

MTH207A: Matrix Theory and Linear Estimation (Module II)

Satya Prakash Singh

Indian Institute of Technology Kanpur, India

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Definition 1

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix. A matrix G of order $n \times m$ is said to be a generalized inverse (or a g -inverse) of A if $AGA = A$.

Remark 1: If A is square and nonsingular, then A^{-1} is the unique g -inverse of A . Otherwise, A has infinitely many g -inverses.

g-inverse

Theorem 2

Let A, G be matrices of order $m \times n$ and $n \times m$ respectively. Then the following conditions are equivalent:

- (i) G is a g -inverse of A .
- (ii) For any $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{C}(A)$, $\mathbf{x} = G\mathbf{y}$ is a solution of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$.

g-inverse

Proof: (i) \Rightarrow (ii). Any $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{C}(\mathbf{A})$ is of the form $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{z}$ for some \mathbf{z} . Then $\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{G}\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{G}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y}$.

(ii) \Rightarrow (i). Since $AG\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}$ for any $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{C}(A)$ we have $AGA\mathbf{z} = A\mathbf{z}$ for all \mathbf{z} . In particular, if we let \mathbf{z} be the i th column of the identity matrix, then we see that the i th columns of AGA and A are identical. Therefore, $AGA = A$.

Factorization theorem

Theorem 3

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix of rank r , $r \neq 0$. Then there exist matrices B and C of order $m \times r$ and $r \times n$, respectively, such that $\text{Rank}(B) = \text{Rank}(C) = r$ and $A = BC$. This decomposition is called a rank factorization of A .

Left and right inverse

Theorem 4

Let B be an $m \times r$ matrix of rank r . Then there exists a matrix X (called a left inverse of B), such that $XB = I$.

Theorem 5

Let C be an $r \times n$ matrix of rank r . Then there exists a matrix Y (called a right inverse of C), such that $CY = I$.

Proof of left inverse

Proof: If $m = r$, then B is nonsingular and admits an inverse. So suppose $r < m$. The columns of B are linearly independent. Thus we can find a set of $m - r$ columns that together with the columns of B form a basis for \mathbb{R}^m . In other words, we can find a matrix U of order $m \times (m - r)$ such that $[B, U]$ is nonsingular. Let the inverse of $[B, U]$ be partitioned as $\begin{bmatrix} X \\ V \end{bmatrix}$, where X is $r \times m$. Since

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X} \\ \mathbf{V} \end{bmatrix} [\mathbf{B} \quad \mathbf{U}] = \mathbf{I}, \quad (1)$$

we have $XB = I$.

Left inverse

Theorem 6

Let B be an $m \times r$ matrix of rank r . Then there exists a nonsingular matrix P such that

$$\text{PB} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{I} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Proof: Directly follows from (1).

Right inverse

Theorem 7

Let C be an $r \times n$ matrix of rank r . Then there exists a nonsingular matrix Q such that

$$\mathbf{CQ} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Result

Theorem 8

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix of rank r . Then there exist nonsingular matrices P and Q such that

$$\text{PAQ} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_r & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Left inverse

Proof: By Factorization Theorem 3 there exist matrices B and C of order $m \times r$ and $r \times n$, respectively, such that $\text{Rank}(B) = \text{Rank}(C) = r$ and $A = BC$. Now by Theorems 6 and 7 we have

$$PB = \begin{bmatrix} I \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad CQ = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

where P and Q are some nonsingular matrices. Therefore,

$$PAQ = PBCQ = \begin{bmatrix} I_r & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Results

Result: Let A be a matrix with of rank r and $A = BC$ be its rank factorization. Then $G = C_r^- B_l^-$ is a g -inverse of A where B_l^- and C_r^- are left and right inverses of B and C respectively.

Results

Result: Consider the matrices U , V and W of appropriate dimensions. It can be easily verified that $\begin{bmatrix} I & U \\ V & W \end{bmatrix}$ is a g -inverse of $\begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. By Theorem 8 any matrix A of rank r can be written as $A = P \begin{bmatrix} I_r & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} Q$ for some nonsingular matrices P and Q . Now it can be verified that $Q^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} I & U \\ V & W \end{bmatrix} P^{-1}$ is a g -inverse of A .

Results

Result: Let A be of rank r . Choose any $r \times r$ nonsingular submatrix of A such that

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

where A_{11} is $r \times r$ and nonsingular. Then it can be verified that

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_{11}^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

is a g -inverse of A .

Results

Theorem 9

If G is a g -inverse of A , then $\mathcal{R}(A) = \mathcal{R}(AG) = \mathcal{R}(GA)$.

