ON THE WEDDERBURN NORM CONDITION FOR CYCLIC ALGEBRAS*

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1. Introduction. Let F be any non-modular field, i a root of a cyclic equation in F of degree n and with roots $\theta^{r}(i)$. Suppose that A is a cyclic algebra with basis

where

$$v^r i = \theta^r(i) v^r, v^n = \gamma \text{ in } F.$$

 $i^r y^s$, $(r, s = 0, 1, \cdots, n-1)$,

J. H. M. Wedderburn has proved \dagger that A is a division algebra if γ^r is not the norm, N(a), of any a in F(i) for every positive integer r less than n. It has never been shown, however, that this condition is a necessary one; but the problem of finding complete necessary and sufficient conditions has been reduced to the case n a power of a single prime. \ddagger

In the present paper cyclic algebras of order sixteen with the corresponding cyclic quartic in its canonical form§

$$\phi(\omega) \equiv \dot{\omega}^4 + 2\nu(1+\Delta^2)\omega^2 + \nu^2\Delta^2(1+\Delta^2) = 0$$

such that ν and Δ are in F, and $\tau = 1 + \Delta^2$ is not the square of any quantity of F, are considered. The norm N(a) of a polynomial in i is a rather complicated quartic form in four variables, yet we can secure the result that $\gamma^2 = N(a)$ if and only if $\gamma = \alpha^2 - \beta^2 \tau$ for α and β in F, a curious property of cyclic quartic fields. When the above equation is satisfied the algebra A is expressible as a direct product of two generalized quaternion algebras. Necessary and sufficient conditions are secured that our algebras A of order sixteen be division algebras, and it is shown that for the particularly interesting case where F is the field of all rational numbers the Wedderburn condition is necessary as well as sufficient.

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[†] Transactions of this Society, vol. 15 (1914), pp. 162-166.

[‡] See a paper by the author, On direct products, cyclic algebras, and pure Riemann matrices, to appear in the Transactions of this Society, January, 1931.

[§] See R. Garver, Quartic equations with certain groups, Annals of Mathematics, vol. 29 (1928), pp. 47-51.

2. The Basic Theorem. Let F(x) be a cyclic quartic field. Then it is known (loc. cit.) that F(x) = F(i), where i satisfies the equation

(1)
$$\phi(\omega) \equiv \omega^4 + 2\nu\tau\omega^2 + \nu^2\Delta^2\tau = 0,$$

with $\tau = 1 + \Delta^2$ not the square of any quantity of *F* and

(2)
$$\nu \neq 0, \ \tau, \ \Delta \neq 0$$

all in F. Moreover if we define u by the equation

$$(3) i^2 = \nu(u-\tau),$$

then

(4)
$$u^2 = \tau, \qquad \theta(i) = \frac{i}{\Delta}(u+1),$$

is the polynomial whose iteratives $i = \theta^0(i) = \theta^4(i)$, $\theta(i)$, $\theta^2(i) = -i$, $\theta^3(i) = \theta(-i) = -\theta(i)$ give the four roots in F(i) of $\phi(\omega) = 0$. Every quantity of F(i) is expressible in the form

(5)
$$a = a_1 + a_2 i$$
, $(a_1 \text{ and } a_2 \text{ in } F(u))$,

and a = 0 if and only if $a_1 = a_2 = 0$. A quantity

(6)
$$a_1 = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 u$$
, $(\alpha_1 \text{ and } \alpha_2 \text{ in } F)$,

is zero if and only if $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = 0$; and similarly

(7)
$$\alpha_1^2 - \alpha_2^2 \tau$$

vanishes if and only if $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = 0$ by our restriction on τ .

We shall use repeatedly the following simple lemma.

LEMMA 1. Every product of a finite number of scalars of the forms

$$(8) \qquad \qquad \lambda^2 - \mu^2 \tau_2$$

(8')
$$(\lambda^2 - \mu^2 \tau)^{-1}, \qquad \lambda^2 - \mu^2 \tau \neq 0,$$

with λ and μ in F, is expressible in the form (8) for λ and μ in F.

