

Combinatorial Aspects of Clifford Algebra

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Abstract

In this paper we focus on some combinatorial aspects of Clifford algebra and show how this algebra allows combinatorial theorems - like e.g. Sperner's lemma - to be "built into the algebraic background", and become part of the structure of the algebra itself. We also give an example of how cumbersome combinatorial proofs can be "mechanized" and carried out in a purely computational manner.

Introduction

In his monumental and groundbreaking *Ausdehnungslehre* [4] from 1844, Herman Grassmann set out to build an "algebra for everything" - an algebra which he illustrated by various geometric examples¹. Being both far ahead of his time and on the outside of the academic mathematical community, Grassmann's ideas received little attention during his own lifetime. However, during the last years of Grassmann's life (late 1870s), his ideas were taken up by William Clifford [2], [3], who developed the algebra that today bears his name. In more recent times mathematicians and physicists - notably Marcel Riesz [8], Gian-Carlo Rota [1], [9], and David Hestenes [5], [6], [7] - have rediscovered and continued this development. Hestenes has focused on the geometric aspects of Clifford algebra - introducing the synonymous term *geometric algebra* - and shown how it provides a powerful geometric language that serves as a bridge between mathematics and physics.

In this paper we aim to connect with Grassmann's original ideas, and follow Rota [9] by focusing on the purely combinatorial aspects of Clifford algebra.

Some notation and background

Since we are only interested in combinatorial and algebraic aspects of Clifford algebra, we will allow our scalars to lie in an arbitrary commutative ring R with unit element. We will also take a slightly different point of view regarding the Clifford algebra and its interpretation.

Let X be a finite set which is totally ordered, i.e. $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$, where $x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n$. We will identify the k -base-blades $x_1 x_2 \dots x_k$ with the k -subsets $\{x_1, \dots, x_k\}$ and denote the pseudoscalar $x_1 x_2 \dots x_n$ by X . The ring-unit 1 is identified with the empty set \emptyset . We will view the Clifford algebra $Cl(X)$ as the free R -module generated by the power-set $\wp(X)$ of all subsets of X , i.e. $Cl(X) = \bigoplus_{\wp(X)} R$.

Note that if $X \rightarrow Y$ is a bijection, then $Cl(X)$ is isomorphic to $Cl(Y)$.

1. For instance, the today familiar concept of *vector* is an example of what Grassmann termed *evolution*. See [4], p. 46.

We will always assume that $x^2 = 1$, $\forall x \in X$. The set of k -vectors is denoted by $Cl^k(X)$. We observe that every bilinear map $Cl(X) \times Cl(X) \rightarrow Cl(X)$ is uniquely determined by its values on $\wp(X) \times \wp(X)$. Moreover, if P is a proposition, we will use (P) to denote 1 or 0 depending on whether P is true or false.

Let $A, B \in \wp(X)$. The following notation is used below:

Geometric product: $AB = \varepsilon A \Delta B$,

where $\varepsilon = \pm 1$ and Δ denotes symmetric difference.

Outer product: $A \wedge B = (A \cap B = \emptyset) AB$.

Left inner product: $A \angle B = (A \subseteq B) AB$.

Scalar product: $A * B = (A = B) AB$.

Reverse: $A^\dagger = (-1)^\varepsilon A$, where $\varepsilon = \binom{|A|}{2}$.

Complement: $\tilde{A} = AX^{-1}$.

All of these definitions are extended to $Cl(X)$ by linearity.

Below we will need the following simple

Lemma 1: $x \angle (y \angle z) = (x \wedge y) \angle z$, $\forall x, y, z \in Cl(X)$.

Proof: By linearity, it is enough to verify this for base-blades, i.e. for $x = A$, $y = B$, $z = C$ where $A, B, C \in \wp(X)$. This is a simple exercise (using e.g. Venn diagrams), which we leave to the reader.

