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# Linear inessential operators and generalized inverses 

Bruce A. Barnes


#### Abstract

The space of inessential bounded linear operators from one Banach space $X$ into another $Y$ is introduced. This space, $I(X, Y)$, is a subspace of $B(X, Y)$ which generalizes Kleinecke's ideal of inessential operators. For certain subspaces $W$ of $I(X, Y)$, it is shown that when $T \in B(X, Y)$ has a generalized inverse modulo $W$, then there exists a projection $P \in B(X)$ such that $T(I-P)$ has a generalized inverse and $T P \in W$.


Keywords: inessential operator, Fredholm operator, generalized inverse
Classification: Primary 47A05, 47A55

## 1. Introduction

In 1963, in his classic paper [K], D. Kleinecke introduced the ideal of inessential bounded linear operators on a Banach space $X$, denoted $I(X)$. Let $B(X)$ be the algebra of all bounded linear operators on $X$, and let $K(X)$ be the ideal of all compact operators on $X$. Let $\pi: B(X) \rightarrow B(X) / K(X)$ be the usual embedding map: $\pi(T)=T+K(X), T \in B(X)$. Kleinecke defined $I(X)=$ $\{T \in B(X): \pi(T) \in \operatorname{rad}(B(X) / K(X))\}$ where $\operatorname{rad}(B(X) / K(X))$ is the Jacobson radical of the Calkin algebra. It is proved in $[\mathrm{K}]$ that if $T \in I(X)$ and $S \in$ $\Phi(X)$ (the Fredholm operators), then $S+T \in \Phi(X)$ and $\operatorname{ind}(S+T)=\operatorname{ind}(S)$ $[\mathrm{K}$, Theorem 6]. Set $\operatorname{Per}(\Phi(X))=\{T \in B(X)$ : for all $S \in \Phi(X), S+T \in$ $\Phi(X)\} . \operatorname{Per}(\Phi(X))$ is called the perturbation ideal of $\Phi(X)$; see Sections 5.5 and 5.6 of [CPY] for an introduction to perturbation ideals and their properties. Kleinecke's original results show that $I(X) \subseteq \operatorname{Per}(\Phi(X))$. In fact, $\operatorname{Per}(\Phi(X))=$ $I(X)$ [CPY, Theorem (5.5.9), p. 98].

In the first section of this paper we introduce $I(X, Y)$, the space of all inessential bounded linear operators defined on a Banach space $X$ with values in a Banach space $Y$. We prove that when $\Phi(X, Y)$ is nonempty, then $I(X, Y)=$ $\operatorname{Per}(\Phi(X, Y))$.

Throughout, $X, Y$, and $Z$ are Banach spaces, and $B(X, Y)$ denotes the space of all bounded linear operators defined on $X$ with values in $Y$. For $T \in B(X, Y)$, the null space of $T$ is denoted by $\mathbf{N}(T)$, and the range of $T$ by $\mathbf{R}(T)$. If for an operator $T \in B(X, Y)$ there exists $G \in B(Y, X)$ such that $T G T-T=0$, then $G$ is called a $g$-inverse (generalized inverse) for $T$. An important fact when $T$ has a g-inverse $G$ as above, is that $\mathbf{R}(T)$ is closed and $G$ acts as a bounded right
inverse for $T$ on $\mathbf{R}(T)$, that is, $T(G y)=y$ for all $y \in \mathbf{R}(T)$; see [LT, p. 251]. Also in [LT], Theorem 12.9 gives the basic characterization concerning the existence of g -inverses (called pseudoinverses in $[\mathrm{LT}]$ ).

The definition of a g-inverse is algebraic, so it extends naturally to elements of an algebra: When $A$ is an algebra and $t \in A$, then $g \in A$ is a g-inverse of $t$ if $t g t-t=0$. The monograph [C] by S. Caradus is an excellent source for information concerning all aspects of the theory and practice of g-inverses of linear operators and the general algebraic properties of g-inverses. The existence of g-inverses in certain algebras of bounded linear operators, is studied in the author's paper [B]. All bounded linear operators which are Fredholm have g-inverses. This fact carries over to Fredholm theory in algebras of operators; see K. Jörgens' book [J].