The truth of this is evident since

$$(\lambda_1 + \mu_1 u)(\lambda_2 + \mu_2 u) = (\lambda_1 \mu_1 + \lambda_2 \mu_2 \tau) + (\lambda_1 \mu_2 + \lambda_2 \mu_1)u,$$

and hence

(9)
$$(\lambda_1^2 - \mu_1^2 \tau)(\lambda_2^2 - \mu_2^2 \tau) = (\lambda_1 \mu_1 + \lambda_2 \mu_2 \tau)^2 - (\lambda_1 \mu_2 + \lambda_2 \mu_1)^2 \tau;$$

while if $\epsilon = \lambda^2 - \mu^2 \tau \neq 0$, then

(10)
$$\epsilon^{-1} = \epsilon^{-2}\epsilon = \epsilon^{-2}(\lambda^2 - \mu^2 \tau) = (\lambda \epsilon^{-1})^2 - (\mu \epsilon^{-1})^2 \tau$$

Let us now assume that $\gamma \neq 0$ is a scalar in F, such that $\gamma^2 = N(a)$, where a is in the cyclic field F(i). We may write $a^{(r)} = a[\theta^r(i)]$, $(r=0, 1, \cdots)$, whence a'' = a(-i). Then u' = -u; and if a_1 is in F(u) so that a_1 has the form $a_1 = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 u$, we have $a_1 = a_1'$ and

(11)
$$N(a_1) = a_1 a_1' a_1' a_1'' = (a_1 a_1')^2 = (\alpha_1^2 - \alpha_2^2 \tau)^2.$$

Let us write $\gamma^2 = N(a)$, where

(12)
$$a = a_2 + a_3 i$$
, $(a_2 \text{ and } a_3 \text{ in } F(u))$.

We shall first consider the case $a_3 = 0$. Then $a = a_2 = \alpha_3 + \alpha_4 u$, and

(13)
$$\gamma^2 = (\alpha_3^2 - \alpha_4^2 \tau)^2.$$

This equation in a field F implies that

(14)
$$\gamma = \pm (\alpha_3^2 - \alpha_4^2 \tau).$$

If $\gamma = \alpha_3^2 - \alpha_4^2 \tau$, we have expressed γ in the form

(15)
$$\gamma = \alpha^2 - \beta^2 \tau$$

with α and β in *F*, the result desired. Since $\tau = 1 + \Delta^2$, we have

$$(16) -1 = \Delta^2 - \tau$$

Hence if $\gamma = -(\alpha_3^2 - \alpha_4^2 \tau)$, then $\gamma = (\Delta^2 - \tau) (\alpha_3^2 - \alpha_4^2 \tau)$; and, by Lemma 1, γ has again the desired form (15).

Next let $a_3 \neq 0$. Then, if $a_3 = \lambda_3 + \lambda_4 u$, $a_1 = a_3^{-1}a_2$, we have

(17)
$$N(a) = N[a_3(a_1+i)] = (\lambda_3^2 - \lambda_4^2 \tau)^2 N(a_1+i).$$

Let $\delta = \gamma (\lambda_3^2 - \lambda_4^2 \tau)^{-1}$. Then

(18)
$$\delta^2 = \gamma^2 (\lambda_3^2 - \lambda_4^2 \tau)^{-2} = N(a_1 + i).$$

But if $b = a_1 + i$, then $\delta^2 = (bb'') (bb'')'$ so that if $w = \delta [(bb'')']^{-1}$, then $\delta = \delta' = w'bb''$. It follows that $\delta^2 = w w'N(b) = w w'\delta^2$. Hence

(19)
$$ww' = 1, w = bb''\delta^{-1}, bb'' = \delta w,$$

where $w = bb^{\prime\prime}\delta^{-1} = \xi_1 + \xi_2 u$ is in F(u). If $a_1 = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 u$, α_1 and α_2 in F, we have, by (3),

$$bb'' = a_1^2 - i^2 = \alpha_1^2 + \alpha_2^2 \tau + 2\alpha_1 \alpha_2 u - \nu(u - \tau)$$

= $(\alpha_1^2 + \alpha_2^2 \tau + \nu \tau) + (2\alpha_1 \alpha_2 - \nu) u.$

From the linear independence of 1 and u this implies

(20)
$$\alpha_1^2 + \alpha_2^2 \tau + \nu \tau = \delta \xi_1, \ 2\alpha_1 \alpha_2 - \nu = \delta \xi_2.$$

We obtain $2\alpha_1\alpha_2\tau - \nu\tau = \delta\xi_2\tau$, and by addition

(21)
$$\alpha_1^2 + 2\alpha_1\alpha_2\tau + \alpha_2^2\tau = \delta(\xi_1 + \xi_2\tau).$$

Since $1-\tau = -\Delta^2$, if we complete the square in (21), it becomes

(22)
$$(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \tau)^2 + \alpha_2^2 (\tau - \tau^2) = (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \tau)^2 - (\alpha_2 \Delta)^2 \tau$$

