



Some new characterizations of bi-dagger matrices

Haifan Guan^a, Shuangzhe Liu^b, Hongxing Wang^{a,*}

^a*School of Mathematical Sciences, Guangxi Minzu University, Guangxi Key Laboratory of Hybrid Computation and IC Design Analysis, Nanning 530006, China*

^b*Faculty of Science and Technology, University of Canberra, Canberra, ACT 2617, Australia*

Abstract. The concept of the bi-dagger matrix was introduced by Hartwig and Spindelböck [8]. In this paper, we provide some new characterizations of bi-dagger matrices. We prove that the index of a bi-dagger matrix is less than or equal to 2 and that a matrix is bi-dagger if and only if it is i-EP, and its index is less than or equal to 2. Specifically, a matrix is bi-dagger if and only if it commutes with its B-T inverse. Finally, we consider Problem 5 in [8] and establish conditions under which a bi-dagger matrix implies bi-normality.

1. Introduction

In this paper, we use the following notations. Let $\mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ denote the set of all $m \times n$ complex matrices; I_n denote the identity matrix of order n ; A^* , $\mathcal{R}(A)$ and $\text{rk}(A)$ represent the conjugate transpose, range space (or column space) and rank of $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$, respectively. For any $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$, the Moore-Penrose inverse $A^\dagger$ of A is the unique solution to the following Penrose equations [22]:

$$(1) AXA = A, (2) XAX = X, (3) (AX)^* = AX, (4) (XA)^* = XA.$$

Given a square matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, the index of A (denoted by $\text{Ind}(A)$) is the smallest positive integer k such that $\text{rk}(A^{k+1}) = \text{rk}(A^k)$. The Drazin inverse A^D of A is the unique solution to the following equations [22]:

$$(1^k) XA^{k+1} = A^k, (2) XAX = X, (5) XA = AX. \quad (1)$$

For the special case of $\text{Ind}(A) = 1$, the unique solution of (1) is called the group inverse of A and denoted as $A^\#$.

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* Corresponding author: Hongxing Wang

Email addresses: 707546222@qq.com (Haifan Guan), shuangzhe.liu@canberra.edu.au (Shuangzhe Liu),
 winghongxing0902@163.com (Hongxing Wang)

ORCID iDs: <https://orcid.org/0009-0002-5140-178X> (Haifan Guan), <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4858-2789>
 (Shuangzhe Liu), <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2569-0821> (Hongxing Wang)

Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ with $\text{Ind}(A) = 1$, it can be proved (see [1]) that there is a unique matrix $X \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ such that

$$AX = AA^+, \mathcal{R}(X) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(A). \quad (2)$$

The matrix X is called the core inverse of A . A matrix A is said to be core invertible if there exists a matrix X that is the core inverse of A , and we denote $X = A^\oplus$.

Subsequently, the notion is extended to any square matrix. Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ with $\text{Ind}(A) = k$, Baksalary and Trenkler [2] introduced the B-T inverse of A :

$$A^\diamond = (A^2 A^\dagger)^\dagger. \quad (3)$$

Obviously, when $k = 1$, the B-T inverse coincides with the core inverse [2].

Generalized inverses are one of the main tools for studying special matrices. A matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is EP if $AA^\dagger = A^\dagger A$, see [17]. It is easy to check that if A is EP then $\text{Ind}(A) = 1$. Various established characterizations for EP matrices and operators can be seen in [4, 11, 15, 16, 23, 24]. As extensions of EP matrices, i-EP and k -EP are introduced in [12–14, 21].

Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ with $\text{Ind}(A) = k$, it is i-EP if A^k is EP, and is k -EP if $A^k A^\dagger = A^\dagger A^k$. In particular, a matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is bi-dagger if $(A^2)^\dagger = (A^\dagger)^2$, is star-dagger if $A^* A^\dagger = A^\dagger A^*$ and is bi-normal if $AA^* A^* A = A^* AAA^*$, see [8].

