

A New Polar Representation for Pell and Pell-Lucas Split Quaternions

Abstract

In this paper, we define split quaternions with components including Pell and Pell-Lucas number sequences. By using Binet's formulas of these type split quaternions we introduce a new polar representation for these split quaternions using Cayley-Dickson's notation. This alternative representation, based on two complex number sequences, provides a new perspective on the structure of Pell and Pell-Lucas split quaternions and give a deeper understanding of their geometric interpretations and transformations. Furthermore, some fundamental properties and identities for these type of Pell and Pell-Lucas split quaternions are studied. In further the current paper, it would be valuable to replicate similar approaches polar representation in with Pell and Pell-Lucas Split quaternions.

Keywords: Pell split quaternions, Pell-Lucas split quaternions, Polar representation Mathematics

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1 Introduction

W. R. Hamilton [1] initiated the study of the quaternions an extension to the complex number in 1843. They have many applications in mathematics, physics, computer graphics, and engineering. Hamilton first introduced quaternions in 1843 as a way to represent rotations in three-dimensional space, and since then, they have become an important tool in many fields. One advantage of quaternions over other methods of representing rotations is their ability to avoid the problem of gimbal lock, which can occur when using Euler angles. Quaternions also have a relatively simple algebraic structure and can be efficiently implemented in computer algorithms. In recent years, quaternions have been used in the development of virtual reality systems and computer games, where they are used to represent orientations of objects in three-dimensional space. They have also been applied in robotics, control theory, and signal processing. Overall, quaternions have become a valuable tool in many areas of mathematics and engineering, and their use continues to expand [2,3]. Sangwine and [4] introduced a quaternion polar representation that draws inspiration from the Cayley-Dickson form. In their formulation, they express quaternions using a complex modulus and

34 argu ment. The Cayley-Dickson construction is a mathematical procedure that extends the concept
 35 of complex numbers to higher dimensions, paving the way for the development of quaternions. On
 36 the other hand, the complex argument represents the direction or orientation of the quaternion
 37 in a manner analogous to the argument of a complex number. This approach provides a concise
 38 and insightful way to represent quaternions, offering a geometric interpretation that aligns with the
 39 principles of complex analysis.

40 In 1849, Cockle [5] defined split quaternions by utilizing real quaternions. The multiplication
 41 rules for split quaternions differ in the vector part due to their association with Minkowski space,
 42 as opposed to the Euclidean 3-space associated with real quaternions. This distinction makes split
 43 quaternions particularly relevant in the context of theories involving spacetime, such as special
 44 relativity. It is known that split quaternions are effective for rotating vectors in [6–8], whereas real
 45 quaternions are efficient for rotating vectors in [13].

46 A split quaternion [9–11] is defined as the following quadruple

$$\gamma = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 i_1 + \gamma_2 i_2 + \gamma_3 i_3$$

47 with $\gamma_{0-3} \in \mathbb{R}$ and quatenionic units i_1, i_2, i_3 satisfy

$$i_1^2 = -i_2^2 = -i_3^2 = -1, i_1 i_2 = -i_2 i_1 = i_3 \quad (1)$$

48 and can be shown as $\gamma = S_\gamma + V_\gamma$, γ with $S_\gamma = 0$ is a pure split quaternion. Let γ and δ be split
 49 quaternions, then addition and multiplication are

$$\gamma + \delta = (S_\gamma + S_\delta) + (V_\gamma + V_\delta)$$

$$\gamma\delta = S_\gamma S_\delta + \langle V_\gamma, V_\delta \rangle + S_\gamma V_\delta + S_\delta V_\gamma + V_\gamma \times V_\delta$$

