

However, the bad news is that the coefficient growth in the Euclidean Algorithm is very rapid (see, for example, Section 6.1 of [16]). To overcome this difficulty, resultants are used to control the Bézout coefficients (and it yields a modular algorithm for gcd calculations), mainly due to the following property of resultants.

Theorem 1.1 ([16, Corollary 6.17]). *Let F be a field and $f, g \in F[x]$ be nonzero. Then the following are equivalent:*

- (i) $\gcd(f, g) = 1$,
- (ii) $\text{res}(f, g) \neq 0$,
- (iii) *there do not exist $s, t \in F[x] \setminus \{0\}$ such that*

$$sf + tg = 0, \quad \deg s < \deg g, \quad \deg t < \deg f.$$

Another application of resultants in computer algebra is that, working with Gröbner bases, the resultant is one of the main tools of effective elimination theory (see, for example, [2]). For this purpose, we need the following result.

Theorem 1.2 ([2, Proposition 9 of Section 3.5]). *Given $f, g \in F[x]$ of positive degrees, there exist polynomials $s, t \in F[x]$ such that $sf + tg = \text{res}(f, g)$.*

Quaternion algebra \mathbb{H} was introduced by W. R. Hamilton in 1843. The quaternions \mathbb{H} is an associative (but noncommutative) division algebra generated by four basic elements $1, \mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j}$ and \mathbf{k} over the reals \mathbb{R} with Hamilton relations $\mathbf{i}^2 = \mathbf{j}^2 = \mathbf{k}^2 = \mathbf{ijk} = -1$. It holds a special place in mathematics since, by Frobenius theorem, \mathbb{H} is one of the only three finite dimensional division algebras over the real numbers (the other two are real numbers \mathbb{R} and complex numbers \mathbb{C}). Quaternions \mathbb{H} is also the first noncommutative division algebra to be discovered. Beyond mathematics, quaternions are also widely used, for example, in electromechanics and quantum mechanics. Since the group of unit quaternions is isomorphic to the group of the involving three dimensional (3D) rotations, the primary application of quaternions in these fields is in calculations 3D rotations such as in 3D computer animation, computer vision and orbital mechanics, see, for example, [12, 15]. Besides, many physical laws in classical, relativistic, and quantum mechanics can be written nicely using quaternions, see, for example [11].

Our goal in this paper is to extend Theorems 1.1 and 1.2 to (noncommutative) polynomials over quaternions \mathbb{H} . The main difficulty here is how to define a determinant for a square matrix with entries in \mathbb{H} (or more generally, in a noncommutative ring). Several noncommutative determinants have been formulated, e.g., Dieudonné determinant [3], Condensed Cramer rule [13, 14], quasideterminant [6], double determinant [7]. In [4], it is shown that, for polynomials $f, g \in \mathbb{H}[x]$, Theorem 1.1 is still true if gcd is replaced by gcdr (greatest common right divisor) and (ii) is replaced by

- (ii)' $\text{res}(f, g) = \text{Ddet}(S) \neq 0$ in the factor group $\mathbb{H}^*/[\mathbb{H}^*, \mathbb{H}^*]$, where S is the Sylvester matrix (Definition 4.1) of f and g , $\text{Ddet}(S)$ is the Dieudonné determinant of S , and \mathbb{H}^* denotes the multiplicative group of \mathbb{H} .

The disadvantage to use the Dieudonné determinant is that $\text{Ddet}(S)$ takes a value in the factor group $\mathbb{H}^*/[\mathbb{H}^*, \mathbb{H}^*]$ instead of \mathbb{H} . In this paper, we will extend Theorems 1.1 and 1.2 to $\mathbb{H}[x]$ by using double determinants (in the sense of Kyrchei [7]), which take values in \mathbb{H} .

The paper is organized as follows. Basic notations on quaternion and quaternion polynomials are introduced in Section 2, followed by the definition and properties of double determinant in Section 3. Our main results, the generalization of the above two theorems and their application on repeated roots, are in Section 4.

