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# REMARKS ON THE SHERMAN-MORRISON-WOODBURY FORMULAE 

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Abstract. We present some results on generalized inverses and their application to generalizations of the Sherman-Morrison-Woodbury-type formulae.

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MSC 2000: 15A09, 15A24

## 1. Introduction

As the final goal, we are interested in extending the well known Sherman-Morrison formula [6]

$$
\left(A+u v^{T}\right)^{-1}=A^{-1}-\frac{1}{1+v^{T} A^{-1} u} A^{-1} u v^{T} A^{-1}
$$

( $A$ is a nonsingular matrix, $u, v$ column vectors) to the case that $A$ is singular.
We recall first the notion of quasidirect sum of two matrices ([2], [3]), or, rankadditivity in the terminology of [5].

If $A, B$ are matrices of the same order, then the sum $A+B$ is quasidirect if for the ranks,

$$
\operatorname{rank}(A+B)=\operatorname{rank} A+\operatorname{rank} B
$$

Equivalent statements are:

1. The column space of $A+B$ is the direct sum of the column space of $A$ and the column space of $B$; or, similarly, for the row spaces.

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2. There exist nonsingular matrices $P$ and $Q$ such that

$$
P A Q=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A_{0} & 0 \\
0 & 0
\end{array}\right), \quad P B Q=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 0 \\
0 & B_{0}
\end{array}\right)
$$

where the partitionings on the right-hand sides are identical.
We will also be using the notion [1] of the (1,2)-generalized inverse to an $m \times n$ matrix $A$, and that of the Moore-Penrose inverse of such a matrix. A (1,2)-inverse of $A$ is an $n \times m$ matrix $X$ which satisfies

$$
\begin{align*}
& A X A=A  \tag{1}\\
& X A X=X \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

Such a matrix $X$ is well known to always exist-even over a general field-and to have the same rank as $A$. It is, however, in general not uniquely determined.

The Moore-Penrose inverse $A^{+}$, usually in the case of the complex field, is the unique matrix which satisfies, in addition to (1) and (2), the relations

$$
\begin{align*}
\left(A A^{+}\right)^{*} & =A A^{+}  \tag{3}\\
\left(A^{+} A\right)^{*} & =A^{+} A . \tag{4}
\end{align*}
$$

Here, as usual, the operation $X^{*}$ means the conjugate transpose (in the real case, of course, just the transpose).

In Theorem 2.1, we will add a property to the theory of (1,2)-inverses which is formulated analogously to [4]. As usual, we call a square matrix $P$ a projector if it satisfies $P^{2}=P$, and for completeness, prove a simple lemma.

Lemma 1.1. Let $A$ be an $m \times n$ matrix of rank $r, A=R S$ its rank decomposition, i.e. $R$ is $m \times r, S$ is $r \times n$, where $r=\operatorname{rank} A$. If $P$ is a projector of rank $r$ for which $P A=A$, then $P=R U$ for some $r \times m$ matrix $U$ satisfying $U R=I$.

Proof. If a projector $P$ satisfies $P A=A$, then, of course, $\operatorname{rank} P \geqslant \operatorname{rank} A$. Suppose now that $A=R S$ is a rank decomposition of $A$. Then for any row vector $x$ with $m$ coordinates, $x P=0 \rightarrow x A=0 \rightarrow x R=0$. Thus, $P=R U$ for some $r \times m$ matrix $U$. Since $R U R U=R U$, it follows that the nonsingular matrix $U R$ satisfies $(U R)^{3}=(U R)^{2}$, i.e. $U R=I$.

We also need the following known results:

Theorem 1.2 ([1], Ch. 5, Theorem 8). Let $A$ be an (in general, complex) $m \times n$ matrix of rank $r$. Let $V$ be an $n \times(n-r)$ matrix of rank $n-r$ for which $A V=0$, let $U$ be an $m \times(m-r)$ matrix of rank $m-r$ for which $U^{*} A=0$. Then the matrix

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A & U  \tag{5}\\
V^{*} & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

is nonsingular and its inverse is

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
X & Y  \tag{6}\\
Z & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $X$ is the Moore-Penrose inverse $A^{+}$of $A$ and $Y=V\left(V^{*} V\right)^{-1}, Z=$ $\left(U^{*} U\right)^{-1} U^{*}$.