50 respectively, where $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ and \times are inner and cross products in Minkowsky space \mathbb{E}_1^3 . The conjugate
 51 and norm of $\gamma = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 i_1 + \gamma_2 i_2 + \gamma_3 i_3$ are respectively as

$$\gamma^* = \gamma_0 - \gamma_1 i_1 - \gamma_2 i_2 - \gamma_3 i_3$$

52 and

$$|\gamma| = \sqrt{|\gamma\gamma^*|} = \sqrt{|\gamma_0^2 + \gamma_1^2 - \gamma_2^2 - \gamma_3^2|} = \sqrt{|\mathcal{I}_\gamma|}. \quad (2)$$

53 If $|\gamma| = 1$, then γ is a unit split quaternion, for any split quaternion γ with $|\gamma| \neq 0$, $\frac{\gamma}{\|\gamma\|}$ is a unit
 54 split quaternion. The split quaternion γ is space-like, time-like and light-like if $\mathcal{I}_\gamma < 0$, $\mathcal{I}_\gamma > 0$ and
 55 $\mathcal{I}_\gamma = 0$ respectively and

$$\mathcal{I}_\gamma = \gamma_0^2 + \gamma_1^2 - \gamma_2^2 - \gamma_3^2 = \mathcal{I}_{S_\gamma} + \mathcal{I}_{V_\gamma} \quad (3)$$

56 where $\mathcal{I}_{S_\gamma} = \gamma_0^2$ and $\mathcal{I}_{V_\gamma} = \gamma_1^2 - \gamma_2^2 - \gamma_3^2$. The multiplicative inverse of γ is $\gamma^{-1} = \frac{\gamma^*}{|\gamma|^2}$ and there is
 57 no inverse for light-like split quaternion. The Cayley-Dickson's form of a split quaternion γ is

$$\gamma = (\gamma_0 + \gamma_1 i_1) + (\gamma_2 + \gamma_3 i_1) i_2$$

58 which is based on two complex numbers.

59 Classify the polar representation according to the given the split quaternion γ and vector part,

60 respectively.

61 **1.** The polar representation for spacelike quaternion can be written in the form

$$\gamma = |\gamma| (\sinh \phi + \mu \cosh \phi) \tag{4}$$

62 where $\sinh \phi = \frac{\gamma_0}{|\gamma|}$, $\cosh \phi = \frac{\sqrt{-\gamma_1^2 + \gamma_2^2 + \gamma_3^2}}{|\gamma|}$ and $\mu = \frac{\gamma_1 i_1 + \gamma_2 i_2 + \gamma_3 i_3}{\sqrt{-\gamma_1^2 + \gamma_2^2 + \gamma_3^2}}$ is a spacelike unit vector.

63 **2.** The polar representation for timelike γ with spacelike vector part ($I_{V_\gamma} < 0$ for
64 $V_\gamma = \gamma_1 i_1 + \gamma_2 i_2 + \gamma_3 i_3$ vector part of γ) can be written in the form

$$\gamma = |\gamma| (\cosh \phi + \mu \sinh \phi) \tag{5}$$

65 where $\sinh \phi = \frac{\sqrt{-\gamma_1^2 + \gamma_2^2 + \gamma_3^2}}{|\gamma|}$, $\cosh \phi = \frac{\gamma_0}{N(\gamma)}$ and $\mu = \frac{\gamma_1 i_1 + \gamma_2 i_2 + \gamma_3 i_3}{\sqrt{-\gamma_1^2 + \gamma_2^2 + \gamma_3^2}}$ is a spacelike unit vector.

66 **3.** The polar representation for timelike γ with timelike vector part can be written as

$$\gamma = |\gamma| (\cos \phi + \mu \sin \phi)$$

67 where $\sin \phi = \frac{\sqrt{\gamma_1^2 - \gamma_2^2 - \gamma_3^2}}{|\gamma|}$, $\cos \phi = \frac{\gamma_0}{|\gamma|}$ and $\mu = \frac{\gamma_1 i_1 + \gamma_2 i_2 + \gamma_3 i_3}{\sqrt{\gamma_1^2 - \gamma_2^2 - \gamma_3^2}}$ is a unit pure split quaternion.

