

tively, i. e.  $x_1^* = x_1$ ,  $x_2^* = -x_2$ . Moreover,  $|x|^2 = |x_1|^2 + |x_2|^2$ ,  $x_1 x_2 = -x_2 x_1$ , and there exists one and only one idempotent  $e$  such that  $z_1^2 = |z_1|^2 e$ , and  $z_2^2 = -|z_2|^2 e$  for self-adjoint elements  $z_1$  and skew elements  $z_2$ .

Hence, by a simple computation we get the equation

$$\begin{aligned} x \circ x &= (x_1 - x_2)(x_1 + x_2) = x_1^2 - x_2^2 + x_1 x_2 - x_2 x_1 \\ &= (|x_1|^2 + |x_2|^2)e = |x|^2 e, \end{aligned}$$

which completes the proof.

COROLLARY 1. *The subalgebra of  $\mathcal{K}(A)$  spanned by squares  $x \circ x$  ( $x \in \mathcal{K}(A)$ ) is one-dimensional and, consequently, is isomorphic with the real field.*

COROLLARY 2. *For any pair  $x, y \in \mathcal{K}(A)$  we have the inequality*

$$|x \circ x + y \circ y| \geq |y \circ y|.$$

K. Urbanik has raised the following problem [5]:

If an absolute-valued algebra satisfies the condition  $|x^2 + y^2| \geq |x|^2$  for all  $x$  and  $y$  must it be isomorphic with the field of real numbers?

Since the algebra  $\mathcal{K}(A)$  may be infinite-dimensional (see [4], p. 252), Corollary 2 gives a negative answer to this problem.

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## REMARKS ON ORDERED ABSOLUTE-VALUED ALGEBRAS

BY

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Let  $A$  be a not necessarily associative algebra over the real field  $\mathbb{R}$ , which is a normed linear space under a norm  $|\cdot|$  satisfying, in addition to the usual requirements, the equality  $|xy| = |x||y|$  ( $x, y \in A$ ). Such an algebra is called *absolute-valued* (see [1], [2], [5], p. 337).

The aim of this note is to study ordered absolute-valued algebras. An *ordering* of an absolute-valued algebra  $A$  is determined by the set  $A^+$  of all positive elements of  $A$ , i. e.  $A$  can be ordered if and only if there exists a subset  $A^+$  of  $A$  satisfying the following conditions:

- (i)  $0 \notin A^+$ ,
- (ii)  $A^+$  is closed with respect to multiplication by positive real numbers and with respect to addition and multiplication in  $A$ ,
- (iii) if  $a \neq 0$  and  $a \notin A^+$ , then  $-a \in A^+$ .

In fact, one can define  $a > b$  if  $a - b \in A^+$ .

An absolute-valued algebra  $A$  is said to be of *real character* if  $x^2 + y^2 \neq 0$  and  $xy + yx \neq 0$  whenever  $x \neq 0$  and  $y \neq 0$  ( $x, y \in A$ ). Obviously, each ordered absolute-valued algebra is of real character. The converse implication is not true. Namely, the following theorem holds:

**THEOREM 1.** *There exists an absolute-valued algebra of real character, which cannot be ordered.*

**Proof.** The construction of the algebra satisfying the assertion of the Theorem is similar to that presented in [7], p. 861. Let  $A_0$  be the space of all sequences  $x = \{x_n\}$  of real numbers containing only a finite number of non-zero elements.  $A_0$  is a normed space with respect to the norm  $|x| = \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n^2\right)^{1/2}$  and with the usual addition and scalar multiplication

$$\{x_n\} + \{y_n\} = \{x_n + y_n\}, \quad \lambda \{x_n\} = \{\lambda x_n\}.$$

Let  $\varphi$  be a one-to-one correspondence of the set of all ordered pairs of natural numbers onto the set of all natural numbers satisfying the

conditions

- (1)  $\varphi(1, 1) = 2$ ,  $\varphi(2, 1) = 1$ .  
 (2)  $\varphi(k_1, m_1) \leq \varphi(k_2, m_2)$  whenever  $k_1 \leq k_2$ ,  $m_1 \leq m_2$ , and either  $k_1 \geq 2$  or  $m_2 \geq 2$ .

