



THREE-POLAR SPACE OVER THE SEMI-FIELD OF DOUBLE NUMBERS

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ABSTRACT. Multi-polar space is a generalization of the notion of vector space. In this paper, we deal with a three-polar vector space over a semi-field of double (hyperbolic complex) numbers. We introduce and study operations of addition and multiplication such that they form a commutative ring with unit on the three-polar space.

1. Introduction

As far as we know, the idea of multi-polarity is relatively new and comes from physics, cf. [6]. There are, e.g., K -polar oscillators, magnets, $K \in \mathbb{N}$. The principle of multi-polarity can be easily observed in the case of K -phase electric current, $K \in \mathbb{N}$. Particularly, if $K = 3$, we say about three-phase current. The sum of all three phases of equal amplitude in three-phase current is zero at each moment. We call this fact to be *the cancellation law* in this paper.

Another source of motivation for multi-polarity study is a color vision. If we deal with a classical RGB model of colors, then polarities are represented by red, green and blue. The mixture of these basic colors with the same intensities makes a gray color (from white to black, depending on intensity). So, the cancellation law can be understood as “gray color” in this model.

Multi-polarity can be imagined as a “colouring” of the black-and-white mathematics. A mathematical description of multi-polarity in the plane is introduced in [4]. There is presented the complex plane as a three-polar space.

Every Euclidean space (with two standard polarities “+” and “−”) is a multi-polar space, where the real field is replaced by a semi-field $[0, \infty)$. Remind the semi-field definition.

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DEFINITION 1.1. Let X be a set with two binary operations $+$ and \cdot . The system $(X, +, \cdot)$ is said to be a *semi-field* if $(X, +)$ is a commutative semi-group, (X, \cdot) is a commutative multiplicative group, and multiplication distributes over addition.

Elements of a semi-field X are called *non-polar* or *neutral* elements.

Let $\mathbb{A} = \{A, B, C\}$ be a set of three mappings from the given semi-field X to a set Y . The mappings are called *polar operators*, or, *poles*. According to the number of polar operators we say about three-polar space.

In this paper we consider a binary operation $*$ on \mathbb{A} given by the Latin square

$$\begin{array}{c|ccc}
 * & A & B & C \\
 \hline
 A & A & B & C \\
 B & B & C & A \\
 C & C & A & B
 \end{array} \tag{1}$$

There is a neutral element A with respect to the operation $*$. Next, we assume that $A(X), B(X), C(X)$ are isomorphic copies of X and

$$A(0) = B(0) = C(0), \tag{2}$$

where 0 is a neutral element in the semi-group $(X, +)$. The images $A(X), B(X)$ and $C(X)$ are called *polar axes*. The condition (2) shows that all polar axes intersect in a single point which can be viewed as an “origin” of the multi-polar space.

In the paper [4], the semi-field of all non-negative real numbers with usual addition and multiplication was used to construct the multi-polar spaces. The resulting multi-polar spaces with arithmetic operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication and division are all isomorphic to the system of complex numbers. In this paper we bring a three-polar space over a more general semi-field, a subset of the so-called double numbers.

We construct new quaternion-like systems. An interesting question is about a generalization to octonions. Octonions are used in physics, cf. [2], [3], [7].

2. A semi-field of double numbers

In this paper, we deal with the system of double numbers.¹ We will denote the system of double numbers as \mathbb{D} .

¹There is no standard terminology for “double” numbers; we can find the following terms in literature: hyperbolic complex numbers, hyperbolic numbers, semi-complex numbers, split-complex numbers, perplex numbers.

