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# Characterization and properties of ( $R, S_{\sigma}$ )-commutative matrices 

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#### Abstract

Let $R=P \operatorname{diag}\left(\gamma_{0} I_{m_{0}}, \gamma_{1} I_{m_{1}}, \ldots, \gamma_{k-1} I_{m_{k-1}}\right) P^{-1} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ and $S_{\sigma}=$ $Q \operatorname{diag}\left(\gamma_{\sigma(0)} I_{n_{0}}, \gamma_{\sigma(1)} I_{n_{1}}, \ldots, \gamma_{\sigma(k-1)} I_{n_{k-1}}\right) Q^{-1} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, where $m_{0}+m_{1}+$ $\cdots+m_{k-1}=m, n_{0}+n_{1}+\cdots+n_{k-1}=n, \gamma_{0}, \gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{k-1}$ are distinct complex numbers, and $\sigma: \mathbb{Z}_{k} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{k}=\{0,1, \ldots, k-1\}$. We say that $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is $\left(R, S_{\sigma}\right)$-commutative if $R A=A S_{\sigma}$. We characterize the class of $\left(R, S_{\sigma}\right)$ commutative matrrices and extend results obtained previously for the case where $\gamma_{\ell}=e^{2 \pi i \ell / k}$ and $\sigma(\ell)=\alpha \ell+\mu(\bmod k), 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1$, with $\alpha, \mu \in \mathbb{Z}_{k}$. Our results are independent of $\gamma_{0}, \gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{k-1}$, so long as they are distinct; i.e., if $R A=A S_{\sigma}$ for some choice of $\gamma_{0}, \gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{k-1}$ (all distinct), then $R A=A S_{\sigma}$ for arbitrary of $\gamma_{0}, \gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{k-1}$.


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[^0]
## 1 Introduction

A matrix $A=\left[a_{r s}\right]_{r, s=0}^{n-1} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is said to be centrosymmetric if

$$
a_{n-r-1, n-s-1}=a_{r s}, \quad 0 \leq r, s \leq n-1,
$$

or centro-skewsymmetric if

$$
a_{n-r-1, n-s-1}=-a_{r s}, \quad 0 \leq r, s \leq n-1
$$

The study of such matrices is facilitated by the observation that $A$ is centrosymmetric (centro-skewsymmetric) if and only if $J A=A J(J A=-A J)$, where $J$ is the flip matrix, with ones on the secondary diagonal and zeroes elsewhere. Several authors $[2,3,4,5,8,10,13,25]$ used this observation to show that centrosymmetric and centroskewsymmetric matrices can be written as $A=P C P^{-1}$, where $P$ diagonalizes $J$ and $C$ has a useful block structure. We will discuss this further in Example 3.

Following this idea, other authors $[6,11,12,14,24]$ considered matrices satisfying $R A=A R$ or $R A=-A R$, where $R$ is a nontrivial involution; i.e., $R=R^{-1} \neq \pm I$. We continued this line of investigaton in [15, 16, 17, 19], and extended it in [18, 20], defining $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ to be $(R, S)$-symmetric $((R, S)$-skew symmetric) if $R A=A S$ ( $R A=-A S$ ), where $R \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ and $S \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ are nontrivial involutions. We showed that a matrix $A$ with either of these properties can be written as $A=P C Q^{-1}$, where $P$ and $Q$ diagonalize $R$ and $S$ respectively and $C$ has a useful block form.

Chen [7] and Fasino [9] studied matrices $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ such that $R A R^{*}=\zeta^{\mu} A$, where $R$ is a unitary matrix that satisfies $R^{k}=I$ for some $k \leq n$ and $\zeta=e^{2 \pi i / k}$. In [21] we studied matrices $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ such that $R A=\zeta^{\mu} A S$, where

$$
\begin{gather*}
R=P \operatorname{diag}\left(I_{m_{0}}, \zeta I_{m_{1}}, \ldots, \zeta^{k-1} I_{m_{k-1}}\right) P^{-1}  \tag{1}\\
S=Q \operatorname{diag}\left(I_{n_{0}}, \zeta I_{n_{1}}, \ldots, \zeta^{k-1} I_{n_{k-1}}\right) Q^{-1}  \tag{2}\\
m_{0}+m_{1}+\cdots+m_{k-1}=m, \quad n_{0}+n_{1}+\cdots+n_{k-1}=n \tag{3}
\end{gather*}
$$

and

$$
\alpha, \mu \in \mathbb{Z}_{k}=\{0,1, \ldots, k-1\}
$$

Finally, motivated by a problem concerning unilevel block circulants [22], in [23] we considered matrices $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ such that $R A=\zeta^{\mu} A S^{\alpha}$, with $\alpha, \mu \in \mathbb{Z}_{k}$. We called such matrices $(R, S, \alpha, \mu)$-symmetric, and showed that $A$ has this property if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
A=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\alpha \ell+\mu(\bmod k)} F_{\ell} \widehat{Q}_{\ell} \quad \text { with } \quad F_{\ell} \in \mathbb{C}^{\alpha \ell+\mu(\bmod k) \times n_{\ell}}, \quad 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1 \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

which has useful computational and theoretical applications. $\left(P_{0}, \ldots, P_{k-1}\right.$ and $\widehat{Q}_{0}$, $\ldots, \widehat{Q}_{k-1}$ are defined in Section 2, specifically, (7)-(10).) The class of $(R, S, \alpha, \mu)-$ symmetric matrices includes, for example, centrosymmetric, skew-centrosymmetric,
$R$-symmetric, $R$-skew symmetric, $(R, S)$-symmetric, and ( $R, S$ )-skew symmetric matrices, and block circulants $\left[A_{s-\alpha r}\right]_{r, s=0}$.

Having said this, we now propose that all the papers in our bibliography - including our own - are based on an unnecessarily restrictive assumption; namely, that the spectra of the matrices $R$ and $S$ that are used to define the symmetries consist of a set (usually the complete set) of $k$-th roots of unity for some $k \geq 2$. In this paper we point out that this assumption is irrelevant and present an alternative approach that eliminates this requirement and exposes a wider class of generalized symmetries if $k>2$. We extend our results in [21] and [23] to this larger class of matrices.

## 2 Preliminary considerations

Throughout the rest of this paper,

$$
\begin{equation*}
R=P \operatorname{diag}\left(\gamma_{0} I_{m_{0}}, \gamma_{1} I_{m_{1}}, \ldots, \gamma_{k-1} I_{m_{k-1}}\right) P^{-1} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
S=Q \operatorname{diag}\left(\gamma_{0} I_{n_{0}}, \gamma_{1} I_{n_{1}}, \ldots, \gamma_{k-1} I_{n_{k-1}}\right) Q^{-1} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}, \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\gamma_{0}, \gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{k-1}$ are distinct complex numbers, except when there is an explicit statement to the contrary. We define

$$
R_{\sigma}=P \operatorname{diag}\left(\gamma_{\sigma(0)} I_{m_{0}}, \gamma_{\sigma(1)} I_{m_{1}}, \ldots, \gamma_{\sigma(k-1)} I_{m_{k-1}}\right) P^{-1}
$$

and

$$
S_{\sigma}=Q \operatorname{diag}\left(\gamma_{\sigma(0)} I_{n_{0}}, \gamma_{\sigma(1)} I_{n_{1}}, \ldots, \gamma_{\sigma(k-1)} I_{n_{k-1}}\right) Q^{-1}
$$

