11}^{-1}A_{12}$$
 and $S_{22} := A_{11} - A'_{12}A_{22}^{-1}A_{12}$

are the minors determined by properly chosen rows and columns of the matrix **A** called "Schur complements" such that

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} & \mathbf{A}_{12} \\ \mathbf{A}'_{12} & \mathbf{A}_{22} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{S}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}'_{12}) \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} & -\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{S}_{11}^{-1} \\ -\mathbf{S}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}'_{12} \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} & \mathbf{S}_{11}^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$if \ \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \ exists,$$

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} & \mathbf{A}_{12} \\ \mathbf{A}'_{12} & \mathbf{A}_{22} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{S}_{22}^{-1} & -\mathbf{S}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \\ -\mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}'_{12} \mathbf{S}_{22}^{-1} & [\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}'_{12} \mathbf{S}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12}] \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$if \ \mathbf{A}^{-1} \ exists$$

are representations of the *Cayley inverse* partitioned matrix A^{-1} in terms of "Schur complements".

The formulae S_{11} and S_{22} were first used by *J. Schur* (1917). The term "*Schur complements*" was introduced by *E. Haynsworth* (1968). *A. Albert* (1969) replaced the *Cayley inverse* A^{-1} by the *Moore-Penrose inverse* A^{+} . For a survey we recommend *R. W. Cottle* (1974), *D.V. Oullette* (1981) and *D. Carlson* (1986).

:Proof:

For the proof of the "inverse partitioned matrix" $A^{-1}(Cayley\ inverse)$ of the partitioned matrix **A** of full rank we apply *Gauss elimination* (without pivoting).

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

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} & \mathbf{A}_{12} \\ \mathbf{A}'_{12} & \mathbf{A}_{22} \end{bmatrix}, \ \mathbf{A}'_{11} = \mathbf{A}_{11}, \ \mathbf{A}'_{22} = \mathbf{A}_{22}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}, & \mathbf{A}_{12} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times l} \\ \mathbf{A}'_{12} \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times m}, & \mathbf{A}_{22} \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times l} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{B}_{11} & \mathbf{B}_{12} \\ \mathbf{B}'_{12} & \mathbf{B}_{22} \end{bmatrix}, \ \mathbf{B}'_{11} = \mathbf{B}_{11}, \ \mathbf{B}'_{22} = \mathbf{B}_{22}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{B}_{11} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}, & \mathbf{B}_{12} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times l} \\ \mathbf{B}'_{12} \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times m}, & \mathbf{B}_{22} \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times l} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I} \iff \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I} \implies \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I} \iff \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I} \implies \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$$

Case (i): A_{11}^{-1} exists

"forward step"

$$\mathbf{A}_{11}\mathbf{B}_{11} + \mathbf{A}_{12}\mathbf{B}'_{12} = \mathbf{I}_{m} \text{ (first left equation:} \\ \text{multiply by } -\mathbf{A}'_{12}\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1})$$

$$\mathbf{A}'_{12}\mathbf{B}_{11} + \mathbf{A}_{22}\mathbf{B}'_{12} = \mathbf{0} \text{ (second right equation)}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow -\mathbf{A}'_{12}\mathbf{B}_{11} - \mathbf{A}'_{12}\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{12}\mathbf{B}'_{12} = \mathbf{A}'_{12}\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \mathbf{A}'_{12}\mathbf{B}_{11} + \mathbf{A}_{22}\mathbf{B}'_{12} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11}\mathbf{B}_{11} + \mathbf{A}_{12}\mathbf{B}'_{12} = \mathbf{I}_{m} \\ (\mathbf{A}_{22} - \mathbf{A}'_{12}\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{12})\mathbf{B}'_{12} = -\mathbf{A}'_{12}\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow$$

$$\mathbf{B}'_{12} = -(\mathbf{A}_{22} - \mathbf{A}'_{12}\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{12})^{-1}\mathbf{A}'_{12}\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1}$$

$$\mathbf{B}'_{12} = -\mathbf{S}_{11}^{-1}\mathbf{A}'_{12}\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1}$$

or

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{m} & \mathbf{0} \\ -\mathbf{A}_{12}' \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} & \mathbf{I}_{1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} & \mathbf{A}_{12} \\ \mathbf{A}_{12}' & \mathbf{A}_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} & \mathbf{A}_{12} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{A}_{22} - \mathbf{A}_{12}' \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Note the "Schur complement" $\mathbf{S}_{11} \coloneqq \mathbf{A}_{22} - \mathbf{A}_{12}' \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12}$.

$$\mathbf{A}_{11}\mathbf{B}_{11} + \mathbf{A}_{12}\mathbf{B}_{12}' = \mathbf{I}_{m}$$

$$\mathbf{B}_{12}' = -(\mathbf{A}_{22} - \mathbf{A}_{12}'\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{12})^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{12}'\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{B}_{11} = \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1}(\mathbf{I}_{m} - \mathbf{A}_{12}\mathbf{B}_{12}') = (\mathbf{I}_{m} - \mathbf{B}_{12}\mathbf{A}_{12}')\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1}$$

$$\mathbf{B}_{11} = [\mathbf{I}_{m} + \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{12}(\mathbf{A}_{22} - \mathbf{A}_{12}'\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{12})^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{12}']\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1}$$

$$\mathbf{B}_{11} = \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} + \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{12}\mathbf{S}_{11}^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{12}'\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1}$$

$$\mathbf{A}_{11}\mathbf{B}_{12} + \mathbf{A}_{12}\mathbf{B}_{22} = \mathbf{0} \text{ (second left equation)} \Rightarrow$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{B}_{12} = -\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{B}_{22} = -\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12} (\mathbf{A}_{22} - \mathbf{A}_{12}' \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12})^{-1}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow$$

$$\mathbf{B}_{22} = (\mathbf{A}_{22} - \mathbf{A}'_{12} \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12})^{-1}$$
$$\mathbf{B}_{22} = \mathbf{S}_{11}^{-1}.$$

Case (ii): A_{22}^{-1} exists

"forward step"

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A}_{11} \mathbf{B}_{12} + \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{B}_{22} &= \mathbf{0} & \text{(third right equation)} \\ \mathbf{A}_{12}' \mathbf{B}_{12} + \mathbf{A}_{22} \mathbf{B}_{22} &= \mathbf{I}_{l} & \text{(fourth left equation:} \\ & & \text{multiply by } - \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \text{)} \end{aligned} \Leftrightarrow \\ & \Leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} \mathbf{B}_{12} + \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{B}_{22} &= \mathbf{0} \\ - \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12}' \mathbf{B}_{12} - \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{B}_{22} &= -\mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \Leftrightarrow \\ & \Leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{12}' \mathbf{B}_{12} + \mathbf{A}_{22} \mathbf{B}_{22} &= \mathbf{I}_{l} \\ (\mathbf{A}_{11} - \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12}') \mathbf{B}_{12} &= -\mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \end{aligned} \Rightarrow \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{B}_{12} &= -(\mathbf{A}_{11} - \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12}')^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12}' \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \\ \mathbf{B}_{12} &= -\mathbf{S}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

or

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{m} & -\mathbf{A}_{12}\mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{I}_{l} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} & \mathbf{A}_{12} \\ \mathbf{A}_{12}' & \mathbf{A}_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} - \mathbf{A}_{12}\mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{12}' & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{A}_{12}' & \mathbf{A}_{22} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Note the "Schur complement" $\mathbf{S}_{22} := \mathbf{A}_{11} - \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12}'$.

"backward step"

$$\mathbf{A}_{12}'\mathbf{B}_{12} + \mathbf{A}_{22}\mathbf{B}_{22} = \mathbf{I}_{t}
\mathbf{B}_{12} = -(\mathbf{A}_{11} - \mathbf{A}_{12}\mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{12}')^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{12}\mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{B}_{22} = \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1}(\mathbf{I}_{t} - \mathbf{A}_{12}'\mathbf{B}_{12}') = (\mathbf{I}_{t} - \mathbf{B}_{12}'\mathbf{A}_{12})\mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{B}_{22} &= [\mathbf{I}_{1} + \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12}' (\mathbf{A}_{11} - \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12}')^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12}] \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \\ \mathbf{B}_{22} &= \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} + \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12}' \mathbf{S}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

$$A'_{12}B_{11} + A_{22}B'_{12} = 0$$
 (third left equation) \Rightarrow

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{B}_{12}' = -\mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{12}'\mathbf{B}_{11} = -\mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{12}'(\mathbf{A}_{11} - \mathbf{A}_{12}\mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{12}')^{-1}$$

 \Leftrightarrow

$$\mathbf{B}_{11} = (\mathbf{A}_{11} - \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12}')^{-1}$$
$$\mathbf{B}_{11} = \mathbf{S}_{22}^{-1}.$$

The representations { \mathbf{B}_{11} , \mathbf{B}_{12} , $\mathbf{B}_{21} = \mathbf{B}'_{12}$, \mathbf{B}_{22} } in terms of { \mathbf{A}_{11} , \mathbf{A}_{12} , $\mathbf{A}_{21} = \mathbf{A}'_{12}$, \mathbf{A}_{22} } have been derived by *T. Banachiewicz* (1937). Generalizations are referred to *T. Ando* (1979), *R. A. Brunaldi and H. Schneider* (1963), *F. Burns*, *D. Carlson*, *E. Haynsworth and T. Markham* (1974), *D. Carlson* (1980), *C. D. Meyer* (1973) and *S. K. Mitra* (1982), *C. K. Li and R. Mathias* (2000).

We leave the proof of the following fact as an exercise.

Fact (Inverse Partitioned Matrix /IPM/ of a quadratic matrix):

Let the quadratic matrix A be partitioned as

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

Then its Cayley inverse A^{-1} can be partitioned as well as

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} & \mathbf{A}_{12} \\ \mathbf{A}_{21} & \mathbf{A}_{22} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} + \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{S}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{21} \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} & -\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{S}_{11}^{-1} \\ -\mathbf{S}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{21} \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} & \mathbf{S}_{11}^{-1} \end{bmatrix},$$

if
$$\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1}$$
 exists

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} & \mathbf{A}_{12} \\ \mathbf{A}_{21} & \mathbf{A}_{22} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{S}_{22}^{-1} & -\mathbf{S}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \\ -\mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{21} \mathbf{S}_{22}^{-1} & \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} + \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{21} \mathbf{S}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \end{bmatrix},$$

if
$$\mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1}$$
 exists

and the "Schur complements" are definded by

$$\mathbf{S}_{11} := \mathbf{A}_{22} - \mathbf{A}_{21} \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12} \text{ and } \mathbf{S}_{22} := \mathbf{A}_{11} - \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{21}$$
.

Facts: (Cayley inverse: sum of two matrices):

(s1)
$$(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B})^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} - \mathbf{A}^{-1} (\mathbf{A}^{-1} + \mathbf{B}^{-1})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^{-1}$$

(s2)
$$(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B})^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} + \mathbf{A}^{-1} (\mathbf{A}^{-1} - \mathbf{B}^{-1})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^{-1}$$

(s3)
$$(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{CBD})^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} - \mathbf{A}^{-1} (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{CBDA}^{-1})^{-1} \mathbf{CBDA}^{-1}$$

(s4)
$$(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{CBD})^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} - \mathbf{A}^{-1} (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{BDA}^{-1}\mathbf{C})^{-1}\mathbf{BDA}^{-1}$$

(s5)
$$(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{CBD})^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} - \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{CB}(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{DA}^{-1}\mathbf{CB})^{-1}\mathbf{DA}^{-1}$$

(s6)
$$(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{CBD})^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} - \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{CBD}(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{CBD})^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1}$$

(s7)
$$(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{CBD})^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} - \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{CBDA}^{-1}(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{CBDA}^{-1})^{-1}$$

(s8)
$$(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{C}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{D})^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} - \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{D}\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{C})^{-1}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{A}^{-1}$$

(Sherman-Morrison-Woodbury matrix identity)

(s9)
$$\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{AB} + \mathbf{C})^{-1} = (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{BC}^{-1}\mathbf{A})^{-1}\mathbf{BC}^{-1}$$

(s10)
$$\mathbf{BD}(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{CBD})^{-1} = (\mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{DA}^{-1}\mathbf{C})^{-1}\mathbf{DA}^{-1}$$
(Duncan-Guttman matrix identity).

W. J. Duncan (1944) calls (s8) the Sherman-Morrison-Woodbury matrix identity. If the matrix **A** is singular consult H. V. Henderson and G. S. Searle (1981), D. V. Ouellette (1981), W. M. Hager (1989), G. W. Stewart (1977) and K. S. Riedel

(1992). (s10) has been noted by W. J. Duncan (1944) and L. Guttman (1946): The result is directly derived from the identity

$$(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{CBD})(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{CBD})^{-1} = \mathbf{I} \implies$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{CBD})^{-1} + \mathbf{CBD}(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{CBD})^{-1} = \mathbf{I}$$

$$(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{CBD})^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} - \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{CBD}(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{CBD})^{-1}$$

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{CBD})^{-1} + \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{CBD}(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{CBD})^{-1}$$

$$\mathbf{D}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{D}(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{CBD})^{-1} + \mathbf{D}\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{CBD}(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{CBD})^{-1}$$

$$\mathbf{D}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{D}\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{CB})\mathbf{D}(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{CBD})^{-1}$$

$$\mathbf{D}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = (\mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{D}\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{C})\mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{CBD})^{-1}$$

$$(\mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{D}\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{C})^{-1}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{CBD})^{-1}.$$



Certain results follow directly from their definitions.

Facts (inverses):

- (i) $(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B})^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{A}^{-1}$
- (ii) $(\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B})^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^{-1} \otimes \mathbf{A}^{-1}$
- (iii) **A** positive definite \Leftrightarrow **A**⁻¹ positive definite
- (iv) $(\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B})^{-1}$, $(\mathbf{A} * \mathbf{B})^{-1}$ and $(\mathbf{A}^{-1} * \mathbf{B}^{-1})$ are positive definite, then $(\mathbf{A}^{-1} * \mathbf{B}^{-1}) (\mathbf{A} * \mathbf{B})^{-1}$ is positive semidefinite as well as $(\mathbf{A}^{-1} * \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{I}$ and $\mathbf{I} (\mathbf{A}^{-1} * \mathbf{A})^{-1}$.

Facts (rank factorization):

(i) If the $n \times n$ matrix is *symmetric* and *positive semidefinite*, then its *rank factorization* is

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{G}_1 \\ \mathbf{G}_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{G}_1' & \mathbf{G}_2' \end{bmatrix},$$

where \mathbf{G}_1 is a *lower triangular matrix* of the order $O(\mathbf{G}_1) = \operatorname{rk} \mathbf{A} \times \operatorname{rk} \mathbf{A}$ with

$$\operatorname{rk} \mathbf{G}_2 = \operatorname{rk} \mathbf{A}$$
,

whereas \mathbf{G}_2 has the format $O(\mathbf{G}_2) = (n - \operatorname{rk} \mathbf{A}) \times \operatorname{rk} \mathbf{A}$. In this case we speak of a *Choleski decomposition*.

