

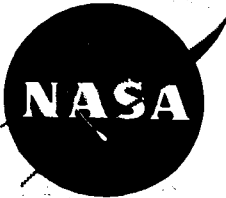
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COMPUTING THE PSEUDO-INVERSE

BY
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ABSTRACT

An orthogonalization algorithm for producing the pseudo-inverse of a matrix is described, and a FORTRAN program which realizes the algorithm is given in detail.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

E. R. Lancaster, under whose supervision this paper was written, was particularly helpful in the development of certain theoretical aspects and supplied many perceptive suggestions on overall organization. G. H. Wyatt's programming skill was instrumental in the debugging phase of the programming effort.

To every matrix A there corresponds a unique matrix A^+ with the following properties:

$$AA^+A = A \quad (1)$$

$$A^+AA^+ = A^+ \quad (2)$$

$$(A^+A)^T = A^+A \quad (3)$$

$$(AA^+)^T = AA^+ \quad (4)$$

Penrose [1], one of the originators of this concept, called A^+ the generalized inverse of A , and equations (1) through (4) are often called Penrose's Lemmas. Recent usage applies generalized inverse to any matrix satisfying (1), (1) and (2), or (1), (2), and (3), referring to the unique A^+ as the pseudo-inverse of A . Other definitions of A^+ have been given (e.g. Albert [2], Ben-Israel [3]) but the most common is that given above.

For simplicity's sake, the rest of this paper considers only real matrices, although most results hold for complex matrices as well. The pseudo-inverse provides a way to handle the ubiquitous matrix-vector equation

$$Ax = y \quad (5)$$

If A is square and non-singular, A^+ is A^{-1} and the vector A^+y solves the equation. The particular advantage of the pseudo-inverse appears when A is singular or non-square, since A^+y then is the minimal vector for this equation; that is, if M is the set of all vectors x_0 such that

$$\|Ax_0 - y\| \leq \|Ax - y\| \quad (6)$$

for all x , then $A^+y \in M$ and

$$\|A^+y\| = \min_{x_0 \in M} \{\|Ax_0\|\} \quad (7)$$

Here we use the standard Euclidean norm.

A theorem which dates back to the time of Gauss (Newhouse [4]) states, in effect, that if $x_0 \in M$, then x_0 is a solution of

$$A^T A x = A^T y .$$

This type of system, often called a set of normal equations, is found repeatedly in least squares problems. (See, e.g., Rao [5]). Since $A^+ y \in M$, the application of A^+ in these circumstances is evident.

The same theorem also states that if $x_0 \in M$, then x_0 is a projection of y onto the column space of A . Newhouse later gives a theorem which proves condition (7), that $A^+ y$ is the "shortest" of these projections, giving rise to Greville's assertion [6] that $A^+ y$ is the best solution to equation (5) in the least squares sense.

Naturally, the theoretical existence of such a useful mathematical object makes a method for its computation very desirable. Most of the methods suggested, however, require that the product $A^T A$ be formed and that Gaussian elimination (or one of its variants such as pivotal condensation or sweep out) be performed on it. Should we be faced with an ill-conditioned matrix, it is entirely possible that numerical difficulties will prevent any significant computation using such methods. For example, consider the matrix

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{5} & \frac{1}{6} & \frac{1}{7} & \frac{1}{8} \\ \frac{1}{6} & \frac{1}{7} & \frac{1}{8} & \frac{1}{9} \\ \frac{1}{7} & \frac{1}{8} & \frac{1}{9} & \frac{1}{10} \\ \frac{1}{8} & \frac{1}{9} & \frac{1}{10} & \frac{1}{11} \end{bmatrix}$$

The Hilbert matrix is notoriously ill-conditioned with respect to Gaussian elimination. The upper left-hand 4×4 corner of it has a condition number $\lambda_{\max}/\lambda_{\min}$ given by Marcus (Ref. [7]) as 15,514, so our 4×4 segment of it would certainly be suspect. Fox (Ref. [8]) shows that our suspicions are justified, giving the Gauss elimination process for H , in which the steady decrease in magnitude of the pivots leads to very unreliable quantities. More to our point, he demonstrates that Gauss elimination fails completely when applied

to $H^T H$. We should realize that a bad but workable problem can become pathologically unmanageable if such a product is formed, and, as a general rule, avoid such approaches.