In addition, $A^{+} U=0$ and $V^{*} A^{+}=0$.
Remark 1.3. If the annihilating matrices $U$ and $V$ in Theorem 1.2 are "normalized", i.e. if we replace $U$ by $U\left(U^{*} U\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ and $V$ by $V\left(V^{*} V\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$, then $Y=V$ and $Z=U^{*}$.

Theorem 1.4 (Woodbury's formula [7]). Let $A$ be a nonsingular $n \times n$ matrix, let $U, V$ be $n \times r$ matrices of rank $r, X$ a nonsingular $r \times r$ matrix.

Then the matrix

$$
A+U X V^{T}
$$

is nonsingular if and only if the $r \times r$ matrix

$$
X^{-1}+V^{T} A^{-1} U
$$

is nonsingular. In that case,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(A+U X V^{T}\right)^{-1}=A^{-1}-A^{-1} U\left(X^{-1}+V^{T} A^{-1} U\right)^{-1} V^{T} A^{-1} . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

## 2. Results

All results in this section-unless specified otherwise-hold for matrices over an arbitrary field.

Theorem 2.1. Let $A$ be an $m \times n$ matrix. Then:

1. If $X$ is a $(1,2)$-inverse of $A$, then there exist projectors $P, Q$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
P A=A, \quad A Q=A \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

for which

$$
\operatorname{rank}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A & P  \tag{9}\\
Q & X
\end{array}\right)=\operatorname{rank} A
$$

2. If $P, Q$ are projectors satisfying (8), both with the same rank as $A$, then there exists a matrix $X$ satisfying (9). This matrix is uniquely determined and satisfies $A X=P, X A=Q$.
3. If for projectors $P, Q$ satisfying (8) and for some matrix $X$ (9) holds, then the matrix $X$ is a $(1,2)$-inverse of $A$.

Proof. To prove 1, choose $P=A X, Q=X A$. These are indeed projectors and

$$
\operatorname{rank}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A & P \\
Q & X
\end{array}\right) \leqslant \operatorname{rank} A
$$

since, if $r$ is the rank of $A$,

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A & A X \\
X A & X
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
X & U \\
-I & 0
\end{array}\right)=0
$$

for $U$ of $\operatorname{rank} n-r$ for which $A U=0$, and the second matrix has rank $m+n-r$. Thus (9) holds.

To prove 2 , observe first that by (9) the matrix $X$ is uniquely determined. Indeed, every entry of $X$ is contained in an $(r+1) \times(r+1)$ singular matrix which extends some nonsingular submatrix of $A$ of order $r$. Now, by Lemma 1.1, if $A=R S$ is a rank decomposition of $A$, then $P=R U$ and $U R=I$, and analogously $Q=V S$ and $S V=I$. Choosing $X=V U,(9)$ is then the product

$$
\binom{R}{V}(S U)
$$

and thus has rank $r$.
To prove 3, let (9) be satisfied for projectors $P$ and $Q$ for which (8) holds. Multiply

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
A & P \\
Q & X
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
I & 0 \\
-A & I
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & P \\
Q-X A & X
\end{array}\right)
$$

We have thus for the ranks

$$
r=\operatorname{rank}(Q-X A)+\operatorname{rank} P
$$

Since $\operatorname{rank} P \geqslant r, Q=X A$. Analogously, premultiplication by

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
I & -A \\
0 & I
\end{array}\right)
$$

yields $P=A X$. Further, observe that in the matrix

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A & A X \\
X A & Y
\end{array}\right)
$$

with rank equal to rank $A$ the matrix $Y$ is uniquely determined.
Now,

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A & A X \\
X A & X A X
\end{array}\right)=\binom{I}{X} A\left(\begin{array}{ll}
I & X
\end{array}\right),
$$

so that $X=X A X$. Since $A=P A$, we have $A=A X A$ and $X$ is indeed a (1,2)inverse of $A$.

Remark 2.2. If in 2 of Theorem 2.1 both projectors $P$ and $Q$ are Hermitian (or, symmetric in the real case), then $X$ is the Moore-Penrose inverse of $A$.

