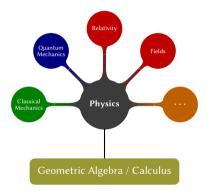
A Tutorial on Geometric Algebra and Geometric Calculus: A Unified Mathematical Language for Physics

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Prologue



Level 1 Goals

Mummy doesn't have to worry about me not being able to understand Maxwell's equations anymore.

I can derive them in just 5 minutes.

Daddy doesn't have to worry about me not being able to do rotations anymore.

I can now handle rotations in spaces of any dimensionality.

Level 2 Goals

Grasp the gist of geometric algebra and geometric calculus.

Appreciate the unifying, simplifying, and generalizing power of geometric algebra and geometric calculus for describing physics in a very natural way.

Level 3 Goals

Use geometric algebra and geometric calculus to solve problems in AI for science with the companion tool Geomeculus.

Vector Space \mathbb{R}^n

Let's start with an *n*-dimensional vector space \mathbb{R}^n with an orthonormal basis denoted by $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$, where \mathbb{R} is the set of real numbers.

An arbitrary vector expanded in terms of the orthonormal basis is given by

$$\mathbf{a}=a_1\mathbf{e}_1+a_2\mathbf{e}_2+\cdots+a_n\mathbf{e}_n,$$

where $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$.

Vector Space \mathbb{R}^n

A vector space is a set of vectors with two operations: associative and commutative addition and distributive scalar multiplication.

- $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a}$, commutative addition
- (a + b) + c = a + (b + c), associative addition
- $\mathbf{a}(\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}) = a\mathbf{b} + a\mathbf{c}$, scalar multiplication is distributive w.r.t. addition
- $(a + b)\mathbf{c} = a\mathbf{c} + b\mathbf{c}$, scalar multiplication is distributive w.r.t. addition

Extending \mathbb{R}^n into an Algebra with a Product

Let's define an associative **product** for the unit basis vectors:

$$\mathbf{e}_{i}\mathbf{e}_{j} = \begin{cases} \pm 1, 0 & \text{if } i = j, \\ -\mathbf{e}_{j}\mathbf{e}_{i} & \text{if } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

Let's define the product for arbitrary vectors:

$$\mathbf{ab} = (a_1\mathbf{e}_1 + \dots + a_n\mathbf{e}_n)(b_1\mathbf{e}_1 + \dots + b_n\mathbf{e}_n)$$
$$= a_1b_1\mathbf{e}_1\mathbf{e}_1 + a_1b_2\mathbf{e}_1\mathbf{e}_2 + \dots + a_nb_n\mathbf{e}_n\mathbf{e}_n$$

Extending Vectors to Multivectors

 \mathbb{R}^n can be extended into an algebra \mathbb{G}^n with elements called **multivectors**.

For example, an element of \mathbb{G}^3 can be written as:

$$a_0 + a_1 \mathbf{e}_1 + a_2 \mathbf{e}_2 + a_3 \mathbf{e}_3 + a_{12} \mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2 + a_{13} \mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_3 + a_{23} \mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_3 + a_{123} \mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_3$$

- $ightharpoonup a_0$ is a scalar (0-vector)
- a_1 **e**₁ + a_2 **e**₂ + a_3 **e**₃ is a vector (1-vector)
- a_{12} **e**₁**e**₂ + a_{13} **e**₁**e**₃ + a_{23} **e**₂**e**₃ is a bivector (2-vector)
- $ightharpoonup a_{123}\mathbf{e}_1\mathbf{e}_2\mathbf{e}_3$ is a trivector (3-vector)

Extending Vectors to Multivectors

Every orthonormal basis in \mathbb{R}^n determines a **standard basis** for \mathbb{G}^n .

A standard basis for \mathbb{G}^3 is defined as:

1	basis for 0-vectors
$\mathbf{e}_{1},\mathbf{e}_{2},\mathbf{e}_{3}$	basis for 1-vectors
$\mathbf{e}_{1}\mathbf{e}_{2},\mathbf{e}_{1}\mathbf{e}_{3},\mathbf{e}_{2}\mathbf{e}_{3}$	basis for 2-vectors
$\mathbf{e}_1\mathbf{e}_2\mathbf{e}_3$	basis for 3-vectors

Extending Vectors to Multivectors

The standard basis for \mathbb{G}^4 :