In [8], Hartwig and Spindelböck considered the relationships among bi-dagger matrix, bi-normal matrix, bi-EP matrix and star-dagger, etc. In [12], Malik et al. discussed the relationship between bi-dagger matrix and k -EP matrix. Baksalary and Trenkler [3, Theorem 3.4] obtained that A is bi-dagger if and only if it is EP, when the Moore-Penrose inverse $A^\dagger$ of A is idempotent. Tian [18, Theorem 4.2] provided some characterizations of bi-dagger matrices, and proved that for a matrix A with $\text{Ind}(A) = 1$, A is bi-dagger if and only if it is EP. Ferreyra et al. [6, Theorem 6.6] proved that for a matrix A with $\text{Ind}(A) = 2$, A is bi-dagger if and only if it is i-EP. More discussions about bi-dagger matrices can be found in [5, 9, 14].

Although the literature discussed the characterization of bi-dagger matrices for matrix indices equal to one and two, a fundamental problem remains unsolved: What is the range of indices for which a matrix can be bi-dagger? In Section 3, we determine the range of indices for the bi-dagger matrix and provide two characterizations of the bi-dagger matrix using the B-T inverse and the i-EP matrix, respectively.

The conclusions in [8] are concise in form, rich in connotation, and have a profound impact. For example, Meenakshi and Rajian [14] applied bi-dagger and star-dagger to provide a necessary and sufficient condition for the product of two positive semidefinite matrices to be normal. It is important to emphasize that Hartwig and Spindelböck listed seven open problems in [8]. This series of profound and interesting questions has garnered widespread attention.

In this paper, we focus on the fifth problem in [8]:

Problem 1.1. *When does bi-dagger imply bi-normal?*

Baksalary and Trenkler [3, Theorem 3.4] considered the problem and concluded that A is bi-dagger if and only if it is bi-normal when the Moore-Penrose inverse $A^\dagger$ of A is idempotent. Groß [7, Section 2, Lemma 1] proved that A is bi-dagger if and only if it is bi-normal when the index of A is one. However, as far as we understand, this problem remains not completely resolved.

We will structure the paper as follows: In Section 2, we will present some preliminary results. Section 3 will cover properties of bi-dagger matrices. In Section 4, we will address Problem 1.1. Finally, we will conclude in Section 5.

2. Preliminaries

In this paper, we let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, and the singular value decomposition (for short SVD) of A be

$$A = U \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_A & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} V^*, \quad (4)$$

where $U, V \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ are unitary matrices, $\Sigma_A \in \mathbb{C}^{r \times r}$ is a diagonal positive definite matrix, and the rank of A is r . Denote

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} U_{A_1} & U_{A_2} \end{bmatrix}, V^* = \begin{bmatrix} V_{A_1}^* \\ V_{A_2}^* \end{bmatrix}, \Sigma_A = \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{A_1} & 0 \\ 0 & \Sigma_{A_2} \end{bmatrix}, \quad (5)$$

then, by using (4) and (5), the matrix A can be represented in the form of a partitioned matrix as follows

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} U_{A_1} & U_{A_2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_A & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} V_{A_1}^* \\ V_{A_2}^* \end{bmatrix} \quad (6)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} U_{A_1} & U_{A_2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{A_1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \Sigma_{A_2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} V_{A_1}^* \\ V_{A_2}^* \end{bmatrix}, \quad (7)$$

where $U_{A_1} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times r}$, $U_{A_2} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times (n-r)}$, $V_{A_1}^* \in \mathbb{C}^{r \times n}$, $V_{A_2}^* \in \mathbb{C}^{(n-r) \times n}$, $\Sigma_{A_1} \in \mathbb{C}^{r_1 \times r_1}$, $\Sigma_{A_2} \in \mathbb{C}^{r_2 \times r_2}$, $r_1 = \text{rk}(A^2)$ and $r_1 + r_2 = r$. Using (6), the reduced SVD can be represented in the form

$$A = U_{A_1} \Sigma_A V_{A_1}^*.$$

Lemma 2.1 ([10]). Let $A, B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$. The following conditions are equivalent:

- (1) $(AB)^\dagger = B^\dagger A^\dagger$,
- (2) there exist essential reduced SVD decompositions $A = U_{A_1} \Sigma_A V_{A_1}^*$ and $B = U_{B_1} \Sigma_B V_{B_1}^*$ such that

$$V_{A_1}^* U_{B_1} = \begin{bmatrix} Q & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (8)$$

where Q is a unitary matrix or $V_{A_1}^* U_{B_1} = 0$.

