# FURTHER RESULTS ON COMMON PROPERTIES OF THE PRODUCTS ac AND $b d$ 

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#### Abstract

In this paper, we continue to investigate common properties of the products $a c$ and $b d$ in various categories under the assumption $a c d=d b d$ and $d b a=a c a$. These properties include generalized strongly Drazin invertibility and generalized Hirano invertibility in rings, abstract index of Fredholm elements and B-Fredholm elements in the Banach algebra context, complementability of kernels and ranges for bounded linear operators on Banach spaces.


## 1. Introduction

Throughout this paper, $\mathcal{R}$ denotes an associative ring with unit 1. The classical Jacobson's lemma asserts that

$$
\begin{equation*}
1-a b \text { is invertible if and only if } 1-b a \text { is invertible } \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for any $a, b \in \mathcal{R}$. In the last two decades, suitable analogues of Jacobson's lemma for Drazin inverse and generalized Drazin inverse have been found by many researchers around the world (see $[6,8,14,16,17,24]$ ). Corach et al. in [7] generalized (1.1) and many of its relatives to the case that

$$
\begin{equation*}
a b a=a c a \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

see also [20, 21, 22, 23]. Recently, it has been realized that there are proper counterparts of Jacobson's lemma for Drazin inverse and generalized Drazin inverse under the new condition

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
a c d=d b d  \tag{1.3}\\
d b a=a c a
\end{array}\right.
$$

[^0]see $[15,18]$. Obviously, the case " $a=d "$ in (1.3) gives (1.2), the case " $b=c$ " in (1.2) results in $a c a=a c a$.

This paper is a continuation of $[15,18]$. In the presence of $(1.3)$, common properties of the products $a c$ and $b d$ are further studied in various categories.

- In section 2, Jacobson's lemma for two new generalized inverses (i.e., generalized strong Drazin inverse and generalized Hirano inverse) are established in rings.
- In section 3, we derive the abstract index equality of Fredholm elements and B-Fredholm elements in the Banach algebra context.
- In section 4 , we investigate the common complementability of kernels and ranges for bounded linear operators on Banach spaces.


## 2. Generalized inverses related to generalized Drazin inverse

For $a \in \mathcal{R}$, the commutant and double commutant of $a$ are defined by $\operatorname{comm}(a)=\{x \in \mathcal{R}: a x=x a\}$ and $\operatorname{comm}^{2}(a)=\{x \in \mathcal{R}: x y=y x$, for all $y \in$ $\operatorname{comm}(a)\}$, respectively. We shall write $\mathcal{R}^{-1}$ and $\mathcal{R}^{\text {nil }}$ for the sets of all invertible and nilpotent elements of $\mathcal{R}$, respectively. An element $a \in \mathcal{R}$ is quasinilpotent ([12]) if $1+a x \in \mathcal{R}^{-1}$ for all $x \in \operatorname{comm}(a)$. The set of all quasinilpotent elements of $\mathcal{R}$ will be denoted by $\mathcal{R}^{\text {qnil }}$. Recall that $a \in \mathcal{R}$ is generalized Drazin invertible ([13]) if there exists $b \in \mathcal{R}$ such that

$$
b \in \operatorname{comm}^{2}(a), b a b=b \text { and } a-a b a \in \mathcal{R}^{q n i l} .
$$

If such $b$ exists, it is unique, and it is called the generalized Drazin inverse of $a$, denoted by $a^{g D}$. The set composed of generalized Drazin invertible elements in $\mathcal{R}$ will be denoted by $\mathcal{R}^{g D}$. In [18], the authors obtained the following analogue of Jacobson's lemma for generalized Drazin inverse under the assumption (1.3), which gives an affirmative answer to a conjecture of [15].

