

DETERMINATION OF A MATRIX BY ITS SUBCLASSES OF GENERALIZED INVERSES

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SUMMARY. The main result of the paper is: $AB^*A = A$ and $BA^*B = B \implies A = B$, where A^* and B^* are the unique Moore-Penrose inverse of A and B respectively. This is a stronger result than uniqueness of Moore-Penrose inverse. Some other results are established generalizing the earlier result of Rao and Mitra (1971) that a matrix is uniquely determined by the entire class of its g -inverses.

1. INTRODUCTION

Rao and Mitra (1971) have shown that if every g -inverse of A is a g -inverse of B and vice-versa, then $A = B$ (see Theorem 2.4.2, p. 27) or, in other words, a matrix is completely determined by its class of g -inverses. In this paper, we explore the possibilities of characterizing a matrix by its subclasses of g -inverses.

We denote a particular choice of g -inverse of A by A^- and the entire class by $\{A^-\}$. Similarly the reflexive, minimum norm and least squares inverses and their classes are denoted by $A_r^-, \{A_r^-\}$, $A_m^-, \{A_m^-\}$, $A_l^-, \{A_l^-\}$, respectively. The symbols $A_{m,r}^-, \{A_{m,r}^-\}$, etc., have obvious meaning (see also Table 3.6, p. 16 of Rao and Mitra, 1971).

It is obvious that if $A^+ = B^+$ then $A = B$, since $(A^+)^+ = A$ and $(B^+)^+ = B$, and the Moore-Penrose inverse is unique. However, the more general result is proved in Theorem 4: $A^+ \in \{B^-\}$ and $B^+ \in \{A^-\} \implies A = B$. The other results are:

$$(i) \{A_r^-\} \subset \{B^-\} \text{ and } R(A) = R(B) \implies A = B,$$

$$(ii) \{A_m^-\} \subset \{B_m^-\} \implies A = B, \text{ and}$$

$$(iii) \{A_m^-\} \subset \{B_{m,r}^-\} \implies A = B.$$

It is also shown by counter examples:

$$(iv) \{A_r^-\} \subset \{B^-\} \text{ and } R(A) = R(B) \not\Rightarrow A = B,$$

$$(v) \{A_r^-\} = \{B_r^-\} \not\Rightarrow A = B, \text{ and}$$

$$(vi) \{A_r^-\} = \{B_r^-\} \not\Rightarrow A = B$$

where A_r^- and A_r^- are ρ and χ -inverses. (See also Table 3.6, p. 16 of Rao and Mitra, 1971).

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2. SOME PRELIMINARY LEMMAS

In the sequel, we use the following lemmas. Lemma 1 is given in Rao and Mitra (1971), (see Lemma 2.2.4 on p. 21 and example 14 on p. 43).

Lemma 1 : BA^+C is invariant and non-null for all choices of g -inverses of A if and only if B and C are non-null matrices, $\mathcal{M}(C) \subset \mathcal{M}(A)$ and $\mathcal{M}(B^*) \subset \mathcal{M}(A^*)$.

Proof : We observe that a general representation of a g -inverse G of A is

$$G = A^- + (I - P_{A^*})U + V(I - P_A) \quad \dots (2.1)$$

where U and V are arbitrary and A^- is a particular choice. (Two other representations are given in formulae (2.4.2) and (2.4.3) of Rao and Mitra, (1971)). Pre- and post-multiplying both sides of (2.1) by B and C respectively and noting that $BGC = BA^+C$, we find

$$B(I - P_{A^*})UC + BV(I - P_A)C = 0 \quad \dots (2.2)$$

for all U and V implying that

$$B(I - P_{A^*}) = 0 \text{ and } (I - P_A)C = 0 \quad \dots (2.3)$$

which establishes the desired results.

Lemma 2 : Let A and B be matrices of the same order. Then the following statements (i) and (ii) are equivalent :

$$(i) \quad A = B \quad \dots (2.4)$$

$$(ii) \quad A^*AA^* = A^*BA^*, \quad B^*BB^* = B^*AB^* \quad \dots (2.5)$$

Proof : Trivially (2.4) \implies (2.5). To prove the converse, observe that (2.5) $\implies R(A) = R(B) = r$ (say).

Consider the singular value decompositions of A and B

$$A = U_1 \Delta_1 V_1^*, \quad B = U_2 \Delta_2 V_2^* \quad \dots (2.6)$$

where for $i = 1, 2$, U_i, V_i are unitary matrices,

$$\Delta_i = \begin{pmatrix} D_i & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and D_i is a diagonal matrix of order $r \times r$ with strictly positive diagonal elements.