2. Quaternions and quaternion polynomials

Let $\mathbb{H} = \{a + bi + cj + dk : a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}\}$ be the algebra of real quaternions, i.e., the associative unital \mathbb{R} -algebra generated by i, j and k with the Hamilton relations

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

which implies that

$$ij = k, jk = i, ki = j, ji = -k, kj = -i, ik = -j.$$

Given $h = a + bi + cj + dk \in \mathbb{H}$ where $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$, the *conjugate* of h is defined as $\bar{h} = a - bi - cj - dk$.

Let $\mathbb{H}[x] = \{a_mx^m + \dots + a_1x + a_0 : a_i \in \mathbb{H}, 0 \leq i \leq m, m \in \mathbb{N}\}$ be the polynomial ring in one variable x over \mathbb{H} , where x commutes element wise with \mathbb{H} . Suppose $f(x) = a_mx^m + \dots + a_1x + a_0 \in \mathbb{H}[x]$ and $r \in \mathbb{H}$. We define $f(r)$ (the *evaluation* of f at r) to be $f(r) = a_mr^m + \dots + a_1r + a_0 \in \mathbb{H}$. Note that, with the above notation, $f(x) = g(x)h(x) \in \mathbb{H}[x]$ does not imply that $f(r) = g(r)h(r)$ (see Section 16 of [8] for a counterexample), that is, evaluation at r is not a ring homomorphism from $\mathbb{H}[x]$ to \mathbb{H} in general.

Suppose $f, g \in \mathbb{H}[x]$. If $f = pq$ for $p, q \in \mathbb{H}[x]$, then q is called a *right divisor* of f . A *common right divisor* of f and g is a polynomial in $\mathbb{H}[x]$ which is a right divisor of both f and g . A *greatest common right divisor* of f and g , denoted by $\text{gcd}(f, g)$, is a common right divisor h of f and g such that any common right divisor of f and g is a right divisor of h . A quaternion polynomial is *monic* if the coefficient of the highest power of x is one. By the Euclidean Algorithm for noncommutative polynomials (see, for example, [10], Section 2 of Chapter I), we can prove the following lemma.

Lemma 2.1. *Suppose $f, g \in \mathbb{H}[x]$.*

- (i) *There exists a unique, monic, greatest common right divisor of f and g , denoted by $\text{gcd}(f, g)$.*
- (ii) *There exist polynomials $p, q \in \mathbb{H}[x]$ such that $pf + qg = \text{gcd}(f, g)$, $\text{deg}(p) < \text{deg}(g)$, and $\text{deg}(q) < \text{deg}(f)$.*

3. Double determinants

Row and column determinants were introduced by Kyrchei [7], based on which a double determinant (cf., Chen’s double determinant [1]) was defined. Let us recall from [7] some definitions and properties related to double determinants. All statements without proofs in this section are taken from [7].

Let M_n be the set of $n \times n$ square matrices with entries from \mathbb{H} and let S_n be the symmetric group on the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. Suppose $A = (a_{ij}) \in M_n$. Then, for $1 \leq i \leq n$, the *i th row determinant* of A is defined as

$$\text{rdet}_i(A) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} (-1)^{n-r} a_{ii_{k_1}} a_{i_{k_1} i_{k_1+1}} \dots a_{i_{k_1+l_1} i} \dots a_{i_{k_r} i_{k_r+1}} a_{i_{k_r+1} i_{k_r+2}} \dots a_{i_{k_r+l_r} i_{k_r}} \quad (3.1)$$

where $\sigma \in S_n$ is written as a product of disjoint cycles

$$\sigma = (i \ i_{k_1} \ i_{k_1+1} \ \dots \ i_{k_1+l_1}) (i_{k_2} \ i_{k_2+1} \ \dots \ i_{k_2+l_2}) \dots (i_{k_r} \ i_{k_r+1} \ \dots \ i_{k_r+l_r})$$

such that

$$i_{k_2} < i_{k_3} < \dots < i_{k_r}, \quad i_{k_t} < i_{k_t+s}, \quad 2 \leq t \leq r, \quad 1 \leq s \leq l_r.$$

