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"; 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 components[3] that occur in a decomposition of one of the modules coincides with the totality of bounds occuring 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 $A \to \det(A)$ 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 $D=\{1, 1, \cdots, 1, d\}$ 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 $B=\{b_1, b_2, \cdots, b_n\}$, 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

$$\tilde{A}\cdot\tilde{A}^T = 4n\cdot I_{4n}. \tag{1}$$

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 $N(b_{ij}) \leqq 1$, then $\nabla B \leqq n^n$.

Teichmüller [16] has shown that any matrix over a principal ideal domain is equivalent to a diagonal matrix $\{d_1, d_2, \cdots, d_n\}$ in which each d_i is a total divisor[4] 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 $f \leqq h$, $f+m \leqq h+s$, 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 $1<i\leqq 2r$, $h_i=2r$ 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 $\det(H)=(4r)^{2r}=h_1h_2 \cdots h_{4r}$, and every h_i divides h_j, $j>i$, so that $h_3, \cdots, h_{4r-1}$ 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 $h_j/2$, $j=3, 4, \cdots, 4r-1$, is a factor of r and the prime factors of $h_j/2$ are distinct. Each prime factor of r therefore occurs in $h_{2r+1}/2, \cdots, h_{4r-1}/2$ and does not occur in $h_2/2, \cdots, h_{2r}/2$, which completes the proof.

THEOREM 3. *Let A be a quaternionic Hadamard matrix of order n, where $n=p_1p_2 \cdots p_k$ 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 $DaD \subseteq bD \cap Db$

$=\{d_1, d_2, \cdots, d_n\}$ *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* $(n+1)/2<i\leqq n$.

PROOF. Write $d_i=r_i2^{f_i}(1+i)^{e_i}c_i$ where r_i is an odd rational integer. Then since n is odd, $f_i=e_i=0$. Thus $d_i=r_ic_i=p_1^{m_{1i}}p_2^{m_{2i}}\cdots p_k^{m_{ki}}\cdot c_i$ where the p_i are distinct primes. Since d_i is a total divisor of d_j, for $j>i$, it follows that $p_1^{m_{1i}}\cdots p_k^{m_{ki}}N(c_i)$ divides $p_1^{m_{1j}}p_2^{m_{2j}}\cdots p_k^{m_{kj}}$ for $j>i$. This requires that

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

and also

$$m_{hi} + s_{hi} \leqq m_{h,i+1} \tag{3}$$

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

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} (2m_{hi} + s_{hi}) = n, \qquad h = 1, 2, \cdots, k. \tag{4}$$

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 $i\leqq(n+1)/2$, and $s_{hi}=0$ for $i<(n+1)/2$, so that $d_1=d_2=\cdots=d_{(n-1)/2}=$ 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), $s_{hi}=1$ for $i=\tau$. Evidently $s_{h\tau}\leqq 1$ for every h, since otherwise (3) would imply an inequality in (4). If $s_{h\tau}=1$, then $m_{hj}\geqq 1$, 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 $PAQ=D=\{d_1, d_2, \cdots, d_n\}$ and we can require the d_i to have rational integral components. $\tilde{D}$ has a Smith normal form, $\{1, 1, \cdots, 1, 1, 1, N(c_\tau), N(c_\tau), r_{\tau+1}r_{\tau+1}, r_{\tau+1}N(c_{\tau+1}), r_{\tau+1}N(c_{\tau+1}), \cdots, r_n, r_n, r_nN(c_n), r_nN(c_n)\}$, 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 $8D$. 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 $B=\{b_1, b_2, \cdots, b_{4n}\}$ where $b_1=1$, $b_i=2$ for $1<i\leqq 2n$, $b_i=2n$ 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), $s_h\geqq 1$ 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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