Let $W_1 = U_1^* U_2$ and $W_2 = V_2^* V_1$. Let W_i be partitioned as $\begin{pmatrix} W_{i1} & W_{i2} \\ W_{i3} & W_{i4} \end{pmatrix}$ such that the submatrix W_{i1} is of order $r \times r$.

Check that (2.5) \implies

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_1^* \Delta_1 \Delta_1^* &= \Delta_1 W_1^* \Delta_2 W_1 \Delta_1^*, \quad \Delta_2^* \Delta_2 \Delta_2^* = \Delta_2 W_2^* \Delta_1 W_2 \Delta_2^* \\ \implies D_1^* &= D_1 W_{11} D_2 W_{11}^* D_1, \quad D_2^* = D_2 W_{21}^* D_1 W_{21} D_2 \\ \implies |D_1| &= |W_{11} W_{11}^*| |D_1| |W_{21} W_{21}^*| \quad \dots (2.7) \end{aligned}$$

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However, since $W_{i1}W_{i1}^*$ and $W_{i2}W_{i2}^*$ are n.n.d. matrices

$$W_{i1}W_{i1}^* + W_{i2}W_{i2}^* = I \implies |W_{i1}W_{i1}^*| < 1$$

and the sign of equality holds iff $W_{i2} = 0$.

Hence from (2.7), $W_{i2} = 0$, $i = 1, 2$

$$\implies \mathcal{A}(A) = \mathcal{A}(B), \mathcal{A}(A^*) = \mathcal{A}(B^*)$$

$$\implies A = BKB, B = ALA \text{ for some } K \text{ and } L.$$

Thus in view of (2.5) we have

$$ALA = B = BB^*B = ALAB^*(B^*BB^*)^-B^*ALA$$

$$= ALAB^*(B^*AB^*)^-B^*ALA = ALALA \text{ and}$$

$$A = BKB = ALAKB = ALALAKB = ALA = B.$$

3. THE MAIN RESULTS

Theorem 1 : $\{A_r\} \subset \{B_r\}$ and $R(A) = R(B) \implies A = B$.

Proof: Let G be a particular g-inverse of A . Then A^-AG and GAA^- are reflexive g-inverses of A for any $A^-e\{A^-$. Then, $R(A) = R(B)$ and $BA^-AGB = B$ for all $A^- \implies \mathcal{A}(B^*) = \mathcal{A}(A^*)$ by applying Lemma 1. Again, $R(A) = R(B)$ and $BGAA^-B = B$ for all $A^- \implies \mathcal{A}(A) = \mathcal{A}(B)$. Hence $B = DA = AE$ for some D and E . Now, $BA_rB = B \implies B = BE = DB \implies B(I-E) = 0 \implies A(I-E) = 0 \implies A = B$.

Corollary : $\{A_r\} \subset \{B_r\}$ and $R(A) = R(B) \implies A = B$.

Note: However, $\{A_r\} \subset \{B_r\}$ and $R(A) = R(B) \not\Rightarrow A = B$. This is demonstrated by the example

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad \dots (3.1)$$

The same example demonstrates that $\{A_r\} \subset \{B_r\} \not\Rightarrow A = B$.

However, the following Theorem 2 is true.

Theorem 2 : $\{A_r\} \subset \{B_r\} \implies A = B$.

Proof: First observe that under the given hypothesis $R(A) = R(B)$. Further, $B^*B(A^*A)^-A^* = B^*$ for all $(A^*A)^-$ and $R(A) = R(B) \implies \mathcal{A}(A) = \mathcal{A}(B)$ and $\mathcal{A}(A^*) = \mathcal{A}(B^*)$. The rest of the proof follows as in Theorem 1.

Theorem 3 : $\{A_{\sim}\} \subset \{B_{\sim}\} \implies A = B$.

Proof: The result is established as in Theorem 2.

Theorem 4 : $A^*e\{B_r\}$ and $B^*e\{A_r\} \implies A = B$.

Proof: Clearly $A^* \epsilon(B^-)$, $B^* \epsilon(A^-) \implies R(A) = R(B)$. Further $A^* \epsilon(B^-) \implies BA^*B = B \implies A^*AA^* = A^*BA^*$ using the representations

$$A = U_{11}D_1V_{11}^*, \quad B = U_{21}D_2V_{21}^*,$$

$$A^+ = V_{11}D_1^{-1}U_{11}^*, \quad B^+ = V_{21}D_2^{-1}U_{21}^*,$$

where U_{11} , V_{11} , U_{21} and V_{21} are partitions of U_1 , V_1 , U_2 and V_2 defined in (2.6). Similarly $B^* \epsilon(A^-) \implies B^*BB^* = B^*AB^*$. Hence Theorem 4 follows from Lemma 2.

REFERENCE

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