

The Representation of Group Inverse with Affine Combination

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Abstract In this paper, we first give two equalities in the operation of determinant. Using the expression of group inverse with full-rank factorization $A_g = F(GF)^{-2}G$ and the Cramer rule of the nonsingular linear system $Ax = b$, we present a new method to prove the representation of group inverse with affine combination

$$A_g = \sum_{(I,J) \in \mathcal{N}(A)} \frac{1}{\nu^2} \det(A)_{IJ} \widehat{\text{adj} A}_{JI}.$$

A numerical example is given to demonstrate that the formula is efficient.

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1. Introduction

The generalized inverse $X \in R^{n \times m}$ of a matrix $A \in R^{m \times n}$ was defined by Penrose in 1955, which is the unique solution of the following four matrix equations. These conditions are equivalent to Moore's conditions. The unique matrix X was known as Moore-Penrose inverse (abbreviated M-P) and is denoted by A^\dagger .

Definition Let $A \in R^{m \times n}$ be given. The M-P inverse $A^\dagger \in R^{n \times m}$ is the unique solution of the following matrix equations

$$AXA = A, \tag{1}$$

$$XAX = X, \tag{2}$$

$$(AX)^* = AX, \tag{3}$$

$$(XA)^* = XA, \tag{4}$$

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where $*$ denotes “conjugate transpose”.

In general, let $\phi \neq \eta \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$. If X satisfies all conditions of η , then X is called a η inverse of A , denoted by $A\{\eta\}$.

Also, in the case $m = n$, consider the following equations:

$$A^{k+1}X = A^k, \quad (1')$$

$$AX = XA \quad (5)$$

for a positive integer $k = \text{ind}(A) = \min\{p : \text{rank}(A^{p+1}) = \text{rank}(A^p)\}$.

A matrix $X = A_d$ is said to be the Drazin inverse of A if (1'), (2) and (5) are satisfied. When $k = 1$, A_d is called the group inverse of A and denoted by A_g .

Throughout this paper, A is an $m \times n$ real matrix of rank r , denoted by $R_r^{m \times n}$. $\text{tr}(A)$ denotes the trace of a square matrix A . $|A|$ or $\det A$ denotes the determinant of A . $R(A)$ and $N(A)$ denote the range and null space of A , respectively.

2. Preliminaries

For $k = 1, 2, \dots, r$, the k -th compound of A , denoted by $C_k(A)$, is the $\binom{m}{k} \times \binom{n}{k}$ matrix whose elements are the $k \times k$ minors of A , i.e., the determinants of its $k \times k$ submatrices ordered lexicographically. The $r \times r$ minors of A (i.e., the elements of $C_r(A)$) are called its maximum rank minors.

Let $Q_{k,m} = \{\alpha : \alpha = \{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k\}, 1 \leq \alpha_1 < \alpha_2 < \dots < \alpha_k \leq m\}$ denote the strictly increasing sequence of k elements from $1, 2, \dots, m$, $A \in R^{m \times n}$. For $\alpha \in Q_{k,m}$, $\beta \in Q_{k,n}$, $A[\alpha, \beta]$ denotes the submatrix of A with row indices α and column indices β , and $A[\alpha', \beta']$ denotes the submatrix obtained from A by deleting rows indexed α and columns indexed β . For simplicity, we write $A[I, J]$ as A_{IJ} for any index sets I and J , and let A_{I*} and A_{*J} denote the submatrices of A lying in rows indexed by I and in columns indexed by J , respectively. Denote

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{I}(A) &= \{I \in Q_{r,m} : \text{rank}(A_{I*}) = r\}, \\ \mathcal{J}(A) &= \{J \in Q_{r,n} : \text{rank}(A_{*J}) = r\}, \\ \mathcal{N}(A) &= \{(I, J) \in Q_{rm} \times Q_{rn} : \text{rank}(A_{IJ}) = r\}. \end{aligned}$$

By [3], we have $\mathcal{N}(A) = \mathcal{I}(A) \times \mathcal{J}(A)$.