Lemma 2.1. Suppose that $a, b, c, d \in \mathcal{R}$ satisfy $a c d=d b d$ and $d b a=a c a$. Then $\beta=1-a c \in \mathcal{R}^{g D}$ if and only if $\alpha=1-b d \in \mathcal{R}^{g D}$. In this case, we have

$$
\beta^{g D}=\left(1-d \alpha^{\pi}\left[1-\alpha^{\pi} \alpha(1+b d)\right]^{-1} b a c\right)(1+a c)+d \alpha^{g D} b a c
$$

and

$$
\alpha^{g D}=\left(1-b a c \beta^{\pi}\left[1-\beta^{\pi} \beta(1+a c)\right]^{-1} d\right)(1+b d)+b a c \beta^{g D} d
$$

where $\alpha^{\pi}=1-\alpha \alpha^{g D}, \beta^{\pi}=1-\beta \beta^{g D}$.
If we replace the condition $a-a b a \in \mathcal{R}^{q n i l}$ in the definition of generalized Drazin inverse with $a-a b \in \mathcal{R}^{\text {qnil }}$, then $a$ is said to be generalized strongly Drazin invertible and $b$ is called the generalized strong Drazin inverse of $a$, denoted by $a^{g s D}$ (see [11]). The set composed of generalized strongly Drazin invertible elements in $\mathcal{R}$ will be denoted by $\mathcal{R}^{g s D}$. According to [11, Corollary 3.3], $\mathcal{R}^{g s D} \subseteq \mathcal{R}^{g D}$.

Theorem 2.2. Suppose that $a, b, c, d \in \mathcal{R}$ satisfy $a c d=d b d$ and $d b a=$ aca. Then $\beta=1-a c \in \mathcal{R}^{g s D}$ if and only if $\alpha=1-b d \in \mathcal{R}^{g s D}$. In this case, we have

$$
\beta^{g s D}=\left(1-d \alpha^{\pi}\left[1-\alpha^{\pi} \alpha(1+b d)\right]^{-1} b a c\right)(1+a c)+d \alpha^{g s D} b a c
$$

and

$$
\alpha^{g s D}=\left(1-b a c \beta^{\pi}\left[1-\beta^{\pi} \beta(1+a c)\right]^{-1} d\right)(1+b d)+b a c \beta^{g s D} d,
$$

where $\alpha^{\pi}=1-\alpha \alpha^{g s D}, \beta^{\pi}=1-\beta \beta^{g s D}$.
Proof. Write $p=\alpha^{\pi}, v=[1-p \alpha(1+b d)]^{-1}$ and $y=(1-d p v b a c)(1+$ $a c)+d \alpha^{g s D} b a c$. By Lemma 2.1, $y$ is a generalized Drazin inverse of $\beta$. To show $y \in \mathcal{R}^{g s D}$, we only need to show that $\beta-\beta y \in \mathcal{R}^{\text {qnil }}$. Noting $p=$ $p(b d)^{2} v=p v(b d)^{2}$, we deduce that $\alpha-\alpha \alpha^{g s D}=p-b d=(p v b d b-b) d$. From the proof of [18, Theorem 3.3], we get $\beta y=1-d p v b a c$. Hence $\beta-\beta y=$ $1-a c-(1-d p v b a c)=d p v b a c-a c=(d p v b a-a) c$. Now we put $a^{\prime}=d p v b a-a$ and $b^{\prime}=p v b d b-b$. Then a direct calculation shows that $a^{\prime} c d=d b^{\prime} d$ and $d b^{\prime} a^{\prime}=a^{\prime} c a^{\prime}$. Since $b^{\prime} d=\alpha-\alpha \alpha^{g s D} \in \mathcal{R}^{\text {qnil }}$, by [19, Lemma 2.6], we conclude that $\beta-\beta y=a^{\prime} c \in \mathcal{R}^{q n i l}$, as required.

Conversely, set $q=\beta^{\pi}, u=[1-q \beta(1+a c)]^{-1}$ and $x=(1-b a c q u d)(1+$ $b d)+b a c \beta^{g s D} d$. By Lemma 2.1, it remains to prove that $\alpha-\alpha x \in \mathcal{R}^{q n i l}$. Noting $q=q(a c)^{2} u=q u(a c)^{2}$, we get $\beta-\beta \beta^{g s D}=q-a c=(q u a c a-a) c$. Also, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha x & =(1-b d)\left[(1-b a c q u d)(1+b d)+b a c \beta^{g s D} d\right] \\
& =1-(b d)^{2}-(1-b d) b a c q u d(1+b d)+(1-b d) b a c \beta^{g s D} d \\
& =1-\left[b a c d-b a c(1-a c) \beta^{g s D} d\right]-(1-b d) b a c q u d(1+b d) \\
& =1-b a c q d-b a c(1-a c) q u d(1+b d) \\
& =1-b a c q d-b a c q u(1-a c)(1+a c) d \\
& =1-b a c q d-b a c q u\left[1-(a c)^{2}\right] d \\
& =1-b a c q u d,
\end{aligned}
$$