= $\delta(\xi_1 + \xi_2 \tau).$

Consider now the equation ww' = 1, or

(23)
$$\xi_1^2 - \xi_2^2 \tau = 1, \ \xi_2^2 \tau = (\xi_1 + 1)(\xi_1 - 1).$$

Let $\xi_1 - 1 = 2\pi$, $\xi_1 + 1 = 2\sigma$. Then

Suppose first that $\xi_1+1=0$ so that $\sigma=0$ and $\xi_2=0$. Then $\xi_1+\xi_2\tau=\xi_1=-1=\Delta_1^2-\tau$. Hence in this case we have

(25)
$$\xi_1 + \xi_2 \tau = \lambda_5^2 - \lambda_6^2 \tau, \qquad (\lambda_5 \text{ and } \lambda_6 \text{ in } F).$$

Next let $\xi_1 + 1 \neq 0$, so that $\sigma \neq 0$; and let us define ϵ by the equation

(26)
$$2\sigma\epsilon = \xi_2.$$

Then (24) gives $4\sigma\pi = 4\sigma^2\epsilon^2\tau$, whence

(27)
$$\pi = \epsilon^2 \sigma \tau.$$

But $2(\sigma - \pi) = \xi_1 + 1 - (\xi_1 - 1) = 2$, whence

(28)
$$1 = \sigma - \pi = \sigma - \epsilon^2 \sigma \tau = \sigma (1 - \epsilon^2 \tau).$$

Since $1 - \epsilon^2 \tau \neq 0$, using Lemma 1, we have

$$\sigma = \beta_1^2 - \beta_2^2 \tau, \qquad (\beta_1 \text{ and } \beta_2 \text{ in } F),$$

so that $\xi_1 = \pi + \sigma = \sigma(1 + \epsilon^2 \tau)$, and

(30)
$$\begin{aligned} \xi_1 + \xi_2 \tau &= \sigma \left[(1 + \epsilon^2 \tau) + 2\epsilon \tau \right] = \sigma \left[(1 + \epsilon \tau)^2 - (\epsilon \Delta)^2 \tau \right] \\ &= (\beta_1^2 - \beta_2^2 \tau) \left[(1 + \epsilon \tau)^2 - (\epsilon \Delta)^2 \tau \right] = \lambda_5^2 - \lambda_6^2 \tau, \end{aligned}$$

for λ_5 and λ_6 in F, by Lemma 1. Hence in all cases (25) is satisfied.

If we now put $\beta_3 = \alpha_1 + \tau \alpha_2$, $\beta_4 = \Delta \alpha_2$, (22) becomes

(31)
$$\delta(\lambda_5^2 - \lambda_6^2 \tau) = \beta_3^2 - \beta_4^2 \tau.$$

Suppose first that $\beta_3^2 - \beta_4^2 \tau = 0$, whence $\beta_3 = \beta_4 = 0$. Then our definitions above of β_3 and β_4 evidently give $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = 0$, and (20) take the form $\nu \tau = \delta \xi_1$, $-\nu = \delta \xi_2$. Squaring each side of both these, we may write $\nu^2 \tau^2 = \delta^2 \xi_1^2$, $\nu^2 \tau = \delta^2 \xi_2^2 \tau$, whence, by subtraction and the use of the relations $1 = \xi_1^2 - \xi_2^2 \tau$, $\tau = 1 + \Delta^2$, we obtain

(32)
$$\nu^2 \tau^2 - \nu^2 \tau = \tau(\nu^2 \Delta^2) = \delta^2(\xi_1^2 - \xi_2^2 \tau) = \delta^2.$$

Then $\tau = (\delta \nu^{-1} \Delta^{-1})^2$, which is a contradiction since τ is not the square of any quantity of F. Hence $\beta_3^2 - \beta_4^2 \tau \neq 0$. Thus $\lambda_5^2 - \lambda_6^2 \tau \neq 0$ has an inverse in F which has the form $\lambda_7^2 - \lambda_8^2 \tau$ by Lemma 1, and we may write

(33)
$$\gamma = \delta(\lambda_3^2 - \lambda_4^2 \tau) = (\lambda_3^2 - \lambda_4^2 \tau)(\lambda_7^2 - \lambda_8^2 \tau)(\beta_3^2 - \beta_4^2 \tau)$$

= $(\alpha^2 - \beta^2 \tau)$,

again using Lemma 1. We have proved in all cases the first part of the following statement.

