

## SOME REMARKS ON POSSIBLE GENERALIZED INVERSES IN SEMIGROUPS

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**Abstract.** For a given element  $a$  of a semigroup  $S$  it is possible that the system of equations in  $x$ :  $axa = a$ ,  $ax = xa$  is inconsistent, and that one or both systems  $(S_k): a^{k+1}x = a^k$ ,  $ax = xa$  and  $(\Sigma_k): axa = a$ ,  $a^kx = xa^k$  are consistent for some positive integer  $k$ , in which case they have more than one solution. Some relations between those two systems are established. However, the chief aim of this note is to investigate the possibilities of extending  $(S_k)$ , by adding new balanced equations, so that this new system has unique solution. It is proved that if the extended system has unique solution, then the generalized inverse of  $a$ , defined by it, must be the Drazin inverse. It is also shown that the system  $(\Sigma_2) \wedge ax^2 = x^2a \wedge xax = x$  cannot be extended into a system with unique solution.

1. Let  $S$  be a semigroup and let  $a$  be a fixed element of  $S$ . A term  $t(a, x)$  made up from  $a$  and a variable  $x \in S$  is called an  $(a, x)$ -term. Clearly, any  $(a, x)$ -term has the form

$$(1) \quad a^{n_1} x^{m_1} a^{n_2} x^{m_2} \dots a^{n_s} x^{m_s},$$

where  $s \in N$ ,  $n_i \in N$  for  $i = 2, \dots, s$ ;  $m_i \in N$  for  $i = 1, \dots, s-1$ ,  $n_1, m_s \in N_0$ . If  $n_1 = 0$  then the term (1) begins with  $x^{m_1}$ , and if  $m_s = 0$  then it ends with  $a^{n_s}$ .

Let  $t_1(a, x), \dots, t_r(a, x)$ ,  $t'_1(a, x), \dots, t'_r(a, x)$  be  $(a, x)$ -terms. For a given  $a \in S$  the system of equations in  $x$ :

$$(2) \quad t_1(a, x) = t'_1(a, x), \dots, t_r(a, x) = t'_r(a, x)$$

will be called an  $(a, x)$ -system.

Suppose that  $\sigma(a, x)$  is an  $(a, x)$ -system. If there exists an  $(a, x)$ -term  $t(a, x)$  such that

$$\sigma(a, u) \wedge \sigma(a, v) \Rightarrow t(a, u) = t(a, v)$$

we say that  $t(a, x)$  is an invariant of the system  $\sigma(a, x)$ . The following example will be needed later.

E.1. If  $k \in N$ , the term  $a^k x^{k+1}$  is an invariant of the system

$$\sigma(a, x): \quad a^{k+1}x = a^k, \quad ax = xa.$$

Indeed,

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma(a, u) \wedge \sigma(a, v) &\Leftrightarrow a^{k+1}u = a^k, \quad au = ua, \quad a^{k+1}v = a^k, \quad av = va \\ &\Rightarrow a^k u^{k+1} = a^{k+1} v u^{k+1} = v a^{k+1} u^{k+1} = v a^k u^k \\ &= a^k v u^k = a^k v^2 u^{k-1} = \dots = a^k v^{k+1}. \end{aligned}$$

The following assertion is obvious.

A.1. *If  $t(a, x)$  is an invariant of the system  $\sigma(a, x)$ , then the system  $\sigma(a, x) \wedge t(a, x) = x$  can have at most one solution.*

If  $t_1(a, x) = a^{n_1} x^{m_1} \dots a^{n_s} x^{m_s}$ ,  $t_2(a, x) = a^{n'_1} x^{m'_1} \dots a^{n'_t} x^{m'_t}$  are two  $(a, x)$ -terms, we say that the formula  $t_1(a, x) = t_2(a, x)$  is balanced if

$$n_1 + \dots + n_s - (n'_1 + \dots + n'_t) = m_1 + \dots + m_s - (m'_1 + \dots + m'_t).$$

If all the equations of the system (2) are balanced, we say that (2) is a balanced  $(a, x)$ -system.

A balanced  $(a, x)$ -system has the property that it reduces to a system of identities in the case when  $x$  is the true inverse of  $a$  (if  $S$  is a monoid). Hence, any balanced  $(a, x)$ -system can be taken to define a generalized (pseudo, quasi) inverse of  $a$ .

