

From Special Relativity to Gyrogroups

Vivian A. Eichmueller, Mathematics

Steven J. Rosenberg, Ph.D.

Department of Mathematics and Computer Science

ABSTRACT

We will start with special relativity and derive the velocity addition formula and the Lorentz Transformation in one spatial dimension, and we show that velocity addition yields a group law. We will then move into higher spatial dimensions and prove that relativistic velocity addition, although not a group operation, yields a gyrogroup.

Special Relativity

Definition 1. An *inertial observer* is an observer with no external forces acting on the observer.

Definition 2. An *inertial frame of reference* is a frame of reference of an inertial observer where isolated bodies are seen to move in straight lines at constant velocities.

Definition 3. \mathbb{R}^n is called *space-time* where $n-1$ is the dimension of space. An n -tuple in space-time is called an *event*. We assume the n^{th} coordinate of an event represents time.

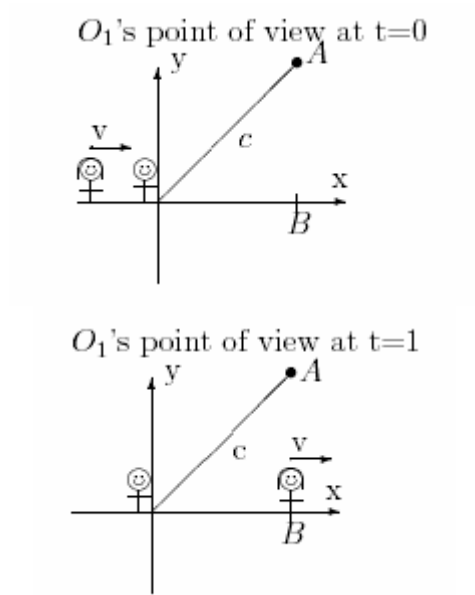
To derive special relativity, we will use the following assumptions:

1. Newton's laws are the same for all inertial observers.
2. All inertial observers see light move at speed c .

First, let's assume that each inertial observer measures time and distance with the same units and that they pass each other when $t=0$. We will usually denote distance as d and time as t . We will also assume they agree what a straight line is, as well as what horizontal and vertical lines are at the moment they pass each other.

For our diagrams, let's assume O_1 is bald and O_2 has hair. Now, let's assume O_1 and O_2 meet at $t=0$, the path traveled is the x-axis, O_1 sees O_2 move at velocity v , and O_2 sees O_1 move at velocity $-v$. Let's

also assume that there is a rock at point A , which lies directly above point B and a distance c from the origin. Suppose now that at $t = 0$ a flashlight is shone towards A from the origin. Then the light hits the rock at $t = 1$, and at $t = 1$ O_2 is at B .



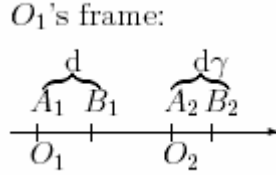
Now for O_2 's point of view. O_2 thinks light is moving straight up. So, how far is it from A to B ? Using the Pythagorean Theorem gives $\sqrt{c^2 - v^2} = c\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}$.

Let d be the distance from O_2 to B at $t = 0$, according to O_2 , and let τ be the time when B reaches O_2 , according to O_2 . So, since $d = r\tau$, $d = \frac{c\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}{c} = \sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}$. This means $d = v\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}$. So to an observer in motion, the distance changes.

Definition 4.

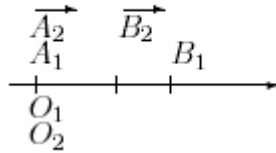
$$\gamma_v = \gamma = \sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}$$

In \mathbb{R} , given two inertial observers where one is moving at velocity v with respect to the other, γ is the factor by which time and space are contracted.

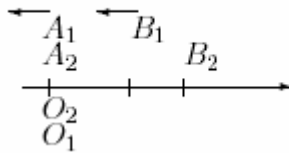


To generalize, we need four physical markers, two in each observer's frame. Let's imagine markers A_1 and A_2 at the position of O_1 and O_2 respectively. We will use B_1 and B_2 to represent markers a distance d from A_1 and A_2 respectively. More precisely, according to O_1 , A_1 and B_1 are a distance d apart, and they are stationary. According to O_2 , A_2 and B_2 are a distance d apart and are stationary.

at $t=0$ according to O_1 :



at $t=0$ according to O_2 :



Let E_1 be the event A_1 and A_2 meet. Let E_2 be the event B_1 and B_2 meet. According to O_1 , E_1 happens before E_2 . But, according to O_2 , E_2 happens before E_1 . *It's backwards.*

Let the coordinates of E_i with respect to O_j be $E_{i,j}$. So,

- $E_{1,1} = (0,0)$
- $E_{1,2} = (0,0)$
- $E_{2,1} = \left(d, \frac{d - d\gamma}{v} \right)$

$$\bullet \quad E_{2,2} = \left(d, \frac{d\gamma - d}{v} \right)$$

We're assuming for now that space is 1-dimensional, so an event is a point in \mathbb{R}^2 . The translation of the event coordinates from O_1 's frame to O_2 's frame is a function $\mathcal{L} : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$.

Now, let's place our markers B_1 and B_2 strategically to determine how the coordinates of a general event change from one reference frame to another. So, given $(x, t) \in \mathbb{R}$ that is the coordinates of our event E_2 according to O_1 , we want to find the coordinates of E_2 according to O_2 . So, let $d_1 = x$ be the distance from A_1 to B_1 according to O_1 . Let d_2 denote the distance from A_2 to B_2 according to O_2 . Now, we know the time coordinate must be the distance traveled divided by the velocity, and we know the distance between A_2 and B_2 is $d_2\gamma$ according to O_1 . Then $t = \frac{d_1 - d_2\gamma}{v}$ so $d_2 = \frac{x - vt}{\gamma}$. We also know the distance from A_1 to B_1 according to O_2 is $d_1\gamma$. We can use these distances to find the coordinates of our event according to O_2 , and we can see

$$\begin{aligned} E_{2,2} &= \left(d_2, \frac{\gamma d_1 - d_2}{v} \right) \\ &= \left(\frac{x - vt}{\gamma}, \frac{\gamma x - \left(\frac{x - vt}{\gamma} \right)}{v} \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \left(\frac{x-vt}{\gamma}, \frac{\gamma x - \left(\frac{x-vt}{\gamma} \right)}{v} \right) &= \left(\frac{x-vt}{\gamma}, \frac{\gamma^2 x - x + vt}{v\gamma} \right) \\
 &= \left(\frac{x-vt}{\gamma}, \frac{(1-v^2/c^2)x - x + vt}{v\gamma} \right) \\
 &= \left(\frac{x-vt}{\gamma}, \frac{-xv^2/c^2 + vt}{v\gamma} \right) \\
 &= \left(\frac{x-vt}{\gamma}, \frac{-xv/c^2 + t}{\gamma} \right) \\
 &= \left(\frac{x-vt}{\gamma}, \frac{t-xv/c^2}{\gamma} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