THEOREM 1. A scalar $\gamma \neq 0$ in F has the property

(34)
$$\gamma^2 = N(a)$$

for a in F(i), a cyclic quartic field, if and only if

(35)
$$\gamma = \alpha^2 - \beta^2 \tau$$
, $(\alpha \text{ and } \beta \text{ in } F)$,

where F(u) is the quadratic subfield of F(i) defined by (1) and (3), and $u^2 = \tau$.

Moreover, when $\gamma = \alpha^2 - \beta^2 \tau$, we have $N(\alpha + \beta \mu) = (\alpha^2 - \beta^2 \tau)^2 = \gamma^2$, which is the converse in the preceding theorem.

1931.] (29) Suppose now that $\gamma = \alpha^2 - \beta^2 \tau$ and $\gamma^2 = N(b)$. If $a = \alpha + \beta u$, so that $\gamma = aa'$, we have $\gamma^2 = N(a) = N(b)$. It follows that $b \neq 0$ and $N(ab^{-1}) = 1$, a = wb, where N(w) = 1. Thus we have the following corollary.

COROLLARY 1. Let $\gamma = aa'$, where a is in F(u). Then $\gamma^2 = N(b)$ for b in F(i) if and only if b is the product of a by a unit of F(i).

Since -1 = dd', where d is given in (16) and is in F(u), we have also the following result.

COROLLARY 2. The scalar $\gamma^2 = N(b)$ for b in F(i) if and only if $-\gamma = ee'$ for e in F(u).

3. The Wedderburn Norm Condition. For a cyclic algebra of order sixteen Wedderburn's condition becomes

$$\gamma^r \neq N(a), \qquad (r = 1, 2, 3).$$

It is easily shown^{*} that if γ or γ^3 were a norm then A would not be a division algebra. Hence the only possible case is $\gamma^2 = N(a)$. By Theorem 1 this implies that $\gamma = \alpha^2 - \beta^2 \tau$. Consider the sub-algebra

$$\sum = (y^r, uy^r), \qquad (r = 0, 1, 2, 3),$$

an algebra of order eight with yu = -uy, $y^4 = \gamma$, $u^2 = \tau$ in F, $y^2u = uy^2$. We shall write

(36)
$$s = (e + y^2)y, t = i(a_1 + y^2), a_1 = \beta_1 q - \beta_2 u,$$

where we have used Corollary 2 to write

(37)
$$-\gamma = ee', \ e = \beta_1 + \beta_2 u, \quad (\beta_1 \text{ and } \beta_2 \text{ in } F),$$

and have

(38)
$$yi = \theta(i)y, \ \theta(i) = qi, \ q = \Delta^{-1}(u+1), \ qq' = -1,$$

since $\Delta^2 qq' = (u+1)(-u+1) = -(1+\Delta^2)+1 = -\Delta^2$. We shall compute

$$st = [(e + y^2)y][i(a_1 + y^2)] = (e + y^2)qi(a_1' + y^2)y$$

= $iq(e - y^2)(a_1' + y^2)y = iq[(ea' - \gamma) + (e - a_1')qy^2]y,$

since ya = a'y for every a of F(i) and $y^2i = -iy^2$. Now

* See the author's paper On direct products, etc., loc. cit.

$$q(ea' - \gamma) = q(ea' + ee') = eq(a_1' + e') = eq[\beta_1q' + \beta_2u + \beta_1 - \beta_2u] = \beta_1e[qq' + q] = \beta_1e(q - 1).$$

Also

1931.]

$$q(e-a_1') = q[(\beta_1+\beta_2 u) - (\beta_1 q'+\beta_2 u)] = \beta_1(q+1).$$

It follows that

(39)
$$st = \beta_1 i [e(q-1) + (q+1)y^2]y.$$

We have similarly

 $ts = [i(a_1 + y^2)][(e + y^2)y] = i[(a_1e + \gamma) + (a_1 + e)y^2]y,$ $a_1e + \gamma = a_1e - ee' = e[(\beta_1q - \beta_2u) - (\beta_1 - \beta_2u)] = \beta_1e(q - 1),$ while $a_1 + e = \beta_1q - \beta_2u + \beta_1 + \beta_2u = \beta_1(q + 1)$. We then obtain immediately from (39)

$$(40) st = ts.$$

Consider the linear sets

(41)
$$B = (1, u, s, us), \quad C = (1, y^2, t, y^2t),$$

over F. We have the relations

(42) $su = -us, ty^2 = -y^2t; uy^2 = y^2u, ut = tu, sy^2 = y^2s, st = ts,$

so that every quantity of B is commutative with every quantity of C. We now show that