If $Cl(X)$ and $Cl(Y)$ are two Clifford algebras over the same ring, we call a linear and grade preserving map $T : Cl(X) \rightarrow Cl(Y)$ an *outermorphism* if $T(1) = 1$ and $T(x \wedge y) = Tx \wedge Ty$, $\forall x, y \in Cl(X)$. The obvious fact that an outermorphism on $Cl(X)$ is uniquely determined by its values on X will be implicitly used below in all our definitions of various outermorphisms.

The *dual* \tilde{T} of T is defined by $\tilde{T}(x) = T(xX)X^{-1}$.

We will also make use of the following fundamental theorem, due to David Hestenes¹:

Prop. 1: If $T : Cl(X) \rightarrow Cl(Y)$ is an outermorphism with adjoint T^* , then $x \angle Ty = T(T^*x \angle y)$.

1. Hestenes & Sobczyk [7], p.69, (1.14).

Clifford algebras and graphs

Let $G = (V, E)$ be a (undirected) graph with vertices $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ and edges $E = \{e_1, \dots, e_m\}$. Choose a total ordering on V according to the given enumeration. This induces a direction on G , by letting an edge $e \in E$ that connects the vertices $v, v' \in V$ be directed from v to v' if $v < v'$.

We now form the two Clifford algebras $Cl(V)$ and $Cl(E)$ with $v_i^2 = e_j^2 = 1$, and for $v, v' \in V, e \in E$, we define the mapping $g : (V \cup E) \times V \rightarrow \{-1, 0, 1\}$ by

$$g(v, v') = (v \text{ and } v' \text{ are neighbors}), \text{ and}$$

$$g(e, v) = (e \text{ ends at } v) - (e \text{ starts from } v).$$

Moreover, we define the following outermorphisms:

$$Cl(V) \xrightarrow{A} Cl(V)$$

$$v \longmapsto \sum_{v' \in V} g(v, v') v', \text{ for } v \in V.$$

$$Cl(V) \xrightarrow{\delta} Cl(V)$$

$$v \longmapsto \text{val}(v) v, \text{ where } \text{val}(v) \text{ is the valence of } v.$$

$$Cl(E) \xrightarrow{\partial} Cl(V)$$

$$e \longmapsto \sum_{v \in V} g(e, v) v, \text{ for } e \in E.$$

$$Cl(V) \xrightarrow{\partial^*} Cl(E)$$

$$v \longmapsto \sum_{e \in E} g(e, v) e, \text{ for } v \in V.$$

$$\text{Since } (\partial e) * v = \sum_{v' \in V} g(e, v') v' * v = g(e, v),$$

$$\text{and } e * \partial^*(v) = e * \sum_{e' \in E} g(e', v) e' = g(e, v),$$

we see that ∂^* is the adjoint of ∂ .

The *Laplacian* of the graph G is defined as the outermorphism

$$\Delta = \partial \circ \partial^* : Cl(V) \rightarrow Cl(V).$$

We immediately obtain the following relation between Δ, δ and A :

Prop. 2: $\Delta = \delta - A.$

Proof: A direct computation gives

$$(v) = \partial \circ \partial^*(v) = \partial \sum_{e \in E} g(e, v) e = \sum_{e \in E} \sum_{v' \in V} g(e, v) g(e, v') v' =$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \sum_{e,v'} (g(e,v)g(e,v') = 1) v' - \sum_{e,v'} (g(e,v)g(e,v') = -1) v' \\
&= \text{val}(v)v - \sum_{v'} g(v,v')v' = \delta(v) - A(v).
\end{aligned}$$

One also easily shows the following¹

Prop. 3: $\text{tr } A = 0$, $\text{tr } \wedge^2 A = |E|$, $\text{tr } \wedge^3 A = (-2)(\# \text{ 3-cycles in } G)$.

Moreover, there is the following useful

Lemma 2: If the graph $G = (V, E)$ contains a cycle, then $\partial E = 0$.