whence $\alpha-\alpha x=b a c q u d-b d=(b a c q u-b) d$. Now we write $a^{\prime}=q u a c a-a$ and $b^{\prime}=b a c q u-b$, a direct calculation shows that $a^{\prime} c d=d b^{\prime} d$ and $d b^{\prime} a^{\prime}=a^{\prime} c a^{\prime}$. Since $a^{\prime} c=\beta-\beta \beta^{g s D} \in \mathcal{R}^{\text {qnil }}$, the desired conclusion $\alpha-\alpha x=b^{\prime} d \in \mathcal{R}^{\text {qnil }}$ then follows by [19, Lemma 2.6].

Recently, Abdolyousefi and Chen ([1]) introduced another subclass of generalized Drazin inverse, by replacing $a-a b a \in \mathcal{R}^{q n i l}$ with $a^{2}-a b \in \mathcal{R}^{\text {qnil }}$ in the definition of generalized Drazin inverse. In this case, we say that $a$ is generalized Hirano invertible and $b$ is the generalized Hirano inverse of $a$, denoted by $a^{g H}$. We use $\mathcal{R}^{g H}$ to denote the set of all generalized Hirono invertible elements in $\mathcal{R}$. By [1, Theorem 2.2], $\mathcal{R}^{g H} \subseteq \mathcal{R}^{g D}$.

Theorem 2.3. Suppose that $a, b, c, d \in \mathcal{R}$ satisfy $a c d=d b d$ and $d b a=$ aca. Then $\beta=1-a c \in \mathcal{R}^{g H}$ if and only if $\alpha=1-b d \in \mathcal{R}^{g H}$. In this case, we have

$$
\beta^{g H}=\left(1-d \alpha^{\pi}\left[1-\alpha^{\pi} \alpha(1+b d)\right]^{-1} b a c\right)(1+a c)+d \alpha^{g H} b a c
$$

and

$$
\alpha^{g H}=\left(1-b a c \beta^{\pi}\left[1-\beta^{\pi} \beta(1+a c)\right]^{-1} d\right)(1+b d)+b a c \beta^{g H} d
$$

where $\alpha^{\pi}=1-\alpha \alpha^{g H}, \beta^{\pi}=1-\beta \beta^{g H}$.
Proof. Write $p=\alpha^{\pi}, v=[1-p \alpha(1+b d)]^{-1}$ and $y=(1-d p v b a c)(1+$ $a c)+d \alpha^{g H} b a c$. By Lemma 2.1, $y$ is a generalized Drazin inverse of $\beta$. To show $y \in \mathcal{R}^{g H}$, we only need to show that $\beta^{2}-\beta y \in \mathcal{R}^{q n i l}$. Noting $p=p(b d)^{2} v=$ $p v(b d)^{2}$, we deduce that $\alpha^{2}-\alpha \alpha^{g s D}=p-2 b d+b d b d=(p v b d b-2 b+b d b) d$. From the proof of [18, Theorem 3.3], we get $\beta y=1-d p v b a c$. Hence $\beta^{2}-\beta y=$ $(1-a c)^{2}-(1-d p v b a c)=d p v b a c-2 a c+a c a c=(d p v b a-2 a+a c a) c$. Now we put $a^{\prime}=d p v b a-2 a+a c a$ and $b^{\prime}=p v b d b-2 b+b d b$. Then a direct calculation shows that $a^{\prime} c d=d b^{\prime} d$ and $d b^{\prime} a^{\prime}=a^{\prime} c a^{\prime}$. Since $b^{\prime} d=\alpha^{2}-\alpha \alpha^{g s D} \in \mathcal{R}^{q n i l}$, by [19, Lemma 2.6], we conclude that $\beta^{2}-\beta y=a^{\prime} c \in \mathcal{R}^{q n i l}$, as required.

