



Generalized Cline's Formula for g-Drazin Inverse in a Ring

Huanyin Chen^a, Marjan Sheibani Abdolyousefi^b

^aDepartment of Mathematics, Hangzhou Normal University, Hangzhou, China

^bFarzanegan Campus, Semnan University, Semnan, Iran

Abstract. In this paper, we give a generalized Cline's formula for the generalized Drazin inverse. Let R be a ring, and let $a, b, c, d \in R$ satisfying

$$(ac)^2 = (db)(ac), (db)^2 = (ac)(db);$$
$$b(ac)a = b(db)a, c(ac)d = c(db)d.$$

Then $ac \in R^d$ if and only if $bd \in R^d$. In this case, $(bd)^d = b((ac)^d)^2d$. We also present generalized Cline's formulas for Drazin and group inverses. Some weaker conditions in a Banach algebra are also investigated. These extend the main results of Cline's formula on g-Drazin inverse of Liao, Chen and Cui (Bull. Malays. Math. Soc., 37(2014), 37-42), Lian and Zeng (Turk. J. Math., 40(2016), 161-165) and Miller and Zguitti (Rend. Circ. Mat. Palermo, II. Ser., 67(2018), 105-114). As an application, new common spectral property of bounded linear operators over Banach spaces is obtained.

1. Introduction

Let R be an associative ring with an identity. The commutant of $a \in R$ is defined by $\text{comm}(a) = \{x \in R \mid xa = ax\}$. The double commutant of $a \in R$ is defined by $\text{comm}^2(a) = \{x \in R \mid xy = yx \text{ for all } y \in \text{comm}(a)\}$. An element $a \in R$ has g-Drazin inverse (i.e., generalized Drazin inverse) in the case that there exists $b \in R$ such that

$$b = bab, b \in \text{comm}^2(a), a - a^2b \in R^{qmil}.$$

The preceding b is unique if it exists and denoted by a^d . Here, $R^{qmil} = \{a \in R \mid 1 + ax \in R^{-1} \text{ for every } x \in \text{comm}(a)\}$. For a Banach algebra \mathcal{A} it is well known that

$$a \in \mathcal{A}^{qmil} \Leftrightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|a^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}} = 0 \Leftrightarrow 1 - \lambda a \in \mathcal{A}^{-1} \text{ for any scalar } \lambda.$$

Let $a, b \in R$. The Cline's formula for g-Drazin inverse stated that $ab \in R^d$ if and only if $ba \in R^d$. In this case, $(ba)^d = b[(ab)^d]^2a$ (see [6, Theorem 2.1]). Here, $R^d = \{x \in R \mid x \text{ has g-Drazin inverse}\}$. Cline's formula plays an important role in the generalized inverse of matrix and operator theory ([2, 4, 7, 11, 13–15]). In

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Corresponding author: Marjan Sheibani Abdolyousefi

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Email addresses: huanyinchen@aliyun.com (Huanyin Chen), m.sheibani@semnan.ac.ir (Marjan Sheibani Abdolyousefi)

[5, Theorem 2.3], Lian and Zeng proved the generalized Cline’s formula to the case when $aba = aca$. In [7, Theorem 3.2], Miller and Zguitti generalized the Cline’s formula under the condition $acd = dbd$ and $dba = aca$. In [10, Theorem 3.2], Mosić investigated the generalized Cline’s formula under the condition $bac = bdb$ and $cdb = cac$. The motivation of this paper is to extend the Cline’s formula for g-Drazin inverse to a wider case.

In Section 2, we present a new generalized Cline’s formular for g-Draziin inverse. We also prove generalized Cline’s formulas for Drazin and group inverses. Let R be a ring, and let $a, b, c, d \in R$ satisfying

$$(ac)^2 = (db)(ac), (db)^2 = (ac)(db);$$

$$b(ac)a = b(db)a, c(ac)d = c(db)d.$$

Then $ac \in R^d$ if and only if $bd \in R^d$. In this case, $(bd)^d = b((ac)^d)^2d$. This improves the main results of Cline’s formula on g-Drazin inverse of Liao, Chen and Cui ([6, Theorem 2.1]), Lian and Zeng ([5, Theorem 2.3]) and Miller and Zguitti ([7, Theorem 3.2]). In Section 3, we investigate some weaker conditions in a Banach algebra under which the generalized Cline’s formula holds. We prove that the preceding condition “ $b(ac)a = b(db)a, c(ac)d = c(db)d$ ” can be dropped in a Banach algebra. Finally, in Section 4, we apply the generalized Cline’s formula to common spectral property of bounded linear operators in a Banach space.