Proof: We identify E with $e_1 e_2 \dots e_m$. Assume that G contains the cycle $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k, v_1$. But $v_k - v_1 = (v_k - v_{k-1}) + (v_{k-1} - v_{k-2}) + \dots + (v_2 - v_1)$. Therefore $(v_2 - v_1) \wedge \dots \wedge (v_k - v_{k-1}) \wedge (v_k - v_1) = 0$, which means that $\partial E = \partial(e_1 e_2 \dots e_m) = \partial(e_1 \wedge e_2 \wedge \dots \wedge e_m)$ contains a \wedge -factor 0. Hence $\partial E = 0$.

The converse of lemma 2 is contained in

Lemma 3: Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph with $|V| = n, |E| = m$ and write $V = v_1 v_2 \dots v_n$. If F is a $(n-1)$ -subset of E such that the edges of F form a tree (i.e. no cycles), then we have $v \wedge (\partial F) = \pm V$, $\forall v \in V$, where the sign is independent of v .

Proof: To show that $v \wedge (\partial F)$ is independent of v , it is enough to show that $v' \wedge (\partial F) = v'' \wedge (\partial F)$ if v' and v'' are connected by an edge - say f - in F . But if $\partial f = v'' - v'$, it follows that $(v'' - v') \wedge (\partial F) = (\partial f) \wedge (\partial F) = \partial(f \wedge F) = 0$. Moreover, since F is a tree and $|F| = n - 1$, F is a spanning tree for G and hence contains all the vertices of V . Let v have neighbors v', v'', \dots . Then we have $v \wedge (v' - v) \wedge (v'' - v) \wedge \dots = v \wedge v' \wedge v'' \wedge \dots$ and hence, by applying the same argument to v', v'', \dots we get $v \wedge (\partial F) = \pm V$, which finishes the proof.

We note in general that if $F \subseteq E$, then two vertices v' and v'' are in the same component of F if and only if $(v'' - v') \wedge (\partial F) = 0$.

We are now ready to prove a well-known and nice result about the number of spanning trees in a given graph. Our proof shows the computational power inherent in applying Clifford algebra to graph theory.

Prop. 4: If $\Delta = \partial \circ \partial^* : Cl(V) \rightarrow Cl(V)$ is the Laplacian outermorphism, then

$$\begin{aligned}
\Delta^{\text{adj}} &= N \mathfrak{S} \text{ , where } N \text{ is the number of spanning trees in } G, \text{ and} \\
\mathfrak{S} : Cl(V) &\rightarrow Cl(V) \text{ is given by } \mathfrak{S}(v) = \sum_{v' \in V} v' = s \text{ , } \forall v \in V .
\end{aligned}$$

1. the proof of which is left to the reader.

Proof: From the definition of the adjoint, we have $\Delta^{\text{adj}} = \tilde{\Delta}^* = \tilde{\Delta}$. Moreover, $\Delta^{\text{adj}}(y) = \sum_{x \in V} (x * (\Delta^{\text{adj}} y)) x$, $\forall y \in V$. Hence we must show that $x * (\Delta^{\text{adj}} y) = N$, $\forall x, y \in V$.

Applying the definitions, we get

$x * (\Delta^{\text{adj}} y) = x * (\tilde{\Delta} y) = x * (\Delta(yV)V^\dagger) = \langle x(\Delta(yV)V^\dagger) \rangle_0$. Now, since Δ is grade-preserving, $x\Delta(yV)$ is a pseudoscalar and thus commutes with V^\dagger . Hence we have

$$\begin{aligned} x * (\Delta^{\text{adj}} y) &= \langle x\Delta(yV)V^\dagger \rangle_0 = \langle V^\dagger x\Delta(yV) \rangle_0 = (V^\dagger x) * (\Delta(yV)) \\ &= (V^\dagger x) * \partial(\partial^*(yV)) = \partial^*(V^\dagger x) * \partial^*(yV) . \end{aligned}$$