In his paper $[\mathrm{R}]$, V. Rakočević proves that when $T \in B(X)$ and $T$ has a g-inverse modulo $K(X)$, that is, there exists $G \in B(X)$ such that $T G T-T \in K(X)$, then there exists $J \in K(X)$ such that $T+J$ has a g-inverse in $B(X)$. In the last section of this paper we extend this result to certain subspaces of $I(X, Y)$.

## 2. Inessential operators

Definition 1. A linear operator $T \in B(X, Y)$ is inessential if for every $S \in$ $B(Y, X), S T \in I(X)$ and $T S \in I(Y)$. We denote the set of all inessential operators in $B(X, Y)$ by $I(X, Y)$.

Since $I(X)$ is an ideal in $B(X)$, for every $T \in I(X)$ and every $S \in B(X), S T$ and $T S$ are both in $I(X)$. But also, if $S T \in I(X)$ for all $S \in B(X)$, then taking $S$ to be the identity operator, we have $T \in I(X)$. This verifies that $I(X, X)=I(X)$.

Proposition 2. The following are equivalent for an operator $T \in B(X, Y)$ :
(i) $T \in I(X, Y)$;
(ii) for every $S \in B(Y, X), S T \in I(X)$;
(iii) for every $S \in B(Y, X), T S \in I(Y)$.

Proof: We verify that $(\mathrm{ii}) \Longrightarrow$ (iii); a similar argument shows (iii) $\Longrightarrow$ (ii). Assume that (ii) holds. Then for every $S \in B(Y, X), \sigma(S T)$ is either a finite set or a sequence converging to zero. As is well known, $\sigma(S T) \backslash\{0\}=\sigma(T S) \backslash\{0\}$. It follows that every operator in the right ideal $T(B(Y, X))$ of $B(Y)$ has spectrum that is either a finite set or a sequence converging to zero. Then by [BMSW, Theorem R.2.6, p. 58], $T(B(Y, X)) \subseteq I(Y)$. This proves (iii).

Proposition 3. (i) $I(X, Y)$ is a closed subspace of $B(X, Y)$.
(ii) If $T \in I(X, Y), R \in B(Y, Z)$, then $R T \in I(X, Z)$.
(iii) If $T \in I(X, Y), R \in B(Z, X)$, then $T R \in I(Z, X)$.

Proof: Statement (i) is easily verified (using the fact that $I(X)$ is closed). We prove (ii); the proof of (iii) is similar.

Assume that $T \in I(X, Y)$ and $R \in B(Y, Z)$. Let $S$ be arbitrary in $B(Z, X)$. Since $S R \in B(Y, X), S(R T)=(S R) T \in I(X)$ by Definition 1. Then Proposition 2 implies that $R T \in I(X, Z)$.