68 Indeed, a unit timelike quaternion γ with a timelike vector part represents a rotation of a three-
69 dimensional non-lightlike Lorentzian vector by an angle 2ϕ about the axis defined by γ . This
70 rotation operation is similar to the one described earlier with the unit timelike quaternion γ having
71 a spacelike vector part. However, in this case, the axis of rotation is determined by the direction of
72 the timelike vector part of γ .

73 **4.** If γ is a lightlike split quaternion, then

$$\gamma = 1 + \mu.$$

74 Here, γ is a lightlike (null) split vector. [12,13]. Any Split quaternion can be written in the form

$$\gamma = Ae^{B i_2}$$

75 where $A = A_0 + A_1 i_1$ and $B = A_2 + A_3 i_1$ are complex numbers, [4,9]. For detailed information
76 about the matrix notation of rotation and its relationship with quaternionic representations, we refer
77 the reader to reference [6], as well as references [7] and [8]. These sources provide comprehensive
78 explanations and discussions regarding the mathematical foundations and practical applications of
79 quaternionic rotations in Lorentzian geometry.

80 In the literature, sequences of integers have an important place. The most famous of these sequences
81 have been demonstrated in several areas of mathematics. The Pell P_n and Pell-Lucas Q_n number
82 sequences are defined by

$$\begin{aligned} P_n &= 2P_{n-1} + P_{n-2}, & P_0 &= 0, P_1 = 1, n \geq 2 \\ Q_n &= 2Q_{n-1} + Q_{n-2}, & Q_0 &= Q_1 = 2, n \geq 2 \end{aligned}$$

83 The characteristic equation of these number sequences is $x^2 - 2x - 2 = 0$, with roots $\alpha = 1 + \sqrt{2}$
84 and $\beta = 1 - \sqrt{2}$. The Binet's forms of these sequences are

$$P_n = \frac{\alpha^n - \beta^n}{\alpha - \beta} \text{ and } Q_n = \alpha^n + \beta^n \tag{6}$$

85 For more details and relations about these number sequences see [14–21].

86

87 **2 Pell and Pell-Lucas split quaternions**

88 In this section, we will give Pell and Pell-Lucas split quaternions and their fundamental identities..

89 **Definition 1.** *The Pell and Pell-Lucas split quaternions are defined as*

$$\mathcal{P}_n = P_n + P_{n+1}i_1 + P_{n+2}i_2 + P_{n+3}i_3 \tag{7}$$

90
$$\mathcal{Q}_n = Q_n + Q_{n+1}i_1 + Q_{n+2}i_2 + Q_{n+3}i_3 \tag{8}$$

91 *respectively, where P_n and Q_n are Pell and Pell-Lucas numbers and i_1, i_2, i_3 follow the rules in (1).*

92 From definition, the following recurrence relation can be prove easily

$$\mathcal{P}_n = 2\mathcal{P}_{n-1} + \mathcal{P}_{n-2}, \quad n \geq 2$$

93 and

$$\mathcal{Q}_n = 2\mathcal{Q}_{n-1} + \mathcal{Q}_{n-2}, \quad n \geq 2$$

94 **Theorem 2.** *The Binet's formulas for Pell and Pell-Lucas split quaternions are*

$$\mathcal{P}_n = \frac{\alpha^n \underline{\alpha} - \beta^n \underline{\beta}}{\alpha - \beta} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{Q}_n = \alpha^n \underline{\alpha} + \beta^n \underline{\beta} \tag{9}$$

95 *respectively, where*

$$\underline{\alpha} = 1 + \alpha i_1 + \alpha^2 i_2 + \alpha^3 i_3 \quad \text{and} \quad \underline{\beta} = 1 + \beta i_1 + \beta^2 i_2 + \beta^3 i_3 \tag{10}$$

