

First-order theorem proving for operator statements

Clemens Hofstadler

joint work with Georg Regensburger and Clemens G. Raab
Dagstuhl, 16 October 2024

Institute for Symbolic Artificial Intelligence, JKU Linz, Austria

DISCRETE MATHEMATICS AND ITS APPLICATIONS

Series Editor KENNETH H. ROSEN

HANDBOOK OF LINEAR ALGEBRA

SECOND EDITION

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 6 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Edited by

Leslie Hogben



CRC Press

Taylor & Francis Group

A CHAPMAN & HALL BOOK

5.7 Pseudo-Inverse

Definitions:

A **Moore–Penrose pseudo-inverse** of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is a matrix $A^\dagger \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$ that satisfies the following four **Penrose** conditions:

$$AA^\dagger A = A; \quad A^\dagger AA^\dagger = A^\dagger; \quad (AA^\dagger)^* = AA^\dagger; \quad (A^\dagger A)^* = A^\dagger A.$$

Facts:

All the following facts except those with a specific reference can be found in [Gra83, pp. 105–141] or [RM71, pp. 44–67].

- Every $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ has a unique pseudo-inverse $A^\dagger$.
- If $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, then $A^\dagger$ is real.
- If $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ of rank r has a full rank decomposition $A = BC$, where $B \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times r}$ and $C \in \mathbb{C}^{r \times n}$, then $A^\dagger$ can be evaluated using $A^\dagger = C^*(B^*AC^*)^{-1}B^*$.
- [LH95, p. 38] If $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ of rank $r \leq \min\{m, n\}$ has an SVD $A = U\Sigma V^*$, then its pseudo-inverse is $A^\dagger = V\Sigma^\dagger U^*$, where

$$\Sigma^\dagger = \text{diag}(1/\sigma_1, \dots, 1/\sigma_r, 0, \dots, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}.$$

- [Hig96, p. 412] The pseudo-inverse $A^\dagger$ of $A \in F^{m \times n}$ ($F = \mathbb{C}$ or $\mathbb{R}$) solves the minimization problem

$$\min_{X \in F^{n \times m}} \|AX - I_m\|_F^2.$$

- $0_{mn}^\dagger = 0_{nm}$ and $J_{mn}^\dagger = \frac{1}{mn} J_{nm}$, where $0_{nm} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is the all 0s matrix and $J_{mn} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is the all 1s matrix.

- If $\mathbf{x} \neq 0$, $\mathbf{y} \neq 0$, then $(\mathbf{xy}^*)^\dagger = \frac{\mathbf{yx}^*}{\|\mathbf{x}\|^2 \|\mathbf{y}\|^2}$.

- If $\mathbf{x} \neq 0$, then $\mathbf{x}^\dagger = \frac{\mathbf{x}^*}{\|\mathbf{x}\|^2}$.

- Let α be a scalar. Denote

$$\alpha^\dagger = \begin{cases} \alpha^{-1}, & \text{if } \alpha \neq 0, \\ 0, & \text{if } \alpha = 0. \end{cases}$$

Then

$$(a) \quad (\alpha A)^\dagger = \alpha^\dagger A^\dagger.$$

$$(b) \quad (\text{diag}(\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_n))^\dagger = \text{diag}(\beta_1^\dagger, \beta_2^\dagger, \dots, \beta_n^\dagger).$$

- $(A^\dagger)^* = (A^*)^\dagger$; $(A^\dagger)^\dagger = A$.
- If A is a nonsingular square matrix, then $A^\dagger = A^{-1}$.
- If U has orthonormal columns or orthonormal rows, then $U^\dagger = U^*$.
- If $A = A^*$ and $A = A^2$, then $A^\dagger = A$.
- $A^\dagger = A^*$ if and only if A^*A is idempotent.
- If A is normal and k is a positive integer, then $AA^\dagger = A^\dagger A$ and $(A^k)^\dagger = (A^\dagger)^k$.
- If $U \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ and satisfies $U^\dagger = U^*$, then U has orthonormal columns.
- If $U \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ and $V \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ are unitary matrices, then $(UAV)^\dagger = V^*A^\dagger U^*$.
- $A^\dagger = (A^*A)^\dagger A^* = A^*(AA^*)^\dagger$. In particular,
 - if $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ ($m \geq n$) has full rank n , then $A^\dagger = (A^*A)^{-1}A^*$;
 - if $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ ($m \leq n$) has full rank m , then $A^\dagger = A^*(AA^*)^{-1}$.
- Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$. Then

- $A^\dagger A$, $AA^\dagger$, $I_n - A^\dagger A$, and $I_m - AA^\dagger$ are orthogonal projections.

$$(b) \quad \text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A^\dagger) = \text{rank}(AA^\dagger) = \text{rank}(A^\dagger A).$$

$$(c) \quad \text{rank}(I_n - A^\dagger A) = n - \text{rank}(A).$$

$$(d) \quad \text{rank}(I_m - AA^\dagger) = m - \text{rank}(A).$$

$$20. \quad AA^\dagger = \text{Proj}_{\text{range}(A)}; \quad A^\dagger A = \text{Proj}_{\text{range}(A^\dagger)}.$$

- Suppose that $A \in F^{m \times n}$, where $F = \mathbb{C}$ or $\mathbb{R}$. Then

$$(a) \quad \text{range}(A) = \text{range}(AA^*) = \text{range}(AA^\dagger).$$

$$(b) \quad \text{range}(A^\dagger) = \text{range}(A^*) = \text{range}(A^*A) = \text{range}(A^\dagger A).$$

$$(c) \quad \ker(A) = \ker(A^*A) = \ker(A^\dagger A).$$

$$(d) \quad \ker(A^\dagger) = \ker(A^*) = \ker(AA^*) = \ker(AA^\dagger).$$

$$(e) \quad \text{range}(A^\dagger A) \oplus \ker(A^\dagger A) = F^n.$$

$$(f) \quad \text{range}(AA^\dagger) \oplus \ker(AA^\dagger) = F^m.$$

- If $A = A_1 + A_2 + \dots + A_k$, $A_i A_j^* = 0$, for all $i, j = 1, \dots, k$, $i \neq j$, then $A^\dagger = A_1^\dagger + A_2^\dagger + \dots + A_k^\dagger$.

- If A is an $m \times r$ matrix of rank r and B is an $r \times n$ matrix of rank r , then $(AB)^\dagger = B^\dagger A^\dagger$.

- $(A^*A)^\dagger = A^\dagger(A^*)^\dagger$; $(AA^*)^\dagger = (A^*)^\dagger A^\dagger$.

- [Gre66] Each one of the following conditions is necessary and sufficient for $(AB)^\dagger = B^\dagger A^\dagger$:

$$(a) \quad \text{range}(BB^*A^*) \subseteq \text{range}(A^*) \text{ and } \text{range}(A^*AB) \subseteq \text{range}(B).$$

$$(b) \quad A^\dagger ABB^* \text{ and } A^*ABB^\dagger \text{ are both Hermitian matrices.}$$

$$(c) \quad A^\dagger ABB^*A^* = BB^*A^* \text{ and } BB^\dagger A^*AB = A^*AB.$$

$$(d) \quad A^\dagger ABB^*A^*ABB^\dagger = BB^*A^*A.$$

$$(e) \quad A^\dagger AB = B(AB)^\dagger AB \text{ and } BB^\dagger A^* = A^*AB(AB)^\dagger.$$

- $(A \otimes B)^\dagger = A^\dagger \otimes B^\dagger$, where $\otimes$ denotes the Kronecker product.

$$27. \quad A^\dagger = \lim_{\alpha \rightarrow 0} A^*(\alpha I + AA^*)^{-1} = \lim_{\alpha \rightarrow 0} (\alpha I + A^*A)^{-1} A^*.$$

$$28. \quad A^\dagger = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} A^*(I + AA^*)^{-j} = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (I + A^*A)^{-j} A^*.$$

- (Continuity of pseudo-inverse) Suppose that $A \in F^{m \times n}$ and $E \in F^{m \times n}$, where $F = \mathbb{C}$ or $\mathbb{R}$. Then $\lim_{E \rightarrow 0} (A + E)^\dagger = A^\dagger$ if and only if there is $\epsilon > 0$ such that $\text{rank}(A + E) = \text{rank}(A)$ when $\|E\|_2 \leq \epsilon$.

- Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ be of rank r where $0 < r < \min\{m, n\}$. Suppose that A can be partitioned as

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

where $A_{11} \in \mathbb{C}^{r \times r}$ and $\text{rank}(A_{11}) = r$. Then

$$A^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11}^* X A_{11}^* & A_{11}^* X A_{21}^* \\ A_{12}^* X A_{11}^* & A_{12}^* X A_{21}^* \end{bmatrix},$$

where

$$X = (A_{11}A_{11}^* + A_{12}A_{12}^*)^{-1}A_{11}(A_{11}A_{11}^* + A_{21}A_{21}^*)^{-1}.$$

Theory

- Consider linear operators as algebraic expressions
- Correctness of first-order operator statements
 $\iff$
correctness of algebraic statement
- Semi-decision procedure
 $\rightarrow$ Every true statement can be proven

Theory

- Consider linear operators as algebraic expressions
- Correctness of first-order operator statements
 $\iff$
correctness of algebraic statement
- Semi-decision procedure
 $\rightarrow$ **Every true statement can be proven**

Software

- SAGEMATH package `operator_gb`*
- Efficient open-source implementation
- **Produces proofs**
- Dedicated methods for proving operator statements

* available at https://github.com/ClemensHofstadler/operator_gb

Theory

- Consider linear operators as algebraic expressions
- Correctness of first-order operator statements
 $\iff$
correctness of algebraic statement
- Semi-decision procedure
 $\rightarrow$ Every true statement can be proven

Software

- SAGEMATH package `operator_gb`*
- Efficient open-source implementation
- Produces proofs
- Dedicated methods for proving operator statements

* available at https://github.com/ClemensHofstadler/operator_gb

Automated proofs of operator statements

"The Moore-Penrose inverse is unique"

Def.: A matrix B is **Moore-Penrose inverse** of a matrix A if

$$ABA = A, \quad BAB = B, \quad B^* A^* = AB, \quad A^* B^* = BA$$

"The Moore-Penrose inverse is unique"

Def.: A matrix B is **Moore-Penrose inverse** of a matrix A if

$$ABA = A, \quad BAB = B, \quad B^* A^* = AB, \quad A^* B^* = BA$$

Claim If B and C satisfy these identities, then $B = C$.

"The Moore-Penrose inverse is unique"

Def.: A matrix B is **Moore-Penrose inverse** of a matrix A if

$$ABA = A, \quad BAB = B, \quad B^*A^* = AB, \quad A^*B^* = BA$$

Claim If B and C satisfy these identities, then $B = C$.

Proof $B = BAB = BACAB = \dots = C$

"The Moore-Penrose inverse is unique"

Def.: A matrix B is **Moore-Penrose inverse** of a matrix A if

$$ABA = A, \quad BAB = B, \quad B^*A^* = AB, \quad A^*B^* = BA$$

Claim If B and C satisfy these identities, then $B = C$.

Proof $B = BAB = BACAB = \dots = C$

A different point of view

$$L = R \iff L - R = 0$$

“The Moore-Penrose inverse is unique”

Def.: A matrix B is **Moore-Penrose inverse** of a matrix A if

$$ABA = A, \quad BAB = B, \quad B^*A^* = AB, \quad A^*B^* = BA$$

Claim If B and C satisfy these identities, then $B = C$.

Proof $B = BAB = BACAB = \dots = C$

A different point of view

$$L = R \iff L - R$$

"The Moore-Penrose inverse is unique"

Def.: A matrix B is **Moore-Penrose inverse** of a matrix A if

$$ABA = A, \quad BAB = B, \quad B^*A^* = AB, \quad A^*B^* = BA$$

Claim If B and C satisfy these identities, then $B = C$.

Proof $B = BAB = BACAB = \dots = C$

A different point of view

$$L = R \iff L - R$$

A bit of algebra...

We all know (and love) polynomials, like

$$3xy - 2x^2z + 4 \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y, z].$$

A bit of algebra...

We all know (and love) polynomials, like

$$3xy - 2x^2z + 4 \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y, z].$$

Wish Model matrices using polynomials

A bit of algebra...

We all know (and love) polynomials, like

$$3xy - 2x^2z + 4 \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y, z].$$

Wish Model matrices using polynomials

Problem We want to model **noncommutative** objects

A bit of algebra...

We all know (and love) polynomials, like

$$3xy - 2x^2z + 4 \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y, z].$$

Wish Model matrices using polynomials

Problem We want to model **noncommutative** objects

Solution Make our polynomials **noncommutative**

↪ Replace (commutative) monomials by (noncommutative) words.

A bit of algebra...

We all know (and love) polynomials, like

$$3xy - 2x^2z + 4 \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y, z].$$

Wish Model matrices using polynomials

Problem We want to model **noncommutative** objects

Solution Make our polynomials **noncommutative**

$\leadsto$ Replace (commutative) monomials by (noncommutative) words.

Noncom. polynomial $f = c_1 \cdot w_1 + \cdots + c_d \cdot w_d \in \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle$

A bit of algebra...

We all know (and love) polynomials, like

$$3xy - 2x^2z + 4 \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y, z].$$

Wish Model matrices using polynomials

Problem We want to model **noncommutative** objects

Solution Make our polynomials **noncommutative**

$\leadsto$ Replace (commutative) monomials by (noncommutative) words.

Integers

Noncom. polynomial $f = c_1 \cdot w_1 + \cdots + c_d \cdot w_d \in \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle$

A bit of algebra...

We all know (and love) polynomials, like

$$3xy - 2x^2z + 4 \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y, z].$$

Wish Model matrices using polynomials

Problem We want to model **noncommutative** objects

Solution Make our polynomials **noncommutative**

$\leadsto$ Replace (commutative) monomials by (noncommutative) words.

Integers

Noncom. polynomial $f = \boxed{c_1} \cdot \boxed{w_1} + \cdots + \boxed{c_d} \cdot \boxed{w_d} \in \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle$

words over $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$

A bit of algebra...

We all know (and love) polynomials, like

$$3xy - 2x^2z + 4 \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y, z].$$

Wish Model matrices using polynomials

Problem We want to model **noncommutative** objects

Solution Make our polynomials **noncommutative**

$\leadsto$ Replace (commutative) monomials by (noncommutative) words.

Integers

Noncom. polynomial $f = \boxed{c_1} \cdot \boxed{w_1} + \cdots + \boxed{c_d} \cdot \boxed{w_d} \in \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle$

words over $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$

Example: $2xy + yx - 2xzx + 4 \in \mathbb{Z}\langle x, y, z \rangle$

A bit of algebra...

We all know (and love) polynomials, like

$$3xy - 2x^2z + 4 \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y, z].$$

Wish Model matrices using polynomials

Problem We want to model **noncommutative** objects

Solution Make our polynomials **noncommutative**

$\leadsto$ Replace (commutative) monomials by (noncommutative) words.

Integers

Noncom. polynomial $f = \boxed{c_1} \cdot \boxed{w_1} + \cdots + \boxed{c_d} \cdot \boxed{w_d} \in \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle$

words over $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$

Example: $2xy + yx - 2xzx + 4 \in \mathbb{Z}\langle x, y, z \rangle$

Multiplication = Concatenation of words

$$(xy - 1) \cdot (yx + 2) = xy yx + 2xy - yx - 2$$

"The Moore-Penrose inverse is unique"

Def.: A matrix B is **Moore-Penrose inverse** of a matrix A if

$$ABA = A, \quad BAB = B, \quad B^*A^* = AB, \quad A^*B^* = BA$$

Claim If B and C satisfy these identities, then $B = C$.

Proof $B = BAB = BACAB = \dots = C$

A different point of view

$$L = R \iff L - R$$

"The Moore-Penrose inverse is unique"

Def.: A matrix B is **Moore-Penrose inverse** of a matrix A if

$$aba = a, \quad bab = b, \quad b^*a^* = ab, \quad a^*b^* = ba$$

Claim If B and C satisfy these identities, then $B = C$.

Proof $B = BAB = BACAB = \dots = C$

A different point of view

$$L = R \iff l - r \in \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle$$

"The Moore-Penrose inverse is unique"

Def.: A matrix B is **Moore-Penrose inverse** of a matrix A if

$$aba = a, \quad bab = b, \quad b^*a^* = ab, \quad a^*b^* = ba$$

Claim If B and C satisfy these identities, then $B = C$.

Proof $B = BAB = BACAB = \dots = C$

A different point of view

$$\begin{aligned} L = R & \iff l - r \in \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle \\ B = \dots = C & \iff ? \end{aligned}$$

A little bit of algebra. . .

