

Lecture Notes: Matrix Algebra

Part B: Introduction to Matrices

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Outline

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Matrices as Rectangular Arrays

An $m \times n$ **matrix** $\mathbf{A} = (a_{ij})_{m \times n}$ is a (rectangular) array, such as

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} = ((a_{ij})_{i=1}^m)_{j=1}^n = ((a_{ij})_{j=1}^n)_{i=1}^m$$

Note that in a_{ij} , we write the **row** number i **before** the **column** number j .

An $m \times 1$ matrix is a **column vector** with m rows and 1 column.

A $1 \times n$ matrix is a **row vector** with 1 row and n columns.

The $m \times n$ **matrix** \mathbf{A} consists of:

n **columns** in the form of m -vectors

$$\mathbf{a}_j = (a_{ij})_{i=1}^m \in \mathbb{R}^m \text{ for } j = 1, 2, \dots, n;$$

m **rows** in the form of n -vectors

$$\mathbf{a}_i^\top = (a_{ij})_{j=1}^n \in \mathbb{R}^n \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, m.$$

The Transpose of a Matrix

The **transpose** \mathbf{A}^\top of the $m \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{A} = (a_{ij})_{m \times n}$ is defined as the $n \times m$ matrix

$$\mathbf{A}^\top = (a_{ij}^\top)_{n \times m} = (a_{ji})_{n \times m} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} & \dots & a_{n1} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{n2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ a_{1m} & a_{2m} & \dots & a_{nm} \end{pmatrix}$$

Thus the transposed matrix \mathbf{A}^\top results from transforming each column m -vector $\mathbf{a}_j = (a_{ij})_{i=1}^m$ ($j = 1, 2, \dots, n$) of \mathbf{A} into the corresponding row m -vector $\mathbf{a}_j^\top = (a_{ij}^\top)_{i=1}^m$ of \mathbf{A}^\top .

Equivalently, for each $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$, the i th row n -vector $\mathbf{a}_i^\top = (a_{ij})_{j=1}^n$ of \mathbf{A} is transformed into the i th column n -vector $\mathbf{a}_i = (a_{ji})_{j=1}^n$ of \mathbf{A}^\top .

Either way, one has $a_{ij}^\top = a_{ji}$ for all relevant pairs i, j .

Rows Before Columns

VERY Important Rule: Rows **before** columns!

This order really matters.

Reversing it gives a transposed matrix.

Exercise

Verify that the double transpose of any $m \times n$ matrix \mathbf{A} satisfies $(\mathbf{A}^\top)^\top = \mathbf{A}$

— i.e., transposing a matrix twice recovers the original matrix.

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Multiplying a Matrix by a Scalar

A **scalar**, usually denoted by a Greek letter, is simply a member $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}$ of the algebraic field \mathbb{F} over which the vector space is defined.

So when $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$, a scalar is a real number $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$.

The **product** of any $m \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{A} = (a_{ij})_{m \times n}$ and any scalar $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ is the new $m \times n$ matrix denoted by $\alpha\mathbf{A} = (\alpha a_{ij})_{m \times n}$, each of whose elements αa_{ij} results from multiplying the corresponding element a_{ij} of \mathbf{A} by α .

Matrix Multiplication

The **matrix product** of two matrices **A** and **B** is defined (whenever possible) as the matrix $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{AB} = (c_{ij})_{m \times n}$ whose element c_{ij} in row i and column j is the inner product $c_{ij} = \mathbf{a}_i^\top \mathbf{b}_j$ of:

- ▶ the i th **row** vector \mathbf{a}_i^\top of the first matrix **A**;
- ▶ the j th **column** vector \mathbf{b}_j of the second matrix **B**.

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1j} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{i1} & \dots & a_{ij} & \dots & a_{in} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \dots & a_{mj} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & \dots & b_{1j} & \dots & b_{1p} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ b_{j1} & \dots & b_{jj} & \dots & b_{jp} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ b_{m1} & \dots & b_{mj} & \dots & b_{mp} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & \dots & c_{1j} & \dots & c_{1p} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ c_{i1} & \dots & c_{ij} & \dots & c_{ip} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ c_{m1} & \dots & c_{mj} & \dots & c_{mp} \end{pmatrix}$$

$\mathbf{a}_i^\top \quad \cdot \quad \mathbf{b}_j \quad = \quad c_{ij}$

Again: rows **before** columns!

Compatibility for Matrix Multiplication, I

Note that the resulting matrix product **C** must have:

- ▶ as many rows as the first matrix **A**;
- ▶ as many columns as the second matrix **B**.

Yet again: rows **before** columns!

Compatibility for Matrix Multiplication, II

Question: when is this definition
of the matrix product $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{AB}$ possible?

Answer: if and only if \mathbf{A} has as many columns as \mathbf{B} has rows.

This condition ensures that every inner product $\mathbf{a}_i^\top \mathbf{b}_j$ is defined, which is true iff (if and only if) every row of \mathbf{A} has exactly the same number of elements as every column of \mathbf{B} .

In this case, the two matrices \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} are **compatible for multiplication**.

Specifically, if \mathbf{A} is $m \times \ell$ for some m , then \mathbf{B} must be $\ell \times n$ for some n .

Then the product $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{AB}$ is $m \times n$, with elements $c_{ij} = \mathbf{a}_i^\top \mathbf{b}_j = \sum_{k=1}^{\ell} a_{ik} b_{kj}$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ and $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

Laws of Matrix Multiplication

Exercise

Verify that, whenever the relevant matrix products are defined, the following *laws of matrix multiplication* hold:

associative law for matrices: $\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{BC}) = (\mathbf{AB})\mathbf{C}$;

distributive: $\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) = \mathbf{AB} + \mathbf{AC}$ and $(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B})\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{AC} + \mathbf{BC}$;

transpose: $(\mathbf{AB})^\top = \mathbf{B}^\top \mathbf{A}^\top$.

associative law for scalars: $\alpha(\mathbf{AB}) = (\alpha\mathbf{A})\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}(\alpha\mathbf{B})$ (all $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$).

Exercise

Let \mathbf{X} be any $m \times n$ matrix, and \mathbf{z} any column n -vector.

1. Show that the matrix product $\mathbf{z}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{z}$ is well-defined, and that its value is a scalar.
2. By putting $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{z}$ in the previous exercise regarding the sign of the quadratic form $\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{w}$, what can you conclude about the value of the scalar $\mathbf{z}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{z}$?

Exercise for Econometricians I

Exercise

An econometrician has access to data in the form of the real-valued time series:

- ▶ y_t ($t = 1, 2, \dots, T$) of one *endogenous* variable;
- ▶ x_{ti} ($t = 1, 2, \dots, T$ and $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$) of k different *exogenous* variables
— sometimes called *explanatory* variables or *regressors*.

