The multivector approach to differential geometry: a simpler foundation for general relativity

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OVERVIEW

How can Clifford algebra (aka "multivector algebra" or "geometric algebra") be applied to simplify GR?

WARNING: This is a math talk. It is about the *mathematical foundations* of GR, not about GR itself.

Based on arxiv:1911.07145 in math.DG.

J. Schindler. *Geometric Manifolds Part I: The Directional Derivative of Scalar, Vector, Multivector, and Tensor Fields.* 2019.

Contents

- ► Introduction to Clifford algebra
- Some applications in physics
- Application to differential geometry

Introduction to Clifford algebra

CLIFFORD'S "GEOMETRIC ALGEBRA"

- ► Clifford himself called his algebra *Geometric Algebra* (GA).
- Familiar as the algebra of σ_i and γ_{μ} , which are matrix representations of GA(3) and GA(3, 1) respectively.
- ▶ But, more useful to do GA *without* matrix rep.

GA is much more broadly applicable than often recognized: it is the algebra of vectors in physical space.

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MOTIVATION: A SIMPLE QUESTION

How do you define the angular momentum $L=\vec{r}\times\vec{p}$ in N dimensions?



L is a plane, not a (pseudo-)vector!

Only in 3d a plane defines a unique normal vector.

Similarly, what is the nature of the magnetic field?

2+1d	4+1d
$F = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & E_1 & E_2 \\ & 0 & B_1 \\ & & 0 \end{pmatrix}$	$F = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & E_1 & E_2 & E_3 & E_4 \\ & 0 & B_1 & B_2 & B_3 \\ & & 0 & B_4 & B_5 \\ & & & 0 & B_6 \\ & & & & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
B has 1 component	B has 6 components

\boldsymbol{B} is a bivector, NOT a pseudovector!

Only in 3d are these equivalent.

A **Geometric Algebra** is a linear space incorporating vectors with both *dot* and *wedge* multiplication.

It is built by using a wedge product to extend a vector space with inner product. It contains exterior algebra as a subalgebra.

Its elements are called **multivectors**. These represent oriented lengths, areas, and volumes, and can be visualized much like vectors.

Start with a vector space with inner product over \mathbb{R} .



The dot product $a \cdot b$ is a scalar.

The wedge product $a \wedge b$

is a new type of object called a 2-vector (or "bivector").

The dot and wedge have all the properties you expect.

Most importantly:

 $\blacktriangleright \ a \cdot b = b \cdot a$

$$\blacktriangleright \ a \wedge b = - b \wedge a$$

$$\blacktriangleright \ a \wedge b \wedge c = (a \wedge b) \wedge c = a \wedge (b \wedge c)$$

These imply wedge antisymmetric on all swaps.

 $\begin{array}{l} GA(n,m) \\ \text{Built on } \mathbb{R}(n,m) \end{array}$

GA(2) = algebra of the plane Built on 2d Euclidean space

GA(3) =algebra of space Built on 3d Euclidean space

GA(3,1) = algebra of spacetime Built on 3+1d Minkowski space

GA(3)

GA(N) is real linear space of all k-vectors in N-dimensional space.

Grade	GA(3) Basis Elements		Name	
	•			
0	1			scalar
	⊷		~	
1	e_1	e_2	e_3	vector
	$\stackrel{\uparrow}{\longrightarrow}$	Ĵ,	\rightarrow	
2	$e_1 \wedge e_2$	$e_2 \wedge e_3$	$e_3 \wedge e_1$	bivector/pseudovector
3	$e_1 \wedge e_2 \wedge e_3$		trivector/pseudoscalar	

Oriented lengths, areas, and volumes.



Compare GA(3) to GA(2).

Grade	GA(2) Basis Elements	Name
	•	
0	1	scalar
	→ ↓	
1	$e_1 \qquad e_2$	vector/pseudovector
	\uparrow	
2	$e_1 \wedge e_2$	bivector/pseudoscalar

A multivector A is a linear combination of k-vectors.

$$A = \sum_{k} \langle A \rangle_k$$

Different grades are linearly independent—visualize a formal sum of various k-vectors.

Geometric Multiplication

Fundamental Identity of GA.

The geometric product of vectors a, b defined by

$$ab = a \cdot b + a \wedge b$$

is a scalar plus a bivector.

Associative, invertible*, non-commutative.

