

# The Cayley-Dickson Construction in ACL2

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The **Cayley-Dickson Construction** is a generalization of the familiar construction of the complex numbers from pairs of real numbers. The complex numbers can be viewed as two-dimensional vectors equipped with a multiplication.

The construction can be used to construct, not only the two-dimensional Complex Numbers, but also the four-dimensional Quaternions and the eight-dimensional Octonions. Each of these vector spaces has a vector multiplication,  $\mathbf{v}_1 \bullet \mathbf{v}_2$ , that satisfies:

1. Each nonzero vector,  $\mathbf{v}$ , has a multiplicative inverse  $\mathbf{v}^{-1}$ .
2. For the Euclidean length of a vector  $|\mathbf{v}|$ ,  $|\mathbf{v}_1 \bullet \mathbf{v}_2| = |\mathbf{v}_1| \cdot |\mathbf{v}_2|$

Real numbers can also be viewed as (one-dimensional) vectors with the above two properties.

ACL2(r) is used to explore this question: Given a vector space, equipped with a multiplication, satisfying the Euclidean length condition 2, given above. Make pairs of vectors into “new” vectors with a multiplication. When do the newly constructed vectors also satisfy condition 2?

## 1 Cayley-Dickson Construction

Given a vector space, with vector addition,  $\mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{v}_2$ ; vector minus  $-\mathbf{v}$ ; a zero vector  $\vec{0}$ ; scalar multiplication by real number  $a$ ,  $a \circ \mathbf{v}$ ; a unit vector  $\vec{1}$ ; and vector multiplication  $\mathbf{v}_1 \bullet \mathbf{v}_2$ ; satisfying the Euclidean length condition  $|\mathbf{v}_1 \bullet \mathbf{v}_2| = |\mathbf{v}_1| \cdot |\mathbf{v}_2|$  (2).

Define the **norm** of vector  $\mathbf{v}$  by  $\|\mathbf{v}\| = |\mathbf{v}|^2$ . Since  $|\mathbf{v}_1 \bullet \mathbf{v}_2| = |\mathbf{v}_1| \cdot |\mathbf{v}_2|$  is equivalent to  $|\mathbf{v}_1 \bullet \mathbf{v}_2|^2 = |\mathbf{v}_1|^2 \cdot |\mathbf{v}_2|^2$ , the Euclidean length condition is equivalent to

$$\|\mathbf{v}_1 \bullet \mathbf{v}_2\| = \|\mathbf{v}_1\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}_2\|.$$

Recall the **dot (or inner) product**, of  $n$ -dimensional vectors, is defined by

$$\begin{aligned} (x_1, \dots, x_n) \odot (y_1, \dots, y_n) &= x_1 \cdot y_1 + \dots + x_n \cdot y_n \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \cdot y_i \end{aligned}$$

Then Euclidean length and norm of vector  $\mathbf{v}$  are given by

$$\begin{aligned} |\mathbf{v}| &= \sqrt{\mathbf{v} \odot \mathbf{v}} \\ \|\mathbf{v}\| &= \mathbf{v} \odot \mathbf{v}. \end{aligned}$$

Except for vector multiplication, it is easy to treat ordered pairs of vectors,  $(\mathbf{v}_1; \mathbf{v}_2)$ , as vectors:

1.  $(\mathbf{v}_1; \mathbf{v}_2) + (\mathbf{w}_1; \mathbf{w}_2) = (\mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{w}_1; \mathbf{v}_2 + \mathbf{w}_2)$
2.  $-(\mathbf{v}_1; \mathbf{v}_2) = (-\mathbf{v}_1; -\mathbf{v}_2)$

3. zero vector:  $(\vec{0}; \vec{0})$
4.  $a \circ (\mathbf{v}_1; \mathbf{v}_2) = (a \circ \mathbf{v}_1; a \circ \mathbf{v}_2)$
5. unit vector:  $(\vec{1}; \vec{0})$
6.  $(\mathbf{v}_1; \mathbf{v}_2) \odot (\mathbf{w}_1; \mathbf{w}_2) = \{\mathbf{v}_1 \odot \mathbf{w}_1\} + \{\mathbf{v}_2 \odot \mathbf{w}_2\}$
7.  $\|(\mathbf{v}_1; \mathbf{v}_2)\| = \|\mathbf{v}_1\| + \|\mathbf{v}_2\|$

Given that

$$\|\mathbf{v} \bullet \mathbf{w}\| = \|\mathbf{v}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{w}\|,$$

the problem is to define **multiplication of vector pairs** so that

$$\|(\mathbf{v}_1; \mathbf{v}_2) \bullet (\mathbf{w}_1; \mathbf{w}_2)\| = \|(\mathbf{v}_1; \mathbf{v}_2)\| \cdot \|(\mathbf{w}_1; \mathbf{w}_2)\|.$$