Double numbers are similar to classical complex numbers. Arithmetic operations of double numbers $(a_1, a_2), (b_1, b_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ are as follows

$$\begin{aligned} (a_1, a_2) + (b_1, b_2) &= (a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2), \\ (a_1, a_2) - (b_1, b_2) &= (a_1 - b_1, a_2 - b_2), \\ (a_1, a_2) \cdot (b_1, b_2) &= (a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2, a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1), \end{aligned}$$

and if $b_1^2 \neq b_2^2$, then

$$\frac{(a_1, a_2)}{(b_1, b_2)} = \left(\frac{a_1 b_1 - a_2 b_2}{b_1^2 - b_2^2}, \frac{a_2 b_1 - a_1 b_2}{b_1^2 - b_2^2} \right).$$

All operations on the right sides are usual operations of real numbers. We will denote operations on \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{R}^2 alike.

It is easy to check that double numbers form a commutative ring with unit but not a semi-field. If we take the set $\{(x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x_1 \geq 0, x_2 = 0\}$, then double numbers are reduced on the semi-field of non-negative real numbers. There exists also a non-trivial subset of double numbers which is closed under addition, multiplication and division. It is a set $\mathbb{D}_+^0 = \{(x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x_1 > |x_2| \text{ or } x_1 = x_2 = 0\}$. Obviously, the system $(\mathbb{D}_+^0, +, \cdot)$ is a semi-field. For more information about double numbers, cf., e.g., [1], [5].

We introduce the following definition for the lemma of “existence of the square of the difference”.

DEFINITION 2.1. Let $a = (a_1, a_2) \in \mathbb{D}_+^0$ and $b = (b_1, b_2) \in \mathbb{D}_+^0$. We will say that a, b are in the relation $\overset{\pm}{\sim}$ ($\overset{\pm}{\sim}$), $a \overset{\pm}{\sim} b$ ($a \overset{\sim}{\sim} b$), if $a_1 + a_2 = b_1 + b_2$ ($a_1 - a_2 = b_1 - b_2$).

Remark 2.2. Both relations $\overset{\pm}{\sim}$ and $\overset{\sim}{\sim}$ are equivalence relations.

LEMMA 2.3. Let $a = (a_1, a_2) \in \mathbb{D}_+^0$ and $b = (b_1, b_2) \in \mathbb{D}_+^0$. Then

1. $(a - b)^2 \in \mathbb{D}_+^* = \mathbb{D}_+^0 \cup \{(x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x_1 = |x_2|\}$,
2. $(a - b)^2 \in \mathbb{D}_+ = \mathbb{D}_+^0 \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$ if and only if $a \overset{\pm}{\not\sim} b$ and $a \overset{\sim}{\not\sim} b$.

Proof. There holds for $a, b \in \mathbb{D}$

$$(a - b)^2 = ((a_1 - b_1)^2 + (a_2 - b_2)^2, 2(a_1 - b_1)(a_2 - b_2)).$$

1. Obviously,

$$|a_1 - b_1|^2 + |a_2 - b_2|^2 \geq 2|a_1 - b_1||a_2 - b_2| \quad \text{for all } a_1, a_2, b_1, b_2 \in \mathbb{R}$$

which implies that $(a - b)^2 \in \mathbb{D}_+^*$.

2. $(a - b)^2 \in \mathbb{D}_+ \iff (a_1 - b_1)^2 + (a_2 - b_2)^2 > 2|(a_1 - b_1)(a_2 - b_2)|$
 $\iff (|a_1 - b_1| - |a_2 - b_2|)^2 > 0$
 $\iff |a_1 - b_1| \neq |a_2 - b_2|$

$$\iff a_1 + a_2 \neq b_1 + b_2 \quad \text{and} \quad a_1 - a_2 \neq b_1 - b_2 \iff a \overset{\pm}{\not\sim} b \quad \text{and} \quad a \overset{\sim}{\not\sim} b. \quad \square$$

