# The Geometry of Moore-Penrose Generalized Matrix Inverses

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## **Economathematical Starting Point**

More and more introductory business mathematics textbooks present Moore-Penrose generalized matrix inverses as elementary part of the foundations of mathematical economics. Generalized matrix inverses are regularly discussed in introductory courses e.g. at FH Schmalkalden & TU Dortmund.

## **Didactical Problem**

Most textbooks introduce generalized matrix inverses by purely



algebraic reasoning and the discussion of Moore-Penrose generalized matrix inverses is based on the four Moore-Penrose conditions:

 $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^{+} \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} \qquad (\mathbf{A}^{+} \mathbf{A})^{\top} = \mathbf{A}^{+} \mathbf{A}$  $\mathbf{A}^{+} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^{+} = \mathbf{A}^{+} \qquad (\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^{+})^{\top} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^{+}$ 

But to give a complete picture of these mathematical structures it is helpful to introduce and to describe Moore-Penrose generalized matrix inverses also by using geometric representations based on the ideas of Grassmann's theory of extensions. After having discussed the basics of Geometric Algebra and the Geometric Algebra solution scheme of systems of linear equations with the students at previous lessons, a two hour lecture (2 x 45 min.) was required to introduce Pauli algebra generalized matrix inverses and Moore-Penrose generalized matrix inverses.

	of Linear Equations	
	Part 5: Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors Part 6: Solving Systems of Linear Equations with Sandwich Products	winter semester 2016/201 $\rightarrow$ DPG Dresden 2017
netric n the cture uli al- ore-	Part 7: Generalized Matrix Inverses Addendum: Solving Systems of Linear Equa- tions with the Geometric Algebra Al- gorithms Optimizer (GAALOP)	winter semester 2017/2018 → DPG Würzburg & Berlin 2018

Second Starting Point from the Perspective of Physics: Pauli Algebra and Generalized Pauli Algebra (Geometric Algebra)

# Pauli Matrices represent base vectors of three-dimensional space. Generalized Pauli Matrices represent base vectors of higher-dimensional spaces.

(And Dirac Matrices represent base vectors of four- or five-dimensional spacetimes.)

→ More about the foundation of this perspective will be discussed at the short talk SOE 9.2 "Pauli Algebras in Economics: Economathematics from Geometry to Didactics and back" at Tuesday, March 13, 2018, 10:45 – 11:00 h in room MA 001.

Die Wissenschaft der extensiven Grösse

oder

die Ausdehnungslehre, eine neue mathematische Disciplin § 45. Dass nun die äussere Multiplikation, da sie den Begriff des Verschiedenartigen wesentlich voraussetzt, auf die Zahlenlehre keine so unmittelbare Anwendung findet, wie auf die Geometric und Mechanik, darf uns freilich nicht wundern, indem die Zahlen ihrem Inhalte nach als gleichartige erscheinen. Aber desto interessanter ist-es, zu bemerken, wie in der Algebra, sobald an der Zahl noch die Art ihrer Verknüpfung mit andern Grössen festgehalten, und in dieser Hinsicht die eine als von der andern formell verschiedenartig aufgefasst wird, auch die Anwendbarkeit der äusseren Multiplikation mit einer so schlagenden Entschiedenheit heraustritt, dass ich wohl behaupten darf, es werde durch diese Anwendung auch die Algebra eine wesentlich veränderte Gestalt gewinnen. Um hiervon eine Idee zu geben, will ich n Gleichungen ersten Grades mit n Unbekannten setzen, von der Form

 $\mathbf{a}_1\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{a}_2\mathbf{x}_2 + \dots + \mathbf{a}_n\mathbf{x}_n = \mathbf{a}_o$ 

indem die gleichen Stellen in den so gebildeten Summenausdrücken immer dem Gleichartigen zukommen sollen, so erhalten wir  $(a_1 \neq b_1 \neq ... \neq s_1)x_1 \neq (a_2 \neq b_2 \neq ... \neq s_2)x_2 \neq ... \neq (a_n \neq b_n \neq ... \neq s_n)x_n$   $= (a_0 \neq b_0 \neq ... \neq s_0),$ oder bezeichnen wir  $(a_1 \neq b_1 \neq ... \neq s_1)$  mit p<sub>1</sub> und entsprechend die übrigen Summen, so haben wir

 $p_1 x_1 \neq p_2 x_2 \neq \dots \neq p_n x_n = p_0$ . Aus dieser Gleichung, welche die Stelle jener n Gleichungen vertritt, lässt sich nun auf der Stelle jede der Unbekannten, z. B.  $x_1$ finden, wenn wir die beiden Seiten mit dem äusseren Produkte aus den Koefficienten der übrigen Unbekannten äusserlich multipliciren, also hier mit  $p_2 . p_3 .... p_n$ . Da nämlich, wenn man die Glieder der linken Seite einzeln multiplicirt, nach dem Begriff des äusseren Produktes (§ 31) alle Produkte wegfallen, welche zwei gleiche Faktoren enthalten, so erhält man With his theory of extensions Herman Günther Grassmann (1809 – 1877) already invented generalized Pauli Algebra and generalized Dirac Algebra. The solution of a system of linear equations can be found by applying his solution equations of the first edition of his *Ausdehnungslehre* of 1844.