The method of Rust, Burrus, and Schneeberger (Ref. [9]) was used to compute the pseudo-inverse because it does conform to this general rule. Briefly, it can be characterized as follows: if the $m \times n$ matrix A is in the form $[R|S]$, where the k linearly independent columns form the submatrix R and the linearly dependent columns form the submatrix S , make up the $n \times n$ identity matrix and write, symbolically,

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|c} R & S \\ \hline I_k & 0 \\ \hline 0 & I_{n-k} \end{array} \right]$$

Then perform the Gram-Schmidt (G.S.) orthogonalization process on $[R|S]$, and apply these elementary column operations to the lower submatrix to get

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|c} Q & 0 \\ \hline Z & -U \\ \hline 0 & I_{n-k} \end{array} \right]$$

Next, perform the G.S. process on the submatrix $\begin{bmatrix} -U \\ I_{n-k} \end{bmatrix}$ to produce

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|c} Q & 0 \\ \hline Z & -UP \\ \hline 0 & P \end{array} \right];$$

form the matrix

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} Q^T \\ \hline (UP)^T Z Q^T \end{array} \right]$$

and, finally,

$$A^+ = [R|S]^+ = \begin{bmatrix} Z & -UP \\ 0 & P \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} Q^T \\ (UP)^T ZQ^T \end{bmatrix}$$

A complete derivation is given in Ref. [9] and a few auxiliary notes are given in Appendix A.

Of course, not every matrix will be in the convenient $[R|S]$ form, but if we can determine which columns of A are dependent we can certainly permute columns to produce it; then $[R|S]^+$ is found and by the authority of Theorems I and II, Appendix A, the rows of $[R|S]^+$ are likewise permuted to get A^+ . Since the G.S. process not only orthogonalizes the independent columns of A but also makes the dependent ones zero, we can use it to find the dependent columns.

Now we have a straightforward way to proceed:

- (1) Use G.S. to find the dependent columns.
- (2) Permute to get $[R|S]$.
- (3) Use G.S. to find $[R|S]^+$.
- (4) Permute to get A^+ .

The reader will have noticed that the G.S. process is used in step (1) and again in step (3). We could save some computation time if we combined the two steps and performed the G.S. process only once. A closer examination of the process reveals that we can, under certain conditions, make this combination.

Our program uses a modified Gram-Schmidt process which is more accurate than the classic textbook version. A recursive algorithm describing our version is:

- (1) Orthogonalize c_j , the next column of A :

$$b_j = c_j - \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} \left(\frac{c_j \cdot b_i'}{b_i' \cdot b_i'} \right) b_i'$$

(2) Is $b_j \approx 0$? If so, zero it out and go to step (1). If not, do step (3).

(3) Re-orthogonalize b_j :

$$b_j' = b_j - \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} \left(\frac{b_j \cdot b_i'}{b_i' \cdot b_i'} \right) b_i' ,$$

and go to step (1).

The initial condition is $b_1' = c_1$. After we run out of columns, we normalize each one and we have an orthonormal matrix A_\perp .

If we want to duplicate these elementary column operations on another matrix D , we could save the numbers

$$\left(\frac{c_j \cdot b_i'}{b_i' \cdot b_i'} \right) , \quad \left(\frac{b_j \cdot b_i'}{b_i' \cdot b_i'} \right) , \quad \text{and} \quad (b_j' \cdot b_j')^{1/2}$$

and then go through the algorithm again, this time letting c_j be the columns of D . More precisely, we might save these numbers in an $n \times n$ matrix S , defined as

$$S_{ji} = \frac{c_j \cdot b_i'}{b_i' \cdot b_i'} \quad (j > i) ,$$

$$S_{ij} = \frac{b_j \cdot b_i'}{b_i' \cdot b_i'} \quad (j > i) ,$$

$$S_{jj} = (b_j' \cdot b_j')^{1/2} \quad (1 \leq j \leq n) .$$

As an example, let A be

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 3 & 6 \\ 2 & 2 & 6 & 7 \\ 3 & 3 & 9 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Using eight-digit arithmetic and rounding the final answers to three digits, we have

$$A_{\perp} = \begin{bmatrix} .267 & 0 & 0 & .873 \\ .535 & 0 & 0 & .218 \\ .802 & 0 & 0 & -.436 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 3.74 & 0 & 0 & .213 \times 10^{-7} \\ 1.00 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 3.00 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 3.14 & 0 & 0 & 3.27 \end{bmatrix}$$