For expressing **consequences** of certain identities/polynomials, we need. . .

A little bit of algebra...

For expressing **consequences** of certain identities/polynomials, we need...

Definition A set $I \subseteq \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle$ is called an **ideal** if

1. $f, g \in I \Rightarrow f + g \in I$
2. $f \in I, p, q \in \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle \Rightarrow p \cdot f \cdot q \in I$

A little bit of algebra...

For expressing **consequences** of certain identities/polynomials, we need...

Definition A set $I \subseteq \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle$ is called an **ideal** if

1. $f, g \in I \Rightarrow f + g \in I$
2. $f \in I, p, q \in \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle \Rightarrow p \cdot f \cdot q \in I$

The smallest ideal containing $f_1, \dots, f_r$ is denoted by

$$I = (f_1, \dots, f_r)$$

and $\{f_1, \dots, f_r\}$ is called a **basis** for I .

A little bit of algebra...

For expressing **consequences** of certain identities/polynomials, we need...

Definition A set $I \subseteq \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle$ is called an **ideal** if

1. $f, g \in I \Rightarrow f + g \in I$
2. $f \in I, p, q \in \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle \Rightarrow p \cdot f \cdot q \in I$

The smallest ideal containing $f_1, \dots, f_r$ is denoted by

$$I = (f_1, \dots, f_r)$$

and $\{f_1, \dots, f_r\}$ is called a **basis** for I .

“axioms”

A little bit of algebra...

For expressing **consequences** of certain identities/polynomials, we need...

Definition A set $I \subseteq \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle$ is called an **ideal** if

1. $f, g \in I \Rightarrow f + g \in I$
2. $f \in I, p, q \in \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle \Rightarrow p \cdot f \cdot q \in I$

— “deduction rules”

The smallest ideal containing $f_1, \dots, f_r$ is denoted by

$$I = (f_1, \dots, f_r)$$

and $\{f_1, \dots, f_r\}$ is called a **basis** for I .

“axioms”

A little bit of algebra...

For expressing **consequences** of certain identities/polynomials, we need...

Definition A set $I \subseteq \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle$ is called an **ideal** if

1. $f, g \in I \Rightarrow f + g \in I$
2. $f \in I, p, q \in \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle \Rightarrow p \cdot f \cdot q \in I$

— “deduction rules”

The smallest ideal containing $f_1, \dots, f_r$ is denoted by

$$I = (f_1, \dots, f_r)$$

— “theory”

and $\{f_1, \dots, f_r\}$ is called a **basis** for I .

— “axioms”

A little bit of algebra...

For expressing **consequences** of certain identities/polynomials, we need...

Definition A set $I \subseteq \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle$ is called an **ideal** if

1. $f, g \in I \Rightarrow f + g \in I$
 2. $f \in I, p, q \in \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle \Rightarrow p \cdot f \cdot q \in I$
- “deduction rules”

The smallest ideal containing $f_1, \dots, f_r$ is denoted by

$$I = (f_1, \dots, f_r) \text{ — “theory”}$$

and $\{f_1, \dots, f_r\}$ is called a **basis** for I .

— “axioms”

Fact: $f \in (f_1, \dots, f_r) \iff \exists p_{i,j}, q_{i,j} : f = \sum_{i,j} p_{i,j} \cdot f_i \cdot q_{i,j}$

A little bit of algebra...

For expressing **consequences** of certain identities/polynomials, we need...

Definition A set $I \subseteq \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle$ is called an **ideal** if

1. $f, g \in I \Rightarrow f + g \in I$

2. $f \in I, p, q \in \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle \Rightarrow p \cdot f \cdot q \in I$

— “deduction rules”

The smallest ideal containing $f_1, \dots, f_r$ is denoted by

$I = (f_1, \dots, f_r)$ — “theory”

and $\{f_1, \dots, f_r\}$ is called a **basis** for I .

— “axioms”

— “proof/certificate”

Fact: $f \in (f_1, \dots, f_r) \iff \exists p_{i,j}, q_{i,j} : f = \sum_{i,j} p_{i,j} \cdot f_i \cdot q_{i,j}$

A little bit of algebra...

For expressing **consequences** of certain identities/polynomials, we need...

Definition A set $I \subseteq \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle$ is called an **ideal** if

1. $f, g \in I \Rightarrow f + g \in I$
2. $f \in I, p, q \in \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle \Rightarrow p \cdot f \cdot q \in I$

— “deduction rules”

The smallest ideal containing $f_1, \dots, f_r$ is denoted by

$$I = (f_1, \dots, f_r)$$

— “theory”

and $\{f_1, \dots, f_r\}$ is called a **basis** for I .

“axioms”

“proof/certificate”

Fact: $f \in (f_1, \dots, f_r) \iff \exists p_{i,j}, q_{i,j} : f = \sum_{i,j} p_{i,j} \cdot f_i \cdot q_{i,j}$

If such a proof exists, it **can be computed using noncom. Gröbner bases**.

"The Moore-Penrose inverse is unique"

Def.: A matrix B is **Moore-Penrose inverse** of a matrix A if

$$aba = a, \quad bab = b, \quad b^*a^* = ab, \quad a^*b^* = ba$$

Claim If B and C satisfy these identities, then $B = C$.

Proof $B = BAB = BACAB = \dots = C$

A different point of view

$$\begin{aligned} L = R & \iff l - r \in \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle \\ B = \dots = C & \iff ? \end{aligned}$$

"The Moore-Penrose inverse is unique"

Def.: A matrix B is **Moore-Penrose inverse** of a matrix A if

$$aba = a, \quad bab = b, \quad b^*a^* = ab, \quad a^*b^* = ba$$

Claim If B and C satisfy these identities, then $B = C$.

Proof $B = BAB = BACAB = \dots = C$

A different point of view

$$\begin{aligned} L = R & \iff l - r \in \mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle \\ B = \dots = C & \iff b - c \in (f_1, \dots, f_{12}) \end{aligned}$$

“The Moore-Penrose inverse is unique”

Def.: A matrix B is **Moore-Penrose inverse** of a matrix A if

$$aba = a, \quad bab = b, \quad b^*a^* = ab, \quad a^*b^* = ba$$

Claim If B and C satisfy these identities, then $B = C$.

Proof Using our software package `operator_gb...`

```
sage: from operator_gb import *
sage: assumptions = [a*b*a - a, ...]
sage: certify(assumptions, b - c)
```

“The Moore-Penrose inverse is unique”

Def.: A matrix B is **Moore-Penrose inverse** of a matrix A if

$$aba = a, \quad bab = b, \quad b^*a^* = ab, \quad a^*b^* = ba$$

Claim If B and C satisfy these identities, then $B = C$.

Proof Using our software package `operator_gb...`

```
sage: from operator_gb import *
sage: assumptions = [a*b*a - a,...]
sage: certify(assumptions, b - c)

b - c = (-c + c*a*c) + b*c_adj*(-a_adj + a_adj*b_adj*a_adj)
        - b*a*c*(-a*b + b_adj*a_adj) - b*(-a + a*c*a)*b
        + b*(-a*c + c_adj*a_adj) - b*(-a*c + c_adj*a_adj)*b_adj*a_adj
        - (-b + b*a*b) + (-c*a + a_adj*c_adj)*b*a*c
        - (-a_adj + a_adj*c_adj*a_adj)*b_adj*c + c*(-a + a*b*a)*c
        - (-b*a + a_adj*b_adj)*c + a_adj*c_adj*(-b*a + a_adj*b_adj)*c
```

"The Moore-Penrose inverse is unique"

Def.: A matrix B is **Moore-Penrose inverse** of a matrix A if

$$aba = a, \quad bab = b, \quad b^*a^* = ab, \quad a^*b^* = ba$$

Claim If B and C satisfy these identities, then $B = C$.

Proof Using our software package `operator_gb...`

```
sage: from operator_gb import *
sage: assumptions = [a*b*a - a,...]
sage: certify(assumptions, b - c)

b - c = (-c + c*a*c) + b*c_adj*(-a_adj + a_adj*b_adj*a_adj)
        - b*a*c*(-a*b + b_adj*a_adj) - b*(-a + a*c*a)*b
        + b*(-a*c + c_adj*a_adj) - b*(-a*c + c_adj*a_adj)*b_adj*a_adj
        - (-b + b*a*b) + (-c*a + a_adj*c_adj)*b*a*c
        - (-a_adj + a_adj*c_adj*a_adj)*b_adj*c + c*(-a + a*b*a)*c
        - (-b*a + a_adj*b_adj)*c + a_adj*c_adj*(-b*a + a_adj*b_adj)*c
```

Observation Proof only relies on basic linearity properties

$\Rightarrow$ Statement proven for matrices, (un)bounded operators, morphisms,...