The data is to be fitted to the *linear regression model*

$$y_t = \sum_{i=1}^k b_i x_{ti} + e_t$$

whose scalar constants b_i ($i = 1, 2, \dots, k$) are unknown *regression coefficients*, and each scalar e_t is the *error term* or *residual*.

Exercise for Econometricians II

1. Discuss how the regression model with $y_t = \sum_{i=1}^k b_i x_{ti} + e_t$ can be written in the form $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{e}$ for suitable column vectors \mathbf{y} , \mathbf{b} , \mathbf{e} .
2. What are the dimensions of these vectors, and of the exogenous data matrix \mathbf{X} ?
3. Why do you think econometricians use this matrix equation, rather than the alternative $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{b}\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{e}$?
4. How can the equation $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{e}$ accommodate the constant term α in the alternative equation $y_t = \alpha + \sum_{i=1}^k b_i x_{ti} + e_t$?

Matrix Multiplication Does Not Commute I

The two matrices **A** and **B** **commute** just in case **AB = BA**.

Note that typical pairs of matrices **DO NOT** commute, meaning that **AB ≠ BA** — i.e., the order of multiplication matters.

Indeed, suppose that **A** is $\ell \times m$ and **B** is $m \times n$, as is needed for **AB** to be defined as an $\ell \times n$ matrix.

Then the reverse product **BA** is **undefined** except in the special case when $n = \ell$.

Hence, for both **AB** and **BA** to be defined, where **B** is $m \times n$, the matrix **A** **must** be $n \times m$.

But then **AB** is $n \times n$, whereas **BA** is $m \times m$.

Evidently **AB ≠ BA** unless $m = n$.

Then all four matrices **A**, **B**, **AB** and **BA** are $m \times m = n \times n$.

To summarize, we must be in the special case where **A** and **B** are two **square** matrices of the **same** dimension.

Matrix Multiplication Does Not Commute II

Even if both **A** and **B** are $n \times n$ matrices, implying that both **AB** and **BA** are also $n \times n$, one can still have **AB** \neq **BA**.

Example

Here is a 2×2 example:

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

Exercise

For matrix multiplication, explain why there are two different versions of the distributive law — namely

$$\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) = \mathbf{AB} + \mathbf{AC} \text{ and } (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B})\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{AC} + \mathbf{BC}$$

More Warnings Regarding Matrix Multiplication

Exercise

Let \mathbf{A} , \mathbf{B} , \mathbf{C} denote three general matrices.

Give examples showing that:

1. The matrix \mathbf{AB} might be defined, even if \mathbf{BA} is not.
2. One can have $\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{0}$ even though $\mathbf{A} \neq \mathbf{0}$ and $\mathbf{B} \neq \mathbf{0}$.
3. If $\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{AC}$ and $\mathbf{A} \neq \mathbf{0}$, it does not follow that $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{C}$.

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Square Matrices

A **square matrix** has an equal number of rows and columns, this number being called its **dimension**.

The (principal, or main) **diagonal** of a square matrix $\mathbf{A} = (a_{ij})_{n \times n}$ of dimension n is the list $(a_{ii})_{i=1}^n = (a_{11}, a_{22}, \dots, a_{nn})$ of its n **diagonal elements**.

The other elements a_{ij} with $i \neq j$ are the **off-diagonal elements**.

A square matrix is often expressed in the form

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix}$$

The extra dots indicate omitted elements along the diagonal.

Symmetric Matrices

Definition

A square matrix \mathbf{A} is **symmetric** just in case it is equal to its transpose — i.e., if $\mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{A}$.

Example

The product of two symmetric matrices need not be symmetric.

Using again our example of non-commuting 2×2 matrices, here are two examples

where the product of two symmetric matrices is asymmetric:

$$\blacktriangleright \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix};$$

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

Two Exercises with Symmetric Matrices

Exercise

Let \mathbf{x} be a column n -vector.

1. Find the dimensions of $\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{x}$ and of $\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^\top$.
2. Show that one is a non-negative number which is positive unless $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$, and that the other is an $n \times n$ symmetric matrix.

Exercise

Let \mathbf{A} be an $m \times n$ -matrix.

1. Find the dimensions of $\mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{A}$ and of $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^\top$.
2. Show that both $\mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^\top$ are symmetric matrices.
3. Show that $m = n$ is a necessary condition for $\mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^\top$.
4. Show that $m = n$ with \mathbf{A} symmetric is a sufficient condition for $\mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^\top$.

Diagonal Matrices

A square matrix $\mathbf{A} = (a_{ij})^{n \times n}$ is **diagonal** just in case all of its off diagonal elements are 0 — i.e., $i \neq j \implies a_{ij} = 0$.

A diagonal matrix of dimension n can be written in the form

$$\mathbf{D} = \begin{pmatrix} d_1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d_3 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & d_n \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{diag} \mathbf{d}$$

where the n -vector $\mathbf{d} = (d_1, d_2, d_3, \dots, d_n) = (d_i)_{i=1}^n$ consists of the diagonal elements of \mathbf{D} .

Note that $\mathbf{diag} \mathbf{d} = (a_{ij})_{n \times n}$ where each $a_{ij} = \delta_{ij} d_i = \delta_{ij} d_j$, using Kronecker delta notation.

Obviously, any diagonal matrix is symmetric.

Multiplying by Diagonal Matrices

Example

Let \mathbf{D} be a diagonal matrix of dimension n .

Suppose that \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} are $m \times n$ and $n \times m$ matrices, respectively.

Then $\mathbf{E} := \mathbf{AD}$ and $\mathbf{F} := \mathbf{DB}$ are well defined matrices of dimensions $m \times n$ and $n \times m$, respectively.

By the law of matrix multiplication, their elements are

$$e_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} \delta_{kj} d_{jj} = a_{ij} d_{jj} \quad \text{and} \quad f_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n \delta_{ik} d_{ii} b_{kj} = d_{ii} b_{ij}$$

Thus, **post**-multiplying \mathbf{A} by \mathbf{D} is the **column** operation of simultaneously multiplying every column \mathbf{a}_j of \mathbf{A} by its matching diagonal element d_{jj} .

Similarly, **pre**-multiplying \mathbf{B} by \mathbf{D} is the **row** operation of simultaneously multiplying every row \mathbf{b}_i^T of \mathbf{B} by its matching diagonal element d_{ii} .

Two Exercises with Diagonal Matrices

Exercise

Let \mathbf{D} be a diagonal matrix of dimension n .

