

QUATERNIONS AND HADAMARD MATRICES

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1. **Introduction.** J. Hadamard has proved [4]² that a real or complex matrix of order n with elements bounded in absolute value by 1 has a determinant bounded in absolute value by $n^{n/2}$. A real matrix satisfying the above will be called an Hadamard matrix. Let H be a matrix of order n with elements chosen from the sixteen quaternions $(1/2)(\pm 1 \pm i \pm j \pm k)$, and H^* be the quaternionic conjugate transpose of H . If $HH^* = nI_n$, the real regular representation of $2H$ is then an Hadamard matrix of order $4n$.

The purpose of this paper is to study the structure of such matrices and the main theorem obtains a canonical form (under equivalence) for the case where n is a product of distinct primes.

The first sections are devoted to a discussion of specific properties of integral quaternions most of which are derived as special cases of the general theory of principal ideal domains and simple algebras.

2. **Definitions.** The real quaternions form a linear associative algebra over the real numbers having as a basis four independent elements $1, i, j, k$ where 1 is the unit of multiplication and $i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = ijk = -1$. Standard notation will be employed for the conjugate, \bar{q} , and norm, $N(q)$, of a quaternion q .

Following Hurwitz [5] an *integral quaternion* is defined as a real quaternion in which the components are either all rational integers or all halves of odd rational integers. This set of quaternions, to be denoted by J , forms a principal ideal domain in which there exist greatest common left and right divisors. An integral quaternion is called *primitive* if it cannot be expressed as a product of an integral quaternion and a rational integer not a unit. By an *odd quaternion* is meant an integral quaternion whose norm is an odd rational integer.

Two right (left) ideals aJ and bJ (Ja and Jb) are called *right (left) similar* if the J -right (left)-moduli $J - aJ$ and $J - bJ$ ($J - Ja$ and $J - Jb$) are J -isomorphic. Two elements a and b are called right (left) similar if the ideals aJ and bJ (Ja and Jb) are similar. Since right similarity and left similarity are equivalent [3], we may say simply " a is

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² Numbers in brackets refer to the bibliography at the end of the paper.

similar to b^n ; in symbols, $a \approx b$.

Following Jacobson, an element a of a principal ideal domain is called *bounded* if there exists a nonzero two-sided ideal contained in aJ . The maximal two-sided ideal contained in aJ is called the *bound* of a . Since J is a maximal integral domain of a simple algebra, every nonzero element of J is bounded. Further, since every integral quaternion a can be written in the form $a = r(1+i)^e c$ where r is a rational integer, $e = 0$ or 1 , and c is an odd primitive quaternion [1], the generator of the bound of a is of the form $r(1+i)^e \cdot N(c)$.

3. Characterization of similarity. It is easily seen that if $N(a) = 2$, $a \approx b$ if and only if $N(b) = 2$. If $N(a) > 2$, the number of residue classes in $J - aJ$ equals $N^2(a)$, from which it follows that if $a \approx b$, then $N(a) = N(b)$.

It is known that in a principal ideal domain D a necessary and sufficient condition for D -isomorphism of any two finitely-generated D -modules is that the totality of bounds of the indecomposable components³ that occur in a decomposition of one of the modules coincides with the totality of bounds occurring in a decomposition of the other (cf. [6, p. 79]). An integral quaternion is indecomposable if and only if either it is primitive and its norm is a power of an odd rational prime or else its norm is a power of 2. Then, since two indecomposable integral quaternions are similar if and only if they have the same bound, we get as a consequence a specific characterization of similar quaternions in the following theorem.

THEOREM 1. *Two integral quaternions are similar if and only if they have the same norm and bound.*

4. Determinant of a matrix over J . The concept of determinant is usually associated with matrices over a field. The extension to a division ring given by Dieudonné [2] in which the determinant is defined in terms of the cosets modulo the commutator subgroup of the nonzero elements will be used here. In this the mapping $A \rightarrow \det(A)$ is a homomorphism onto an abelian group, which, for the case of matrices over real quaternions, is essentially a homomorphism onto the set of non-negative real numbers. Many of the usual properties of determinants are carried over, in particular $\det(A) \cdot \det(B) = \det(AB)$, and $\det(A)$ is an invariant under the usual elementary row and column operations.