Operator statements

Operators

- $0, A, B, C, \dots$
- $S + T, S \cdot T, f(T_1, \dots, T_n)$

Operator statements

Operators

* , $\cdot^T$, $\|\cdot\|$, $\otimes$, $\dots$

• $0, A, B, C, \dots$

• $S + T, S \cdot T, f(T_1, \dots, T_n)$

Operator statements

Operators

$*, \cdot^T, \|\cdot\|, \otimes, \dots$

- $0, A, B, C, \dots$
- $S + T, S \cdot T, f(T_1, \dots, T_n)$

Linearity

1. $+$ forms an abelian group
2. $\cdot$ is associative, i.e., $(S \cdot T) \cdot U = S \cdot (T \cdot U)$
3. distributivity, i.e., $S \cdot (T + U) = S \cdot T + S \cdot U$ and $(S + T) \cdot U = S \cdot U + T \cdot U$

Operator statements

Operators

* , $\cdot^T$, $\|\cdot\|$, $\otimes$, $\dots$

- $0, A, B, C, \dots$
- $S + T, S \cdot T, f(T_1, \dots, T_n)$

Linearity

1. $+$ forms an abelian group
2. $\cdot$ is associative, i.e., $(S \cdot T) \cdot U = S \cdot (T \cdot U)$
3. distributivity, i.e., $S \cdot (T + U) = S \cdot T + S \cdot U$ and $(S + T) \cdot U = S \cdot U + T \cdot U$
- 4.* we also allow **partial operations** (i.e., many-sorted variables)

Operator statements

Operators

$*, \cdot^T, \|\cdot\|, \otimes, \dots$

- $0, A, B, C, \dots$
- $S + T, S \cdot T, f(T_1, \dots, T_n)$

Linearity

1. $+$ forms an abelian group
2. $\cdot$ is associative, i.e., $(S \cdot T) \cdot U = S \cdot (T \cdot U)$
3. distributivity, i.e., $S \cdot (T + U) = S \cdot T + S \cdot U$ and $(S + T) \cdot U = S \cdot U + T \cdot U$
- 4.* we also allow **partial operations** (i.e., many-sorted variables)

Operator statements

$S = T, \neg \varphi, (\varphi \wedge \psi), (\varphi \vee \psi), (\varphi \Rightarrow \psi), \exists X : \varphi, \forall X : \varphi$

Operator statements

Operators

$*, \cdot^T, \|\cdot\|, \otimes, \dots$

- $0, A, B, C, \dots$
- $S + T, S \cdot T, f(T_1, \dots, T_n)$

Linearity

1. $+$ forms an abelian group
2. $\cdot$ is associative, i.e., $(S \cdot T) \cdot U = S \cdot (T \cdot U)$
3. distributivity, i.e., $S \cdot (T + U) = S \cdot T + S \cdot U$ and $(S + T) \cdot U = S \cdot U + T \cdot U$
- 4.* we also allow **partial operations** (i.e., many-sorted variables)

Operator statements

$S = T, \neg \varphi, (\varphi \wedge \psi), (\varphi \vee \psi), (\varphi \Rightarrow \psi), \exists X : \varphi, \forall X : \varphi$

Definition An operator statement is **universally true** if it follows from linearity.

Operator statements

Operators

$*, \cdot^T, \|\cdot\|, \otimes, \dots$

- $0, A, B, C, \dots$
- $S + T, S \cdot T, f(T_1, \dots, T_n)$

Linearity

1. $+$ forms an abelian group
2. $\cdot$ is associative, i.e., $(S \cdot T) \cdot U = S \cdot (T \cdot U)$
3. distributivity, i.e., $S \cdot (T + U) = S \cdot T + S \cdot U$ and $(S + T) \cdot U = S \cdot U + T \cdot U$
- 4.* we also allow **partial operations** (i.e., many-sorted variables)

Operator statements

$S = T, \neg \varphi, (\varphi \wedge \psi), (\varphi \vee \psi), (\varphi \Rightarrow \psi), \exists X : \varphi, \forall X : \varphi$

Definition An operator statement is **universally true** if it follows from linearity.

Fact: Determining universal truth is **not decidable**

Best we can hope for: **semi-decision procedure**

Determining universal truth

Quasi-identities

(Helton, Stankus, Wavrik '98, Schmitz, Levandovskyy '20, Raab, Regensburger, Hossein Poor '21)

$$\forall \mathbf{X} : \bigwedge_{i=1}^m P_i = Q_i \Rightarrow S = T \quad \text{iff} \quad s - t \in (p_1 - q_1, \dots, p_m - q_m)$$

Determining universal truth

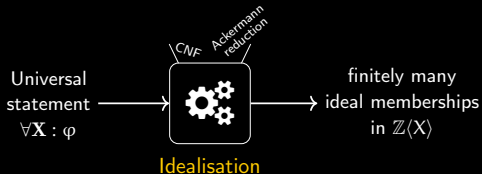
Universal statements

Universal
statement

$$\forall \mathbf{X} : \varphi$$

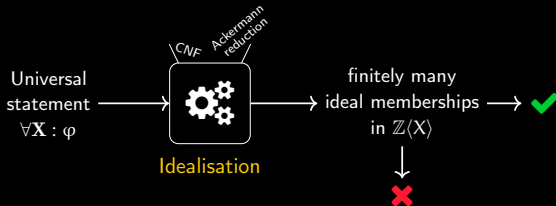
Determining universal truth

Universal statements



Determining universal truth

Universal statements

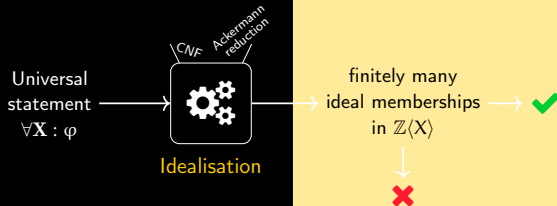


Theorem (H., Raab, Regensburger '22)

A universal statement is universally true iff its idealisation is true

Determining universal truth

Universal statements

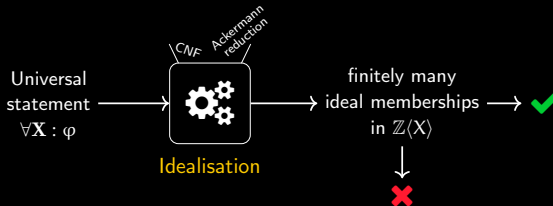


Theorem (H., Raab, Regensburger '22)

A universal statement is universally true iff its idealisation is true

Determining universal truth

Universal statements

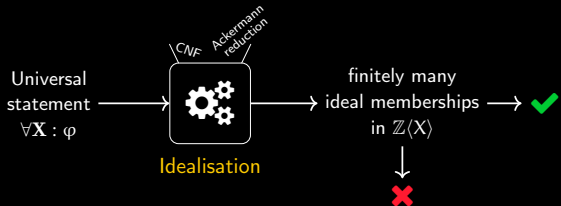


Theorem (H., Raab, Regensburger '22)

A universal statement is universally true iff its idealisation is true

Determining universal truth

General operator statements

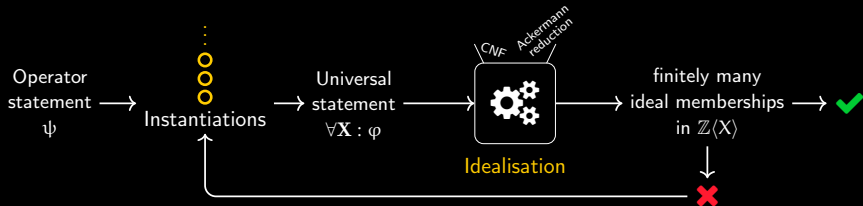


Theorem (H., Raab, Regensburger '22)

A universal statement is universally true iff its idealisation is true

Determining universal truth

General operator statements

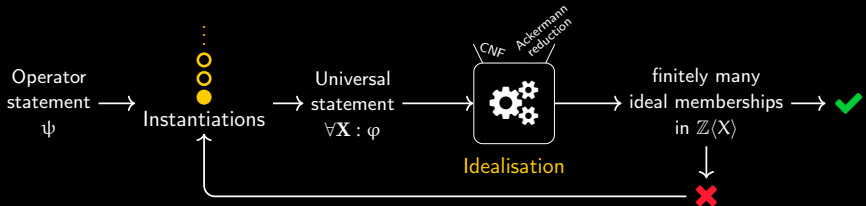


Theorem (H., Raab, Regensburger '22)