Column determinants $\text{cdet}_i(A)$ can be defined in a similar way, see Definition 2.5 of [7]. In particular, if $A \in M_n$ is a *Hermitian matrix* (i.e., $A^* = A$, where $A^* = \bar{A}^T$ is the transpose of the conjugate of A), then

$$\text{rdet}_1(A) = \dots = \text{rdet}_n(A) = \text{cdet}_1(A) = \dots = \text{cdet}_n(A) \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Definition 3.1 ([7, Definition 8.2]). *Suppose $A \in M_n$. Then the *double determinant* of A is defined as $\text{ddet}(A) = \text{rdet}_1(A^*A)$.*

Since A^*A is Hermitian for any $A \in M_n$, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ddet}(A) &= \text{rdet}_1(A^*A) = \cdots = \text{rdet}_n(A^*A) \\ &= \text{cdet}_1(A^*A) = \cdots = \text{cdet}_n(A^*A) \in \mathbb{R}. \end{aligned}$$

The double determinant enjoys some familiar properties of ordinary determinants. For example, $\text{ddet}(AB) = \text{ddet}(A) \text{ddet}(B)$ for any $A, B \in M_n$.

Double determinants are also closely related to solving quaternion linear equations.

Lemma 3.2. *Suppose $A \in M_n$. Then the following statements are equivalent.*

- (i) *The columns of A are not right linearly independent, i.e., there exists one column of A that is a right linear combination of the other columns of A .*
- (ii) *The rows of A are not left linearly independent.*
- (iii) $\text{ddet}(A) = 0$.

Using the above lemma, we can prove the following lemma (where we use $\mathbf{0}$ to denote both zero row $(0, \dots, 0)$ and zero column $(0, \dots, 0)^T$).

Lemma 3.3. *Suppose $A \in M_n$, $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)^T$ and $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$. Then the following are equivalent.*

- (i) *The right system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ of linear equations has nontrivial solutions.*
- (ii) *The left system $\mathbf{y}A = \mathbf{0}$ of linear equations has nontrivial solutions.*
- (iii) $\text{ddet}(A) = 0$.

Proof. Note that the right system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has nontrivial solutions if and only if the columns of A are not right linearly independent and that the left system $\mathbf{y}A = \mathbf{0}$ has nontrivial solutions if and only if the rows of A are not left linearly independent. Thus the lemma follows from Lemma 3.2. \square

Lemma 3.4 (Cramer's Rule). *Let $\mathbf{x}A = \mathbf{y}$ be a left system of linear equation with coefficient matrix $A \in M_n$, constant row $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ of quaternions, and unknowns $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$. If $\text{ddet}(A) \neq 0$, then the system has a unique solution in \mathbb{H} given by*

$$x_i = \frac{\text{rdet}_i((AA^*)_i(\mathbf{y}A^*))}{\text{ddet}(A)}, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n,$$

where $(AA^*)_i(\mathbf{y}A^*)$ is the matrix obtained from AA^* by replacing the i th row by the row vector $\mathbf{y}A^*$.

4. Resultants, gcd and repeated roots

In this section, we define a resultant of two quaternion polynomials and investigate the relationships among resultants, gcd and repeated roots of quaternion polynomials.

First of all, as for commutative case in the Section 1, we can define Sylvester matrices for two polynomials in $\mathbb{H}[x]$.