The existence of such a correspondence can be easily shown. Put  $\varepsilon_{11} = -1$  and  $\varepsilon_{km} = 1$  in the remaining cases. We define the multiplication of elements of  $A_0$  as follows:  $\{x_n\}\{y_m\} = \{z_n\}$ , where  $z_{\varphi(k, m)} = \varepsilon_{km} x_k y_m$  ( $k, m = 1, 2, \dots$ ). This product makes  $A_0$  an algebra over the real field. Moreover,  $A_0$  is absolute-valued. Indeed, we have the equation

$$|xy| = \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_n^2 \right)^{1/2} = \left( \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \varepsilon_{\varphi(k, m)}^2 x_k^2 y_m^2 \right)^{1/2} = \left( \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} x_k^2 y_m^2 \right)^{1/2} \\ = \left( \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} x_k^2 \right)^{1/2} \left( \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} y_m^2 \right)^{1/2} = |x| |y|.$$

Given an element  $x = \{x_n\}$  ( $x \neq 0$ ) of  $A_0$ , by  $n(x)$  we denote the greatest index  $n$  for which  $x_n \neq 0$ . By virtue of (1) and (2) we get the formula

$$n(xy) = \varphi(n(x), n(y)) \geq 3$$

whenever either  $n(x) \geq 3$  or  $n(y) \geq 2$ . Moreover, if  $1 \leq n(x) \leq 2$  and  $n(y) = 1$ , then  $n(xy) \leq 2$ . Hence, by a simple reasoning, we get the equations

$$n(x^2 + y^2) = \max\{\varphi(n(x), n(x)), \varphi(n(y), n(y))\},$$

$$n(xy + yx) = \max\{\varphi(n(x), n(y)), \varphi(n(y), n(x))\}$$

if either  $n(x) \geq 2$  or  $n(y) \geq 2$ . Thus in this case we obtain the inequalities  $x^2 + y^2 \neq 0$  and  $xy + yx \neq 0$ . In the remaining case  $n(x) = n(y) = 1$  we have the formulas  $n(x^2 + y^2) = 2$  and  $n(xy + yx) = 2$ , which complete the proof of the real character of  $A_0$ .

Put  $a = \{a_n\}$ , where  $a_1 = 1$  and  $a_n = 0$  for  $n \geq 2$ . By simple computations we get the equation  $(a^2)a = -a$ . Suppose that the algebra  $A_0$  can be ordered. Then the element  $a^2$  is positive and, consequently, according to the last equation both  $a$  and  $-a$  are either positive or negative, which is impossible. The Theorem is thus proved.

Given any subset  $B$  of an algebra  $A$ ,  $\dim B$  will denote the linear dimension of  $B$ , i. e. the power of a maximal set of linearly independent elements of  $B$ . The algebra  $A_0$  of real character constructed in Theorem 1 is infinitely dimensional. Now we shall prove the following theorem:

**THEOREM 2.** *The real field is the only (up to an isomorphism) finitely dimensional absolute-valued algebra of real character.*

**Proof.** To prove our theorem it suffices to show that every finitely dimensional absolute-valued algebra of real character is one-dimensional. By Albert's Theorem ([1]) any such algebra  $A$  is an isotope of one of the following: the real field, the complex field, the quaternion algebra, or the Cayley algebra. In other words: a new multiplication  $x \circ y$  can be introduced in  $A$ , such that the algebra  $A$  becomes alternative, i. e. the both alternative laws hold,

$$x \circ (x \circ y) = (x \circ x) \circ y, \quad (x \circ y) \circ y = x \circ (y \circ y),$$

and  $A$  has a unit element  $e$ . Moreover, the multiplication  $xy$  in  $A$  is defined in terms of the multiplication  $x \circ y$  by the relation

$$(3) \quad xy = (Ux) \circ (Vy),$$

where  $U$  and  $V$  are fixed invertible linear isometries on  $A$ . The norm in  $A$  is simply a Euclidean norm.

