

Spades – A New Way To Represent Geometric Sets

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Abstract. Abstract...

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1. Introduction And Motivation

Traditionally, *blades* are used, in places such as the conformal model, to represent geometric sets in geometric algebra.¹ Doing so, the meet and join operations become the principle means by which geometries are combined or intersected to form new geometries. In this paper we show that *spades* may also be used to represent geometric sets; and in so doing, the geometric product becomes the principle means by which geometries are combined or intersected to form new geometries.

Of course, the term “spade” requires some explanation. See Table 1 below.

TABLE 1. A few terms used in GA	
Term	Definition
Blade	An outer product of zero or more linearly-independent vectors.
Versor	A geometric product of zero or more <i>invertible</i> vectors, not necessarily forming a linearly-independent set.
Spade	A geometric product of zero or more vectors, not necessarily forming a linearly-independent set.
Null Versor	A geometric product of one or more vectors where at least one of them is null.

¹A formal treatment of geometric sets in an abstract setting is given in [1]. Geometric sets are a generalization of algebraic sets.

From these definitions it is clear that every versor is a spade, but not every spade is a versor. The definition of a versor, which can be found in [2, p. 90], is well established and engrained in the literature just as it is written in Table 1. Not requiring that each vector in the factorization of a spade be invertible, this justifies the new term.

2. Geometric Sets

We must begin with a review of geometric sets. Given an n -dimensional space \mathbb{F}^n , we let $p : \mathbb{F}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{V}$ be a non-zero, vector-valued function mapping points in \mathbb{F}^n to vectors in a vector space \mathbb{V} generating our geometric algebra \mathbb{G} . With this in hand, we are ready for the following definition.

Definition 2.1 (Geometric Set). A subset S of \mathbb{F}^n is a *geometric set* if and only if there exists a set of r vectors $\{v_i\}_{i=1}^r \subset \mathbb{V}$, such that

$$S = \{x \in \mathbb{F}^n | p(x) \cdot v_i \text{ for all } i \in [1, r]\} = \bigcap_{i=1}^r \{x \in \mathbb{F}^n | p(x) \cdot v_i = 0\}. \quad (2.1)$$

The integer r may be finite or infinite.

If each expression $p(x) \cdot v_i$ is a polynomial in the components of x , then it is easy to see that, in this case, geometric sets are algebraic.

Note that it should be immediately clear from Definition 2.1 that the intersection of any two geometric sets is geometric.

Lemma 2.2. *If $\{E_i\}_{i=1}^r$ is any linearly independent set of elements taken from \mathbb{G} , then the set of all solutions in \mathbb{F}^n to the equation*

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^r (p(x) \cdot v_i) E_i \quad (2.2)$$

is a geometric set.

Proof. Being a linearly independent set of elements, the only linear combination of these elements that vanishes is the trivial linear combination. It follows that for each integer $i \in [1, r]$, we must have $p(x) \cdot v_i = 0$. \square

Lemma 2.3. *If $\{E_i\}_{i=1}^r$ is any sequence of elements taken from \mathbb{G} , then the set of all solutions in \mathbb{F}^n to equation (2.2) is a geometric set.*

Proof. If $\{E_i\}_{i=1}^r$ is a linearly independent set, then we're done by Lemma 2.2. Supposing to the contrary, and without loss of generality, we can let s be an integer with $1 \leq s < r$ such that $\{E_i\}_{i=1}^s$ is a linearly independent set, and

$$\text{span}\{E_i\}_{i=1}^r = \text{span}\{E_i\}_{i=1}^s.$$

Now for each integer $i \in [s+1, r]$, write E_i as a linear combination of the elements in $\{E_i\}_{i=1}^s$ as

$$E_i = \sum_{j=1}^s \alpha_{i,j} E_j.$$

Having done so, we see now that equation (2.3) becomes

$$\begin{aligned}
 0 &= \sum_{i=1}^r (p(x) \cdot v_i) E_i \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^s (p(x) \cdot v_i) E_i + \sum_{i=s+1}^r (p(x) \cdot v_i) \sum_{j=1}^s \alpha_{i,j} E_j \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^s \left[p(x) \cdot v_i - \sum_{j=s+1}^r \alpha_{j,i} (p(x) \cdot v_j) \right] E_i \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^s \left[p(x) \cdot \left(v_i - \sum_{j=s+1}^r \alpha_{j,i} v_j \right) \right] E_i.
 \end{aligned}$$