By using (4), the Hartwig-Spindelböck decomposition [2] of a square matrix with the rank r can be represented in the form

$$A = U \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma K & \Sigma L \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} U^*, \quad (9)$$

where $U \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is unitary, $\Sigma = \text{diag}(\sigma_1 I_{r_1}, \dots, \sigma_t I_{r_t})$ is the diagonal matrix of singular values of A , $\sigma_1 > \sigma_2 > \dots > \sigma_t > 0$, $r_1 + r_2 + \dots + r_t = r$, $K \in \mathbb{C}^{r \times r}$, $L \in \mathbb{C}^{r \times (n-r)}$ satisfy

$$KK^* + LL^* = I_r \quad (10)$$

and $K = U_{A_1} V_{A_1}^*$. Then, the B-T inverse of A is of the form [2]

$$A^\diamond = U \begin{bmatrix} (\Sigma K)^\dagger & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} U^*. \quad (11)$$

For $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ with $\text{Ind}(A) = k$, the core-EP decomposition of A is of the form, see [20]

$$A = U \begin{bmatrix} T & S \\ 0 & N \end{bmatrix} U^*, \quad (12)$$

where $U \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is unitary, T is nonsingular and N is nilpotent of index k . When $\text{Ind}(A) = 1$, it is obvious that $N = 0$, and the core inverse of A is of the form

$$A^\oplus = U \begin{bmatrix} T^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} U^*, \quad (13)$$

and the group inverse of A is of the form, see [1]

$$A^\# = U \begin{bmatrix} T^{-1} & T^{-2}S \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} U^*. \quad (14)$$

Applying the core-EP decomposition (12), Wang and Liu [21] gave a characterization of the i-EP matrix.

Lemma 2.2 ([21]). *Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ with $\text{Ind}(A) = k$. Then A is i-EP if and only if there exists a unitary matrix U , such that*

$$A = U \begin{bmatrix} T & 0 \\ 0 & N \end{bmatrix} U^*, \quad (15)$$

where T is non-singular, and N is nilpotent with $\text{Ind}(N) = k$.

Lemma 2.3 ([14]). *Let A and B be two positive semidefinite matrices (for short psd). Then the following are equivalent:*

- (1) AB is normal;
- (2) AB is psd;
- (3) AB is bi-dagger and star-dagger.

3. Properties and characterizations of bi-dagger matrices

In this section, we get the range of index for a bi-dagger matrix, and give characterizations of bi-dagger matrices applying generalized inverses and special matrices.

Theorem 3.1. *Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ and $(A^2)^\dagger = (A^\dagger)^2$. Then $\text{Ind}(A) \leq 2$.*

Proof. Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, $(A^2)^\dagger = (A^\dagger)^2$, the SVD of A be as in (4), and U and V be partitioned as in (5). Then applying (6) and Lemma 2.1, we have

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} U_{A_1} & U_{A_2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_A & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} V_{A_1}^* U_{A_1} & V_{A_1}^* U_{A_2} \\ V_{A_2}^* U_{A_1} & V_{A_2}^* U_{A_2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} U_{A_1}^* \\ U_{A_2}^* \end{bmatrix}, \quad (16)$$

where $V_{A_1}^* U_{A_1}$ is of the form (8) or $V_{A_1}^* U_{A_1} = 0$.

When $V_{A_1}^* U_{A_1} = 0$, from (16), we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \begin{bmatrix} U_{A_1} & U_{A_2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_A & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & V_{A_1}^* U_{A_2} \\ V_{A_2}^* U_{A_1} & V_{A_2}^* U_{A_2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} U_{A_1}^* \\ U_{A_2}^* \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} U_{A_1} & U_{A_2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \Sigma_A V_{A_1}^* U_{A_2} \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} U_{A_1}^* \\ U_{A_2}^* \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

By using (17), it is easy to verify that $\text{Ind}(A) \leq 2$.

When $V_{A_1}^* U_{A_1} \neq 0$, it has the form (8). Then we have

$$V^* U = \begin{bmatrix} V_{A_1}^* \\ V_{A_2}^* \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} U_{A_1} & U_{A_2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} Q & 0 & Q_1 \\ 0 & 0 & Q_2 \\ Q_3 & Q_4 & Q_5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (18)$$

where Q is unitary.