## 1.1 Examples

**Complex multiplication.** Think of the real numbers as one-dimensional vectors. Interpret ordered pairs of real numbers as complex numbers: For real  $a$  and  $b$ ,  $(a; b) = (\text{complex } a \ b) = a + b \cdot i$ . For reals  $a_1, a_2$  and  $b_1, b_2$ , complex multiplication is defined by

$$(a_1; a_2) \cdot (b_1; b_2) = ([a_1 b_1 - a_2 b_2]; [a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1]) \quad (1)$$

and satisfies

$$\|(a_1; a_2) \cdot (b_1; b_2)\| = \|(a_1; a_2)\| \cdot \|(b_1; b_2)\|.$$

**Quaternion multiplication.** Think of the complex numbers as two-dimensional vectors. Interpret ordered pairs of complex numbers as William Hamilton's quaternions [1, 3, 2]: For complex  $c = a_1 + a_2 \cdot i$  and  $d = b_1 + b_2 \cdot i$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} (c; d) &= c + d \cdot j \\ &= a_1 + a_2 \cdot i + b_1 \cdot j + b_2 \cdot ij \\ &= a_1 + a_2 \cdot i + b_1 \cdot j + b_2 \cdot k. \end{aligned}$$

where  $i \cdot j = k$ .

For complex  $c = a_1 + a_2 \cdot i$ ,  $\bar{c} = a_1 - a_2 \cdot i$  is the **conjugate** of  $c$ .

For complex numbers  $c_1 = a_1 + a_2 \cdot i$ ,  $c_2 = a_3 + a_4 \cdot i$ ,  $d_1 = b_1 + b_2 \cdot i$ , and  $d_2 = b_3 + b_4 \cdot i$ , quaternion multiplication is defined by

$$\begin{aligned} (c_1; c_2) \cdot (d_1; d_2) &= (a_1 b_1 - a_2 b_2 - a_3 b_3 - a_4 b_4) \\ &\quad + (a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1 + a_3 b_4 - a_4 b_3) i \\ &\quad + (a_1 b_3 - a_2 b_4 + a_3 b_1 + a_4 b_2) j \\ &\quad + (a_1 b_4 + a_2 b_3 - a_3 b_2 + a_4 b_1) k \\ &= (a_1 b_1 - a_2 b_2) + (a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1) i \\ &\quad - [(a_3 b_3 + a_4 b_4) + (-a_3 b_4 + a_4 b_3) i] \\ &\quad + [(a_1 b_3 - a_2 b_4) + (a_1 b_4 + a_2 b_3) i] j \\ &\quad + [(a_3 b_1 + a_4 b_2) + (-a_3 b_2 + a_4 b_1) i] j \\ &= (c_1 d_1 - c_2 \bar{d}_2) + (c_1 d_2 + c_2 \bar{d}_1) j \\ &= ([c_1 d_1 - c_2 \bar{d}_2]; [c_1 d_2 + c_2 \bar{d}_1]) \quad (2) \end{aligned}$$

and satisfies

$$\|(c_1; c_2) \cdot (d_1; d_2)\| = \|(c_1; c_2)\| \cdot \|(d_1; d_2)\|.$$

Quaternion multiplication is completely determined by this table for the multiplication of  $i$ ,  $j$ , and  $k$ :

	$i$	$j$	$k$
$i$	-1	$k$	$-j$
$j$	$-k$	-1	$i$
$k$	$j$	$-i$	-1

Quaternion multiplication is not commutative, since  $i \cdot j = k$  and  $j \cdot i = -k$ . Quaternion multiplication is associative:  $(q_1 \cdot q_2) \cdot q_3 = q_1 \cdot (q_2 \cdot q_3)$ .

**Octonion multiplication.** Think of the quaternions as four-dimensional vectors. Interpret ordered pairs of quaternions as John Graves's and Arthur Cayley's octonions [1, 3, 2]: For quaternions  $q = a_1 + a_2 \cdot i + a_3 \cdot j + a_4 \cdot k$  and  $r = b_1 + b_2 \cdot i + b_3 \cdot j + b_4 \cdot k$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} (q; r) &= q + r \cdot \ell \\ &= a_1 + a_2 \cdot i + a_3 \cdot j + a_4 \cdot k \\ &\quad + b_1 \cdot \ell + b_2 \cdot i\ell + b_3 \cdot j\ell + b_4 \cdot k\ell \\ &= a_1 + a_2 \cdot i + a_3 \cdot j + a_4 \cdot k \\ &\quad + b_1 \cdot \ell + b_2 \cdot I + b_3 \cdot J + b_4 \cdot K. \end{aligned}$$

where  $i \cdot \ell = I$ ,  $j \cdot \ell = J$ , and  $k \cdot \ell = K$

For quaternion  $q = a_1 + a_2 \cdot i + a_3 \cdot j + a_4 \cdot k$ ,  $\bar{q} = a_1 - a_2 \cdot i - a_3 \cdot j - a_4 \cdot k$  is the **conjugate** of  $q$ .