96 *Proof.* The proof can be done directly by using definition and Binet's formulas for Pell and Pell-
 97 Lucas sequences. □

98 **Theorem 3** (Vajda's identities). *For positive integers m, n and r with $n > m \geq r \geq 1$, we have*

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{P}_m \mathcal{P}_n - \mathcal{P}_{m-r} \mathcal{P}_{n+r} &= \frac{P_r}{\sqrt{8}} (\alpha^n \beta^{m-r} \underline{\beta} \underline{\alpha} - \alpha^{m-r} \beta^n \underline{\alpha} \underline{\beta}) \\ \mathcal{Q}_m \mathcal{Q}_n - \mathcal{Q}_{m-r} \mathcal{Q}_{n+r} &= \sqrt{8} P_r (\alpha^{m-r} \beta^n \underline{\alpha} \underline{\beta} - \alpha^n \beta^{m-r} \underline{\beta} \underline{\alpha}) \end{aligned}$$

99 *where P_n is n^{th} Pell number and*

$$\underline{\alpha} \underline{\beta} = \mathcal{Q}_0 + 2\sqrt{2}(i_1 - 2i_2 + i_3) \quad \text{and} \quad \underline{\beta} \underline{\alpha} = \mathcal{Q}_0 - 2\sqrt{2}(i_1 - 2i_2 + i_3) \tag{11}$$

100 *Proof.* Using (9), (10) and Binet's formula, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{P}_m \mathcal{P}_n - \mathcal{P}_{m-r} \mathcal{P}_{n+r} &= \frac{1}{8} (\alpha^m \underline{\alpha} - \beta^m \underline{\beta}) (\alpha^n \underline{\alpha} - \beta^n \underline{\beta}) \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{8} (\alpha^{m-r} \underline{\alpha} - \beta^{m-r} \underline{\beta}) (\alpha^{n+r} \underline{\alpha} - \beta^{n+r} \underline{\beta}) \\ &= \frac{1}{8} (-\underline{\alpha} \underline{\beta} \alpha^m \beta^n - \underline{\beta} \underline{\alpha} \beta^m \alpha^n + \underline{\alpha} \underline{\beta} \alpha^{m-r} \beta^{n+r} + \underline{\beta} \underline{\alpha} \beta^{m-r} \alpha^{n+r}) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}} \left(\alpha^n \beta^m \underline{\beta} \underline{\alpha} \frac{\alpha^r - \beta^r}{\sqrt{8} \beta^r} - \underline{\alpha} \underline{\beta} \alpha^m \beta^n \frac{\alpha^r - \beta^r}{\sqrt{8} \beta^r} \right) \end{aligned}$$

101 By using (9), (10) and (11), the proof for Pell-Lucas can be done similarly. □

102 **Corollary 4.** For $m = n$ in theorem 3 we get the Catalan's identities

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{P}_{n-r}\mathcal{P}_{n+r} - \mathcal{P}_n^2 &= \frac{P_r}{\sqrt{8}}(-1)^n(\alpha \underline{\beta\alpha} - \beta \underline{\alpha\beta}) \\ \mathcal{Q}_{n-r}\mathcal{Q}_{n+r} - \mathcal{Q}_n^2 &= \sqrt{8}P_r(-1)^n(\beta \underline{\alpha\beta} - \alpha \underline{\beta\alpha}) \end{aligned}$$

103 For $m = n$ and $r = 1$ we get the Cassini's identities

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{P}_{n-1}\mathcal{P}_{n+1} - \mathcal{P}_n^2 &= \frac{(-1)^n}{\sqrt{8}}(\alpha \underline{\beta\alpha} - \beta \underline{\alpha\beta}) \\ \mathcal{Q}_{n-1}\mathcal{Q}_{n+1} - \mathcal{Q}_n^2 &= \sqrt{8}(-1)^n(\beta \underline{\alpha\beta} - \alpha \underline{\beta\alpha}) \end{aligned}$$