(43)
$$s^2 = (e + y^2)(e' + y^2)y^2 = [(ee' + \gamma) + (e + e')y^2]y^2 = 2\beta_1\gamma$$
,
since $e + e' = 2\beta_1$, $ee' = -\gamma$. Also

$$t^{2} = i^{2}(a_{1} - y^{2})(a_{1} + y^{2}) = i^{2}(a_{1}^{2} - \gamma)$$

= $i^{2}[\beta_{1}^{2}q^{2} - 2\beta_{1}\beta_{2}qu + \beta_{2}^{2}\tau + \beta_{1}^{2} - \beta_{2}^{2}\tau]$
= $i^{2}\beta_{1}^{2}(q^{2} + 1) - 2\beta_{1}\beta_{2}qui^{2}$,

since $\gamma = -ee'$. We have also $i^2 = \nu(u-\tau)$, so that $i^2q = \nu\Delta^{-1}(u-\tau) \ (u+1) = \Delta^{-1}\nu(\tau-\tau+u-u\tau)$ $= \Delta^{-1}\nu u(1-\tau) = \Delta^{-1}\nu u(-\Delta^2) = -\Delta\nu u.$

Moreover, we know that

$$\begin{split} i^2(q^2+1) &= i^2 \big[\Delta^{-2}(\tau+2u+1) + 1 \big] = \Delta^{-2} i^2 \big[2u + \tau + (1+\Delta^2) \big] \\ &= 2\nu \Delta^{-2}(u-\tau)(u+\tau) = 2\nu \Delta^{-2}(\tau-\tau^2) = -2\nu \tau \,. \end{split}$$

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Hence

(44)
$$t^2 = 2\nu\tau\beta_1(\beta_2\Delta - \beta_1).$$

We shall assume at this point that

$$(45) \qquad \beta_1 \neq 0, \ \beta_2 \Delta - \beta_1 \neq 0,$$

for otherwise either $s^2 = 0$ or $t^2 = 0$, and A is evidently not a division algebra since from their form neither s nor t is zero. As a consequence, $a_1^2 - \gamma \neq 0$ has an inverse in F(u) and $e^2 - \gamma \neq 0$ has an inverse in F(u) since $t^2 = i^2(a_1^2 - \gamma) \neq 0$, while if

$$e^2-\gamma=e^2-ee'=0,$$

then $e(e-e') = 2\beta_1 e = 0$, contrary to the hypothesis that $\beta_1 \neq 0$, so that $e \neq 0$ has an inverse in F(u). The sets B and C are generalized quaternion algebras over F, since in B

$$u^2 = \tau$$
, $s^2 = 2\beta_1\gamma$, $su = -us$,

while in C

$$(y^2)^2 = \gamma, t^2 = 2\nu\tau\beta_1(\beta_2\Delta - \beta_1), y^2t = -ty^2,$$

and evidently from the form of s and t the quantities 1, u, s, us are linearly independent in F, and the quantities 1, y^2 , t, y^2t are linearly independent in F, when $i^{\alpha}y^{\beta}$ ($\alpha, \beta = 0, 1, 2, 3$) form a basis of A. The linear set BC = CB of all sums of all products of quantities of B and quantities of C is an algebra, since a product

$$\left(\sum_{\lambda} b_{1\lambda} c_{1\lambda}\right) \left(\sum_{\mu} b_{2\mu} c_{2\mu}\right) = \sum_{\lambda,\mu} (b_{1\lambda} b_{2\mu}) (c_{1\lambda} c_{2\mu})$$

is in *BC* because for every λ and μ the quantities $b_{1\lambda}b_{2\mu}$ are in *B* and $C_{1\lambda}C_{2\mu}$ are in *C*. Now *BC* contains F(u) and hence $(\gamma - a_1^2)^{-1}$, $(\gamma - e^2)^{-1}$. Since *BC* contains *s*, *t*, *e*, a_1 , y^2 , and is an algebra, it contains

$$\begin{aligned} (\gamma - a_1^2)^{-1}(ty^2 - a_1t) &= (\gamma - a_1^2)^{-1}i(a_1y^2 + \gamma - a_1^2 - a_1y^2) \\ &= (\gamma - a_1^2)^{-1}(\gamma - a_1^2)i = i, \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} (\gamma - e^2)^{-1}(y^2s - es) &= (\gamma - e^2)^{-1} \big[(y^2e + \gamma) - ey^2 - e^2 \big] y \\ &= (\gamma - e^2)^{-1} (\gamma - e^2) y = y. \end{aligned}$$

But then BC contains the basis of A and has order sixteen. It follows that A is the *direct product* of B and C.