Conversely, put $q=\beta^{\pi}, u=[1-q \beta(1+a c)]^{-1}$ and $x=(1-b a c q u d)(1+$ $b d)+b a c \beta^{g s D} d$. According to Lemma 2.1, it remains to show that $\alpha^{2}-\alpha x \in$ $\mathcal{R}^{q n i l}$. Since $q=q(a c)^{2} u=q u(a c)^{2}, \beta^{2}-\beta \beta^{g s D}=q-2 a c+a c a c=(q u a c a-$ $2 a+a c a) c \in \mathcal{R}^{q n i l}$. As in the proof of Theorem 2.2, we get $\alpha x=1-b a c q u d$, hence $\alpha^{2}-\alpha x=b a c q u d-2 b d+b d b d=(b a c q u-2 b+b d b) d$. Now we set $a^{\prime}=q u a c a-2 a+a c a$ and $b^{\prime}=b a c q u-2 b+b d b$, it is easy to verify that $a^{\prime} c d=d b^{\prime} d$ and $d b^{\prime} a^{\prime}=a^{\prime} c a^{\prime}$. Applying [19, Lemma 2.6], again, we get $\alpha^{2}-\alpha x=b^{\prime} d \in \mathcal{R}^{q n i l}$ as required.

## 3. Abstract index of Fredholm and B-Fredholm elements

Following [9], an element $a \in \mathcal{R}$ is said to be Drazin invertible if there exist $b \in \mathcal{R}$ and $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$
b \in \operatorname{comm}(a), b a b=b \text { and } a^{k} b a=a^{k} .
$$

The element $b$ above is unique if it exists. It is called the Drazin inverse of $a$ and is denoted by $a^{D}$. The smallest $k$ for which $a^{k} b a=a^{k}$ is called the Drazin index of $a$, and is denoted by $\mathrm{i}(a)$. If $\mathrm{i}(a) \leq 1$, then $a$ is called group invertible. An element $a \in \mathcal{R}$ is invertible precisely when $a$ is Drazin invertible with $\mathrm{i}(a)=0$. We use $\mathcal{R}^{D}$ and $\mathcal{R}^{\sharp}$ to denote all Drazin invertible elements and group invertible elements in $\mathcal{R}$, respectively. According to [15, Theorem 2.4], (see also [18, Theorem 3.1]), in the presence of (1.3), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
1-a c \text { is Drazin invertible } \Longleftrightarrow 1-b d \text { is Drazin invertible, } \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
1-a c \text { is group invertible } \Longleftrightarrow 1-b d \text { is group invertible } \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
1-a c \text { is invertible } \Longleftrightarrow 1-b d \text { is invertible. } \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $\mathcal{I}$ be an ideal of $\mathcal{R}$ and $\pi$ the canonical homomorphism from $\mathcal{R}$ to $\mathcal{R} / \mathcal{I}$. Following [3] (resp., [4]), an element $r \in \mathcal{R}$ is called a Fredholm element (resp., generalized Fredholm element, B-Fredholm element) relative to $\mathcal{I}$ if $\pi(r) \in(\mathcal{R} / \mathcal{I})^{-1}$ (resp., $\left.\pi(r) \in(\mathcal{R} / \mathcal{I})^{\sharp}, \pi(r) \in(\mathcal{R} / \mathcal{I})^{D}\right)$. The set of all Fredholm elements, generalized Fredholm elements and B-Fredholm elements relative to $\mathcal{I}$ will be denoted by $\Phi(\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{I}), g \Phi(\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{I})$ and $B \Phi(\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{I})$, respectively. Applying (3.1), (3.2) and (3.3) respectively to $\mathcal{R} / \mathcal{I}$, we get

$$
\begin{align*}
1-a c \in B \Phi(\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{I}) & \Longleftrightarrow 1-b d \in B \Phi(\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{I})  \tag{3.4}\\
1-a c \in g \Phi(\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{I}) & \Longleftrightarrow 1-b d \in g \Phi(\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{I}) \tag{3.5}
\end{align*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
1-a c \in \Phi(\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{I}) \Longleftrightarrow 1-b d \in \Phi(\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{I}) \tag{3.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