104 For $m = n, m = n + 1$ and $r = 1$, we get the d'Ocagne's identities

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{P}_{n+1}\mathcal{P}_m - \mathcal{P}_n\mathcal{P}_{m+1} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}(\alpha^m\beta^n \underline{\beta\alpha} - \alpha^n\beta^m \underline{\alpha\beta}) \\ \mathcal{Q}_{n+1}\mathcal{Q}_m - \mathcal{Q}_n\mathcal{Q}_{m+1} &= \sqrt{8}(\alpha^n\beta^m \underline{\alpha\beta} - \alpha^m\beta^n \underline{\beta\alpha}) \end{aligned}$$

105 3 The Different Polar Representation of Pell and Pell-Lucas 106 split quaternions

107 In this section, we aim to demonstrate that every Pell and Pell-Lucas split quaternion possesses a
108 polar form, in addition to the classical form mentioned. This polar form provides an alternative
109 representation of Pell and Pell-Lucas split quaternions, offering insights into their geometric and
110 algebraic properties. Indeed, the concept of constructing a polar form for Pell and Pell-Lucas split
111 quaternions using two complex numbers, and then applying a specific operation (multiplying the
112 second complex number by i_2) bears resemblance to the Cayley-Dickson construction. However,
113 there are notable distinctions between this approach and the traditional Cayley-Dickson method.

114 **Proposition 5.** The norm of Pell and Pell-Lucas split quaternions is

$$\begin{aligned} N(\mathcal{P}_n) &= \sqrt{2Q_{2n+3}} \\ N(\mathcal{Q}_n) &= 4\sqrt{Q_{2n+3}} \end{aligned}$$

115 where Q_n is n^{th} Pell-Lucas number.

116 *Proof.* From definition of norm for split quaternion, we have

$$N(\mathcal{P}_n) = \sqrt{|P_n^2 + P_{n+1}^2 - P_{n+2}^2 - P_{n+3}^2|}$$

117 and by using Binet's formula

$$P_n^2 + P_{n+1}^2 - P_{n+2}^2 - P_{n+3}^2 = \left(\frac{\alpha^n - \beta^n}{\alpha - \beta}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\alpha^{n+1} - \beta^{n+1}}{\alpha - \beta}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{\alpha^{n+2} - \beta^{n+2}}{\alpha - \beta}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{\alpha^{n+3} - \beta^{n+3}}{\alpha - \beta}\right)^2$$

118 from using $\alpha\beta = -1$ and $\alpha - \beta = 2\sqrt{2}$ we get

$$P_n^2 + P_{n+1}^2 - P_{n+2}^2 - P_{n+3}^2 = \frac{1}{8}(\alpha^{2n}(1\alpha^2 - \alpha^4 - \alpha^6) + \beta^{2n}(1 + \beta^2 - \beta^4 - \beta^6))$$

119 Because α and β are roots of $x^2 - 2x - 1 = 0$, then

$$\begin{aligned} P_n^2 + P_{n+1}^2 - P_{n+2}^2 - P_{n+3}^2 &= \frac{1}{8} (\alpha^{2n}(-80\alpha - 32) + \beta^{2n}(-80\beta - 32)) \\ &= -10(\alpha^{2n+1} + \beta^{2n+1}) - 4(\alpha^{2n} + \beta^{2n}) \\ &= -10Q_{2n+1} - 4Q_{2n} \\ &= -2Q_{2n+3} \end{aligned}$$

120 Then the result is clear, the proof for Pell-Lucas is similarly. \square

121 **Corollary 6.** *The Pell and Pell-Lucas split quaternions are spacelike split quaternions with space-*
122 *like vector part.*