We use $\operatorname{def}(T)$ to denote the defect of $T \in B(X, Y)$. As is well known, when $\operatorname{def}(T)=\operatorname{dim}(Y / \mathbf{R}(T))$ is finite, then $\mathbf{R}(T)$ is closed [AA, Corollary 2.17].
Proposition 4. If $T \in I(X, Y)$ and $S \in \Phi(X, Y)$, then $T+S \in \Phi(X, Y)$.
Proof: There exists an operator $R \in B(Y, X)$ such that $R S=I-E$ and $S R=I-F$ where both $E$ and $F$ have f.d. range [AA, Theorem 4.46, p. 161]. Then by that same theorem, $R \in \Phi(Y, X)$. Note that $R S \in \Phi(X)$ and $S R \in \Phi(Y)$. Since $R T \in I(X)$ and $T R \in I(Y)$, we have that $R(T+S)=R T+R S \in \Phi(X)$ and $(T+S) R=T R+S R \in \Phi(Y)$. Then $\mathbf{R}((T+S) R) \subseteq \mathbf{R}(T+S)$ and $\operatorname{def}((T+S) R)<\infty$, it follows that $\operatorname{def}(T+S)<\infty$. Also, $\mathbf{N}(T+S) \subseteq \mathbf{N}(R(T+S))$ which is f.d. This proves that $T+S \in \Phi(X, Y)$.
Notes. (1) If $V \in B(X)$ and $W \in \Phi(X, Y)$ with $W V \in \Phi(X, Y)$, then $V \in$ $\Phi(X)$.
(For we can choose an operator $R \in \Phi(Y, X)$ such that $R W=I-E$ where $E$ has f.d. range [AA, Theorem 4.46, p. 161]. Then $V-E V=R W V \in \Phi(X)$. It follows that $V \in \Phi(X)$.)
(2) Assume that $\Phi(X, Y)$ is nonempty. If $T \in \operatorname{Per}(\Phi(X, Y)), R \in B(X)$, and $S \in B(Y)$, then $S T R \in \operatorname{Per}(\Phi(X, Y))$. (This follows from the proof of [CPY, Lemma (5.5.5), p. 96].)
Theorem 5. Assume that $\Phi(X, Y)$ is nonempty. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
I(X, Y) & =\operatorname{Per}(\Phi(X, Y)) \\
& =\{T \in B(X, Y): T+S \in \Phi(X, Y) \text { for all } S \in \Phi(X, Y)\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof: By Proposition $4, I(X, Y) \subseteq \operatorname{Per}(\Phi(X, Y))$. Now we prove the reverse inclusion. Assume that $T \in \operatorname{Per}(\Phi(X, Y))$. Let $S \in B(Y, X)$ and $R \in \Phi(X)$. We show that $R+S T \in \Phi(X)$. Assume that $W \in \Phi(X, Y)$. By Note (2) above, $W S T \in \operatorname{Per}(\Phi(X, Y))$. Since $W R \in \Phi(X, Y), W(R+S T)=W R+W S T \in$ $\Phi(X, Y)$. Then by the Note (1) above, $R+S T \in \Phi(X)$. This proves that $S T \in \operatorname{Per}(\Phi(X))=I(X)$. It follows from Proposition 2 that $T \in I(X, Y)$.

Let $F(X)$ denote the space of all operators in $B(X)$ with f.d. (finite dimensional) range.

Proposition 6. Assume that $T \in I(X, Y)$ and $S \in \Phi(X, Y)$. Then $\operatorname{ind}(T+S)=$ $\operatorname{ind}(S)$.
Proof: There exists an operator $R \in \Phi(Y, X)$ with $S R=I-E$ where $E \in F(Y)$. Note that $S R \in \Phi(Y)$ and $\operatorname{ind}(S R)=0$. Now by definition $T R \in I(Y)$, so $\operatorname{ind}(T R+S R)=\operatorname{ind}(S R)=0$. Also, $\operatorname{ind}(T R+S R)=\operatorname{ind}(T+S)+\operatorname{ind}(R)=$ $\operatorname{ind}(T+S)-\operatorname{ind}(S)$.

## 3. G-inverses modulo an ideal

In order to prove our result on g-inverses modulo certain subspaces of $I(X, Y)$, we need some preliminary results; some of these are of interest in there own right. The first two results are presented in the setting of a unital Banach algebra $A$. For $u \in A, \sigma(u ; A)$ denotes the usual spectrum of $u$ relative to $A$. For operators $T \in B(X)$, we use the notation $\sigma(T)$ for the usual operator spectrum of $T$ relative to $B(X)$.

For $u \in A,\{u\}^{\prime \prime}$ is the second commutant of $u$ in $A,\{u\}^{\prime \prime}=\{a \in A$ : whenever $b \in A$ and $b u=u b$, then $a b=b a\}$.

We use the holomorphic functional calculus in this setting. In this regard, a cycle $\gamma$ is a formal sum of closed piecewise continuously differentiable paths in $\mathbf{C}$; $\gamma^{*}$ denotes the image of $\gamma$ in $\mathbf{C}$. For $z \in \mathbf{C} \backslash \gamma^{*}, \operatorname{Ind}_{\gamma}(z)$ is the index of $z$ with respect to $\gamma$.

Results similar to Theorem 7 are known. This particular version contains useful details.

