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FURTHER RESULTS ON COMMON PROPERTIES OF THE PRODUCTS ac AND bd

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ABSTRACT. In this paper, we continue to investigate common properties of the products ac and bd in various categories under the assumption acd = dbd and dba = aca. 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

(1.1) 1 - ab is invertible if and only if 1 - ba is invertible

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

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

(1.3) $\begin{cases} acd = dbd, \\ dba = aca, \end{cases}$

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

This paper is a continuation of [15, 18]. In the presence of (1.3), common properties of the products ac and bd 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 $comm(a) = \{x \in \mathcal{R} : ax = xa\}$ and $comm^2(a) = \{x \in \mathcal{R} : xy = yx$, for all $y \in comm(a)\}$, respectively. We shall write \mathcal{R}^{-1} and \mathcal{R}^{nil} for the sets of all invertible and nilpotent elements of \mathcal{R} , respectively. An element $a \in \mathcal{R}$ is quasinilpotent ([12]) if $1 + ax \in \mathcal{R}^{-1}$ for all $x \in comm(a)$. The set of all quasinilpotent elements of \mathcal{R} will be denoted by \mathcal{R}^{qnil} . Recall that $a \in \mathcal{R}$ is generalized Drazin invertible ([13]) if there exists $b \in \mathcal{R}$ such that

$$b \in comm^2(a), bab = b \text{ and } a - aba \in \mathcal{R}^{qnil}$$

If such *b* exists, it is unique, and it is called the generalized Drazin inverse of *a*, denoted by a^{gD} . The set composed of generalized Drazin invertible elements in \mathcal{R} will be denoted by \mathcal{R}^{gD} . 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 acd = dbd and dba = aca. Then $\beta = 1 - ac \in \mathcal{R}^{gD}$ if and only if $\alpha = 1 - bd \in \mathcal{R}^{gD}$. In this case, we have

$$\beta^{gD} = (1 - d\alpha^{\pi} [1 - \alpha^{\pi} \alpha (1 + bd)]^{-1} bac)(1 + ac) + d\alpha^{gD} bac$$

and

wher

$$\alpha^{gD} = (1 - bac\beta^{\pi} [1 - \beta^{\pi}\beta(1 + ac)]^{-1}d)(1 + bd) + bac\beta^{gD}d,$$

we $\alpha^{\pi} = 1 - \alpha\alpha^{gD}, \beta^{\pi} = 1 - \beta\beta^{gD}.$

If we replace the condition $a - aba \in \mathcal{R}^{qnil}$ in the definition of generalized Drazin inverse with $a - ab \in \mathcal{R}^{qnil}$, then a is said to be generalized strongly Drazin invertible and b is called the generalized strong Drazin inverse of a, denoted by a^{gsD} (see [11]). The set composed of generalized strongly Drazin invertible elements in \mathcal{R} will be denoted by \mathcal{R}^{gsD} . According to [11, Corollary 3.3], $\mathcal{R}^{gsD} \subseteq \mathcal{R}^{gD}$. THEOREM 2.2. Suppose that $a, b, c, d \in \mathcal{R}$ satisfy acd = dbd and dba = aca. Then $\beta = 1 - ac \in \mathcal{R}^{gsD}$ if and only if $\alpha = 1 - bd \in \mathcal{R}^{gsD}$. In this case, we have

$$\beta^{gsD} = (1 - d\alpha^{\pi} [1 - \alpha^{\pi} \alpha (1 + bd)]^{-1} bac)(1 + ac) + d\alpha^{gsD} bac$$

and

$$\alpha^{gsD} = (1 - bac\beta^{\pi} [1 - \beta^{\pi} \beta (1 + ac)]^{-1} d)(1 + bd) + bac\beta^{gsD} d,$$

where $\alpha^{\pi} = 1 - \alpha \alpha^{gsD}, \beta^{\pi} = 1 - \beta \beta^{gsD}.$