Definition 4.1 (Sylvester matrix and resultant). Suppose $p(x) = a_mx^m + \cdots + a_1x + a_0 \in \mathbb{H}[x]$ and $q(x) = b_nx^n + \cdots + b_1x + b_0 \in \mathbb{H}[x]$ of degrees m and n respectively. The *Sylvester matrix* $\text{Syl}(p, q) \in M_n$ of p and q is defined as

Theorem 4.4. *Suppose $f, g \in \mathbb{H}[x]$ with $\deg f > 0$ and $\deg g > 0$. Then there exist polynomials $p, q \in \mathbb{H}[x]$ such that $pf + qg = \text{res}(f, g)$. Furthermore, the coefficients of p and q are integer polynomials in the coefficients of f and g .*

Proof. First note that if $\text{res}(f, g) = 0$ then we can simply choose $p = q = 0$. Now assume that $\text{res}(f, g) \neq 0$. Then, by Theorem 4.3, $\text{gcd}(f, g) = 1$. Hence, by Lemma 2.1, there exist $p', q' \in \mathbb{H}[x]$ such that $\deg(p') < \deg(g)$, $\deg(q') < \deg(f)$ and $p'f + q'g = 1$. Suppose

$$f = a_mx^m + \cdots + a_0, \quad (4.1)$$

$$g = b_nx^n + \cdots + b_0, \quad (4.2)$$

$$p' = c_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + c_0, \quad (4.3)$$

$$q' = d_{m-1}x^{m-1} + \cdots + d_0. \quad (4.4)$$

where the coefficients $a_i, b_j, c_i, d_j \in \mathbb{H}$ and $a_m \neq 0, b_n \neq 0$. Substituting (4.1)–(4.4) into the equation $p'f + q'g = 1$ and equating the coefficients of powers of x , we get the following left system of linear equations

$$(c_{n-1}, \dots, c_0, d_{m-1}, \dots, d_0)A = (0, \dots, 0, 1) \quad (4.5)$$

with unknowns c_i, d_j and coefficient matrix $A = \text{Syl}^T(f, g)$.

Since $\text{ddet}(A) = \text{res}(f, g) \neq 0$, by Cramer's Rule (Lemma 3.4), System (4.5) has a unique solution in \mathbb{H} given by, for example,

$$c_{n-1} = \frac{\text{rdet}_1(AA^*)_1(\mathbf{z})}{\text{ddet}(A)},$$

where $\mathbf{z} = (0, \dots, 0, 1)A^*$ is the last row of A^* .

Note that, by the definition (Equation (3.1)), a row determinant of a matrix $B = (b_{ij}) \in M_n$ is a polynomial in the entries b_{ij} with integer coefficients. Thus it follows that

$$c_{n-1} = \frac{p_{n-1}}{\text{ddet}(A)}, \quad (4.6)$$

where p_{n-1} is a polynomial in a_i and b_j ($1 \leq i, j \leq n$) with integer coefficients. Similarly, all c_i and d_j ($1 \leq i \leq n-1, 0 \leq j \leq m-1$) have the same form as c_{n-1} in (4.6). Hence

$$p' = c_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + c_0 = \frac{p}{\text{ddet}(A)},$$

where $p \in \mathbb{H}[x]$ and the coefficients of p are polynomials in a_i and b_j , $0 \leq i \leq m, 0 \leq j \leq n$. Similarly, we can write

$$q' = \frac{q}{\text{ddet}(S)},$$

where $q \in \mathbb{H}[x]$ has the same properties as p . Since p' and q' satisfy $p'f + q'g = 1$, multiplying by $\text{ddet}(A)$ gives $pf + qg = \text{ddet}(A)$, where p and q are integer polynomials in the coefficients of f and g as required. \square

Studying the roots of quaternion polynomials is quite different from that in commutative polynomial case, see for example, [5] and [8]. As an application of our main theorem, we will consider repeated roots of a quaternion polynomial.

Let $f = a_mx^m + \cdots + a_1x + a_0 \in \mathbb{H}[x]$, $m \in \mathbb{N}$. Sometimes we write f as $f(x)$ to emphasize the variable x . We use both f and $f(x)$ without any difference in the paper. The (formal) derivative of f is defined as $f' = ma_mx^{m-1} + \cdots + a_2x + a_1$. In particular, if $m = 0$, then $f' = 0$. Then we have the following lemma, whose proof is straightforward.