If the full facilities of the division ring of real quaternions are used,

³ A module is indecomposable if it cannot be written as a direct sum of two non-intersecting modules.

a matrix A is equivalent to a diagonal matrix $D = \{1, 1, \dots, 1, d\}$ with $[N(d)]^m = \det(D) = \det(A)$, $m \neq 0$ being an arbitrary real number. If a matrix A is equivalent to a diagonal matrix $B = \{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n\}$, then $\det(A) = \prod [N(b_k)]^m$. Since any matrix over J may be reduced by elementary row and column operations in J to a diagonal matrix, its determinant will be a non-negative integer independent of the division ring used. If we set $m = 1$, then $\det(A)$ is equal to the product of the norms of the diagonal matrix equivalent to A . For this case the notation $\det(A) = \nabla A$ will be used, while if A is real, $\det(A)$ will represent the ordinary determinant of A .

With a matrix A having real quaternions as elements there is an associated matrix formed by replacing in A each quaternion by its regular representation, the (*real*) *regular representation* of A , and will be denoted by the symbol \tilde{A} . Then $\det(\tilde{A}) = (\nabla A)^2$.

5. Hadamard matrices. In 1893 Hadamard [4] proved that if the absolute values of the elements of a real or complex matrix of order n are bounded by one, then the absolute value of the determinant has as an upper bound $n^{n/2}$, and he raised the question of the values of n for which this bound is attained. For the complex case the answer is known, but for real matrices the complete answer is not known. It is easily seen that for a real matrix we may as well assume that all elements are ± 1 , and it is necessary that n be one, two, or a multiple of four. Further, a necessary and sufficient condition is that $AA^T = nI_n$ where I_n is the unit matrix of order n . A matrix satisfying these conditions will be called an Hadamard matrix. Explicit formulas for the construction of several classes of such matrices have been given by Paley [8] and Williamson [10].

Consider a matrix A of order n with elements chosen from the sixteen quaternions $\{\pm 1 \pm i \pm j \pm k\}$. The regular representation \tilde{A} of such a matrix will have elements ± 1 . For A to be an Hadamard matrix

$$(1) \quad \tilde{A} \cdot \tilde{A}^T = 4n \cdot I_{4n}.$$

Now the regular representation of the quaternionic conjugate transpose A^* of A is the transpose of \tilde{A} . Thus for a matrix A satisfying (1), $\nabla(AA^*) = [\det(\tilde{A}\tilde{A}^T)]^{1/2} = (4n)^{2n}$. It is easily shown that $\nabla A = \nabla A^*$ and thus $\nabla A = (4n)^n$. This is equivalent to $\nabla(A/2) = n^n$ and $A/2$ is a matrix with elements in J . Conversely, if H is a matrix of order n each element of which is one of the set $\{\pm 1 \pm i \pm j \pm k\}$ and $HH^* = n \cdot I_n$, then $2H = A$ will satisfy (1) and $2\tilde{H}$ is an Hadamard matrix of order $4n$. Such a matrix H will be called a *quaternionic Hadamard matrix*. This name is appropriate since Wallace Givens has

proved (oral communication) an Hadamard type theorem for matrices over real quaternions; if B is of order n and $N(b_{ij}) \leq 1$, then $\nabla B \leq n^n$.

Teichmüller [16] has shown that any matrix over a principal ideal domain is equivalent to a diagonal matrix $\{d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n\}$ in which each d_i is a total divisor⁴ of d_j for $j > i$. For elements of J since 2 is the only ramifying rational prime, if we write a and b in the forms $a = 2^f \cdot r_1(1+i)^m \cdot c_1$, $b = 2^h \cdot r_2(1+i)^s \cdot C_2$, where the r_i are rational integers, c_i are odd primitive quaternions, we get the result that a is a total divisor of b if and only if $f \leq h$, $f+m \leq h+s$, and $r_1 \cdot N(c_1)$ divides r_2 . A diagonal matrix of the form above will be called a Jacobson-Teichmüller normal form of any matrix equivalent to it.