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THEOREM 2. Let $\gamma^2 = N(a)$ for some a of F(i) so that $-\gamma = ee'$, where $e = \beta_1 + \beta_2 u$ and β_1 and β_2 are in F. Let $\beta_1 \neq 0$, $\beta_2 \Delta \neq \beta_1$, a set of necessary conditions that A be a division algebra. Then the cyclic algebra A is the direct product of two generalized quaternion algebras B = (1, u, s, us), C = (1, j, t, jt), with $y^2 = j$, su = -us, tj = -jt, and

(46)
$$u^2 = \tau$$
, $s^2 = 2\beta_1\gamma = \sigma$, $j^2 = \gamma$, $t^2 = \rho = 2\nu\beta_1\tau(\beta_2\Delta - \beta_1)$.

Consider now the direct product of any two generalized quaternion algebras B and C. It is known that d in B has the property that d^2 is in F if and only if

(47)
$$d = \lambda_1 u + \lambda_2 s + \lambda_3 u s$$
, $d^2 = Q_1 = \lambda_1^2 \tau + \lambda_2^2 \sigma - \lambda_3^2 \sigma \tau$,

with λ_1 , λ_2 and λ_3 in F. Similarly if f is in C then f^2 is in F if and only if

(48)
$$f = \lambda_4 j + \lambda_5 t + \lambda_6 j t, \quad f^2 = Q_2 = \lambda_4^2 \gamma + \lambda_5^2 \rho - \lambda_6^2 \gamma \rho$$

for λ_4 , λ_5 , and λ_6 in *F*. Suppose first that $Q \equiv Q_1 - Q_2$ is a null form, that is, that we can make Q = 0 for values of $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_6$ in *F* not all zero. Define *d* by (47) and *f* by (48) for the particular λ_i we have used to make *Q* vanish. Since *A* is the *direct* product of *B* and *C*, the quantities d - f and d + f are both not zero when the λ_i are not all zero. But $(d-f)(d+f) = d^2 - f^2 = Q_1 - Q_2 = Q = 0$. Hence in *A* a product of two non-zero quantities is zero and *A* is not a division algebra.

Conversely, let Q not be a null form. Then, in particular, Q_1 and Q_2 are not null forms and B and C are known* to be division algebras. The algebra Γ whose quantities have the form $X = x_1 + x_2 u$, where x_1 and x_2 are in C, has a division sub-algebra C and the property that if we define x' = x for every x of C, then $u^2 = \tau$ in C, $x'' = (x')' = u^2 x u^{-2} = x$ for every x of C. But then Γ is known[†] to be a division algebra if and only if $\tau \neq x' x = x^2$ for any x of C. But τ is in F and if $\tau = x^2$ then, since x is an f of (48), and u is a d of (47), we have Q = 0 for $\lambda_1 = 1$, a contradiction of our hypothesis that Q was not a null form.

Define $X' = x_1 - x_2 u$, for every X of Γ , and we will have $X' = sXs^{-1}$, $X'' = s^2Xs^{-2} = X$, $s^2 = \sigma$ in F. Then it is known

^{*} See L. E. Dickson, Algebren und ihre Zahlentheorie, p. 47, for the condition $\sigma \neq \xi_1^2 - \xi_2^{2\tau}$, equivalent to the condition we have stated.

[†] A theorem of L. E. Dickson, ibid., pp. 63-64.

(Dickson, loc. cit.) that A, whose quantities have the form X + Ys, is a division algebra when Γ is one if and only if

$$s^2 = X'X$$
 for any X of Γ .

But if $s^2 = X'X$, $(x_1 - x_2u)(x_1 + x_2u) = x_1^2 - x_2^2\tau + (x_1x_2 - x_2x_1)u = \sigma$ we have