For quaternions  $q_1, q_2, r_1$ , and  $r_2$ , octonion multiplication is defined by

$$\begin{aligned} (q_1; q_2) \cdot (r_1; r_2) &= (q_1 + q_2 \cdot \ell) \cdot (r_1 + r_2 \cdot \ell) \\ &= (q_1 r_1 - \bar{r}_2 q_2) + (r_2 q_1 + q_2 \bar{r}_1) \cdot \ell \\ &= ([q_1 r_1 - \bar{r}_2 q_2]; [r_2 q_1 + q_2 \bar{r}_1]) \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

and satisfies

$$\|(q_1; q_2) \cdot (r_1; r_2)\| = \|(q_1; q_2)\| \cdot \|(r_1; r_2)\|.$$

Octonion multiplication is completely determined by this table for the multiplication of  $i, j, k, \ell, I, J$ , and  $K$ :

	$i$	$j$	$k$	$\ell$	$I$	$J$	$K$
$i$	-1	$k$	$-j$	$I$	$-\ell$	$-K$	$J$
$j$	$-k$	-1	$i$	$J$	$K$	$-\ell$	$-I$
$k$	$j$	$-i$	-1	$K$	$-J$	$I$	$-\ell$
$\ell$	$-I$	$-J$	$-K$	-1	$i$	$j$	$k$
$I$	$\ell$	$-K$	$J$	$-i$	-1	$-k$	$j$
$J$	$K$	$\ell$	$-I$	$-j$	$k$	-1	$-i$
$K$	$-J$	$I$	$\ell$	$-k$	$-j$	$i$	-1

Since the octonions contain the quaternions, octonion multiplication is also not commutative. Octonion multiplication is not associative, since  $\ell \cdot (I \cdot J) = K$  and  $(\ell \cdot I) \cdot J = -K$ .

Complex (1), quaternion (2), and octonion (3) multiplication suggest these possible definitions for vector multiplication:

$$(\mathbf{v}_1; \mathbf{v}_2) \bullet (\mathbf{w}_1; \mathbf{w}_2) = ([\mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{w}_1 - \mathbf{v}_2 \mathbf{w}_2]; [\mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{w}_2 + \mathbf{v}_2 \mathbf{w}_1]) \quad (4)$$

$$(\mathbf{v}_1; \mathbf{v}_2) \bullet (\mathbf{w}_1; \mathbf{w}_2) = ([\mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{w}_1 - \mathbf{v}_2 \bar{\mathbf{w}}_2]; [\mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{w}_2 + \mathbf{v}_2 \bar{\mathbf{w}}_1]) \quad (5)$$

$$(\mathbf{v}_1; \mathbf{v}_2) \bullet (\mathbf{w}_1; \mathbf{w}_2) = ([\mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{w}_1 - \bar{\mathbf{w}}_2 \mathbf{v}_2]; [\mathbf{w}_2 \mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{v}_2 \bar{\mathbf{w}}_1]) \quad (6)$$

When the  $\mathbf{v}_i$  and  $\mathbf{w}_i$  are real numbers, all three definitions are equivalent, since real multiplication is commutative and the conjugate of real  $a$ ,  $\bar{a}$ , is just  $a$ .

When the  $\mathbf{v}_i$  and  $\mathbf{w}_i$  are complex numbers, the last two definitions are equivalent, since complex multiplication is commutative. However, when  $\mathbf{v}_1 = 1 + 0 \cdot i = \mathbf{w}_1$ ,  $\mathbf{v}_2 = 0 + 1 \cdot i$ , and  $\mathbf{w}_2 = 0 + (-1 \cdot i)$ , the product given by equation (4) is the zero vector  $([0 + 0 \cdot i]; [0 + 0 \cdot i])$ . So a vector product defined by (4) need not satisfy

$$\|(\mathbf{v}_1; \mathbf{v}_2) \bullet (\mathbf{w}_1; \mathbf{w}_2)\| = \|(\mathbf{v}_1; \mathbf{v}_2)\| \cdot \|(\mathbf{w}_1; \mathbf{w}_2)\|,$$

for complex inputs.