Let $A(i \leftarrow b)$ denote the matrix obtained by replacing the i th column of A with vector b and $\text{adj}(A)$ denote the adjoint of A .

The volume of A , denoted by $\text{Vol}(A)$, is zero if $\text{rank}(A) = 0$, otherwise

$$\text{Vol}A = \sqrt{\sum_{(I,J) \in \mathcal{N}(A)} \det^2 A_{IJ}}.$$

The following two formulae will be used repeatedly in the following sections.

1) Laplace's formula

Let A be a square matrix with order n , and $\alpha, \beta \in Q_{l,n}$. Then

$$\sum_{\gamma \in Q_{l,n}} (-1)^{s(\alpha)+s(\gamma)} \det A[\alpha, \gamma] \det A[\beta', \gamma'] = \begin{cases} 0, & \alpha \neq \beta, \\ \det A, & \alpha = \beta. \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

2) Cauchy-Binet formula

Let $A \in C^{m \times p}$, $B \in C^{p \times n}$, $l \leq \min\{m, p, n\}$ and $\alpha \in Q_{l,m}$, $\beta \in Q_{l,n}$. Then

$$\det AB[\alpha, \beta] = \sum_{\gamma \in Q_{l,p}} \det A[\alpha, \gamma] \det B[\gamma, \beta]. \quad (7)$$

Berg^[2] showed that the Moore-Penrose inverse A^\dagger is a convex combination of ordinary inverse $\{A_{IJ}^{-1} : (I, J) \in \mathcal{N}(A)\}$

$$A^\dagger = \frac{1}{\text{Vol}^2 A} \sum_{(I,J) \in \mathcal{N}(A)} |\det A_{IJ}|^2 \widehat{A_{IJ}^{-1}}, \quad (8)$$

where $\widehat{A_{IJ}^{-1}}$ is an $n \times m$ matrix with the inverse of the (I, J) th submatix of A in position (J, I) and zeros elsewhere.

In 2002, the second author first gave the combination representation of $A\{1, 5\}$, then draw an affine combination representation of A_g in [4]. But in this paper we will use the full-rank factorization $A_g = F(GF)^{-2}G$ and the Cramer rule of the nonsingular linear system $Ax = b$ to give a new method to prove the affine combination representation of A_g , and point to that the representation in paper [4] is incomplete. As an application, we use an example to demonstrate that this representation is correct.

Lemma 2.1^[4] Let $A \in C^{n \times n}$ be of rank r . Then A has a group inverse if and only if

$$\sum_I |A_{II}| \neq 0,$$

where I runs over all r -element subsets of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

Lemma 2.2 Let $A \in C^{n \times n}$ be of rank r and $A = FG$ be the full-rank factorization. Then

- 1) $A_g = F(GF)^{-2}G$;
- 2) $\nu = |GF| = \sum_I |A_{II}|$,

where I is the same as in Lemma 2.1.

Proof The first equality can be found in [1] and we omit its proof here.

2) By Cauchy-Binet formula

$$\begin{aligned} |GF| &= \sum_{I \in \mathcal{I}(F)} |G_{*I}| |F_{I*}| = \sum_{I \in \mathcal{I}(F)} |F_{I*}| |G_{*I}| \\ &= \sum_{I \in \mathcal{I}(F)} |(FG)_{II}| = \sum_I |A_{II}|. \end{aligned}$$

This implies $\nu = |GF| = \sum_I |A_{II}|$.

Lemma 2.3 Let $A \in C^{n \times n}$ be of rank r with $\text{ind} A = 1$. Then the restricted linear system

$$Ax = b, \quad b \in R(A), \quad x \in R(A) \quad (9)$$

has a unique $x = A_g b$.

Proof By the condition $\text{ind}(A) = 1$, we have

$$R(A) \oplus N(A) = R^n \quad \text{and} \quad R(A^2) = R(A). \quad (10)$$

From which and $b \in R(A)$, we know that there exists a vector $y_0 \in R^n$, such that $b = A^2 y_0$. Denote $x_0 = A y_0$. Then we have $x_0 \in R(A)$ and $b = A x_0$. This implies that the restricted linear system (9) has a solution $x_0 \in R(A)$.