Throughout the paper, all rings are associative with an identity and all Banach algebras are complex. We use \mathcal{A}^{rad} to denote the Jacobson radical of \mathcal{A} . The notations $\mathcal{A}^d, \mathcal{A}^D, \mathcal{A}^\#$ and \mathcal{A}^\ddagger stand for the sets of all g-Drazin, Drazin, group and p-Drazin invertible elements, respectively.

2. Generalized Cline’s Formula

For any elements a, b in a ring R , it is well known that $ab \in R^{qnil}$ if and only if $ba \in R^{qnil}$ (see [5, Lemma 2.2]). We start with the following generalization.

Lemma 2.1. *Let R be a ring, and let $a, b, c, d \in R$ satisfying*

$$(ac)^2 = (db)(ac), (db)^2 = (ac)(db);$$

$$b(ac)a = b(db)a, c(ac)d = c(db)d.$$

Then $ac \in R^{qnil}$ if and only if $bd \in R^{qnil}$.

Proof. \implies Let $x \in comm(bd)$. Then we check that

$$\begin{aligned} (dbdx^5bdbac)ac &= dbdx^5bd(baca)c \\ &= dbdx^5bd(bdba)c \\ &= dbdx^5b(dbdba)c \\ &= (dbdbd)x^5bdbac \\ &= (dbdbd)dx^5bdbac \\ &= (acdb)dx^5bdbac \\ &= (acdbd)x^5bdbac \\ &= ac(dbdx^5bdbac) \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $dbdx^5bdbac \in comm(ac)$, and so $1 - dbd(x^5bdbacac) = 1 - (dbdx^5bdbac)ac \in R^{-1}$. By using Jacobson’s Lemma (see [5, Lemma 2.1]), we see that

$$\begin{aligned} 1 - x^5bdbbdbdbd &= 1 - (x^5bdbbdb)(dbdb)d \\ &= 1 - (x^5bdbbdb)(acdb)d \\ &= 1 - (x^5bdbbdbac)dbd \\ &= 1 - (x^5bdbbacac)dbd \\ &\in R^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} & (1 - xbd)(1 + xbd + x^2bdb + x^3bdbbd + x^4bdbbdb) \\ &= (1 + xbd + x^2bdb + x^3bdbbd + x^4bdbbdb)(1 - xbd) \\ &= 1 - x^5bdbbdbbd \\ &\in R^{-1}, \end{aligned}$$

and so $bd \in R^{qnil}$.

\Leftarrow Since $bd \in R^{qnil}$, by [5, Lemma 2.2], $db \in R^{qnil}$. Applying the preceding discussion, we see that $ca \in R^{qnil}$. By using [5, Lemma 2.2] again, we have $ac \in R^{qnil}$, as desired. \square

We are now ready to prove:

Theorem 2.2. *Let R be a ring, and let $a, b, c, d \in R$ satisfying*

$$\begin{aligned} (ac)^2 &= (db)(ac), (db)^2 = (ac)(db); \\ b(ac)a &= b(db)a, c(ac)d = c(db)d. \end{aligned}$$

Then $ac \in R^d$ if and only if $bd \in R^d$. In this case,

$$(bd)^d = b((ac)^d)^2d.$$

Proof. \implies Let $(ac)^d = h$ and $e = bh^2d$. We shall prove that e is the g-Drazin inverse of bd .

Step 1. Let $t \in comm(bd)$. Then we check that

$$\begin{aligned} ac(dtbdbac) &= (acbdbd)(tbac) \\ &= (dbdbdbd)(tbac) \\ &= dtbdb(dbdb)a \\ &= (dtbdbac)ac. \end{aligned}$$

Thus $dtbdbac \in comm(ac)$, and so $(dtbdbac)h = h(dtbdbac)$. It is easy to verify that $acbdb = a(cdbd) = a(cacd) = (ac)^2d = (dbac)d = dbacd$, and so $(bacd)(bd) = (bd)(bacd)$. Then we compute that

$$\begin{aligned} et &= (bh^6(ac)^4d)t = bh^6(db)^3acdt = bh^6dbdbd(bacd)t \\ &= bh^6d(bacd)bdbdt = bh^6db(acdb)bdt = bh^6(dbdbdbdbd)t \\ &= bh^6dtbdb(dbdb)d = bh^6dtbba(cdbd) = bh^6dtbdb(acac)d \\ &= bh^6(dtbdbac)d = b(dtbdbac)h^6d = tdbdbdbach^6d \\ &= tb(ac)^4h^6d = tbh^2d = te, \end{aligned}$$

and then $e \in comm^2(bd)$.