Since the quaternions contain the complex numbers, a vector product defined by (4) also will not be satisfactory for quaternion inputs. When  $\mathbf{v}_1 = 0 + (-1 \cdot i) + 0 \cdot j + 0 \cdot k$ ,  $\mathbf{v}_2 = 0 + 0 \cdot i + 1 \cdot j + 0 \cdot k = \mathbf{w}_2$ , and  $\mathbf{w}_1 = 0 + 1 \cdot i + 0 \cdot j + 0 \cdot k$ , the product given by equation (5) is the zero vector  $([0 + 0 \cdot i + 0 \cdot j + 0 \cdot k]; [0 + 0 \cdot i + 0 \cdot j + 0 \cdot k])$ . So a vector product defined by either (4) or (5) need not satisfy

$$\|(\mathbf{v}_1; \mathbf{v}_2) \bullet (\mathbf{w}_1; \mathbf{w}_2)\| = \|(\mathbf{v}_1; \mathbf{v}_2)\| \cdot \|(\mathbf{w}_1; \mathbf{w}_2)\|,$$

for quaternion inputs.

This leaves (6) as a possible way to define vector multiplication of ordered pairs of vectors. So a vector **conjugate**,  $\bar{\mathbf{v}}$ , is also required. Continuing the enumeration of vector pair operations given on page 2:

$$8. \overline{(\mathbf{v}_1; \mathbf{v}_2)} = (\bar{\mathbf{v}}_1; -\mathbf{v}_2)$$

$$9. (\mathbf{v}_1; \mathbf{v}_2) \bullet (\mathbf{w}_1; \mathbf{w}_2) = ([\mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{w}_1 - \bar{\mathbf{w}}_2 \mathbf{v}_2]; [\mathbf{w}_2 \mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{v}_2 \bar{\mathbf{w}}_1])$$

The enumerated list of items, 1, 2,  $\dots$ , 9, defining various operations on ordered pairs of vectors, is called the **Cayley-Dickson Construction** [4, 2].

## 1.2 Summary

- Start with the real numbers.  
Apply the Cayley-Dickson Construction to pairs of real numbers.  
Obtain a vector algebra isomorphic to the complex numbers.
- Apply the Cayley-Dickson Construction to pairs of complex numbers.  
Obtain a vector algebra isomorphic to the quaternions.
- Apply the Cayley-Dickson Construction to pairs of quaternions.  
Obtain a vector algebra isomorphic to the octonians.

Each of these vector spaces: real numbers, complex numbers, quaternions, and octonians, satisfy

$$\|\mathbf{v}_1 \bullet \mathbf{v}_2\| = \|\mathbf{v}_1\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}_2\|.$$

Futhermore, every vector  $\mathbf{v} \neq \vec{0}$  has a multiplicative inverse:

$$\mathbf{v}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{v}\|} \circ \bar{\mathbf{v}}$$

## 2 Composition Algebras

A **composition algebra** [1, 3] is a real vector space, with vector multiplication, a real-valued norm, and a real-valued dot product, satisfying this composition law

$$\|\mathbf{v}_1 \bullet \mathbf{v}_2\| = \|\mathbf{v}_1\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}_2\|.$$

Use `encapsulate` to axiomatize, in `ACL2(r)`, composition algebras.

`ACL2(r)` function symbols are needed for

- Vector Predicate.  $\mathbf{Vp}(x)$  for “ $x$  is a vector.”
- Zero Vector.  $\vec{0}$
- Vector Addition.  $\mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{v}_2$
- Vector Minus.  $-\mathbf{v}$
- Scalar Multiplication. For real number  $a$ ,  $a \circ \mathbf{v}$
- Vector Multiplication.  $\mathbf{v}_1 \bullet \mathbf{v}_2$
- Unit Vector.  $\vec{1}$
- Vector Norm.  $\|\mathbf{v}\|$
- Vector Dot Product.  $\mathbf{v}_1 \odot \mathbf{v}_2$
- Predicate with Quantifier.  $\forall u[\mathbf{Vp}(u) \rightarrow u \odot x = 0]$
- Skolem Function. Witness function for Predicate with Quantifier

In addition to the usual closure axioms, the `encapsulate` adds these axioms to `ACL2(r)`:

- Real Vector Space Axioms.

$$[\mathbf{Vp}(x) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(y) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(z)] \rightarrow (x + y) + z = x + (y + z)$$

$$[\mathbf{Vp}(x) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(y)] \rightarrow x + y = y + x$$

$$\mathbf{Vp}(x) \rightarrow \vec{0} + x = x$$

$$\mathbf{Vp}(x) \rightarrow x + (-x) = \vec{0}$$

$$[\mathbf{Realp}(a) \wedge \mathbf{Realp}(b) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(x)] \rightarrow a \circ (b \circ x) = (a \cdot b) \circ x$$

$$\mathbf{Vp}(x) \rightarrow 1 \circ x = x$$

$$[\mathbf{Realp}(a) \wedge \mathbf{Realp}(b) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(x)] \rightarrow (a + b) \circ x = (a \circ x) + (b \circ x)$$

$$[\mathbf{Realp}(a) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(x) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(y)] \rightarrow a \circ (x + y) = (a \circ x) + (a \circ y)$$