Let  $V^{-1}$  be the inverse of the transformation  $V$ , and  $p^{-1}$  the inverse in the sense of the multiplication  $\circ$  of the element  $p = UV^{-1}e$ . The formula

$$Wx = p^{-1} \circ (UV^{-1}x) \quad (x \in A)$$

defines a linear isometry  $W$  on  $A$ . Since  $p \circ (p^{-1} \circ x) = x$  for every  $x \in A$ , we have, according to (3), the equation

$$(4) \quad xy = (p \circ WVx) \circ Vy \quad (x, y \in A).$$

First we shall prove that  $\dim A \leq 2$ . Contrary to this let us suppose that  $\dim A > 2$ . From the definition of the isometry  $W$  it follows that  $We = e$  and, consequently,  $e$  is a proper vector of  $W$ . Of course, all proper subspaces of  $W$  are either one-dimensional or two-dimensional. Let us assume that  $W$  has a two-dimensional proper subspace spanned by an orthonormal basis consisting of  $b_1$  and  $b_2$ . Of course,  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  are orthogonal to the unit element  $e$  and, consequently,  $b_1 \circ b_1 = b_2 \circ b_2 = -e$ . Put

$$Wb_1 = \alpha b_1 + \beta b_2,$$

$$Wb_2 = -\varepsilon \beta b_1 + \varepsilon \alpha b_2,$$

where  $\alpha^2 + \beta^2 = 1$  and  $\varepsilon = 1$  or  $-1$ . Setting  $a_1 = V^{-1}b_1$ ,  $a_2 = V^{-1}b_2$  we have the equation

$$a_1^2 + a_2^2 = (p \circ Wb_1) \circ b_1 + (p \circ Wb_2) \circ b_2$$

$$= \alpha(p \circ b_1) \circ b_1 + \beta(p \circ b_2) \circ b_1 - \varepsilon \beta(p \circ b_1) \circ b_2 + \varepsilon \alpha(p \circ b_2) \circ b_2.$$

Since the elements  $e, b_1, b_2$ , are mutually orthogonal, we have, by the alternativity,  $(p \circ b_1) \circ b_2 = -(p \circ b_2) \circ b_1$ . Further,

$$(p \circ b_1) \circ b_1 = p \circ (b_1 \circ b_1) = -p \circ e = -p,$$

and

$$(p \circ b_2) \circ b_2 = p \circ (b_2 \circ b_2) = -p \circ e = -p.$$

Thus

$$a_1^2 + a_2^2 = -(1 + \varepsilon)(ap + \beta(p \circ b_1) \circ b_2).$$

Since  $a_1^2 + a_2^2 \neq 0$ , we infer that  $\varepsilon = 1$ . Now, by simple computations, we obtain the equation

$$a_1 a_2 + a_2 a_1 = (p \circ W b_1) \circ b_2 + (p \circ W b_2) \circ b_1 = 0,$$

which is impossible. Thus the inequality  $\dim A \leq 2$  is proved in the case when the transformation  $W$  has a two-dimensional proper subspace.

Now let us assume that all proper subspaces of  $W$  are one-dimensional. Let  $e, e_1, e_2$  be an orthonormal system of proper vectors of  $W$ . By  $\varepsilon_1$  and  $\varepsilon_2$  we shall denote the proper values of  $e_1$  and  $e_2$ , respectively. Of course,  $\varepsilon_1 = 1$  or  $-1$ , and  $\varepsilon_2 = 1$  or  $-1$ . Put  $\bar{d}_0 = V^{-1}e$ ,  $\bar{d}_1 = V^{-1}e_1$  and  $\bar{d}_2 = V^{-1}e_2$ . By simple computations we get the equations

$$\bar{d}_0^2 + \bar{d}_1^2 = (1 - \varepsilon_1)p,$$

$$\bar{d}_0^2 + \bar{d}_2^2 = (1 - \varepsilon_2)p,$$

$$\bar{d}_1 \bar{d}_2 + \bar{d}_2 \bar{d}_1 = (\varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2)(p \circ e_1) \circ e_2.$$

Since the left-hand sides of these equations are different from 0, we have the inequalities  $\varepsilon_1 \neq 1$ ,  $\varepsilon_2 \neq 1$ , and  $\varepsilon_1 \neq \varepsilon_2$ , which gives a contradiction. This completes the proof of the inequality  $\dim A \leq 2$ .