**2.** Our starting point will be the  $(a, x)$ -system

$$(3) \quad axa = a, \quad ax = xa$$

which defines a rather pleasant generalized inverse of  $a$ . Namely, it is well known that if the system (3) is consistent, then the system

$$(4) \quad axa = a, \quad ax = xa, \quad xax = x$$

has unique solution  $a^\#$ . This generalized inverse  $a^\#$  has most of the properties of the true inverse, e.g.  $a^\#\# = a$ .

However, if the system (3) is inconsistent, then it is possible that for some integer  $k(> 1)$  one or both systems

$$(S_k) \quad a^{k+1}x = a^k, \quad ax = xa$$

and

$$(\Sigma_k) \quad axa = a, \quad a^k x = xa^k,$$

which for  $k = 1$  reduce to (3), are consistent.

The system  $(S_k)$  was considered by Drazin [1] who showed that the system

$$(D_k) \quad a^{k+1}x = a^k, \quad ax = xa, \quad ax^2 = x$$

can have at most one solution. If the system  $(D_k)$  is consistent, its unique solution is called the Drazin inverse of  $a$  and is denoted by  $a^D$ . However, some of the properties of  $a^\#$  are lost; in particular  $a^{DD}$  need not be equal to  $a$ .

The system  $(\Sigma_k)$  was considered, in connection with matrices, in a number of papers, e.g. in [2], [3], [4].

Clearly, if the system  $(S_k)$  is consistent for some  $k \in N$ , then the system  $(S_{k+1})$  is also consistent, while the converse need not be true, and the same holds for the system  $(\Sigma_k)$ . If  $k$  is the smallest positive integer such that  $(S_k)$  is consistent, following Drazin we say that the index of  $a$  is  $k$  and we write  $i(a) = k$ . Similarly, if  $k$  is the smallest positive integer such that  $(\Sigma_k)$  is consistent, we say that the  $\Sigma$ -index of  $a$  is  $k$  and we write  $i^*(a) = k$ . Besides, if  $S$  is a monoid and if  $a$  has its true inverse, we say that  $i(a) = i^*(a) = 0$ .

A.2. *If the system  $(\Sigma_k)$  is consistent, then the system  $(S_k)$  is also consistent. The converse need not be true.*

*Proof.* If  $a_0$  is a solution of the system  $(\Sigma_k)$ , then  $a^k a_0^{k+1}$  is a solution of the system  $(S_k)$ . That the converse need not be true is shown by the following example.

E.2. Consider the semigroup  $S = \{a, b, c\}$ , where  $c^2 = a$  and  $xy = b$  in all other cases. Then  $i(a) = 2$ ,  $i(c) = 3$ , but  $i^*(a)$  and  $i^*(c)$  do not exist.

A.3. *We have:  $i^*(a) = 1 \Leftrightarrow i(a) = 1$ ,  $i^*(a) = 2 \Rightarrow i(a) = 2$ , and*

$$(5) \quad i^*(a) = k \Rightarrow i(a) \leq k, \quad \text{for} \quad k \geq 3.$$

*Proof.* This is an easy consequence of A.2.

The implication (5) suggests the following question:

Q.1. Is there a semigroup in which, for some  $k > 2$ , both systems  $(\Sigma_k)$  and  $(S_{k-1})$  are consistent, while  $(\Sigma_{k-1})$  is inconsistent?

An affirmative answer would imply that the inequality in (5) can be strict.

There exist semigroups in which every element  $a$  has both indices and  $i(a) = i^*(a)$ .

E.3. Let  $M_n$  be the semigroup of all real matrices of order  $n$ . If  $a \in M_n$  and if  $a$  is nonsingular, then  $i(a) = i^*(a) = 0$ . If  $a$  is singular, then it has one of the following forms

$$(6) \quad a = TNT^{-1} \quad \text{or} \quad a = T(N \oplus R)T^{-1},$$

where  $T$  and  $R$  are nonsingular and  $N$  is nilpotent.