We see now that the set of all solutions to equation (2.3) is given by

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^s \left\{ x \in \mathbb{F}^n \left| p(x) \cdot \left(v_i - \sum_{j=s+1}^r \alpha_{j,i} v_j \right) = 0 \right. \right\},$$

which is clearly a geometric set by Definition 2.1. \square

Lemma 2.4. *If $\{E_i\}_{i=1}^r$ is any set of r elements taken from our geometric algebra \mathbb{G} , then the set A of all solutions in each α_i to the equation*

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^r \alpha_i E_i$$

is given by

$$A = \bigcap_{k=1}^r A_k,$$

where each A_k is the set of all solutions in each α_i to equation $k \in [0, \dim(\mathbb{V})]$, given by

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^r \alpha_i \langle E_i \rangle_k.$$

Proof. Show it. \square

3. Preliminary Material

Before we can show how blades and spades can represent geometric sets, we need to lay some ground work with the following definitions, lemmas, and identities.

Though already given in Table 1, the term spade deserves its own formal definition as follows.

Definition 3.1 (Spade). An element $M_r \in \mathbb{G}$ is called a *spade* if and only if there exists a set of r vectors $\{m_i\}_{i=1}^r$ such that it may be written as

$$M_r = \prod_{i=1}^r m_i. \quad (3.1)$$

It is easy to show that spades, like blades, do not have unique factorizations. Unlike blades, however, the size of a spade's factorization can vary. This leads us to the following definition.

Definition 3.2 (Spade Rank). Given any spade $M_r \in \mathbb{G}$, the rank of the spade M_r , denoted $\text{rank}(M_r)$, is the smallest integer $s \in [0, r]$ such that M_r may be rewritten as a geometric product of s vectors.

It is clear that if $\{m_i\}_{i=1}^r$ is a linearly independent set of vectors, then $\text{rank}(M_r) = r$. The converse of this statement, however, is not so easily proven (or disproven) and of such considerable importance to the theory of spades in geometric algebra, that, if proven, would be elevated to the level of theorem. For now, however, the following lemma is offered.

Lemma 3.3. *For any given invertible spade $M_r \in \mathbb{G}$, if there exist integers $1 \leq i < j \leq r$ such that $m_i = m_j$, and m_i is invertible, then $\text{rank}(M_r) < r$.*

Proof. This is trivial in the case that $j = i + 1$. In the case that $j = i + 2$, simply notice that

$$m_i m_{i+1} m_j = m_i m_{i+1} m_i = 2(m_i \cdot m_{i+1}) m_i - m_i^2 m_{i+1}.$$

In the case that $j > i + 2$, we see that

$$m_i \left(\prod_{k=i+1}^{j-1} m_k \right) m_j = m_i^2 \prod_{k=i+1}^{j-1} m_i m_k m_i^{-1}.$$

□

For completeness, we now give a formal definition of a blade.

Definition 3.4 (Blade). An element $B_r \in \mathbb{G}$ is called an *r-blade* if and only if there exists a linearly independent set of r vectors $\{b_i\}_{i=1}^r$ such that

$$B_r = \bigwedge_{i=1}^r b_i. \quad (3.2)$$

Lemma 3.5. *Letting $B_r^{(i)}$ denote the $(r - 1)$ -blade*

$$B_r^{(i)} = \bigwedge_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^r b_j,$$

the set of r blades $\{B_r^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^r$ is linearly independent.

Proof. Supposing to the contrary, and without loss of generality, let

$$B_{r-1} = B_r^{(r)} = \sum_{i=1}^{r-1} \alpha_i B_r^{(i)} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{r-1} \alpha_i B_{r-1}^{(i)} \right) \wedge b_r.$$

Now notice that

$$0 \neq B_r = B_{r-1} \wedge b_r = B_r^{(r)} \wedge b_r = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{r-1} \alpha_i B_r^{(i)} \right) \wedge b_r = 0,$$

which is clearly a contradiction. \square

We will need a result similar to Lemma 3.5 as concerning spades. It is as follows.

Lemma 3.6. *Letting $M_r^{(i)}$ denote the spade*

$$M_r^{(i)} = \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^r m_j,$$

if $0 \neq \bigwedge_{i=1}^r m_i$, then the set $\{M_r^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^r$ is a linearly independent set.