Theorem 2.3. Let $A$ be an $n \times n$ matrix of rank $r<n$. Let $A P=0$ and $Q^{T} A=0$, where $P$ and $Q$ are $n \times(n-r)$ matrices of rank $n-r$. Let $X$ be a nonsingular $(n-r) \times(n-r)$ matrix and let $U$, $V$ be $n \times(n-r)$ matrices such that both the matrices $V^{T} P$ and $Q^{T} U$ are nonsingular.

If $\alpha, \beta$ are numbers, then the matrix

$$
\alpha A+\beta U X V^{T}
$$

is nonsingular if and only if $\alpha \beta \neq 0$. In this case,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\alpha A+\beta U X V^{T}\right)^{-1}=\alpha^{-1} B+\beta^{-1} P\left(V^{T} P\right)^{-1} X^{-1}\left(Q^{T} U\right)^{-1} Q^{T}, \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $B$ is the (unique) matrix which satisfies one of the following four equivalent conditions:

$$
\begin{align*}
& A B=I-U\left(Q^{T} U\right)^{-1} Q^{T},  \tag{11}\\
& B A=I-P\left(V^{T} B=0,\right.  \tag{12}\\
& \left(\begin{array}{cc}
A & U \\
V^{T} & 0
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
B & P\left(V^{T} P\right)^{-1} \\
\left(Q^{T} U\right)^{-1} Q^{T} & B U=0 \\
A & 0
\end{array}\right)=I_{2 n-r}  \tag{13}\\
& \operatorname{rank}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A-U\left(Q^{T} U\right)^{-1} Q^{T} \\
I-P\left(V^{T} P\right)^{-1} V^{T} & B
\end{array}\right)=r . \tag{14}
\end{align*}
$$

In addition, both sums in (10) are quasidirect.
Proof. Observe first that (11) and (13) as well as (12) and (13) are equivalent. Let us show that also (14) is equivalent to (12). Let first (12) hold. The matrix

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & I \\
U\left(Q^{T} U\right)^{-1} Q^{T} & -A
\end{array}\right)
$$

has rank $2 n-r$ and annihilates the matrix $Z$ on the left-hand side of (14). Consequently, the rank of $Z$ is at most $r$. Since $\operatorname{rank} A=r$, equality in (14) holds.

Conversely, let (14) hold. Postmultiply $Z$ by $\left(\begin{array}{cc}I & 0 \\ 0 & U\end{array}\right)$. The resulting matrix

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A & 0 \\
I-P\left(V^{T} P\right)^{-1} V^{T} & B U
\end{array}\right)
$$

has rank at most $r$, which implies $B U=0$. Analogously, premultiplying $Z$ by $\left(\begin{array}{cc}I & 0 \\ 0 & V^{T}\end{array}\right)$ yields $V^{T} B=0$.
Postmultiply now $Z$ by $\left(\begin{array}{cc}B & I \\ -I & 0\end{array}\right)$. The resulting matrix

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A B-I+U\left(Q^{T} U\right)^{-1} Q^{T} & A \\
0 & I-P\left(V^{T} P\right)^{-1} V^{T}
\end{array}\right)
$$

has then rank $r$ so that, since $I-P\left(V^{T} P\right)^{-1} V^{T}$ is a projector of $\operatorname{rank} r$, (11) holds.
The assertion itself then follows from (12) by performing the multiplication of $\alpha A+\beta U X V^{T}$ and $\alpha^{-1} B+\beta^{-1} P\left(V^{T} P\right)^{-1} X^{-1}\left(Q^{T} U\right)^{-1} Q^{T}$. The rest is obvious.

Remark 2.4. It is easily checked that $B$ satisfies

$$
A B A=A, \quad B A B=B
$$

i.e., $B$ is a $(1,2)$-inverse of $A$.