Step 2. We directly verify that

$$\begin{aligned} e(bd)e &= bh^2dbdbh^2d = bh^2acdbh^2d \\ &= bh^2acdb(ac)h^3d = bh^2(ac)^3h^3d = b(ac)^3h^5d = e. \end{aligned}$$

Step 3. Let $p = 1 - (ac)h$. Then $(pa)c = ac - (ac)^2h \in R^{qnil}$. One easily checks that

$$\begin{aligned} bd - (bd)^2e &= bd - bdbdbh^2d \\ &= bd - b(dbdb)ach^3d \\ &= bd - b(acdb)ach^3d \\ &= bd - bac(dbac)h^3d \\ &= bd - b(ac)^3h^3d \\ &= b(1 - ach)d \\ &= b(pd). \end{aligned}$$

We directly compute that

$$\begin{aligned}
 (pac)^2 &= p(ac)^2p = p(dbac)p = (pdb)(pac), \\
 (pdb)^2 &= pdbpdb = pdb[1 - (1 - p)]db \\
 &= p(db)^2 - pdbac(ac)^d db \\
 &= p(db)^2 - p(ac)^2(ac)^d db \\
 &= p(db)^2 = pacdb = (pac)(pdb); \\
 b(pac)pa &= bacpa - b(ac)^d(ac)^2pa \\
 &= bacpa - b(ac)^d d(bacpa) = bdbpa - b(ac)^d d(bdbpa) \\
 &= bdbpa - b(ac)^d(acdb)pa = b(pdb)pa, \\
 c(pac)pd &= cacd - c(ac)^d(ac)^2d = cdbd - c(ac)^d(ac)^2d \\
 &- [c(ac)^d a(cdbd) - c(ac)^d a(cacd)] = cdbd - cac(ac)^d acd \\
 &- [c(ac)^d acdbd - c(ac)^d acdbac(ac)^d d] \\
 &= cdbd - cac(ac)^d acd - c(ac)^d acdb[1 - ac(ac)^d]d \\
 &= cdbd - cdb(ac)^d acd - c(ac)^d acdbpd \\
 &= [cdb - c(ac)^d acdb]pd = c(pdb)pd.
 \end{aligned}$$

Since $(pa)c = ac - (ac)^2(ac)^d \in R^{qnil}$. In view of Lemma 2.1, $b(pd) \in R^{qnil}$. Therefore bd has g-Drazin inverse e and $e = bh^2a = (bd)^d$.

\Leftarrow In view of [6, Theorem 2.2], $db \in R^d$. Applying the preceding discussion, we have $ca \in R^d$. By using [6, Theorem 2.2] again, $ac \in R^d$. This completes the proof. \square

In the case that $c = b$ and $d = a$, we recover the Cline’s formula for g-Drazin inverse . In [5, Theorem 2.3], Lian and Zeng concerned Cline’s formula under the condition $aba = aca$. We now derive

Corollary 2.3. *Let R be a ring, and let $a, b, c \in R$ satisfying*

$$\begin{aligned}
 (aba)b &= (aca)b, b(aba) = b(aca), \\
 (aba)c &= (aca)c, c(aba) = c(aca).
 \end{aligned}$$

Then $ac \in R^d$ if and only if $ba \in R^d$. In this case, $(ba)^d = b((ac)^d)^2a$.

Proof. Choosing $d = a$ in Theorem 3.2, we obtain the result. \square

Corollary 2.4. ([7, Theorem 3.2]) *Let R be a ring, and let $a, b, c \in R$ satisfying*

$$acd = dbd, dba = aca.$$

Then $ac \in R^d$ if and only if $bd \in R^d$. In this case, $(bd)^d = b((ac)^d)^2d$.