Proof. By Lemma 2.4, it suffices to show that the set $\{\langle M_r^{(i)} \rangle_{r-1}\}_{i=1}^r$ is a linearly independent set. Now since $0 \neq \bigwedge_{i=1}^r m_i$, it is clear that

$$\langle M_r^{(i)} \rangle_{r-1} = \bigwedge_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^r m_j.$$

Seeing this, the linear independence of the set $\{\langle M_r^{(i)} \rangle_{r-1}\}_{i=1}^r$ follows immediately from Lemma 3.5. \square

We turn now to the establishment of some identities that will be important to our cause.

3.1. Identities Involving Blades

Letting a denote a vector, and B_r a blade of grade r having the factorization given in equation (3.2), recall that

$$aB_r = a \cdot B_r + a \wedge B_r. \quad (3.3)$$

Recalling also the commutativities of a with B_r in the inner and outer products as

$$a \cdot B_r = -(-1)^r B_r \cdot a, \quad (3.4)$$

$$a \wedge B_r = (-1)^r B_r \wedge a, \quad (3.5)$$

we find that

$$\begin{aligned}
 a \cdot B_r &= \frac{1}{2}a \cdot B_r - \frac{1}{2}(-1)^r B_r \cdot a \\
 &= \frac{1}{2}(aB_r - a \wedge B_r - (-1)^r(B_r a - B_r \wedge a)) \\
 &= \frac{1}{2}(aB_r - (-1)^r B_r a),
 \end{aligned} \tag{3.6}$$

and that

$$\begin{aligned}
 a \wedge B_r &= \frac{1}{2}a \wedge B_r + \frac{1}{2}(-1)^r B_r \wedge a \\
 &= \frac{1}{2}(aB_r - a \cdot B_r + (-1)^r(B_r a - B_r \cdot a)) \\
 &= \frac{1}{2}(aB_r + (-1)^r B_r a).
 \end{aligned} \tag{3.7}$$

Now letting a and b each denote a vector, it is not hard to show that for all $r \geq 1$, we have

$$a \cdot (b \wedge B_r) + b \wedge (a \cdot B_r) = (a \cdot b)B_r. \tag{3.8}$$

To that end, we apply equations (3.6) and (3.7) in writing

$$\begin{aligned}
 a \cdot (b \wedge B_r) &= \frac{1}{2} \left(a \frac{1}{2} (bB_r + (-1)^r B_r b) - (-1)^{r+1} \frac{1}{2} (bB_r + (-1)^r B_r b) a \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{4} (baB_r + (-1)^r aB_r b + (-1)^r bB_r a + B_r ba), \\
 b \wedge (a \cdot B_r) &= \frac{1}{2} \left(b \frac{1}{2} (aB_r - (-1)^r B_r a) + (-1)^{r-1} \frac{1}{2} (aB_r - (-1)^r B_r a) b \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{4} (baB_r - (-1)^r bB_r a - (-1)^r aB_r b + B_r ab),
 \end{aligned}$$

from which it is easy to see that

$$\begin{aligned}
 a \cdot (b \wedge B_r) + b \wedge (a \cdot B_r) &= \frac{1}{4}(ab + ba)B_r + \frac{1}{4}B_r(ba + ab) \\
 &= \frac{1}{2}(a \cdot b)B_r + \frac{1}{2}B_r(b \cdot a) = (a \cdot b)B_r.
 \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, we must note that for all $r > 1$, we have

$$a \cdot (b \cdot B_r) = -b \cdot (a \cdot B_r). \tag{3.9}$$

To see this, we apply equation (3.6) in writing

$$\begin{aligned}
 a \cdot (b \cdot B_r) &= \frac{1}{2} \left(a \frac{1}{2} (bB_r - (-1)^r B_r b) - (-1)^{r-1} \frac{1}{2} (bB_r - (-1)^r B_r b) a \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{4} (abB_r - (-1)^r aB_r b + (-1)^r bB_r a - B_r ba),
 \end{aligned}$$

Then, by substitution, we can immediately write

$$b \cdot (a \cdot B_r) = \frac{1}{4} (baB_r - (-1)^r bB_r a + (-1)^r aB_r b - B_r ab).$$

Adding these, we then see that

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot (b \cdot B) + b \cdot (a \cdot B) &= \frac{1}{4} (abB_r + baB_r) - \frac{1}{4} (B_rba + B_rab) \\ &= \frac{1}{4} (ab + ba) B_r - \frac{1}{4} B_r (ba + ab) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (a \cdot b) B_r - \frac{1}{2} B_r (b \cdot a) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Note that we may have arrived at this conclusion sooner had we written

$$a \cdot (b \cdot B_r) = (a \wedge b) \cdot B_r = -(b \wedge a) \cdot B_r = -b \cdot (a \cdot B_r).$$