Now, $V^\dagger x$ and yV are $(|V| - 1)$ -vectors in $\text{Cl}(V)$, and since ∂ and ∂^* are grade-preserving, $\partial^*(V^\dagger x)$ and $\partial^*(yV)$ are $(|V| - 1)$ -vectors in $\text{Cl}(E)$. Expanding these vectors, and summing over all $(|V| - 1)$ -vectors $F \subseteq E$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} x * (\Delta^{\text{adj}} y) &= \partial^*(V^\dagger x) * \partial^*(yV) = (\sum_F (\partial^*(V^\dagger x) * F) F^\dagger) * (\sum_F (\partial^*(yV) * F^\dagger) F) \\ &= \sum_F ((V^\dagger x) * \partial F)((yV) * \partial F^\dagger) = \sum_F ((xV) * \partial F^\dagger)((yV) * \partial F) \\ &= \sum_F ((xV) * \partial F)((yV) * \partial F) = \sum_F (\partial F \angle (x \angle V))(\partial F \angle (y \angle V)) . \end{aligned}$$

Applying lemma 1, we get

$$x * (\Delta^{\text{adj}} y) = \sum_F (\partial F \wedge x)V(\partial F \wedge y)V = V^2 \sum_F (x \wedge \partial F)(y \wedge \partial F) .$$

Now, by lemma 2, $\partial F = 0$ unless F is a spanning tree, and, by lemma 3, in this case we have $x \wedge \partial F = y \wedge \partial F = \pm V$. Hence, remembering that N denotes the number of spanning trees in G , we have $x * (\Delta^{\text{adj}} y) = V^2 \sum_{F \in \text{SpT}} (x \wedge \partial F)^2 = V^4 N = N$, which finishes the proof.

Combinatorial algebraic topology

Let V denote an arbitrary finite set, and let $A = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$. Let \mathbf{Z} be the ring of scalars and consider the two Clifford algebras $\text{Cl}(V)$ and $\text{Cl}(A)$ over \mathbf{Z} with $v^2 = 1, v \in V$. and $a_i^2 = 1, a_i \in A$.

A *labeling* of the elements of V by the elements of A is a mapping $\lambda: V \rightarrow A$. Any such labeling is naturally extended to an outermorphism $\lambda: \text{Cl}(V) \rightarrow \text{Cl}(A)$.

Define the outermorphisms $\partial_V: \text{Cl}(V) \rightarrow \text{Cl}(V)$ and $\partial_A: \text{Cl}(A) \rightarrow \text{Cl}(A)$ by

$$\partial_V(x) = (\sum_{v \in V} v) \angle x \text{ and } \partial_A(y) = (\sum_{a \in A} a) \angle y \text{ respectively.}$$

We now define the *content* mapping Cont and the *index* mapping Ind by

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cl}^n(\mathbf{V}) &\xrightarrow{\text{Cont}} \mathbf{Z} \\ x &\longmapsto A^\dagger * \lambda(x) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cl}^n(\mathbf{V}) &\xrightarrow{\text{Ind}} \mathbf{Z} \\ x &\longmapsto \alpha \circ \lambda \circ \partial_{\mathbf{V}}(x) \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cl}(A) &\xrightarrow{\alpha} \text{Cl}(A) \\ y &\longmapsto (a_{n-1} \dots a_1) \angle y . \end{aligned}$$

Note that $\alpha(\text{Cl}^{n-1}(A)) \subseteq Z$. We now have the following

Prop. 5: $\text{Ind} = \alpha \circ \lambda \circ \partial_{\mathbf{V}} = \alpha \circ \partial_A \circ \lambda = (-1)^{n-1} \text{Cont}$.

