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THE ROOTS OF A GENERALIZED QUATERNION

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ABSTRACT. Let $\left(\frac{u,v}{\mathbb{F}}\right)$ be a generalized quaternion algebra over an arbitrary field \mathbb{F} , that is a four dimensional vector space over \mathbb{F} with the four basis elements $1, i_1, i_2, i_3$ satisfying the following multiplication laws:

$$i_1^2 = u, \quad i_2^2 = v, \quad i_3 = i_1 i_2 = -i_2 i_1,$$

and 1 acting as the unit element.

We first show the existence of a recurring relation on the powers of elements in $\left(\frac{u,v}{\mathbb{F}}\right)$, and then we show how Dickson polynomials of both first and second kind can be used to derive explicit formulas for computing the zeros of the polynomials of the form $P(x) = x^n - q$, where q lies in a generalized quaternion algebra over an arbitrary field \mathbb{F} of characteristic not 2.

1. INTRODUCTION

The algebras of generalized quaternions over fields with characteristic not 2 are very important non-commutative algebras. Examples of quaternion algebras are the skew field of Hamilton's quaternions \mathbb{H} or the square 2×2 matrices algebras $M_2(\mathbb{F})$ (cf. [1]).

It is well known that $\left(\frac{u,v}{\mathbb{F}}\right)$ is a four-dimensional associative algebra with central field \mathbb{F} .

Consider on $\left(\frac{u,v}{\mathbb{F}}\right)$ the anti-involution which sends a quaternion $x = (x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3)$ to its conjugate $\bar{x} = (x_0, -x_1, -x_2, -x_3)$; we define as usual *trace* and *norm* of a quaternion by

$$Tr(x) = x + \bar{x} \quad \text{and} \quad N(x) = x\bar{x}.$$

The latter functions lead to a linear recurring relation between powers of generalized quaternions, as shown in the next Theorem:

Theorem 1.1. *Let be $q \in \left(\frac{u,v}{\mathbb{F}}\right)$. If $U_n = U_n(Tr(q), N(q))$ is the n -th term of the Fibonacci sequence with parameters $Tr(q)$ and $N(q)$ then the n -th power of $q \in \left(\frac{u,v}{\mathbb{F}}\right)$ is given by:*

$$q^n = qU_n - N(q)U_{n-1}. \tag{1.1}$$

Proof. The powers of a quaternion $q = (a_1, b_1, c_1, d_1)$ are recurring with characteristic polynomial:

$$p(x) = x^2 - Tr(q)x + N(q).$$

Let $q^n = (a_n, b_n, c_n, d_n)$: if $W_n(s, t, h, k)$ is the n -th term of the linear recurring sequence with initial values s and t and characteristic polynomial $x^2 - hx + k$, we

set $U_n = W_n(0, 1, h, k)$ and $T_n = W_n(1, 0, h, k) = -kU_{n-1}$. Then for all $n > 1$:

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= W_n(1, a_1, Tr(q), N(q)) = T_n + a_1U_n = -N(q)U_{n-1} + a_1U_n; \\ b_n &= W_n(0, b_1, Tr(q), N(q)) = b_1U_n; \\ c_n &= W_n(0, c_1, Tr(q), N(q)) = c_1U_n; \\ d_n &= W_n(0, d_1, Tr(q), N(q)) = d_1U_n. \end{aligned}$$

Thus we have $q^n = U_nq - N(q)U_{n-1}$. \square

Thanks to Theorem 1.1 we are now able to write a polynomial $P(x) \in \left(\frac{u, v}{\mathbb{F}}\right)[x]$ of the form $P(x) = x^n - q$ in a different way which is easier to study, that is

$$P(x) = x^n - q = U_nx - N(x)U_{n-1} - q.$$

We are concerned with polynomials of the form $P(x) = x^n - q$, where $q \in \left(\frac{u, v}{\mathbb{F}}\right)$ and $n \geq 2$. Our goal is to find the zeros of such polynomials in the algebra $\left(\frac{u, v}{\mathbb{K}}\right) \cong \mathbb{K} \otimes \left(\frac{u, v}{\mathbb{F}}\right)$ obtained by $\left(\frac{u, v}{\mathbb{F}}\right)$ extending components to \mathbb{K} , the algebraic closure of \mathbb{F} .