Proof: $\mathcal{R}(A) = \mathcal{R}(AGA) \leq \mathcal{R}(AG) \leq \mathcal{R}(A)$. Similarly,
 $\mathcal{R}(A) = \mathcal{R}(AGA) \leq \mathcal{R}(GA) \leq \mathcal{R}(A)$.

Reflexive g -inverse

Definition 10

A g -inverse of A is called a *reflexive g -inverse* if it also satisfies $GAG = G$. Observe that if G is any g -inverse of A , then GAG is a reflexive g -inverse of A .

Reflexive g -inverse

Theorem 11

Let G be a g -inverse of A . Then $\mathcal{R}_n(A) \leq \mathcal{R}_n(G)$. Furthermore, equality holds if and only if G is reflexive.

Proof: For any g -inverse G we have

$\mathcal{R}_n(A) = \mathcal{R}_n(AGA) \leq \mathcal{R}_n(G)$. If G is reflexive, then

$\mathcal{R}_n(G) = \mathcal{R}_n(GAG) \leq \mathcal{R}_n(A)$ and hence $\mathcal{R}_n(A) = \mathcal{R}_n(G)$.

Reflexive g -inverse

Conversely, suppose $\mathcal{R}_n(A) = \mathcal{R}_n(G)$. First observe that $\mathcal{C}(GA) \subset \mathcal{C}(G)$. By Theorem 9, $\mathcal{R}_n(G) = \mathcal{R}_n(GA)$, and hence $\mathcal{C}(G) = \mathcal{C}(GA)$. Therefore, $G = GAX$ for some X . Now,

$$GAG = GAGAX = GAX = G,$$

and G is reflexive.

g -inverse

Theorem 12

Let A be a $m \times n$ matrix, let G be a g -inverse of A and let $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{C}(A)$. Then the class of solutions of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ is given by $G\mathbf{y} + (I - GA)\mathbf{z}$, where \mathbf{z} is arbitrary.

Proof: For any \mathbf{z} ,

$$A\{G\mathbf{y} + (I - GA)\mathbf{z}\} = AG\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y},$$

since $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{C}(A)$, and hence $G\mathbf{y} + (I - GA)\mathbf{z}$ is a solution.

g -inverse

Conversely, if \mathbf{u} is a solution i.e. $A\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{y}$, then set $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{u} - G\mathbf{y}$ and calculate

$$\begin{aligned}
 G\mathbf{y} + (I - GA)\mathbf{z} &= G\mathbf{y} + (I - GA)(\mathbf{u} - G\mathbf{y}) \\
 &= G\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{u} - GA\mathbf{u} - G\mathbf{y} + GAG\mathbf{y} \\
 &= \mathbf{u} - G\mathbf{y} + GAG\mathbf{u} \\
 &= \mathbf{u} - G\mathbf{y} + GA\mathbf{u} \\
 &= \mathbf{u} - G\mathbf{y} + G\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{u}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Minimum norm g -inverse

Definition 13

A g -inverse G of A is said to be a minimum norm g -inverse of A if in addition to $AGA = A$, it satisfies $(GA)' = GA$.

Minimum norm g -inverse

Theorem 14

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix. Then the following conditions are equivalent:

- (i) G is a minimum norm g -inverse of A .*
- (ii) For any $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{C}(A)$, $\mathbf{x} = G\mathbf{y}$ is a solution of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ with minimum norm.*

Minimum norm g -inverse

Proof: (i) \Rightarrow (ii) We know from Theorem 12 that the class of solutions of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ is $G\mathbf{y} + (I - GA)\mathbf{z}$ for arbitrary \mathbf{z} . We have to show that

$$\|G\mathbf{y}\| \leq \|G\mathbf{y} + (I - GA)\mathbf{z}\| \quad (2)$$

for any $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{C}(A)$ and any \mathbf{z} .

We have

$$\|G\mathbf{y} + (I - GA)\mathbf{z}\|^2 = \|G\mathbf{y}\|^2 + \|(I - GA)\mathbf{z}\|^2 + 2\mathbf{y}'G'(I - GA)\mathbf{z}. \quad (3)$$

Since $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{C}(A)$, then $\mathbf{y} = A\mathbf{u}$ for some \mathbf{u} . Hence

$$\mathbf{y}'G'(I - GA)\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{u}'A'G'(I - GA)\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{u}'GA(I - GA)\mathbf{z} = 0,$$

since $(GA)' = GA$ and $AGA = A$. Inserting this in (3) we get (2).

Minimum norm g -inverse

(ii) \Rightarrow (i). Since for any $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{C}(A)$, $\mathbf{x} = G\mathbf{y}$ is a solution of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$, by Theorem 2, G is a g -inverse of A . Now from (2) and (3) we have

$$0 \leq \|(I - GA)\mathbf{z}\|^2 + 2\mathbf{u}'A'G'(I - GA)\mathbf{z} \quad (4)$$

for all \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{z} .