Give conditions that are both necessary and sufficient for each of the following:

1. $\mathbf{AD} = \mathbf{A}$ for every $m \times n$ matrix \mathbf{A} ;
2. $\mathbf{DB} = \mathbf{B}$ for every $n \times m$ matrix \mathbf{B} .

Exercise

Let \mathbf{D} be a diagonal matrix of dimension n , and \mathbf{C} any $n \times n$ matrix.

An earlier example shows that one can have $\mathbf{CD} \neq \mathbf{DC}$ even if $n = 2$.

1. Show that \mathbf{C} being diagonal is a sufficient condition for $\mathbf{CD} = \mathbf{DC}$.
2. Is this condition necessary?

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The Identity Matrix

The **identity matrix** of dimension n is the diagonal matrix

$$\mathbf{I}_n = \mathbf{diag}(1, 1, \dots, 1)$$

whose n diagonal elements are all equal to 1.

Equivalently, it is the $n \times n$ -matrix $\mathbf{A} = (a_{ij})^{n \times n}$

whose elements are all given by $a_{ij} = \delta_{ij}$

for the Kronecker delta function $\mathbb{N}_n \times \mathbb{N}_n \ni (i, j) \mapsto \delta_{ij} \in \{0, 1\}$.

Exercise

Given any $m \times n$ matrix \mathbf{A} , verify that $\mathbf{I}_m \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{I}_n = \mathbf{A}$.

Uniqueness of the Identity Matrix

Exercise

Suppose that the two $n \times n$ matrices \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} respectively satisfy:

1. $\mathbf{AX} = \mathbf{A}$ for every $m \times n$ matrix \mathbf{A} ;
2. $\mathbf{YB} = \mathbf{B}$ for every $n \times m$ matrix \mathbf{B} .

Prove that $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{I}_n$.

(Hint: Consider each of the mn different cases where \mathbf{A} (resp. \mathbf{B}) has exactly one non-zero element that is equal to 1.)

The results of the last two exercises together serve to prove:

Theorem

The identity matrix \mathbf{I}_n is the unique $n \times n$ -matrix such that:

- ▶ $\mathbf{I}_n \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B}$ for each $n \times m$ matrix \mathbf{B} ;
- ▶ $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{I}_n = \mathbf{A}$ for each $m \times n$ matrix \mathbf{A} .

How the Identity Matrix Earns its Name

Remark

*The identity matrix \mathbf{I}_n earns its name because it represents a **multiplicative identity** on the “algebra” of all $n \times n$ matrices.*

That is, \mathbf{I}_n is the unique $n \times n$ -matrix with the property that $\mathbf{I}_n \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{I}_n = \mathbf{A}$ for every $n \times n$ -matrix \mathbf{A} .

Typical notation suppresses the subscript n in \mathbf{I}_n that indicates the dimension of the identity matrix.

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Left and Right Inverse Matrices

Definition

Let \mathbf{A} denote any $n \times n$ matrix.

1. The $n \times n$ matrix \mathbf{X} is a **left inverse** of \mathbf{A} just in case $\mathbf{XA} = \mathbf{I}_n$.
2. The $n \times n$ matrix \mathbf{Y} is a **right inverse** of \mathbf{A} just in case $\mathbf{AY} = \mathbf{I}_n$.
3. The $n \times n$ matrix \mathbf{Z} is an **inverse** of \mathbf{A} just in case it is both a left and a right inverse — i.e., $\mathbf{ZA} = \mathbf{AZ} = \mathbf{I}_n$.

The Unique Inverse Matrix

Theorem

Suppose that the $n \times n$ matrix \mathbf{A} has both a left and a right inverse. Then both left and right inverses are unique, and both are equal to a unique *inverse matrix* denoted by \mathbf{A}^{-1} .

Proof.

If $\mathbf{XA} = \mathbf{AY} = \mathbf{I}$, then $\mathbf{XAY} = \mathbf{XI} = \mathbf{X}$ and $\mathbf{XAY} = \mathbf{IY} = \mathbf{Y}$, implying that $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{XAY} = \mathbf{Y}$.

Now, if $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}$ is any alternative left inverse, then $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$ and so $\tilde{\mathbf{X}} = \tilde{\mathbf{X}}\mathbf{AY} = \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}$.

Similarly, if $\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}$ is any alternative right inverse, then $\mathbf{A}\tilde{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{I}$ and so $\tilde{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{XA}\tilde{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{Y}$.

It follows that $\tilde{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{Y} = \tilde{\mathbf{Y}}$, so we can define \mathbf{A}^{-1} as the unique common value of all these four matrices. □

Big question: when does the inverse of a square matrix exist?

Answer discussed later: if and only if its **determinant** is non-zero.

Rule for Inverting Products

Theorem

Suppose that \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} are two invertible $n \times n$ matrices.

Then the inverse of the matrix product \mathbf{AB} exists, and is the reverse product $\mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1}$ of the inverses.

Proof.

Using the associative law for matrix multiplication repeatedly gives:

$$(\mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1})(\mathbf{AB}) = \mathbf{B}^{-1}(\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A})\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B}^{-1}(\mathbf{I})\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B}^{-1}(\mathbf{IB}) = \mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{I}$$

and

$$(\mathbf{AB})(\mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1}) = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{BB}^{-1})\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{I})\mathbf{A}^{-1} = (\mathbf{AI})\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{AA}^{-1} = \mathbf{I}.$$

These equations confirm that $\mathbf{X} := \mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1}$ is the unique matrix satisfying the double equality $(\mathbf{AB})\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{AB}) = \mathbf{I}$. □

Rule for Inverting Chain Products

Exercise

Prove that, if \mathbf{A} , \mathbf{B} and \mathbf{C} are three invertible $n \times n$ matrices, then $(\mathbf{ABC})^{-1} = \mathbf{C}^{-1}\mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1}$.

Then use mathematical induction

to extend the rule for inverting any product \mathbf{BC} in order to find the inverse of the product $\mathbf{A}_1\mathbf{A}_2 \cdots \mathbf{A}_k$ of any finite chain of invertible $n \times n$ matrices.

Rule for Inverting Transposes

Theorem

Suppose that \mathbf{A} is an invertible $n \times n$ matrix.

Then the inverse $(\mathbf{A}^\top)^{-1}$ of its transpose is $(\mathbf{A}^{-1})^\top$, the transpose of its inverse.

Proof.