(ii) In case that the matrix ${\bf A}$ is positive definite, the matrix block ${\bf G}_2$ is not needed anymore: ${\bf G}_1$ is uniquely determined. There holds

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = (\mathbf{G}_1^{-1})' \mathbf{G}_1^{-1}.$$

Beside the *rank* of a quadratic matrix **A** of the order $O(\mathbf{A}) = n \times n$ as the *first scalar measure* of a matrix, is its *determinant*

$$|\mathbf{A}| = \sum_{\substack{perm \\ (j_1, \dots, j_n)}} (-1)^{\Phi(j_1, \dots, j_n)} \prod_{i=1}^n a_{ij_i}$$

plays a similar role as a *second scalar measure*. Here the summation is extended as the summation perm $(j_1,...,j_n)$ over all permutations $(j_1,...,j_n)$ of the set of integer numbers (1,...,n). $\Phi(j_1,...,j_n)$ is the number of permutations which transform (1,...,n) into $(j_1,...,j_n)$.

Laws (determinant)

- (i) $|\alpha \cdot \mathbf{A}| = \alpha^n \cdot |\mathbf{A}|$ for an arbitrary scalar $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$
- (ii) $|\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}| = |\mathbf{A}| \cdot |\mathbf{B}|$
- (iii) $|\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B}| = |\mathbf{A}|^m \cdot |\mathbf{B}|^n$ for an arbitrary $m \times n$ matrix \mathbf{B}
- (iv) $|\mathbf{A}'| = |\mathbf{A}|$
- (v) $\left|\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}')\right| \le |\mathbf{A}|$ if $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}'$ is positive definite
- (vi) $|\mathbf{A}^{-1}| = |\mathbf{A}|^{-1} \text{ if } \mathbf{A}^{-1} \text{ exists}$
- (vii) $|\mathbf{A}| = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{A}$ is singular (\mathbf{A}^{-1} does *not* exist)
- (viii) $| \mathbf{A} | = 0$ if \mathbf{A} is idempotent, $\mathbf{A} \neq \mathbf{I}$
- (ix) $|\mathbf{A}| = \prod_{i=1}^{n} a_{ii}$ if **A** is diagonal and a triangular matrix
- (x) $0 \le |\mathbf{A}| \le \prod_{i=1}^{n} a_{ii} = |\mathbf{A} * \mathbf{I}| \text{ if } \mathbf{A} \text{ is positive definite}$
- (xi) $|\mathbf{A}| \cdot |\mathbf{B}| \le |\mathbf{A}| \cdot \prod_{i=1}^{n} b_{ii} \le |\mathbf{A} * \mathbf{B}| \text{ if } \mathbf{A} \text{ and } \mathbf{B} \text{ are positive definite}$

(xii)
$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} & \mathbf{A}_{12} \\ \mathbf{A}_{21} & \mathbf{A}_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \det \mathbf{A}_{11} \det(\mathbf{A}_{22} - \mathbf{A}_{21} \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12}) \\ \forall \mathbf{A}_{11} \in \mathbb{R}^{m_1 \times m_1}, \ \text{rk } \mathbf{A}_{11} = m_1 \\ \det \mathbf{A}_{21} \det(\mathbf{A}_{11} - \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{21}) \\ \forall \mathbf{A}_{22} \in \mathbb{R}^{m_2 \times m_2}, \ \text{rk} \mathbf{A}_{22} = m_2 \ .$$

A *submatrix* of a rectangular matrix **A** is the result of a canceling procedure of *certain rows and columns* of the matrix **A**. A *minor* is the determinant of a *quadratic submatrix* of the matrix **A**. If the matrix **A** is a quadratic matrix, to any element a_{ij} there exists a *minor* being the determinant of a submatrix of the matrix **A** which is the result of *reducing the i-th row and the j-th column*. By multiplying with $(-1)^{i+j}$ we gain a new element c_{ij} of a matrix $\mathbf{C} = [\mathbf{c}_{ij}]$. The transpose matrix \mathbf{C}' is called the *adjoint matrix* of the matrix **A**, written $adj\mathbf{A}$. Its order is the same as of the matrix **A**.

Laws (adjoint matrix)

(i)
$$|\mathbf{A}| = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} c_{ij}, \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, n$$

(ii)
$$|\mathbf{A}| = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{jk} c_{jk}, \quad \forall k = 1,...,n$$

(iii)
$$\mathbf{A} \cdot (\operatorname{adj} \mathbf{A}) = (\operatorname{adj} \mathbf{A}) \cdot \mathbf{A} = |\mathbf{A}| \cdot \mathbf{I}$$

(iv)
$$adj(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}) = (adj\mathbf{B}) \cdot (adj\mathbf{A})$$

(v)
$$adj(\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B}) = (adj\mathbf{A}) \otimes (adj\mathbf{B})$$

(vi)
$$\operatorname{adj} \mathbf{A} = |\mathbf{A}| \cdot \mathbf{A}^{-1} \text{ if } \mathbf{A} \text{ is nonsingular}$$

(vii) adj A positive definitive ⇔ A positive definite.

As a *third scalar measure* of a quadratic matrix **A** of the order $O(\mathbf{A}) = n \times n$ we introduce the *trace* tr **A** as the *sum of diagonal elements*,

$$\operatorname{tr} \mathbf{A} = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ii}.$$

Laws (trace of a matrix)

- (i) $\operatorname{tr}(\alpha \cdot \mathbf{A}) = \alpha \cdot \operatorname{tr} \mathbf{A}$ for an arbitrary scalar $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$
- (ii) $tr(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) = tr \mathbf{A} + tr \mathbf{B}$ for an arbitrary $n \times n$ matrix \mathbf{B}
- (iii) $\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B}) = (\operatorname{tr} \mathbf{A}) \cdot (\operatorname{tr} \mathbf{B})$ for an arbitrary $m \times m$ matrix \mathbf{B}
- iv) $\operatorname{tr} \mathbf{A} = \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C})$ for any factorization $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C}$
- (v) $\operatorname{tr} \mathbf{A}'(\mathbf{B} * \mathbf{C}) = \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}' * \mathbf{B}')\mathbf{C}$ for an arbitrary $n \times n$ matrix \mathbf{B} and \mathbf{C}
- (vi) $\operatorname{tr} \mathbf{A}' = \operatorname{tr} \mathbf{A}$
- (vii) $tr\mathbf{A} = rk\mathbf{A}$ if \mathbf{A} is idempotent
- (viii) $0 < \text{tr } \mathbf{A} = tr(\mathbf{A} * \mathbf{I}) \text{ if } \mathbf{A} \text{ is positive definite}$
- (ix) $\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A} * \mathbf{B}) \le (\operatorname{tr} \mathbf{A}) \cdot (\operatorname{tr} \mathbf{B})$ if \mathbf{A} und \mathbf{B} are *positive semidefinite*.

In correspondence to the W – weighted vector (semi) – norm.

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_{\mathbf{W}} = (\mathbf{x'} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{x})^{1/2}$$

is the W – *weighted matrix (semi) norm*

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_{\mathbf{W}} = (\mathbf{tr}\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{A})^{1/2}$$

for a given positive – (semi) definite matrix **W** of proper order.

Laws (trace of matrices):

- $\operatorname{tr} \mathbf{A}' \mathbf{W} \mathbf{A} \ge 0$ (i)
- (ii) $\operatorname{tr} \mathbf{A}' \mathbf{W} \mathbf{A} = 0 \iff \mathbf{W} \mathbf{A} = 0$

 \Leftrightarrow **A** = 0 if **W** is positive definite

A4 Vector-valued Matrix Forms

If A is a rectangular matrix of the order $O(A) = n \times m$, a_i its j – th column, then $\text{vec } \mathbf{A} \text{ is an } nm \times 1 \text{ vector}$

$$\operatorname{vec} \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \dots \\ a_{n-1} \\ a_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

In consequence, the operator "vec" of a matrix transforms a vector in such a way that the columns are stapled one after the other.

Definitions (vec, vech, veck):

(i)
$$\operatorname{vec} \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \dots \\ a_{n-1} \\ a_n \end{bmatrix}$$
.

Let **A** be a quadratic symmetric matrix, $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}'$, of order $O(\mathbf{A}) = n \times n$. Then vech**A** ("vec - *koef*") is the $[n(n+1)/2] \times 1$ vector which is the result of row (column) stapels of those matrix elements which are upper and under of its diagonal.

$$\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}] = [a_{ji}] = \mathbf{A}' \Rightarrow \text{vech} \mathbf{A} := \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ \cdots \\ a_{n1} \\ a_{22} \\ \cdots \\ a_{n2} \\ \cdots \\ a_{m} \end{bmatrix}$$

Let **A** be a quadratic, antisymmetric matrix, $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}'$, of (iii) order $O(\mathbf{A}) = n \times n$. Then veck**A** ("vec - skew") is the $[n(n+1)/2] \times 1$ vector which is generated columnwise *stapels* of those matrix elements which are under its diagonal.

$$\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}] = [-a_{ji}] = -\mathbf{A}' \Rightarrow \text{veck} \mathbf{A} := \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ \cdots \\ a_{n1} \\ a_{32} \\ \cdots \\ a_{n2} \\ \cdots \\ a_{n,n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Examples

(i)
$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \text{vec} \mathbf{A} = [a, d, b, e, c, f]'$$

(ii)
$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ b & d & e \\ c & e & f \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{A}' \Rightarrow \text{vech} \mathbf{A} = [a, b, c, d, e, f]'$$

(i)
$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \text{vec} \mathbf{A} = [a, d, b, e, c, f]'$$

(ii) $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ b & d & e \\ c & e & f \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{A}' \Rightarrow \text{vech} \mathbf{A} = [a, b, c, d, e, f]'$
(iii) $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -a & -b & -c \\ a & 0 & -d & -e \\ b & d & 0 & -f \\ c & e & f & 0 \end{bmatrix} = -\mathbf{A}' \Rightarrow \text{veck} \mathbf{A} = [a, b, c, d, e, f]'.$

Useful identities, relating to scalar- and vector - valued measures of matrices will be reported finally.

Facts (vec and trace forms):

- $\operatorname{vec}(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C}') = (\mathbf{C} \otimes \mathbf{A}) \operatorname{vec} \mathbf{B}$ (i)
- $\operatorname{vec}(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}) = (\mathbf{B}' \otimes \mathbf{I}_n) \operatorname{vec} \mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{B}' \otimes \mathbf{A}) \operatorname{vec} \mathbf{I}_m =$ (ii) $= (\mathbf{I}_1 \otimes \mathbf{A}) \operatorname{vec} \mathbf{B}, \ \forall \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}, \ \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times q}$

(iii)
$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{c} = (\mathbf{c}' \otimes \mathbf{A}) \text{vec} \mathbf{B} = (\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{c}') \text{vec} \mathbf{B}', \forall \mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{R}^q$$

(iv)
$$\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}' \cdot \mathbf{B}) = (\operatorname{vec} \mathbf{A})' \operatorname{vec} \mathbf{B} = (\operatorname{vec} \mathbf{A}') \operatorname{vec} \mathbf{B}' = \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}')$$

(v)
$$\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C}' \cdot \mathbf{D}') = (\operatorname{vec} \mathbf{D})'(\mathbf{C} \otimes \mathbf{A}) \operatorname{vec} \mathbf{B} =$$

= $(\operatorname{vec} \mathbf{D}')'(\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{C}) \operatorname{vec} \mathbf{B}'$

(vi)
$$\mathbf{K}_{nm} \cdot \text{vec} \mathbf{A} = \text{vec} \mathbf{A}', \forall \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$$

(vii)
$$\mathbf{K}_{an}(\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B}) = (\mathbf{B} \otimes \mathbf{A})\mathbf{K}_{nm}$$

(viii)
$$\mathbf{K}_{qn}(\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B})\mathbf{K}_{mp} = (\mathbf{B} \otimes \mathbf{A})$$

(ix)
$$\mathbf{K}_{an}(\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{c} \otimes \mathbf{A}$$

(x)
$$\mathbf{K}_{na}(\mathbf{c} \otimes \mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{c}, \ \forall \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}, \ \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{q \times p}, \ \mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{R}^{q}$$

(xi)
$$\operatorname{vec}(\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B}) = (\mathbf{I}_m \otimes \mathbf{K}_{pn} \otimes \mathbf{I}_q)(\operatorname{vec} \mathbf{A} \otimes \operatorname{vec} \mathbf{B})$$

(xii)
$$\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{a}_1, ..., \mathbf{a}_m), \quad \mathbf{B} := \text{Diag}\mathbf{b}, \quad O(\mathbf{B}) = m \times m,$$

$$\mathbf{C}' = [\mathbf{c}_1, ..., \mathbf{c}_m] \Rightarrow \text{vec}(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C}') = \text{vec}[\sum_{j=1}^m (\mathbf{a}_j \mathbf{b}_j \mathbf{c}'_j)] =$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^m (\mathbf{c}_j \otimes \mathbf{a}_j) \mathbf{b}_j = [\mathbf{c}_1 \otimes \mathbf{a}_1, ..., \mathbf{c}_m \otimes \mathbf{a}_m)] \mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{C} \odot \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{b}$$

(xiii)
$$\mathbf{A} = [\mathbf{a}_{ij}], \mathbf{C} = [\mathbf{c}_{ij}], \mathbf{B} := \text{Diag}\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{b} = [\mathbf{b}_1, ..., \mathbf{b}_m] \in \mathbb{R}^m$$

$$\Rightarrow \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C}' \cdot \mathbf{B}) = (\operatorname{vec} \mathbf{B})' \operatorname{vec}(\mathbf{C} \cdot \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{A}') =$$

$$= \mathbf{b}'(\mathbf{I}_m \odot \mathbf{I}_m)' \cdot (\mathbf{A} \odot \mathbf{C})\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b}'(\mathbf{A} * \mathbf{C})\mathbf{b}$$

(xiv)
$$\mathbf{B} := \mathbf{I}_m \Rightarrow \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{C}') = \mathbf{r}'_m(\mathbf{A} * \mathbf{C})\mathbf{r}_m$$

(\mathbf{r}_m is the $m \times 1$ summation vector: $\mathbf{r}_m := [1, ..., 1]' \in \mathbb{R}^m$)

(xv) vec Diag
$$\mathbf{D} := (\mathbf{I}_m * \mathbf{D})\mathbf{r}_m = [\mathbf{I}_m * (\mathbf{A}' \cdot \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C})]\mathbf{r}_m =$$

$$= (\mathbf{I}_m \odot \mathbf{I}_m)' = [\mathbf{I}_m \odot (\mathbf{A}' \cdot \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C})] \cdot \text{vec Diag}\mathbf{I}_m =$$

$$= (\mathbf{I}_m \odot \mathbf{I}_m)' \cdot \text{vec}(\mathbf{A}' \cdot \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C}) =$$

$$= (\mathbf{I}_m \odot \mathbf{I}_m)' \cdot (\mathbf{C}' \otimes \mathbf{A}') \text{vec}\mathbf{B} = (\mathbf{C} \odot \mathbf{A})' \text{vec}\mathbf{B}$$
when $\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{A}' \cdot \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C}$ is factorized.