A universal statement is universally true iff its idealisation is true

Determining universal truth

General operator statements

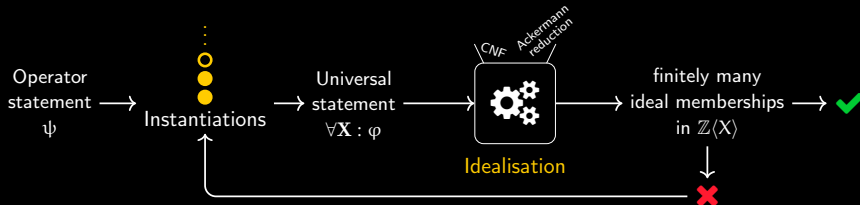


Theorem (H., Raab, Regensburger '22)

A universal statement is universally true iff its idealisation is true

Determining universal truth

General operator statements

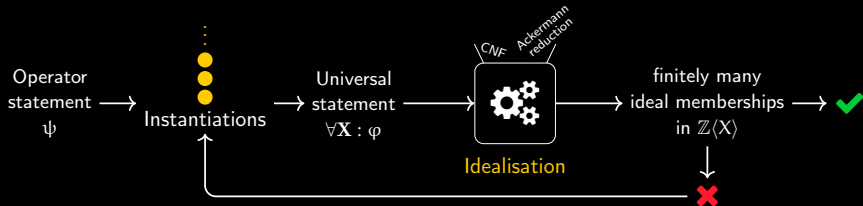


Theorem (H., Raab, Regensburger '22)

A universal statement is universally true iff its idealisation is true

Determining universal truth

General operator statements

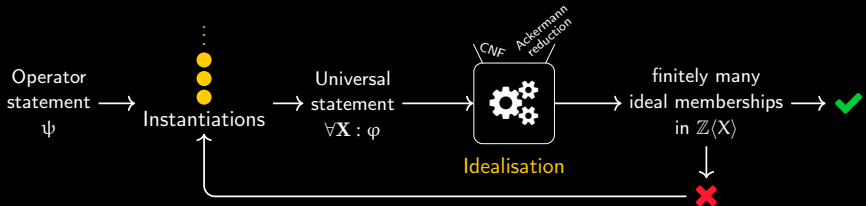


Theorem (H., Raab, Regensburger '22)

A universal statement is universally true iff its idealisation is true

Determining universal truth

General operator statements



Theorem (H., Raab, Regensburger '22)

An operator statement is universally true iff the procedure terminates and returns ✓

5.7 Pseudo-Inverse

Definitions:

A **Moore–Penrose pseudo-inverse** of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is a matrix $A^\dagger \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$ that satisfies the following four **Penrose** conditions:

$$AA^\dagger A = A; \quad A^\dagger AA^\dagger = A^\dagger; \quad (AA^\dagger)^* = AA^\dagger; \quad (A^\dagger A)^* = A^\dagger A.$$

Facts:

All the following facts except those with a specific reference can be found in [Gra83, pp. 105–141] or [RM71, pp. 44–67].

- ✓ Every $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ has a unique pseudo-inverse $A^\dagger$.
- ✓ If $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, then $A^\dagger$ is real.
- ✓ If $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ of rank r has a full rank decomposition $A = BC$, where $B \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times r}$ and $C \in \mathbb{C}^{r \times n}$, then $A^\dagger$ can be evaluated using $A^\dagger = C^*(B^*AC^*)^{-1}B^*$.
- ✗ [LH95, p. 38] If $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ of rank $r \leq \min\{m, n\}$ has an SVD $A = U\Sigma V^*$, then its pseudo-inverse is $A^\dagger = V\Sigma^\dagger U^*$, where

$$\Sigma^\dagger = \text{diag}(1/\sigma_1, \dots, 1/\sigma_r, 0, \dots, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}.$$

- ✗ [Hig96, p. 412] The pseudo-inverse $A^\dagger$ of $A \in F^{m \times n}$ ($F = \mathbb{C}$ or $\mathbb{R}$) solves the minimization problem

$$\min_{X \in F^{n \times m}} \|AX - I_m\|_F^2.$$

- ✓ $0_{mn}^\dagger = 0_{nm}$ and $J_{mn}^\dagger = \frac{1}{mn} J_{nm}$, where $0_{nm} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is the all 0s matrix and $J_{mn} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is the all 1s matrix.
- ✓ If $x \neq 0$, $y \neq 0$, then $(xy^*)^\dagger = \frac{yx^*}{\|x\|^2\|y\|^2}$.
- ✓ If $x \neq 0$, then $x^\dagger = \frac{x^*}{\|x\|^2}$.
- ✓ Let α be a scalar. Denote

$$\alpha^\dagger = \begin{cases} \alpha^{-1}, & \text{if } \alpha \neq 0, \\ 0, & \text{if } \alpha = 0. \end{cases}$$

Then

- ✓ $(\alpha A)^\dagger = \alpha^\dagger A^\dagger$.
- ✗ $(\text{diag}(\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_n))^\dagger = \text{diag}(\beta_1^\dagger, \beta_2^\dagger, \dots, \beta_n^\dagger)$.
- ✗ $(A^\dagger)^* = (A^*)^\dagger$; $(A^\dagger)^\dagger = A$.
- ✗ If A is a nonsingular square matrix, then $A^\dagger = A^{-1}$.
- ✗ If U has orthonormal columns or orthonormal rows, then $U^\dagger = U^*$.
- ✗ If $A = A^*$ and $A = A^2$, then $A^\dagger = A$.
- ✗ $A^\dagger = A^*$ if and only if A^*A is idempotent.
- ✗ If A is normal and k is a positive integer, then $AA^\dagger = A^\dagger A$ and $(A^k)^\dagger = (A^\dagger)^k$.
- ✗ If $U \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is of rank n and satisfies $U^\dagger = U^*$, then U has orthonormal columns.
- ✗ If $U \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ and $V \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ are unitary matrices, then $(UAV)^\dagger = V^*A^\dagger U^*$.
- ✗ $A^\dagger = (A^*A)^\dagger A^* = A^*(AA^*)^\dagger$. In particular,
 - ✓ if $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ ($m \geq n$) has full rank n , then $A^\dagger = (A^*A)^{-1}A^*$;
 - ✓ if $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ ($m \leq n$) has full rank m , then $A^\dagger = A^*(AA^*)^{-1}$.
- ✗ Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$. Then