By the rule for transposing products, one has

$$\text{both } \mathbf{A}^\top (\mathbf{A}^{-1})^\top = (\mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{A})^\top = \mathbf{I}^\top = \mathbf{I}$$

$$\text{and } (\mathbf{A}^{-1})^\top \mathbf{A}^\top = (\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^{-1})^\top = \mathbf{I}^\top = \mathbf{I}$$

This proves that $(\mathbf{A}^{-1})^\top$ is both a left and a right inverse of \mathbf{A}^\top . □

Orthogonal and Orthonormal Sets of Vectors

Definition

A set of k vectors $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is said to be:

- ▶ (pairwise) orthogonal just in case $\mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j = 0$ whenever $j \neq i$;
- ▶ orthonormal just in case, in addition, one has $\mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_i = \|\mathbf{x}_i\|^2 = 1$ and so $\|\mathbf{x}_i\| = 1$ for each $i \in \mathbb{N}_k$ — i.e., all k elements of the set are vectors of unit length.

Lemma

The set of k vectors $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is orthonormal if and only if $\mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j = \delta_{ij}$ for all pairs $i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$.

Proof.

The result is immediate from the definitions of the norm in \mathbb{R}^n , as well as of an orthonormal set of vectors and of the Kronecker delta function. □

Orthogonal Matrices

Definition

Any $n \times n$ matrix is **orthogonal** just in case its n columns form an orthonormal set.

Theorem

Given any $n \times n$ matrix \mathbf{P} , the following are equivalent:

1. \mathbf{P} is orthogonal;
2. $\mathbf{P}\mathbf{P}^\top = \mathbf{P}^\top\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{I}$;
3. $\mathbf{P}^{-1} = \mathbf{P}^\top$;
4. \mathbf{P}^\top is orthogonal.

The proof follows from the definitions, and is left as an exercise.

(The answer will come later in the section on eigenvalues and eigenvectors.)

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Partitioned Matrices: Definition

A **partitioned matrix** is a rectangular array of different matrices.

Example

Consider the $(m + \ell) \times (n + k)$ matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{m \times n} & \mathbf{B}_{m \times k} \\ \mathbf{C}_{\ell \times n} & \mathbf{D}_{\ell \times k} \end{pmatrix}$$

where, as indicated, the four submatrices **A**, **B**, **C**, **D** are of dimension $m \times n$, $m \times k$, $\ell \times n$ and $\ell \times k$ respectively.

Note: Here matrix **D** may not be diagonal, or even square.

For any scalar $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$,

the scalar multiple of a partitioned matrix is

$$\alpha \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \mathbf{A} & \alpha \mathbf{B} \\ \alpha \mathbf{C} & \alpha \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix}$$

Partitioned Matrices: Addition

Suppose the two partitioned matrices

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{E} & \mathbf{F} \\ \mathbf{G} & \mathbf{H} \end{pmatrix}$$

have the property that the following four pairs of corresponding matrices have equal dimensions:

(i) \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{E} ; (ii) \mathbf{B} and \mathbf{F} ; (iii) \mathbf{C} and \mathbf{G} ; (iv) \mathbf{D} and \mathbf{H} .

Then the sum of the two matrices is

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{E} & \mathbf{F} \\ \mathbf{G} & \mathbf{H} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{E} & \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{F} \\ \mathbf{C} + \mathbf{G} & \mathbf{D} + \mathbf{H} \end{pmatrix}$$

Partitioned Matrices: Multiplication

Suppose that the two partitioned matrices

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{E} & \mathbf{F} \\ \mathbf{G} & \mathbf{H} \end{pmatrix}$$

along with all the relevant pairs of their sub-matrices, are **compatible for multiplication**.

Then their product is defined as

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{E} & \mathbf{F} \\ \mathbf{G} & \mathbf{H} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{AE} + \mathbf{BG} & \mathbf{AF} + \mathbf{BH} \\ \mathbf{CE} + \mathbf{DG} & \mathbf{CF} + \mathbf{DH} \end{pmatrix}$$

This extends the usual multiplication rule for matrices: multiply the **rows** of sub-matrices in the first partitioned matrix by the **columns** of sub-matrices in the second partitioned matrix.

Transposes and Some Special Matrices

The rule for transposing a partitioned matrix is

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix}^{\top} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}^{\top} & \mathbf{C}^{\top} \\ \mathbf{B}^{\top} & \mathbf{D}^{\top} \end{pmatrix}$$

So the original matrix is symmetric

iff $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^{\top}$, $\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{D}^{\top}$, and $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{C}^{\top} \iff \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{B}^{\top}$.

It is diagonal iff \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{D} are both diagonal,
while also $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{0}$ and $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{0}$.

The identity matrix is diagonal with $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$, $\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{I}$,
possibly identity matrices of different dimensions.

Partitioned Matrices: Inverses, I

For an $(m + n) \times (m + n)$ partitioned matrix to have an inverse, the equation

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{E} & \mathbf{F} \\ \mathbf{G} & \mathbf{H} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{AE} + \mathbf{BG} & \mathbf{AF} + \mathbf{BH} \\ \mathbf{CE} + \mathbf{DG} & \mathbf{CF} + \mathbf{DH} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I}_m & \mathbf{0}_{m \times n} \\ \mathbf{0}_{n \times m} & \mathbf{I}_n \end{pmatrix}$$

should have a solution for the matrices $\mathbf{E}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{G}, \mathbf{H}$, given $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D}$.

Assuming that the $m \times m$ matrix \mathbf{A} has an inverse, we can:

1. construct new first m equations
by premultiplying the old ones by \mathbf{A}^{-1} ;
2. construct new second n equations by:
 - ▶ premultiplying the new first m equations by the $n \times m$ matrix \mathbf{C} ;
 - ▶ then subtracting this product from the old second n equations.

The result is

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I}_m & \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{0}_{n \times m} & \mathbf{D} - \mathbf{CA}^{-1}\mathbf{B} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{E} & \mathbf{F} \\ \mathbf{G} & \mathbf{H} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}^{-1} & \mathbf{0}_{m \times n} \\ -\mathbf{CA}^{-1} & \mathbf{I}_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Partitioned Matrices: Inverses, II

For the next step, assume the $n \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{X} := \mathbf{D} - \mathbf{CA}^{-1}\mathbf{B}$ also has an inverse $\mathbf{X}^{-1} = (\mathbf{D} - \mathbf{CA}^{-1}\mathbf{B})^{-1}$.

