

MIXED-TYPE REVERSE ORDER LAW FOR PRODUCTS OF THREE OPERATORS

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Abstract

We present new results related to the mixed-type reverse order law for the Moore-Penrose inverse of various products of three operators on Hilbert spaces. Some finite dimensional results are extended to infinite dimensional settings.

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1 Introduction

Let X, Y, Z be Hilbert spaces, and let $\mathcal{L}(X, Y)$ denote the set of all linear bounded operators from X to Y . If $A \in \mathcal{L}(X, Y)$, then we use $\mathcal{R}(A)$ and $\mathcal{N}(A)$, respectively, to denote the range and the null-space of A .

The Moore-Penrose inverse of given $A \in \mathcal{L}(X, Y)$ is the (unique when it exists) operator $A^\dagger \in \mathcal{L}(Y, X)$ satisfying the following Penrose equations:

$$AA^\dagger A = A, \quad A^\dagger AA^\dagger = A^\dagger, \quad (AA^\dagger)^* = AA^\dagger, \quad (A^\dagger A)^* = A^\dagger A.$$

The Moore-Penrose inverse of A exists if and only if $\mathcal{R}(A)$ is closed.

If $A \in \mathcal{L}(X, Y)$ and $B \in \mathcal{L}(Y, Z)$ are invertible, then the well-known rule $(BA)^{-1} = A^{-1}B^{-1}$ is the reverse order rule of the ordinary inverse. However, if we suppose that operators A, B, BA have closed ranges, then the analogous rule for the Moore-Penrose inverse $(BA)^\dagger = A^\dagger B^\dagger$ does not hold in general. There exists the well-known result giving equivalent conditions such that the reverse order rule holds for the Moore-Penrose inverse, and that is: AA^* commutes with $B^\dagger B$, and AA^\dagger commutes with B^*B (see the following references: [11] for matrices, [2], [3] and [14] for closed-range linear bounded operators on Hilbert spaces, [15] for Moore-Penrose invertible elements in rings with involution). There are also equivalent conditions such that the rule of the form $(ABC)^\dagger = C^\dagger B^\dagger A^\dagger$ holds ([13]). Besides these facts, there are several papers investigating various forms of the reverse order rule, mostly for complex matrices, but some of them dealing with operators

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on Hilbert spaces, or elements in rings with involutions. This is implied by at least two facts: first, the Moore-Penrose inverse is important in solving various types of equations; and second, the reverse order rule is a very useful computational tool.

This research is motivated by the results obtained in [17], where the reverse order rule is investigated for a triple matrix product. Notice that results in [17] are obtained using finite dimensional methods, mostly rank of a complex matrix. In this paper we extend results from [17] to infinite dimensional Hilbert spaces, using operator matrices.

For this purpose, we list some properties of the Moore-Penrose inverse.

Lemma 1.1. *$A \in \mathcal{L}(X, Y)$ has a closed range if and only if AA^* has a closed range. Moreover, $A^\dagger = A^*(AA^*)^\dagger$.*

Lemma 1.2. *Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(X, Y)$ have a closed range. Then A has the matrix decomposition with respect to the orthogonal decompositions of spaces $X = \mathcal{R}(A^*) \oplus \mathcal{N}(A)$ and $Y = \mathcal{R}(A) \oplus \mathcal{N}(A^*)$:*

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} : \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{R}(A^*) \\ \mathcal{N}(A) \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{R}(A) \\ \mathcal{N}(A^*) \end{bmatrix},$$

where A_1 is invertible. Moreover,

$$A^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} A_1^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} : \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{R}(A) \\ \mathcal{N}(A^*) \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{R}(A^*) \\ \mathcal{N}(A) \end{bmatrix}.$$

The proof is straightforward.

Lemma 1.3. ([8]) *Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(X, Y)$ have a closed range. Let X_1 and X_2 be closed and mutually orthogonal subspaces of X , such that $X = X_1 \oplus X_2$. Let Y_1 and Y_2 be closed and mutually orthogonal subspaces of Y , such that $Y = Y_1 \oplus Y_2$. Then the operator A has the following matrix representations with respect to the orthogonal sums of subspaces $X = X_1 \oplus X_2 = \mathcal{R}(A^*) \oplus \mathcal{N}(A)$, and $Y = \mathcal{R}(A) \oplus \mathcal{N}(A^*) = Y_1 \oplus Y_2$:*

(a)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & A_2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} : \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{R}(A) \\ \mathcal{N}(A^*) \end{bmatrix},$$

where $D = A_1A_1^* + A_2A_2^*$ maps $\mathcal{R}(A)$ into itself and $D > 0$ (meaning $D \geq 0$ invertible). Also,

$$A^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} A_1^*D^{-1} & 0 \\ A_2^*D^{-1} & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

(b)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & 0 \\ A_2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} : \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{R}(A^*) \\ \mathcal{N}(A) \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \end{bmatrix},$$

where $D = A_1^*A_1 + A_2^*A_2$ maps $\mathcal{R}(A^*)$ into itself and $D > 0$ (meaning $D \geq 0$ invertible). Also,

$$A^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} D^{-1}A_1^* & D^{-1}A_2^* \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Here A_i denotes different operators in any of these two cases.

The following result is well-known, and it can be found in [4], p.127.

Lemma 1.4. *Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(Y, Z)$ and $B \in \mathcal{L}(X, Y)$ have closed ranges. Then AB has a closed range if and only if $A^\dagger ABB^\dagger$ has a closed range.*

Notice the difference between the following notations. If $A, B \in \mathcal{L}(X)$, then $[A, B] = AB - BA$ denotes the commutator of A and B . On the other hand, if $U \in \mathcal{L}(X, Z)$ and $V \in \mathcal{L}(Y, Z)$, then $[U \ V] : \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow Z$ denote the matrix form of the corresponding operator.

The following result is proved in [8], Lemma 2.1.

Lemma 1.5. *Let X, Y be Hilbert spaces, let $C \in \mathcal{L}(X, Y)$ have a closed range, and let $D \in \mathcal{L}(Y)$ be Hermitian and invertible. Then $\mathcal{R}(DC) = \mathcal{R}(C)$ if and only if $[D, CC^\dagger] = 0$.*

We also use the following result from [5], which can easily be extended from matrices to linear bounded Hilbert space operators.