Proof. By hypothesis, we easily check that

$$\begin{aligned}
 (ac)^2 &= (db)(ac), (db)^2 = (ac)(db); \\
 b(ac)a &= b(db)a, c(ac)d = c(db)d.
 \end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof by Theorem 2.2. \square

An element $a \in R$ has Drazin inverse in the case that there exists $b \in R$ such that

$$b = bab, ab = ba, a^k = a^{k+1}b$$

for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$ The preceding b is unique if it exists. It is denoted by a^D . The smallest k satisfying the preceding condition is called the Drazin index of a . It is denoted by $i(a)$.

Theorem 2.5. Let R be a ring, and let $a, b, c, d \in R$ satisfying

$$\begin{aligned} (ac)^2 &= (db)(ac), (db)^2 = (ac)(db); \\ b(ac)a &= b(db)a, c(ac)d = c(db)d. \end{aligned}$$

Then $ac \in R^D$ if and only if $bd \in R^D$. In this case,

$$\begin{aligned} (bd)^D &= b((ac)^D)^2d, \\ i(bd) &\leq i(ac) + 2. \end{aligned}$$

Proof. \implies Since $ac \in R^D$, we see that $ac \in R^d$. It follows by Theorem 2.2 that $bd \in R^d$ and $(bd)^d = b((ac)^d)^2d$. Then $bd(bd)^d = (bd)^d bd$ and $(bd)^d = (bd)^d (bd)(bd)^d$. Clearly, we have

$$\begin{aligned} 1 - (db)^2((ac)^d)^2 &= 1 - acdb(ac)((ac)^d)^3 \\ &= 1 - ac(dbac)((ac)^d)^3 \\ &= 1 - ac(ac)^d. \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} bd - (bd)^2(bd)^d &= bd - (bd)^2b((ac)^d)^2d \\ &= b[1 - (db)^2((ac)^d)^2]d \\ &= b[1 - ac(ac)^d]d. \end{aligned}$$

Further, we have

$$\begin{aligned} [1 - (bd)(bd)^d](bd)^3 &= b[1 - ac(ac)^d](bdb)b \\ &= b[1 - ac(ac)^d](acdb)d \\ &= b[1 - (ac)(ac)^d](ac)dbd. \end{aligned}$$

Write $m = i(ac)$. By induction, we have

$$\begin{aligned} [1 - (bd)(bd)^d](bd)^{m+2} &= b[1 - (ac)(ac)^d](ac)^m dbd \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $[bd - (bd)^2(bd)^d]^{m+2} = 0$, and so bd has Drazin inverse. Moreover, we have $i(bd) \leq m + 2 = i(ac) + 2$, as required.

\Leftarrow This is proved as in Theorem 2.2. \square

Corollary 2.6. Let R be a ring, and let $a, b, c \in R$ satisfying

$$\begin{aligned} (aba)b &= (aca)b, b(aba) = b(aca), \\ (aba)c &= (aca)c, c(aba) = c(aca). \end{aligned}$$

Then $ac \in R^D$ if and only if $ba \in R^D$. In this case,

$$\begin{aligned} (ba)^D &= b((ac)^D)^2a, \\ i(ba) &\leq i(ac) + 1. \end{aligned}$$

Proof. We prove that $ac \in R^D$ if and only if $ba \in R^D$ by choosing $d = a$ in Theorem 2.5. Moreover, we check that $ba - (ba)^2(ba)^D = b[1 - ac(ac)^D]a$, and so

$$\begin{aligned} [1 - (ba)(ba)^D](ba)^2 &= b[1 - ac(ac)^D]aba \\ &= baba - bac(ac)^D aba \\ &= baca - bac((ac)^D)^2a(caba) \\ &= baca - bac((ac)^D)^2a(caca) \\ &= b[ac - (ac)^2(ac)^D]a \\ &= b[1 - (ac)(ac)^D](ac)a. \end{aligned}$$

By induction, we have $[1 - (ba)(ba)^D](ba)^{m+1} = b[1 - (ac)(ac)^D](ac)^m a = 0$, where $m = i(ac)$. This shows that

$$(ba)^{m+1} - (ba)^{m+2}(ba)^D = [1 - (ba)(ba)^D](ba)^{m+1} = 0.$$

Therefore $i(ba) \leq m + 1 = i(ac) + 1$, as asserted. \square

The group inverse of $a \in R$ is the unique element $a^\# \in R$ which satisfies $aa^\# = a^\#a, a = aa^\#a, a^\# = a^\#aa^\#$. We denote the set of all group invertible elements of R by $R^\#$. As is well known, $a \in R^\#$ if and only if $a \in R^D$ and $i(a) = 1$.