1	basis for 0-vectors	
$\mathbf{e}_{1},\mathbf{e}_{2},\mathbf{e}_{3},\mathbf{e}_{4}$	basis for 1-vectors	
$\mathbf{e}_{1}\mathbf{e}_{2}, \mathbf{e}_{1}\mathbf{e}_{3}, \mathbf{e}_{1}\mathbf{e}_{4}, \mathbf{e}_{2}\mathbf{e}_{3}, \mathbf{e}_{2}\mathbf{e}_{4}, \mathbf{e}_{3}\mathbf{e}_{4}$	basis for 2-vectors	
$\mathbf{e}_{1}\mathbf{e}_{2}\mathbf{e}_{3}, \mathbf{e}_{1}\mathbf{e}_{2}\mathbf{e}_{4}, \mathbf{e}_{1}\mathbf{e}_{3}\mathbf{e}_{4}, \mathbf{e}_{2}\mathbf{e}_{3}\mathbf{e}_{4}$	basis for 3-vectors	
$\mathbf{e}_1\mathbf{e}_2\mathbf{e}_3\mathbf{e}_4$	basis for 4-vectors	

Geometric Algebra

Geometric algebra G is a **vector space** with a **product**, called the **geometric product**.

The elements of \mathbb{G} are **multivectors**. The **geometric product** of multivectors A and B is written AB. Geometric algebra is closed under the geometric product, that is $AB \in \mathbb{G}$.

Geometric Algebra

For all scalars a ($a \in \mathbb{R}$) and multivectors A, B, and C:

- ightharpoonup A + B = B + A, commutative addition.
- (A + B) + C = A + (B + C), associative addition.
- ightharpoonup (AB)C = A(BC), associative multiplication.
- ► A(B+C) = AB + AC, (A+B)C = AC + BC, multiplication is distributive w.r.t. addition.
- ► a(AB) = (aA)B = A(aB), scalars commute with multivectors.
- ightharpoonup A + 0 = A, 0 is the additive identity.
- ▶ 1A = A1 = A, 1 is the multiplicative identity.

Notation

- Lower case italic symbols denote scalars, e.g. a, b, \ldots
- Lower case bold symbols denote vectors, e.g. a, b, . . .
- ▶ Lower case bold \mathbf{e} with a subscript denotes orthonormal basis vectors, $\mathbf{e}.\mathbf{g}.\mathbf{e}_1,\mathbf{e}_2,\ldots$
- ightharpoonup Upper case italic symbols denote multivectors, e.g. A, B, \dots

Algebra Signature

- $\mathbf{e}_i \mathbf{e}_i = +1$, positive square
- ▶ $\mathbf{e}_{j}\mathbf{e}_{j} = -1$, negative square
- $\mathbf{e}_{k}\mathbf{e}_{k}=0$, zero square

Algebra signatures:

- $ightharpoonup \mathbb{G}^{p,q,r}$: \mathbb{G} has a basis with p positive squares, q negative squares, r zero squares
- $ightharpoonup \mathbb{G}^{p,q}:\mathbb{G}$ has a basis with p positive squares, q negative squares, 0 zero square
- $ightharpoonup \mathbb{G}^p : \mathbb{G}$ has a basis with p positive squares, 0 negative square, 0 zero square

The Companion Tool: Geomeculus

Geomeculus: A program for doing geometric algebra and Geometric Calculus

	On Slides	In Code
Addition	A + B	A + B
Geometric Product	AB	A*B
Negation	-A	-1 * A

We can execute commands interactively in Geomeculus, or we can run batched commands using Geomeculus script files (.gmc).

Geomeculus Script

```
algebra_signature 3,1
# unamed expression
e1 * e1
# named expression
F = e1 * e2
# expressions with scalar variables
a = v1 * e1 + v2 * e2 + v3 * e3
A = v11 * e1 + v12 * e2
B = v21 * e1 + v22 * e2
# named exprs can be referenced with $ prefix
C = $A * $B
# assign real number values to the variables
$C: v11=1: v12=2: v21=3: v22=4
# call built-in functions
exponential(0.5 * pi() * $F)
```

 $./build/release/bin/geomeculus\ samples/playground.gmc$

./build/release/bin/geomeculus samples/playground.gmc

./build/release/bin/geomeculus < samples/playground.gmc

./build/release/bin/geomeculus samples/playground.gmc

./build/release/bin/geomeculus < samples/playground.gmc

cat samples/playground.gmc | ./build/release/bin/geomeculus

./build/release/bin/geomeculus samples/playground.gmc

./build/release/bin/geomeculus < samples/playground.gmc

cat samples/playground.gmc | ./build/release/bin/geomeculus

./build/release/bin/geomeculus exec samples/playground.gmc

./build/release/bin/geomeculus samples/playground.gmc
./build/release/bin/geomeculus < samples/playground.gmc
cat samples/playground.gmc | ./build/release/bin/geomeculus