Suppose that  $i(a) = k$ , i.e. that  $(S_k)$  has a solution  $x$  and that  $(S_{k-1})$  does not have a solution. Depending on the form of  $a$ , write  $x$  as

$$x = TPT^{-1} \quad \text{or} \quad x = T \begin{Bmatrix} P & Q \\ U & V \end{Bmatrix} T^{-1}.$$

From the equation  $a^{k+1}x = a^kx$  we get, in both cases,  $N^{k+1}P = N^kP$ . The equality  $N^{k-1} = 0$  implies that  $(S_{k-1})$  has a solution; hence,  $N^{k-1} \neq 0$ . We have

$$N^k = N^{k+1}P = NN^kP = N(N^{k+1}P)P = N^{k+2}P^2 = N^{k+3}P^3 = \dots = 0,$$

since  $N$  is nilpotent. But then

$$x = TPT^{-1} \quad \text{or} \quad x = T(P \oplus R^{-1})T^{-1}$$

where  $NPN = N$  (e.g.  $P = N^+$ , the Moore-Penrose inverse of  $N$ ) is a solution of  $(\Sigma_k)$ . Furthermore,  $(\Sigma_{k-1})$  has no solution, for if this system had a solution, according to A.2 the system  $(S_{k-1})$  would also have a solution, contrary to the hypothesis. Hence,  $i(a) = k \Rightarrow i^*(a) = k$ .

Conversely, suppose that  $i^*(a) = k$ . We know that  $i(a) \leq k$ . However, if  $i(a) = p < k$ , then  $i^*(a) = p < k$ , contrary to the hypothesis, and so  $i^*(a) = k \Leftrightarrow i(a) = k$ .

Finally, since every singular matrix  $a \in M_n$  has the form (6) where  $N^{k-1} \neq 0$ ,  $N^k = 0$  for some positive integer  $k$ , then for that  $k$  the systems  $(S_k)$  and  $(\Sigma_k)$  are consistent, the systems  $(S_{k-1})$  and  $(\Sigma_{k-1})$  are inconsistent, and hence  $a$  has both indices and  $i(a) = i^*(a)$ .

*Remark.* The index of a matrix  $a$ ,  $\text{Ind } a$ , is usually defined (see [5]) as the smallest positive integer  $k$  such that  $\text{rank } a^{k+1} = \text{rank } a^k$ . Clearly,  $\text{Ind } a = i(a) = i^*(a)$ .

The above matrix example suggests the following question:

Q.2. Describe the semigroups in which  $i^*(a) = k \Leftrightarrow i(a) = k$ .

**3.** Starting with  $(S_k)$  we consider, in this section, all possible balanced  $(a, x)$ -systems which contain  $(S_k)$  as a subsystem. Having in mind the equations  $(S_k)$ , all  $(a, x)$ -terms are

$$a^n \text{ and } a^m x^n \text{ where } m \in \{0, 1, \dots, k\}, \quad n \in N.$$

Therefore, all balanced  $(a, x)$ -equations are:

$$(B_{m,n,r}) \begin{cases} a^{m+r} x^{n+r} = a^m x^n \\ m \in \{0, 1, \dots, k-1\}, \quad r \in \{1, 2, \dots, k\}, \quad 1 \leq m+r \leq k, \quad n \in N \end{cases}$$

Then, trivially:

$$\text{A.4. } (B_{m,n,r}) \Rightarrow (B_{m+1,n,r}),$$

$$\text{A.5. } (B_{m,n,r}) \Rightarrow (B_{m,n+1,r}),$$

and the converse implications need not be true. Furthermore, we have:

$$\text{A.6. } (S_k) \wedge (B_{m,n,p}) \Leftrightarrow (S_k) \wedge (B_{m,n,q}).$$

*Proof.* This equivalence follows from:

$$\begin{aligned} a^{m+1}x^{n+1} = a^m x^n &\Rightarrow a^{m+2}x^{n+2} = a^{m+1}x^{n+1} \Rightarrow a^{m+2}x^{n+2} = a^m x^n \Rightarrow \dots \\ &\Rightarrow a^{m+p}x^{n+p} = a^m x^n \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow a^{m+q}x^{n+q} = a^m x^n \Rightarrow \dots \\ &\Rightarrow a^k x^{k+n-m} = a^m x^n \Rightarrow a^{k+1}x^{k+n-m+1} = a^{m+1}x^{n+1} \\ &\Rightarrow a^k x^{k+n-m} = a^{m+1}x^{n+1} \Rightarrow a^{m+1}x^{n+1} = a^m x^n, \end{aligned}$$

where it was supposed that  $p < q$ .

A.7. If  $a_0$  is a solution of the system  $(S_k)$ , then

$$(7) \quad a^k a_0^{k+1}, \quad a^{k-1} a_0^k, \dots, a^{k-m} a_0^{k-m+1}$$

are solutions of the system  $(S_k) \wedge (B_{m,n,r})$ .