Suppose that  $\dim A = 2$ , i. e. that the algebra  $A$  is an isotope of the complex field. Then equation (4) can be rewritten in one of the following forms:

$$(5) \quad xy = a \circ (x \circ y),$$

$$(6) \quad xy = a \circ (x^* \circ y^*),$$

$$(7) \quad xy = a \circ (x \circ y^*),$$

$$(8) \quad xy = a \circ (x^* \circ y),$$

where  $x^*$  denotes the complex conjugate of  $x$  and  $a$  is an element with  $|a| = 1$ . Denoting by  $i$  the element orthogonal to  $e$  and satisfying the equation  $i \circ i = -e$ , we have  $e^2 + i^2 = 0$  in the cases (5) and (6), and  $ei + ie = 0$  in the cases (7) and (8), which contradicts the real character of  $A$ . Thus  $\dim A = 1$ , which completes the proof.

Since the real field can be ordered in one and only one way, from Theorem 2 we obtain the following

**COROLLARY.** *The real field with the natural order is the only (up to an isomorphism) finitely dimensional ordered absolute-valued algebra.*

Now we shall show that the assumption of finite dimension is essential.

**THEOREM 3.** *There exists an infinitely dimensional ordered absolute-valued algebra.*

**Proof.** Consider a free groupoid  $G$  generated by an element  $g$  (see [5], p. 162). Each element  $a$  of  $G$  different from  $g$  can be represented in exactly one way as a product  $a = a_1 a_2$ , where  $a_1, a_2 \in G$ . We define the length of elements of  $G$  inductively. The element  $g$  is the only element of length 1. Further, if  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  are of length  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  respectively, then the length of the product  $a_1 a_2$  is equal to  $n_1 + n_2$ . In other words, the length of an element  $a$  from  $G$  is the number of  $g$ 's occurring in the expression  $a$ . In the sequel  $l(a)$  will denote the length of the element  $a$ .

Now we shall define by induction a well-ordering of the groupoid  $G$ . We assume that  $a \preceq b$  whenever  $l(a) < l(b)$ . Suppose that the elements of length less than  $n$  are ordered, and  $l(a) = l(b) = n$  ( $n \geq 2$ ). The elements  $a$  and  $b$  can be written in the form  $a_1 a_2$  and  $b_1 b_2$  respectively. Of course,  $l(a_1) < n$ ,  $l(a_2) < n$ ,  $l(b_1) < n$  and  $l(b_2) < n$ . We put  $a \preceq b$  if either  $a_1 \preceq b_1$  or  $a_1 = b_1$  and  $a_2 \preceq b_2$ . It is very easy to verify that  $ab \preceq cd$  whenever either  $a \preceq c$ ,  $b \preceq d$ , or  $a \preceq c$ ,  $b \preceq d$ .

Let  $A$  be a real separable Hilbert space and let  $a \rightarrow i_a$  be a one-to-one correspondence of the groupoid  $G$  onto an orthonormal basis of  $A$ . The product

$$\left( \sum_{a \in G} \lambda_a i_a \right) \left( \sum_{a \in G} \mu_a i_a \right) = \sum_{a \in G} \sum_{b \in G} \lambda_a \mu_b i_{ab}$$

makes  $A$  an absolute-valued algebra. For each non-zero element  $x \in A$  by  $\lambda(x)$  we denote the non-zero coefficient  $\lambda_a$  with minimal index  $a$  in the expansion  $x = \sum_{a \in G} \lambda_a i_a$ . Let  $A$  be the set of all elements  $x$  with  $\lambda(x) > 0$ .

It is easy to verify that the set  $A$  fulfils all conditions (i), (ii), and (iii). The Theorem is thus proved.

In the sequel by  $S(A)$  we shall denote the set of all squares of elements from the algebra  $A$ . Further,  $[B]$  will denote the linear set spanned by the elements of  $B$  ( $B \subset A$ ). Now we shall prove a generalization of Theorem 2.