./build/release/bin/geomeculus exec samples/playground.gmc

 $./build/release/bin/geomeculus --import \ \underline{samples/playground.gmc}\\$

Geometric algebra is unifying, simplifying, and generalizing

- Number systems
 - Complex numbers, quaternions
- Vector operations
 - o Inner product, outer product, cross product, angular momentum and torque
- ► Fields
 - Magnetic field, electromagnetic field → Maxwell's equations
- Geometric operations
 - o Rotations, projective geometry, conformal geometry, molecular geometry problem
- Quantum mechanics
 - o Pauli algebra, Dirac algebra, Schrödinger equation, Dirac equation
- **.....**

Complex Numbers

$$I = \mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2$$

$$I^2 = \mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2 = -1$$

$$(a+bI)(c+dI) = (ac-bd) + (ad+bc)I$$

$$e^{I\theta} = \cos\theta + I\sin\theta$$

The complex number system is isomorphic to the subalgebra with form a + bI of \mathbb{G}^2 .

Complex Numbers

Rotate a vector by θ in the "complex plane" with $\{1, \mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2\}$ as axes:

$$(1 + \mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2) \exp(\theta I) = -1 + \mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2$$



Rotate a vector by θ in the plane with $\{e_1, e_2\}$ as axes:

$$(\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2) \exp(\theta I) = -1 * \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2$$



In the example, $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$ gmc script: samples/complex.gmc

Quaternions

$$I = \mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2, \quad I^2 = -1$$

$$J = \mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_3, \quad J^2 = -1$$

$$K = \mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_3, \quad K^2 = -1$$

$$IJK = \mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_3 \mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_3 = -1$$

$$(a+bI+cJ+dK)(a-bI-cJ-dK) = a^2+b^2+c^2+d^2$$

Multivectors of form a + bI + cJ + dK are isomorphic to quaternions.

gmc script: samples/quaternion.gmc

Inner Product of Vectors

For all vectors **a** and **b** in \mathbb{R}^n ,

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{ab} + \mathbf{ba}).$$

Outer Product of Vectors

For all vectors **a** and **b** in \mathbb{R}^n ,

$$\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b} = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{ab} - \mathbf{ba}).$$

Geometric Product of Vectors

For all vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} in \mathbb{R}^n ,

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{ab} + \mathbf{ba})$$
$$\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b} = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{ab} - \mathbf{ba})$$
$$\mathbf{ab} = \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b}$$

Cross Product of Vectors

$$I = \mathbf{e}_{1}\mathbf{e}_{2}\mathbf{e}_{3}$$

$$\mathbf{a} = v_{11}\mathbf{e}_{1} + v_{12}\mathbf{e}_{2} + v_{13}\mathbf{e}_{3}$$

$$\mathbf{b} = v_{21}\mathbf{e}_{1} + v_{22}\mathbf{e}_{2} + v_{23}\mathbf{e}_{3}$$

$$\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b} = (v_{11}v_{22} - v_{12}v_{21})\mathbf{e}_{1}\mathbf{e}_{2} + (v_{11}v_{23} - v_{13}v_{21})\mathbf{e}_{1}\mathbf{e}_{3} + (v_{12}v_{23} - v_{13}v_{22})\mathbf{e}_{2}\mathbf{e}_{3}$$

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = (v_{11}v_{22} - v_{12}v_{21})\mathbf{e}_{3} - (v_{11}v_{23} - v_{13}v_{21})\mathbf{e}_{2} + (v_{12}v_{23} - v_{13}v_{22})\mathbf{e}_{1}$$

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = -I(\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b}) \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b} = I(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b})$$

gmc script: samples/cross-product.gmc

Angular Momentum and Torque

$$\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{p} \qquad \qquad \boldsymbol{\tau} = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{F}$$

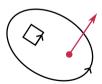
$$\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{r} \wedge \mathbf{p} \qquad \qquad \boldsymbol{\tau} = \mathbf{r} \wedge \mathbf{F}$$

where ${\bf L}$ is the angular momentum, ${m au}$ is the torque, ${\bf r}$ is the position vector, and ${\bf p}$ is the momentum vector.

Magnetic Field

$$I = \mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_3$$
$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{b}I = I\mathbf{b}$$

where \mathbf{b} is the magnetic field vector, and \mathbf{B} is the magnetic bivector field orthogonal to \mathbf{b} .

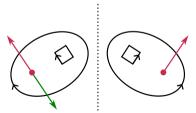


gmc script: samples/magnetic.gmc

Magnetic Field

$$I = \mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_3$$
$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{b}I = I\mathbf{b}$$

where \mathbf{b} is the magnetic field vector, and \mathbf{B} is the magnetic bivector field orthogonal to \mathbf{b} .