Given
$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I}_m & \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{0}_{n \times m} & \mathbf{D} - \mathbf{CA}^{-1}\mathbf{B} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{E} & \mathbf{F} \\ \mathbf{G} & \mathbf{H} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}^{-1} & \mathbf{0}_{m \times n} \\ -\mathbf{CA}^{-1} & \mathbf{I}_n \end{pmatrix},$$
we first premultiply the last n equations by \mathbf{X}^{-1} to get

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I}_m & \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{0}_{n \times m} & \mathbf{I}_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{E} & \mathbf{F} \\ \mathbf{G} & \mathbf{H} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}^{-1} & \mathbf{0}_{m \times n} \\ -\mathbf{X}^{-1}\mathbf{CA}^{-1} & \mathbf{X}^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

Next, we subtract $\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B}$ times the last n equations from the first m equations to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{E} & \mathbf{F} \\ \mathbf{G} & \mathbf{H} \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I}_m & \mathbf{0}_{m \times n} \\ \mathbf{0}_{n \times m} & \mathbf{I}_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{E} & \mathbf{F} \\ \mathbf{G} & \mathbf{H} \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}^{-1} + \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{X}^{-1}\mathbf{CA}^{-1} & -\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{X}^{-1} \\ -\mathbf{X}^{-1}\mathbf{CA}^{-1} & \mathbf{X}^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Inverting Partitioned Matrices: Two Exercises

Exercise

1. Assume that \mathbf{A}^{-1} and $\mathbf{X}^{-1} = (\mathbf{D} - \mathbf{CA}^{-1}\mathbf{B})^{-1}$ exist.

$$\text{Given } \mathbf{Z} := \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}^{-1} + \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{X}^{-1}\mathbf{C}\mathbf{A}^{-1} & -\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{X}^{-1} \\ -\mathbf{X}^{-1}\mathbf{C}\mathbf{A}^{-1} & \mathbf{X}^{-1} \end{pmatrix},$$

use direct multiplication twice in order to verify that

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{Z} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I}_m & \mathbf{0}_{m \times n} \\ \mathbf{0}_{n \times m} & \mathbf{I}_n \end{pmatrix}$$

2. Let \mathbf{A} be any invertible $m \times m$ matrix.

Show that the bordered $(m+1) \times (m+1)$ matrix $\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{b} \\ \mathbf{c}^\top & d \end{pmatrix}$

is invertible provided that $d \neq \mathbf{c}^\top \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{b}$,
and find its inverse in this case.

Partitioned Matrices: Extension

Exercise

Suppose that the two partitioned matrices

$$\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{A}_{ij})^{k \times \ell} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{B} = (\mathbf{B}_{ij})^{k \times \ell}$$

are both $k \times \ell$ arrays of respective $m_i \times n_j$ matrices $\mathbf{A}_{ij}, \mathbf{B}_{ij}$, for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ and $j = 1, 2, \dots, \ell$.

1. Under what conditions can the product \mathbf{AB} be defined as a $k \times \ell$ array of matrices?
2. Under what conditions can the product \mathbf{BA} be defined as a $k \times \ell$ array of matrices?
3. When either \mathbf{AB} or \mathbf{BA} can be so defined, give a formula for its product, using summation notation.
4. Express \mathbf{A}^\top as a partitioned matrix.
5. Under what conditions is the matrix \mathbf{A} symmetric?

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Block Diagonal Matrices: Definition

Definition

A **block diagonal matrix** is a partitioned square matrix which is a diagonal $k \times k$ square array of “blocks” in the form of $n_i \times n_i$ square matrices $\mathbf{A}_{n_i \times n_i}^{(i)}$, for $i \in \mathbb{N}_k$.

The array can be written as

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{n_1 \times n_1}^{(1)} & \mathbf{0}_{n_1 \times n_2} & \cdots & \mathbf{0}_{n_1 \times n_k} \\ \mathbf{0}_{n_2 \times n_1} & \mathbf{A}_{n_2 \times n_2}^{(2)} & \cdots & \mathbf{0}_{n_2 \times n_k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{0}_{n_k \times n_1} & \mathbf{0}_{n_k \times n_2} & \cdots & \mathbf{A}_{n_k \times n_k}^{(k)} \end{pmatrix}$$

or, more succinctly, as $\text{diag}(\mathbf{A}_{n_1 \times n_1}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{A}_{n_k \times n_k}^{(k)})$.

Products of Block Diagonal Matrices

Exercise

Suppose that the two block diagonal matrices

$$\text{diag}(\mathbf{A}_{m_1 \times m_1}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{A}_{m_k \times m_k}^{(k)}) \quad \text{and} \quad \text{diag}(\mathbf{B}_{n_1 \times n_1}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{B}_{n_\ell \times n_\ell}^{(\ell)})$$

have *compatible dimensions* in the sense that $k = \ell$
and $m_i = n_i$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}_k = \mathbb{N}_\ell$.

Verify that then the two matrix products

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{diag}(\mathbf{A}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{A}^{(k)}) \text{diag}(\mathbf{B}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{B}^{(k)}) \\ \text{and} & \text{diag}(\mathbf{B}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{B}^{(k)}) \text{diag}(\mathbf{A}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{A}^{(k)}) \end{aligned}$$

both exist, and that they equal

$$\text{diag}(\mathbf{A}^{(1)}\mathbf{B}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{A}^{(k)}\mathbf{B}^{(k)}) \quad \text{and} \quad \text{diag}(\mathbf{B}^{(1)}\mathbf{A}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{B}^{(k)}\mathbf{A}^{(k)})$$

respectively.

The Inverse of a Block Diagonal Matrix

Exercise

Suppose the block diagonal matrix $\mathbf{diag}(\mathbf{A}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{A}^{(k)})$ has the property that each block $\mathbf{A}_{n_i \times n_i}^{(i)}$ ($i \in \mathbb{N}_k$) is invertible.

Show that then the block diagonal matrix is invertible, with inverse

$$\left[\mathbf{diag}(\mathbf{A}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{A}^{(k)}) \right]^{-1} = \mathbf{diag} \left(\left[\mathbf{A}^{(1)} \right]^{-1}, \dots, \left[\mathbf{A}^{(k)} \right]^{-1} \right)$$

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Permutations

Definition

Given $\mathbb{N}_n = \{1, \dots, n\}$ for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$ with $n \geq 2$, a **permutation** of \mathbb{N}_n is a **bijective** mapping $\mathbb{N}_n \ni i \mapsto \pi(i) \in \mathbb{N}_n$.

That is, the mapping $\mathbb{N}_n \ni i \mapsto \pi(i) \in \mathbb{N}_n$ is both:

1. a **surjection**, or mapping of \mathbb{N}_n **onto** \mathbb{N}_n , in the sense that the range set satisfies $\pi(\mathbb{N}_n) := \{j \in \mathbb{N}_n \mid \exists i \in \mathbb{N}_n : j = \pi(i)\} = \mathbb{N}_n$;
2. an **injection**, or a **one to one** mapping, in the sense that $\pi(i) = \pi(j) \implies i = j$ or, equivalently, $i \neq j \implies \pi(i) \neq \pi(j)$.

