

Quaternionic Structures

Definition A finite dimensional real vector space U admits a quaternionic structure if there exist linear transformations I, J and K such that

$$\begin{aligned} (\#) \quad I^2 = J^2 = K^2 = -\text{Id} \\ IJ = -JI = K ; JK = -KJ = I ; KI = -IK = J. \end{aligned}$$

If U admits a quaternionic structure, then U becomes a free \mathbb{H} -module by defining $(a + bi + cj + dk)(u) = au + b(Iu) + c(Ju) + d(Ku)$ for $u \in U$ and $a + bi + cj + dk \in \mathbb{H}$.

Remark U is a free \mathbb{R} -module where the ring $R = \mathbb{H}$ is actually a division algebra. The noncommutativity of \mathbb{H} makes it harder to do linear algebra than in a vector space U where the ring R is a field.

Example $U = \mathbb{H}^n = \{(h_1, \dots, h_n) : h_i \in \mathbb{H} \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq n\}$. Since \mathbb{H} can be regarded as a 4-dimensional vector space over \mathbb{R} it follows that \mathbb{H}^n is a $4n$ -dimensional vector space over \mathbb{R} . The transformations I, J and K are defined by $I(h_1, \dots, h_n) = (i h_1, \dots, i h_n)$, $J(h_1, \dots, h_n) = (j h_1, \dots, j h_n)$ and $K(h_1, \dots, h_n) = (k h_1, \dots, k h_n)$ for all $(h_1, \dots, h_n) \in \mathbb{H}^n$. It is obvious that I, J and K satisfy the conditions (#) above.

Definition Let U be a real vector space with a quaternionic structure defined by $\{I, J, K\}$ as above. Let $\text{End}_{\mathbb{H}}(U) = \{T \in \text{End}(U) : T(xu) = x(Tu) \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{H}\}$. The set $\text{End}_{\mathbb{H}}(U)$ is a real subspace of $\text{End}(U)$, and $\text{End}_{\mathbb{H}}(U)$ becomes an \mathbb{H} -module if one defines $(xT)(u) = x(Tu)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{H}, u \in U$ and $T \in \text{End}_{\mathbb{H}}(U)$.

Let $M(n, \mathbb{H})$ denote the set of $n \times n$ matrices A with entries (A_{ij}) in \mathbb{H} . $M(n, \mathbb{H})$ is also a vector space over \mathbb{R} , and it becomes a free \mathbb{H} -module if one defines $(xA)_{ij} = x A_{ij}$.

Since U is finite dimensional over \mathbb{R} it has finite rank as a free \mathbb{H} -module. Let $\mathfrak{B} = \{u_1, \dots, u_n\}$ be an \mathbb{H} -basis for U ; that is, every element $u \in U$ can be written uniquely as $u = \sum_{k=1}^n h_k u_k$ for elements $\{h_1, \dots, h_n\}$ in \mathbb{H} . For each element $T \in \text{End}_{\mathbb{H}}(U)$ we

associate the matrix $A(T)$ in $M(n, \mathbb{H})$ such that $T(u_i) = \sum_{k=1}^n A(T)_{ki} u_k$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. It is

easy to check that the map $A : \text{End}_{\mathbb{H}}(U) \rightarrow M(n, \mathbb{H})$ is an \mathbb{R} -linear vector space isomorphism and also an \mathbb{H} -module isomorphism.

We wish to define matrix multiplication \cdot in $M(n, \mathbb{H})$ so that $A(S \circ T) = A(S) \cdot A(T)$ for all S, T in $\text{End}_{\mathbb{H}}(U)$; that is, $A : \text{End}_{\mathbb{H}}(U) \rightarrow M(n, \mathbb{H})$ is an \mathbb{R} -algebra isomorphism. The definition that makes this possible looks peculiar because of the noncommutativity of \mathbb{H} .

Definition If $A, B \in M(n, \mathbb{H})$, then let $A \cdot B$ denote the unique element of $M(n, \mathbb{H})$ such that $(A \cdot B)_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n B_{kj} \cdot A_{ik}$.