Definition 5. The Lorentz Transformation, $\mathcal{L}_v : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ is given by

$$(x, t) \mapsto \left(\frac{x-vt}{\gamma}, \frac{t-xv/c^2}{\gamma} \right)$$

Theorem 1. $\mathcal{L}_v^{-1} = \mathcal{L}_{-v}$ where $v \in \mathbb{R}$ and $-c < v < c$.

Proof. Applying \mathcal{L}_v gives

$$(x, t) \mapsto \left(\frac{x-vt}{\gamma}, \frac{t-xv/c^2}{\gamma} \right)$$

We now apply \mathcal{L}_{-v} , which gives

$$\begin{aligned}
 \left(\frac{1}{\gamma} \left(\frac{x-vt}{\gamma} \right) + \frac{v}{\gamma} \left(\frac{t-xv/c^2}{\gamma} \right), \frac{1}{\gamma} \left(\frac{t-xv/c^2}{\gamma} + \left(\frac{x-vt}{\gamma} \right) \frac{v}{c^2} \right) \right) &= \left(\frac{x-xv^2/c^2}{\gamma^2}, \frac{t-tv^2/c^2}{\gamma^2} \right) \\
 &= \left(\frac{x\gamma^2}{\gamma^2}, \frac{t\gamma^2}{\gamma^2} \right) \\
 &= (x, t)
 \end{aligned}$$

Since \mathcal{L}_v is a linear function and has a left inverse \mathcal{L}_{-v} , the right inverse must also be \mathcal{L}_{-v} . \square

Definition 6. The *worldline* of an object or person is $L = \{x(t), y(t), z(t) \mid t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ where $(x(t), y(t), z(t))$ is the parameterization of the path of the object or person with respect to time t .

In our notation, when O_i and O_j are inertial observers, $L_{i,j}$ will represent the worldline of O_i according to O_j .

Now suppose we have 3 inertial observers, O_1 , O_2 , and O_3 . Suppose O_2 is moving at velocity v with respect to O_1 and that O_3 is moving at velocity w with respect to O_2 in the same direction. How fast is O_3 moving with respect to O_1 ? (Note that we are taught at an early age the answer is $v+w$, but we will see this is not true.)

Assume all three observers met at $t=0$. The worldline of O_3 according to O_2 is $L_{3,2} = \{(wt, t) \mid t \in \mathbb{R}\}$. Applying the Lorentz Transformation \mathcal{L}_{-v} to a general point on $L_{3,2}$ will give a general point on the worldline $L_{3,1}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_{-v}(wt, t) &= \left(\frac{wt + vt}{\gamma_{-v}}, \frac{t - wt(-v)/c^2}{\gamma_{-v}} \right) \\ &= \left(\frac{t(w+v)}{\gamma_{-v}}, \frac{t(1+vw/c^2)}{\gamma_{-v}} \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{So } L_{3,1} = \left\{ \left(\frac{t(w+v)}{\gamma_{-v}}, \frac{t(1+vw/c^2)}{\gamma_{-v}} \right) \mid t \in \mathbb{R} \right\}.$$

Since $d=rt$, the velocity of O_3 with respect to O_1 is

$$\begin{aligned} r &= \frac{d}{t} \\ &= \frac{\frac{t(w+v)}{\gamma_{-v}}}{\frac{t(1+vw/c^2)}{\gamma_{-v}}} \\ &= \frac{t(w+v)}{t(1+vw/c^2)} \\ &= \frac{w+v}{1+vw/c^2} \end{aligned}$$

Definition 7. Let $G = \{v \in \mathbb{R} \mid -c < v < c\}$ and define $\oplus : G \times G \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$,

$$v \oplus w = \frac{w+v}{1 + \frac{wv}{c^2}}$$

Theorem 2. G is closed under \oplus .

Proof. Fix $w \in G$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial v} \frac{w+v}{1 + \frac{wv}{c^2}} &= \frac{1 + \frac{wv}{c^2} - (w+v) \frac{w}{c^2}}{\left(1 + \frac{wv}{c^2}\right)^2} \\ &= \frac{1 + \frac{wv}{c^2} - \frac{w^2}{c^2} - \frac{wv}{c^2}}{\left(1 + \frac{wv}{c^2}\right)^2} \\ &= \frac{1 - \frac{w^2}{c^2}}{\left(1 + \frac{wv}{c^2}\right)^2} \end{aligned}$$

For any $w, v \in G$, $1 + \frac{wv}{c^2} > 0$, and $1 - \frac{w^2}{c^2} > 0$, so

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial v} \frac{w+v}{1 + \frac{wv}{c^2}} > 0.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{v \rightarrow c} \frac{w+v}{1 + \frac{wv}{c^2}} &= \frac{w+c}{1 + \frac{wc}{c^2}} \\ &= \frac{w+c}{1 + w/c} \\ &= \frac{c(w+c)}{w+c} \\ &= c \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lim_{v \rightarrow -c} \frac{w+v}{1 + \frac{wv}{c^2}} &= \frac{w-c}{1 + \frac{w(-c)}{c^2}} \\
 &= \frac{w-c}{1 - w/c} \\
 &= \frac{-c(c-w)}{c-w} \\
 &= -c
 \end{aligned}$$