 $gmc\ script:\ samples/magnetic.gmc$

Extending Partial Derivative to Multivector-valued Functions

Let $F: U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{G}^n$, where U is open. Let $\mathbf{x} \in U$ have coordinates (x_1, \ldots, x_m) with respect to an orthonormal basis $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{e}_m\}$. Then the **partial derivative** of F with respect to x_i is

$$\frac{\partial F(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_i} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{F(\mathbf{x} + h\mathbf{e}_i) - F(\mathbf{x})}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{F(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_i + h, \dots, x_m) - F(\mathbf{x})}{h}.$$
 (1)

We will often abbreviate this as $\partial_i F$.

A set $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is **open** if every point $x \in U$ has a neighborhood contained in U.

Gradient

Let F be a differentiable multivector function defined on an open set $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$. Let $\{\mathbf{e}_i\}$ be an orthonormal basis for \mathbb{R}^n . Then the **gradient** of F is defined by

$$\nabla F(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{e}_i \partial_i F(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{e}_1 \partial_1 F(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{e}_2 \partial_2 F(\mathbf{x}) + \dots + \mathbf{e}_n \partial_n F(\mathbf{x}). \tag{2}$$

The product in $\mathbf{e}_i \partial_i F(\mathbf{x})$ is the geometric product.

Magic trick: algebraically, ∇ behaves like a vector, and ∂_i behaves like a scalar.

$$\nabla F = \nabla \cdot F + \nabla \wedge F$$
$$\partial_i \partial_j F = \partial_j \partial_i F$$

Maxwell's Equations

Maxwell's equation in geometric calculus (natural units):

$$\nabla F = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$
.

$$F = \mathbf{e} + \mathbf{B}$$

$$\nabla = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \nabla = \partial_t + \mathbf{e}_1 \partial_1 + \mathbf{e}_2 \partial_2 + \mathbf{e}_3 \partial_3$$

$$\rho : \text{charge density, scalar}$$

$$\mathbf{J} : \text{current density, vector}$$

The electric vector field \mathbf{e} and the magnetic bivector field \mathbf{B} are combined into a single multivector field F.

 $\nabla F = \rho - \mathbf{J}$

$$\nabla F = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$
$$(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \nabla)(\mathbf{e} + \mathbf{B}) = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$

$$\nabla F = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$
$$(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \nabla)(\mathbf{e} + \mathbf{B}) = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$
$$(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \nabla)(\mathbf{e} + I\mathbf{b}) = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$

$$\nabla F = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$
$$(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \nabla)(\mathbf{e} + \mathbf{B}) = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$
$$(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \nabla)(\mathbf{e} + I\mathbf{b}) = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{e} + \nabla \mathbf{e} + I\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{b} + I\nabla \mathbf{b} = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$

$$\nabla F = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$

$$(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \nabla)(\mathbf{e} + \mathbf{B}) = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$

$$(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \nabla)(\mathbf{e} + I\mathbf{b}) = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{e} + \nabla \mathbf{e} + I \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{b} + I \nabla \mathbf{b} = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{e} + \nabla \cdot \mathbf{e} + V \wedge \mathbf{e} + I \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{b} + I \nabla \cdot \mathbf{b} + I \nabla \wedge \mathbf{b} = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$

$$\nabla F = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$

$$(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \nabla)(\mathbf{e} + \mathbf{B}) = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$

$$(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \nabla)(\mathbf{e} + I\mathbf{b}) = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{e} + \nabla \mathbf{e} + I\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{b} + I\nabla \mathbf{b} = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{e} + \nabla \cdot \mathbf{e} + \nabla \wedge \mathbf{e} + I\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{b} + I\nabla \cdot \mathbf{b} + I\nabla \wedge \mathbf{b} = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{e} + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{e} + I\nabla \wedge \mathbf{b} + \nabla \wedge \mathbf{e} + I\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{b} + I\nabla \cdot \mathbf{b} = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{e} + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{e} + I \nabla \wedge \mathbf{b} + \nabla \wedge \mathbf{e} + I \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{b} + I \nabla \cdot \mathbf{b} = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{e} + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{e} + I \nabla \wedge \mathbf{b} + \nabla \wedge \mathbf{e} + I \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{b} + I \nabla \cdot \mathbf{b} = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$
$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{e} = \rho$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{e} + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{e} + I \nabla \wedge \mathbf{b} + \nabla \wedge \mathbf{e} + I \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{b} + I \nabla \cdot \mathbf{b} = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{e} = \rho$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{e} + I \nabla \wedge \mathbf{b} = -\mathbf{J}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{e} + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{e} + I \nabla \wedge \mathbf{b} + \nabla \wedge \mathbf{e} + I \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{b} + I \nabla \cdot \mathbf{b} = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{e} = \rho$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{e} + I \nabla \wedge \mathbf{b} = -\mathbf{J}$$