123 **Theorem 7.** *The classical polar representation of Pell split quaternion is*

$$\mathcal{P}_n = \sqrt{2Q_{2n+3}}(\sinh \Phi + \mu \cosh \Phi)$$

124 where $\mu = \frac{P_{n+1}(i_1+2i_2+5i_3)+P_n(i_2+2i_3)}{\sqrt{Q_{2n+6}+2Q_{2n+3}-2(-1)^n}}$ is a pure unit split quaternion and

$$\Phi = \tanh^{-1} \left(\frac{\sqrt{8}P_n}{\sqrt{Q_{2n+6} + 2Q_{2n+3} - 2(-1)^n}} \right)$$

125 *Proof.* Since \mathcal{P}_n is a spacelike split quaternion, then by using (4), the polar representation is

$$\mathcal{P}_n = N(\mathcal{P}_n)(\sinh \Phi + \mu \cosh \Phi)$$

126 where

$$\begin{aligned} \mu &= \frac{P_{n+1}i_1 + P_{n+2}i_2 + P_{n+3}i_3}{\sqrt{-P_{n+1}^2 + P_{n+2}^2 + P_{n+3}^2}} \\ \sinh \Phi &= \frac{P_n}{N(\mathcal{P}_n)} \\ \cosh \Phi &= \frac{\sqrt{|P_{n+1}^2 - P_{n+2}^2 - P_{n+3}^2|}}{N(\mathcal{P}_n)} \end{aligned}$$

127 therefore $\tanh \Phi = \frac{P_n}{\sqrt{-P_{n+1}^2 + P_{n+2}^2 + P_{n+3}^2}}$ and we get

$$\mu = \frac{P_{n+1}(i_1 + 2i_2 + 5i_3) + P_n(i_2 + 2i_3)}{\sqrt{Q_{2n+6} + 2Q_{2n+3} - 2(-1)^n}}$$

128 and

$$\Phi = \tanh^{-1} \left(\frac{\sqrt{8}P_n}{\sqrt{Q_{2n+6} + 2Q_{2n+3} - 2(-1)^n}} \right)$$

129 \square

130 **Corollary 8.** *The classical polar representation of Pell-Lucas split quaternion is*

$$Q_n = 4\sqrt{Q_{2n+3}}(\sinh \Phi + \mu \cosh \Phi)$$

131 where $\mu = \frac{Q_{n+1}(i_1+2i_2+5i_3)+Q_n(i_2+2i_3)}{\sqrt{Q_{2n+6}+2Q_{2n+3}+2(-1)^n}}$ is a pure unit split quaternion and

$$\Phi = \tanh^{-1} \left(\frac{Q_n}{\sqrt{Q_{2n+6} + 2Q_{2n+3} + 2(-1)^n}} \right)$$

132 *Proof.* The Proof is similar to Theorem (7). □

133 **Proposition 9.** *Let $D = Ai_2 + Bi_3 = (A + Bi_1)i_2$ be an arbitrary split quaternion, for spacelike*
 134 *D , the exponential form is*

$$e^D = \sinh |D| + \frac{A}{|D|} \cosh |D|i_2 + \frac{B}{|D|} \cosh |D|i_3 = \alpha_0 + \alpha_2i_2 + \alpha_3i_3$$

135 and for timelike D , then

$$e^D = \cosh |D| + \frac{A}{|D|} \sinh |D|i_2 + \frac{B}{|D|} \sinh |D|i_3 = \beta_0 + \beta_2i_2 + \beta_3i_3$$

136 *That is, it is a split quaternions with no i_1 's term.*

137 *Proof.* Suppose μ is a spacelike unit split quaternion, that is $N(\mu) = 1$, then from (4) we have

$$e^{\mu\theta} = \sinh \theta + \mu \cosh \theta$$

138 if we rewrite $D = |D|\frac{D}{|D|}$, then by taking $\mu = \frac{D}{|D|}$ and $\theta = |D|$ we get the result, we can prove
 139 similarly for timelike D by using 5. □

140 Now we give the new polar representations for Pell and Pell-Lucas split quaternions by using
 141 Cayley-Dikson's form.