3. Three-polar space over double numbers

The next step in construction of a three-polar space is to find a suitable system of three polar operators. Let us consider three poles A, B, C from the semi-field \mathbb{D}_+^0 to a set Y and an operation $*$ given by the Latin square (1). For convenience, denote

$$X := \mathbb{D}_+^0, \quad X_+ := X \setminus \{(0, 0)\} = \mathbb{D}_+.$$

Now let us consider the element $(a, b, c) \in X^3$. It can be very formally written as a sum

$$(a, b, c) = Aa + Bb + Cc.$$

3.1. Cancellation law, “null of addition”

DEFINITION 3.1. Let $(u, v, w), (x, y, z) \in X^3$. We will say that the triple (u, v, w) is equal to the triple (x, y, z) in the sense of *cancellation law* (“null of addition”), we write $(u, v, w) \cong (x, y, z)$, if there exists $d \in X$, such that $(u+d, v+d, w+d) = (x, y, z)$ or $(u, v, w) = (x+d, y+d, z+d)$.

Remark 3.2.

1. Relation \cong is an equivalence relation.
2. If $(a, b, c) \in X^3$, then $(a, b, c) \cong (0, 0, 0) \iff a = b = c$. Formally, for all $a \in X$

$$Aa + Ba + Ca \cong (0, 0, 0).$$
3. If $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}^2$, there exists $d \in X$ such that $(a+d, b+d, c+d) \in X^3$, for example, $d = (d_1, 0)$, where $d_1 = 1 + \max\{|x_1| + |x_2|, |y_1| + |y_2|, |z_1| + |z_2|\}$.

3.2. Operations in the three-polar space

We introduce operations analogical to the classical operations of addition, subtraction, conjugation, multiplication and division. All these operations are defined on X^3 .

Addition. For $(u, v, w), (x, y, z) \in X^3$,

$$(u, v, w) \oplus (x, y, z) := (u+x, v+y, w+z). \tag{3}$$

Clearly, the operation \oplus is associative and commutative.

Subtraction. For all $x, y, z \in X$ and due to the cancellation law, formally

$$\begin{aligned} -Ax &= Bx + Cx, \\ -By &= Ay + Cy, \\ -Cz &= Az + Bz. \end{aligned}$$

We define the operation of subtraction as follows

$$\begin{aligned} (u, v, w) \ominus (x, y, z) &= (u, v, w) \oplus (y+z, x+z, x+y) \\ &= (u+y+z, v+x+z, w+x+y). \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

It is obvious that $\ominus(x, y, z)$ is just an inverse element to (x, y, z) with respect to \oplus because

$$(x, y, z) \oplus \ominus(x, y, z) = (x + y + z, x + y + z, x + y + z) \cong (0, 0, 0).$$

Multiplication. We define the operation of multiplication polynomial-like (“each one with each one”) using the table for operation $*$, i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned} & (u, v, w) \odot (x, y, z) \\ &= (Au + Bv + Cw) \odot (Ax + By + Cz) \\ &= (A * A)(ux) + (A * B)(uy) + (A * C)(uz) + (B * A)(vx) + (B * B)(vy) \\ &\quad + (B * C)(vz) + (C * A)(wx) + (C * B)(wy) + (C * C)(wz) \\ &= A(ux + vz + wy) + B(uy + vx + wz) + C(uz + vy + wx) \\ &= (ux + vz + wy, uy + vx + wz, uz + vy + wx). \end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

This operation is associative and commutative and its neutral element is $((1, 0), (0, 0), (0, 0))$. It is also easy to see that the operation of multiplication distributes over addition.

The special case of this operation is *multiplication by scalar*,

$$k(u, v, w) = (k, 0, 0) \odot (u, v, w) = (ku, kv, kw), \quad \text{where } k \in X.$$

Conjugation. This operation is expressed in terms of three-polar space in the following way

$$(u, v, w)^* = (u, w, v). \tag{6}$$

It can be easily to check that operation of conjugation has the following properties.