Theorem 7. Assume that $u \in A$ with $u^{2}-u=r$. Also assume that $\Delta$ is a compact and relatively open subset of $\sigma(u ; A)$ with $0 \notin \Delta$ and $1 \in \Delta$. Then there exists $e=e^{2} \in\{u\}^{\prime \prime}$ and $h \in\{u\}^{\prime \prime}$ such that $r h=h r$ and $e=u+h r$.
Proof: First we show that when $(\lambda-u)^{-1}$ exists, $\lambda \neq 0, \lambda \neq 1$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\lambda-u)^{-1}=\left(\frac{1}{\lambda-1}\right) u+\frac{1}{\lambda}(1-u)+\left(\frac{1}{\lambda(\lambda-1)}\right)(\lambda-u)^{-1} r \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

For

$$
\begin{aligned}
(\lambda-u) & {\left[\left(\frac{1}{\lambda-1}\right) u+\frac{1}{\lambda}(1-u)\right] } \\
& =\left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-1}\right) u-\left(\frac{1}{\lambda-1}\right) u^{2}+(1-u)-\frac{1}{\lambda}\left(u-u^{2}\right) \\
& =\left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-1}\right) u-\left(\frac{1}{\lambda-1}\right)(u+r)+(1-u)+\frac{1}{\lambda} r \\
& =\left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-1}\right) u-\left(\frac{1}{\lambda-1}\right) u+(1-u)+\left(\frac{1}{\lambda}-\left(\frac{1}{\lambda-1}\right)\right) r \\
& =u+(1-u)-\left(\frac{1}{\lambda(\lambda-1)}\right) r=1-\left(\frac{1}{\lambda(\lambda-1)}\right) r .
\end{aligned}
$$

Multiplying this equality through by $(\lambda-u)^{-1}$ verifies (1).
Now let $V$ be an open set in $\mathbf{C}$ with $V \cap \sigma(u ; A)=\Delta$ and $0 \notin V$. Let $\gamma$ be a cycle with $\gamma^{*} \subseteq V \backslash \Delta$ such that $\operatorname{Ind}_{\gamma}(z)=1$ for all $z \in \Delta$ and $\operatorname{Ind}_{\gamma}(z)=0$ for all $z \notin V$; note that in particular, $\operatorname{Ind}_{\gamma}(0)=0$.

Let $e$ be the spectral idempotent, $e=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{\gamma}(\lambda-u)^{-1} d \lambda$. Using (1) we have,

$$
\begin{aligned}
e= & \left(\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{\lambda-1} d \lambda\right) u+\left(\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{\lambda} d \lambda\right)(1-u) \\
& +\left(\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{\gamma}\left(\frac{1}{\lambda(\lambda-1)}\right)(\lambda-u)^{-1} d \lambda\right) r \\
= & \operatorname{Ind}_{\gamma}(1) u+\operatorname{Ind}_{\gamma}(0)(1-u)+h r=u+h r
\end{aligned}
$$

where $h=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{\gamma}\left(\frac{1}{\lambda(\lambda-1)}\right)(\lambda-u)^{-1} d \lambda$.
Let $\operatorname{rad}(A)$ denote the Jacobson radical of the algebra $A$. We use the standard fact that for $u \in A, \sigma(u ; A)=\sigma(u+\operatorname{rad}(A) ; A / \operatorname{rad}(A))$. Part (i) of Corollary 8 is a well known result from Banach algebra theory [P, Proposition 4.3.12]. Part (ii) shows that if $t+\operatorname{rad}(A)$ has a g-inverse in the quotient algebra $A / \operatorname{rad}(A)$, then for some $s \in \operatorname{rad}(A), t+s$ has a g-inverse in $A$.
Corollary 8. Let $A$ be a unital Banach algebra.
(i) If $u \in A, u \notin \operatorname{rad}(A)$, with $u^{2}-u \in \operatorname{rad}(A)$, then there exists $e=e^{2} \in$ $\{u\}^{\prime \prime}$ such that $e-u \in \operatorname{rad}(A)$.
(ii) If $t, g \in A, t \notin \operatorname{rad}(A)$, with $t g t-t \in \operatorname{rad}(A)$, then there exists $p=p^{2} \in A$ such that $t(1-p)$ has a $g$-inverse in $A$ and $t p \in \operatorname{rad}(A)$.