Remark This definition of matrix multiplication for $M(n, \mathbb{R})$ and $M(n, \mathbb{C})$ is equivalent to the usual one since \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{C} are commutative.

Proposition $A(S \circ T) = A(S) \cdot A(T)$ for all $S, T \in \text{End}_{\mathbb{H}}(U)$.

Proof By definition $(S \circ T)(e_i) = \sum_{j=1}^n A(S \circ T)_{ji} e_j$. On the other hand $(S \circ T)(e_i) = S(\sum_{k=1}^n A(T)_{ki} e_k) = \sum_{k=1}^n A(T)_{ki} S(e_k) = \sum_{k=1}^n A(T)_{ki} \{ \sum_{j=1}^n A(S)_{jk} e_j \} = \sum_{j=1}^n \{ \sum_{k=1}^n A(T)_{ki} A(S)_{jk} \} e_j = \sum_{j=1}^n \{ A(S) \cdot A(T) \}_{ji} e_j$. It follows that $A(S \circ T)_{ji} = \{ A(S) \cdot A(T) \}_{ji}$ for all i, j . \square

The transpose operation in $M(n, \mathbb{H})$

Definition For $A \in M(n, \mathbb{H})$ we let A^* be that element of $M(n, \mathbb{H})$ such that $A^*_{ij} = \overline{A_{ji}}$ for all i, j .

Proposition $(A \cdot B)^* = B^* \cdot A^*$ for all $A, B \in M(n, \mathbb{H})$.

Proof $(A \cdot B)^*_{ij} = \overline{(A \cdot B)_{ji}} = \overline{(\sum_{k=1}^n B_{kj} \cdot A_{ik})} = \sum_{k=1}^n \overline{(B_{kj} \cdot A_{ik})} = \sum_{k=1}^n \overline{B_{kj}} \cdot \overline{A_{ik}} = \sum_{k=1}^n A^*_{kj} \cdot B^*_{ik} = (B^* \cdot A^*)_{ij}$. \square

The Type of an irreducible Clifford representation

Let U be a finite dimensional real vector space. For a positive integer n let $C\ell(n)$ denote the Clifford algebra of dimension 2^n determined by $\{\mathbb{R}^n, \langle, \rangle\}$, where \langle, \rangle denotes the standard inner product in \mathbb{R}^n .

A map $\rho : C\ell(n) \rightarrow \text{End}(U)$ is an algebra homomorphism if ρ is an \mathbb{R} -linear map and in addition $\rho(xy) = \rho(x) \circ \rho(y)$ for all x, y in $C\ell(n)$. We say that U is a $C\ell(n)$ -module. If $\rho(C\ell(n))$ leaves no proper subspace of U invariant, then we say that U is an irreducible $C\ell(n)$ -module. An algebra homomorphism $\rho : C\ell(n) \rightarrow \text{End}(U)$ is also called a representation of $C\ell(n)$ on U , and $\rho : C\ell(n) \rightarrow \text{End}(U)$ is an irreducible representation if U is an irreducible $C\ell(n)$ -module.

Two representations $\rho_1 : C\ell(n) \rightarrow \text{End}(U_1)$ and $\rho_2 : C\ell(n) \rightarrow \text{End}(U_2)$ are said to be equivalent if there exists an isomorphism $T : U_1 \rightarrow U_2$ such that $\rho_2(x) \circ T = T \circ \rho_1(x)$ for all $x \in C\ell(n)$.

For an algebra homomorphism $\rho : C\ell(n) \rightarrow \text{End}(U)$ we define $Z(\rho) =$

$\{T \in GL(U) : T \circ \rho(x) = \rho(x) \circ T \text{ for all } x \in C\ell(n)\}$. If $T \in Z(\rho)$, then $\text{Ker}(T)$ and $\text{Im}(T)$ are subspaces of U left invariant by $\rho(C\ell(n))$. Hence if U is an irreducible $C\ell(n)$ -module, then for every nonzero T in $Z(\rho)$ we must have $\text{Ker}(T) = \{0\}$ and $\text{Im}(T) = U$; that is, T is invertible. This shows that if U is an irreducible $C\ell(n)$ -module, then $Z(\rho)$ is a division algebra; that is, every nonzero element of $Z(\rho)$ is invertible. A famous theorem of Frobenius says that every division algebra that is finite dimensional over \mathbb{R} must be isomorphic to \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{C} or \mathbb{H} .

