

DRAZIN INVERSES IN JÖRGENS ALGEBRAS OF BOUNDED LINEAR OPERATORS

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ABSTRACT

Let X be a Banach space and T be a bounded linear operator from X to itself ($T \in B(X)$.) An operator $D \in B(X)$ is a Drazin inverse of T if $TD = DT$, $D = TD^2$ and $T^k = T^{k+1}D$ for some nonnegative integer k . In this paper we look at the Jörgens algebra, an algebra of operators on a dual system, and characterise when an operator in that algebra has a Drazin inverse that is also in the algebra. This result is then applied to bounded inner product spaces and *-algebras.

1. Introduction

Let $T \in B(X)$, the Banach algebra of bounded linear operators from a Banach space X to itself. We shall denote the null space of T as $\mathcal{N}(T)$ and the range of T as $\mathcal{R}(T)$. An operator $D \in B(X)$ is a Drazin inverse of T if $TD = DT$, $D = TD^2$ and $T^k = T^{k+1}D$ for some nonnegative integer k . The smallest such k is called the index of T and shall be denoted by $k = \text{ind}_D(T)$.

In Section 2 we summarise some known results about Drazin inverses. In Section 3 we look at a Banach algebra called the Jörgens Algebra. This algebra is so-named because K. Jörgens presented this algebra in [7] as a way to study integral operators. The algebra and its spectral theory were also studied by B. Barnes in [1]. Generalised inverses in this algebra were characterised in [11]. Examples of these algebras can be found in [7; 10].

Let $(X, \|\cdot\|_X)$ and $(Y, \|\cdot\|_Y)$ be Banach spaces in normed duality. That is, suppose there is a nondegenerate bilinear form $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ on $X \times Y$ such that for some $M > 0$,

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq M \|x\|_X \|y\|_Y \text{ for all } x \in X \text{ and } y \in Y. \quad (1.1)$$

Suppose $T \in B(X)$ has an adjoint with respect to this bilinear form denoted by T^\dagger ; i.e. $\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, T^\dagger y \rangle$ for all $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$. Define the *Jörgens algebra* $J_Y(X) = \mathcal{A}$ to be

$$\mathcal{A} = \{T \in B(X) \mid T^\dagger \text{ exists in } B(Y)\}$$

with norm $\|T\| = \max\{\|T\|_{op}, \|T^\dagger\|_{op}\}$.

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With this defined norm, \mathcal{A} is a Banach algebra [7]. \mathcal{A} will denote the Jörgens algebra. Because the bilinear form is nondegenerate, an operator T in \mathcal{A} is uniquely determined by T^\dagger and vice-versa. Note that a Jörgens algebra is a saturated algebra, or more specifically a Y -saturated algebra, and any saturated algebra is also a Jörgens algebra [6; 7, exercise 3.18].

In Section 3 we present the main result of this paper, which is to characterise when an operator in the Jörgens Algebra has a Drazin inverse that is also in the algebra.

In Section 4 we study Banach spaces that have a bounded inner product. We look at the algebra \mathcal{B} of operators that have an adjoint with respect to this inner product. By defining a specific norm on this algebra, it is made into a Banach $*$ -algebra. We extend the main result to this situation.

2. Drazin inverses

Following the convention that for an operator $T \in B(X)$, $T^0 = I$, the identity operator, there are two useful chains of subspaces:

$$\begin{aligned} \{0\} &= \mathcal{N}(T^0) \subseteq \mathcal{N}(T) \subseteq \mathcal{N}(T^2) \subseteq \dots; \text{ and} \\ X &= \mathcal{R}(T^0) \supseteq \mathcal{R}(T) \supseteq \mathcal{R}(T^2) \supseteq \dots. \end{aligned}$$

The *ascent* of an operator T is the smallest nonnegative integer k such that $\mathcal{N}(T^k) = \mathcal{N}(T^{k+1})$, and will be denoted by $k = \alpha(T)$. When no such number exists, the ascent is considered infinite. The *descent* of an operator T is the smallest nonnegative k such that $\mathcal{R}(T^k) = \mathcal{R}(T^{k+1})$, and will be denoted by $k = \delta(T)$. If no such number exists, the descent is infinite. Many algebraic results can be obtained with these concepts, but only those relevant to this paper will be mentioned.

Theorem 2.1. [12, theorem 3.7] *If $T \in B(X)$ such that $\alpha(T) < \infty$ and $\delta(T) < \infty$, then they are actually equal to the same number k and*

$$X = \mathcal{R}(T^k) \oplus \mathcal{N}(T^k).$$

Theorem 2.2. [8, theorem 4] *Let $T \in B(X)$. Then T has a Drazin inverse if and only if T has finite ascent and descent, in which case $\text{ind}_D(T) = \alpha(T) = \delta(T)$.*

The following theorem and its proof can be found in [2] for the finite dimensional case and in [8] for the more general Banach space case. Again, we state it here in order to use it later.