Facts (Löwner partial ordering):

For any quadratic matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ there holds the *uncertainty*

$$\mathbf{I}_m * (\mathbf{A}' \cdot \mathbf{A}) \ge \mathbf{I}_m * \mathbf{A} * \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}_m * [(\mathbf{A} \odot \mathbf{I}_m)' \cdot (\mathbf{I}_m \odot \mathbf{A})]$$

in the Löwner partial ordering that is the difference matrix

$$I_{...}*(A'\cdot A)-I_{...}*A*A$$

is at least positive semidefinite.

A5 Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

To any quadratic matrix \mathbf{A} of the order $O(\mathbf{A}) = m \times m$ there exists an eigenvalue λ as a scalar which makes the matrix $\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}_m$ singular. As an equivalent statement, we say that the characteristic equation $|\lambda \mathbf{I}_m - \mathbf{A}| = 0$ has a zero value which could be multiple of degrees, if s is the dimension of the related null space $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I})$. The non-vanishing element \mathbf{x} of this null space for which $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}$, $\mathbf{x} \neq 0$ holds, is called right eigenvector of \mathbf{A} . Related vectors \mathbf{y} for which $\mathbf{y'A} = \lambda \mathbf{y}$, $\mathbf{y} \neq 0$, holds, are called left eigenvectors of \mathbf{A} and are representative of the right eigenvectors $\mathbf{A'}$. Eigenvectors always belong to a certain eigenvalue and are usually normed in the sense of $\mathbf{x'x} = 1$, $\mathbf{y'y} = 1$ as long as they have real components. As the same time, the eigenvectors which belong to different eigenvalues are always linear independent: They obviously span a subspace of $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A})$.

In general, the eigenvalues of a matrix **A** are *complex*! There is an important exception: the *orthonormal matrices*, also called *rotation matrices* whose eigenvalues are +1 or, -1 *and idempotent matrices* which can only be 0 or 1 as a *multiple eigenvalue* generally, we call a *null eigenvalue a singular matrix*.

There is the special case of a symmetric matrix $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}'$ of order $O(\mathbf{A}) = m \times m$. It can be shown that all *roots of the characteristic polynomial* are *real numbers* and accordingly m - not necessary different - *real eigenvalues exist*. In addition, the *different eigenvalues* λ and μ and their corresponding *eigenvectors* \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} are *orthogonal*, that is

$$(\lambda - \mu)\mathbf{x}' \cdot \mathbf{v} = (\mathbf{x}' \cdot \mathbf{A}') \cdot \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{x}'(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{v}) = 0, \ \forall \lambda - \mu \neq 0.$$

In case that the *eigenvalue* λ *of degrees* s appears s-times, the *eigenspace* $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \cdot \mathbf{I}_m)$ is s - *dimensional*: we can choose s *orthonormal eigenvectors* which are orthonormal to all other! In total, we can organize m orthonormal eigenvectors which span the entire \mathbb{R}^m . If we restrict ourselves to eigenvectors and to eigenvalues λ , $\lambda \neq 0$, we receive the *column space* $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A})$. The *rank* of \mathbf{A} coincides with the *number of non-vanishing eigenvalues* $\{\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_r\}$.

$$\mathbf{U} := [\mathbf{U}_1, \mathbf{U}_2], \ O(\mathbf{U}) = m \times m, \ \mathbf{U} \cdot \mathbf{U}' = \mathbf{U}'\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I}_m$$

$$\mathbf{U}_1 := [\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_r], \ O(\mathbf{U}_1) = m \times r, \ r = r\mathbf{k}\mathbf{A}$$

$$\mathbf{U}_2 := [\mathbf{u}_{r+1}, \dots, \mathbf{u}_m], \ O(\mathbf{U}_2) = m \times (m-r), \ \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{U}_2 = 0.$$

With the definition of the $r \times r$ diagonal matrix $\lambda := \text{Diag}(\lambda_1, \dots \lambda_r)$ of non-vanishing eigenvalues we gain

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{A} \cdot [\mathbf{U}_1, \mathbf{U}_2] = [\mathbf{U}_1 \Lambda, 0] = [\mathbf{U}_1, \mathbf{U}_2] \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Due to the *orthonormality* of the matrix $U := [U_1, U_2]$ we achieve the results about *eigenvalue* – *eigenvector* analysis and *eigenvalues* – *eigenvector* synthesis.

Lemma (eigenvalue – eigenvector analysis: decomposition):

Let A = A' be a *symmetric matrix* of the order $O(A) = m \times m$. Then there exists an *orthonormal matrix U* in such a way that

$$\mathbf{U}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{U} = \mathrm{Diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_r, 0, \dots, 0)$$

holds. $(\lambda_1, ... \lambda_r)$ denotes the set of non – vanishing eigenvalues of **A** with $r = \text{rk} \mathbf{A}$ ordered decreasingly.

Lemma (eigenvalue – eigenvectorsynthesis: decomposition):

Let $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}'$ be a symmetric matrix of the order $O(\mathbf{A}) = m \times m$. Then there exists a *synthetic representation* of *eigenvalues and eigenvectors* of type

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \cdot \text{Diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_r, 0, \dots, 0) \mathbf{U}' = \mathbf{U}_1 \Lambda \mathbf{U}_1'$$

In the class of *symmetric matrices* the *positive (semi)definite* matrices play a special role. Actually, they are just the *positive (nonnegative) eigenvalues* squarerooted.

$$\Lambda^{1/2} := \text{Diag}(\sqrt{\lambda_1}, \dots, \sqrt{\lambda_r}).$$

The matrix **A** is *positive semidefinite* if and only if there exists a *quadratic* $m \times m$ matrix **G** such that $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{G}\mathbf{G}'$ holds, for instance, $\mathbf{G} := [\mathbf{u}_1 \Lambda^{1/2}, 0]$. The quadratic matrix is *positive definite if and only if* the $m \times m$ matrix **G** is *not singular*. Such a representation leads to the *rank fatorization* $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{G}_1 \cdot \mathbf{G}_1'$ with $\mathbf{G}_1 := \mathbf{U}_1 \cdot \Lambda^{1/2}$. In general, we have

Lemma (representation of the matrix $\overline{\mathbf{U}}_1$):

If **A** is a positive semidefinite matrix of the order $O(\mathbf{A})$ with *non* – *vanishing eigenvalues* $\{\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_r\}$, then there exists an $m \times r$ matrix

$$\overline{\mathbf{U}}_1 \coloneqq \mathbf{G}_1 \cdot \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1} = \mathbf{U}_1 \cdot \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1/2}$$

with

$$\mathbf{U}_1' \cdot \mathbf{U}_1 = \mathbf{I}_r, \ \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{U}_1) = \mathcal{R}(\overline{\mathbf{U}}_1) = \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}),$$

such that

$$\overline{\mathbf{U}}_1' \cdot \mathbf{A} \cdot \overline{\mathbf{U}}_1 = (\Lambda^{-1/2} \cdot \mathbf{U}_1') \cdot (\mathbf{U}_1 \cdot \Lambda \cdot \mathbf{U}_1') \cdot (\mathbf{U}_1 \cdot \Lambda^{-1/2}) = \mathbf{I}_r.$$

The synthetic relation of the matrix **A** is

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{G}_1 \cdot \mathbf{G}_1' = \overline{\mathbf{U}}_1 \cdot \Lambda^{-1} \cdot \overline{\mathbf{U}}_1'.$$

The pseudoinverse has a peculiar representation if we introduce the matrices $\overline{\bf U}_1, \ {\bf U}_1$ and Λ^{-1} .

Definition (pseudoinverse):

If we use the representation of the matrix **A** of type $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{G}_1 \cdot \mathbf{G}_1' = \mathbf{U}_1 \wedge \mathbf{U}_1'$ then

$$\mathbf{A}^+ := \overline{\mathbf{U}}_1 \cdot \overline{\mathbf{U}}_1 = \mathbf{U}_1 \cdot \Lambda^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{U}_1'$$

is the representation of its pseudoinverse namely

(i)
$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{+}\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{U}_{1}\Lambda\mathbf{U}_{1}')(\mathbf{U}_{1}\Lambda^{-1}\mathbf{U}_{1}')(\mathbf{U}_{1}\Lambda\mathbf{U}_{1}') = \mathbf{U}_{1}\Lambda\mathbf{U}_{1}'$$

(ii)
$$\mathbf{A}^{+}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{+} = (\mathbf{U}_{1}\Lambda^{-1}\mathbf{U}_{1}')(\mathbf{U}_{1}\Lambda\mathbf{U}_{1}')(\mathbf{U}_{1}\Lambda^{-1}\mathbf{U}_{1}') = \mathbf{U}_{1}\Lambda^{-1}\mathbf{U}_{1}' = \mathbf{A}^{+}$$

(iii)
$$AA^+ = (U_1 \Lambda U_1')(U_1 \Lambda^{-1} U_1') = U_1 U_1' = (AA^+)'$$

(iv)
$$\mathbf{A}^{+}\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{U}_{1}\Lambda^{-1}\mathbf{U}_{1}')(\mathbf{U}_{1}\Lambda\mathbf{U}_{1}') = \mathbf{U}_{1}\mathbf{U}_{1}' = (\mathbf{A}^{+}\mathbf{A})'$$
.

The pseudoinverse A^+ exists and is unique, even if A is singular. For a nonsingular matrix A, the matrix A^+ is identical with A^{-1} . Indeed, for the case of the pseudoinverse (or any other generalized inverse) the generalized inverse of a rectangular matrix exists. The singular value decomposition is an excellent tool which generalizes the classical eigenvalue – eigenvector decomposition of symmetric matrices.

Lemma (Singular value decomposition):

(i) Let **A** be an $n \times m$ matrix of rank $r := \text{rk} \mathbf{A} \le \min(n, m)$. Then the matrices $\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A}$ are symmetric positive (semi) definite matrices whose nonvanishing eigenvalues $\{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_r\}$ are *positive*. Especially

$$r = \text{rk}(\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A}) = \text{rk}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}')$$

holds. A'A contains 0 as a multiple eigenvalue of degree m-r, and AA' has the multiple eigenvalue of degree n-r.

(ii) With the support of *orthonormal eigenvalues of* A'A and AA' we are able to introduce an $m \times m$ matrix V and an $n \times n$ matrix U such that $UU' = U'U = I_n, VV' = V'V = I_m$ holds and

$$\mathbf{U}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{U} = \mathrm{Diag}(\lambda_1^2, \dots, \lambda_r^2, 0, \dots, 0),$$

$$\mathbf{V'A'AV} = \mathrm{Diag}(\lambda_1^2, \dots, \lambda_r^2, 0, \dots, 0).$$

The diagonal matrices on the right side have different formats $m \times m$ and $m \times n$.

(iii) The original $n \times m$ matrix **A** can be decomposed according to

$$\mathbf{U}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{V} = \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \ O(\mathbf{U}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{V}') = n \times m$$

with the $r \times r$ diagonal matrix

$$\Lambda := \text{Diag}(\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_r)$$

of singular values representing the positive roots of non-vanishing eigenvalues of A'A and AA'.

(iv) A synthetic form of the $n \times m$ matrix **A** is

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}' \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{V}'.$$

We note here that all transformed matrices of type $\mathbf{T}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{T}$ of a *quadratic* matrix have the same eigenvalues as $\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{T})\mathbf{T}^{-1}$ being used as often as an *invariance property*.

?what is the relation between *eigenvalues* and the *trace*, *the determinant*, *the rank*? The answer will be given *now*.

Lemma (relation between *eigenvalues and other scalar measures*):

Let **A** be a quadratic *matrix* of the order $O(\mathbf{A}) = m \times m$ with eigenvalues in decreasing order. Then we have

$$\mid \mathbf{A} \mid = \prod_{j=1}^{m} \lambda_{j}, \text{ tr} \mathbf{A} = \sum_{j=1}^{m} \lambda_{j}, \text{ rk} \mathbf{A} = \text{tr} \mathbf{A},$$

if A is idempotent. If A = A' is a symmetric matrix with real eigenvalues, then we gain

$$\lambda_1 \geq \max\{a_{ii} \mid j=1,\ldots,m\},\$$

$$\lambda_m \leq \min\{a_{ij} \mid j=1,\ldots,m\}.$$

At the end we compute the *eigenvalues and eigenvectors* which relate the *variation problem* $\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \text{extr subject to the } condition \mathbf{x}'\mathbf{x} = 1$, namely

$$\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \lambda(\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{x}) = \underset{\mathbf{x},\lambda}{\text{extr}}.$$

The eigenvalue λ is the Lagrange multiplicator of the optimization problem.

A6 Generalized Inverses

Because the *inversion by Cayley inversion is* only possible for *quadratic nonsingular matrices*, we introduce a slightly more general *definition* in order to invert arbitrary matrices **A** of the *order* $O(\mathbf{A}) = n \times m$ by so – called *generalized inverses* or for short g – *inverses*.

An $m \times n$ matrix **G** is called g – *inverse of the* matrix **A** if it fulfils the equation

$$AGA = A$$

in the sense of Cayley multiplication. Such g – inverses always exist and are unique if and only if A is a nonsingular quadratic matrix. In this case

$$G = A^{-1}$$
 if A is invertible,

in other cases we use the notation

$$G = A^-$$
 if A^{-1} does *not* exist.

For the rank of all g – inverses the inequality

$$r := \operatorname{rk} \mathbf{A} \le \operatorname{rk} \mathbf{A}^- \le \min\{n, m\}$$

holds. In reverse, for any even number d in this interval there exists a g – inverse A^- such that

$$d = \operatorname{rk} \mathbf{A}^{-} = \dim \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}^{-})$$

holds. Especially even for a singular quadratic matrix A of the order $O(A) = n \times n$ there exist g-inverses A^- of full rank rk $A^- = n$. In particular, such g-inverses A^-_r are of interest which have the *same rank* compared to the matrix A, namely

$$\operatorname{rk} \mathbf{A}_{r}^{-} = r = \operatorname{rk} \mathbf{A}$$
.