Since $\frac{w+v}{1 + \frac{wv}{c^2}}$ is increasing as a function of v , and the limits are c and $-c$,

$$v \oplus w \in G.$$

□

As an illustration of time-dilation, let's take the above worldline of $L_{3,2} = \{(wt, t) \mid t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ and apply the Lorentz Transformation \mathcal{L}_w to find O_3 's worldline according to O_3 . Because of the way we set up our Lorentz Transformations, we expect the x-coordinate in his worldline should be 0.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathcal{L}_w(wt, t) &= \left(\frac{wt - wt}{\gamma_w}, \frac{t - wt^2/c^2}{\gamma_w} \right) \\
 &= \left(0, \frac{t - t^2/c^2}{\gamma_w} \right) \\
 &= \left(0, \frac{t(1 - t/c^2)}{\gamma_w} \right) \\
 &= \left(0, \frac{t\gamma_w^2}{\gamma_w} \right) \\
 &= (0, t\gamma_w)
 \end{aligned}$$

So, $\mathcal{L}_w(L_{3,2}) = \{(0, t\gamma_w) \mid t \in \mathbb{R}\} = \{(0, t) \mid t \in \mathbb{R}\}$. We can see that O_3 's x-coordinate is indeed 0 which means that he does not see himself moving. Notice also that his time coordinate was transformed to $t\gamma_w$. The worldline of O_3 according to O_2 showed O_3 's time coordinate as t . So, each inertial observer will record a different time coordinate for the same event. In particular, when a Lorentz Transformation is applied to an event from the worldline of an inertial observer, the time coordinates will be off by a factor of γ .

Groups

The following definition is from [1].

Definition 8. Let G be a nonempty set together with a binary operation (usually called multiplication) that assigns to each ordered pair (a, b) of elements of G an element in G denoted by ab . We say G is a *group* under this operation if the following three properties are satisfied.

1. *Associativity.* The operation is associative; that is, $\forall a, b, c \in G$, $(ab)c = a(bc)$.
2. *Identity.* There is an element e (called the *identity*) in G such that $\forall a \in G$, $ae = ea = a$.
3. *Inverses.* For each element a in G , there is an element b in G (called an *inverse* of a) such that $ab = ba = e$.

Theorem 3. Velocity addition from Definition 7 forms a group.

Proof.

(Associative law)

$$\begin{aligned}
(v \oplus w) \oplus z &= \left(\frac{w+v}{1 + \frac{wv}{c^2}} \right) \oplus z \\
&= \frac{z + \frac{w+v}{1 + \frac{wv}{c^2}}}{1 + \frac{z}{c^2} \left(\frac{w+v}{1 + \frac{wv}{c^2}} \right)} \\
&= \frac{z(1 + vw/c^2) + w + v}{1 + zw/c^2 + w + v} \\
&= \frac{z(w+v) + c^2(1 + vw/c^2)}{c^2(1 + vw/c^2)} \\
&= \frac{z(1 + vw/c^2) + w + v}{(z(w+v) + c^2(1 + vw/c^2))/c^2} \\
&= \frac{z + zwv/c^2 + w + v}{(zw + zv + c^2 + vw)/c^2} \\
&= \frac{v(1 + zw/c^2) + z + w}{(v(z+w) + c^2 + zw)/c^2}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{v(1+zw/c^2)+z+w}{(v(z+w)+c^2+zw)/c^2} &= \frac{\frac{v(1+zw/c^2)}{1+zw/c^2} + \frac{z+w}{1+zw/c^2}}{\frac{v+w}{c^2(1+zw/c^2)} + \frac{c^2+zw}{c^2(1+zw/c^2)}} \\
 &= \frac{v + \frac{z+w}{1+zw/c^2}}{1 + \frac{v}{c^2} \left(\frac{z+w}{1+zw/c^2} \right)} \\
 &= v \oplus \left(\frac{z+w}{1+zw/c^2} \right) \\
 &= v \oplus (w \oplus z)
 \end{aligned}$$

(Identity Element)

$$\begin{aligned}
 v \oplus 0 &= \frac{0+v}{1+\frac{0v}{c^2}} \\
 &= \frac{v}{1} \\
 &= v \\
 0 \oplus v &= \frac{v+0}{1+\frac{v0}{c^2}} \\
 &= \frac{v}{1} \\
 &= v
 \end{aligned}$$

(Inverses)

$$\begin{aligned}
 v \oplus (-v) &= \frac{-v+v}{1+v(-v)/c^2} \\
 &= \frac{0}{1-v^2/c^2} \\
 &= 0
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 -v \oplus v &= \frac{v + (-v)}{1 + (-v)v/c^2} \\
 &= \frac{0}{1 - v^2/c^2} \\
 &= 0
 \end{aligned}$$

Velocity addition (in \mathbb{R}) is associative, has an identity (namely 0), and each element v has an inverse (namely $-v$) so it does form a group.

We note that $\mathcal{L}_v \mathcal{L}_w = \mathcal{L}_{v \oplus w}$ and we know that the composition of functions is associative, so this provides a simpler way to show associativity of velocity addition. \square

Definition 9. The *Special Orthogonal Group* (the set of all n -dimensional rotation matrices) is

$$SO_n(\mathbb{R}) = \{R \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}) \mid R^T R = I_n, \det(R) = 1\}$$

Theorem 4. (SO_n , matrix multiplication) forms a group.

Proof. Let $A, B, C \in SO_n$.

(Closure)

$$\begin{aligned}
 (AB)^T (AB) &= B^T A^T AB \\
 &= B^T IB \\
 &= I
 \end{aligned}$$

(Associativity)

It is a well known fact that matrix multiplication is associative.

(Identity)

Using the identity matrix I_n , $I_n^T I_n = I_n I_n = I_n$, and $\det(I_n) = 1$ so $I_n \in SO_n$.

$$AI_n = I_n A = A$$

(Inverse)

$\det(A) = 1$ so A^{-1} exists.

$$\begin{aligned}
 A^T A &= I_n \\
 (A^T)^{-1} A^T A &= (A^T)^{-1} I_n \\
 A &= (A^T)^{-1} I_n \\
 AA^{-1} &= (A^T)^{-1} I_n A^{-1} \\
 I_n &= (A^T)^{-1} I_n A^{-1} \\
 I_n &= (A^T)^{-1} A^{-1} \\
 I_n &= (A^{-1})^T A^{-1}
 \end{aligned}$$

Additionally, $A^{-1} = A^T$. We also know $\det(A^{-1}) = \frac{1}{\det A} = 1$. So,
 $A^{-1} \in SO_n$. □

Definition 10. The *Lorentz Group* in $n-1$ spatial dimensions, where $n \geq 2$, is

$$L_n = \{A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}) \mid A^T V A = V, \det(A) = 1, A_{n,n} > 0\}$$

where V is a diagonal matrix with diagonal entries of 1 except $V_{n,n} = -c^2$.