where $\sigma: \mathbb{Z}_{k} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{k}$.
We can partition

$$
\begin{align*}
& P=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
P_{0} & P_{1} & \cdots & P_{k-1}
\end{array}\right], \quad Q=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
Q_{0} & Q_{1} & \cdots & Q_{k-1}
\end{array}\right],  \tag{7}\\
& P^{-1}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
\widehat{P}_{0} \\
\widehat{P}_{1} \\
\vdots \\
\widehat{P}_{k-1},
\end{array}\right] \text { and } Q^{-1}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
\widehat{Q}_{0} \\
\widehat{Q}_{1} \\
\vdots \\
\widehat{Q}_{k-1},
\end{array}\right] \text {, } \tag{8}
\end{align*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{align*}
& P_{r} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m_{r}}, \quad \widehat{P}_{r} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_{r} \times m}, \quad \widehat{P}_{r} P_{s}=\delta_{r s} I_{m_{r}}, \quad 0 \leq r, s \leq k-1,  \tag{9}\\
& Q_{r} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n_{r}}, \quad \widehat{Q}_{r} \in \mathbb{C}^{n_{r} \times n}, \quad \text { and } \quad \widehat{Q}_{r} Q_{s}=\delta_{r s} I_{n_{r}}, \quad 0 \leq r, s \leq k-1 . \tag{10}
\end{align*}
$$

We can now write

$$
\begin{gather*}
R=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} \gamma_{\ell} P_{\ell} \widehat{P}_{\ell}, \quad R_{\sigma}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} \gamma_{\sigma(\ell)} P_{\ell} \widehat{P}_{\ell},  \tag{11}\\
S=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} \gamma_{\ell} Q_{\ell} \widehat{Q}_{\ell}, \quad \text { and } \quad S_{\sigma}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} \gamma_{\sigma(\ell)} Q_{\ell} \widehat{Q}_{\ell} . \tag{12}
\end{gather*}
$$

Definition 1 In general, if $U \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}, V \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, and $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$, we say that $A$ is $(U, V)$-commutative if $U A=A V$. In particular, we say that $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is $\left(R, S_{\sigma}\right)$ commutative if $R A=A S_{\sigma}$. If $\sigma$ is the identity (i.e., $R A=A S$ ), we say that $A$ is $(R, S)$-commutative. If $A, R \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ and $R A=A R$, we say - as usual - that $A$ commutes with $R$.

## 3 Necessary and sufficient conditions for ( $R, S_{\sigma}$ )-commutativity

Theorem $1 A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is $\left(R, S_{\sigma}\right)$-commutative if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
A=P\left(\left[C_{r s}\right]_{r, s=0}^{k-1}\right) Q^{-1}, \quad \text { where } \quad C_{r s} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_{r} \times n_{s}} \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
C_{r s}=0 \quad \text { if } \quad r \neq \sigma(s), \quad 0 \leq r, s \leq k-1 \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Any $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ can be written as in (13) with $C=P^{-1} A Q$ partitioned as indicated. If

$$
D=\operatorname{diag}\left(\gamma_{0} I_{m_{0}}, \gamma_{1} I_{m_{1}}, \ldots, \gamma_{k-1} I_{m_{k-1}}\right)
$$

and

$$
D_{\sigma}=\operatorname{diag}\left(\gamma_{\sigma(0)} I_{n_{0}}, \gamma_{\sigma(1)} I_{n_{1}}, \ldots, \gamma_{\sigma(k-1)} I_{n_{k-1}}\right)
$$

then

$$
R A=\left(P D P^{-1}\right)\left(P C Q^{-1}\right)=P D C Q^{-1}=P\left(\left[\gamma_{r} C_{r s}\right]_{r, s=0}^{k-1}\right) Q^{-1}
$$

and

$$
A S_{\sigma}=\left(P C Q^{-1}\right)\left(Q D_{\sigma} Q^{-1}\right)=P C D_{\sigma} Q^{-1}=P\left(\left[\gamma_{\sigma(s)} C_{r s}\right]_{r, s=0}^{k-1}\right) Q^{-1}
$$

Therefore $R A=A S_{\sigma}$ if and only if $\left(\gamma_{r}-\gamma_{\sigma(s)}\right) C_{r s}=0,0 \leq r, s \leq k-1$, which is equivalent to (14), since $\gamma_{0}, \gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{k-1}$ are distinct.

The following theorem is a convenient reformulation of Theorem 1.
Theorem $2 A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is $\left(R, S_{\sigma}\right)$-commutative if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
A=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\ell} \widehat{Q}_{\ell} \quad \text { with } \quad F_{\ell} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_{\sigma(\ell)} \times n_{\ell}}, \quad 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1, \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

in which case

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{\ell}=\widehat{P}_{\sigma(\ell)} A Q_{\ell}, \quad 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1 \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
R A=A S_{\sigma}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} \gamma_{\sigma(\ell)} P_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\ell} \widehat{Q}_{\ell} \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

for arbitrary $\gamma_{0}, \gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{k-1}$.

Proof. From (13), an arbitrary $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ can be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
A=\sum_{s=0}^{k-1} \sum_{r=0}^{k-1} P_{r} C_{r s} \widehat{Q}_{\ell} \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

From Theorem 1, $A$ is $\left(R, S_{\sigma}\right)$-commutative if and and only if $C_{r s}=0$ if $r \neq \sigma(s)$, in which case (18) reduces to (15) with $F_{\ell}=C_{\sigma(\ell), \ell} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_{\sigma(\ell)} \times n_{\ell}}$. From (10) and (15), $A Q_{\ell}=P_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\ell}, 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1$, so (9) with $r=\sigma(\ell)$ implies (16). Eqns. (9)-(12) and (15) imply (17).

Example 1 If $\sigma$ is the permutation

$$
\sigma=\left(\begin{array}{llllll}
0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\
1 & 3 & 4 & 0 & 2 & 5
\end{array}\right)=(0,1,3)(2,4)(5)
$$

then (15) becomes

$$
A=P_{1} F_{0} \widehat{Q}_{0}+P_{3} F_{1} \widehat{Q}_{1}+P_{4} F_{2} \widehat{Q}_{2}+P_{0} F_{3} \widehat{Q}_{3}+P_{2} F_{4} \widehat{Q}_{4}+P_{5} F_{5} \widehat{Q}_{5}
$$

with

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
F_{0} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_{1} \times n_{0}}, & F_{1} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_{3} \times n_{1}}, & F_{2} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_{4} \times n_{2}}, \\
F_{3} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_{0} \times n_{3}}, & F_{4} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_{2} \times n_{4}}, & F_{5} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_{5} \times n_{5}},
\end{array}
$$

and
$R A=A S_{\sigma}=\gamma_{1} P_{1} F_{0} \widehat{Q}_{0}+\gamma_{3} P_{3} F_{1} \widehat{Q}_{1}+\gamma_{4} P_{4} F_{2} \widehat{Q}_{2}+\gamma_{0} P_{0} F_{3} \widehat{Q}_{3}+\gamma_{2} P_{2} F_{4} \widehat{Q}_{4}+\gamma_{5} P_{5} F_{5} \widehat{Q}_{5}$
for arbitrary $\gamma_{0}, \ldots, \gamma_{5}$.