PROOF. Write $p = \alpha^{\pi}$, $v = [1 - p\alpha(1 + bd)]^{-1}$ and $y = (1 - dpvbac)(1 + ac) + d\alpha^{gsD}bac$. By Lemma 2.1, y is a generalized Drazin inverse of β . To show $y \in \mathcal{R}^{gsD}$, we only need to show that $\beta - \beta y \in \mathcal{R}^{qnil}$. Noting $p = p(bd)^2v = pv(bd)^2$, we deduce that $\alpha - \alpha\alpha^{gsD} = p - bd = (pvbdb - b)d$. From the proof of [18, Theorem 3.3], we get $\beta y = 1 - dpvbac$. Hence $\beta - \beta y = 1 - ac - (1 - dpvbac) = dpvbac - ac = (dpvba - a)c$. Now we put a' = dpvba - a and b' = pvbdb - b. Then a direct calculation shows that a'cd = db'd and db'a' = a'ca'. Since $b'd = \alpha - \alpha\alpha^{gsD} \in \mathcal{R}^{qnil}$, by [19, Lemma 2.6], we conclude that $\beta - \beta y = a'c \in \mathcal{R}^{qnil}$, as required.

Conversely, set $q = \beta^{\pi}$, $u = [1 - q\beta(1 + ac)]^{-1}$ and $x = (1 - bacqud)(1 + bd) + bac\beta^{gsD}d$. By Lemma 2.1, it remains to prove that $\alpha - \alpha x \in \mathcal{R}^{qnil}$. Noting $q = q(ac)^2 u = qu(ac)^2$, we get $\beta - \beta\beta^{gsD} = q - ac = (quaca - a)c$. Also, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha x &= (1 - bd)[(1 - bacqud)(1 + bd) + bac\beta^{gsD}d] \\ &= 1 - (bd)^2 - (1 - bd)bacqud(1 + bd) + (1 - bd)bac\beta^{gsD}d \\ &= 1 - [bacd - bac(1 - ac)\beta^{gsD}d] - (1 - bd)bacqud(1 + bd) \\ &= 1 - bacqd - bac(1 - ac)qud(1 + bd) \\ &= 1 - bacqd - bacqu(1 - ac)(1 + ac)d \\ &= 1 - bacqd - bacqu[1 - (ac)^2]d \\ &= 1 - bacqud, \end{aligned}$$

whence $\alpha - \alpha x = bacqud - bd = (bacqu - b)d$. Now we write a' = quaca - a and b' = bacqu - b, a direct calculation shows that a'cd = db'd and db'a' = a'ca'. Since $a'c = \beta - \beta\beta^{gsD} \in \mathbb{R}^{qnil}$, the desired conclusion $\alpha - \alpha x = b'd \in \mathbb{R}^{qnil}$ then follows by [19, Lemma 2.6].

Recently, Abdolyousefi and Chen ([1]) introduced another subclass of generalized Drazin inverse, by replacing $a - aba \in \mathcal{R}^{qnil}$ with $a^2 - ab \in \mathcal{R}^{qnil}$ in the definition of generalized Drazin inverse. In this case, we say that ais generalized Hirano invertible and b is the generalized Hirano inverse of a, denoted by a^{gH} . We use \mathcal{R}^{gH} to denote the set of all generalized Hirono invertible elements in \mathcal{R} . By [1, Theorem 2.2], $\mathcal{R}^{gH} \subseteq \mathcal{R}^{gD}$. THEOREM 2.3. Suppose that $a, b, c, d \in \mathcal{R}$ satisfy acd = dbd and dba = aca. Then $\beta = 1 - ac \in \mathcal{R}^{gH}$ if and only if $\alpha = 1 - bd \in \mathcal{R}^{gH}$. In this case, we have

$$\beta^{gH} = (1 - d\alpha^{\pi} [1 - \alpha^{\pi} \alpha (1 + bd)]^{-1} bac)(1 + ac) + d\alpha^{gH} bac$$