Those reflexive g-inverse \mathbf{A}_r^- are equivalent due to the additional condition

$$\mathbf{A}_{r}^{-}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}_{r}^{-}=\mathbf{A}_{r}^{-}$$

but are not necessary symmetric for symmetric matrices A. In general,

$$A = A'$$
 and A^- g-inverse of $A \Rightarrow$

$$\Rightarrow$$
 (**A**⁻)' g-inverse of **A**

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{A}_{rs}^- := \mathbf{A}^- \mathbf{A} (\mathbf{A}^-)'$$
 is reflexive symmetric g –inverse of \mathbf{A} .

For constructing of \mathbf{A}_{rs}^- we only need an arbitrary g-inverse of \mathbf{A} . On the other side, \mathbf{A}_{rs}^- does *not mean unique*. There exist certain matrix functions which are *independent of the choice of the g-inverse*. For instance,

$$\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{A'A})^{-}\mathbf{A}$$
 and $\mathbf{A'}(\mathbf{AA'})^{-1}\mathbf{A}$

can be used to generate special g-inverses of A'A or AA'. For instance,

$$\mathbf{A}_{\ell}^{-} := (\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A})^{-}\mathbf{A}'$$
 and $\mathbf{A}_{m}^{-} := \mathbf{A}'(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}')^{-}$

have the special reproducing properties

$$\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A})^{-}\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}_{\ell}^{-}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}$$
and
$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}'(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}')^{-}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}_{m}^{-}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A},$$

which can be generalized in case that W and S are positive semidefinite matrices to

$$WA(A'WA)^{-}A'WA = WA$$

 $ASA'(ASA')^{-}AS = AS$,

where the matrices

are independent of the choice of the g-inverse (A'WA) and (ASA').

A beautiful interpretation of the various g-inverses is based on the fact that the matrices

$$(AA^{-})(AA^{-}) = (AA^{-}A)A^{-} = AA^{-}$$
 and $(A^{-}A)(A^{-}A) = A^{-}(AA^{-}A) = A^{-}A$

are *idempotent* and can therefore be *geometrically* interpreted as projections. The *image* of AA^- , namely

$$\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-}) = \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}) = {\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{m}} \subset \mathbb{R}^{n},$$

can be completed by the projections A-A along the null space

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}^{-}\mathbf{A}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}) = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = 0\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{m}.$$

By the choice of the g – inverse we are able to choose the *projected direction* of $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^-$ and the *image of the projections* $\mathbf{A}^-\mathbf{A}$ if we take advantage of the *complementary spaces of the subspaces*

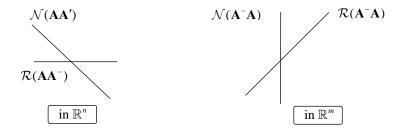
$$\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}^{-}\mathbf{A}) \oplus \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}^{-}\mathbf{A}) = \mathbb{R}^{m} \text{ and } \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-}) \oplus \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-}) = \mathbb{R}^{n}$$

by using the symbol " \oplus " as the sign of "direct sum" of linear spaces which only have the zero element in common. Finally we have use the corresponding dimensions

$$\dim \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}^{-}\mathbf{A}) = r = \mathrm{rk}\mathbf{A} = \dim \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-}) \Rightarrow$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \dim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}^{-}\mathbf{A}) = m - \mathrm{rk}\mathbf{A} = m - r \\ \dim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-}) = n - \mathrm{rk}\mathbf{A} = n - r \end{bmatrix}$$

independent of the special rank of the g-inverses A^- which are determined by the *subspaces* $\mathcal{R}(A^-A)$ and $\mathcal{N}(AA^-)$, respectively.



Example (geodetic networks):

In a geodetic network, the projections A^-A correspond to a S – transformations in the sense of W. Baarda (1973).

Example (\mathbf{A}_{ℓ}^{-} and \mathbf{A}_{m}^{-} *g*-inverses):

The projections $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}_{\ell}^- = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A})^-\mathbf{A}'$ guarantee that the *subspaces* $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^-)$ and $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}_{\ell}^-)$ are *orthogonal* to each other. The same holds for the *subspaces* $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}_m^-\mathbf{A})$ and $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}_m^-\mathbf{A})$ of the projections $\mathbf{A}_m^-\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}'(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}')^-\mathbf{A}$.

In general, there exist more than one g-inverses which lead to *identical* projections $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^-$ and $\mathbf{A}^-\mathbf{A}$. For instance, following A. Ben – Israel, T. N. E. Greville (1974, p.59) we learn that the reflexive g-inverse which follows from

$$A_r^- = (A^-A)A^-(AA^-) = A^-AA^-$$

contains the class of all reflexive g-inverses. Therefore it is obvious that the reflexive g-inverses \mathbf{A}_r^- contain exact by one pair of projections $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^-$ and $\mathbf{A}^-\mathbf{A}$ and conversely. In the special case of a symmetric matrix \mathbf{A} , $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}'$, and n = m we know due to

$$\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-}) = \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}) \perp \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}') = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}^{-}\mathbf{A})$$

that the *column spaces* $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^-)$ are *orthogonal* to the *null space* $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}^-\mathbf{A})$ *illustrated by the sign* " \perp ". If these complementary subspaces $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}^-\mathbf{A})$ and $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^-)$ are *orthogonal to each other*, the postulate of a *symmetric reflexive g-inverse* agrees to

$$A_{rs}^- := (A^-A)A^-(A^-A)' = A^-A(A^-)',$$

if A^- is a suited g-inverse.

There is *no insurance* that the complementary subspaces $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}^{-}\mathbf{A})$ and $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}^{-}\mathbf{A})$ and $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-})$ and $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-})$ are *orthogonal*. If such a result should be reached, we should use

> the uniquely defined pseudoinverse A^+ , also called Moore-Penrose inverse

> > for which holds

$$\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}^{\scriptscriptstyle{+}}\mathbf{A}) \perp \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}^{\scriptscriptstyle{+}}\mathbf{A}), \, \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{\scriptscriptstyle{+}}) \perp \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{\scriptscriptstyle{+}})$$

or equivalent

$$AA^{+} = (AA^{+})', A^{+}A = (A^{+}A)'.$$

If we depart from an arbitrary g-inverse $(AA^{-}A)^{-}$, the pseudoinverse A^{+} can be build on

$$A^+ := A'(AA'A)^-A'$$
 (Zlobec formula)

or

$$A^+ := A'(AA')^- A(A'A)^- A'$$
 (Bjerhammar formula),

if both the g-inverses $(AA')^-$ and $(A'A)^-$ exist. The *Moore-Penrose* inverse fulfils the *Penrose equations*:

- (i) $AA^+A = A$ (g-inverse)
- (ii) $A^+AA^+ = A^+$ (reflexivity)
- (iii) $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^+ = (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^+)'$ Symmetry due to orthogonal projection. (iv) $\mathbf{A}^{+}\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{A}^{+}\mathbf{A})'$

Lemma (Penrose equations)

Let A be a rectangular matrix A of the order O(A) be given. A ggeneralized matrix inverse which is rank preserving $rk(\mathbf{A}) = rk(\mathbf{A}^+)$ fulfils the axioms of the Penrose equations (i) - (iv).

For the special case of a symmetric matrix A also the pseudoinverse A^+ is symmetric, fulfilling

$$\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}^{+}\mathbf{A}) = \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{+}) \perp \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{+}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}^{+}\mathbf{A}),$$

in addition

$$\mathbf{A}^+ = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{A}^2)^- \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{A}^2)^- \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{A}^2)^- \mathbf{A}.$$

Various formulas of computing *certain g-inverses*, for instance by the *method of rank factorization*, exist. Let **A** be an $n \times m$ matrix **A** of rank $r := rk\mathbf{A}$ such that

$$A = GF$$
, $O(G) = n \times r$, $O(F) = r \times m$.

Due to the inequality $r \le \operatorname{rk} \mathbf{G}^- \le \min\{r, n\} = r$ only \mathbf{G} posesses reflexive ginverses \mathbf{G}_r^- , because of

$$\mathbf{I}_{r \times r} = [(\mathbf{G}'\mathbf{G})^{-1}\mathbf{G}']\mathbf{G} = [(\mathbf{G}'\mathbf{G})^{-1}\mathbf{G}'](\mathbf{G}\mathbf{G}_{r}'\mathbf{G}) = \mathbf{G}_{r}^{-}\mathbf{G}$$

represented by left inverses in the sense of $G_L^-G = I$. In a similar way, all ginverses of F are reflexive and right inverses subject to $F_r^- := F'(FF')^{-1}$.

The whole class of reflexive g-inverses of A can be represented by

$$\mathbf{A}_r^- := \mathbf{F}_r^- \mathbf{G}_r^- = \mathbf{F}_r^- \mathbf{G}_I^-.$$

In this case we also find the pseudoinverse, namely

$$A^+ \coloneqq F'(FF')^{-1}(G'G)^{-1}G'$$

because of

$$\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}^{+}\mathbf{A}) = \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{F}') \perp \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{F}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}^{+}\mathbf{A}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A})$$
$$\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{+}) = \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{G}) \perp \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{G}') = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{+}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}').$$

If we want to give up the orthogonality conditions, in case of a *quadratic matrix* A = GF, we could take advantage of the projections

$$\mathbf{A}_r^{-}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}_r^{-}$$

we could postulate

$$\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}_{p}^{-}\mathbf{A}) = \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}_{r}^{-}) = \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{G}),$$
$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A}_{r}^{-}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}_{r}^{-}\mathbf{A}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{F}).$$

In consequence, if FG is a nonsingular matrix, we enjoy the representation

$$\mathbf{A}_r^- := \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{F}\mathbf{G})^{-1}\mathbf{F},$$

which reduces in case that **A** is a *symmetric matrix* to the *pseudoinverse* \mathbf{A}^+ .

Dual methods of computing g-inverses \mathbf{A}^- are based on the basis of the null space, both for \mathbf{F} and \mathbf{G} , or for \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{A}' . On the first side we need the matrix $\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{F}}$ by

$$\mathbf{F}\mathbf{E}'_{\mathbf{F}} = 0$$
, $\mathrm{rk}\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{F}} = m - r$ versus $\mathbf{G}'\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{G}'} = 0$, $\mathrm{rk}\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{G}'} = n - r$

on the *other side*. The enlarged matrix of the order $(n+r-r)\times(n+m-r)$ is automatically *nonsingular* and has the *Cayley inverse*

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{G}'} \\ \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{F}} & 0 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}^{+} & \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{F}}^{+} \\ \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{G}'}^{+} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

with the pseudoinverse A^+ on the upper left side. Details can be derived from *A*. *Ben – Israel and T. N. E. Greville* (1974 p. 228).

If the null spaces are always normalized in the sense of

$$\langle \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{F}} \mid \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{F}}' \rangle = \mathbf{I}_{m-r}, \langle \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{G}'}' \mid \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{G}'} \rangle = \mathbf{I}_{n-r}$$

$$because of$$

$$\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{F}}^{+} = \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{F}}' \langle \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{F}} \mid \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{F}}' \rangle^{-1} = \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{F}}'$$

$$and$$

$$\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{G}'}^{+} = \langle \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{G}'}' \mid \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{G}'} \rangle^{-1} \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{G}'}' = \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{G}'}'$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{E}_{G'} \\ \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{F}} & \mathbf{0} \end{array} \right]^{-1} = \left[\begin{array}{cc} \mathbf{A}^{+} & \mathbf{E}_{G'} \\ \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{F}}' & \mathbf{0} \end{array} \right].$$

These formulas gain a special structure if the matrix A is *symmetric* to the order O(A). In this case

$$\mathbf{E}_{G'} = \mathbf{E}_F' =: \mathbf{E}', \ O(\mathbf{E}) = (m-r) \times m, \ \mathrm{rk} \mathbf{E} = m-r$$

ana

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{E}' \\ \mathbf{E} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}^{+} & \mathbf{E}' < \mathbf{E} \mid \mathbf{E}' >^{-1} \\ < \mathbf{E} \mid \mathbf{E}' >^{-1} \mathbf{E} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}$$

on the basis of such a relation, namely $\mathbf{E}\mathbf{A}^+ = \mathbf{0}$ there follows

$$I_m = AA^+ + E' < E \mid E' >^{-1} E =$$

= $(A + E'E)[A^+ + E'(EE'EE')^{-1}E]$

and with the projection (S - transformation)

$$\mathbf{A}^{+}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}_{m} - \mathbf{E}' < \mathbf{E} \mid \mathbf{E}' >^{-1} \mathbf{E} = (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{E}'\mathbf{E})^{-1}\mathbf{A}$$

and

$$\mathbf{A}^{+} = (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{E}'\mathbf{E})^{-1} - \mathbf{E}'(\mathbf{E}\mathbf{E}'\mathbf{E}\mathbf{E}')^{-1}\mathbf{E}$$

pseudoinverse of A

$$\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}^{\scriptscriptstyle{+}}\mathbf{A}) = \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{\scriptscriptstyle{+}}) = \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}) \perp \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}) = \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{E}')$$
.

In case of a symmetric, reflexive g-inverse \mathbf{A}_{rs}^- there holds the orthogonality or complementary

$$\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}_{rs}^{-}\mathbf{A}) \perp \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}_{rs}^{-})$$

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}_{rs}^{-})$$
 complementary to $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}_{rs}^{-})$,

which is guaranteed by a matrix **K**, rk $\mathbf{K} = m - r$, $O(\mathbf{K}) = (m - r) \times m$ such that

At the same time, we take advantage of the *bordering* of the matrix **A** by **K** and **K**', by a *non-singular matrix* of the order $(2m-r)\times(2m-r)$.