Theorem 5. $(L_n, \text{matrix multiplication})$ forms a group.

Proof. Let $A, B, C \in L = L_n$

(Closure)

$$\begin{aligned}
 (AB)^T V (AB) &= B^T A^T V A B \\
 &= B^T V B \\
 &= V
 \end{aligned}$$

Also, $\det(AB) = \det A \cdot \det B = 1 \cdot 1 = 1$. Since $B \in L$ we know that the last column must satisfy the equation

$$b_{1,n}^2 + \dots + b_{n-1,n}^2 - c^2 b_{n,n}^2 = -c^2 \tag{1}$$

To see if the last entry of AB is positive, it will help to know an equation that the last row of A satisfies. We know

$$\begin{aligned}
 A^T V A &= V \\
 A^T V A V^{-1} &= I \\
 V A V^{-1} &= A^{-T} \\
 V A V^{-1} A^T &= I \\
 A V^{-1} A^T &= V^{-1}
 \end{aligned}$$

So we know the last row of A must satisfy

$$a_{n,1}^2 + \dots + a_{n,n-1}^2 - \frac{1}{c^2} a_{n,n}^2 = -\frac{1}{c^2} \quad (2)$$

Rewriting these equations gives us $b_{1,n}^2 + \dots + b_{n-1,n}^2 = c^2(b_{n,n}^2 - 1)$

and $a_{n,1}^2 + \dots + a_{n,n-1}^2 = \frac{1}{c^2}(a_{n,n}^2 - 1)$. Let $\vec{a}' = \langle a_{n,1}, \dots, a_{n,n-1} \rangle$ and

$\vec{b}' = \langle b_{1,n}, \dots, b_{n-1,n} \rangle$. Using the Cauchy-Schwartz inequality, we have

$$\begin{aligned} |\vec{a}' \cdot \vec{b}'| &\leq \|\vec{a}'\| \|\vec{b}'\| \\ &= \sqrt{1/c^2(a_{n,n}^2 - 1)} \sqrt{c^2(b_{n,n}^2 - 1)} \\ &= \sqrt{(a_{n,n}^2 - 1)(b_{n,n}^2 - 1)} \\ &\leq \sqrt{a_{n,n}^2 b_{n,n}^2} \\ &= a_{n,n} b_{n,n} \end{aligned}$$

So, $(AB)_{n,n} > 0$ which means $AB \in L$.

(Associativity)

It is a well known fact that matrix multiplication is associative.

(Identity)

Using the matrix identity $I, I^T VI = IVI = V$, and $\det(I) = 1$ so

$I \in L$.

$$AI = IA = A$$

(Inverse)

$\det(A) = 1$ so A^{-1} exists. Let $B = A^{-1}$.

$$A^T VA = V$$

$$(A^T)^{-1} A^T VA = (A^T)^{-1} V$$

$$VA = (A^T)^{-1} V$$

$$VAA^{-1} = (A^T)^{-1} VA^{-1}$$

$$V = (A^T)^{-1} VA^{-1}$$

$$V = (A^{-1})^T VA^{-1}$$

$$V = B^T VB$$

Using equation (2), we know that the last row in A must satisfy

$a_{n,1}^2 + \dots + a_{n,n-1}^2 - \frac{1}{c^2} a_{n,n}^2 = -\frac{1}{c^2}$. We also know from (2) that the last

column of A^{-1} must satisfy $b_{1,n}^2 + \dots + b_{n-1,n}^2 - c^2 b_{n,n}^2 = -c^2$. So, let $\vec{a}' = \langle a_{n,1}, \dots, a_{n,n-1} \rangle$ and $\vec{b}' = \langle b_{1,n}, \dots, b_{n-1,n} \rangle$. Then we know

$$\begin{aligned} |\vec{a}' \cdot \vec{b}'| &\leq |\vec{a}'| |\vec{b}'| \\ &= \sqrt{1/c^2 (a_{n,n}^2 - 1)} \sqrt{c^2 (b_{n,n}^2 - 1)} \\ &= \sqrt{(a_{n,n}^2 - 1)(b_{n,n}^2 - 1)} \\ &\leq \sqrt{a_{n,n}^2 b_{n,n}^2} \\ &= a_{n,n} |b_{n,n}| \end{aligned}$$

Now, we know that $a_{n,1} b_{1,n} + \dots + a_{n,n-1} b_{n-1,n} + a_{n,n} b_{n,n} = 1$. Knowing that $a_{n,1} b_{1,n} + \dots + a_{n,n-1} b_{n-1,n} \leq a_{n,n} |b_{n,n}|$ and that $a_{n,n} > 0$ we see that $b_{n,n} > 0$ because if $b_{n,n} \leq 0$ then

$$a_{n,1} b_{1,n} + \dots + a_{n,n-1} b_{n-1,n} + a_{n,n} b_{n,n} \text{ would be at most } 0. \text{ Also, we}$$

know that $\det(A^{-1}) = \frac{1}{\det(A)} = 1$, so $A^{-1} \in L$. \square

Gyrogroups

To see where the first examples of gyrogroups came from, let's start by choosing \vec{v} to be a velocity vector in \mathbb{R}^3 such that $|\vec{v}| < c$. Then we wish to define a function $\mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}} : \mathbb{R}^4 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^4$.