and

$$\alpha^{gH} = (1 - bac\beta^{\pi} [1 - \beta^{\pi}\beta(1 + ac)]^{-1}d)(1 + bd) + bac\beta^{gH}d$$

where $\alpha^{\pi} = 1 - \alpha\alpha^{gH}, \beta^{\pi} = 1 - \beta\beta^{gH}.$

PROOF. Write $p = \alpha^{\pi}$, $v = [1 - p\alpha(1 + bd)]^{-1}$ and $y = (1 - dpvbac)(1 + ac) + d\alpha^{gH}bac$. By Lemma 2.1, y is a generalized Drazin inverse of β . To show $y \in \mathcal{R}^{gH}$, we only need to show that $\beta^2 - \beta y \in \mathcal{R}^{qnil}$. Noting $p = p(bd)^2 v = pv(bd)^2$, we deduce that $\alpha^2 - \alpha \alpha^{gsD} = p - 2bd + bdbd = (pvbdb - 2b + bdb)d$. From the proof of [18, Theorem 3.3], we get $\beta y = 1 - dpvbac$. Hence $\beta^2 - \beta y = (1 - ac)^2 - (1 - dpvbac) = dpvbac - 2ac + acac = (dpvba - 2a + aca)c$. Now we put a' = dpvba - 2a + aca and b' = pvbdb - 2b + bdb. Then a direct calculation shows that a'cd = db'd and db'a' = a'ca'. Since $b'd = \alpha^2 - \alpha\alpha^{gsD} \in \mathcal{R}^{qnil}$, by [19, Lemma 2.6], we conclude that $\beta^2 - \beta y = a'c \in \mathcal{R}^{qnil}$, as required.

Conversely, put $q = \beta^{\pi}$, $u = [1 - q\beta(1 + ac)]^{-1}$ and $x = (1 - bacqud)(1 + bd) + bac\beta^{gsD}d$. According to Lemma 2.1, it remains to show that $\alpha^2 - \alpha x \in \mathcal{R}^{qnil}$. Since $q = q(ac)^2 u = qu(ac)^2$, $\beta^2 - \beta\beta^{gsD} = q - 2ac + acac = (quaca - 2a + aca)c \in \mathcal{R}^{qnil}$. As in the proof of Theorem 2.2, we get $\alpha x = 1 - bacqud$, hence $\alpha^2 - \alpha x = bacqud - 2bd + bdbd = (bacqu - 2b + bdb)d$. Now we set a' = quaca - 2a + aca and b' = bacqu - 2b + bdb, it is easy to verify that a'cd = db'd and db'a' = a'ca'. Applying [19, Lemma 2.6], again, we get $\alpha^2 - \alpha x = b'd \in \mathcal{R}^{qnil}$ 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

$$b \in comm(a), bab = b$$
 and $a^k ba = a^k$

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 $a^kba = a^k$ is called the Drazin index of a, and is denoted by i(a). If $i(a) \leq 1$, then a is called group invertible. An element $a \in \mathcal{R}$ is invertible precisely when a is Drazin invertible with 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

(3.1) 1 - ac is Drazin invertible $\iff 1 - bd$ is Drazin invertible,

(3.2) 1 - ac is group invertible $\iff 1 - bd$ is group invertible

and

(3.3)
$$1 - ac$$
 is invertible $\iff 1 - bd$ is invertible.

Let \mathcal{I} be an ideal of \mathcal{R} and π 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., $\pi(r) \in (\mathcal{R}/\mathcal{I})^{\sharp}$, $\pi(r) \in (\mathcal{R}/\mathcal{I})^D$). 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

$$(3.4) 1 - ac \in B\Phi(\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{I}) \Longleftrightarrow 1 - bd \in B\Phi(\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{I})$$

$$(3.5) 1 - ac \in g\Phi(\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{I}) \Longleftrightarrow 1 - bd \in g\Phi(\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{I})$$

and

(3.6)
$$1 - ac \in \Phi(\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{I}) \iff 1 - bd \in \Phi(\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{I}),$$

provided that (1.3) holds.

