

Article

C^4 Space-Time.. a window to new Physics?

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Abstract: We explore the possibility to form a physical theory in C^4 . We argue that the expansion of our usual 4-d real space-time to a 4-d complex space-time, can serve us to describe geometrically electromagnetism and unify it with gravity, in a different way that Kaluza-Klein theories do. Specifically, the electromagnetic field A_μ , is included in the free geodesic equation of C^4 . By embedding our usual 4-d real space-time in the symplectic 8-d real space-time (symplectic R^8 is algebraically isomorphic to C^4), we derive the usual geodesic equation of a charged particle in gravitational field, plus new information which is interpreted. Afterwards, we explore the consequences of the formulation of a "special relativity" in the flat R^8 .

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2. Introduction

This is the first paper of a series of papers [16] [17] [18] [19] [20], concerning a physical theory in an extended C^4 space-time. The most difficult problem in the present history of physics, is the hunt of a unified theory. A unified theory, which could incorporate general relativity and quantum theory and could explain the nature of dark energy and dark matter, as well. This task is on progress and several theories and suggestions exist in the literature of physics. But yet, a final satisfactory proposal is still missing. Of course, there are promising candidates, such as superstrings, loop quantum gravity and classic quantum gravity theories, which are still under development. At this point, we would like to suggest an alternative, which is pure geometric. We argue that an expansion of our usual 4-d real space-time to a 4-d complex space-time (or to the algebraically isomorphical symplectic 8-d real space-time), could be promising. In fact the extension to a complex space-time is not something new. A. Einstein has used several complex structures in order to unify gravity with electromagnetism [11], W. Pauli generalised the Kaluza-Klein theory to a six-dimensional space (3-d complex space) [12]

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31 and H. P. Soh , advised by A. Eddington, published a theory attempting to unifying gravitation and
 32 electromagnetism within a complex 4-dimensional Riemannian geometry [13]. Moreover, S. Hawking
 33 discussing mathematical models which involve imaginary time for the description of the Universe
 34 in [14], makes a comment ⁴ suggesting that the distinction between real and imaginary quantities
 35 is just a mind trap. In the past, several attempts were made in the direction of a classical unified
 36 field theory (UFT), (all our information about UFT can be found in a marvelous and extensive article
 37 by Hubert F. M. Goenner [23], [24]), where the basic idea was the generalization or the extension of
 38 the Riemannian geometry, in such a way that electromagnetism could be included in a geometrical
 39 way. The main efforts attempted were, Weyl's infinitesimal geometry in terms of gauge field, Kaluza-
 40 Klein's 5-d theories, Eddington's pure affine geometry, Schrodinger's affine geometry, Born's reciprocity
 41 theory, Sciama's attempt to define classical spin and finally Einstein's several attempts using one after
 42 the other possible geometries as mixed (metric-affine geometry), asymmetric or complex geometries.
 43 All these attempts were failed for many reasons, for instance Weyl's UFT failed to produce rational
 44 physical findings, but fortunately, his efforts and ideas guided scientists, through gauge invariance,
 45 to formulate quantum field theory. Schrodinger's affine geometry, which was a blend of a of Weyl's
 46 theory and Eddington's pure affine theory, was not gauge invariant plus his false intention to include
 47 mesons apart from the unification of gravitation and electromagnetism. On the other hand Eddington's
 48 affine geometry was mathematically difficult and his suggestions did not have the elegance and the
 49 presentation required. And then it was A. Einstein, who played with almost every possible geometric
 50 structure, during his hunt for UFT. In the period 1923-1933, he started investigating Eddington's affine
 51 geometry, Cartan's tere-parallel geometry, Kaluza's 5-d Riemannian geometry and finally a mixed one
 52 where he mixed affine geometry with a metric with a skew-symmetric part. In this mixed geometry, he
 53 argued, that the symmetric part of the metric tensor, is associated to inertia and gravitational field,
 54 while the assymetric part of the metric would be linked to electromagnetism, where the field equations
 55 should be derived as limiting case. Afterwards, in 1948, he started to relate mathematical objects to
 56 physical observables, such that, the anti-symmetric density play the role of an electromagnetic potential.
 57 , there were many problems in the interpretation, from the torsion tensor which appeared in the
 58 definition of the metric, to the two versions of UFT, a weak and a strong one, or to the spherically
 59 symmetric solution derived from A.Papapetrou, which did coincide asymptotically with the solution
 60 of Einstein-Maxwell equation. Moreover, a clear connection between geometric objects and observables
 61 could not be found and finally, there were many problems to pass from continuous to discrete mass. But
 62 afterwards, in 1945 tried something new and wrote about it

63 *"What i now do will seem a bit crazy.... consider a space the 4 coordinates x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 which are complex such*
 64 *that in fact it is an 8-d space...In place of the Riemannian metric another one of the form g_{ik} obtains"*

65 But eventually, in order to maintain the 4-d space, he merely abandon this idea and used only
 66 the field variables to be complex. In a same manner A. Eddington and H. P. Soh , used also a 4-d
 67 Riemannian geometry with real coordinates, but with a complex metric, where the real part of the
 68 metric corresponds with mass and gravitation, while the imaginary part corresponds with charge
 69 and electromagnetism. And afterwards, it was D.S.Sciama, who tried to give a new approach to UFT.
 70 Sharing the same opinion with A. Einstein, about a quantum theory derived directly from geometry,
 71 he returned to metric affine geometry. In order to geometrize the spin tensor, he abandoned the
 72 idea that the skew symmetric part of the connection is associated to electromagnetism but rather,
 73 with a classical spin angular momentum of matter. And finally, there where the Kaluza-Klein theory,

⁴ "One might think this means that imaginary numbers are just a mathematical game having nothing to do with the real world. From the viewpoint of positivist philosophy, however, one cannot determine what is real. All one can do is find which mathematical models describe the universe we live in. It turns out that a mathematical model involving imaginary time predicts not only effects we have already observed but also effects we have not been able to measure yet nevertheless believe in for other reasons. So what is real and what is imaginary? Is the distinction just in our minds? "

74 where a fifth dimension was added, so that, this extra dimension would house the incorporation
75 of the electromagnetism field into geometry. Eventually, Kaluza-Klein theory, also suffered with the
76 problem of a static spherically symmetric solution. But all these attempts had bigger problems, that
77 the above mentioned ones. The first of them, it was the lack of knowledge in that period i.e all these
78 great scientists, did not know the existence of nuclear fields, they did not have the experimental
79 data of today, nor the existence of what we call dark matter and dark energy fields. This lack of
80 knowledge, did not give them the chance to properly connect and relate the mathematical objects of
81 their theories to physical observables. Moreover, there was and there is, a certain belief that our usual
82 4-d space-time, should be derived as a limiting case or in reductive way or with compactification of
83 the extra dimensions. In our attempt, fortunately, we take into account all our present knowledge in
84 order to properly connect mathematical objects with observables, plus the fact, that we are willing
85 to connect, even the extra dimensions with observables. Moreover, we asked ourselves, if Cosmos is
86 not in reality 4-d and has a bigger dimension, how would a 4-d observer, would observe this higher
87 dimensional space? Through this question, we do not any longer want to take limits or other similar
88 techniques, but rather to embed our usual 4-d space-time to this higher dimensional space. We argue,
89 that in our approach, we would have the possibility to get in touch with several existing problems
90 of theoretical physics and as well, to give us the opportunity to seek for new physical phenomena.
91 Two new terms will arise after the embedding procedure, apart from gravity, where these new terms
92 are directly connected to geometry and could be linked with the problem of dark fields. In addition,
93 through the embedding procedure, scales will arise, where a uniform scale is recognized as a bound in
94 energy scale, which also looks like a geometric description of Higg's mechanism and the anti-symmetric
95 part of the metric tensor give us enough room, in order to include nuclear forces. Especially, for the
96 possibility to include nuclear forces as well, we give a clearer look by the point of view of symmetry
97 groups in [18]. Finally the generalized spacial relativity that is formulated as a consequence of C^4 or
98 R^8 and the two time consideration, suggests that there also exist a second invariant "velocity", apart
99 the usual speed of light, that totally changes our beliefs about the propagation of information and
100 everything to it and leads to new physical phenomena. Our main approach, is to repeat all the steps
101 that were made in the past, but now not for the 4-d real space-time, but for the 4-d complex space-time.
102 Specifically, we want to establish a theory of mechanics, a theory of "special relativity" and a "general
103 relativity", directly in C^4 . The extra dimensions of this formulation, can be served as additional degrees
104 of freedom, which could help us to describe geometrically the property of mass and "sources"
105 in general. We want to present a "static" problem in C^4 , which becomes "dynamic" after embedding
106 our usual 4-d space-time in the 4-d complex space-time. Sources in general, will arise, as the lost
107 information of this embedding. The advantage of such a consideration, is the ability to present a close
108 theory, as it happens with mechanics and general relativity. Furthermore, we want to explore, the
109 possibility to re-establish quantum theory, as a classic mechanics theory in C^4 , giving us this way, the
110 ability to alter the axiomatic demands of quantum theories, to axiomatic definitions of usual mechanics
111 theory.

112 3. Method behind the choice of a C^4 space-time

113 There are two successful theories that are capable to describe the basic and elementary "forces"
114 in Nature, General Relativity (GR) for gravity and Standard Model (SM) for electromagnetism, weak
115 and strong nuclear interactions. We would like to find a method originated from these two theories,
116 in order not to see or find a way to unify them, but rather to seek for a new frame, from which those
117 two theories could arise. A nice way to start discussing about gravity and GR is the principle of
118 general covariance, a principle that in our opinion expresses deep philosophical issues concerning
119 the description, the existence and the understanding of the Universe or Cosmos. This principle as
120 it is expressed in [21], is the idea that "every physical quantity must be describable by a geometric
121 object and that the laws of physics must all be expressible as geometric relationships between these
122 geometric objects". This principle, was originally expressed by Felix Klein (Erlanger program) and it

123 was A. Einstein who successfully used in GR. Geometric objects are in general tensors such as vectors
 124 (1-tensors), metric tensor (2-tensor), Riemann-Christoffel 3-tensor R^i_{klm} etc, which exist independently
 125 of coordinate systems or reference frames but in general expressible by them. This way GR is usually
 126 called as a geometric theory and it has its foundation on three axioms

- 127 1. There is a metric tensor
- 128 2. The metric tensor fulfills the Einstein field equation

$$129 \quad G_{ij} = 8\pi T_{ij}$$

- 130 3. All special relativistic laws of physics are valid in local Lorentz frames of metric