Since V^*U is unitary, we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} Q & 0 & Q_1 \\ 0 & 0 & Q_2 \\ Q_3 & Q_4 & Q_5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} Q^* & 0 & Q_3^* \\ 0 & 0 & Q_4^* \\ Q_1^* & Q_2^* & Q_5^* \end{bmatrix} = I_n.$$

It follows that $QQ^* + Q_1Q_1^* = I_{r_1}$ and $Q_2Q_2^* = I_{r_2}$. Since Q is unitary, then $Q_1 = 0$ and Q_2 is full row rank. Similarly, we have $Q_3 = 0$ and Q_4 is full column rank. By using (7) and (18), it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \begin{bmatrix} U_{A_1} & U_{A_2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{A_1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \Sigma_{A_2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} Q & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & Q_2 \\ 0 & Q_4 & Q_5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} U_{A_1}^* \\ U_{A_2}^* \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} U_{A_1} & U_{A_2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{A_1}Q & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \Sigma_{A_2}Q_2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} U_{A_1}^* \\ U_{A_2}^* \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

By using (19), it is easy to verify that $\text{Ind}(A) \leq 2$. $\square$

In [6, 18], when $\text{Ind}(A) \leq 2$, we see that $(A^2)^\dagger = (A^\dagger)^2$ if and only if A is i-EP. According to Lemma 2.2 and Theorem 3.1, we can obtain the following Theorem 3.2.

Theorem 3.2. *Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, then $(A^2)^\dagger = (A^\dagger)^2$ if and only if A is i-EP and $\text{Ind}(A) \leq 2$, i.e. there exists a unitary U such that*

$$A = U \begin{bmatrix} T & 0 \\ 0 & N \end{bmatrix} U^*, \quad (20)$$

where T is non-singular, and N is nilpotent with $\text{Ind}(N) \leq 2$.

A problem can be extended from Theorem 3.2: when $k > 2$, is it true that $(A^k)^\dagger = (A^\dagger)^k$ if and only if A is i-EP and $\text{Ind}(A) \leq k$? From the following examples, we see that it is not true.

Example 3.3. *Let*

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{2}{3} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

It is easy to get that $\text{Ind}(A) = 3$, $A^3 = 0$ and $(A^3)^\dagger = 0$. Therefore, A is i-EP. Furthermore, we have

$$A^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{3}{2} & \frac{3}{2} & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (A^\dagger)^3 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -3 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus, $(A^3)^\dagger \neq (A^\dagger)^3$.

Example 3.4. *Let*

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

It follows that $\text{Ind}(B) = 4$, $B^4 = 0$ and $(B^4)^\dagger = 0$. Therefore, B is i -EP. Furthermore, we have

$$B^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (B^\dagger)^4 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & -4 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 3 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus, $(B^4)^\dagger \neq (B^\dagger)^4$.

As known, a matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is EP if it commutes with its Moore-Penrose inverse and is normal if it commutes with its conjugate transpose. Therefore, we explore whether we can similarly utilize the commutative relationship of matrices to characterize the bi-dagger matrix.

In the following theorem, we will provide a characterization of bi-dagger matrices using the commutative relationship between A and $A^\diamond$.

Theorem 3.5. Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$. Then $AA^\diamond = A^\diamond A$ if and only if $(A^\dagger)^2 = (A^2)^\dagger$.

Proof. Let the Hartwig-Spindelböck decomposition [2] of $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ be as in (9), and the B-T inverse of A be of the form (11). Then

$$\begin{aligned} AA^\diamond &= U \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma K & \Sigma L \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} (\Sigma K)^\dagger & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} U^* = U \begin{bmatrix} (\Sigma K)(\Sigma K)^\dagger & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} U^*, \\ A^\diamond A &= U \begin{bmatrix} (\Sigma K)^\dagger & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma K & \Sigma L \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} U^* = U \begin{bmatrix} (\Sigma K)^\dagger \Sigma K & (\Sigma K)^\dagger \Sigma L \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} U^*. \end{aligned}$$

From $AA^\diamond = A^\diamond A$, it follows that

$$(\Sigma K)(\Sigma K)^\dagger - (\Sigma K)^\dagger \Sigma K = 0, \quad (\Sigma K)^\dagger \Sigma L = 0. \quad (21)$$

When $\text{Ind}(A) = 1$, it is obvious that ΣK is nonsingular. Since $(\Sigma K)^\dagger \Sigma L = 0$, we have $L = 0$. It follows from (9) and Lemma 2.2 that A is EP. Therefore, $(A^\dagger)^2 = (A^2)^\dagger$.

