



CHAPTER II

ALGEBRA OF HYPERCOMPLEX NUMBER SYSTEMS

Definition I

A complex number is an ordered pair (x, y) of real numbers, x being called the real and y being the imaginary component of (x, y) . Complex numbers are added and multiplied by the rules:

1. $(x, y) + (x', y') = (x + x', y + y')$
2. $(x, y) \cdot (x', y') = (xx' - yy', xy' + x'y)$ (2, p. 101)

Complex numbers can be manipulated by the laws of the algebra of real numbers by expressing the complex number (x, y) in the form $(x + iy)$ and using the rule $i^2 = -1$. The rules of equality, addition and multiplication may be written in the form,

$$(2.1) (x + iy) = (x' + iy') \text{ iff } x = x' \text{ and } y = y'$$

$$(2.2) (x + iy) \pm (x' + iy') = (x \pm x') + i(y \pm y')$$

$$(2.3) (x + iy) \cdot (x' + iy') = (xx' - yy') + i(xy' + x'y)$$

(2, p. 101)

With the above rules the set of complex numbers with the operations of addition and multiplication form a field. This can be proved from the definition of equality, addition, multiplication and the fact that the real number system is a field.

The complex number system is an extension of the real number system which is a complete ordered field. In modern algebra the complex number system is regarded as a two - dimensional vector space over a field of real or rational numbers with basis elements 1 and i . (8, p. 44).

Definition II

The quaternion number system is a four - dimensional vector space with basis elements 1, i, j and k over a field of real or **complex** numbers, in which the rule for multiplication is as given below. (Ĉ, p. 44).

A quaternion can be written $Q = 1.a + i.b + j.c + k.d$ where a, b, c, d are real or **complex** numbers. Using the rules $i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1$; $ij = k, jk = i, ki = j, ji = -k, kj = -i, ik = -j$ (1, p. 58) we can define multiplication for quaternions. The rules of equality, addition and multiplication may now be written in the form,

$$(2.4) \quad a_1 + ib_1 + jc_1 + kd_1 = a_2 + ib_2 + jc_2 + kd_2$$

$$\text{iff } a_1 = a_2, \quad b_1 = b_2, \quad c_1 = c_2 \quad \text{and} \quad d_1 = d_2$$

$$(2.5) \quad (a_1 + ib_1 + jc_1 + kd_1) \pm (a_2 + ib_2 + jc_2 + kd_2) \\ = (a_1 \pm a_2) + i(b_1 \pm b_2) + j(c_1 \pm c_2) + k(d_1 \pm d_2)$$

$$(2.6) \quad (a_1 + ib_1 + jc_1 + kd_1) \cdot (a_2 + ib_2 + jc_2 + kd_2) \\ = (a_1a_2 - b_1b_2 - c_1c_2 - d_1d_2) + i(a_1b_2 + b_1a_2 + c_1d_2 - d_1c_2) \\ + j(c_1a_2 + a_1c_2 + d_1b_2 - b_1d_2) + k(d_1a_2 + a_1d_2 + b_1c_2 - c_1b_2)$$

According to the above rules, multiplication in the quaternion number system is associative but not commutative.

For example,

$$ik = -j$$

$$ki = j$$

therefore $ik \neq ki$,

$$\text{and } (ik)k = (-j)k = -i$$

$$i(k.k) = i(-1) = -i$$

there fore $(ik)k \neq i(k.k)$.

The system of quaternions also has an identity for multiplication, and every non zero quaternion has multiplicative inverses. The left and right inverse of each quaternion is unique by the following proof.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Let } Q &= a + ib + jc + kd \\ \text{and } Q' &= a' + ib' + jc' + kd', \\ \text{where } Q' &\text{ is the right inverse of } Q. \\ \text{then } QQ' &= 1. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} QQ' &= (aa' - bb' - cc' - dd') \\ &\quad + i (ba' + ab' - dc' + cd') \\ &\quad + j (ca' + db' + ac' - bd') \\ &\quad + k (da' - cb' + bc' + ad') \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Therefore } aa' - bb' - cc' - dd' &= 1 \\ ba' + ab' - dc' + cd' &= 0 \\ ca' + db' + ac' - bd' &= 0 \\ da' - cb' + bc' + ad' &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

We can solve these four equations for a', b', c', d' .

$$\text{The determinant } \begin{vmatrix} a & -b & -c & -d \\ b & a & -d & c \\ c & d & a & -b \\ d & -c & b & a \end{vmatrix} = (a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + d^2)^2 \dots (1)$$

is not zero, except when $a = b = c = d = 0$. This shows us that the solutions a, b, c, d exist and are unique. This implies that Q has a unique right inverse Q^{-1} , such that $QQ^{-1} = 1$.