Let the general solution of (9) be $x = x_0 + y \in R(A)$, where $y \in N(A)$. Then $y = x - x_0 \in R(A)$. Since $R(A) \oplus N(A) = R^n$, we have $y = 0$.

Therefore, (9) has a unique solution $x = x_0 \in R(A)$.

3. Main results

Theorem 3.1 Let both A and C be $n \times n$ nonsingular matrices, and $b = (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)^T$ be a column vector with order n . Let $c = \text{adj}(A)b$. Then

- 1) $A^*b = (|A(1 \leftarrow b)|, |A(2 \leftarrow b)|, \dots, |A(n \leftarrow b)|)^T$;
- 2) $|C(i \leftarrow c)| = |AC(i \leftarrow b)|$.

Proof By Laplace's formula, we have the following equality

$$\begin{aligned} A^*b &= A^* (b_1 \ b_2 \ \dots \ b_n)^T \\ &= \left(\sum_{i=1}^n A_{i1} b_i, \sum_{i=1}^n A_{i2} b_i, \dots, \sum_{i=1}^n A_{in} b_i \right)^T \\ &= (|A(1 \leftarrow b)|, |A(2 \leftarrow b)|, \dots, |A(n \leftarrow b)|)^T. \end{aligned}$$

This means that the first equality holds. Now let $A = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$, $C = (c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n)$, where a_i and c_i are the i -th column vectors of matrices A and C , respectively. Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} |AC(i \leftarrow b)| &= |(Ac_1, Ac_2, \dots, Ac_{i-1}, b, Ac_{i+1}, \dots, Ac_n)| \\ &= |A| |(c_1, c_2, \dots, c_{i-1}, A^{-1}b, c_{i+1}, \dots, c_n)| \\ &= |(c_1, c_2, \dots, c_{i-1}, |A| A^{-1}b, c_{i+1}, \dots, c_n)| \\ &= |C(i \leftarrow A^*b)| = |C(i \leftarrow c)|. \end{aligned}$$

This shows the second equality holds. □

Theorem 3.2 Let $A \in C^{n \times n}$ be of rank r with $\text{ind}A = 1$ and let $A = FG$ be an arbitrary full-decomposition of A . Then

$$A_g = \frac{1}{\nu^2} \sum_{(IJ) \in \mathcal{N}(A)} |A_{IJ}| \widehat{\text{adj}A_{IJ}},$$

where $\nu = \sum_{I \in \mathcal{I}(A)} |A_{II}| = \det(GF)$ and I is the same as in Lemma 2.1.

Proof From Lemmas 2.2 and 2.3, we know that the unique solution of restricted linear equations

(9) is as follows

$$x = A_g b = F(GF)^{-2} Gb. \quad (11)$$

Hence the solution (11) of the restricted linear equations (9) splits up into

$$x = F(GF)^{-1} y, \quad y = (GF)^{-1} Gb. \quad (12)$$

From the expression $y = (GF)^{-1} Gb$, we find in view of $(GF)(i \leftarrow Gb) = G[F(i \leftarrow b)]$ and Cramer's rule

$$y_i = \frac{|(GF)[i \leftarrow Gb]|}{|GF|} = \frac{1}{\nu} |G(F(i \leftarrow b))|. \quad (13)$$

According to Cauchy-Binet formula (7), we have

$$\begin{aligned} y_i &= \frac{1}{\nu} |G(F(i \leftarrow b))| = \frac{1}{\nu} \sum_{I \in \mathcal{J}(A)} |G_{*I}| |F(i \leftarrow b)_{I*}| \\ &= \frac{1}{\nu} \sum_{I \in \mathcal{J}(A)} |G_{*I}| |F_{I*}(i \leftarrow b_I)| \\ &= \frac{1}{\nu} \sum_{I \in \mathcal{J}(A)} |G_{*I}| |F_{I*}| \frac{|F_{I*}(i \leftarrow b_I)|}{|F_{I*}|}. \end{aligned}$$