Once we have done the G.S. process on A, we have done it for all column permutations of A which do not disturb the relative order of the independent columns. If P is a permutation matrix such that $AP = [R|S]$, where R is the matrix of independent columns of A in their original relative order, the orthonormal matrix $[Q|0]$ produced by the G.S. process on $[R|S]$ will be AP . In our example, suppose

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} .$$

Then

$$[R|S] = AP = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 & 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 7 & 2 & 6 \\ 3 & 8 & 3 & 9 \end{bmatrix} ,$$

and

$$[Q|0] = A_{\perp}P = \begin{bmatrix} .267 & .873 & 0 & 0 \\ .535 & .218 & 0 & 0 \\ .802 & -.436 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} .$$

We can also produce a new S matrix (F) by permutations. Referring back to the definition of S, one can see that a particular column c_j has its initial

orthogonalization coefficients $(c_j \cdot b'_i)/(b'_i \cdot b'_i)$ on the j th row and below the diagonal, and its secondary coefficients $(b_j \cdot b'_i)/(b'_i \cdot b'_i)$ fall on the j th column and above the diagonal. Once c_j is converted into b'_j , all initial coefficients having b'_j as a factor fall on the j th column below the diagonal, and all such secondary coefficients fall on the j th row above the diagonal. When b'_j is normalized, its "length" falls on the j th diagonal element. Moving c_j to a new position therefore means that we must move the j th row and column of S to corresponding positions, or

$$F = P^T S P$$

In our example,

$$F = \begin{bmatrix} 3.74 & .213 \times 10^{-7} & 0 & 0 \\ 3.14 & 3.27 & 0 & 0 \\ 1.00 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 3.00 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

If we go through the algorithm with c_j taken as the columns of a matrix D and the numbers $(c_j \cdot b'_i)/(b'_i \cdot b'_i)$ and $(b_j \cdot b'_i)/(b'_i \cdot b'_i)$ taken as f_{ji} and f_{ij} respectively, we have applied the elementary column operations of the G.S. process on $[R|S]$ to D .

Now we have the desired result: once the G.S. process on A is complete, it is not necessary to do it again on $[R|S]$ to derive its effects; merely execute the indicated permutations on A_1 and S and we have all the necessary matrices. Using this result, the procedure (1) through (4) on page 4 can be rewritten:

- (1) Use G.S. on A ; save the G.S. coefficients in S and save A_1 . Note which columns are dependent.
- (2) Permute A_1 to get $[Q|0]$; permute S to get F .
- (3) Use the entries of F to operate on

$$\begin{bmatrix} I_k & 0 \\ 0 & I_{n-k} \end{bmatrix}$$

producing

$$\begin{bmatrix} Z & -U \\ 0 & I_{n-k} \end{bmatrix}$$

- (4) Proceed as usual to find $[R|S]^+$.
- (5) Permute to get A^+ .

The program whose flow chart and FORTRAN listing appear in Appendices B and C has been checked with a variety of matrices on the IBM 7094 and appears to run properly. Two particular cautions might be extended, however: first, one will note that a decision on the dependency of any column is made by comparing the "length" of the generated orthogonal column with the "length" of the original column. If the check number $(b_j \cdot b_j)/(c_j \cdot c_j)$ is smaller than a certain tolerance, the column b_j is made zero. When the check number is very close to the tolerance, any decision made will not be a good one and the resulting perturbations can become serious; for example, the Hilbert matrix gives poor results for this very reason. One might vary the tolerance to suit special cases.

Second, although this program finds the inverse if it exists, there are routines in general use which get better inverses. For example, the SHARE routine MATINV was tested against this program on a sequence of Pei matrices (Ref. [10], Ref. [11]) and consistently got one more accurate digit in the worst cases. The difference is not great but the prospective user should realize that it exists.

Finally, an experienced programmer will see that the FORTRAN realization in Appendix C is not in optimal form. A more streamlined, double-precision version is being prepared for the IBM 360 as of this writing. The author would appreciate hearing of mistakes in, or improvements upon, the original.