(49)
$$\sigma = x_1^2 - x_2^2 \tau, \ x_1 x_2 = x_2 x_1.$$

First let x_1 and x_2 be in F. Then Q is a null form when we take $\lambda_1 = \sigma$, $\lambda_2 = \tau x_2$, $\lambda_3 = x_1$, $\lambda_4 = \lambda_5 = \lambda_6 = 0$, since $0 = \sigma \tau (\sigma + x_2^2 \tau - x_1^2)$ $=\sigma^2\tau + (\tau x_2)^2\sigma - x_1^2\sigma\tau$, a contradiction. Next let x_1 be in F but x_2 not in F. Then $x_2^2 \tau = x_1^2 - \sigma$ is in F and $x_2 \tau$ is an f of (48) while $(x_2\tau)^2 = Q_2 = x_1^2 \tau - \sigma \tau$ so that Q is a null form for $Q_2 = (x_2\tau)^2$, $\lambda_1 = x_1, \lambda_2 = 0, \lambda_3 = 1$. The only remaining case is where x_1 is not in F. If x_1^2 were in F so that x_1 would be an f of (48), then x_1x_2 $=x_2x_1$ implies that $x_2 = \xi + \eta x_1$, ξ and η in F, since in a generalized quaternion division algebra the only quantities commutative with a non-scalar quantity x are scalar coefficient polynomials in x. But x_2^2 is in F so that $\eta = 0$ or $\xi = 0$. When $\eta = 0$, then $x_1^2 = \xi^2 \tau + \sigma$ and $Q_2 = Q_1 = \xi^2 \tau + 1^2 \sigma - O \sigma \tau$, a contradiction of our hypothesis. When $\xi = 0$ then $x_2 = \eta x_1$ and $x_1^2 - x_2^2 \tau$ $=x_1^2(1-\eta^2\tau)$. But by Lemma 1 we have $(1-\eta^2\tau)^{-1}=\delta_1^2-\delta_2^2\tau$ and $x_1^2 = Q_2 = \sigma \delta_1^2 - \sigma \tau \delta_2^2 = Q_1$, a contradiction. We have finally come to the case where neither x_1 nor its square is in F. We then have, where f is given by (47) and $f^2 = Q_2$, that $x_1 = \lambda_7 + f$ with $\lambda_7 \neq 0$ in F. As before the relation $x_1 x_2 = x_2 x_1$ implies that x_2 is a polynomial in x_1 . But now we may write $x_2 = \xi + \eta f$. Now

$$x_1^2 - x_2^2 \tau = \lambda_7^2 + 2\lambda_7 f + Q_2 - (\xi^2 + 2\xi\eta f + \eta^2 Q_2)\tau = \sigma_1$$

It follows that $2\lambda_7 - 2\xi\eta\tau = 0$, so that $\lambda_7 = \xi\eta\tau$ and

$$\sigma = \xi^2 \eta^2 \tau^2 - \xi^2 \tau + Q_2 (1 - \eta^2 \tau) = (Q_2 - \xi^2 \tau) (1 - \eta^2 \tau).$$

The quantity $(1 - \eta^2 \tau) \neq 0$ has an inverse $\delta_1^2 - \delta_2^2 \tau$ with δ_1 and δ_2 in *F* by Lemma 1, and $Q_2 - \xi^2 \tau = \sigma(\delta_1^2 - \delta_2^2 \tau)$, so that we have $Q_2 = \xi^2 \tau + \sigma \delta_1^2 - \sigma \tau \delta_2^2 = Q_1$. We have again shown that if *A* were not a division algebra, then *Q* would be a null form, a contradiction of our hypothesis. Hence *A* is a division algebra and we have proved the following theorem

THEOREM 3. A direct product $A = B \times C$ of two generalized quaternion algebras B = (1, u, s, us), C = (1, j, t, jt) with $u^2 = \tau$, $s^2 = \sigma$, su = -us, $j^2 = \gamma$, $t^2 = \rho$, tj = -jt, is a division algebra if and only if the quadratic form

(50)
$$Q = (\lambda_1^2 \tau + \lambda_2^2 \sigma - \lambda_3^2 \sigma \tau) - (\lambda_4^2 \gamma + \lambda_5^2 \rho - \lambda_6^2 \gamma \rho)$$

in the variables $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \cdots, \lambda_6$ in F, is not a null form.

We may now apply Theorem 3 and our previous results to obtain complete necessary and sufficient conditions that a cyclic algebra be a division algebra. We first assume that $\gamma^2 = N(a)$ for some a in F(i). If $\gamma = 0$, then $-\gamma = \beta_1^2 - \beta_2^2 \tau$ with $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0$, and the form Q may be defined. If $\gamma \neq 0$, then by Corollary 2 we can again define the form Q with

$$\sigma = 2\beta_1 \gamma, \rho = 2\nu \tau \beta_1 (\beta_2 \Delta - \beta_1).$$

Suppose first that Q is a null form. If $\gamma = 0$, then $y^4 = 0$ while y is not zero and A is not a division algebra. If $\gamma \neq 0$ but $\beta_1 = 0$ or $\beta_2 \Delta - \beta_1 = 0$, then again, as we have seen, A is not a division algebra. The only other case is where Theorem 2 can be applied and, by Theorem 3, A is again not a division algebra. Conversely let Q be not a null form. Then obviously from our definition of Q as above and the fact that we have the coefficients of Q all not zero in a non-null form, $\gamma \neq 0, \beta_2 \Delta \neq \beta_1, \beta_1 \neq 0$, and again A is the direct product of B and C; we may again apply Theorem 3, and A is a division algebra.