142 **Theorem 10.** *Every Pell split quaternion $\mathcal{P}_n = P_n + P_{n+1}i_1 + P_{n+2}i_2 + P_{n+3}i_3$ can be given in*
 143 *the form $\mathcal{P}_n = Ae^{Bi_2}$, where A and B are complex numbers, that is*

$$A = \frac{2(P_n + P_{n+1}i_1)}{\sqrt{Q_{2n+1} + Q_{2n}}}$$

$$B = \frac{Q_{2n+3} + Q_{2n+2} - 8(-1)^n i_1}{\sqrt{(Q_{2n+1} + Q_{2n})(Q_{2n+5} + Q_{2n+4})}} \tanh^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{Q_{2n+1} + Q_{2n}}{Q_{2n+5} + Q_{2n+4}}} \right)$$

144 *Proof.* Suppose that $A = a + bi_1$ and $e^{Bi_2} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_2i_2 + \alpha_3i_3$, then

$$\mathcal{P}_n = Ae^{Bi_2} = a\alpha_0 + b\alpha_0i_1 + (a\alpha_2 - b\alpha_3)i_2 + (a\alpha_3 + b\alpha_2)i_3$$

145 if $\alpha_0 = 0$, then we can select $a = 1$ and $b = 0$, we will get $A = 1$. For $\alpha_0 \neq 0$, we construct a
 146 complex number $\gamma = a\alpha_0 + b\alpha_0i_1 = P_n + P_{n+1}i_1$ and then $A = \frac{\gamma}{|\gamma|}$, by using (7) the explicit form
 147 of A is

$$A = \frac{2(P_n + P_{n+1}i_1)}{\sqrt{Q_{2n+1} + Q_{2n}}} |\mathcal{P}_n|$$

148 Since A is a unit complex number then $A^{-1} = \bar{A} = \frac{2(P_n - P_{n+1}i_1)}{\sqrt{Q_{2n+1} + Q_{2n}}} |\mathcal{P}_n|$, where \bar{A} is conjugate of
 149 A and

$$e^{Bi_2} = \bar{A}\mathcal{P}_n = \frac{2}{\sqrt{Q_{2n+1} + Q_{2n}}} (P_n^2 + P_{n+1}^2 + (P_n P_{n+2} + P_{n+1} P_{n+3})i_2 + (P_n P_{n+3} - P_{n+1} P_{n+2})i_3)$$

150 and the norm of e^{Bi_2} is

$$\begin{aligned} |e^{Bi_2}| &= \frac{2}{\sqrt{Q_{2n+1} + Q_{2n}}} \sqrt{(P_n^2 + P_{n+1}^2)^2 - (P_n P_{n+2} + P_{n+1} P_{n+3})^2 - (P_n P_{n+3} - P_{n+1} P_{n+2})^2} \\ &= \sqrt{P_{n+2}^2 + P_{n+3}^2 - P_n^2 - P_{n+1}^2} \end{aligned}$$

151 Since $\frac{e^{Bi_2}}{|e^{Bi_2}|}$ is a unit spacelike split quaternion, then its classical polar form is

$$\frac{e^{Bi_2}}{|e^{Bi_2}|} = \sinh \theta + \mu \cosh \theta$$

152 then we can write

$$\begin{aligned} \sinh \theta &= \frac{\sqrt{P_n^2 + P_{n+1}^2}}{\sqrt{P_{n+2}^2 + P_{n+3}^2 - P_n^2 - P_{n+1}^2}} \\ \cosh \theta &= \frac{\sqrt{P_{n+2}^2 + P_{n+3}^2}}{\sqrt{P_{n+2}^2 + P_{n+3}^2 - P_n^2 - P_{n+1}^2}} \\ \mu &= \frac{(P_n P_{n+2} + P_{n+1} P_{n+3})i_2 + (P_n P_{n+3} - P_{n+1} P_{n+2})i_3}{\sqrt{(P_n^2 + P_{n+1}^2)(P_{n+2}^2 + P_{n+3}^2)}} \end{aligned}$$