LEMMA 3.3. *Let $(u, v, w) \in X^3, (x, y, z) \in X^3$. Then there holds:*

1. $((u, v, w)^*)^* = (u, v, w)$,
2. $((u, v, w) \oplus (x, y, z))^* = (u, v, w)^* \oplus (x, y, z)^*$,
3. $((u, v, w) \odot (x, y, z))^* = (u, v, w)^* \odot (x, y, z)^*$,
4. $(u, v, w) \odot (u, v, w)^* \cong (d, 0, 0)$ for some $d \in X_+$ if and only if it is not true that $u \overset{\pm}{\sim} v \overset{\pm}{\sim} w$ or $u \overset{\sim}{\sim} v \overset{\sim}{\sim} w$.

Proof.

1.-3. are trivial.

4. Let $(u, v, w) \in X^3$. We have

$$(u, v, w) \odot (u, v, w)^* = (uu + vv + ww, uw + vu + vw, uv + vw + wu),$$

thus it is sufficient to prove that

$$d = (u^2 + v^2 + w^2) - (uw + vu + vw) \in X_+$$

if and only if it is false that $u \overset{\pm}{\sim} v \overset{\pm}{\sim} w$ or $u \overset{\sim}{\sim} v \overset{\sim}{\sim} w$.

There holds that

$$d = \frac{1}{2} [(u-v)^2 + (v-w)^2 + (w-u)^2].$$

If $d \in X_+$, then at least one of elements $(u-v)^2, (v-w)^2, (w-u)^2$ belongs to X_+ , for example, let there be $(u-v)^2$, and thus $u \not\prec v$ and $u \not\succ v$, by Lemma 2.3.

Conversely, let the statement $u \overset{\pm}{\sim} v \overset{\pm}{\sim} w$ or $u \overset{-}{\sim} v \overset{-}{\sim} w$ not be true. Then there exists a pair

$$a, b \in \{u, v, w\} \quad \text{such that} \quad a \not\prec b \quad \text{and} \quad a \not\succ b.$$

Let $u \not\prec w$, without loss of generality. If $u \not\prec w$, then $a = u, b = w$; if $v \not\prec w$ and $v \not\prec w$, then $a = v, b = w$. Otherwise $u \not\prec v$ and $u \not\prec v$, thus $a = u, b = v$. By Lemma 2.3, $(a-b)^2$ belongs to X_+ and also $d \in X_+$. \square

Division. Due to the previous lemma, and the fact $(u, v, w) \odot (u, v, w)^* \in X_+$ (if it holds), there exists an inverse element to (u, v, w) with respect to the operation \odot .

DEFINITION 3.4. The triple $(u, v, w) \in X^3$ is called to be *invertible* if $(u, v, w) \odot (u, v, w)^*$ belongs to X_+ . We denote the set of all invertible elements by X_i^3 .

There is given an inverse element with respect to multiplication \odot for an invertible element $(u, v, w) \in X_i^3$ as follows

$$\begin{aligned} (u, v, w)^{-1} &= ((u, v, w) \odot (u, v, w)^*)^{-1} (u, v, w)^* \\ &\cong \frac{2}{(u-v)^2 + (v-w)^2 + (w-u)^2} (u, v, w), \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

where the fraction is in the sense of double numbers multiplication.

Now we define the operation of division in the following way:

$$(u, v, w) \oslash (x, y, z) = (u, v, w) \odot (x, y, z)^{-1} \quad (8)$$

for

$$(u, v, w) \in X^3 \quad \text{and} \quad (x, y, z) \in X_i^3.$$

3.3. Equivalence classes with respect to the relation \cong

DEFINITION 3.5. The system

$$\mathcal{M} := (X^3 \setminus \cong, \oplus, \odot)$$

is called to be *the three-polar space* over the semi-field X .

In this part it will be proved that all operations in the introduced system \mathcal{M} are well defined.