THEOREM 4. Let A be a cyclic algebra with basis $i^{\lambda}y^{\mu}$, $(\lambda, \mu = 0, 1, 2, 3)$, where i is a root of the cyclic quartic

$$\phi(\omega) \equiv \omega^4 + 2\nu\tau\omega^2 + \nu^2\Delta^2\tau = 0$$

with $\tau = 1 + \Delta^2$, $\nu \neq 0$, $\Delta \neq 0$ in F, and τ not the square of any element in F. Also

$$\theta(i) = qi, q\Delta = 1 + u, i^2 = \nu(u - \tau), yi = \theta(i)y, y^4 = \gamma in F.$$

Suppose that γ^2 is the norm of a quantity of F(i) so that we have $-\gamma = \beta_1^2 - \beta_2^2 \tau$ with β_1 and β_2 in F. Then A is a division algebra if and only if the form

$$Q = \lambda_1^2 \tau + \lambda_2^2 \sigma - \lambda_3^2 \sigma \tau - \lambda_4^2 \gamma - \lambda_5^2 \rho + \lambda_6^2 \gamma \rho$$

with $\sigma = 2\beta_1\gamma$, $\rho = 2\beta_1\nu\tau(\beta_2\Delta - \beta_1)$ does not vanish for any $\lambda_1, \cdots, \lambda_6$ not all zero and in F.

The only other case is $\gamma^2 \neq N(a)$. Then obviously $\gamma \neq N(a)$ since otherwise $\gamma^2 = N(a^2)$, a contradiction. If $\gamma^3 = N(a)$, then either $\gamma = 0$, whence $\gamma^2 = N(0)$, a contradiction, or else $\gamma \neq 0$, $\gamma^6 = \gamma^2 \gamma^4 = N(a^2)$, $\gamma^2 = N(a\gamma^{-1})$, again a contradiction. Hence the condition $\gamma^2 \neq N(a)$ is equivalent to the Wedderburn norm condition. We have also shown the former condition equivalent to the condition $\gamma \neq -ee'$ for any e of F(u). We thus have proved the following theorem

THEOREM 5. Let all the hypotheses of Theorem 4 be satisfied except that now $\gamma^2 \neq N(a)$ for any a of F(i), or, what is the same thing, $-\gamma$ is not expressible in the form $\beta_1^2 - \beta_2^2 \tau$, β_1 and β_2 in F. Then the cyclic algebra A is a division algebra.

We shall finally pass to the case where F is the field R of all rational numbers. Quadratic forms have been studied in detail for this case and it has been shown that every indefinite quadratic form in five or more variables is a null form.* The numbers τ , σ , $-\sigma\tau$ all have the same sign only when all are negative. If they are all negative and γ , ρ , $-\gamma\rho$ are also all negative then τ and $-\gamma$ have opposite signs so that $Q = Q_1 - Q_2$ is an indefinite quadratic form. In the other cases obviously Q is indefinite, providing that its coefficients are all not zero. When some of the coefficients of Q are zero then, by making all the other variables zero and those with zero coefficients not zero, we can make Q zero so that Q is a null form. When none of the coefficients of Q is zero then Q is an indefinite quadratic form in six variables and hence is a null form. Hence in every case the cyclic algebra Ais not a division algebra when the hypotheses of Theorem 4 are satisfied. We have the following result.

THEOREM 6. When F = R, the field of all rational numbers, the Wedderburn norm condition for cyclic algebras of order sixteen is necessary as well as sufficient.

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^{*} For the first complete proof of this theorem see L. E. Dickson, Studies in the Theory of Numbers.

[†] We also have here a new short proof of the author's theorem that a direct product of two rational generalized quaternion division algebras is never a division algebra, by using the above proof that when Q is a null form A is not a division algebra. This theorem was first proved by the author and published in the Annals of Mathematics, vol. 30 (1929), pp. 621-625.