131 Then curvature in geometry manifests itself as gravitation as the energy momentum tensor T_{ij} , is the
 132 "average" of curvature expressed by Einstein's tensor G_{ij} . Based on the above mentioned, we would
 133 like to impose a question as a new way of investigation. Can we expand the relationship between the
 134 energy-momentum tensor T_{ij} and geometry described by G_{ij} , to a new principle that even T_{ij} is not
 135 connected by relationship to geometry but T_{ij} can be described by geometry itself? Or in an other way,
 136 if T_{ij} generates an average curvature described by Einstein's tensor, can we find a higher dimensional
 137 space, let us call it X, implying this way a new extension of our usual 4-d real space-time to space-time
 138 X, where now T_{ij} can be described or connected with a new "average" curvature defined in the new
 139 expanding part of X and then the generalized "Einstein" tensor (this generalised "Einstein" tensor will
 140 follow the dimensionality of this space X, for instance if X is n dimensional then, this "generalised
 141 Einstein" tensor will be a matrix $n \times n$), let us call it for now G'_{ij} , of the extended space-time X, fulfills
 142 the field equation

$$143 \quad G'_{ij} = 0$$

144 which suggests that the "average" curvature of this space-time X is 0 and the energy-momentum tensor
 145 is incorporated purely geometrical in G'_{ij} ? If the answer is yes, then $G'_{ij} = 0$ is nothing else, than an
 146 equilibrium equation (not of "Poisson type" but rather a "Laplace type" equation) which means that
 147 Universe or Cosmos is an expanding dynamic system in equilibrium state, governed by the geometry
 148 of the space-time or manifold X, through a Ricci flow. Meanwhile, those extra dimensions can be
 149 seen also as additional degrees of freedom, from which the entities of our usual energy-momentum
 150 tensor expressed as matter, charges, currents or even undescribed by GR physical quantities such
 151 as pure quantum characteristics (spin, isospin, colours, etc), or sources in general could be defined
 152 or described pure geometrically. Of course extra dimensions and extension to a higher dimensional
 153 space-time is not something new, it was originally proposed by T. Kaluza and O. Klein and afterwards
 154 from string theories in general, where a 10+1 dimensional space is proposed as the necessary "arena"
 155 for the description of M-theory. At this part, we would like to examine, if there are any clues, from
 156 our well known and accepted theories, which could inform us about the type and dimensionality of
 157 space-time X. We think that there is no better candidate than the Standard Model (SM). Let us focus
 158 only in the electromagnetic part of SM, for simplicity, where the gauge symmetry is the abelian group
 159 U(1) and the covariant derivative associated with it, is

$$160 \quad D_\mu = \partial_\mu - iA_\mu$$

161 There is a lot for someone to discuss about gauge theories, involving symmetry groups, Lie groups,
 162 Lie manifolds, tangent bundles, submersions etc, but we would like to focus on a different and more
 163 simple path. We want to examine this covariant derivative in a strict, in the beginning, mathematical
 164 or geometrical way and afterwards, we will try to evaluate the physical meaning and interpretation.
 165 In this covariant derivative, obviously ∂_μ is a 4-d real vector or vector field (the basic tangent vector of
 166 4-d real space-time) and A_μ is a 4-d real vector or vector field as well. Now, if we consider that D_μ is a
 167 vector or even better a tangent vector, in the sense of a geometrical description, in which space does
 168 D_μ belongs to? The answer is very simple but awkward

D_μ belongs in a C^4 space

169

170 due to the fact that the complex number "i" lies in the covariant derivative between the two 4-d real
 171 vectors! But what does it means, is it just a mathematical tric or can we give physical meaning? We
 172 argue that not only C^4 has physical meaning and interpretation but rather this is the key or clue we
 173 were looking for space X. We suggest a new extension of our usual 4-d real space-time to a 4-d complex
 174 space-time, or a we will see further to its geometrically equivalent 8-d real symplectic space. We shall
 175 see in [18], that the choice of a C^4 space-time by the beginning, will explain not only how, but why
 176 as well, as concerned the choice of a complex field φ in quantum field theories and additionally, the
 177 causality of the existence of the symmetries described by the unitary groups $U(1)$, $SU(2)$, $SU(3)$ in
 178 gauge theories. This way we would not need to start by a God given field and God given symmetries
 179 (as R. Penrose comments in "The Road To Reality"), as they would arise naturally as properties of the
 180 choice of a C^4 space-time. For instance, we will see that the Hermitian metric, associated with C^4 , is
 181 invariant under transformations described by the group $GL(4, C)$ which is isomorphic as

182

$$GL(4, C) \simeq SO(4, 4) \cap U(4)$$

183 Furthermore, we will see in [18], that $U(4)$ breaks simultaneously after embedding our usual space-time
 184 in C^4 into desired unitary groups, giving us this way, the chance to explain the phenomenon of
 185 spontaneous symmetry breaking, as the causality of this embedding. Specifically, in [18] we show that
 186 the symmetry group for nuclear and electromagnetic field should expanded to an extension of SM as
 187 $\frac{SU(4)}{SU(2)} \times SU(2) \times U(1)$, where the quotient is not anymore a group but rather a coset (orbit space),
 188 that is called in the literature of mathematics as Stieffel manifold, that contains an $\mathfrak{su}(3)$ algebra, as a
 189 subalgebra. Furthermore, this coset is isomorphical to the product of spheres $S^7 \times S^5$ which is clearly
 190 "bigger" than the group $SU(3)$ and as a result, it gives us room to seek for unexplained phenomena
 191 linked to strong nuclear field. In addition, all together the product naturally leads to an extension of
 192 SM. It is our desire throughout all our consideration to answer not only the "how" in physics, but
 193 the "why" as well. Additionally, if the choice of a C^4 space-time is valid, it could also explain the
 194 great success of quantum theories in general, as they would appear to have already used the fact
 195 of a complex space-time. Complex geometrical structures are not something new in physics, as we
 196 have already seen in the introduction, and already such structures are used in the sense of Kahler and
 197 Calabi-Yao manifolds. Moreover, symplectic and complex geometries are suggested as new tools in the
 198 connection of Yang-Mills theories and geometry in [22]. But our suggestion is not only some additional
 199 dimensions, serving as additional degrees of freedom, but we want to propose to give direct physical
 200 interpretation to these ones. There are two ways

- 201 1. We must find some physical quantities that will be related to this extra dimensions. Or, are there
 202 any physical necessities that could be introduced by the beginning and C^4 could be the right
 203 framework?
- 204 2. We can start with just a usual vector of C^4

205

$$z_i = x_i + iy_i$$

206 where $x_i, i = 0, 1, 2, 3$ are the usual coordinates of 4-d real space-time and leave y_i without any
 207 physical interpretation, in the beginning, and let the mathematical processing to lead us to a
 208 desired and suitable interpretation.

209 We have chosen the second way, due to the fact, that we can build and establish a more concrete
 210 framework and examine step by step the arisen structures and this way we keep in touch with the
 211 well known physical theories. Finally, from GR the key was geometry, from gauge theories and SM the
 212 key was C^4 space and the combination lead us to this consideration in the search of new physics (if
 213 someone believes in such a hunt)

214 "We suggest to investigate geometrically C^4 space-time. In C^4 space-time there must be a unified field
 215 (Gravity, electromagnetism, etc) which is a property of this 4-d complex space-time itself, as
 216 gravitational field is a property of our usual 4-d real space-time"

217 As a consequence, in the next paragraph, we will start with a pure geometrical picture, by investigating
 218 the elementary length in a curved C^4 space-time and afterwards, we will give the physical interpretation
 219 of these extra dimensions as a natural consequence of geometry processing. The key in order to take
 220 back our usual well known theories which are expressed in the "language" of a 4-d real space-time, will
 221 be the embedding of our usual 4-d space-time, in the 4-d complex space-time. Moreover, in this paper,
 222 we investigate the flat cases of C^4 and R^8 , which leads to an extended special relativity and a second
 223 invariant constant is introduces, while the symmetry group $SO(8)$ is connected with the signatures
 224 $(4, 4)$, $(8, 0)$, $(0, 8)$ through Cartan's principle of triality. The field equations of the unified field in
 225 curved C^4 space-time is investigated in the second paper of this series [17]. In the third and fourth
 226 paper [18], [19] by releasing the end point of the action's integral, we pass to Hamilton-Jacobi equations
 227 and we argue that the covariant derivative of SM is nothing else than a part of the Hamilton-Jacobi
 228 derivative as it comes straightforward, from the problem of least action, derived directly from the
 229 geometry of the curved C^4 space-time and the usual symmetries and groups of SM are related with the
 230 symmetry of this action, which is invariant as we shall see, under transformations of the group $GL(4, C)$
 231 and $U(4)$. Afterwards, in the fourth paper, complex time will help us to overcome the problems of the
 232 ADM formalism and express a suitable Hamilton- Jacobi equation for the curved C^4 , defining this way
 233 a super-energy tensor connected to the complex time. Finally in the fifth paper [20], we introduce 1-
 234 linear forms, which could help us to describe fermions pure geometrically.

235 4. Geometry in C^4

236 There are several geometrical structures that we can equip a C^4 space such complex, almost
 237 complex, Hermitian, holomorphic, Kahler, Kalabi-Yao, etc. From these structures, we have chosen the
 238 Hermitian one because it is the most natural extension of the Riemann's spaces in a complex space.
 239 Specifically, we can define an elementary length of the type

$$ds^2 = G_{ij}dz^i d\bar{z}^j + hc \quad (1)$$

240 where G_{ij} is a Hermitian metric tensor (in analogy to a symmetric metric tensor in Riemann's spaces).
 241 It is obvious, that we treat to C^4 space as

$$C^4 \simeq X \times iY \simeq R^4 \times iR^4 \quad (2)$$

242 where $x^i \in X$ and $y^i \in Y$. Many authors write the Hermitian metric tensor $G_{i\bar{j}}$ instead of G_{ij} but we
 243 will keep the notation without the bra, in order to make the notation more simple. We can proceed by
 244 introducing the elements of the C^4 space as

$$z_i = x_i + iy_i \quad (3)$$

245 where $x_i \in R^4(X)$, $y_i \in R^4(Y)$. The x_i , y_i must be of the same type which means that x_0 and y_0 are
 246 both time-like while x_1, x_2, x_3 and y_1, y_2, y_3 are space-like. The corresponding Cauchy derivative will
 247 be

$$\partial_{z_i} = \frac{1}{2}(\partial_{x_i} - i\partial_{y_i}) \quad (4)$$

248 In addition, the metric tensor of C^4 will be a Hermitian 4×4 metric G_{ij}

$$G_{ij} = g_{ij} + iI_{ij} \quad (5)$$

249 with g_{ij} its symmetric and I_{ij} its anti-symmetric part. Obviously, g_{ij} plays the role of the metric
250 tensor in X and Y consisting only of terms without any mixing of variables in X and Y , while I_{ij} contains
251 only such mixing terms. If we introduce Eq. (3) in Eq. (1) we will move from the C^4 space to an R^8
252 space equipped with a symplectic geometry where the elementary length will then be

$$ds^2 = g_{ij}dx^i dx^j + g_{ij}dy^i dy^j + I_{ij}(dx^i dy^j - dy^j dx^i) \quad (6)$$

253 where g_{ij} is our common symmetric metric tensor and I_{ij} is a symplectic antisymmetric tensor. In the
254 case that I_{ij} vanishes, we fall naturally in the case of a Riemann's space of type R^{2n} where $n = 4$. The
255 Hermitian metric tensor has become in the case of real representation

$$G_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} g_{ij} & I_{ij} \\ -I_{ij} & g_{ij} \end{pmatrix}$$

256 The symplectic term in Eq. (6) can be written also as

$$ds^2 = g_{ij}dx^i dx^j + g_{ij}dy^i dy^j + 2I_{ij}dx^i dy^j \quad (7)$$

257 because $I_{ij}dy^i dx^j = I_{ji}dx^i dy^j = -I_{ij}dy^i dx^j$. Our next step is to generalise the usual Christoffel symbols
258 $\Gamma_{k,ij}$ to Christoffel symbols $\hat{\Gamma}_{k,ij}$ with respect to the Hermitian metric tensor G_{ij} . So, we have to compute
259 the partial derivatives $\frac{\partial G_{jk}}{\partial z^i}$, $\frac{\partial G_{ki}}{\partial z^j}$, $\frac{\partial G_{ij}}{\partial z^k}$ with respect to the Cauchy's derivative as

$$\frac{\partial G_{jk}}{\partial z^i} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial G_{jk}}{\partial x^i} - i \frac{\partial G_{jk}}{\partial y^i} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\left(\frac{\partial g_{jk}}{\partial x^i} + \frac{\partial I_{jk}}{\partial y^i} \right) + i \left(\frac{\partial I_{jk}}{\partial x^i} - \frac{\partial g_{jk}}{\partial y^i} \right) \right) \quad (8)$$

260 thus, the Christoffel symbols $\hat{\Gamma}_{k,ij}$ are

$$\hat{\Gamma}_{k,ij} = \Gamma_{k,ij}^{(x)} + \Delta_{k,ij}^{(x)} - i \left(\Gamma_{k,ij}^{(y)} + \Delta_{k,ij}^{(y)} \right) \quad (9)$$

261 or in real representation R^8

$$\hat{\Gamma}_{k,ij} = (\Gamma_{k,ij}^{(x)} + \Delta_{k,ij}^{(x)} - \Gamma_{k,ij}^{(y)} + \Delta_{k,ij}^{(y)}) \quad (10)$$