## Example 2 If

$$
\sigma=\left(\begin{array}{llllll}
0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\
2 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

(which is not a permutation), then (15) becomes

$$
A=P_{2} F_{0} \widehat{Q}_{0}+P_{1} F_{1} \widehat{Q}_{1}+P_{0} F_{2} \widehat{Q}_{2}+P_{1} F_{3} \widehat{Q}_{3}+P_{2} F_{4} \widehat{Q}_{4}+P_{0} F_{5} \widehat{Q}_{5}
$$

with

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
F_{0} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_{2} \times n_{0}}
\end{array}, \quad F_{1} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_{1} \times n_{1}}, \quad F_{2} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_{0} \times n_{2}},
$$

and
$R A=A S_{\sigma}=\gamma_{2} P_{2} F_{0} \widehat{Q}_{0}+\gamma_{1} P_{1} F_{1} \widehat{Q}_{1}+\gamma_{0} P_{0} F_{2} \widehat{Q}_{2}+\gamma_{1} P_{1} F_{3} \widehat{Q}_{3}+\gamma_{2} P_{2} F_{4} \widehat{Q}_{4}+\gamma_{0} P_{0} F_{5} \widehat{Q}_{5}$ for arbitrary $\gamma_{0}, \ldots, \gamma_{5}$.

Example 3 All results obtained by assuming that $R$ and $S$ are involutions (and therefore have eigenvalues 1 and -1 ) can just as well be obtained by assuming only that $R$ and $S$ have the same two distinct eigenvalues, with possibly different multiplicities. The original idea in this area of research has its origins in the observation that $A$ is centrosymmetric (skew-centrosymmetric) if and only if $A J=J A(A J=-J A)$. Since $J^{2}=I$, these conditions can just as well be written as $J A J=A(J A J=-A)$; however, this and the invertibility of $J$ are irrelevant. To illustrate this, suppose $n=2 r$, in which case

$$
J=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
P_{0} & P_{1}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
I_{r} & 0 \\
0 & -I_{r}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
P_{0}^{T} \\
P_{1}^{T}
\end{array}\right]
$$

(i.e., $\widehat{P}_{0}=P_{0}^{T}$ and $\widehat{P}_{1}=P_{1}^{T}$ ), where

$$
P_{0}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left[\begin{array}{c}
I_{r} \\
J_{r}
\end{array}\right] \quad \text { and } \quad P_{1}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left[\begin{array}{r}
I_{r} \\
-J_{r}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Starting from this, it can be shown $A J=J A$ (or, equivalently, $A$ is centrosymmetric) if and only if

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
P_{0} & P_{1}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
B_{0} & 0  \tag{19}\\
0 & B_{1}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
P_{0}^{T} \\
P_{1}^{T}
\end{array}\right]=P_{0} B_{0} P_{0}^{T}+P_{1} B_{1} P_{1}^{T}
$$

with $B_{0}, B_{1} \in \mathbb{C}^{r \times r}$. However, Theorem 2 implies that $A$ has the form (19) if $R A=$ $A R$ for some $R$ of the form

$$
R=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
P_{0} & P_{1}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\gamma_{0} I_{r} & 0 \\
0 & \gamma_{1} I_{r}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
P_{0}^{T} \\
P_{1}^{T}
\end{array}\right]
$$

with $\gamma_{0} \neq \gamma_{1}$, in which case

$$
R A=A R=\gamma_{0} P_{0} B_{0} P_{0}^{T}+\gamma_{1} P_{1} B_{1} P_{1}^{T}
$$

for arbitrary $\gamma_{0}$ and $\gamma_{1}$.
According to the classical theorem, $A J=-J A$ (or, equivalently, $A$ is skewcentrosymmetric) if and only if

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
P_{0} & P_{1}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & C_{1}  \tag{20}\\
C_{0} & 0
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
P_{0}^{T} \\
P_{1}^{T}
\end{array}\right]=P_{1} C_{0} \widehat{P}_{0}+P_{0} C_{1} \widehat{P}_{1}
$$

with $C_{0}, C_{1} \in \mathbb{C}^{r \times r}$. Now let $\sigma(0)=1$ and $\sigma(1)=0$, so

$$
R_{\sigma}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
P_{0} & P_{1}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\gamma_{1} I_{r} & 0 \\
0 & \gamma_{0} I_{r}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
P_{0}^{T} \\
P_{1}^{T}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Theorem 2 implies that $A$ has the form (20) if and only if $R A=A R_{\sigma}$ for some $\gamma_{0}$ and $\gamma_{1}$ with $\gamma_{0} \neq \gamma_{1}$, in which case

$$
R A=A R_{\sigma}=\gamma_{1} P_{1} C_{0} \widehat{P}_{0}+\gamma_{0} P_{0} C_{1} \widehat{P}_{1}
$$

for all $\gamma_{0}$ and $\gamma_{1}$.

Example 4 Let $R=\left[\delta_{r, s-1(\bmod k)}\right]_{r, s=0}^{k-1}$, which is the 1 -circulant with first row

$$
\left[\begin{array}{lllll}
0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

By the Ablow-Brenner theorem [1], $C \in \mathbb{C}^{k \times k}$ is an $\alpha$-circulant $C=\left[c_{s-\alpha r(\bmod k)}\right]_{r, s=0}^{k-1}$ if and only if $R C=C R^{\alpha}$. Since

$$
R=P \operatorname{diag}\left(1, \zeta, \zeta^{2}, \ldots, \zeta^{k-1}\right) P^{*}
$$

where

$$
P=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
p_{0} & p_{1} & \cdots & p_{k-1}
\end{array}\right] \quad \text { with } \quad p_{\ell}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}\left[\begin{array}{c}
1 \\
\zeta^{\ell} \\
\zeta^{2 \ell} \\
\vdots \\
\zeta^{(k-1) \ell}
\end{array}\right], \quad 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1
$$

and

$$
R^{\alpha}=P \operatorname{diag}\left(1, \zeta^{\alpha}, \zeta^{2 \alpha}, \ldots, \zeta^{(k-1) \alpha}\right) P^{*}
$$

the Ablow-Brenner theorem can be interpreted to mean that $C$ is $\left(R, R_{\sigma}\right)$-commutative with $\sigma(\ell)=\alpha \ell(\bmod k), 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1$. Therefore Theorem 2 implies that

$$
C=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} p_{\alpha \ell(\bmod k)} f_{\ell} p_{\ell}^{*}
$$

where $f_{0}, f_{1}, \ldots, f_{k-1}$ are scalars. As a matter of fact, if

$$
R=P \operatorname{diag}\left(\gamma_{0}, \gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{k-1}\right) P^{*}
$$

with arbitrary $\gamma_{0}, \gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{k-1}$, then

$$
R C=C R_{\sigma}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} \gamma_{\alpha \ell(\bmod k)} p_{\alpha \ell(\bmod k)} f_{\ell} p_{\ell}^{*}
$$

Example 5 Let $R$ and $S$ be as in (1) and (2) and let $\sigma(\ell)=\alpha \ell+\mu(\bmod k)$, so

$$
S_{\sigma}=Q \operatorname{diag}\left(\zeta^{\mu} I_{m_{0}}, \zeta^{\alpha+\mu} I_{m_{1}}, \ldots, \zeta^{(k-1) \alpha+\mu} I_{m_{k-1}}\right) Q^{-1}
$$

Then the $(R, S, \alpha, \mu)$-symmetric matrix $A$ in (4) is $\left(R, S_{\sigma}\right)$-commutative. More generally, if $R$ and $S$ are as in (5) and (6) and $\sigma(\ell)=\alpha \ell+\mu(\bmod k)$, then

$$
R A=A S_{\sigma}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} \gamma_{\alpha \ell+\mu(\bmod k)} P_{\alpha \ell+\mu(\bmod k)} F_{\ell} \widehat{Q}_{\ell}
$$

for arbitrary $\gamma_{0}, \gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{k-1}$.