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{K}' \\ \mathbf{K} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{rs}^{-} & \mathbf{K}_{R}^{-} \\ (\mathbf{K}_{R}^{-})' & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}.$$

 $\mathbf{K}_R^- := \mathbf{E}'(\mathbf{K}\mathbf{E}')^{-1}$ is the *right inverse* of \mathbf{A} . Obviously, we gain the *symmetric reflexive g-inverse* \mathbf{A}_{rs}^- whose columns are orthogonal to \mathbf{K}' :

$$R(\mathbf{A}_{rs}^{-}\mathbf{A}) \perp R(\mathbf{K}') = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}_{rs}^{-})$$

$$\mathbf{K}\mathbf{A}_{rs}^{-} = \mathbf{0} \quad \Rightarrow$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{I}_{m} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}_{rs}^{-} + \mathbf{K}'(\mathbf{E}\mathbf{K}')^{-1}\mathbf{E} =$$

$$= (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{K}'\mathbf{K})[\mathbf{A}_{rs}^{-} + \mathbf{E}'(\mathbf{E}\mathbf{K}'\mathbf{E}\mathbf{K}')^{-1}\mathbf{E}]$$
and projection (S - transformation)

$$\mathbf{A}_{\text{re}}^{-}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}_{\text{re}} - \mathbf{E}'(\mathbf{K}\mathbf{E}')^{-1}\mathbf{K} = (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{K}'\mathbf{K})^{-1}\mathbf{A}',$$

$$\mathbf{A}_{rs}^{-} = (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{K}'\mathbf{K})^{-1} - \mathbf{E}'(\mathbf{E}\mathbf{K}'\mathbf{E}\mathbf{K}')^{-1}\mathbf{E}.$$

symmetric reflexive g-inverse

For the special case of a *symmetric and positive semidefinite* $m \times m$ matrix **A** the matrix set **U** and **V** are reduced to one. Based on the various matrix decompositions

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{U}_1, & \mathbf{U}_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{\Lambda} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{U}_1' \\ \mathbf{U}_2' \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{U}_1 \mathbf{A} \mathbf{U}_1',$$

we find the different g - inverses listed as following.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{U}_1, & \mathbf{U}_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{\Lambda}^{-1} & \mathbf{L}_{12} \\ \mathbf{L}_{21} & \mathbf{L}_{21} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{L}_{12} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{U}_1' \\ \mathbf{U}_2' \end{bmatrix}.$$

Lemma (g-inverses of symmetric and positive semidefinite matrices):

(i)
$$\mathbf{A}^{-} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{U}_1, & \mathbf{U}_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{\Lambda}^{-1} & \mathbf{L}_{12} \\ \mathbf{L}_{21} & \mathbf{L}_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{U}_1' \\ \mathbf{U}_2' \end{bmatrix},$$

(ii) reflexive g-inverse

$$\mathbf{A}_{r}^{-} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{U}_{1}, & \mathbf{U}_{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{\Lambda}^{-1} & \mathbf{L}_{12} \\ \mathbf{L}_{21} & \mathbf{L}_{21} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{L}_{12} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{U}_{1}' \\ \mathbf{U}_{2}' \end{bmatrix}$$

(iii) reflexive and symmetric g-inverse

$$\mathbf{A}_{rs}^{-} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{U}_{1}, & \mathbf{U}_{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{\Lambda}^{-1} & \mathbf{L}_{12} \\ \mathbf{L}_{12} & \mathbf{L}_{12} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{L}_{12} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{U}_{1}' \\ \mathbf{U}_{2}' \end{bmatrix}$$

(iv) pseudoinverse

$$\mathbf{A}^{+} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{U}_1, & \mathbf{U}_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{\Lambda}^{-1} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{U}_1' \\ \mathbf{U}_2' \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{U}_1 \mathbf{\Lambda}^{-1} \mathbf{U}_1.$$

We look at a representation of the *Moore-Penrose inverse* in terms of U_2 , the basis of the *null space* $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}^{-}\mathbf{A})$. In these terms we find

$$\mathbf{E} := \mathbf{U}_1 \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{U}_2 \\ \mathbf{U}_2' & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}^+ & \mathbf{U}_2 \\ \mathbf{U}_2' & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix},$$

by means of the fundamental relation of A^+A

$$\mathbf{A}^{+}\mathbf{A} = \lim_{\delta \to 0} (\mathbf{A} + \delta \mathbf{I}_{m})^{-1} \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{+} = \mathbf{I}_{m} - \mathbf{U}_{2}\mathbf{U}_{2}' = \mathbf{U}_{1}\mathbf{U}_{1}',$$

we generate the fundamental relation of the pseudo inverse

$$A^{+} = (A + U_{2}U'_{2})^{-1} - U_{2}U'_{2}.$$

The main target of our discussion of various g-inverses is the easy handling of representations of solutions of arbitrary linear equations and their characterizations.

We depart from the solution of a consistent system of linear equations,

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{c}$$
, $O(\mathbf{A}) = n \times m$, $\mathbf{c} \in \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}) \implies \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-}\mathbf{c}$ for any g-inverse \mathbf{A}^{-} .

 $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{c}$ is the *general solution* of such a linear system of equations. If we want to generate a special g - inverse, we can represent the general solution by

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-}\mathbf{c} + (\mathbf{I}_{m} - \mathbf{A}^{-}\mathbf{A})\mathbf{z}$$
 for all $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^{m}$,

since the *subspaces* $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A})$ and $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{I}_m - \mathbf{A}^- \mathbf{A})$ are *identical*. We test the *consistency* of our system by means of the *identity*

$$AA^{-}c = c$$
.

c is mapped by the projection **AA**⁻ to itself.

Similarly we solve the matrix equation AXB = C by the consistency test: the existence of the solution is granted by the identity

$$AA^{-}CB^{-}B = C$$
 for any g-inverse A^{-} and B^{-} .

If this condition is fulfilled, we are able to generate the *general solution* by

$$X = A^{-}CB + Z - A^{-}AZBB^{-},$$

where **Z** is an arbitrary matrix of suitable order. We can use an arbitrary ginverse A^- and B^- , for instance the pseudoinverse A^+ and B^+ which would be for **Z** = **0** coincide with two-sided orthogonal projections.

How can we reduce the *matrix equation* AXB = C to a *vector equation*?

The vec-operator is the door opener.

$$AXB = C \Leftrightarrow (B' \otimes A) \operatorname{vec} X = \operatorname{vec} C$$
.

The general solution of our matrix equation reads

$$\operatorname{vec} \mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{B}' \otimes \mathbf{A})^{-} \operatorname{vec} \mathbf{C} + [\mathbf{I} - (\mathbf{B}' \otimes \mathbf{A})^{-} (\mathbf{B}' \otimes \mathbf{A})] \operatorname{vec} \mathbf{Z}.$$

Here we can use the identity

$$(\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B})^{-} = \mathbf{B}^{-} \otimes \mathbf{A}^{-},$$

generated by two g-inverses of the Kronecker-Zehfuss product.

At this end we solve the more general equation Ax = By of consistent type $\mathcal{R}(A) \subset \mathcal{R}(B)$ by

Lemma (consistent system of homogenous equations Ax = By):

Given the homogenous system of linear equations Ax = By for $y \in \mathbb{R}^{\ell}$ constraint by $By \in \mathcal{R}(A)$. Then the solution x = Ly can be given under the condition

$$\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}) \subset \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{B})$$
.

In this case the matrix L may be decomposed by

 $L = A^{-}B$ for a certain g-inverse A^{-} .

Appendix B: Matrix Analysis

A short version on *matrix analysis* is presented. Arbitrary *derivations of scalar-valued, vector-valued and matrix-valued vector – and matrix functions for functionally independent variables* are defined. Extensions for differenting *symmetric and antisymmetric matrices* are given. Special examples for *functionally dependent matrix variables* are reviewed.

B1 Derivatives of Scalar valued and Vector valued Vector Functions

Here we present the analysis of differentiating scalar-valued and vector-valued vector functions enriched by examples.

Definition: (derivative of scalar valued vector function):

Let a scalar valued function $f(\mathbf{x})$ of a vector \mathbf{x} of the order $O(\mathbf{x}) = 1 \times m$ (row vector) be given, then we call

$$\mathbf{D}f(\mathbf{x}) = [\mathbf{D}_1 f(\mathbf{x}), \dots, \mathbf{D}_m f(\mathbf{x})] := \frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{x}'}$$

first derivative of $f(\mathbf{x})$ with respect to \mathbf{x}' .

Vector differentiation is based on the following definition.

Definition: (derivative of a matrix valued matrix function):

Let a $n \times q$ matrix-valued function $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X})$ of a $m \times p$ matrix of functional independent variables \mathbf{X} be given. Then the $nq \times mp$ Jacobi matrix of first derivates of \mathbf{F} is defined by

$$\mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{F}} = \mathbf{DF}(\mathbf{X}) := \frac{\partial \text{vec} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X})}{\partial (\text{vec} \mathbf{X})'}.$$

The definition of first derivatives of matrix-functions can be motivated as following. The matrices $\mathbf{F} = [f_{ij}] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times q}$ and $\mathbf{X} = [x_{k\ell}] \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$ are based *on two-dimensional arrays*. *In contrast*, the array of first derivatives

$$\left[\frac{\partial f_{ij}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{k\ell}}\right] = \left[J_{ijk\ell}\right] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times q \times m \times p}$$

is *four-dimensional* and automatic outside the usual frame of *matrix algebra of two-dimensional arrays*. By means of the operations $\text{vec}\mathbf{F}$ and $\text{vec}\mathbf{X}$ we will *vectorize* the matrices \mathbf{F} and \mathbf{X} . Accordingly we will take advantage of $\text{vec}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X})$ of the vector $\text{vec}\mathbf{X}$ derived with respect to the matrix $\mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{F}}$, a *two-dimensional array*.

Examples

(i)
$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}' \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = a_{11} x_1^2 + (a_{12} + a_{21}) x_1 x_2 + a_{22} x_2^2$$

$$\mathbf{D} f(\mathbf{x}) = [\mathbf{D}_1 f(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{D}_2 f(\mathbf{x})] = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{x}'} =$$

$$= [2a_{11}x_1 + (a_{12} + a_{21})x_2 | (a_{12} + a_{21})x_1 + 2a_{22}x_2] = \mathbf{x}'(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}')$$
(ii) $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{F}} = \mathbf{D} f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{x}'} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{A}$$
(iii) $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{X}^2 = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11}^2 + x_{12}x_{21} & x_{11}x_{12} + x_{12}x_{22} \\ x_{21}x_{11} + x_{22}x_{21} & x_{21}x_{12} + x_{22}^2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\mathbf{vec} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X}) = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11}^2 + x_{12}x_{21} \\ x_{21}x_{11} + x_{22}x_{21} \\ x_{21}x_{12} + x_{22}^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(\mathbf{vec} \mathbf{X})' = [x_{11}, x_{21}, x_{12}, x_{22}]$$

$$\mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{F}} = \mathbf{D} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X}) = \frac{\partial \mathbf{vec} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X})}{\partial (\mathbf{vec} \mathbf{X})'} = \begin{bmatrix} 2x_{11} & x_{12} & x_{21} & 0 \\ x_{21} & x_{11} + x_{22} & 0 & x_{21} \\ x_{12} & 0 & x_{11} + x_{22} & x_{12} \\ 0 & x_{12} & x_{21} & 2x_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$O(\mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{F}}) = 4 \times 4 .$$

B2 Derivatives of Trace Forms

Up to now we have assumed that the vector \mathbf{x} or the matrix \mathbf{X} are functionally idempotent. For instance, the matrix \mathbf{X} cannot be a symmetric matrix $\mathbf{X} = [x_{ij}] = [x_{ji}] = \mathbf{X}'$ or an antisymmetric matrix $\mathbf{X} = [x_{ij}] = [-x_{ji}] = -\mathbf{X}'$. In case of a functional dependent variables, for instance $x_{ij} = x_{ji}$ or $x_{ij} = -x_{ji}$ we can take advantage of the *chain rule* in order to derive the differential procedure.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}', & \text{if } \mathbf{X} \text{ consists of functional independent elements;} \\ \mathbf{A}' + \mathbf{A} - \operatorname{Diag}[a_{11}, \dots, a_{nn}], & \text{if the } n \times n \text{ matrix } \mathbf{X} \text{ is } symmetric;} \\ \mathbf{A}' - \mathbf{A}, & \text{if the } n \times n \text{ matrix } \mathbf{X} \text{ is } antisymmetric.} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial (\text{vec}\mathbf{X})} \text{tr}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}) = \begin{bmatrix} [\text{vec}\mathbf{A}']', & \text{if } \mathbf{X} \text{ consists of functional independent elements;} \\ [\text{vec}(\mathbf{A}' + \mathbf{A} - \text{Diag}[a_{11}, \dots, a_{nn}])]', & \text{if the } n \times n \text{ matrix } \mathbf{X} \text{ is } \\ symmetric;} \\ [\text{vec}(\mathbf{A}' - \mathbf{A})]', & \text{if the } n \times n \text{ matrix } \mathbf{X} \text{ is } \\ antisymmetric.} \end{bmatrix}$$

for instance

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Case #1: "the matrix X consists of functional independent elements"

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{11}} & \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{12}} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{21}} & \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{22}} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}) = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{A}'.$$

Case # 2: "the $n \times n$ matrix **X** is symmetric: $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}'$ "

$$\begin{aligned} x_{12} &= x_{21} \Rightarrow \\ \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}) &= a_{11}x_{11} + (a_{12} + a_{21})x_{21} + a_{22}x_{22} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{11}} & \frac{dx_{21}}{dx_{12}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{21}} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{21}} & \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{22}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{11}} & \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{21}} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{21}} & \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{22}} \end{bmatrix} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}) &= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} + a_{21} \\ a_{12} + a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{A}' + \mathbf{A} - \operatorname{Diag}(a_{11}, \dots, a_{nn}). \end{aligned}$$

Case #3: "the $n \times n$ matrix **X** is antisymmetric: $\mathbf{X} = -\mathbf{X}'$ "

$$\begin{split} x_{11} &= x_{22} = 0, \quad x_{12} = -x_{21} \Rightarrow \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}) = (a_{12} - a_{21})x_{21} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{11}} & \frac{dx_{21}}{dx_{12}} & \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{21}} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{21}} & \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{22}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{11}} & -\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{21}} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{21}} & \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{22}} \end{bmatrix} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}) &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -a_{12} + a_{21} \\ a_{12} - a_{21} & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{A}' - \mathbf{A} \ . \end{split}$$

Let us *now* assume that the matrix X of variables x_{ij} is *always* consisting of functionally independent elements. We note some useful identities of *first derivatives*.