$$\nabla \wedge \mathbf{e} + I \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{b} = 0$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{e} + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{e} + I \nabla \wedge \mathbf{b} + \nabla \wedge \mathbf{e} + I \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{b} + I \nabla \cdot \mathbf{b} = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{e} = \rho$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{e} + I \nabla \wedge \mathbf{b} = -\mathbf{J}$$

$$\nabla \wedge \mathbf{e} + I \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{b} = 0$$

$$I \nabla \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{e} = \rho$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{e} + I \nabla \wedge \mathbf{b} = -\mathbf{J}$$

$$\nabla \wedge \mathbf{e} + I \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{b} = 0$$

$$I \nabla \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{e} = \rho \qquad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{e} = \rho$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{e} + I \nabla \wedge \mathbf{b} = -\mathbf{J}$$

$$\nabla \wedge \mathbf{e} + I \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{b} = 0 \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{e} = \rho$$

$$-I \nabla \wedge \mathbf{b} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{e} + \mathbf{J}$$

$$\nabla \wedge \mathbf{e} = -I \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{b}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{e} = \rho \qquad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{e} = \rho \qquad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{e} = \rho
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{e} + I \nabla \wedge \mathbf{b} = -\mathbf{J}
\nabla \wedge \mathbf{e} + I \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{b} = 0 \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{e} = \rho
\nabla \wedge \mathbf{e} = -I \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{b} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \nabla \times \mathbf{b} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{e} + \mathbf{J}
\nabla \wedge \mathbf{e} = -I \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{b} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \nabla \times \mathbf{e} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{b}
I \nabla \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0 \qquad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0 \qquad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{e} = \rho$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{b} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{e} + \mathbf{J}$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{e} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{b}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{e} = \rho$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{b} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{e} + \mathbf{J}$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{e} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{b}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \rho$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} + \mathbf{J}$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$$

Change symbols to ${\bf E}$ and ${\bf B}$ for electric and magnetic fields.

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \rho$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} + \mathbf{J}$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \rho$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} + \mathbf{J}$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = 0$$

From natural units to SI units ($c^2 \varepsilon_0 \mu_0 = 1$).

$$\nabla F = \rho - \mathbf{J}$$

An "Object-Oriented" Approach to Geometry

We can represent geometric entities as "objects" that can be manipulated in a coordinate-free manner.

This can be well demonstrated by doing rotations using geometric algebra.

Rotation

Rotate a vector \mathbf{v} by twice the angle between \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} .

$$R = \mathbf{ab}$$

$$R^{\dagger} = \mathbf{ba}$$

$$\mathbf{v}' = R^{\dagger} \mathbf{v} R$$

Rotation

Rotate a vector \boldsymbol{v} by twice the angle between \boldsymbol{a} and \boldsymbol{b} .

$$R = \mathbf{ab}$$

$$R^{\dagger} = \mathbf{ba}$$

$$\mathbf{v}' = R^{\dagger} \mathbf{v} R$$

$$\mathbf{v}'' = \frac{\mathbf{v}'}{R^{\dagger} R}$$

Rotation

Rotate a vector \mathbf{v} by twice the specified angle in the plane P, specified by a bivector.

$$R = e^{\frac{\theta}{2}P}$$

$$R^{\dagger} = e^{-\frac{\theta}{2}P}$$

$$\mathbf{v}' = R^{\dagger}\mathbf{v}R$$

Solving Geometric Problem in Higher Dimension

The problem can sometimes be more intuively solved in a higher dimension.

- Solving 3D problems in 4D
- Solving 3D problems in 5D
- ► Solving 3D problems in 15D

Geometric algebra provides a unified framework for solving problems in higher dimensions.

Projective Geometric Algebra

Let's represent a 3D point with a 4D vector in $\mathbb{G}^{3,1}$.

A line L passing through two points p and q is represented by the outer product of their corresponding vectors:

$$L = \mathbf{p} \wedge \mathbf{q}$$

A plane P containing three points p, q, and r is represented by the outer product of their corresponding vectors:

$$P = \mathbf{p} \wedge \mathbf{q} \wedge \mathbf{r}$$

Projective Geometric Algebra

Let *I* be $\mathbf{e}_1\mathbf{e}_2\mathbf{e}_3\mathbf{e}_4$. The intersection of a line *L* and a plane *P* is represented by:

$$P \cdot (IL)$$

The intersection of two planes *P* and *Q* is represented by:

$$(IP) \cdot Q$$

Conformal Geometric Algebra

A 5D conformal geometric algebra can be defined out of $\mathbb{G}^{4,1}$:

$$\mathbf{e}_{o} = \frac{1}{2}(-\mathbf{e}_{4} + \mathbf{e}_{5})$$

$$\mathbf{e}_{\infty} = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{e}_{4} + \mathbf{e}_{5})$$

$$I = \mathbf{e}_{1} \wedge \mathbf{e}_{2} \wedge \mathbf{e}_{3} \wedge \mathbf{e}_{\infty} \wedge \mathbf{e}_{o}$$

$$I^{-1} = \mathbf{e}_{o} \wedge \mathbf{e}_{\infty} \wedge \mathbf{e}_{3} \wedge \mathbf{e}_{2} \wedge \mathbf{e}_{1}$$

Points, planes, and spheres can be represented by linear combinations of the basis vectors: \mathbf{e}_1 , \mathbf{e}_2 , \mathbf{e}_3 , \mathbf{e}_o , \mathbf{e}_{∞} .

Molecular Distance Geometry Problem

It is to determine a three-dimensional structure of a molecule given an incomplete set of interatomic distances. We can solve the problem based on calculating the intersection points of three spheres in $\mathbb{G}^{4,1}$.



$$\mathbf{p}_{i} = v_{i1} \mathbf{e}_{1} + v_{i2} \mathbf{e}_{2} + v_{i3} \mathbf{e}_{3}$$

$$\mathbf{P}_{i} = \mathbf{p}_{i} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{p}_{i} \mathbf{p}_{i} \mathbf{e}_{\infty} + \mathbf{e}_{o}$$

$$\mathbf{S}_{i} = \mathbf{P}_{i} - \frac{1}{2} d_{i} d_{i} \mathbf{e}_{\infty}$$

$$\mathbf{Q} = -(\mathbf{S}_{1} \wedge \mathbf{S}_{2} \wedge \mathbf{S}_{3}) I^{-1}$$

$$\mathbf{T} = -(\pm \sqrt{\mathbf{Q} \cdot \mathbf{Q}} + \mathbf{Q}) (\mathbf{e}_{\infty} \cdot \mathbf{Q})^{-1}$$

gmc script: samples/molecular-distance-geometry.gmc The power of geometric algebra computing, Dietmar Hildenbrand

Higher Dimensional Geometric Algebra

- Conics in \mathbb{R}^2 can be represented with $\mathbb{G}^{5,3}$ or $\mathbb{G}^{6,2}$
- ▶ Cubic Curves can be handled with $\mathbb{G}^{9,3}$ or $\mathbb{G}^{4,8}$
- ightharpoonup Quadric surfaces can be represented and constructed intuitively in $\mathbb{G}^{9,6}$

Determinant of Linear Transformation

Let f be a linear transformation on \mathbb{R}^n and $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ be vectors in \mathbb{R}^n . Then

$$f(\mathbf{v}_1) \wedge f(\mathbf{v}_2) \wedge \ldots \wedge f(\mathbf{v}_n) = \det(f)(\mathbf{v}_1 \wedge \mathbf{v}_2 \wedge \ldots \wedge \mathbf{v}_n)$$

The determinant of a linear transformation f on \mathbb{R}^n is the factor by which the transformation scales the oriented volumes of n-dimensional parallelograms.

Pauli Algebra

$$\sigma_{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\sigma_{y} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\sigma_{z} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

×	σ_{x}	$\sigma_{ m y}$	σ_{z}
$\sigma_{\scriptscriptstyle m X}$	I	$i\sigma_{ m z}$	$-i\sigma_{\rm y}$
$\sigma_{ m y}$	$-i\sigma_{\rm z}$	I	$i\sigma_{\mathrm{x}}$
σ_{z}	$i\sigma_{ m y}$	$-i\sigma_{\rm x}$	I

×	\mathbf{e}_1	\mathbf{e}_2	\mathbf{e}_3
\mathbf{e}_1	1	$I\mathbf{e}_3$	$-I\mathbf{e}_2$
\mathbf{e}_2	$-I\mathbf{e}_3$	1	$I\mathbf{e}_1$
\mathbf{e}_3	$I\mathbf{e}_2$	$-I\mathbf{e}_1$	1

where i is the imaginary unit, $I = \mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_3$, and \mathbb{I} is the identity matrix. The Pauli algebra generated by three spin operators σ_x , σ_y , and σ_z is isomorphic to the geometric algebra \mathbb{G}^3 .

Dirac Algebra

$$\gamma^0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \qquad \gamma^1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\gamma^1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\gamma^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & -i \\ 0 & 0 & i & 0 \\ 0 & i & 0 & 0 \\ -i & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\gamma^3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

where *i* is the imaginary unit.