Lemma 1.6. *Let $H_i, i = \overline{1, 4}$ be Hilbert spaces, let $C \in \mathcal{L}(H_1, H_2)$, $X \in \mathcal{L}(H_2, H_3)$ and $B \in \mathcal{L}(H_3, H_4)$ be closed range operators. Then:*

$$C(BXC)^\dagger B = X^\dagger$$

if and only if:

$$\mathcal{R}(B^*BX) = \mathcal{R}(X) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{N}(XCC^*) = \mathcal{N}(X).$$

We shall frequently use the following fact: if $T, S \in \mathcal{L}(H)$ are selfadjoint, then TS is selfadjoint if and only if $TS = ST$.

2 Main results

In this section we prove the results concerning the reverse order law for the Moore-Penrose inverse of various products of linear bounded Hilbert space operators. Throughout this paper X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4 denote arbitrary Hilbert spaces, and $A_k \in \mathcal{L}(X_{k+1}, X_k)$, $k = 1, 2, 3$, denote linear bounded operators. Also, let $M = A_1 A_2 A_3$.

Theorem 2.1. *Let $A_1, A_3, M, A_1^\dagger M A_3^\dagger$ have closed ranges. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

- (a) $M^\dagger = A_3^\dagger (A_1^\dagger M A_3^\dagger)^\dagger A_1^\dagger$;
- (b) $\mathcal{R}(A_1 A_1^* M) = \mathcal{R}(M)$ and $\mathcal{R}(A_3^* A_3 M^*) = \mathcal{R}(M^*)$.

Proof. Using Lemma 1.2, we conclude that the operator A_1 has the following matrix form:

$$A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} : \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{R}(A_1^*) \\ \mathcal{N}(A_1) \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{R}(A_1) \\ \mathcal{N}(A_1^*) \end{bmatrix},$$

where A_{11} is invertible. Then

$$A_1^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11}^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} : \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{R}(A_1) \\ \mathcal{N}(A_1^*) \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{R}(A_1^*) \\ \mathcal{N}(A_1) \end{bmatrix}.$$

From Lemma 1.3 it also follows that operators $A_k, k = 2, 3$, have the following matrix forms:

$$A_k = \begin{bmatrix} A_{k1} & 0 \\ A_{k2} & 0 \end{bmatrix} : \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{R}(A_k^*) \\ \mathcal{N}(A_k) \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{R}(A_{k-1}^*) \\ \mathcal{N}(A_{k-1}) \end{bmatrix},$$

where $D_k = A_{k1}^* A_{k1} + A_{k2}^* A_{k2}$ is invertible and positive in $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{R}(A_k^*))$. Then

$$A_k^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} D_k^{-1} A_{k1}^* & D_k^{-1} A_{k2}^* \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We use the notation $M_1 = A_{11} A_{21} A_{31}$, so the matrix form of M is the following:

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} M_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

First we find an equivalent form for the statement (a). We have

$$W = A_1^\dagger M A_3^\dagger = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11}^{-1} M_1 D_3^{-1} A_{31}^* & A_{11}^{-1} M_1 D_3^{-1} A_{32}^* \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

and consequently

$$W^\dagger = W^*(WW^*)^\dagger = \begin{pmatrix} A_{31}D_3^{-1/2}(A_{11}^{-1}M_1D_3^{-1/2})^\dagger & 0 \\ A_{32}D_3^{-1/2}(A_{11}^{-1}M_1D_3^{-1/2})^\dagger & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

It follows that

$$A_3^\dagger W^\dagger A_1^\dagger = \begin{pmatrix} D_3^{-1/2}(A_{11}^{-1}M_1D_3^{-1/2})^\dagger A_{11}^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Therefore,

$$M^\dagger = A_3^\dagger(A_1^\dagger M A_3^\dagger)^\dagger A_1^\dagger$$

is equivalent to:

$$M_1^\dagger = D_3^{-1/2}(A_{11}^{-1}M_1D_3^{-1/2})^\dagger A_{11}^{-1},$$

or, in other words:

$$(A_{11}^{-1}M_1D_3^{-1/2})^\dagger = D_3^{1/2}M_1^\dagger A_{11}.$$

By checking the Penrose equations, the last formula holds if and only if

$$[A_{11}A_{11}^*, M_1M_1^\dagger] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad [D_3, M_1^\dagger M_1] = 0. \quad (1)$$

Hence, the statement (a) is equivalent to (1).

Now, we find the equivalent statement to (b). The conditions

$$\mathcal{R}(A_1A_1^*M) = \mathcal{R}(M) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{R}(A_3^*A_3M^*) = \mathcal{R}(M^*)$$

are equivalent to

$$\mathcal{R}(A_{11}A_{11}^*M_1) = \mathcal{R}(M_1) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{R}(D_3M_1^*) = \mathcal{R}(M_1^*).$$

By Lemma 1.5, the last statement is equivalent to (1).

Hence, (b) is equivalent to (a). \square

Theorem 2.2. *Let $A_1, A_3, M, A_1^*MA_3^*$ have closed ranges. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

- (a) $M^\dagger = A_3^*(A_1^*MA_3^*)^\dagger A_1^*$;
- (b) $\mathcal{R}(A_1A_1^*M) = \mathcal{R}(M)$ and $\mathcal{R}(A_3^*A_3M^*) = \mathcal{R}(M^*)$.

Proof. The statement (b) is equivalent to (1) (see a previous theorem).

In order to prove that (a) is also equivalent to (1), we use the notations from a previous theorem. Let $V = A_1^* M A_3^*$. We see that

$$V^\dagger = V^*(V V^*)^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} A_{31} D_3^{-1/2} (A_{11}^* M_1 D_3^{1/2})^\dagger & 0 \\ A_{32} D_3^{-1/2} (A_{11}^* M_1 D_3^{1/2})^\dagger & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Now,

$$M^\dagger = A_3^* (A_1^* M A_3^*)^\dagger A_1^*$$

if and only if

$$M_1^\dagger = D_3^{1/2} (A_{11}^* M_1 D_3^{1/2})^\dagger A_{11}^*,$$

or, equivalently:

$$(A_{11}^* M D_3^{1/2})^\dagger = D_3^{-1/2} M_1^\dagger (A_{11}^*)^{-1}.$$

By checking the Penrose equations we obtain that the last statement is equivalent to (1).