Lemma 4.5. Suppose $f(x), g(x) \in \mathbb{H}[x]$ and $c \in \mathbb{H}$. Then

- (i) $[cf(x)]' = cf'(x)$.
- (ii) $[f(x) + g(x)]' = f'(x) + g'(x)$.
- (iii) $[f(x)g(x)]' = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x)$.
- (iv) $[(x + c)^n]' = n(x + c)^{n-1}$.

Remark 4.6. The Chain Rule does not hold for derivatives of quaternion polynomials in general. For example, if $f(x) = ax + b \in \mathbb{H}[x]$, then

$$[[f(x)]^2]' = [a^2x^2 + (ab + ba)x + b^2]' = 2a^2x + ab + ba$$

and

$$2f(x)f'(x) = 2(ax + b)a = 2a^2x + 2ba.$$

Hence $[[f(x)]^2]' \neq 2f(x)f'(x)$ if $ab \neq ba$.

Lemma 4.7. Suppose $f(x)$ has a right factor $(ax + b)^n$, where $n \geq 2$, $a, b \in \mathbb{H}$, $a \neq 0$ and $ab = ba$. Then $\text{res}(f, f') = 0$.

Proof. First we suppose $f(x) = g(x)(x + b)^n$ for some $g(x) \in \mathbb{H}[x]$. Then, by Lemma 4.5,

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= g'(x)(x + b)^n + ng(x)(x + b)^{n-1} \\ &= [g'(x)(x + b) + ng(x)](x + b)^{n-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Both f and f' have right factor $(x + b)^{n-1}$, which is not a unit since $n \geq 2$. Hence, by Theorem 4.3, $\text{res}(f, f') = 0$.

For general case, since $ab = ba$, we have $f(x) = g(x)a^n(x + a^{-1}b)^n$. Then it follows from the last paragraph that $\text{res}(f, f') = 0$. □

Remark 4.8. The condition $ab = ba$ in the above lemma is necessary. Otherwise, for example, let $f(x) = (\mathbf{i}x + \mathbf{j})^2$. Then $f' = (-x^2 - 1)' = -2x$. Thus

$$A = \text{Syl}^T(f, f') = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & -1 \\ -2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

which is a 3×3 matrix over \mathbb{R} . Hence, $\text{res}(f, f') = \text{ddet}(A) = \det(A^T A) = (\det A)^2 = 16 \neq 0$.

Definition 4.9 ([8, §16]). An element $r \in \mathbb{H}$ is said to be a *right root* of a nonzero polynomial $f(x) \in \mathbb{H}[x]$ if $x - r$ is a right divisor of $f(x)$. Furthermore, if $(x - r)^n$ for $n \geq 2$ is a right divisor of $f(x)$, then we call r a repeated right root of $f(x)$.

Now we are in a position to prove the following theorem.

Theorem 4.10. Let $0 \neq f \in \mathbb{H}[x]$. Then f has a repeated right root if and only if $\text{res}(f, f') = 0$.

Proof. If r is a repeated right root of $f(x)$, i.e., $f(x) = g(x)(x - r)^n$ for some $g(x) \in \mathbb{H}[x]$ and $n \geq 2$, then, by Lemma 4.7, $\text{res}(f, f') = 0$.

Now we suppose $\text{res}(f, f') = 0$. Then, by Theorem 4.3, $\text{gcd}(f, f') \neq 1$. It is well known that every polynomial in $\mathbb{H}[x]$ can be factorized into a product of linear factors (see, for example, [9], Section 2). Hence we can write $\text{gcd}(f, f') = h(x)(x - r)$ for some $h(x) \in \mathbb{H}[x]$ and $r \in \mathbb{H}$. Then $x - r$ is a right divisor of both f and f' . Suppose $f(x) = f_1(x)(x - r)$ and $f'(x) = f_2(x)(x - r)$. Then, by Lemma 4.5, $f_2(x)(x - r) = f'(x) = f_1'(x)(x - r) + f_1(x)$. Hence $f_1(x) = (f_2(x) - f_1'(x))(x - r)$ and thus $f(x) = (f_2(x) - f_1'(x))(x - r)^2$. Therefore, r is a repeated root of $f(x)$. □

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