Exercise

Prove that the mapping $\mathbb{N}_n \ni i \mapsto f(i) \in \mathbb{N}_n$ is a bijection, and so a permutation, if and only if its range set $f(\mathbb{N}_n) := \{j \in \mathbb{N}_n \mid \exists i \in \mathbb{N}_n : j = f(i)\}$ has cardinality $\#f(\mathbb{N}_n) = \#\mathbb{N}_n = n$.

Products of Permutations

Definition

The **product** $\pi \circ \rho$ of two permutations $\pi, \rho \in \Pi_n$ is the composition mapping $\mathbb{N}_n \ni i \mapsto (\pi \circ \rho)(i) := \pi[\rho(i)] \in \mathbb{N}_n$.

Exercise

Prove that the product $\pi \circ \rho$ of any two permutations $\pi, \rho \in \Pi_n$ is a permutation.

Hint: Show that $\#(\pi \circ \rho)(\mathbb{N}_n) = \#\rho(\mathbb{N}_n) = \#\mathbb{N}_n = n$.

Example

1. If you shuffle a pack of 52 playing cards once, without dropping any on the floor, the result will be a permutation π of the cards.
2. If you shuffle the same pack a second time, the result will be a new permutation ρ of the shuffled cards.
3. Overall, the result of shuffling the cards twice will be the single permutation $\rho \circ \pi$.

Finite Permutation Groups

Definition

Given any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the family Π_n of all permutations of \mathbb{N}_n includes:

- ▶ the **identity** permutation ι defined by $\iota(h) = h$ for all $h \in \mathbb{N}_n$;
- ▶ because the mapping $\mathbb{N}_n \ni i \mapsto f(i) \in \mathbb{N}_n$ is bijective, for each $\pi \in \Pi_n$, a unique **inverse** permutation $\pi^{-1} \in \Pi_n$ satisfying $\pi^{-1} \circ \pi = \pi \circ \pi^{-1} = \iota$.

Definition

The **associative law for functions** says that, given any three functions $h : X \rightarrow Y$, $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ and $f : Z \rightarrow W$, the **composite** function $f \circ g \circ h : X \rightarrow W$ satisfies

$$(f \circ g \circ h)(x) \equiv f(g(h(x))) \equiv [(f \circ g) \circ h](x) \equiv [f \circ (g \circ h)](x)$$

Exercise

Given any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, show that (Π_n, π, ι) is an algebraic **group** — i.e., the group operation $(\pi, \rho) \mapsto \pi \circ \rho$ is well-defined, associative, with ι as the unit, and an inverse π^{-1} for every $\pi \in \Pi_n$.

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Transpositions

Definition

For each disjoint pair $k, \ell \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, the **transposition mapping** $i \mapsto \tau_{k\ell}(i)$ on $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ is the permutation defined by

$$\tau_{k\ell}(i) := \begin{cases} \ell & \text{if } i = k; \\ k & \text{if } i = \ell; \\ i & \text{otherwise;} \end{cases}$$

That is, $\tau_{k\ell}$ transposes the order of k and ℓ , leaving all $i \notin \{k, \ell\}$ unchanged. □

Evidently $\tau_{k\ell} = \tau_{\ell k}$ and $\tau_{k\ell} \circ \tau_{\ell k} = \iota$, the identity permutation, and so $\tau \circ \tau = \iota$ for every transposition τ .

Transposition is Not Commutative

Let $(j_1, j_2, \dots, j_n) = (j_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}_n} \in \mathbb{N}_n^n$ denote any list of n integers $(j_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}_n}$ in \mathbb{N}_n , or equivalently, any mapping $\mathbb{N}_n \ni k \mapsto j_k \in \mathbb{N}_n$.

Then any list $(j_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}_n}$ whose components in \mathbb{N}_n are all different corresponds to a unique permutation, denoted by $\pi^{j_1 j_2 \dots j_n} \in \Pi_n$, that satisfies $\pi(k) = j_k$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N}_n$.

Example

Two transpositions defined on a set containing more than two elements **may not commute**.

For example, one has

$$\tau_{12} \circ \tau_{23} = \tau_{12}(\pi^{132}) = \pi^{312} \quad \text{and} \quad \tau_{23} \circ \tau_{12} = \tau_{23}(\pi^{213}) = \pi^{231}$$

Permutations are Products of Transpositions

Theorem

Any permutation $\pi \in \Pi_n$ on $\mathbb{N}_n := \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ is the product of at most $n - 1$ transpositions.

We will prove the result by induction on n .

As the induction hypothesis,

suppose the result holds for permutations on \mathbb{N}_{n-1} .

Any permutation π on $\mathbb{N}_2 := \{1, 2\}$ is either the identity, or the transposition τ_{12} , so the result holds for $n = 2$.

Proof of Induction Step

For general n , let $j := \pi^{-1}(n)$ denote the element that π moves to the end.

By construction, the permutation $\pi \circ \tau_{jn}$ must satisfy $\pi \circ \tau_{jn}(n) = \pi(\tau_{jn}(n)) = \pi(j) = n$.

So the restriction $\tilde{\pi}$ of $\pi \circ \tau_{jn}$ to \mathbb{N}_{n-1} is a permutation on \mathbb{N}_{n-1} .

By the induction hypothesis, the permutation $\tilde{\pi}$ on \mathbb{N}_{n-1} is the product $\tau^1 \circ \tau^2 \circ \dots \circ \tau^q$ of $q \leq n - 2$ transpositions.

Hence, for all $k \in \mathbb{N}_{n-1}$, one has

$$\tilde{\pi}(k) = (\pi \circ \tau_{jn})(k) = (\tau^1 \circ \tau^2 \circ \dots \circ \tau^q)(k).$$

Also, for each $p = 1, \dots, q$,

because τ^p interchanges only elements of \mathbb{N}_{n-1} ,

one can extend its domain to include n by letting $\tau^p(n) = n$.

Then $(\pi \circ \tau_{jn})(k) = (\tau^1 \circ \tau^2 \circ \dots \circ \tau^q)(k)$ for $k = n$ as well.

It follows that $\pi = (\pi \circ \tau_{jn}) \circ \tau_{jn}^{-1} = \tau^1 \circ \tau^2 \circ \dots \circ \tau^q \circ \tau_{jn}^{-1}$.