In our 1-dimensional case, all motion was along was the x-axis. So, in \mathbb{R}^3 if the motion is along the x-axis, the \hat{i} component is the one that changes, while the \hat{j} and \hat{k} components do not change. Therefore, we have the following special cases where $v = |\vec{v}|$ and $\gamma = \gamma_v$:

- $\mathcal{L}_{v\hat{i}} : (x, y, z, t) \mapsto \left(\frac{x - vt}{\gamma}, y, z, \frac{t - xv/c^2}{\gamma} \right)$
- $\mathcal{L}_{v\hat{j}} : (x, y, z, t) \mapsto \left(x, \frac{y - vt}{\gamma}, z, \frac{t - yv/c^2}{\gamma} \right)$
- $\mathcal{L}_{v\hat{k}} : (x, y, z, t) \mapsto \left(x, y, \frac{z - vt}{\gamma}, \frac{t - zv/c^2}{\gamma} \right)$

What if our velocity vector \vec{v} points in a more general direction? Well, we know that physics does not care which way we orientate our coordinate axes. So, we could imagine that the direction of \vec{v} is the direction of our positive x-axis. Well, then we have a formula for that Lorentz Transformation. It is our special case transformation in the \hat{i} direction. Now that we understand the physics, we need to look at it mathematically. We can rotate any vector in \mathbb{R}^3 to point in any direction we wish, so, let's rotate \vec{v} to point in the \hat{i} direction. This rotation is equivalent to doing a change of basis of one coordinate system with respect to another. Notice that our Lorentz Transformation is a function from $\mathbb{R}^4 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^4$, but our rotation is a function from $\mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$. We can compensate for this by having our rotation map $\mathbb{R}^4 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^4$; we will just leave the fourth parameter, time, untouched. We will call this a *spatial rotation*.

Definition 11. Let $R_{\vec{v}} \in SO_4(\mathbb{R})$ be a spatial rotation satisfying

$R_{\vec{v}}(\hat{i}) = \frac{\vec{v}}{|\vec{v}|}$. Then, the general Lorentz Transformation is a composition,

$$\mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}} = R_{\vec{v}} \mathcal{L}_{\frac{\vec{v}}{|\vec{v}|}} R_{\vec{v}}^{-1}$$

Where $\mathcal{L}_{\frac{\vec{v}}{|\vec{v}|}}$ is our special case Lorentz Transformation in the \hat{i} direction.

Notice that even though $R_{\vec{v}}$ is not uniquely determined by \vec{v} , nevertheless $\mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}}$ is well defined.

As an example of our Lorentz Transformations, let's take a vector $\vec{v} = \langle 0, v, 0 \rangle$ and apply our general Lorentz Transformation from definition 11. First we need a rotation that will take \hat{i} to the direction of \vec{v} . We find that one such rotation is

$$R_{\vec{v}} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Since $R_{\vec{v}} \in SO_4(\mathbb{R})$, we know that $R_{\vec{v}}^T = R_{\vec{v}}^{-1}$. Now,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}} &= R_{\vec{v}} \mathcal{L}_{\hat{i}} R_{\vec{v}}^{-1} \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\gamma} & 0 & 0 & \frac{-v}{\gamma} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \frac{-v}{\gamma c^2} & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{\gamma} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{\gamma} & 0 & 0 & \frac{-v}{\gamma} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \frac{-v}{\gamma c^2} & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{\gamma} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\gamma} & 0 & \frac{-v}{\gamma} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \frac{-v}{\gamma c^2} & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{\gamma} \end{pmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

Now, looking at our special case $\mathcal{L}_{\hat{i}}$, we see that our vector is transformed the same as when we use our general Lorentz Transformation formula.

Theorem 6. If $A \in L_3$, then $A = R_1 \mathcal{L}_{\hat{i}} R_2$ for some spatial rotations $R_1, R_2 \in SO_3(\mathbb{R})$ and some $v \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof. Given $A \in L_3$, let's left multiply A by $R_{\vec{v}}$ where \vec{v} is the first two entries of the third column of A and $R_{\vec{v}}$ rotates \hat{i} to the direction of \vec{v} . We know that $R_{\vec{v}}$ must have its last row and column all zeros except the bottom right corner must have a 1 to preserve time. This gives

$$\begin{aligned}
 A'' &= R_{\bar{v}} A \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} ? & ? & 0 \\ ? & ? & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} ? & ? & ? \\ ? & ? & ? \\ ? & ? & ? \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} ? & ? & ? \\ ? & ? & 0 \\ ? & ? & ? \end{pmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

Now, in our new matrix, let's call \bar{w} the first two entries of the third row of A . We can now right multiply A'' by the transpose of the rotation that takes \bar{w} to the \hat{i} direction. Because we still need to preserve time, this rotation will leave our last column untouched.

$$\begin{aligned}
 A' &= A'' R_{\bar{w}} \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} ? & ? & ? \\ ? & ? & ? \\ ? & ? & ? \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} ? & ? & 0 \\ ? & ? & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} ? & ? & ? \\ ? & ? & 0 \\ ? & 0 & ? \end{pmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

Let's start by naming our unknowns. This gives

$$A' = \begin{pmatrix} a & b & d \\ e & f & 0 \\ g & 0 & h \end{pmatrix}$$

Since $A, R_{\bar{v}}, R_{\bar{w}} \in L$, we know $A' \in L$, so $A'^T V A' = V$ where V is as in Definition 10. So,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -c^2 \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} a & e & g \\ b & f & 0 \\ d & 0 & h \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -c^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b & d \\ e & f & 0 \\ g & 0 & h \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} a & e & -gc^2 \\ b & f & 0 \\ d & 0 & -hc^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b & d \\ e & f & 0 \\ g & 0 & h \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} a^2 + e^2 - g^2c^2 & ab + ef & ad - ghc^2 \\ ab + ef & b^2 + f^2 & bd \\ ad - ghc^2 & bd & d^2 - h^2c^2 \end{pmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

We also know the determinant of A' must be one. This gives the following equations.

$$a^2 + e^2 - g^2c^2 = 1 \quad (3)$$

$$ab + ef = 0 \quad (4)$$

$$ad - ghc^2 = 0 \quad (5)$$

$$b^2 + f^2 = 1 \quad (6)$$

$$bd = 0 \quad (7)$$

$$d^2 - h^2c^2 = -c^2 \quad (8)$$

$$afh - beh - dfg = 1 \quad (9)$$

By **Error! Reference source not found.** we know either $b=0$ or $d=0$. We will start with the case $b=0$. We know by **Error! Reference source not found.** that $f = \pm 1$ so $e=0$ by **Error! Reference source not found.** Now, if $h=0$, then by **Error! Reference source not found.** $d^2 = -c^2$ so $d \in \mathbb{C} - \mathbb{R}$, but $d \in \mathbb{R}$ so $h \neq 0$. Let $v = \frac{-d}{h}$ and let $\gamma = \frac{1}{h}$. Then $d = \frac{-v}{\gamma}$ and $h = \frac{1}{\gamma}$. By

Error! Reference source not found. we know

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{v^2}{\gamma^2} - \frac{c^2}{\gamma^2} &= -c^2 \\ v^2 - c^2 &= -c^2 \gamma^2 \\ \gamma^2 &= 1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2} \\ \gamma &= \pm \sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}\end{aligned}$$

Since $h \geq 0$ by definition, $\gamma = \sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}$.