Renaming the variables in Theorem 2 yields the following theorem.
Theorem 3 If $\rho: \mathbb{Z}_{k} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{k}$, then $B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$ is $\left(S, R_{\rho}\right)$-commutative if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
B=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} Q_{\rho(\ell)} G_{\ell} \widehat{P}_{\ell} \quad \text { with } \quad G_{\ell} \in \mathbb{C}^{n_{\rho(\ell)} \times m_{\ell}}, \quad 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1 \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

in which case

$$
G_{\ell}=\widehat{Q}_{\rho(\ell)} B P_{\ell}, \quad 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1
$$

and

$$
S B=B R_{\rho}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} \gamma_{\rho(\ell)} Q_{\rho(\ell)} G_{\ell} \widehat{P}_{\ell}
$$

for arbitrary $\gamma_{0}, \gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{k-1}$.

## 4 General Results

Remark 1 If $\sigma$ or $\rho$ is a permutation of $\mathbb{Z}_{k}$, we can replace $\ell$ by $\sigma(\ell)$ or $\ell$ by $\rho(\ell)$ in a summation $\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1}$, as in the proof of the following theorem, where " $\circ$ " denotes composition; i.e., $\sigma \circ \rho(\ell)=\sigma(\rho(\ell))$ and $\rho \circ \sigma(\ell)=\rho(\sigma(\ell))$. Also,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\widehat{P}_{\sigma(r)} P_{\sigma(s)}=\delta_{r s} I_{m_{\sigma(r)}} \quad \text { and } \quad \widehat{Q}_{\rho(r)} Q_{\rho(s)}=\delta_{r s} I_{n_{\sigma(r)}}, \quad 0 \leq r, s \leq k-1 \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

if and only if $\sigma$ and $\rho$ are permutations. We will use this frequently without specifically invoking it.

Theorem 4 Suppose $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is $\left(R, S_{\sigma}\right)$-commutative and $B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$ is $\left(S, R_{\rho}\right)$ commutative. Then: (a) $A B$ is $\left(R, R_{\sigma \circ \rho}\right)$-commutative if $\rho$ is a permutation and (b) $B A$ is $\left(S, S_{\rho \circ \sigma}\right)$-commutative if $\sigma$ is a permutation.

Proof. From Theorems 2 and 3, our assumptions imply that $A$ is as in (15) and $B$ is as in (21). If $\rho$ is a permutation then replacing $\ell$ by $\rho(\ell)$ in (15) yields

$$
A=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\rho(\ell))} F_{\rho(\ell)} \widehat{Q}_{\rho(\ell)}
$$

From this, (21), and (22),

$$
A B=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\rho(\ell))} F_{\rho(\ell)} G_{\ell} \widehat{P}_{\ell}
$$

so (9) and (11) imply that

$$
R(A B)=(A B) R_{\sigma \circ \rho}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} \gamma_{\sigma(\rho(\ell))} P_{\sigma(\rho(\ell))} F_{\rho(\ell)} G_{\ell} \widehat{P}_{\ell}
$$

which proves (a).
If $\sigma$ is a permutation, replacing $\ell$ by $\sigma(\ell)$ in (21) yields

$$
B=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} Q_{\rho(\sigma(\ell))} G_{\sigma(\ell)} \widehat{P}_{\sigma(\ell)}
$$

From this, (15), and (22),

$$
B A=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} Q_{\rho(\sigma(\ell))} G_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\ell} \widehat{Q}_{\ell}
$$

so (10) and (12) imply that

$$
S(B A)=(A B) S_{\rho \circ \sigma}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} \gamma_{\rho(\sigma(\ell))} Q_{\rho(\sigma(\ell))} G_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\ell} \widehat{Q}_{\ell}
$$

which proves (b).
Corollary 1 If $\sigma$ is a permutation, $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is $\left(R, S_{\sigma}\right)$-commutative, and $B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$ is $\left(S, R_{\sigma^{-1}}\right)$-commutative, then $A B$ commutes with $R$ and $B A$ commutes with $S$.

Theorem 5 Suppose $j>1$ and $A_{j} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ is $\left(R, R_{\sigma_{j}}\right)$-commutative, where $\sigma_{j}$ is a permutation if $j>1$. Then $A_{1} A_{2} \cdots A_{j}$ is $\left(R, R_{\left.\sigma_{1} \circ \sigma_{2} \circ \cdots \circ \sigma_{j}\right) \text {-commutative; specifically, }}\right.$, if

$$
\begin{equation*}
A_{j}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma_{j}(\ell)} F_{\ell}^{(j)} \widehat{P}_{\ell} \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

then

$$
\begin{gathered}
A_{1} A_{2}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma_{1} \circ \sigma_{2}(\ell)} F_{\sigma_{2}(\ell)}^{(1)} F_{\ell}^{(2)} \widehat{P}_{\ell} \\
A_{1} A_{2} A_{3}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma_{1} \circ \sigma_{2} \circ \sigma_{3}(\ell)} F_{\sigma_{2} \circ \sigma_{3}(\ell)}^{(1)} F_{\sigma_{3}(\ell)}^{(2)} F_{\ell}^{(3)} \widehat{P}_{\ell},
\end{gathered}
$$

and, in general,

$$
A_{1} A_{2} \cdots A_{j}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma_{1} \circ \sigma_{2} \circ \ldots \circ \sigma_{j}(\ell)} F_{\sigma_{2} \circ \ldots \circ \sigma_{j}(\ell)}^{(1)} F_{\sigma_{3} \circ \ldots \circ \sigma_{j}(\ell)}^{(2)} \cdots F_{\sigma_{j}(\ell)}^{(j-1)} F_{\ell}^{(j)} \widehat{P}_{\ell}
$$

Proof. To minimize complicated notation, suppose

$$
B_{j}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma_{1} \circ \sigma_{2} \circ \ldots \circ \sigma_{j}(\ell)} G_{\ell}^{(j)} \widehat{P}_{\ell}
$$

for some $j \geq 1$. Since $\sigma_{j+1}$ is a permutation, we can replace $\ell$ by $\sigma_{j+1}(\ell)$ to obtain

$$
B_{j}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma_{1} \circ \sigma_{2} \circ \ldots \circ \sigma_{j} \circ \sigma_{j+1}(\ell)} G_{\sigma_{j+1}(\ell)} \widehat{P}_{\sigma_{j+1}(\ell)}
$$

Therefore, from (23) with $j$ replaced by $j+1$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
B_{j} A_{j+1} & =\left(\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma_{1} \circ \sigma_{2} \circ \ldots \circ \sigma_{j} \circ \sigma_{j+1}(\ell)} G_{\sigma_{j+1}(\ell)} \widehat{P}_{\sigma_{j+1}(\ell)}\right)\left(\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma_{j+1}(\ell)} F_{\ell}^{(j+1)} \widehat{P}_{\ell}\right) \\
& =\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma_{1} \circ \sigma_{2} \circ \cdots \circ \sigma_{j} \circ \sigma_{j+1}(\ell)} G_{\ell}^{(j+1)} \widehat{P}_{\ell} \quad \text { with } \quad G_{\ell}^{(j+1)}=G_{\sigma_{j+1}(\ell)} F_{\ell}^{(j+1)}
\end{aligned}
$$

This provides the basis for a straightforward induction proof of the assertion.
Corollary 2 If $\sigma$ is a permutation, $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ is $\left(R, R_{\sigma}\right)$-commutative, and $j$ is a positive integer, then $A^{j}$ is $\left(R, R_{\sigma^{j}}\right)$-commutative; explicitly,

$$
\begin{equation*}
A^{j}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma^{j}(\ell)} F_{\sigma^{(j-1)}(\ell)} \cdots F_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\ell} \widehat{P}_{\ell} \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
R A=A R_{\sigma^{j}}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} \gamma_{\sigma^{j}(\ell)} P_{\sigma^{j}(\ell)} F_{\sigma^{(j-1)}(\ell)} \cdots F_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\ell} \widehat{P}_{\ell}
$$

for arbitrary $\gamma_{0}, \gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{k-1}$.