262 where $\Gamma_{k,ij}$ are the usual Christoffel symbols with respect to the symmetric tensor g_{ij} , $\Delta_{k,ij}$ are the
 263 "Christoffel symbols" with respect to the antisymmetric tensor I_{ij} and by (x) , (y) we denote the kind
 264 of the coordinates to which we find the partial derivative. As concerned the $\Delta_{k,ij}$ symbols it is easy to
 265 see that

$$\Delta_{k,ij}^{(x)} = -\Delta_{k,ji}^{(x)} \quad (11)$$

$$\Delta_{k,ij}^{(y)} = -\Delta_{k,ji}^{(y)} \quad (12)$$

266 which means, that they are antisymmetric with respect to the pair of indices ij . Now we can proceed
 267 to find the geodesics through the variation of an action of the form

$$\delta S = \delta \int ds \quad (13)$$

268 for ds as defined by Eq. (7) which can be written also as

$$\delta S = \delta \int (g_{ij}u^i u^j + g_{ij}v^i v^j + 2I_{ij}u^i v^j) ds \quad (14)$$

269 where $u^i = \frac{dx^i}{ds}$ and $v^i = \frac{dy^i}{ds}$. After some calculus we derive the pair of geodesic equations

$$(g_{kj} \frac{du^j}{ds} + \Gamma_{k,ij}^{(x)} u^i u^j) + (I_{ki} \frac{dv^i}{ds} + 2\Delta_{k,ij}^{(x)} v^i u^j) + \frac{\partial I_{jk}}{\partial x^i} v^i u^j - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial g_{ij}}{\partial x^k} v^i v^j = 0 \quad (15)$$

$$(g_{kj} \frac{dv^j}{ds} + \Gamma_{k,ij}^{(y)} v^i v^j) + (I_{ki} \frac{du^i}{ds} + 2\Delta_{k,ij}^{(y)} u^i v^j) + \frac{\partial I_{jk}}{\partial y^i} u^i v^j - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial g_{ij}}{\partial y^k} u^i u^j = 0 \quad (16)$$

270 the first parenthesis in both equations reminds us our usual geodesic equation of the space-time R^4 ,
 271 while we have other terms that we want to link them to electromagnetism so that the equations (15),
 272 (16) could gives us the geodesic equation of a charged particle in gravitational field and hopefully new
 273 elements! It is obvious now, that we want to link the symplectic term I_{ij} (antisymmetric tensor) with
 274 a generalized field K_μ which will represent a generalized "electromagnetism" which could contain
 275 not only the electromagnetic field A_μ but the weak nuclear field W_μ and the strong nuclear field G_μ
 276 as well, giving us the opportunity to describe those fields purely geometrically in a larger extended
 277 space-time. We must remember that even the electromagnetic field A_μ is not a pure geometric object of
 278 our usual space-time, but rather added (ad-hoc) to the geometric action (derived by the elementary
 279 length of R^4) by a term

$$- \int \frac{q}{c} A_i dx^i \quad (17)$$

280 The term $I_{ij}v^i v^j$ in Eq. (14) can be also seen as

$$I_{ij}u^i v^j ds = I_{ij} \frac{dx^i}{ds} \frac{dy^j}{ds} ds = -I_{ji} \frac{dy^j}{ds} \frac{dx^i}{ds} ds = -\left(I_{ji} \frac{dy^j}{ds}\right) dx^i \quad (18)$$

281 It is obvious that we could immediately recognize as

$$A_i = I_{ji} \frac{dy^j}{ds} \quad (19)$$

282 but, these could be premature and as we have mentioned above we want to identify a "generalized
283 unified electromagnetism" K_i firstly, but Eq. (19) can give us some clue. We introduce the
284 anti-symmetric tensor K_{ij} defined as

$$K_{jk}^{(x)} = \frac{\partial K_k}{\partial x^j} - \frac{\partial K_j}{\partial x^k} \quad (20)$$

285 where $K_j = I_{ji} \dot{y}^i = -I_{ij} \dot{y}^i$ then Eq. (20) becomes

$$K_{jk}^{(x)} = \frac{\partial K_k}{\partial x^j} - \frac{\partial K_j}{\partial x^k} = \left(\frac{\partial I_{ki}}{\partial x^j} - \frac{\partial I_{ij}}{\partial x^k} \right) v^i \quad (21)$$

286 or with respect to Δ symbols

$$K_{jk}^{(x)} = \left(2\Delta_{k,ij}^{(x)} + \frac{\partial I_{jk}}{\partial x^i} \right) v^i \quad (22)$$

287 this way, the first pair of the geodesic equations can be written

$$\left(g_{kj} \frac{du^j}{ds} + \Gamma_{k,ij}^{(x)} u^i u^j + K_{jk}^{(x)} u^j \right) + I_{ki} \frac{dv^i}{ds} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial g_{ij}}{\partial x^k} v^i v^j = 0 \quad (23)$$

288 The term in the parenthesis starts to look like the desired one, but we must remember that we have the
289 second pair also which becomes

$$\left(g_{kj} \frac{dv^j}{ds} + \Gamma_{k,ij}^{(y)} v^i v^j + K_{jk}^{(y)} v^j \right) + I_{ki} \frac{du^i}{ds} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial g_{ij}}{\partial x^k} u^i u^j = 0 \quad (24)$$

290 The tensor $K_{jk}^{(y)}, K_{jk}^{(x)}$ are nothing else than the "Christoffel symbols" $\Delta_{k,ij}^{(y)}, \Delta_{k,ij}^{(x)}$ multiplied by a velocity!
 291 This way, the analogue of the symmetric metric tensor "field" g_{ij} is the anti-symmetric tensor I_{ij} "field"
 292 and not the K_i (or A_i which is a sub case) as we have suspected as far now in the usual context of
 293 physics. Moreover, the 2-form K_{ij} (or F_{ij} for the sub case) is not equivalent with the curvature 2-form
 294 Riemann-Christoffel tensor R_{ij} . On the contrary the equivalence of K_{ij} is between the Christoffel
 295 symbols Γ . From our point of view, this is the reason that we have failed to unify successfully gravity
 296 and electromagnetism. Even in the case of the Kaluza-Klein theories, the g_{ij} was put in equal foot
 297 with the "field" A_i . As we have seen in our consideration g_{ij} and K_i are different with respect a velocity.
 298 And that was the reason that Kaluza-Klein theories where merely successful. This situation was merely
 299 saved, due to the fact that the variation of the action was taken with respect to the "field" A_i itself and
 300 not with respect a field analogue to the metric tensor, as we have done so far in our consideration. It is
 301 important to note though, that we could form "fields" with respect to the metric tensor g_{ij} in the same
 302 way as we have done for the "fields" K_i , combining the g_{ij} with a velocity, or even form a 2 tensor with
 303 respect to g_{ij} in the same way that we have done for K_{ij} , combining the Γ with a velocity. But all these,
 304 will be investigated later.

305 5. Embedding R^4 in R^8

306 The main problem of the pair of geodesic equations (22), (23) is that they express some physics in
 307 the symplectic space R^8 which is very different from our usual space R^4 . Specifically, these equations
 308 should be valuable only to R^8 observers! Unfortunately, we are 4-d dimensional observers and our
 309 physical theories are expressed in the mathematical language of a 4-d real space. In order to identify
 310 the observables of the 8-d space we can embed our usual 4-d space-time in the 8-d extended space-time.
 311 This way, it seems that 4-d observers live in one of the projection spaces of C^4 and by embedding the
 312 one projection R^4 in C^4 or R^8 symplectic space, we will recover the lost information. But, before the
 313 embedding we must clarify some important issues about the flat cases and the signature problem. The
 314 flat Hermitian metric tensor can take the following signatures (1,1,1,1), (-1,-1,-1,-1), (1,1,-1,-1), (1,1,1,-1)
 315 and (-1,1,1,1) where the 2 first two are Hermitian, while the other two are pseudo-Hermitian, which
 316 gives in the real representation the signatures (8,0), (0,8), (4,4), (6,2), (2,6) accordingly and similarly the
 317 first two are Euclidean, while all the others are pseudo-Euclidean. The signatures (8,0), (0,8) share a
 318 duality property and (6,2), (2,6) as well. But there is a unique property that comes as first time in 8-d
 319 real spaces, the Cartan's triality property, which states that the three signatures (8,0), (4,4), (0,8) are all
 320 correlated (for more information about triality see Appendix 1). By Cartan's principle of triality we will
 321 try not only to choose the right signature but also to explain the choice of the 8-d space (according to
 322 Duff's viewpoint in [3] a fundamental theory of everything should explain not only the dimensionality
 323 but the signature of the space-time as well). In fact, we will be able to provide an independent signature
 324 framework in the same spirit general relativity provides a coordinate independent description. For
 325 that reason, we have the right to pick one of those three signatures and we have chosen the (4,4)
 326 one, due to the fact that it can be splitted to (1+3,3+1) signature, giving us the opportunity to present
 327 our usual Minkowski's space as we shall see below. For clarity, we must emphasize that Hermitian
 328 geometry will only provide us with the signatures (8,0) and (0,8), the (4,4) one which comes from a
 329 pseudo-hermitian geometry, can be used only as a consequence of Cartan's property of triality and if
 330 used, we must automatically change the sign of the second g_{ij} in equation (6) or (7) in the general case
 331 of the Hermitian geometry, from (+) to (-) by hand. Specifically, the signature (4,4) stands for in the flat
 332 case

$$ds^2 = dx_0^2 + \mathbf{dx}^2 - dy_0^2 - \mathbf{dy}^2 \quad (25)$$

333 where bold means 3-d. We can split the signature if we change place between x_0 and y_0 as

$$ds^2 = -dy_0^2 + \mathbf{dx}^2 + dx_0^2 - \mathbf{dy}^2 \quad (26)$$

334 The term $-dy_0^2 + \mathbf{dx}^2$ defines our usual Minkoskwi tensor n_{ij} with signature $(-1, 1, 1, 1)$. Moreover
 335 we would like to add some comments about the embedding procedure. In order to proceed with
 336 embedding, we must pass from the initial coordinate x_i and y_i that describe R^8 , to a re-expression
 337 containing only x_i that describe the embedded space R^4 . This way the y_i coordinates must be
 338 re-expressed with respect to the coordinates of the embedded space. The lost information referred to
 339 coordinates y_i , will be recovered, as we can see from equations of (33), (34) with additional terms in
 340 the final expression of the metric tensor. Now, we can proceed to the embedding which is a standard
 341 mathematic topic, similar to the parametrisation, equations (27)-(34) are part of this mathematical
 342 topic as it exists in the literature of diferrential geometry.