Thus, (a) is equivalent to (b). \square

Theorem 2.3. *Let $A_1, A_3, M, (A_1 A_1^*)^\dagger M (A_3^* A_3)^\dagger$ have closed ranges. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

- (a) $M^\dagger = (A_3^* A_3)^\dagger [(A_1 A_1^*)^\dagger M (A_3^* A_3)^\dagger]^\dagger (A_1 A_1^*)^\dagger$;
- (b) $\mathcal{R}((A_1 A_1^*)^2 M) = \mathcal{R}(M)$ and $\mathcal{R}((A_3^* A_3)^2 M^*) = \mathcal{R}(M^*)$.

Proof. Using the notation and the method described in Theorem 2.1, we conclude that the statement (a) is equivalent to the following:

$$M_1^\dagger = D_3^{-1} ((A_{11} A_{11}^*)^{-1} M_1 D_3^{-1})^\dagger (A_{11} A_{11}^*)^{-1},$$

or, equivalently $((A_{11} A_{11}^*)^{-1} M_1 D_3^{-1})^\dagger = D_3 M_1^\dagger A_{11} A_{11}^*$. Using the Penrose equations, it follows that the last equality holds if and only if

$$[M_1 M_1^\dagger, (A_{11} A_{11}^*)^2] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad [D_3^2, M_1^\dagger M_1] = 0.$$

Using Lemma 1.5 it follows that the last conditions hold if and only if

$$\mathcal{R}((A_{11} A_{11}^*)^2 M_1) = \mathcal{R}(M_1) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{R}(D_3^2 M_1^*) = \mathcal{R}(M_1^*).$$

Now it is easy to see that (a) is equivalent to (b). \square

Remark 2.1. *The equality*

$$M^\dagger = (A_3^* A_3)^\dagger [(A_1 A_1^*)^\dagger M (A_3^* A_3)^\dagger]^\dagger (A_1 A_1^*)^\dagger$$

is often written in the equivalent form:

$$M^\dagger = (A_3^* A_3)^\dagger [(A_3^\dagger A_2^* A_1^\dagger)^\dagger]^* (A_1 A_1^*)^\dagger.$$

Previous forms are equal, since

$$\begin{aligned} (A_1 A_1^*)^\dagger M (A_3^* A_3)^\dagger &= (A_1 A_1^*)^\dagger A_1 A_2 A_3 (A_3^* A_3)^\dagger \\ &= (A_1^*)^\dagger A_2 (A_3^*)^\dagger = (A_3^\dagger A_2^* A_1^\dagger)^*. \end{aligned}$$

In the rest of the paper we shall use the following fact. If $S \in \mathcal{L}(H)$ is selfadjoint, then $\mathcal{R}(S)$ is closed if and only if 0 is not a point of accumulation of the spectrum of S . From the spectral mapping theorem it follows that $\mathcal{R}(S^n)$ is closed for every non-negative integer n .

Now, we have a generalization of a previous theorem.

Proposition 2.1. *Under the assumptions of the Theorem 2.3, the following statements are equivalent (k and l are non-negative integers):*

- (a) $M^\dagger = ((A_3^* A_3)^\dagger)^l [(A_1 A_1^*)^\dagger]^k M ((A_3^* A_3)^\dagger)^l [(A_1 A_1^*)^\dagger]^k$;
- (b) $\mathcal{R}((A_1 A_1^*)^{2k} M) = \mathcal{R}(M)$ and $\mathcal{R}((A_3^* A_3)^{2l} M^*) = \mathcal{R}(M^*)$.

Proof. Using the method described in Theorem 2.1, we conclude that the statement of this theorem is equivalent to the following:

$$\begin{aligned} M_1^\dagger &= D_3^{-l} ((A_{11} A_{11}^*)^{-k} M_1 D_3^{-l})^\dagger (A_{11} A_{11}^*)^{-k} \\ &\Leftrightarrow \mathcal{R}((A_{11} A_{11}^*)^{2k} M_1) = \mathcal{R}(M_1) \text{ and } \mathcal{R}(D_3^{2l} M_1^*) = \mathcal{R}(M_1^*). \end{aligned}$$

It is not difficult to see that both members from previous equivalence are actually equivalent to:

$$[(A_{11} A_{11}^*)^{2k}, M_1 M_1^\dagger] = 0 \text{ and } [D_3^{2l}, M_1^\dagger M_1] = 0,$$

so we have the proof completed. \square

Theorem 2.4. *Let $A_1, A_3, M, A_1 A_1^* M A_3^* A_3$ have closed ranges. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

- (a) $M^\dagger = A_3^* A_3 (A_1 A_1^* M A_3^* A_3)^\dagger A_1 A_1^*$;
- (b) $\mathcal{R}((A_1 A_1^*)^2 M) = \mathcal{R}(M)$ and $\mathcal{R}((A_3^* A_3)^2 M^*) = \mathcal{R}(M^*)$.

Proof. We conclude that the statement (a) is equivalent to the following:

$$M_1^\dagger = D_3(A_{11}A_{11}^*M_1D_3)^\dagger A_{11}A_{11}^*,$$

which is equivalent to $(A_{11}A_{11}^*M_1D_3)^\dagger = D_3^{-1}M_1^\dagger(A_{11}A_{11}^*)^{-1}$. Using the Penrose equations, we conclude that the last statement is equivalent to

$$[(A_{11}A_{11}^*)^2, M_1M_1^\dagger] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad [D_3^2, M_1^\dagger M_1] = 0.$$

From Lemma 1.5 we conclude that the last statement is equivalent to

$$\mathcal{R}((A_{11}A_{11}^*)^2M) = \mathcal{R}(M) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{R}(D_3^2M^*) = \mathcal{R}(M^*).$$

We conclude that (b) is equivalent to (a). \square

Previous theorem can be generalized in the following way.

Proposition 2.2. *Under the assumptions of the Theorem 2.4, the following statements are equivalent (k and l are non-negative integers):*

- (a) $M^\dagger = (A_3^*A_3)^l[(A_1A_1^*)^k M (A_3^*A_3)^l]^\dagger (A_1A_1^*)^k$,
- (b) $\mathcal{R}((A_1A_1^*)^{2k}M) = \mathcal{R}(M)$ and $\mathcal{R}((A_3^*A_3)^{2l}M^*) = \mathcal{R}(M^*)$.