## 5 Generalized Inverses and Singular Value Decompostions

If $A$ is an arbitrary complex matrix then $A^{-}$is a reflexive inverse of $A$ if $A A^{-} A=A$ and $A^{-} A A^{-}=A^{-}$. The Moore-Penrose inverse $A^{\dagger}$ of $A$ is the unique matrix that satisfies the Penrose conditions

$$
\left(A A^{\dagger}\right)^{*}=A A^{\dagger}, \quad\left(A^{\dagger} A\right)^{*}=A A^{\dagger}, \quad A A^{\dagger} A=A, \quad \text { and } \quad A^{\dagger} A A^{\dagger}=A^{\dagger}
$$

Theorem 6 Suppose $\sigma$ is a permutation and $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is $\left(R, S_{\sigma}\right)$-commutative, so

$$
\begin{equation*}
A=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\ell} \widehat{Q}_{\ell} \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

by Theorem 2. Let $F_{0}^{-}, F_{1}^{-}, \ldots, F_{k-1}^{-}$be reflexive inverses of $F_{0}, F_{1}, \ldots, F_{k-1}$, and define

$$
\begin{equation*}
B=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} Q_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{-} \widehat{P}_{\sigma(\ell)} \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $B$ is a reflexive inverse of $A$. Moreover, if $P$ and $Q$ are unitary, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
A^{\dagger}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} Q_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{\dagger} P_{\sigma(\ell)}^{*} \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. From (9), (10), (22), (25), and (26),

$$
\begin{align*}
& A B=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{-} \widehat{P}_{\sigma(\ell)}, \quad B A=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} Q_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{-} F_{\ell} \widehat{Q}_{\ell},  \tag{28}\\
& A B A=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{-} F_{\ell} \widehat{Q}_{\ell}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\ell} \widehat{Q}_{\ell}=A \tag{29}
\end{align*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
B A B=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} Q_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{-} F_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{-} \widehat{P}_{\sigma(\ell)}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} Q_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{-} \widehat{P}_{\sigma(\ell)}=B \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

The last two equations show that $B$ is a reflexive inverse of $A$. If $P$ and $Q$ are unitary and we redefine

$$
B=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} Q_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{\dagger} P_{\sigma(\ell)}^{*}
$$

then (28)-(30) become

$$
\begin{align*}
& A B=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{\dagger} P_{\sigma(\ell)}^{*}, \quad B A=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} Q_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{\dagger} F_{\ell} Q_{\ell}^{*}  \tag{31}\\
& A B A=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{\dagger} F_{\ell} Q_{\ell}^{*}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\ell} Q_{\ell}^{*}=A
\end{align*}
$$

and

$$
B A B=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} Q_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{\dagger} F_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{-} P_{\sigma(\ell)}^{*}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} Q_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{\dagger} P_{\sigma(\ell)}^{*}=B
$$

Moreover, from (31)

$$
(A B)^{*}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)}\left(F_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{\dagger}\right)^{*} P_{\sigma(\ell)}^{*}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{\dagger} P_{\sigma(\ell)}^{*}=A B
$$

and

$$
(B A)^{*}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} Q_{\ell}\left(F_{\ell}^{\dagger} F_{\ell}\right)^{*} Q_{\ell}^{*}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} Q_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{\dagger} F_{\ell} Q_{\ell}^{*}=B A
$$

Therefore $B=A^{\dagger}$, which implies (27).

Corollary 3 If $\sigma$ is a permutation, $P$ and $Q$ are unitary, and $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is $\left(R, S_{\sigma}\right)$ commutative, then $A^{\dagger}$ is $\left(S, R_{\sigma^{-1}}\right)$-commutative.

Proof. From (9)-(11), (22), and (27),

$$
S A^{\dagger}=A^{\dagger} R_{\sigma^{-1}}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} \gamma_{\ell} Q_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{\dagger} P_{\sigma(\ell)}^{*}
$$

for arbitrary $\gamma_{0}, \gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{k-1}$.
Remark 2 It is well known - and straightforward to verify - that if $G \in \mathbb{C}^{p \times q}$ and rank $G=q$, then $G^{\dagger}=\left(G^{*} G\right)^{-1} G^{*}$. Hence, (27) implies the folllowing corollary.

Corollary 4 In addition to the assumptions of Theorem 6, suppose that $\operatorname{rank}\left(F_{\ell}\right)=n_{\ell}$, $0 \leq \ell \leq k-1$ (or, equivalently, $\operatorname{rank}(A)=n$ ). Then

$$
A^{\dagger}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} Q_{\ell}\left(F_{\ell}^{*} F_{\ell}\right)^{-1} F_{\ell}^{*} P_{\sigma(\ell)}^{*}
$$

Theorem 7 Suppose $\sigma$ is a permutation, $P$ and $Q$ are unitary, and $A$ is $\left(R, S_{\sigma}\right)$ commutative and therefore of the form

$$
A=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\ell} Q_{\ell}^{*}
$$

by Theorem 2. Let

$$
F_{\ell}=\Omega_{\ell} \Gamma_{\ell} \Phi_{\ell}^{*}, \quad 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1
$$

with

$$
\Omega_{\ell} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_{\sigma(\ell)} \times m_{\sigma(\ell)}}, \quad \Gamma_{\ell} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_{\sigma(\ell)} \times n_{\ell}}, \quad \text { and } \quad \Phi_{\ell} \in \mathbb{C}^{n_{\ell} \times n_{\ell}}, \quad 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1
$$

be singular value decompositions of $F_{\ell}, 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1$. Let

$$
\Omega=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
P_{\sigma(0)} \Omega_{0} & P_{\sigma(1)} \Omega_{1} & \cdots & P_{\sigma(k-1)} \Omega_{k-1}
\end{array}\right]
$$

and

$$
\Phi=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
Q_{0} \Phi_{0} & Q_{1} \Phi_{1} & \cdots & Q_{k-1} \Phi_{k-1}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Then

$$
A=\Omega \operatorname{diag}\left(\Gamma_{0}, \Gamma_{1}, \ldots, \Gamma_{k-1}\right) \Phi^{*}
$$

is a singular value decomposition of $A$, except that the singular values are not necessarily arranged in decreasing order. Thus, for $0 \leq \ell \leq k-1$, each singular value of $F_{\ell}$ is a singular value of $A$ with an associated left singular vector in the column space of $P_{\sigma(\ell)}$ and a right singular vector in the column space of $Q_{\ell}$.