Theorem 2.3. [2; 8] *Let $T \in B(X)$ have Drazin inverse D with $\text{ind}_D(T) = k$. Then*

- (1) $\mathcal{R}(D) = \mathcal{R}(T^k)$;
- (2) $\mathcal{N}(D) = \mathcal{N}(T^k)$; and
- (3) $TD = DT$ is the projection onto $\mathcal{R}(T^k)$ along $\mathcal{N}(T^k)$.

3. Jörgens algebras

Before we characterise Drazin inverses in Jörgens algebras, some useful previous results from [11] will be stated. For ease of notation, for $k \in \mathbb{N}$ we shall denote $(T^k)^\dagger = (T^\dagger)^k$ by $T^{k\dagger}$.

Lemma 1. [11, lemma 4] *Let $T \in \mathcal{A}$.*

- (1) $\mathcal{R}(T)^\perp = \mathcal{N}(T^\dagger)$;
- (2) ${}^\perp\mathcal{R}(T^\dagger) = \mathcal{N}(T)$;
- (3) ${}^\perp\mathcal{N}(T^\dagger) = \text{cl}_{\mathcal{Y}}\mathcal{R}(T)$ and
- (4) $\mathcal{N}(T)^\perp = \text{cl}_{\mathcal{X}}\mathcal{R}(T^\dagger)$.

Lemma 2. [11, lemma 3] *The following are true for any projection $P \in \mathcal{A}$:*

- (1) $\mathcal{N}(P) = {}^\perp\mathcal{R}(P^\dagger)$;
- (2) $\mathcal{R}(P) = {}^\perp\mathcal{N}(P^\dagger)$;
- (3) $\mathcal{R}(P^\dagger) = \mathcal{N}(P)^\perp$; and
- (4) $\mathcal{N}(P^\dagger) = \mathcal{R}(P)^\perp$.

Thus $\mathcal{R}(P)$ and $\mathcal{N}(P)$ are both \mathcal{Y} -closed and $\mathcal{R}(P^\dagger)$ and $\mathcal{N}(P^\dagger)$ are both \mathcal{X} -closed.

Using the above facts about Drazin inverses and Jörgens algebras, a useful lemma is obtained.

Lemma 3. *Let $T \in \mathcal{A}$. If $\delta(T) = k < \infty$, then $\alpha(T^\dagger) \leq k$. Similarly, if $\delta(T^\dagger) = k < \infty$ then $\alpha(T) \leq k$. In particular, if T and T^\dagger both have finite index, then they must have equal index.*

PROOF. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{A}$ with $\delta(T) = k$. Then by definition, $\mathcal{R}(T^k) = \mathcal{R}(T^{k+1})$. But by Lemma 1, $\mathcal{R}(T^k)^\perp = \mathcal{N}(T^{k\dagger})$ and $\mathcal{R}(T^{k+1})^\perp = \mathcal{N}(T^{(k+1)\dagger})$. Thus $\mathcal{N}(T^{k\dagger}) = \mathcal{N}(T^{(k+1)\dagger})$, and so $\alpha(T^\dagger) \leq k$. A similar argument can be shown if $\delta(T^\dagger) = k < \infty$.

■

Now we can characterise Drazin inverses in Jörgens algebras.

Theorem 3.1. *Let $T \in \mathcal{A}$ with $\text{ind}_D(T) = k$. Then the following are equivalent:*

- (1) T has a Drazin inverse $D \in \mathcal{A}$;
- (2) T^\dagger has a Drazin inverse;
- (3) $\delta(T^\dagger) < \infty$; and
- (4) $\mathcal{R}(T^{(k+1)\dagger})$ is \mathcal{X} -closed, i.e., $\mathcal{N}(T^k)^\perp = \mathcal{N}(T^{k+1})^\perp = \mathcal{R}(T^{(k+1)\dagger})$.

PROOF. (1) \implies (2) is clear as D^\dagger must be a Drazin inverse of T^\dagger due to the properties of the bilinear form.