Solving **Error! Reference source not found.** and

Error! Reference source not found. simultaneously gives $g = \mp \frac{v}{\gamma c^2}$ and

$a = \pm \frac{1}{\gamma}$. Using our determinant equation

Error! Reference source not found. we find the following.

$$A' = \begin{pmatrix} \pm \frac{1}{\gamma} & 0 & \frac{-v}{\gamma} \\ 0 & \pm 1 & 0 \\ \mp \frac{v}{\gamma c^2} & 0 & \frac{1}{\gamma} \end{pmatrix}$$

Multiplying by a rotation matrix in $SO_3(\mathbb{R})$ we get

$$\begin{pmatrix} \pm \frac{1}{\gamma} & 0 & \frac{-v}{\gamma} \\ 0 & \pm 1 & 0 \\ \mp \frac{v}{\gamma c^2} & 0 & \frac{1}{\gamma} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \pm 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \pm 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\gamma} & 0 & \frac{-v}{\gamma} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \frac{-v}{\gamma c^2} & 0 & \frac{1}{\gamma} \end{pmatrix} = \mathcal{L}_{\hat{v}_i}.$$

Now for the case when $d = 0$. We know from **Error! Reference source not found.** that $h = \pm 1$ and then from **Error! Reference source not found.** we see $g = 0$. But, by definition, $h \geq 0$ so $h = 1$. If

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & e \\ b & f \end{pmatrix}$$

is a rotation, then we should have the following equations.

$$a^2 + e^2 = 1$$

$$ab + ef = 0$$

$$b^2 + f^2 = 1$$

$$af - be = 1$$

These correspond to **Error! Reference source not found., Error! Reference source not found., Error! Reference source not found., and Error! Reference source not found.** respectively. This gives a matrix that is a spatial rotation matrix. \square

Corollary 1. If $A \in L_3$, then $A = \mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}}R$ for some $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2, R \in SO_3$.

Proof. Let $A \in L_3$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} A &= R_1 \mathcal{L}_{\hat{v}_i} R_2 \text{ for some } v \in \mathbb{R}, R_1, R_2 \in SO_3(\mathbb{R}) \text{ by Theorem 6} \\ &= (R_1 \mathcal{L}_{\hat{v}_i} R_1^{-1})(R_1 R_2). \end{aligned}$$

Let $\vec{v} = vR_1^{-1}\hat{i}$. Then we can see that $R_1(\vec{v}) = |\vec{v}| \hat{i}$ so $R_1 = R_{\vec{v}}$. So,

$$\begin{aligned} A &= (R_1 \mathcal{L}_{\hat{v}_i} R_1^{-1})(R_1 R_2) \\ &= \mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}}R \text{ where } R = R_1 R_2. \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

Theorem 7. The decomposition $A = \mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}}R$ in Corollary 1 is unique.

Proof. Assume $\exists \vec{v}, \vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^2, R_1, R_2 \in SO_3$ such that $\mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}}R_1 = \mathcal{L}_{\vec{w}}R_2$.

Then $\mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}} = \mathcal{L}_{\vec{w}}R_2R_1^{-1}$. Let $R_3 = R_2R_1^{-1}$. Then $\mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}} = \mathcal{L}_{\vec{w}}R_3$. So, we know

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ t \end{pmatrix} &= R_{\vec{v}} \mathcal{L}_{|\vec{v}| \hat{i}} R_{\vec{v}}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ t \end{pmatrix} \\
&= R_{\vec{v}} \mathcal{L}_{|\vec{v}| \hat{i}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ t \end{pmatrix} \\
&= R_{\vec{v}} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{-vt}{\gamma_{|\vec{v}|}} \\ \gamma_{|\vec{v}|} \\ 0 \\ t \\ \gamma_{|\vec{v}|} \end{pmatrix} \\
&= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{-\vec{v}t}{\gamma_{|\vec{v}|}} \\ \gamma_{|\vec{v}|} \\ t \\ \gamma_{|\vec{v}|} \end{pmatrix} \\
&= \frac{t}{\gamma_{|\vec{v}|}} \begin{pmatrix} \vec{v} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}
\end{aligned}$$

We also know

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{L}_{\vec{w}} R_3 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ t \end{pmatrix} &= \mathcal{L}_{\vec{w}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ t \end{pmatrix} \\
&= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{-\vec{w}t}{\gamma_{|\vec{w}|}} \\ \gamma_{|\vec{w}|} \\ t \\ \gamma_{|\vec{w}|} \end{pmatrix} \\
&= \frac{t}{\gamma_{|\vec{w}|}} \begin{pmatrix} -\vec{w} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}
\end{aligned}$$

So, we can see that

$$\mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ t \end{pmatrix} = \mathcal{L}_{\vec{w}} R_3 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ t \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{-\vec{v}t}{\gamma_{|\vec{v}|}} \\ \frac{t}{\gamma_{|\vec{v}|}} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{-\vec{w}t}{\gamma_{|\vec{w}|}} \\ \frac{t}{\gamma_{|\vec{w}|}} \end{pmatrix}$$

If two matrices are equal, they must have the same dimensions and the corresponding entries must be equal. This gives us $\frac{t}{\gamma_{|\vec{v}|}} = \frac{t}{\gamma_{|\vec{w}|}}$. We also

know that $\frac{-\vec{v}t}{\gamma_{|\vec{v}|}} = \frac{-\vec{w}t}{\gamma_{|\vec{w}|}}$. So we know $\vec{v} = \vec{w}$. Now, we can say

$$\mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}} R_1 = \mathcal{L}_{\vec{w}} R_2$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}} R_1 = \mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}} R_2$$

So, since $\mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}}$ is invertible, $R_1 = R_2$. □

Definition 12. A *groupoid* is a set with a binary operation.