We invoke the first equality in (22) repeatedly in the proof of the following theorem.

Theorem 8 Suppose $\sigma$ is a permutation, $P$ is unitary, and $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ is $\left(R, R_{\sigma}\right)$ commutative, so

$$
A=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\ell} P_{\ell}^{*}
$$

by Theorem 2. Then:
(i) $A$ is Hermitian if and only if $=F_{\sigma(\ell)}^{*} P_{\sigma^{2}(\ell)}^{*}=F_{\ell} P_{\ell}^{*}, 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1$.
(ii) $A$ is normal if and only if $F_{\sigma(\ell)}^{*} F_{\sigma(\ell)}=F_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{*}, 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1$.
(iii) $A$ is $E P$ (i.e., $A A^{\dagger}=A^{\dagger} A$ ) if and only if $F_{\sigma(\ell)}^{\dagger} F_{\sigma(\ell)}=F_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{\dagger}, 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1$.

Proof. Since $R$ is unitary, Theorems 2 and 6 imply that

$$
\begin{equation*}
A=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\ell} P_{\ell}^{*}, A^{*}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{*} P_{\sigma(\ell)}^{*}, \text { and } A^{\dagger}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{\dagger} P_{\sigma(\ell)}^{*} \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

Replacing $\ell$ by $\sigma(\ell)$ in the second sum in (32) yields

$$
A^{*}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\sigma(\ell)}^{*} P_{\sigma^{2}(\ell)}^{*}
$$

and comparing this with the first sum in (32) yields (i).
From (32),

$$
\begin{equation*}
A A^{*}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{*} P_{\sigma(\ell)}^{*} \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
A^{*} A=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{*} F_{\ell} P_{\ell}^{*}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\sigma(\ell)}^{*} F_{\sigma(\ell)} P_{\sigma(\ell)}^{*}
$$

Comparing the second sum here with (33) yields (ii).
From (33),

$$
\begin{equation*}
A A^{\dagger}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{\dagger} P_{\sigma(\ell)}^{*} \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
A^{\dagger} A=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{\dagger} F_{\ell} P_{\ell}^{*}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\sigma(\ell)}^{\dagger} F_{\sigma(\ell)} P_{\sigma(\ell)}^{*}
$$

Comparing the second sum here with (34) yields (iii).

## 6 Solving $A z=w$ and the least-squares problem

Throughout this section $\sigma$ is a permutation and $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is ( $R, S_{\sigma}$ )-commutative, and can therefore be written as in (15).

If $z \in \mathbb{C}^{n}$ and $w \in \mathbb{C}^{m}$, we write

$$
\begin{equation*}
z=Q u=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} Q_{\ell} u_{\ell} \quad \text { and } \quad w=P v=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\ell} v_{\ell} \tag{35}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $u_{\ell} \in \mathbb{C}^{n_{\ell}}$ and $v_{\ell} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_{\ell}}, 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1$.
Theorem 9 If (35) holds then
(a) $A z=w \quad$ if and only if
(b) $\quad F_{\ell} u_{\ell}=v_{\sigma(\ell)}, \quad 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1$.

Proof. From (10), (15), and (35),

$$
\begin{align*}
A z-w & =\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\ell} u_{\ell}-\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\ell} v_{\ell}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\ell} u_{\ell}-\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)} v_{\sigma(\ell)} \\
& =\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)}\left(F_{\ell} u_{\ell}-v_{\sigma(\ell)}\right) \tag{37}
\end{align*}
$$

so (36)(b) implies (36)(a). From (22) and (37),

$$
F_{\ell} u_{\ell}-v_{\sigma(\ell)}=\widehat{P}_{\sigma(\ell)}(A z-w), \quad 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1
$$

so (36)(a) implies (36)(b). $\quad \square$
Since $F_{\ell} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_{\sigma(\ell)} \times n_{\ell}}, 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1$, (36) implies the following theorem.
Theorem $10 A$ is invertible if and only if $m_{\sigma(\ell)}=n_{\ell}$ and $F_{\ell}$ is invertible, $0 \leq \ell \leq$ $k-1$ (which, from (3), implies that $m=n$ ). In this case,

$$
\begin{equation*}
A^{-1}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} Q_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{-1} \widehat{P}_{\sigma(\ell)} \tag{38}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the solution of $A z=w$ is

$$
z=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} Q_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{-1} v_{\sigma(\ell)}
$$

Moreover, $A^{-1}$ is $\left(S, R_{\sigma^{-1}}\right)$-commutative; specifically,

$$
S A^{-1}=A^{-1} R_{\sigma^{-1}}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} \gamma_{\ell} Q_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{-1} \widehat{P}_{\sigma(\ell)}
$$

for arbitrary $\gamma_{0}, \gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{k-1}$.

If $m=n$ and $R=S$ (so $A$ is $\left(R, R_{\sigma}\right)$-commutative), then (38) becomes

$$
A^{-1}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{-1} \widehat{P}_{\sigma(\ell)}
$$

In this case,

$$
A^{-j}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{-1} F_{\sigma(\ell)}^{-1} \cdots F_{\sigma^{j-1}(\ell)}^{-1} \widehat{P}_{\sigma^{j}(\ell)}
$$

which can be verified by simply multiplying the right hand side by $A^{j}$ as written in (24).

Before turning to the least squares problem for $A$, we review some elementary facts about the least squares problem for a matrix $G \in \mathbb{C}^{p \times q}$ and a given $u \in \mathbb{C}^{p}$; i.e., find $v \in \mathbb{C}^{q}$ such that

$$
\|G v-u\|=\min _{\xi \in \mathbb{C}^{q}}\|G \xi-u\|
$$

where $\|\cdot\|$ is the 2-norm. An arbitrary $v \in \mathbb{C}^{p \times q}$ can be written as

$$
v=G^{\dagger} u+G\left(v-G^{\dagger} u\right)
$$

so

$$
\|G v-u\|^{2}=\left\|\left(G G^{\dagger}-I_{p}\right) u\right\|^{2}+\left\|G\left(v-G^{\dagger} u\right)\right\|^{2}
$$

since

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[G\left(v-G^{\dagger} u\right)\right]^{*}\left(G G^{\dagger}-I_{p}\right) u } & =\left[G G^{\dagger} G\left(v-G^{\dagger}\right) u\right]^{*}\left(G G^{\dagger}-I_{p}\right) u \\
& =\left[G\left(v-G^{\dagger} u\right)\right]^{*} G G^{\dagger}\left(G G^{\dagger}-I_{p}\right) u
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
G^{\dagger}\left(G G^{\dagger}-I_{p}\right)=G^{\dagger} G G^{\dagger}-G^{\dagger}=0
$$