We now wish to express the inner product $a \cdot B_r$ as a sum of blades. Since the case $r = 1$ is trivial, we begin by writing, for all $r > 1$,

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot B_r &= a \cdot (B_{r-1} \wedge b_r) \\ &= (-1)^{r-1} a \cdot (b_r \wedge B_{r-1}) \end{aligned} \tag{3.10}$$

$$= -(-1)^r (-b_r \wedge (a \cdot B_{r-1}) + (a \cdot b_r) B_{r-1}) \tag{3.11}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= -(-1)^r (-(-1)^r (a \cdot B_{r-1}) \wedge b_r + (a \cdot b_r) B_{r-1}) \\ &= (a \cdot B_{r-1}) \wedge b_r - (-1)^r (a \cdot b_r) B_{r-1}. \end{aligned} \tag{3.12}$$

Here, we've gone from equation (3.10) to that of (3.11) by applying the identity given in equation (3.8).

Applied recursively, it is easy to see here from equation (3.12) that an expansion of $a \cdot B_r$ as a sum of blades is given by

$$a \cdot B_r = \langle B_r \rangle_0 a - \sum_{i=1}^r (-1)^i (a \cdot b_i) \bigwedge_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^r b_j. \tag{3.13}$$

One might also simply use equation (3.12) to give an inductive argument of equation (3.13).

Notice that for all $r > 0$, the term $\langle B_r \rangle_0 a$ vanishes in equation (3.13), yet its presence allows us the case $r = 0$ if we define the summation to be zero in the vacuous case.

Having established equation (3.13), it is instructive to show that $a \cdot B_r$ is, although it is certainly not immediately obvious, a blade of grade $r - 1$. To that end, we write, for all $r > 1$,

$$a \cdot B_r = (a \cdot B_{r-1}) \wedge \left(b_r - \frac{a \cdot b_r}{a \cdot b_{r-1}} b_{r-1} \right),$$

with the understanding that if $a \cdot b_{r-1}$ is zero, we can anti-commute vector factors in equation (3.13) until this is the case, or else $a \cdot B_r$ is zero anyway. An inductive argument can now be easily made that $a \cdot B_r$ is indeed a blade of grade $r - 1$. Notice that this proof works in any geometric algebra, regardless of the associated bilinear form. In a euclidean geometric algebra, an easier proof is had by writing

$$a \cdot B_r = (a_{\perp} + a_{\parallel}) \cdot B_r = a_{\parallel} \cdot B_r,$$

where a_\perp is the orthogonal rejection a from B_r , while a_\parallel is the orthogonal projection of a down onto B_r . The blade B_r can now be orthogonalized, with a_\parallel as a principle factor, using the Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process.² This factor then falls out quite easily, and we're left with a blade of grade $r - 1$.

3.2. Identities Involving Spades

Letting M_r denote a spade having the factorization given in equation (3.1), recall that

$$M_r = \sum_{i=1}^r \langle M_r \rangle_i,$$

To be more precise, if r is even,

$$M_r = \sum_{i=0}^{r/2} \langle M_r \rangle_{2i}, \quad (3.14)$$

while if r is odd, we have

$$M_r = \sum_{i=1}^{(r+1)/2} \langle M_r \rangle_{2i-1}. \quad (3.15)$$

To see this, consider first the trivial case of $r = 0$; then, for any $r > 0$, the equation

$$M_r = M_{r-1}m_r = \langle M_{r-1} \rangle_1^r \cdot m_r + \langle M_{r-1} \rangle_1^r \wedge m_r + \langle M_{r-1} \rangle_0 m_r. \quad (3.16)$$

Here we have extended our notation $\langle \cdot \rangle_i^j$ to mean a culling of all enclosed blades not of a grade falling in the interval $[i, j]$. Put another way, we have

$$\langle M_r \rangle_i^j = \sum_{k=i}^j \langle M_r \rangle_k.$$

An inductive hypothesis can now be stated that equations (3.14) and (3.15) hold for $r - 1$. If r is even, then, by our inductive hypothesis, M_{r-1} , when expanded as a sum of blades, consists only of blades of odd grade, and it is clear that equation (3.16) becomes (3.14). If r is odd, then, by our inductive hypothesis, M_{r-1} , when expanded as a sum of blades, consists only of blades of even grade, and it is clear that equation (3.16) becomes (3.15).