When $\text{Ind}(A) = 2$, from (21) we get that ΣK is an EP matrix. According to Lemma 2.2, there exists a unitary matrix U_1 , such that

$$\Sigma K = U_1 \begin{bmatrix} T_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} U_1^*, \quad (22)$$

where T_1 is invertible.

Write $\Sigma L = U_1 \begin{bmatrix} L_1 \\ L_2 \end{bmatrix}$, where $L_1 \in \mathbb{C}^{\text{rk}(T_1) \times (n - \text{rk}(A))}$. Since $(\Sigma K)^\dagger \Sigma L = U_1 \begin{bmatrix} T_1^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} U_1^* U_1 \begin{bmatrix} L_1 \\ L_2 \end{bmatrix} = U_1 \begin{bmatrix} T_1^{-1} L_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = 0$, we get $L_1 = 0$. Then, by using (22) and $\Sigma L = U_1 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ L_2 \end{bmatrix}$, the matrix A can be represented in the form of a partitioned matrix as follows

$$A = U \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma K & \Sigma L \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} U^* = U \begin{bmatrix} U_1 & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} T_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & L_2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \left(U \begin{bmatrix} U_1 & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} \right)^*. \quad (23)$$

Denote $\tilde{U} = U \begin{bmatrix} U_1 & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}$. By using (23), we get

$$A^2 = \tilde{U} \begin{bmatrix} T_1^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \tilde{U}^*, \quad A^\dagger = \tilde{U} \begin{bmatrix} T_1^{-1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & L_2^\dagger & 0 \end{bmatrix} \tilde{U}^*.$$

It follows that

$$(A^2)^\dagger = (A^\dagger)^2 = \tilde{U} \begin{bmatrix} T_1^{-2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \tilde{U}^*.$$

On the contrary, suppose that $(A^\dagger)^2 = (A^2)^\dagger$.

When $V_{A_1}^* U_{A_1} = 0$, by applying Lemma 2.1, (3) and (17), we have $AA^\diamond = A^\diamond A = 0$.

When $V_{A_1}^* U_{A_1} \neq 0$, by using (11) and (19), we have

$$A^\diamond = \begin{bmatrix} U_{A_1} & U_{A_2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} (\Sigma_{A_1} Q)^{-1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} U_{A_1}^* \\ U_{A_2}^* \end{bmatrix}.$$

Therefore, $AA^\diamond = A^\diamond A$. $\square$

By using properties of generalized inverses, we present another characterization of bi-dagger matrices in the following theorem.

Theorem 3.6. Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$. Then $(A^2)^\dagger = (A^\dagger)^2$ if and only if $\text{Ind}(A^2) = 1$ and $(A^2)^\# = (A^2)^\oplus$.

Proof. Suppose that $(A^2)^\dagger = (A^\dagger)^2$, then A is of the form (20). We can obtain $\text{Ind}(A^2) = 1$, and easily check that

$$(A^2)^\# = (A^2)^\oplus = U \begin{bmatrix} T^{-2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} U^*. \quad (24)$$

Conversely, let $\text{Ind}(A^2) = 1$ and $(A^2)^\# = (A^2)^\oplus$, then $\text{rk}(A^2) = \text{rk}(A^4)$. Since $\text{rk}(A^2) \geq \text{rk}(A^3) \geq \text{rk}(A^4)$, we have $\text{rk}(A^2) = \text{rk}(A^3)$ i.e. $\text{Ind}(A) \leq 2$. It follows from (12) that

$$A = U \begin{bmatrix} T & S \\ 0 & N \end{bmatrix} U^*,$$

where T is non-singular, and N is nilpotent with $\text{Ind}(N) \leq 2$. Applying (13) and (14) gives

$$(A^2)^\# = U \begin{bmatrix} T^{-2} & T^{-4}(TS + SN) \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} U^*, \quad (A^2)^\oplus = U \begin{bmatrix} T^{-2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} U^*.$$

Since $(A^2)^\# = (A^2)^\oplus$, then $TS + SN = 0$. It follows from $N^2 = 0$ that $S = 0$. By applying Theorem 3.2, we have $(A^2)^\dagger = (A^\dagger)^2$. $\square$

4. Conditions under which bi-dagger implies bi-normal

In Section 3, we get some characterizations of the bi-dagger matrix. Based on those results, we obtain several conditions under which bi-dagger implies bi-normal in this section.