- Real Vector Algebra Axioms.

$$\vec{1} \neq \vec{0}$$

$$[\text{Realp}(a) \wedge \text{Realp}(b) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(x) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(y) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(z)] \rightarrow \\ x \bullet [(a \circ y) + (b \circ z)] = [a \circ (x \bullet y)] + [b \circ (x \bullet z)]$$

$$[\text{Realp}(a) \wedge \text{Realp}(b) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(x) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(y) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(z)] \rightarrow \\ [(a \circ x) + (b \circ y)] \bullet z = [a \circ (x \bullet z)] + [b \circ (y \bullet z)]$$

$$\mathbf{Vp}(x) \rightarrow [(\vec{1} \bullet x = x) \wedge (x \bullet \vec{1} = x)]$$

- Vector Norm and Dot Product Axioms.

$$\mathbf{Vp}(x) \rightarrow [\text{Realp}(\|x\|) \wedge \|x\| \geq 0]$$

$$\mathbf{Vp}(x) \rightarrow [(\|x\| = 0) = (x = \vec{0})]$$

$$[\mathbf{Vp}(x) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(y)] \rightarrow \|x \bullet y\| = \|x\| \cdot \|y\|$$

$$x \odot y = \frac{1}{2} \cdot [\|x+y\| - \|x\| - \|y\|]$$

$$[\text{Realp}(a) \wedge \text{Realp}(b) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(x) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(y) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(z)] \rightarrow \\ [(a \circ x) + (b \circ y)] \odot z = [a \cdot (x \odot z)] + [b \cdot (y \odot z)]$$

$$\forall u[\mathbf{Vp}(u) \rightarrow u \odot x = 0] = \\ [\text{let } u \text{ be witness}(x)][\mathbf{Vp}(u) \rightarrow u \odot x = 0]$$

$$\forall u[\mathbf{Vp}(u) \rightarrow u \odot x = 0] \rightarrow [\mathbf{Vp}(u) \rightarrow u \odot x = 0]$$

$$(\mathbf{Vp}(x) \wedge \forall u[\mathbf{Vp}(u) \rightarrow u \odot x = 0]) \rightarrow x = \vec{0}$$

The ACL2(r) theory of composition algebras includes the following theorems and definitions:

- Scaling Laws.

$$[\mathbf{Vp}(x) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(y) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(z)] \rightarrow (x \bullet y) \odot (x \bullet z) = \|x\| \cdot (y \odot z)$$

$$[\mathbf{Vp}(x) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(y) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(z)] \rightarrow (x \bullet z) \odot (y \bullet z) = (x \odot y) \cdot \|z\|$$

- Exchange Law.

$$\begin{aligned} [\mathbf{Vp}(u) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(x) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(y) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(z)] \rightarrow \\ [(u \bullet y) \odot (x \bullet z)] + [(u \bullet z) \odot (x \bullet y)] = \\ 2 \cdot (u \odot x) \cdot (y \odot z) \end{aligned}$$

- Conjugate Definition.

$$\bar{x} = ([2 \cdot (x \odot \vec{1})] \odot \vec{1}) + (-x)$$

- Conjugate Laws.

$$[\mathbf{Vp}(x) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(y) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(z)] \rightarrow y \odot (\bar{x} \bullet z) = z \odot (x \bullet y)$$

$$[\mathbf{Vp}(x) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(y) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(z)] \rightarrow x \odot (z \bullet \bar{y}) = z \odot (x \bullet y)$$

$$\mathbf{Vp}(x) \rightarrow \bar{\bar{x}} = x$$

$$[\mathbf{Vp}(x) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(y)] \rightarrow \overline{x \bullet y} = \bar{y} \bullet \bar{x}$$

- Inverse Definition.

$$x^{-1} = \frac{1}{\|x\|} \odot \bar{x}$$

- Inverse Law.

$$[\mathbf{Vp}(x) \wedge x \neq \vec{0}] \rightarrow [x^{-1} \bullet x = \vec{1} \wedge x \bullet x^{-1} = \vec{1}]$$

- Alternative Laws. Special versions of associativity.

$$[\mathbf{Vp}(x) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(y)] \rightarrow x \bullet (x \bullet y) = (x \bullet x) \bullet y$$

$$[\mathbf{Vp}(x) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(y)] \rightarrow (y \bullet x) \bullet x = y \bullet (x \bullet x)$$

$$[\mathbf{Vp}(x) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(y)] \rightarrow (x \bullet y) \bullet x = x \bullet (y \bullet x)$$

- Other Theorems.