Now let a be a vector, and convince yourself that

$$a \cdot M_r = -(-1)^r M_r \cdot a, \quad (3.17)$$

$$a \wedge M_r = (-1)^r M_r \wedge a. \quad (3.18)$$

Refer to equations (3.4) and (3.5) to see this.

²This process cannot always be performed on blades taken from a non-euclidean geometric algebra. To see this, consider rewriting $a \wedge b$ as $a \wedge (b + \lambda a)$ where $a \cdot (b + \lambda a) = 0$. In a non-euclidean geometric algebra, no such scalar λ may exist due to a being null. For a description of the Gram-Schmidt process, see []. An alternative for blades can be found in [5, p. 88].

We now turn our attention to the following identity.

$$\langle M_r \rangle_0 = \langle M_{r-1} \rangle_1 \cdot m_r \quad (3.19)$$

Note that this is trivial in the case that r is odd, since neither M_r nor M_{r-1} have parts of grade zero nor one, respectively. Letting r be even, we write

$$M_r = M_{r-1}m_r = M_{r-1} \cdot m_r + M_{r-1} \wedge m_r - \langle M_r \rangle_0 m_r.$$

Now taking the grade zero part of both sides, we get

$$\langle M_r \rangle_0 = \langle M_{r-1} \cdot m_r \rangle_0 = \langle M_{r-1} \rangle_1 \cdot m_r.$$

We now wish to express the inner product $a \cdot M_r$ as a sum of spades. Since the case $r = 1$ is trivial, we begin by writing, for all $r > 1$,

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot M_r &= a \cdot (M_{r-1}m_r) \\ &= a \cdot ((\langle M_{r-1} \rangle_0 + \langle M_{r-1} \rangle_1 + \langle M_{r-1} \rangle_2^r)m_r) \\ &= \langle M_{r-1} \rangle_0 a \cdot m_r + (\langle M_{r-1} \rangle_1 \cdot m_r)a \\ &\quad + (a \cdot \langle M_{r-1} \rangle_1)m_r - (a \cdot m_r)\langle M_{r-1} \rangle_1 + a \cdot (\langle M_{r-1} \rangle_2^r m_r). \end{aligned} \quad (3.20)$$

We will return to this equation momentarily. Until then, to ease notation, let us write $M = \langle M_{r-1} \rangle_2^r$ and see that

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot (Mm_r) &= a \cdot (M \cdot m_r + M \wedge m_r) \\ &= -(-1)^{r-1}a \cdot (m_r \cdot M) + (-1)^{r-1}a \cdot (m_r \wedge M) \end{aligned} \quad (3.21)$$

$$= (-1)^r m_r \cdot (a \cdot M) - (-1)^r [-m_r \wedge (a \cdot M) + (a \cdot m_r)M] \quad (3.22)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= (a \cdot M) \cdot m_r + (a \cdot M) \wedge m_r - (-1)^r (a \cdot m_r)M \\ &= (a \cdot M)m_r - (-1)^r (a \cdot m_r)M. \end{aligned} \quad (3.23)$$

Note here our use of equations (3.9) and (3.8) to arrive at equation (3.22) from (3.21).

Returning now to equation (3.20), if we plug equation (3.23) into it under the assumption that r is odd, we get

$$a \cdot M_r = (a \cdot M_{r-1})m_r + (a \cdot m_r)M_{r-1} - \langle M_{r-1} \rangle_0 am_r. \quad (3.24)$$

And if we plug equation (3.23) into equation (3.20) under the assumption that r is even, we get

$$a \cdot M_r = (a \cdot M_{r-1})m_r - (a \cdot m_r)M_{r-1} + (\langle M_{r-1} \rangle_1 \cdot m_r)a. \quad (3.25)$$

It then follows, despite the parity of r , that

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot M_r &= (a \cdot M_{r-1})m_r - (-1)^r (a \cdot m_r)M_{r-1} \\ &\quad - \langle M_{r-1} \rangle_0 am_r + \langle M_r \rangle_0 a. \end{aligned} \quad (3.26)$$

Note the use of equation (3.19) here in our arrival at equation (3.26).