Hence,

$$
\min _{\xi \in \mathbb{C}^{q}}\|G \xi-u\|=\left\|\left(G G^{\dagger}-I\right) u\right\|
$$

and this minimum is attained with a given $v$ if and only if $v=G^{\dagger} u+h$ where $G h=0$. In this case, $\|v\|^{2}=\left\|G^{\dagger} u\right\|^{2}+\|h\|^{2}$ since

$$
h^{*} G^{\dagger} u=h^{*} G^{\dagger} G G^{\dagger} u=\left(G^{\dagger} G h\right)^{*} G^{\dagger} u=0
$$

so $v_{0}=G^{\dagger} u$ is the unique solution of (37) with minimal norm, and is therefore called the optimal solution. From Remark 2, $v_{0}=\left(G^{*} G\right)^{-1} G^{*} u$ if $\operatorname{rank}(G)=q$. If $P$ is unitary then (37) implies that

$$
\|A z-w\|^{2}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1}\left\|F_{\ell} u_{\ell}-v_{\sigma(\ell)}\right\|^{2}
$$

so the least squares problem for $A$ and a given $w$ reduces to $k$ independent least squares problems for $F_{\ell} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_{\sigma(\ell)} \times n_{\ell}}$ and a given $v_{\sigma(\ell)} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_{\sigma(\ell)}}, 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1$. Therefore,

$$
\|A z-w\|=\min _{\zeta \in \mathbb{C}^{n}}\|A \zeta-w\|
$$

if and only if

$$
z=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} Q_{\ell}\left(F_{\ell}^{\dagger} v_{\sigma(\ell)}+h_{\ell}\right)
$$

where $F_{\ell} h_{\ell}=0,0 \leq \ell \leq k-1$. If $Q$ is also unitary, then

$$
\|z\|^{2}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1}\left\|F_{\ell}^{\dagger} v_{\sigma(\ell)}+h_{\ell}\right\|^{2}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1}\left\|F_{\ell}^{\dagger} v_{\sigma(\ell)}\right\|^{2}+\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1}\left\|h_{\ell}\right\|^{2}
$$

so the unique optimal (least norm) solution of the least squares problem is

$$
z=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} Q_{\ell} F_{\ell}^{\dagger} v_{\sigma(\ell)}
$$

which can be written as

$$
z=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} Q_{\ell}\left(F_{\ell}^{*} F_{\ell}\right)^{-1} F_{\ell}^{*} v_{\sigma(\ell)} \quad \text { if } \operatorname{rank}\left(F_{\ell}\right)=n_{\ell}, \quad 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1
$$

or, equivalently, if $\operatorname{rank}(A)=n$.

## 7 The eigenvalue problem

Throughout this section $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ is $\left(R, R_{\sigma}\right)$-commutative, and can therefore be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
A=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\ell} \widehat{P}_{\ell} \quad \text { where } \quad F_{\ell} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_{\sigma(\ell)} \times m_{\ell}} \quad 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1 \tag{39}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $\sigma$ is a permutation.
An arbitrary $z \in \mathbb{C}^{m}$ can be written as

$$
z=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\ell} u_{\ell} \quad \text { with } \quad u_{\ell} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_{\ell}}, \quad 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1
$$

Therefore (9) and (39) imply that

$$
\begin{equation*}
A z-\lambda z=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)} F_{\ell} u_{\ell}-\lambda \sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\ell} u_{\ell}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\sigma(\ell)}\left(F_{\ell} u_{\ell}-\lambda u_{\sigma(\ell)}\right) \tag{40}
\end{equation*}
$$

hence, $A z=\lambda z$ if and only if

$$
F_{\ell} u_{\ell}=\lambda u_{\sigma(\ell)}, \quad 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1 .
$$

We first consider the case where $\sigma$ is the identity. The next three theorems are essentially restatements of results from [21], recast so as to be consistent with viewpoint that we have taken in this paper.

Let $\zeta_{\ell}$ denote the column space of $P_{\ell}$ and let $\zeta=\cup_{\ell=0}^{k-1} \zeta_{\ell}$.
Theorem 11 If $A$ commutes with $R$ then $\lambda$ is an eigenvalue of $A$ if and only if $\lambda$ is an eigenvalue of one or more of the matrices $F_{0}, F_{1}, \ldots, F_{k-1}$. Assuming this to be true, let

$$
S_{A}(\lambda)=\left\{\ell \in\{0,1, \ldots, k-1\} \mid \lambda \text { is an eigenvalue of } F_{\ell}\right\} .
$$

If $\ell \in S_{A}(\lambda)$ and $\left\{u_{\ell}^{(1)}, u_{\ell}^{(2)}, \cdots, u_{\ell}^{\left(d_{\ell}\right)}\right\}$ is a basisfor the set $\left\{u_{\ell} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_{\ell} \times m_{\ell}} \mid F_{\ell} u_{\ell}=\lambda u_{\ell}\right\}$, then $P_{\ell} u_{\ell}^{(1)}, P_{\ell} u_{\ell}^{(2)}, \ldots, P_{\ell} u_{\ell}^{\left(d_{\ell}\right)}$ are linearly independent $\lambda$-eigenvectors of $A$. Moreover,

$$
\bigcup_{\ell \in S_{A}(\lambda)}\left\{P_{\ell} u_{\ell}^{(1)}, P_{\ell} u_{\ell}^{(2)}, \cdots, P_{\ell} u_{\ell}^{\left(d_{\ell}\right)}\right\}
$$

is a basis for the $\lambda$-eigenspace of $A$. Finally, $A$ is diagonalizable if and only if $F_{0}, F_{1}$, $\ldots, F_{k-1}$ are all diagonalizable. In this case, $A$ has $m_{\ell}$ linearly independent eigenvectors in $\bigodot_{\ell}, 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1$.

It seems useful to consider the case where $A$ is diagonalizable more explicitly.
Theorem 12 Suppose a diagonalizable matrix $A$ commutes with $R$ and and $F_{\ell}=$ $\Omega_{\ell} D_{\ell} \Omega_{\ell}^{-1}$ is a spectral decomposition of $F_{\ell}, 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1$. Let

$$
\Omega=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
P_{0} \Omega_{0} & P_{1} \Omega_{1} & \cdots & P_{k-1} \Omega_{k-1}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Then

$$
A=\Omega\left(\bigoplus_{s=0}^{k-1} D_{\ell}\right) \Omega^{-1}
$$

with

$$
\Omega^{-1}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
\Omega_{0}^{-1} \widehat{P}_{0} \\
\Omega_{1}^{-1} \widehat{P}_{1} \\
\vdots \\
\Omega_{k-1}^{-1} \widehat{P}_{k-1}
\end{array}\right]
$$

is a spectral decomposition of $A$.
Remark 3 It is well known that commuting diagonalizable matrices are simultaneouly diagonalizable. Theorem 12 makes this explicit, since since $\Omega R \Omega^{-1}$ and $\Omega A \Omega^{-1}$ are both diagonal.

The original version of the following theorem, which dealt with centrosymmetric matrices, is due to Andrew [2, Theorem 6]. The proof is practically identical to Andrew's original proof.

## Theorem 13

(i) If $A$ commutes with $R$ and $\lambda$ is an eigenvalue of $A$, then the $\lambda$-eigenspace of $S$ has a basis in $\smile$.
(ii) If $A$ has $n$ linearly independent eigenvectors in $\varphi$, then $A$ commutes with $R$.

Proof. (i) See Theorem 11. (ii) If $z \in \mathcal{C}$ then $R z=\gamma_{\ell} z$ for some $\ell \in \mathbb{Z}_{k}$. If $A z=\lambda z$ and $R z=\gamma_{\ell} z$, then

$$
R A z=\lambda R z=\lambda \gamma_{\ell} z \quad \text { and } \quad A R z=\gamma_{\ell} A z=\gamma_{\ell} \lambda z ;
$$

hence, $R A z=A R z$. Now suppose that $A$ has $n$ linearly independent eigenvectors $\left\{z_{1}, z_{2}, \ldots, z_{n}\right\}$ in $\mathcal{C}$. Then we can write an arbitrary $z \in \mathbb{C}^{n}$ as $z=\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} z_{i}$. Since $R A z_{i}=A R z_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq n$, it follows that $R A z=A R z$. Therefore $A R=R A$. $\square$

For the remainder of this section we assume that $A$ is $\left(R, R_{\sigma}\right)$-commutative and $\sigma$ is a permutation other than the identity.