There is a Fundamental theorem of algebra for \mathbb{H} (see [2] and [3]) which says that if the polynomial has only one term of highest degree then there exists a root in \mathbb{H} . The proof is topological, so it can't be extended to quaternion algebra over finite fields. Furthermore, a closed formula for the roots is unknown for general polynomials.

Gordon and Motzkin [6] considered the problem of constructing polynomials having specified numbers of roots, and proved the existence of a polynomial of degree n with exactly h roots, where $0 \leq h \leq n^4$ for quaternion algebra which are division rings.

Niven [4] and Brand [5] gave closed formulas for the roots of polynomials we are interested in, and more recently De Leo, Ducati and Leonardi [7] presented a matrix approach to find the solutions of more general unilateral polynomials, but all this results are in the special case of real quaternions \mathbb{H} .

Before we face the problem of finding roots of $P(x)$ we introduce some polynomials, closely related to Dickson polynomials, that will be helpful for the main results.

Definition 1.2. Let $P(x) = x^n - q$ be a polynomial in $\left(\frac{u, v}{\mathbb{F}}\right)[x]$ of degree $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Let be

$$D_k(y, \rho) = \sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor \frac{k}{2} \rfloor} \frac{k}{k-i} \binom{k-i}{i} (-\rho)^i y^{k-2i}$$

the Dickson polynomial of the first kind of degree k , and let

$$E_k(y, \rho) = \sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor \frac{k}{2} \rfloor} \binom{k-i}{i} (-\rho)^i y^{k-2i}$$

be the Dickson polynomials of second kind of degree k . We define polynomials

$$d_{n,q}(y, \rho) = D_n(y, \rho) - Tr(q), \quad c_{n,q}(y) = y^n - N(q).$$

Theorem 1.3. *Let be $\mathbb{F}' \supseteq \mathbb{F}$ a field, and let $x \in \mathbb{F}' \otimes \left(\frac{u, v}{\mathbb{F}}\right)$ such that $P(x) = 0$. Then*

$$c_{n,q}(N(x)) = 0$$

and

$$d_{n,q}(Tr(x), N(x)) = 0.$$

Proof. The assumption $P(x) = 0$ implies $x^n = q$; hence

$$N(x)^n = N(x^n) = N(q),$$

that is $N(x)$ is a root of $c_{n,q}(y)$. Moreover, the Lagrange identity applied to $x^k + \bar{x}^k$ yields, for every k , to

$$\begin{aligned} Tr(x^k) &= x^k + \bar{x}^k = \sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor \frac{k}{2} \rfloor} (-1)^i \frac{k}{i} \binom{k-i-1}{i-1} x^i \bar{x}^i (x + \bar{x})^{k-2i} = \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor \frac{k}{2} \rfloor} \frac{k}{k-i} \binom{k-i}{i} (-N(x))^i (Tr(x))^{k-2i} = \\ &= D_k(Tr(x), N(x)). \end{aligned}$$

In particular, if $k = n$ it follows that $Tr(x^n) = Tr(q)$ and

$$D_n(Tr(x), N(x)) - Tr(q) = 0;$$

thus $Tr(x)$ is a root of $d_{n,q}(y, N(x))$. \square

Theorem 1.4. *Let be ν and τ roots of $c_{n,q}(y)$ and $d_{n,q}(y, \nu)$ respectively. If $V_k = V_k(\tau, \nu)$ is the Lucas sequence with parameters τ and ν then for all $n \geq 1$*

$$Tr(q) = V_n.$$

Proof. Let be $r, s \in \mathbb{K}$. We know by [8] that Dickson polynomials of first kind have the property

$$D_k(r, s) = V_k(r, s), \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{N}.$$

If τ is a root of $d_{n,q}(y, \nu)$ then

$$0 = d_{n,q}(\tau, \nu) = D_n(\tau, \nu) - Tr(q) = V_n(\tau, \nu) - Tr(q).$$

\square

2. THE ROOTS OF A GENERALIZED QUATERNION

In this section we see how the roots of polynomials $c_{n,q}(y)$ and $d_{n,q}(y, \rho)$ of Definition 1.2 can be used to derive explicit formulas for direct computation of all the zeros of $P(x)$.

Theorem 2.1. *Let be ν and τ roots of polynomials $c_{n,q}(y)$ and $d_{n,q}(y, \nu)$ respectively. If the n -th term of the Fibonacci sequence with parameters τ and ν is in \mathbb{K}^* then*

$$x = (q + \nu U_{n-1}(\tau, \nu)) U_n(\tau, \nu)^{-1} \tag{2.1}$$

is a zero for $P(x)$.