From which we obtain

$$y = \frac{1}{\nu} \sum_{I \in \mathcal{J}(A)} |G_{*I}| |F_{I*}| \widehat{F_{I*}^{-1}} b. \quad (14)$$

In view of $x = F(GF)^{-1} y$, we find out the i th component $x_i = f_i(GF)^{-1} y$, where f_i denotes the vector of the i th row of F . Applying the identity of Magnus^[8], we obtain

$$x_i = -\frac{1}{|GF|} \begin{vmatrix} 0 & f_i \\ y & GF \end{vmatrix} = -\frac{1}{\nu} \begin{vmatrix} 0 & f_i \\ y & GF \end{vmatrix}. \quad (15)$$

Using Cauchy-Binet formula (7) again changes the right side of formula (15) into

$$\begin{vmatrix} 0 & f_i \\ y & GF \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & \delta_i \\ y & G \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & F \end{vmatrix} = \sum_{J^0} \begin{vmatrix} 0 & \delta_i \\ y & G \end{vmatrix}_{*J^0} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & F \end{vmatrix}_{J^0*} \quad (16)$$

where $J^0 = (j_0, j_1, j_2, \dots, j_r)$, $0 \leq j_0 < j_1 < \dots < j_r \leq m$, and δ_i denotes the i th row of the r -dimensional unit matrix. In this case $j_0 = 0$, we have

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & F \end{pmatrix}_{J^0*} = |F_{J*}|. \quad (17)$$

Otherwise the determinant on the left-hand side vanishes. In the case $j_0 = 0$ and $i \in J^0$, we have

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \delta_i \\ y & G \end{pmatrix}_{*J^0} = -|G_{*J}(i \leftarrow y)|, \quad (18)$$

whereas in the case $i \notin J^0$ the matrix on the left-hand side vanishes. Hence we obtain the result

$$x_i = \frac{1}{\nu} \sum_{J \in \mathcal{I}(A)} |G_{*J}(i \leftarrow y)| |F_{J*}|. \quad (19)$$

Substitute (14) into (19) and introduce the vector b^I with the components $|F_{I*}(i \leftarrow b_I)|$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, r$. It is obvious that $b^I = |F_{I*}| \operatorname{adj}(F_{I*})b$. We obtain

$$\begin{aligned} x_i &= \frac{1}{\nu^2} \sum_{I \in \mathcal{J}(A)} \sum_{J \in \mathcal{I}(A)} |G_{*I}| |G_{*J}(i \leftarrow b^I)| |F_{J*}| \\ &= \frac{1}{\nu^2} \sum_{(J,I) \in \mathcal{N}(A)} |A_{JI}| |G_{*J}(i \leftarrow b^I)|. \end{aligned}$$

By Theorem 3.1, $|G_{*J}(i \leftarrow b^I)| = |(FG)_{IJ}(i \leftarrow b_I)| = |A_{IJ}(i \leftarrow b_I)|$, then we have

$$x_i = \frac{1}{\nu^2} \sum_{(J,I) \in \mathcal{N}(A)} |A_{JI}| |A_{IJ}(i \leftarrow b_I)| \quad (20)$$

We devide the above equality into two sides:

Case 1 If $\det A_{IJ} \neq 0$, then (20) becomes

$$x_i = \frac{1}{\nu^2} \sum_{(J,I) \in \mathcal{N}(A)} |A_{JI}| |A_{IJ}| \frac{|A_{IJ}(i \leftarrow b_I)|}{|A_{IJ}|} \quad (21)$$

Case 2 If $\det A_{IJ} = 0$. Using the condition of Lemma 2.3, we know that $b_I \in R(A_{IJ})$, this implies that $|A_{IJ}(i \leftarrow b_I)| = 0$. Further, we can easy prove that $\operatorname{adj} A_{IJ} b_I = 0$, in this case we can rewrite the (20) into

$$x_i = \frac{1}{\nu^2} \sum_{(J,I) \in \mathcal{N}(A)} |A_{JI}| \operatorname{adj} A_{IJ} b_I \quad (22)$$