provided that (1.3) holds.
Recall that a Banach algebra $\mathcal{A}$ is called semisimple if the $\operatorname{radical} \operatorname{Rad}(\mathcal{A})$ of $\mathcal{A}$ is equal to $\{0\}$, and $\mathcal{A}$ is said to be primitive if $\{0\}$ is a primitive ideal of $\mathcal{A}$. Primitive Banach algebras are semisimple. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a complex semisimple Banach algebra with unit 1 and let $\mathcal{I}$ be a trace ideal (i.e., an ideal on which a trace $\tau: \mathcal{I} \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is defined, see $[10,5]$ for details) of $\mathcal{A}$. Following [10] (resp., [5]), the index of a Fredholm element (resp., B-Fredholm element) $a \in \mathcal{A}$ relative to trace ideal $\mathcal{I}$ is defined with the aid of the trace as $\iota(a):=\tau\left(a a_{0}-a_{0} a\right)$, where $\pi\left(a_{0}\right)$ is an inverse (resp., a Drazin inverse) of $\pi(a)$ in $\mathcal{A} / \mathcal{I}$. The $\operatorname{socle} \operatorname{soc}(\mathcal{A})$ of $\mathcal{A}$ is defined to be the sum of minimal ideals, and the set $\operatorname{kh}(\operatorname{soc}(\mathcal{A}))$ is defined by $\operatorname{kh}(\operatorname{soc}(\mathcal{A})):=\{a \in \mathcal{A}: a+\operatorname{soc}(\mathcal{A}) \in$ $\operatorname{Rad}(\mathcal{A} / \operatorname{soc}(\mathcal{A}))\}$. In the following two results, we obtain the abstract index equality of Fredholm elements and B-Fredholm elements respectively in the Banach algebra context.

Theorem 3.1. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a unital semisimple Banach algebra and let $\mathcal{I}$ be a trace ideal of $\mathcal{A}$ such that $\operatorname{soc}(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \mathcal{I} \subseteq k h(\operatorname{soc}(\mathcal{A}))$. If $a, b, c, d \in \mathcal{A}$ satisfy $a c d=d b d$ and $d b a=a c a$ and $1-a c$ is a Fredholm element relative to $\mathcal{I}$, then $\iota(1-a c)=\iota(1-b d)$.

Proof. By [10, Proposition 3.10 and Theorem 3.11], there exist idempotents $p, q$ in $\operatorname{soc}(\mathcal{A})$ and $x \in \mathcal{A}$ such that $p(1-a c)=0,(1-a c) q=0$, $(1-a c) x=1-p, x(1-a c)=1-q$ and $\iota(1-a c)=\tau(q)-\tau(p)$. Now we take $y=1+b d+b a c x d$. A direct calculation shows that $(1-b d) y=1-b a c p d$ and $y(1-b d)=1-b a c q d$, which implies that

$$
\iota(1-b d)=\tau((1-b d) y-y(1-b d))=\tau(b a c q d-b a c p d)
$$

Since $p(1-a c)=0, \tau(b a c p d)=\tau(p d b a c)=\tau($ pacac $)=\tau(p a c)=\tau(p)$. Analogously, $\tau(b a c q d)=\tau(q)$. Therefore, $\iota(1-b d)=\tau(q)-\tau(p)=\iota(1-a c)$.

Theorem 3.2. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a unital primitive Banach algebra and suppose that $a, b, c, d \in \mathcal{A}$ satisfy $a c d=d b d$ and $d b a=a c a$.
(1) If $1-a c$ is a B-Fredholm element relative to $\operatorname{soc}(\mathcal{A})$, then $\iota(1-a c)=$ $\iota(1-b d)$.
(2) If ac is a B-Fredholm element relative to $\operatorname{soc}(\mathcal{A})$, then $\iota(a c)=\iota(b d)$.