Scalar valued functions of vectors

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x}'}(\mathbf{a}'\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{a}' \tag{B1}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x}'}(\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{X}'(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}'). \tag{B2}$$

Scalar-valued function of a matrix: trace

$$\frac{\partial \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{AX})}{\partial \mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{A}'; \tag{B3}$$

especially:

$$\frac{\partial \, a'Xb}{\partial (\text{vec}X)'} = \frac{\partial \, \text{tr}(ba'X)}{\partial \, (\text{vec}X)'} = b' \otimes a';$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}}\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}) = (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}')\mathbf{X}; \tag{B4}$$

especially:

$$\frac{\partial \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})}{\partial (\operatorname{vec}\mathbf{X})'} = 2(\operatorname{vec}\mathbf{X})'.$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{X} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{X}' \mathbf{A}' + \mathbf{A}' \mathbf{X}', \tag{B5}$$

especially:

$$\frac{\partial \operatorname{tr} \mathbf{X}^2}{\partial (\operatorname{vec} \mathbf{X})'} = 2(\operatorname{vec} \mathbf{X}')'.$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}^{-1}) = -(\mathbf{X}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}^{-1}), \text{ if } \mathbf{X} \text{ is nonsingular,}$$
 (B6)

especially:

$$\frac{\partial \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{X}^{-1})}{\partial (\operatorname{vec}\mathbf{X})'} = -[\operatorname{vec}(\mathbf{X}^{-2})']';$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{a}' \mathbf{X}^{-1} \mathbf{b}}{\partial (\text{vec} \mathbf{X})'} = \frac{\partial \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{b} \mathbf{a}' \mathbf{X}^{-1})}{\partial (\text{vec} \mathbf{X})'} = -\mathbf{b}' (\mathbf{X}^{-1})' \otimes \mathbf{a}' \mathbf{X}^{-1}.$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} \operatorname{tr} \mathbf{X}^{\alpha} = \alpha(\mathbf{X}')^{\alpha-1}, \text{ if } \mathbf{X} \text{ is quadratic};$$

$$especially:$$

$$\frac{\partial \operatorname{tr} \mathbf{X}}{\partial (\operatorname{vec} \mathbf{X})'} = (\operatorname{vec} \mathbf{I})'.$$
(B7)

B3 Derivatives of Determinantal Forms

The scalarvalued forms of matrix determinantal form will be listed now.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} | \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{B}'| = \mathbf{A}'(\mathrm{adj}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{B}')'\mathbf{B} = | \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{B}' | \mathbf{A}'(\mathbf{B}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{A}')^{-1}\mathbf{B},$$
if $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{B}'$ is nonsingular; (B8)
$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{a}'\mathbf{x}\mathbf{b}}{\partial (\mathrm{vec}\mathbf{X})'} = \mathbf{b}' \otimes \mathbf{a}', \text{ where adj}(\mathbf{a}'\mathbf{X}\mathbf{b}) = 1.$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} | \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{C}| = \mathbf{C}(\mathrm{adj}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{C})\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A}'(\mathrm{adj}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{C})'\mathbf{C}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{B}'; \quad (B9)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} | \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{X}'| = (\mathrm{adj}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{X}')\mathbf{X}\mathbf{B} + (\mathrm{adj}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{B}'\mathbf{X}')\mathbf{X}\mathbf{B}';$$

$$\frac{\partial | \mathbf{X}\mathbf{S}\mathbf{X}'|}{\partial (\mathrm{vec}\mathbf{X})'} = 2(\mathrm{vec}\mathbf{X})'(\mathbf{S} \otimes \mathrm{adj}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{S}\mathbf{X}'), \text{ if } \mathbf{S} \text{ is } symmetric;$$

$$\frac{\partial | \mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}'|}{\partial (\mathrm{vec}\mathbf{X})'} = 2(\mathrm{vec}\mathbf{X})'(\mathbf{I} \otimes \mathrm{adj}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}').$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} | \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{B}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{C}| = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{C}(\mathrm{adj}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{B}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{C})\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}'\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}'(\mathrm{adj}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{B}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{C})'\mathbf{C}'; \quad (B10)$$

$$especially:$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} | \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{B}\mathbf{X}| = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{X}(\mathrm{adj}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{B}\mathbf{X}) + \mathbf{B}'\mathbf{X}(\mathrm{adj}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{B}'\mathbf{X});$$

$$\frac{\partial | \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{S}\mathbf{X}|}{\partial (\mathrm{vec}\mathbf{X})'} = 2(\mathrm{vec}\mathbf{X})'(\mathrm{adj}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{S}\mathbf{X} \otimes \mathbf{S}), \text{ if } \mathbf{S} \text{ is } symmetric;$$

$$\frac{\partial | \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}|}{\partial (\mathrm{vec}\mathbf{X})'} = 2(\mathrm{vec}\mathbf{X})'(\mathrm{adj}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X} \otimes \mathbf{I}).$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} | \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{C} | = \mathbf{B}' \mathbf{X}' \mathbf{A}' (\mathrm{adj} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{C})' \mathbf{C}' + \mathbf{A}' (\mathrm{adj} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{C})' \mathbf{C}' \mathbf{X}' \mathbf{B}'; \qquad (B11)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} | \mathbf{X} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{X} | = \mathbf{B}' \mathbf{X}' (\mathrm{adj} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{X})' + (\mathrm{adj} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{X})' \mathbf{X} \mathbf{B}';$$

$$especially:$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial (\mathbf{X}^2)} | \mathbf{X}^2 | = (\mathrm{vec} [\mathbf{X}' \mathrm{adj} (\mathbf{X}^2)' + \mathrm{adj} (\mathbf{X}^2)' \mathbf{X}'])' =$$

$$= |\mathbf{X}|^2 (\mathrm{vec} [\mathbf{X}' (\mathbf{X}')^{-2} + (\mathbf{X}')^{-2} \mathbf{X}'])' = 2 |\mathbf{X}|^2 [\mathrm{vec} (\mathbf{X}^{-1})']', \text{ if } \mathbf{X} \text{ is non-singular }.$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} | \mathbf{X}^{\alpha} | = \alpha |\mathbf{X}|^{\alpha} (\mathbf{X}^{-1})', \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{N} \text{ if } \mathbf{X} \text{ is non-singular },$$

$$\frac{\partial |\mathbf{X}|}{\partial \mathbf{X}} = |\mathbf{X}| (\mathbf{X}^{-1})' \text{ if } \mathbf{X} \text{ is non-singular };$$

$$\frac{\partial |\mathbf{X}|}{\partial (\mathrm{vec} \mathbf{X})'} = [\mathrm{vec} (\mathrm{adj} \mathbf{X}')]'.$$

B4 Derivatives of a Vector/Matrix Function of a Vector/Matrix

If we differentiate the vector or matrix valued function of a vector or matrix, we will find the results of type (B13) – (B20).

vector-valued function of a vector or a matrix

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x'}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{A} \tag{B13}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial (\text{vec} \mathbf{X})'} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{a} = \frac{\partial (\mathbf{a}' \otimes \mathbf{A}) \text{vec} \mathbf{X}}{\partial (\text{vec} \mathbf{X})'} = \mathbf{a}' \otimes \mathbf{A}$$
(B14)

matrix valued function of a matrix

$$\frac{\partial (\text{vec} \mathbf{X})}{\partial (\text{vec} \mathbf{X})'} = \mathbf{I}_{mp} \text{ for all } \mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$$
(B15)

$$\frac{\partial (\text{vec} \mathbf{X}')}{\partial (\text{vec} \mathbf{X})'} = \mathbf{K}_{m \cdot p} \text{ for all } \mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$$
(B16)

where $\mathbf{K}_{m \cdot n}$ is a suitable *commutation matrix*

$$\frac{\partial (\text{vec}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}')}{\partial (\text{vec}\mathbf{X})'} = (\mathbf{I}_{m^2} + \mathbf{K}_{m \cdot m})(\mathbf{X} \otimes \mathbf{I}_m) \text{ for all } \mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p},$$

where the matrix $I_{m^2} + K_{m \cdot m}$ is symmetric and idempotent,

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial (\text{vec}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})}{\partial (\text{vec}\mathbf{X})'} &= (\mathbf{I}_{p^2} + \mathbf{K}_{p \cdot p})(\mathbf{I}_p \otimes \mathbf{X}') \text{ for all } \mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p} \\ & \frac{\partial (\text{vec}\mathbf{X}^{-1})}{\partial (\text{vec}\mathbf{X})'} = -(\mathbf{X}^{-1})' \text{ if } \mathbf{X} \text{ is non-singular} \\ & \frac{\partial (\text{vec}\mathbf{X}^{\alpha})}{\partial (\text{vec}\mathbf{X})'} &= \sum_{j=1}^{\alpha} (\mathbf{X}')^{\alpha \cdot j} \otimes \mathbf{X}^{j-1} \text{ for all } \alpha \in \mathbb{N} \text{ , if } \mathbf{X} \text{ is a square matrix.} \end{split}$$

B5 Derivatives of the Kronecker – Zehfuss product

Act a matrix-valued function of *two matrices* X and Y as variables be given. In particular, we assume the function

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) = \mathbf{X} \otimes \mathbf{Y} \text{ for all } \mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}, \mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times q}$$

as the $Kronecker - Zehfuss\ product$ of variables X and Y well defined. Then the identities of the first differential and the first derivative follow:

$$d\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) = (d\mathbf{X}) \otimes \mathbf{Y} + \mathbf{X} \otimes d\mathbf{Y},$$

$$d\text{vec}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) = \text{vec}(d\mathbf{X} \otimes \mathbf{Y}) + \text{vec}(\mathbf{X} \otimes d\mathbf{Y}),$$

$$\text{vec}(d\mathbf{X} \otimes \mathbf{Y}) = (\mathbf{I}_{p} \otimes \mathbf{K}_{qm} \otimes \mathbf{I}_{n}) \cdot (\text{vec}d\mathbf{X} \otimes \text{vec}\mathbf{Y}) =$$

$$= (\mathbf{I}_{p} \otimes \mathbf{K}_{qm} \otimes \mathbf{I}_{n}) \cdot (\mathbf{I}_{mp} \otimes \text{vec}\mathbf{Y}) \cdot d(\text{vec}\mathbf{X}) =$$

$$= (\mathbf{I}_{p} \otimes \mathbf{K}_{qm} \otimes \mathbf{I}_{n}) \cdot (\mathbf{I}_{m} \otimes \text{vec}\mathbf{Y})] \cdot d(\text{vec}\mathbf{X}),$$

$$\text{vec}(\mathbf{X} \otimes d\mathbf{Y}) = (\mathbf{I}_{p} \otimes \mathbf{K}_{qm} \otimes \mathbf{I}_{n}) \cdot (\text{vec}\mathbf{X} \otimes \text{vec}\mathbf{Y}) =$$

$$= (\mathbf{I}_{p} \otimes \mathbf{K}_{qm} \otimes \mathbf{I}_{n}) \cdot (\text{vec}\mathbf{X} \otimes \mathbf{I}_{qq}) \cdot d(\text{vec}\mathbf{Y}) =$$

$$= ([(\mathbf{I}_{p} \otimes \mathbf{K}_{qm}) \cdot (\text{vec}\mathbf{X} \otimes \mathbf{I}_{q})] \otimes \mathbf{I}_{n}) \cdot d(\text{vec}\mathbf{Y}),$$

$$\frac{\partial \text{vec}(\mathbf{X} \otimes \mathbf{Y})}{\partial (\text{vec}\mathbf{X})'} = \mathbf{I}_{p} \otimes [(\mathbf{K}_{qm} \otimes \mathbf{I} - n) \cdot (\mathbf{I}_{m} \otimes \text{vec}\mathbf{Y})],$$

$$\frac{\partial \text{vec}(\mathbf{X} \otimes \mathbf{Y})}{\partial (\text{vec}\mathbf{Y})'} = (\mathbf{I}_{p} \otimes \mathbf{K}_{qm}) \cdot (\text{vec}\mathbf{X} \otimes \mathbf{I}_{q})] \otimes \mathbf{I}_{n}.$$

B6 Matrix-valued Derivatives of Symmetric or Antisymmetric Matrix Functions

Many matrix functions f(X) or F(X) force us to pay attention to dependencies within the variables. As examples we treat here first derivatives of symmetric or antisymmetric matrix functions of X.

Definition: (derivative of a matrix-valued symmetric matrix function):

Let $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X})$ be an $n \times q$ matrix-valued function of an $m \times m$ symmetric matrix $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}'$. The $nq \times m(m+1)/2$ Jacobi matrix of first derivates of \mathbf{F} is defined by

$$\mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{F}}^{s} = \mathbf{DF}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}') := \frac{\partial \text{vec}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X})}{\partial (\text{vech}\mathbf{X})'}.$$

Definition: (derivative of matrix valued antisymmetric matrix function):

Let $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X})$ be an $n \times q$ matrix-valued function of an $m \times m$ anti-symmetric matrix $\mathbf{X} = -\mathbf{X}'$. The $nq \times m(m-1)/2$ Jacobi matrix of first derivates of \mathbf{F} is defined by

$$\mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{F}}^{a} = \mathbf{DF}(\mathbf{X} = -\mathbf{X}') := \frac{\partial \text{vec}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X})}{\partial (\text{veck}\mathbf{X})'}.$$

Examples

(i) Given is a scalar-valued matrixfunction $tr(\mathbf{AX})$ of a symmetric variable matrix $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}'$, for instance

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} \end{bmatrix}, \text{ vech} \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} \\ x_{22} \\ x_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}) = a_{11}x_{11} + (a_{12} + a_{21})x_{21} + a_{22}x_{22}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial (\operatorname{vech}\mathbf{X})'} = [\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{11}}, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{21}}, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{22}}]$$

$$\frac{\partial \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X})}{\partial (\operatorname{vech}\mathbf{X})'} = [a_{11}, a_{12} + a_{21}, a_{22}]$$

$$\frac{\partial \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X})}{\partial (\operatorname{vech}\mathbf{X})'} = [\operatorname{vech}(\mathbf{A}' + \mathbf{A} - \operatorname{Diag}[a_{11}, \dots, a_{nn}])]' = [\operatorname{vech}\frac{\partial \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X})}{\partial \mathbf{X}}]'.$$

(ii) Given is scalar-valued matrix function tr(AX) of an antisymmetric variable matrix X = -X', for instance

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -x_{21} \\ x_{21} & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ veck} \mathbf{X} = x_{21},$$
$$\text{tr}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}) = (a_{12} - a_{21})x_{21}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial (\operatorname{veck} \mathbf{X})'} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{21}}, \quad \frac{\partial \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A} \mathbf{X})}{\partial (\operatorname{veck} \mathbf{X})'} = a_{12} - a_{21},$$

$$\frac{\partial \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X})}{\partial (\operatorname{veck}\mathbf{X})'} = [\operatorname{veck}(\mathbf{A}' - \mathbf{A})]' = [\operatorname{veck}\frac{\partial \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X})}{\partial \mathbf{X}}]'.$$

B7 Higher order derivatives

Up to now we computed only first derivatives of scalar-valued, vector-valued and matrix-valued functions. Second derivatives is our target now which will be needed for the classification of optimization problems of type minimum or maximum.