Implies

 $a \cdot b = (ab + ba)/2$ $a \wedge b = (ab - ba)/2.$

This combining of grades is the key step making GA extremely powerful—more powerful than tensors or differential forms.

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That was for vectors. What about multivectors?

Geometric product AB is fundamental.

Dot and wedge

$$A_j \cdot B_k = \langle AB \rangle_{k-j}$$
$$A_j \wedge B_k = \langle AB \rangle_{k+j}$$

are maximally grade raising and lowering parts (extended to general A, B by linearity).

For particle physicists' eyes only:

Matrix Rep	GA
$\gamma^{\mu}\gamma^{\nu} = g^{\mu\nu} + i\sigma^{\mu\nu}$	$ab = a \cdot b + a \wedge b$
$\frac{1}{2}\{\gamma^{\mu},\gamma^{\nu}\} = g^{\mu\nu}$	$\frac{1}{2}(ab+ba) = a \cdot b$
$\gamma^5 = i\gamma^0\gamma^1\gamma^2\gamma^3$	$I = e_0 \wedge e_1 \wedge e_2 \wedge e_3$
$\{\gamma^5,\gamma^\mu\}=0$	$I \wedge a = 0$
$\partial = \gamma^{\mu} \partial_{\mu}$	$\boldsymbol{\nabla} = e^i \nabla_{e_i}$

In flat space a **gradient operator** on multivector fields can be defined in the form

$$\nabla A = e^i \,\partial_i \,A$$

such that (using $ab = a \cdot b + a \wedge b$)

$$\nabla A = e^i \cdot \partial_i A + e^i \wedge \partial_i A$$
$$= \nabla \cdot A + \nabla \wedge A$$

generalizing the gradient, divergence, and curl of vector calculus.

There is a Fundamental Theorem of Geometric Calculus like

$$\int_{M} \boldsymbol{\nabla} F = \int_{\partial M} F$$

generalizing Stokes' theorem of differential forms, and the curl and divergence theorems of vector calculus.

- Strictly more useful than Stokes', because antiderivative exists more generally. No restriction to exact forms on M.
- ► LHS integrand has simple interpretation as gradient, unlike *d*.

Why is this framework so useful?

Applications

Direct applications to:

- Rotational motion
- ► Electrodynamics
- ► Spinors
- Complex analysis
- ► Lie algebras

Electrodynamics

Lagrangian:

Tensor calculus:	$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{4} F^{\mu\nu} F_{\mu\nu} + A^{\mu} J_{\mu}$	$F_{\mu\nu} = \nabla_{\mu}A_{\nu} - \nabla_{\nu}A_{\mu}$
Differential forms:	$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{2} F \wedge *F + A \wedge *J$	F = dA
Geometric calculus:	$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{2} F \cdot F + A \cdot J$	$F = \mathbf{\nabla} \wedge A$.

Equations of motion:

Tensor calculus:	$\nabla_{\mu}F^{\mu\nu} = J^{\nu}$	$\epsilon^{\alpha\beta\mu\nu} \nabla_{\alpha}F_{\mu\nu} = 0$
Differential forms:	d * F = *J	dF = 0
Geometric calculus:	$\boldsymbol{\nabla}\cdot F=J$	$\boldsymbol{\nabla}\wedge F=0$.

Only GA concisely expresses both metric-compatible divergence and metric-independent exterior derivative. Note metric info is in Hodge star.

Only in GA these combine to one equation

$$\nabla F = J$$

which splits into vector and trivector parts

$$\nabla \cdot F + \nabla \wedge F = J + 0$$

(1) + (3) = (1) + (3).

Not just notational improvement!

Unlike others, GA abla is invertible by integral operator so that

$$F = \nabla^{-1}J = \int dx' \ G(x, x')J(x')$$

where G is some Green's function. Relativistic E&M without A!

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In GA a **spinor** is an even-grade multivector.

 $GA(3) \iff 4$ real dof's $\iff 2$ -component complex spinor $GA(3,1) \iff 8$ real dof's $\iff 4$ -component complex spinor

Dirac's equation in this context reads (with I unit pseudoscalar)

 $\nabla \psi = m \psi I.$

Maxwell's and Dirac's equations are both equalities of multivectors, and use the same derivative!

In GA(2) write the unit pseudoscalar as $i = e_1 \wedge e_2$. Note $i^2 = -1$.

A complex number is z = x + iy for scalars x, y.