THEOREM 3.6. Let $(u, v, w), (x, y, z), (a, b, c) \in X^3$ and $(u, v, w) \cong (a, b, c)$. Then the following:

- (i) $(u, v, w) \cong (0, 0, 0)$ if and only if $(u, v, w) = (d, d, d)$ for some $d \in X$,

- (ii) $(x, y, z) \oplus (u, v, w) \cong (x, y, z) \oplus (a, b, c)$,
- (iii) $(x, y, z) \ominus (u, v, w) \cong (x, y, z) \ominus (a, b, c)$,
- (iv) $(x, y, z) \odot (u, v, w) \cong (x, y, z) \odot (a, b, c)$,
- (v) $(u, v, w)^* \cong (a, b, c)^*$,
- (vi) (u, v, w) is invertible if and only if (a, b, c) is so,
- (vii) if (u, v, w) is invertible, then $(x, y, z) \otimes (u, v, w) \cong (x, y, z) \otimes (a, b, c)$.

Proof.

- (i) Directly from the definition of the relation \cong .
- (ii), (iii), (v) are obvious.
- (iv) Without loss of generality, let $(a, b, c) = (u + d, v + d, w + d)$ for some $d \in X$ in the rest of the proof. Then from distributivity of multiplication over addition

$$\begin{aligned} (x, y, z) \odot (a, b, c) &= (x, y, z) \odot (u + d, v + d, w + d) \\ &= [(x, y, z) \odot (u, v, w)] \oplus [(x, y, z) \odot (d, d, d)] \\ &\cong (x, y, z) \odot (u, v, w), \end{aligned}$$

since, by (i),

$$\begin{aligned} (x, y, z) \odot (d, d, d) &= (xd + yd + zd, xd + yd + zd, xd + yd + zd) \\ &\cong (0, 0, 0). \end{aligned}$$

- (vi) Let (u, v, w) not be invertible. Then

$$u_1 + u_2 = v_1 + v_2 = w_1 + w_2 \quad \text{or} \quad u_1 - u_2 = v_1 - v_2 = w_1 - w_2.$$

The proof follows by

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 &= u_1 + d_1, & b_1 &= v_1 + d_1, & c_1 &= w_1 + d_1, \\ a_2 &= u_2 + d_2, & b_2 &= v_2 + d_2, & c_2 &= w_2 + d_2. \end{aligned}$$

- (vii) We have

$$\begin{aligned} &(a, b, c)^{-1} \\ &= \frac{2(u + d, w + d, v + d)}{[(u + d) - (v + d)]^2 + [(v + d) - (w + d)]^2 + [(w + d) - (u + d)]^2} \\ &= \frac{2(u, v, w)}{(u - v)^2 + (v - w)^2 + (w - u)^2} \oplus \frac{2(d, d, d)}{(u - v)^2 + (v - w)^2 + (w - u)^2} \\ &\cong \frac{2}{(u - v)^2 + (v - w)^2 + (w - u)^2} (u, v, w) \\ &= (u, v, w)^{-1} \quad \text{for} \quad (a, b, c) = (u + d, v + d, w + d), \quad d \in X. \end{aligned}$$

□

By the previous lemma, binary operations of addition, subtraction and multiplication are all independent of the choice of representatives, and thus they are all well defined. The properties of the system \mathcal{M} are collected in the following statement.

LEMMA 3.7. *The system \mathcal{M} is a commutative ring with unit.*

4. Cancellation law in split-quaternions

In this section, we suppose the operators A, B, C in the form

$$B_i: \mathbb{R}^4 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^4, \quad i = 1, 2, 3,$$

where $B_{1,2,3} = A, B, C$ are square matrices 4×4 with the real coefficients.