(2) \implies (1). Let B be the Drazin inverse of T^\dagger and D the Drazin inverse of T . We need to show that $B = D^\dagger$. By Lemma 3, $\text{ind}_D(T^\dagger) = k$. By Theorem 2.3, we also have

$$\mathcal{R}(T^\dagger B) = \mathcal{R}(B) = \mathcal{R}(T^{k\dagger}) \tag{3.1}$$

and

$$\mathcal{N}(T^\dagger B) = \mathcal{N}(B) = \mathcal{N}(T^{k\dagger}) = \mathcal{R}(T^k)^\perp = \mathcal{R}(D)^\perp. \quad (3.2)$$

By Lemma 1, $\mathcal{N}(T^{k\dagger}) = \mathcal{R}(T^k)^\perp = \mathcal{R}(D)^\perp$. Using Theorem 2.1 along with (3.1) above, any $y \in Y$ can be uniquely expressed as $y = T^\dagger B y + y_n$, where $y_n \in \mathcal{N}(T^\dagger B)$. Similarly, any $x \in X$ can be uniquely expressed as $x = T D x + x_n$, where $x_n \in \mathcal{N}(D) = \mathcal{R}(D)^\perp$. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \langle D x, y \rangle &= \langle D x, T^\dagger B y \rangle + \langle D x, y_n \rangle \\ &= \langle D x, T^\dagger B y \rangle \\ &= \langle T D x, B y \rangle \\ &= \langle T D x, B y \rangle + \langle x_n, B y \rangle \\ &= \langle x, B y \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

Since x and y were arbitrary, $B = D^\dagger$ and $D \in \mathcal{A}$.

(2) \implies (3) is clear by Theorem 2.2.

(3) \implies (2). Let $\delta(T^\dagger) < \infty$. Since $\delta(T) = k$, $\alpha(T^\dagger) \leq k$ by Lemma 3 and thus $\text{ind}_D(T^\dagger) = k$ also. Thus T^\dagger has a Drazin inverse by Theorem 2.2.

(4) \implies (3). Let $\mathcal{R}(T^{(k+1)\dagger})$ be \mathcal{X} -closed. By hypothesis, $\delta(T) = k = \alpha(T)$ and so by Lemma 3 $\alpha(T^\dagger) \leq k$. But by Lemma 1 we have

$$\mathcal{R}(T^{(k+1)\dagger}) = \mathcal{N}(T^{k+1})^\perp = \mathcal{N}(T^k)^\perp = \text{cl}_{\mathcal{X}} \mathcal{R}(T^{k\dagger}). \quad (3.3)$$

Hence

$$\mathcal{R}(T^{(k+1)\dagger}) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(T^{k\dagger}) \subseteq \text{cl}_{\mathcal{X}} \mathcal{R}(T^{k\dagger}) = \mathcal{R}(T^{(k+1)\dagger}) \quad (3.4)$$

and therefore $\mathcal{R}(T^{k\dagger}) = \text{cl}_{\mathcal{X}} \mathcal{R}(T^{k\dagger}) = \mathcal{R}(T^{(k+1)\dagger})$. Thus $\delta(T^\dagger) \leq k < \infty$.

(3) \implies (4). We have now proven that (1), (2) and (3) are equivalent, so $D \in \mathcal{A}$ and from Lemma 3, $\text{ind}_D(T^\dagger) = k$ also. By Theorem 2.3, the projection P onto $\mathcal{R}(T^k)$ along $\mathcal{N}(T^k)$ is $T D$ so must also be in \mathcal{A} . Similarly, $P^\dagger = T^\dagger D^\dagger$ is the projection onto $\mathcal{R}(T^{k\dagger})$ along $\mathcal{N}(T^{k\dagger})$. By Lemma 2, $\mathcal{R}(T^{k\dagger})$ is \mathcal{X} -closed. ■

It is indeed necessary for $\mathcal{R}(T^{(k+1)\dagger})$, and not just $\mathcal{R}(T^{k\dagger})$, to be \mathcal{X} -closed as the following example that is discussed in [7] will illustrate.

Example. Consider the Jörgens algebra with $X = Y = C[0, 1]$ with the standard bilinear form $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^1 f(x)g(x) dx$. Let $\gamma \in \mathbb{C}$ with $\text{Re}(\gamma) < 0$. Define the operator $T_\gamma \in B(C[0, 1])$ by

$$T_\gamma f(x) = x^{\gamma-1} \int_0^x t^{-\gamma} f(t) dt, \quad x \in (0, 1] \quad (3.5a)$$

$$T_\gamma f(0) = (1 - \gamma)^{-1} f(0). \quad (3.5b)$$

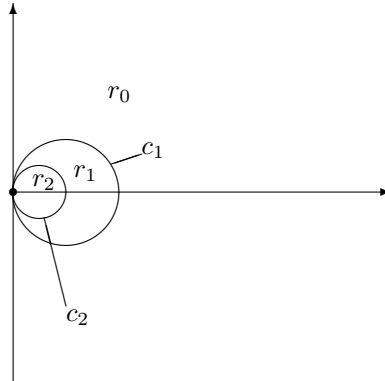


FIG. 1—Regions of the complex plane based on $a = Re(\gamma)$.