Lemma 2.5. Let $A$ be a nonsingular $n \times n$ matrix, let $r$ be a positive integer less than $n$. If $U$, $V$ are $n \times(n-r)$ matrices such that $V^{T} A^{-1} U$ is nonsingular, then the decomposition

$$
A=A_{0}+U\left(V^{T} A^{-1} U\right)^{-1} V^{T}
$$

for $A_{0}=A-U\left(V^{T} A^{-1} U\right)^{-1} V^{T}$, is quasidirect.
In addition, $A_{0}\left(A^{-1} U\right)=0,\left(V^{T} A^{-1}\right) A_{0}=0$.
Proof. Immediate since all $U, V$ and $U\left(V^{T} A^{-1} U\right)^{-1} V^{T}$ have rank $n-r$, whereas $A_{0}$ has rank at most $r$.

Theorem 2.6. Let $A$ be a nonsingular $n \times n$ matrix, let $r$ be a positive integer less than $n$. Let $X$ be a nonsingular $r \times r$ matrix, $U, V n \times(n-r)$ matrices such that $V^{T} A^{-1} U$ as well as $X+\left(V^{T} A^{-1} U\right)^{-1}$ are nonsingular. Then $A+U X V^{T}$ is nonsingular and its inverse is

$$
\begin{equation*}
B+A^{-1} U\left(V^{T} A^{-1} U\right)^{-1}\left(X+\left(V^{T} A^{-1} U\right)^{-1}\right)^{-1}\left(V^{T} A^{-1} U\right)^{-1} V^{T} A^{-1} \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $B$ is the matrix for which

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A & U  \tag{16}\\
V^{T} & 0
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
B & * \\
* & *
\end{array}\right)=I_{2 n-r}
$$

Proof. By Lemma 2.5, $A$ can be written as a quasidirect sum $A_{0}+$ $U\left(V^{T} A^{-1} U\right)^{-1} V^{T}$, and $A_{0} P=0, Q^{T} A_{0}=0$, where $P=A^{-1} U$ and $Q^{T}=V^{T} A^{-1}$. We have thus

$$
\left(A+U X V^{T}\right)^{-1}=\left(A_{0}+U\left(X+\left(V^{T} A^{-1} U\right)^{-1}\right) V^{T}\right)^{-1}
$$

so that (15) follows from Theorem 2.3 for $\alpha=\beta=1$ and appropriately chosen matrices $A$ and $X$. The fact that in (16) the matrix $A$ can replace $A_{0}$ follows from $V^{T} B=0$.

For illustration, let us formulate the case $r=1$ as a corollary.

Corollary 2.7. Let $A$ be a nonsingular $n \times n$ matrix, let $u$, $v$ be column vectors with $n$ coordinates such that $v^{T} A^{-1} u \neq 0$. If $\xi$ is a number, then $A+u \xi v^{T}$ is nonsingular if and only if $\xi \neq-\left(v^{T} A^{-1} u\right)^{-1}$. In that case,

$$
\left(A+u \xi v^{T}\right)^{-1}=B+\left(\xi+\left(v^{T} A^{-1} u\right)^{-1}\right)^{-1}\left(v^{T} A^{-1} u\right)^{-2} A^{-1} u v^{T} A^{-1}
$$

where $B$ is the matrix for which

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A & u \\
v^{T} & 0
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
B & * \\
* & *
\end{array}\right)=I_{n+1}
$$

We intend now to combine the results on the generalized inverses with the previous ones.

Theorem 2.8. Let $A$ be a real or complex $m \times n$ matrix of rank $r$. Let $V$ be an $n \times(n-r)$ matrix of rank $n-r$ for which $A V=0$, let $U$ be an $m \times(m-r)$ matrix of rank $m-r$ for which $U^{*} A=0$. Then the matrix

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A+U X V^{*} & U  \tag{17}\\
V^{*} & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

is nonsingular for every $r \times r$ matrix $X$, and its inverse is

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A^{+} & V\left(V^{*} V\right)^{-1}  \tag{18}\\
\left(U^{*} U\right)^{-1} U^{*} & X
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $A^{+}$is the Moore-Penrose inverse of $A$.
Proof. Since

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A+U X V^{*} & U \\
V^{*} & 0
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
I & U X \\
0 & I
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A & U \\
V^{*} & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

the inverse is by Theorem 1.2

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A^{+} & V\left(V^{*} V\right)^{-1} \\
\left(U^{*} U\right)^{-1} U^{*} & 0
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
I & -U X \\
0 & I
\end{array}\right),
$$

i.e. (18) since $A^{+} U=0$ by Theorem 1.2.