APPENDIX A

(Supplementary notes for Ref. [9])

Theorem I

If P is a permutation matrix (possibly a product of elementary permutation matrices) and A^+ is the pseudo-inverse of A , then

$$(AP)^+ = P^T A^+ .$$

Proof: We need only verify that Penrose's Lemmas hold. Noting that $PP^T = P^T P = I$, we have

$$(a) \quad (AP) (P^T A^+) (AP) = AP$$

$$(b) \quad P^T A^+ (AP) P^T A^+ = P^T A^+$$

$$(c) \quad \left[(AP) (P^T A^+) \right]^T = (AA^+)^T = AA^+ = (AP) (P^T A^+)$$

$$(d) \quad \left[(P^T A^+) (AP) \right]^T = \left[P^T (A^+ A) P \right]^T \\ = P^T (A^+ A)^T P = P^T (A^+ A) P \\ = (P^T A^+) (AP) .$$

Theorem II

If P is a permutation matrix and the operation AP effects a column permutation of A , then $P^T A$ effects that same permutation on the rows of A .

Proof: Suppose one of the effects of AP is to change column i to the j th place. Then $P_{ij} = 1$, $P_{ji}^T = 1$, and $P^T A$ changes row i to the j th place.

We use this result to get A^+ from a row permutation of $[R|S]^+$ — that same permutation of columns which transformed A into $[R|S]$.

The paper states (p. 383, right column) that the G.S. process turns a dependent vector into the zero vector. One might check this statement by referring

to Hoffmann and Kunze, p. 230, Theorem III (Ref. [12]). If a_{k+1} is a linear combination of a_1, \dots, a_k then it is a linear combination of q_1, \dots, q_k since the vectors q_i span the space of the vectors a_i . Furthermore, by the above-mentioned theorem,

$$a_{k+1} = \sum_{i=1}^k (a_{k+1}^H q_i) q_i$$

and $c_{k+1} = 0$.

On p. 384, left column we are to note that I_{n-k} remains unchanged. Suppose we are operating on column $k+p$ ($p > 0$) of the matrix $[R|S]$. We have