Proof. The statement of this theorem is equivalent to the following:

$$\begin{aligned} M_1^\dagger &= D_3^l((A_{11}A_{11}^*)^k M D_3^l)^\dagger (A_{11}A_{11}^*)^k \\ &\Leftrightarrow \mathcal{R}((A_{11}A_{11}^*)^{2k}M_1) = \mathcal{R}(M_1) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{R}(D_3^{2l}M_1^*) = \mathcal{R}(M_1^*). \end{aligned}$$

It is not difficult to see that both members from previous equivalence are actually equivalent to:

$$[(A_{11}A_{11}^*)^{2k}, M_1M_1^\dagger] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad [D_3^{2l}, M_1^\dagger M_1] = 0,$$

so we have the proof completed. \square

Theorem 2.5. *Let $A_1, A_3, M, (A_1A_1^*A_1)^\dagger M (A_3A_3^*A_3)^\dagger$ have closed ranges. Then the following statements are equivalent.*

- (a) $M^\dagger = (A_3A_3^*A_3)^\dagger((A_1A_1^*A_1)^\dagger M (A_3A_3^*A_3)^\dagger)^\dagger (A_1A_1^*A_1)^\dagger$;
- (b) $\mathcal{R}((A_1A_1^*)^3M) = \mathcal{R}(M)$ and $\mathcal{R}((A_3^*A_3)^3M^*) = \mathcal{R}(M^*)$.

Proof. We denote:

$$\begin{aligned} T &= (A_1A_1^*A_1)^\dagger M (A_3A_3^*A_3)^\dagger \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} (A_{11}A_{11}^*A_{11})^{-1}M_1D_3^{-2}A_{31}^* & (A_{11}A_{11}^*A_{11})^{-1}M_1D_3^{-2}A_{32}^* \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \end{aligned}$$

and consequently:

$$T^\dagger = T^*(TT^*)^\dagger = \begin{pmatrix} A_{31}D_3^{-1/2}((A_{11}A_{11}^*A_{11})^{-1}M_1D_3^{-3/2})^\dagger & 0 \\ A_{32}D_3^{-1/2}((A_{11}A_{11}^*A_{11})^{-1}M_1D_3^{-3/2})^\dagger & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Further, we compute

$$S = A_3A_3^*A_3 = \begin{pmatrix} A_{31}D_3 & 0 \\ A_{32}D_3 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

and

$$S^\dagger = (S^*S)^\dagger S^* = \begin{pmatrix} D_3^{-2}A_{31}^* & D_3^{-2}A_{32}^* \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The statement (a) is equivalent to the following

$$M^\dagger = (A_3A_3^*A_3)^\dagger((A_1A_1^*A_1)^\dagger M(A_3A_3^*A_3)^\dagger)^\dagger(A_1A_1^*A_1)^\dagger,$$

which is the same as:

$$M_1^\dagger = D_3^{-3/2}((A_{11}A_{11}^*A_{11})^{-1}M_1D_3^{-3/2})^\dagger(A_{11}A_{11}^*A_{11})^{-1},$$

or, in other words:

$$((A_{11}A_{11}^*A_{11})^{-1}M_1D_3^{-3/2})^\dagger = D_3^{3/2}M_1^\dagger A_{11}A_{11}^*A_{11}.$$

From the Penrose equations, it follows that the last statement holds if and only if:

$$[(A_{11}A_{11}^*A_{11})^2, M_1M_1^\dagger] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad [D_3^3, M_1^\dagger M_1] = 0.$$

By Lemma 1.5, this is equivalent to

$$\mathcal{R}((A_1A_1^*A_1)^2M) = \mathcal{R}(M) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{R}(D_3^3M_1^*) = \mathcal{R}(M_1^*),$$

which is equivalent to (b). □

Remark 2.2. *The equation*

$$M^\dagger = (A_3A_3^*A_3)^\dagger((A_1A_1^*A_1)^\dagger M(A_3A_3^*A_3)^\dagger)^\dagger(A_1A_1^*A_1)^\dagger$$

is often written in the equivalent form:

$$M^\dagger = (A_3A_3^*A_3)^\dagger((A_1^*A_1)^\dagger A_2(A_3A_3^*)^\dagger)^\dagger(A_1A_1^*A_1)^\dagger.$$

The equivalentness follows from:

$$\begin{aligned} (A_1A_1^*A_1)^\dagger A_1 &= A_1^\dagger(A_1^*)^\dagger A_1^\dagger A_1 = A_1^\dagger(A_1^*)^\dagger = (A_1^*A_1)^\dagger, \\ A_3(A_3A_3^*A_3)^\dagger &= A_3A_3^\dagger(A_3^*)^\dagger A_3^\dagger = (A_3A_3^*)^\dagger. \end{aligned}$$

Previous theorem can be generalized in the following way.

Proposition 2.3. *Under the assumptions of Theorem 2.5, the following statements are equivalent (k is a non-negative integer):*

- (a) $M^\dagger = (A_3 A_3^* A_3)^\dagger [(A_1 A_1^* A_1)^\dagger]^k M (A_3 A_3^* A_3)^\dagger [(A_1 A_1^* A_1)^\dagger]^k$,
- (a) $\mathcal{R}((A_1 A_1^*)^{3k} M) = \mathcal{R}(M)$ and $\mathcal{R}((A_3^* A_3)^3 M^*) = \mathcal{R}(M^*)$.