343

344 We start once again by equation (6) derived earlier in this section

$$ds^2 = g_{ij}dx^i dx^j + g_{ij}dy^i dy^j + I_{ij}(dx^i dy^j - dy^j dx^i) \quad (27)$$

345 If R^4 is embedded in R^8 and N_{ij} is the metric tensor of R^4 , then in R^4 we have

$$ds^2 = N_{ij}dx^i dx^j \quad (28)$$

346 We will write the metric tensor in R^8 using Greek indices α, β

$$ds^2 = g_{\alpha\beta}dx^\alpha dx^\beta + g_{\alpha\beta}dy^\alpha dy^\beta + 2I_{\alpha\beta}dx^\alpha dy^\beta \quad (29)$$

347 The elementary length ds of R^4 is the same in R^8 and as a result

$$N_{ij}dx^i dx^j = g_{\alpha\beta}dx^\alpha dx^\beta + g_{\alpha\beta}dy^\alpha dy^\beta + 2I_{\alpha\beta}dx^\alpha dy^\beta \quad (30)$$

348 If $y^\alpha = y^\alpha(x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3)$ and $dy^\alpha = \frac{\partial y^\alpha}{\partial x^\rho} dx^\rho$ we have

$$N_{ij}dx^i dx^j = g_{\alpha\beta}dx^\alpha dx^\beta + g_{\alpha\beta} \frac{\partial y^\alpha}{\partial x^\rho} dx^\rho \frac{\partial y^\beta}{\partial x^\mu} dx^\mu + 2I_{\alpha\beta} dx^\alpha \frac{\partial y^\beta}{\partial x^\mu} dx^\mu \quad (31)$$

349 Because, now we refer to the variables x^i , we can replace the Greek indices by Latin i, j wherever
 350 needed and therefore

$$N_{ij}dx^i dx^j = g_{ij}dx^i dx^j + g_{\alpha\beta} \frac{\partial y^\alpha}{\partial x^i} \frac{\partial y^\beta}{\partial x^j} dx^i dx^j + 2I_{i\beta} \frac{\partial y^\beta}{\partial x^j} dx^i dx^j \quad (32)$$

351 which actually means that

$$N_{ij} = g_{ij} + g_{\alpha\beta} \frac{\partial y^\alpha}{\partial x^i} \frac{\partial y^\beta}{\partial x^j} + 2I_{i\beta} \frac{\partial y^\beta}{\partial x^j} \quad (33)$$

352 or even

$$N_{ij} = g_{ij} + g_{\alpha\beta} \frac{\partial y^\alpha}{\partial x^i} \frac{\partial y^\beta}{\partial x^j} + I_{i\alpha} \frac{\partial y^\alpha}{\partial x^j} + I_{j\alpha} \frac{\partial y^\alpha}{\partial x^i} \quad (34)$$

353 The pair of the geodesic equation (22),(23) becomes as one as

$$N_{ij} \frac{d^2 x^j}{ds^2} + \hat{\Gamma}_{i,jk} \frac{dx^j}{ds} \frac{dx^k}{ds} = 0 \quad (35)$$

354 where

$$\hat{\Gamma}_{i,jk} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial N_{ki}}{\partial x^j} + \frac{\partial N_{ij}}{\partial x^k} - \frac{\partial N_{jk}}{\partial x^i} \right) \quad (36)$$

355 It is important to simplify a little bit the above mentioned equation by introducing a special case of the
356 embedding functions

357 1. $y^{\alpha'} = \lambda \delta_{\alpha'}^{\alpha} x^\alpha$ for $\alpha' = 1, 2, 3$ and $y^0 = y^0(x^0)$. As we can see the space-like functions are linear
358 while the time-like function is free and can be (as we can see in our next paper [18]) of the form
359 $y_0 = Ae^{Bx_0}$. After some calculus, the metric tensor N_{ij} can be written as

$$N_{ij} = (1 + \lambda^2)g_{ij} + \lambda D_{ij} \frac{\partial y^0}{\partial x^0} + 2E_{ij} \left(\frac{\partial y^0}{\partial x^0} \right)^2 + M_{ij} \frac{\partial y^0}{\partial x^0} \quad (37)$$

360 This equation holds if our space is locally Euclidean, but if we want our space locally to have the
361 desired signature (4,4) as we have mentioned, it will take the form

$$N_{ij} = (1 - \lambda^2)g_{ij} + \lambda D_{ij} \frac{\partial y^0}{\partial x^0} - 2E_{ij} \left(\frac{\partial y^0}{\partial x^0} \right)^2 - M_{ij} \frac{\partial y^0}{\partial x^0} \quad (38)$$

362 and if we want to split the signature in (1+3, 3+1) we just have to interchange x_0 with y_0 . This
363 way g_{ij} is our usual metric tensor and locally it is the Minkowsky's metric tensor. Moreover the
364 tensors D_{ij}, E_{ij}, M_{ij} are

$$D_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} 2g_{00} & g_{01} & g_{02} & g_{03} \\ g_{10} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ g_{20} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ g_{30} & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$M_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & I_{01} & I_{02} & I_{03} \\ I_{10} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ I_{20} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ I_{03} & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$E_{ij} = g_{00}\delta_i^0\delta_j^0 \quad (39)$$

365 E_{ij} can be nicely combined with M_{ij} , in order to form the scalar quantity of electromagnetism!
 366 If we proceed in the calculation of $\Gamma_{i,jk}$ with respect to the tensors D_{ij}, E_{ij}, M_{ij} we can see that it
 367 breaks into pieces as

- 368 • our usual Christoffel symbols formed by the first term of Eq. (38) which means that they are
 369 formed by g_{ij}
- 370 • some peculiar "Christoffel symbols" formed by the second term of Eq. (37) D_{ij} which are g_{ij}
 371 related and have the form

$$\Gamma_{i,jk}^{(D)} = \left(\frac{\partial g_{k0}}{\partial x^j} + \frac{\partial g_{j0}}{\partial x^k}\right)\delta_i^0 + \left(\frac{\partial g_{i0}}{\partial x^k} - \frac{\partial g_{k0}}{\partial x^i}\right)\delta_j^0 + \left(\frac{\partial g_{i0}}{\partial x^j} - \frac{\partial g_{j0}}{\partial x^i}\right)\delta_k^0 \quad (40)$$

- 372 the first parenthesis is symmetric while the other two are antisymmetric, which is in contrast
 373 to the behaviour of our usual Christoffel symbols.
- 374 • the "Christoffel symbols" with respect to the antisymmetric tensor I_{ij} that we have called them
 375 as $\Delta_{i,jk}$

$$\Gamma_{i,jk}^{(M)} = \Delta_{i,jk} = \left(\frac{\partial I_{k0}}{\partial x^j} + \frac{\partial I_{j0}}{\partial x^k}\right)\delta_i^0 + \left(\frac{\partial I_{i0}}{\partial x^k} - \frac{\partial I_{k0}}{\partial x^i}\right)\delta_j^0 + \left(\frac{\partial I_{i0}}{\partial x^j} - \frac{\partial I_{j0}}{\partial x^i}\right)\delta_k^0 \quad (41)$$

376 it is peculiar but the $\Gamma_{i,jk}^{(D)}, \Gamma_{i,jk}^{(M)} = \Delta_{i,jk}$ have exactly the same form, except the fact that
 377 the first one is with respect to the symmetric g_{ij} while the second one with respect to the
 378 antisymmetric I_{ij} .

379 All these terms will appear in the geodesic equation. Afterwards, we can express some cases
 380 concerning Eq. (38). Firstly, it is interesting to note that in the case that $i, j \neq 0$ we have

$$N_{ij} = (1 - \lambda^2)g_{ij} \quad (42)$$

381 and for $i, j = 0$ we have

$$N_{00} = (1 - \lambda^2)g_{00} + \lambda g_{00} \frac{\partial y^0}{\partial x^0} - 2g_{00} \left(\frac{\partial y^0}{\partial x^0}\right)^2 = \left((1 - \lambda^2) + \lambda \frac{\partial y^0}{\partial x^0} - 2\left(\frac{\partial y^0}{\partial x^0}\right)^2\right)g_{00} \quad (43)$$

Equation (43) expresses energies, which means that the parenthesis in front g_{00} is a coupling constant. This term has a maximum in the scale $\frac{\lambda}{2} = \frac{\partial y^0}{\partial x^0}$ suggesting that at this point the scale λ is unified with $\frac{\partial y^0}{\partial x^0}$ and that we cannot override this scale, all the permitted scales are only below this scale! If $\lambda > 0$ the term in parenthesis becomes $1 - \frac{\lambda^2}{2}$, but if $\lambda < 0$ this term becomes $1 - \frac{5}{2}\lambda^2$. It somewhat peculiar but it looks like we have a geometrical description of Higg's mechanism (without the interaction term that comes from φ^4 and can be recovered from the other papers) and that we have the possibility to enter in the area of high energy physics. We must proceed with the interpretation of Eq. (38) term by term in order to clarify what this energy scales mean.

- the first term of Eq. (38) is $(1 - \lambda^2)g_{ij}$ where g_{ij} is our usual metric tensor of the 4-d space-time and will we see in the next paper of this series [17] that expresses gravity and is connected with ordinary masses. Moreover, we will see that λ stands for Planck scale as it will be derived from general relativity. In this case, λ is fixed as it happens in General Relativity, but in the next case, the scale will be time depended.
- the last term represents the "unified generalised electromagnetism" as we have mentioned. But for $y^{\alpha'} = \lambda \delta_q^{\alpha'} x^q$ for $\alpha' = 1, 2, 3$ that we are studying, this should be our well known electromagnetism, due to the linearity of the embedding functions! Specifically, in this case the electromagnetic field tensor F_{ij} should stand for

$$F_{ij} = \frac{\partial y^0}{\partial x^0} \left(\frac{\partial I_{k0}}{\partial x^j} - \frac{\partial I_{j0}}{\partial x^k} \right) \frac{dy^0}{ds} \quad (44)$$

- where $\frac{\partial y^0}{\partial x^0} = \frac{q}{c}$.
- the second term has a scale as the product of the scale of the first term and the last one. Moreover, the $\Gamma_{i,jk}^{(D)}$ have the same behaviour with the $\Delta_{i,jk}$ but with respect to the symmetric tensor g_{ij} . It looks like this term both "gravitates" and "electromagnitates" in behavioral way! It is a hybrid between those two fundamental elementary fields. We propose to interpretate or connect this field to what we use to call as dark field (or for the linear case and only "dark electromagnetism")!
 - finally the third term that has only one element $E_{ij} = g_{00}\delta_i^0\delta_j^0$ (scalar), share the scale of electromagnetism squared. We shall see later that it is invariant to any transformation that generalises $y^{\alpha'} = \lambda \delta_q^{\alpha'} x^q$ for $\alpha' = 1, 2, 3$, which can be interpreted as dark energy field.
2. If we write y^α around a point $(x_0^0, x_0^1, x_0^2, x_0^3)$, where $\vec{x}_0 = (x_0^1, x_0^2, x_0^3)$ is a steady point or pole, we can have for the embedding functions

$$y^{\alpha'} = y^{\alpha'}(x_0, \vec{x}_0) + \frac{\partial y^{\alpha'}}{\partial x^\gamma}(x_0, \vec{x}_0)(x^\gamma - x_0^\gamma) + \dots \quad (45)$$

for $\alpha' = 1, 2, 3$ and $\gamma = 1, 2, 3$. If we keep only the two first terms of the expansion and if we set

$$\varepsilon_\lambda^\kappa = \begin{cases} 0, & \kappa = \lambda \\ 1, & \kappa \neq \lambda \end{cases} \quad (46)$$

413 the final embedding functions are

$$y^{\alpha'} = y^{\alpha'}(x_0, \bar{x}_0) + c_\gamma^\alpha (x^\gamma - x_0^\gamma) \varepsilon_0^\alpha \quad (47)$$

414 for $\alpha = 1, 2, 3, 4$ and $\gamma = 1, 2, 3$. We have the following cases as concerning the indices i, j

415 • for $i, j = 1, 2, 3$ and for locally (4,4,) signature

$$N_{ij} = g_{ij} - g_{\alpha\beta} \frac{\partial y^\alpha}{\partial x^i} \frac{\partial y^\beta}{\partial x^j} + I_{i\alpha} \frac{\partial y^\alpha}{\partial x^j} + I_{j\alpha} \frac{\partial y^\alpha}{\partial x^i} \quad (48)$$

416 or

$$N_{ij} = g_{ij} - g_{\alpha\beta} c_i^\alpha c_j^\beta + I_{i\alpha} c_i^\alpha + I_{j\alpha} c_j^\beta \quad (49)$$

417 We have to mention that in contrast to $y^{\alpha'} = \lambda \delta_0^{\alpha'} x^e$ for $\alpha' = 1, 2, 3$ embedding
418 transformations that we have studied earlier, we have terms generated by I_{ij} .