Hence π is the product of at most $q + 1 \leq n - 1$ transpositions. \square

Adjacency Transpositions and Their Products, I

Definition

For each $k \in \{1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$, the transposition $\tau_{k,k+1}$ of element k with its successor is an **adjacency transposition**. \square

Definition

For each pair $k, \ell \in \mathbb{N}_n$ with $k < \ell$, define:

1. $\pi^{k \nearrow \ell} := \tau_{\ell-1,\ell} \circ \tau_{\ell-2,\ell-1} \circ \dots \circ \tau_{k,k+1} \in \Pi_n$
as the composition of $\ell - k$
successive adjacency transpositions in order,
starting with $\tau_{k,k+1}$ and ending with $\tau_{\ell-1,\ell}$;
2. $\pi^{\ell \searrow k} := \tau_{k,k+1} \circ \tau_{k+1,k+2} \circ \dots \circ \tau_{\ell-1,\ell} \in \Pi_n$
as the composition of the same $\ell - k$
successive adjacency transpositions in reverse order.

Adjacency Transpositions and Their Products, II

Exercise

For each pair $k, \ell \in \mathbb{N}_n$ with $k < \ell$, prove that:

$$\blacktriangleright \pi^{k \nearrow \ell}(i) := \begin{cases} i & \text{if } i < k \text{ or } i > \ell; \\ i - 1 & \text{if } k < i \leq \ell; \\ \ell & \text{if } i = k. \end{cases}$$

$$\blacktriangleright \pi^{k \nearrow k} = \pi^{k \searrow k} = \iota$$

$\blacktriangleright \pi^{k \nearrow \ell}$ and $\pi^{\ell \searrow k}$ are inverses

$$\blacktriangleright \pi^{k \nearrow \ell} = \pi^{1,2,\dots,k-1,k+1,\dots,\ell-1,\ell,k,\ell+1,\dots,n}$$

$$\blacktriangleright \pi^{\ell \searrow k} = \pi^{1,2,\dots,k-1,\ell,k,k+1,\dots,\ell-2,\ell-1,\ell+1,\dots,n} \quad \square$$

1. Note that $\pi^{k \nearrow \ell}$ moves k up to the ℓ th position, while moving each element between $k + 1$ and ℓ down by one.
2. By contrast, $\pi^{\ell \searrow k}$ moves ℓ down to the k th position, while moving each element between k and $\ell - 1$ up by one.

Reduction to the Product of Adjacency Transpositions

Lemma

For each pair $k, \ell \in \mathbb{N}_n$ with $k < \ell$, the transposition $\tau_{k\ell}$ equals both $\pi^{\ell-1} \searrow k \circ \pi^k \nearrow \ell$ and $\pi^{k+1} \nearrow \ell \circ \pi^\ell \searrow k$, the compositions of $2(\ell - k) - 1$ adjacency transpositions.

Proof.

1. As noted, $\pi^k \nearrow \ell$ moves k up to the ℓ th position, while moving each element between $k + 1$ and ℓ down by one. Then $\pi^{\ell-1} \searrow k$ moves ℓ , which $\pi^k \nearrow \ell$ left in position $\ell - 1$, down to the k position, and moves $k + 1, k + 2, \dots, \ell - 1$ up by one, back to their original positions.

This proves that $\pi^{\ell-1} \searrow k \circ \pi^k \nearrow \ell = \tau_{k\ell}$.

It also expresses $\tau_{k\ell}$ as the composition of $(\ell - k) + (\ell - 1 - k) = 2(\ell - k) - 1$ adjacency transpositions.

2. The proof that $\pi^{k+1} \nearrow \ell \circ \pi^\ell \searrow k = \tau_{k\ell}$ is similar; details are left as an exercise. □

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The Inversions of a Permutation

Definition

1. Let $\mathbb{N}_{n,2} = \{S \subseteq \mathbb{N}_n \mid \#S = 2\}$ denote the set of all (unordered) **pair subsets** of \mathbb{N}_n .
2. Obviously, if $\{i, j\} \in \mathbb{N}_{n,2}$, then $i \neq j$.
3. Given any pair $\{i, j\} \in \mathbb{N}_{n,2}$, define $i \vee j := \max\{i, j\}$ and $i \wedge j := \min\{i, j\}$.
For all $\{i, j\} \in \mathbb{N}_{n,2}$, because $i \neq j$, one has $i \vee j > i \wedge j$.
4. Given any permutation $\pi \in \Pi_n$, the pair $\{i, j\} \in \mathbb{N}_{n,2}$ is an **inversion** of π just in case π “reorders” $\{i, j\}$ in the sense that $\pi(i \vee j) < \pi(i \wedge j)$.
5. Denote the set of inversions of π by

$$\mathfrak{N}(\pi) := \{\{i, j\} \in \mathbb{N}_{n,2} \mid \pi(i \vee j) < \pi(i \wedge j)\}$$

Note that an inversion of π is very different from its inverse!

The Sign of a Permutation

Definition

1. Given any permutation $\pi : \mathbb{N}_n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_n$, let $n(\pi) := \#\mathfrak{I}(\pi) \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ denote the number of its inversions.
2. A permutation $\pi : \mathbb{N}_n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_n$ is either **even** or **odd** according as $n(\pi)$ is an even or odd number.
3. The **sign** or **signature** of a permutation π , is defined as $\text{sgn}(\pi) := (-1)^{n(\pi)}$, which is:
(i) $+1$ if π is even; (ii) -1 if π is odd.

The Sign of an Adjacency Transposition

Theorem

For each $k \in \mathbb{N}_{n-1}$, if π is the adjacency transposition $\tau_{k,k+1}$, then $\mathfrak{N}(\pi) = \{\{k, k+1\}\}$, so $n(\pi) = 1$ and $\text{sgn}(\pi) = -1$.

Proof.

If π is the adjacency transposition $\tau_{k,k+1}$, then

$$\pi(i) = \begin{cases} i & \text{if } i \notin \{k, k+1\} \\ k+1 & \text{if } i = k \\ k & \text{if } i = k+1 \end{cases}$$

It is evident that $\{k, k+1\}$ is an inversion.

Also $\pi(i) \leq i$ for all $i \neq k$, and $\pi(j) \geq j$ for all $j \neq k+1$.

So if $i < j$, then $\pi(i) \leq i < j \leq \pi(j)$ unless $i = k$ and $j = k+1$, and so $\pi(i) > \pi(j)$ only if $(i, j) = (k, k+1)$.