Proof. We use the method described in Theorem 2.1, with some necessary changes. We start with the following:

$$S = A_3 A_3^* A_3 = \begin{pmatrix} A_{31} D_3 & 0 \\ A_{32} D_3 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

which means that:

$$S^\dagger = (S^* S)^\dagger S^* = \begin{pmatrix} D_3^{-2} A_{31}^* & D_3^{-2} A_{32}^* \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Now we denote:

$$\begin{aligned} W &= ((A_1 A_1^* A_1)^\dagger)^k M (A_3 A_3^* A_3)^\dagger \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} (A_{11} A_{11}^* A_{11})^{-k} M_1 D_3^{-2} A_{31}^* & (A_{11} A_{11}^* A_{11})^{-k} M_1 D_3^{-2} A_{32}^* \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \end{aligned}$$

and find that:

$$W^\dagger = W^* (W W^*)^\dagger = \begin{pmatrix} A_{31} D_3^{-2} ((A_{11} A_{11}^* A_{11})^{-k} M_1 D_3^{-3/2})^\dagger & 0 \\ A_{32} D_3^{-2} ((A_{11} A_{11}^* A_{11})^{-k} M_1 D_3^{-3/2})^\dagger & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Therefore,

$$M^\dagger = A_3 A_3^* A_3 W^\dagger (A_1 A_1^* A_1)^k$$

is equivalent to:

$$M_1^\dagger = D_3^{-3/2} ((A_{11} A_{11}^* A_{11})^{-k} M_1 D_3^{-3/2})^\dagger (A_{11} A_{11}^* A_{11})^{-k},$$

or further:

$$((A_{11} A_{11}^* A_{11})^{-k} M_1 D_3^{-3/2})^\dagger = D_3^{3/2} M_1^\dagger (A_{11} A_{11}^* A_{11})^k.$$

By the Penrose equations, the last formula holds if and only if the following is satisfied:

$$[(A_{11} A_{11}^*)^{3k}, M_1 M_1^\dagger] = 0 \text{ and } [D_3^3, M_1^\dagger M_1] = 0.$$

On the other side, by Lemma 1.5, the last conditions are equivalent to

$$\mathcal{R}((A_1 A_1^*)^{3k} M) = \mathcal{R}(M) \text{ and } \mathcal{R}((A_3^* A_3)^3 M^*) = \mathcal{R}(M^*).$$

Thus, the proof is completed. \square

Previous proposition can be proved in a slightly different form:

Proposition 2.4. *Under the conditions of Theorem 2.5, the following statements are equivalent (l is a non-negative integer):*

- (a) $M^\dagger = ((A_3 A_3^* A_3)^\dagger)^l [(A_1 A_1^* A_1)^\dagger M ((A_3 A_3^* A_3)^\dagger)^l]^\dagger (A_1 A_1^* A_1)^\dagger$,
- (b) $\mathcal{R}((A_1 A_1^*)^3 M) = \mathcal{R}(M)$ and $\mathcal{R}((A_3^* A_3)^{3l} M^*) = \mathcal{R}(M^*)$.

Proof. This proof is very similar to the previous one. Important differences are the following decompositions of spaces and operator matrix forms according to those decompositions:

$$A_3 = \begin{bmatrix} A_{31} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} : \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{R}(A_3^*) \\ \mathcal{N}(A_3) \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{R}(A_3) \\ \mathcal{N}(A_3^*) \end{bmatrix},$$

where A_{31} is invertible, and

$$A_k = \begin{bmatrix} A_{k1} & A_{k2} \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} : \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{R}(A_{k+1}) \\ \mathcal{N}(A_{k+1}^*) \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{R}(A_k) \\ \mathcal{N}(A_k^*) \end{bmatrix}, k = \overline{1, 2},$$

where $D_k = A_{k1} A_{k1}^* + A_{k2} A_{k2}^*$ is invertible and positive on $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{R}(A_{k+1}^*))$. Analogously, to the previous proof, we have:

$$M^\dagger = ((A_3 A_3^* A_3)^\dagger)^l ((A_1 A_1^* A_1)^\dagger M ((A_3 A_3^* A_3)^\dagger)^l)^\dagger (A_1 A_1^* A_1)^\dagger,$$

which is equivalent to:

$$M_1^\dagger = (A_{31} A_{31}^* A_{31})^{-l} (D_1^{\frac{3}{2}} M_1 (A_{31} A_{31}^* A_{31})^{-l})^\dagger D_1^{\frac{3}{2}}.$$

The rest of the proof is clear. \square

Theorem 2.6. *Let $A_1, A_3, M, (A_1 A_1^* A_1)^* M (A_3 A_3^* A_3)^*$ have closed ranges. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

- (a) $M^\dagger = (A_3 A_3^* A_3)^* ((A_1 A_1^* A_1)^* M (A_3 A_3^* A_3)^*)^\dagger (A_1 A_1^* A_1)^*$;
- (b) $\mathcal{R}((A_1^* A_1 A_1^*)^2 M) = \mathcal{R}(M)$ and $\mathcal{R}((A_3^* A_3)^3 M^*) = \mathcal{R}(M^*)$.

Proof. An immediate computation, analogous to the one from Theorem 2.1, yields:

$$M_1^\dagger = D_3^{3/2} (A_{11}^* A_{11} A_{11}^* M_1 D_3^{3/2})^\dagger (A_{11}^* A_{11} A_{11}^*),$$

or, equivalently,

$$(A_{11}^* A_{11} A_{11}^* M_1 D_3^{3/2})^\dagger = D_3^{-3/2} M_1^\dagger (A_{11}^* A_{11} A_{11}^*)^{-1},$$

which, by Lemma 1.5, holds if and only if:

$$[(A_{11}^* A_{11} A_{11}^*)^2, M_1 M_1^\dagger] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad [D_3^3, M_1^\dagger M_1] = 0.$$

This shows that (a) is equivalent to (b). \square

Previous theorem can be generalized in the following way.

Proposition 2.5. *Under the assumptions of Theorem 2.6, the following statements are equivalent (k is a non-negative integer):*

- (a) $M^\dagger = (A_3 A_3^* A_3)^* [((A_1 A_1^* A_1)^*)^k M (A_3 A_3^* A_3)]^\dagger ((A_1 A_1^* A_1)^*)^k$,
- (a) $\mathcal{R}((A_1 A_1^*)^{3k} M) = \mathcal{R}(M)$ and $\mathcal{R}((A_3^* A_3)^3 M^*) = \mathcal{R}(M^*)$.