Then $\nabla F = 0$ is equivalent to the Cauchy-Riemann equations. Fund Thm of Calc \implies Residue Thm + Cauchy Integral Thm Generalizes complex analysis to N dimensions. A simple unit bivector B specifies a plane (e.g. $B = e_1 \wedge e_2$).

Since $B^2 = -1$ we have for scalar θ

$$e^{B\theta} = \cos\theta + B\sin\theta.$$

This generates rotations in the plane of B by

$$A \to e^{-B\theta/2} A e^{B\theta/2}$$

The set of bivectors in GA(n,m) forms the Lie algebra

 $\mathfrak{so}(n,m)$

under commutator product

$$[B,B'] = BB' - B'B.$$

Every Lie algebra is isomorphic to a bivector Lie algebra (since one can realize $\mathfrak{gl}(n,\mathbb{R})$ within GA(n,n)).

Bivector algebras naturally define a Lie group action on vectors.



Also includes Grassmann algebra, quaternions, and more!



GA is a natural framework for many parts of mathematical physics!

Differential geometry

How can we use GA methods in the context of GR? Need formalism for GA on smooth manifolds.

In standard Riemannian geometry one avoids introducing the metric until the last possible moment, for maximum "generality".

But including the metric from the beginning and using GA leads to much more powerful theory.

Hopefully I can convey how...

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Hopefully I can convey how...

First I'll set up some basic formalism.

- Geometric manifold
- Reciprocal bases

Then highlight some of the main new results, comparing to standard methods.

A geometric manifold is a smooth manifold with a metric.



The tangent space is extended to a **geometric tangent space** of "tangent multivectors" using the metric.

Many simplifications come from using pairs of reciprocal bases.

Given a vector basis e_i with metric coefficients

$$e_i \cdot e_j = g_{ij}$$

there exists a reciprocal basis e^i defined by

$$e^i \cdot e_j = \delta^i_j.$$

It follows that $e^i = g^{ij}e_j$.

RECIPROCAL BASES

The basis and reciprocal basis live in the same vector space!



There is no need (or reason) to introduce the dual tangent space.

Arbitrary vectors can be decomposed as

$$a = (a \cdot e^i) e_i = a^i e_i$$

or

$$a = (a \cdot e_i) e^i = a_i e^i.$$

Thus a_i and a^i are *reciprocal components* for the same vector a.

These are like covariant and contravariant components, but without the technical distinction between vectors and covectors.

Directional derivative of scalar field φ in direction of vector a.

Usually would write $a\varphi$ (or more commonly $X\varphi$).

Instead, we write $\partial_a \varphi$ for the same derivative.

The "derivative of φ in the direction a". The direction argument is a vector, *never an index*.

Coordinate basis written $e(x_i)$ such that

$$\partial_{e(x_i)}\varphi = \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial x^i}$$
.

Coordinate gradient basis

$$dx^i = \boldsymbol{\nabla} \wedge x^i = \boldsymbol{\nabla} x^i = g^{ij} e(x_j)$$

is defined as the gradients of the scalar coordinate functions.

These are reciprocal

$$e(x_i) \cdot dx^j = \delta_i^j$$

and both are vectors living in the same space.

Moreover with two coordinate systems

$$e(x_i) \cdot dy^j = \frac{\partial y^j}{\partial x^i}$$

leading to standard change of coordinate formulae.

In summary.

Special bases:

	Arbitrary	Orthonormal	Holonomic	Gradient
Definition:	e_i	$g_{ij} = \eta(i)\delta_{ij}$	$L_{ijk} = 0$	$e_i = \boldsymbol{\nabla} \varphi_i$
Reciprocal to:	$e^i = g^{ij} e_j$	Orthonormal	Gradient	Holonomic

Coordinate bases:

Coordinate Basis	Coordinate Gradient Basis
$e(x_i)$	$dx^i = \boldsymbol{\nabla} x^i = g^{ij} e(x_j)$
Type: Holonomic	Type: Gradient



Now let's look at some of the results.

Affine connection relates neighboring tangent spaces.