$$[\mathbf{Vp}(x) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(y)] \rightarrow ([x \bullet y = \vec{0}] = [(x = \vec{0}) \vee (y = \vec{0})])$$

$$(\mathbf{Vp}(x) \wedge \mathbf{Vp}(y) \wedge \forall u [\mathbf{Vp}(u) \rightarrow u \odot x = u \odot y]) \rightarrow x = y$$

$$\|x\| = x \odot x$$

### 3 Composition Algebra Doubling.

Use `encapsulate` to axiomatize, in  $\text{ACL2}(r)$ , two composition algebras, with vector predicates  $V_1p$  and  $V_2p$ . The vectors satisfying  $V_2p$  are ordered pairs of elements satisfying  $V_1p$ . Both algebras, individually, satisfy all the axioms (and also all theorems) of the previous section. These additional axioms connect the various vector operations of the two spaces:

- Additional Axioms.

$$x +_2 y = ([\text{car}(x) +_1 \text{car}(y)]; [\text{cdr}(x) +_1 \text{cdr}(y)])$$

$$a \circ_2 x = ([a \circ_1 \text{car}(x)]; [a \circ_1 \text{cdr}(x)])$$

$$[V_1p(x) \wedge V_1p(y)] \rightarrow (x; \vec{0}_1) \bullet_2 (y; \vec{0}_1) = ([x \bullet_1 y]; \vec{0}_1)$$

$$V_1p(x) \rightarrow (\| (x; \vec{0}_1) \|_2 = \|x\|_1 \wedge \| (\vec{0}_1; x) \|_2 = \|x\|_1)$$

$$[V_1p(x) \wedge V_1p(y)] \rightarrow (x; \vec{0}_1) \odot_2 (\vec{0}_1; y) = 0$$

$$\vec{1}_2 = (\vec{1}_1; \vec{0}_1)$$

$$V_1p(x) \rightarrow (x; \vec{0}_1) \bullet_2 (\vec{0}_1; \vec{1}_1) = (\vec{0}_1; x)$$

Since both  $V_1p$  and  $V_2p$  are composition algebras,

$$\begin{aligned} & [V_1p(v_1) \wedge V_1p(v_2) \wedge V_1p(w_1) \wedge V_1p(w_2)] \rightarrow \\ & [\|v_1 \bullet_1 v_2\|_1 = \|v_1\|_1 \cdot \|v_2\|_1 \wedge \\ & \| (v_1; w_1) \bullet_2 (v_2; w_2) \|_2 = \| (v_1; w_1) \|_2 \cdot \| (v_2; w_2) \|_2]. \end{aligned}$$

Among the consequences of these encapsulated axioms,  $\text{ACL2}(r)$  verifies:

- Dot Product Doubling.

$$\begin{aligned} & [V_1p(v_1) \wedge V_1p(v_2) \wedge V_1p(w_1) \wedge V_1p(w_2)] \rightarrow \\ & (v_1; v_2) \odot_2 (w_1; w_2) = [v_1 \odot_1 w_1] + [v_2 \odot_1 w_2] \end{aligned}$$

- Conjugation Doubling.

$$[V_1p(v_1) \wedge V_1p(v_2)] \rightarrow \overline{(v_1; v_2)} = (\bar{v}_1; -v_2)$$

- Product Doubling.

$$\begin{aligned} & [V_1p(v_1) \wedge V_1p(v_2) \wedge V_1p(w_1) \wedge V_1p(w_2)] \rightarrow \\ & (v_1; v_2) \bullet_2 (w_1; w_2) = \\ & (\{[v_1 \bullet_1 w_1] - [\bar{w}_2 \bullet_1 v_2]\}; \{[w_2 \bullet_1 v_1] + [v_2 \bullet_1 \bar{w}_1]\}) \end{aligned}$$



- Norm Doubling.

$$[V_1p(v_1) \wedge V_1p(v_2)] \rightarrow \|(v_1; v_2)\|_2 = \|v_1\|_1 + \|v_2\|_1$$

- Associativity of  $\bullet_1$ .

$$[V_1p(v_1) \wedge V_1p(v_2) \wedge V_1p(v_3)] \rightarrow [v_1 \bullet_1 v_2] \bullet_1 v_3 = v_1 \bullet_1 [v_2 \bullet_1 v_3]$$

The above doubling theorems match the definitions used in the Cayley-Dickson Construction for making ordered pairs of  $V_1p$  vectors into  $V_2p$  vectors. Furthermore, if both the  $V_2p$  ordered pairs and the component  $V_1p$  vectors form composition algebras, then the component  $V_1p$  algebra has an associative multiplication.

In addition, ACL2(r) verifies that if the component  $V_1p$  vectors form a composition algebra with an associative multiplication, then the Cayley-Dickson Construction makes the  $V_2p$  ordered pairs into a composition algebra.