Recall that a Banach algebra \mathcal{A} is called semisimple if the radical 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 $\iota(a) := \tau(aa_0 - a_0a)$, where $\pi(a_0)$ is an inverse (resp., a Drazin inverse) of $\pi(a)$ in \mathcal{A}/\mathcal{I} . The socle soc (\mathcal{A}) of \mathcal{A} is defined to be the sum of minimal ideals, and the set kh(soc (\mathcal{A})) is defined by kh(soc (\mathcal{A})):= { $a \in \mathcal{A} : a + \text{soc}(\mathcal{A}) \in$ Rad $(\mathcal{A}/\text{soc}(\mathcal{A}))$ }. 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 $soc(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \mathcal{I} \subseteq kh(soc(\mathcal{A}))$. If $a, b, c, d \in \mathcal{A}$ satisfy acd = dbd and dba = aca and 1 - ac is a Fredholm element relative to \mathcal{I} , then $\iota(1 - ac) = \iota(1 - bd)$.

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 - ac) = 0, (1 - ac)q = 0, (1 - ac)x = 1 - p, x(1 - ac) = 1 - q and $\iota(1 - ac) = \tau(q) - \tau(p)$. Now we take y = 1 + bd + bacxd. A direct calculation shows that (1 - bd)y = 1 - bacpd and y(1 - bd) = 1 - bacqd, which implies that

$$\iota(1-bd) = \tau((1-bd)y - y(1-bd)) = \tau(bacqd - bacpd).$$

Since p(1 - ac) = 0, $\tau(bacpd) = \tau(pdbac) = \tau(pacac) = \tau(pac) = \tau(p)$. Analogously, $\tau(bacqd) = \tau(q)$. Therefore, $\iota(1 - bd) = \tau(q) - \tau(p) = \iota(1 - ac)$.

THEOREM 3.2. Let \mathcal{A} be a unital primitive Banach algebra and suppose that $a, b, c, d \in \mathcal{A}$ satisfy acd = dbd and dba = aca.

- (1) If 1 ac is a B-Fredholm element relative to $soc(\mathcal{A})$, then $\iota(1 ac) = \iota(1 bd)$.
- (2) If ac is a B-Fredholm element relative to soc(A), then $\iota(ac) = \iota(bd)$.

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

and

$$1 - ac - \lambda \in \Phi(\mathcal{A}, \operatorname{soc}(\mathcal{A})), \ 1 - ba - \lambda \in \Phi(\mathcal{A}, \operatorname{soc}(\mathcal{A}))$$

$$\iota(1-ac) = \iota(1-ac-\lambda), \ \iota(1-ba) = \iota(1-ba-\lambda)$$

Hence, the desired result follows by Theorem 3.1.

(2) The proof is analogous to that above.

4. Complementability of kernels and ranges

Π

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 - AC and I - BD under the assumption ACD = DBDand DBA = ACA. 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 ACD = DBD and DBA = ACA. Then $\mathcal{N}(I - AC)$ is complemented in Y if and only if $\mathcal{N}(I - BD)$ is complemented in X.

PROOF. Assume that P is the projection onto $\mathcal{N}(I - AC)$. Then (I - AC)P = 0, that is, P = ACP. Put Q = BPACD. From the fact DBP = DBACP = ACACP = ACP = P, it follows that

$$Q^2 = (BPACD)(BPACD) = BPACPACD = BPACD = Q$$

Noting that

(I - BD)Q = (I - BD)(BPACD) = BPACD - BDBPACD = 0,we have $\mathcal{R}(Q) \subseteq \mathcal{N}(I - BD)$. Let $x \in \mathcal{N}(I - BD)$. Then Dx = DBDx = ACDx, whence $Dx \in \mathcal{N}(I - AC) = \mathcal{R}(P)$. Thus PDx = Dx, and hence Qx = BPACDx = BPACPDx = BPDx = BDx = x, which implies that $\mathcal{N}(I - BD) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(Q)$. Consequently, Q is the projection onto $\mathcal{N}(I - BD)$.