**THEOREM 4.** *The real field is the only (up to an isomorphism) absolute-valued algebra  $A$  of real character for which  $S(A)$  is finitely dimensional.*

**Proof.** Since  $xy + yx = (x + y)^2 - x^2 - y^2$ , we infer that  $xy + yx \in [S(A)]$  for any  $x, y \in A$ . Let  $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n$  be a basis of the linear subspace

$[S(A)]$ . The expression  $xy + yx$  ( $x, y \in A$ ) induces  $n$  real bilinear functionals  $\lambda_1(x, y), \lambda_2(x, y), \dots, \lambda_n(x, y)$  by means of the expansion

$$xy + yx = \sum_{k=1}^n \lambda_k(x, y) e_k.$$

Suppose that  $\dim A > \dim S(A)$ . Let  $e_{n+1}$  be an element of  $A$  linearly independent of  $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n$ . For any element  $a \in A$  the system of linear equations

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \beta_k \lambda_j(a, e_k) = 0 \quad (j = 1, 2, \dots, n)$$

has a non-zero solution  $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_{n+1}$ . Put  $b = \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \beta_k e_k$ . Of course,  $b \neq 0$  and

$$ab + ba = \sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j(a, b) e_j = \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \beta_k \lambda_j(a, e_k) e_j = 0,$$

which contradicts the real character of  $A$ . Thus,  $\dim A = \dim S(A)$  and our Theorem is now a direct consequence of Theorem 2.

**COROLLARY.** *The real field with the natural order is the only (up to an isomorphism) ordered absolute-valued algebra  $A$  for which  $S(A)$  is finitely dimensional.*

An operation  $*$  defined on an absolute-valued algebra  $A$  is called an *involution* if it satisfies the conditions

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda x + \mu y)^* &= \lambda x^* + \mu y^*, \\ xx^* &= x, \quad (xy)^* = y^* x^*, \quad |x^*| = |x| \end{aligned}$$

for any  $\lambda, \mu \in R$ , and  $x, y \in A$  (see [8]). We say that an absolute-valued algebra  $A$  with the multiplication  $xy$  is *induced by an involution*, if there exists a new multiplication  $x \circ y$  in  $A$  making  $A$  an absolute-valued algebra such that the multiplication  $xy$  is defined in the terms of the multiplication  $x \circ y$  by the relation  $xy = x^* \circ y$ , where  $*$  is an involution with respect to the multiplication  $\circ$  (see [3]). In [4] for algebras induced by a non-trivial involution the equation  $\dim S(A) = 1$  was proved. Now we shall prove the converse implication.

**THEOREM 5.** *If  $\dim S(A) = 1$ , then the algebra  $A$  is induced by an involution.*

Before proving the Theorem we shall prove a Lemma.

**LEMMA.** *If  $\dim S(A) = 1$ , then there exists an idempotent  $e$  such that for any  $x \in A$  the equation  $x^2 = |x|^2 e$  holds.*

**Proof.** Let  $a$  be an arbitrary element of  $A$  with

$$(9) \quad |a| = 1.$$

Setting  $e = (a^2)^2$  we have

$$(10) \quad |e| = 1,$$

$e \in S(A)$  and, by virtue of the equation  $\dim S(A) = 1$ ,  $a^2 = ae$ , where  $a \in R$ . From (9) and (10) it follows that either  $a = 1$  or  $a = -1$ . Thus,  $e = (a^2)^2 = (ae)^2 = e^2$ . Further, for any element  $x \in A$  we have the equation  $x^2 = \lambda e$  ( $\lambda \in R$ ), whence follows the equation  $|\lambda| = |x|^2$ . Consequently, either  $x^2 = |x|^2 e$ , or  $x^2 = -|x|^2 e$ . Contrary to the assertion of the Lemma, let us suppose that there exists an element  $c$  different from 0 such that  $c^2 = -|c|^2 e$ . The function  $f(\mu)$  defined by the formula  $(c + \mu e)^2 = f(\mu) e$  is continuous. Since

$$f(|c|)e + f(-|c|)e = (c + |c|e)^2 + (c - |c|e)^2 = 2c^2 + 2|c|^2 e = 0,$$

we can choose a number  $r$  for which  $f(r) = 0$ . Thus  $(c + re)^2 = 0$  and, consequently,  $c + re = 0$ . Hence we get the equation

$$-|c|^2 e = c^2 = r^2 e,$$

which gives a contradiction. The Lemma is thus proved.