Theorem 2.7. *Let R be a ring, and let $a, b, c \in R$ satisfying*

$$\begin{aligned} (aba)b &= (aca)b, b(aba) = b(aca), \\ (aba)c &= (aca)c, c(aba) = c(aca). \end{aligned}$$

If $ac \in R^\#$, then $(ba)^2 \in R^\#$. In this case, $(ac)^\# = a[(ba)^2]^\#c$.

Proof. Since $ac \in R^\#$, it follows by Corollary 2.6 that $ba \in \mathcal{A}^D$ and $(ba)^D = b[(ac)^2]^D a$. Moreover, we have $i(ba) \leq i(ac) + 1 = 2$. Set $x = (ba)^D$. Then $(ba)^2 = (ba)^3x = (ba)^2x^2(ba)^2, x^2 = x^2(ba)^2x^2$. Hence $[(ba)^2]^\# = x^2$. We observe that

$$\begin{aligned} a[(ba)^2]^D c &= a[(ba)^D]^2 c \\ &= ab[(ac)^2]^D ab[(ac)^2]^D ac \\ &= ab[(ac)^2]^D (abac)(ac)^D]^2 \\ &= ab[(ac)^2]^D (ac)^2 [(ac)^D]^2 \\ &= (abac)[(ac)^D]^3 \\ &= (ac)^2 [(ac)^D]^3 \\ &= (ac)^D, \end{aligned}$$

therefore $(ac)^\# = a[(ba)^2]^\#c$, as desired. \square

Corollary 2.8. *Let \mathcal{A} be a Banach algebra, and let $a, b, c \in \mathcal{A}$ satisfying $aba = aca$. If $ac \in \mathcal{A}^\#$, then $(ba)^2 \in \mathcal{A}^\#$. In this case, $(ac)^\# = a[(ba)^2]^\#c$.*

Proof. This is clear from Theorem 2.7. \square

3. Extensions in Banach algebras

In this section, we investigate the generalized Cline’s formula in a Banach algebra. We observe that the condition “ $b(ac)a = b(db)a, c(ac)d = c(db)d$ ” in Theorem 2.2 can be dropped in Banach algebra.

Theorem 3.1. *Let \mathcal{A} be a Banach algebra, and let $a, b, c, d \in \mathcal{A}$ satisfying*

$$\begin{aligned} (ac)^2 &= (db)(ac), \\ (db)^2 &= (ac)(db). \end{aligned}$$

Then $ac \in \mathcal{A}^d$ if and only if $bd \in \mathcal{A}^d$. In this case, $(bd)^d = b[(ac)^d]^3 dbd$.

Proof. \implies Let $aca = a', b = b', c = c'$ and $dbd = d'$. Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} (a'c')^2 &= (ac)^4 = (db)^3 ac = dbdbacac = (d'b')(a'c'), \\ (d'b')^2 &= (db)^4 = (ac)(db)^2 (db) = (ac)^2 (db)^2 = (a'c')(d'b'), \\ b'(a'c')a' &= b(ac)^3 a = bdbdbaca = b'(d'b')a', \\ c'(a'c')d' &= c(acac)dbd = c(db)^3 d = c'(d'b')d'. \end{aligned}$$

Since $ac \in \mathcal{A}^d$, it follows by [3, Theorem 2.7] that $a'c' = (ac)^2 \in \mathcal{A}^d$. In light of Theorem 2.2, $b'd' = (bd)^2 \in \mathcal{A}^d$. Therefore $bd \in \mathcal{A}^d$ by [3, Theorem 2.7]. Moreover, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (bd)^d &= [(bd)^2]^d bd \\ &= (b'd')^d bd = b'[(a'c')^d]^2 d' bd \\ &= b[(ac)^d]^4 (db)^2 d \\ &= b[(ac)^d]^4 (acdb)d \\ &= b[(ac)^d]^3 dbd, \end{aligned}$$

as required.