Similarly the right inverse of Q^{-1} , $(Q^{-1})^{-1}$ may be found and it is found to be Q . Therefore $Q^{-1}Q = 1$ and this implies that the right inverse of Q , Q^{-1} is also the left inverse of Q .

Because the quaternion number system is a four-dimensional vector space which is also a ring containing at least one element distinct from zero and in which the equations $ax = b$, $ya = b$, when $a \neq 0$ always have solutions x and y , the quaternion number system is called a skew field or a division algebra. (8, p.36)

Note : If any two of the coefficients of i , j or k are made zero for every quaternion in a set, then the set of quaternions so formed is isomorphic with a similar set of complex numbers.

Definition III

The Cayley number system is a hypercomplex system with eight basis elements $1, e_1, e_2, e_3, \dots, e_7$ having multiplication defined as below.

Let a_0, a_1, \dots, a_7 be a set of real or rational numbers. A Cayley number can be written $C = 1 \cdot a_0 + e_1 a_1 + e_2 a_2 + \dots + e_7 a_7$. The multiplication rules for the basis elements are

$$\begin{aligned} e_i^2 &= -1 & (i = 1, 2, \dots, 7) \\ e_i e_j &= -e_j e_i & (j = 1, 2, \dots, 7) \\ e_1 e_2 &= e_3, \quad e_1 e_4 = e_5, \quad e_1 e_6 = e_7 = e_2 e_5 = e_3 e_4 \\ e_2 e_4 &= -e_6 = e_5 e_3 & \text{where the suffixes in each} \end{aligned}$$

equation can be cyclically permuted.

From the above rules, we can see that multiplication in the Cayley number system is non-commutative and non-associative.

For example,

$$e_7 e_5 = -e_2 \quad \text{and} \quad e_5 e_7 = e_2,$$

therefore $e_7 e_5 \neq e_5 e_7$

Also

$$e_4 (e_7 e_5) = e_4 (-e_2) = -e_4 e_2 = -e_6,$$

$$\text{and} \quad (e_4 e_7) e_5 = e_3 e_5 = e_6$$

therefore $e_4 (e_7 e_5) \neq (e_4 e_7) e_5$

Note :

If $a_4 = a_5 = a_6 = a_7 = 0$ the set of Cayley numbers so formed is isomorphic with the set of quaternions.

The Cayley numbers have an identity for multiplication and each Cayley number has a left and right inverse.

Let C be any Cayley number

C' be its right inverse

$$\text{Then } C \cdot C' = 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Let } C &= a_0 + e_1 a_1 + e_2 a_2 + \dots + e_7 a_7 \quad \text{and} \\ C' &= a_0' + e_1 a_1' + e_2 a_2' + \dots + e_7 a_7', \quad \text{then} \\ CC' &= A_0 + e_1 A_1 + e_2 A_2 + e_3 A_3 + \dots + e_7 A_7 = 1 \quad \text{where} \\ A_0 &= (a_0 a_0' - a_1 a_1' - a_2 a_2' - a_3 a_3' - a_4 a_4' - a_5 a_5' - a_6 a_6' - a_7 a_7') \\ A_1 &= (a_1 a_0' + a_0 a_1' - a_3 a_2' + a_2 a_3' - a_5 a_4' + a_4 a_5' - a_7 a_6' + a_6 a_7') \\ A_2 &= (a_2 a_0' + a_3 a_1' + a_0 a_2' - a_1 a_3' + a_6 a_4' - a_7 a_5' - a_4 a_6' + a_5 a_7') \\ A_3 &= (a_3 a_0' - a_2 a_1' + a_2 a_2' + a_0 a_3' - a_7 a_4' - a_6 a_5' + a_5 a_6' + a_4 a_7') \\ A_4 &= (a_4 a_0' + a_5 a_1' - a_6 a_2' + a_3 a_3' + a_0 a_4' - a_7 a_5' + a_2 a_6' - a_3 a_7') \\ A_5 &= (a_5 a_0' - a_4 a_1' + a_4 a_2' + a_3 a_3' + a_0 a_5' + a_7 a_6' - a_6 a_7' - a_5 a_4') \\ A_6 &= (a_6 a_0' + a_7 a_1' + a_4 a_2' - a_5 a_3' + a_0 a_6' + a_7 a_5' + a_0 a_6' - a_1 a_7') \\ A_7 &= (a_7 a_0' - a_6 a_1' - a_5 a_2' + a_4 a_3' + a_3 a_4' + a_2 a_5' + a_1 a_6' + a_0 a_7') \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$A_0 = 1$$

$$A_1 = A_2 = A_3 = A_4 = A_5 = A_6 = A_7 = 0$$

From these eight equations we can find the solutions a'_1, a'_2, a'_3, \dots
 $\dots a'_7$

Consider the last seven equations, the trivial solutions are

$$a'_0 = ka_0, a'_1 = -ka_1, a'_2 = -ka_2, a'_3 = -ka_3, \\ a'_4 = -ka_4, a'_5 = -ka_5, a'_6 = -ka_6, a'_7 = -ka_7$$

where k is arbitrary constant. From the first equation the value of k is found to be $\frac{1}{a_0^2 + a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_7^2}$ C has a right inverse C^{-1} , such that $CC^{-1} = 1$.