Definition An irreducible representation $\rho : C\ell(n) \rightarrow \text{End}(U)$ is called of real, complex or quaternionic type if $Z(\rho)$ is isomorphic to \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{C} or \mathbb{H} respectively.

Clifford algebras as matrix algebras

We summarize some basic information about the Clifford algebras $C\ell(n)$. Further details may be found in previous handouts.

If $n \neq 4k+3$, then $C\ell(n)$ is isomorphic as an algebra to a matrix algebra $M(p,K)$ for some positive integer p , where $K = \mathbb{R}$, \mathbb{C} or \mathbb{H} . If $n = 4k+3$, then $C\ell(n) = A_1 \oplus A_2$, where A_1 and A_2 are two sided ideals isomorphic to $C\ell(n-1)$. We summarize this information in the following table, which has periodicity 8 :

$$\begin{array}{lll} C\ell(8k) \cong M(2^{4k}, \mathbb{R}) & C\ell(8k+1) \cong M(2^{4k}, \mathbb{C}) & C\ell(8k+2) \cong M(2^{4k}, \mathbb{H}) \\ C\ell(8k+3) \cong M(2^{4k}, \mathbb{H}) \oplus M(2^{4k}, \mathbb{H}) & C\ell(8k+4) \cong M(2^{4k+1}, \mathbb{H}) & \\ C\ell(8k+5) \cong M(2^{4k+2}, \mathbb{C}) & C\ell(8k+6) \cong M(2^{4k+3}, \mathbb{R}) & \\ C\ell(8k+7) \cong M(2^{4k+3}, \mathbb{R}) \oplus M(2^{4k+3}, \mathbb{R}) & & \end{array}$$

It is known that a matrix algebra $M(p,K)$, where $K = \mathbb{R}$, \mathbb{C} or \mathbb{H} , has exactly one irreducible module up to equivalence, namely K^p , the p -tuples of elements of K regarded as column vectors. The action of $M(p,K)$ on K^p is by left multiplication. The matrix algebra $M(p,K) \oplus M(p,K)$, has exactly two irreducible modules up to equivalence. In both cases the module itself is K^p but the actions of $M(p,K) \oplus M(p,K)$ on K^p are inequivalent. In the first case $(X_1, X_2)(x) = X_1(x)$ and in the second case $(X_1, X_2)(x) = X_2(x)$ for $x \in K^p$ and $(X_1, X_2) \in M(p,K) \oplus M(p,K)$. Note that in each case one copy of $M(p,K)$ acts trivially on K^p .

Each of these modules K^p is a real vector space of real dimension p , $2p$ or $4p$ depending on whether $K = \mathbb{R}$, \mathbb{C} or \mathbb{H} .

From the table above we obtain the following classification of irreducible representations $\rho : C\ell(n) \rightarrow \text{End}(U)$ into real, complex or quaternionic type :

Real type	$n = 8k, 8k+6$ and $8k+7$
Complex type	$n = 8k+1$, and $8k+5$ (i.e. $n = 4k+1$)
Quaternionic type	$n = 8k+2, 8k+3$ and $8k+4$

Canonical isomorphisms $\rho : C\ell(n) \rightarrow M(p,K)$, $n \neq 4k+3$

If $n \neq 4k+3$, then the discussion above shows that we have an isomorphism $A : C\ell(n) \rightarrow M(p,K)$, where $p = \dim_K U$ and $K = \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ or \mathbb{H} according to whether $\rho : C\ell(n) \rightarrow \text{End}(U)$ is of real, complex or quaternionic type. The isomorphism A is not unique since we may always compose A with an automorphism of $C\ell(n)$ or an automorphism of $M(p,K)$. However, we show in the next result that one may always single out a special class of isomorphisms $A : C\ell(n) \rightarrow M(p,K)$ if $n \neq 4k+3$.