⇐ Since $db \in \mathcal{A}^d$, applying the preceding discussion, we have $ca \in \mathcal{A}^d$. Therefore $ac \in \mathcal{A}^d$, by using the Cline’s formula. □

As easy consequences, we now derive

Corollary 3.2. *Let \mathcal{A} be a Banach algebra, and let $a, b, c \in \mathcal{A}$. If $(aba)b = (aca)b, (aba)c = (aca)c$, then $ac \in \mathcal{A}^d$ if and only if $ba \in \mathcal{A}^d$. In this case, $(ba)^d = b[(ac)^d]^3aba$.*

Proof. This is obvious by choosing $d = a$ in Theorem 3.1. □

Corollary 3.3. *Let \mathcal{A} be a Banach algebra, and let $a, b, c, d \in \mathcal{A}$ satisfying*

$$\begin{aligned} (ac)^2 &= (db)(ac), \\ (db)^2 &= (ac)(db). \end{aligned}$$

Then $ac \in \mathcal{A}^D$ if and only if $bd \in \mathcal{A}^D$. In this case, $(bd)^D = b[(ac)^D]^3dbd$.

Proof. ⇒ Since $ac \in \mathcal{A}^D$, we see that $ac \in \mathcal{A}^d$. By virtue of Theorem 3.1, $bd \in \mathcal{A}^d$ and $(bd)^d = b[(ac)^d]^3dbd$. Let $m = i(ac)$. Then $[ac - (ac)^2(ac)^D]^m = 0$. One easily checks that

$$\begin{aligned} 1 - (bd)(bd)^d &= 1 - bdb[(ac)^D]^3dbd \\ &= 1 - bdbac[(ac)^D]^4dbd \\ &= 1 - b(ac)^2[(ac)^D]^4dbd \\ &= 1 - b[(ac)^D]^2dbd. \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} [1 - (bd)(bd)^d](bd)^3 &= [1 - b[(ac)^D]^2dbd](bd)^3 \\ &= (bd)^3 - b[(ac)^D]^2d(bd)^4 \\ &= bacdbd - b[(ac)^D]^2(ac)^3dbd \\ &= b[1 - ac(ac)^D]ac(dbd). \end{aligned}$$

By induction, we have

$$\begin{aligned} [bd - (bd)^2(bd)^d]^{m+2} &= [1 - (bd)(bd)^d](bd)^{m+2} \\ &= b[1 - ac(ac)^D](ac)^m(dbd) \\ &= b[ac - ac^2(ac)^D]^m(dbd) \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$(bd)^D = (bd)^d = b[(ac)^D]^3dbd,$$

as required.

⇐ This is proved as in Theorem 3.1. □

An element a in a Banach algebra \mathcal{A} has p-Drazin inverse provided that there exists $b \in comm(a)$ such that $b = b^2a, a^k - a^{k+1}b \in \mathcal{A}^{rad}$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$. The preceding b is unique if it exists. It is denoted by a^\ddagger (see [12]). We now derive

Theorem 3.4. *Let \mathcal{A} be a Banach algebra, and let $a, b, c, d \in \mathcal{A}$ satisfying*

$$\begin{aligned} (ac)^2 &= (db)(ac), \\ (db)^2 &= (ac)(db). \end{aligned}$$

Then $ac \in \mathcal{A}^\ddagger$ if and only if $bd \in \mathcal{A}^\ddagger$. In this case, $(bd)^\ddagger = b[(ac)^\ddagger]^3dbd$.

Proof. \implies Since $ac \in \mathcal{A}^\dagger$, we have $ac \in \mathcal{A}^d$. In light of Theorem 3.1, $bd \in \mathcal{A}^d$ and $(bd)^d = b[(ac)^\dagger]^3 dbd$. Assume that $[ac - (ac)^2(ac)^\dagger]^m \in \mathcal{A}^{rad}$ for some $m \in \mathbb{N}$. As in the proof of Corollary 3.3, we have

$$\begin{aligned} [bd - (bd)^2(bd)^d]^{m+2} &= b[ac - ac^2(ac)^d]^m (dbd) \\ &\in \mathcal{A}^{rad}. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$(bd)^\dagger = b[(ac)^\dagger]^3 dbd,$$

as asserted.