Proof. (1) By the punctured neighborhood theorem for the index of BFredholm element (see [5, Theorem 3.1]), for nonzero $\lambda$ with $|\lambda|$ small enough, we have

$$
1-a c-\lambda \in \Phi(\mathcal{A}, \operatorname{soc}(\mathcal{A})), 1-b a-\lambda \in \Phi(\mathcal{A}, \operatorname{soc}(\mathcal{A}))
$$

and

$$
\iota(1-a c)=\iota(1-a c-\lambda), \iota(1-b a)=\iota(1-b a-\lambda) .
$$

Hence, the desired result follows by Theorem 3.1.
(2) The proof is analogous to that above.

## 4. Complementability of kernels and ranges

Let $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ denote the set of all bounded linear operators from Banach space $X$ to Banach space $Y$. For $T \in \mathcal{B}(X):=\mathcal{B}(X, X)$, let $\mathcal{N}(T)$ denote its kernel and $\mathcal{R}(T)$ its range. In this section, we discuss the complementability of kernels and ranges of $I-A C$ and $I-B D$ under the assumption $A C D=D B D$ and $D B A=A C A$. Recall that a closed subspace $M$ of a Banach space $X$ is complemented if there exists a (closed) subspace $N$ of $X$ such that $X=M \bigoplus N$. Equivalently, $M$ is complemented in $X$ if and only if there is a bounded projection $P$ such that $\mathcal{R}(P)=M$.

Theorem 4.1. Suppose that $A, D \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ and $B, C \in \mathcal{B}(Y, X)$ satisfy $A C D=D B D$ and $D B A=A C A$. Then $\mathcal{N}(I-A C)$ is complemented in $Y$ if and only if $\mathcal{N}(I-B D)$ is complemented in $X$.

Proof. Assume that $P$ is the projection onto $\mathcal{N}(I-A C)$. Then $(I-$ AC) $P=0$, that is, $P=A C P$. Put $Q=B P A C D$. From the fact $D B P=$ $D B A C P=A C A C P=A C P=P$, it follows that

$$
Q^{2}=(B P A C D)(B P A C D)=B P A C P A C D=B P A C D=Q
$$

Noting that

$$
(I-B D) Q=(I-B D)(B P A C D)=B P A C D-B D B P A C D=0
$$

we have $\mathcal{R}(Q) \subseteq \mathcal{N}(I-B D)$. Let $x \in \mathcal{N}(I-B D)$. Then $D x=D B D x=$ $A C D x$, whence $D x \in \mathcal{N}(I-A C)=\mathcal{R}(P)$. Thus $P D x=D x$, and hence

$$
Q x=B P A C D x=B P A C P D x=B P D x=B D x=x
$$

which implies that $\mathcal{N}(I-B D) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(Q)$. Consequently, $Q$ is the projection onto $\mathcal{N}(I-B D)$.

Conversely, assume that $U$ is the projection onto $\mathcal{N}(I-B D)$. Set $V=$ $A C D U B A C A C$. Noting that $B D U=U$, it follows

$$
\begin{aligned}
V^{2} & =(A C D U B A C A C)(A C D U B A C A C) \\
& =A C D U B D B D B D B D U B A C A C \\
& =A C D U B A C A C \\
& =V
\end{aligned}
$$

Since

$$
\begin{aligned}
(I-A C) V & =(I-A C)(A C D U B A C A C) \\
& =A C D U B A C A C-A C A C D U B A C A C \\
& =A C D U B A C A C-A C D B D U B A C A C \\
& =A C D U B A C A C-A C D U B A C A C \\
& =0,
\end{aligned}
$$

$\mathcal{R}(V) \subseteq \mathcal{N}(I-A C)$. Let $x \in \mathcal{N}(I-A C)$. Then $x=A C x$. Since $B A C x=$ $B A C A C x=B D B A C x, B A C x \in \mathcal{N}(I-B D)=\mathcal{R}(U)$, and hence $U B A C x=$ $B A C x$. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
V x & =A C D U B A C A C x=A C D U B A C x \\
& =A C D B A C x=A C A C A C x=x,
\end{aligned}
$$

which implies that $\mathcal{N}(I-A C) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(V)$. Consequently, $V$ is the projection onto $\mathcal{N}(I-A C)$.

Theorem 4.2. Suppose that $A, D \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ and $B, C \in \mathcal{B}(Y, X)$ satisfy $A C D=D B D$ and $D B A=A C A$. Then $\mathcal{R}(I-A C)$ is complemented in $Y$ if and only if $\mathcal{R}(I-B D)$ is complemented in $X$.