Theorem 4.1. Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is a bi-dagger matrix. Then the following are equivalent:

- (1) AA^*A^*A is normal;
- (2) AA^*A^*A is psd;

- (3) AA^*A^*A is star-dagger;
- (4) AA^*A^*A is Hermitian;
- (5) A is bi-normal;
- (6) A^*AAA^* is star-dagger.

Proof. Since A is bi-dagger, by applying Theorem 3.2, we obtain that

$$AA^*A^*A = U \begin{bmatrix} TT^*T^*T & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} U^*. \quad (25)$$

According to Theorem 3.2, we know that AA^*A^*A is also a bi-dagger matrix. Thus, by applying Lemma 2.3, we have that the conditions (1), (2) and (3) are equivalent.

Furthermore, let AA^*A^*A be Hermitian, then AA^*A^*A is normal. If AA^*A^*A is psd, then AA^*A^*A is Hermitian. Since the conditions (1) and (2) are equivalent, it follows that the conditions (1), (2) and (4) are equivalent.

Since A is bi-normal if and only if AA^* commutes with A^*A , then the conditions (4) and (5) are equivalent.

Since AA^*A^*A is Hermitian, we can obtain that A^*AAA^* is also Hermitian. Therefore A^*AAA^* is star-dagger if and only if AA^*A^*A is Hermitian, that is, the conditions (4) and (6) are equivalent. $\square$

According to Theorem 3.2, we know that if A is bi-dagger then its Drazin inverse is EP. In the following theorem, we apply the properties of Drazin inverse and the core-nilpotent decomposition to give some equivalent conditions that A is bi-normal, when A is bi-dagger.

Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ with $\text{Ind}(A) = k$, then the core-nilpotent decomposition of A can be represented in the form, see [22]

$$A = C_A + N_A,$$

where $C_A = A^D A^2$ is called the core part of A and N_A is nilpotent with $\text{Ind}(N_A) = k$.

Theorem 4.2. Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is bi-dagger. Then the following are equivalent:

- (1) A is bi-normal;
- (2) A^D is bi-normal;
- (3) C_A is bi-normal.

Proof. Since A is bi-dagger, by applying Theorem 3.1, we have $\text{Ind}(A) \leq 2$. And let A be of the form (20).

Suppose that A is bi-normal. By using Theorem 3.2, we have

$$AA^*A^*A = U \begin{bmatrix} TT^*T^*T & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} U^* = A^*AAA^* = U \begin{bmatrix} T^*TTT^* & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} U^*. \quad (26)$$

Then $TT^*T^*T = T^*TTT^*$ and

$$T^{-1}(T^{-1})^*(T^{-1})^*T^{-1} = (T^{-1})^*T^{-1}T^{-1}(T^{-1})^*.$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} A^D(A^D)^*(A^D)^*A^D &= U \begin{bmatrix} T^{-1}(T^{-1})^*(T^{-1})^*T^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} U^* \\ &= U \begin{bmatrix} (T^{-1})^*T^{-1}T^{-1}(T^{-1})^* & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} U^* \\ &= (A^D)^*A^DA^D(A^D)^*. \end{aligned}$$

Applying Theorem 4.1 gives that A^D is bi-normal. Similarly, we can prove that if A^D is bi-normal then A is bi-normal. Therefore, conditions (1) and (2) are equivalent.

Let A be bi-normal. By using (26), we have $TT^*T^*T = T^*TTT^*$. According to Theorem 3.2, we can obtain

$$C_A C_A^* C_A C_A = U \begin{bmatrix} TT^*T^*T & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} U^* = U \begin{bmatrix} T^*TTT^* & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} U^* = C_A^* C_A C_A C_A^*.$$

Then C_A is bi-normal. Similarly, we can prove that if C_A is bi-normal then A is bi-normal. Therefore, conditions (1) and (3) are equivalent. $\square$

5. Conclusions

In this paper, we have determined the range of indices for bi-dagger matrices and established the relationship between bi-dagger matrices and i-EP matrices. Additionally, we have provided various characterizations of bi-dagger matrices by leveraging the properties and characteristics of the B-T inverse, core inverse, and group inverse. Finally, based on these findings, we address Problem 1.1 raised by Hartwig and Spindelböck [8], proposing conditions under which bi-dagger matrices imply bi-normality.

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