From (21) and (22), we know that

$$x = A_g b = \frac{1}{\nu^2} \sum_{(I,J) \in \mathcal{N}(A)} |A_{JI}| \widehat{\operatorname{adj} A_{IJ}} b \quad (23)$$

Because the equalities (9) and (23) hold for any $b \in R(A)$ and $x \in R(A)$, this implies

$$A_g = \frac{1}{\nu^2} \sum_{(I,J) \in \mathcal{N}(A)} |A_{JI}| \widehat{\operatorname{adj} A_{JI}} \quad (24)$$

Remark When $\det A_{JI} \neq 0$, there is $\widehat{\operatorname{adj} A_{JI}} = \det A_{JI} \widehat{A_{JI}^{-1}}$, so the equality (24) becomes

$$A_g = \frac{1}{\nu^2} \sum_{(I,J) \in \mathcal{N}(A)} \det A_{IJ} \det(A)_{JI} \widehat{A_{JI}^{-1}}. \quad (25)$$

Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{(I,J) \in \mathcal{N}(A)} |A_{IJ}| |A_{JI}| &= \sum_{(I,J) \in \mathcal{N}(A)} |A_{II}| |A_{JJ}| \\ &= \sum_{J \in \mathcal{J}(A)} \left(\sum_{I \in \mathcal{I}(A)} A_{II} \right) A_{JJ} = \nu^2 \end{aligned}$$

In this case, the representation is called affine combination of A_g , which could be found in paper [4]. But $\det A_{IJ} = 0$, the representation of A_g should be as (24), which can not be included in paper [4].

Theorem 3.2 Under the condition of Lemma 2.3, the i th component of the unique solution $x = A_g b$ of (9) is given by

$$x_i = \frac{1}{\nu^2} \sum_{(J,I) \in \mathcal{N}(A)} |A_{JI}| |A_{IJ}(i \leftarrow b_I)|.$$

In the next section, we will use a numerical example to show that the representation in Theorem 3.2 is correct.

4. Numerical example

Example Take

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

By computing, we know $A \in R_2^{3 \times 3}$ and

$$A^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 3 & 6 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \in R_2^{3 \times 3}.$$

This shows A_g exists. We make a list of all minors with order two, which are not equal to zero.

I	J	A_{IJ}	$\det A_{IJ}$	A_{IJ}^{-1}	$\widehat{A_{IJ}^{-1}}$
$\{1,2\}$	$\{1,2\}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$	2	$\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$	$\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
$\{1,3\}$	$\{1,3\}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$	-1	$\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$
$\{2,3\}$	$\{2,3\}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$	2	$\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$	$\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$
$\{1,2\}$	$\{1,3\}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$	2	$\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$	$\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
$\{1,3\}$	$\{1,2\}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$	-1	$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
$\{1,2\}$	$\{2,3\}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$	-2	$-\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -2 \\ -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$	$-\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & -2 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Table 1 All minors with order two, which are not equal to zero

I	J	A_{IJ}	$\det A_{IJ}$	A_{IJ}^{-1}	$\widehat{A_{IJ}^{-1}}$
$\{2, 3\}$	$\{1, 2\}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$	-2	$\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$	$\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
$\{1, 3\}$	$\{2, 3\}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$	1	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$
$\{2, 3\}$	$\{1, 3\}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$	-2	$\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$	$\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Table 2 All minors with order two, which are not equal to zero

From the above table, we have

$$\nu = \sum_I |A_{II}| = 2 - 1 + 2 = 3.$$

Hence

$$A_g = \frac{1}{\nu^2} \sum_{(I,J) \in \mathcal{N}(A)} |A_{IJ}| |A_{JI}| \widehat{A_{IJ}^{-1}} = \frac{1}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ -8 & 10 & 2 \\ 5 & -4 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

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