Proof of (i): Let $u$ be as in statement (i). Note that $1-u$ is not invertible since $u(1-u) \in \operatorname{rad}(A)$, but $u \notin \operatorname{rad}(A)$. Now $1 \in \sigma(u ; A) \subseteq\{0,1\}$. In Theorem 7 take $\Delta=\{1\}$. By Theorem 7, there exists $e=e^{2} \in\{u\}^{\prime \prime}$ such that $e-u \in \operatorname{rad}(A)$.

Proof of (ii): Assume that $t$ and $g$ are as in (ii), so $t g t-t=r \in \operatorname{rad}(A)$. Then $t g t g-t g=r g \in \operatorname{rad}(A)$. Note that $1-t g$ is not invertible since $(t g-1) t \in \operatorname{rad}(A)$, but $t \notin \operatorname{rad}(A)$. Thus, $1 \in \sigma(t g ; A) \subseteq\{0,1\}$. In Theorem 7 take $\Delta=\{1\}$. Applying Theorem 7 , with $u=t g$, there exist $h \in A$ and $e=e^{2} \in A$ such that

$$
e=t g+r g h=t g+(t g t-t) g h=t[g+(g t-1) g h] .
$$

Set $v=g+(g t-1) g h$ and $w=(g t-1) g h$. Note that $t w \in \operatorname{rad}(A)$. Therefore,

$$
\begin{equation*}
e=t v=t(g+w) \text { with } t w \in \operatorname{rad}(A) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now set $s=r+t w t \in \operatorname{rad}(A)$. Then $e t=t g t+t w t=t+r+t w t=t+s$. $\mathrm{By}(2), e=t v$, so $e=e t v=t v+s v=e+s v$. It follows that $e(t+s)=t+s$ and $s v=0$. Thus,

$$
\begin{equation*}
(t+s) v(t+s)=t v(t+s)=e(t+s)=t+s \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now let $1-p=v(t+s)$. Then $1-p$ is a projection, and $t(1-p)=t v(t+s)=$ $(t+s) v(t+s)=t+s$ which has a g-inverse by (3), and $t p=-s \in \operatorname{rad}(A)$.

As before, define $\pi: B(X) \rightarrow B(X) / K(X)$ by $\pi(T)=T+K(X)$. For $T \in$ $B(X)$, the Fredholm spectrum of $T, \sigma_{F}(T)$, is defined as

$$
\sigma_{F}(T)=\sigma(\pi(T) ; B(X) / K(X))
$$

We need a fairly deep property of the Fredholm spectrum:
Let $\Omega$ be the unbounded component of $\mathbf{C} \backslash \sigma_{F}(T)$. Then $\sigma(T) \cap \Omega$ is at most countable.

One reference for this is [BMSW, Theorem R.2.7].
From the definition of $I(X)$ and properties of the Jacobson radical, it follows that for $T \in B(X), \sigma_{F}(T)=\sigma(T+I(X) ; B(X) / I(X))$.

Corollary 9. Let $M$ be a left or right ideal of $B(X)$ with $M \subseteq I(X)$. If $U \in$ $B(X), U \notin I(X)$, with $U^{2}-U=R \in M$, then there exists $E=E^{2} \in\{U\}^{\prime \prime}$ such that $E=U+H R$ and $H R=R H$. Thus, $E-U \in M$.

Proof: Assume that $U^{2}-U=R \in M$. Since $U+I(X)$ is a nonzero idempotent in $B(X) / I(X), 1 \in \sigma_{F}(U) \subseteq\{0,1\}$. It follows from the discussion above that $\sigma(U)$ is at most countable. Therefore, there does exist a compact and relatively open subset $\Delta$ of $\sigma(U)$ with $0 \notin \Delta$ and $1 \in \Delta$. Applying Theorem 7, there exists a projection $E \in\{U\}^{\prime \prime}$ such that $E=U+H R$ where $H R=R H$. Clearly, $E-U \in M$, as claimed.