Written in modern form, the solution of consistent sys-



#### **Geometric Interpretation of the Solution Equations**

Outer products of two vectors can be interpreted as oriented area elements. And as a change of the coordinate system does not change the geometric situation, all ratios of the areas of the oriented parallelograms  $a \land b$ ,  $r \land b$ , and  $a \land r$  do not depend on the coordinate system.



But a change of the coordinate system will change the algebraic description of the vectors, which now have three components instead of only two. Therefore the matrix inverse will have a different algebraic description, too. This generalized Pauli Algebra matrix inverse can be used to solve **consistent** systems of linear equations, even if theses systems have more equations than variables.

### **Conventional Matrix Inverses and Generalized Matrix Inverses**

As Grassmann's solution equations can always be written as a matrix multiplication, the lead matrix of this matrix multiplication will be the matrix inverse:

 $\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b})^{-1} (\mathbf{r} \wedge \mathbf{b}) = (\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b})^{-1} ((\sigma_x \wedge \mathbf{b}) \mathbf{r}_1 + (\sigma_y \wedge \mathbf{b}) \mathbf{r}_2)$  $\mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b})^{-1} (\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{r}) = (\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b})^{-1} ((\mathbf{a} \wedge \sigma_x) \mathbf{r}_1 + (\mathbf{a} \wedge \sigma_y) \mathbf{r}_2)$  $\text{Inverse of a 2 x 2 square matrix:} \quad \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b}} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_x \wedge \mathbf{b} & \sigma_y \wedge \mathbf{b} \\ \mathbf{a} \wedge \sigma_x & \mathbf{a} \wedge \sigma_y \end{bmatrix}$ 

If  $(\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b}) \neq 0$ , every element of  $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$  will be a scalar.

# **Conclusion:**

Moore-Penrose generalized matrix inverses  $A^+$  consist of the scalar terms of Pauli algebra generalized matrix inverses  $A^{-1}$ , which usually possess higher-dimensional terms, too.

 $\mathbf{A}^{+} = \begin{bmatrix} \langle (\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b})^{-1} (\sigma_{x} \wedge \mathbf{b}) \rangle_{0} & \langle (\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b})^{-1} (\sigma_{y} \wedge \mathbf{b}) \rangle_{0} & \langle (\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b})^{-1} (\sigma_{z} \wedge \mathbf{b}) \rangle_{0} \\ \langle (\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b})^{-1} (\mathbf{a} \wedge \sigma_{x}) \rangle_{0} & \langle (\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b})^{-1} (\mathbf{a} \wedge \sigma_{y}) \rangle_{0} & \langle (\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b})^{-1} (\mathbf{a} \wedge \sigma_{z}) \rangle_{0} \end{bmatrix}$ 

 $\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x} &= (\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b})^{-1} (\mathbf{r} \wedge \mathbf{b}) = (\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b})^{-1} ((\sigma_x \wedge \mathbf{b}) \mathbf{r}_1 + (\sigma_y \wedge \mathbf{b}) \mathbf{r}_2 + (\sigma_z \wedge \mathbf{b}) \mathbf{r}_3) \\ \mathbf{y} &= (\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b})^{-1} (\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{r}) = (\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b})^{-1} ((\mathbf{a} \wedge \sigma_x) \mathbf{r}_1 + (\mathbf{a} \wedge \sigma_y) \mathbf{r}_2 + (\mathbf{a} \wedge \sigma_z) \mathbf{r}_3) \\ \text{Inverse of a 3 x 2 matrix:} \quad \mathbf{A}^{-1} &= \frac{1}{\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b}} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_x \wedge \mathbf{b} & \sigma_y \wedge \mathbf{b} & \sigma_z \wedge \mathbf{b} \\ \mathbf{a} \wedge \sigma_x & \mathbf{a} \wedge \sigma_y & \mathbf{a} \wedge \sigma_z \end{bmatrix} \\ \text{Or alternatively:} \quad \mathbf{A}^{-1} &= \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_x \wedge \mathbf{b} & \sigma_y \wedge \mathbf{b} & \sigma_z \wedge \mathbf{b} \\ \mathbf{a} \wedge \sigma_x & \mathbf{a} \wedge \sigma_y & \mathbf{a} \wedge \sigma_z \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b}} \end{aligned}$ 

As all elements of  $A^{-1}$  are products of two different bivectors, every element will be a linear combination of a scalar and a bivector.

⇒ Pauli Algebra generalized matrix inverses are left-sided matrix inverses:

$$A A^{-1}A = A$$
  $(A^{-1}A)^{T} = A^{-1}A$   
 $A^{-1}A A^{-1} = A^{-1}$   $(A A^{-1})^{T} \neq A A^{-1}$  but

 $\mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I} \neq \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^{-1}$ 

 $\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A})^{\mathsf{T}} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A}$   $\mathbf{A}^{-1})^{\mathsf{T}} \neq \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^{-1}$ but  $(\mathbf{A} \langle \mathbf{A}^{-1} \rangle_{0})^{\mathsf{T}} = \mathbf{A} \langle \mathbf{A}^{-1} \rangle_{0}$ 

# The Geometry of Moore-Penrose Generalized Matrix Inverses (Example Problem)

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Moore-Penrose Generalized Matrix Inverses of Second Example Result of Second Example Revisited