\Leftarrow By virtue of [12, Theorem 3.6], $db \in \mathcal{A}^\dagger$. Then we have $ca \in \mathcal{A}^\dagger$ by the discussion above. So the theorem is true by [12, Theorem 3.6]. \square

Corollary 3.5. *Let \mathcal{A} be a Banach algebra, and let $a, b, c \in \mathcal{A}$. If $(aba)b = (aca)b$, $(aba)c = (aca)c$, then $ac \in \mathcal{A}^\dagger$ if and only if $ba \in \mathcal{A}^\dagger$. In this case, $(ba)^\dagger = b[(ac)^\dagger]^3 aba$.*

Proof. This is obvious by choosing $d = a$ in Theorem 3.4. \square

The following example illustrates that Theorem 3.4 is not a trivial generalization of [7, Theorem 4.1].

Example 3.6.

Let $\mathcal{A} = M_4(\mathbb{C})$. Choose

$$a = b = c = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, d = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in M_4(\mathbb{C}).$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} (ac)^2 &= (db)(ac) = 0, \\ (db)^2 &= (ac)(db) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

We see that ac and bd are nilpotent matrices and so have p-Drazin inverses. In this case,

$$acd = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \neq \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = dbd.$$

4. Applications

Let X be a Banach space, and let $\mathcal{L}(X)$ denote the set of all bounded linear operators from the Banach space X to itself, and let $A \in \mathcal{L}(X)$. The Drazin spectrum $\sigma_D(A)$ and g-Drazin spectrum $\sigma_d(A)$ are defined by

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_D(A) &= \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \mid \lambda I - A \notin \mathcal{L}(X)^D\}; \\ \sigma_d(A) &= \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \mid \lambda I - A \notin \mathcal{L}(X)^d\}. \end{aligned}$$

For the further use, we now record the following generalized Jacobson’s lemma (see [9]).

Lemma 4.1. *Let R be a ring, and let $a, b, c, d \in R$ satisfying*

$$\begin{aligned} (ac)^2 &= (db)(ac), (db)^2 = (ac)(db); \\ b(ac)a &= b(db)a, c(ac)d = c(db)d. \end{aligned}$$

Then $1 - ac \in R^{-1}$ if and only if $1 - bd \in R^{-1}$. In this case,

$$(1 - bd)^{-1} = [1 - b(1 - ac)^{-1}(acd - dbd)][1 + b(1 - ac)^{-1}d].$$

Proof. \implies Let $s = (1 - ac)^{-1}$. Then $s(1 - ac) = 1 = (1 - ac)s$, and so $1 - s = -sac = -acs$. We check that

$$\begin{aligned} (1 + bsd)(1 - bd) &= 1 - b(1 - s)d - bsdbd \\ &= 1 + bsacd - bsdbd \\ &= 1 + bs(acd - dbd). \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} &[1 - bs(acd - dbd)](1 + bsd)(1 - bd) \\ &= 1 - bs(acd - dbd)bs(acd - dbd) \\ &= 1. \end{aligned}$$

Also we check that

$$\begin{aligned} (1 - bd)(1 + bd + bacs d) &= 1 - bdbd + b(1 - db)acs d \\ &= 1 - b[db(1 - ac) - (1 - db)ac]s d \\ &= 1 - b(db - ac)s d; \end{aligned}$$

hence, we have

$$\begin{aligned} &(1 - bd)(1 + bd + bacs d)[1 + b(db - ac)s d] \\ &= 1 - b(db - ac)s db(db - ac)s d \\ &= 1 - b(db - ac)s db(db - ac)(1 + acs)d \\ &= 1 - b(db - ac)s db(db - ac)d \\ &= 1. \end{aligned}$$

That is, $1 - bd$ is right and left invertible. Obviously, the left and right inverses of $1 - bd$ coincide with each other. Therefore

$$(1 - bd)^{-1} = [1 - bs(acd - dbd)](1 + bsd),$$

as desired.

\Leftarrow In light of [9, Lemma 1.4], $1 - db \in R^{-1}$. Applying the discussion above, we see that $1 - ca \in R^{-1}$. By using [7, Theorem 2.1] again, $1 - ac \in R^{-1}$, as asserted. \square

We have at our disposal all the information necessary to prove the following.

Theorem 4.2. *Let $A, B, C, D \in \mathcal{L}(X)$ such that*

$$\begin{aligned} (AC)^2 &= (DB)(AC), (DB)^2 = (AC)(DB); \\ B(AC)A &= B(DB)A, C(AC)D = C(DB)D. \end{aligned}$$

then

$$\sigma_d(BD) = \sigma_d(AC).$$

Proof. Case 1. $0 \in \sigma_d(BD)$. Then $BD \notin \mathcal{L}(X)^d$. In view of Theorem 2.2, $AC \notin \mathcal{L}(X)^d$. Thus $0 \in \sigma_d(AC)$.