Similarly the right inverse of C^{-1} , $(C^{-1})^{-1}$, may be found and it is found to be C . Therefore $C^{-1}C = 1$, and this implies that the right inverse of C , (C^{-1}) , is also the left inverse of C .

Therefore the algebra of Cayley numbers is a non-associative division algebra.

The relation between a hypercomplex number and its conjugate

The product of a complex number and its conjugate is a real number which is always equal to the square of its modulus. Its inverse is the product of the reciprocal of the square of its modulus and its conjugate.

Similar facts hold for quaternions and Cayley numbers as the following work shows.

(2.7) Let $z = x + iy$ be a complex number,

then $\bar{z} = x - iy$ is its complex conjugate,

and $\bar{z}z = z\bar{z} = |z|^2 = x^2 + y^2$, where $|z|$ is the modulus of z .

(2.8) Let $Q = a + ib + jc + kd$ be a quaternion,

then $\bar{Q} = a - ib - jc - kd$ is its quaternion

conjugate,

and $\bar{Q}Q = Q\bar{Q} = |Q|^2 = a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + d^2$, where $|Q|$

is the modulus of Q .

(2.9) Let $C = a_0 + e_1 a_1 + e_2 a_2 + \dots + e_7 a_7$

be a Cayley number

then $\bar{C} = a_0 - e_1 a_1 - e_2 a_2 - \dots - e_7 a_7$

is its Cayley conjugate,

and $\bar{C}C = C\bar{C} = |C|^2 = a_0^2 + a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_7^2$

where $|C|$ is the modulus of C .

(2.10) Let z^{-1} be a right inverse of z

then $zz^{-1} = 1$

and $z^{-1} = \frac{1}{z} = \frac{\bar{z}}{z\bar{z}} = \frac{\bar{z}}{|z|^2}$;

(2.11) Let Q^{-1} be a right inverse of Q ,

we have $QQ^{-1} = 1$, where

$$Q^{-1} = \frac{1}{Q} = \frac{\bar{Q}}{Q\bar{Q}} = \frac{\bar{Q}}{|Q|^2} ;$$

(2.12) and if C^{-1} is a right inverse of C , we have

$CC^{-1} = 1$, where

$$C^{-1} = \frac{1}{C} = \frac{\bar{C}}{C\bar{C}} = \frac{\bar{C}}{|C|^2} .$$

Similarly if z^{-1} , Q^{-1} , C^{-1} are left inverse, we get the

same expressions. All these results are easily proved from the

definitions.

Theorem I

If Q_1 and Q_2 are any quaternions, then $\overline{Q_1 Q_2} = \bar{Q}_2 \bar{Q}_1$

Proof let $Q_1 = a_1 + ib_1 + jc_1 + kd_1$
 $Q_2 = a_2 + ib_2 + jc_2 + kd_2$ } be the two quaternion numbers.
 then $\bar{Q}_1 = a_1 - ib_1 - jc_1 - kd_1$
 $\bar{Q}_2 = a_2 - ib_2 - jc_2 - kd_2$ } are their quaternion conjugates.

We have $Q_1 Q_2 = (a_1 + ib_1 + jc_1 + kd_1)(a_2 + ib_2 + jc_2 + kd_2)$
 $= A_0 + iA_1 + jA_2 + kA_3$

where $A_0 = (a_1 a_2 - b_1 b_2 - c_1 c_2 - d_1 d_2)$
 $A_1 = (b_1 a_2 + a_1 b_2 - d_1 c_2 + c_1 d_2)$
 $A_2 = (c_1 a_2 + d_1 b_2 + a_1 c_2 - b_1 d_2), A_3 = (d_1 a_2 - c_1 b_2 + b_1 c_2 + a_1 d_2)$

then $\overline{Q_1 Q_2} = A_0 - iA_1 - jA_2 - kA_3$

but $\bar{Q}_2 \bar{Q}_1 = A_0 - iA_1 - jA_2 - kA_3$

therefore $\overline{Q_1 Q_2} = \bar{Q}_2 \bar{Q}_1 \dots\dots\dots (3)$

Theorem II

For any two Cayley numbers C_1 and C_2 , $\overline{C_1 C_2} = \bar{C}_2 \bar{C}_1$

Proof Similar to the proof of theorem I