*Proof.* Direct verification.

A.8. The solutions (7) can be mutually different.

This is shown by the following example.

E.4. If

$$a = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{vmatrix} \in M_3, \quad \text{then} \quad a_0 = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

is a solution of the system  $(S_3)$ , and the matrices  $a^3 a_0^4$ ,  $a^2 a_0^3$ ,  $a a_0^2$  are different from one another.

A.9. If the system  $(S_k)$  is consistent, then the system  $(S_k) \wedge (B_{m,n,r})$  is also consistent.

A.10. If  $m \geq 1$ , the system  $(S_k) \wedge (B_{m,n,r})$  can have more than one solution.

Assertions A.9 and A.10 are easy consequences of A.7 and A.8.

A.11. If  $n > 1$ , the system  $(S_k) \wedge (B_{m,n,r})$  can have more than one solution, as shown by the following example.

E.5. If  $a = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{vmatrix} \in M_2$ , then for arbitrary  $\alpha \in R$ , the matrix  $\begin{vmatrix} 0 & \alpha \\ 0 & 0 \end{vmatrix}$  is a solution of the system  $(S_2) \wedge (B_{0,2,1})$ .

A.12. The system  $(S_k) \wedge (B_{0,1,r})$  can have at most one solution.

*Proof.* Since the term  $a^k x^{k+1}$  is an invariant (see E.1) of the system  $(S_k)$ , the system  $(S_k) \wedge (B_{0,1,k})$  cannot have more than one solution. On the other hand, according to A.6 all the systems  $(S_k) \wedge (B_{0,1,r})$  are equivalent.

We are now able to prove the following

**THEOREM 1.** *If the system  $(S_k)$  is consistent, the only possible unique generalized inverse of  $a$ , defined by a system containing  $(S_k)$  as a subsystem, is the Drazin inverse  $a^D$ .*

*Proof.* If  $(S_k)$  is consistent, according to A.6 any system  $(S_k) \wedge (B_{m,n,r})$  is also consistent. According to A.10 and A.11 it can have more than one solution if  $m \geq 1$  or  $n > 1$ , while according to A.12 it has exactly one solution if  $m = 0$ ,  $n = 1$ . Since all the systems  $(S_k) \wedge (B_{0,1,r})$  are equivalent, we see that  $(S_k) \wedge (B_{0,1,r}) \Leftrightarrow (S_k) \wedge (B_{0,1,1})$  and this is the Drazin system  $(D_k)$ .

4. In this section we briefly consider the following two systems

$$(8) \quad axa = a, \quad a^2x = xa^2, \quad ax^2 = x^2a$$

and

$$(9) \quad axa = a, \quad a^2x = xa^2, \quad ax^2 = x^2a, \quad xax = x$$

which contain  $(\Sigma_2)$  as a subsystem.

There exist semigroups in which

$$(10) \quad (\Sigma_2) \text{ is consistent} \Leftrightarrow (8) \text{ is consistent.}$$

E.6. Such a semigroup is  $M_n$ . Indeed, if  $a \in M_n$  and if  $a$  is nonsingular then (10) is true. If  $a$  is singular, its minimum polynomial has the form

$$t^m + \alpha_{m-1}t^{m-1} + \cdots + \alpha_1t \quad (n \geq m).$$

If  $\alpha_1 \neq 0$ , then  $i(a) = i^*(a) = 1$  and (10) is true. If  $\alpha_1 = 0$ ,  $\alpha_2 \neq 0$ ,  $a$  has the form

$$a = T(N \oplus R)T^{-1}, \quad \text{where} \quad N = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

while  $T$  and  $R$  are nonsingular. However, in that case

$$T(M \oplus R^{-1})T^{-1}, \quad \text{where} \quad M = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

is a solution of both  $(\Sigma_2)$  and (8), and (10) is true.

If  $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = 0$ , the system  $(\Sigma_2)$  is inconsistent, and (10) is again true.

The above example suggests the following question:

Q.3. Is there a semigroup in which  $(\Sigma_2)$  is consistent and (8) is inconsistent?

On the other hand, in any semigroup we have

A.13. *The system (8) is consistent if and only if the system (9) is consistent.*

*Proof.* If  $a_0$  is a solution of the system (8), then  $a_0aa_0$  is a solution of the system (9).