Definition 13. The groupoid (G_n, \oplus) is defined as $G_n = \{\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid |\vec{v}| < c\}$ and $\vec{v} \oplus \vec{w} = \vec{z}$ where $\mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}} \mathcal{L}_{\vec{w}} = \mathcal{L}_{\vec{z}} R$. We also denote this unique R by $R_{\vec{v}, \vec{w}}$.

Theorem 8. If we have (G_n, \oplus) as in Definition 13 and $a, b, c \in G_n$ and $a \oplus b = a \oplus c$ then $b = c$. This is called the *Left Cancellation Law*.

Proof. Since $a \oplus b = a \oplus c$,

$$\mathcal{L}_{a \oplus b} = \mathcal{L}_{a \oplus c} \tag{10}$$

$$\mathcal{L}_a \mathcal{L}_b = \mathcal{L}_{a \oplus b} R_{a,b} \tag{11}$$

$$\mathcal{L}_a \mathcal{L}_c = \mathcal{L}_{a \oplus c} R_{a,c} \tag{12}$$

Substituting (10) into (11) gives $\mathcal{L}_a \mathcal{L}_b = \mathcal{L}_{a \oplus c} R_{a,b}$. We can now solve for $\mathcal{L}_{a \oplus c}$ and substitute the solution into (12). This gives

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}_a \mathcal{L}_c &= \mathcal{L}_a \mathcal{L}_b R_{a,b}^{-1} R_{a,c} \\ \mathcal{L}_c &= \mathcal{L}_b R_{a,b}^{-1} R_{a,c} \\ \mathcal{L}_c R_{a,c}^{-1} &= \mathcal{L}_b R_{a,b}^{-1}\end{aligned}$$

By Theorem 7 we know $b = c$. □

The following definition is from [3.]

Definition 14. A groupoid (G, \oplus) is a *gyrogroup* if its binary operation satisfies the following axioms.

1. In G , there is at least one element, 0 , called a left identity, satisfying

$$0 \oplus a = a$$

for all $a \in G$.

2. There is an element $0 \in G$ satisfying axiom 1 such that for each $a \in G$, there is an element $-a \in G$, called a left inverse of a , satisfying

$$-a \oplus a = 0$$

3. Moreover, for any $a, b, z \in G$, there exists a unique element $\text{gyr}[a, b]z \in G$ such that

$$a \oplus (b \oplus z) = (a \oplus b) \oplus \text{gyr}[a, b]z$$

This is called the *Left Gyroassociative Law*.

4. If $\text{gyr}[a, b]$ denotes the map $\text{gyr}[a, b]: G \rightarrow G$ given by $z \mapsto \text{gyr}[a, b]z$ then

$$\text{gyr}[a, b] \in \text{Aut}(G, \oplus)$$

And $\text{gyr}[a, b]$ is called the *Thomas gyration*, or the gyroautomorphism of G , generated by $a, b \in G$. The operation $\text{gyr}: G \times G \rightarrow \text{Aut}(G, \oplus)$ is called the gyroöperation of G .

5. The gyroautomorphism $\text{gyr}[a, b]$ generated by any $a, b \in G$ satisfies

$$\text{gyr}[a, b] = \text{gyr}[a \oplus b, b]$$

This is called the *Left Loop Property*.

Theorem 9. The groupoid (G_n, \oplus) from Definition 13 forms a gyrogroup.

Proof. Let $\vec{u}, \vec{v}, \vec{w} \in G_n$.

(axiom 1)

We know $\mathcal{L}_{\vec{0}} = I$ so $\mathcal{L}_{\vec{0}}\mathcal{L}_{\vec{w}} = \mathcal{L}_{\vec{w}}$ so $\vec{0} \oplus \vec{w} = \vec{w}$.

(axiom 2)

Let $R_{-\hat{i}}$ be a rotation such that $-\hat{i} \mapsto \hat{i}$ and $-\vec{w} \mapsto \vec{w}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathcal{L}_{-\vec{w}}\mathcal{L}_{\vec{w}} &= R_{-\vec{w}}\mathcal{L}_{|\vec{w}|}\hat{R}_{-\vec{w}}^{-1}R_{-\vec{w}}\mathcal{L}_{|\vec{w}|}\hat{R}_{-\vec{w}}^{-1} \\
 &= R_{\vec{w}}R_{-\hat{i}}\mathcal{L}_{|\vec{w}|}\hat{R}_{-\hat{i}}^{-1}R_{\vec{w}}^{-1}R_{\vec{w}}\mathcal{L}_{|\vec{w}|}\hat{R}_{\vec{w}}^{-1} \\
 &= R_{\vec{w}}R_{-\hat{i}}\mathcal{L}_{|\vec{w}|}\hat{R}_{-\hat{i}}^{-1}\mathcal{L}_{|\vec{w}|}\hat{R}_{\vec{w}}^{-1} \\
 &= R_{\vec{w}}\mathcal{L}_{-|\vec{w}|}\mathcal{L}_{|\vec{w}|}\hat{R}_{\vec{w}}^{-1} \\
 &= R_{\vec{w}}R_{\vec{w}}^{-1} \\
 &= I
 \end{aligned}$$

(axiom 3)

We know that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathcal{L}_{\vec{a}}(\mathcal{L}_{\vec{b}}\mathcal{L}_{\vec{z}}) &= \mathcal{L}_{\vec{a}}(\mathcal{L}_{\vec{b} \oplus \vec{z}}R_{\vec{b}, \vec{z}}) \\
 &= \mathcal{L}_{\vec{a}}\mathcal{L}_{\vec{b} \oplus \vec{z}}R_{\vec{b}, \vec{z}} \\
 &= \mathcal{L}_{\vec{a} \oplus (\vec{b} \oplus \vec{z})}R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b} \oplus \vec{z}}R_{\vec{b}, \vec{z}}
 \end{aligned}$$