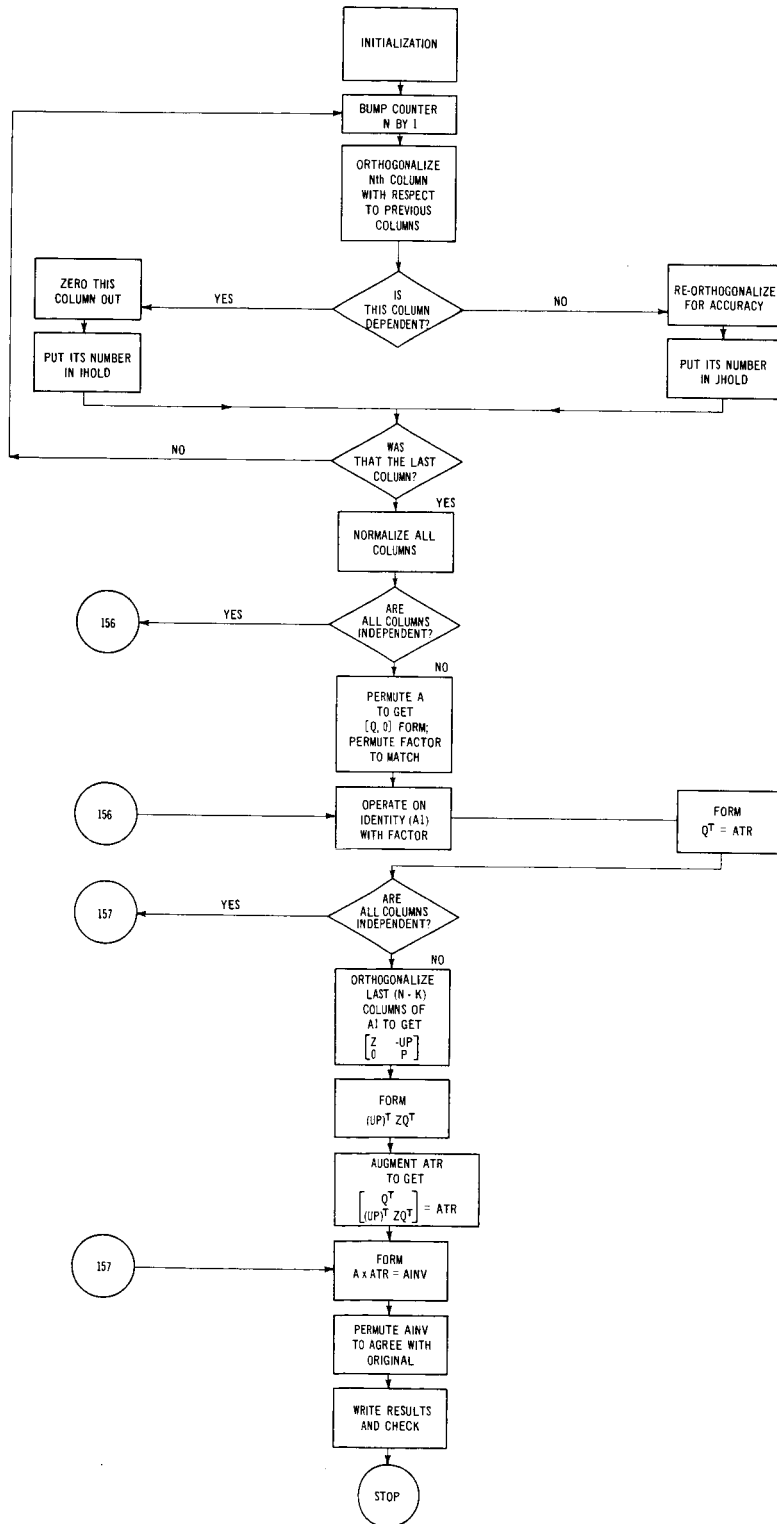
$$\begin{aligned} c_{k+p} &= a_{k+p} - \sum_{i=1}^{k+p-1} (a_{k+p}^H q_i) q_i \\ &= a_{k+p} - \sum_{i=1}^k (a_{k+p}^H q_i) q_i - \sum_{i=k+1}^{k+p-1} (a_{k+p}^H q_i) q_i \end{aligned}$$

But each q_i , $k+1 \leq i \leq k+p-1$, has been zeroed out already, since they came from vectors dependent upon a_1, \dots, a_k , so the above is

$$c_{k+p} = a_{k+p} - \sum_{i=1}^k (a_{k+p}^H q_i) q_i$$

Similar column operations on the identity matrix then use only the first k columns, whose lower $n-k$ entries are all zero and cannot contribute to any modification of I_{n-k} .

APPENDIX B



APPENDIX C

```

DIMENSION A(10,10),FACTOR(10,10),S2(10,10),IHOLD(10),JHOLD(10),
1A1(10,10),ORIG(10,10),PROD(10,10),PROD1(10,10),
2PROD2(10,10),ATR(10,10),AINV(10,10)
DIMENSION UPTR(10,10)
DIMENSION AINV1(10,10)
DATA PRAIN1/5HAINV1/
DATA PRA,PRFACT,PRS2/1HA,4HFACT,2HS2/
DATA PRA1/2HA1/
DATA PRAINV/4HAINV/
DATA PRORIG,PRPR,PRPR1,PRPR2,PRATR/4HORIG,4HPROD,5HPROD1,5HPROD2,
13HATR/
DATA PRUPTR/4HUPTR/
154 READ(5,1) NROWS,NCOLS
1 FORMAT(2I5)
DO 112 I = 1,NROWS
112 READ(5,2) (A(I,J),J = 1,NCOLS)
2 FORMAT(6E12.8)
TOL = (10.*0.5**27)**2
DO 110 I = 1,NROWS
DO 110 J = 1,NCOLS
110 ORIG(I,J) = A(I,J)
DO 100 I=1,NCOLS
IHOLD(I) = 0
JHOLD(I) = 0
DO 102 J = 1,NCOLS
S2(I,J) = 0.
PROD1(I,J) = 0.
PROD2(I,J) = 0.
ATR(I,J) = 0.
FACTOR(I,J) = 0.
102 A1(I,J) = 0.
100 A1(I,I) = 1.
JHOLD(1) = 1
KK = 1
JJ = 0
II = 0
N = 1
152 NLESS1 = N
N = N + 1
CHECK = DOT(A,N,N,NROWS)
DO 101 I = 1,NLESS1
FACTOR(N,I) = DOT(A,N,I,NROWS)/DOT(A,I,I,NROWS)
DO 101 J = 1, NROWS
101 A(J,N) = A(J,N) - FACTOR(N,I)*A(J,I)
CHECK = DOT(A,N,N,NROWS)/CHECK
IF(CHECK - TOL) 150,150,151
150 DO 103 J = 1,NROWS