If $n = 4k+3$, then $C\ell(n) = A_1 \oplus A_2$, where A_1 and A_2 are two sided ideals isomorphic to $C\ell(n-1)$. In this case we also get a special isomorphism $C\ell(n) \rightarrow M(p,K) \oplus M(p,K)$ from the special isomorphism $C\ell(n-1) \rightarrow M(p,K)$.

Proposition Let $n \neq 4k+3$ be a positive integer, and let $K = \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ or \mathbb{H} denote the type of the unique, irreducible $C\ell(n)$ -module U of K -dimension p . Then there exists an algebra isomorphism $A : C\ell(n) \rightarrow M(p,K)$ such that $A(\bar{x}) = A(x)^*$ for all $x \in C\ell(n)$.

Remark The isomorphism A with the properties stated above is not unique. If g is an element of $M(p,K)$ such that $gg^* = g^*g = \text{Id}$, then $X \rightarrow gXg^* = \varphi(g)$ is an automorphism of $M(p,K)$ such that $\varphi(X)^* = \varphi(X^*)$ for all $X \in M(p,K)$. If $B = \varphi \circ A$, then it is routine to show that $B(\bar{x}) = B(x)^*$ for all $x \in C\ell(n)$. Nevertheless, the existence of such an isomorphism $A : C\ell(n) \rightarrow M(p,K)$ is useful. In the discussion at the end of this section we apply the Proposition above to identify the group $G = \{x \in C\ell(n) : x\bar{x} = \bar{x}x = 1\}$.

Proof of the Proposition We shall prove this only in the most difficult case, where U is of quaternionic type. The proofs in the other cases are analogous but easier.

Let $\rho : C\ell(n) \rightarrow \text{End}(U)$ be an irreducible representation of quaternionic type, and let I, J, K denote the elements of $\text{End}(U)$ such that $Z(\rho) = \mathbb{R}\text{-span}\{\text{Id}, I, J, K\}$. We need some preliminary results.

Lemma 1 There exists an inner product \langle, \rangle on U such that the elements of $\rho(\mathbb{R}^n)$ are skew symmetric and the elements $\{I, J, K\}$ are both skew symmetric and orthogonal relative to \langle, \rangle .

Lemma 2 There exists an integer p such that $\dim_{\mathbb{R}} U = 4p$. Let \langle, \rangle be an inner product as in Lemma 1. Then there exists an orthonormal basis $\mathfrak{B} = \{u_1, \dots, u_{4p}\}$ such that for

$1 \leq r \leq p$ we have $u_{p+r} = I(u_r)$, $u_{2p+r} = J(u_r)$ and $u_{3p+r} = K(u_r)$.

The \mathbb{H} -matrix of an element of $\text{End}(U)$

Let $\mathfrak{B} = \{u_1, \dots, u_{4p}\}$ be an orthonormal \mathbb{R} -basis as in Lemma 2. Then $\{u_1, \dots, u_p\}$ becomes an \mathbb{H} -basis for U regarded as a free \mathbb{H} -module U . Specifically, if $u \in U$ is written $u = \sum_{r=1}^p \alpha_r u_r + \sum_{r=1}^p \beta_r I(u_r) + \sum_{r=1}^p \gamma_r J(u_r) + \sum_{r=1}^p \delta_r K(u_r)$, where $\{\alpha_r, \beta_r, \gamma_r, \delta_r\}$ are real numbers, then we may write $u = \sum_{r=1}^p h_r u_r$, where $h_r = \alpha_r + \beta_r i + \gamma_r j + \delta_r k \in \mathbb{H}$ for $1 \leq r \leq p$.