419 • $i = 0$ and $j = 1, 2, 3$ we have

$$420 N_{0j} = g_{0j} - g_{\alpha\beta} \left(\frac{\partial y_0^\alpha}{\partial x^0} + \frac{\partial c_\gamma^\alpha}{\partial x^0} (x^\gamma - x_0^\gamma) \right) c_j^\beta - g_{0\beta} \frac{\partial y_0^\beta}{\partial x^0} c_j^\beta + I_{0\alpha} c_j^\alpha + \dots$$

$$I_{j\alpha} \left(\frac{\partial y_0^\alpha}{\partial x^0} + \frac{\partial c_\gamma^\alpha}{\partial x^0} (x^\gamma - x_0^\gamma) \right) + I_{j0} \frac{\partial y_0^\alpha}{\partial x^0} \quad (50)$$

421 and if $x^\gamma \rightarrow x_0^\gamma$ the above equation takes the simpler form

$$N_{0j} = g_{0j} - g_{\alpha\beta} \frac{\partial y_0^\alpha}{\partial x^0} c_j^\beta - g_{0\beta} \frac{\partial y_0^\beta}{\partial x^0} c_j^\beta + I_{0\alpha} c_j^\alpha + I_{j\alpha} \frac{\partial y_0^\alpha}{\partial x^0} + I_{j0} \frac{\partial y_0^\alpha}{\partial x^0} \quad (51)$$

422 where in this equation we have time dependence for all the terms in contrast to the previous
423 case $y^{\alpha'} = \lambda \delta_0^{\alpha'} x^e$ for $\alpha' = 1, 2, 3$ embedding transformations that we have studied earlier.

424 This way even the scale for g_{ij} is time depended.

425 • finally the case $i, j = 0$ leads to

$$N_{00} = g_{00} - g_{\alpha\beta} \frac{\partial y_0^\alpha}{\partial x^0} \frac{\partial y_0^\beta}{\partial x^0} - 2g_{\alpha 0} \frac{\partial y_0^\alpha}{\partial x^0} \frac{\partial y_0^\beta}{\partial x^0} - 2g_{00} \left(\frac{\partial y_0^\beta}{\partial x^0} \right)^2 + 2I_{0\alpha} \quad (52)$$

426 if $x^\gamma \rightarrow x_0^\gamma$ this equation take the form

$$N_{00} = g_{00} - g_{\alpha\beta} \frac{\partial y_0^\alpha}{\partial x^0} \frac{\partial y_0^\beta}{\partial x^0} - 2g_{\alpha 0} \frac{\partial y_0^\alpha}{\partial x^0} \frac{\partial y_0^\beta}{\partial x^0} - 2g_{00} \left(\frac{\partial y_0^\beta}{\partial x^0} \right)^2 + 2I_{0\alpha} \frac{\partial y_0^\alpha}{\partial x^0} \quad (53)$$

427 we can see that again the term $E_{00} = 2g_{00} \left(\frac{\partial y^0}{\partial x^0} \right)^2$ unchanged from the previous case
 428 $y^{\alpha'} = \lambda \delta_{\alpha'}^{\alpha} x^{\alpha}$ for $\alpha' = 1, 2, 3$. The last term splits into three scales for the $\alpha = 1, 2, 3$ where
 429 this term, as we have mentioned, expresses the "unified generalised electromagnetism".
 430 This split is exactly why we have called it this way. It would be formidable if we could
 431 interpret (in a first approach) this term as electromagnetism, weak nuclear field and strong
 432 unified nuclear in a unified pure geometrical way. Moreover, the two first terms that are
 433 gravity and ordinary mass related, splits into three scale where each one them splits into
 434 three sub-scales. The third term involves three energy scale splitting as the last term does,
 435 too. These energy scales will help us in the third paper of this series [18] to enter in the area
 436 of particle physics. For $a = 0$, we have a uniform scale involving all the terms and is the
 437 same with the previous case. The case for $a = 0$, can serve us, as a base scale, which can
 438 be seen, as the vacuum state. Moreover, the splitting of the scales for $i = 1, 2, 3$, can serve
 439 us to form different subscales, that could be connected with the mass hierarchy problem
 440 and as well, the existing number of families in Nature. Moreover, we must say that before
 441 the embedding, C^4 space had an original symmetry (as we shall see in the third paper [18])
 442 which after the embedding has broken into several symmetries. This is exactly what we call
 443 in standard model and Higg's mechanism, spontaneous symmetry breaking. Of course, it is
 444 not spontaneous at all! There is a cause, the difference between how a 8-d observer and a
 445 4-d one, observes Cosmos. The symmetry that is connected to our usual g_{ij} tensor is what
 446 we used to call external symmetries, while all the others, involving the g_{ij} connected with y_i
 447 and the I_{ij} involving both x_i and y_i , are what we use to call "internal". These symmetries, will
 448 be further distinguished to global and local. But all these things will be extensively studied
 449 in the third paper of this series. Another comment for this paragraph is that the final case
 450 should be better be studied, involving not two but three parts, taking in account these way
 451 a term that is totally nonlinear and these non-linearity is that accompanies non-abelian
 452 theories. In addition, in [17], we argue that dark matter behaves as $\varepsilon_{d.matter} \sim \frac{l}{mr} \rightarrow m \sim R$,
 453 where l is constant that must be identified, with $w = -\frac{2}{3}$ in equation of state. We think that
 454 this proposed energy density, agrees with a certain belief on this matter that "the galaxial
 455 halo of dark matter are expanded with smoothly decreasing densities, such that the matter
 456 is increasing with respect to distance". As concerned dark energy, in [18], we solved the
 457 equation in the flat case (without embedding in the beginning) and we argue that we can
 458 provide a satisfactory explanation about the cosmological constant problem, based on the
 459 embedding function between T and t (this embedding was derived for the flat case from the
 460 solution).

461 6. Interpretation of the coordinates

462 The introduction of a C^4 as an extended space-time, automatically leads to the question, what is
 463 the physical interpretation of the coordinates of this space. We must admit that we have used more
 464 dimensions than four, but we do not wish to treat them as strings theories do. We want to connect the
 465 extra dimensions with already existing physical variables. Let us consider an element of C^4 space as

$$466 z^i = (z^0, z^1, z^2, z^3) = x^i + iy^i = (x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3) + i(y^0, y^1, y^2, y^3) \quad (54)$$

467 As we have mentioned, x_i, y_i must be of the same type which means that x_0 and y_0 are both time-like
 468 while x_1, x_2, x_3 and y_1, y_2, y_3 are space-like. If x_1, x_2, x_3 are our usual length, width and height, time
 469 can be x_0 or even y_0 . In the case that time is y_0 we could define an imaginary time! But before messing
 with times, it is wiser to see what happens with y_1, y_2, y_3 . Let us consider an elementary particle, in

470 order to describe it, we must introduce a lot of information concerning its basic characteristics such as
 471 mass value, charge, spin weak isospin, colour, flavour and what ever else is still hidden. All these
 472 characteristics are not well defined, but rather ad-hoc properties that came by logic, observation and
 473 inspiration. Now, if we go back to the geodesic equation of the first embedding functions, there is a
 474 term as

$$(1 - \lambda^2) \left(g_{kj} \frac{du^j}{ds} + \Gamma_{k,ij} u^i u^j \right) \quad (55)$$

475 and another term as

$$F_{ij} u^j \frac{dy^0}{ds} \quad (56)$$

476 We can observe that $(1 - \lambda^2)$ stands exactly at the point that a mass term should be and that $\frac{dy^0}{ds}$ where
 477 charge q should be. These terms appeared as an echo of the information that we lost through the
 478 embedding, or just the pay back of y^i . This way, we can say that we have a sort of geometrisation for
 479 mass (from the g_{ij} part) and geometrisation of "charges" (from the I_{ij} part). This geometrisation will
 480 reflect to the equivalence principle. Specifically, before embedding, we have a C^4 or a symplectic R^8
 481 space-time. Let us consider the case that I_{ij} vanishes. Then, there is an equivalence between velocities
 482 and accelerations of the two projection spaces $X \simeq R^4$ and $Y \simeq R^4$. But, space Y will reflect after the
 483 embedding to the definition of inertial mass, which finally in the second paper [17] will give us the
 484 equivalence principle, as a consequence. Let us now generalise the picture, we will use the the 3-d
 485 space that is defined by y^i in order to define geometrically the characteristics that elementary particles
 486 have. We like to call y^i as mass-like vectors (in the third paper [18], we can see the connection of y_i
 487 with mass eigenstates and that is the reason we called them mass-like) and the space that they are
 488 define as mass space. So, if y^i are mass-like, we need a physical quantity that is mass linked. In general
 489 relativity exists such a quantity the Schwarzschild radius r_g .

$$r_g = 2 \frac{G}{c^2} m \longrightarrow r_g \frac{c^2}{G} = 2m \quad (57)$$

490 where m is the mass of a body. Every physical entity has a Schwarzschild radius. For instance for the
 491 Sun $r_g = 2,95 \times 10^3$, for Earth $r_g = 8,87 \times 10^{-3}$ and for an electron $r_g = 1,353 \times 10^{-57}$. The study of a
 492 massive object through Schwarzschild radius or its mass is equivalent. Thus, it is worth to try relate
 493 the geometrical space Y with the mass property. To this end let us write $y_i = r_i$

$$\| r_i \| = \sqrt{r_1^2 + r_2^2 + r_3^2} = \frac{1}{4} r_g^2 = \frac{G^2}{c^4} m^2 \quad (58)$$

494 leading to a mass-related vector

$$(r_1, r_2, r_3) = \frac{G}{c^2} (m_1, m_2, m_3) \quad (59)$$

495 where

$$\| m \| = m = \frac{1}{4} \frac{G}{c^2} r_g \quad (60)$$

496 Re-expressing r_i in spherical coordinates we get :

$$(r_1, r_2, r_3) \longrightarrow (r_g, \Theta, \Phi) = \left(\frac{G}{c^2} m, \Theta, \Phi \right) \quad (61)$$

497 where the angles Θ, Φ are related to mass states and therefore could be linked in the future to PMNS,
498 CKM matrices in the context of a field theoretical description, combined with the scales of the previous
499 paragraph. A vector in R^8 can be written as

$$\vec{k} = (x_1, x_2, x_3, ct, \frac{G}{c^2} m_1, \frac{G}{c^2} m_2, \frac{G}{c^2} m_3, T) \quad (62)$$

500 and setting $G=c=1$

$$\vec{k} = (x_1, x_2, x_3, t, m_1, m_2, m_3, T) \quad (63)$$

501 or even in C^4

$$\vec{k} = (x_1, x_2, x_3, t) + i(m_1, m_2, m_3, T) \quad (64)$$

502 At this part, in order to keep contact with the standard notation we perform a weak rotation in (t,T)
503 subspace writing the metric as

$$dk^2 = dx_1^2 + dx_2^2 + dx_3^2 + dT^2 - dm_1^2 - dm_2^2 - dm_3^2 - dt^2 \quad (65)$$

504 giving a signature of (4,4). Our next step is to give a physical interpretation to the second time-like
505 coordinate T. If we consider that T (which has units of meters) is the "cosmic" radius $R(t)$ then
506 $v = \frac{dT}{dt} = \frac{dR(t)}{dt}$ is the Hubble velocity. If such a picture is valid, we could set $T = \frac{c}{H(t)}$ where $H(t)$ is
507 the Hubble constant. This way

$$dT = d\left(\frac{c}{H(t)}\right) = -\frac{c}{H^2(t)} dH(t) \quad (66)$$

508 Writing Eq. (64) without the $d\vec{m}$ term we have:

$$dk^2 = d\vec{x}^2 + dT^2 - c^2 dt^2 \quad (67)$$

509 which looks like the De-Sitter metric and models the De-Sitter's Universe in vacuum without mass.
 510 This way, the peculiar situation where we have two qualitatively different observers, one travelling in
 511 space and another travelling under the cosmic expansion, attains a simple interpretation. Let us add
 512 here that two-time approaches became recently very popular in the context of string or M -theory [2]
 513 [4] [5] [6] [7]. But we have to note that two times physics also means as we have seen a complex time,
 514 which is after all the basis of our consideration. This approach gives us many advantages, but it totally
 515 alters the way that we must look, understand and approach physically and philosophically Cosmos.
 516 Already, S. Hawking had refereed to this subject many times. If a complex time exists, Cosmos is much
 517 more different than we have thought. Our usual image, as 4-d observers (this is where we have written
 518 our usual theories) is that Cosmos looks like a giant "ring bell". But if time is complex, Cosmos will be
 519 actually a "sphere" inside the C^4 space. If such a hypothesis holds, we were driven to another paradox,
 520 comparable with the one of Ptolemy. It is very different what things seem to be, to what things actually
 521 are. Many times in our history senses have tricked us. Moreover, a singularity problem in the C^4 space,
 522 will have totally different meaning and require different approach, compared to a singularity problem
 523 in our usual 4-d space-time.