```



```

103  A(J,N) = 0.
      JJ = JJ + 1
      IHOLD(JJ) = N
      GO TO 155
151  DO 104 I = 1,NLESS1
      FACTOR(I,N) = DOT(A,N,I,NROWS)/DOT(A,I,I,NROWS)
      DO 104 J = 1,NROWS
104  A(J,N) = A(J,N) - FACTOR(I,N)*A(J,I)
      KK = KK + 1
      JHOLD(KK) = N
155  IF(N - NCOLS) 152,153,153
153  DO 105 J = 1,NCOLS
      FACTOR(J,J) = SQRT(DOT(A,J,J,NROWS))
      IF(FACTOR(J,J) .EQ. 0.) GO TO 105

      DO 106 K = 1,NROWS
106  A(K,J) = A(K,J)/FACTOR(J,J)
105  CONTINUE
      CALL WRITE(FACTOR,NCOLS,NCOLS,PRFACT)
      CALL WRITE(A,NROWS,NCOLS,PRA)
      IF(KK.EQ.NCOLS) GO TO 156
      DO 120 I = 1,KK
      ISUB = JHOLD(I)
      DO 120 J = 1,NCOLS
      A(J,I) = A(J,ISUB)
120  S2(J,I) = FACTOR(J,ISUB)
      DO 121 I = 1,KK
      ISUB = JHOLD(I)
      DO 121 J = 1,NCOLS
121  FACTOR(I,J) = S2(ISUB,J)
      KK = KK + 1
      DO 125 I = KK,NCOLS
      II = II + 1
      ISUB2 = IHOLD(II)
      DO 125 J = 1,NCOLS
125  FACTOR(I,J) = S2(ISUB2,J)
      DO 162 I = KK,NCOLS
      DO 162 J = 1,NROWS
162  A(J,I) = 0.
      KK = KK - 1
156  CALL WRITE(A,NROWS,NCOLS,PRA)
      CALL WRITE(FACTOR,NCOLS,NCOLS,PRFACT)
      CALL WRITE(A1,NCOLS,NCOLS,PRA1)
      DO 502 I = 2,NCOLS
      ILESS1 = I - 1
      DO 500 J = 1,ILESS1

```

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```
DO 500 K = 1,NROWS
500 A1(K,I) = A1(K,I) - FACTOR(I,J) * A1(K,J)
DO 502 J = 1,NLESS1
DO 502 K = 1,NROWS
502 A1(K,I) = A1(K,I) - FACTOR(J,I) * A1(K,J)
DO 501 I = 1,KK
DO 501 J = 1,NROWS
501 A1(J,I) = A1(J,I)/FACTOR(I,I)
CALL WRITE(A1,NCOLS,NCOLS,PRA1)
CALL TRANSP(A,NROWS,KK,ATR)
CALL WRITE(ATR,NCOLS,NROWS,PRATR)
IF(KK.EQ.NCOLS) GO TO 157
IST = KK + 1
IF(KK.EQ.(NCOLS-1)) GO TO 158
N = KK + 1
159 NLESS1 = N
N = N + 1
DO 107 I = IST,NLESS1
FACTOR(N,I) = DOT(A1,N,I,NCOLS)/DOT(A1,I,I,NCOLS)
DO 107 J = 1,NCOLS
107 A1(J,N) = A1(J,N) - FACTOR(N,I) * A1(J,I)
DO 108 I = IST,NLESS1
FACTOR(I,N) = DOT(A1,N,I,NCOLS)/DOT(A1,I,I,NCOLS)
DO 108 J = 1,NCOLS
108 A1(J,N) = A1(J,N) - FACTOR(I,N) * A1(J,I)
IF(N.LT.NCOLS) GO TO 159
CALL WRITE(A1,NCOLS,NCOLS,PRA1)
158 DO 128 I = IST,NCOLS
FACTOR(I,I) = SQRT(DOT(A1,I,I,NCOLS))
DO 128 J = 1,NCOLS