A.14. *The system (9) can have more than one solution, as shown by the following example.*

E.7. In the semigroup  $M_2$  let  $a = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ . Any matrix  $\begin{pmatrix} \alpha & -\alpha^2 \\ 1 & -\alpha \end{pmatrix}$  where  $\alpha$  is arbitrary, is a solution of (9).

A.15. *The term  $x^2$  is an invariant of the system (9); in other words, if  $u$  and  $v$  are solutions of (9), then  $u^2 = v^2$ .*

*Proof.* If  $u$  and  $v$  are solutions of (9) then

$$\begin{aligned} u^2 &= uau^2 = u^3a \Rightarrow u^3 = u^4a \Rightarrow u^2 = u^3a = (u^4a)a = u^4a^2, \\ v^2 &= v^2av = av^3 \Rightarrow v^3 = av^4 \Rightarrow v^2 = a^2v^4. \end{aligned}$$

Furthermore,

$$\begin{aligned} u^2 &= u^4a^2 = u^4(ava)(ava) = u^4a^3v^2a = u^4a^4v^2 = u^4a^2a^2v = u^2a^2v^2, \\ v^2 &= a^2v^4 = au^2a^2uav^4 = au^2a^3v^4 = u^2a^4v^4 = u^2a^2a^2v^4 = u^2a^2v^2, \end{aligned}$$

implying  $u^2 = v^2$ .

Suppose now that  $i^*(a) = 2$ . This means that the systems (9) and  $(D_2)$  cannot have a common solution. On the other hand, we have

A.16. *If  $u$  is any solution of (9) and if  $v$  is (the unique) solution of  $(D_2)$ , then  $u^2 = v^2$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $u$  be a solution of (9) and let  $v$  be the unique solution of  $(D_2)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} u^2 &= uauuau = u^3a^2u = u^3(a^3v)u = u^2ua^2avu = u^2(a^2ua)vu \\ &= u^2a^2vu = u^2(a^3v)vu = u^2a^3v^2u = ua^2uav^2u = ua^2v^2u = ua^3v^3u \\ &= a^2uav^3u = a^2v^3u = v^3a^2u = v^3ua^2 = v^4aua^2 = v^4a^2 = v^2. \end{aligned}$$

If the system (8) is consistent, then by A.13 the system (9) is also consistent, but by A.14 it can have more than one solution. We therefore look for a balanced  $(a, x)$ -system which contains (9) as a subsystem and which has a unique solution.

Having in mind the equations (9) the only possible  $(a, x)$ -terms are

$$a^n, \quad x^n \quad (n \in N), \quad ax, \quad ax^2, \quad a^2x, \quad a^2x^2, \quad xa,$$

and so the only possible balanced equations are

$$(11) \quad ax = xa, \quad ax^2 = x, \quad a^2x = a, \quad a^2x^2 = ax, \quad a^2x^2 = xa.$$

If we add to the system (9) any one of the equations (11) we obtain a system equivalent to (4). Indeed, it is obvious that  $(4) \Rightarrow (9) \wedge (E)$ , where  $(E)$  is any one of the equations (11), and it is also obvious that  $(9) \wedge ax = xa \Rightarrow (4)$ . We also have

$$\begin{aligned} (9) \wedge ax^2 = x &\Rightarrow ax = a^2x^2 & \text{and} & \quad xa = ax^2a = a^2x^2 \Rightarrow ax = xa, \\ (9) \wedge a^2x = a &\Rightarrow ax = a^2x^2 & \text{and} & \quad xa = xa^2x = a^2x^2 \Rightarrow ax = xa, \\ (9) \wedge a^2x^2 = ax &\Rightarrow a^2x^2a = a \Rightarrow xa^2xa = a \Rightarrow xa^2 = a \Rightarrow a^2x = a, \\ (9) \wedge a^2x^2 = xa &\Rightarrow a^3x^2 = a \Rightarrow axa^2x = a \Rightarrow a^2x = a. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have

**THEOREM 2.** *If  $i^*(a) = 2$ , there is no balanced  $(a, x)$ -system, containing (9) as a subsystem, with unique solution.*

Finally, we pose the following question:

Q.4. If  $k \in N$ , do the assertions analogous to those displayed in this section hold for the systems

$$axa = a, \quad a^kx = xa^k, \quad ax^k = x^ka$$

and

$$axa = a, \quad a^kx = xa^k, \quad ax^k = x^ka, \quad xax = x$$

which contain  $(\Sigma_k)$  as a subsystem?

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