Proof: Consider the n -blade $x = v_1 v_2 \dots v_n$ in $\text{Cl}(\mathbf{V})$ and let \hat{v}_j denote deletion of v_j . We now have

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha \circ \lambda \circ \partial_{\mathbf{V}}(x) &= \alpha \circ \lambda((v_1 + \dots + v_n) \angle (v_1 \dots v_n)) = \alpha \circ \lambda(\sum_j (-1)^{j-1} v_1 \dots \hat{v}_j \dots v_n) \\ &= \alpha(\sum (-1)^{j-1} \lambda(v_1) \wedge \dots \wedge \lambda(\hat{v}_j) \wedge \dots \wedge \lambda(v_n)) \\ &= \sum (-1)^{j-1} (a_{n-1} \dots a_1) \angle (\lambda(v_1) \wedge \dots \wedge \lambda(\hat{v}_j) \wedge \dots \wedge \lambda(v_n)) . \end{aligned}$$

Moreover, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha \circ \partial_A \circ \lambda(x) &= (a_{n-1} \dots a_1) \angle ((a_1 + \dots + a_n) \angle (\lambda(v_1) \wedge \dots \wedge \lambda(v_n))) \\ &= ((a_{n-1} \dots a_1) \wedge (a_1 + \dots + a_n)) \angle (\lambda(v_1) \wedge \dots \wedge \lambda(v_n)) \\ &= (a_{n-1} \dots a_1 a_n) * \lambda(x) = (-1)^{n-1} \text{Cont}(x) . \end{aligned}$$

We must consider the following two different possibilities:

1) If λ is injective on v_1, \dots, v_n , we can WLOG¹ assume that $\lambda(v_i) = a_i, \forall i$. We then have

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha \circ \lambda \circ \partial_{\mathbf{V}}(x) &= \sum (-1)^{j-1} (a_{n-1} \dots a_1) \angle (\lambda(v_1) \wedge \dots \wedge \lambda(\hat{v}_j) \wedge \dots \wedge \lambda(v_n)) \\ &= (-1)^{n-1} (a_{n-1} \dots a_1) \angle (a_1 \wedge \dots \wedge a_{n-1}) = (-1)^{n-1} , \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Cont}(x) = (-1)^{n-1} (a_n a_{n-1} \dots a_1) * (a_1 \dots a_n) = (-1)^{n-1} .$$

2) If λ is not injective on v_1, \dots, v_n , we can WLOG assume that $\lambda(v_1) = \lambda(v_2)$. In this case we get

1. Without Loss Of Generality.

$$\begin{aligned}
\alpha \circ \lambda \circ \partial_V(x) &= \sum (-1)^{j-1} (a_{n-1} \dots a_1) \angle (\lambda(v_1) \wedge \dots \wedge \lambda(\hat{v}_j) \wedge \dots \wedge \lambda(v_n)) \\
&= (a_{n-1} \dots a_1) \angle (\lambda(v_2) \wedge \lambda(v_3) \wedge \dots \wedge \lambda(v_n)) \\
&\quad - (a_{n-1} \dots a_1) \angle (\lambda(v_1) \wedge \lambda(v_3) \wedge \dots \wedge \lambda(v_n)) \\
&= 0,
\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Cont}(x) = (a_n \dots a_1) * (\lambda(v_1) \wedge \lambda(v_2) \wedge \dots \wedge \lambda(v_n)) = 0.$$

This proves the proposition.

Hence we have the following commutative diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
& & \text{Cl}^n(V) & \xrightarrow{\partial_V} & \text{Cl}^{n-1}(V) & \xrightarrow{\lambda} & \text{Cl}^{n-1}(A) \\
& \swarrow \text{Cont} & \downarrow \lambda & \searrow \text{Ind} & & & \downarrow \alpha \\
& & \text{Cl}^n(A) & \xrightarrow{\partial_A} & \text{Cl}^{n-1}(A) & \xrightarrow{\alpha} & \mathbf{Z} \\
& \swarrow & & \searrow & & & \uparrow \\
& & & & & & \mathbf{Z} \\
& & & \xrightarrow{(-1)^{n-1} id} & & &
\end{array}$$

Remark: From this index theorem there follows immediately several basic results in combinatorial topology, notably the so called Sperner's lemma.