Hence $\mathfrak{N}(\pi) = \{\{k, k+1\}\}$, implying that $n(\pi) = 1$. □

A Multi-Part Exercise

Exercise

Show that:

1. For each permutation $\pi \in \Pi_n$, one has

$$\begin{aligned}\mathfrak{N}(\pi) &= \{ \{i, j\} \in \mathbb{N}_{n,2} \mid (i - j)[\pi(i) - \pi(j)] < 0 \} \\ &= \left\{ \{i, j\} \in \mathbb{N}_{n,2} \mid \frac{\pi(i) - \pi(j)}{i - j} < 0 \right\}\end{aligned}$$

2. $\mathfrak{n}(\pi) = 0 \iff \pi = \iota$, the identity permutation;
3. $\mathfrak{n}(\pi) \leq \frac{1}{2}n(n - 1)$, with equality if and only if π is the **reversal permutation** defined by $\pi(i) = n - i + 1$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}_n$ — i.e.,

$$(\pi(1), \pi(2), \dots, \pi(n - 1), \pi(n)) = (n, n - 1, \dots, 2, 1)$$

Hint: Consider the number of ordered pairs $(i, j) \in \mathbb{N}_n \times \mathbb{N}_n$ that satisfy $i < j$.

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Double Products

Let $\mathbf{X} = \langle x_{ij} \rangle_{(i,j) \in \mathbb{N}_n \times \mathbb{N}_n}$ denote an $n \times n$ matrix.

We introduce the notation

$$\prod_{i>j}^n x_{ij} := \prod_{i=1}^n \prod_{j=1}^{i-1} x_{ij} := \prod_{j=1}^n \prod_{i=j+1}^n x_{ij}$$

for the product of all the elements in the lower triangular matrix \mathbf{L}

with elements $\ell_{ij} := \begin{cases} x_{ij} & \text{if } i > j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \leq j \end{cases}$.

In case the matrix \mathbf{X} is symmetric, one has

$$\prod_{i>j}^n x_{ij} = \prod_{i>j}^n x_{ji} = \prod_{i<j}^n x_{ij}$$

This can be rewritten as $\prod_{i>j}^n x_{ij} = \prod_{\{i,j\} \in \mathbb{N}_{n,2}} x_{ij}$,
which is the product over all unordered pairs of elements in \mathbb{N}_n .

Preliminary Example and Definition

Example

For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, define the double product

$$\mathbb{P}_{n,2} := \prod_{\{i,j\} \in \mathbb{N}_{n,2}} |i-j| = \prod_{i>j}^n |i-j| = \prod_{i<j}^n |i-j|$$

Then one has

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}_{n,2} &= (n-1)(n-2)^2(n-3)^3 \dots 3^{n-3} 2^{n-2} 1^{n-1} \\ &= \prod_{k=1}^{n-1} k^{n-k} \\ &= (n-1)!(n-2)!(n-3)! \dots 3!2! = \prod_{k=1}^{n-1} k! \end{aligned}$$

Definition

For every permutation $\pi \in \Pi_n$, define the symmetric matrix \mathbf{X}^π

$$\text{so that } x_{ij}^\pi := \begin{cases} \frac{\pi(i) - \pi(j)}{i - j} & \text{if } i \neq j \\ 1 & \text{if } i = j \end{cases}$$

Basic Lemma

Lemma

For every permutation $\pi \in \Pi_n$, one has $\text{sgn}(\pi) = \prod_{\{i,j\} \in \mathbb{N}_{n,2}} x_{ij}^\pi$.

Proof.

- ▶ Because π is a permutation, the mapping $\mathbb{N}_{n,2} \ni \{i,j\} \mapsto \{\pi(i), \pi(j)\} \in \mathbb{N}_{n,2}$ has inverse $\mathbb{N}_{n,2} \ni \{i,j\} \mapsto \{\pi^{-1}(i), \pi^{-1}(j)\} \in \mathbb{N}_{n,2}$.
In fact it is a bijection between $\mathbb{N}_{n,2}$ and itself.
- ▶ Hence $\mathbb{P}_{n,2} := \prod_{\{i,j\} \in \mathbb{N}_{n,2}} |i - j| = \prod_{\{i,j\} \in \mathbb{N}_{n,2}} |\pi(i) - \pi(j)|$.
- ▶ So $\prod_{\{i,j\} \in \mathbb{N}_{n,2}} \frac{|\pi(i) - \pi(j)|}{|i - j|} = \prod_{\{i,j\} \in \mathbb{N}_{n,2}} |x_{ij}^\pi| = 1$.
- ▶ Also $x_{ij}^\pi = \mp 1$ according as $\{i,j\}$ is or is not a reversal of π .
- ▶ It follows that $\prod_{\{i,j\} \in \mathbb{N}_{n,2}} x_{ij}^\pi = (-1)^{n(\pi)} \prod_{\{i,j\} \in \mathbb{N}_{n,2}} |x_{ij}^\pi| = (-1)^{n(\pi)} = \text{sgn}(\pi)$

□

The Product Rule for Signs of Permutations

Theorem

For all permutations $\rho, \pi \in \Pi_n$ one has $\text{sgn}(\rho \circ \pi) = \text{sgn}(\rho) \text{sgn}(\pi)$.

Proof.

The basic lemma implies that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\text{sgn}(\rho \circ \pi)}{\text{sgn}(\pi)} &= \prod_{\{i,j\} \in \mathbb{N}_{n,2}} \frac{\rho(\pi(i)) - \rho(\pi(j))}{i - j} \prod_{\{k,\ell\} \in \mathbb{N}_{n,2}} \frac{k - \ell}{\pi(k) - \pi(\ell)} \\ &= \prod_{\{i,j\} \in \mathbb{N}_{n,2}} \frac{\rho(\pi(i)) - \rho(\pi(j))}{i - j} \prod_{\{i,j\} \in \mathbb{N}_{n,2}} \frac{i - j}{\pi(i) - \pi(j)} \end{aligned}$$

After cancelling the product $\prod_{\{i,j\} \in \mathbb{N}_{n,2}} (i - j)$ and then replacing $\pi(i)$ by k and $\pi(j)$ by ℓ , because π and ρ are permutations, one obtains

$$\frac{\text{sgn}(\rho \circ \pi)}{\text{sgn}(\pi)} = \prod_{\{k,\ell\} \in \mathbb{N}_{n,2}} \frac{\rho(k) - \rho(\ell)}{k - \ell} = \text{sgn}(\rho) \quad \square$$

The Sign of any Inverse Permutation

Corollary

Given any permutation $\pi \in \Pi_n$, one has $\text{sgn}(\pi^{-1}) = \text{sgn}(\pi)$.

Proof.

Because the identity permutation satisfies $\iota = \pi \circ \pi^{-1}$, the product rule implies that

$$1 = \text{sgn}(\iota) = \text{sgn}(\pi \circ \pi^{-1}) = \text{sgn}(\pi) \text{sgn}(\pi^{-1})$$

Because both $\text{sgn}(\pi)$ and $\text{sgn}(\pi^{-1})$ belong to $\{-1, 1\}$, they must both have the same sign, and the result follows. □