524 7. Special relativity in R^8

525 Let us now start working on the flat metric with signature (4,4)

$$ds^2 = d\vec{r}^2 + dT^2 - f^2 d\vec{m}^2 - c^2 dt^2 \quad (68)$$

526 where $f = \frac{G}{c^2}$. Our next step is to formulate the associated "special relativity" in R^8 , compatible with
 527 all the above mentioned considerations. The first step is to write an action S .

$$S = \int_t L dt \quad (69)$$

528 and try to obtain a link to Einstein's special relativity action. To this end we apply the transformation
 529 $T \longleftrightarrow it$. Then

$$ds^2 = \left(\frac{1}{c^2} \left(\frac{d\vec{r}}{dt} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{c^2} \left(\frac{dT}{dt} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{c^2} \left(\frac{d(f\vec{m})}{dt} \right)^2 - 1 \right) c^2 dt^2 \quad (70)$$

530 Introducing the notation

$$\vec{u} = \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt}, v = \frac{dT}{dt}, \vec{w} = \frac{d(f\vec{m})}{dt} \quad (71)$$

531 for the derivatives, the metric becomes

$$ds^2 = \left(\frac{u^2}{c^2} + \frac{v^2}{c^2} - \frac{w^2}{c^2} - 1 \right) c^2 dt^2 \quad (72)$$

532 then the Lagrangian of a free point-particle is written

$$S = - \int_t Dc \sqrt{1 - \frac{u^2}{c^2} + \frac{w^2}{c^2} - \frac{v^2}{c^2}} dt \quad (73)$$

533 where the constant D has dimensions of momentum. The canonical momenta are

$$p_u = \frac{\partial L}{\partial u} = -\frac{D^2 u}{L} \quad (74)$$

$$p_w = \frac{\partial L}{\partial w} = \frac{D^2 w}{L} \quad (75)$$

$$p_v = \frac{\partial L}{\partial v} = -\frac{D^2 v}{L} \quad (76)$$

534 while the Hamiltonian H is

$$H = p_u u + p_v v + p + w - L = -\frac{D^2 c^2}{L} \quad (77)$$

535 leading to

$$H = \frac{Dc}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{u^2}{c^2} + \frac{w^2}{c^2} - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}} \quad (78)$$

536 We can make the following observations concerning this Hamiltonian

537 1. If $\frac{w^2}{c^2} - \frac{v^2}{c^2} = 0 \rightarrow f dm = dt \rightarrow dm = \frac{1}{f} dT \rightarrow m = \frac{1}{f} T + b$

538 where m is the magnitude $m = |\vec{m}|$ and b is a constant. We can also write:

$$\int_{m_0}^m dm = \frac{1}{f} \int_{T_0}^T dT \rightarrow m - m_0 = \frac{1}{f} (t - t_0) \quad (79)$$

539 2. If $\vec{u} = \vec{w} = 0$ then $\frac{d\vec{m}}{dt} = 0 \rightarrow m = m_0$

540 3. If $\frac{w^2}{c^2} - \frac{v^2}{c^2} = 0$ or $\vec{u} = \vec{w} = 0$ holds, the Hamiltonian coincides with the usual Hamiltonian of
541 Einstein's special relativity for $D = m_0 c$. The only free parameters are m_0 and c

542 4. We have to give an interpretation to the velocity $\vec{w} = f \frac{d\vec{m}}{dt}$. Let us write again the metric

$$dk^2 = d\vec{r}^2 + dT^2 - f^2 d\vec{m}^2 - c^2 dt^2 \quad (80)$$

543 Rotating in the (t,T) plane we get:

$$dk^2 = d\vec{r}^2 - c^2 dt^2 - f^2 d\vec{m}^2 + dT^2 \quad (81)$$

544 Since the light speed is constant, $d\vec{r}^2 - c^2 dt^2$ is an invariant quantity. For $dT^2 - f^2 d\vec{m}^2$ a similar
545 invariant quantity should occur

$$dT^2 - f^2 d\vec{m}^2 = \left(1 - f^2 \frac{dm^2}{dT^2}\right) dT^2 = f^2 \left(\frac{1}{f^2} dT^2 - d\vec{m}^2\right) \quad (82)$$

546 The equation $\left(\frac{T}{f}\right)^2 - (m_1^2 + m_2^2 + m_3^2) = 0$ defines a cone (not a light-cone) in space $M^{3,4}$ (we
547 refer to space Y as mass space M). Setting $m = |\vec{m}| = \sqrt{m_1^2 + m_2^2 + m_3^2}$ then

548 $\frac{m}{T} = \frac{1}{f}$. From the relation $\frac{1}{f^2} dT^2 - d\vec{m}^2 = 0$ we have $\frac{dm}{dt} = \frac{1}{f}$ where the quantity $\frac{m}{T}$ is a linear
549 density. If T is the "Cosmos"(Universe) radius, then we get that this linear density (Cosmos'
550 linear density) is an invariant. The above consideration holds on the cone. Consequently

$$d\vec{m} = \frac{1}{f} dT \longrightarrow m = \frac{1}{f} T + m_o \longrightarrow T = f(m - m_o) \quad (83)$$

551 then

$$d\vec{m} = \frac{1}{f} dT \longrightarrow \frac{\vec{m}}{dt} = \frac{1}{f} \frac{dT}{dt} \longrightarrow f \frac{\vec{m}}{dt} = \frac{dT}{dt} \longrightarrow \vec{u} = \vec{w} \quad (84)$$

552 which also holds on the cone. Then

$$H = \frac{Dc}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{u^2}{c^2} + \frac{w^2}{c^2} - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}} = \frac{Dc}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{u^2}{c^2}}} \quad (85)$$

553 on the cone of space $M^{3,4}$. As a result, the equation $H = \frac{Dc}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{u^2}{c^2}}}$ is valid only on the cone
554 of space $M^{3,4}$ or Einstein's special relativity is valid only on the cone of $M^{3,4}$. This way, we

555 obtain a generalisation of Einstein's special relativity. This generalised picture gives us of course
556 Einstein's special relativity plus information about matter and Cosmos' radius.

557 **Axiom(Invariance principle):** The linear density of Cosmos $\frac{d\vec{M}}{dT}$ (M is the mass of Cosmos) is
558 constant and independent from observers in M^4 . The quantity

559 $\left(\frac{T}{f}\right)^2 - (m_1^2 + m_2^2 + m_3^2)$ is an invariance of space $M^{3,4}$ or in differential form the metric $ds_M^2 =$
560 $dT^2 - f^2 d\vec{m}^2$ is invariant. Moreover $ds_R^2 = d\vec{r}^2 - c^2 dt^2$ is invariant in space $R^{3,4}$. Since the
561 variables are not mixed (flat space) the total length $ds^2 = ds_R^2 + ds_M^2$ is invariant, as well. Then,
562 ds^2 must be invariant for all observers in R^8 .

563 **Theorem:** For any quadratic form in R^n there is a group of linear transformations of space
564 R^n that leave the associated quadratic form invariant. In the case of R^8 this group is $SO(4,4)$
565 or $SO(3+1, 1+3)$. The linear transformations of this group are the transformations that the
566 observers of R^8 must use in order to communicate with each other so the quadratic form will
567 remain unchanged. This way, the "pseudo-distance" between two different points of R^8 must be
568 the same for all observers of R^8 .

569 Now we must "evaluate" the constant f. We have already mentioned that f is $\frac{G}{c^2}$ and we have
570 to figure out the consistency of this choice. Let us consider two different states of Cosmos.
571 The first state is when Cosmos was in Planck state while the second is "now". In the first one,
572 Cosmos is considered as the theoretical Planck particle with mass m_P and length-radius l_P . Then
573 $\frac{M}{T} = \frac{m_P}{l_P} = \frac{G}{c^2}$. In the second one Cosmos is considered to have a mass 10^{52}kg and radius
574 10^{26} then $\frac{T}{M} \simeq \frac{10^{26}}{10^{52}} \simeq 10^{-26} \simeq \frac{G}{c^2}$. As a conclusion, these two different and far apart states
575 lead to $f = \frac{G}{c^2}$. Of course all the above statements are valid and applicable to a Cosmos that is
576 flat and looks as a De-Sitter Cosmos. Note that this way the coordinates of M^3 are expressed as
577 $\frac{G}{c^2} m$, which is the Schwarzschild's radius and must be interpreted with care! We must also say
578 that f is a global invariance and all the above results holds in R^8 , while M and T are quantities
579 concerning Cosmos. Thus, T=constant defines hyper surfaces of R^8 . Additionally m_0 ($m_0 \in R$)
580 describes a mass moving in the usual space-time originating from the sub-space M^3 . Different
581 subspaces of R^7 express different m_1, m_2, \dots that move inside different subspaces of the usual
582 space-time, forming different "cosmic lines" for different masses m_i , which are connected through
583 usual Lorentz transformations. As a conclusion, we have a local invariance, which is realized
584 through the invariance of c and m_0 . This picture extends Einstein's special relativity.

- 585 5. We considered what happens in the signature $(3+1, 1+3)$ where we saw the existence of two
586 cones. Trying a similar analysis for the signature $(4,4)$ the (-) sign between the spaces M^4, R^4 will
587 lead to three different "leave-spaces" which are separated since $SO(4,4)$ is not simply connected.
588 We do not have cones of the type we are familiar with. For instance, if we are in $R^{1,3}$ we descend
589 one dimension and we can find the cone as a hyper surface in $R^{1,3}$ ($c^2 t^2 = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$). In our
590 case, we have two spaces and we have to descend not one dimension but a whole dimensional
591 space ($x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 + T^2 = m_1^2 + m_2^2 + m_3^2 + c^2 t^2$). We have to descend from R^8 to R^4 or M^4 .
592 This way, we have a "cone" like structure that cannot be handled as usual. We cannot formulate
593 a "velocity" in order to proceed as we know. However, there is an alternative way through
594 Casimir's and Pauli-Lubanki's invariants from which we can extract the existing invariance
595 principle. If p_μ , $\mu = 1, 2, \dots, 8$ is the pure momentum vector then the expression $p_\mu p^\mu$ is an
596 invariant

$$(p_R, p_M)(p^R, p^M) = p_R p^R - p_M p^M = -D^2 \quad (86)$$

597 where D has units of momentum $[kgr \frac{m}{sec}] = [m \frac{kgr}{sec}]$. A mass m that moves in the space R^4 is
 598 described by vectors of the type (\vec{r}, t) and velocities that have the general form $\vec{u} = \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt}$ where
 599 c is an invariant. A "length" l that moves in the space M^4 is described by vectors of the type
 600 (\vec{m}, t) and velocities that have the general form $\vec{w} = \frac{G}{c^3} \frac{d\vec{m}}{dt}$ where $\frac{c^3}{G}$ has dimensions $[\frac{kgr}{sec}]$ being
 601 an invariant, too. Of course this two evolutions must be equivalent for consistency reasons. Let
 602 us discuss what does a local observer in R^4 and M^4 experiences. Let us represent local observers
 603 of usual space as (SO) and local observers of "mass" space as (MO). An (SO) observes a Cosmos
 604 with diameter $\simeq 10^{52}$ m and he needs $\simeq 10^{18}$ sec to fully trespass it with velocity c . On the other
 605 hand, (MO) observes a Cosmos with diameter $\simeq 10^{53}$ kgr and he needs 10^{18} sec to fully trespass
 606 it with velocity c^3/G . So the trespass time is the same for the two observers. This situation is
 607 more correct in Planck's picture. What does a velocity of $[\frac{kgr}{sec}]$ means? Unfortunately we are
 608 used to think velocity in $[\frac{m}{sec}]$ and a $[\frac{kgr}{sec}]$ "velocity" seems irrational. In order to understand
 609 the differences between the two velocities let us consider the following case. Let us imagine
 610 two (SO) observers in the space of Milky way and Andromeda ($2.5 \cdot 10^6$ light years distance)
 611 respectively. In order to communicate they must sent a signal. If this signal travels with velocity
 612 c it will need $2.5 \cdot 10^6$ years to trespass this distance. On the other hand, this space is almost
 613 empty (one hydrogen atom per cubic meter or mass of 1 kgr distributed in this area). Two (MO)
 614 observers can communicate in 10^{-34} sec by sending signals with $\frac{c^3}{G}$ velocity. An (MO) signal
 615 can travel between galaxies extremely "fast", almost instantaneously. Although all observers
 616 (MO, SO) need the same time to trespass all Cosmos, the time needed to trespass local structures
 617 in Cosmos may vary tremendously between the two different kinds of observers, due to the
 618 difference between how masses and the distances between them are distributed in Cosmos. We
 619 have huge concentrations of mass in small areas and small concentrations in huge areas. Thus,
 620 specific information travelling with velocity c^3/G could lead to correlations during the Planck
 621 period which may explain the horizon and isotropy problems.