Nakayama [7] has shown that if two matrices in Jacobson-Teichmüller normal form are equivalent, then the corresponding diagonal elements are similar. Further if the first diagonal elements are units, the converse also holds. Thus in the case of a quaternionic Hadamard matrix the diagonal elements of the Jacobson-Teichmüller normal form are unique to within similarity.

6. Normal form of quarternionic Hadamard matrices. In order to derive a canonical form for certain quaternionic Hadamard matrices there will be needed a theorem on real Hadamard matrices.

THEOREM 2. *Let H be a rational integral Hadamard matrix of order $n = 4r$, where r is a product of distinct prime factors. Then the invariant factors, h_i , of H are: $h_1 = 1$, $h_i = 2$ for $1 < i \leq 2r$, $h_i = 2r$ for $2r < i < 4r$ and $h_{4r} = 4r$.*

PROOF. Since H has only ± 1 as elements, clearly $h_1 = 1$ and $h_2 = 2$. Now consider the orthogonal matrix $T = n^{-1/2}H$. The determinant of any $(n-1)$ -rowed minor of T is $\pm n^{-1/2}$. Then the determinant of any $(n-1)$ -rowed minor of H is $n^{-1/2}(n^{1/2})^{n-1} = (4r)^{2r-1}$ and the g.c.d. of the $(n-1)$ -rowed minors is $(4r)^{2r-1} = \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} h_i = \det(H)/h_{4r} = (4r)^{2r}/h_{4r}$ from which $h_{4r} = 4r$.

Now $\det(H) = (4r)^{2r} = h_1 h_2 \cdots h_{4r}$, and every h_i divides h_j , $j > i$, so that h_3, \dots, h_{4r-1} are even, and using the values of h_1, h_2, h_{4r} we get $r^{2r} = (h_3/2) \cdots (h_{4r-1}/2)(r)$. Every factor of any $h_j/2$, $j = 3, 4, \dots, 4r-1$, is a factor of r and the prime factors of $h_j/2$ are distinct. Each prime factor of r therefore occurs in $h_{2r+1}/2, \dots, h_{4r-1}/2$ and does not occur in $h_2/2, \dots, h_{2r}/2$, which completes the proof.

THEOREM 3. *Let A be a quaternionic Hadamard matrix of order n , where $n = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_k$ is a product of distinct odd primes. Let D*

⁴ We say a is a total divisor of b in a principal ideal domain D if $DaD \subseteq bD \cap Db$

$= \{d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n\}$ be a Jacobson-Teichmüller normal form of A . Then to within replacement by similar elements, $d_i=1$ for $i < (n+1)/2$; $d_{(n+1)/2}=c$, with c an odd primitive quaternion of norm n , $d_i=n$ for $(n+1)/2 < i \leq n$.

PROOF. Write $d_i=r_i 2^{f_i} (1+i)^{e_i} c_i$ where r_i is an odd rational integer. Then since n is odd, $f_i=e_i=0$. Thus $d_i=r_i c_i = p_1^{m_{1i}} p_2^{m_{2i}} \dots p_k^{m_{ki}} \cdot c_i$ where the p_i are distinct primes. Since d_i is a total divisor of d_j , for $j > i$, it follows that $p_1^{m_{1i}} \dots p_k^{m_{ki}} N(c_i)$ divides $p_1^{m_{1j}} p_2^{m_{2j}} \dots p_k^{m_{kj}}$ for $j > i$. This requires that