- ✓ $A^\dagger A$, $AA^\dagger$, $I_n - A^\dagger A$, and $I_m - AA^\dagger$ are orthogonal projections.
- ✗ $\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A^\dagger) = \text{rank}(AA^\dagger) = \text{rank}(A^\dagger A)$.
- ✗ $\text{rank}(I_n - A^\dagger A) = n - \text{rank}(A)$.
- ✗ $\text{rank}(I_m - AA^\dagger) = m - \text{rank}(A)$.
- ✗ $AA^\dagger = \text{Proj}_{\text{range}(A)}$; $A^\dagger A = \text{Proj}_{\text{range}(A^\dagger)}$.
- ✗ Suppose that $A \in F^{m \times n}$, where $F = \mathbb{C}$ or $\mathbb{R}$. Then
 - ✓ $\text{range}(A) = \text{range}(AA^*) = \text{range}(AA^\dagger)$.
 - ✓ $\text{range}(A^\dagger) = \text{range}(A^*) = \text{range}(A^*A) = \text{range}(A^\dagger A)$.
 - ✓ $\ker(A) = \ker(A^*A) = \ker(A^\dagger A)$.
 - ✓ $\ker(A^\dagger) = \ker(A^*) = \ker(AA^*) = \ker(AA^\dagger)$.
 - ✓ $\text{range}(A^\dagger A) \oplus \ker(A^\dagger A) = F^n$.
 - ✓ $\text{range}(AA^\dagger) \oplus \ker(AA^\dagger) = F^m$.
- ✗ If $A = A_1 + A_2 + \dots + A_k$, $A_i A_j^* = 0$, for all $i, j = 1, \dots, k$, $i \neq j$, then $A^\dagger = A_1^\dagger + A_2^\dagger + \dots + A_k^\dagger$.
- ✗ If A is an $m \times r$ matrix of rank r and B is an $r \times n$ matrix of rank r , then $(AB)^\dagger = B^\dagger A^\dagger$.
- ✗ $(A^*A)^\dagger = A^\dagger(A^*)^\dagger$; $(AA^*)^\dagger = (A^\dagger)^\dagger A^\dagger$.
- ✗ [Gre66] Each one of the following conditions is necessary and sufficient for $(AB)^\dagger = B^\dagger A^\dagger$:
 - ✓ $\text{range}(BB^*A^*) \subseteq \text{range}(A^*)$ and $\text{range}(A^*AB) \subseteq \text{range}(B)$.
 - ✓ $A^\dagger ABB^*$ and $A^*ABB^\dagger$ are both Hermitian matrices.
 - ✓ $A^\dagger ABB^*A^* = BB^*A^*$ and $BB^\dagger A^*AB = A^*AB$.
 - ✓ $A^\dagger ABB^*A^*ABB^\dagger = BB^*A^*A$.
 - ✓ $A^\dagger AB = B(AB)^\dagger AB$ and $BB^\dagger A^* = A^*AB(AB)^\dagger$.
- ✗ $(A \otimes B)^\dagger = A^\dagger \otimes B^\dagger$, where $\otimes$ denotes the Kronecker product.
- ✗ $A^\dagger = \lim_{\alpha \rightarrow 0} A^*(\alpha I + AA^*)^{-1} = \lim_{\alpha \rightarrow 0} (\alpha I + A^*A)^{-1}A^*$.
- ✗ $A^\dagger = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} A^*(I + AA^*)^{-j} = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (I + A^*A)^{-j}A^*$.
- ✗ (Continuity of pseudo-inverse) Suppose that $A \in F^{m \times n}$ and $E \in F^{m \times n}$, where $F = \mathbb{C}$ or $\mathbb{R}$. Then $\lim_{E \rightarrow 0} (A + E)^\dagger = A^\dagger$ if and only if there is $\epsilon > 0$ such that $\text{rank}(A + E) = \text{rank}(A)$ when $\|E\|_2 \leq \epsilon$.
- ✗ Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ be of rank r where $0 < r < \min\{m, n\}$. Suppose that A can be partitioned as

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{bmatrix},$$
 where $A_{11} \in \mathbb{C}^{r \times r}$ and $\text{rank}(A_{11}) = r$. Then

$$A^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11}^*X A_{11}^* & A_{11}^*X A_{21}^* \\ A_{12}^*X A_{11}^* & A_{12}^*X A_{21}^* \end{bmatrix},$$
 where

$$X = (A_{11}A_{11}^* + A_{12}A_{12}^*)^{-1}A_{11}(A_{11}^*A_{11} + A_{21}^*A_{21})^{-1}.$$

Applications

- Handbook of Lin. Algebra (20  / 6  / 4 ) (Bernauer, H., Regensburger '23)

Applications

- Handbook of Lin. Algebra (20  / 6  / 4 ) (Bernauer, H., Regensburger '23)
 - each proof takes < 1 second
 - proofs consist of up to 226 polynomials

Applications

- Handbook of Lin. Algebra (20  / 6  / 4 ) (Bernauer, H., Regensburger '23)
 - each proof takes < 1 second
 - proofs consist of up to 226 polynomials
- Recent results in operator theory

Reverse order law for the Moore–Penrose inverse[☆]

Dragan S. Djordjević*, Nebojša Č. Dinčić

Faculty of Sciences and Mathematics, University of Niš, PO Box 224, 18000 Niš, Republic of Serbia

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:
Received 7 May 2009
Available online 2 September 2009
Submitted by R. Curto

Keywords:
Moore–Penrose inverse
Reverse order Law

ABSTRACT

In this paper we present new results related to the reverse order law for the Moore–Penrose inverse of operators on Hilbert spaces. Some finite-dimensional results are extended to infinite-dimensional settings.

© 2009 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

In this paper we extend some results from [15] to infinite-dimensional settings. Among other things, we obtain the reverse order law for the Moore–Penrose inverse as a corollary. We use the matrix form of a linear bounded operator, and this matrix form is induced by some natural decompositions of Hilbert spaces.

In the rest of the Introduction we formulate two auxiliary results. In Section 2 we present the results related to the reverse order rule for the Moore–Penrose inverse of Hilbert space operators with closed range. The present paper is the extension of results from [15] to infinite-dimensional settings.

2. Reverse order law

In this section we prove the results concerning the reverse order law for the Moore–Penrose inverse.

Theorem 2.2. Let X, Y, Z be Hilbert spaces, and let $A \in \mathcal{L}(Y, Z)$, $B \in \mathcal{L}(X, Y)$ be such that A, B, AB have closed ranges. Then the following statements hold:

- ✓ $AB(AB)^{\dagger} = ABB^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} \Leftrightarrow A^*AB = BB^{\dagger}A^*AB \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{R}(A^*AB) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(B) \Leftrightarrow B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} \in (AB)(1, 2, 3);$
- ✓ $(AB)^{\dagger}AB = B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger}AB \Leftrightarrow ABB^* = ABB^*A^{\dagger}A \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{R}(BB^*A^*) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(A^*) \Leftrightarrow B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} \in (AB)(1, 2, 4);$
- ✓ The following statements are equivalent:
- ✓ $(AB)^{\dagger} = B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger};$
- ✓ $AB(AB)^{\dagger} = ABB^{\dagger}A^{\dagger}$ and $(AB)^{\dagger}AB = B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger}A^{\dagger}A;$
- ✓ $A^*AB = B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger}AB$ and $ABB^* = ABB^*A^{\dagger}A;$
- ✓ $\mathcal{R}(A^*AB) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(B)$ and $\mathcal{R}(BB^*A^*) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(A^*).$

Proof. The operators A and B have the same matrix representations as in the previous theorem. The following products will be useful:

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} A_1B_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (AB)^{\dagger} = \begin{bmatrix} (A_1B_1)^{\dagger} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} = \begin{bmatrix} B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

First, we find the equivalent expressions for our statements in terms of A_1, A_2 and B_1 .

- (a) 1. $AB(AB)^{\dagger} = ABB^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} \Leftrightarrow A_1B_1A_1^{\dagger}B_1^{\dagger} = A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}$. Here $A_1B_1(A_1B_1)^{\dagger}$ is Hermitian, so $[A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}]^{\dagger} = 0$.
2. $A^*AB = BB^{\dagger}A^*AB \Leftrightarrow A_2^{\dagger}A_1 = 0$.
3. Notice that $\mathcal{R}(A^*AB) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(B)$ if and only if $BB^{\dagger}A^*AB = A^*AB$, so $2 \Rightarrow 3$.
4. If we check properly the Penrose equations, then we see that: $B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} \in (AB)(1, 2, 3) \Leftrightarrow A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = A_1$ and $[A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}]^{\dagger} = 0$.

Now, we prove the following: $1 \Leftrightarrow 2, 4 \Rightarrow 2$ and $1 \Rightarrow 4$.

We prove $1 \Leftrightarrow 2$. Notice that

$$A_1B_1(A_1B_1)^{\dagger} = A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1} \Leftrightarrow (A_1B_1)^{\dagger} = (A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1B_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}.$$

The last statement is obtained by multiplying the first expression by $(A_1B_1)^{\dagger}$ from the left side, or multiplying the second expression by A_1B_1 from the left side, and using $A_1A_2^{\dagger} = A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}A_2^{\dagger}$. Now, there is a chain of the equivalences:

$$\begin{aligned} (A_1B_1)^{\dagger} &= (A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1} \Leftrightarrow (A_1B_1)^{\dagger}[A_1A_2^{\dagger} + A_2A_2^{\dagger}] = (A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1A_2^{\dagger} \\ &\Leftrightarrow (A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_2A_2^{\dagger} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{R}(A_2A_2^{\dagger}) \subseteq \mathcal{N}((A_1B_1)^{\dagger}) \\ &\Leftrightarrow \mathcal{R}(A_2) \subseteq \mathcal{N}((A_1B_1)^*) \Leftrightarrow B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}A_2 = 0 \Leftrightarrow A_1^{\dagger}A_2 = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we have just proved that $1 \Leftrightarrow 2$.

Now we prove $1 \Rightarrow 4$. If we multiply $A_1B_1(A_1B_1)^{\dagger} = A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}$ by A_1B_1 from the right side, we get $A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = A_1$. Thus, 4 holds.