Proof. We start with the following:

$$S = A_3 A_3^* A_3 = \begin{pmatrix} A_{31} D_3 & 0 \\ A_{32} D_3 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

which means that

$$S^* = \begin{pmatrix} D_3 A_{31}^* & D_3 A_{32}^* \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

and also

$$S^\dagger = (S^* S)^\dagger S^* = \begin{pmatrix} (D_3)^{-2} A_{31}^* & D_3^{-2} A_{32}^* \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Now we denote:

$$\begin{aligned} W &= ((A_1 A_1^* A_1)^*)^k M (A_3 A_3^* A_3)^* \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} ((A_{11} A_{11}^* A_{11})^*)^k M_1 D_3 A_{31}^* & ((A_{11} A_{11}^* A_{11})^*)^k M_1 D_3 A_{32}^* \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \end{aligned}$$

and find W^\dagger by using $W^\dagger = W^* (W W^*)^\dagger$ that:

$$W^\dagger = W^* (W W^*)^\dagger = \begin{pmatrix} A_{31} D_3^{-1/2} (((A_{11} A_{11}^* A_{11})^*)^k M_1 D_3^{3/2})^\dagger & 0 \\ A_{32} D_3^{-1/2} (((A_{11} A_{11}^* A_{11})^*)^k M_1 D_3^{3/2})^\dagger & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Therefore,

$$M^\dagger = ((A_3 A_3^* A_3)^*)^l W^\dagger ((A_1 A_1^* A_1)^*)^k$$

is equivalent to:

$$M_1^\dagger = D_3^{3/2} (((A_{11} A_{11}^* A_{11})^*)^k M_1 D_3^{3/2})^\dagger ((A_{11} A_{11}^* A_{11})^*)^k,$$

or in other words:

$$(((A_{11} A_{11}^* A_{11})^*)^k M_1 D_3^{3/2})^\dagger = D_3^{-3/2} M_1^\dagger ((A_{11} A_{11}^* A_{11})^*)^{-k}.$$

By the Penrose equations the last condition holds if and only if the following is satisfied:

$$[(A_{11} A_{11}^*)^{3k}, M_1 M_1^\dagger] = 0 \text{ and } [D_3^3, M_1^\dagger M_1] = 0.$$

On the other hand, by Lemma 1.5, the last conditions are equivalent to

$$\mathcal{R}((A_1 A_1^*)^{3k} M) = \mathcal{R}(M) \text{ and } \mathcal{R}((A_3^* A_3)^3 M^*) = \mathcal{R}(M^*).$$

This completes the proof. \square

Previous proposition is valid also in a slightly different form:

Proposition 2.6. *Under the conditions of Theorem 2.6, the following statements are equivalent (l is a non-negative integer):*

- (a) $M^\dagger = ((A_3 A_3^* A_3)^*)^l [(A_1 A_1^* A_1)^* M ((A_3 A_3^* A_3)^*)^l]^\dagger (A_1 A_1^* A_1)^*$,
- (b) $\mathcal{R}((A_1 A_1^*)^3 M) = \mathcal{R}(M)$ and $\mathcal{R}((A_3^* A_3)^{3l} M^*) = \mathcal{R}(M^*)$.

Proof. We use the approach similar to the one used in previous proposition, but space decompositions are different here:

$$A_3 = \begin{bmatrix} A_{31} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} : \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{R}(A_3^*) \\ \mathcal{N}(A_3) \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{R}(A_3) \\ \mathcal{N}(A_3^*) \end{bmatrix},$$

where A_{31} is invertible, and

$$A_k = \begin{bmatrix} A_{k1} & A_{k2} \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} : \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{R}(A_{k+1}^*) \\ \mathcal{N}(A_{k+1}^*) \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{R}(A_k) \\ \mathcal{N}(A_k^*) \end{bmatrix}, \quad k = \overline{1, 2},$$

where $D_k = A_{k1} A_{k1}^* + A_{k2} A_{k2}^*$ is invertible and positive in $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{R}(A_{k+1}^*))$. Now we obtain:

$$M^\dagger = ((A_3 A_3^* A_3)^*)^l W^\dagger (A_1 A_1^* A_1)^*,$$

which is equivalent to:

$$M_1^\dagger = ((A_{31} A_{31}^* A_{31})^*)^l (D_1^{\frac{3}{2}} M_1 (((A_{31} A_{31}^* A_{31})^*)^l))^\dagger D_1^{\frac{3}{2}}.$$

The remains of the proof is clear. \square

Theorem 2.7. *Let $A_1, A_3, M, ((A_1 A_1^*)^2)^\dagger M ((A_3^* A_3)^2)^\dagger$ have closed ranges. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

- (a) $M^\dagger = ((A_3^* A_3)^\dagger)^2 [((A_1 A_1^*)^2)^\dagger M ((A_3^* A_3)^2)^\dagger]^\dagger ((A_1 A_1^*)^\dagger)^2$;
- (b) $\mathcal{R}((A_1 A_1^*)^4 M) = \mathcal{R}(M)$ and $\mathcal{R}((D_3)^4 M^*) = \mathcal{R}(M^*)$.

Proof. An immediate computation, analogous to the one from Theorem 2.1, yields that (a) is equivalent to:

$$M_1^\dagger = D_3^{-2} ((A_{11} A_{11}^*)^2 M_1 D_3^{-2})^\dagger (A_{11} A_{11}^*)^{-2},$$

or

$$((A_{11}A_{11}^*)^{-2}M_1D_3^{-2})^\dagger = D_3^2M_1^\dagger(A_{11}A_{11}^*)^2$$

which, by Penrose equations, holds if and only if:

$$[(A_{11}A_{11}^*)^4, M_1M_1^\dagger] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad [D_3^4, M_1^\dagger M_1] = 0.$$

By Lemma 1.5, the last statement is equivalent to (b). \square

Remark 2.3. *In the same way as in previous remarks, the equation*

$$M^\dagger = ((A_3^*A_3)^\dagger)^2 [((A_1A_1^*)^2)^\dagger M (A_3^*A_3)^2]^\dagger ((A_1A_1^*)^\dagger)^2$$

is often replaced by its equivalent:

$$M^\dagger = ((A_3^*A_3)^\dagger)^2 ((A_1^*A_1A_1^*)^\dagger A_2 (A_3^*A_3A_3^*)^\dagger ((A_1A_1^*)^\dagger)^2.$$

Previous theorem can be generalized in the following way.

Proposition 2.7. *Under the assumptions of Theorem 2.7, the following statements are equivalent (k and l are non-negative integers):*

- (a) $M^\dagger = ((A_3^*A_3)^\dagger)^{2l} [((A_1A_1^*)^{2k})^\dagger M (A_3^*A_3)^{2l}]^\dagger ((A_1A_1^*)^\dagger)^{2k}$,
- (b) $\mathcal{R}((A_1A_1^*)^{4k}M) = \mathcal{R}(M)$ and $\mathcal{R}((A_3^*A_3)^{4l}M^*) = \mathcal{R}(M^*)$.