An arbitrary basis has metric

$$e_i \cdot e_j = g_{ij}$$

and Lie bracket coefficients

$$[e_i, e_j] = L_{ijk} e^k.$$

Let D be an affine connection with connection coefficients

$$D_{e_i}e_j = \Gamma_{ijk} e^k.$$

Metric Compatible if and only if:

$$\Gamma_{ijk} + \Gamma_{ikj} = \partial_{e_i} g_{jk}$$

Torsion Free if and only if:

$$\Gamma_{ijk} - \Gamma_{jik} = L_{ijk}$$

This leads to

 $\Gamma_{ijk} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\partial_{e_i} g_{jk} - \partial_{e_k} g_{ij} + \partial_{e_j} g_{ki} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(L_{ijk} - L_{jki} + L_{kij} \right) + \chi_{ijk}$

where $\chi_{ijk} = 0$ (zero **contorsion coefficients**) gives Levi-Civita connection.

This reduces to standard form for holonomic basis, and reduces to Cartan's spin connection for orthonormal basis. Surprisingly rare formula.

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We know how to take derivative of scalar and vector fields. What about multivector fields?

Definition 8 (Multivector directional derivative). Let A and B be smooth multivector fields, let a and b be vectors based at a point p, and let α and β be scalars at p. Let D: $T_pM \times MVF(M) \rightarrow GT_pM$ be an operator mapping a tangent vector a at p and a smooth multivector field A in a neighborhood of p to a tangent multivector D_aA at p. D is called a *multivector directional derivative* (MDD) if it has the properties:

(i)	$D_{(\alpha a+\beta b)}A = \alpha D_a A + \beta D_b A,$	(linearity in the direction argument)
(ii)	$D_a \langle A \rangle_0 = \partial_a \langle A \rangle_0 ,$	(scalar-field directional derivative on scalars)
(iii)	$D_a \langle A \rangle_1 = \langle D_a \langle A \rangle_1 \rangle_1 ,$	(preserves grade of vectors)
(iv)	$D_a(A+B) = D_aA + D_aB,$	(linearity in the field argument)
(v)	$D_a(AB) = (D_aA)B + A(D_aB).$	(product rule)

When D is a multivector directional derivative, $D_a A$ is called the derivative of the multivector field A in the direction a at the point p.

MAIN RESULT: Such MDD operators exist, and are in bijective correspondence with metric-compatible affine connections. Far from trivial, due to product rule requirement.

This leads to an extremely powerful notion of directional derivative which

- ► Is grade-preserving.
- Is Leibniz on AB and $A \cdot B$ and $A \wedge B$.
- Acts as a metric compatible connection on vectors.
- ► Is fully specified by a set of connection coefficients.

The unique torsion free MDD is called ∇ .

Grad Div Curl

The torsion-free gradient is

$$\nabla A = e^i \nabla_{e_i} A$$

where A is any multivector field.

Theorem 29 (Gradient = divergence + curl). Let D be a multivector directional derivative, let e_i be an arbitrary basis, and let A be a multivector field. Define the *divergence* and *curl* by

$\boldsymbol{D} \cdot \boldsymbol{A} = e^i \cdot \boldsymbol{D}_{e_i} \boldsymbol{A},$	(divergence)
$\boldsymbol{D} \wedge A = e^i \wedge D_{e_i} A.$	(curl)

Then the gradient equals the divergence plus the curl,

$$\boldsymbol{D}\boldsymbol{A} = \boldsymbol{D} \cdot \boldsymbol{A} + \boldsymbol{D} \wedge \boldsymbol{A} \,. \tag{39}$$

These definitions are consistent with the usual definitions of dot and wedge product, and can be shown to be basis-independent and thus well-defined.

These reduce to the standard grad div and curl in flat space!

The theory fully includes (and clarifies the meaning of) differential forms.

The torsion-free curl

$$d = \mathbf{\nabla} \wedge$$

is completely equivalent to the exterior derivative of differential forms.

The exterior derivative has the properties

Theorem 32 (Exterior derivative properties). The exterior derivative $d = \nabla \wedge$ of multivectors has the following properties:

- (i) d(A+B) = dA + dB.
- (ii) If φ is a scalar field then $a \cdot d\varphi = \partial_a \varphi$ for all vector fields a.
- (iii) If φ is a scalar field then $d^2\varphi \equiv d(d\varphi) = 0$.

(iv) If A_j and B_k are multivectors of fixed grades j and k respectively, then

$$d(A_j \wedge B_k) = d(A_j) \wedge B_k + (-1)^j A_j \wedge d(B_k).$$

(which imply $\nabla \wedge \nabla \wedge A = 0$ and $\nabla \cdot \nabla \cdot A = 0$.)

If that doesn't satisfy, you can also write down an explicit isomorphism between the multivectors and forms.



What about tensors?