It can be shown that $T_\gamma \in \mathcal{A}$ with

$$T_\gamma^\dagger f(x) = x^{-\gamma} \int_x^1 t^{\gamma-1} f(t) dt, \quad x \in (0, 1] \tag{3.6a}$$

$$T_\gamma^\dagger f(0) = -\gamma^{-1} f(0). \tag{3.6b}$$

Consider the complex plane broken up into the following regions based on $a = Re(\gamma)$ (see Figure 1)

- $c_1 =$ circle with centre $-\frac{1}{2a}$ and radius $-\frac{1}{2a}$
- $c_2 =$ circle with centre $\frac{1}{2(1-a)}$ and radius $\frac{1}{2(1-a)}$
- $r_0 =$ region outside c_1
- $r_1 =$ region inside c_1 and outside c_2
- $r_2 =$ region inside c_2 .

We will denote the spectrum and essential spectrum of an operator T by $\sigma(T)$ and $\sigma_e(T)$ and the Fredholm index will be denoted by ι . It can be shown that $\sigma(T_\gamma) = r_2 \cup c_2$ and $\sigma_e(T_\gamma) = c_2$. Also it can be shown that $\sigma(T_\gamma^\dagger)$ is the closed disc with boundary c_1 and $\sigma_e(T_\gamma^\dagger) = c_1$. In particular Table 1 describes the operators $\lambda - T_\gamma$ and $\lambda - T_\gamma^\dagger$ [7, p. 113].

On the regions $\lambda \in r_1 \cup c_1 \setminus \{0\}$, the operator $\lambda - T_\gamma$ is invertible, and thus has a Drazin inverse with $\text{ind}_D(\lambda - T_\gamma) = k = 0$. If this inverse were in \mathcal{A} , the operator $\lambda - T_\gamma^\dagger$ would also have to be invertible but it is not. Clearly $\mathcal{R}([\lambda - T_\gamma]^{k\dagger}) = C[0, 1]$ is \mathcal{X} -closed and thus the hypothesis of $\mathcal{R}([\lambda - T_\gamma]^{(k+1)\dagger}) = \mathcal{R}(\lambda - T_\gamma^\dagger)$ to be \mathcal{X} -closed is needed.

TABLE 1—Summary of invertibility of $\lambda - T_\gamma$ and $\lambda - T_\gamma^\dagger$.

λ	$\lambda - T_\gamma$	$\lambda - T_\gamma^\dagger$
r_0	Invertible	Invertible
r_1	Invertible	Fredholm, $\iota = -1$
r_2	Fredholm, $\iota = 1$	Fredholm, $\iota = -1$
$c_1 \setminus \{0\}$	Invertible	Not Fredholm
$c_2 \setminus \{0\}$	Not Fredholm	Fredholm, $\iota = -1$
0	Not Fredholm	Not Fredholm

4. Banach spaces with bounded inner product

As in [11], we extend Theorem 3.1 to the case where X having a bounded inner product. Let X be a Banach space with a bounded inner product (\cdot, \cdot) . For $T \in B(X)$, define T^* to be the adjoint of T with respect to the inner product. That is,

$$(Tx, y) = (x, T^*y) \text{ for all } x, y \in X.$$

Define the algebra $\mathcal{B} = \{T \in B(X) \mid \exists T^* \in B(X)\}$. This is equivalent to the algebra of all bounded linear operators on X that have bounded extensions to the Hilbert space completion of X [9]. Define a norm on the elements of \mathcal{B} similar to the Jörgens algebra; that is, for $T \in \mathcal{B}$,

$$\|T\| = \max\{\|T\|_{op}, \|T^*\|_{op}\}.$$

This makes \mathcal{B} a Banach $*$ -algebra, and Moore-Penrose inverses in \mathcal{B} were discussed in [11].

Throughout the rest of this section, \mathcal{B} will denote the $*$ -algebra above with the inner product space X and T^* will denote the adjoint of T in this algebra. All of the results about Drazin inverses in Jörgens algebras are analogous in this setting. In particular, we have the following result.

Theorem 4.1. *Let $T \in \mathcal{B}$ with $\text{ind}_D(T) = k$. Then the following are equivalent:*

- (1) T has a Drazin inverse $D \in \mathcal{B}$;
- (2) T^* has a Drazin inverse;
- (3) $\delta(T^*) < \infty$; and
- (4) $\mathcal{R}(T^{(k+1)*})$ is \mathcal{X} -closed, i.e., $\mathcal{N}(T^k)^\perp = \mathcal{N}(T^{k+1})^\perp = \mathcal{R}(T^{(k+1)*})$.

The proof of the previous lemmas and theorem are the same as in the Jörgens algebra setting as the only difference is that there is a sesquilinear rather than bilinear form.

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