Proof. An immediate computation, analogous to the one from Theorem 2.1, yields:

$$M_1^\dagger = D_3^{-2l} ((A_{11}^*A_{11}A_{11}^*)^{-2k} A_{11}^{-1} M_1 D_3^{-2l})^\dagger (A_{11}A_{11}^*)^{-2k},$$

or

$$((A_{11}A_{11}^*)^{-2k} M_1 D_3^{-2l})^\dagger = D_3^{2l} M_1^\dagger (A_{11}A_{11}^*)^{2k}$$

which, by Lemma 1.5, holds if and only if:

$$[(A_{11}A_{11}^*)^{4k}, M_1M_1^\dagger] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad [D_3^{4l}, M_1^\dagger M_1] = 0.$$

\square

Theorem 2.8. *Let $A_1, A_3, M, (A_1A_1^*)^2M(A_3^*A_3)^2$ have closed ranges. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

- (a) $M^\dagger = (A_3^*A_3)^2 ((A_1A_1^*)^2 M (A_3^*A_3)^2)^\dagger (A_1A_1^*)^2$;
- (b) $\mathcal{R}((A_1A_1^*)^4M) = \mathcal{R}(M)$ and $\mathcal{R}((A_3^*A_3)^4M^*) = \mathcal{R}(M^*)$.

Proof. An immediate computation, analogous to the one from Theorem 2.1, shows that (a) is equivalent to the following:

$$M_1^\dagger = D_3^2((A_{11}A_{11}^*)^2 M_1 D_3^2)^\dagger (A_{11}A_{11}^*)^2,$$

or, equivalently,

$$((A_{11}A_{11}^*)^2 M_1 D_3^2)^\dagger = D_3^{-2} M_1^\dagger (A_{11}A_{11}^*)^{-2},$$

which, by Penrose equations, is equivalent to

$$[(A_{11}A_{11}^*)^4, M_1 M_1^\dagger] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad [D_3^4, M_1^\dagger M_1] = 0.$$

By Lemma 1.5, the last statements is equivalent to (b). \square

Previous theorem can be generalized in the following way.

Proposition 2.8. *Under the assumptions of the Theorem 2.8, the following statements are equivalent (k and l are non-negative integers):*

- (a) $M^\dagger = ((A_3^* A_3)^*)^{2l} ((A_1 A_1^*)^*)^{2k} M ((A_3^* A_3)^*)^{2l} ((A_1 A_1^*)^*)^{2k}$,
- (b) $\mathcal{R}((A_1 A_1^*)^{4k} M) = \mathcal{R}(M)$ and $\mathcal{R}((A_3^* A_3)^{4l} M^*) = \mathcal{R}(M^*)$.

Proof. An immediate computation, analogous to the one from Theorem 2.1, yields:

$$M_1^\dagger = D_3^{2l} ((A_{11}A_{11}^*)^{2k} M_1 D_3^{2l})^\dagger (A_{11}A_{11}^*)^{2k},$$

or, equivalently,

$$((A_{11}A_{11}^*)^{2k} M_1 D_3^{2l})^\dagger = D_3^{-2l} M_1^\dagger (A_{11}A_{11}^*)^{-2k},$$

which, by Lemma 1.5, holds if and only if:

$$[(A_{11}A_{11}^*)^{4k}, M_1 M_1^\dagger] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad [D_3^{4l}, M_1^\dagger M_1] = 0.$$

\square

3 Some equivalencies

The results presented in previous section are connected as follows.

Theorem 3.1. *The following statements are equivalent (provided that we apply the Moore-Penrose inverse to closed range operators):*

- (a) $M^\dagger = A_3^\dagger (A_1^\dagger M A_3^\dagger)^\dagger A_1^\dagger$;

- (b) $M^\dagger = A_3^*(A_1^*MA_3^*)^\dagger A_1^*$;
- (c) $A_3^\dagger(A_1^\dagger MA_3^\dagger)^\dagger A_1^\dagger = (A_3^*A_3)^\dagger((A_1A_1^*)^\dagger M(A_3^*A_3)^\dagger)^\dagger(A_1A_1^*)^\dagger$;
- (d) $A_3^*(A_1^\dagger MA_3^\dagger)^\dagger A_1^* = A_3^*A_3M^\dagger A_1A_1^*$;
- (e) $A_3^*(A_1^*MA_3^*)^\dagger A_1^* = A_3^*A_3(A_1A_1^*MA_3^*A_3)^\dagger A_1A_1^*$;
- (f) $\mathcal{R}(A_1A_1^*M) = \mathcal{R}(M)$ and $\mathcal{R}(A_3^*A_3M^*) = \mathcal{R}(M^*)$.

Proof. From Theorem 2.1 and Theorem 2.2 it follows that (a) \Leftrightarrow (b) \Leftrightarrow (f). Using the method described in those two theorems, we easily conclude that:

$$(c) \Leftrightarrow D_3^{-1/2}(A_{11}^{-1}M_1D_3^{-1/2})^\dagger A_{11}^{-1} = D_3^{-1}((A_{11}A_{11}^*)^{-1}M_1D_3^{-1})^\dagger(A_{11}A_{11}^*)^{-1};$$

while:

$$(e) \Leftrightarrow D_3^{1/2}(A_{11}^*M_1D_3^{1/2})^\dagger A_{11}^* = D_3(A_{11}A_{11}^*M_1D_3)^\dagger A_{11}A_{11}^*.$$

Let us now prove (e) \Leftrightarrow (f). We have the following:

$$(e) \Leftrightarrow (A_{11}^*M_1D_3^{1/2})^\dagger = D_3^{1/2}(A_{11}A_{11}^*M_1D_3^{1/2})^\dagger A_{11}.$$

Let us now denote $X = A_{11}^*M_1D_3^{1/2}$, $B = A_{11}$ and $C = D_3^{1/2}$. By Lemma 1.6, we have the following chain of the equivalencies:

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathcal{R}(A_{11}^*A_{11}A_{11}^*M_1D_3^{1/2}) = \mathcal{R}(A_{11}^*M_1D_3^{1/2}) \text{ and } \mathcal{N}(A_{11}^*M_1D_3^{3/2}) = \mathcal{N}(A_{11}^*M_1D_3^{1/2}) \\ \Leftrightarrow & \mathcal{R}(A_{11}^*A_{11}A_{11}^*M_1D_3^{1/2}) = \mathcal{R}(A_{11}^*M_1D_3^{1/2}) \text{ and } \mathcal{R}(D_3^{3/2}M_1^*A_{11}) = \mathcal{R}(D_3^{1/2}M_1^*A_{11}) \\ \Leftrightarrow & \mathcal{R}(A_{11}A_{11}^*M_1D_3^{1/2}) = \mathcal{R}(M_1D_3^{1/2}) \text{ and } \mathcal{R}(D_3M_1^*A_{11}) = \mathcal{R}(M_1^*A_{11}) \\ \Leftrightarrow & \mathcal{R}(A_{11}A_{11}^*M_1) = \mathcal{R}(M_1) \text{ and } \mathcal{R}(D_3M_1^*) = \mathcal{R}(M_1^*). \end{aligned}$$

The last expression is, by Lemma 1.5, equivalent to (f), so we have just proved (e) \Leftrightarrow (f). (During the proof, an obvious fact: $\mathcal{R}(PQ) = \mathcal{R}(SQ) \Rightarrow \mathcal{R}(P) = \mathcal{R}(Q)$ if Q is invertible, is used.)

Analogously, (c) \Leftrightarrow (f) can be proved.

On the other hand,

$$(d) \Leftrightarrow (A_{11}^{-1}M_1D_3^{-1/2})^\dagger = D_3^{1/2}M_1^\dagger A_{11},$$

which is obviously equivalent to the (f).

□

Theorem 3.2. *The following statements are equivalent (provided that we apply the Moore-Penrose inverse to closed range operators):*

- (a) $M^\dagger = (A_3^*A_3)^\dagger((A_1A_1^*)^\dagger M(A_3^*A_3)^\dagger)^\dagger(A_1A_1^*)^\dagger$;
- (b) $M^\dagger = A_3^*A_3(A_1A_1^*MA_3^*A_3)^\dagger A_1A_1^*$;
- (c) $A_3^\dagger(A_1^\dagger MA_3^\dagger)^\dagger A_1^\dagger = A_3^*(A_1^*MA_3^*)^\dagger A_1^*$;
- (d) $\mathcal{R}((A_1A_1^*)^2M) = \mathcal{R}(M)$ and $\mathcal{R}((A_3^*A_3)^2M^*) = \mathcal{R}(M^*)$.

Proof. From Theorem 2.3 and Theorem 2.4 it follows that (a) \Leftrightarrow (b) \Leftrightarrow (d). Using the method described in those two theorems, we easily conclude that:

$$(c) \Leftrightarrow D_3^{-1/2}(A_{11}^{-1}M_1D_3^{-1/2})^\dagger A_{11}^{-1} = D_3^{1/2}(A_{11}^*M_1D_3^{1/2})^\dagger A_{11}^*.$$

Using the method described in the proof of Theorem 3.1 (phase (e) \Leftrightarrow (f)), it is easy to conclude (c) \Leftrightarrow (e). \square

Theorem 3.3. *The following statements are equivalent (provided that we apply the Moore-Penrose inverse to closed range operators):*

- (a) $M^\dagger = (A_3A_3^*A_3)^\dagger((A_1A_1^*A_1)^\dagger M(A_3A_3^*A_3)^\dagger)^\dagger(A_1A_1^*A_1)^\dagger$;
- (b) $M^\dagger = (A_3A_3^*A_3)^*((A_1A_1^*A_1)^*M(A_3A_3^*A_3)^*)^\dagger(A_1A_1^*A_1)^*$;
- (c) $A_3^\dagger(A_1^\dagger MA_3^\dagger)^\dagger A_1^\dagger = A_3^*A_3(A_1A_1^*MA_3^*A_3)^\dagger A_1A_1^*$;
- (d) $(A_1^\dagger MA_3^\dagger)^\dagger = A_3A_3^*A_3(A_1A_1^*MA_3^*A_3)^\dagger A_1A_1^*A_1$;
- (e) $\mathcal{R}((A_1A_1^*)^3M) = \mathcal{R}(M)$ and $\mathcal{R}((A_3^*A_3)^3M^*) = \mathcal{R}(M^*)$.

Proof. From Theorem 2.5 and Theorem 2.6 it follows that (a) \Leftrightarrow (b) \Leftrightarrow (e). Using the method described in those two theorems, we easily conclude that:

$$(c) \Leftrightarrow D_3^{-1/2}(A_{11}^{-1}M_1D_3^{-1/2})^\dagger A_{11}^{-1} = D_3(A_{11}A_{11}^*M_1D_3)^\dagger A_{11}A_{11}^*;$$

also

$$(d) \Leftrightarrow A_{3i}D_3(A_{11}A_{11}^*M_1D_3)^\dagger A_{11}A_{11}^*A_{11} = A_{3i}D_3^{-1/2}(A_{11}^{-1}M_1D_3^{-1/2})^\dagger, \quad i = 1, 2.$$

Using the method described in the proof of Theorem 3.1(phase (e) \Leftrightarrow (f)), it is easy to conclude (c) \Leftrightarrow (e) and (d) \Leftrightarrow (e). \square

Theorem 3.4. *The following statements are equivalent (provided that we apply the Moore-Penrose inverse to closed range operators):*

- (a) $M^\dagger = ((A_3^*A_3)^\dagger)^2(((A_1A_1^*)^2)^\dagger M((A_3^*A_3)^2)^\dagger)^\dagger((A_1A_1^*)^\dagger)^2$;
- (b) $M^\dagger = (A_3^*A_3)^2((A_1A_1^*)^2 M(A_3^*A_3)^2)^\dagger(A_1A_1^*)^2$;
- (c) $\mathcal{R}((A_1A_1^*)^4 M) = \mathcal{R}(M)$ and $\mathcal{R}((A_3^*A_3)^4 M^*) = \mathcal{R}(M^*)$.

Proof. From Theorem 2.7 and Theorem 2.8 it follows that (a) \Leftrightarrow (b) \Leftrightarrow (c). □

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