Dirac Algebra

×	γ^0	γ^1	γ^2	γ^3
γ^0	I			
γ^1		$-\mathbb{I}$		
γ^2			$-\mathbb{I}$	
γ^3				$-\mathbb{I}$

×	\mathbf{e}_0	\mathbf{e}_1	\mathbf{e}_2	\mathbf{e}_3
\mathbf{e}_0	1			
\mathbf{e}_1		-1		
\mathbf{e}_2			-1	
\mathbf{e}_3				-1

where \mathbb{I} is the identity matrix. The algebra generated by γ^0 , γ^1 , γ^2 , and γ^3 is isomorphic to the geometric algebra $\mathbb{G}^{1,3}$.

Dirac Equation for Hydrogen in $\mathbb{G}^{1,3}$

$$\nabla \psi \mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2 - \frac{Ze^2}{4\pi r} \psi + m \mathbf{e}_0 \psi \mathbf{e}_0 = E \psi,$$

where e is the elementary charge, Z is the atomic number, m is the mass of the electron, r is the distance from the nucleus, and E is the energy.

The equation and its observables are in *real* algebra of spacetime, with no need for complex numbers.

Manifold

Here we use the term **manifold** a bit loosely, referring to an m-dimensional object \mathcal{M} that can be locally parametrized by a set of coordinates. The general parameterization of an m-dimensional manifold M in \mathbb{R}^n , $m \le n$ is given by

$$\mathbf{x}(u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m) = x_i(u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m)\mathbf{e}_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

We will call 1-dimensional manifolds *curves*, 2-dimensional manifolds *surfaces*, and 3-dimensional manifolds *solids*.

Tangent Space

There is a tangent space at every point of a manifold.

Tangent Space for 1-Dimensional Manifold

Let $\mathbf{x}: A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^1 \to C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ parameterize a curve C. Fix $t \in A$ and let $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{x}(t)$. The vector $\mathbf{x}'(t)$, and its scalar multiples, are called **tangent vectors** to the curve C at \mathbf{p} . This 1D span of $\mathbf{x}'(t)$ is called the **tangent space** to C at \mathbf{p} . Denote it $T_{\mathbf{p}}$.

Tangent Space for 2-Dimensional Manifold

Let $\mathbf{x}: A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 \to S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ parameterize a surface S. Fix $\mathbf{q} \in A$ and $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^2$. Let $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{q})$.

$$\partial_{\mathbf{w}}\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{q}) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{q} + h\mathbf{w}) - \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{q})}{h}.$$
 (3)

The vector $\partial_{\mathbf{w}} \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{q})$ is the **directional derivative** of \mathbf{x} at \mathbf{q} in the direction of \mathbf{w} . The vector is a *tangent vector* to the surface S at \mathbf{p} . The set of all tangent vectors to S at \mathbf{p} is a vector space. It is called the **tangent space** to S at \mathbf{p} . Denote it $T_{\mathbf{p}}$.

Tangent Space for *m*-Dimensional Manifold

The vectors tangent to an m-dimensional manifold M, which is parameterized by $\mathbf{x}(u, v, \cdots)$, at a point $\mathbf{p} \in M$ form the **tangent space** to M at \mathbf{p} , which is an m-dimensional vector space $T_{\mathbf{p}}$.

Theorem

 $\{\mathbf{x}_u, \mathbf{x}_v, \cdots\}$ forms a basis for the tangent space to M at \mathbf{p} , where $\mathbf{x}_u = \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}(u,v,\cdots)}{\partial u}$.

Reciprocal Basis

A reciprocal basis $\{\mathbf{x}^u, \mathbf{x}^v, \cdots\}$ can always be constructed for a basis $\{\mathbf{x}_u, \mathbf{x}_v, \cdots\}$.

$$\mathbf{x}^{u} \cdot \mathbf{x}_{v} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } u = v, \\ 0 & \text{if } u \neq v. \end{cases}$$

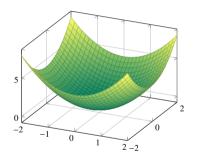
Vector Derivative

by $\mathbf{x}(u, v, \cdots)$. Let $\{\mathbf{x}_u, \mathbf{x}_v, \cdots\}$ be a basis for the tangent space $T_{\mathbf{p}}$ at $\mathbf{p} \in M$ and $\{\mathbf{x}^u, \mathbf{x}^v, \cdots\}$ be the reciprocal basis. Then the **vector derivative** $\partial F(\mathbf{x}) = \partial F(\mathbf{x}(u, v, \cdots))$ is