According to (1), we obtain the following equations:

$$\begin{aligned} B_1 B_1 &= B_2 B_3 = B_3 B_2 = B_1, \\ B_1 B_2 &= B_2 B_1 = B_3 B_3 = B_2, \\ B_1 B_3 &= B_2 B_2 = B_3 B_1 = B_3, \end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

where multiplication of matrices is understood in the usual sense. We assume that $A = B_1$ is an identity matrix. This way, the system (9) is reduced to the following four equations:

$$B_2 B_3 = B_1, \quad B_3 B_2 = B_1, \quad B_3 B_3 = B_2, \quad B_2 B_2 = B_3. \tag{10}$$

These equations lead to a system of 48 non-linear equations with 32 unknown. We do not have a complete solution of this equation system. We considered only a special cases of the so-called split-quaternions.

The operation of multiplication of two split-quaternions $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) \in \mathbb{R}^4$ and $(y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4) \in \mathbb{R}^4$ can be expressed in the “matrix-vector” notation as

$$(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) \cdot (y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4) = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & -x_2 & x_3 & x_4 \\ x_2 & x_1 & -x_4 & x_3 \\ x_3 & -x_4 & x_1 & x_2 \\ x_4 & x_3 & -x_2 & x_1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ y_4 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then the operators A_2, A_3 can be represented by quadruples of real numbers (b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4) and (c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4) , respectively. The operator A_1 is represented by $(1, 0, 0, 0)$.

In this case, the system (10) has only 8 unknown and is easy solvable. It was solved by *Mathematica*. All solutions are of two kinds. The first one is not interesting trivial solution

$$A_2 = A_3 = (1, 0, 0, 0).$$

The second type of solution is parametrizable

$$\begin{aligned} A_2(r, s, t) &= \left(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{r}{2}\sqrt{3+4s^2+4t^2}, s, t \right), \\ A_3(r, s, t) &= \left(-\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{r}{2}\sqrt{3+4s^2+4t^2}, -s, -t \right), \end{aligned} \tag{11}$$

where $r \in \{1, -1\}$, $s \in \mathbb{R}$, $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

If $s = t = 0$, then operators A_2, A_3 correspond to rotation in the complex plane by angle $2\pi/3$ and $4\pi/3$, respectively.

We observe that for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^4$,

$$A_1 \cdot x + A_2(r, s, t) \cdot x + A_3(r, s, t) \cdot x = (0, 0, 0, 0) \tag{12}$$

for all admissible r, s, t . Thus the equation (12) has a form of the cancellation law.

5. Commutative rings on the set \mathbb{R}^4

In the Section 3, we have constructed a class of commutative rings of three-polar spaces over the semi-field of double numbers. In the previous section, we have found the examples of polar operators that can be used to construct a three-polar space. In this section, we show how the operations from the three-polar space can be transferred to operations on the set \mathbb{R}^4 .

Let $m: \mathcal{M} = X^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^4$,

$$(a, b, c) \mapsto A_1 \cdot (a_1, a_2, 0, 0) + A_2(r, s, t) \cdot (b_1, b_2, 0, 0) + A_3(r, s, t) \cdot (c_1, c_2, 0, 0),$$

where $a = (a_1, a_2) \in X$, $b = (b_1, b_2) \in X$, $c = (c_1, c_2) \in X$. The mapping m is independent of the choice of representatives of equivalence classes $\mathbb{M} = \mathcal{M} \backslash \cong$. Thus it can be considered as a mapping $\mathbb{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^4$ that is injective. If $s^2 + t^2 > 0$, then the mapping m is onto. Moreover, m is linear, i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned} m((u, v, w) \oplus (x, y, z)) &= m(u, v, w) + m(x, y, z), \\ m(k \odot (u, v, w)) &= k_1 m(u, v, w), \end{aligned}$$

for all $(u, v, w), (x, y, z) \in X^3$, $k = (k_1, 0) \in X$, $k_1 \in \mathbb{R}$.