Theorem 2.9. Let $A$ be a real or complex $n \times n$ matrix of rank $r<n$. Let $A V=0$ and $U^{*} A=0$, where $U$ and $V$ are $n \times(n-r)$ matrices of rank $n-r$. Let $X$ be a nonsingular $(n-r) \times(n-r)$ matrix and let $P, Q$ be $n \times(n-r)$ matrices such that $Q^{*} V=0$ as well as $U^{*} P=0$.

Then the matrix $A+P X Q^{*}$ has rank at most $r$, and exactly $r$ if and only if the matrix $X^{-1}+Q^{*} A^{+} P$ is nonsingular. In this case,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(A+P X Q^{*}\right)^{+}=A^{+}-A^{+} P\left(X^{-1}+Q^{*} A^{+} P\right)^{-1} Q^{*} A^{+} . \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. By Remark 1.3, we can suppose without loss of generality that both $U$ and $V$ are normalized, i.e. that $U^{*} U=I$ and $V^{*} V=I$. Since $U^{*}\left(A+P X Q^{*}\right)=0$ as well as $\left(A+P X Q^{*}\right) V=0$, the rank of $A+P X Q^{*}$ is at most $r$. The matrix

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A+P X Q^{*} & U \\
V^{*} & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

can be written as

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A & U  \tag{20}\\
V^{*} & 0
\end{array}\right)+\binom{P}{0} X\left(Q^{*} 0\right) .
$$

By Woodbury's formula (7), its inverse exists if and only if

$$
X^{-1}+\left(\begin{array}{ll}
Q^{*} & 0
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}
A^{+} & V \\
U^{*} & 0
\end{array}\right)\binom{P}{0}
$$

is nonsingular, i.e., if and only if $X^{-1}+Q^{*} A^{+} P$ is nonsingular. But this occurs if and only if the rank of $A+P X Q^{*}$ is $r$ as follows from Theorem 1.2.

Now, the inverse of (20) can be written in the form

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
A^{+} & V \\
U^{*} & 0
\end{array}\right)-\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A^{+} & V \\
U^{*} & 0
\end{array}\right)\binom{P}{0}\left(X^{-1}+Q^{*} A^{+} P\right)^{-1}\left(Q^{*} 0\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}
A^{+} & V \\
U^{*} & 0
\end{array}\right) .
$$

On the other hand, this matrix is, by Theorem 1.2,

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\left(A+P X Q^{*}\right)^{+} & V \\
U^{*} & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

Thus (19) follows by comparison of the upper-left corner matrices.

## 3. Concluding remarks

Theorems 2.3, 2.6 and 2.9 present formulae extending in some sense Woodbury's formula. It would be desirable to use them in the case that the given matrix $A$ is nonsingular but very badly conditioned to improve the situation from the (partial) knowledge of "almost annihilating" vectors.

Observe also that Theorem 2.3 implies the following maybe surprising result:
Theorem 3.1. Let $A$ be an $n \times n$ matrix of rank $r<n$. Let $A P=0$ and $Q^{T} A=0$, where $P$ and $Q$ are $n \times(n-r)$ matrices of rank $n-r$. Let $X$ be a nonsingular $(n-r) \times(n-r)$ matrix and let $U$, $V$ be $n \times(n-r)$ matrices such that both the matrices $V^{T} P$ and $Q^{T} U$ are nonsingular.

Then the set of triples $(x, y, z), x y z \neq 0$, which satisfy

$$
\operatorname{det}\left(x A+y U X V^{T}+z I\right)=0
$$

coincides with the set of those, again nonzero, triples which satisfy

$$
\operatorname{det}\left(x^{-1} B+y^{-1} P\left(V^{T} P\right)^{-1} X^{-1}\left(O^{T} U\right)^{-1} Q^{T}+z^{-1} I\right)=0
$$

where $B$ is a $(1,2)$-inverse of $A$ for which $B U=0$ and $V^{T} B=0$.

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