The elements of $\rho(C\ell(n))$ may be regarded as elements of $\text{End}_{\mathbb{H}}(U)$ since they commute with the linear maps $\{I, J, K\}$, which define an \mathbb{H} -module structure on U . For an element T in $\text{End}_{\mathbb{H}}(U)$ we let $A(T)$ denote the matrix in $M(p, \mathbb{H})$ determined by the \mathbb{H} -basis $\{u_1, \dots, u_p\}$; that is, $T(u_i) = \sum_{r=1}^p A(T)_{ri} u_r$.

For the next result we recall that $C^*_{ij} = -\overline{C_{ji}}$ for all $C \in M(p, \mathbb{H})$.

Lemma 3 Let \langle, \rangle and $\mathfrak{B} = \{u_1, \dots, u_{4p}\}$ be as in Lemmas 1 and 2. For every $x \in C\ell(n)$ let $A(x)$ denote the \mathbb{H} -matrix of $\rho(x)$ relative to the \mathbb{H} -basis $\{u_1, \dots, u_p\}$. Then $A(x)^* = -A(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Proof of the Proposition We postpone for the moment the proofs of the lemmas, and we complete the proof of the Proposition. Let $\rho : C\ell(n) \rightarrow \text{End}(U)$ be an irreducible representation of quaternionic type. If $n = 8k+2$, then by the discussion above we know that $C\ell(8k+2) \cong M(2^{4k}, \mathbb{H})$ and $U = \mathbb{H}^{2^{4k}}$. Hence $\dim_{\mathbb{R}} U = 4p$, where $p = 2^{4k} = 2^{(n-2)/2}$. If $n = 8k+4$ then $C\ell(8k+4) \cong M(2^{4k+1}, \mathbb{H})$, $U = \mathbb{H}^{2^{4k+1}}$ and $\dim_{\mathbb{R}} U = 4p$, where $p = 2^{4k+1} = 2^{(n-2)/2}$. In either case $\dim_{\mathbb{R}} C\ell(n) = 2^n = 4p^2 = \dim_{\mathbb{R}} M(p, \mathbb{H})$.

By the definitions of $A : C\ell(n) \rightarrow M(p, \mathbb{H})$ in Lemma 3 and matrix multiplication in $M(p, \mathbb{H})$ it is clear that the map A is an injective algebra homomorphism. In fact, A is an isomorphism since $\dim_{\mathbb{R}} C\ell(n) = \dim_{\mathbb{R}} M(p, \mathbb{H})$. Let $X = \{x \in C\ell(n) : A(\overline{x}) = A(x)^*\}$. Since the maps $x \rightarrow \overline{x}$ and $C \rightarrow C^*$ are anti-automorphisms of $C\ell(n)$ and $M(p, \mathbb{H})$ respectively it follows that X is a subalgebra of $C\ell(n)$. By Lemma 3 X contains \mathbb{R}^n since $\overline{x} = -x$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$. We conclude that $X = C\ell(n)$ since \mathbb{R}^n generates $C\ell(n)$. \square

Proof of Lemma 1 Recall that $\text{Pin}(n) = \{x \in C\ell(n) : x = x_1 x_2 \dots x_m \in C\ell(n), \text{ where each } x_i \text{ is a unit vector in } \mathbb{R}^n \text{ and } m \text{ is an arbitrary positive integer}\}$. The group $\text{Pin}(n)$ is compact and $x\overline{x} = 1$ for all $x \in \text{Pin}(n)$. Since $\text{Pin}(n)$ is compact there exists an inner product \langle, \rangle^* on U that is preserved by the elements of $\rho(\text{Pin}(n))$. If x is a unit vector in \mathbb{R}^n , then $x^2 = -1$ and hence $\rho(x)^2 = -\text{Id}$. The map $\rho(x)$ is orthogonal relative to \langle, \rangle^* , and hence it is also skew symmetric since $\langle \rho(x)u, v \rangle^* = \langle \rho(x)^2 u, \rho(x)v \rangle^* = -\langle u, \rho(x)v \rangle^*$

for all $u, v \in U$. It follows that $\rho(x)$ is skew symmetric relative to \langle, \rangle^* for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ since this holds for all unit vectors x .