622 6. The elementary length leads us two three possible cases, the first one is $ds^2 > 0$, the second one
 623 is $ds^2 < 0$ and the third one $ds^2 = 0$. The question is what these three cases will represent if we
 624 apply not for the flat metric tensor but for a spherical symmetrical metric tensor, in the same
 625 spirit as we apply in the usual context of general relativity with the Schwarzschild metric which
 626 of course leads us to black holes. What must happen in order to pass from the first case $ds^2 > 0$
 627 to $ds^2 = 0$ and afterwards to $ds^2 < 0$? What energy barrier we must overseen and is it possible?
 628 Can this energy scale that is required in order to make the passages, linked to Chandrasekhar
 629 limit? This are some questions that is worth to investigate in the future, giving us the chance to
 630 enter into a black hole. The most certain fact is that through our consideration, black holes do not
 631 have an information paradox any more, because of the existence of C^4 space. The information
 632 that we think is lost, is there inside the Y space and then the geometry of C^4 must be taken
 633 literally, in order to enter and investigate the interior of a black hole. The embedding, provide us
 634 only with the information taken from our projection space and tell us what we can observe from
 635 here. The horizon of the black hole, seems to be this "geometric" barrier.

636 Now we can continue to calculate the squared Hamiltonian as :

$$H^2 = \frac{D^2 c^2}{1 - \frac{u^2}{c^2} + \frac{w^2}{c^2} - \frac{v^2}{c^2}} = D^2 c^2 \left(1 + \frac{u^2}{c^2 - u^2 + w^2 - v^2} \right) \quad (87)$$

637 or after some calculus

$$H^2 = D^2 c^2 \left(1 + \frac{u^2}{c^2 - u^2 + w^2 - v^2} - \frac{w^2}{c^2 - u^2 + w^2 - v^2} + \frac{v^2}{c^2 - u^2 + w^2 - v^2} \right) \quad (88)$$

638 while conjugate momenta are

$$p_u^2 = \frac{D^2 u^2}{c^2 - u^2 + w^2 - v^2} \quad (89)$$

$$p_w^2 = \frac{D^2 w^2}{c^2 - u^2 + w^2 - v^2} \quad (90)$$

$$p_v^2 = \frac{D^2 v^2}{c^2 - u^2 + w^2 - v^2} \quad (91)$$

639 As a result the squared Hamiltonian can be written

$$H^2 = D^2 c^2 + p_u^2 c^2 - p_w^2 c^2 + p_v^2 c^2 \quad (92)$$

640 or if the energy is conserved

$$E^2 = D^2 c^2 + p_u^2 c^2 - p_w^2 c^2 + p_v^2 c^2 \quad (93)$$

641 the first and the second terms on the right for $D = m_0 c$ are the familiar terms of the Einstein's equation
642 of energy. Moreover, we can define the 8-d vector of energy-momentum as

$$\left(p_{iu}, p_v, p_{iw}, \frac{H}{c} \right) \quad (94)$$

643 The energy equation can be written also as

$$p_u^2 + p_v^2 - p_w^2 - \frac{H^2}{c^2} = -D^2 \quad (95)$$

644 where the left side of the equation coincides with the pseudo-measure of the 8-d vector of
645 energy-momentum.

646 **Definition:** If $(A_1, B_1), (A_2, B_2)$ two 8-d vectors we define as the pseudo-internal product

$$(A_1, B_1) \bullet (A_2, B_2) = A_1 A_2 - B_1 B_2 \quad (96)$$

647 where A_1, A_2, B_1, B_2 are 4-D vectors and A_1A_2, B_1B_2 Euclidean internal products. Then the
 648 pseudo-measure of an 8-d vector is

$$(A, B)^2 = A^2 - B^2 \quad (97)$$

649 where A^2, B^2 Euclidean measures.

650 As a conclusion, the square of the 8-d vector of the 8-d momentum is constant. If we use the action S
 651 we can write

$$p_{iu} = \frac{\partial S}{\partial x^i}, \quad p_{iw} = \frac{\partial S}{\partial y^i}, \quad p_{iv} = \frac{\partial S}{\partial T}, \quad H = -\frac{\partial S}{\partial t} \quad (98)$$

652 leading to the the Hamilton-Jacobi equation

$$\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial x^i}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial T}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{\Lambda^2} \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial m^i}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{c^2} \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial t}\right)^2 + D^2 = 0 \quad (99)$$

653 if we set $y^i = \Lambda m^i$.

654 8. Angular -momentum

655 If $a = (a_i), b = (b_i)$ are two n-dimensional vectors then the exterior product $a \times b = \tau_{ij}$ is a second
 656 rank antisymmetric tensor with dimension 6. We can write this tensor as

$$\tau_{ij} = a_i b_j - a_j b_i \quad (100)$$

$$\tau_{ij} = 0 \quad (101)$$

$$\tau_{ij} = -\tau_{ji} \quad (102)$$

657 In the space $K = R^8 \equiv C^4$ or $K = R^4 + iM^4$ the vectors have the form

$$k = (\vec{r}, T, \vec{m}, t) \equiv \vec{r} + i\vec{m} + T + it = (\vec{r} + T) + i(\vec{m} + t) \quad (103)$$

658 If we keep only the "length-mass" part then we can define the total angular-momentum in K as

$$L = \vec{k} \times \vec{p}_k \quad (104)$$

659 where $\vec{p}_k = \left(p_{iu}, p_v, p_{iw}, \frac{H}{c} \right)$

660 This tensor $L = (L_{ij})$ has $\frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \frac{6 \times 5}{2} = 15$ components and can be written as a matrix

$$L_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & l_{12} & l_{13} & l_{14} & l_{15} & l_{16} \\ -l_{12} & 0 & l_{23} & l_{24} & l_{25} & l_{26} \\ -l_{13} & -l_{23} & 0 & l_{34} & l_{35} & l_{36} \\ -l_{14} & -l_{24} & -l_{34} & 0 & l_{45} & l_{46} \\ -l_{15} & -l_{25} & -l_{35} & -l_{45} & 0 & l_{56} \\ -l_{16} & -l_{26} & -l_{36} & -l_{46} & -l_{56} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

661 or

$$L_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} L_R & L_{RM} \\ -L_{RM}^T & L_M \end{pmatrix}$$

662 where L_R is our usual angular-momentum tensor in R^3 , the L_M is the angular-momentum in M^3 and
 663 the L_{RM} is the mixture between them. The L_M can be interpreted as classical spin while the mixed
 664 L_{RM} as the interaction between angular-momentum and classical spin the same way that in quantum
 665 physics we have the spin-orbit coupling.

666 9. Poincare group

667 Before constructing the Poincare group in R^8 let us recall its structure as it appears in Minkowskian
 668 R^4 space-time. It consists of translations (P), rotations (J) and boosts (K). Specifically we have

- 669 1. translations (displacements) in time and space (P) which form the Abelian Lie group of
 670 translations in spacetime
- 671 2. rotations (J) in space which form the non Abelian Lie group of three dimensional rotations
- 672 3. boosts (K) which are transformations that connect two uniformly moving bodies

673 The symmetries J, K consist the homogeneous Lorentz group, while the semi-direct product of P and
 674 the Lorentz group, form the inhomogeneous Lorentz group or just the Poincare group. The Poincare
 675 group is a ten dimensional non-compact Lie group and actually is isometric to the group of Minkowski
 676 spacetime. We can write

$$\text{Poincare group} \cong ISO(3) \cong R^{1,3} \times SO(1,3) \quad (105)$$

677 where $SO(1,3)$ is the homogeneous Lorentz group and $ISO(1,3)$ the inhomogeneous one. Moreover if
 678 we set $J_i = -\varepsilon_{imn} \frac{M^{mn}}{2}$ and $K_i = M_{i0}$

- 679 1. $[P_\mu, P_\nu] = 0$
- 680 2. $\frac{1}{i} [M_{\mu\nu}, P_\mu] = n_{\mu\rho} P_\nu - m_{\nu\rho} P_\mu$
- 681 3. $\frac{1}{i} [M_{\mu\nu}, P_{\rho\sigma}] = n_{\mu\rho} M_{\nu\sigma} - n_{\mu\sigma} M_{\nu\rho} - n_{\nu\rho} M_{\mu\sigma} + n_{\nu\sigma} M_{\mu\rho}$

682 where P is the generator of translations, M the generator of Lorentz transformations. The third
 683 relation is the homogeneous Lorentz group. Let us now form the Poincare group in the 8 dimensional

space with signature (4.4). First of all we need to set our notation. We have two different indices with small letters $i, j = 0, 1, 2, 3$ and capital letters $I, J = R, M$ indicating the space in which we refer (using R for the usual length space and M for the mass space). From the Lagrangian we can observe that we have Galilean transformations for R^4 , Galilean transformations for M^4 and Lorentzian transformations between R^4, M^4 . In the case $(3 + 1, 1 + 3) \cong (4, 4)$ from the Lagrangian we have Lorentzian transformations in R^4 , Lorentzian transformations in M^4 and Galilean ones between R^4, M^4 . We find

$$\begin{aligned} 1. & [P_I \mu, P_J \nu] = 0 \\ 2. & \frac{1}{i} [M_{I\mu\nu}, P_{J\mu}] = \delta_{IJ} (n_{I\mu\rho} P_{I\nu} - m_{J\nu\rho} P_{J\mu}) \\ 3. & \frac{1}{i} [M_{IJ\mu\nu}, P_{RS\rho\sigma}] = n_{MR\mu\rho} M_{NS\nu\sigma} - n_{MS\mu\sigma} M_{NR\nu\rho} - n_{NR\nu\rho} M_{MS\mu\sigma} + n_{NS\nu\sigma} M_{MR\mu\rho} \end{aligned}$$

where $M_{II} = M_I, M_{JJ} = M_J, P + II = P_I, P_{JJ} = P_J$ and δ_{IJ} is one for $I = J$ and zero for $I \neq J$. The flat metrics are for the cases:

$$\begin{aligned} 1. & \text{sgn}(n_{I\mu\nu}) = (1, 1, 1, -1) \text{ and } \text{sgn}(n_{J\mu\nu}) = (-1, -1, -1, 1) \\ 2. & \text{sgn}(n_{I\mu\nu}) = (1, 1, 1, 1) \text{ and } \text{sgn}(n_{J\mu\nu}) = (-1, -1, -1, -1) \end{aligned}$$

The complete structure of the Poincare group can be found in Appendix A. Furthermore, in our usual space-time the Killing's vectors of Minkowski space-time have general solution $\xi_\mu = c_\mu + b_{\mu\gamma} x^\gamma$ where $c_\mu, b_{\mu\gamma}$ are constants. The Minkowski's metric tensor has 10 unique components due to his symmetrical form. As a conclusion, it has ten linearly independent Killing vectors fields which corresponds to the 10 generators of the Poincare algebra. In the same spirit, in our case, the 8 dimensional real space, the flat metric N_{ij} is symmetric and has 36 unique components. Respectively, the 8 dimensional real space has 35 linearly independent Killing vectors which will correspond to the generators of the Poincare group, as it listed above. The Poincare group of the 8 dimensional space equipped with the metric tensor N_{ij} with signature (4, 4) is represented by 36 generators. Especially, we have 6 generators from the R^3 part, 6 generators from the M^3 part and $2 \times 2 \times 4 = 16$ generators from the $R^3 \times M^3$ (mixed components) and 8 generators determined by the dimension. The Poincare group can be written as

$$\text{Poincare group} \cong ISO(4, 4) \cong R^{4,4} \times SO(4, 4) \quad (106)$$

The group $SO(4, 4)$ has $\frac{7 \times 8}{2} = 28$ generators plus 8 generators from the $R^{4,4}$ (displacements). There is a connection of the algebra of those 36 generators of the Poincare group, to the algebra of the groups $U(6)$ (has 36 generators) or $Sp(4)$ ($n(2n + 1)$ generators, for $n = 4$ we have 36 generators). Both $U(6)$ and $Sp(4)$ are compact Lie group and it would be interesting to match the $ISO(4, 4)$ algebra to an algebra of a compact simply connected group.