Finally, we prove $4 \Rightarrow 2$. If $A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = A_1$ and $[A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}]^{\dagger} = 0$, then $A_1A_2^{\dagger}A_1 = DA_1 = A_1A_2^{\dagger}A_1 + A_2A_2^{\dagger}A_1$, implying that $A_2A_2^{\dagger}A_1 = 0$. Hence, $\mathcal{R}(A_1) \subseteq \mathcal{N}((A_2A_2^{\dagger})^*) = \mathcal{N}(A_2^{\dagger})$, so $A_2^{\dagger}A_1 = 0$. Thus, 2 holds.

Notice that the equivalence $3 \Leftrightarrow 4$ is proved in [8], also.

- (b) 1. $(AB)^{\dagger}AB = B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger}AB \Leftrightarrow (A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1B_1 = B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1B_1$. Moreover, $(A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1B_1$ is Hermitian, so $[B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1] = 0$.
2. $ABB^* = ABB^*A^{\dagger}A \Leftrightarrow A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}$ and $A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_2 = 0$.
3. Notice that $\mathcal{R}(BB^*A^*) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(A^*)$ if and only if $A^{\dagger}ABB^*A^* = BB^*A^*$, which is equivalent to $ABB^*A^{\dagger}A = ABB^*$. Hence, $2 \Rightarrow 3$.
4. The Penrose equations imply that: $B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} \in (AB)(1, 2, 4) \Leftrightarrow A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = A_1$ and $[B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1] = 0$.

We prove $1 \Rightarrow 4 \Rightarrow 2 \Rightarrow 1$.

Suppose that 1 holds. If we multiply $(A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1B_1 = B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1B_1$ by A_1B_1 from the left side, we obtain $A_1 = A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1$. Furthermore, $[B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1] = 0$ holds. Therefore, $1 \Rightarrow 4$.

Suppose that 4 holds. Obviously, $A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger} = A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}$. Thus, the first equality of 2 holds. The second equality of 2 also holds, since $A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_2 = 0 \Leftrightarrow A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = A_1$, which is shown in the proof of Theorem 2.1. Here we use again $[B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1] = 0$. Consequently, $4 \Rightarrow 2$.

In order to prove that $2 \Rightarrow 1$, we multiply $A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}$ by $(A_1B_1)^{\dagger}$ from the left side. It follows that $B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = (A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger} = 0$, so $(A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1B_1 = B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1(B_1^{\dagger})^{-1}$ which is equivalent to $(A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1B_1 = B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1B_1$. Hence, $2 \Rightarrow 1$.

Notice that $3 \Rightarrow 4$ is also proved in [8].

Finally, the part (c) follows from the parts (a) and (b). $\square$

We also prove the following result.

Theorem 2.3. Let X, Y, Z be Hilbert spaces, and let $A \in \mathcal{L}(Y, Z)$, $B \in \mathcal{L}(X, Y)$ be such that A, B, AB have closed ranges. Then we have:

- ✓ $AB(AB)^{\dagger}A = ABB^{\dagger} \Leftrightarrow A^*AB = BB^{\dagger}A^*AB \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{R}(A^*AB) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(B) \Leftrightarrow B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} \in (AB)(1, 2, 3);$
- ✓ $B(AB)^{\dagger}AB = A^{\dagger}AB \Leftrightarrow A^{\dagger}ABB^* = BB^*A^{\dagger}A \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{R}(BB^*A^*) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(A^*) \Leftrightarrow B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} \in (AB)(1, 2, 4);$
- ✓ The following three statements are equivalent:
- ✓ $(AB)^{\dagger} = B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger};$
- ✓ $AB(AB)^{\dagger}A = ABB^{\dagger}$ and $B(AB)^{\dagger}AB = A^{\dagger}AB;$
- ✓ $A^*ABB^{\dagger} = BB^{\dagger}A^*A$ and $A^{\dagger}ABB^* = BB^*A^{\dagger}A.$

Proof. The operators A and B have the same matrix representations as in the previous theorem. First, we find equivalent expressions, in the terms of A_1, A_2 and B_1 , for our assumptions.

Reverse order law for the Moore–Penrose inverse[☆]

Dragan S. Djordjević*, Nebojša Č. Dinčić

Faculty of Sciences and Mathematics, University of Niš, PO Box 224, 18000 Niš, Republic of Serbia

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:
Received 7 May 2009
Available online 2 September 2009
Submitted by R. Curto

Keywords:
Moore–Penrose inverse
Reverse order law

ABSTRACT

In this paper we present new results related to the reverse order law for the Moore–Penrose inverse of operators on Hilbert spaces. Some finite-dimensional results are extended to infinite-dimensional settings.

© 2009 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

In this paper we extend some results from [15] to infinite-dimensional settings. Among other things, we obtain the reverse order law for the Moore–Penrose inverse as a corollary. We use the matrix form of a linear bounded operator, and this matrix form is induced by some natural decompositions of Hilbert spaces.

In the rest of the introduction we formulate two auxiliary results. In Section 2 we present the results related to the reverse order law for the Moore–Penrose inverse of Hilbert space operators with closed range. The present paper is the extension of results from [15] to infinite-dimensional settings.

2. Reverse order law

In this section we prove the results concerning the reverse order law for the Moore–Penrose inverse.

Theorem 2.2. Let X, Y, Z be Hilbert spaces, and let $A \in \mathcal{L}(Y, Z)$, $B \in \mathcal{L}(X, Y)$ be such that A, B, AB have closed ranges. Then the following statements hold:

- ✓ $AB(AB)^{\dagger} = ABB^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} \Leftrightarrow A^*AB = BB^{\dagger}A^*AB \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{R}(A^*AB) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(B) \Leftrightarrow B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} \in (AB)(1, 2, 3);$
- ✓ $(AB)^{\dagger}AB = B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger}AB \Leftrightarrow ABB^* = ABB^*A^{\dagger}A \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{R}(BB^*A^*) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(A^*) \Leftrightarrow B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} \in (AB)(1, 2, 4);$
- ✓ The following statements are equivalent:
- ✓ $(AB)^{\dagger} = B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger};$
- ✓ $AB(AB)^{\dagger} = ABB^{\dagger}A^{\dagger}$ and $(AB)^{\dagger}AB = B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger}AB;$
- ✓ $A^*AB = BB^{\dagger}A^*AB$ and $ABB^* = ABB^*A^{\dagger}A;$
- ✓ $\mathcal{R}(A^*AB) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(B)$ and $\mathcal{R}(BB^*A^*) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(A^*).$

Proof. The operators A and B have the same matrix representations as in the previous theorem. The following products will be useful:

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} A_1B_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (AB)^{\dagger} = \begin{bmatrix} (A_1B_1)^{\dagger} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} = \begin{bmatrix} B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

First, we find the equivalent expressions for our statements in terms of A_1, A_2 and B_1 .

- (a) 1. $AB(AB)^{\dagger} = ABB^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} \Leftrightarrow A_1B_1(A_1B_1)^{\dagger} = A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}$. Here $A_1B_1(A_1B_1)^{\dagger}$ is Hermitian, so $[A_1A_2^{\dagger}, D^{-1}] = 0$.
2. $A^*AB = BB^{\dagger}A^*AB \Leftrightarrow A_2^{\dagger}A_1 = 0$.
3. Notice that $\mathcal{R}(A^*AB) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(B)$ if and only if $BB^{\dagger}A^*AB = A^*AB$, so $2 \Rightarrow 3$.
4. If we check properly the Penrose equations, then we see that: $B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} \in (AB)(1, 2, 3) \Leftrightarrow A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = A_1$ and $[A_1A_2^{\dagger}, D^{-1}] = 0$.

Now, we prove the following: $1 \Leftrightarrow 2, 4 \Rightarrow 2$ and $1 \Rightarrow 4$.

We prove $1 \Leftrightarrow 2$. Notice that

$$A_1B_1(A_1B_1)^{\dagger} = A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1} \Leftrightarrow (A_1B_1)^{\dagger} = (A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1B_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}.$$

The last statement is obtained by multiplying the first expression by $(A_1B_1)^{\dagger}$ from the left side, or multiplying the second expression by A_1B_1 from the left side, and using $A_1A_2^{\dagger} = A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}A_2^{\dagger}$. Now, there is a chain of the equivalences:

$$\begin{aligned} (A_1B_1)^{\dagger} &= (A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1} \Leftrightarrow (A_1B_1)^{\dagger}[A_1A_2^{\dagger} + A_2A_2^{\dagger}] = (A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1A_2^{\dagger} \\ &\Leftrightarrow (A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_2A_2^{\dagger} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{R}(A_2A_2^{\dagger}) \subseteq \mathcal{N}((A_1B_1)^{\dagger}) \\ &\Leftrightarrow \mathcal{R}(A_2) \subseteq \mathcal{N}((A_1B_1)^*) \Leftrightarrow B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}A_2 = 0 \Leftrightarrow A_1^{\dagger}A_2 = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we have just proved that $1 \Leftrightarrow 2$.