The following theorem shows that finding the null space of $A$ reduces to finding the null spaces of $F_{0}, F_{1}, \ldots, F_{k-1}$.

Theorem 14 If $A$ is $\left(R, R_{\sigma}\right)$-commutative and $\sigma$ is a permutation then $A z=0$ if and only if $z=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\ell} u_{\ell}$, where

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{\ell} u_{\ell}=0, \quad 0 \leq \ell \leq k-1 ; \tag{41}
\end{equation*}
$$

hence, the null space if $A$ is independent of $\sigma$ (so long as $\sigma$ is a permutation).
Proof. Clearly, (41) implies that $A z=0$ without any assumption on $\sigma$. For the converse, note from (22) and (40) that if $\sigma$ is a permutation then $\widehat{P}_{\sigma(\ell)} A z=F_{\ell} u_{\ell}$, $0 \leq \ell \leq k-1$, so $A z=0$ implies (41).

Henceforth we assume that $\lambda \neq 0$. In this case, suppose that $\sigma$ has $p$ orbits $\mathcal{O}_{0}$, $\ldots, \mathcal{O}_{p-1}$. If $p=1$, then $\sigma$ is a $k$-cycle and $\mathbb{Z}_{k}=\left\{\sigma^{j}(0) \mid 0 \leq j \leq k-1\right\}$. In any case, if $\ell_{r} \in \mathcal{O}_{r}, 0 \leq r \leq p-1$, then $\mathbb{Z}_{k}=\mathcal{O}_{0} \cup \cdots \cup \mathcal{O}_{p-1}$, where

$$
\mathcal{O}_{r}=\left\{\sigma^{j}\left(\ell_{r}\right) \mid 0 \leq j \leq k_{r}-1\right\}, \quad 0 \leq r \leq p-1
$$

and $k_{0}+\cdots+k_{p-1}=k$. It is important to note that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sigma^{k_{r}}\left(\ell_{r}\right)=\ell_{r}, \quad 0 \leq r \leq p-1 \tag{42}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $k_{0}, k_{1}, \ldots, k_{p-1}$ are respectively the smallest positive integers for which these equalities hold. In Example $1, p=3, \mathcal{O}_{0}=\{0,1,3\}, \mathcal{O}_{1}=\{2,4\}, \mathcal{O}_{2}=\{5\}$, so $k_{0}=3, k_{1}=2, k_{3}=1, \mathbb{Z}_{6}=\mathcal{O}_{0} \cup \mathcal{O}_{1} \cup \mathcal{O}_{2}$, and we may choose $\ell_{0}=0, \ell_{1}=2$, and $\ell_{2}=5$.

To solve the eigenvalue problem, we rearrange the terms in $z=\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} P_{\ell} u_{\ell}$ as

$$
\begin{equation*}
z=\sum_{r=0}^{p-1} z_{r} \quad \text { with } \quad z_{r}=\sum_{j=0}^{k_{r}-1} P_{\sigma^{j}\left(\ell_{r}\right)} u_{\sigma^{j}\left(\ell_{r}\right)}, \quad 0 \leq r \leq p-1 \tag{43}
\end{equation*}
$$

and rearrange the terms in (39) as

$$
\begin{equation*}
A=\sum_{r=0}^{p-1} A_{r} \quad \text { with } \quad A_{r}=\sum_{j=0}^{k_{r}-1} P_{\sigma^{j+1}\left(\ell_{r}\right)} F_{\sigma^{j}\left(\ell_{r}\right)} \widehat{P}_{\sigma^{j}\left(\ell_{r}\right)}, \quad 0 \leq r \leq p-1 \tag{44}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since (9) implies that $A_{r} A_{s}=0$ if $r \neq s$, we can replace (44) by

$$
A=A_{0} \oplus A_{1} \oplus \cdots \oplus A_{p-1}
$$

hence, $A z=\lambda z$ if and only if

$$
A_{r} z_{r}=\lambda z_{r}, \quad 0 \leq r \leq p-1
$$

Therefore, the eigenvalue problem for $A$ reduces to $p$ independent eigenvalue problems for $A_{0}, A_{1}, \ldots, A_{p-1}$.

From (43) and (44), $A_{r} z_{r}=\lambda z_{r}$ if and only if
$\sum_{j=0}^{k_{r}-1} P_{\sigma^{j+1}\left(\ell_{r}\right)} F_{\sigma^{j}\left(\ell_{r}\right)} u_{\sigma^{j}\left(\ell_{r}\right)}=\lambda \sum_{j=0}^{k_{r}-1} P_{\sigma^{j}\left(\ell_{r}\right)} u_{\sigma^{j}\left(\ell_{r}\right)}=\lambda \sum_{j=0}^{k_{r}-1} P_{\sigma^{j+1}\left(\ell_{r}\right)} u_{\sigma^{j+1}\left(\ell_{r}\right)}$,
which is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{\sigma^{j}\left(\ell_{r}\right)} u_{\sigma^{j}\left(\ell_{r}\right)}=\lambda u_{\sigma^{j+1}\left(\ell_{r}\right)}, \quad 0 \leq j \leq k_{r}-1 \tag{45}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $k_{r}=1$ then $\sigma\left(\ell_{r}\right)=\ell_{r}$ and (44) becomes $F_{\ell_{r}} u_{\ell_{r}}=\lambda u_{\ell_{r}}$; hence, if $\left(\lambda, u_{\ell_{r}}\right)$ is an eigenpair of $F_{\ell_{r}}$ then $z_{r}=P_{\ell_{r}} u_{\ell_{r}}$ is $\lambda$-eigenvector of $A$.

If $k_{r}>1$ then (42) and (44) imply that

$$
G_{r} u_{\ell_{r}}=\lambda^{k} u_{\ell_{r}}, \quad \text { where } \quad G_{r}=F_{\sigma^{k r-1}\left(\ell_{r}\right)} \cdots F_{\sigma\left(\ell_{r}\right)} F_{\ell_{r}} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_{\ell_{r}} \times m_{\ell_{r}}} .
$$

Therefore, if $v$ is a nonzero eigenvalue of $G_{r}$ and $\zeta=e^{2 \pi i / k_{r}}$, then $v^{1 / k}, v^{1 / k} \zeta, \ldots$, $\nu^{1 / k} \zeta^{k_{r}-1}$ are distinct eigenvalues of $A_{r}$ (and therefore of $A$ ). If $\lambda$ is any one of these eigenvalues, then the corresponding eigenvector $z_{r}$ of $A_{r}$ (and therefore of $A$ ) is given by (43), where $u_{\sigma^{j}\left(\ell_{r}\right)}, 1 \leq j \leq k_{r-1}$, can be computed recursively from (44) as

$$
u_{\sigma^{j}\left(\ell_{r}\right)}=\frac{1}{\lambda} F_{\sigma^{j-1}\left(\ell_{r}\right)} u_{\sigma^{j-1}\left(\ell_{r}\right)}, \quad 1 \leq j \leq k_{r}-1
$$

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