### 3.1 Summary

ACL2(r) verifies:

- Start with a composition algebra  $V_1p$ .
- Let  $V_2p$  be the set of ordered pairs of elements from  $V_1p$ .
- Then
  - (a) If  $V_2p$  is also a composition algebra, then  $V_1p$ -multiplication is associative.
    - (b) If  $V_1p$ -multiplication is associative, then  $V_2p$  can be made into a composition algebra.
  - (a) If  $V_2p$  is a composition algebra with associative multiplication, then  $V_1p$ -multiplication is associative and commutative.
    - (b) If  $V_1p$ -multiplication is associative and commutative, then  $V_2p$  can be made into a composition algebra with associative multiplication.
  - (a) If  $V_2p$  is a composition algebra with associative and commutative multiplication, then  $V_1p$ -multiplication is also associative and commutative, and  $V_1p$ -conjugation is trivial.
    - (b) If  $V_1p$ -multiplication is associative and commutative, and  $V_1p$ -conjugation is trivial, then  $V_2p$  can be made into a composition algebra with associative and commutative multiplication.

#### 3.1.1 A last example

Apply the Cayley-Dickson Construction to pairs of octonions. Think of the octonions as eight-dimensional vectors. Interpret ordered pairs of octonions as sixteen-dimensional vectors called Sedenions [5]: For octonians

$$\begin{aligned} o &= a_1 + a_2 \cdot i + a_3 \cdot j + a_4 \cdot k + a_5 \cdot \ell + a_6 \cdot I + a_7 \cdot J + a_8 \cdot K \\ p &= b_1 + b_2 \cdot i + b_3 \cdot j + b_4 \cdot k + b_5 \cdot \ell + b_6 \cdot I + b_7 \cdot J + b_8 \cdot K, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} (o; p) &= o + p \cdot L \\ &= a_1 + a_2 \cdot i + a_3 \cdot j + a_4 \cdot k + a_5 \cdot \ell + a_6 \cdot I + a_7 \cdot J + a_8 \cdot K \\ &\quad + b_1 \cdot L + b_2 \cdot iL + b_3 \cdot jL + b_4 \cdot kL + b_5 \cdot \ell L + b_6 \cdot IL \\ &\quad + b_7 \cdot JL + b_8 \cdot KL. \end{aligned}$$

For octonion

$$\begin{aligned} o &= a_1 + a_2 \cdot i + a_3 \cdot j + a_4 \cdot k + a_5 \cdot \ell + a_6 \cdot I + a_7 \cdot J + a_8 \cdot K, \\ \bar{o} &= a_1 - a_2 \cdot i - a_3 \cdot j - a_4 \cdot k - a_5 \cdot \ell - a_6 \cdot I - a_7 \cdot J - a_8 \cdot K \end{aligned}$$

is the **conjugate** of  $o$ .

For octonions  $o_1, o_2, p_1$ , and  $p_2$ , sedenion multiplication is defined by

$$\begin{aligned} (o_1; o_2) \cdot (p_1; p_2) &= (o_1 + o_2 \cdot L) \cdot (p_1 + p_2 \cdot L) \\ &= (o_1 p_1 - \bar{p}_2 o_2) + (p_2 o_1 + o_2 \bar{p}_1) \cdot L \\ &= ([o_1 p_1 - \bar{p}_2 o_2]; [p_2 o_1 + o_2 \bar{p}_1]) \end{aligned}$$

Recall the octonians have a **non**-trivial conjugate and octonion multiplication is **not** commutative and also **not** associative. The octonions form a composition algebra, so that for octonions  $o$  and  $p$ ,  $\|o \cdot p\| = \|o\| \cdot \|p\|$ .

By item 1(a) listed above about composition algebras, since octonion multiplication is not associative, the sedenions is not a composition algebra. In fact, the sedenion product of nonzero vectors could be the zero vector. For example, let  $o_1, o_2, p_1$ , and  $p_2$  be these octonions:

$$\begin{aligned} o_1 &= 0 + 0 \cdot i + 0 \cdot j + 1 \cdot k + 0 \cdot \ell + 0 \cdot I + 0 \cdot J + 0 \cdot K \\ o_2 &= 0 + 0 \cdot i + 1 \cdot j + 0 \cdot k + 0 \cdot \ell + 0 \cdot I + 0 \cdot J + 0 \cdot K \\ p_1 &= 0 + 0 \cdot i + 0 \cdot j + 0 \cdot k + 0 \cdot \ell + 0 \cdot I + 1 \cdot J + 0 \cdot K \\ p_2 &= 0 + 0 \cdot i + 0 \cdot j + 0 \cdot k + 0 \cdot \ell + 0 \cdot I + 0 \cdot J + (-1 \cdot K). \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} (o_1 + o_2 \cdot L) \cdot (p_1 + p_2 \cdot L) &= \\ (0 + 0 \cdot i + 0 \cdot j + 0 \cdot k + 0 \cdot \ell + 0 \cdot I + 0 \cdot J + 0 \cdot K) &+ \\ + (0 + 0 \cdot i + 0 \cdot j + 0 \cdot k + 0 \cdot \ell + 0 \cdot I + 0 \cdot J + 0 \cdot K) \cdot L. \end{aligned}$$