153 which gives

$$\tanh \theta = \frac{\sqrt{P_n^2 + P_{n+1}^2}}{\sqrt{P_{n+2}^2 + P_{n+3}^2}}$$

154 From $Bi_2 = \mu\theta$ we get

$$Bi_2 = \frac{(P_n P_{n+2} + P_{n+1} P_{n+3} + (P_n P_{n+3} - P_{n+1} P_{n+2})i_1)i_2}{\sqrt{(P_n^2 + P_{n+1}^2)(P_{n+2}^2 + P_{n+3}^2)}} \tanh^{-1} \left(\frac{\sqrt{P_n^2 + P_{n+1}^2}}{\sqrt{P_{n+2}^2 + P_{n+3}^2}} \right)$$

155 The explicit form of B can be write easily. □

156 **Corollary 11.** Every Pell-Lucas split quaternion $\mathcal{Q}_n = Q_n + Q_{n+1}i_1 + Q_{n+2}i_2 + Q_{n+3}i_3$ can be
 157 given in the form $\mathcal{Q}_n = Ae^{Bi_2}$, where A and B are complex numbers, that is

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \frac{Q_n + Q_{n+1}i_1}{\sqrt{Q_{2n+2} + Q_{2n}}} \\ B &= \frac{Q_{2n+4} + Q_{2n+2} + 16(-1)^n i_1}{\sqrt{(Q_{2n+2} + Q_{2n})(Q_{2n+6} + Q_{2n+4})}} \tanh^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{Q_{2n+2} + Q_{2n}}{Q_{2n+6} + Q_{2n+4}}} \right) \end{aligned}$$

158 *Proof.* The proof can be done similar to Theorem (10). □

159 **Example 12.** Find the new polar representation for $\mathcal{P}_1 = 1 + 2i_1 + 5i_2 + 12i_3$ and

160 $\mathcal{Q}_0 = 2 + 2i_1 + 6i_2 + 14i_3$.

161 We have $\mathcal{P}_1 = Ae^{Bi_2}$, where

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \frac{2(P_n + P_{n+1}i_1)}{\sqrt{Q_{2n+1} + Q_{2n}}} \\ &= \frac{1 + 2i_1}{\sqrt{5}} \end{aligned}$$

162 and

$$\begin{aligned} B &= \frac{Q_{2n+3} + Q_{2n+2} - 8(-1)^n i_1}{\sqrt{(Q_{2n+1} + Q_{2n})(Q_{2n+5} + Q_{2n+4})}} \tanh^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{Q_{2n+1} + Q_{2n}}{Q_{2n+5} + Q_{2n+4}}} \right) \\ &= \frac{Q_5 + Q_4 + 8i_1}{\sqrt{(Q_3 + Q_2)(Q_7 + Q_6)}} \tanh^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{Q_3 + Q_2}{Q_7 + Q_6}} \right) \\ &= \frac{29 + 2i_1}{13\sqrt{5}} \tanh^{-1} \left(\frac{\sqrt{5}}{13} \right) \end{aligned}$$

163 4 Conclusions

164 In this paper, we give the Pell and Pell-Lucas split quaternions and obtain some fundamental
 165 identities. After that we introduce a new class of quaternions known as Pell and Pell-Lucas split
 166 quaternions. Our work is mainly concerned with polar representations of Pell and Pell-Lucas split
 167 quaternions similar to the real quaternions. An arbitrary Pell and Pell-Lucas split quaternion has
 168 been used to compute the argument and modulus for this. In further the current paper, it would be
 169 valuable to replicate similar approaches in dual split quaternions with Pell and Pell-Lucas number
 170 sequences.

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