$$(2) \quad N(c_i) = p_1^{s_{1i}} p_2^{s_{2i}} \dots p_k^{s_{ki}}$$

and also

$$(3) \quad m_{hi} + s_{hi} \leq m_{h,i+1}$$

where $h=1, 2, \dots, k$ and $i=1, 2, \dots, n$. Moreover, since $\nabla A = \prod_{i=1}^n r_i^2 \cdot N(c_i)$, we have

$$(4) \quad \sum_{i=1}^n (2m_{hi} + s_{hi}) = n, \quad h = 1, 2, \dots, k.$$

Since n is odd, (4) implies that for every h and some i , $s_{hi} \neq 0$. Then (3) and (4) allow us to conclude that, for every h , $m_{hi}=0$ for $i \leq (n+1)/2$, and $s_{hi}=0$ for $i < (n+1)/2$, so that $d_1=d_2=\dots=d_{(n-1)/2}=a$ unit, and $d_{(n+1)/2}=c_{(n+1)/2}$.

Let $\tau=(n+1)/2$. We now want to show that $N(c_\tau)=n$; that is, in (2), $s_{h\tau}=1$ for $i=\tau$. Evidently $s_{h\tau} \leq 1$ for every h , since otherwise (3) would imply an inequality in (4). If $s_{h\tau}=1$, then $m_{hj} \geq 1$, for $j > \tau$. To prove the theorem it will be sufficient to show that $s_{h\tau}=1$ for every h . This result is obtained by making use of the regular representation of A .

Let $PAQ=D=\{d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n\}$ and we can require the d_i to have rational integral components. \tilde{D} has a Smith normal form, $\{1, 1, \dots, 1, 1, 1, N(c_\tau), N(c_\tau), r_{\tau+1} r_{\tau+1}, r_{\tau+1} N(c_{\tau+1}), r_{\tau+1} N(c_{\tau+1}), \dots, r_n, r_n, r_n N(c_n), r_n N(c_n)\}$, where there are $2(n-1)+2$ 1's. Now $8\tilde{D}=(2\tilde{P})(2\tilde{A})(2\tilde{Q})$ and $2\tilde{P}$, $2\tilde{A}$, and $2\tilde{Q}$ have rational integral elements, so that the greatest common divisor of the h -rowed minors of $2\tilde{A}$ is a divisor of every h -rowed minor of $8\tilde{D}$. Therefore the greatest common divisor of the h -rowed minors of $2\tilde{A}$ divides 8^h times the greatest common divisor of the h -rowed minors of \tilde{D} . However, since $A=RDS$ for matrices R and S over J , $4\tilde{A}=(2\tilde{R})(\tilde{D})(2\tilde{S})$ and a similar argument shows that the greatest common divisor of the h -rowed minors of \tilde{D} divides 2^h times the greatest common divisor of

the h -rowed minors of $2\tilde{A}$. Hence the common divisors in question must differ at most by a power of two.

By Theorem 2, $2\tilde{A}$ is equivalent to $B = \{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_{4n}\}$ where $b_1 = 1$, $b_i = 2$ for $1 < i \leq 2n$, $b_i = 2n$ for $2n < i < 4n$, and $b_{4n} = 4n$. Hence the g.c.d. of the h -rowed minors of B differs from those of $8\tilde{D}$ by at most a power of two.

We now set $h = 2n + 2$. The greatest common divisor of the h -rowed minors of $2\tilde{A} = \prod_{i=1}^h b_i = 2^{2n-1}(2n)^2$. The greatest common divisor of the h -rowed minors of $8\tilde{D}$ is $8^{2n+2}N(c_r^2)$. Thus $2^{2n-1}(2n)^2$ divides $8^{2n+2}N(c_r^2)$, and since n is odd, this requires that n^2 divide $N(c_r^2)$, or n divides $N(c_r)$. Thus, in (2), $s_h \geq 1$ for all h , which completes the proof.

As an immediate consequence of the argument presented in the proof of the theorem we have an extension of a well known theorem.

THEOREM 4. *If U is a unitary matrix over the real quaternions (that is, $UU^* = I$), then the determinant of any r -rowed minor of U is equal to the determinant of its complementary minor.*

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