We all know that

$$D_i T^{jk} = \partial_i T^{jk} + \left(\Gamma_{ilm} \, g^{mj} \right) T^{lk} + \left(\Gamma_{ilm} \, g^{mk} \right) T^{jl}$$

But where does that come from?

That is, how is the connection extended from vectors to tensors?

TENSORS

Wald's way is typical of any textbook:

1. Linearity: For all A,
$$B \in \mathcal{T}(k, l)$$
 and $\alpha, \beta \in R$,

$$\nabla_{c}(\alpha A^{a_{1}\cdots a_{k}}_{b_{1}\cdots b_{l}} + \beta B^{a_{1}\cdots a_{k}}_{b_{1}\cdots b_{l}})$$

$$= \alpha \nabla_{c} A^{a_{1}\cdots a_{k}}_{b_{1}\cdots b_{l}} + \beta \nabla_{c} B^{a_{1}\cdots a_{k}}_{b_{1}\cdots b_{l}}$$
2. Leibnitz rule: For all $A \in \mathcal{T}(k, l), B \in \mathcal{T}(k', l'),$

$$\nabla_{e} [A^{a_{1}\cdots a_{k}}_{b_{1}\cdots b_{l}} B^{c_{1}\cdots c_{k}}_{d_{1}\cdots d_{l}}]$$

$$= [\nabla_{e} A^{a_{1}\cdots a_{k}}_{b_{1}\cdots b_{l}} [\nabla_{e} B^{c_{1}\cdots c_{k'}}_{d_{1}\cdots d_{l}}] \cdot A^{a_{1}\cdots a_{k}}_{b_{1}\cdots b_{l}} [\nabla_{e} B^{c_{1}\cdots c_{k'}}_{d_{1}\cdots d_{l}}]$$

3. Commutativity with contraction: For all $A \in \mathcal{T}(k, l)$,

$$\nabla_{\!\!d}(A^{a_1\cdots c\cdots a_k}_{b_1\cdots c\cdots b_l}) = \nabla_{\!\!d}A^{a_1\cdots c\cdots a_k}_{b_1\cdots c\cdots b_l}$$

4. Consistency with the notion of tangent vectors as directional derivatives on scalar fields: For all $f \in \mathcal{F}$ and all $t^a \in V_p$

$$t(f) = t^a \nabla_a f$$

But the truth may shock you! It really follows from the chain rule. A tensor T(A, B) is a linear function of multivectors. So first...

Consider a real function f(x, g(x), h(x)) of a real variable. As x varies, the total differential is

$$df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial f}{\partial g} dg + \frac{\partial f}{\partial h} dh .$$

If f is linear in the g and h arguments then

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial g} dg = f(x, g + dg, h) - f(x, g, h)$$
$$= f(x, dg, h)$$

and likewise for the h term.

TENSORS

Thus

$$df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} dx + f(x, dg, h) + f(x, g, dh)$$
.

Only partial term is change in f itself.

For tensors this becomes

 $\begin{array}{rcl} df & = & \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \, dx & + & f(x, dg, h) & + & f(x, g, dh) \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ D_a(T(A, \dots, B)) & = & (DT)(a, A, \dots, B) & + & T(D_aA, \dots, B) & + \dots + & T(A, \dots, D_aB). \end{array}$

Leading to the tensor derivative definition based on the chain rule

Definition 25 (Tensor derivative). Let T be a tensor field of signature $(k_1, \ldots, k_N : k_0)$, and let D be a multivector directional derivative. Define DT by

$$(DT)(a, A, \dots, B) = D_a(T(A, \dots, B)) - T(D_a A, \dots, B) - \dots - T(A, \dots, D_a B).$$
(30)

DT is a tensor field of signature $(1, k_1, \ldots, k_N : k_0)$, called the *tensor derivative* of T.

This is proved equivalent to the usual version, and can easily be translated back to the usual components in a basis.

IN CONCLUSION

This formalism provides a whole new way of doing calculus which:

- Unifies vector calculus in curved and flat spaces.
- ► Strictly includes the theories of tensors and differential forms.
- ► Includes the tetrad and spin connection formalisms.
- Admits simpler calculations.
- Works in an arbitrary basis.
- Fixes "conceptually right but technically wrong" statements in standard formalism.
- Will allow improved treatments of integral calculus and of curvature and related topics.

Future steps:

- ► Define integral calculus on GM.
- Derive Riemann curvature etc on GM.

Thanks!

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