10. Conclusion

We have explored the first steps of the formulation of a physical theory in C^4 . Specifically, we have found the geodesic in C^4 and symplectic R^8 . Furthermore, we have embed the usual 4-d real space-time in the symplectic R^8 , in order to compare findings. We argued that the embedded geodesic equation, can describe the problem of a charged particle in gravitational field, with the advantage that we have not added ad-hoc the field A_μ , but rather A_μ was defined naturally from the the geometry of the symplectic R^8 space-time. Masses and "charges" where presented as the causality of this embedding and include the lost information. The key of this process, is the distinction of the initial Hermitian metric tensor $G_{\mu\nu}$, into a symmetric part $g_{\mu\nu}$ and to an anti-symmetric part $I_{\mu\nu}$. Moreover, we have enough room, not only to describe the field A_μ , but W_μ and G_μ as well. Afterwards, we have explored the flat case of R^8 , in order to formulate a "special relativity" and what are the consequences and

725 interpretations of this consideration, we have formed the Hamilton-Jacobi equations, the Poincare
 726 symmetry group $ISO(4,4)$ and the angular-momentum. In the next paper [17], we will proceed with
 727 the field equations in C^4 , in the same spirit as general relativity does in the usual 4-d real space-time.
 728 This way, we will try to present a geometrical definition for the energy-momentum tensor $T_{\mu\nu}$.

729 11. Appendix A

730 The full Poincare noncovariant form for signature (1,3) are

- 731 1. $[J_m, P_n] = i\varepsilon_{mnk}P_k$
- 732 2. $[J_i, P_0] = 0$
- 733 3. $[K_i, P_k] = in_{ik}P_0$
- 734 4. $[K_i, P_0] = -iP_i$
- 735 5. $[J_m, J_n] = i\varepsilon_{mnk}J_k$
- 736 6. $[J_m, K_n] = i\varepsilon_{mnk}K_k$
- 737 7. $[K_m, K_n] = -i\varepsilon_{mnk}J_k$

738 On the other hand the Poincare group for the Galilean case in 4 dimensions are

- 739 1. $[J_m, P_n] = i\varepsilon_{mnk}P_k$
- 740 2. $[J_i, P_0] = 0$
- 741 3. $[K_i, P_k] = 0$
- 742 4. $[K_i, P_0] = iP_i$
- 743 5. $[J_m, J_n] = i\varepsilon_{mnk}J_k$
- 744 6. $[J_m, K_n] = i\varepsilon_{mnk}K_k$
- 745 7. $[K_m, K_n] = 0$

746 This way the Poincare group for (3+1,1+3) is represented

- 747 1. $[J_{Rm}, J_{Rn}] = i\varepsilon_{mnk}J_{Rk}$
- 748 2. $[J_{Rm}, K_{Rn}] = i\varepsilon_{mnk}K_{Rk}$
- 749 3. $[K_{Rm}, K_{Rn}] = -i\varepsilon_{mnk}J_{Rk}$
- 750 4. $[J_{Mm}, J_{Mn}] = i\varepsilon_{mnk}J_{Mk}$
- 751 5. $[J_{Mm}, K_{Mn}] = i\varepsilon_{mnk}K_{Mk}$
- 752 6. $[K_{Mm}, K_{Mn}] = -i\varepsilon_{mnk}J_{Mk}$
- 753 7. $[J_{Mm}, J_{Rn}] = i\varepsilon_{mnk}J_{MRk}$
- 754 8. $[J_{Rm}, K_{Mn}] = i\varepsilon_{mnk}K_{MRk}$
- 755 9. $[J_{Mm}, K_{Rn}] = i\varepsilon_{mnk}J_{MRk}$
- 756 10. $[K_{Mm}, K_{Rn}] = 0$
- 757 11. $[J_{Rm}, P_{Rn}] = i\varepsilon_{mnk}P_{Rk}$
- 758 12. $[J_{Ri}, P_{R0}] = 0$
- 759 13. $[K_{Ri}, P_{Rk}] = in_{ik}P_{R0}$
- 760 14. $[K_{Ri}, P_{R0}] = -iP_{Ri}$
- 761 15. $[J_{Mm}, P_{Mn}] = i\varepsilon_{mnk}P_{Mk}$
- 762 16. $[J_{Mi}, P_{M0}] = 0$
- 763 17. $[K_{Mi}, P_{Mk}] = in_{ik}P_{M0}$
- 764 18. $[K_{Mi}, P_{M0}] = -iP_{Mi}$

765 while for the (4,4) case:

- 766 1. $[J_{Rm}, J_{Rn}] = i\varepsilon_{mnk}J_{Rk}$
- 767 2. $[J_{Rm}, K_{Rn}] = i\varepsilon_{mnk}K_{Rk}$
- 768 3. $[K_{Rm}, K_{Rn}] = 0$
- 769 4. $[J_{Mm}, J_{Mn}] = i\varepsilon_{mnk}J_{Mk}$
- 770 5. $[J_{Mm}, K_{Mn}] = i\varepsilon_{mnk}K_{Mk}$
- 771 6. $[K_{Mm}, K_{Mn}] = 0$
- 772 7. $[J_{Mm}, J_{Rn}] = i\varepsilon_{mnk}J_{MRk}$

- 773 8. $[J_{Rm}, K_{Mn}] = i\epsilon_{mnk}K_{MRk}$
 774 9. $[J_{Mm}, K_{Rn}] = i\epsilon_{mnk}J_{MRk}$
 775 10. $[K_{Mm}, K_{Rn}] = -i\epsilon_{mnk}J_{MRk}$
 776 11. $[J_{Rm}, P_{Rn}] = i\epsilon_{mnk}P_{Rk}$
 777 12. $[J_{Ri}, P_{Ro}] = 0$
 778 13. $[K_{Ri}, P_{Rk}] = 0$
 779 14. $[K_{Ri}, P_{Ro}] = iP_{Ri}$
 780 15. $[J_{Mm}, P_{Mn}] = i\epsilon_{mnk}P_{Mk}$
 781 16. $[J_{Mi}, P_{Mo}] = 0$
 782 17. $[K_{Mi}, P_{Mk}] = 0$
 783 18. $[K_{Mi}, P_{Mo}] = iP_{Mi}$

784 12. Appendix B

785 In 1925 E.Cartan in his original paper "Le principe de dualite et la theorie des groupes simples et
 786 semi-simples" discovered that 8-d space has a unique property. Cartan's original statement [9] is:
 787 "Given an element A of SO(8) then there exist elements B and C of SO(8), unique up to sign, such that
 788 for any two Cayley numbers x and y in R^8 , $A(x)B(y) = C(xy)$ where $A(x)$ denotes the action of A on
 789 the vector x and $A(x)B(y)$ denotes the product of the Cayley numbers $A(x)$, $B(y)$. The passage from
 790 A to B is induced by an explicit outer automorphism of order 3 of the Lie algebra so(8) of SO(8) and
 791 the passage from A to C is induced by an explicit outer automorphism of order 2 of so(8). These outer
 792 automorphisms leave fixed each element of the Lie subalgebra \mathfrak{g}_2 of the exceptional Lie group G_2 of all
 793 automorphism of the Cayley algebra."

794 But the automorphisms of the Lie algebra so(8) (which is the first algebra of the series D_4, D_5, \dots) lifts to
 795 an automorphism of the Lie group Spin(8) which is the universal cover of SO(8). The fixed point of
 796 that automorphism is the exceptional group G_2 . The definition of Spin(n) group is:

797 *Definition:* The group Spin(n) is

$$798 \quad Spin(Q) = \{s \in CL(Q)_O : ss^* = 1, sVs^* \subseteq V\}$$

799 where V is a vector space and CL(Q) the Clifford geometric algebra of Q. Thus Cartan's statement can
 800 be generalised as it is presented in [9]:

801 "From the theory of Clifford algebras one obtains two non equivalent real spin representations,
 802 $\Delta_i : Spin(8k) \longrightarrow SO(2^{4k-1})$, $I = 1, 2$ for $K \geq 1$. The vector representation is by definition the
 803 universal covering homomorphism $\Delta_0 : Spin(8k) \longrightarrow SO(8k)$ determined up to an homomorphism
 804 of $SO(8k)$. The center of Spin(8) is $Z_2 \oplus Z_2$ which has three elements of order two $\omega_0, \omega_1, \omega_2$ such
 805 that ω_i generates the kernel of Δ_i for $i = 0, 1, 2$. Any automorphism of Spin(8k) that is induced by an
 806 outer automorphism of SO(8k) fixes Δ_0 and interchanges Δ_1 and Δ_2 . If $k = 1$ then each Δ_i maps Spin(8)
 807 onto SO(8) hence each Δ_i may be viewed as a covering homomorphism. Furthermore, the group of
 808 homomorphisms of Spin(8) modulo the subgroup of inner automorphisms is isomorphic to S_3 , the
 809 permutation group of 0, 1, 2 and permutes the Δ_i as can be seen from the Dynkin diagram of SO(8). In
 810 this case, for each permutation ijk of 0, 1, 2 there is an embedding

$$811 \quad Spin(8) \longmapsto SO(8) \times SO(8) \times SO(8)$$

812 defined by the correspondence $\xi \mapsto (\Delta_i(\xi), \Delta_j(\xi), \Delta_k(\xi))$, $\xi \in Spin(8)$. This statement is essentially
 813 the principle of triality". The proofs were presented in [10].

814 It is time to see what kind of "structures" have have this triality property. We can find two different
 815 uses of triality [1,3].

- 816 1. We have a triality property between (4, 4), (8, 0), (0, 8) signatures that we will call signature's
 817 triality, which is a S_3 symmetry (every two of the signatures automatically concludes the other)
 818 and has a symmetrical Dykin diagram D_4 . So from the signature's triality the three signatures
 819 (4, 4), (8, 0), (0, 8) are all correlated and equivalent, which means that the three ones can be

"unified" and can be seen as one. This is the most extraordinary and useful fact in order to find an independent signature framework to work. The $(8,0)$, $(0,8)$ signatures provide us a pure octonionic structure while the $(4,4)$ a real one. We have to mention that only those three signatures share the triality property.

2. We have a triality property between vector and spinor spaces that we will call internal triality. Let us consider a vector space V , S^+ chiral spinor space and S^- antichiral spinor space, then we have the internal triality which unifies V, S^+, S^- to one form giving us the ability to define representations from one space to another; every two of them automatically concludes the other (S_3 symmetry and a D_4 Lie algebra with a Dynkin diagram D_4). Each one of V, S^+, S^- is invariant under $SO(8)$ and the unified form under $Spin(8)$. Of course V is 8 dimensional space. Specifically if we define $(V, g), (S^+, s^+), (S^-, s^-)$ vector space and spinor spaces respectively, where g is the metric tensor and s^+, s^- analogous tensors (charge conjugate matrices) in order to lower-raise spinor indices we can define a trilinear form which is the unification of those three spaces. This is why the principle of triality is used in M-theory, due to the ability to unify bosonic-fermionic structures (more details see in [1,2]). In the context of classical dynamics considered here, this interpretation of triality is not used. However, it is relevant for the study of quantum mechanical behaviour.

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