Proof. Assume that $P$ is the projection onto $\mathcal{R}(I-A C)$. Set $Q=$ $I-B A C(I-P) D$. Since $(I-P)(I-A C)=0,(I-P) A C=I-P$. It follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[B A C(I-P) D][B A C(I-P) D] } & =B A C(I-P) A C A C(I-P) D \\
& =B A C(I-P) D
\end{aligned}
$$

and hence $Q^{2}=Q$. Since $\mathcal{R}(P)=\mathcal{R}(I-A C)$,

$$
\mathcal{R}(B A C P D) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(B A C(I-A C))=\mathcal{R}((I-B D) B A C) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(I-B D)
$$

Noting that

$$
\begin{aligned}
Q & =I-B A C(I-P) D=I-B A C D+B A C P D \\
& =I-B D B D+B A C P D=(I-B D)(I+B D)+B A C P D
\end{aligned}
$$

we get $\mathcal{R}(Q) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(I-B D)$. Let $x \in \mathcal{R}(I-B D)$. Then there is an $x_{1} \in X$ such that $x=(I-B D) x_{1}$. Since $D x=D(I-B D) x_{1}=(I-A C) D x_{1} \in \mathcal{R}(P)$,

$$
Q x=[I-B A C(I-P) D] x=x
$$

which deduces that $\mathcal{R}(I-B D) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(Q)$. Therefore, $\mathcal{R}(I-B D)$ is complemented in $X$.

Conversely, suppose that $U$ is the projection onto $\mathcal{R}(I-B D)$ and put

$$
V=I-A C D(I-U) B A C .
$$

Next we will show that $V$ is the associated projection onto $\mathcal{R}(I-A C)$. Since $(I-U)(I-B D)=0,(I-U) B D=I-U$, and hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[A C D(I-U) B A C]^{2} } & =A C D(I-U) B D B D B D(I-U) B A C \\
& =A C D(I-U) B A C
\end{aligned}
$$

which implies that $V^{2}=V$. Noting that

$$
\begin{aligned}
V & =I-A C D(I-U) B A C=I-A C D B A C+A C D U B A C \\
& =I-A C A C A C+A C D U B A C
\end{aligned}
$$

it follows

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{R}(V) & \subseteq \mathcal{R}(I-A C A C A C+A C D U B A C) \\
& \subseteq \mathcal{R}[(I-A C)(I+A C+A C A C)]+\mathcal{R}[A C D(I-B D)] \\
& \subseteq \mathcal{R}(I-A C)+\mathcal{R}[(I-A C) A C D] \\
& \subseteq \mathcal{R}(I-A C)
\end{aligned}
$$

For any $y \in \mathcal{R}(I-A C)$, there exists an element $y_{1} \in Y$ such that $y=$ $(I-A C) y_{1}$. Thus $B A C y=B A C(I-A C) y_{1}=(I-B D) B A C y_{1} \in \mathcal{R}(U)$, and so

$$
V y=[I-A C D(I-U) B A C] y=y
$$

Hence $\mathcal{R}(I-A C) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(V)$. Consequently, $\mathcal{R}(I-A C)$ is complemented in $Y$.

In the following we give an application of Theorem 4.1 and Theorem 4.2. Recall that an operator $T \in \mathcal{B}(X)$ is said to be relatively regular if there exists an operator $S \in \mathcal{B}(X)$ for which $T S T=T$ and $S T S=S$. Relatively regular operator plays a significant role in operator theory. We refer the reader to [2] for more details. It is known that $T \in \mathcal{B}(X)$ is relatively regular if and only if $\mathcal{N}(T)$ and $\mathcal{R}(T)$ are complemented ([2, Theorem 3.88]). Thus it is easy to obtain the following conclusion about relatively regular operators from Theorem 4.1 and Theorem 4.2.

Corollary 4.3. Suppose that $A, D \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ and $B, C \in \mathcal{B}(Y, X)$ satisfy $A C D=D B D$ and $D B A=A C A$. Then $I-A C$ is relatively regular if and only if $I-B D$ is relatively regular.

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