So

$$\|(o_1 + o_2 \cdot L) \cdot (p_1 + p_2 \cdot L)\| = 0,$$

but

$$\|(o_1 + o_2 \cdot L)\| = 2 = \|(p_1 + p_2 \cdot L)\|,$$

and

$$\|(o_1 + o_2 \cdot L) \cdot (p_1 + p_2 \cdot L)\| \neq \|(o_1 + o_2 \cdot L)\| \cdot \|(p_1 + p_2 \cdot L)\|.$$

All nonzero sedenions have multiplicative inverses. For example,

$$\begin{aligned} (o_1 + o_2 \cdot L)^{-1} &= \\ (0 + 0 \cdot i + 0 \cdot j + (-\frac{1}{2} \cdot k) + 0 \cdot \ell + 0 \cdot I + 0 \cdot J + 0 \cdot K) &+ \\ + (0 + 0 \cdot i + (-\frac{1}{2} \cdot j) + 0 \cdot k + 0 \cdot \ell + 0 \cdot I + 0 \cdot J + 0 \cdot K) \cdot L & \\ (p_1 + p_2 \cdot L)^{-1} &= \\ (0 + 0 \cdot i + 0 \cdot j + 0 \cdot k) + 0 \cdot \ell + 0 \cdot I + (-\frac{1}{2} \cdot J) + 0 \cdot K &+ \\ + (0 + 0 \cdot i + 0 \cdot j + 0 \cdot k + 0 \cdot \ell + 0 \cdot I + 0 \cdot J + (\frac{1}{2} \cdot K)) \cdot L & \end{aligned}$$

## A ACL2(r) Books

### A.1 cayley1.lisp

The Reals form a (1-dimensional) composition algebra.

### A.2 cayley1a.lisp

Cons pairs of Reals form a (2-dimensional) composition algebra.

This algebra is (isomorphic to) the Complex Numbers.

### A.3 cayley1b.lisp

Cons pairs of Complex Numbers form a (4-dimensional) composition algebra.

This algebra is (isomorphic to) the Quaternions.

3-Dimensional Vector Cross Product and 3-Dimensional Dot Product are related to 4-Dimensional Quaternion Multiplication.

### A.4 cayley1c.lisp

Cons pairs of Quaternions form a (8-dimensional) composition algebra.

This algebra is (isomorphic to) the Octonions.

7-Dimensional Vector Cross Product and 7-Dimensional Dot Product are related to 8-Dimensional Octonion Multiplication.

### A.5 cayley1d.lisp

Cons pairs of Octonions form a (16-dimensional) algebra.

This algebra is (isomorphic to) the Sedenions.

This algebra is not a composition algebra, but all nonzero Sedenions have multiplicative inverses.

### A.6 cayley2.lisp

Axioms and theory of composition algebras.

### A.7 cayley2.lisp

In composition algebras,  $\|v\| = v \odot v$ .

### A.8 cayley3.lisp

Start with a composition algebra V1. Let V2 be the set of ordered pairs of elements from V1.

If V2 is also a composition algebra, then V1-multiplication is associative.

### A.9 cayley3a.lisp

Start with a composition algebra V. Let V2 be the set of ordered pairs of elements from V.

If V-multiplication is associative, then V2 can be made into a composition algebra.

**A.10** `cayley4.lisp`

Start with a composition algebra  $V_1$ . Let  $V_2$  be the set of ordered pairs of elements from  $V_1$ .

If  $V_2$  is a composition algebra with associative multiplication, then  $V_1$ -multiplication is associative and commutative.

**A.11** `cayley4a.lisp`

Start with a composition algebra  $V$ . Let  $V_2$  be the set of ordered pairs of elements from  $V$ .

If  $V$ -multiplication is associative and commutative, then  $V_2$  can be made into a composition algebra with associative multiplication.

**A.12** `cayley5.lisp`

Start with a composition algebra  $V_1$ . Let  $V_2$  be the set of ordered pairs of elements from  $V_1$ .

If  $V_2$  is a composition algebra with associative and commutative multiplication, then  $V_1$ -multiplication is associative and commutative, and  $V_1$ -conjugation is trivial.

**A.13** `cayley5a.lisp`

Start with a composition algebra  $V$ . Let  $V_2$  be the set of ordered pairs of elements from  $V$ .

If  $V$ -multiplication is associative and commutative, and  $V$ -conjugation is trivial, then  $V_2$  can be made into a composition algebra with associative and commutative multiplication.

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