Replace \mathbf{u} by $\alpha\mathbf{u}$ in (4). If $\mathbf{u}'A'G'(I - GA)\mathbf{z} < 0$, then choosing α large and positive we get a contradiction to (4).

Minimum norm g -inverse

Similarly, if $\mathbf{u}'\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{G}'(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{GA})\mathbf{z} > 0$ then choosing α large and negative we get a contradiction. We therefore conclude that

$$\mathbf{u}'\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{G}'(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{GA})\mathbf{z} = 0$$

for all \mathbf{u} , \mathbf{z} and hence $\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{G}'(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{GA}) = \mathbf{0}$. Thus $\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{G}'$ equals $(\mathbf{GA})'\mathbf{GA}$, which is symmetric.

Least squares g -inverse

Definition 15

A g -inverse G of A is said to be a least squares g -inverse of A if in addition to $AGA = A$, it satisfies $(AG)' = AG$.

Theorem 16

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix. Then the following conditions are equivalent:

- (i) G is a least squares g -inverse of A .
- (ii) For any \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} , $\|AG\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}\| \leq \|A\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|$.

Least squares g -inverse

Proof: (i) \Rightarrow (ii) Let $\mathbf{x} - G\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{w}$. We have to show that

$$\|AG\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}\| \leq \|AG\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y} + A\mathbf{w}\|. \quad (5)$$

We have

$$\|AG\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y} + A\mathbf{w}\|^2 = \|AG\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}\|^2 + \|A\mathbf{w}\|^2 + 2\mathbf{w}'A'(AG - I)\mathbf{y}. \quad (6)$$

But

$$\mathbf{w}'A'(AG - I)\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{w}'(A'G'A' - A')\mathbf{y} = 0,$$

since $(AG)' = AG$. Inserting this in (6) we get (5).

Least squares g -inverse

Proof: $(ii) \Rightarrow (i)$. For any vector \mathbf{x} , set $\mathbf{y} = A\mathbf{x}$ in (ii) . Then we see that

$$\|AGA\mathbf{x} - A\mathbf{x}\| \leq \|A\mathbf{x} - A\mathbf{x}\| = 0$$

and hence $AGA\mathbf{x} = A\mathbf{x}$. Since \mathbf{x} is arbitrary, $AGA = A$, and therefore G is a g -inverse of A . The remaining part of the proof parallels that of $(ii) \Rightarrow (i)$ of Theorem 14.

Least squares g -inverse

Theorem 17

An $n \times m$ matrix G is a least squares generalized inverse of an $m \times n$ matrix A if and only if $A'AG = A'$, or, equivalently, if and only if $G'A'A = A$.

Least squares g -inverse

Proof: Suppose that $A'AG = A'$ or, equivalently, that $G'A'A = A$. Then, $A'AGA = A'A$, implying that $AGA = A$ (verify!). Moreover, $AG = G'A'AG = (AG)'AG$, so that AG is symmetric. Thus, G is a least squares generalized inverse of A .

Conversely, if G is a least squares generalized inverse of A , then

$$A'AG = A'(AG)' = (AGA)' = A'$$

.

Least squares g -inverse

Proof: Verification that $A'AGA = A'A$, imply $AGA = A$.

Note that

$$(AGA - A)'(AGA - A) = (GA - I)'(A'AGA - A'A) = 0.$$

Thus, $AGA - A = 0$.

Moore–Penrose (MP) inverse

Definition 18

If G is a reflexive g -inverse of A that is both minimum norm and least squares then it is called a *Moore–Penrose inverse* of A . In other words, G is a Moore–Penrose inverse of A if it satisfies

$$\text{AGA} = \text{A}, \text{GAG} = \text{G}, (\text{AG})' = \text{AG}, (\text{GA})' = \text{GA}. \quad (7)$$

Moore–Penrose inverse: Uniqueness

Let G_1 and G_2 are two MP inverses of A . Then both G_1 and G_2 will satisfy (7).

$$\begin{aligned}
 G_1 &= G_1 A G_1 = G_1 G_1' A' = G_1 G_1' A' G_2' A' \\
 &= G_1 G_1' A' A G_2 = G_1 A G_1 A G_2 = G_1 A G_2 \\
 &= G_1 A G_2 A G_2 = G_1 A A' G_2' G_2 = A' G_1' A' G_2' G_2 \\
 &= A' G_2' G_2 = G_2 A G_2 = G_2.
 \end{aligned}$$

Moore–Penrose inverse: Existence

We will denote the MP inverse of A by A^+ . We now show the existence. Let $A = BC$ be a rank factorization. Then it can be easily verified that

$$B^+ = (B'B)^{-1}B', \quad C^+ = C'(CC')^{-1},$$

and then

$$A^+ = C^+B^+.$$