Definition: (second derivatives of a scalar valued vector function):

Let $f(\mathbf{x})$ a scalar-valued function of the $n \times 1$ vector \mathbf{x} . Then the $m \times m$ matrix

$$\mathbf{D}\mathbf{D}'f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{D}(\mathbf{D}f(\mathbf{x}))' := \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \mathbf{x} \partial \mathbf{x}'}$$

denotes the second derivatives of $f(\mathbf{x})$ to \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{x}' . Correspondingly

$$\mathbf{D}^{2} f(\mathbf{x}) := \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x}'} \otimes \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}) = (\text{vec} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{D}') f(\mathbf{x})$$

denotes the $1 \times m^2$ vector of second derivatives.

and

Definition: (second derivative of a vector valued vector function):

Let $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$ be an $n \times 1$ vector-valued function of the $m \times 1$ vector \mathbf{x} . Then the $n \times m^2$ matrix of second derivatives

$$\mathbf{H}_f = \mathbf{D}^2 \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{D}(\mathbf{D}\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})) =: \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x}'} \otimes \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})}{\partial \mathbf{x}' \partial \mathbf{x}}$$

is the *Hesse matrix of the function* $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$.

and

Definition: (second derivatives of a matrix valued matrix function):

Let $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X})$ be an $n \times q$ matrix valued function of an $m \times p$ matrix of functional independent variables \mathbf{X} . The $nq \times m^2 p^2$ Hesse matrix of second derivatives of \mathbf{F} is defined by

$$\mathbf{H}_{\mathbf{F}} = \mathbf{D}^{2}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{D}(\mathbf{D}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X})) := \frac{\partial}{\partial (\operatorname{vec}\mathbf{X})'} \otimes \frac{\partial}{\partial (\operatorname{vec}\mathbf{X})'} \operatorname{vec}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X}) = \frac{\partial^{2}\operatorname{vec}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X})}{\partial (\operatorname{vec}\mathbf{X})' \otimes \partial (\operatorname{vec}\mathbf{X})'}$$

The definition of *second derivatives of matrix functions* can be motivated as follows. The matrices $\mathbf{F} = [f_{ij}] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times q}$ and $\mathbf{X} = [x_{k\ell}] \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$ are the elements of a *two-dimensional* array. In contrast, the *array of second derivatives*

$$\left[\frac{\partial^2 f_{ij}}{\partial x_{k\ell} \partial x_{pq}}\right] = \left[k_{ijk\ell pq}\right] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times q \times m \times p \times m \times p}$$

is six-dimensional and beyond the common matrix algebra of two-dimensional arrays. The following operations map a six-dimensional array of second derivatives to a two-dimensional array.

- (i) vecF(X) is the *vectorized form* of the matrix valued function
- (ii) vecX is the vectorized form of the variable matrix
- (iii) the *Kronecker Zehfuss product* $\frac{\partial}{\partial (\text{vec}\mathbf{X})'} \otimes \frac{\partial}{\partial (\text{vec}\mathbf{X})'}$ vectorizes the matrix of *second derivatives*
- (iv) the formal product of the $1 \times m^2 p^2$ row vector of second derivatives with the $nq \times 1$ column vector vec**F(X)** leads to an $nq \times m^2 p^2$ Hesse matrix of second derivatives.

Again we assume the vector of variables \mathbf{x} and the matrix of variables \mathbf{X} consists of functional independent elements. If this is not the case we according to the chain rule must apply an alternative differential calculus similary to the first deri-vative, case studies of symmetric and antisymmetric variable matrices.

Examples:
(i)
$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}' \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = a_{11} x_1^2 + (a_{12} + a_{21}) x_1 x_2 + a_{22} x_2^2$$

$$\mathbf{D} f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{x}'} = [2a_{11} x_1 + (a_{12} + a_{21}) x_2 \mid (a_{12} + a_{21}) x_1 + 2a_{22} x_2]$$

$$\mathbf{D}^2 f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{D} (\mathbf{D} f(\mathbf{x}))' = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \mathbf{x} \partial \mathbf{x}'} = \begin{bmatrix} 2a_{11} & a_{12} + a_{21} \\ a_{12} + a_{21} & 2a_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}'$$
(ii) $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} x_1 + a_{12} x_2 \\ a_{21} x_1 + a_{22} x_2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\mathbf{D} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial \mathbf{x}'} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{A}$$

$$\mathbf{D} \mathbf{D}' \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}}{\partial \mathbf{x} \partial \mathbf{x}'} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, O(\mathbf{D} \mathbf{D}' \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})) = 2 \times 2$$

$$\mathbf{D}^2 \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = [0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0], O(\mathbf{D}^2 \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})) = 1 \times 4$$

At the end, we want to define the derivative of order l of a matrix-valued matrix function whose structure is derived from the postulate of a suitable array.

Definition (l-th derivative of a matrix-valued matrix function):

Let F(X) be an $n \times q$ matrix valued function of an $m \times p$ matrix of functional independent variables X. The $nq \times m^l p^l$ matrix of l-th derivative is defined by

$$\mathbf{D}^{l}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X}) := \frac{\partial}{\partial (\text{vec}\mathbf{X})^{l}} \otimes \dots \otimes \frac{\partial}{\partial (\text{vec}\mathbf{X})^{l}} \text{vec}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X}) =$$

$$= \frac{\partial^{l}}{\partial (\text{vec}\mathbf{X})^{l} \otimes \dots \otimes (\text{vec}\mathbf{X})^{l}} \text{vec}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X}) \text{ for all } l \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Appendix C: Lagrange Multipliers

?How can we find extrema with side conditions?

We generate solutions of such external problems first on the basis of *algebraic manipulations*, namely by the *lemma of implicit functions*, and secondly by a geometric tool box, by means of interpreting a *risk function and side conditions* as *level surfaces* (*specific normal images, Lagrange multipliers*).

C1 A first way to solve the problem

A first way to find extreme with side conditions will be based on a risk function

$$f(x_1, ..., x_m) = \text{extr} \tag{C1}$$

with unknowns $(x_1,...,x_m) \in \mathbb{R}^m$, which are restricted by *side conditions* of type

$$[F_1(x_1,...,x_m), F_2(x_1,...,x_m),..., F_r(x_1,...,x_m)]' = 0$$
 (C2)

$$\operatorname{rk}(\frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_m}) = r < m. \tag{C3}$$

The *side conditions* $F_i(x_j)$ (i = 1,...,r, j = 1,...,m) are reduced by the *lemma of the implicit function*: solve for

$$\begin{split} x_{m-r+1} &= G_1(x_1,...,x_{m-r}) \\ x_{m-r+2} &= G_2(x_1,...,x_{m-r}) \\ ... \\ x_{m-1} &= G_{r-1}(x_1,...,x_{m-r}) \\ x_m &= G_r(x_1,...,x_{m-r}) \end{split} \tag{C4}$$

and replace the result within the risk function

$$f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_{m-r}, G_1(x_1, ..., x_{m-r}), ..., G_r(x_1, ..., x_{m-1})) = \text{extr.}$$
 (C5)

The "free" unknowns $(x_1, x_2, ..., x_{m-r-1}, x_{m-r}) \in \mathbb{R}^{m-r}$ can be found by taking the result of the *implicit function theorem* as follows.

Lemma C1 ("implicit function theorem"): Let Ω be an open set of $\mathbb{R}^m = \mathbb{R}^{m-r} \times \mathbb{R}^r$ and $\mathbf{F} \colon \Omega \to \mathbb{R}^r$ with vectors $\mathbf{x}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{m-r}$ and $\mathbf{x}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{m-r}$. The maps

transform a continuously differential function with $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = 0$. In case of a *Jacobi determinant j not* zero or a *Jacobi matrix* \mathbf{J} *of rank* \mathbf{r} , or

$$j := \det \mathbf{J} \neq 0 \text{ or } \operatorname{rk} \mathbf{J} = r, \ \mathbf{J} := \frac{\partial (F_1, ..., F_r)}{\partial (x_{m-r+1}, ..., x_m)},$$
 (C7)

there exists a surrounding $\mathbf{U} := \mathbf{U}(\mathbf{x}_1) \subset \mathbb{R}^{m-r}$ and $\mathbf{V} := \mathbf{U}_{\delta}(\mathbf{x}_2) \subset \mathbb{R}^r$ such that the equation $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = 0$ for any $\mathbf{x}_1 \in \mathbf{U}$ in \mathbf{V}' has only one solution

$$\mathbf{x}_{2} = \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}_{1}) \ or \begin{bmatrix} x_{m-r+1} \\ x_{m-r+2} \\ \dots \\ x_{m-1} \\ x_{m} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{G}_{1}(x_{1}, \dots, x_{m-r}) \\ \mathbf{G}_{2}(x_{1}, \dots, x_{m-r}) \\ \dots \\ \mathbf{G}_{r-1}(x_{1}, \dots, x_{m-r}) \\ \mathbf{G}_{r}(x_{1}, \dots, x_{m-r}) \end{bmatrix}.$$
(C8)

The function $G: U \rightarrow V$ is continuously differentiable

A sample reference is any literature treating analysis, e.g. C. Blotter .

Lemma CI is based on the Implicit Function Theorem whose result we insert within the *risk function* (C1) in order to gain (C5) in the *free* variables $(x_1, ..., x_{m-r}) \in \mathbb{R}^{m-r}$. Our example C1 explains the solution technique for finding extreme with side conditions within our *first approach*. Lemma CI illustrates that there exists a local inverse of the side conditions towards r unknowns $(x_{m-r+1}, x_{m-r+2}, ..., x_m) \in \mathbb{R}^r$ which in the case of *nonlinear side conditions* towards r unknowns $(x_{m-r+1}, x_{m-r+2}, ..., x_{m-1}, x_m) \in \mathbb{R}^r$ which in case of *nonlinear side conditions* is *not necessary unique*.

:Example C1:

Search for the global extremum of the function

$$f(x_1, x_2, x_3) = f(x, y, z) = x - y - z$$

subject to the side conditions

$$\begin{bmatrix} F_1(x_1, x_2, x_3) = Z(x, y, z) := x^2 + 2y^2 - 1 = 0 & \text{(elliptic cylinder)} \\ F_2(x_1, x_2, x_3) = E(x, y, z) := 3x - 4z = 0 & \text{(plane)} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{J} = (\frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j}) = \begin{bmatrix} 2x & 4y & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & -4 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ rk } \mathbf{J}(x \neq 0 \text{ oder } y \neq 0) = r = 2$$

$$F_1(x_1, x_2, x_3) = Z(x, y, z) = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1y = +\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}\sqrt{1 - x^2} \\ 2y = -\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}\sqrt{1 - x^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$F_2(x_1, x_2, x_3) = E(x, y, z) = 0 \Rightarrow z = \frac{3}{4}x$$

$${}_1f(x_1, x_2, x_3) = {}_1f(x, y, z) = f(x, +\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}\sqrt{1 - x^2}, \frac{3}{4}) = \frac{x}{4} - \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}\sqrt{1 - x^2}$$

$${}_2f(x_1, x_2, x_3) = {}_2f(x, y, z) = f(x, -\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}\sqrt{1 - x^2}, \frac{3}{4})$$

$$= \frac{x}{4} + \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}\sqrt{1 - x^2}$$

$${}_1f(x)' = 0 \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}\frac{x}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}} = 0 \Leftrightarrow_1 x = -\frac{1}{3}$$

$${}_2f(x)' = 0 \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}\frac{x}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}} = 0 \Leftrightarrow_2 x = +\frac{1}{3}$$

$${}_1f(-\frac{1}{3}) = -\frac{3}{4} \text{ (minimum)}, \ {}_2f(\frac{1}{3}) = +\frac{3}{4} \text{ (maximum)}.$$

At the position x = -1/3, y = 2/3, z = -1/4 we find a *global minimum*, but at the position x = +1/3, y = -2/3, z = -1/4 a *global maximum*.

An alternative path to find extreme with side conditions is based on the geometric interpretation of risk function and side conditions. First, we form the conditions

$$F_1(x_1, \dots, x_m) = 0$$

$$F_2(x_1, \dots, x_m) = 0$$

$$\dots$$

$$F_r(x_1, \dots, x_m) = 0$$

$$rk(\frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j}) = r$$

by continuously differentiable *real functions on an open set* $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^m$. Then we define r equations $F_i(x_1,...,x_m)=0$ for all i=1,...,r with the rank conditions $\operatorname{rk}(\partial F_i/\partial x_j)=r$, geometrically an (m-1) dimensional surface $\mathbb{M}_F\subset\Omega$ which can be seen as a *level surface*. See as an example our *Example C1* which describe as *side conditions*

$$F_1(x_1, x_2, x_3) = Z(x, y, z) = x^2 + 2y^2 - 1 = 0$$

 $F_2(x_1, x_2, x_3) = E(x, y, z) = 3x - 4z = 0$

representing an *elliptical cylinder* and *a plane*. In this case is the (m-r) dimensional surface \mathbb{M}_F the *intersection manifold of the elliptic cylinder and of the plane* as the m-r=1 dimensional manifold in \mathbb{R}^3 , namely as "spatial curve". Secondly, the risk function $f(x_1,...,x_m)=$ extr generates an (m-1) dimensional surface \mathbb{M}_f which is a special level surface. The level parameter of the (m-1) dimensional surface \mathbb{M}_f should be external. In our Example C1 one risk function can be interpreted as the *plane*

$$f(x_1, x_2, x_3) = f(x, y, z) = x - y - z.$$

We summarize our result within Lemma C2.

Lemma C2 (extrema with side conditions)

The side conditions $F_i(x_1,...,x_m)=0$ for all $i\in\{1,...,r\}$ are built on continuously differentiable functions on an *open* set $\Omega\subset\mathbb{R}^m$ which are subject to the side conditions $\operatorname{rk}(\partial F_i/\partial x_j)=r$ generating an (m-r) dimensional *level surface* \mathbb{M}_f . The function $f(x_1,...,x_m)$ produces certain constants, namely an (m-1) dimensional *level surface* \mathbb{M}_f . $f(x_1,...,x_m)$ is geometrically as a *point* $p\in\mathbb{M}_F$ conditionally extremal (stationary) if and only if the (m-1) dimensional *level surface* \mathbb{M}_f is in contact to the (m-r) dimensional *level surface* in p. That is there exist numbers $\lambda_1,...,\lambda_r$, the *Lagrange multipliers*, by

$$\operatorname{grad} f(p) = \sum_{i=1}^r \lambda_i \operatorname{grad} F_i(p).$$

The unnormalized surface normal vector $\operatorname{grad} f(p)$ of the (m-1) dimensional level surface \mathbb{M}_f in the normal space \mathbb{NM}_F of the level surface \mathbb{M}_F is in the unnormalized surface normal vector $\operatorname{grad} F_i(p)$ in the point p. To this equation belongs the variational problem

$$\mathcal{L}(x_1, \dots, x_m; \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_r) =$$

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_m) - \sum_{i=1}^r \lambda_i F_i(x_1, \dots, x_m) = \text{extr.}$$

:proof:

First, the side conditions $F_i(x_j) = 0$, $\operatorname{rk}(\partial F_i / \partial x_j) = r$ for all i = 1, ..., r; j = 1, ..., m generate an (m-r) dimensional *level surface* \mathbb{M}_F whose *normal vectors*

$$\mathbf{n}_{i}(p) := \operatorname{grad} F_{i}(p) \in \mathbb{N}_{p} \mathbb{M}_{F} \quad (i = 1, ..., r)$$

span the r dimensional normal space \mathbb{NM} of the level surface $\mathbb{M}_F \subset \Omega$. The r dimensional normal space $\mathbb{N}_p \mathbb{M}_F$ of the (m-r) dimensional level surface \mathbb{M}_F

is orthogonal complement $\mathbb{T}_p \mathbb{M}_p$ to the tangent space $\mathbb{T}_p \mathbb{M}_F \subset \mathbb{R}^{m-1}$ of \mathbb{M}_F in the point p spanned by the m-r dimensional tangent vectors

$$\mathbf{t}_{k}(p) \coloneqq \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{k}} \bigg|_{\mathbf{x}=p} \in \mathbb{T}_{p} \mathbb{M}_{F} \qquad (k=1,...,m-r).$$

:Example C2:

Let the m-r=2 dimensional *level surface* \mathbb{M}_r of the *sphere* $\mathbb{S}_r^2 \in \mathbb{R}^3$ of radius r ("level parameter r^2 ") be given by the side condition

$$F(x_1, x_2, x_3) = x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 - r^2 = 0.$$

:Normal space:

$$\mathbf{n}(p) = \mathbf{grad} F(p) = \mathbf{e}_1 \frac{\partial F}{\partial x_1} + \mathbf{e}_2 \frac{\partial F}{\partial x_2} + \mathbf{e}_3 \frac{\partial F}{\partial x_3} = [\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_3] \begin{bmatrix} 2x_1 \\ 2x_2 \\ 2x_3 \end{bmatrix}_p.$$

The *orthogonal vectors* $[\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_3]$ span \mathbb{R}^3 . The normal space will be generated locally by *a normal vector* $\mathbf{n}(p) = \mathbf{grad} F(p)$.