Now we prove $1 \Rightarrow 4$. If we multiply $A_1B_1(A_1B_1)^{\dagger} = A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}$ by A_1B_1 from the right side, we get $A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = A_1$. Thus, 4 holds.

Finally, we prove $4 \Rightarrow 2$. If $A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = A_1$ and $[A_1A_2^{\dagger}, D^{-1}] = 0$, then $A_1A_2^{\dagger}A_1 = DA_1 = A_1A_2^{\dagger}A_1 + A_2A_2^{\dagger}A_1$, implying that $A_2A_2^{\dagger}A_1 = 0$. Hence, $\mathcal{R}(A_2) \subseteq \mathcal{N}((A_2A_2^{\dagger})^*) = \mathcal{N}(A_2^{\dagger})$, so $A_2^{\dagger}A_1 = 0$. Thus, 2 holds.

Notice that the equivalence $3 \Leftrightarrow 4$ is proved in [8], also.

- (b) 1. $(AB)^{\dagger}AB = B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger}AB \Leftrightarrow (A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1B_1 = B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1B_1$. Moreover, $(A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1B_1$ is Hermitian, so $[B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}, A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1] = 0$.
2. $ABB^* = ABB^*A^{\dagger}A \Leftrightarrow A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}$ and $A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_2 = 0$.
3. Notice that $\mathcal{R}(BB^*A^*) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(A^*)$ if and only if $A^{\dagger}ABB^*A^* = BB^*A^*$, which is equivalent to $ABB^*A^{\dagger}A = ABB^*$. Hence, $2 \Rightarrow 3$.
4. The Penrose equations imply that: $B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} \in (AB)(1, 2, 4) \Leftrightarrow A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = A_1$ and $[B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}, A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1] = 0$.

We prove $1 \Rightarrow 4 \Rightarrow 2 \Rightarrow 1$.

Suppose that 1 holds. If we multiply $(A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1B_1 = B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1B_1$ by A_1B_1 from the left side, we obtain $A_1 = A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1$. Furthermore, $[B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}, A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1] = 0$ holds. Therefore, $1 \Rightarrow 4$.

Suppose that 4 holds. Obviously, $A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger} = A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}$. Thus, the first equality of 2 holds. The second equality of 2 also holds, since $A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_2 = 0 \Leftrightarrow A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = A_1$, which is shown in the proof of Theorem 2.1. Here we use again $[B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}, A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1] = 0$. Consequently, $4 \Rightarrow 2$.

In order to prove that $2 \Rightarrow 1$, we multiply $A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}$ by $(A_1B_1)^{\dagger}$ from the left side. It follows that $B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = (A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}$, so $(A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1B_1 = B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1(B_1^{\dagger})^{-1}$ which is equivalent to $(A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1B_1 = B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1B_1$. Hence, $2 \Rightarrow 1$.

Notice that $3 \Rightarrow 4$ is also proved in [8].

Finally, the part (c) follows from the parts (a) and (b). $\square$

We also prove the following result.

Theorem 2.3. Let X, Y, Z be Hilbert spaces, and let $A \in \mathcal{L}(Y, Z)$, $B \in \mathcal{L}(X, Y)$ be such that A, B, AB have closed ranges. Then we have:

- ✓ $AB(AB)^{\dagger}A = ABB^{\dagger} \Leftrightarrow A^*AB = BB^{\dagger}A^*AB \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{R}(A^*AB) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(B) \Leftrightarrow B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} \in (AB)(1, 2, 3);$
- ✓ $B(AB)^{\dagger}AB = A^{\dagger}AB \Leftrightarrow A^{\dagger}ABB^* = BB^*A^{\dagger}A \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{R}(BB^*A^*) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(A^*) \Leftrightarrow B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} \in (AB)(1, 2, 4);$
- ✓ The following three statements are equivalent:
- ✓ $(AB)^{\dagger} = B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger};$
- ✓ $AB(AB)^{\dagger}A = ABB^{\dagger}$ and $B(AB)^{\dagger}AB = A^{\dagger}AB;$
- ✓ $A^*ABB^{\dagger} = BB^{\dagger}A^*A$ and $A^{\dagger}ABB^* = BB^*A^{\dagger}A.$

Proof. The operators A and B have the same matrix representations as in the previous theorem. First, we find equivalent expressions, in the terms of A_1, A_2 and B_1 , for our assumptions.

Applications

- Handbook of Lin. Algebra (20  / 6  / 4 ) (Bernauer, H., Regensburger '23)
 - each proof takes < 1 second
 - proofs consist of up to 226 polynomials
- Recent results in operator theory
 - they: *We use [...] decompositions of Hilbert spaces*
 - we: purely algebraic proofs $\Rightarrow$ our proofs **generalise results**

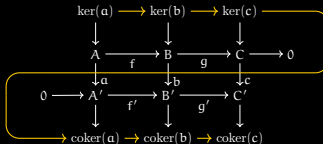
Applications

- Handbook of Lin. Algebra (20 ✓ / 6 ✓ / 4 ✗) (Bernauer, H., Regensburger '23)
 - each proof takes < 1 second
 - proofs consist of up to 226 polynomials
- Recent results in operator theory
 - they: *We use [...] decompositions of Hilbert spaces*
 - we: purely algebraic proofs $\Rightarrow$ our proofs generalise results
- New results (Cvetković-Ilić, H., Hossein Poor, Milošević, Raab, Regensburger '21)
 - software used to find minimal assumptions, short proofs, . . .

Applications

- Handbook of Lin. Algebra (20  / 6  / 4 ) (Bernauer, H., Regensburger '23)
 - each proof takes < 1 second
 - proofs consist of up to 226 polynomials
- Recent results in operator theory
 - they: *We use [...] decompositions of Hilbert spaces*
 - we: purely algebraic proofs $\Rightarrow$ our proofs **generalise results**
- New results (Cvetković-Ilić, H., Hossein Poor, Milošević, Raab, Regensburger '21)
 - software used to **find minimal assumptions, short proofs,...**

- Homological algebra



What about false statements?

$$\forall A, B, C : (A \neq 0 \wedge AB = AC) \Rightarrow B = C$$

What about false statements?

$$\forall A, B, C : (A \neq 0 \wedge AB = AC) \Rightarrow B = C$$



SAT
+
Hensel lifting

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad C = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

What about false statements?

$$\forall A, B, C : (A \neq 0 \wedge AB = AC) \Rightarrow B = C$$



SAT
+
Hensel lifting

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

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

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Does this always work?

What about false statements?

$$\forall A, B, C : (A \neq 0 \wedge AB = AC) \Rightarrow B = C$$



SAT
+
Hensel lifting

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad C = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Does this always work? – No.

What about false statements?

$$\forall A, B, C : (A \neq 0 \wedge AB = AC) \Rightarrow B = C$$



SAT
+
Hensel lifting

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad C = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Does this always work? – No.

Will a better algorithm always work?

What about false statements?

$$\forall A, B, C : (A \neq 0 \wedge AB = AC) \Rightarrow B = C$$



SAT
+
Hensel lifting

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad C = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Does this always work? – No.

Will a better algorithm always work? – No.

What about false statements?

$$\forall A, B, C : (A \neq 0 \wedge AB = AC) \Rightarrow B = C$$



SAT
+
Hensel lifting

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad C = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Does this always work? – No.

Will a better algorithm always work? – No.

Does this work often enough?

What about false statements?

$$\forall A, B, C : (A \neq 0 \wedge AB = AC) \Rightarrow B = C$$



SAT
+
Hensel lifting

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad C = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Does this always work? – No.

Will a better algorithm always work? – No.

Does this work often enough? – Don't know yet.

F

Hi chatGPT



Hello! How can I assist you today?



F

Imagine you are a mathematician and you want to prove a statement about linear operators.
What do you do?



I would use computer algebra.



 Regenerate response

Send a message



Free Research Preview. ChatGPT may produce inaccurate information about people, places, or facts. [ChatGPT May 24 Version](#)