We also know

$$\begin{aligned}
 (\mathcal{L}_{\vec{a}}\mathcal{L}_{\vec{b}})\mathcal{L}_{\vec{z}} &= (\mathcal{L}_{\vec{a} \oplus \vec{b}}R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}})\mathcal{L}_{\vec{z}} \\
 &= \mathcal{L}_{\vec{a} \oplus \vec{b}}R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}}\mathcal{L}_{\vec{z}}
 \end{aligned}$$

Then we know

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathcal{L}_{\vec{a} \oplus (\vec{b} \oplus \vec{z})}R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b} \oplus \vec{z}}R_{\vec{b}, \vec{z}} &= \mathcal{L}_{\vec{a} \oplus \vec{b}}R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}}\mathcal{L}_{\vec{z}} \\
 &= \mathcal{L}_{\vec{a} \oplus \vec{b}}(R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}}\mathcal{L}_{\vec{z}}R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}}^{-1})R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}} \\
 &= \mathcal{L}_{\vec{a} \oplus \vec{b}}(R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}}R_{\vec{z}}\mathcal{L}_{|\vec{z}|}\hat{R}_{\vec{z}}^{-1}R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}}^{-1})R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}}
 \end{aligned}$$

Now, we want to know what Lorentz Transformation $R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}}\mathcal{L}_{\vec{z}}R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}}^{-1}$ gives us. So, we solve $R_{\vec{z}}^{-1}R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}}^{-1}\vec{w} = |\vec{z}| \hat{i}$ and we find that $\vec{w} = R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}}\vec{z}$. So,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathcal{L}_{\vec{a} \oplus \vec{b}}(R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}}\mathcal{L}_{\vec{z}}R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}}^{-1})R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}} &= \mathcal{L}_{\vec{a} \oplus \vec{b}}\mathcal{L}_{R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}}\vec{z}}R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}} \\
 &= \mathcal{L}_{(\vec{a} \oplus \vec{b}) \oplus R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}}\vec{z}}(R_{(\vec{a} \oplus \vec{b}), R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}}\vec{z}}R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}})
 \end{aligned}$$

So we know that $\vec{a} \oplus (\vec{b} \oplus \vec{z}) = (\vec{a} \oplus b) \oplus R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}} \vec{z}$ and $R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b} \oplus \vec{z}} R_{\vec{b}, \vec{z}} = R_{(\vec{a} \oplus b), R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}} \vec{z}} R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}}$ by Theorem 7, and we see that we should take $\text{gyr}[a, b] = R_{\vec{a}, \vec{b}}$.

To show that $\text{gyr}[a, b]z$ is unique, we will show that if $\exists S \in G$ such that $a \oplus (b \oplus z) = (a \oplus b) \oplus S = (a \oplus b) \oplus \text{gyr}[a, b]z$ then $S = \text{gyr}[a, b]z$. Since $(a \oplus b) \oplus S = (a \oplus b) \oplus \text{gyr}[a, b]z$ we can use the Left Cancellation Law of Theorem 8 to say $S = \text{gyr}[a, b]z$. (axiom 4)

To show that $\text{gyr}[a, b] \in \text{Aut}(G, \oplus)$ we must show $\text{gyr}[a, b]$ is a bijection and satisfies $\text{gyr}[a, b](x \oplus y) = \text{gyr}[a, b]x \oplus \text{gyr}[a, b]y$.

Clearly, $\text{gyr}[a, b]$ is a bijection because it is a spatial rotation. Let $x, y \in G$. We can see that $\mathcal{L}_{R_{a,b}x} \mathcal{L}_{R_{a,b}y} = \mathcal{L}_{R_{a,b}x \oplus R_{a,b}y} R_{R_{a,b}x, R_{a,b}y}$. Noting that $R_{R_{a,b}x} = R_{a,b} R_x$, we can also see that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_{R_{a,b}x} \mathcal{L}_{R_{a,b}y} &= R_{R_{a,b}x} \mathcal{L}_{|x| \hat{i}} R_{R_{a,b}x}^{-1} R_{R_{a,b}y} \mathcal{L}_{|y| \hat{i}} R_{R_{a,b}y}^{-1} \\ &= R_{a,b} R_x \mathcal{L}_{|x| \hat{i}} R_x^{-1} R_{a,b}^{-1} R_{a,b} R_y \mathcal{L}_{|y| \hat{i}} R_y^{-1} R_{a,b}^{-1} \\ &= R_{a,b} \mathcal{L}_x R_{a,b}^{-1} R_{a,b} \mathcal{L}_y R_{a,b}^{-1} \\ &= R_{a,b} \mathcal{L}_x \mathcal{L}_y R_{a,b}^{-1} \\ &= R_{a,b} \mathcal{L}_{x \oplus y} R_{x,y} R_{a,b}^{-1} \\ &= R_{a,b} \mathcal{L}_{x \oplus y} R_{a,b}^{-1} R_{a,b} R_{x,y} R_{a,b}^{-1} \\ &= \mathcal{L}_{R_{a,b}(x \oplus y)} R_{a,b} R_{x,y} R_{a,b}^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

So, by Theorem 7, we see that $R_{a,b}x \oplus R_{a,b}y = R_{a,b}(x \oplus y)$ so $\text{gyr}[a, b] \in \text{Aut}(G, \oplus)$. (axiom 5)

This can be proven using the definitions of \oplus and $\text{gyr}[a, b]$ and a computer algebra system such as Maple© version 7. \square

Works Cited

[1] Gallian, Joseph A. *Contemporary Abstract Algebra*. 5th Edition. New York, NY: Houghton Mifflin Company, 2002.

[2] Smith, Jonathan and Abraham Ungar. "Abstract space-times and their Lorentz groups." *Journal of Mathematics and Physics*. 37(6), June 1996: (3073-3098).

[3] Ungar, Abraham A. *Beyond the Einstein Addition Law and its Gyroscopic Thomas Precession*. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 2001.

[4] Ungar, Abraham A. "Midpoints in gyrogroups." *Foundations of Physics*. 26 (10) October 1996: (1277-1328).