Conversely, assume that U is the projection onto $\mathcal{N}(I - BD)$. Set V = ACDUBACAC. Noting that BDU = U, it follows

$$V^{2} = (ACDUBACAC)(ACDUBACAC)$$

= ACDUBDBDBDBDBDUBACAC
= ACDUBACAC
= V.

Since

$$(I - AC)V = (I - AC)(ACDUBACAC)$$

= $ACDUBACAC - ACACDUBACAC$
= $ACDUBACAC - ACDBDUBACAC$
= $ACDUBACAC - ACDBDUBACAC$
= $0,$

 $\mathcal{R}(V) \subseteq \mathcal{N}(I - AC)$. Let $x \in \mathcal{N}(I - AC)$. Then x = ACx. Since BACx = BACACx = BDBACx, $BACx \in \mathcal{N}(I - BD) = \mathcal{R}(U)$, and hence UBACx = BACx. Thus,

$$Vx = ACDUBACACx = ACDUBACx$$
$$= ACDBACx = ACACACx = x,$$

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

THEOREM 4.2. Suppose that $A, D \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ and $B, C \in \mathcal{B}(Y, X)$ satisfy ACD = DBD and DBA = ACA. Then $\mathcal{R}(I - AC)$ is complemented in Y if and only if $\mathcal{R}(I - BD)$ is complemented in X.

PROOF. Assume that P is the projection onto $\mathcal{R}(I - AC)$. Set Q = I - BAC(I - P)D. Since (I - P)(I - AC) = 0, (I - P)AC = I - P. It follows that

$$[BAC(I - P)D][BAC(I - P)D] = BAC(I - P)ACAC(I - P)D$$
$$= BAC(I - P)D,$$

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

 $\mathcal{R}(BACPD) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(BAC(I - AC)) = \mathcal{R}((I - BD)BAC) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(I - BD).$ Noting that

$$Q = I - BAC(I - P)D = I - BACD + BACPD$$
$$= I - BDBD + BACPD = (I - BD)(I + BD) + BACPD$$

we get $\mathcal{R}(Q) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(I-BD)$. Let $x \in \mathcal{R}(I-BD)$. Then there is an $x_1 \in X$ such that $x = (I-BD)x_1$. Since $Dx = D(I-BD)x_1 = (I-AC)Dx_1 \in \mathcal{R}(P)$,

$$Qx = [I - BAC(I - P)D]x = x,$$

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

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

$$V = I - ACD(I - U)BAC$$

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

$$[ACD(I - U)BAC]^{2} = ACD(I - U)BDBDBD(I - U)BAC$$
$$= ACD(I - U)BAC,$$

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

$$V = I - ACD(I - U)BAC = I - ACDBAC + ACDUBAC$$
$$= I - ACACAC + ACDUBAC,$$

it follows

$$\mathcal{R}(V) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(I - ACACAC + ACDUBAC)$$
$$\subseteq \mathcal{R}[(I - AC)(I + AC + ACAC)] + \mathcal{R}[ACD(I - BD)]$$
$$\subseteq \mathcal{R}(I - AC) + \mathcal{R}[(I - AC)ACD]$$
$$\subseteq \mathcal{R}(I - AC).$$

For any $y \in \mathcal{R}(I - AC)$, there exists an element $y_1 \in Y$ such that $y = (I - AC)y_1$. Thus $BACy = BAC(I - AC)y_1 = (I - BD)BACy_1 \in \mathcal{R}(U)$, and so

$$Vy = [I - ACD(I - U)BAC]y = y.$$

Hence $\mathcal{R}(I - AC) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(V)$. Consequently, $\mathcal{R}(I - AC)$ 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 TST = T and STS = 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 ACD = DBD and DBA = ACA. Then I - AC is relatively regular if and only if I - BD is relatively regular.

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