128 A1(J,I) = A1(J,I)/FACTOR(I,I)
CALL WRITE(A1,NCOLS,NCOLS,PRA1)
CALL MATMPY(A1,KK,KK,ATR,NROWS,PROD1)
CALL WRITE(PROD1,KK,NROWS,PRPR1)
LIM = NCOLS - KK
DO 122 I = 1,LIM
ISUB1 = KK + I
DO 122 J = 1,NCOLS
122 UPTR(I,J) = -A1(J,ISUB1)
CALL WRITE(UPTR,LIM,NCOLS,PRUPTR)
CALL MATMPY(UPTR,LIM,KK,PROD1,NROWS,PROD2)
CALL WRITE(PROD2,LIM,NROWS,PRPR2)
DO 123 I = 1,LIM
ISUB3 = KK + I
DO 123 J = 1,NROWS
```

```

123  ATR(ISUB3,J) = PROD2(I,J)
      CALL WRITE(ATR,NCOLS,NROWS, PRATR)
157  CALL MATMPY(A1,NCOLS,NCOLS,ATR,NROWS,AINV)
      CALL WRITE(AINV,NCOLS,NROWS,PRAINV)
      CALL WRITE(ORIG,NROWS,NCOLS,PRORIG)
      DO 126 I = 1, KK
        ISUB4 = JHOLD(I)
        DO 126 J = 1, NROWS
126  AINV1(ISUB4,J) = AINV(I,J)
        IF (KK .EQ. NCOLS) GO TO 160
        KK = KK + 1
        II = 0
        DO 127 I = KK, NCOLS
          II = II + 1
          ISUB5 = IHOLD(II)
          DO 127 J = 1, NROWS
127  AINV1(ISUB5,J) = AINV(I,J)
          KK = KK - 1
160  CALL WRITE(AINV1,NCOLS,NROWS,PRAIN1)
      CALL MATMPY(ORIG,NROWS,NCOLS,AINV1,NROWS,PROD)
      CALL WRITE(PROD,NROWS,NROWS,PRPR)
      CALL MATMPY(PROD,NROWS,NROWS,ORIG,NCOLS,PROD2)
      CALL WRITE(PROD2,NROWS,NCOLS,PRPR2)
      CALL MATMPY(AINV1,NCOLS,NROWS,PROD,NROWS,PROD2)
      CALL WRITE(PROD2,NCOLS,NROWS,PRPR2)
      CALL MATMPY(AINV1,NCOLS,NROWS,ORIG,NCOLS,PROD)
      CALL WRITE(PROD,NCOLS,NCOLS,PRPR)
      GO TO 154
      END

```

```

      FUNCTION DOT (A,J,K,NROWS)
      DIMENSION A(10,10)
      DOT = 0.
      DO 10 I = 1,NROWS
10  DOT = DOT + A(I,J) * A(I,K)
      RETURN
      END

```

```

      SUBROUTINE WRITE(X,NROWS,NCOLS,NAME)
      DIMENSION X(10,10)
      WRITE(6,3) NAME
3  FORMAT(1H0////7H MATRIX,1A7)
      DO 21 I = 1,NROWS
21  WRITE(6,4) (X(I,J),J = 1,NCOLS)

```

```
4   FORMAT(1H0,8E16.8)
   RETURN
   END
```

```
   SUBROUTINE MATMPY(A,NRA,NCA,B,NCB,PROD)
   DIMENSION A(10,10),B(10,10),PROD(10,10)
   DO 600 I = 1,NRA
   DO 600 J = 1,NCB
   PROD(I,J) = 0.
   DO 600 K = 1,NCA
600  PROD(I,J) = PROD(I,J) + A(I,K) * B(K,J)
   RETURN
   END
```

```
   SUBROUTINE TRANSP(A,NRA,NCA,ATR)
   DIMENSION A(10,10),ATR(10,10)
   DO 601 I = 1,NRA
   DO 601 J = 1,NCA
601  ATR(J,I) = A(I,J)
   RETURN
   END
```

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