Let F be a multivector valued function defined on a manifold M, which is parameterized

$$\partial F(\mathbf{x}(u, v, \cdots)) \equiv \mathbf{x}^{u} \frac{\partial F(\mathbf{x})}{\partial u} + \mathbf{x}^{v} \frac{\partial F(\mathbf{x})}{\partial v} + \cdots = \mathbf{x}^{u} \partial_{u} F + \mathbf{x}^{v} \partial_{v} F + \cdots$$

Vector Derivative



$$\mathbf{x}(v_1, v_2) = v_1 \mathbf{e}_1 + v_2 \mathbf{e}_2 + (v_1^2 + v_2^2) \mathbf{e}_3$$
$$F = (v_2 + 1) \log(v_1)$$
$$\partial F(1, 0) = 0.2 \mathbf{e}_1 + 0.4 \mathbf{e}_2$$

Fundamental Theorem of Geometric Calculus

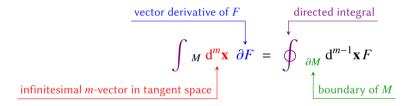
Let M be an m-dimensional bounded oriented manifold in some \mathbb{R}^n ($n \ge m$) with boundary ∂M , and let F on $M \cup \partial M$ be continuously differentiable on M and continuous on $M \cup \partial M$, then

$$\int_{M} d^{m} \mathbf{x} \partial F = \int_{\partial M} d^{m-1} \mathbf{x} F$$

The boundary ∂M of M is a manifold of dimension m-1.

Fundamental Theorem of Geometric Calculus

A boundary has no boundary: $\partial(\partial M) = \emptyset$. We can use \oint to signify this:



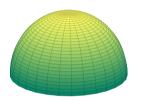
Here, $\mathbf{d}^m \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{I}_m \mathbf{d}^m x$, where $\mathbf{I}_m = \mathbf{I}_m(\mathbf{x})$ is the unit *m*-vector of the tangent space to *M* at \mathbf{x} , and $\mathbf{d}^m x$ is the infinitesimal *m*-volume, which is an infinitesimal scalar.

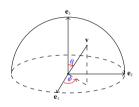
Directed Integral

Suppose manifold M is parameterized by $\mathbf{x}(u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m) : A \subset \mathbb{R}^m \to M \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. Then the directed integral of F over M is

$$\int_{M} d^{m} \mathbf{x} F = \int_{A} (\mathbf{x}_{u_{1}} \wedge \mathbf{x}_{u_{2}} \wedge \ldots \wedge \mathbf{x}_{u_{m}}) F(\mathbf{x}) dA$$

Fundamental Theorem of Geometric Calculus

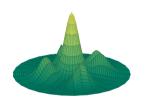




$$\mathbf{x}(\theta, \phi) = \sin(\theta)\cos(\phi)\mathbf{e}_1 + \sin(\theta)\sin(\phi)\mathbf{e}_2 + \cos(\theta)\mathbf{e}_3$$
$$F = \cos(\theta)$$
$$\int_M d^m \mathbf{x} \partial F = \int_{\partial M} d^{m-1} \mathbf{x} F = 0$$

gmc script: samples/hemisphere.gmc

Applying Fundamental Theorem to 3D Electronic Structure Problem?



- ► Suppose the electronic structure is a 3D manifold *M*.
- ► Assume the chemical property of interest is a function *F* on *M*.
- ▶ With carefully designed parametric *F* and *M*, we can apply the fundamental theorem to solve the electronic structure problems in 2D or 4D.

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Epilogue

Computational Considerations

- Matrix representation vs geometric algebra
- ► The power of symbolic simplification

Matrix Representation vs Geometric Algebra

The total dimension of $\mathbb{G}^{p,q}$ is 2^n , where n=p+q. If we want to create a matrix representation of the algebra, the matrices will be of the order of $2^{n/2} \times 2^{n/2}$.

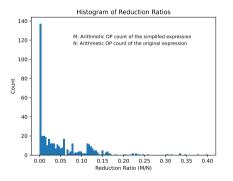
For example, the matrix representation of Dirac algebra $G^{1,3}$ requires 4×4 matrices.

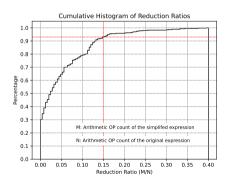
Don't be confuse the matrix representation of an algebra with organizing the elements of the algebra in a matrix form.

N-dimensional rigid body dynamics, Marc ten Bosch Geometric algebra for physicists, C. Doran, A. Lasenby

The Power of Symbolic Simplification: A Case Study

Calculating Hermite coefficients is one of the performance bottlenecks when we implement density functional theory using the McMurchie-Davidson integral scheme.





The arithmetic OP counts of over 93% of the Hermite coefficients calculations are reduced to 15%!

The End