:Tangent space:

The *implicit representation* is the characteristic element of the *level surface*. In order to gain an *explicit representation*, we take advantage of the *Implicit Function Theorem* according to the following equations.

$$F(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}) = 0$$

$$\operatorname{rk}(\frac{\partial F}{\partial x_{j}}) = r = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow x_{3} = G(x_{1}, x_{2})$$

$$x_{1}^{2} + x_{2}^{2} + x_{3}^{2} - r = 0 \quad and \quad (\frac{\partial F}{\partial x_{j}}) = [2x_{1} + 2x_{2} + 2x_{3}], \operatorname{rk}(\frac{\partial F}{\partial x_{j}}) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow x_{j} = G(x_{1}, x_{2}) = +\sqrt{r^{2} - (x_{1}^{2} + x_{2}^{2})}.$$

The *negation root* leads into another domain of the sphere: here holds the domain $0 < x_1 < r$, $0 < x_2 < r$, $r^2 - (x_1^2 + x_2^2) > 0$.

The spherical position vector $\mathbf{x}(p)$ allows the representation

$$\mathbf{x}(p) = \mathbf{e}_1 x_1 + \mathbf{e}_2 x_2 + \mathbf{e}_3 \sqrt{r^2 - (x_1^2 + x_2^2)},$$

which is the basis to produce

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{t}_{1}(p) = \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial x_{2}}(p) = \mathbf{e}_{1} - \mathbf{e}_{3} \frac{x_{1}}{\sqrt{r^{2} - (x_{1}^{2} + x_{2}^{2})}} = [\mathbf{e}_{1}, \mathbf{e}_{2}, \mathbf{e}_{3}] \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0\\-\frac{x_{1}}{\sqrt{r^{2} - (x_{1}^{2} + x_{2}^{2})}} \end{bmatrix} \\ \mathbf{t}_{1}(p) = \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial x_{2}}(p) = \mathbf{e}_{2} - \mathbf{e}_{3} \frac{x_{2}}{\sqrt{r^{2} - (x_{1}^{2} + x_{2}^{2})}} = [\mathbf{e}_{1}, \mathbf{e}_{2}, \mathbf{e}_{3}] \begin{bmatrix} 0\\1\\-\frac{x_{2}}{\sqrt{r^{2} - (x_{1}^{2} + x_{2}^{2})}} \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$$

which span the *tangent space* $\mathbb{T}_{p}\mathbb{M}_{F} = \mathbb{R}^{2}$ at the point p.

:The general case:

In the general case of an (m-r) dimensional *level surface* \mathbb{M}_F , *implicitly produced* by r side conditions of type

$$F_{1}(x_{1},...,x_{m}) = 0$$

$$F_{2}(x_{1},...,x_{m}) = 0$$
...
$$F_{r-j}(x_{1},...,x_{m}) = 0$$

$$F_{r}(x_{1},...,x_{m}) = 0$$

$$rk(\frac{\partial F_{i}}{\partial x_{j}}) = r,$$

the explicit surface representation, produced by the Implicit Function Theorem, reads

$$\mathbf{x}(p) = \mathbf{e}_1 x_1 + \mathbf{e}_2 x_2 + \dots + \mathbf{e}_{m-r} x_{m-r} + \mathbf{e}_{m-r+1} G_1(x_1, \dots, x_{m-r}) + \dots + \mathbf{e}_m G_r(x_1, \dots, x_{m-r}).$$

The orthogonal vectors $[\mathbf{e}_1,...,\mathbf{e}_m]$ span \mathbb{R}^m .

Secondly, the at least once conditional differentiable risk function $f(x_1,...,x_m)$ for special constants describes an (m-1) dimensional level surface \mathbb{M}_F whose normal vector

$$\mathbf{n}_f := \operatorname{grad} f(p) \subset \mathbb{N}_p \mathbb{M}_f$$

spans an one-dimensional normal space $\mathbb{N}_p \mathbb{M}_f$ of the level surface $\mathbb{M}_f \subset \Omega$ in the point p. The level parameter of the level surface is chosen in the extremal case that it touches the level surface \mathbb{M}_f the other level surface \mathbb{M}_f in the point p. That means that the normal vector $\mathbf{n}_f(p)$ in the point p is an element of the normal space $\mathbb{N}_p \mathbb{M}_f$. Or we may say the normal vector $\mathbf{grad} \ f(p)$ is a linear combination of the normal vectors $\mathbf{grad} \ F_i(p)$ in the point p,

grad
$$f(p) = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \lambda_i \operatorname{grad} F_i(p)$$
 for all $i = 1, ..., r$,

where the Lagrange multipliers λ_i are the coordinates of the vector **grad** f(p) in the basis **grad** $F_i(p)$.

Let us assume that there will be given the point $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^3$. Unknown is the point in the m-r=2 dimensional *level surface* \mathbb{M}_F of *type sphere* $\mathbb{S}_r^2 = \mathbb{R}^3$ which is from the point $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ at *extremal distance*, *either* minimal *or* maximal.

The distance function $\|\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{x}\|^2$ for $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ and $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{S}_r^2$ describes the *risk function*

$$f(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (X_1 - x_1)^2 + (X_2 - x_2)^2 + (X_3 - x_3)^2 = \mathbb{R}^2 = \underset{x_1, x_2, x_3}{\text{extr}},$$

which represents an m-1=2 dimensional level surface \mathbb{M}_f of type sphere $\mathbb{S}_r^2 \in \mathbb{R}^3$ at the origin (X_1, X_2, X_3) and level parameter R^2 . The conditional extremal problem is solved if the sphere \mathbb{S}_R^2 touches the other sphere \mathbb{S}_r^2 . This result is expressed in the language of the normal vector.

$$\mathbf{n}(p) := \mathbf{grad} f(p) = \mathbf{e}_1 \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} + \mathbf{e}_2 \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} + \mathbf{e}_3 \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_3} =$$

$$= [\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_3] \begin{bmatrix} -2(X_1 - X_1) \\ -2(X_2 - X_2) \\ -2(X_3 - X_3) \end{bmatrix}_p \in \mathbb{N}_p \mathbb{M}_f$$

$$\mathbf{n}(p) := \mathbf{grad} F(p) = [\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_3] \begin{bmatrix} 2x_1 \\ 2x_2 \\ 2x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

is an element of the normal space $\mathbb{N}_p \mathbb{M}_f$. The normal equation

$$\operatorname{grad} f(p) = \lambda \operatorname{grad} F(p)$$

leads directly to three equations

$$x_i - X_0 = \lambda x_i \Leftrightarrow x_i (1 - \lambda) = X_i \quad (i = 1, 2, 3)$$
,

which are completed by the fourth equation

$$F(x_1, x_2, x_3) = x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 - r^2 = 0.$$

Lateron we solve the 4 equations.

Third, we interpret the differential equations

$$\operatorname{grad} f(p) = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \lambda_i \operatorname{grad} F_i(p)$$

by the variational problem, by direct differentiation namely

$$\mathcal{L}(x_{1},...,x_{m};\lambda_{1},...,\lambda_{r}) =$$

$$= f(x_{1},...,x_{m}) - \sum_{i=1}^{r} \lambda_{i} F_{i}(x_{1},...,x_{m}) = \underset{x_{1},...,x_{m};\lambda_{1},...,\lambda_{r}}{\text{extr}}$$

$$\left[\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial x_{i}} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{j}} - \sum_{i=1}^{r} \lambda_{i} \frac{\partial F_{i}}{\partial x_{j}} = 0 \quad (j = 1,...,m)$$

$$-\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial x_{k}} = F_{i}(x_{j}) = 0 \quad (i = 1,...,r).$$

:Example C4:

We continue our third example by solving the alternative system of equations.

$$\mathcal{L}(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}; \lambda) = (X_{1} - x_{1})^{2} + (X_{2} - x_{2})^{2} + (X_{3} - x_{3})$$

$$-\lambda(x_{1}^{2} + x_{2}^{2} + x_{3}^{2} - r^{2}) = \underset{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}; \lambda}{\text{extr}}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial x_{j}} = -2(X_{j} - x_{j}) - 2\lambda x_{j} = 0$$

$$-\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \lambda} = x_{1}^{2} + x_{2}^{2} + x_{3}^{2} - r^{2} = 0$$

$$x_{1} = \frac{X_{1}}{1 - \lambda}; x_{2} = \frac{X_{2}}{1 - \lambda}$$

$$x_{1}^{2} + x_{2}^{2} + x_{3}^{2} - r^{2} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (1 - \lambda)^{2} = \frac{X_{1}^{2} + X_{2}^{2} + X_{3}^{2}}{r^{2}} \Leftrightarrow 1 - \lambda_{1,2} = \pm \frac{1}{r} \sqrt{X_{1}^{2} + X_{2}^{2} + X_{3}^{2}} \Leftrightarrow$$

$$(x_{1})_{1,2} = \pm \frac{rX_{1}}{\sqrt{X_{1}^{2} + X_{2}^{2} + X_{3}^{2}}},$$

$$(x_{2})_{1,2} = \pm \frac{rX_{2}}{\sqrt{X_{1}^{2} + X_{2}^{2} + X_{3}^{2}}},$$

$$(x_{3})_{1,2} = \pm \frac{rX_{3}}{\sqrt{X_{1}^{2} + X_{2}^{2} + X_{3}^{2}}}.$$

The matrix of second *derivatives* **H** decides upon whether at the point $(x_1, x_2, x_3, \lambda)_{1,2}$ we enjoy a *maximum or minimum*.

$$\mathbf{H} = (\frac{\partial^2 \mathcal{L}}{\partial x_j x_k}) = (\delta_{jk} (1 - \lambda)) = (1 - \lambda) \mathbf{I}_3$$

Our example illustrates how we can find the global optimum under side conditions by means of the technique of Lagrange multipliers.

:Example C5:

Search for the *global extremum* of the function $f(x_1, x_2, x_3)$ subject to *two side conditions* $F_1(x_1, x_2, x_3)$ and $F_2(x_1, x_2, x_3)$, namely

$$f(x_1, x_2, x_3) = f(x, y, z) = x - y - z \text{ (plane)}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} F_1(x_1, x_2, x_3) = Z(x, y, z) := x^2 + 2y^2 - 1 = 0 & \text{(elliptic cylinder)} \\ F_2(x_1, x_2, x_3) = E(x, y, z) := 3x - 4z = 0 & \text{(plane)} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{J} = (\frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j}) = \begin{bmatrix} 2x & 4y & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & -4 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ rk } \mathbf{J}(x \neq 0 \text{ oder } y \neq 0) = r = 2.$$

:Variational Problem:

$$\mathcal{L}(x_1, x_2, x_3; \lambda_1, \lambda_2) = \mathcal{L}(x, y, z; \lambda, \mu)$$

$$= x - y - z - \lambda(x^2 + 2y^2 - 1) - \mu(3x - 4z) = \underset{x_1, x_2, x_3; \lambda, \mu}{\text{extr}}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial x} = 1 - 2\lambda x - 3\mu = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial y} = -1 - 4\lambda y = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = -\frac{1}{4y}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial z} = -1 - 4\mu = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = -\frac{1}{4}$$

$$-\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \lambda} = x^2 + 2y^2 - 1 = 0$$

$$-\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mu} = 3x - 4z = 0.$$

We multiply the first equation $\partial \mathcal{L}/\partial x$ by 4y, the second equation $\partial \mathcal{L}/\partial y$ by (-2x) and the third equation $\partial \mathcal{L}/\partial z$ by 3 and add!

$$4y - 8\lambda xy - 12\mu y + 2x + 8\lambda xy - 3y + 12\mu y = y + 2x = 0$$
.

Replace in the cylinder equation (first side condition) $Z(x, y, z) = x^2 + 2y^2 - 1 = 0$, that is $x_{1,2} = \pm 1/3$. From the second condition of the plane (second side condition) E(x, y, z) = 3x - 4z = 0 we gain $z_{1,2} = \pm 1/4$. As a result we find $x_{1,2}, z_{1,2}$ and finally $y_{1,2} = \pm 2/3$.

The matrix of second derivatives **H** decides upon whether at the point $\lambda_{1,2} = \mp 3/8$ we find a maximum or minimum.

$$\mathbf{H} = (\frac{\partial^{2} \mathcal{L}}{\partial x_{j} x_{k}}) = \begin{bmatrix} -2\lambda & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -4\lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{H}(\lambda_{1} = -\frac{3}{8}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{3}{4} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{3}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \ge 0$$

$$(minimum)$$

$$(x, y, z; \lambda, \mu)_{1} = (\frac{1}{3}, -\frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{4}; -\frac{3}{8}, \frac{1}{4})$$
is the restricted minmal solution point.
$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{H}(\lambda_{2} = \frac{3}{8}) = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{3}{4} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{3}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \le 0$$

$$(maximum)$$

$$(x, y, z; \lambda, \mu)_{2} = (-\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, -\frac{1}{4}; \frac{3}{8}, \frac{1}{4})$$
is the restricted maximal solution point.

The geometric interpretation of the *Hesse matrix* follows from *E. Grafarend and P. Lohle* (1991).

The matrix of second derivatives **H** decides upon whether at the point $(x_1, x_2, x_3, \lambda)_{1,2}$ we enjoy a *maximum or minimum*.