Let $Q = \{\pm \text{Id}, \pm I, \pm J, \pm K\}$. If we define $\langle u, v \rangle = \sum_{\varphi \in Q} \langle \varphi(u), \varphi(v) \rangle^*$, then since $\rho(\mathcal{C}\ell(n))$ commutes with Q we obtain an inner product \langle, \rangle that is invariant under both $\rho(\text{Pin}(n))$ and Q . Since $I^2 = J^2 = K^2 = -\text{Id}$ it follows as above that I, J and K are skew symmetric as well as orthogonal relative to \langle, \rangle .

Proof of Lemma 2 Let \langle, \rangle be an inner product on U as in Lemma 1, and let u_1 be a unit vector in U . Let $U_1 = \mathbb{R}\text{-span}\{u_1, I(u_1), J(u_1), K(u_1)\}$. It suffices to show that $\{u_1, I(u_1), J(u_1), K(u_1)\}$ is an orthonormal basis of U_1 . If this has been established, then we consider the orthogonal complement U_1^\perp of U_1 in U . The elements of $Q = \{\pm \text{Id}, \pm I, \pm J, \pm K\}$ leave invariant U_1^\perp by Lemma 1, so we may split off another 4-dimensional subspace $U_2 = \mathbb{R}\text{-span}\{u_2, I(u_2), J(u_2), K(u_2)\} \subseteq U_1^\perp$. The proof of Lemma 2 then follows by induction.

The vectors $\{u_1, I(u_1), J(u_1), K(u_1)\}$ all have length one since u_1 has length one and the transformations I, J, K are orthogonal relative to \langle, \rangle . Moreover, u_1 is orthogonal to $I(u_1), J(u_1)$ and $K(u_1)$ since I, J and K are skew symmetric relative to \langle, \rangle by Lemma 1. Using the skew symmetry of I, J, K and the fact that these elements anti-commute we obtain $\langle I(u_1), J(u_1) \rangle = -\langle u_1, IJ(u_1) \rangle = \langle u_1, JI(u_1) \rangle = -\langle J(u_1), I(u_1) \rangle$, which proves that $\langle I(u_1), J(u_1) \rangle = 0$. Similar arguments show that any two of the vectors $\{u_1, I(u_1), J(u_1), K(u_1)\}$ are orthogonal. \square

Proof of Lemma 3 Given $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $1 \leq s \leq p$ we let $\rho(x)(u_s) = \sum_{r=1}^p \alpha_{rs} u_r + \sum_{r=1}^p \beta_{rs} I(u_r) + \sum_{r=1}^p \gamma_{rs} J(u_r) + \sum_{r=1}^p \delta_{rs} K(u_r)$ for suitable real numbers $\alpha_{rs}, \beta_{rs}, \gamma_{rs}$ and δ_{rs} . By the definition of $A(x)$ we obtain $\rho(x)(u_s) = \sum_{r=1}^p A(x)_{rs} u_r$, where $A(x)_{rs} = \alpha_{rs} + \beta_{rs} i + \gamma_{rs} j + \delta_{rs} k$. We compute $A(X)_{rs}^* = \overline{A(X)_{sr}} = \alpha_{sr} - \beta_{sr} i - \gamma_{sr} j - \delta_{sr} k$ and $-A(X)_{rs} = -\alpha_{rs} - \beta_{rs} i - \gamma_{rs} j - \delta_{rs} k$. The proof of the lemma will now follow from the assertions

$$(*) \quad \alpha_{rs} = -\alpha_{sr}; \quad \beta_{rs} = \beta_{sr}; \quad \gamma_{rs} = \gamma_{sr}; \quad \delta_{rs} = \delta_{sr}$$