Case 2. $0 \notin \lambda \in \sigma_d(BD)$. Then $\lambda \in \text{acc}\sigma(BD)$; hence,

$$\lambda = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \{\lambda_n \mid \lambda_n I - BD \notin \mathcal{L}(X)^{-1}\}.$$

Let $\lambda_n \neq 0$. Then $I - B(\frac{1}{\lambda_n}D) \in \mathcal{L}(X)^{-1}$. By hypothesis, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (\frac{1}{\lambda_n}AC)^2 &= (\frac{1}{\lambda_n}DB)(\frac{1}{\lambda_n}AC), (\frac{1}{\lambda_n}DB)^2 = (\frac{1}{\lambda_n}AC)(\frac{1}{\lambda_n}DB); \\ B(\frac{1}{\lambda_n}AC)\frac{1}{\lambda_n}A &= B(\frac{1}{\lambda_n}DB)\frac{1}{\lambda_n}A, C(\frac{1}{\lambda_n}AC)\frac{1}{\lambda_n}D = C(\frac{1}{\lambda_n}DB)\frac{1}{\lambda_n}D. \end{aligned}$$

In light of Lemma 4.1, we have $I - (\frac{1}{\lambda_n}A)C \notin \mathcal{L}(X)^{-1}$. Then we check that

$$\lambda = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \{\lambda_n \mid \lambda_n I - AC \notin \mathcal{L}(X)^{-1}\} \in \text{acc}\sigma(AC) = \sigma_d(AC).$$

Therefore $\sigma_d(BD) \subseteq \sigma_d(AC)$. Analogously, we have $\sigma_d(AC) \subseteq \sigma_d(BD)$, the result follows. \square

Corollary 4.3. Let $A, B, C \in \mathcal{L}(X)$. If $(ABA)B = (ACA)B$, $(AB A)C = (ACA)C$, then

$$\sigma_d(AC) = \sigma_d(BA).$$

Proof. By choosing $D = A$ in Theorem 4.2, we complete the proof. \square

For the Drazin spectrum $\sigma_D(a)$, we now derive

Theorem 4.4. Let $A, B, C, D \in \mathcal{L}(X)$ such that

$$(AC)^2 = (DB)(AC), (DB)^2 = (AC)(DB); \\ B(AC)A = B(DB)A, C(AC)D = C(DB)D.$$

then

$$\sigma_D(BD) = \sigma_D(AC).$$

Proof. By virtue of Theorem 2.5, $AC \in \mathcal{L}(X)^D$ implies that $BD \in \mathcal{L}(X)^D$. This completes the proof by [13, Theorem 3.1]. \square

A bounded linear operator $T \in \mathcal{L}(X)$ is Fredholm operator if $\dim N(T)$ and $\text{codim} R(T)$ are finite, where $N(T)$ and $R(T)$ are the null space and the range of T respectively. For each nonnegative integer n define $T_{|n|}$ to be the restriction of T to $R(T^n)$. If for some n , $R(T^n)$ is closed and $T_{|n|}$ is a Fredholm operator then T is called a B-Fredholm operator. The B-Fredholm spectrum of T are defined by

$$\sigma_{BF}(T) = \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \mid T - \lambda I \text{ is not a B-Fredholm operator}\}.$$

Corollary 4.5. Let $A, B, C \in \mathcal{L}(X)$ such that

$$(ABA)B = (ACA)B, (ABA)C = (ACA)C,$$

then

$$\sigma_{BF}(AC) = \sigma_{BF}(BA).$$

Proof. Let $\pi : \mathcal{L}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(X)/F(X)$ be the canonical map and $F(X)$ be the ideal of finite rank operators in $\mathcal{L}(X)$. As is well known, $T \in \mathcal{L}(X)$ is B-Fredholm if and only if $\pi(T)$ has Drazin inverse. By assumption, we have

$$\pi(A)\pi(B)\pi(A)\pi(B) = \pi(A)\pi(C)\pi(A)\pi(B), \\ \pi(A)\pi(B)\pi(A)\pi(C) = \pi(A)\pi(C)\pi(A)\pi(C).$$

The corollary is therefore established by Theorem 4.4. \square

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