

# Math 130 Linear Algebra

## Notes on Quaterions

Prof. D. Joyce, Clark University

26 Oct 2009

Sir William Rowan Hamilton, who early found that his road [to success with vectors] was obstructed—he knew not by what obstacle—so that many points which seemed within his reach were really inaccessible. He had done a considerable amount of good work, obstructed as he was, when, about the year 1843, he perceived clearly the obstruction to his progress in the shape of an old law which, prior to that time, had appeared like a law of common sense. The law in question is known as the *commutative* law of multiplication.

P. Kelland (1808–1879) and P. G. Tait (1831–1901), 1873

**The quaterions.** The quaterions  $\mathbf{H}$  are an extension of the complex numbers  $\mathbf{C}$ . A complex number can be defined as an expression  $a + bi$  where  $a$  and  $b$  are real numbers and  $i$  is a formal symbol satisfying  $i^2 = -1$ . We'll add two more formal symbols,  $j$  and  $k$  to define  $\mathbf{H}$ .

We can define a quaternion  $a$  as an expression

$$a = a_0 + a_1i + a_2j + a_3k$$

where  $a_0, a_1, a_2$ , and  $a_3$  are real numbers and  $i, j$ , and  $k$  are formal symbols satisfying the properties

$$i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1$$

and

$$ij = k, jk = i, ki = j.$$

The  $i, j$ , and  $k$  are all square roots of  $-1$ , but they don't commute as you can show from the definition that

$$ji = -k, kj = -i, ik = -j.$$

This doesn't lead to a commutative multiplication, but note that if  $a$  is real (i.e., its pure quaternion parts  $a_1, a_2$ , and  $a_3$  are all 0), then  $a$  will commute with any quaternion  $b$ .

The quaternions are collectively denoted  $\mathbf{H}$  in honor of Hamilton, their inventor.

Addition and subtraction are coordinatewise (just like in the complex numbers  $\mathbf{C}$ ).

$$(a_0 + a_1i + a_2j + a_3k) \pm (b_0 + b_1i + b_2j + b_3k) = (a_0 \pm b_0) + (a_1 \pm b_1)i + (a_2 \pm b_2)j + (a_3 \pm b_3)k$$

Here's multiplication.

$$\begin{aligned}
& (a_0 + a_1i + a_2j + a_3k)(b_0 + b_1i + b_2j + b_3k) \\
= & (a_0b_0 - a_1b_1 - a_2b_2 - a_3b_3) \\
+ & (a_0b_1 + a_1b_0 + a_2b_3 - a_3b_2)i \\
+ & (a_0b_2 - a_1b_3 + a_2b_0 + a_3b_1)j \\
+ & (a_0b_3 + a_1b_2 - a_2b_1 - a_3b_0)k
\end{aligned}$$

All the usual properties of addition, subtraction, and multiplication hold in  $\mathbf{H}$  except one. Multiplication is anticommutative; if  $a$  and  $b$  are two quaternions, then

$$ab = -ba.$$

Division works, too; reciprocals exist for all quaternions except 0. We can use a variant of rationalizing the denominator to find the reciprocal of a quaternion.

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{a_0 + a_1i + a_2j + a_3k} &= \frac{a_0 - a_1i - a_2j - a_3k}{(a_0 - a_1i - a_2j - a_3k)(a_0 + a_1i + a_2j + a_3k)} \\
&= \frac{a_0 - a_1i - a_2j - a_3k}{a_0^2 + a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2}
\end{aligned}$$

Thus, a nonzero quaternion  $a_0 + a_1i + a_2j + a_3k$ , that is, one where not all of the real numbers  $a_0, a_1, a_2$ , and  $a_3$  are 0, has an inverse, since the denominator  $a_0^2 + a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2$  is a nonzero real number.

The expression  $a_0 - a_1i - a_2j - a_3k$  used to rationalize the denominator is the *conjugate* of the original quaternion  $a_0 + a_1i + a_2j + a_3k$ . The standard notation for denoting the conjugate of a quaternion is to place a bar over it. Thus

$$\overline{a_0 + a_1i + a_2j + a_3k} = a_0 - a_1i - a_2j - a_3k.$$

The *norm* or *absolute value* of a quaternion  $a$  by  $|a|^2 = a\bar{a}$ . It's a nonnegative real number, so it has a square root  $|a|$ .

Thus, if  $a$  is a nonzero quaternion, then its inverse is

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

Note that the norm of a product is the product of the norms since

$$|ab|^2 = ab\bar{a}\bar{b} = ab\bar{b}\bar{a} = a|b|^2\bar{a} = a\bar{a}|b|^2 = |a|^2|b|^2.$$

**Quaternions and geometry.** Each quaternion  $a$  is the sum of a real part  $a_0$  and a pure quaternion part  $a_1i + a_2j + a_3k$ . Hamilton called the real part a *scalar* and pure quaternion part a *vector*. We can interpret  $a_1i + a_2j + a_3k$  as a vector  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, a_3)$  in  $\mathbf{R}^3$ . Addition and subtraction of pure quaternions then are just ordinary vector addition and subtraction.

Hamilton recognized that the product of two vectors (pure quaternions) had both a vector component and a scalar component (the real part). The vector component of the product

$\mathbf{ab}$  of two pure quaternions Hamilton called the *vector product*, now often denoted  $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$  or  $\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b}$ , and called the *cross product* or the *outer product*. The negation of the scalar component Hamilton called the *scalar product*, now often denoted  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$ ,  $(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$ ,  $\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \rangle$ , or  $\langle \mathbf{a} | \mathbf{b} \rangle$  and called the *dot product* or the *inner product*. Thus

$$\mathbf{ab} = \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}.$$

Hamilton's quaternions were very successful in the 19th century in the study of three-dimensional geometry.

Here's a typical problem from Kelland and Tait's 1873 *Introduction to Quaternions*. If three mutually perpendicular vectors be drawn from a point to a plane, the sum of the reciprocals of the squares of their lengths is independent of their directions.

Matrices were invented later in the 19th century. (But determinants were invented earlier!) Matrix algebra supplanted quaternion algebra in the early 20th century because (1) they described linear transformations, and (2) they weren't restricted to three dimensions.