## 4. G-inverses and inessential perturbations

In this section we generalize Rakočević's result on generalized inverses in the Calkin algebra to generalized inverses modulo certain subspaces of $I(X, Y)$. In what follows, we assume that $W$ is a linear subspace of $I(X, Y)$ with the bimodule property:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { If } T \in W, R \in B(X) \text {, and } S \in B(Y) \text {, then } S T R \in W \tag{bi}
\end{equation*}
$$

By Proposition $3, I(X, Y)$ satisfies (bi). Also, let $F(X, Y)$ be the space of all operators with $E \in B(X, Y)$ such that $\mathbf{R}(E)$ is f.d. Then it is easy to see that $\overline{F(X, Y)}$ (here the closure is in the operator norm) is a subspace of $I(X, Y)$ which satisfies (bi).

Let $K(X, Y)$ denote the space of all compact operators from $X$ into $Y$. Also, let $S(X, Y)$ denote the space of all strictly singular operators from $X$ into $Y$. Section 4.5 of $[\mathrm{AA}]$ is a good source for information concerning strictly singular operators.

Proposition 10. Both $K(X, Y)$ and $S(X, Y)$ are subspaces of $I(X, Y)$, and both satisfy (bi).
Proof: We give the proof for $S(X, Y)$ (the proof for $K(X, Y)$ is similar). First, $S(X, Y)$ is a closed subspace of $B(X, Y)$ that satisfies (bi) [AA, Corollary 4.6.2]. Assume that $T \in S(X, Y)$ and $S \in B(Y, X)$. Then $S T \in S(X)$ and $T S \in S(Y)$ by [AA, Corollary 4.62]. Now $S(X) \subseteq I(X)$ by [CPY, Theorem (5.6.2)]. Therefore by Definition 1, $S(X, Y) \subseteq I(X, Y)$.
Theorem 11. Assume $T \in B(X, Y)$. The following are equivalent:
(i) there exists $P=P^{2} \in B(X)$ such that $T P \in W$ and $T(I-P)$ has a $g$-inverse;
(ii) $T=J+S$ where $J \in W$ and $S \in B(X, Y)$ has a $g$-inverse;
(iii) there exists $G \in B(Y, X)$ and $T G T-T=R \in W$.

Proof: $(\mathrm{i}) \Longrightarrow$ (ii) is immediate.
Assume that (ii) holds, so $T=J+S$ where $J \in W$ and for some $G \in B(Y, X)$, $S G S=S$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
T G T-T & =(J+S) G(J+S)-(J+S)=J G(J+S)+S G J+S G S-J-S \\
& =J G(J+S)+S G J-J \in W .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, (iii) is true.
Assume the hypotheses in (iii) and that $T \notin W$. These hypotheses imply that $T G T G-T G=R G \in I(Y)$. Now apply Corollary 3 (with $U=T G$ and $R G$ in place of $R$ ). Therefore there exists $E=E^{2} \in B(Y)$ and $H \in B(Y)$ such that $E=T G+R G H$. Since $R=T G T-T$, we have $E=T G+(T G T-T) G H=$ $T[G+G T G H-G H]$. Setting $U=G T G H-G H$ and $V=G+U$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
E=T V=T(G+U) \text { and } T U \in W \text {. } \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $E T=T V T=T G T+T U T=T+R+T U T$. Set $J=R+T U T \in W$. Thus,

$$
\begin{equation*}
E T=T+J \text { with } J \in W . \text { Also, } E J=0 \text { and } E(T+J)=T+J, \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

since $E=T V, E=E T V=T V+J V$. Therefore,

$$
\begin{equation*}
J V=0 \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, $(T+J) V(T+J)=T V(T+J)=E(T+J)=T+J$ by (5). Therefore,

$$
\begin{equation*}
T+J \text { has } \mathrm{g} \text {-inverse } V \text {. } \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Set $I-P \equiv V(T+J)$. Then $I-P$ is a projection in $B(X)$. Note that $T(I-P)=T V(T+J)=(T+J) V(T+J)$ by (6). Therefore, $T(I-P)=T+J$ by (7). Thus again by (7), $T(I-P)$ has a g -inverse. Also, $T P=-J \in W$. This proves that (i) holds.

The following statement is another condition equivalent to those listed in Theorem 11: There exists $P=P^{2} \in B(Y)$ such that $P T \in W$ and $(I-P) T$ has a $g$-inverse.

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