Koszul complexes

We like to finish by presenting an example from algebra where we hope to illustrate that it may sometimes be a good idea not to restrict the scalars of the Clifford algebra to only \mathbf{R} or \mathbf{C} , but to allow them to lie in arbitrary commutative rings with unit.

Let I and J be two ideals in such a ring R generated by $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ and $\{y_1, \dots, y_m\}$ respectively. We also assume that $J \subseteq I$, i.e. that $y_j = \sum c_{ji} x_i$ for some c_{ji} in R . Below we are going to use Clifford algebra to define the famous *Koszul complexes* $K(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ and $K(y_1, \dots, y_m)$, which have a lot of applications in algebra and differential topology.

We will also give an almost trivial proof of the well-known fact that there exists a chain-complex morphism $K(y_1, \dots, y_m) \rightarrow K(x_1, \dots, x_n)$, which is an isomorphism of chain-complexes if $I = J$.

We start by introducing sets $E = \{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ and $F = \{f_1, \dots, f_m\}$ and their associated Clifford Algebras $\text{Cl}(E)$ and $\text{Cl}(F)$ over the ring R . We may assume that $e_i^2 = f_j^2 = 1, \forall i, j$.

Let $T : \text{Cl}(F) \rightarrow \text{Cl}(E)$ be the outermorphism defined by $Tf_j = \sum c_{ji} e_i$, and denote by $T^* : \text{Cl}(E) \rightarrow \text{Cl}(F)$ the outermorphism defined by $T^*e_i = \sum c_{ji} f_j$.

Then we have $T^*e_i * f_j = c_{ji} = e_i * Tf_j$, so T^* is the adjoint of T . Moreover, if $e = x_1 e_1 + \dots + x_n e_n$ and $f = y_1 f_1 + \dots + y_m f_m$, we obtain $T^*e = f$.

Let us introduce the two “boundary” mappings $d_e: Cl(E) \rightarrow Cl(E)$ and $d_f: Cl(F) \rightarrow Cl(F)$ by $d_e(x) = e \lrcorner x$, $\forall x \in Cl(E)$ respectively $d_f(y) = f \lrcorner y$, $\forall y \in Cl(F)$. Then we have $d_e \circ d_e(x) = e \lrcorner (e \lrcorner x) = (e \wedge e) \lrcorner x = 0$ and similarly for $d_f \circ d_f(y)$, which means that $d_e^2 = d_f^2 = 0$.

Hence the pairs $(Cl(E), d_e)$ and $(Cl(F), d_f)$ become two chain-complexes, which by definition are the Koszul complexes - usually denoted $K(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ respectively $K(y_1, \dots, y_m)$.

Finally, we prove that T is a morphism of chain-complexes. By definition this means that the diagram below commutes.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Cl(F) & \xrightarrow{d_f} & Cl(F) \\ T \downarrow & & \downarrow T \\ Cl(E) & \xrightarrow{d_e} & Cl(E) \end{array}$$

But if $y \in Cl(F)$, we have by Hestenes’ theorem (proposition 1):

$(d_e \circ T)y = e \lrcorner Ty = T(T^*e \lrcorner y) = T(f \lrcorner y) = (T \circ d_f)y$, which shows the commutativity. Moreover, if $\det(c_{ji})$ is invertible in R , then T is an isomorphism of the Koszul complexes.

Conclusions and future work

In this paper we have given some hints as to the many possibilities that are inherent in using generalized versions of Clifford algebra outside of the conventional domains - such as e.g. geometry - where this algebra is usually applied. We hope that our choice of examples, although few and simple - have convinced the reader that it is a fruitful idea to use the computational power of Clifford algebra also in fields like combinatorics and algebra. In future papers we hope to give more substantial results that will prove the strength of this approach.

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