Proof. Let be $x = (q + \nu U_{n-1}(\tau, \nu)) U_n(\tau, \nu)^{-1}$. Using the properties of Fibonacci and Lucas sequences $U_n = U_n(\tau, \nu)$ and $V_n = V_n(\tau, \nu)$, the trace of x is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Tr}(x) &= U_n^{-1} (\text{Tr}(q) + 2\nu U_{n-1}) = U_n^{-1} (V_n + 2\nu U_{n-1}) = \\ &= U_n^{-1} (V_n + U_n V_1 - U_1 V_n) = U_n^{-1} (V_n + U_n \tau - V_n) = \tau, \end{aligned}$$

and the norm of x is

$$\begin{aligned} N(x) &= U_n^{-2} (N(q) + \nu U_{n-1} \text{Tr}(q) + \nu^2 U_{n-1}^2) = \\ &= U_n^{-2} (\nu^n + \nu U_{n-1} V_n + \nu^2 U_{n-2} U_n + \nu^n) = \\ &= U_n^{-2} (2\nu^n + \nu U_{n-1} U_{n+1} - \nu \tau U_n U_{n-1} + \nu^2 U_{n-2} U_n) = \\ &= U_n^{-2} (2\nu^n + 2\nu U_{n-1} U_{n+1} - \nu U_n (\tau U_{n-1} - \nu U_{n-2})) = \\ &= U_n^{-2} \nu (2(\nu^{n-1} + U_{n-1} U_{n+1}) - U_n^2) = U_n^{-2} \nu (2U_n^2 - U_n^2) = \nu. \end{aligned}$$

Hence for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$ $U_k(\text{Tr}(x), N(x)) = U_k(\tau, \nu) = U_k$ and

$$x^n = U_n x - \nu U_{n-1} = q + \nu U_{n-1} - \nu U_{n-1} = q.$$

□

Theorem 2.2. *Let be ν a root of $c_{n,q}(y)$ and τ a root of $d_{n,q}(y, \nu)$. If $E_{n-1}(\tau, \nu) \neq 0$ then*

$$x = (q + \nu U_{n-1}(\tau, \nu)) U_n(\tau, \nu)^{-1}$$

is a zero of $P(x)$.

Proof. This corollary follows immediately from Theorem 2.1, using the fact that for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$ one has $E_{k-1}(\tau, \nu) = U_k(\tau, \nu)$ (cf. [8] for example). □

Theorem 2.3. *Let be $q \in \left(\frac{u, v}{\mathbb{F}}\right)$. If $q \notin \mathbb{F}$ then for all x such that $x^n = q$*

$$U_n = U_n(\text{Tr}(x), N(x)) \neq 0.$$

Proof. Suppose that exists x such that $x^n = q$ and $U_n^{(x)} = 0$. Then

$$q = x^n = U_n x - N(x) U_{n-1} = U_{n+1} \in \mathbb{K}.$$

Being $q \in \left(\frac{u, v}{\mathbb{F}}\right)$

$$q \in \mathbb{K} \cap \left(\frac{u, v}{\mathbb{F}}\right) = \mathbb{F},$$

a contradiction. □

Theorem 2.3 says that if $q \notin \mathbb{F}$ then $P(x)$ has at most n^2 distinct roots in $\left(\frac{u, v}{\mathbb{K}}\right)$ given by Equation (2.1).

We now investigate what happens when $q \in \mathbb{F}$. Let $q \in \left(\frac{u, v}{\mathbb{F}}\right)$ be a quaternion, and $d_{n,q}(y, \rho)$ and $E_{n-1}(y, \rho)$ polynomials as in Definition 1.2. Let us introduce the polynomial

$$m(y, \rho) = \text{GCD}(d_{n,q}(y, \rho), E_{n-1}(y, \rho)).$$

We have the following Theorem:

Theorem 2.4. *Let ν be a root of $c_{n,q}(y)$. If τ is a zero of $m(y, \nu)$ then every element of the set*

$$\mathbb{S}_{\tau,\nu} = \left\{ x \in \left(\frac{u,v}{\mathbb{K}} \right) \mid \text{Tr}(x) = \tau, N(x) = \nu \right\} \quad (2.2)$$

is a zero of $x^n - q$.