Applied recursively, it is now easy to see from equation (3.26) that an expansion of $a \cdot M_r$ as a sum of spades is given by

$$a \cdot M_r = \langle M_r \rangle_0 a - \sum_{i=1}^r (-1)^i (a \cdot m_i) \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^r m_j. \quad (3.27)$$

To see this, consider an inductive argument. The cases $r = 0$ and $r = 1$ follow trivially by inspection. Now make the inductive hypothesis that equation (3.27) holds for a fixed case $r - 1$. Then, applying the recursive formula (3.26) to the equation in (3.27), adjusted for the case $a \cdot M_{r-1}$, we get equation (3.27), thereby completing our proof by induction.

It is very interesting now to compare this equation (3.27) with that of (3.13). One equation is had by the other by a replacement of all outer products with geometric products, or vice-versa.

Having shown that $a \cdot B_r$ was a blade of grade $r - 1$, we must consider here whether $a \cdot M_r$ can be written as a product of $r - 1$ vectors. With that in mind, we write

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot M_r - \langle M_r \rangle_0 a &= \sum_{i=1}^r \alpha_i M_r^{(i)} \\ &= \left[\sum_{i=1}^{r-1} \alpha_i M_{r-1}^{(i)} \right] \left(m_r + \alpha_r \left[\sum_{i=1}^{r-1} \alpha_i M_{r-1}^{(i)} \right]^{-1} M_{r-1} \right), \end{aligned} \quad (3.28)$$

where $\alpha_i = -(-1)^i (a \cdot m_i)$. Now, if an inverse of $a \cdot M_{r-1} - \langle M_{r-1} \rangle_0 a$ does exist, then it is probably of the form

$$\left[\sum_{i=1}^{r-1} \alpha_i M_{r-1}^{(i)} \right]^{-1} = \sum_{i=1}^{r-1} \beta_i \left(M_{r-1}^{(i)} \right)^{\sim}.$$

Assuming a solution to this equation in each β_i exists, we can go on to write

$$\sum_{i=1}^{r-1} \beta_i \left(M_{r-1}^{(i)} \right)^{\sim} M_{r-1} = \sum_{i=1}^{r-1} \beta_i \left(\prod_{j=1}^{i-1} m_j^2 \right) \tilde{V}_{i+1} m_i V_{i+1},$$

where V_i is given by

$$V_i = \sum_{j=i}^{r-1} m_j.$$

Looking back at equation (3.28), we can see now how a vector could be factored out of $a \cdot M_r - \langle M_r \rangle_0 a$ in terms of the geometric product.

4. Blades And Spades As Representatives Of Geometric Sets

At last we have now enough ground covered to begin a treatment of geometric set representation by blades and spades. We start by showing that any element E of \mathbb{G} is representative of a geometric set as follows.

Definition 4.1. Letting the function $\dot{g} : \mathbb{G} \rightarrow P(\mathbb{F}^n)$ be defined as

$$\dot{g}(E) = \{x \in \mathbb{F}^n | p(x) \cdot E = \langle E \rangle_0 p(x)\},$$

we call $\dot{g}(E)$ the geometric set represented by E .

Lemma 4.2. *For any element $E \in \mathbb{G}$, the set $\dot{g}(E)$ is a geometric set.*

Proof. If it can be shown, for every integer $k \in [0, \dim(\mathbb{V})]$, that $\dot{g}(\langle E \rangle_k)$ is a geometric set, then $\dot{g}(E)$ is a geometric set by Lemma 2.4. (Recall that the intersection of any two geometric sets is geometric.)

The case $k = 0$ is trivial. Letting $k > 0$, it is clear by equation (3.13) that

$$0 = p(x) \cdot \langle E \rangle_k = \sum_i (p(x) \cdot v_i) V_i,$$

where each V_i is a blade of grade $k - 1$. We now see that the set of all solutions x to this equation gives us a geometric set by Lemma 2.3. \square

Lemma 4.3. *Setup p . Then, for every algebraic set S , there exists a blade $B_r \in \mathbb{G}$ representative of it.*

Proof. By the Hilbert Basis Theorem (see [3, p. 204]), there exists a finite set of r vectors $\{v_i\}_{i=1}^r \subset \mathbb{V}$ such that S is given by equation (2.1). It's now trivial to show that this can be reduced to any linearly independent set that spans this set of vectors. Now form that blade. \square

Lemma 4.4. *If B_r is an r -blade and M_r is a spade with $\langle M_r \rangle_r = \lambda B_r$, then we have*

$$\dot{g}(B_r) = \dot{g}(M_r).$$

This is dumb. Spades are dumb. Why do we even care?

So any multivector represents a geometric set. Do blades represent a strict subset of all geometric sets? Do spades? Are the set of all geometric sets represented by blades the same as spades?

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