By Lemma 1 the transformations I, J, K and $\rho(x), x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, are all skew symmetric relative to \langle, \rangle . From the expression above for $\rho(x)(u_s)$ we see that $\alpha_{rs} = \langle \rho(x)(u_s), u_r \rangle = -\langle u_s, \rho(x)(u_r) \rangle = -\alpha_{sr}$. Moreover, $\beta_{rs} = \langle \rho(x)(u_s), I(u_r) \rangle = -\langle u_s, \rho(x) I(u_r) \rangle = -\langle u_s, I \rho(x)(u_r) \rangle = \langle I(u_s), \rho(x)(u_r) \rangle = \beta_{sr}$. Similarly, we see that $\gamma_{rs} = \gamma_{sr}$ and $\delta_{rs} = \delta_{sr}$. \square

The group $G_n = \{x \in \mathcal{C}\ell(n) : x \bar{x} = \bar{x} x = 1\}$

For $n \neq 4k+3$ we identify $C\ell(n)$ with $M(p, K)$ for a suitable integer p and $K = \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ or \mathbb{H} . We show that G_n is isomorphic to the group of isomorphisms of K^P that preserve the canonical inner product of K^P (real, Hermitian or quaternionic). Equivalently, G_n is isomorphic to $\{A \in M(p, K) : AA^* = A^*A = \text{Id}\}$.

In K^P the canonical inner product \langle, \rangle is given by $\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^p x_i \overline{y_i}$ for all $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ and $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in K^P$. We state some basic properties of \langle, \rangle whose proofs are routine and omitted. The peculiar appearance of these statements is made necessary by the noncommutativity of \mathbb{H} .

The action of $M(p, K)$ by K -endomorphisms on K^P is given by $Ae_i = \sum_{j=1}^p A_{ji} e_j$.

Lemma The canonical inner product \langle, \rangle on has the following properties :

- 1) $\overline{\langle x, y \rangle} = \langle y, x \rangle$ for all $x, y \in K^P$.
- 2) $\langle cx, y \rangle = c \langle x, y \rangle$ for all $x, y \in K^P, c \in K$.
- 3) $\langle x, cy \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle \overline{c}$ for all $x, y \in K^P, c \in K$.
- 4) $\langle Ax, y \rangle = \langle x, A^*y \rangle$ for all $x, y \in K^P, A \in M(p, K)$.
- 5) $\langle Ax, Ay \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle$ for all $x, y \in K^P, A \in M(p, K) \Leftrightarrow AA^* = A^*A = \text{Id}$.

Notation

$$O(n) = \{A \in M(n, \mathbb{R}) : AA^* = A^*A = \text{Id}\}$$

$$U(n) = \{A \in M(n, \mathbb{C}) : AA^* = A^*A = \text{Id}\}$$

$$Sp(n) = \{A \in M(n, \mathbb{H}) : AA^* = A^*A = \text{Id}\}$$

Proposition Let $A : C\ell(n) \rightarrow M(p, K)$ be an algebra isomorphism such that $A(\overline{x}) = A(x)^*$ for all $x \in C\ell(n)$, where $K = \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ or \mathbb{H} and p is a suitable positive integer. Let $G_n = \{x \in C\ell(n) : x \overline{x} = \overline{x} x = 1\}$. Then

- 1) $A(G_n) = O(p)$ if $K = \mathbb{R}$.
- 2) $A(G_n) = U(p)$ if $K = \mathbb{C}$.
- 3) $A(G_n) = Sp(p)$ if $K = \mathbb{H}$.

Proof In view of the lemma above it suffices to prove that $x \overline{x} = \overline{x} x = 1$ for $x \in C\ell(n) \Leftrightarrow A(x)A(x)^* = A(x)^*A(x) = \text{Id}$. If $1 = x \overline{x}$, then $\text{Id} = A(x \overline{x}) = A(x)A(\overline{x}) = A(x)A(x)^*$, and similarly if $1 = \overline{x} x = 1$, then $\text{Id} = A(x)^*A(x)$. Conversely, if $\text{Id} = A(x)A(x)^* = A(x)A(\overline{x}) = A(x \overline{x})$, then $1 = x \overline{x}$ and similarly if $\text{Id} = A(x)^*A(x) = A(\overline{x})A(x) = A(\overline{x}x)$, then $\overline{x} x = 1$. \square