If $s^2 + t^2 > 0$, then m is a bijection, thus there is an inverse mapping, denoted by $n: \mathbb{R}^4 \rightarrow \mathbb{M}$. Also this mapping is linear. Through these two mappings we can introduce new operations, say addition and multiplication, on \mathbb{R}^4 as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} p \boxplus q &= m(n(p) \oplus n(q)), \\ p \boxtimes q &= m(n(p) \odot n(q)), \quad p, q \in \mathbb{R}^4. \end{aligned} \tag{13}$$

Immediately, by linearity of both mappings,

$$p \boxplus q = p + q, \tag{14}$$

where $+$ is usual coordinate-wise addition in \mathbb{R}^4 .

More interesting situation arises from the operation of multiplication. Let us denote four base elements in \mathbb{R}^4 as e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4 and let

$$p = \sum_{i=1}^4 p_i e_i, \quad q = \sum_{j=1}^4 q_j e_j.$$

By properties of operations \oplus, \odot and mappings m, n ,

$$\begin{aligned} m(n(p) \odot n(q)) &= m\left(n\left(\sum_{i=1}^4 p_i e_i\right) \odot n\left(\sum_{j=1}^4 q_j e_j\right)\right) \\ &= m\left(\bigoplus_{i,j=1}^4 p_i q_j [n(e_i) \odot n(e_j)]\right) \\ &= \sum_{i,j=1}^4 p_i q_j m(n(e_i) \odot n(e_j)), \end{aligned}$$

where \bigoplus means the sum with respect to \oplus . Therefore

$$p \square q = \sum_{i,j=1}^4 p_i q_j (e_i \square e_j),$$

and thus it suffices to find the elements $e_i \square e_j = m(n(e_i) \odot n(e_j))$.

Remark 5.1. It follows from the properties of the three-polar operations \oplus and \odot , and the mappings m and n that the system $(\mathbb{R}^4, \boxplus, \boxminus)$ is a commutative ring with unit $(1, 0, 0, 0)$ regardless of the parameters r, s, t , except for the condition $s^2 + t^2 > 0$. If $s = t = 0$, then the mapping $m: X^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^4$ is not surjective and thus the mapping n is not well defined.

EXAMPLE 5.2. For $r = 1, s = 1, t = 0$, c.f. (11), we have

$$A = (1, 0, 0, 0), \quad B = \left(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{\sqrt{7}}{2}, 1, 0\right), \quad C = \left(-\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{\sqrt{7}}{2}, -1, 0\right)$$

and the operation of multiplication in \mathbb{R}^4 possesses the following form

$$\begin{aligned} p \square q &= \left(p_1 q_1 + p_2 q_2 + \frac{9}{2} p_3 q_3 - \frac{5}{2} p_4 q_4 - \sqrt{7}(p_3 q_2 + p_2 q_3), \right. \\ &\quad p_1 q_2 + p_2 q_1 - \sqrt{7}(p_2 q_4 + p_4 q_2) + \frac{5}{2}(p_3 q_4 + p_4 q_3), \\ &\quad p_1 q_3 + p_3 q_1 - p_2 q_4 - p_4 q_2, \\ &\quad \left. p_1 q_4 + p_4 q_1 - p_2 q_3 - p_3 q_2 + \sqrt{7}(p_3 q_3 - p_4 q_4) \right). \end{aligned}$$

6. Conclusions

Multi-polarity has applications in physics. There are known multi-phase electric current, multi-polar magnets, oscillators, etc. Colours are another possible field of application of multi-polarity. The mathematical structure of multi-polar spaces is described in the paper [4]. Here is presented a multi-polar space over the semi-field of all non-negative real numbers. In this paper, we investigated a multi-polar space over a more general semi-field—the semi-field of double numbers. We studied a special case when polar operators are presented as split-quaternion multiplication. In this case we proved that the multi-polar space possesses structure of commutative ring with unit. Moreover, this system can be isomorphically transferred to \mathbb{R}^4 . The operation of addition is usual coordinate-wise addition. Converse problem, to obtain an arbitrary commutative and associative operation on \mathbb{R}^4 distributing over coordinate-wise addition from a multi-polar space, remains open.

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