Proof. Since τ is a root of $E_{n-1}(y, \nu)$ then $U_n(\tau, \nu) = 0$. Thus, if $x \in \mathbb{S}_{\tau,\nu}$ and τ is a zero of $d_{n,q}(y, \nu)$ one has

$$x^n = U_n x - \nu U_{n-1} = U_{n+1} = 2^{-1} V_n = q.$$

□

Example 2.5. *Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{F}_{31}$ be the finite field with 31 elements and let $\left(\frac{-1, -1}{\mathbb{F}_{31}} \right)$ be the quaternion algebra over \mathbb{F}_{31} . Let us consider the quaternion $q = (23, 17, 27, 24)$ and the equation $x^3 = (23, 17, 27, 24)$. The polynomial $c_{3,(23,17,27,24)}(y)$ has three distinct roots in \mathbb{F}_{31} : $\nu_1 = 17, \nu_2 = 22, \nu_3 = 23$. Thus we have three polynomials*

$$\begin{aligned} d_{3,(23,17,27,24)}(y, 17) &= (17 + y)(18 + y)(27 + y), \\ d_{3,(23,17,27,24)}(y, 22) &= (11 + y)(23 + y)(28 + y), \\ d_{3,(23,17,27,24)}(y, 23) &= (16 + y)(22 + y)(24 + y). \end{aligned}$$

We can now apply Equation (2.1) to nine couples of parameters: $(14, 17), (13, 17), (4, 17), (20, 22), (8, 22), (3, 22), (15, 23), (9, 23), (7, 23)$ getting the solutions of the equation $x^3 = (23, 17, 27, 24)$:

$$\begin{aligned} x_{(14,17)} &= (7, 2, 5, 1), & x_{(13,17)} &= (22, 15, 22, 23), \\ x_{(4,17)} &= (2, 14, 4, 7), & x_{(20,22)} &= (10, 8, 20, 4), \\ x_{(8,22)} &= (4, 10, 25, 5), & x_{(3,22)} &= (17, 13, 17, 22), \\ x_{(15,23)} &= (23, 3, 23, 17), & x_{(9,23)} &= (20, 19, 1, 25), \\ x_{(7,23)} &= (19, 9, 7, 20). \end{aligned}$$

Example 2.6. *Let us consider the algebra of Hamilton's quaternion \mathbb{H} and the equation $x^4 = -4$. The polynomial $c_{4,-4}(y)$ has four distinct roots: $-2, 2, -2i, 2i$. Then we have the four polynomials*

$$\begin{aligned} d_{4,-4}(y, -2) &= y^4 + 8y^2 + 16, \\ d_{4,-4}(y, 2) &= y^4 - 8y^2 + 16, \\ d_{4,-4}(y, -2i) &= y^4 + 8iy^2, \\ d_{4,-4}(y, 2i) &= y^4 - 8iy^2. \end{aligned}$$

Since $E_3(y, -2) = y^3 + 4y$ and $E_3(y, 2) = y^3 - 4y$, we have $m(y, -2) = y^2 + 4$ and $m(y, 2) = y^2 - 4$. Thus by Theorem 2.4 we know that the roots of $x^4 + 4 = 0$ having norm -2 are all in the sets $\mathbb{S}_{-2i,-2}$ and $\mathbb{S}_{2i,-2}$, and those having norm 2 are all in the sets $\mathbb{S}_{-2,2}$ and $\mathbb{S}_{2,2}$.

For $\nu = -2i$ we have $m(y, -2i) = y$. Then the root $\tau_1 = 0$ of $d_{4,-4}(y, -2i)$ give the set $\mathbb{S}_{0,-2i}$, while the other two roots namely $\tau_2 = -2 + 2i$ and $\tau_3 = 2 - 2i$ allow to write two distinct roots of $x^4 = -4$ using Equation (2.1):

$$x_{(\tau_1,-2i)} = (-1 + i, 0, 0, 0), \quad x_{(\tau_2,-2i)} = (1 - i, 0, 0, 0).$$

Similarly, for $\nu = 2i$ we have $m(y, 2i) = y$. Then we have $\tau_4 = 0$ and we find the set of solutions $\mathbb{S}_{0,2i}$, and the two roots $\tau_5 = -2 - 2i$ and $\tau_6 = 2 + 2i$ allow to write the roots:

$$x_{(\tau_5, 2i)} = (-1 - i, 0, 0, 0), \quad x_{(\tau_6, 2i)} = (1 + i, 0, 0, 0).$$

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