**Proof of Theorem 5.** Let  $e$  be the idempotent satisfying the assertion of the Lemma. From the equation  $(x + y)^2 + (x - y)^2 = 2x^2 + 2y^2$  we obtain the inequality

$$|x + y|^2 + |x - y|^2 \geq 2|x^2 + y^2| = 2||x|^2 e + |y|^2 e| = 2(|x|^2 + |y|^2).$$

Thus, by Schoenberg's Theorem ([6]),  $A$  is an inner product space.

Now we shall prove that if  $u$  and  $v$  in  $A$  are mutually orthogonal, then the product  $uv$  is orthogonal to  $e$  and

$$(11) \quad uv + vu = 0.$$

Of course, it is sufficient to prove this statement under the additional assumption  $|u| = |v| = 1$ . Since the transformation  $x \rightarrow ux$  is an isometry on  $A$  and  $u^2 = e$ , we have the equation

$$(uv, e) = (uv, u^2) = (v, u) = 0.$$

Thus  $uv$  and, consequently, by symmetry,  $vu$ , are orthogonal to  $e$ . Hence, and from the equations

$$|2e| = 2 = |u + v|^2 = |(u + v)^2| = |u^2 + v^2 + uv + vu| = |2e + uv + vu|,$$

$$|2e| = 2 = |u - v|^2 = |(u - v)^2| = |u^2 + v^2 - uv - vu| = |2e - uv - vu|,$$

formula (11) follows.

Let  $A_s$  be the orthogonal complement in  $A$  of the one-dimensional subspace spanned by the element  $e$ . Each element  $x$  in  $A$  can be written in the form  $x = \lambda e + x_1$ , where  $\lambda \in R$  and  $x_1 \in A_s$ . Put

$$(12) \quad x^* = \lambda e - x_1$$

and

$$(13) \quad x \circ y = x^* y.$$

Since  $|x^*| = |x|$ ,  $A$  remains an absolute-valued algebra with respect to the multiplication (13). Now we shall prove that formula (12) defines an involution with respect to the multiplication (13). The equations  $(\lambda x + \mu y)^* = \lambda x^* + \mu y^*$  and  $x^{**} = x$  are obvious. Taking into account formula (11) we get the equation

$$\begin{aligned} x \circ x^* &= (x^*)^2 = (\lambda e - x_1)^2 = \lambda^2 e + x_1^2 - \lambda(e x_1 + x_1 e) \\ &= \lambda^2 e + x_1^2 = \lambda^2 e + x_1^2 + \lambda(e x_1 + x_1 e) = (\lambda e + x_1)^2 = x^2 = x^* \circ x. \end{aligned}$$

Put  $x = \lambda e + x_1$ ,  $y = \alpha e + \beta x_1 + x_2$ , where  $x_1, x_2 \in A_s$  and  $x_2$  is orthogonal to  $x_1$ . Since  $e x_1, x_1 e, e x_2$  and  $x_1 x_2$  are orthogonal to  $e$ , we have, in view of (11),

$$\begin{aligned} (x \circ y)^* &= (x^* y)^* = ((\lambda e - x_1)(\alpha e + \beta x_1 + x_2))^* \\ &= (\alpha \lambda e - \beta |x_1|^2 e - \alpha x_1 e + \beta \lambda e x_1 + \lambda e x_2 - x_1 x_2)^* \\ &= (\alpha \lambda - \beta |x_1|^2) e + \alpha x_1 e - \beta \lambda e x_1 - \lambda e x_2 + x_1 x_2 \\ &= (\alpha \lambda - \beta |x_1|^2) e - \alpha e x_1 + \beta \lambda x_1 e + \lambda x_2 e - x_2 x_1 \\ &= (\alpha e + \beta x_1 + x_2)(\lambda e - x_1) = y x^* = y^* \circ x^*. \end{aligned}$$

Thus the transformation (12) is an involution. Finally, the multiplication  $xy$  is defined in the terms of the multiplication (13) by the relation  $xy = x^* \circ y$ , which completes the proof.

From Theorems 2 and 5 we get the following

**COROLLARY.** *If the subalgebra generated by squares of elements of an absolute-valued algebra  $A$  is of real character and finitely dimensional, then the algebra  $A$  is induced by an involution.*

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